

# Robotica Antropomorfa

## Lezione 6

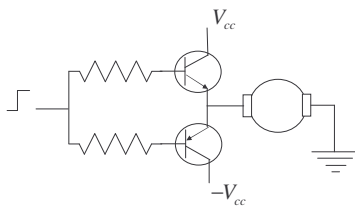
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## About the amplifiers

- Linear amplifiers
  - H type
  - T type
- PWM (switching) amplifiers

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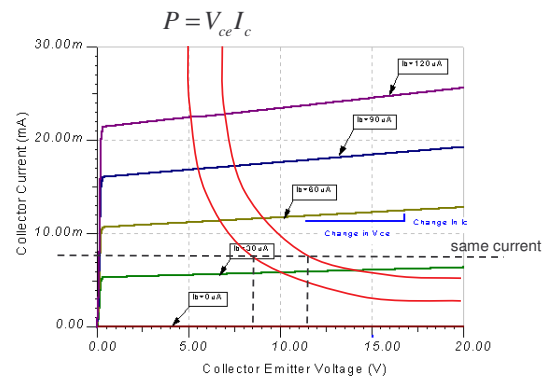
## T-type



$$I_c \approx \frac{V_{cc}}{R_{transistor} + R_{motor}}$$

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## PWM amplifiers



## PWM signal

$$P = V_{ce} I_c$$

- Transistors either “on” or “off”
  - When off, current is very low, little power too
  - When on,  $V$  is low, working point close to (or in) saturation, power dissipation is low

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## Comparison

- 12W for a 6A current using a switching amplifier
- 72W for a corresponding linear amplifier

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## Why does it work?

$$\frac{\omega(s)}{V_{arm}(s)} = \frac{K_T/L_a J_T}{s^2 + [(R_a J_T + L_a B)/L_a J_T]s + (K_T K_E + R_a B)/L_a J_T}$$

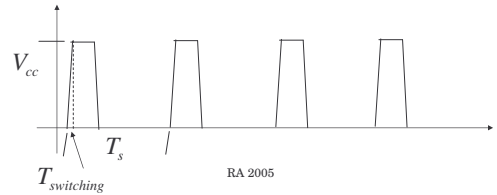
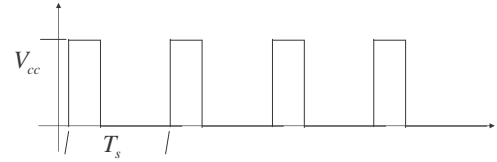
- In practice the motor transfer function is a low-pass filter

$$T_s \text{ with } \omega_s \gg \omega_E (\omega_s > 100\omega_E) \quad \bar{V}_{arm} = \frac{1}{T_s} \int_0^{T_s} V_{arm}(t) dt$$

- Switching frequency must be high enough

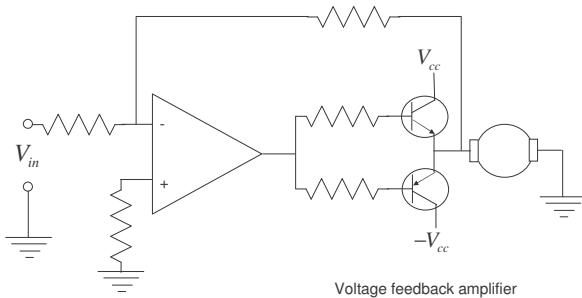
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## PWM signal



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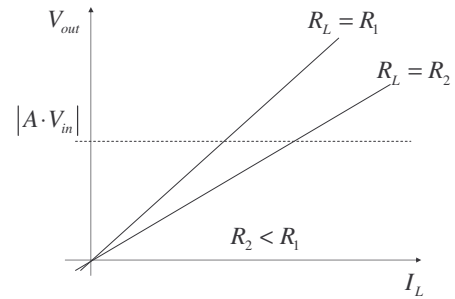
## Feedback in servo amplifiers



Voltage feedback amplifier

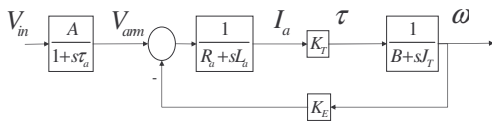
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## Operating characteristic



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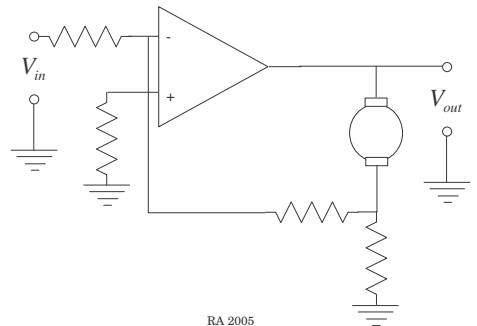
## We've already seen this



$$\frac{\omega(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{K_T/L_a J_T}{s^2 + [(R_a J_T + L_a B)/L_a J_T]s + (K_T K_E + R_a B)/L_a J_T} \frac{A_v}{(1 + s\tau_a)}$$

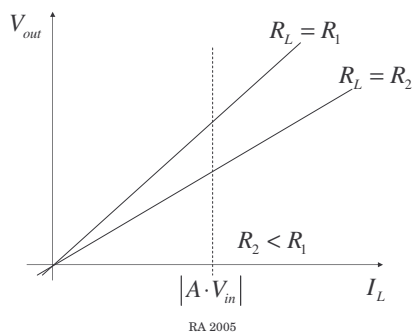
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## Current feedback

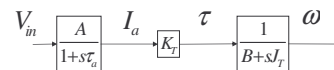


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## Current feedback



## Motor driven by a current amplifier



$$\frac{\omega(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{K_T A_i}{(sJ_T + B)(1 + s\tau_a)}$$

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## Bode plot analysis (in short)

$s = j\omega$   $FT(j\omega)$  then plot  $20 \log |FT(j\omega)|$   
 $\angle FT(j\omega)$

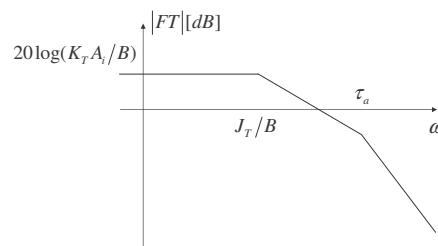
$$FT = K \frac{\prod(1 + j\omega/\omega_{zi})}{\prod(1 + j\omega/\omega_{pk})}$$

$$FT = 20 \log K + 20 \sum \log(1 + \frac{\omega}{\omega_{zi}}) - 20 \sum \log(1 + \frac{\omega}{\omega_{pk}})$$

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## Example

$$\frac{\omega(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{K_T A_i / B}{(1 + sJ_T/B)(1 + s\tau_a)}$$



## The plot is accurate for...

- Real valued poles and zeros, no resonance!
- Successive poles/zeros are separate by a factor of 7 or so, they don't interact

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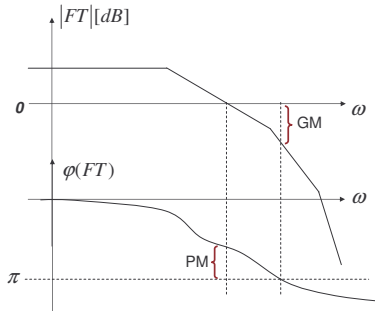
## Gain and phase margin

$$GM = -20 \log(|FT|) @ \omega_\pi$$

$$PM = \pi - \varphi(FT) @ \omega_0$$

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## Margins



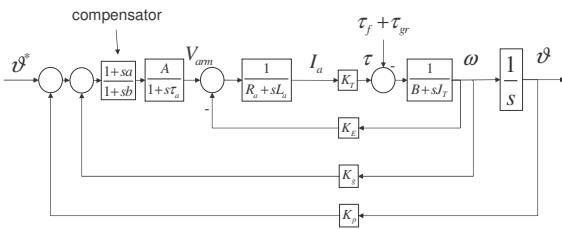
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## Rule of thumb

- Common design objectives:
  - Gain margin > 20dB
  - Phase margin > 45 degrees

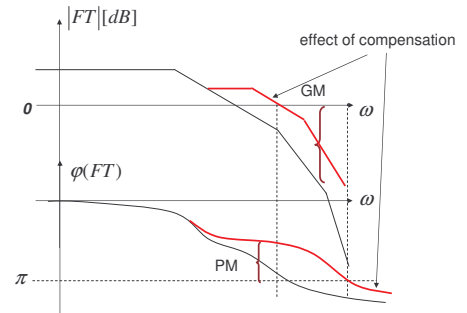
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## Compensator



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## Effects of compensation



This plot is not a real one!

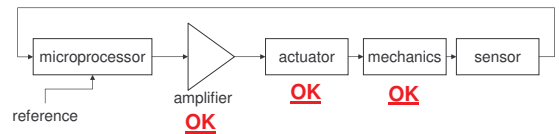
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## Brushless DC motors

See additional photocopies

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## Back to the global view



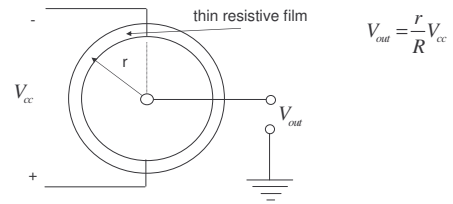
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## Sensors

- Potentiometers
- Encoders
- Tachometers
- Inertial sensors
- Strain gauges
- Hall-effect sensors
- and many more...

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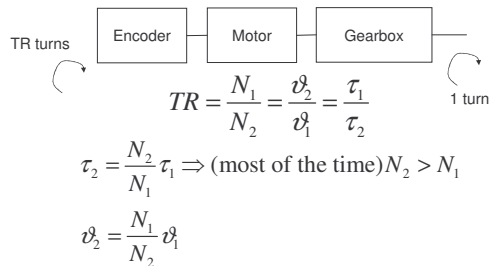
## Potentiometer



- Simple but noisy
- Requires A/D conversion
- Absolute position (good!)

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## Note



- The resolution of the sensor multiplied by TR

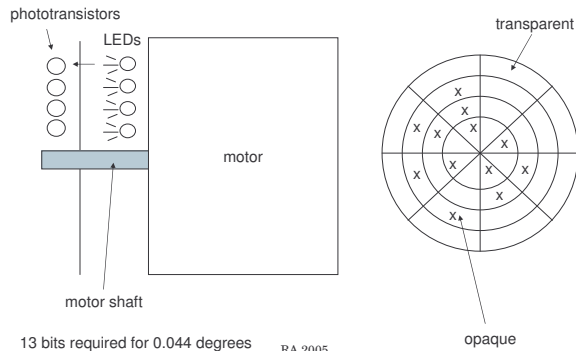
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## Encoder

- Absolute
- Incremental

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## Absolute encoder



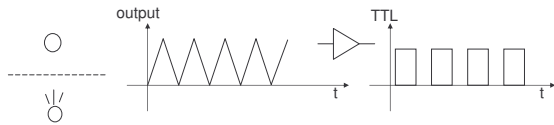
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## Incremental encoder

- Disk single track instead of multiple
- No absolute position
- Usually an index marks the beginning of a turn

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## Incremental encoder

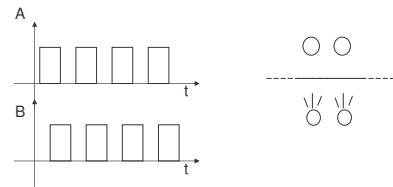


- Sensitive to the amount of light collected
- The direction of motion is not measured

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## Two-channel encoder

- 2 channels 90 degrees apart (quadrature signals) allow measuring the direction of motion



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## Moreover

- There are “differential” encoders
  - Taking the difference of two sensors 180 degrees apart
- Typically
  - A, B, Index channel
  - A, B, Index (differential)
- A “counter” is used to compute the position from an incremental encoder

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## Increasing resolution

- Counting UP and DOWN edges
  - X2 or X4 circuits

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## Absolute position

- A potentiometer and incremental encoder can be used simultaneously: the pot for the “absolute” reference, and the encoder because of good resolution and robustness to noise

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## Analog locking

- Use digital encoder as much as possible
  - Get to zero error or so using the digital signal
- When close to zeroing the error:
  - Switch to analog: use the analog signal coming from the photodetector (roughly sinusoidal/triangular)
  - Much higher resolution, precise positioning

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## Tachometer

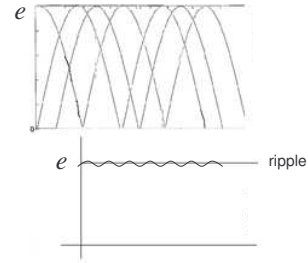
- Use a DC motor
  - The moving coils in the magnetic field will get an induced EMF

$$c \oint_{\delta_s} \bar{E} \cdot d\bar{l} = \frac{d}{dt} \iint_s \bar{B} \cdot d\bar{S}$$

- In practice is better to design a special purpose “DC motor” for measuring velocity
- Ripple: typ. 3%

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## As already seen...



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## Measuring speed with digital encoders

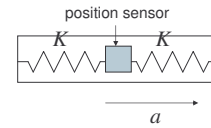
- Frequency to voltage converters
  - Costly (additional electronics)
- Much better: in software
  - Take the derivative (for free!)

$$v(kT) = \frac{p(kT) - p((k-1)T)}{T}$$

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## Inertial sensors

- Accelerometers:

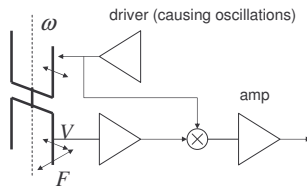


$$Ma = 2Kx \Rightarrow a = \frac{2Kx}{M}$$

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## Gyroscopes

- Quartz forks



$$F = 2m\omega \times V$$

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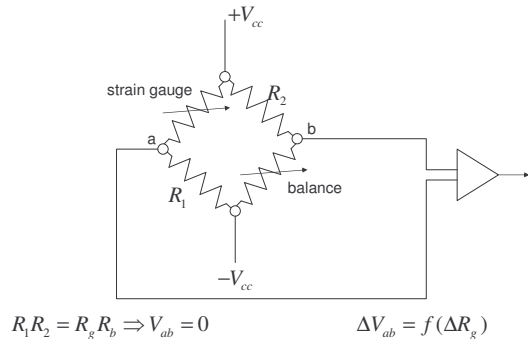
## Strain gauges

- Principle: deformation  $\rightarrow \Delta R$  (resistance)
  - Example: conductive paint (Al, Cu)
  - The paint covers a deformable non-conducting substrate

$$R = \frac{L}{\sigma A} \Rightarrow \Delta L, A = \text{const} \Rightarrow \Delta R$$

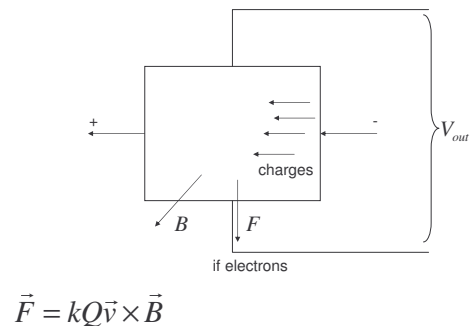
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## Reading from a strain gauge



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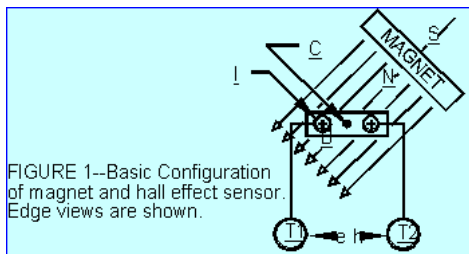
## Hall-effect sensors



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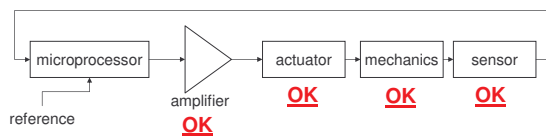
## Example

- Measuring angles (magnetic encoders)



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## Back to the global view



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## Microprocessors

- Special DSPs for motion control
  - Some are barely programmable (the control law is fixed)
  - Others are general purpose but they are mixed mode (analog and digital in a single chip)

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## Example

- DSP 16 bit ALU and instruction set
- PWM generator (simply attach this to either T or H amplifier)
- A/D conversion
- CAN bus, Serial ports, digital I/O
- Encoder counters
- Flash memory and RAM on-board
- Enough of all these to control two motors (either brush- or brushless)

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