

0.1 System types

Specifically, the position error constant k_p and velocity error constant k_v depend upon **the number of poles at the origin** in the open loop system. These correspond to roots in the denominator at $s = 0$, and represent a pure integration. Let's look more generally at the transfer function of our system and introduce the concept of system **type**. By factoring out any s terms from the denominator, we can write the transfer function in the following form:

$$G(s)H(s) = \frac{(s - z_1)(s - z_2)(s - z_3)\dots}{s^p(s - \sigma_1)(s - \sigma_2)(s - \alpha_k + j\omega_k)(s - \alpha_k - j\omega_k)\dots} \quad (1)$$

So, if there are p poles at the origin, the system is said to be a 'type p ' system.

System type IS NOT THE ORDER OF THE SYSTEM!

For example, the servo motor can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\Theta_0(s)}{\Theta_i(s)} = \frac{k}{s(Is + f)} \quad (2)$$

which is a type 1 system. The electromagnet from lecture 2 can be expressed as:

$$\frac{I(s)}{V(s)} = \frac{1}{Ls + R} \quad (3)$$

which is a type 0 system. The mass spring damper system can be expressed as:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + cs + k} \quad (4)$$

which is a type 0 system.

The system type quickly tells us the form of the SSE for our inputs without manipulation of block diagrams or converting to time domain. This gives an indication of the design of the controller.

0.1.1 System type - calculating error

Essentially, for a zero error we want k_p and k_v to be infinite, or at least be a constant for a finite error, depending on our requirements.

$$SSE = \frac{a}{1 + k_p}, \quad SSVL = \frac{a}{k_v} \quad (5)$$

$$k_p = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s)H(s), \quad k_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sG(s)H(s) \quad (6)$$

0.1.2 System type for unit feedback control systems - calculating error

The **position error constant** k_p for a *type p system* is given by:

- $p > 0$, $k_p = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s)H(s) = \infty$ - no steady-state position error
- $p = 0$, k_p is finite - finite position error

The **velocity error constant** for a *type p* system is given by:

- $p > 1$, $k_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sG(s) = \infty$ - no velocity error
- $p = 1$, k_v is finite - steady state velocity lag
- $p = 0$, $k_v = 0$ infinite lag (completely fails to track)

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0	$e_{ss} = \frac{a}{1+k_p}$	$e_{ss} = \infty$	$e_{ss} = \infty$
1	$e_{ss} = 0$	$e_{ss} = \frac{a}{k_v}$	$e_{ss} = \infty$
2	$e_{ss} = 0$	$e_{ss} = 0$	$e_{ss} = \frac{a}{k_a}$

Table 1:

where ∞ means the system never settles. The more poles there are at the origin of the open-loop system, the better steady-state tracking performance. However, pure integrations have a highly destabilising effect on the control system!

0.1.3 Type 0 servo - spring return

Previously we have looked at servos with inertia and damping only, without and compliance/springs. This gives a type-1 transfer function. However, when a spring is added, the system becomes type-0.

$$\frac{\Theta_0(s)}{\Theta_i(s)} = \frac{k}{s(Is + f)} \quad (7)$$

The question arises, why would you add a spring? Some systems are not bidirectional e.g. a single acting piston in a hydraulic system. A spring is needed to return the piston to the correct position in the cycle. A spring is often added to servo actuators to return to a given position when system is off. HVAC systems use this for fire safety. The transfer function of this servo now becomes:

$$\sum T = I \frac{d^2\theta_0}{dt^2} \quad (8)$$

$$I \frac{d^2\theta_0}{dt^2} = T_s + T_f + T_m \quad (9)$$

where T_s and T_f oppose the motion of the motor. In time domain:

$$I \frac{d^2\theta_0}{dt^2} = -k_s\theta_0 - f \frac{d\theta_0}{dt} + k_m\theta_i \quad (10)$$

In Laplace:

$$Is^2\Theta_0(s) = -k\Theta_0(s) - fs\Theta_0(s) + k_m\Theta_i(s) \quad (11)$$

$$Is^2\Theta_0(s) + k_s\Theta_0(s) + fs\Theta_0(s) = k_m\Theta_i(s) \quad (12)$$

$$\Theta_0(s) (Is^2 + k_s + fs) = k_m\Theta_i(s) \quad (13)$$

Transfer function:

$$\frac{\Theta_0(s)}{\Theta_i(s)} = \frac{k_m}{Is^2 + fs + k_s} = G(s) \quad (14)$$

So the closed loop transfer function is now:

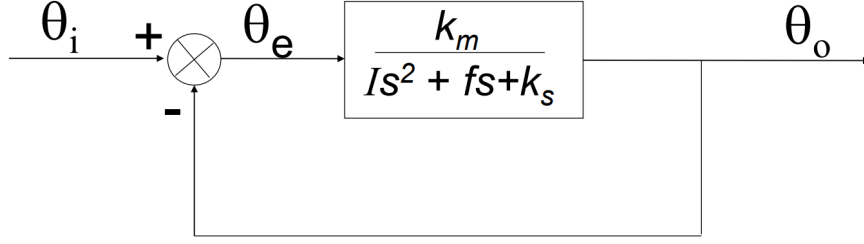


Figure 1:

$$F(s) = \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)} = \frac{k_m}{I s^2 + f s + k_s + k_m} \quad (15)$$

$$k_p = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s)H(s) = \frac{k_m}{I s^2 + f s + k_s} = \frac{k_m}{k_s} \quad (16)$$

$$k_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s G(s)H(s) = \frac{s k_m}{I s^2 + f s + k_s} = \frac{0}{k_s} \quad (17)$$

$$SSE = \frac{a}{1 + k_p} = \frac{a k_s}{k_s + k_m}, \quad SSVL = \frac{a}{k_v} = \infty \quad (18)$$

So now the servo will now only travel a fraction of the required distance for a step input, and will completely fail to track a ramp input, never settling to a steady state. We need an improved controller for these systems!

0.2 Proportional control

0.2.1 Proportional control - damping ratio trade off

We have seen the effect of damping ratio for our simple servo control system so far. We have two conflicting requirements:

- For transient response we want something around 0.6-0.8 to reduce overshoot and oscillations. $\zeta = \frac{f}{2\sqrt{kI}}$
- For steady state response, we want the damping ratio as low as possible at the expense of oscillations. $SSVL = \frac{af}{k} = \frac{2\zeta a}{\omega_n}$

For our type 1 servo, this trade off occurs if we want good ramp tracking, something we could possibly neglect in certain applications. However, the type 0 servo SSVL renders it close to unusable in most control applications (with the current controller). Commonly the challenge is to increase ζ , but with our current system, we do not have many options for adjustment.

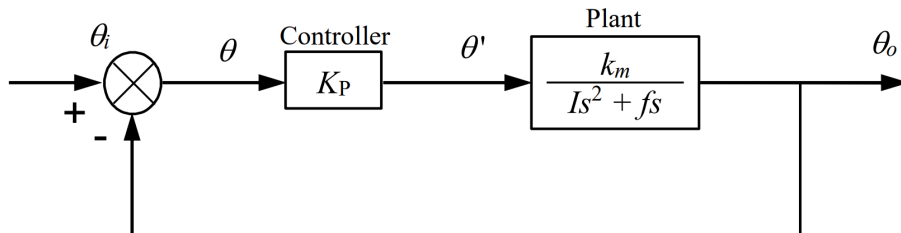


Figure 2:

We can either increase our friction f but this increases wear on the components, reducing the life of the system. So that leaves the controller gain k_p to adjust, we can reduce it at the expense of steady state performance. So we need a better controller!

0.3 Velocity feedback

0.3.1 Doing better - compensation methods

What the controller we have seen so far is known as a proportional controller, the control signal is directly proportional to the error signal, scaled by k_p . Compensation methods have been designed to improve **both** transient and steady state performance. One of the earliest and simplest compensation methods is to consider not just the position but the velocity too.

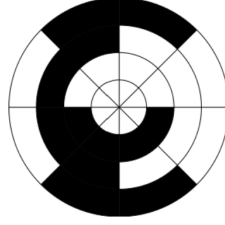


Figure 3:

If we take the position from the shaft encoder, and also record the change over time, we can measure the speed. The block diagram of this is just s - as this is the differential operator, we also include another gain here k_{vel} so we can choose the relative contributions of the two feedbacks. So we have the following block diagram.

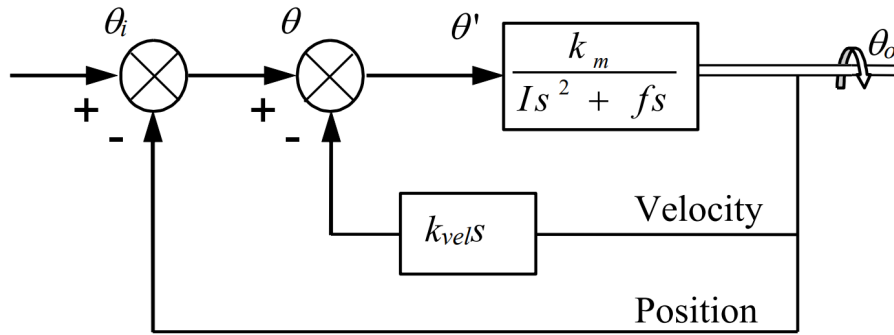


Figure 4:

Inner comparator:

$$\theta' = \theta - k_{vel}s\theta_0 \quad (19)$$

Outer comparator:

$$\theta = \theta_i - \theta_0 \quad (20)$$

If we calculate the new closed loop transfer function - work outwards!

$$\frac{\theta_0}{\theta} = \frac{G}{1 + GH} = F(s) \quad (21)$$

$$F(s) = \frac{\frac{k_m}{Is^2 + fs}}{1 + \frac{k_m}{Is^2 + fs} k_{vel} s} = \frac{k_m}{Is^2 + fs + k_m k_{vel} s} \quad (22)$$

$$= \frac{k_m}{Is^2 + (f + k_m k_{vel}) s} \quad (23)$$

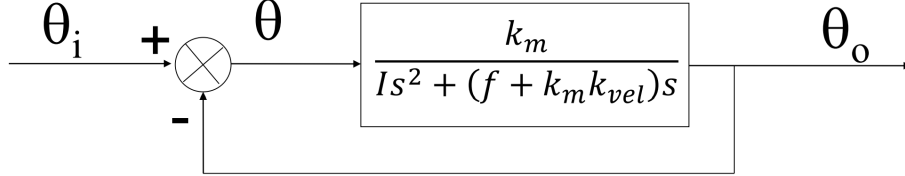


Figure 5:

Inner loop transfer function:

$$F(s) = \frac{k_m}{Is^2 + (f + k_m k_{vel}) s} \quad (24)$$

Total closed loop transfer function:

$$F_T(s) = \frac{F}{1 + F} \quad (25)$$

$$F_T(s) = \frac{k_m}{Is^2 + (f + k_m k_{vel}) s + k_m} \quad (26)$$

$$F_T(s) = \frac{\frac{k_m}{I}}{s^2 + \frac{(f + k_m k_{vel})}{I} s + \frac{k_m}{I}} \quad (27)$$

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{k_m}{I}}, \quad \zeta = \frac{f + k_m k_{vel}}{2\sqrt{k_m I}} \quad (28)$$

So by adding the extra loop, we are able to keep the natural frequency the same, *but increase the damping ratio*. This means we can greatly improve the transient response compared to proportional control, where we can only scale the motor gain k_m through adjusting the parameter k_p . This is evident when considering the position of the poles of the system on the s-plane. Adjusting the motor gain using proportional control (k_p) can only move the poles closer to the real axis. But using velocity feedback (k_{vel}), it is possible to move the poles away from the imaginary axis, thus reducing the decay time.

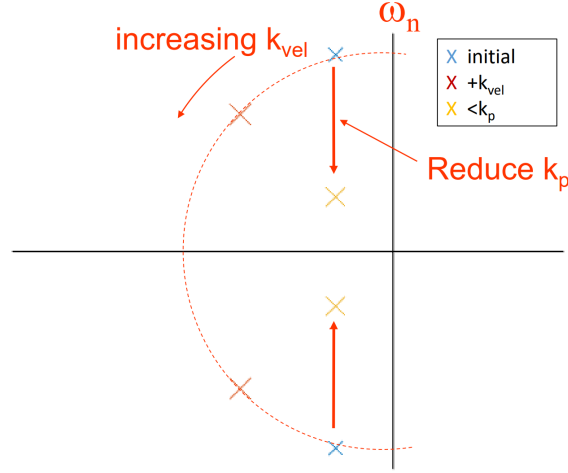


Figure 6:

In this example, the initial zeta was $\zeta = 0.3$, in order to achieve the practical estimate of $\zeta = 0.7$ with proportional control, we have to increase both the rise time and settling time. However, with velocity feedback we can achieve a vastly improved transient response.

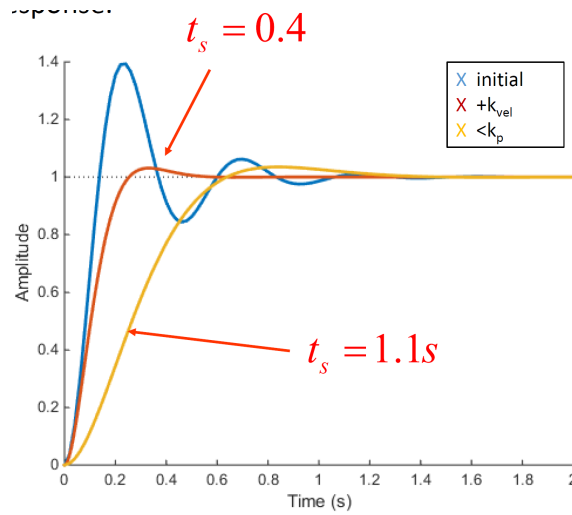


Figure 7:

0.3.2 Velocity feedback - disadvantages

This improved transient response comes at the expense of the steady state error, the expression for the SSVL becomes:

$$k_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s) = \frac{sk_m}{Is^2 + (f + k_mk_{vel})s} = \frac{k_m}{f + k_mk_{vel}} \quad (29)$$

$$SSVL = a \frac{k_m}{f + k_mk_{vel}} \quad (30)$$

Compare this SSVL to the one we had previously ($\frac{af}{k}$). Using this feedback system allows for the designer to trade off the transient and steady state response dependent

upon the requirements of the system. However, using the velocity in this manner is very sensitive to errors or noise from the sensor, which give large instantaneous changes in the error signal. To combat this, a low pass filter is normally employed in the feedback loop before the derivative term.

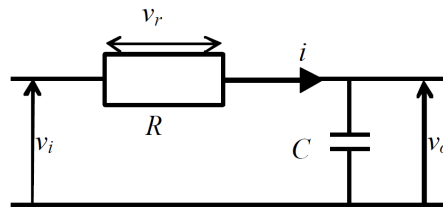


Figure 8:

$$= \frac{1}{RCs + 1} \text{ see lecture 2} \quad (31)$$

This makes the response more complex and slightly reduces the improvements in transient response obtained.

0.3.3 Alternative controllers

The velocity feedback is rather specific to servomechanisms with a shaft encoder. It is not always possible to have a sensor or a measurement from which both the variable and the derivative can be acquired simultaneously.

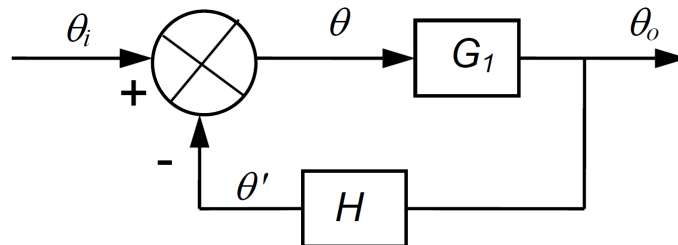


Figure 9:

Instead, we can consider what happens to the *error* across time - something necessarily present in all closed loop systems!

0.4 PID control

PID = Proportional, Integral and Derivative controllers: These controllers consist of three terms, all applied to the error signal. They are *incredibly* common in engineering, accounting for nearly 90% of all use cases.

0.4.1 Working example: PID control for servo-mechanism

These can be modelled as shown below, with a DC motor rotating an inertial load, with a friction or damping resistance.

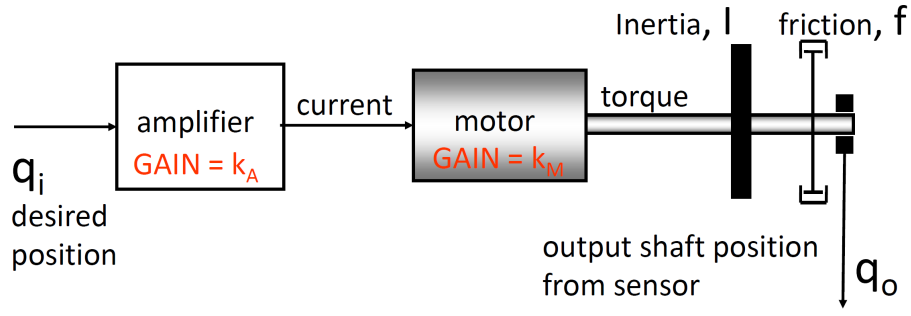


Figure 10:

0.4.2 Proportional error

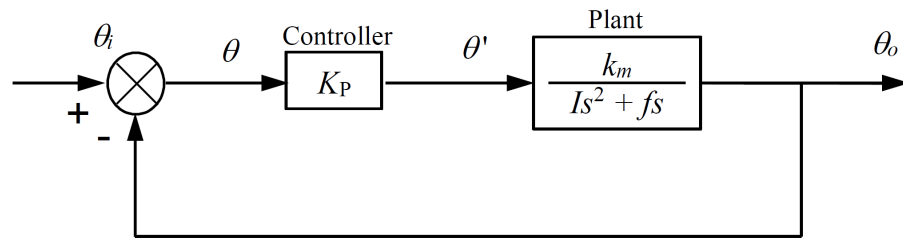


Figure 11:

$$F(s) = \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)} = \frac{k_p k_m}{Is^2 + fs + k_p k_m} \quad (32)$$

We have already seen this in our previous analysis of second order systems, and from changing k_m from last last week. To summarise: