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# **How to Not Fail** **Control Systems**

*While never going to class*

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# **1 Modeling in the Frequency Domain**

## **2 Modeling in the Time Domain**

### **3 Time Response**

## **4 Reduction of Multiple Systems**

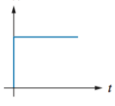
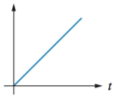
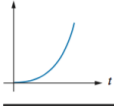
## **5 Stability**

### **5.1 Routh-Hurwitz Criteria**

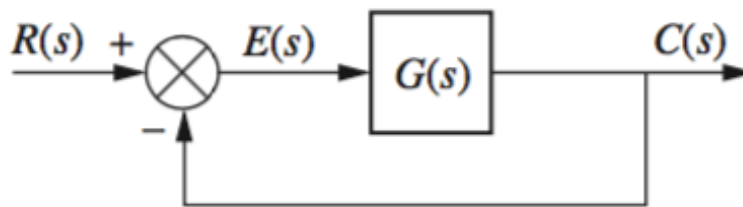
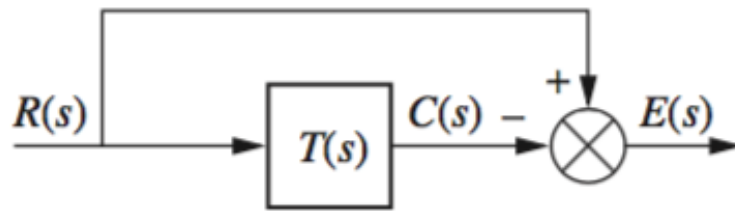
### **5.2 Routh-Hurwitz Special Cases**

## 6 Steady State Errors

*Steady State Error* is defined as the difference between the input and output as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . When testing for factors such as constant position, constant velocity and constant acceleration, inputs such as unit steps  $u(t)$ , ramps  $r(t)$  and parabolas are used. This discussion is limited to stable systems.

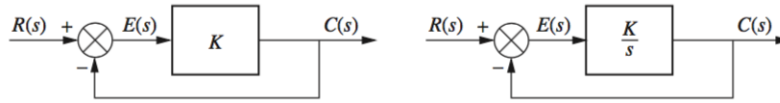
Waveform	Name	Physical interpretation	Time function	Laplace transform
	Step	Constant position	1	$\frac{1}{s}$
	Ramp	Constant velocity	$t$	$\frac{1}{s^2}$
	Parabola	Constant acceleration	$\frac{1}{2}t^2$	$\frac{1}{s^3}$

Most steady state errors  $E(s)$  arise from the input and/or the configuration of the system, as seen in the diagrams below for general closed loop and unity feedback systems.





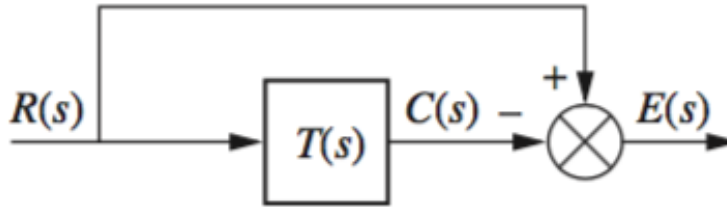
In the first case  $E(s) = R(s) - C(s)$  is the error. If the input  $R(s)$  is a step input, then  $C(s)$  should  $= R(s)$  and  $E(s) = 0$ . However, if gain  $K$  is introduced,  $C(s) = K R(s)$  and  $E(s)$  must be finite and non-zero.



From these systems we see that  $C(s) = K E(s)$ , or  $E(s) = \frac{1}{K} C(s)$

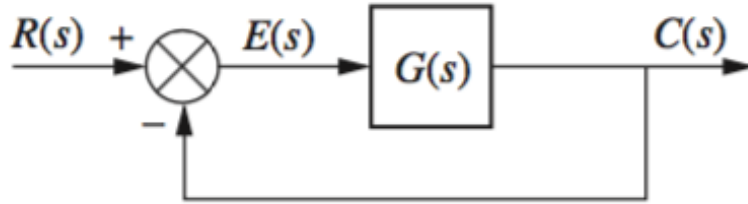
### 6.1 Steady State Error for Unity Feedback Systems

Steady-state error can be calculated from transfer function  $T(s)$  or the open loop transfer function  $G(s)$ . Once  $E(s)$  is found, the steady state error can be found using the *Final Value Theorem*, which states that the value at infinity is equal to the Laplace as  $s \rightarrow 0$ .



$$\begin{aligned}
 E(s) &= R(s) - C(s) \\
 C(s) &= R(s)T(s) \\
 E(s) &= R(s)[1 - T(s)] \\
 e(\infty) &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s e(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s E(s) \\
 e(\infty) &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s R(s)[1 - T(s)]
 \end{aligned}$$

### 6.1.1 Steady State Error in Terms of $G(s)$



$$\begin{aligned}E(s) &= R(s) - C(s) \\C(s) &= E(s)G(s) \\E(s) &= \frac{R(s)}{1+G(s)} \\e(\infty) &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{sR(s)}{1+G(s)}\end{aligned}$$

### 6.2 Static Error Constants and System Type

The steady-state error for unit step inputs is

$$e(\infty) = \frac{1}{1 + \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s)}$$

The steady-state error for ramp inputs of unit velocity is

$$e(\infty) = \frac{1}{\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sG(s)}$$

The steady-state error for parabolic inputs of unit acceleration is

$$e(\infty) = \frac{1}{\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^2 G(s)}$$

The terms in the denominator are known as  $k_p$ ,  $k_v$ ,  $k_a$ , the **static error constants**, representing position, velocity and acceleration, respectively.

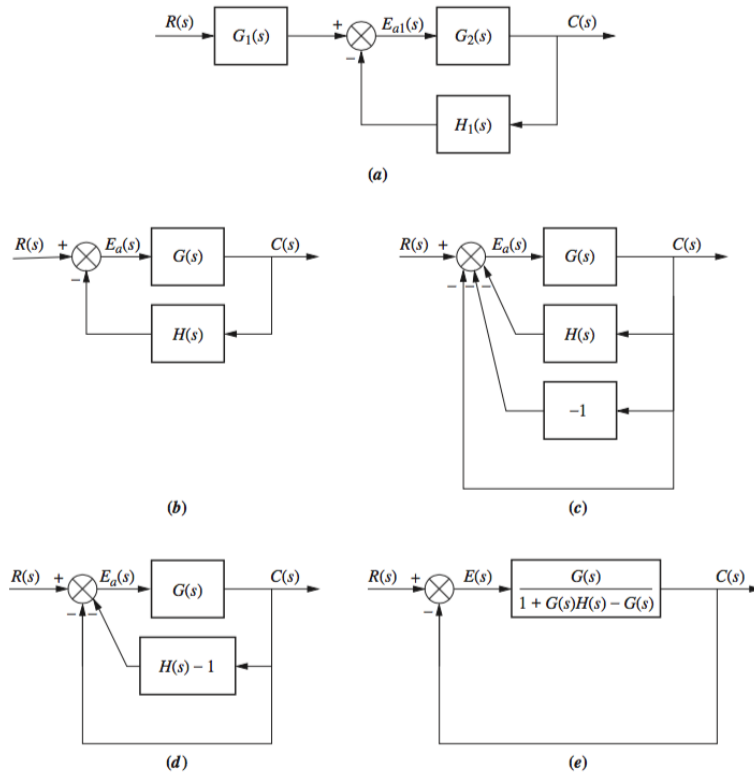
Systems can also be defined by **system type**. This defines the number of pure integrations in the forward path, assuming a unity feedback system. Increasing the system type decreases the steady-state error as long as the system is stable.

Input	Steady-state error formula	Type 0		Type 1		Type 2	
		Static error constant	Error	Static error constant	Error	Static error constant	Error
Step, $u(t)$	$\frac{1}{1 + K_p}$	$K_p = \text{Constant}$	$\frac{1}{1 + K_p}$	$K_p = \infty$	0	$K_p = \infty$	0
Ramp, $tu(t)$	$\frac{1}{K_v}$	$K_v = 0$	$\infty$	$K_v = \text{Constant}$	$\frac{1}{K_v}$	$K_v = \infty$	0
Parabola, $\frac{1}{2}t^2u(t)$	$\frac{1}{K_a}$	$K_a = 0$	$\infty$	$K_a = 0$	$\infty$	$K_a = \text{Constant}$	$\frac{1}{K_a}$

### 6.3 Steady-State Error Specifications

The steady-state error is inversely proportional to the static error constant - the larger the constant, the smaller the steady-state error. Increasing gain increases the static error constant, thus, increasing the gain decreases the steady-state error if the system is stable.

### 6.4 Forming Equivalent Unity from Non-Unity Systems



## 7 Root Locus Techniques

The following sections apply to **Negative Feedback Closed Loop** systems.

### 7.1 Sketching the Root Locus

#### 7.1.1 Number of Branches

The number of branches in a root locus equal the number of poles.

#### 7.1.2 Symmetry

The root locus is symmetrical about the real axis.

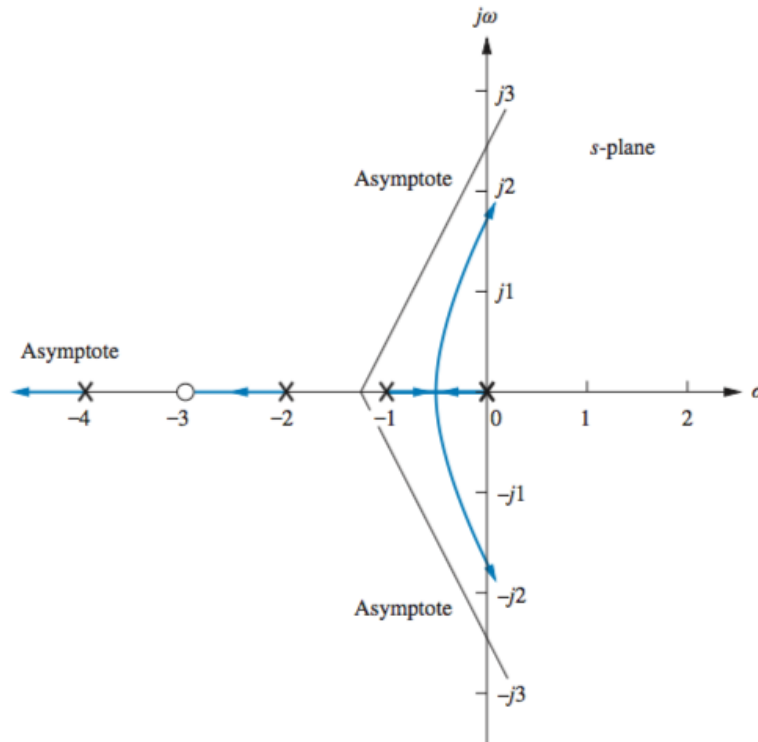
#### 7.1.3 Real Axis Segments

On the real axis, for  $K > 0$  the root locus exists to the left of an odd number of real-axis, finite open-loop poles and/or finite open-loop zeros.

#### 7.1.4 Starting and Ending Points

The root locus begins at the finite and infinite poles of  $G(s)H(s)$  and ends at the finite and infinite zeros of  $G(s)H(s)$ .

### 7.1.5 Behavior at Infinity



## 7.2 Refining the Sketch

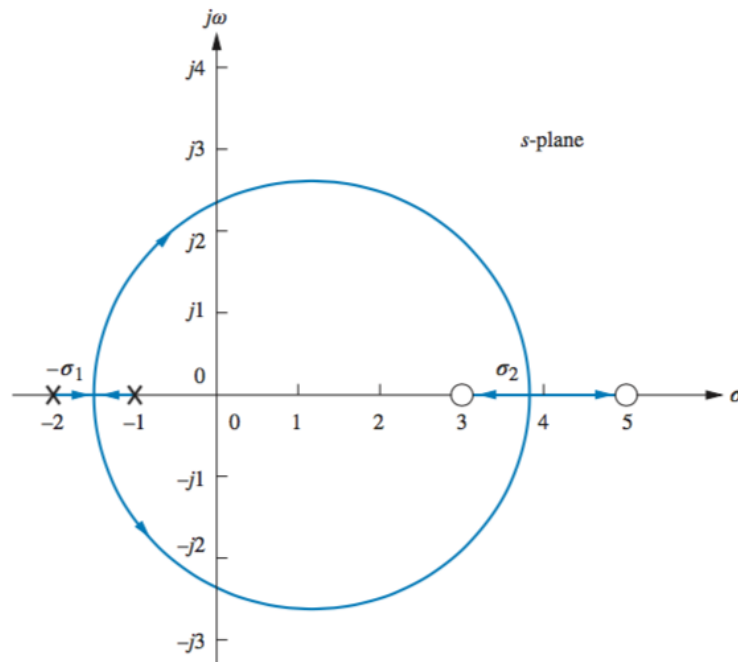
### 7.2.1 Breakaway/Break-in Point

At the breakaway or break-in point, the branches of the root locus form an angle of  $180/n$  with the real axis, where  $n$  is the number of closed-loop poles arriving at or departing from the single breakaway or break-in point on the real axis. These are the points when gain is at its minimum and maximum, respectively.

For all points on the root locus,

$$K = -\frac{1}{G(s)H(s)}, \quad \frac{1}{G(s)H(s)} = -1 \text{ and by differential calculus,}$$

$$K = -\frac{1}{G(\sigma)H(\sigma)} \text{ where breakpoints occur - setting } \sigma \text{ to } 0 \text{ will produce } K.$$



Or, conversely,

$$\sum \frac{1}{\sigma + z_i} = \sum \frac{1}{\sigma + p_i}$$

Where  $z$  and  $p$  are the zero and pole values. By equating the two sides and simplifying to a single equation, factoring can produce  $\sigma$ .

### 7.2.2 $j\omega$ -Axis Crossings

The crossing of the  $j\omega$  axis defines when the system becomes unstable. The crossing of the  $\omega$  axis defines the frequency of oscillation, while the gain at the  $j\omega$  axis yields the maximum positive gain for system stability.

The  $j\omega$  axis crossings can be found using the Routh-Hurwitz criterion. Forcing a row of zeros yields the gain, then going back a row and solving for the roots yields the frequency at the imaginary axis crossing.

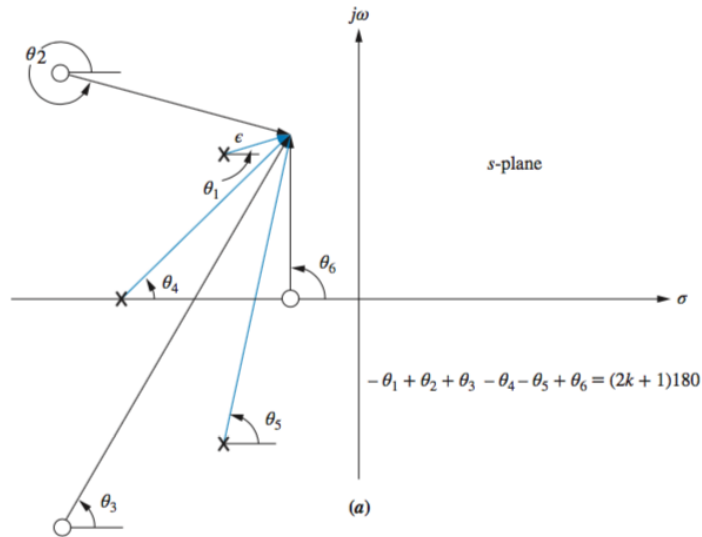
### 7.2.3 Angles of Departure and Arrival

If we assume a point on the root locus  $\epsilon$  close to a complex **pole**, the sum of angles drawn from all finite poles and zeros to this point is an odd multiple of  $180^\circ$ . Except for the **pole** that is  $\epsilon$  close to the point, we assume all angles drawn from all other poles and zeros are drawn directly to the **pole** that is near the point. Thus, the only unknown angle in the sum is the angle drawn from the **pole** that is  $\epsilon$  close. We can solve for this unknown angle, which is also the angle of departure from this complex **pole**.

$$-\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3 - \theta_4 - \theta_5 + \theta_6 = (2k + 1)180^\circ$$

or

$$\theta_1 = \theta_2 + \theta_3 - \theta_4 - \theta_5 + \theta_6 - (2k + 1)180^\circ$$



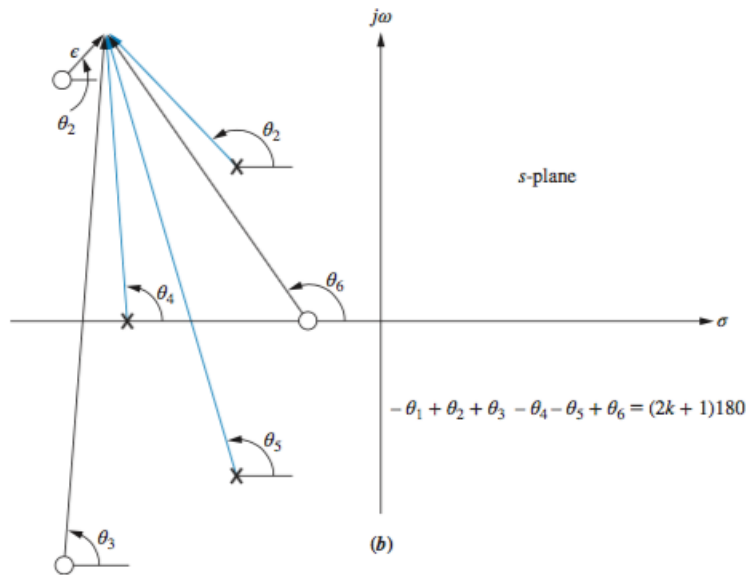
If we assume a point on the root locus  $\epsilon$  close to a complex **zero**, the sum of angles drawn from all finite poles and zeros to this point is an odd multiple of  $180^\circ$ . Except for the **zero** that is  $\epsilon$  close to the point, we can assume all angles drawn from all other poles and zeros are drawn directly to the **zero** that is near the point. Thus, the only unknown angle in the sum is the angle drawn from the **zero** that is  $\epsilon$  close. We can solve for this unknown angle,

which is also the angle of arrival to this complex **zero**.

$$-\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3 - \theta_4 - \theta_5 + \theta_6 = (2k + 1)180^\circ$$

or

$$\theta_2 = \theta_1 - \theta_3 + \theta_4 + \theta_5 - \theta_6 - (2k + 1)180^\circ$$

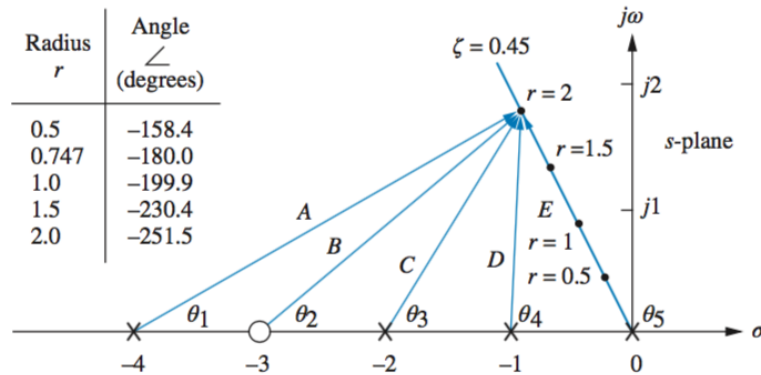


### 7.3 Plotting and Calibrating the Root Locus

When locating points on the root locus and finding their specified gain, for example as it crosses the radial line representing 20% overshoot, such as the below graph where  $\zeta = 0.45$

Evaluating the graph at points along the line, and summing the angles from poles and zeros, it can be determined if a point is on the root locus if the angles are a multiple of  $180^\circ$ .

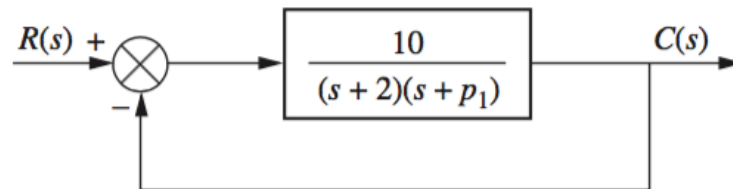




## 7.4 Generalized Root Locus

If finding the root locus of a system concerning a single parameter instead of gain  $K$ , an equivalent system can be used where the denominator is represented as  $1 + p_1 G(s)H(s)$ . From the below system,

$$T(s) = \frac{KG(s)H(s)}{1 + KG(s)H(s)} = \frac{10}{s^2 + (p_1 + 2)s + 2p_1 + 10} = \frac{10}{s^2 + 2s + 10 + p_1(s + 2)}$$



## 7.5 Positive Feedback Systems

$$KG(s)H(s) = 1 = 1 \angle k360^\circ \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

### 1. Number of Branches

No change

### 2. Symmetry

No change

### 3. Real Axis Segments

On the real axis, the root locus for positive-feedback systems exists to the left of an **even** number of real-axis, finite open-loop poles and/or finite open-loop zeros.

### 4. Starting and Ending Points

The root locus for positive-feedback systems begins at the finite and infinite poles of  $G(s)H(s)$  and ends at the finite and infinite zeros of  $G(s)H(s)$ .

### 5. Behavior at Infinity

The root locus approaches straight lines as asymptotes as the locus approaches infinity. Further, the equations of the asymptotes for positive-feedback systems are given by the real-axis intercept,  $\sigma_a$ , and angle,  $\theta_a$ , as follows:

$$\sigma_a = \frac{\sum \text{FinitePoles} - \sum \text{FiniteZeros}}{\# \text{FinitePoles} - \# \text{FiniteZeros}}$$
$$\theta_a = \frac{k2\pi}{\# \text{FinitePoles} - \# \text{FiniteZeros}}$$

## **8 Design via Root Locus**

## **9 Frequency Response Techniques**

## **10 Design via Frequency Response**