



## B. PID and PI controller

The PI regulator, with 2 tuning parameters works well when the plant behaves like a first-order system. For more complex plants which can be modeled as a 2<sup>nd</sup> order system, PI control offers only limited performance and the derivative (D) term may be necessary to improve dynamics.

There are several forms when implementing PID regulators [1] such as

(1) Independent  $u(s) = (K_p + K_i/s + K_d s) e(s)$

(2) Standard  $u(s) = K_p [ 1 + 1/(T_i s) + T_d s ] e(s)$

T<sub>i</sub>: Integral Time, T<sub>d</sub>: Derivative Time

(3) Interacting  $u(s) = K_p [ 1 + 1/(T_i s)][ 1 + T_d s ] e(s)$

Normally,  $T_i > 10T_d$

In addition, a low-pass filter are often added to the PID (or PI) regulator to reduce noise in the plant or introduced by the derivative term.

In our discussion, we will focus on the standard form PI regulator

$$u(s) = K_p [ 1 + 1/(T_i s) ] e(s), \quad (1)$$

in a slightly different form by introducing a new parameter  $\omega_i = 1/T_i$  to the above equation as,

$$u(s) = K_p ( s + \omega_i ) / s e(s). \quad (2)$$

We may call  $K_p$  as “proportional gain” and  $\omega_i$  as “integral frequency”. These are two important parameters that we are going to tune on every closed-loop. In this form,  $\omega_i$  specifies a frequency and is independent of loop gain. It will be found out that this standard form is easier to tune and analyze.

## C. PI regulator for Current control

Some servo systems run well without current control when desired response time (bandwidth) is not fast such as one Hz or below. When required bandwidth is high, often motor electrical dynamics are interacting with servo system dynamics and the system cannot be tuned with PI or PID control. In this case, we wish to introduce an internal (nested) closed-loop current control so that from the velocity-loop, its response from torque command to torque is ideally fast.

Voltage equation of a typical DC motor, with input voltage  $v$  and output current  $i$ , is

$$v = (R_s + L_s s) i + \omega \lambda_m, \quad (3)$$

where  $R_s$  and  $L_s$  are armature (or stator in case of Brushless motors) resistance and inductance, respectively. The back emf term,  $\omega \lambda_m$ , is considered as an external disturbance and are neglected in the dynamic model. The disturbance may be compensated by adding a feed-forward term but will not be discussed here. As noticed, motor electrical dynamics is a first order system with time constant of  $T_e = L_s/R_s$ . Although the above voltage equation is only for the DC motor, similar electrical equation results, when describing the system in a rotating reference frame, for a brushless motor or vector controlled induction motors. In case of brushless motors, consider  $v$  (i) is the magnitude of peak voltage (current) space vector, assuming that commutation is ideal.

In addition,  $L_s$  should be interpreted as synchronous inductance ( $L_q$  or  $L_d$  for buried magnet motors).

For current control, block diagram of the closed-loop system can be modeled as shown in Fig. 2. Note that the plant DC gain  $K$  is equal to  $1 / R_s$ .

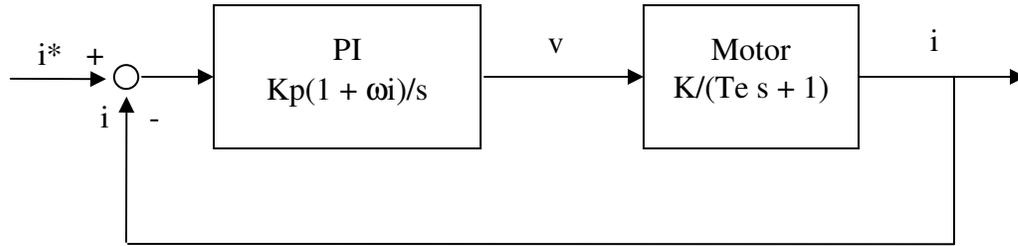


Fig. 2. Closed-loop Model of Current-loop

Now, the closed-loop transfer function can be derived as,

$$G_c(s) = \frac{K K_p s + K K_p \omega_i}{T_e s^2 + (1 + K K_p) s + (K K_p \omega_i)} \quad (4)$$

The objective is to have the closed-loop bandwidth to be a pre-specified value,  $\omega_c$ . It is a measure of how fast the closed-loop system responds to the changing input command. For many high performance servo systems,  $\omega_c$  is roughly in the range of 500 Hz – 2 kHz.

We have two approaches to tune the system. The first one is called “cancellation tuning” which makes the closed-loop transfer function first order by a pole-zero cancellation. In other words, the closed-loop zero is located at the plant pole location at  $s = 1/T_e$ . In this case,  $\omega_i = 1/T_e$  to cancel the pole. Now, the above transfer function is reduced to a first order system,

$$G_c(s) = \frac{K K_p}{T_e s + K K_p} \quad (5)$$

To make the bandwidth  $\omega_c$ , we should have,

$$K_p = \omega_c K / T_e = \omega_c L_s \quad (6)$$

$$\omega_i = 1 / T_e = R_s / L_s \quad (7)$$

The second method of tuning is called “pole-placement tuning” which makes two closed-loop poles located at  $-\omega_c$  (similar to critically damped condition in 2<sup>nd</sup> order all-pole system). In other words, the denominator of Eq. 4 should be

$$T_e s^2 + (1 + K K_p) s + (K K_p \omega_i) = T_e (s^2 + 2 \omega_i s + \omega_c^2) \quad (8)$$

Approximate solution of the above equation leads to

$$\omega_i = \omega_c / 2 \quad (9)$$

$$K_p = 2 \omega_c L_s \quad (10)$$

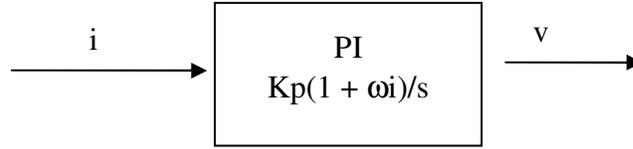
As noticed, proportional gain  $K_p$  from cancellation tuning is  $\frac{1}{2}$  of that obtained from pole-placement tuning. Considering the fact that closed-loop zeros in Eq. 4 are inherited from the PI regulator zeros and can influence closed-loop dynamics, it makes sense that a more conservative damping by reduction of  $K_p$  would be desirable. Practical tuning of both  $K_p$  and  $\omega_i$  may fall in between two sets of values.

The above discussion was based on the system described in SI units. In practical systems, input and output variables are scaled differently and may be implemented with digital control. When both input and output units are scaled differently, we can use the following two block diagrams to convert theoretical PI gains into the practical values. In the block diagram,  $i_{\max}$  ( $v_{\max}$ ) is full scale current error (voltage output) in SI unit, while  $I_{\max}$  ( $V_{\max}$ ) is in scaled units of implementation.

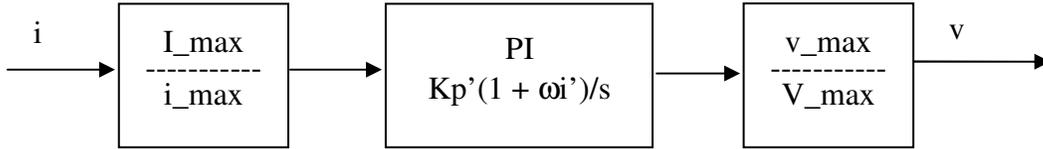
By comparing two systems in Fig. 3, we can derive that

$$K_p' = K_p \frac{i_{\max} * V_{\max}}{I_{\max} * v_{\max}} \quad (11)$$

$$\omega_i' = \omega_i \quad (12)$$



(A) System with SI units



(B) System with Practical Units

Fig. 3. Comparison of PI gains at two systems of different units

When PI regulator is realized in digital control, a popular regulator structure is in the form of

$$V(n) = K_p' \{ I_e(n) + \sum \omega_i' T_s I_e(k) \} \quad (13)$$

Where summation is taken from initial time ( $k=0$ ) to  $(n-1)$ th samples of  $I_e$ . Here, proportional gain  $K_p'$  is identical to its analog equivalent, while integral gain of the above form should be

$\omega_i T_s$ . Often, integral term ( $K_p' \sum \omega_i T_s I_e(k)$ ) is limited to 50 – 100% of the full scale output value to eliminate controller saturation. Elimination of windup problem may be handled by conditionally integrating (stop integration when  $V(n)$  is saturated). An alternative form is,

$$u(n) = u(n-1) + K_p [ e(n) + K_i T_s e(n-1) ],$$

which does not use integral terms.

One important thing to keep in mind is about the dependency of bandwidth to bus voltage. Although SI unit model is independent of bus voltage as in Fig. 2, when bus voltage is lowered, current-loop bandwidth of the practical system is reduced. This is due to the changes of  $v_{max}$ . To maintain the same bandwidth with fixed  $K_p$ , while  $v_{max}$  is decreased, we have to increase  $K_p'$ . If we do not increase  $K_p'$ , then  $K_p$  is decreased effectively and results in reduction of the bandwidth.

Another fact in current control system is effects of the back emf term in Eq. 3. When a motor is running at high speeds, the magnitude of the back emf may be close to the supply voltage. In this case, effective voltage to regulate the system is very small and actual system bandwidth at this condition may be significantly lower than the expected bandwidth at stand-still. This is one reason that current-loop bandwidth (at zero speed) should be about 10 or more times higher than desired velocity-loop bandwidth. Another reason is to commutate high excitation frequency properly (in AC motors) to produce maximum torque and maintain high efficiency.

A variation of PI(D) controller structure that introduces one more parameter to control a servo system was discussed in [2] for interest readers.

### C. PI regulator for Velocity Control

Assuming that the servo system has a closed-loop current control and its bandwidth is very high compared to desired velocity-loop bandwidth  $\omega_v$ . In that case, motor acts as a linear torque amplifier ( $T = K_t i$ ) and the plant can be modeled as

$$K_t i = J_m s + B_m + T_L, \quad (14)$$

where  $K_t$  is the torque constant of the motor,  $J_m$  is the total inertia of the motor and the load reflected to the motor shaft, while  $B_m$  is the viscous friction constant. In this case, the load torque  $T_L$  is considered as an external disturbance and are neglected in the dynamic model. This disturbance may be compensated by adding a feed-forward term but will not be discussed here. As noticed, motor mechanical dynamics is a first order system with time constant of  $T_m = J_m/B_m$ . For velocity control, control system block diagram can be simplified as Fig. 4.

The closed-loop transfer function of the above system is,

$$G_c(s) = \frac{K_t K_p s + K_t K_p \omega_i}{J_m s^2 + (B_m + K_t K_p) s + (K_t K_p \omega_i)} \quad (15)$$

The objective is to have the closed-loop function bandwidth to be a pre-specified value,  $\omega_v$ . As in current-loop we will take both methods of tuning the system. In the cancellation tuning, we put  $\omega_i = 1/T_m$ . Now, the above transfer function is reduced to a first order system as,

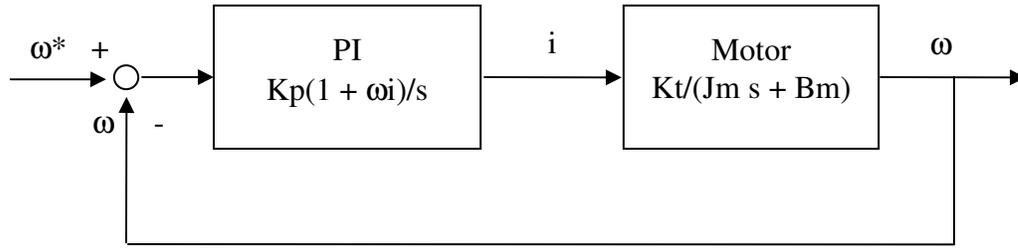


Fig. 4. Closed-loop Model of Voltage-loop

$$G_c(s) = \frac{K_t K_p}{J_m s + K_t K_p} \quad (16)$$

To make the bandwidth  $\omega_v$ , we have

$$K_p = \omega_v (J_m / K_t) \quad (17)$$

$$\omega_i = 1/T_m = B_m / J_m \quad (18)$$

The strategy of the second method (pole-placement tuning) tries to move two closed-loop poles to  $-\omega_v$ . In other words, the denominator of Eq. 15 should be

$$J_m s^2 + (B_m + K_t K_p) s + (K_t K_p \omega_i) = J_m (s^2 + 2 \omega_v s + \omega_v^2) \quad (19)$$

Approximate solution of the above equation leads to

$$\omega_i = \omega_v / 2 \quad (20)$$

$$K_p = 2 \omega_v (J_m / K_t) \quad (21)$$

As noticed, proportional gain  $K_p$  from cancellation tuning is  $1/2$  of that obtained from pole-placement tuning. Considering the fact that closed-loop zeros in Eq. 4 are inherited from the PI regulator zeros and can influence closed-loop dynamics, it makes sense that a more conservative damping by reduction of  $K_p$  would be desirable. Practical tuning may result in between two set of values.

When both input and output units are scaled differently, instead of SI units, we can convert theoretical PI gains into the practical values. Assuming that  $\omega_{max}$  ( $i_{max}$ ) is full scale velocity error (current output) in SI unit, while  $\Omega_{max}$  ( $I_{max}$ ) is corresponding value in scaled units of implementation,

$$K_p' = K_p \frac{\omega_{max} * I_{max}}{\Omega_{max} * i_{max}} \quad (22)$$

$$\omega_i' = \omega_i \quad (23)$$

When PI regulator is realized in digital control, a popular regulator structure is in the form of

$$i(n) = K_p' \{ \omega e(n) + \sum \omega_i' T_s \omega e(k) \} \quad (24)$$

where summation is taken from initial time ( $k=0$ ) to  $(n-1)$ th samples of  $\omega_e$ . Make note that integral gain of the above digital form should be  $\omega_i T_s$ .

The above velocity control analysis assumes there is no significant additional dynamics (such as torsional resonance) close to the closed-loop servo bandwidth. Controller design with a torsional resonance in the system is very complex and will require more complicated analysis and design procedure.

In many high performance servo systems,  $\omega_v$  of 30 – 100 Hz may be achieved with a good inner current-loop control and resonance-free structure. Some high performance systems based on linear motors and rigid structure may achieve bandwidth of higher than 100 Hz.

### E. PI regulator for Position Control

Unlike the velocity-loop, where inner loop bandwidth is much higher than desired velocity-loop bandwidth, desired position-loop bandwidth  $\omega_p$  is closer to inner velocity-loop bandwidth  $\omega_v$ . So the closed-loop position control system can be modeled as in Fig.6. Since the plant is already 2<sup>nd</sup> order system, we will analyze the system with the proportional control only.

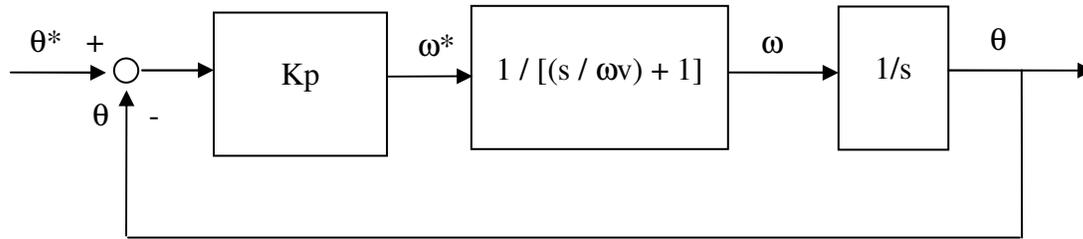


Fig. 6. Closed-loop Model of Position-loop

The, closed-loop transfer function is,

$$G_c(s) = \frac{K_p \omega_v}{s^2 + \omega_v s + K_p \omega_v} \quad (25)$$

The strategy of the pole-placement tuning moves two closed-loop poles to  $-\omega_p$ . In other words, the denominator of Eq. 15 should be

$$s^2 + \omega_v s + K_p \omega_v = s^2 + 2 \omega_p s + \omega_p^2 \quad (26)$$

Approximate solution of the above equation leads to

$$\omega_p = \omega_v / 2 \quad (20)$$

$$K_p = \omega_p^2 / \omega_v = (1/2) \omega_p \quad (21)$$

Once velocity-loop is closed, position-loop proportional gain is a function of the velocity-loop bandwidth and the position-loop bandwidth  $\omega_p$  may reach almost one half of  $\omega_v$ .

$$\omega_i = \omega_v / 2 \quad (20)$$

The position-loop already contains at least one internal integrators (1/s) in the model and integral term may not be necessary. If integral control is desired, integral frequency may be slowly increased (such as  $1/10^{\text{th}}$  of  $\omega_p$ ) until overshooting response is noticeable.

### **E. Factors limiting closed-loop bandwidth**

Discussion above focused on first order dynamics of the plant which we can alter by applying PI(D) control. The upper limit of the closed-loop bandwidth is determined by the un-modeled fast dynamics in the closed-loop system. Un-modeled dynamics in current-loop may include time delays (sampling time, data conversion time, PWM delay, etc.) and filters (anti-aliasing filter, low-pass filters etc.). Among all fast dynamics, the most significant (lowest frequency pole) dynamics is the major limitation. The maximum closed-loop band width is about 1/3 of the dominant pole frequency.

### **F. Current Regulator Example**

Parameters for a servo drive are as follows.

$$R_s = 0.9250 \text{ (Ohm)}, L_s = 0.0013 \text{ (Henry)}, T_e = 0.0014 \text{ (Sec.)}$$

Desired current-loop bandwidth is 2 kHz at 16 kHz sampling

$$T_s = 1/16000 \text{ Sec.}, \omega_c = 2 * \pi * 2000$$

According to the tuning methods, gains are

$$K_{p1} = 16.02, \omega_{i1} = 725.49 \quad (\text{for cancellation tuning})$$

$$K_{p2} = 32.044, \omega_{i2} = 6283 \quad (\text{for pole-placement tuning})$$

Units used are as follows.

$$v_{\text{max}} = 24 \text{ (V)}, V_{\text{max}} = 32767$$

$$i_{\text{max}} = 12.9 \text{ (A)}, I_{\text{max}} = 32767.$$

According to Eq. 11-12,

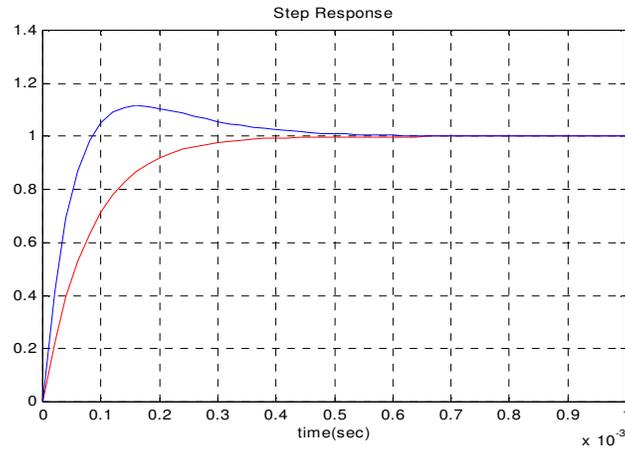
$$K_{p1}' = 8.611, K_{p2}' = 17.22$$

$$\omega_{i1}' = 725.49, \omega_{i2}' = 6283$$

For digital control, integral gain should be

$$W_{1\text{digital}} = 0.0453, W_{2\text{digital}} = 0.3927$$

The above tuning was modeled by Matlab and closed-loop poles were calculated. Poles in Hz units are -2000 and -115 Hz (cancellation tuning), and -2542 and -1573 (pole placement). Errors in pole-placement calculation mainly come from approximate calculation of gains. A step responses for the closed-loop system are plotted in the following figure. Response with overshoot is the pole-placement gains (red), while cancellation gains result in no overshoot as expected.



### References

- [1] K. Astrom and T. Haggulund, "PID Controllers: Theory, Design and Tuning," 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed., ISA, 1995.
- [2] D.Y.Ohm, "Analysis of PID and PDF Compensators for Motion Control Systems," IEEE Industry Applications Society (IAS) Annual Meeting, pp. 1923-1929, Denver, October 2-7, 1994.