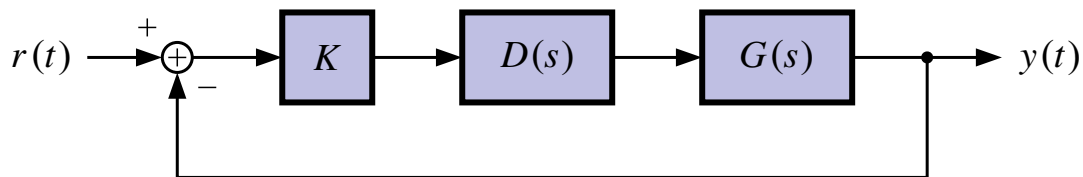


# ROOT-LOCUS CONTROLLER DESIGN

## 7.1: Using root-locus ideas to design controller

- We have seen how to draw a root locus for given plant dynamics.
- We include a variable gain  $K$  in a unity-feedback configuration—we know this as proportional control.
- Sometimes, proportional control with a carefully chosen value of  $K$  is sufficient for the closed-loop system to meet specifications.
- But, what if the set of closed-loop pole location does not simultaneously satisfy the geometry that defines the specifications?
- We need to modify the locus itself by adding extra dynamics—a compensator or controller  $D(s)$ :



- We redraw the locus and pick  $K$  in order to put the poles where we want them. HOW?

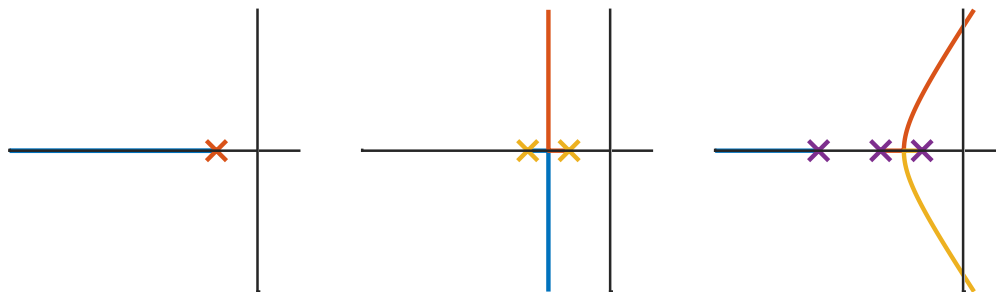
$$T(s) = \frac{K D(s) G(s)}{1 + K D(s) G(s)}. \quad \text{Now, let } \tilde{G}(s) = D(s) G(s)$$

$$= \frac{K \tilde{G}(s)}{1 + K \tilde{G}(s)} \quad \Rightarrow \text{We know how to draw this locus!}$$

- Adding a compensator effectively adds dynamics to the plant.

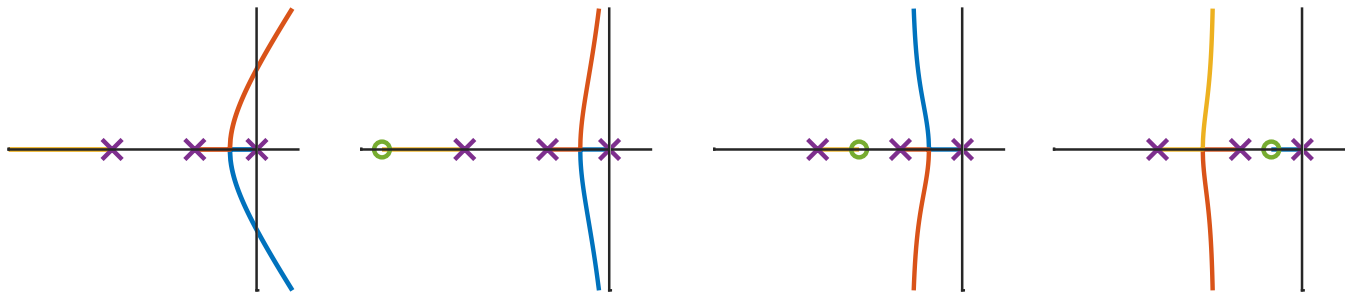
## Adding a left-half-plane pole or zero

- Two questions: (1) What types of compensation should we use, and (2) how do we figure out where to put the additional dynamics?
- In ECE4510/5510, the methods we discuss are “science-inspired art.”
  - We need to get a “feel” for how the root locus changes when poles and zeros are added, to understand what dynamics to use for  $D(s)$ .
- In more advanced courses, we learn more powerful methods:
  - In ECE5520, we learn how to put all closed-loop poles exactly where we want them (but, where do we want them?)
  - In ECE5530, we learn how to find the optimal set of pole locations.
- But, for us to get started, speaking in generalities, adding a left-half-plane pole pulls the root locus to the right.
  - This tends to lower the system’s relative stability and slow down the settling of the response.
  - But, providing that the closed-loop system is stable, the pole can also decrease steady-state errors.



- In first plot: The system is stable for all  $K$ , responses are smooth.
- In second plot: System also stable for all  $K$ , but when poles become complex, response shows overshoot and oscillations.

- In third plot: The system is stable only for small  $K$ , and oscillations increase as the poles approach the imaginary axis.
  - But, steady-state error improves from left to right (assuming the closed-loop system is stable).
- Again, generally speaking, adding a left-half-plane zero pulls the root locus to the left.
- This tends to make the system more stable, and speed up the settling of the response.
  - Physically, a zero adds derivative control to the system, introducing anticipation into the system, speeding up transient response.
  - However, steady-state errors can get worse.



- In first plot: System is stable only for small  $K$ , and oscillates as poles approach imaginary axis.
  - In second plot: System is stable for all  $K$ , but still oscillates.
  - In third and fourth plots: More stable, less oscillation.
  - But, steady-state error degrades from left to right.
- Can't physically add a zero without a pole: Must put pole very far left in  $s$ -plane so we don't deteriorate desired impact of zero.

## 7.2: Reducing steady-state error

- We have a number of options available to us if we wish to reduce steady-state error.

### 1) Proportional feedback

$$D(s) = 1. \quad u(t) = K e(t)$$

$$T(s) = \frac{K G(s)}{1 + K G(s)}.$$

- Same as what we have already looked at.
- Controller consists of only a “gain knob.”
  - Increasing gain  $K$  often reduces steady-state error, but can degrade transient response.
  - We have to take the locus “as given” since we have no extra dynamics to modify it.
  - Can’t independently choose steady-state error and transient response. Can design for one or other, not both.
- Usually a very limited approach, but a good place to start.

### 2) Integral feedback

$$D(s) = \frac{1}{T_I s} \quad u(t) = \frac{K}{T_I} \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$$

$$T(s) = \frac{\frac{K}{T_I} \frac{G(s)}{s}}{1 + \frac{K}{T_I} \frac{G(s)}{s}}.$$

- Usually used to reduce/eliminate steady-state error. *i.e.*, if  $e(t)$  constant,  $u(t)$  will become very large and hopefully correct the error.
- Ideally, we would like no error,  $e_{ss} = 0$ . (Maybe 1 % to 2 % in reality)

**ANALYSIS:** For a unity-feedback control system, the steady-state error to a unit-step input is:

$$e_{ss} = \frac{1}{1 + KD(0)G(0)}.$$

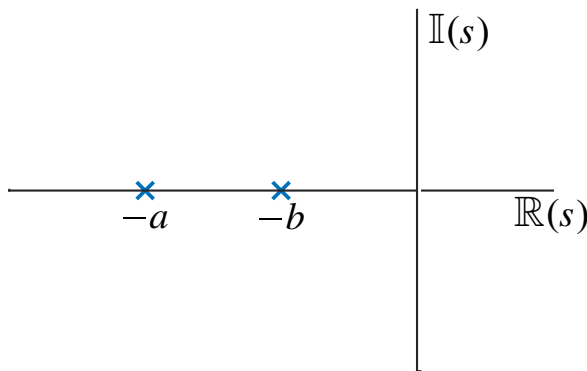
- If we make  $D(s) = \frac{1}{T_I s}$ , then as  $s \rightarrow 0$ ,  $D(s) \rightarrow \infty$

$$e_{ss} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1 + \infty} = 0.$$

- Adding the integrator into the compensator has reduced error from  $\frac{1}{1 + K_p}$  to zero for systems that do not have any free integrators.
- Adding the integrator increases the system type, but as steady-state response improves, transient response often degrades.

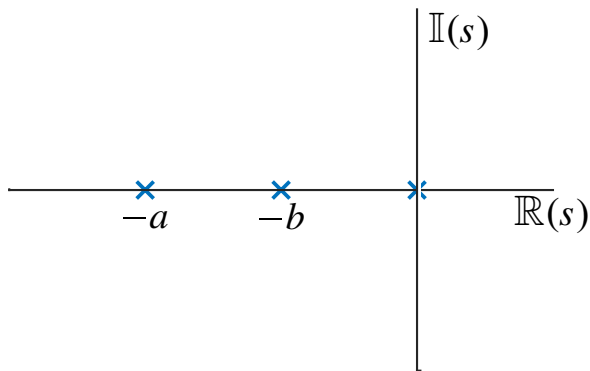
**EXAMPLE:**  $G(s) = \frac{1}{(s + a)(s + b)}$ ,  $a > b > 0$ .

- Proportional feedback,  $D(s) = 1$ ,  $G(0) = \frac{1}{ab}$ ,  $e_{ss} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{K}{ab}}$ .



- We can make  $e_{ss}$  small by making  $K$  very large, but this often leads to poorly-damped behavior and often requires excessively large actuators.

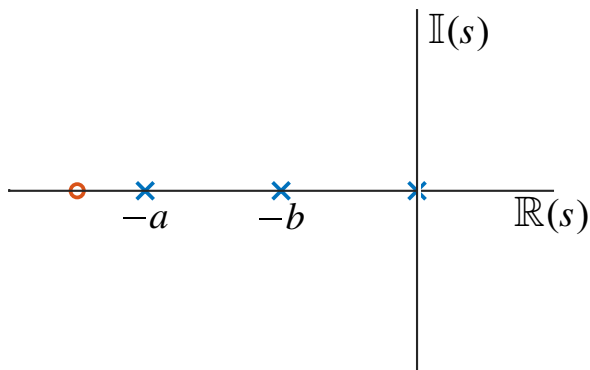
- Integral feedback,  $D(s) = \frac{1}{T_I s}$ ,  $e_{ss} = 0$ .



- Increasing  $K$  to increase the speed of response pushes the pole toward the imaginary axis  $\Rightarrow$  oscillatory.

### 3) Proportional-integral (PI) control

- Now,  $D(s) = K \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{T_I s} \right] = K \left[ \frac{s + (1/T_I)}{s} \right]$ . Both a pole and a zero.



- Combination of proportional and integral (PI) solves many of the problems with just (I) integral.

### 4) Phase-lag control

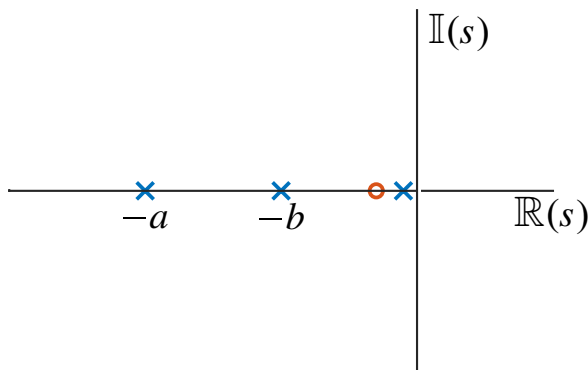
- The integrator in PI control can cause some practical problems; e.g., “integrator windup” due to actuator saturation.
- PI control is often approximated by “lag control.”

$$D(s) = \frac{(s - z_0)}{(s - p_0)}, \quad |p_0| < |z_0|.$$

That is, the pole is closer to the origin than the zero.

- Because  $|z_0| > |p_0|$ , the phase  $\phi$  added to the open-loop transfer function is negative. . . “phase lag”
- Pole often placed *very* close to the origin ( $s = 0$ ). e.g.,  $p_0 \approx 0.01$ .

- Zero is placed near pole. *e.g.*,  $z_0 \approx 0.1$ . We want  $|D(s)| \approx 1$  for all  $s$  to preserve transient response (and hence, have nearly the same root locus as for a proportional controller).
- Idea is to improve steady-state error but to modify the transient response as little as possible.
  - That is, using proportional control, we have pole locations we like already, but poor steady-state error.
  - So, we add a lag controller to minimally disturb the existing good pole locations, but improve steady-state error.



- Good steady-state error without overflow problems. Very similar to proportional control.

- The uncompensated system had loop gain  $K_{\text{before}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s)$ .
- The lag-compensated system has loop gain

$$K_{\text{after}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} D(s)G(s) = (z_0/p_0) \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s).$$

- Since  $|z_0| > |p_0|$ , there is an improvement in the position/velocity/etc. error constant of the system, and a reduction in steady-state error.
- Transient response is mostly unchanged, but slightly slower settling due to small-magnitude slow “tail” caused by lag compensator.

## 7.3: Improving transient response

- We have a number of options available to us if we wish to improve transient response

### 1) Proportional feedback

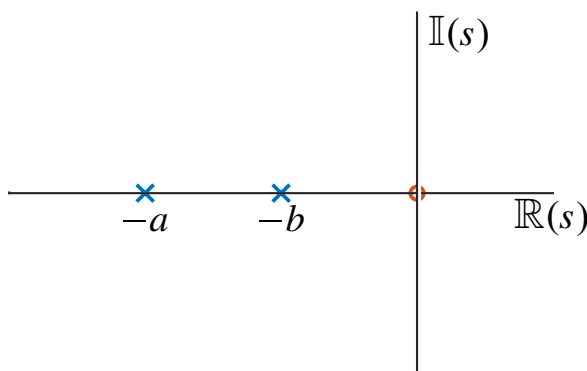
- Again, we could use a proportional feedback controller.
- It has the same benefits and limitations that we've already seen.

### 2) Derivative feedback

$$D(s) = T_D s, \quad u(t) = K T_D \dot{e}(t).$$

- Does nothing to help the steady-state error. In fact, it can make it worse.
- But, derivative control provides feedback that is proportional to the rate-of-change of  $e(t)$   $\Rightarrow$  control response *ANTICIPATES* future errors.
- Very beneficial—tends to smooth out response, reduce ringing.

**EXAMPLE:**  $G(s) = \frac{1}{(s+a)(s+b)}, \quad D(s) = T_D s.$



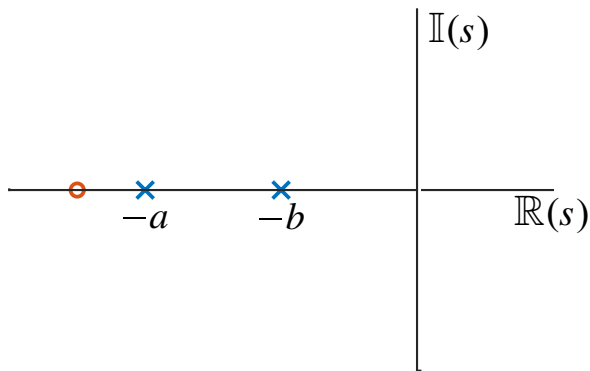
- No ringing. “Very” stable.

### 3) Proportional-derivative (PD) control

- Often, proportional control and derivative control go together.

$$D(s) = 1 + T_D s.$$





- No more zero at  $s = 0$ .
- Therefore better steady-state response.

#### 4) Phase-lead control

- Derivative magnifies sensor noise.
- Instead of D-control or PD-control use “lead control.”

$$D(s) = \frac{(s - z_0)}{(s - p_0)}, \quad |z_0| < |p_0|.$$

That is, the zero is closer to the origin than the pole.

- Same form as lag control, but with different intent:
  - Lag control does not change locus much since  $p_0 \approx z_0 \approx 0$ . Instead, lag control improves steady-state error.
  - Lead control *DOES* change locus. Pole and zero locations chosen so that locus will pass through some desired point  $s = s_1$ .

**DESIGN METHOD I:** Sometimes, we can be successful by choosing the value of  $z_0$  to cancel a stable pole in the plant.

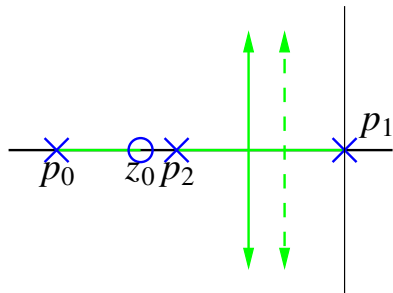
- Then, we solve for  $K$  and  $p_0$  such that

$$[1 + KD(s)G(s)]|_{s=s_1} = 0.$$

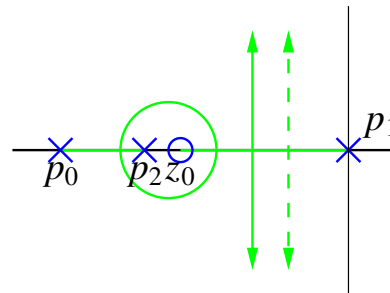
- That is, we force one closed-loop pole to be at  $s = s_1$ .
- This does not ensure that other poles do anything reasonable, so we must always test design.

- And, what about pole-zero cancelation? Can it occur?

If our zero is too far left



If our zero is too far right



- Either way, the locus is still okay. (What if we tried to cancel an unstable pole?)

**DESIGN METHOD II:** If there is no stable real pole to cancel, we can still use similar approach.

- Use somewhat modified version of lead compensator form

$$D(s) = \frac{a_1s + a_0}{b_1s + 1}.$$

- Choose  $a_0$  to get specified dc gain (e.g., open-loop gain= $K_p$ ,  $K_v$ , ...)

$$\left| \left[ \frac{a_1s + a_0}{b_1s + 1} \right] G(s) \right|_{s=0} = \text{dc gain.}$$

$$|a_0| |G(0)| = \text{dc gain.}$$

$$a_0 = \frac{\text{Desired dc gain}}{|G(0)|}.$$

- $a_1$  and  $b_1$  are chosen to make locus go through  $s = s_1$ ,

$$\left[ \frac{a_1s_1 + a_0}{b_1s_1 + 1} \right] G(s_1) = -1$$

for that point to be on the root locus.

$$\Rightarrow \text{Magnitude } \left| \frac{a_1 s_1 + a_0}{b_1 s_1 + 1} \right| |G(s_1)| = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Phase } \angle \left[ \frac{a_1 s_1 + a_0}{b_1 s_1 + 1} \right] + \angle G(s_1) = 180^\circ.$$

(math happens)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_1 &= \frac{\sin(\beta) + a_0 |G(s_1)| \sin(\beta - \psi)}{|s_1| |G(s_1)| \sin(\psi)} \\ b_1 &= \frac{\sin(\beta + \psi) + a_0 |G(s_1)| \sin(\beta)}{-|s_1| \sin(\psi)} \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} s_1 &= |s_1| e^{j\beta} \\ G(s_1) &= |G(s_1)| e^{j\psi}. \end{aligned}$$

### 5) Proportional-integral-derivative (PID) control

- There is a similar design procedure for PID control:

$$D(s) = K \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{T_I s} + T_D s \right] = K_p + \frac{K_I}{s} + K_d s.$$

- Compute:  $K_p = \frac{-\sin(\beta + \psi)}{|G(s_1)| \sin(\beta)} - \frac{2K_I \cos \beta}{|s_1|}$
- Compute:  $K_d = \frac{\sin(\psi)}{|s_1| |G(s_1)| \sin(\beta)} + \frac{K_I}{|s_1|^2}$ , where  $s_1 = |s_1| e^{j\beta}$  and  $G(s_1) = |G(s_1)| e^{j\psi}$  for both cases.
- $T_I$  chosen to match some design criteria. *e.g.*, steady-state error.
- Convert to first form via  $K = K_p$ ;  $T_I = K/K_I$ ;  $T_D = K_d/K$ .

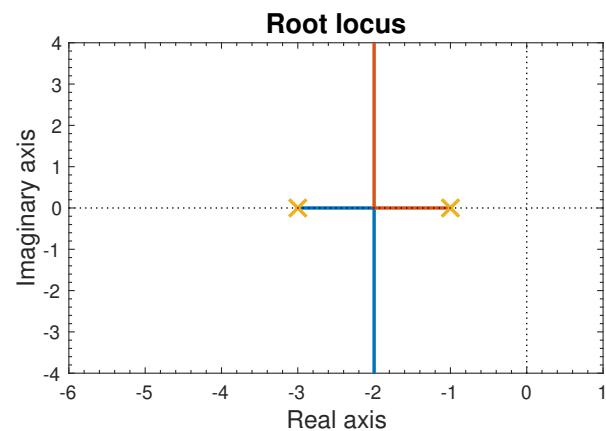
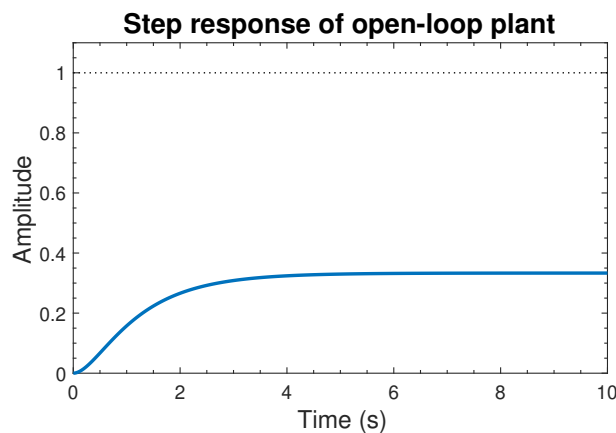
### 6) Lead-lag control

- If we must satisfy both a transient and steady-state spec:
  - Design a lead controller to meet transient spec first;
  - Include lead controller with plant after its design is final;
  - Design a lag controller (where “plant” = actual plant and lead controller combined) to meet steady-state spec.

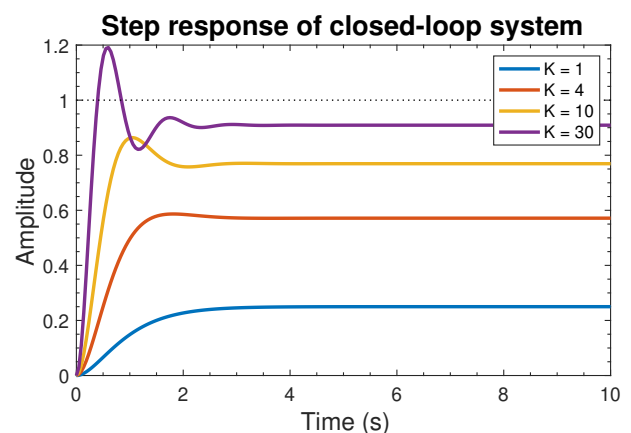
## 7.4: Examples (a)

**EXAMPLE I:** We start with the plant  $G(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+3)}$ .

- The open-loop step response for  $G(s)$  is plotted to the left.
- The root locus (assuming proportional control) is plotted to the right.



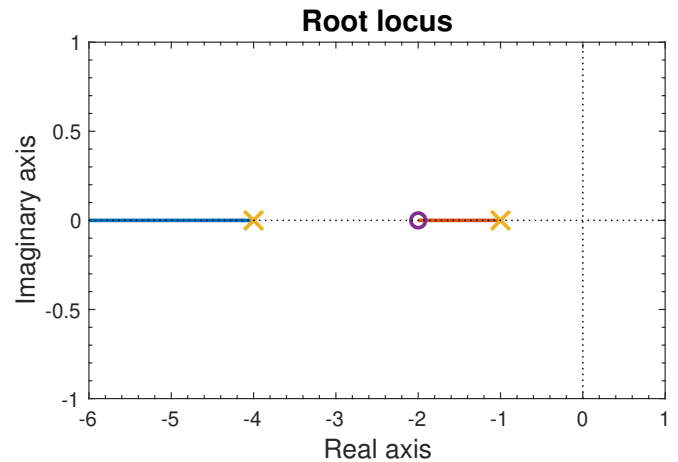
- We see that the open-loop response is smooth (good), slow (bad), and has very large steady-state error (bad).
- But, root locus shows that proportional control moves pole locations.
- The plot to the right shows step responses of closed-loop systems with proportional control.
- Changing  $K$  “shapes” the transient response.
- Higher values of  $K$  speed up the closed-loop response when compared to the open-loop response (good), decrease steady-state error (good), but also add ringing to the transient response (bad).



**EXAMPLE II:** We start with the plant  $G(s) = \frac{s+2}{(s+1)(s+4)}$ .

- Using proportional control, we wish to solve for the value of  $K$  that places a closed-loop pole at  $s = -5$ .

- First, we draw the locus to ensure that it does pass through  $s = -5$ .



- It does! Looking good so far.

- Next, we remember that the root-locus “magnitude condition” gives us

$$\begin{aligned}
 K &= \frac{1}{|G(s)|} \Big|_{s=-5} \\
 &= \left| \frac{(s+1)(s+4)}{s+2} \right|_{s=-5} \\
 &= \left| \frac{(-4)(-1)}{(-3)} \right| \\
 &= \frac{4}{3}.
 \end{aligned}$$

- We’re done, but we can further double-check that  $s = -5$  is a point on the root locus using the “angle condition”

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\angle G(s)]_{s=-5} &= [\angle(s+2) - \angle(s+1) - \angle(s+4)]_{s=-5} \\
 &= 180^\circ - 180^\circ - 180^\circ = -180^\circ.
 \end{aligned}$$

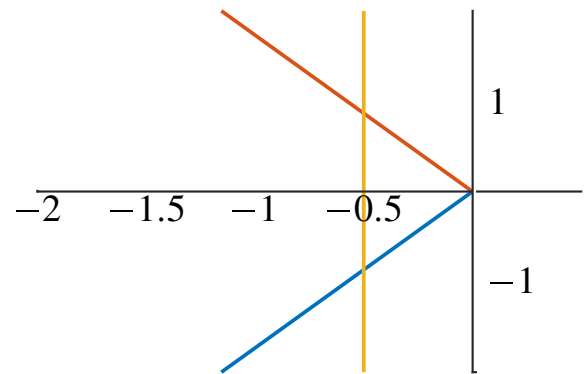
- So, the angle condition is satisfied as well (meaning we didn’t have to draw the root locus to ensure that  $s = -5$  was a valid locus point).

**EXAMPLE III:** We start with the plant

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s(10s + 1)}.$$

- Our goal is to have closed-loop

- $M_p < 16\%$ . This means that  $\zeta \geq 0.5$ .
- $t_s < 10$  secs to 1%. This means that  $\sigma \geq 0.46$ .
- $e_{ss}$  for ramp input  $< 0.01$  when slope of ramp = 0.01. This means that  $K_v = 0.01/0.01 = 1.0$ .



- Since we need to change transient response, we choose to use a lead controller.
- Since the plant has a stable real pole, we choose  $D(s)$  to approximately cancel plant pole.

$$D(s) = \frac{10s + 1}{s + p_0}.$$

- Initially, choose  $s_1 = -0.5 + j$  to be a point on the locus. So, we want

$$\left[ 1 + K \left( \frac{10s + 1}{s + p_0} \right) \left( \frac{1}{s(10s + 1)} \right) \right] \Big|_{s=s_1} = 0$$

and

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \left[ K \left( \frac{10s + 1}{s + p_0} \right) \left( \frac{1}{s(10s + 1)} \right) \right] \geq 1.$$

- The steady-state error spec gives  $K \geq p_0$ . For simplicity, choose  $K = p_0$ .
- The transient spec gives

$$\left[ 1 + p_0 \left( \frac{1}{s(s + p_0)} \right) \right]_{s=s_1} = 0$$

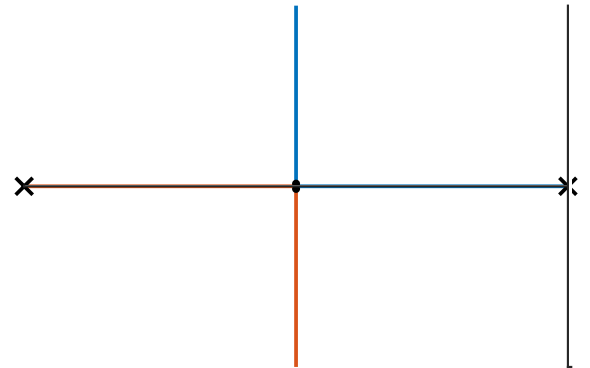
$$s_1(s_1 + p_0) + p_0 = 0$$

$$s_1^2 + s_1 p_0 + p_0 = 0$$

$$p_0(1 + s_1) = -s_1^2$$

$$p_0 = -\frac{s_1^2}{1 + s_1}$$

- Solving gives  $p_0 = 1.1 - 0.2j$ . This is not a feasible design since  $p_0$  must be real.
- Modify  $p_0$  to  $p_0 = 1.1$ . This gives  $K = 1.1$ ,  $K_v = 1$ , and poles at  $-0.55 \pm 0.893j$ .
- This gives  $\omega_n \approx 1$  for pole locations, so  $t_r \approx 1.8$  s.
- Could choose slightly larger  $K$ , still achieve transient-response specs, but have better steady-state response since  $K \geq p_0$ .



## 7.5: Examples (b)

**EXAMPLE IV:** Consider the plant  $G(s) = \frac{1}{s^2}$ .

- We want to design a compensator

$$D(s) = \frac{a_1s + a_0}{b_1s + 1}$$

so the closed-loop system has a pole at  $s_1 = 2\sqrt{2}e^{j135^\circ} = -2 + 2j$ .  
(The point  $s_1$  is chosen to achieve  $\zeta = 0.707$  and  $\tau = 0.5$  s.)

- Here, there is no stable real pole in  $G(s)$ , so we use the second design method for a lead compensator.

- Step 1, compute  $a_0$ : We cannot compute  $a_0$  since  $\frac{1}{s^2} \Big|_{s=0} \rightarrow \infty$ . So, *arbitrarily* choose  $a_0 = 2$ .

- Step 2, compute  $a_1$ : Note,  $\beta = 135^\circ$ ,  $\psi = -270^\circ$  because

$$G(s_1) = \frac{1}{s^2} \Big|_{s=2\sqrt{2}e^{j135^\circ}} = \frac{1}{8}e^{-j270^\circ}.$$

$$a_1 = \frac{\sin(135^\circ) + 2(1/8)\sin(45^\circ)}{(2\sqrt{2})(1/8)\sin(-270^\circ)} = \frac{(1/\sqrt{2})(1 + 1/4)}{\sqrt{2}/4} = \frac{5}{2}.$$

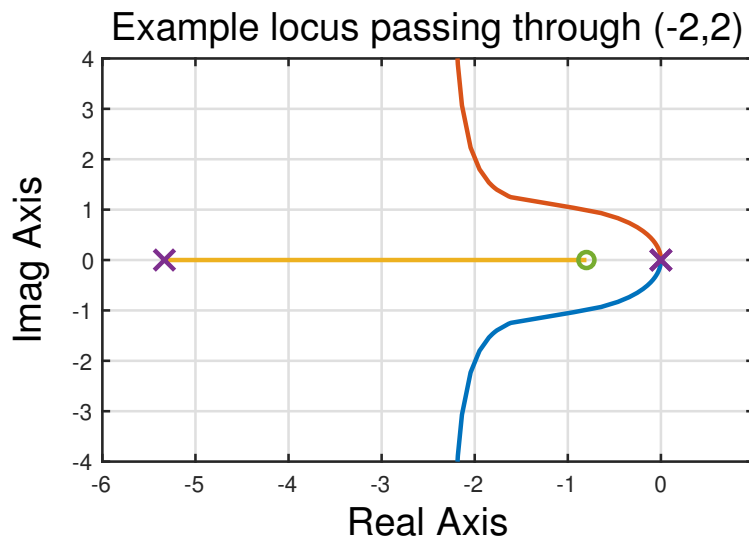
- Step 3, compute  $b_1$ :

$$b_1 = \frac{\sin(-135^\circ) + 2(1/8)\sin(135^\circ)}{-(2\sqrt{2})\sin(-270^\circ)} = \frac{-(1/\sqrt{2})(1 - 1/4)}{-2\sqrt{2}} = \frac{3}{16}.$$

- So, the compensator is:

$$D(s) = \frac{(5/2)s + 2}{(3/16)s + 1}.$$





**EXAMPLE V:** An alternative way to solve the prior problem uses coefficient matching.

- We have that  $G(s) = \frac{1}{s^2}$ , and have assumed that  $D(s) = \frac{a_1s + 2}{b_1s + 1}$ .
- We want two closed-loop poles at  $s = -2 \pm 2j$ , but recognize that there will be a total of three closed-loop poles (because of the added compensator pole).
- So, we can specify a **desired** characteristic equation

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_d(s) &= (s + \alpha)(s + 2 + 2j)(s + 2 - 2j) \\ &= (s + \alpha)(s^2 + 4s + 8) \\ &= s^3 + (4 + \alpha)s^2 + (8 + 4\alpha)s + 8\alpha = 0,\end{aligned}$$

where  $s = -\alpha$  is the (unknown *a priori*) location of the third pole.

- The **actual** characteristic equation is

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_a(s) &= 1 + D(s)G(s) = 0 \\ &= 1 + \left(\frac{a_1s + 2}{b_1s + 1}\right) \left(\frac{1}{s^2}\right) \\ &= b_1s^3 + s^2 + a_1s + 2 = 0.\end{aligned}$$

- The coefficient-matching method forces the polynomial coefficients of the desired and actual characteristic equations to be the same.
- Looking at the  $s^3$  coefficients, we could set  $b_1 = 1$ , but then we would have problems because we cannot simultaneously have

$$4 + \alpha = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 8\alpha = 2.$$

- So, we divide  $\chi_a(s)$  by  $b_1$ , without changing its meaning:

$$\chi_a(s) = s^3 + \frac{1}{b_1}s^2 + \frac{a_1}{b_1}s + \frac{2}{b_1} = 0.$$

- This has given us another degree of freedom when solving. Now, we have

$$4 + \alpha = \frac{1}{b_1}, \quad 8 + 4\alpha = \frac{a_1}{b_1} \quad \text{and} \quad 8\alpha = \frac{2}{b_1}.$$

- Combining the first and third equations gives

$$2(4 + \alpha) = 8\alpha$$

$$8 = 6\alpha$$

$$\alpha = \frac{4}{3}.$$

- With this value of  $\alpha$ , we have  $b_1 = 3/16$  and  $a_1 = 5/2$ , as before.

**EXAMPLE VI:** Consider the compensated system of Example III.

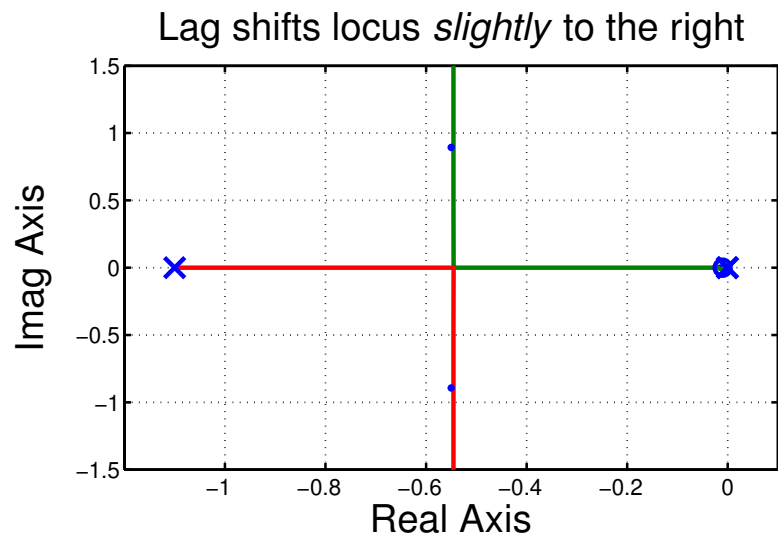
$$G(s) = \frac{1.1}{s(s + 1.1)}.$$

- We like the transient response (so want to leave it alone), but wish to improve the steady-state response by a factor of 10.
- This calls for a lag controller. Recall that

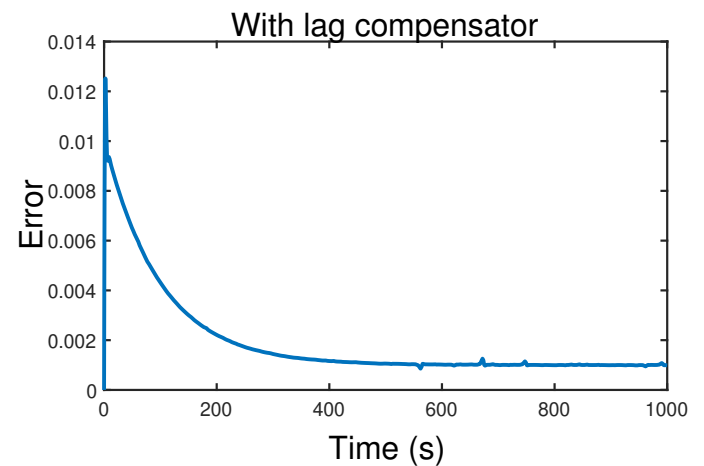
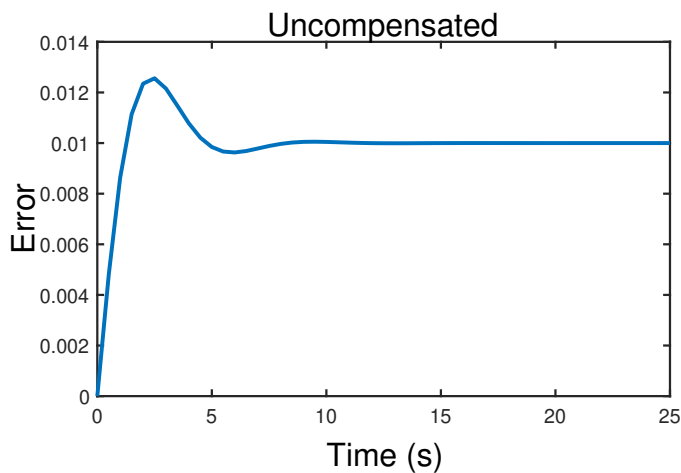
$$K_{\text{after}} = (z_0/p_0) K_{\text{before}},$$

so, we want  $z_0/p_0 \geq 10$ .

- Choose  $p_0 = 0.001$ . Then,  $z_0 = 0.01$  and  $D(z) = \frac{s + 0.01}{s + 0.001}$ .



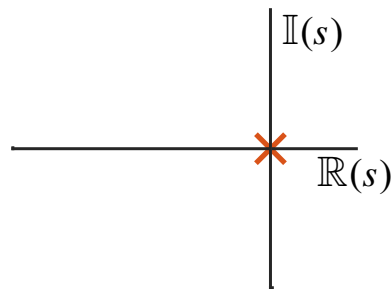
- Plots of error versus time without and with the new lag compensator (simulated using Simulink):



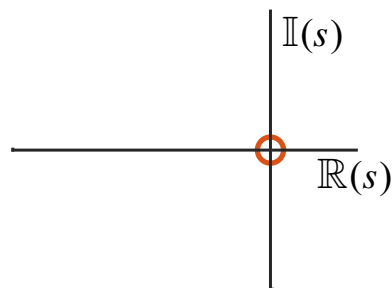
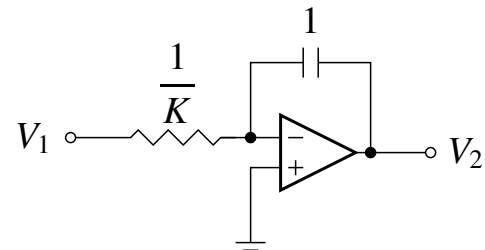
- Notice the different time scales: The lag adds a small-amplitude slow time constant to the output.

## 7.6: Compensator implementation

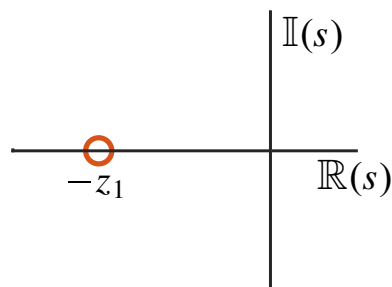
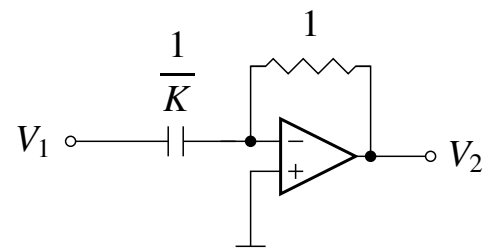
- Analog compensators commonly use op-amp circuits.
- See the following pages...



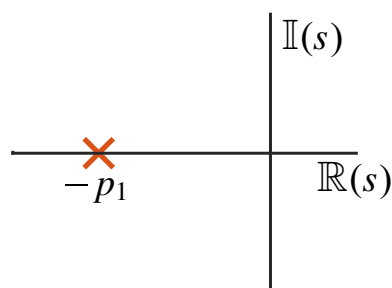
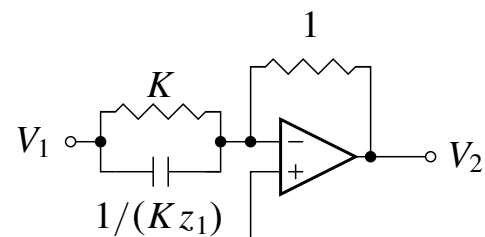
$$-\frac{K}{s}$$



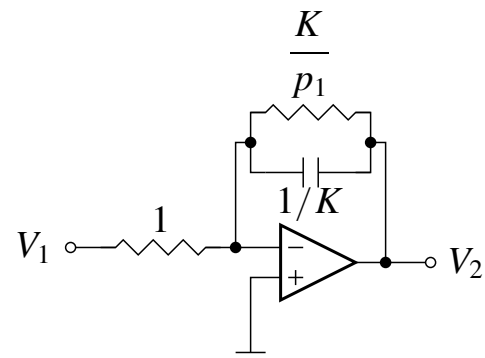
$$-Ks$$

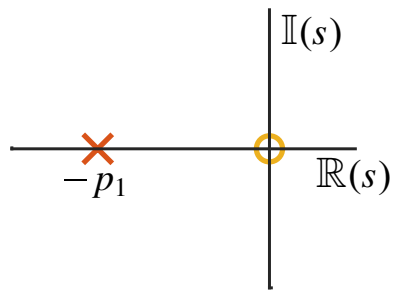


$$-K(s + z_1)$$

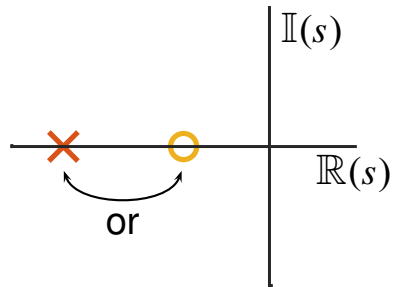
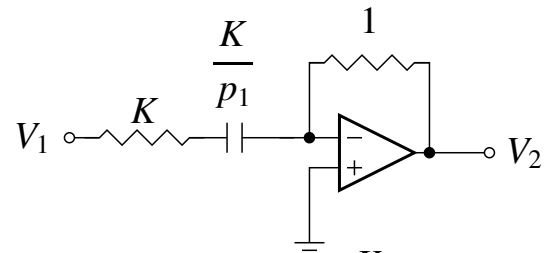


$$\frac{-K}{s + p_1}$$



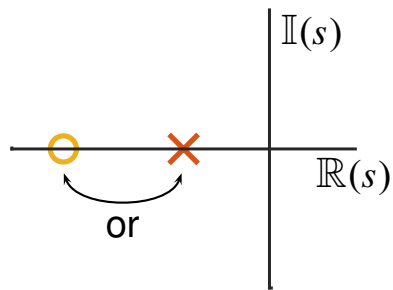
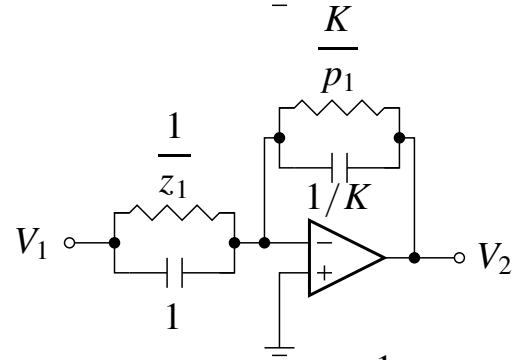


$$\frac{-Ks}{s + p_1}$$



$$-K \frac{s + z_1}{s + p_1}$$

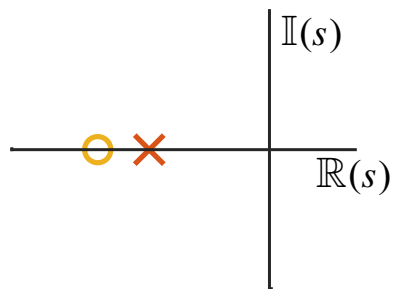
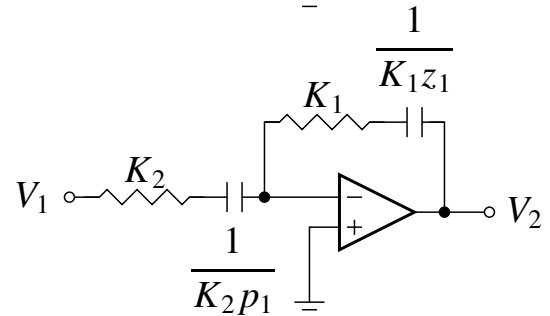
any  $p_1$  and  $z_1$



$$-K \frac{s + z_1}{s + p_1}$$

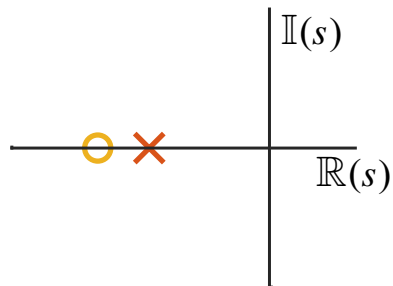
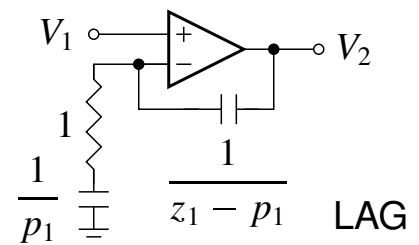
$$K = \frac{K_1}{K_2}$$

any  $p_1$  and  $z_1$



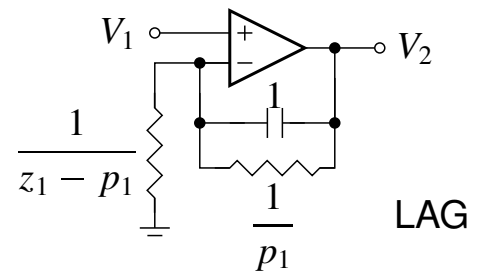
$$\frac{s + z_1}{s + p_1}$$

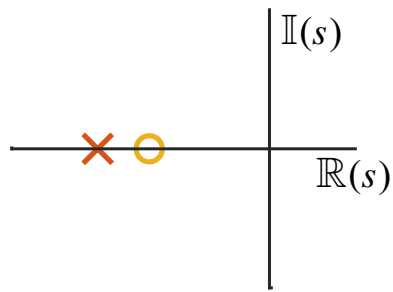
$z_1 > p_1$



$$\frac{s + z_1}{s + p_1}$$

$z_1 > p_1$

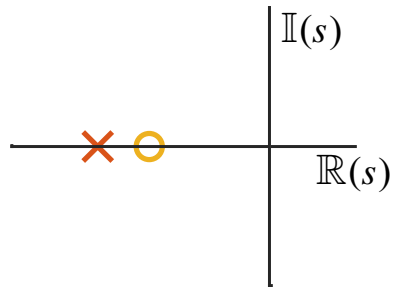
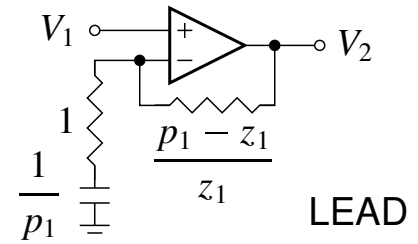




$$K \frac{s + z_1}{s + p_1}$$

$$p_1 > z_1$$

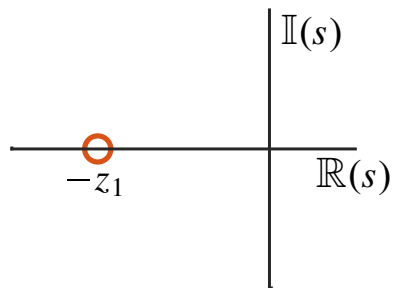
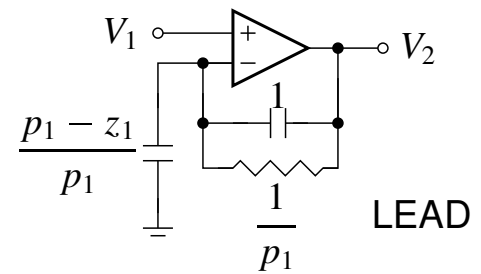
$$K = \frac{p_1}{z_1}$$



$$K \frac{s + z_1}{s + p_1}$$

$$p_1 > z_1$$

$$K = \frac{p_1}{z_1}$$



$$K(s + z_1)$$

$$K = \frac{1}{z_1}$$

