Microgravity Isolation System Design: A Case Study

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Abstract

Many acceleration-sensitive, microgravity science experiments will require active vibration isolation from manned orbiters on which they will be mounted. The isolation problem, especially in the case of a tethered payload, is a complex three-dimensional one that is best suited to modern-control design methods. In this paper, extended H$_2$ synthesis is used to design an active isolator (i.e., controller) for a realistic single-input-multiple-output (SIMO) microgravity vibration isolation problem. Complex $\mu$-analysis methods are used to analyze the isolation system with respect to sensor, actuator, and umbilical uncertainties. The paper fully discusses the design process employed and the insights gained. This design case study provides a practical approach for isolation problems of greater complexity. Issues addressed include a physically intuitive state-space description of the system, disturbance- and noise filters, filters for frequency weighting, and uncertainty models. The controlled system satisfies all the performance specifications and is robust with respect to model uncertainties.

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Introduction

The microgravity vibration isolation problem has received considerable attention in recent years. It is anticipated that a number of materials processes and fluid physics science experiments, planned for study in a "weightless" space environment, will experience unacceptably high background acceleration levels if not isolated [1]. The low-frequency disturbances of greatest concern are a natural accompaniment of space-flight with large, flexible, unloaded structures and random, human-induced excitations. Passive isolation alone is incapable of providing the necessary isolation. The combined need, with many experiments, for human interaction and for umbilicals connecting orbiter with payload, has resulted in a very difficult, three-dimensional, active-isolation design problem [1].

An earlier paper by the authors introduced an extended $H_2$-synthesis framework, along with an associated general design philosophy, for developing a robust microgravity vibration-isolation controller [2]. A subsequent paper provided an analysis framework and philosophy for evaluating a given isolation controller candidate, with emphasis on the effective use of $\mu$-analysis methods [3]. In the present work, extended $H_2$-synthesis- and $\mu$-analysis methods are applied to a realistic single-input-multiple-output (SIMO) microgravity vibration isolation problem. The design process and results provide engineering insights useful in developing the designer's intuition for isolation problems of greater complexity.

Problem Statement

System Model

A one-dimensional isolation problem was chosen for study (see Fig. 1). The design objective was to develop a feedback controller for isolating a tethered experiment mass ("payload") against low-frequency milli-g (stochastic) disturbances, without exceeding rattlespace constraints. The plant (i.e., tether plus payload) is subject to both direct and indirect disturbances. The direct disturbances are those which act directly upon the payload; for example, these could be caused by air currents, astronaut contact, the flow of fluids for lubrication or cooling, or rotating
machinery mounted on the experiment platform. The indirect disturbances act upon the payload through the umbilical, and are caused by the vibratory motion of the experiment rack. This rack (or, equivalently, the orbiter, to which it is hard-mounted) has inertial position $d(t)$, and the payload has inertial position $x(t)$. Massless umbilicals, characterized by a stiffness $k$ and a damping $c$, connect the orbiter and the payload. A Lorentz actuator exerts a control force proportional to the applied control current, with proportionality constant $\alpha$. Typical parameter values are assumed: mass = 75 lbm, stiffness = 1.544 lbf/ft, damping = 0.01138 lbf-sec/ft ($\zeta = 0.3\%$), and $\alpha = 2$ lbf/Amp.

**Design Specifications**

The final feedback controller should satisfy the following:

1. The payload should track perfectly the DC motion of the spacecraft, where almost no relative motion can be tolerated due to rattle-space constraints.

2. Below 0.001 Hz the payload vibration $x(t)$ should track the orbiter vibration $d(t)$ to within 10 percent, again, to prevent collision of the payload with the walls of the experiment rack surrounding it.

3. Above 0.1 Hz the payload acceleration $\ddot{x}(t)$ should be 40 dB below the spacecraft acceleration $\ddot{d}(t)$, to provide adequate vibration isolation.

4. The loop gain of the system (plant and controller) should be less than 0.1 above 200 Hz, to avoid controller excitation of unmodeled modes at higher frequencies, where the system model is less accurate.

5. The system should remain stable and exhibit good performance for anticipated inaccuracies in the system model. (Note: This is somewhat vague to be a "specification" in the strict sense of the term; it is more precisely a guideline for use as a point of comparison among competing controller candidates.)
Controller Design

Choice of States

The plant, shown below in Fig. 1, can be modelled mathematically via a state-space description. A certain freedom exists in choosing the states used in such a model. The authors made the state choices so as to provide the greatest intuition into the physics of the design problem and the requirements posed by the design specifications.

Since the overriding design objective was to reduce the acceleration of the payload (i.e., \( \ddot{x} \)), and since the H₂ problem is most fundamentally a weighted state-minimization problem, payload acceleration was an obvious state choice. With this selection, a heavier weighting of \( \ddot{x} \) in the cost functional signals the H₂ "machinery" to attempt to increase effective system mass, a concept very familiar and physically intuitive to vibration engineers. Acceleration has the further advantage of being easily measurable in space.

A second logical choice of state, for space applications, is the payload relative position (\( x - d \)), a quantity which like \( \ddot{x} \) is readily measurable. A heavier weighting of \( x - d \) in the cost functional signals the H₂ machinery to attempt to increase effective umbilical stiffness. Consequently this second state choice, like the first, lends a great deal of physical intuition to the design problem. A further advantage is that specifications 1 and 2 can be expressed easily in terms of this state.

To complete the state-space description, the payload relative velocity (\( \dot{x} - \dot{d} \)) must also be included. This final state choice conveniently allows the design engineer to weight effective umbilical damping.

With these three state choices the frequency-weighting capabilities of H₂ synthesis also become relatively intuitive tools. For example, a heavier weighting of \( x - d \) at low frequencies signals the H₂ machinery to bias its "efforts" toward a control that causes payload tracking of the orbiter in the low-frequency range, where rattlespace constraints would be most limiting.

Using these three states, the system of Fig. 1 can be written in state-space form as follows. The differential equation of motion for the system is
\[ m\ddot{x} = -k(x - d) - c(\dot{x} - \dot{d}) - \alpha u + f_i \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where \( f_i \) is a direct disturbance acting on mass \( m \). Let capital letters indicate the Laplace transforms of the corresponding time-domain variables. Then using the definitions

\[ x_i := x - d \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

\[ x_2 := \dot{x} - \dot{d} \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

\[ f := \frac{f_i}{m} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

one can rewrite Eq. (1) as a state-space model:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\dot{x}_1 \\
\dot{x}_2 \\
\dot{x}_3
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
-\frac{k}{m} & -\frac{c}{m} & 0 \\
-\frac{\omega_h k}{m} & -\frac{\omega_h c}{m} & -\omega_h
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
x_1 \\
x_2 \\
x_3
\end{bmatrix} +
\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
\frac{-\alpha}{m} \\
\frac{-\omega_h \alpha}{m}
\end{bmatrix} u +
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 \\
-1 & 1 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
d \\
f
\end{bmatrix}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (5)

\[ y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \]  \hspace{1cm} (6)

The dynamics of Eq. (1) are contained in the first two rows of Eq. (5). The state \( x_3 \) has been added so that the model will contain a state that acts like payload acceleration. For low frequencies (relative to the pseudo-state filter frequency \( \omega_h \)), the \( x_3 \) signal is equivalent to payload acceleration. Thus, the transfer functions of interest for vibration isolation are \( \frac{X_3}{s^2D} \) (that between orbiter acceleration and payload acceleration) and \( \frac{X_3}{F} \) (that between direct disturbance force and payload acceleration).

Choice of Input Disturbances for the Synthesis Problem

As noted previously, there are two kinds of disturbances to consider, viz., the indirect \( \dot{d} \) and the direct \( f \). The former type, transmitted via the umbilical, is generally considered to be of greater concern for most types of experiments. However, for some payloads (e.g., those having either moving mechanical parts or flowing liquids, or those requiring direct human intervention),
direct disturbances may be significant. A control which attenuates both disturbance types is thus to be preferred.

There is another important reason to include direct disturbances in the design problem: the inclusion of direct disturbances can significantly improve the stability robustness of the resulting system. State feedback for this problem corresponds to changes in one or more of the following: payload mass, umbilical stiffness, or umbilical damping. All of these changes correspond to passive isolation strategies. Thus, it is useful to examine how the transfer functions of interest are affected by changes in these parameters. (See [4] for a more extended treatment of these parametric issues from a classical perspective.) It can be shown readily from Eq. (1) that the respective acceleration-reduction transfer functions are as follows:

\[
\frac{s^2X}{s^2D} = \frac{cs + k}{ms^2 + cs + k}
\]

and

\[
\frac{s^2X}{F} = \frac{s^2}{ms^2 + cs + k}
\]

The payload acceleration due to indirect disturbances [see Eq. (7)] can be reduced either by lowering the effective stiffness of the system or by raising its effective mass. The former method lowers system stability robustness to variations in umbilical stiffness; the latter suffers no corresponding penalty. Further, whereas reducing effective umbilical stiffness adversely affects system transmissibility to direct disturbances [see Eq. (8)], raising effective system mass lowers the transmissibility to both disturbance types. Consequently the latter approach is preferable; this is especially true in light of likely modeling inaccuracies in umbilical stiffness. The extended H2 synthesis machinery can be biased to seek an "increased mass" control solution, by using disturbance-accommodation techniques with a direct-disturbance model. If only an indirect disturbance is included in the model, extended H2 synthesis has no reason to prefer "increasing mass" over "lowering stiffness." If the latter is less "costly," in terms of the performance index, the synthesized controller may indeed have good performance (as was found in the authors' experience), but it will have an unacceptably low stability robustness to variations in umbilical stiffness.
An "increased mass" solution can be obtained as follows. Beginning with the state-space formulation of the problem [Eq. (6)], incorporate the disturbances into the extended $H_2$ synthesis problem using standard disturbance-accommodation methods [2]. If the power of the direct-disturbance model $f$ is made large relative to that of the indirect-disturbance $d$ in some frequency range (again, see [2]), then the extended $H_2$-synthesis machinery will be biased to seek a control solution that adds effective mass to the system, for those frequencies. Note that it is not important for these disturbance models actually to match the physical disturbances. The disturbance models are included in the system model simply to provide the designer with a degree of control over the type of approach used by the synthesis machinery. To exploit this capability in light of robustness concerns, and to attenuate the direct disturbances which are significant with some payloads, direct disturbances were included in the problem formulation.

*Choice of Design Filters for the Synthesis Problem*

The ability to use state- and control frequency-weighting filters, and to assign disturbance-accommodation filters, adds a great degree of flexibility to the problem formulation. But it also requires that the designer now make some filter choices. Each filter adds to the problem's complexity, so the simplest approach is to use no filters; *i.e.*, to use a basic $H_2$-synthesis approach, with no extensions. Without extensions, however, $H_2$-synthesis chooses the optimal controller feedback gains under the erroneous assumption of a perfect plant model. The synthesis machinery simply seeks a stabilizing feedback control that minimizes the quadratic performance index, paying no particular attention to the method by which such minimization is achieved. There is no fundamental reason, for example, for basic $H_2$-synthesis to prefer a greater mass solution over one which merely reduces stiffness. In light of the inevitable modeling inaccuracies the consequence is generally a controller that lacks stability- or performance robustness to plant parameter uncertainties. In the present case, all design attempts without the use of filters failed to produce a suitable control; it was necessary to employ the $H_2$-synthesis extensions.
The first layer of complexity added was disturbance-accommodation filtering of the direct disturbance model. This filtering is necessary if one is to affect the synthesis of the feedback gain matrix $K$ by the relative weightings of the two disturbance types. Without such filtering the direct- and indirect disturbances are modeled simply as white noise (specifically, zero-mean white Gaussian), and the relative weightings can affect only the synthesis of the observer gain matrix $L$ [2]. When a lowpass filter was added to the direct-disturbance model, so that the direct disturbances were now both large at low frequencies (as before) and also represented by their pseudostates in the performance index (the purpose of adding the filter), the synthesized controller led to much greater system robustness to umbilical stiffness variations. This was due to the fact that now the synthesis machinery sought a feedback gain matrix $K$ which could reject these large, low-frequency direct disturbances. The performance, however, was still short of the design specifications. In particular, the controller did not meet the higher-frequency requirement of Spec. #4, viz., controller "turn-off" above 200 Hz. This requirement could be satisfied only by using frequency weighting.

In order to require the controller to "turn off" at higher frequencies, high-pass filtering was used to penalize high-frequency control. (Note that there are limits on the type of control filtering allowable, since the control filter must have a high-frequency asymptote with zero slope if a solution is to exist [3,5].) This high-pass control filtering, however, is inadequate in itself to demand the required high-frequency controller roll-off. It is necessary also that all state weightings roll off, so that at high frequencies the states will make negligible demands for control effort. Otherwise performance index minimization will not permit complete roll-off of the control. Similarly, it is advisable to have disturbance models with negligible power at the higher frequencies, so that the state responses to those disturbances will not make unnecessary control demands. It was found that a lowpass filter in the direct-disturbance model, along with a small, frequency-independent weighting in the indirect-disturbance model, could provide the desired results (i.e., controller turn-off) with minimum added complexity. The improvement in the higher frequency performance, however, was accompanied by a degradation in the performance at the
lower frequencies. In particular, with "flat" frequency weightings on the states for the lower frequencies (i.e., with zero DC slopes) the \( H_2 \)-synthesis machinery could not be compelled to move the closed-loop system poles down to the 0.001 Hz region. Consequently, the disturbance rejection in the intermediate range (approximately 0.001 to 0.1 Hz) was insufficient. Additional frequency-weighting in and below the intermediate-frequency region was necessary to surmount this obstacle.

The open-loop Bode-\( \alpha \) plot depicting system transmissibility to orbiter acceleration (Fig. 2) indicates a unit transmissibility up to the system natural frequency at about 0.1 Hz. If this system "knee," or corner frequency, can be moved down by two orders of magnitude to about 0.001 Hz, the corresponding controlled system will satisfy the first two specifications, viz., perfect tracking of the orbiter motion at DC and unit transmissibility below 0.001 Hz. It is well-known that the natural frequency of a spring-mass-damper system can be reduced either by raising system effective mass, or by lowering the effective stiffness, or both. And it has already been noted that, for robustness reasons, the first of these three is the preferred approach. There are two means by which the designer can call for a "greater-mass" solution from extended \( H_2 \)-synthesis. One method is to incorporate a large direct disturbance into the system model, as previously noted. (It turns out that this greater-mass solution need be requested only in the general region surrounding the open-loop- and closed-loop-system corner frequencies.) A second method is to place a high penalty on payload relative position at intermediate and lower frequencies (i.e., in the general vicinity of the open- and desired closed-loop-system knees, and down to DC, respectively), so that the design machinery will tend to reject a lower-stiffness solution as too costly. If at the same time the designer attaches a high cost to intermediate-frequency acceleration, he can increase the "attractiveness" of a greater-mass solution.

For a single-input-single-output (SISO) system, the disturbance-accommodation and state-frequency-weighting approaches to design can always be used to produce equivalent controllers (i.e., having identical pole-zero patterns) [6]. For a SIMO or MIMO (multiple-input-multiple-output) system, however, although there is still a duality relationship the systems in general cannot
be made equivalent. This means that controllers designed respectively by that the two methods will be related (by duality) but not identical in performance. For the present SIMO problem, it was found that the frequency-weighting approach led to the most robust controller.

In the very low frequency range, as one approaches DC, it is important to note (and perhaps not immediately obvious) that no penalty should be applied to either acceleration or control. A high penalty on acceleration will call for increased effective mass in that range, which would militate against the desired unit transmissibility for indirect disturbances. The payload must track the orbiter at DC, so the system effective stiffness at these very low frequencies must be high; and the effective mass, low. Low-frequency control should not be penalized since the $H_2$-synthesis machinery should not have unnecessary constraints placed on it in determining the optimal control solution. Since the open-loop system already has the desired transmissibilities in the DC region, to have a finite control cost at DC is to place unnecessary (and, as it turns out in practice, apparently debilitating) restrictions on the control that can be used. These additional low-frequency considerations complete a logical design strategy for weighting the states and control.

In summary, the competing demands across the entire frequency range call for the following state- and control frequency-weighting design filters: an integrating filter to weight relative position, a bandpass filter to weight payload acceleration, either a bandpass or a low-pass filter on relative velocity (the latter is simpler and was the shape ultimately chosen), and a high-pass control filter. Such a set of filter choices calls for a greater-mass solution in the vicinity of the open-loop- and closed-loop-system corner frequencies, and a greater-stiffness solution in the region below. A low-pass filter on a high-power direct-disturbance model, and an unfiltered, very low-power, indirect-disturbance model, can also be used to help drive the synthesis machinery to seek a greater mass solution.
Choice of Relative Noise Levels for the Synthesis Problem

Several other options are available for influencing the design through the H$_2$ machinery. These include (1) incorporating control noise into the system model, (2) modeling sensor noise power spectra via the addition of output disturbance-accommodation filters, and (3) adjusting the covariances of the various input-(i.e., process-), output-(i.e., sensor-), and control-noise signals. In most realistic design problems the existence of a solution to the optimal observer-gain problem requires that the system model have noise in all sensor channels [5]. Since for the present problem an observer is required for state-reconstruction (relative velocity is here considered unmeasurable, or at least unmeasured), the omission of sensor noise is not an option. On the other hand, control noise is optional, as is output disturbance-accommodation. For the sake of maintaining controller simplicity, it was decided to use these extensions to H$_2$-synthesis only if necessary to achieve the desired system robustness; they were ultimately found not to be needed.

Choosing intelligently the design process- and sensor-noise levels (i.e., those levels to be used in the model) requires considering the relative importance to be ascribed to each by the observer, in its task of state reconstruction. Since the dominating system uncertainties were considered to lie in the umbilical model, it was decided to weight the direct input disturbance much more heavily than the indirect input disturbance, even though both were assumed to be uncolored. It was anticipated that this would tend to make the observer more robust to umbilical-stiffness modeling errors. As to the relative size of the two sensor noise levels, it was noted that the observer must use the control signal (assumed to be noise-free) and the two sensor measurements (both noise-contaminated) in performing its state reconstruction. The relative displacement signal was modeled as being contaminated with a much higher noise level than the acceleration signal. The purpose of including this high noise-contamination level was to bias the extended H$_2$-synthesis machinery to place much greater "confidence" in the acceleration signal, and therefore to give it preeminence in its state reconstructions. It was anticipated (correctly) that the result would be improved observation of the acceleration state. This accuracy in acceleration
reconstruction is desirable since the optimal control is fundamentally a "smart" form of acceleration feedback.

**Choice of Uncertainty-Block Types for the Analysis Problem**

Complex-$\mu$ analysis methods were used to find guarantees on system stability robustness. A multiplicative-input uncertainty block provided a measure of the allowable in-channel phase- or gain variation from the controller output to the associated plant input. The primary source of such variations was expected to be the actuator, whether Lorentz or magnetic. The multiplicative-input uncertainty-block weighting function [3] was expressed in terms of the maximum phase variations expected (or allowable), as a function of frequency, at the control input. The weighting function could just as easily have been expressed in terms of expected maxima in the gain variation. Identical information about the MIMO phase- and gain margins results from both formulations of the anticipated variations in-channel.

At the plant output both structured and unstructured multiplicative uncertainty blocks were used to determine stability-related guarantees on allowable sensor modeling errors. Using an unstructured uncertainty block, stability could be guaranteed only for very small coupling between measurements; the resulting guarantees were negligible. For example, even for the final controller design selected the MIMO phase margin guarantee was only $0.000046^\circ$ if unstructured uncertainty blocks were used. This indicates that it may be very important that both of these measured quantities (viz., relative position and payload acceleration) not be directly dependent on each other. The authors do not expect this to be a problem for an actual active microgravity isolation system. The structured uncertainty test (which implies no cross-coupling between sensor channels) yielded guarantees on stability for variations in the sensors which were quite large. (For the final controller design, the MIMO phase margin guarantee was found to be $50.3^\circ$.)

The effects of system modeling inaccuracies at higher frequencies were not directly evaluated by complex-$\mu$ analysis methods. The high-frequency system modes were handled by
forcing controller turn-off by 200 Hz, using the frequency-weighting- design filters described in the previous section.

The use of multiplicative input- and -output uncertainty blocks alone was found to be insufficient to guarantee system stability robustness to umbilical parameter uncertainties; a feedback uncertainty model and an associated analysis framework were developed for this purpose [3]. Like the classical root locus method, this analysis tool provides guarantees of stability for single-parameter variations from the nominal. But it can also provide stability guarantees for combinations of real stiffness, -damping, and -mass variations within a continuous region of real values.

**Design of the Optimal Controller**

A logical design strategy to use extended H₂-synthesis for the specified design problem has been presented above. The implementation of this strategy, for determining a practical controller design, involved iteration between synthesis and analysis. The former was to develop a controller candidate; the latter, to evaluate its suitability. A "step-up, step-down" procedure was followed, with layers of complexity added progressively as the need was determined. After the final design was developed, it was reduced in size using balance-and-truncate (Moore's method) and modal truncation.

In performing these iterations, the authors used an educated trial-and-error approach, informed by the logic presented above. Various trials were needed (1) to select from among the various reasonable alternatives in design-filter shapes, (2) to tune the actual pole- and zero locations for the respective design filters, (3) to determine suitable relative weightings among the various frequency-weighted states and -control, (4) to choose suitable relative power levels among the various disturbance-input models, and (5) to reduce the controller size without unacceptably degrading its performance. Computer programs were written in MATLAB to accomplish the necessary synthesis and analysis tasks.
Results

The final design used the weighted filter shapes shown in Fig. 3. The result was reduced to fourth order, and then connected to the nominal plant; the closed-loop transmissibility curves for the controlled system are shown in Figs. 4 and 5. The performance of this nominal system met all specifications. Structured singular values of the system seen by multiplicative input- and output complex uncertainties were used to determine guarantees, respectively, on allowable input phase- and gain margins (phase margin: [-51°, +51°], gain margin: [0.3118, 7.2062]) and on output MIMO phase- and gain margins (phase margin: [-34°, +34°], gain margin: [0.6343, 2.3610]). If these in-channel margins are not exceeded the controlled system is guaranteed not to go unstable. Recall that these guarantees are conservative. A feedback complex uncertainty "delta-block" was also used, to determine stability guarantees for uncertainties in real parameters. It was found that for damping essentially unknown (±104%) and for mass known to within ±10%, stability could be guaranteed for stiffness known only to within ±101%. Real parametric studies indicated that closed-loop system performance remains acceptable (for the various combinations of parametric uncertainties examined) with mass, stiffness, and damping varied within these ranges.

Concluding Remarks

This paper has presented the application of extended $H_\infty$-synthesis/µ analysis techniques to a one-dimensional isolation problem. The requirement of the problem was to design a feedback controller to isolate a tethered mass against low-frequency milli-g (stochastic) disturbances applied through the umbilical, without exceeding rattlespace constraints. The umbilical was modeled as a stiffness and damping. It was assumed that acceleration and relative position were measurable system outputs, and that a linear (Lorentz) actuator provided the input force to be optimized.

The 1-D problem was selected to provide a design paradigm for developing engineering insights into the treatment of isolation problems of greater complexity. Extended $H_\infty$-synthesis is,
of course, overkill for a problem of this size (although the solution is by no means trivial even by classical means); but the modern control techniques investigated permit ready application to 3-D isolation problems, where classical methods bog down.

System states were chosen to be relative position, relative velocity, and acceleration of the payload. These choices allowed the design to proceed along relatively intuitive lines, using the extended-$H_2$-synthesis- and $\mu$-analysis frameworks that exist in the literature [2,3]. It was found that these design methods yield excellent results for the 1-D microgravity vibration isolation problem; it is not necessary to have a good umbilical model to design a good isolation system.

Frequency weighting in the higher frequencies, of each of the states and of the control, was needed to reduce the controller bandwidth enough to preclude exciting the higher system modes. Frequency weighting was also necessary at lower frequencies to provide the appropriate loop-shaping for meeting the other design requirements. When only an indirect disturbance (i.e., one acting through the umbilical) was included in the plant model, it was found that the synthesis machinery could not be required to produce a robust solution. This robustness problem was correctable by using disturbance accommodation to include a direct disturbance in the plant model. Adding such a disturbance effectively biased the extended $H_2$-synthesis machinery to prefer a greater-mass rather than a lower-stiffness solution. Alternatively, it was found that appropriately frequency weighting the states and the control could accomplish the same end; the best results were obtained using the latter approach. Although the controller found by the design process was of a greater dimension than desired, due to the incorporation of frequency-weighting pseudostates, it was readily reducable to a very practical size (fourth order), using standard techniques.

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Figure 1.—Tethered mass \( m \), subject to disturbances \( d \) and \( f \), and to actuator force \( i \).

Figure 2.—Open-loop system transmissibility to orbiter acceleration.
Figure 3.—Bode-α plots of the weighted frequency-weighting and disturbance-accommodation filters.

Figure 4.—Open-and closed-loop system transmissibilities to indirect accelerations. (i.e., orbiter accelerations transmitted through the umbilicals.)
Figure 5.—Open- and closed-loop system transmissibilities to direct accelerations. (i.e., acceleration disturbances imposed directly on the payload.)
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