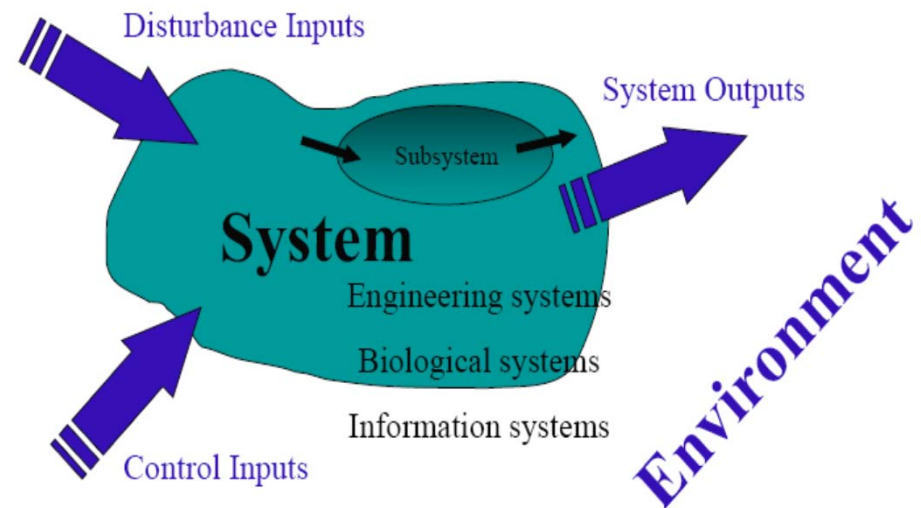


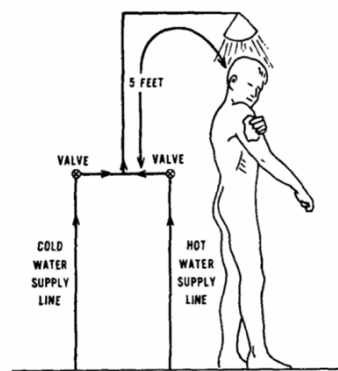
## MM1: Basic Concept (I): System and its Variables

- A **system** is a collection of components which are coordinated together to perform a function
- Systems interact with their **environment**. The interaction is defined in terms of **variables**
  - System inputs
  - System outputs
  - Environmental disturbances
- **Dynamic system** is a system whose performance could change according to time

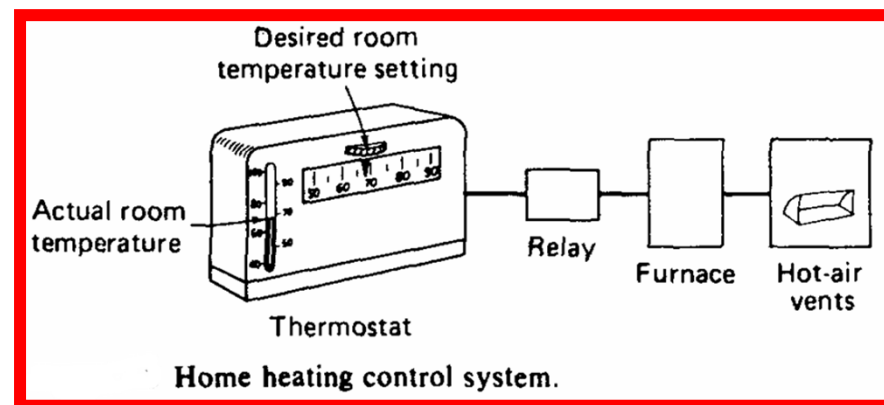


# MM1: Basic Concept (II): Control

- **Control** is a process of causing a system (output) variable to conform to some desired status/value
- **Manual Control** is a process where the **control** is handled by human being(s)
- **Automatic Control** is a control process which involves machines only



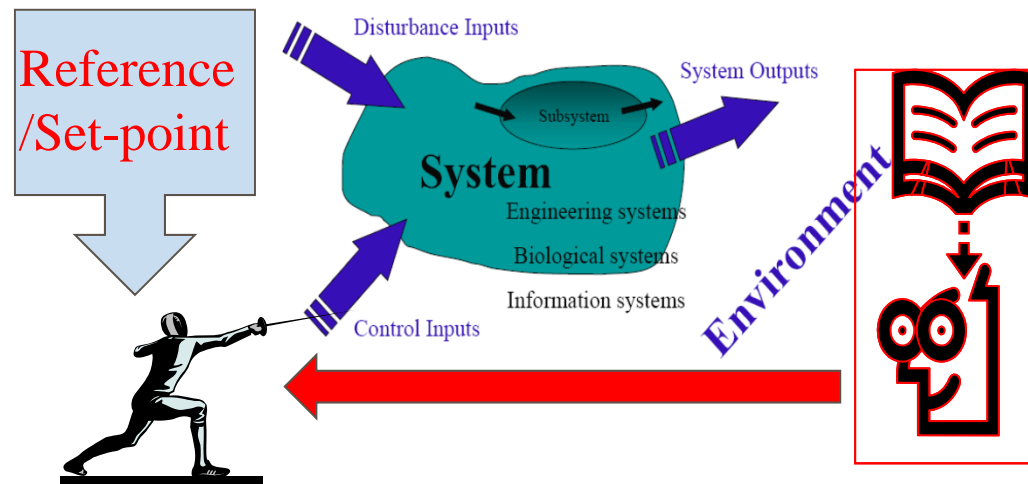
Flow diagram for shower example.



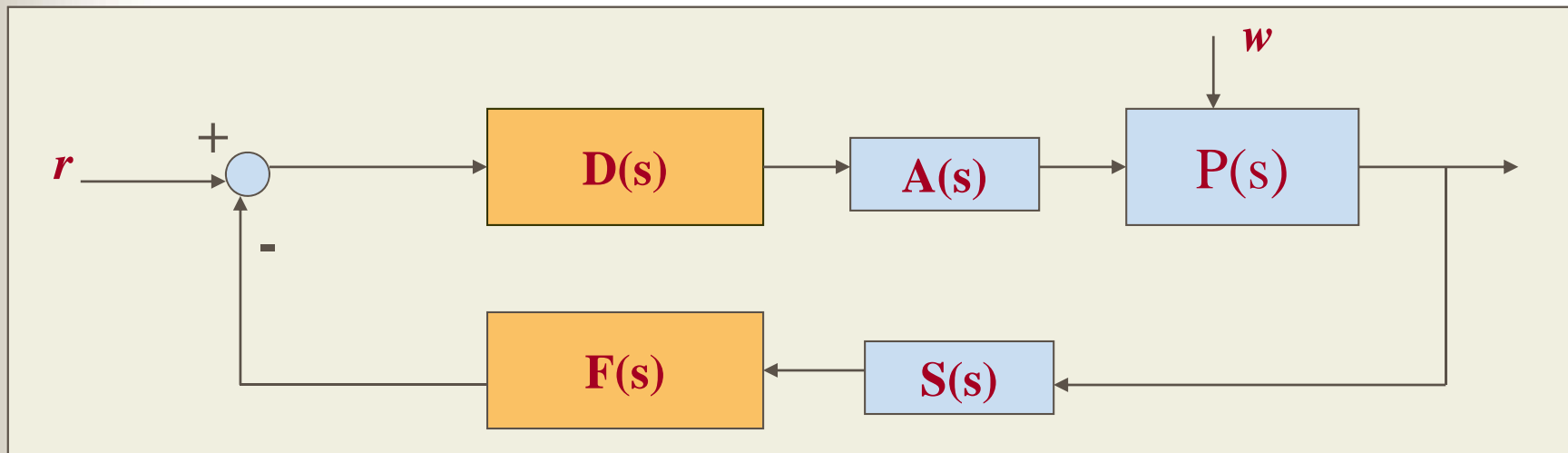
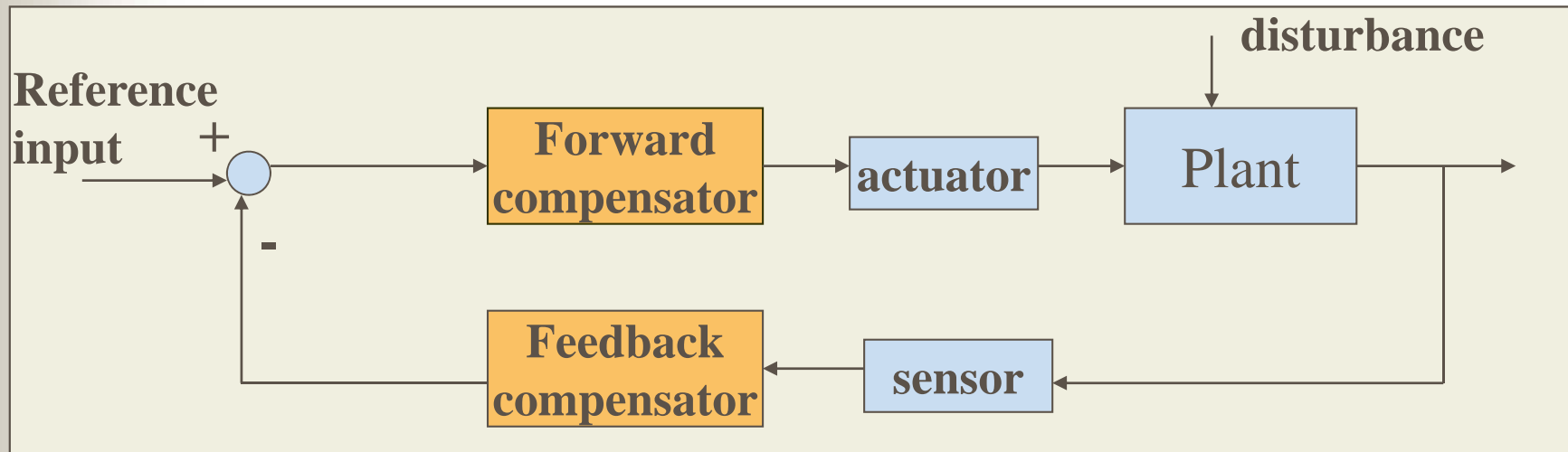
Home heating control system.

# MM1: Control Classification

- **Open-loop Control:** A control process which does not utilize the feedback mechanism, i.e., the output(s) has no effect upon the control input(s)
- **Closed-loop Control:** A control process which utilizes the feedback mechanism, i.e., the output(s) does have effect upon the control input(s)



# MM1: Feedback Control – Block Diagrams





# The Goals of this lecture (MM2) ...

- Essentials in using (ordinary) differential equation model
  - Why use ODE model
  - Linear vs. nonlinear ODE models
  - How to solve an ODE
  - Numerical methods (Matlab)
- Refresh of Laplace transform
  - Key features
  - Transformation from ODE to TF model
- Block diagram transformation
  - Composition /decomposition
  - Signal-flow graph

# MM2: ODE Model

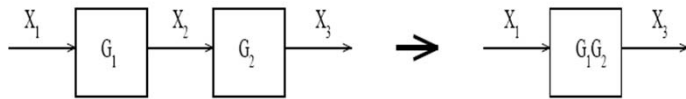
- A general ODE model:

$$a_n \frac{d^n y(t)}{dt^n} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + a_0 y(t) = b_m \frac{d^m u}{dt^m} + \dots + b_1 \frac{du}{dt} + b_0 u$$

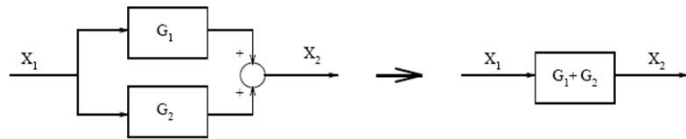
- **SISO, SIMO, MISO, MIMO** models
- Linear system, Time-invariant, Linear Time-Invariant (**LTI**)
- Solution of ODE is an explicit description of dynamic behavior
- Conditions for unique solution of an ODE
- Solving an ODE:
  - Time-domain method, e.g., using exponential function
  - Complex-domain method (**Laplace transform**)
  - Numerical solution – CAD methods, e.g., ode23/ode45

# MM2: Block diagram Rules

Combining blocks in cascade:



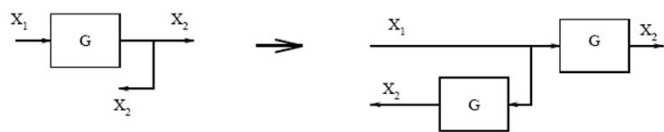
Combining blocks in parallel:



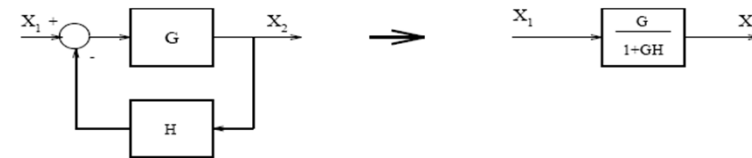
Moving a pickoff point forward:



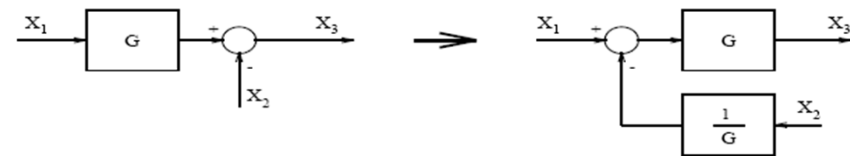
Moving a pickoff point backward:



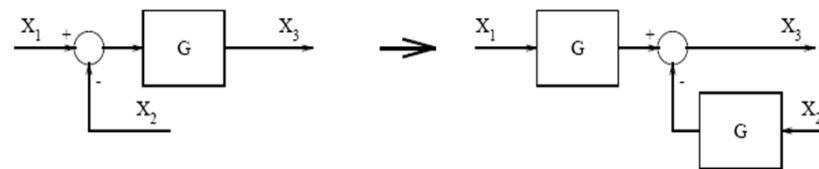
Eliminating a feedback loop:



Moving a summing point backward:



Moving a summing point forward:





## MM2: Simulink Block diagram

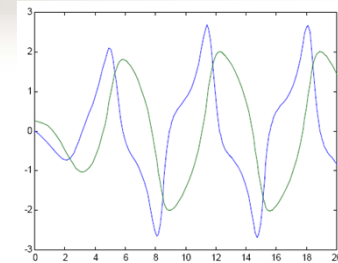
- System build-up
  - Using TF block
  - Using nonlinear blocks
  - Using math blocks
- Creat subsystems
  - Top-down
  - Bottom-up
- Usage of ode23 & ode45



# Goals for this lecture (MM3)

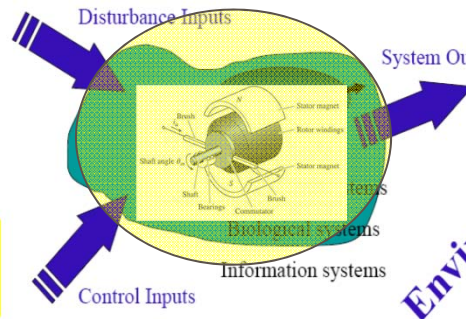
- Time response analysis
  - Typical inputs
  - 1st, 2nd and higher order systems
- Performance specification of time response
  - Transient performance
  - Steady-state performance
- Numerical simulation of time response

# MM3: Time Response Analysis (I)

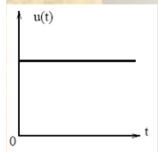


"help ode23" to find out all the other options.

$$d(t)=0$$



$$\theta_m = f(\theta_m(0), \dot{\theta}_m(0), v_a, T_e, T_f)$$



Typical input  $u(t)$

Time response  $y(t)$

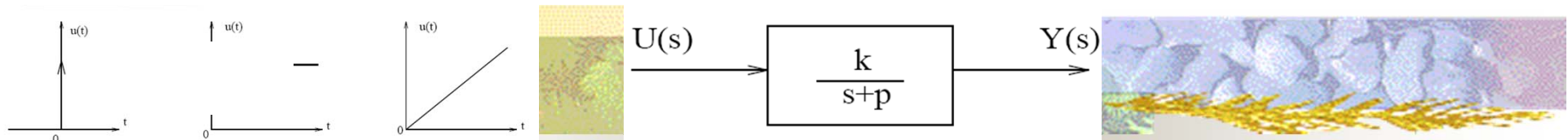
$$\theta_m(0) = \alpha, \quad \dot{\theta}_m(0) = \beta$$

Laplace Trans

$$Y(s) = G(s)U(s)$$

$$G(s) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^m b_i s^i}{\sum_{i=0}^n a_i s^i}$$

Inv Laplace T.



## MM3: Time Response Analysis (II)

- Typical inputs: impulse, step and ramp signals
- 1st, 2nd and high-order (LTI) systems

Test signal	$u(t)$	$U(s)$
Impulse	$\delta(t)$	1
Step	1	$1/s$
Ramp	$t$	$1/s^2$

$$G(s) = \frac{k}{s+p}, \quad \text{pole: } -p, \quad \text{time constant: } \frac{1}{p}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{c}{\tau s + 1}, \quad \text{pole: } -\frac{1}{\tau}, \quad \text{time constant: } \tau$$

time domain :

$$g(t) = ke^{-pt} \quad \text{or} \quad g(t) = \frac{c}{\tau} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}t}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\xi\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

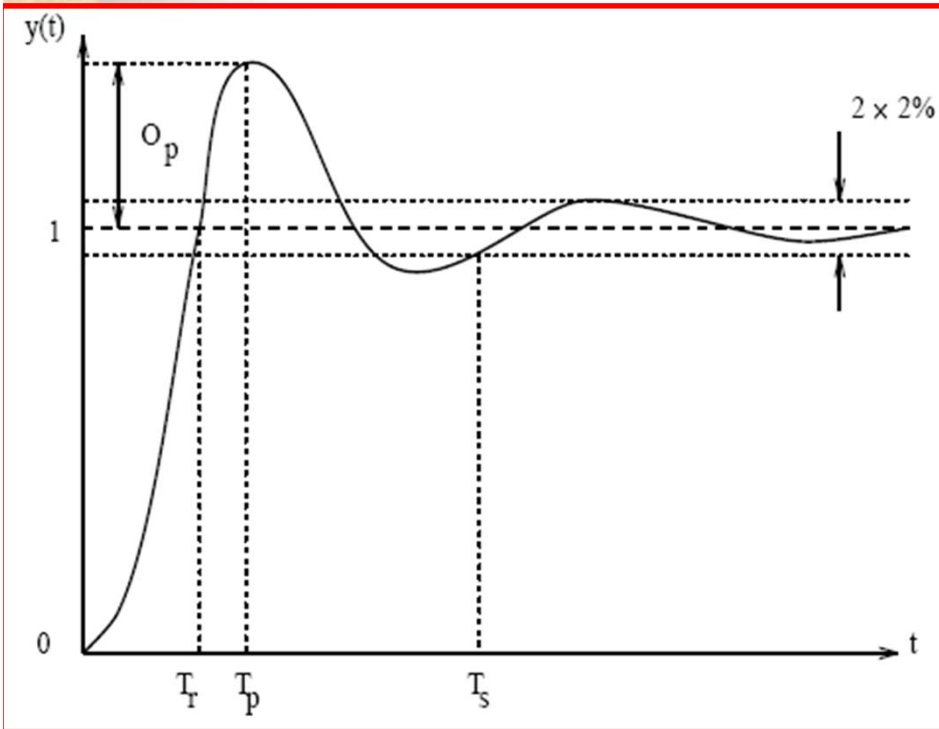
- $\xi$  – *damping ratio*, a dimensionless factor
- $\omega_n$  – *natural frequency* with unit rad/s

**Time response = excitation response + initial condition response (free response)**

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}{\xi}, \quad \omega_d = \omega \sqrt{1-\xi^2}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\xi\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

## MM3: Performance Specification



$$t_r \cong \frac{1.8}{\omega_n}$$

$$t_s \cong \frac{4.6}{\zeta\omega_n} \cong \frac{4.6}{\sigma}$$

$$M_p \cong \begin{cases} 5\%, & \zeta = 0.7 \\ 16\%, & \zeta = 0.5 \\ 35\%, & \zeta = 0.3 \end{cases}$$

$$t_p \cong \frac{\pi}{\omega_d}, \quad \omega_d = \omega_n \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}$$

$$\text{Rise time } T_r = \frac{\pi - \phi}{\omega_d}$$

$$\text{Peak time } T_p = \frac{\pi}{\omega_d}$$

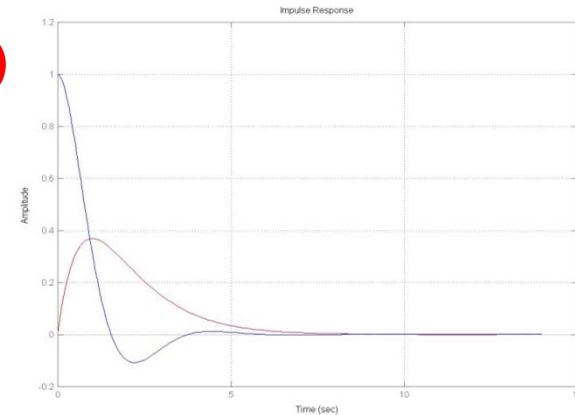
$$\text{Settling time } T_s \approx \frac{4}{\xi\omega_n}$$

$$\text{Overshoot } O_p = e^{-\frac{\xi\pi}{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}}$$

Steady-state error  $e_{ss}$ : difference between input & output as  $t \rightarrow \infty$

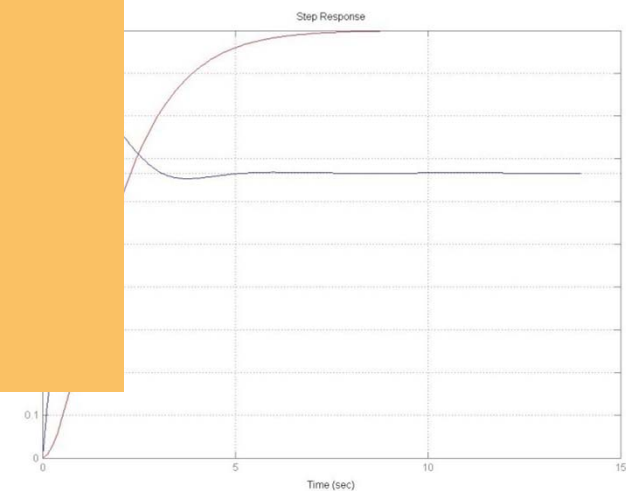
# MM3: Numerical Simulation

- Impulse response: **impulse(sys)**
- Step response: **step(sys)**
- **ltiview(sys)**
- **Subplot(m,n,1)**



## EXAMPLE:

```
sys1:          Sys2:  
num1=[1];      num2=[1 2];  
den1=[1 2 1];  den2=[1 2 3];  
impulse(tf(num1,den1),'r',tf(num2,den2),'b')  
step(tf(num1,den1),'r',tf(num2,den2),'b')
```



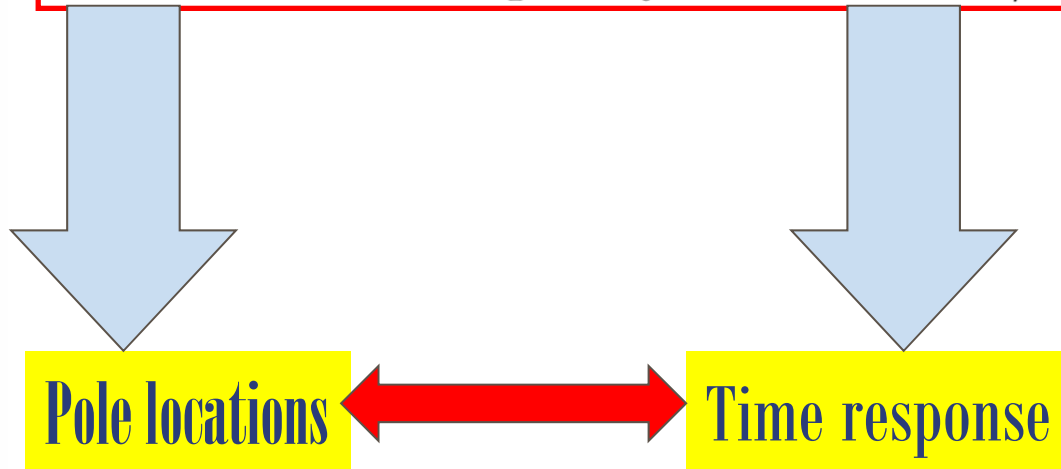
# Goals for this lecture (MM4)

- System poles vs. time responses
  - Poles and zeros
  - Time responses vs. Pole locations
- Feedback characteristics
  - Characteristics
  - A simple feedback design
- Block diagram decomposition (simulink)

## MM4 : Poles vs Performance

$$G(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\xi\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}.$$

- $\xi$  – *damping ratio*, a dimensionless factor
- $\omega_n$  – *natural frequency* with unit rad/s



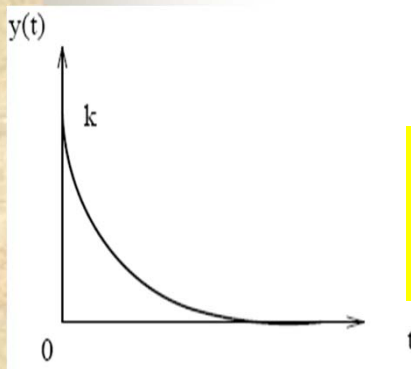
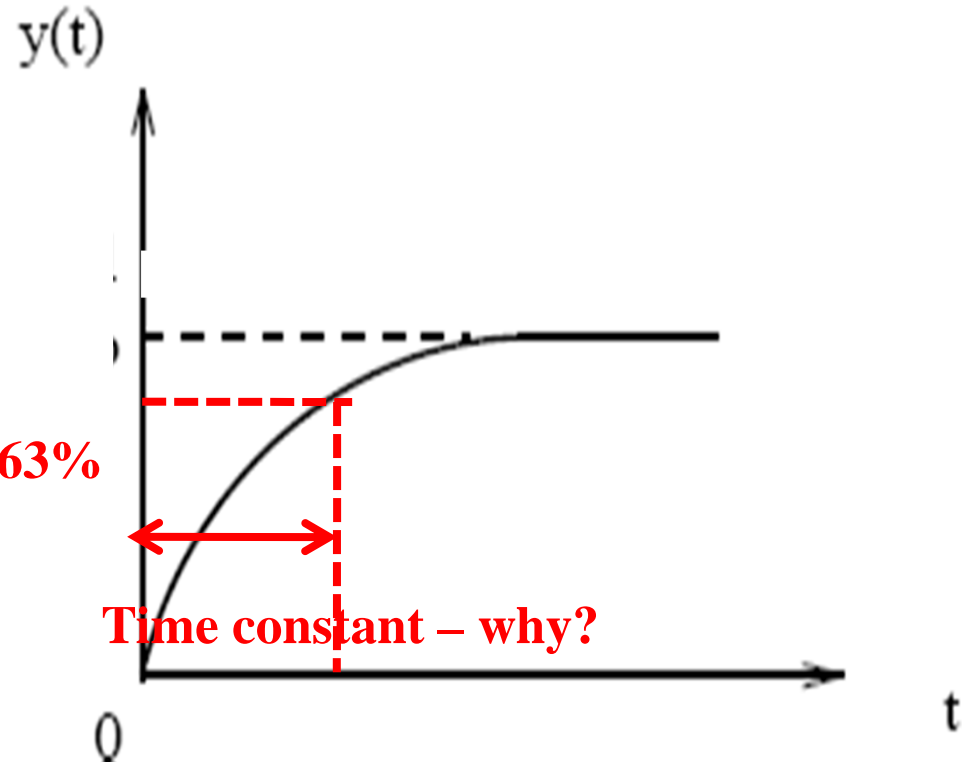
# MM4: First-order System

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{\tau s + 1}, \quad \text{assume } \tau > 0$$

$$\text{pole: } -\frac{1}{\tau}, \quad \text{time constant: } \tau,$$

$$\text{Impulseresponse: } y(t) = L\left(\frac{1}{\tau s + 1}\right) = e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}t}$$

$$\text{Stepresponse: } y(t) = L\left(\frac{1}{s(\tau s + 1)}\right) = 1 - e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}t}$$



**Time response is determined by the time constant**  
**System pole is the negative of inverse time constant**



# MM4: Second-Order System

$$G(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\xi\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}, \text{ assume } \omega_n > 0, \xi \geq 0$$

poles:  $p_{1,2} = -\xi\omega_n \pm \omega_n\sqrt{\xi^2 - 1}$

real (different) poles:  $p_{1,2} = -\xi\omega_n \pm \omega_n\sqrt{\xi^2 - 1}$ , if  $\xi > 1$

real (identical) poles:  $p_{1,2} = -\xi\omega_n$ , if  $\xi = 1$

complex poles:  $p_{1,2} = -\xi\omega_n \pm j\omega_n\sqrt{1 - \xi^2}$ , if  $0 < \xi < 1$

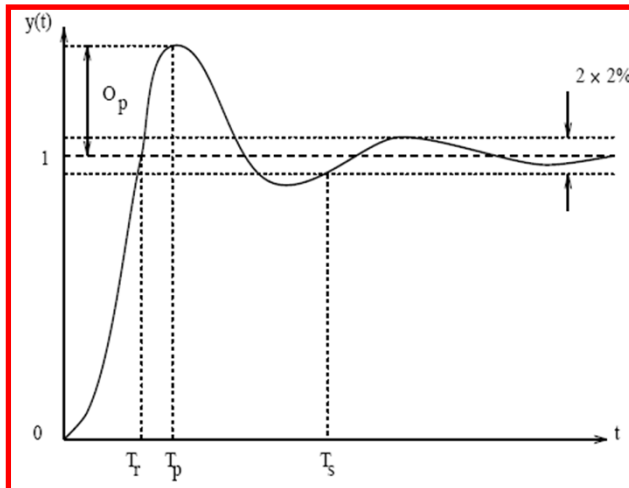
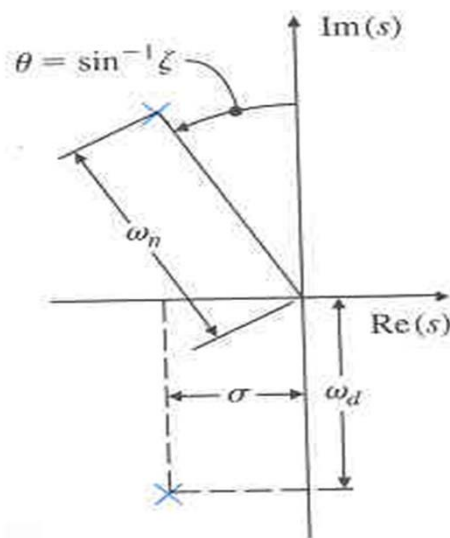
complex poles:  $p_{1,2} = \pm j\omega_n$ , if  $\xi = 0$

$$t_r \cong \frac{1.8}{\omega_n}$$

$$t_s \cong \frac{4.6}{\zeta\omega_n} \cong \frac{4.6}{\sigma}$$

$$M_p \cong \begin{cases} 5\%, & \zeta = 0.7 \\ 16\%, & \zeta = 0.5 \\ 35\%, & \zeta = 0.3 \end{cases}$$

$$t_p \cong \frac{\pi}{\omega_d}, \quad \omega_d = \omega_n\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}$$



$$\text{Rise time } T_r = \frac{\pi - \phi}{\omega_d}$$

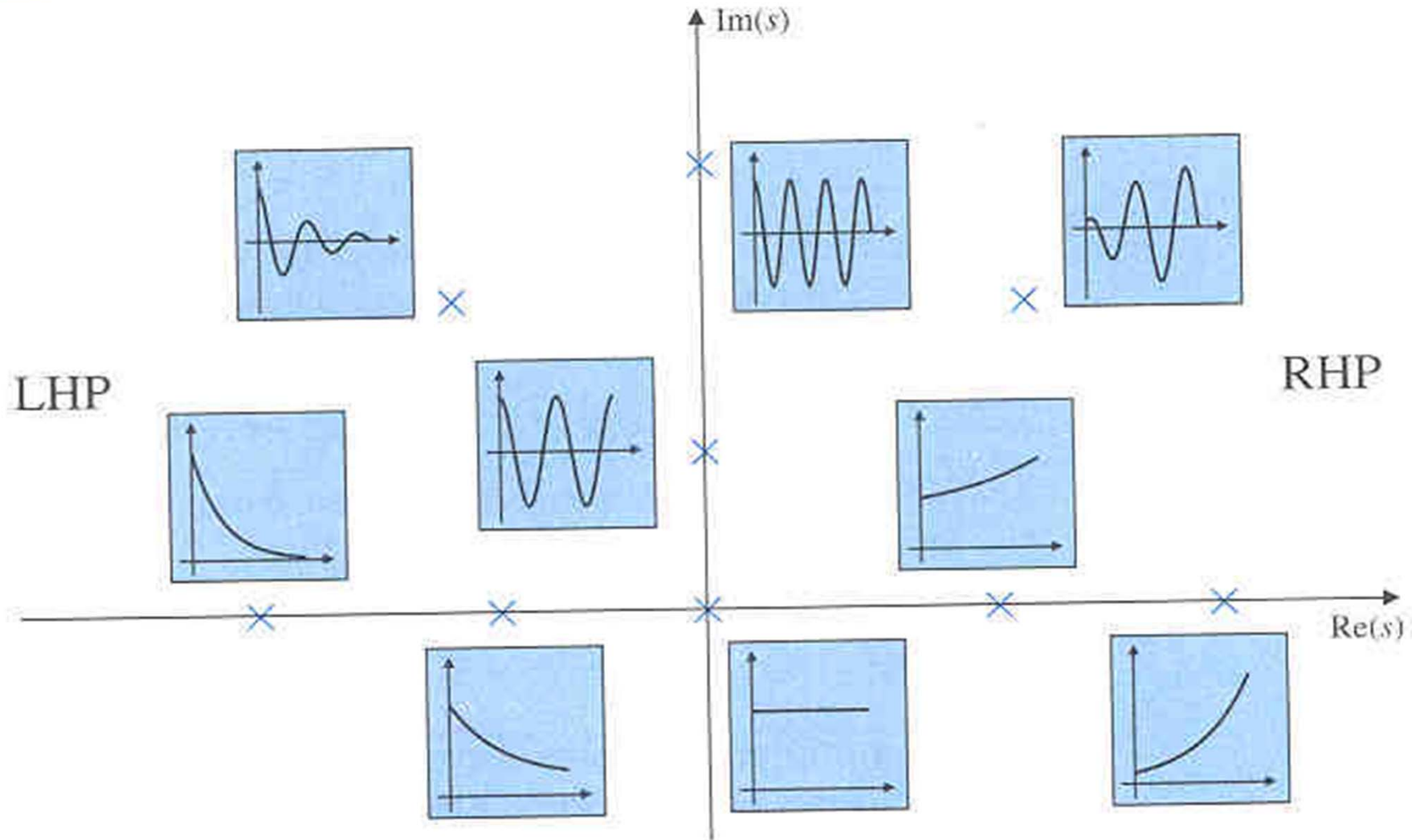
$$\text{Peak time } T_p = \frac{\pi}{\omega_d}$$

$$\text{Settling time } T_s \approx \frac{4}{\xi\omega_n}$$

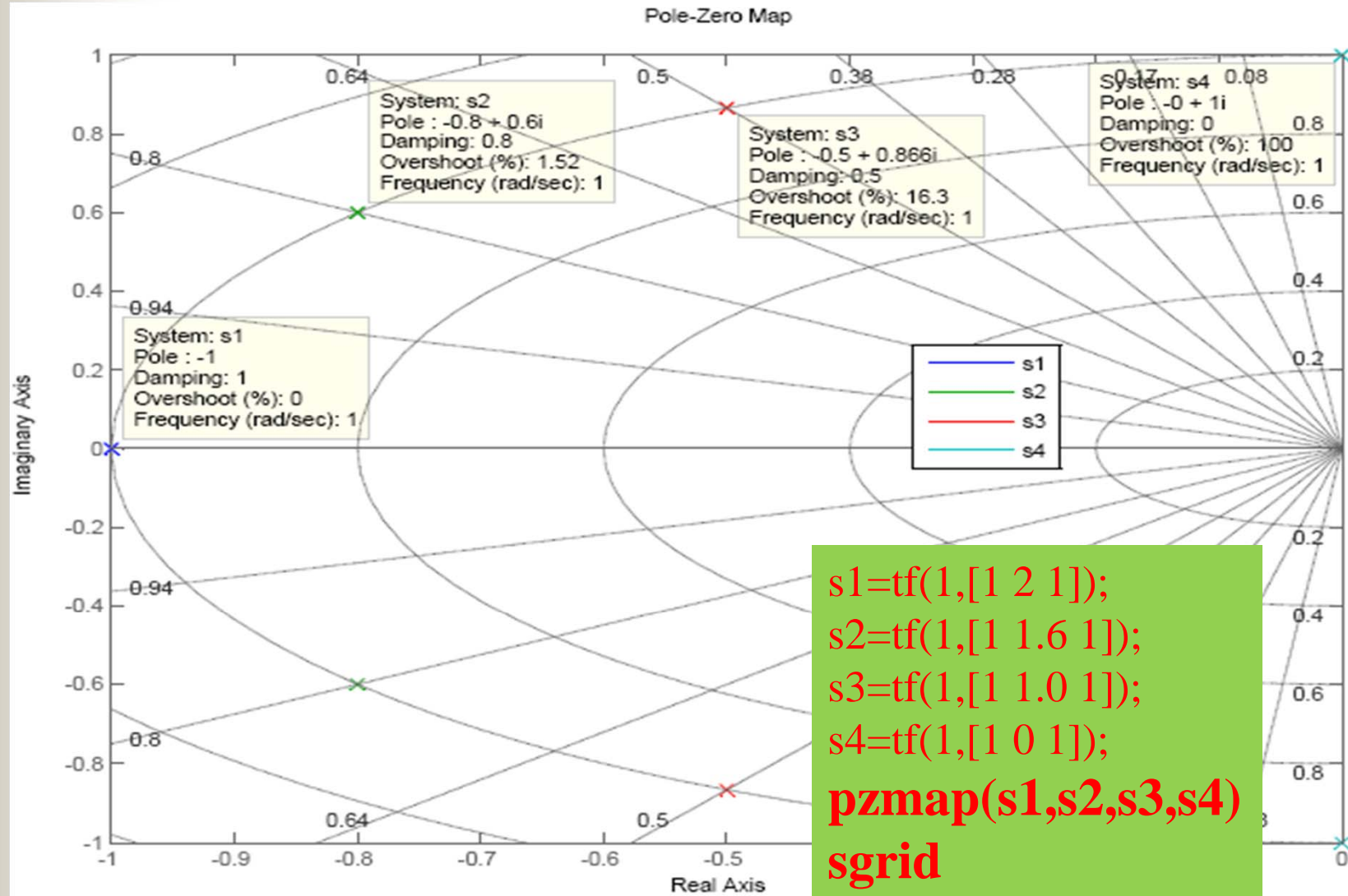
$$\text{Overshoot } O_p = e^{-\frac{\xi\pi}{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}}$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}{\xi}, \quad \omega_d = \omega\sqrt{1-\xi^2}$$

# MM4: Summary of Pole vs Performance



# MM4: Plot of Pole Locations



# Goals for this lecture (MM5)

- **Stability analysis**
  - **Definition of BIBO**
  - **Pole locations**
  - **Routh criterion**
- **Steady-state errors**
  - **Final Theorem**
  - **DC-Gain**
  - **Stead-state errors**
- **Effects of zeros and additional poles**

## MM5 : BIBO Stability

- A system is said to have **bounded input-bounded output (BIBO) stability** if every bounded input results in a bounded output (regardless of what goes on inside the system)
- The **continuous (LTI) system** with impulse response  **$h(t)$**  is BIBO stable if and only if  **$h(t)$**  is absolutely integrable
- All system poles locate in the left half s-plane - **asymptotic internal stability**
- **Routh Criterion:** For a stable system, there is no changes in sign and no zeros in the first column of the **Routh array**

# MM5 : Steady-State Error

- **Objective:** to know whether or not the response of a system can approach to the reference signal as **time increases**
- **Assumption:** The considered system is **stable**
- **Analysis method:** Transfer function + **final-value Theorem**

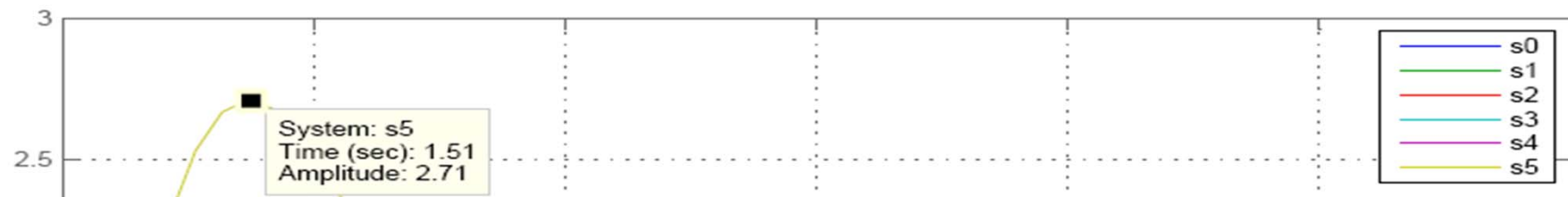
$$\begin{aligned} e(\infty) &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s(R(s) - Y(s)) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s(R(s) - G(s)R(s)) \\ &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s(1 - G(s))R(s), \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s} \\ &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} (1 - G(s)) = 1 - G(0) \end{aligned}$$

**DC-Gain**

- **Position-error constant**  $K_p = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G_o(s)$
- **Velocity constant**  $K_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sG_o(s)$
- **Acceleration constant**  $K_a = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^2 G_o(s)$

# MM5 : Effect of Additional Zero & Pole

Step Response



An additional zero in the left half-plane will increase the overshoot  
If the zero is within a factor of 4 of the real part of the complex poles

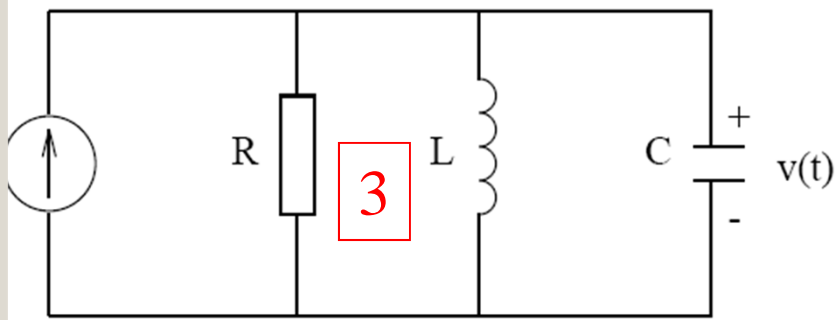
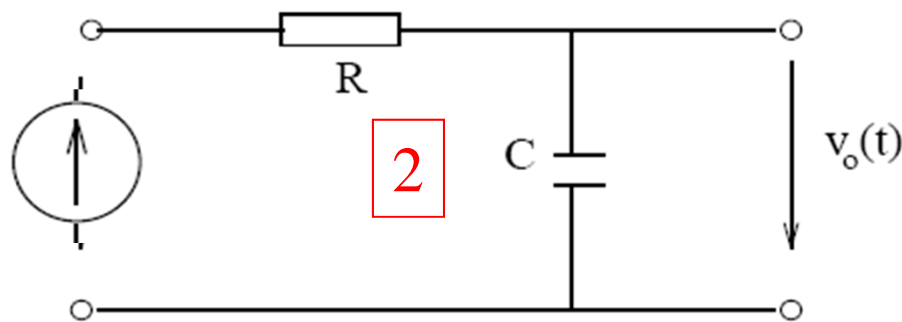
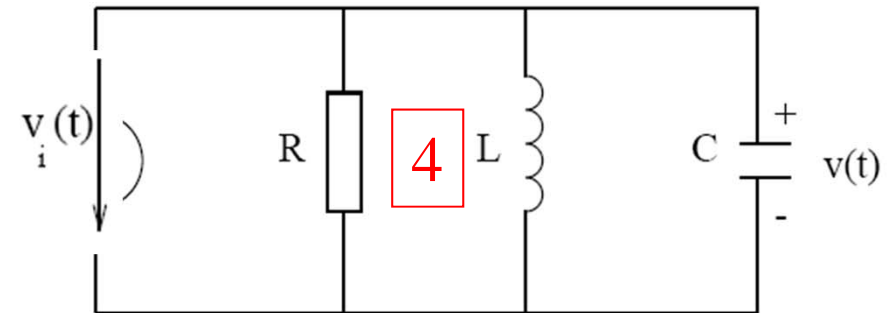
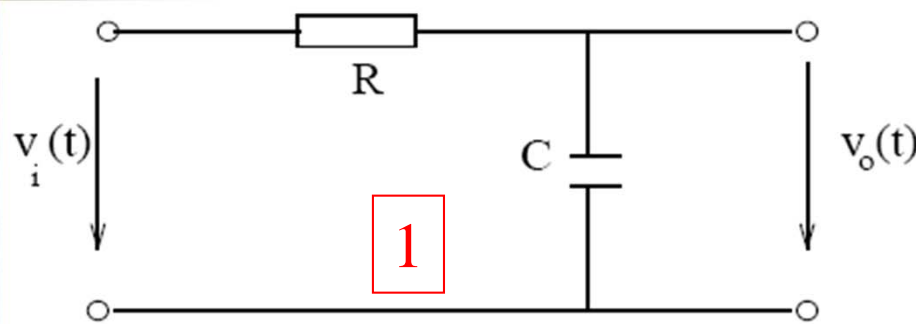
An additional zero in the right half-plane will depress the overshoot  
and may cause the step response to start out in the wrong direction

An additional pole in the left half-plane will increase the rise time  
significantly if the extra pole is within a factor of 4 of the real part of  
the complex poles

$$G(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{1}{RCs + 1}$$

$$LC \frac{d^2 i(t)}{dt^2} + \frac{L}{R} \frac{di(t)}{dt} + i = u(t)$$

## BIBO Stability – Exercise (I)

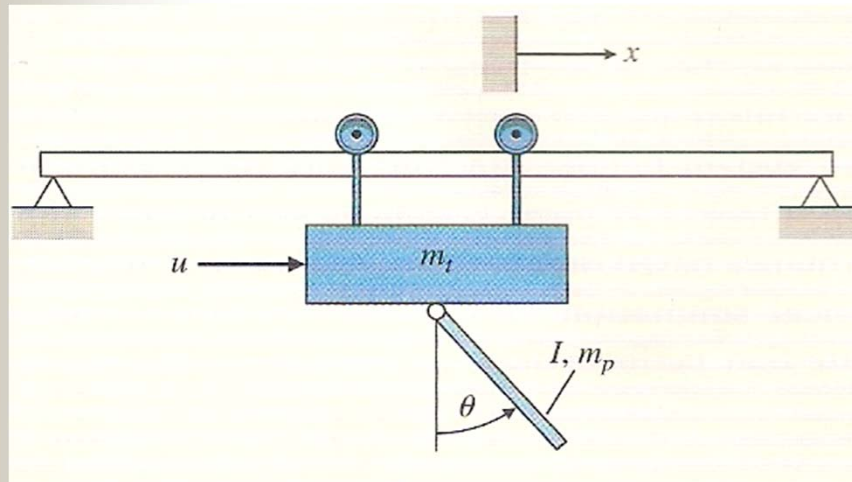


- Are these systems BIBO stable?
- Intuitive explanation
- Theoretical analysis



## BIBO Stability – Exercise (II)

- How about the stability of your project systems?

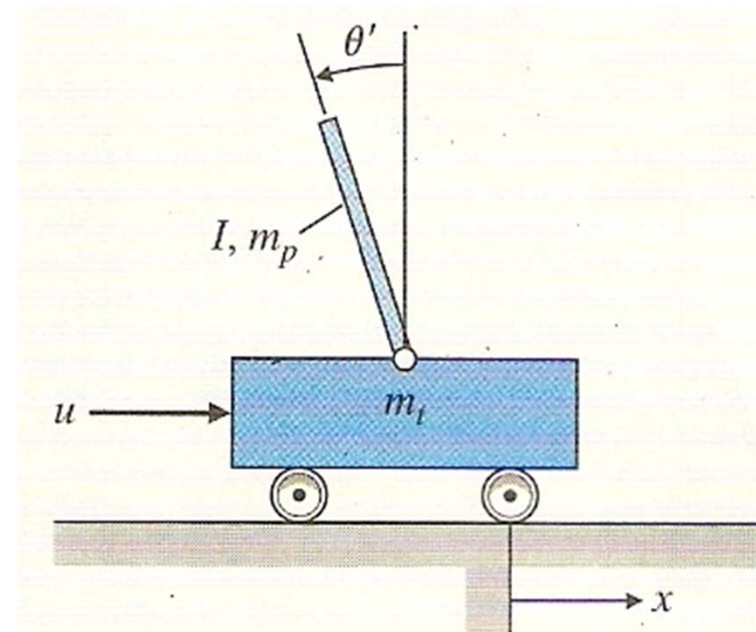


$$(I + m_p l^2) \ddot{\theta} + m_p g l \theta = -m_p l \ddot{x}$$

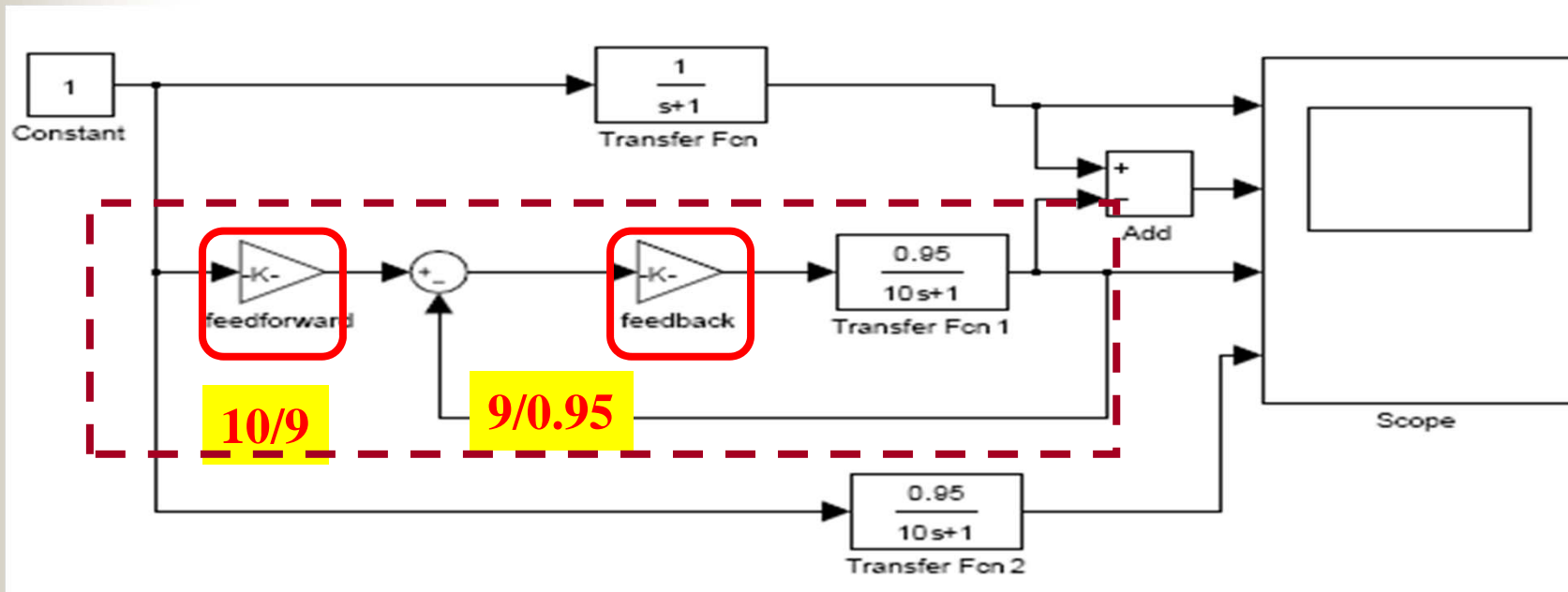
$$(m_t + m_p) \ddot{x} + b \dot{x} + m_p l \ddot{\theta} = u.$$

$$(I + m_p l^2) \ddot{\theta}' - m_p g l \theta' = m_p l \ddot{x}$$

$$(m_t + m_p) \ddot{x} + b \dot{x} - m_p l \ddot{\theta}' = u.$$



## Revisit of example: First-order System (II)



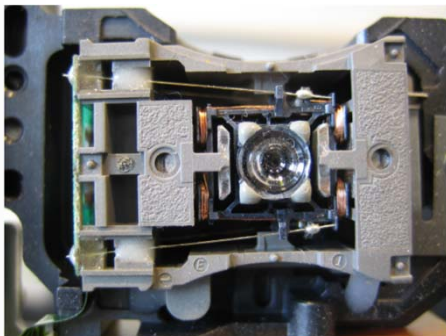
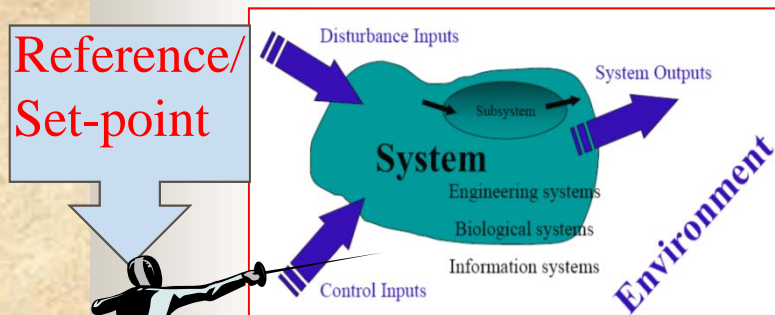
- What's the type of original system?
- Derive the transfer function of the closed-loop system
- What's the time constant and DC-gain of the CL system?
- What's the feedforward gain so that there is no steady-state error?

# Goals for this lecture (MM6)

- **Definition characterisitic of PID control**
  - P- controller
  - PI- controller
  - PID controller
- Ziegler-Nichols tuning methods
  - Quarter decay ratio method
  - Ultimate sensitivity method

# Control objectives

**Control** is a process of causing a system (output) variable to conform to some desired status/value (**MM1**)

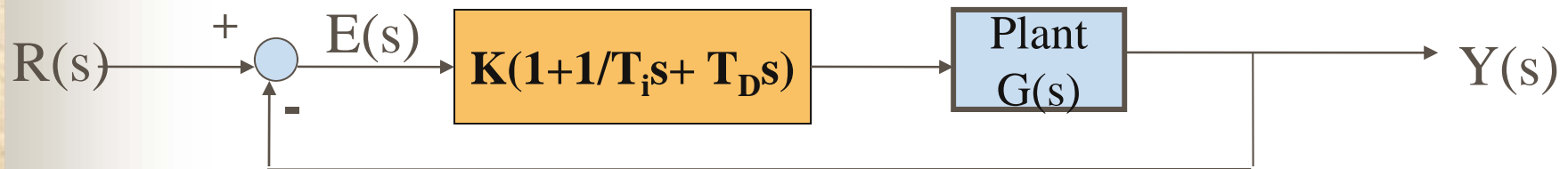


## Control Objectives

- **Stable (MM5)**
- **Quick responding (MM3, 4)**
- **Adequate disturbance rejection**
- **Insensitive to model & measurement errors**
- **Avoids excessive control action**
- **Suitable for a wide range of operating conditions**

## MM6: Characteristics of PID Controllers

- Proportional gain,  $K_p$  larger values typically mean faster response. An excessively large proportional gain will lead to process instability and oscillation.
- Integral gain,  $K_i$  larger values imply steady state errors are eliminated more quickly. The trade-off is larger overshoot
- Derivative gain,  $K_d$  larger values decrease overshoot, but slows down transient response and may lead to instability due to signal noise amplification in the differentiation of the error.



# MM6: PID Tuning Methods- Trial-Error

## Rules of thumb:

$$K_p > K_i > K_d,$$
$$K_p \approx (5 \sim 10)K_i,$$
$$K_i \approx (5 \sim 10)K_d$$

- Advantages: Simple
- Disadvantages:
  - unsatisfactory performance
  - expensive on-site experiment
  - issues of equipment safety

## Procedure:

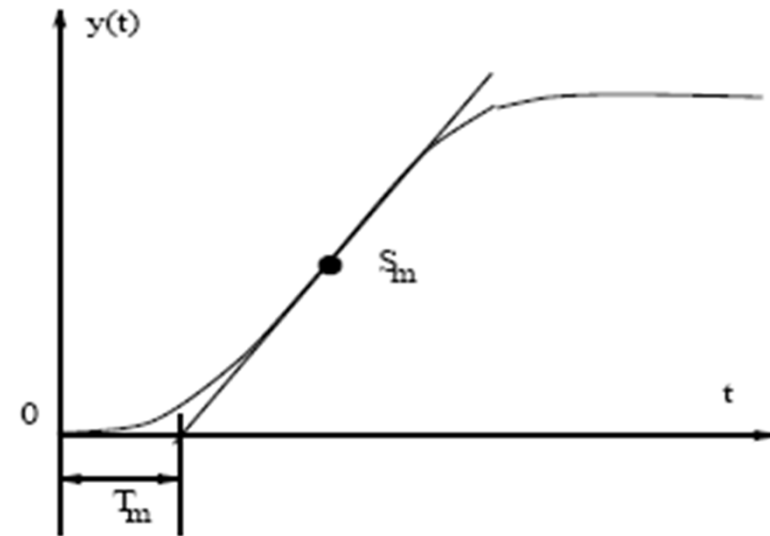
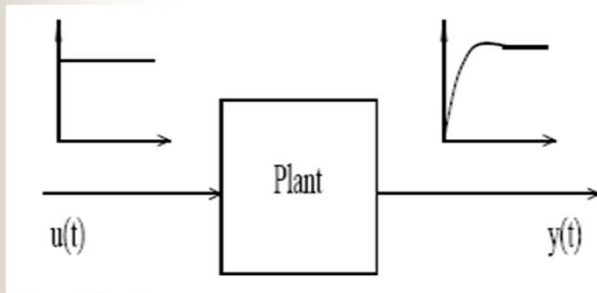
- Step 1: Set  $K_i = 0$  &  $K_d = 0$ . Increase  $K_p$  from zero;
- Step 2: Fix  $K_p$ . Increase  $K_i$  from zero;
- Step 3: Fix  $K_p$  &  $K_i$ . Increase  $K_d$  from zero.

Note: Several iterations of the procedure may be necessary

See Hou Ming's lecture notes

# MM6: PID Tuning – Ziegler Nichols (I)

- **Pre-condition:** system has no overshoot of step response

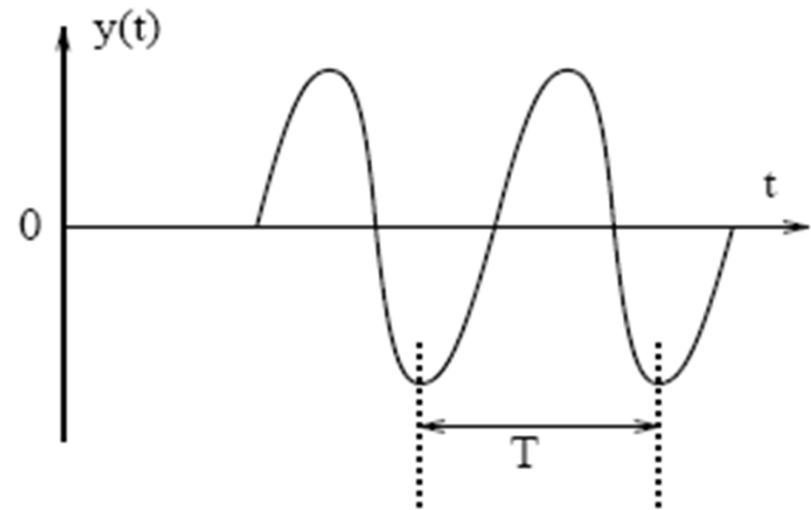
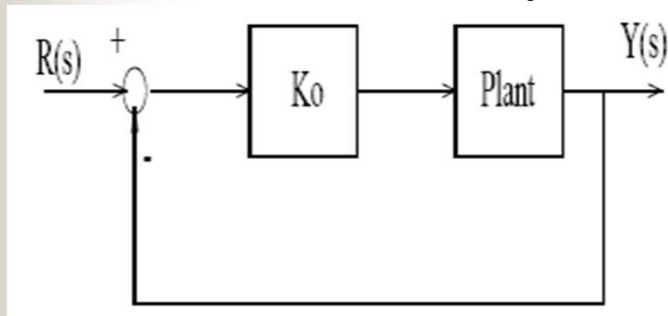


Control	$K_p$	$K_i$	$K_d$
P	$\frac{1}{S_m T_m}$	0	0
PI	$\frac{0.9}{S_m T_m}$	$\frac{3}{S_m}$	0
PID	$\frac{1.2}{S_m T_m}$	$\frac{2.4}{S_m}$	$\frac{0.6}{S_m}$

See Hou Ming's lecture notes

# MM6: PID Tuning – Ziegler Nichols (II)

- **Pre-condition:** system order  $> 2$



Control	$K_p$	$K_i$	$K_d$
P	$\frac{K_o}{2}$	0	0
PI	$\frac{9K_o}{20}$	$\frac{3K_o T_o}{8}$	0
PID	$\frac{3K_o}{5}$	$\frac{3K_o T_o}{10}$	$\frac{3K_o T_o}{40}$

See Hou Ming's lecture notes



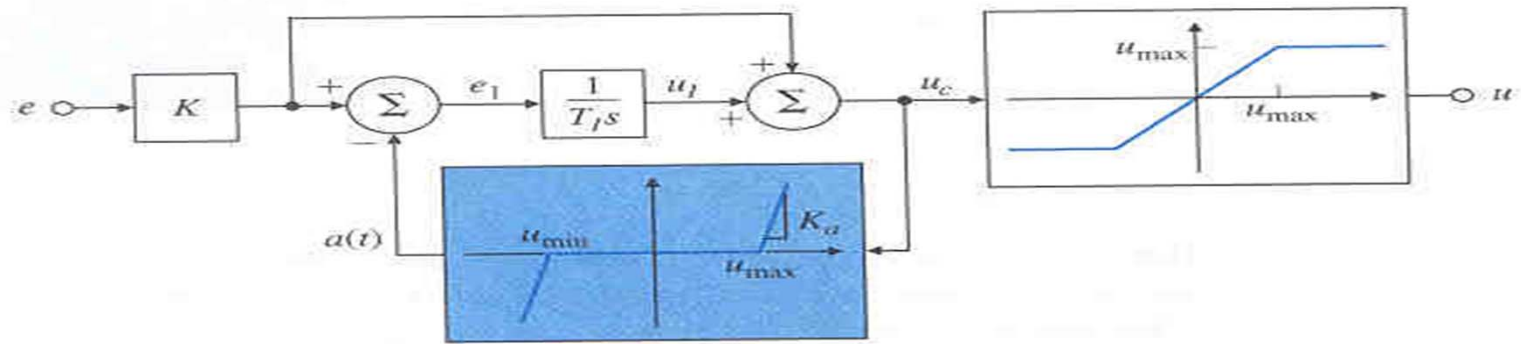


## Goals for this lecture (MM7)

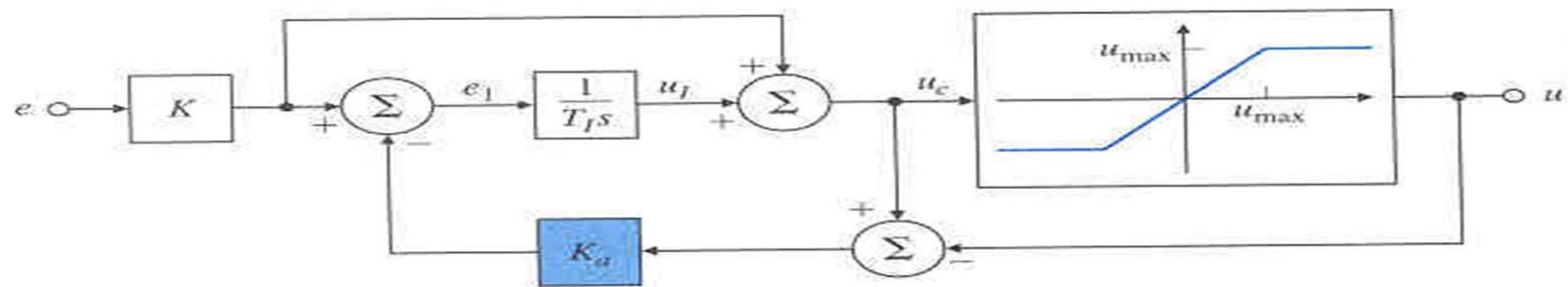
Some **practical issues** when developing a PID controller:

- **Integral windup & Anti-windup methods**
- Derivative kick
- When to use which controller?
- Operational Amplifier Implementation
- Other tuning methods

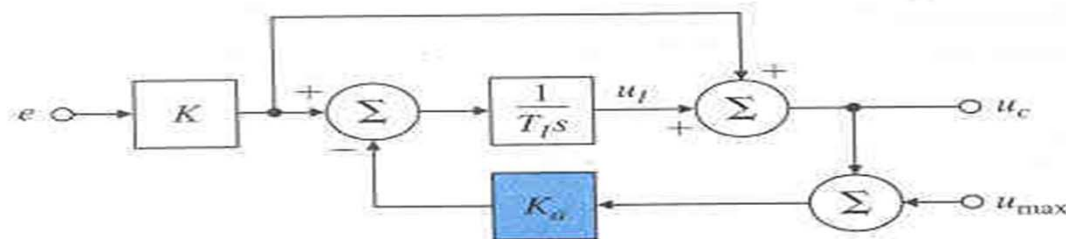
# Anti-windup Techniques



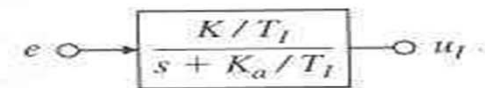
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

## Derivative Kick

$$u(t) = K(e(t) + \frac{1}{T_I} \int_{t_0}^t e(\tau) d\tau + T_D \dot{y}(t))$$

$$U(s) = K(1 + \frac{1}{T_I s})E(s) + T_D s Y(s)$$

- **Derivative kick:** if we have a setpoint change, a spike will be caused by D controller, which is called derivative kick.
- Derivative kick can be removed by replacing the derivative term with just output ( $y$ ), instead of  $(r_{\text{set}} - y)$
- Derivative kick can be reduced by introducing a lowpass filter before the set-point enters the system
- The bandwidth of the filter should be much larger than the closed-loop system's bandwidth

$$G(s) = \frac{Ke^{-\theta s}}{\tau s + 1} \quad (1\text{st order})$$

## Cohen-Coon Tuning Method

- **Pre-condition:** first-order system with some time delay
- **Objective:** 1/4 decay ratio & minimum offset

	$k_c$	$T_i$	$T_D$
<b>P</b>	$\frac{1}{k_p} \frac{\tau}{\theta} \left(1 + \frac{\theta}{3\tau}\right)$		
<b>PI</b>	$\frac{1}{k_p} \frac{\tau}{\theta} \left(\frac{9}{10} + \frac{\theta}{12\tau}\right)$	$\theta \frac{30 + 3(\theta / \tau)}{9 + 20(\theta / \tau)}$	
<b>PID</b>	$\frac{1}{k_p} \frac{\tau}{\theta} \left(\frac{4}{3} + \frac{\theta}{4\tau}\right)$	$\theta \frac{32 + 6(\theta / \tau)}{13 + 8(\theta / \tau)}$	$\theta \frac{4}{11 + 2(\theta / \tau)}$

In the table  $k_p$  is the process gain,  $\tau$  the process time constant and  $\theta$  the process time delay.

$$G(s) = \frac{Ke^{-\theta s}}{\tau s + 1} \quad (1\text{st order})$$

**Table 12.3 Controller Design Relations Based on the ITAE Performance Index and a First-Order plus Time-Delay Model**

<i>Type of Input</i>	<i>Type of Controller</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
Load	PI	P	0.859	-0.977
		I	0.674	-0.680
Load	PID	P	1.357	-0.947
		I	0.842	-0.738
		D	0.381	0.995
Set point	PI	P	0.586	-0.916
		I	1.03 <sup>b</sup>	-0.165 <sup>b</sup>
Set point	PID	P	0.965	-0.85
		I	0.796 <sup>b</sup>	-0.1465 <sup>b</sup>
		D	0.308	0.929

<sup>a</sup>Design relation:  $Y = A(\theta/\tau)^B$  where  $Y = KK_c$  for the proportional mode,  $\tau/\tau_I$  for the integral mode, and  $\tau_D/\tau$  for the derivative mode.

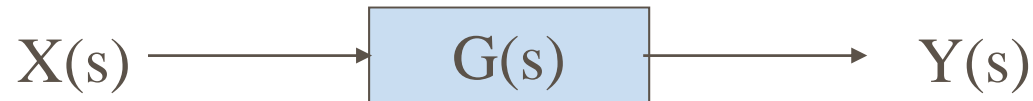
<sup>b</sup>For set-point changes, the design relation for the integral mode is  $\tau/\tau_I = A + B(\theta/\tau)$ . [8]

# Goals for this lecture (MM8)

Essentials for **frequency domain** design methods – **Bode plot**

- **Bode plot analysis**
  - How to get a Bode plot
  - What we can gain from Bode plot
- How to use bode plot for design purpose
  - Stability margins (Gain margin and phase margin)
  - Transient performance
  - Steady-state performance
- Matlab functions: `bode()`, `margin()`

# Frequency Response



- The frequency response  $\mathbf{G(j\Omega)}$  ( $=\mathbf{G(s)}|_{s=j\Omega}$ ) is a representation of the system's response to sinusoidal inputs at varying frequencies

$$\mathbf{G(j\Omega) = |G(j\Omega)| e^{\angle G(j\Omega)},}$$

- Input  $\mathbf{x(n)}$  and output  $\mathbf{y(n)}$  relationship

$$\mathbf{|Y(j\Omega)| = |H(j\Omega)| |X(j\Omega)|}$$

$$\mathbf{\angle Y(j\Omega) = \angle H(j\Omega) + \angle X(j\Omega)}$$

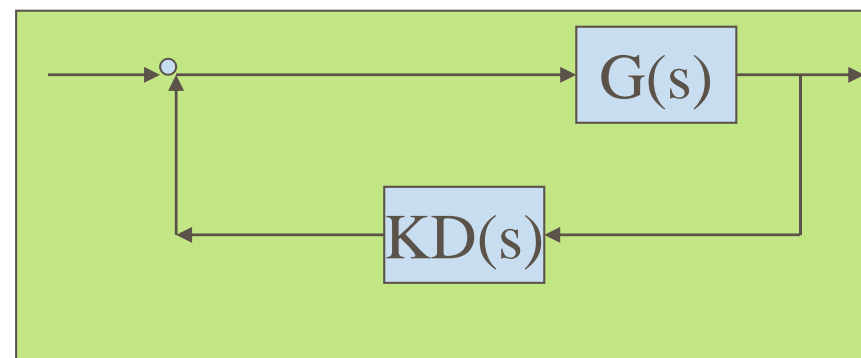
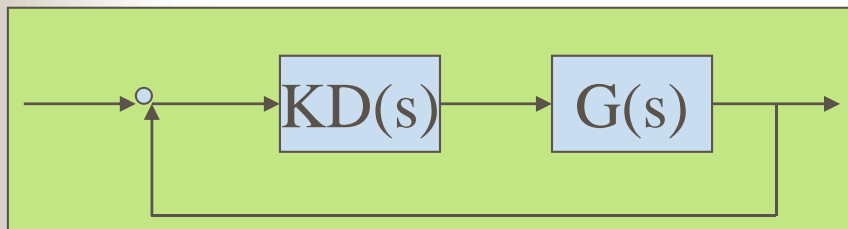
- The frequency response of a system can be viewed
  - via the **Bode plot** (H.W. Bode 1932-1942)
  - via the **Nyquist diagram**

# Open-Loop Transfer Function

- **Motivation**

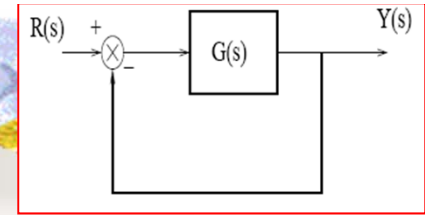
Predict the **closed-loop** system's **properties** using the **open-loop** system's **frequency response**

- **Open-loop TF (Loop gain) :  $L(s)=KD(s)G(s)$**



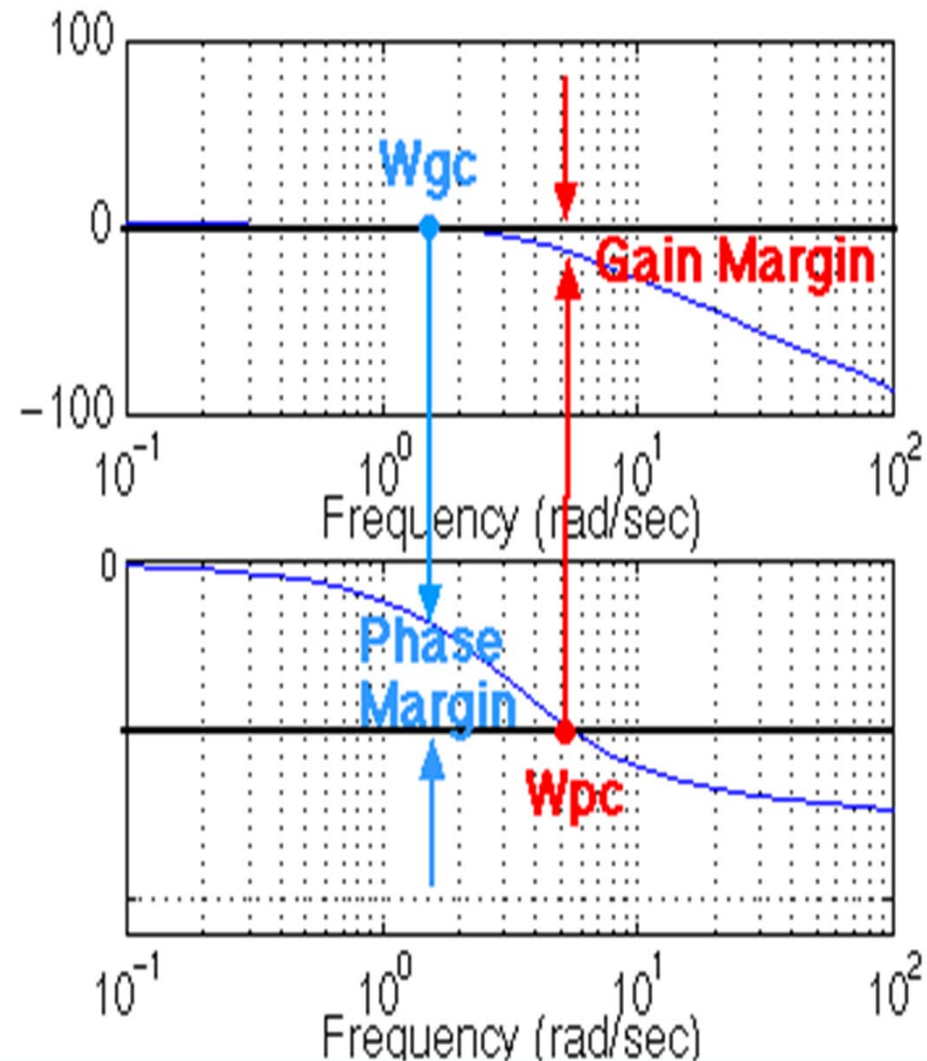
- **Closed-loop:  $G_{cl}(s)=L(s)/(1+L(s))$ , or  $G_{cl}(s)=G(s)/(1+L(s))$**





## Definition of Phase Margin (PM)

- Bode plot of the open-loop TF
- The **phase margin** is the difference in phase between the phase curve and  $-180$  deg at the point corresponding to the frequency that gives us a gain of  $0$  dB (the **gain cross over frequency**,  $W_{gc}$ ).



# Remarks of Using Bode Plot

- **Precondition:** The **system must be stable in open loop** if we are going to design via Bode plots
- **Stability:** If the gain crossover frequency is less than the phase crossover frequency (i.e.  $W_{gc} < W_{pc}$ ), then the closed-loop system will be stable
- **Damping Ratio:** For second-order systems, the closed-loop damping ratio is approximately equal to the **phase margin divided by 100** if the phase margin is between 0 and 60 deg
- A very rough estimate that you can use is that the bandwidth is approximately equal to the **natural frequency**

# Goals for this lecture (MM9)

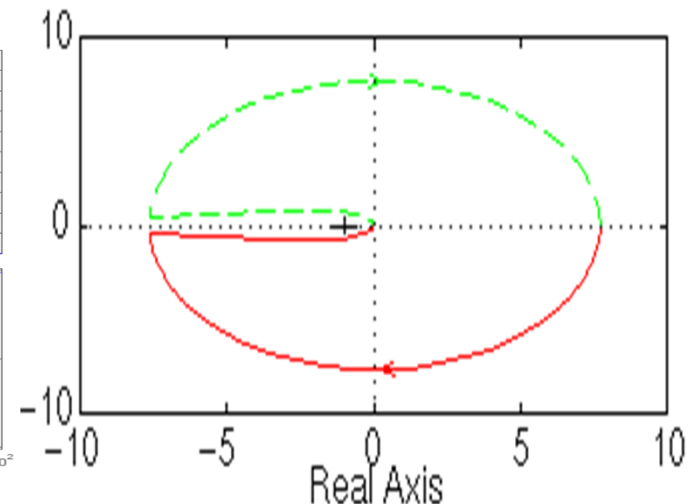
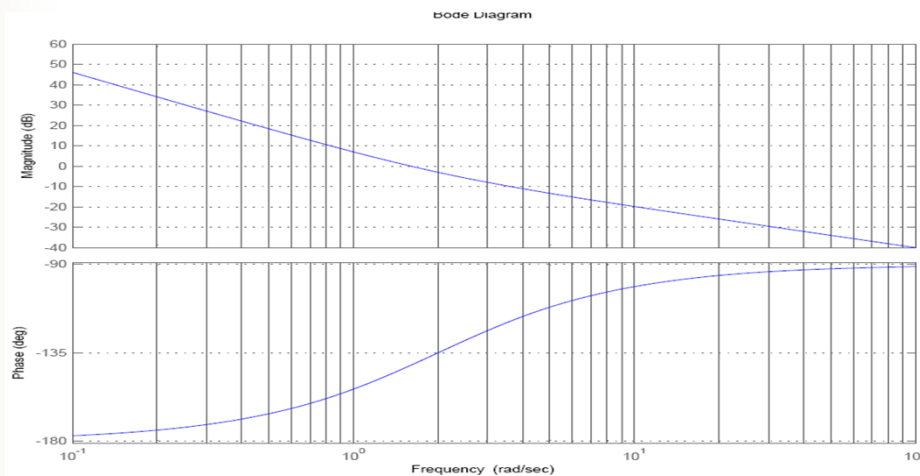
- A design example based on Bode plot
  - Open-loop system feature analysis
  - Bode plot based design
  
- Nyquist Diagram
  - What's Nyquist diagram?
  - What we can gain from Nyquist diagram
  
- Matlab functions: nyquist()

# Nyquist Diagram: Definition

The Nyquist diagram is a plot of  $G(j\Omega)$ , where  $G(s)$  is the open-loop transfer function and  $\Omega$  is a vector of frequencies which encloses the entire right-half plane

$$G(j\Omega) = |G(j\Omega)| e^{j\angle G(j\Omega)},$$

- The Nyquist diagram plots the position in the complex plane, while the Bode plot plots its magnitude and phase separately.



# Nyquist Criterion for Stability (MM9)

The Nyquist criterion states that:

- $P$  = the number of **open-loop** (unstable) poles of  $G(s)H(s)$
- $N$  = the number of times the Nyquist diagram encircles  $-1$ 
  - clockwise encirclements of  $-1$  count as positive encirclements
  - counter-clockwise (or anti-clockwise) encirclements of  $-1$  count as negative encirclements
- $Z$  = the number of right half-plane (positive, real) poles of the **closed-loop system**
- The important equation:

$$Z = P + N$$



# Goals for this lecture (MM10)

- **An illustrative example**
  - **Frequency response analysis**
  - **Frequency response design**
- **Lead and lag compensators**
  - **What's a lead/lag compensator?**
  - **Their frequency features**
- **A systematical procedure for lead compensator design**
- **A practical design example – Beam and Ball Control**

# What have we talked in lecture (MM10)?

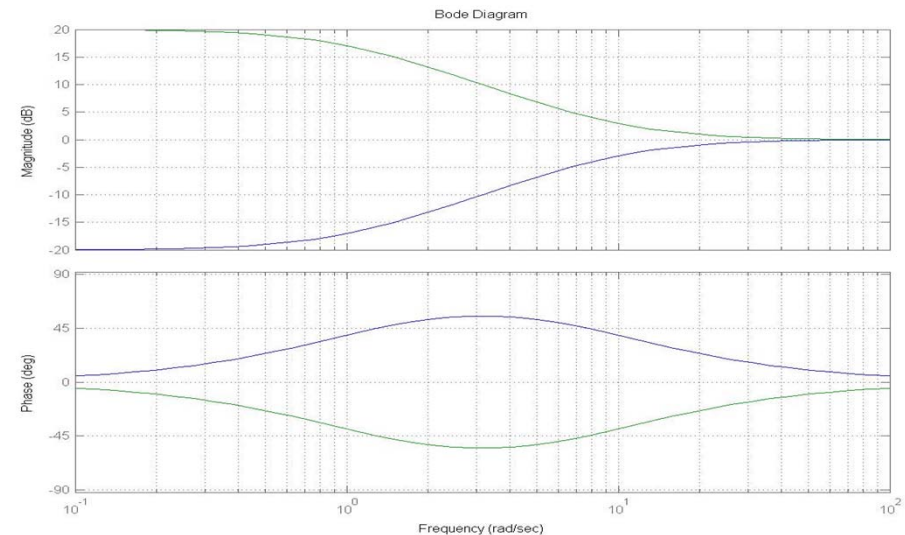
- Lead and lag compensators

$$D(s) = (s+z)/(s+p)$$

with  $z < p$  or  $z > p$

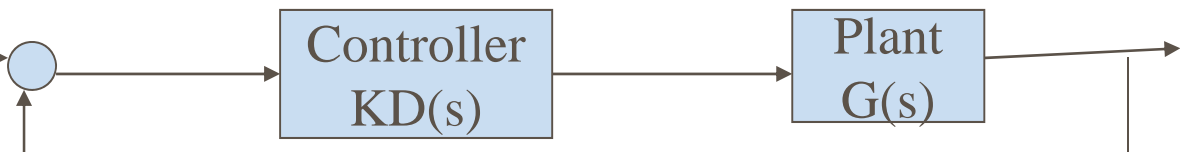
$$D(s) = K(Ts+1)/(\alpha Ts+1),$$

with  $\alpha < 1$  or  $\alpha > 1$



- A systematic procedure for lead compensator design

$$\omega_{\max} = \frac{1}{T \sqrt{\alpha}}$$
$$\alpha = \frac{1 - \sin \beta_{\max}}{1 + \sin \beta_{\max}}$$



# Exercise

Could you repeat the antenna design using

1. Continuous lead compensation;
2. Emulation method for digital control;

Such that the design specifications:

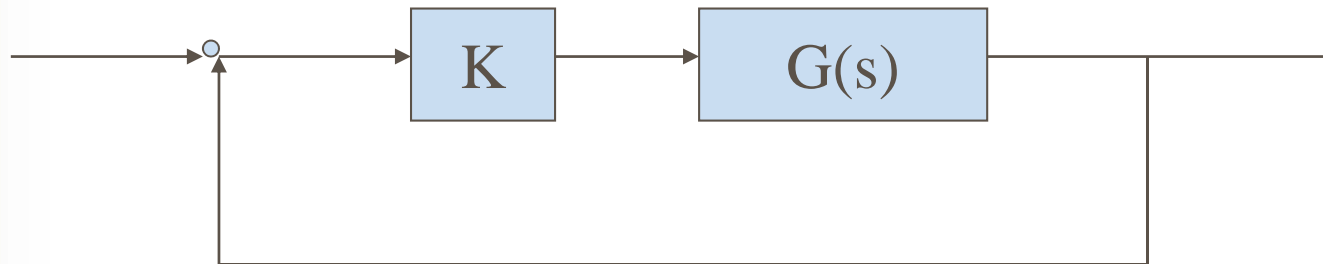
- Overshoot to a step input less than **5%**;
- Settling time to 1% to be less than **14 sec.**;
- Tracking error to a ramp input of slope  $0.01\text{rad/sec}$  to be less than  $0.01\text{rad}$ ;
- Sampling time to give at least 10 samples in a rise time.

**(Write your analysis and program on a paper!)**





# 1. Introduction - Root Locus



Open-loop trans. Func.:  $\mathbf{KG(s)}$ ;

Closed-loop trans. Func.:  $\mathbf{KG(s)/(1+KG(s))}$

Sensitivity function:  $\mathbf{1/(1+KG(s))}$

- The root locus of an (open-loop) transfer function  $\mathbf{KG(s)}$  is a plot of the locations (locus) of all possible closed loop poles with proportional gain  $\mathbf{K}$  and unity feedback
- From the root locus we can select a gain such that our closed-loop system will perform the way we want

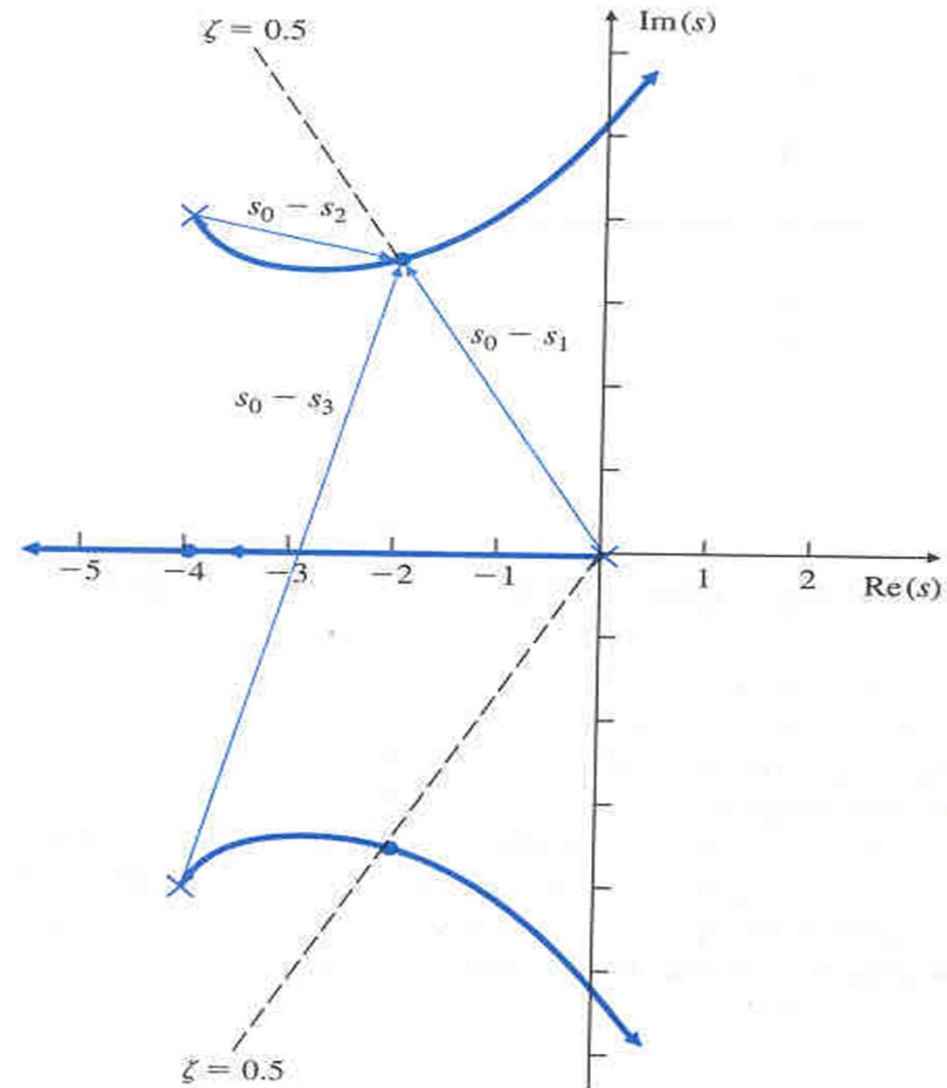
# Control Design Using Root Locus (I)

- **Objective:** select a particular value of  $K$  that will meet the specifications for static and dynamic

$$1+KG(s)=0$$

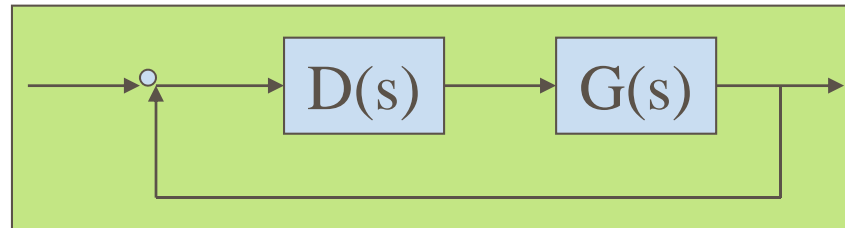
- **Magnitude condition:**

$$K=1/|G(s)|$$



# Exercise

- Question 5.2 on FC page.321;
- Consider a DC motor control using a PI controller



Where the motor is modeled as  $G(s)=K/(\tau s+1)$  and PI controller is  $D(s)=K_p(T_i s+1)/T_i s$ , with parameters  $K=30$ ,  $\tau=0.35$ ,  $T_i=0.041$ . Through the root locus method determine the largest value of  $K_p$  such that  $\xi=0.45$

- Try to use the root locus method to design a lead compensator for the exemplified antenna system.