Definition of compensators
Lead compensators
Lag compensators
Lag-Lead compensators
Comparison lead, lag and lag-lead compensators

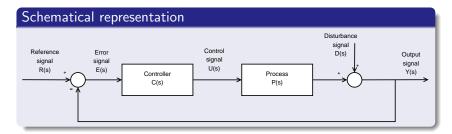
## Chapter 12: Lead and Lag Compensators

August 5, 2015

### Outline

- Definition of compensators
- 2 Lead compensators
- 3 Lag compensators
- 4 Lag-Lead compensators
- 5 Comparison lead, lag and lag-lead compensators

## Lead Compensator vs Lag Compensator



#### Transfer functions

Lead compensator :  $C(s) = K.\frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\alpha\tau}}$  with  $0<\alpha<1$  Lag compensator :  $C(s) = K.\frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{R\tau}}$  with  $\beta>1$ 

## Lead Compensator vs Lag Compensator: zeros and poles

#### Transfer functions

Lead compensator :  $C(s) = K.\frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\alpha\tau}}$  with  $0<\alpha<1$  Lag compensator :  $C(s) = K.\frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\alpha\tau}}$  with  $\beta>1$ 

#### Zeros and poles

Zeros:  $s = -\frac{1}{\tau}$ Poles:  $s = -\frac{1}{\alpha\tau}$  or  $s = -\frac{1}{\beta\tau}$ 

For lead compensators the pole lies more to the left in the complex plane than the zero and vice versa for lag compensators.

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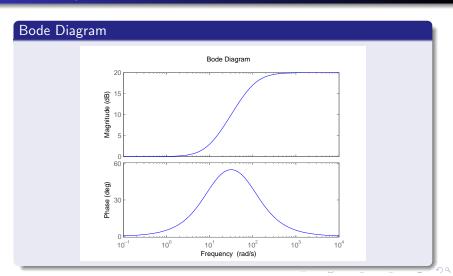
#### Transfer function

$$C(s) = K.\frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau}}{s + \frac{1}{\alpha \tau}}$$
 with  $0 < \alpha < 1$ 

#### Bode Diagram

Example with K = 10 and  $\alpha$  = 0.1 (see next slide) Magnitude of the lead compensator:

- becomes unity (= 0 dB) for small fequencies
- becomes 10 (= 20 dB) for high frequencies
- ⇒ Lead compensator is high-pass filter.



#### **Impact**

- Push the pole of the closed loop system to the left.
  - Stabilisation of the system (see root locus)
  - Increase response speed (lead compensator will stimulate some larger frequencies)
- Increase of the phase margin: the phase of the lead compensator is positive for every frequency, and will hence only increase the phase.
- Thanks to the presence of a pole, the high frequencies (where most of the unwanted noise is located) are less amplified.
   Again, a lead compensator is a high-pass filter.

#### Design with Bode plots

- Design process: tuning of the phase margin, with as a surplus (because we will have one extra degree of freedom) the tuning of the steady state error.
- Compensate for the excessive phase lag that is a result of the components of P(s).
- Increase in phase at gain crossover frequency (GCF) if GCF is around pole and zero of the lead compensator.
- Gain is impacted by the lead compensator: the GCF of P(s).C(s) is not equal to the GCF of P(s).
- ullet Required increase in phase gain:  $\phi$
- K will be used to tune the steady state error.

#### Step 1

- Remember the steady-state error for references of the shape:  $\frac{At^n\epsilon(\tau)}{n!}$  with  $\epsilon(t)$  the step function.
- Translate your steady-state requirement into another one:
  - $K_p = \lim_{s\to 0} P(s)C(s)$  (n = 0, proportional)
  - $K_v = \lim_{s \to 0} sP(s)C(s)$  (n = 1, linear)
  - $K_a = \lim_{s\to 0} s^2 P(s) C(s)$  (n = 2, accelerating)
  - or another error constant
- With this  $K_p/K_v/K_a$  and  $\lim_{s\to 0} P(s)$ , we can determine  $\lim_{s\to 0} C(s) = \lim_{s\to 0} K \frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\alpha\tau}} = K\alpha$ .
- Verify whether a proportional controller with gain  $K\alpha$  would suffice.

#### Step 2

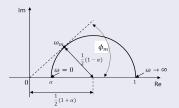
Determine  $\phi$ , the amount with which you want to increase the PM; if the PM is OK, you dont need a lead compensator; a proportional controller with gain  $K\alpha$  suffices.

#### Step 3

Add 5°, to get  $\phi_m=\phi+5^\circ$  (if  $\phi_m>60^\circ$ , you will need more than one lead compensator). The addition of the lead compensator shifts the gain crossover frequency to the right and decreases the phase margin.

#### Step 4

Determine  $\alpha$  making use of the polar plot of  $\frac{\alpha.(j\omega\tau+1)}{j\omega\alpha\tau+1}$ 



$$\sin \phi_m = \frac{\frac{1}{2}.(1-\alpha)}{\frac{1}{2}.(1+\alpha)} = \frac{1-\alpha}{1+\alpha} \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1-\sin\phi_m}{1+\sin\phi_m}$$
 Usually,  $\alpha \geqslant 0.05$ .

We know  $\alpha$  and we know  $K\alpha$  (step 1), so we can calculate K.

#### Step 5

Use the gain crossover frequency of P(s)C(s) as  $\omega_m$ :

$$|P(j\omega_{m})C(j\omega_{m})| = 1$$

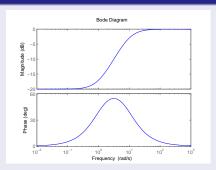
$$|P(j\omega_{m})| K \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha\tau^{2}} + \frac{1}{\tau^{2}}}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha\tau^{2}} + \frac{1}{\alpha^{2}\tau^{2}}}} = |P(j\omega_{m})| K\sqrt{\alpha} = 1$$

$$|P(j\omega_{m})| = |P(j\omega_{m})| = |P(j\omega_{m})| K\sqrt{\alpha} = 1$$

 $20\log |P(j\omega_m)| = -20\log(K\sqrt{\alpha})$ 

The value of the tangent point  $\omega_m$  can be determined from P(s)'s Bode plot, because we know K and  $\alpha$  from step 4.

### Step 6



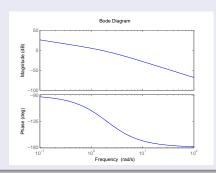
The tangent point  $\omega_m$  is the geometric mean of the two corner frequencies, so  $\log \omega_m = \frac{1}{2} (\log \frac{1}{\tau} + \log \frac{1}{\alpha \tau})$  with  $\tau = \frac{1}{\omega}$   $\Rightarrow \omega_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha \tau}} \Rightarrow \tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha \omega_m}}$ .

#### Step 7

Verify if the system behaves as desired. Check the gain margin for you to be sure it is satisfactory. If not, repeat the design process by modifying the pole-zero location of the compensator until a satisfactory result is obtained.

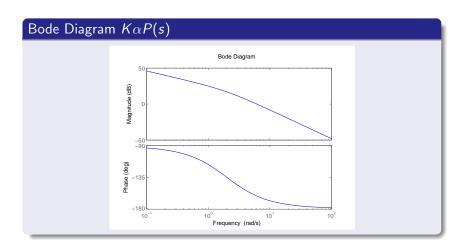
#### Example

Given the system  $P(s) = \frac{4}{s(s+2)}$ . We want a phase margin of at least  $50^{\circ}$  and a steady-state error for slope reference of maximal  $\frac{A}{20}$ .



#### Step 1

- Steady-state requirement:  $K_v = \frac{20}{s}$ So,  $\lim_{s\to 0} sP(s)C(s) = \lim_{s\to 0} s\frac{4}{s(s+2)}K\alpha = 2K\alpha = 20$ .  $\Rightarrow K\alpha = 10$
- Would a proportional controller with gain  $K\alpha$  suffice? We have a look at the Bode Diagram of  $K\alpha P(s)$  (see next slide)  $\Rightarrow$  does not suffice! The phase margin is obviously smaller than 50°.



#### Step 2

- Phase margin of  $K\alpha P(s) = 18^{\circ}$  (see last slide)
- Calculation of phase margin without phase diagram: We need the frequency where the magnitude is 0 dB. So,  $20 \log |K\alpha P(s)| = 0 \Rightarrow |K\alpha P(s)| = 1 \Rightarrow |P(s)| = 0.1$  When substituting  $s = j\omega$  and calculating the modulus of the complex number at the left side, the equation becomes:

$$\frac{-4\omega}{\omega(4+\omega^2)}^2 + \frac{-8}{\omega(4+\omega^2)}^2 = 0.01.$$

This equation has just one real positive solution:  $\omega=6.168$ . Now, you have the right frequency and you can calculate the phase margin exactly.

• We want a phase margin of at least 50  $^{\circ} \Rightarrow \phi = 32 ^{\circ}$ 

#### Step 3

$$\phi_m = \phi + 5^{\circ} = 37^{\circ}$$

#### Step 4

$$\alpha = \frac{1-\sin\phi_m}{1+\sin\phi_m} = 0.24$$

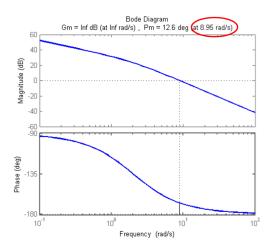
From step 1, we know that  $K = \frac{\alpha}{10} = 42$ 

#### Step 5

Find  $\omega_m$ , the frequency at which the gain is  $-20 \log(K\sqrt{\alpha})$  dB.

$$GCF(P(s)K\sqrt{\alpha}) = GCF(P(s)C(s)) \Rightarrow \omega_m = 9\frac{rad}{s}$$

(see Bode Diagram next slide)



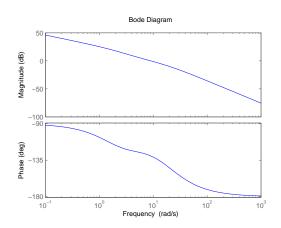
#### Step 6

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\omega_m \sqrt{\alpha}} = 0.23$$

#### Step 7

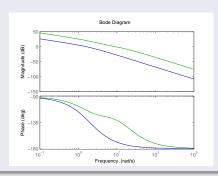
We verify whether or not our solution is correct. We ask the Bode Diagram of  $K_{\frac{4}{s(s+2)}} \frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}$  with  $\alpha$ ,  $\tau$  and K the results of our calculations. (see next slide)

- We see that:
  - $\bullet$  the phase margin is indeed more than 32  $^{\circ}$
  - the new tangent point is indeed about  $9\frac{rad}{c}$



#### Comparing compensated system vs non-compensated system

Blue: non-compensated system Green: compensated system



## Summary lead compensators

#### Evaluation of impact

- Pushing the poles to the left: this is not directly visible here, but is linked to the increased band width.
- The increase in bandwidth (this is linked to the response speed) and the increase in the phase margin were apparent in the Bode plot of P(s)C(s).
- A (small) decrease in the steady-state error occurs, since we designed it as such.
  - Why small? The steady-state error decreases when the DC gain gets larger, but a lead compensators impact on the gain is not really built to increase the DC gain, the shape of a lag compensator is much more fit for this.

## Summary lead compensators

#### Design with root locus

Design lead compensators with root locus for time-domain quantities - use dominant pole locations to fulfill overshoot, rise time, settling time, damping ratio and other requirements.

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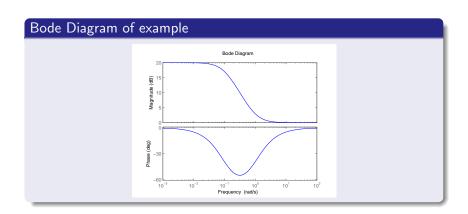
#### Transfer function

$$C(s) = K \cdot \frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau}}{s + \frac{1}{\beta \tau}}$$
 with  $\beta > 1$ 

#### Bode Diagram

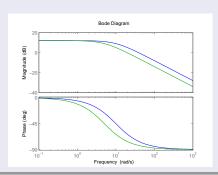
Example with K=1 and  $\beta=10$  (see next slide) Magnitude of the lag compensator:

- becomes 10 (= 20 dB) for small frequencies
- becomes unity (= 0 dB) for high frequencies
- ⇒ Lag compensator is low-pass filter.



#### Impact of lag compensators: Bode Diagram

Blue: non-compensated system Green: compensated system



#### Impact of lag compensators: Bode Diagram

- Lead compensators: increase the stability and tune the steady-state error by increasing the phase at the crossover frequency.
- Impact lag compensator = lead compensator, but different approach! By decreasing the gain, the gain crossover frequency comes down to a frequency at which the corresponding phase is higher.

#### Impact of lag compensators

Large difference between lead and lag: their effect on the bandwidth of the system and hence on its speed of response.

- A lead compensator increases the bandwidth/speed of response
  - good if you want the system to react fast
- A lag compensator decreases the bandwidth/speed of response
  - good if your model is bad at high frequencies
  - good to reduce the impact of (mostly high-frequency) noise

#### Design with Bode plots

We have three degrees of freedom:

- one to have a sufficient drop in gain
- one to push the drop in the phase to lower frequencies (that way we can use  $\angle P(s)$  as an approximation of  $\angle P(s)C(s)$  reliably to some extent
- one to tune the steady-state error

#### Design with Bode plots

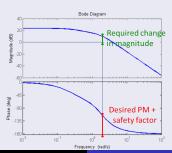
- Increase of phase margin ⇒ decrease of the magnitude at some higher frequencies
- Decrease of the steady state error ⇒ increase of the magnitude at DC

A lag compensator can realize both conditions.

- At DC value, the gain becomes:  $\lim_{s\to 0} K \frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\beta\tau}} = K\beta$
- At high frequencies, the gain becomes:  $\lim_{s\to\infty} K \frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau}}{s+\frac{1}{\beta\tau}} = K$

#### Design with Bode plots

K has to be such that the drop in magnitude is sufficient, the value of  $\beta$  has make the steady-state error decrease enough and the value of  $\tau$  has to be such that the transfer between from  $K\beta$  to  $\tau$  occurs at the right frequency.



#### Step 1

- Determine  $K\beta$  in a similar way as we found  $K\alpha$  for the lead compensator.
- Translate your steady-state requirement into a requirement on:
  - $K_p = \lim_{s \to 0} P(s)C(s)$
  - $K_v = \lim_{s \to 0} sP(s)C(s)$
  - $K_a = \lim_{s\to 0} s^2 P(s) C(s)$
  - or another error constant
- With this  $K_p/K_v/K_a$  and  $\lim_{s\to 0} P(s)$ , we can determine  $\lim_{s\to 0} C(s) = K\beta$ .
- Verify whether a proportional controller with gain  $K\beta$  would suffice

# Lag Compensation Techniques Based on the Frequency-Response Approach

## Step 2

- Take the zero one decade smaller than the frequency  $(\omega)$  at which P(s) had the desired phase  $(-180\,^{\circ}$  + the desired phase margin + a safety factor of  $10\,^{\circ}$ ). The addition of  $10\,^{\circ}$  compensates for the phase lag of the lag compensator.
- Verify the effect of a single zero at a frequency one decade smaller than  $\omega$ .
  - The drop in magnitude is as good as complete.
  - The drop in phase cannot be more than  $-5.7^{\circ}$ .
- Compute  $\tau=\frac{10}{\omega}$ .  $\tau$  has to be large enough such that the magnitude is almost entirely dropped, and the phase drop has almost disappeared.

# Lag Compensation Techniques Based on the Frequency-Response Approach

### Step 3

• Determine K from the Bode plot. How to do this? Find the frequency  $(\omega)$  with desired phase margin (+ safety factor), then find the magnitude at that frequency; which is equal to the required change in magnitude (= Q).

$$\Rightarrow K = \frac{1}{Q}$$

- $\bullet$  Safety factor about 10  $^{\circ}$ 
  - the drop in magnitude will not be complete (this is very marginal)
  - the lag compensator influences the phase plot



# Lag Compensation Techniques Based on the Frequency-Response Approach

#### Step 4

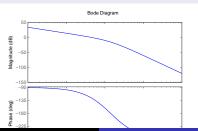
We just have calculated K (step 3) and we know  $K\beta$  (step 1), so it's possible to determine  $\beta$ .

#### Step 5

Verify the behavior of the resulting system.

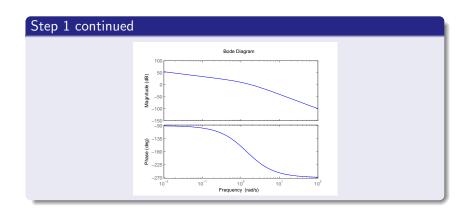
### Example

Given the system  $P(s)=\frac{1}{s(s+1)(s+2)}$ . The system has a PM of 53.4° at a frequency of  $0.446\frac{rad}{s}$  and a GM of 15.6dB at a frequency of  $1.41\frac{rad}{s}$ . We want that a ramp input  $A\epsilon(t)$  results in a steady-state error of at most  $\frac{A}{5}$ , or  $K_{\nu}=\frac{5}{s}$  and a PM of at least  $40^{\circ}$ .

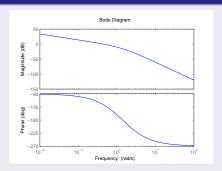


## Step 1

- Steady-state requirement:  $K_v = \frac{5}{s}$  $\Rightarrow \lim_{s\to 0} sP(s)C(s) = \frac{1}{2}\lim_{s\to 0} C(s) = \frac{5}{s} \Rightarrow K\beta = 10$
- Would a proportional controller with gain  $K\beta$  suffice? To answer this, we must have a look at the Bode plot of  $K\beta P(s)$  (see next slide).
  - $\Rightarrow$  Does not suffice! Adding a gain of  $10=20\,dB$  to get the right steady-state error, the phase gain would become negative. In other words, at the frequency where the magnitude of  $K\beta P(s)$  equals 0 dB, the phase is less than  $-180\,^\circ$  which means the system would become unstable.



## Step 2



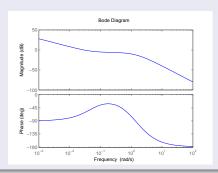
Determine required phase

$$\textit{phase} = -180\,^{\circ} + 40\,^{\circ} + 10\,^{\circ} = -130\,^{\circ}$$

At a phase of 
$$-130$$
 °,  $\omega = 0.5 \frac{rad}{s} \Rightarrow \tau = \frac{10}{0.5} = 20$ 

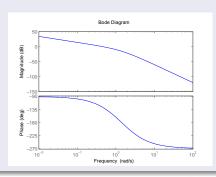
#### Step 2 continued

Verify the effect of a single zero at a frequency one decade smaller than  $\omega$ .



## Step 3

At  $\omega=0.5\frac{rad}{s}$  , the magnitude equals 0 dB = 1, so Q = 1.  $\mathcal{K}=\frac{1}{O}=1$ 



#### Step 4

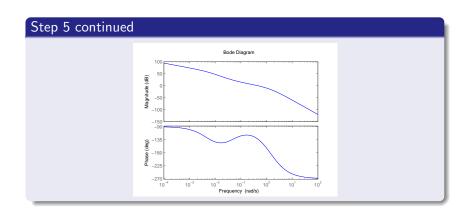
From the results of step 1 and step 3, we find  $\beta = 10$ .

#### Step 5

We find  $C(s) = \frac{s+0.05}{s+0.05}$ .

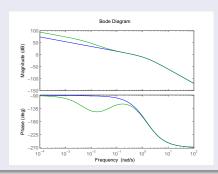
We verify the behavior of  $P(s)C(s) = \frac{1}{s(s+1)(s+2)} \frac{s+0.05}{s+0.05}$  on its Bode Diagram (see next slide).

The phase margin is indeed greater than  $40^{\circ}$ .



## Comparing compensated system vs non-compensated system

Blue: non-compensated system Green: compensated system



# Summary lead compensators

#### Goal

- To decrease the magnitude in order to shift the gain crossover frequency to a frequency with a larger phase margin; the extra degree of freedom is then used to tune the steady-state error.
- In this example: lag compensator to tune the steady-state error with a minimal impact on the phase margin.
   So this time we used a lag compensator to increase the DC gain but leave the gain at higher frequencies unaltered.

# Summary lead compensators

## Impact, using root locus

- We can use lag compensators to reduce the steady-state error significantly but with a marginal impact on (the relevant part of) the root locus.
- On top of that, we still have one degree of freedom that allows us to pick any position on that root locus!
- This is useful if the desired closed loop poles are already on the root locus, but if a proportional controller would give a too large steady-state error.

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#### Introduction

In some cases you would want to combine the effects of a lag and a lead compensator:

- Frequency domain:
   In most cases a lead compensator is more fit to increase the phase margin and a lag compensator is better at decreasing the steady-state error.
- Time domain:
   You might want to adapt the root locus with a lead
   compensator, and decrease the steady-state error while leaving
   the new root locus unaltered with a lag compensator.

#### Transfer function

$$C(s) = K \frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau_1}}{s + \frac{1}{\alpha \tau_1}} \frac{s + \frac{1}{\tau_2}}{s + \frac{1}{\beta \tau_2}} \text{ with } \beta > 1, \ 0 < \alpha < 1, \ \tau_1 < \tau_2$$

Usually, we take  $\beta = \frac{1}{\alpha}$ , but that's not necessary.

- The term  $\frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau_1}}{s+\frac{1}{\alpha\tau_1}}$  produces the effect of the lead network.
- The term  $\frac{s+\frac{1}{\tau_2}}{s+\frac{1}{\beta\tau_2}}$  produces the effect of the lag network.
- Zeros:  $\frac{1}{\tau_1}$  and  $\frac{1}{\tau_2}$
- Poles:  $\frac{1}{\alpha \tau_1}$  and  $\frac{1}{\beta \tau_2}$

## Bode Diagram

Example with K = 10,  $\alpha$  = 0.1,  $\beta$  = 10,  $\tau_1$  = 0.01,  $\tau_2$  = 10 (see next slide)

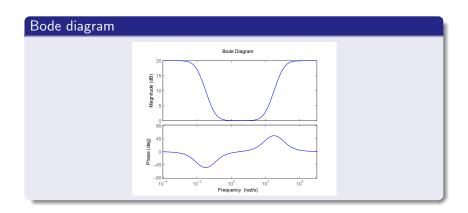
Magnitude of lag-lead compensator:

- becomes 10 (= 20 dB) at low frequencies
- becomes unity (= 0 dB) at frequencies of about  $1\frac{rad}{s}$  to  $10\frac{rad}{s}$
- becomes 10 (= 20 dB) at high frequencies
- $\Rightarrow$  Lag-lead compensator is a band stop filter

Explanation: 
$$\beta \tau_2 > \tau_2 > \tau_1 > \alpha \tau_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta \tau_2} < \frac{1}{\tau_2} < \frac{1}{\tau_1} < \frac{1}{\alpha \tau_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow pole_1 < zero_1 < zero_2 < pole_2$$



## Bode diagram

Both the good properties of a lag and a lead compensator are used:

- At low frequencies, the lag compensator is meant to decrease the steady-state error (see amplitude diagram).
- At middle frequenties, the lag compensator is meant to increase the phase margin (see amplitude diagram).
- At high frequencies, the lead compensator is meant to increase the phase margin (see phase diagram).

## Bode Diagram

Define  $\omega_I$  as the frequency at which the phase angle is zero. For any frequency less than  $\omega_I$ , the compensator behaves as a lag compensator. For any frequency greater than  $\omega_I$ , the compensator behaves as a lead compensator.

It can be proved that  $\omega_I = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\tau_1 \tau_2}}$  Prove: pag 649 in Ogata. Necessary?

#### Disadvantage

The disadvantage of a lag-lead compensator over a lag compensator or a lead compensator is its increased complexity, and hence cost (the same way a lag or lead compensator is more complex/costly than a proportional controller).

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#### Method

- Lead compensation achieves the desired result through the merits of its phaselead contribution.
- Lag compensation accomplishes the result through the merits of its attenuation property at high frequencies.

#### Band width

Lead compensators are commonly used for improving stability margins and yields a higher gain crossover frequency than is possible with lag compensation. The higher gain crossover frequency means a larger bandwidth.

- Advantage: reduction in the settling time ⇒ fast response
- Disadvantage: it makes the system more susceptible to noise signals because of an increase in the high-frequency gain.

#### Gain

Lead compensation requires an additional increase in gain to offset the attenuation inherent in the lead network.

- $\Rightarrow$  Lead compensation will require a larger gain than that required by lag compensation.
- ⇒ Lead compensation implies larger space, greater weight and higher cost than lag compensation.

#### Large signals

The lead compensation may generate large signals in the system. Such large signals are not desirable because they will cause saturation in the system.

## High and low frequencies

Lag compensation reduces the system gain at higher frequencies without reducing the system gain at lower frequencies. Because of the reduced high-frequency gain, the total system gain can be increased, and thereby low-frequency gain can be increased and the steady-state accuracy can be improved. Also, any highfrequency noises involved in the system can be attenuated.

#### Transient respons

Lag compensation will introduce a pole-zero combination near the origin that will generate a long tail with small amplitude in the transient response.

#### Lag-lead compensators

If both fast responses and good static accuracy are desired, a lag-lead compensator may be employed. By use of the lag-lead compensator, the low-frequency gain can be increased (which means an improvement in steady-state accuracy), while at the same time the system bandwidth and stability margins can be increased.

#### Most important of all

In daily live, you will need a combination of all those techniques!