

# Design of Digital Compensators

*or*

How I learned to stop worrying and love the z-transform

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# Previously on Digital Controls...

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- We saw how to approximate continuous dynamic systems with difference equations
- We introduced the z-domain and learned how to convert difference equations to discrete transfer functions
- We saw the relationship between pole positions in the z-plane and characteristic system responses

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# Feedback control

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You guys know how to make a feedback controller, right?

Right...?

... guys?

Anybody?

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# Two classes of control design

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The system...

- Isn't fast enough
- Isn't damped enough
- Overshoots too much
- Requires too much control action

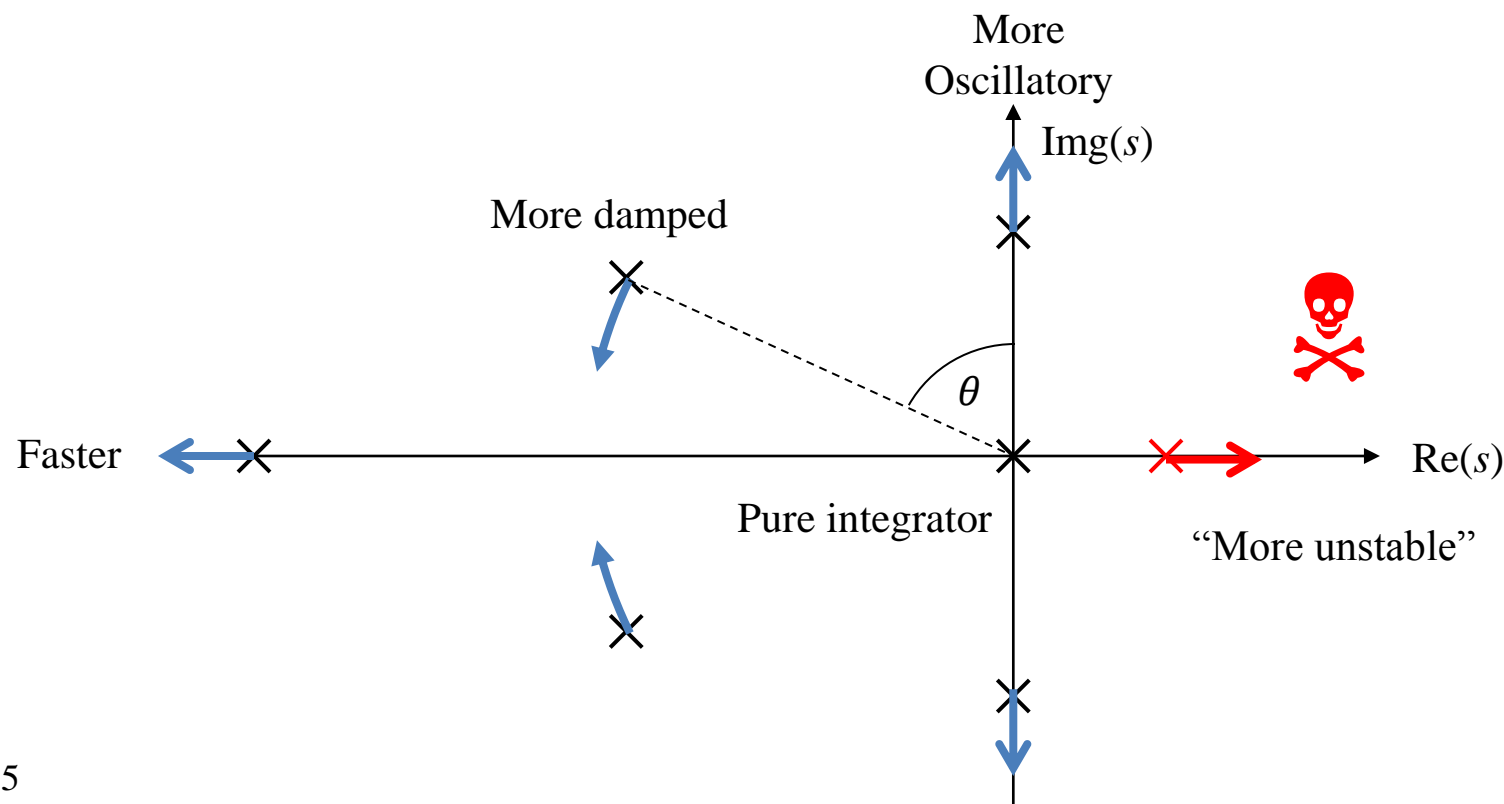
(“Performance”)

- Attempts to spontaneously disassemble itself

(“Stability”)

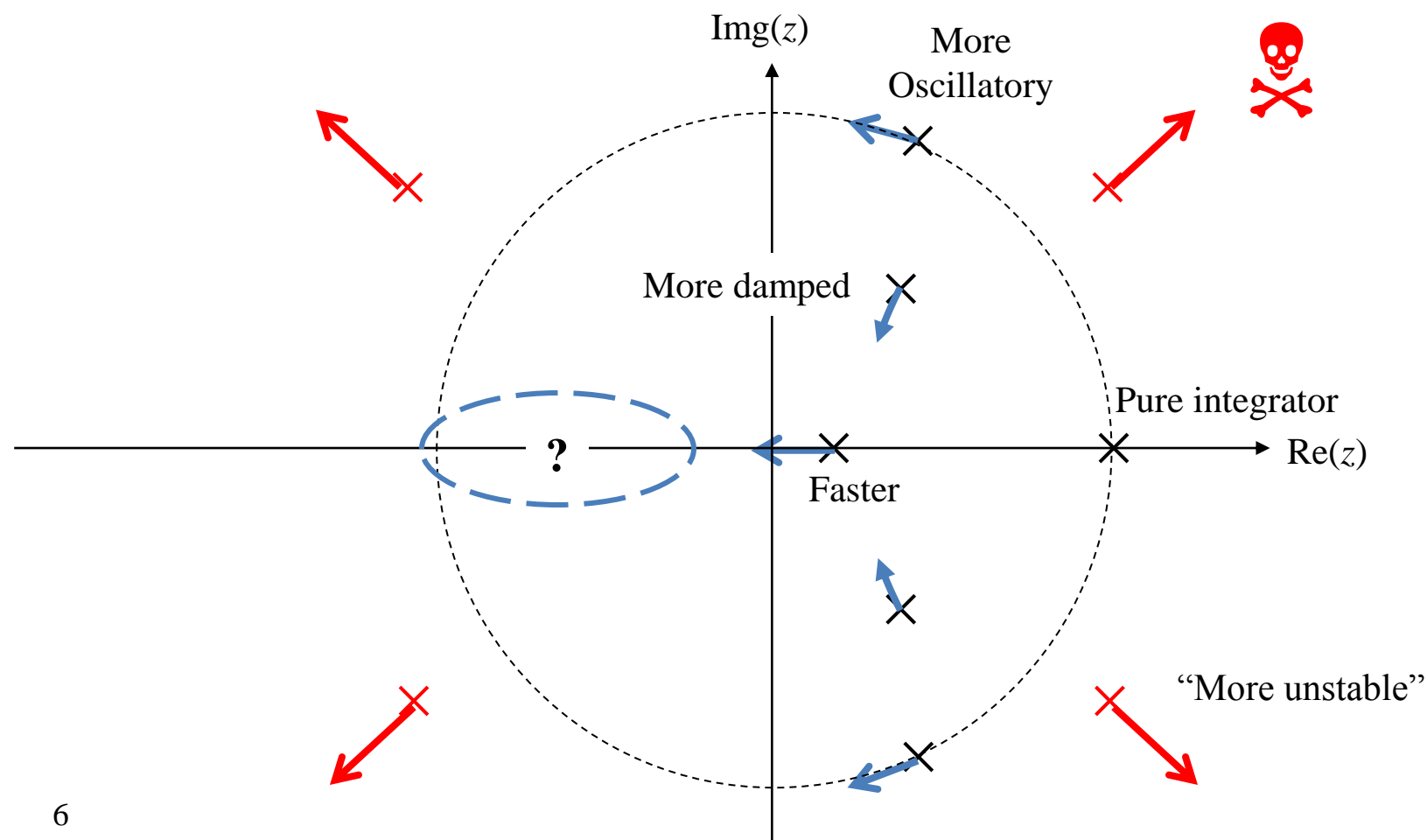
# Recall dynamic responses

- Moving pole positions change system response characteristics



# Recall dynamic responses

- Ditto the z-plane:



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# The fundamental control problem

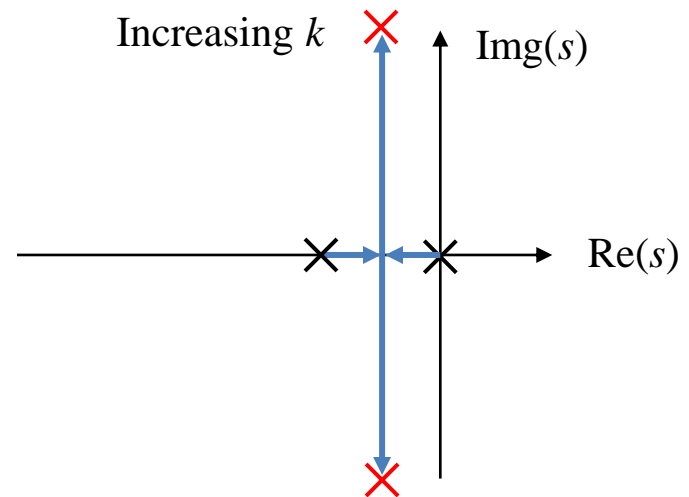
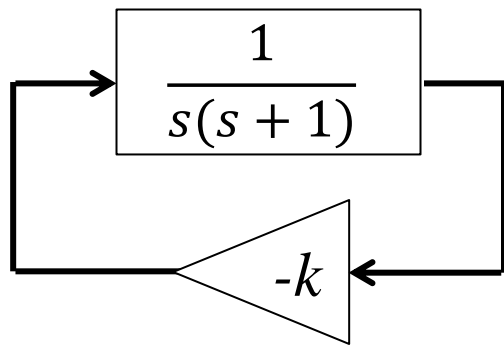
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The poles are in the wrong place

How do we get them where we want them to be?

# Recall the root locus

- We know that under feedback gain, the poles of the closed-loop system move
  - The root locus tells us where they go!
  - We can solve for this analytically\*

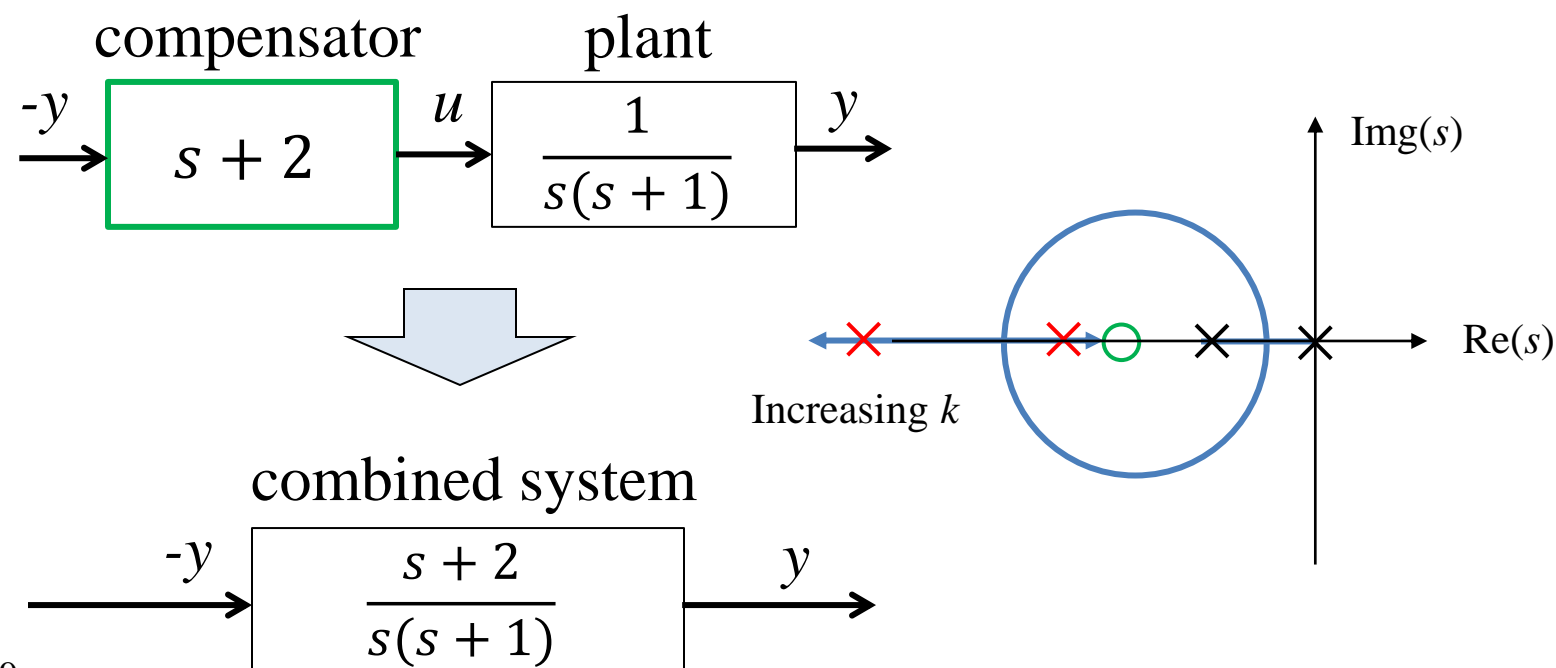


Root loci can be plotted for all sorts of parameters, not just gain!



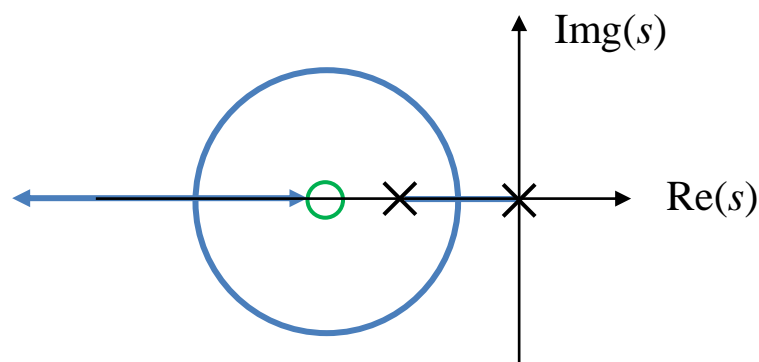
# Dynamic compensation

- We can do more than just apply gain!
  - We can add dynamics into the controller that alter the open-loop response



# But what dynamics to add?

- Recognise the following:
  - A root locus starts at poles, terminates at zeros
  - “Holes eat poles”
  - Closely matched pole and zero dynamics cancel
  - The locus is on the real axis to the left of an odd number of poles (treat zeros as ‘negative’ poles)



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# Some standard approaches

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- Control engineers have developed time-tested strategies for building compensators
- Three classical control structures:
  - Lead
  - Lag
  - Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID)  
(and its variations: P, I, PI, PD)

How do they work?

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# Lead/lag compensation

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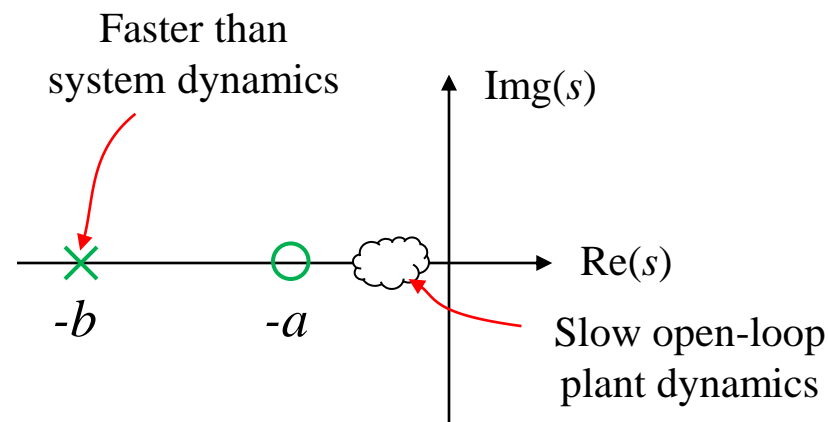
- Serve different purposes, but have a similar dynamic structure:

$$D(s) = \frac{s + a}{s + b}$$

Note:

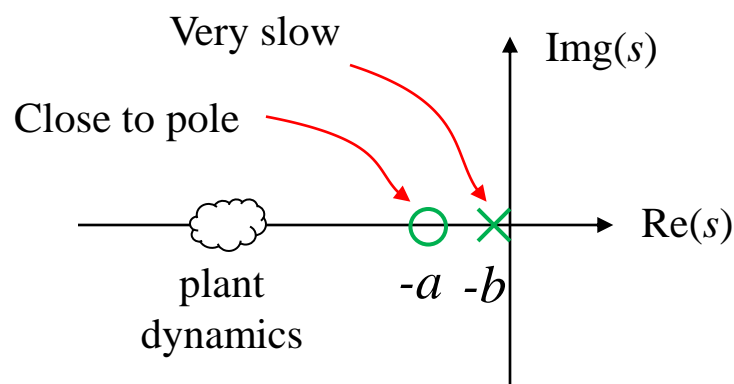
Lead-lag compensators come from the days when control engineers cared about constructing controllers from networks of op amps using frequency-phase methods. These days pretty much everybody uses PID, but you should at least know what the heck they are in case someone asks.

# Lead compensation: $a < b$



- Acts to decrease rise-time and overshoot
  - Zero draws poles to the left; adds phase-lead
  - Pole decreases noise
- Set  $a$  near desired  $\omega_n$ ; set  $b$  at  $\sim 3$  to  $20 \times a$

# Lag compensation: $a > b$



- Improves steady-state tracking
  - Near pole-zero cancellation; adds phase-lag
  - Doesn't break dynamic response (too much)
- Set  $b$  near origin; set  $a$  at  $\sim 3$  to  $10 \times b$

# PID – the Good Stuff

- Proportional-Integral-Derivative control is the control engineer's hammer\*
  - For P,PI,PD, etc. just remove one or more terms

$$C(s) = k \left( \underbrace{1}_{\text{Proportional}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\tau_i s}}_{\text{Integral}} + \underbrace{\tau_d s}_{\text{Derivative}} \right)$$

\*Everything is a nail

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# PID – the Good Stuff

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- PID control performance is driven by three parameters:
  - $k$ : system gain
  - $\tau_i$ : integral time-constant
  - $\tau_d$ : derivative time-constant

You're already familiar with the effect of gain.

What about the other two?



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# Integral

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- Integral applies control action based on accumulated output error
  - Almost always found with P control
- Increase dynamic order of signal tracking
  - Step disturbance steady-state error goes to zero
  - Ramp disturbance steady-state error goes to a constant offset

Let's try it!

# Integral

- Consider a first order system with a constant load disturbance,  $w$ ; (recall as  $t \rightarrow \infty, s \rightarrow 0$ )

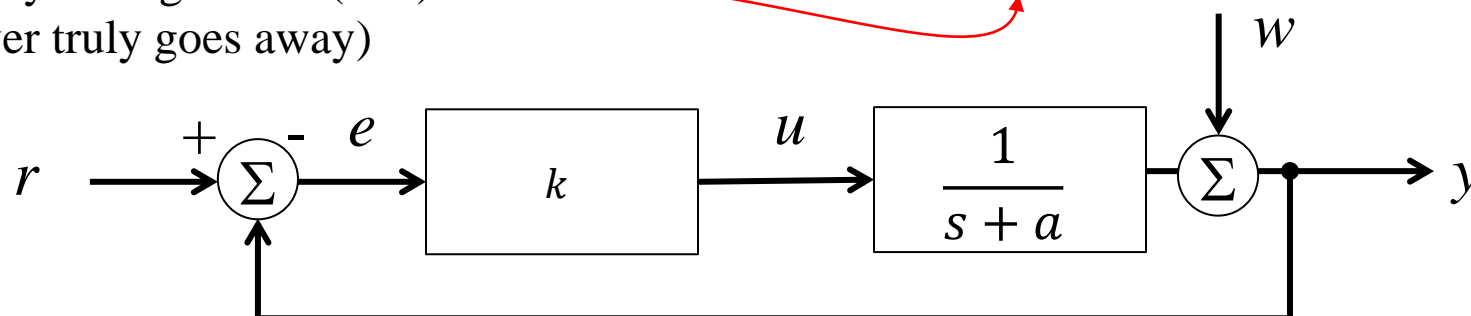
$$y = k \frac{1}{s + a} (r - y) + w$$

$$(s + a)y = k(r - y) + (s + a)w$$

$$(s + k + a)y = kr + (s + a)w$$

$$y = \frac{k}{s + k + a} r + \frac{(s + a)}{s + k + a} w$$

Steady state gain =  $a/(k+a)$   
(never truly goes away)



# Now with added integral action

$$y = k \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\tau_i s} \right) \frac{1}{s+a} (r - y) + w$$

Same dynamics

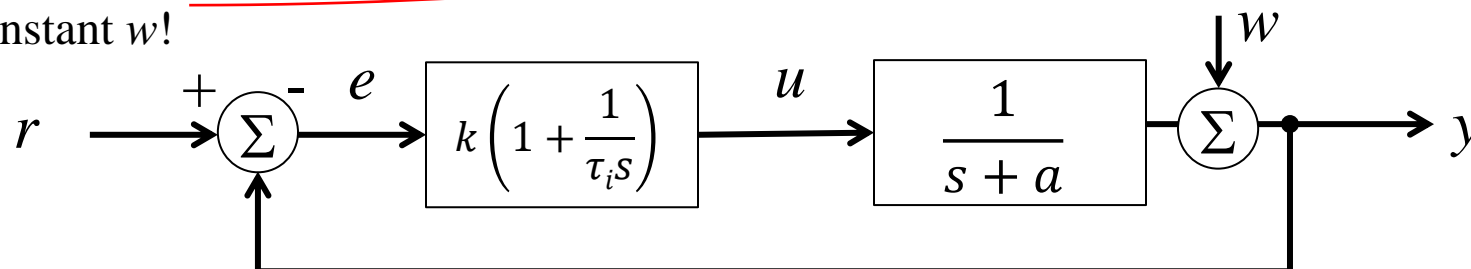
$$y = k \frac{s + \tau_i^{-1}}{s} \frac{1}{s+a} (r - y) + w$$

$$s(s+a)y = k(s + \tau_i^{-1})(r - y) + s(s+a)w$$

$$(s^2 + (k+a)s + \tau_i^{-1})y = k(s + \tau_i^{-1})r + s(s+a)w$$

$$y = \frac{k(s + \tau_i^{-1})}{(s^2 + (k+a)s + \tau_i^{-1})} r + \frac{s(s+a)}{k(s + \tau_i^{-1})} w$$

Must go to zero  
for constant  $w$ !



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# Derivative

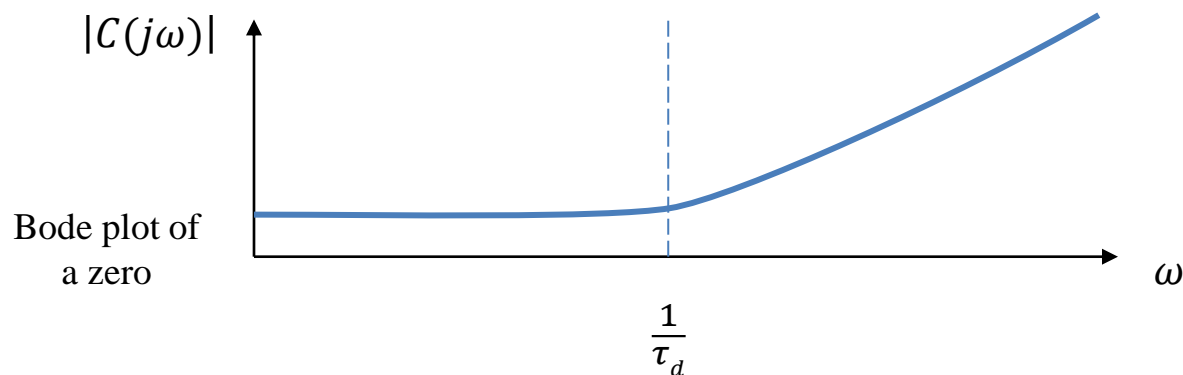
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- Derivative uses the rate of change of the error signal to anticipate control action
  - Increases system damping (when done right)
  - Can be thought of as ‘leading’ the output error, applying correction predictively
  - Almost always found with P control\*

\*What kind of system do you have if you use D, but don't care about position? Is it the same as P control in velocity space?

# Derivative

- It is easy to see that PD control simply adds a zero at  $s = -\frac{1}{\tau_d}$  with expected results
  - Decreases dynamic order of the system by 1
  - Absorbs a pole as  $k \rightarrow \infty$
- Not all roses, though: derivative operators are sensitive to high-frequency noise



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# PID

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- Collectively, PID provides two zeros plus a pole at the origin
  - Zeros provide phase lead
  - Pole provides steady-state tracking
  - Easy to implement in microprocessors
- Many tools exist for optimally tuning PID
  - Zeigler-Nichols
  - Cohen-Coon
  - Automatic software processes

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# Be alert

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- If gains and time-constants are chosen poorly, all of these compensators can induce oscillation or instability.
- However, when used properly, PID can stabilise even very complex unstable third-order systems

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# Now in discrete

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- Naturally, there are discrete analogs for each of these controller types:

$$\text{Lead/lag: } \frac{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}{1 - \beta z^{-1}}$$

$$\text{PID: } k \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\tau_i(1 - z^{-1})} + \tau_d(1 - z^{-1}) \right)$$

But, where do we get the control design parameters from?

The s-domain?



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# Emulation vs Discrete Design

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- Remember: polynomial algebra is the same, whatever symbol you are manipulating:

$$\text{eg. } s^2 + 2s + 1 = (s + 1)^2$$

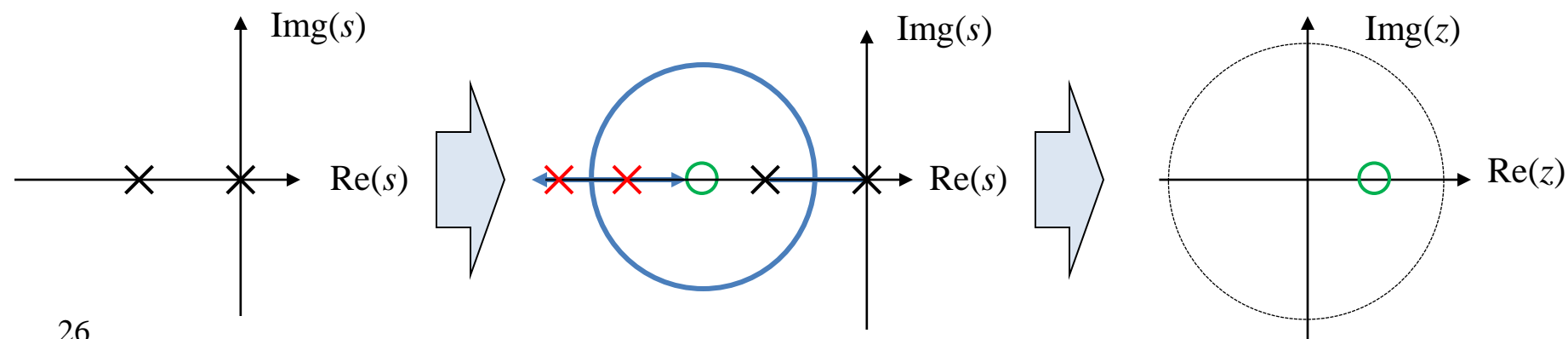
$$z^2 + 2z + 1 = (z + 1)^2$$

Root loci behave the same on both planes!

- Therefore, we have two choices:
  - Design in the s-domain and digitise (emulation)
  - Design only in the z-domain (discrete design)

# Emulation design process

1. Derive the dynamic system model ODE
2. Convert it to a continuous transfer function
3. Design a continuous controller
4. Convert the controller to the z-domain
5. Implement difference equations in software



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# Emulation design process

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- Handy rules of thumb:
  - Use a sampling period of 20 to 30 times faster than the closed-loop system bandwidth
  - Remember that the sampling ZOH induces an effective  $T/2$  delay
  - There are several approximation techniques:
    - Euler's method
    - Tustin's method
    - Matched pole-zero
    - Modified matched pole-zero

# Tustin's method

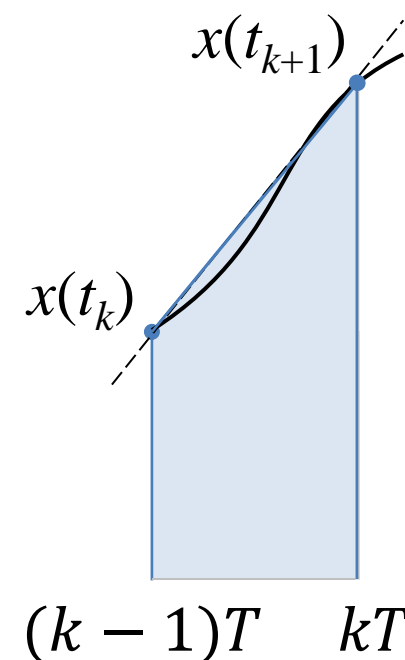
- Tustin uses a trapezoidal integration approximation (compare Euler's rectangles)
- Integral between two samples treated as a straight line:

$$u(kT) = \frac{T}{2} [x(k-1) + x(k)]$$

Taking the derivative, then z-transform yields:

$$S = \frac{2z-1}{Tz+1}$$

which can be substituted into continuous models



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# Matched pole-zero

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- If  $z = e^{sT}$ , why can't we just make a direct substitution and go home?

$$\frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{s+a}{s+b} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{z-e^{-aT}}{z-e^{-bT}}$$

- Kind of!
  - Still an approximation
  - Produces quasi-causal system (hard to compute)
  - Fortunately, also very easy to calculate.

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# Matched pole-zero

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- The process:
  1. Replace continuous poles and zeros with discrete equivalents:
$$(s + a) \Rightarrow (z - e^{-aT})$$
  2. Scale the discrete system DC gain to match the continuous system DC gain
  3. If the order of the denominator is higher than the numerator, multiply the numerator by  $(1 + z^{-1})$  until they are of equal order\*

\* This introduces an averaging effect like Tustin's method

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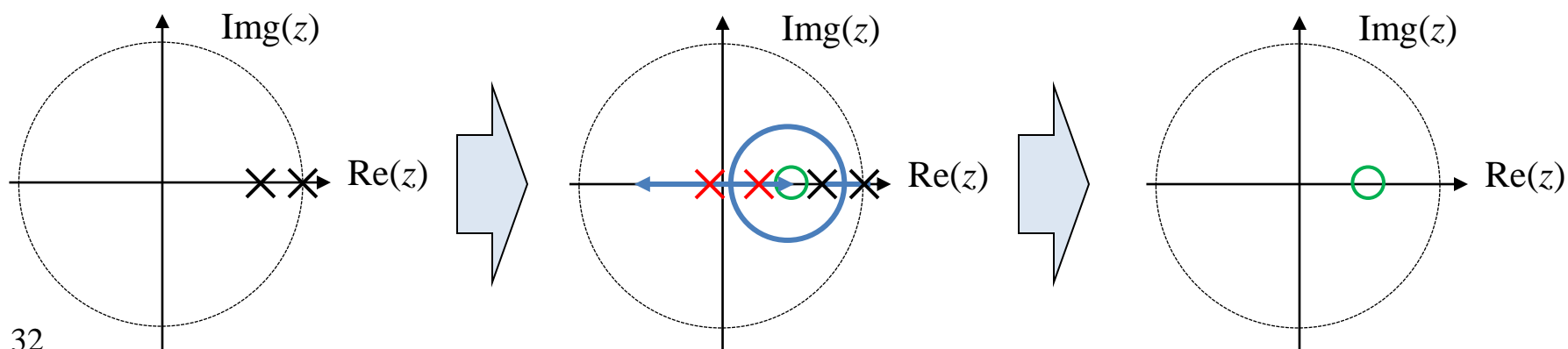
# Modified matched pole-zero

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- We prefer it if we didn't require instant calculations to produce timely outputs
- Modify step 2 to leave the dynamic order of the numerator one less than the denominator
  - Can work with slower sample times, and at higher frequencies

# Discrete design process

1. Derive the dynamic system model ODE
2. Convert it to a discrete transfer function
3. Design a digital compensator
4. Implement difference equations in software
5. Pub





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# Discrete design process

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- Handy rules of thumb:
  - Sample rates can be as low as twice the system bandwidth (but 20 to 30 for better performance)
  - A zero at  $z = -1$  makes the discrete root locus pole behaviour more closely match the s-plane
  - Beware “dirty derivatives”
    - $dy/dt$  terms derived from sequential digital values are called ‘dirty derivatives’ – these are especially sensitive to noise!
    - Employ actual velocity measurements when possible

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# Tune-in next time for...

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## Digital Design Practice

*or*

“Why doesn’t my compensator work?”

Fun fact: The first UAV was the Hewitt-Sperry Automatic Aeroplane in 1917, 14 years after the Wright bros’ first flight. It could travel 50 km and drop a sandbag within 3.2 km of a target