



# ELEC 301 - Stability and compensation techniques

L27 - Nov 17

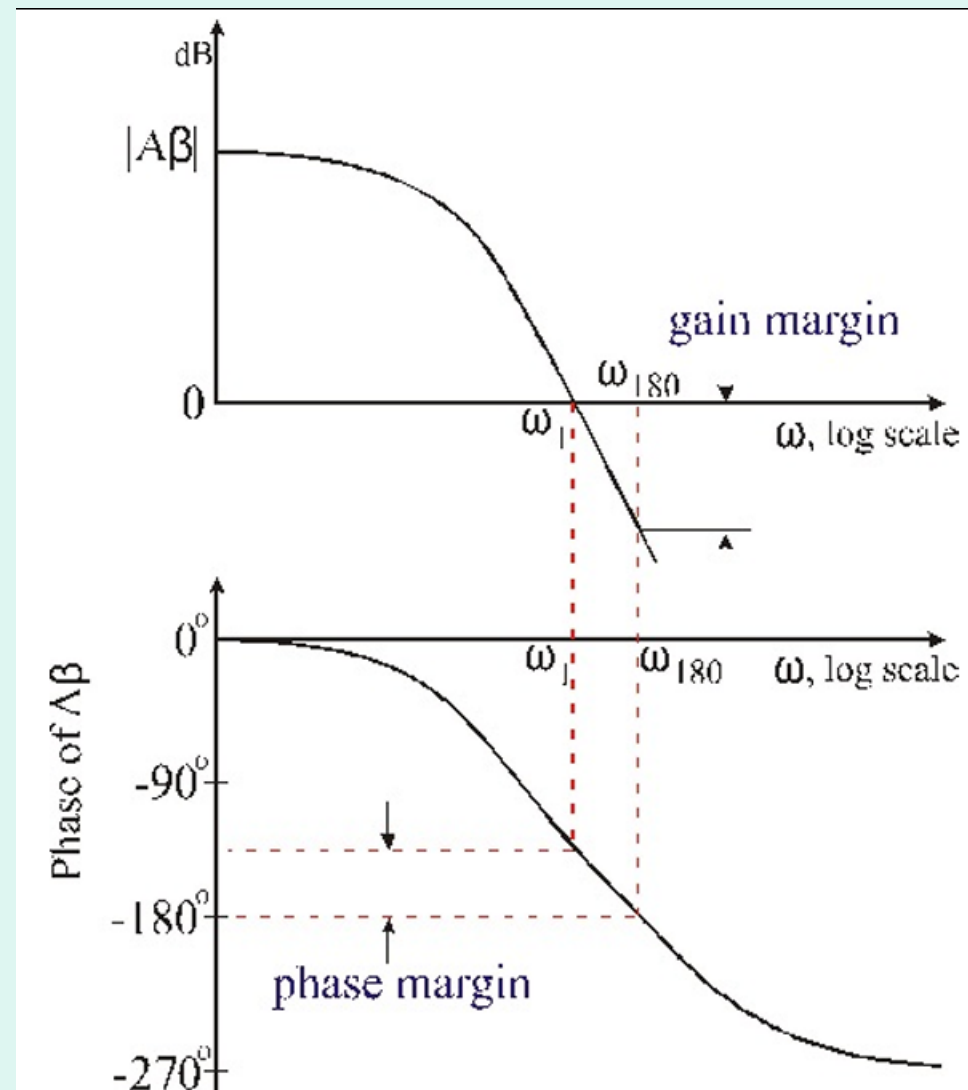
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## Last time

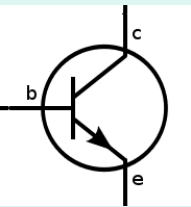
- Stability - frequency domain perspective
- Gain margin (GM)
- Phase margin (PM)
- Bode plots for  $A\beta(j\omega)$
- Bode plots for  $A(j\omega)$  and  $1/\beta(j\omega)$
- The closure rule of thumb





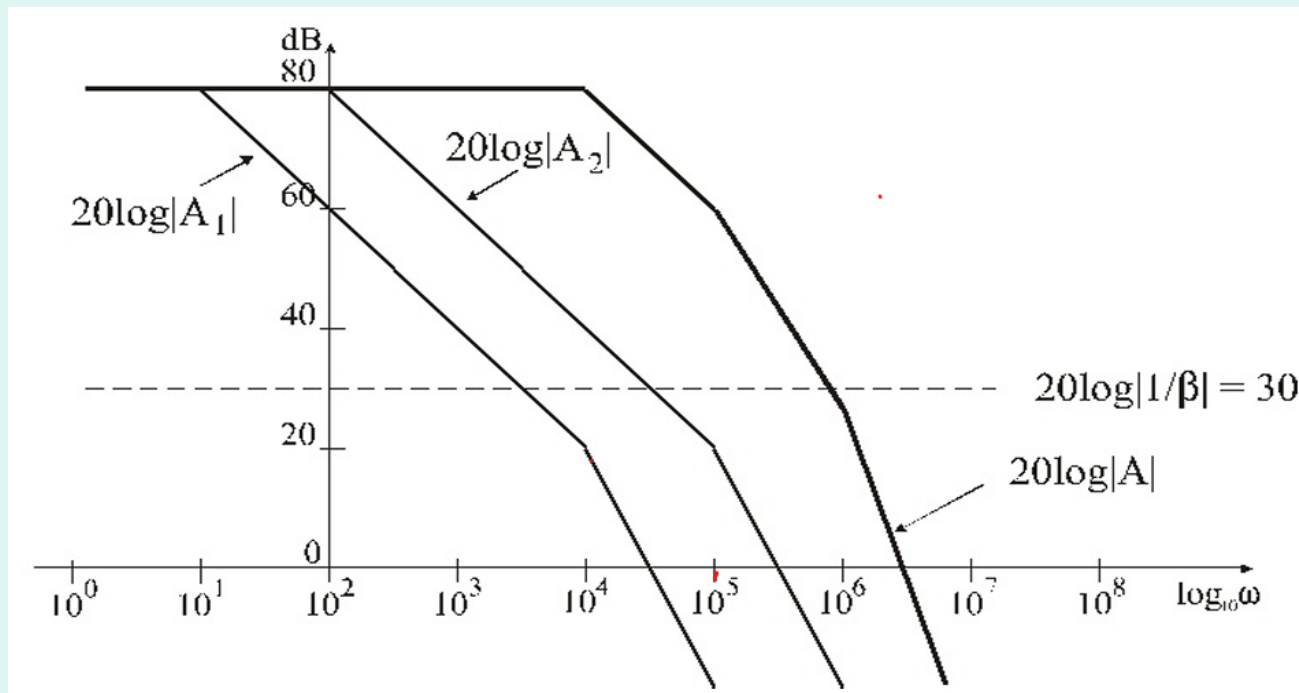
## “Closure Rule of Thumb”

- The point at which  $\omega_{180}$  occurs is always on the section of the Bode diagram on which the slope is -40dB/dec or greater (WHY?)
- If  $\omega_{180}$  intercept is on the section with a slope of -20dB/dec the amplifier will not be unstable
- The “**Closure rule of thumb**” - if at the intersection of  $20\log|1/\beta(j\omega)|$  and  $20\log|A(j\omega)|$ , the difference of slopes (called the **rate of closure**) should not exceed 20db/dec, then the amplifier is stable



# Frequency compensation

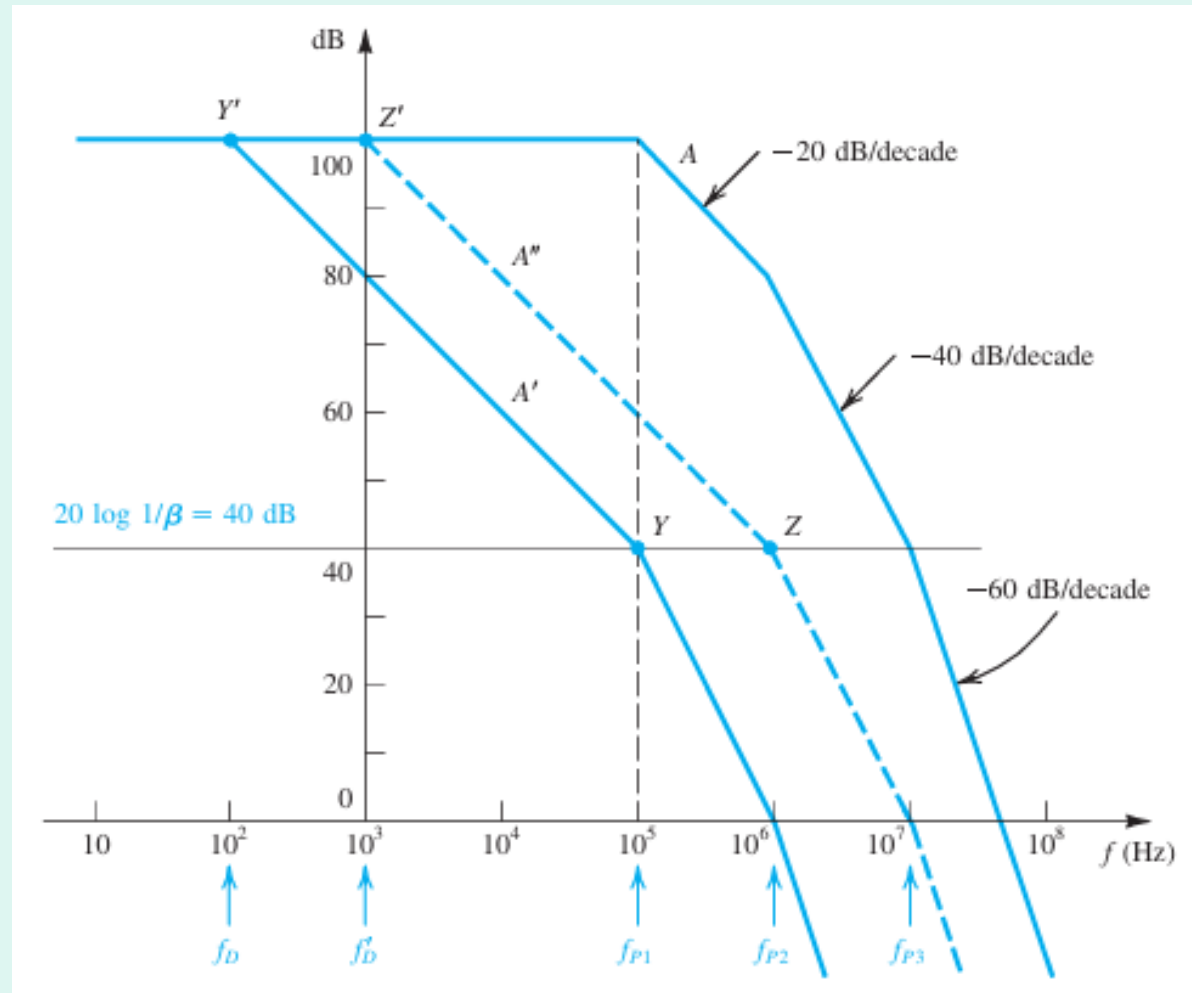
- Simplest method: introduce a new pole in  $A(s)$  at a sufficiently low frequency, so that the new open-loop gain  $A'(s)$ , intersects  $20\log(1/|\beta|)$  with a slope difference of  $-20\text{dB/dec}$
- Better method: shift the pole originally at  $10^4\text{rad/s}$  to a lower frequency - move the dominant LF pole to  $10^2\text{rad/s}$  results in  $A_2(j\omega)$ , improving the BW with one decade





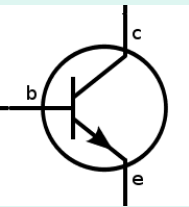
# Frequency compensation - extra pole addition

- Introduce a pole so that the  $A'(j\omega)$  and  $1/\beta(j\omega)$  intersection happens before the dominant HF pole
- Significantly reduced amount of feedback at most frequencies => reduced performance



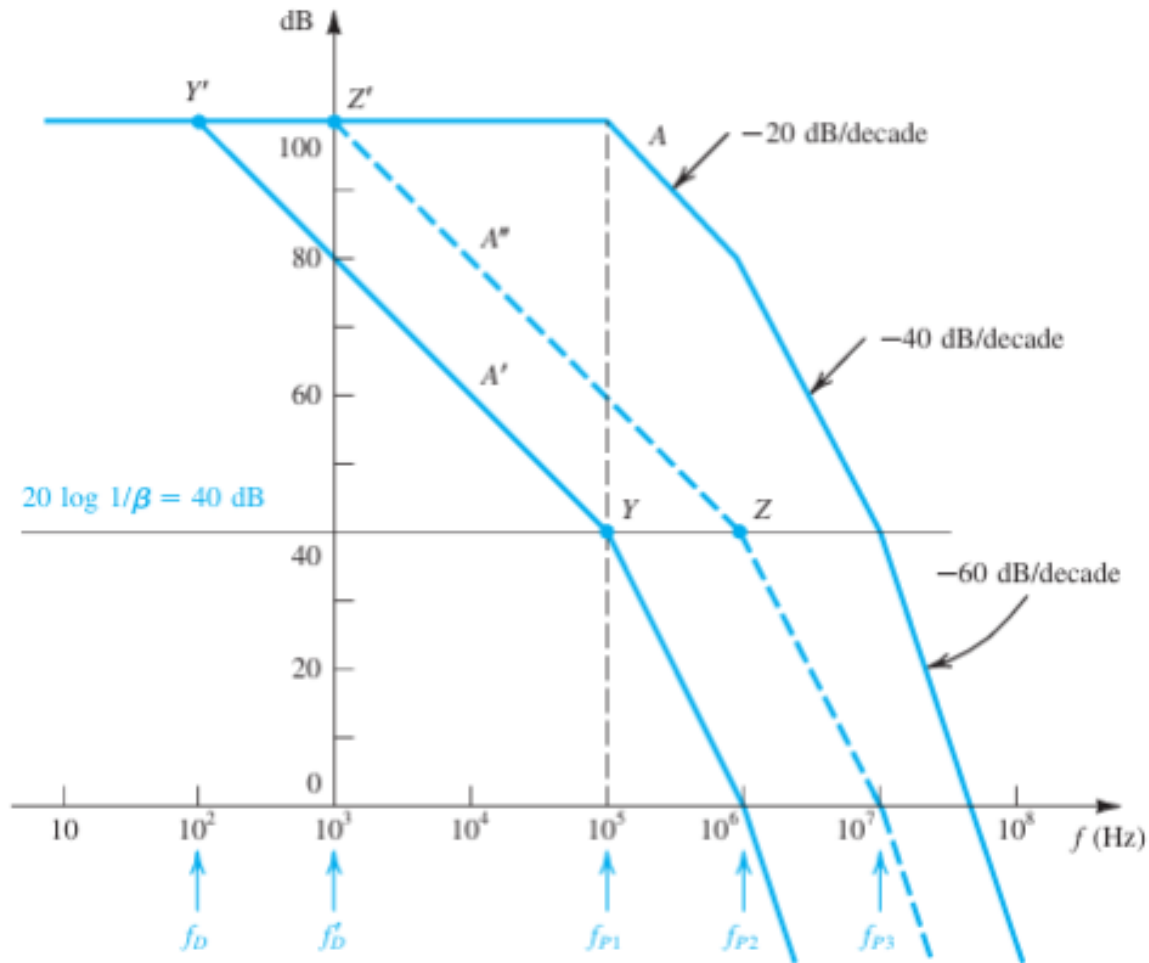
Source: Sedra&Smith - Microelectronic circuits



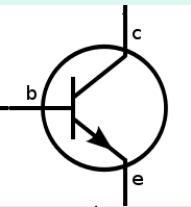


# Compensation alternative - eliminate or shift internal pole

- If  $f_{p1}$  pole can be eliminated, then we apply the same strategy starting from  $f_{p2} \Rightarrow$  increased BW for  $A''(j\omega)$

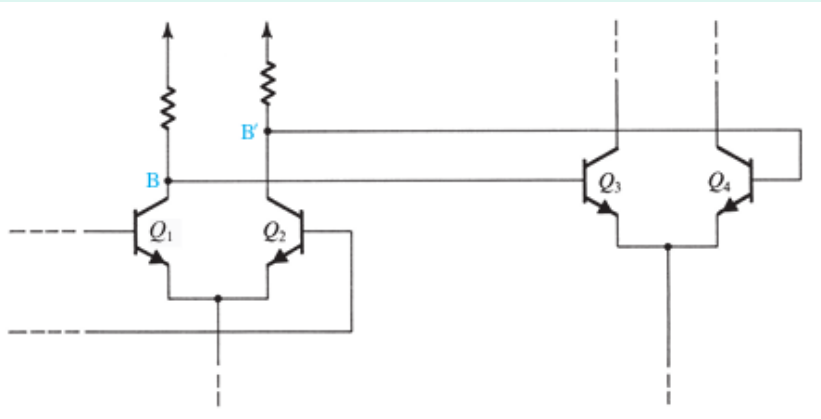


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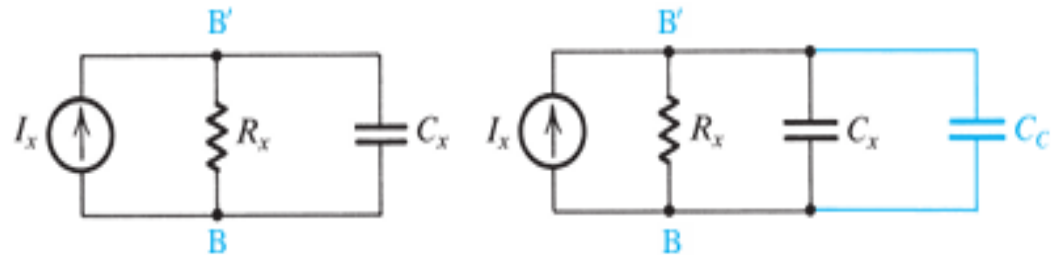


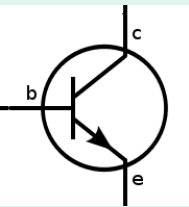
# Circuit implementation

- Amplifier formed by cascaded gain blocks
- Assume  $f_{p1}$  given by the interface between the two differential stages
- Add compensating capacitor  $C_c$
- Adding  $C_c$  might change the position of other poles  $\Rightarrow$  iterative approach
- $C_c$  may be large ( $>100\text{pF}$ )  $\Rightarrow$  impractical in IC - Miller compensation as alternative ( $C_c$  in the feedback path)



$$\omega_{p1} = \frac{1}{R_x C_x} \xrightarrow{+C_c} \omega'_{p1} = \frac{1}{R_x (C_x + C_c)}$$

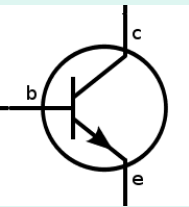




# Compensators design

- Methods of improving the design of a control system
- Modify pole-zero patterns to achieve desired time or frequency responses
- **Compensation** (stabilization) = the act of modifying a system to reshape its root locus in order to improve system performance
- “Satisfactory compensation” - stable, satisfactory transient response, and large enough gain to ensure the steady-state error does not exceed the specified maximum
- Compensation devices: electric networks (filters) or mechanical equipment (levers, springs, dashpots, etc.)





# Compensator design approaches

- Time-domain performance specification - PO (percentage overshoot), settling time, peak time, steady-state error
- Frequency-domain performance: peak of the closed-loop frequency response, resonant frequency, bandwidth, gain margin, phase margin - Bode plot, Nyquist plot, Nichols chart
- s-plane design - alteration of root-locus to obtain a suitable performance



# PID (proportional-integral-derivative) Controller

**Adv.:** Good performance in a wide range of operating conditions; functional simplicity.

To implement a PID, 3 parameters must be determined.

**“Academic” PID controller:**

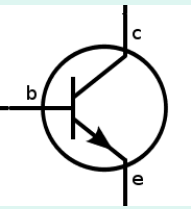
$$G_c(s) = K_P + \frac{K_I}{s} + K_D s \quad (\text{Transfer function})$$

which corresponds to

$$u(t) = K_P e(t) + K_I \int e(\tau) d\tau + K_D \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

In practice:

$$G_c(s) = K_P + \frac{K_I}{s} + \frac{K_D s}{\tau_D s + 1}$$



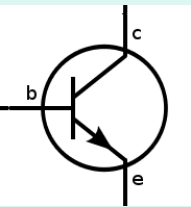
# PID Controller - variations

PI controller: Used extensively in process control on a broad range of applications due to simplicity and relatively good performance

$$\text{PI controller: } G_c(s) = K_P + \frac{K_I}{s}$$

PD controller: Used extensively in controlling electromechanical systems

$$\text{PD controller: } G_c(s) = K_P + K_D s$$



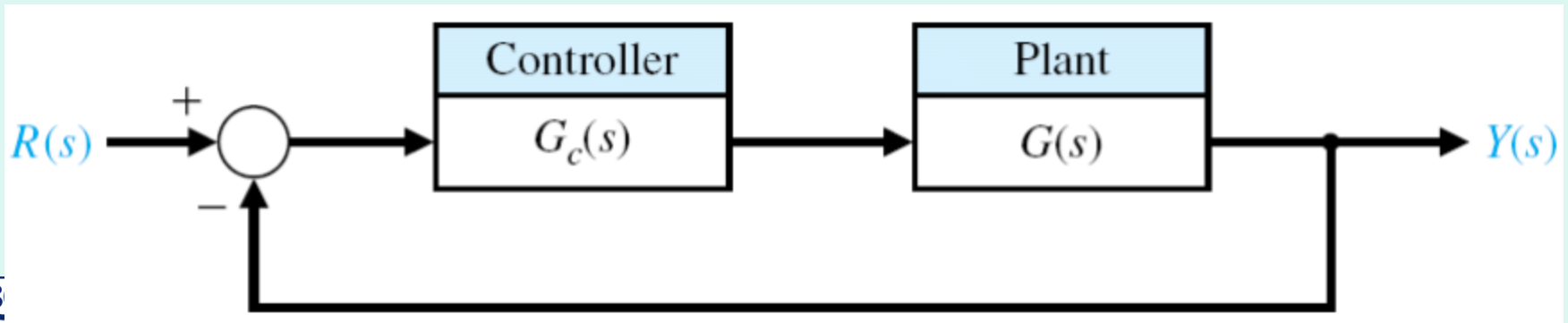
# PID Controller

Consider the PID controller

$$\begin{aligned} G_c(s) &= K_1 + \frac{K_2}{s} + K_3 s = \frac{K_3 s^2 + K_1 s + K_2}{s} \\ &= \frac{K_3(s^2 + as + b)}{s} = \frac{K_3(s + z_1)(s + z_2)}{s} \end{aligned}$$

The PID controller introduces a pole at the origin and two zeros

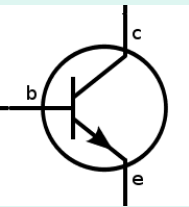
A closed-loop system with a PID controller:





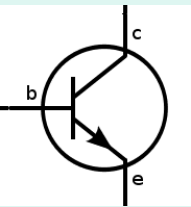
# Compensators - roles

- Compensating for transient response – insert a differentiator in the forward path (derivative control)  $\Rightarrow$  faster response
- Compensators – used to decouple as well between transient and steady-state error performance
- Proportional control: the higher the gain, the smaller the  $\varepsilon_{ss}$  but the larger PO  $\Rightarrow$  compromise
- Improving steady-state error: adding an open-loop pole at the origin in the forward path (integral control)



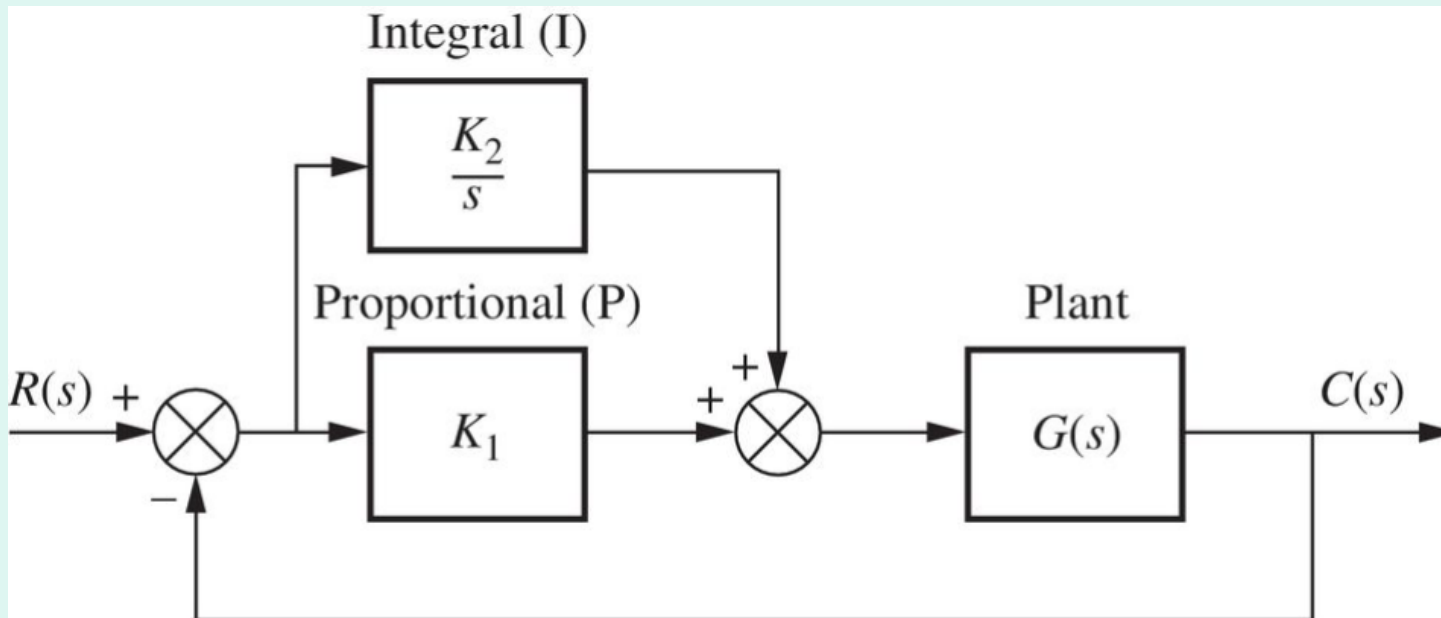
# Ideal (active) vs. passive compensation

- **Ideal compensators** (e.g.  $1/s$ ) – pure integration can only be achieved with **active** components (amplifiers) – higher costs + power consumption
- **Passive compensators** – made with passive components  $\Rightarrow$  no pole at zero (like an ideal integral compensator), but close enough to meet requirements



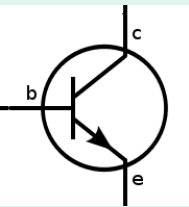
# PI controller

Generic case for ideal proportional-integral (PI) compensator - eliminates the steady-state error



$$G_c(s) = K_1 + \frac{K_2}{s} = \frac{K_1 \left( s + \frac{K_2}{K_1} \right)}{s}$$

Adjust the zero by  
varying  $K_2/K_1$



## PD controller – improve transient response

- Typical goals: improve PO and settling time
- Technique: reshape RL so that it goes through the desired closed-loop location
- Simplest way: add a zero to the forward path
- Ideal derivative or PD controller:

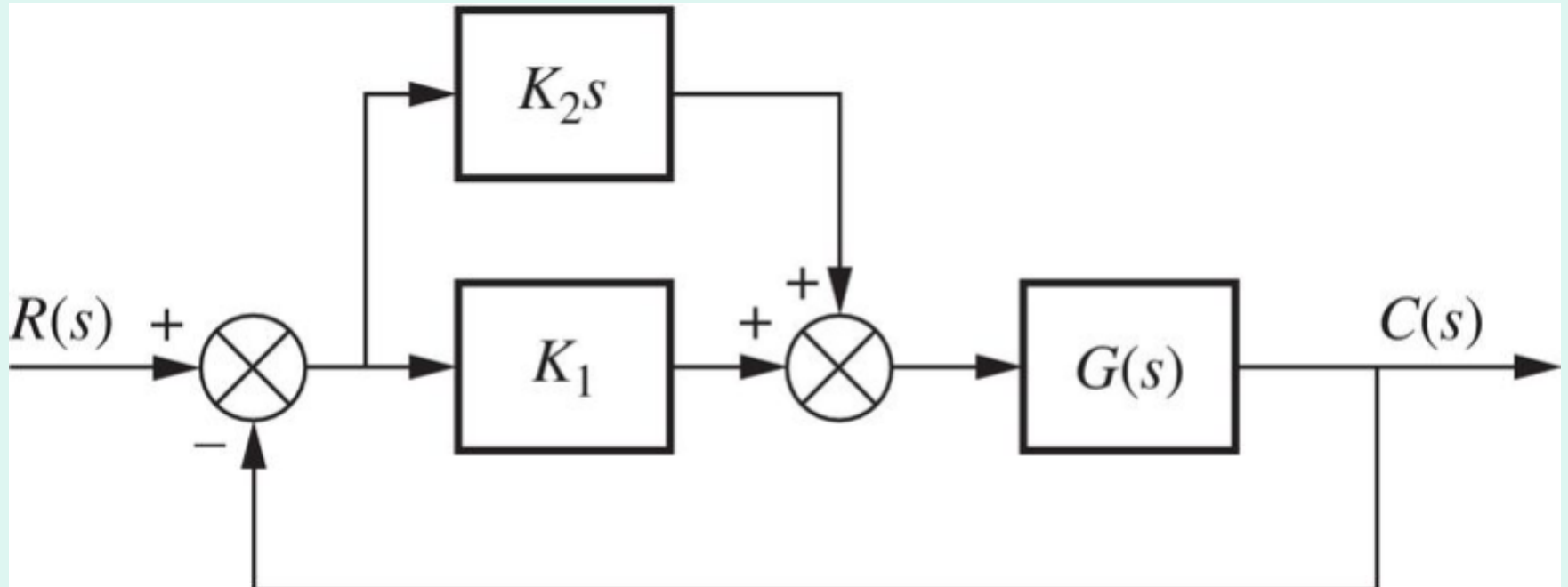
$$G_c(s) = s + z_c$$

- Concl: transient responses unattainable by a simple gain tuning can be obtained by augmenting the system with an ideal derivative compensator

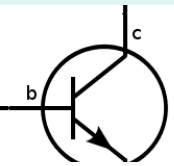




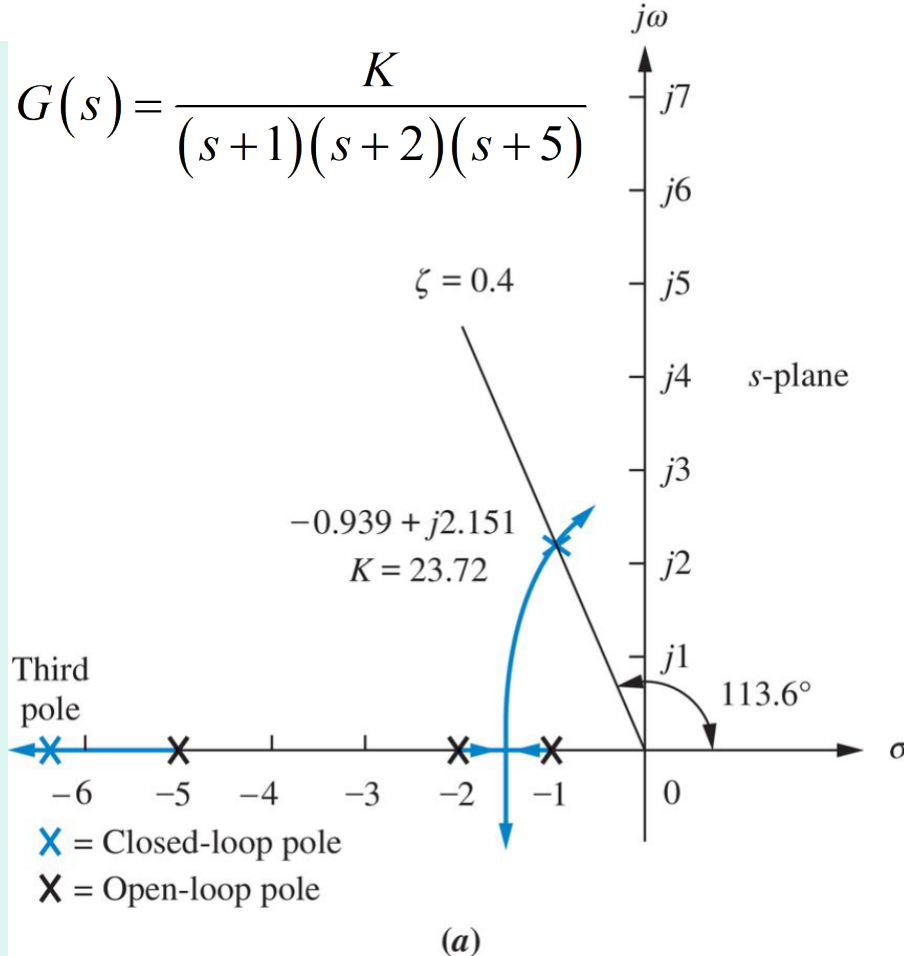
# Generic PD controller



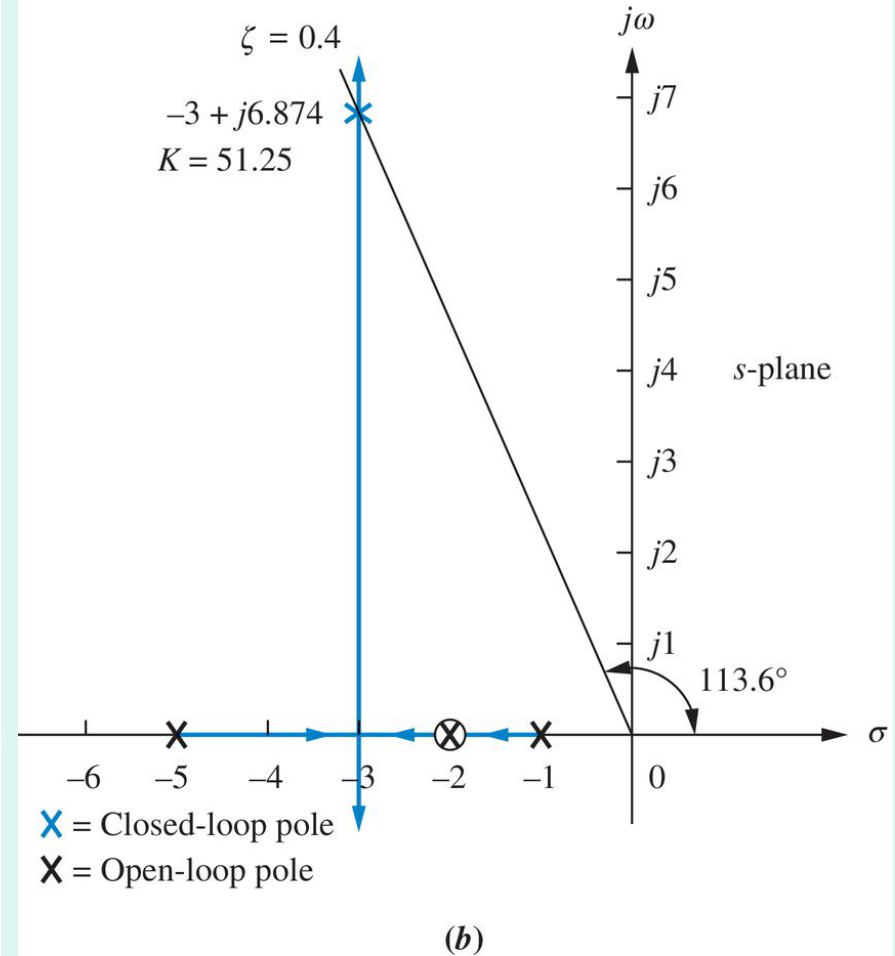
$$G_c(s) = K_2s + K_1 = K_2 \left( s + \frac{K_1}{K_2} \right)$$



# Examples – effects on RL

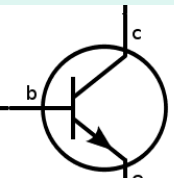


Uncompensated system

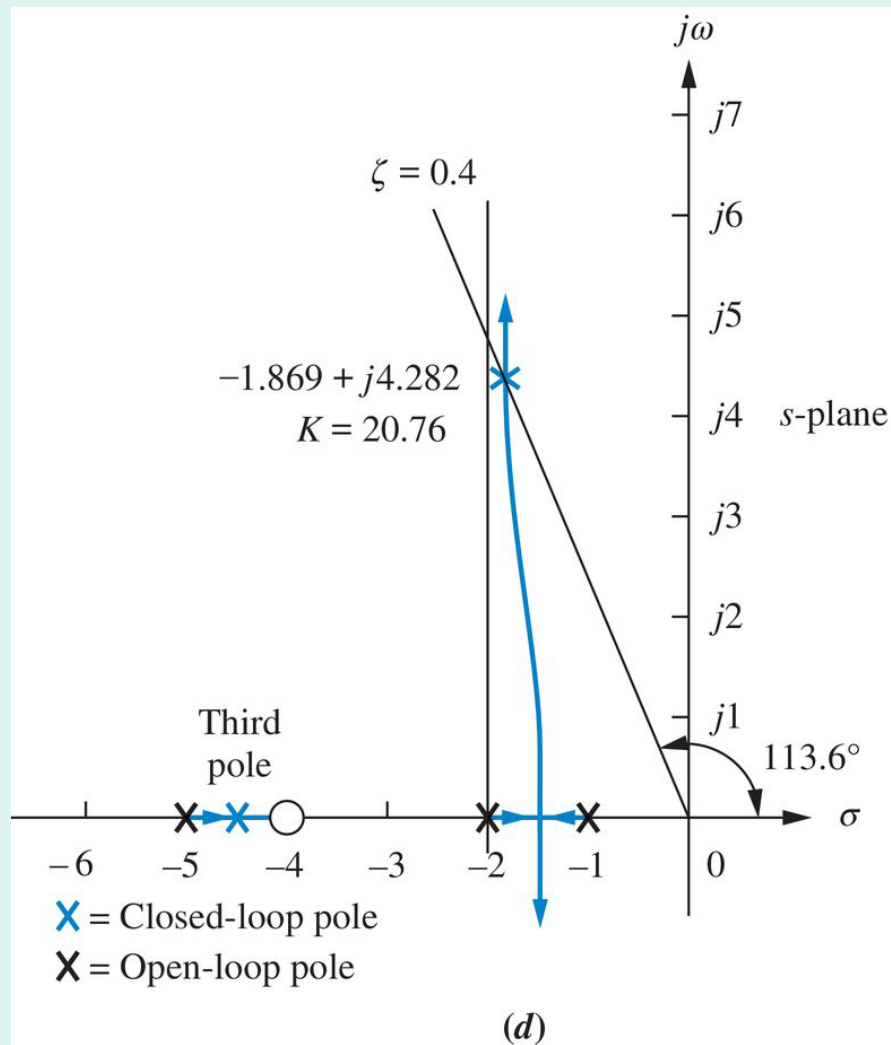
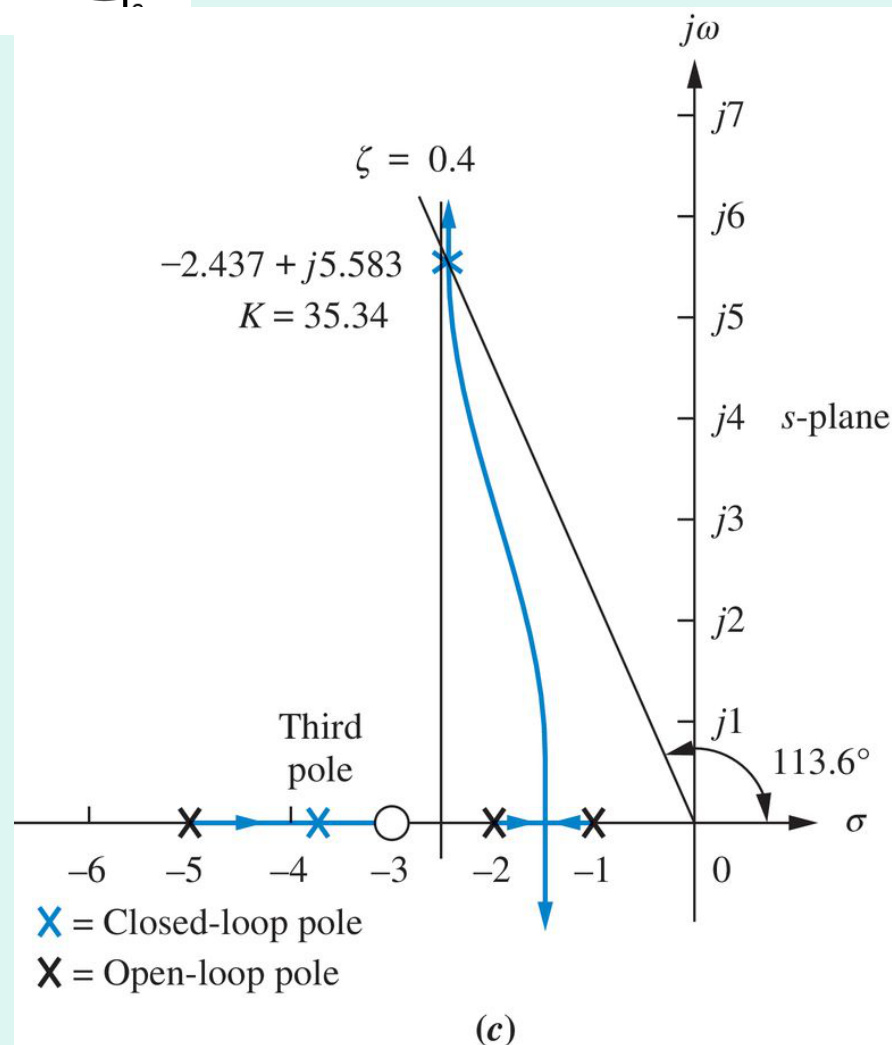


+ Zero  $z = -2$

$$G_b(s) = \frac{K(s+2)}{(s+1)(s+2)(s+5)}$$

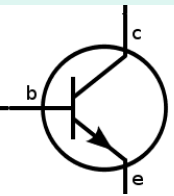


# Example (cont.)

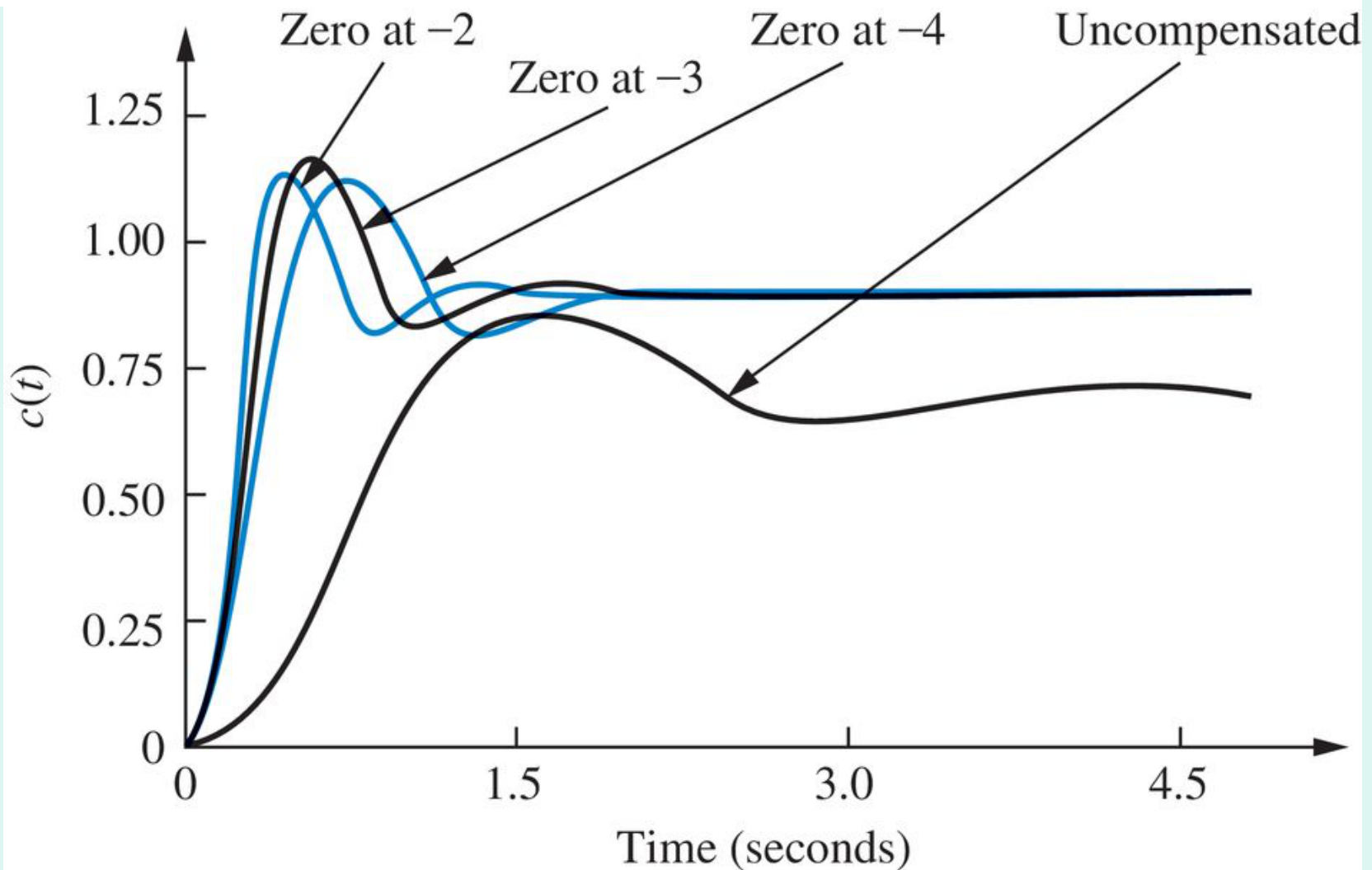


Compensator  $z = -3$

Compensator  $z = -4$



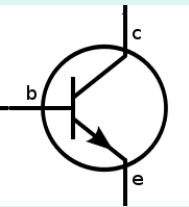
# Transient simulations





## Conclusions for PID compensators/controllers

- Classic compensators - PI, PD, PID - structural modifications in the feedback structure (addition of zeros and poles)
- Design of PI, PD compensators by root locus approach  
strategy: maintain one gain parameter and add zero+pole so that you optimize the feedback system performance
- PI compensators - address the improvements in the steady-state response
- PD compensators - address improvements in the transient response



# Frequency compensation techniques

- Some common methods:
  - Phase-lag and phase-lead compensation - introduce additional phase lag or lead at low frequencies to stabilize the circuit
  - Miller effect compensation - add a feedback capacitor to reduce the closed-loop gain
  - Isolation resistor placement - resistors to dampen the output before reaching a capacitive load or set a zero in TF

