

# Introduction, The PID Controller, State Space Models

Automatic Control, Basic Course, Lecture 1

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November 6, 2018

Lund University, Department of Automatic Control

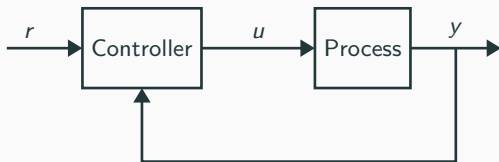
1. Introduction
2. The PID Controller
3. State Space Models

# Introduction

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# The Simple Feedback Loop

Disturbances

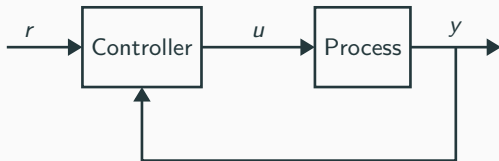


- Reference value  $r$
- Control signal  $u$
- Measured signal/output  $y$

**The problem/purpose:** Design a controller such that the output follows the reference signal as good as possible

# The Simple Feedback Loop

Disturbances

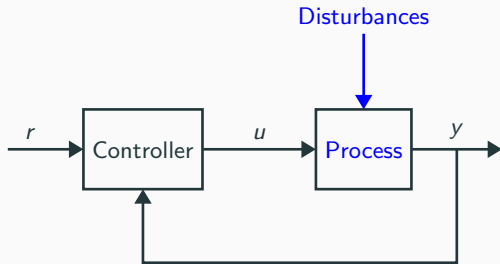


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Note on terminology: Process, Controlled system, Plant etc...

# The Feedback Loop



- Reference value  $r$
- Control signal  $u$
- Measured signal/output  $y$

**The problem/purpose:** Design a controller such that the output follows the reference signal as good as possible *despite disturbances and uncertainties in process.*

# Find the Control Problem - 1



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- Reference value - Desired temperature
- Control signal - e.g., power to the AC, amount of hot water to the radiators
- Measured value - The temperature in the room



## Find the Control Problem - 2



## Find the Control Problem - 2



- Reference value - Desired speed
- Control signal - Amount of gasoline to the engine
- Measured value - The speed of the car

## Find the Control Problem - 3



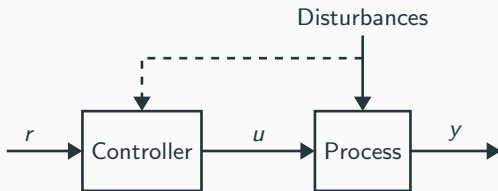
## Find the Control Problem - 3



- Reference value - Number of bacterias
- Control signal - "Food" (sugar and  $O_2$ )
- Measured value - E.g., pH or oxygen level in the tank

# Feedforward

Some systems can operate well without feedback, i.e., in open loop.



Examples of open loop systems?

# Feedforward vs. Feedback

Benefits with feedback:

- Stabilize unstable systems
- The speed of the system can be increased
- Less accurate model of the process is needed
- Disturbances can be compensated
- **WARNING:** Stable systems might become unstable with feedback

# Feedforward vs. Feedback

Benefits with feedback:

- Stabilize unstable systems
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- **WARNING:** Stable systems might become unstable with feedback

Feedforward and feedback are **complementary** approaches, and a good controller typically **uses both**.

# The PID Controller

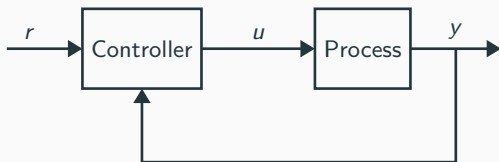
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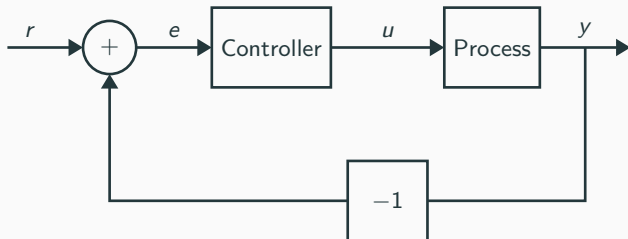
# The Error

The input to the controller will be the error, i.e., the difference between the reference value and the measured value.

$$e = r - y$$

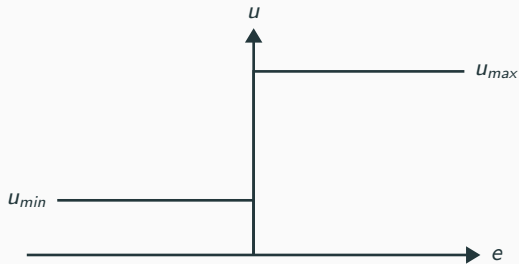


New block scheme:



# On/Off Controller

$$u = \begin{cases} u_{max} & \text{if } e > 0 \\ u_{min} & \text{if } e < 0 \end{cases}$$



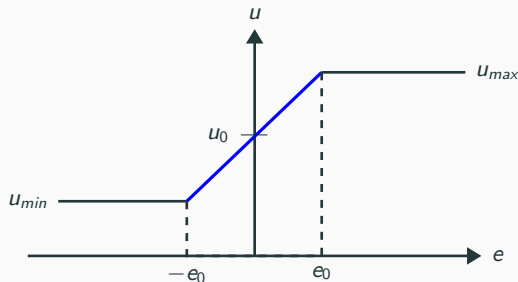
Usually not a good controller. Why?

# The P Part

Idea: Decrease the controller gain for small control errors.

P-controller:

$$u = \begin{cases} u_{max} & \text{if } e > e_0 \\ u_0 + Ke & \text{if } -e_0 \leq e \leq e_0 \\ u_{min} & \text{if } e < -e_0 \end{cases}$$



**P**-part comes from proportional (here affine) to the error  $e$ .

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The control error

$$e = \frac{u - u_0}{K}$$

To have  $e = 0$  at stationarity, either:

- $u_0 = u$
- $K = \infty$

# The P Part

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The control error

$$e = \frac{u - u_0}{K}$$

To have  $e = 0$  at stationarity, either:

- $u_0 = u$  (What if  $u$  varies?)
- $K = \infty$  (On/off control)

Idea: Adjust  $u_0$  automatically to become  $u$ .

PI-controller:

$$u(t) = K \left( \frac{1}{T_i} \int^t e(\tau) d\tau + e \right)$$

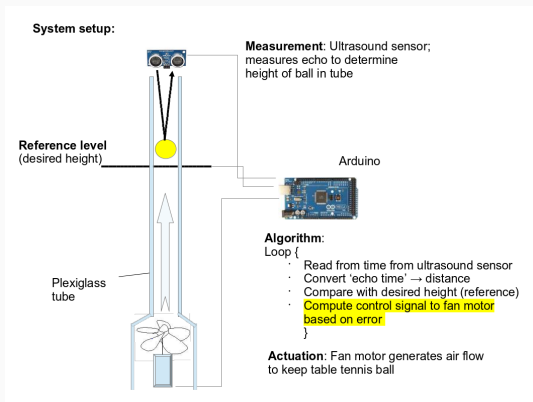
Compared to the P-controller, now

$$u_0(t) = \frac{K}{T_i} \int^t e(\tau) d\tau$$

At stationary  $e = 0$  if and only if  $r = y$ .

PI controller achieves what we want, if performance requirements are not extensive.

# Example of integral action needed — mini-problem (5 min)



- (a) Argue why there will be a stationary error if we just use P-control; i.e.,  $u(t) = K \cdot (h_{ref} - h)$ ?
- (b) How will the stationary error change with the value of the gain  $K$ ?
- (c) What happens if we add integral action with very small integral gain  $\frac{K}{T_i}$ ? Sketch the behaviour.

## Answer mini-problem

Note: This is not a strict answer and you need to make reasonable assumptions about the process yourself for this to hold.

- (a) Argue why there will be a stationary value if we just use P-control; i.e.,  $u(t) = K \cdot (h_{ref} - h)$ ?

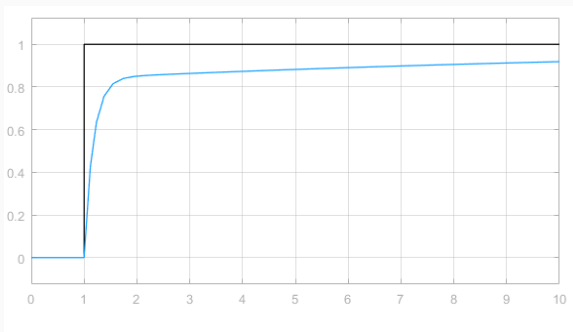
**If  $h = h_{ref}$  the control signal  $u(t) = K \cdot (h_{ref} - h) = 0$  and the motor shuts off/fan stops spinning and the ball will fall. The process will finally settle to an equilibrium with a positive stationary error  $e = h_{ref} - h$  such that the corresponding control signal will keep the ball at a fixed error ( $e$ ) from the reference.**

- (b) How will the stationary value change with the value of the gain  $K$ ?  
**The control signal to the fan motor  $u = K \cdot e$  is the product of the gain and the error; for a higher gain  $K$  you can reach stationarity with a smaller stationary error  $e$ .**



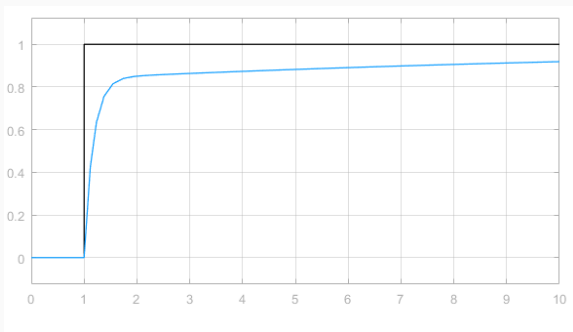
## Answer mini-problem, cont'd

- (c) What happens if we add integral action with **very small integral gain**  $\frac{K}{T_i}$ ?  
Sketch the behaviour.



## Answer mini-problem, cont'd

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Sketch the behaviour.



Note how the height of the ball (**slowly**) approaches the desired reference (as the integral part makes the control action increase as long as there is an error).

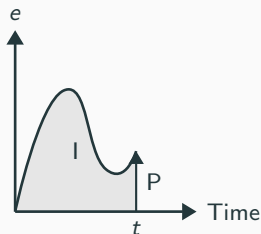
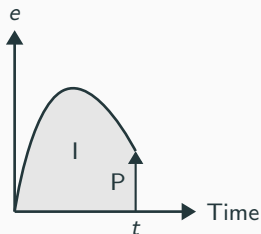
**See also separate simulink example/demo.**

# The D Part

Idea: Speed up the PI-controller by “looking ahead” / “predicting future”.

PID-controller:

$$u = K \left( e + \frac{1}{T_i} \int e(\tau) d\tau + T_d \frac{de}{dt} \right)$$



Same P- and I-part in both cases, but **very different behavior** of error. The derivative of  $e$  contains a lot of information to utilize.

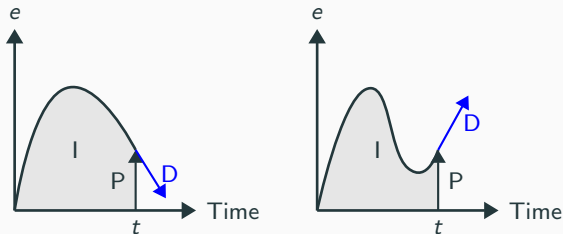
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- P acts on the current error,
- I acts on the past error,
- **D acts on the “future” / predicted error.**

# State Space Models

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# State Space Models

Consider a linear differential equation of order  $n$

$$\frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + a_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_n y = b_0 \frac{d^n u}{dt^n} + b_1 \frac{d^{n-1} u}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + b_n u$$

For linear systems **the superposition principle** holds:

$$u = u_1 \implies y = y_1 \text{ and}$$

$$u = u_2 \implies y = y_2 \text{ implies}$$

$$u = c_1 \cdot u_1 + c_2 \cdot u_2 \implies y = c_1 \cdot y_1 + c_2 \cdot y_2$$

and vice versa; We can consider the output from a sum of signals by considering the influence from each component.

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Q: Why is this not true for nonlinear systems? Example?

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An **alternative** to ONE differential equation of order  $n^{th}$  is to write it as a system of  $n$  **coupled differential equations, each of order one**.

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An **alternative** to ONE differential equation of order  $n^{th}$  is to write it as a system of  $n$  **coupled differential equations, each of order one.**

General State space representation:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 &= f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, u) \\ \dot{x}_2 &= f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, u) \\ &\dots \\ \dot{x}_n &= f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, u) \\ y &= g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, u) \end{cases}$$

The last row is a static equation relating the introduced **states** ( $x$ ) with the input  $u$ , and the output  $y$ .

# State Space Models

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An **alternative** to ONE differential equation of order  $n^{th}$  is to write it as a system of  $n$  coupled differential equations, each of order one.

**Linear** state space representation:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n + b_1 u \\ \dot{x}_2 = a_{21}x_1 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n + b_2 u \\ \dots \\ \dot{x}_n = a_{n1}x_1 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n + b_n u \\ y = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_n x_n + du \end{cases} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \\ \dots \\ \dot{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} u$$
$$y = [c_1 \quad c_2 \quad \dots \quad c_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + du$$

# State Space Models

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$$y = [c_1 \quad c_2 \quad \dots \quad c_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + du$$

NOTE: **Only states ( $x$ ) and inputs ( $u$ ) are allowed** on the right hand side in Eq.-system above (in  $f$  and  $g$ ) for it to be called a state-space representation!

# State Space Models



Linear dynamics can be described in the following form

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx (+Du)$$

Here  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector with states. States can have a physical "interpretation", but not necessary.

In this course  $u \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  will be scalars.

(For MIMO systems, see Multivariable Control (FRTN10))

## Example

### Example

The position of a mass  $m$  controlled by a force  $u$  is described by

$$m\ddot{x} = u$$

where  $x$  is the position of the mass.



Introduce the states  $x_1 = \dot{x}$  and  $x_2 = x$  and write the system on state space form. Let the position be the output.

# Dynamical Systems

	Continuous Time	Discrete Time (sampled)
Linear	This course	Real-Time Systems / Signal proc. (FRTN01)
Nonlinear	Nonlinear Control and Servo Systems (FRTN05)	

Next lecture: Nonlinear dynamics can be linearized.