

Basic Properties of Feedback

Part D: The Classical
Three- Term Controllers

Basic Operations of a Feedback Control

Think of what goes on in domestic hot water thermostat:

- ▶ The temperature of the water is measured.
- ▶ Comparison of the measured and the required values provides an error, *e.g. “too hot’ or ‘too cold’*.
- ▶ On the basis of error, a control algorithm decides what to do.
 - *Such an algorithm might be:*
 - ▶ *If the temperature is too high then turn the heater off.*
 - ▶ *If it is too low then turn the heater on*
- ▶ The adjustment chosen by the control algorithm is applied to some adjustable variable, *such as the power input to the water heater.*

Feedback Control Properties

- ▶ *A feedback control system seeks to bring the measured quantity to its required value or set-point.*
- ▶ The control system *does not need to know why the measured value is not currently what is required, only that is so.*
- ▶ There are two *possible causes of such a disparity*:
 - ▶ The system has been disturbed.
 - ▶ The set point has changed. In the absence of external disturbance, a change in set point will introduce an error. The control system will act until the measured quantity reach its new set point.

The PID Algorithm

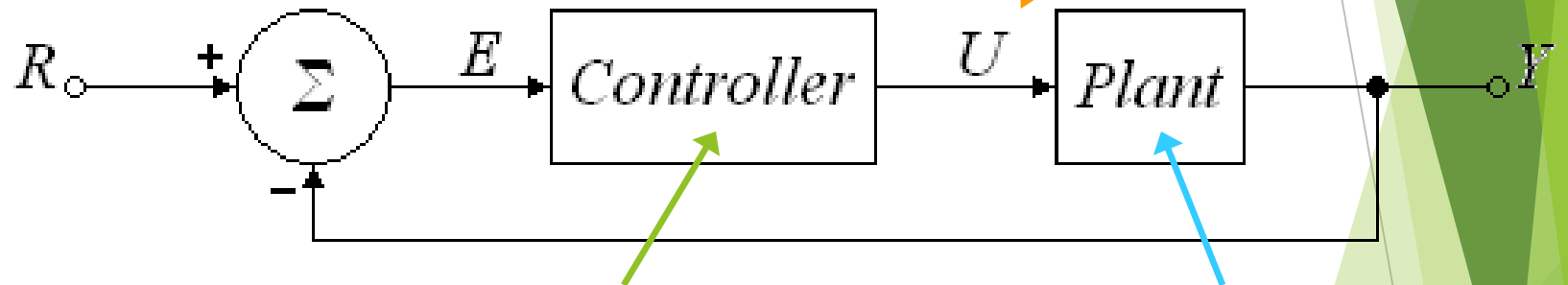
- ▶ The **PID** algorithm is the *most popular feedback controller algorithm used*. It is a robust easily understood algorithm that can provide *excellent control performance* despite the varied dynamic characteristics of processes.
- ▶ As the name suggests, the **PID** algorithm consists of *three basic modes*:
the **Proportional** mode,
the **Integral** mode
& the **Derivative** mode.

P, PI or PID Controller

- ▶ When utilizing the PID algorithm, it is necessary to decide which modes are to be used (P, I or D) and then *specify the parameters (or settings) for each mode used.*
- ▶ Generally, three basic algorithms are used: *P, PI or PID.*
- ▶ Controllers are designed to eliminate the need for continuous operator attention.
 - *Cruise control in a car and a house thermostat are common examples of how controllers are used to automatically adjust some variable to hold a measurement (or process variable) to a desired variable (or set-point)*

Controller Output

- ▶ The *variable being controlled* is the **output of the controller** (and the *input of the plant*):

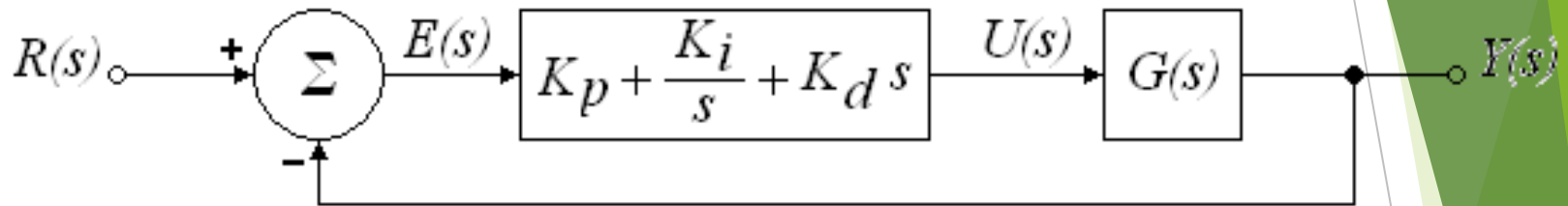


provides excitation to the plant

system to be controlled

- ▶ The output of the controller will change in response to a change in measurement or set-point (that said a change in the tracking error)

PID Controller



- ▶ In the s-domain, the PID controller may be represented as:

$$U(s) = \left(K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \right) E(s)$$

- ▶ In the time domain:

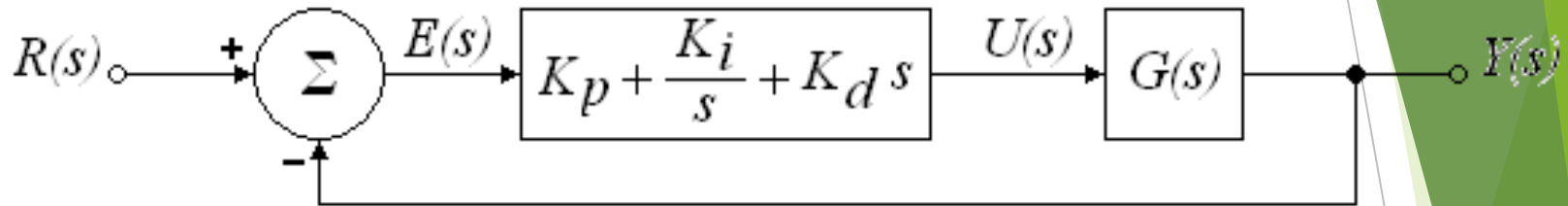
$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

proportional gain

integral gain

derivative gain

PID Controller



- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

- The signal $u(t)$ will be sent to the plant, and a new output $y(t)$ will be obtained. This new output $y(t)$ will be sent back to the sensor again to find the new error signal $e(t)$. The controller takes this new error signal and computes its derivative and its integral gain. This process goes on and on.

Definitions

- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$
$$= K_p \left(e(t) + \frac{1}{T_i} \int_0^t e(t) dt + T_d \frac{de(t)}{dt} \right)$$

integral time constant

derivative time constant

where $T_i = \frac{K_p}{K_i}$,

$$T_d = \frac{K_d}{K_i}$$

proportional gain

integral gain

derivative gain

Controller Effects

- ▶ A proportional controller (P) *reduces error responses to disturbances*, but *still allows a steady-state error*.
- ▶ When the controller includes a term proportional to the integral of the error (I), then the *steady state error to a constant input is eliminated*, although typically *at the cost of deterioration in the dynamic response*.
- ▶ A derivative control typically *makes the system better damped and more stable*.

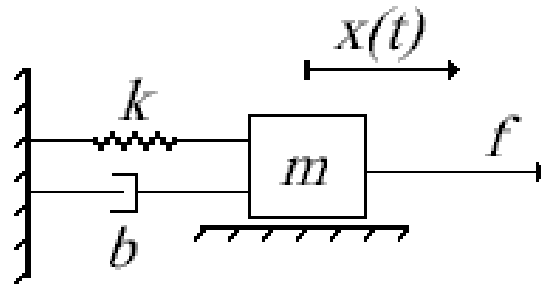
Closed-loop Response

	Rise time	Maximum overshoot	Settling time	Steady-state error
P	Decrease	Increase	Small change	Decrease
I	Decrease	Increase	Increase	Eliminate
D	Small change	Decrease	Decrease	Small change

- Note that these correlations may not be exactly accurate, because P, I and D gains are dependent of each other.

Example problem of PID

- ▶ Suppose we have a simple mass, spring, damper problem.



- ▶ The dynamic model is such as:

$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = f$$

- ▶ Taking the Laplace Transform, we obtain:

$$ms^2 X(s) + bsX(s) + kX(s) = F(s)$$

- ▶ The Transfer function is then given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$$

Example problem (cont'd)

- ▶ Let

$$m = 1\text{kg}, b = 10\text{N}\cdot\text{s}/\text{m}, k = 20\text{N}/\text{m}, f = 1\text{N}$$

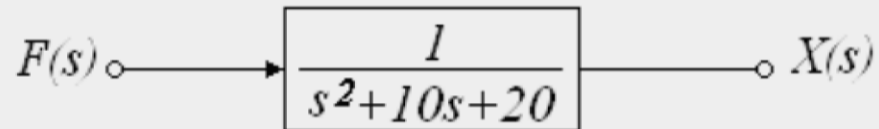
- ▶ By plugging these values in the transfer function:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 10s + 20}$$

- ▶ The goal of this problem is to show you how each of K_p , K_i and K_d contribute to obtain:

*fast rise time,
minimum overshoot,
no steady-state error.*

Ex (cont'd): No controller



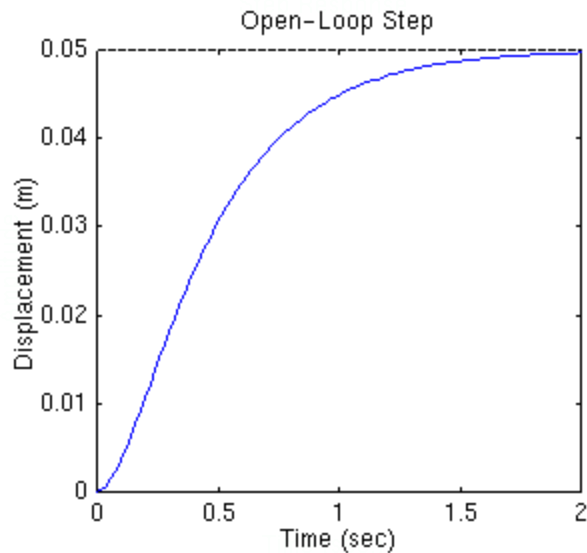
- ▶ The (*open*) loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 10s + 20}$$

- ▶ The steady-state value for the output is:

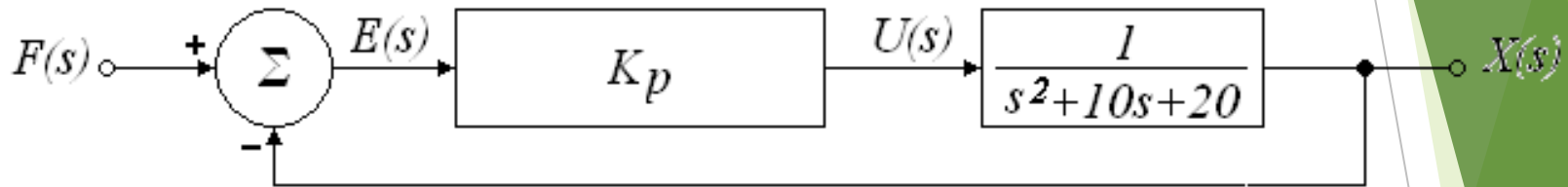
$$x_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s) \frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{20}$$

Ex (cont'd): Open-loop step response



- ▶ $1/20=0.05$ is the *final value* of the output to an *unit* step input.
- ▶ This corresponds to a **steady-state error of 95%, quite large!**
- ▶ The *settling time* is **about 1.5 sec.**

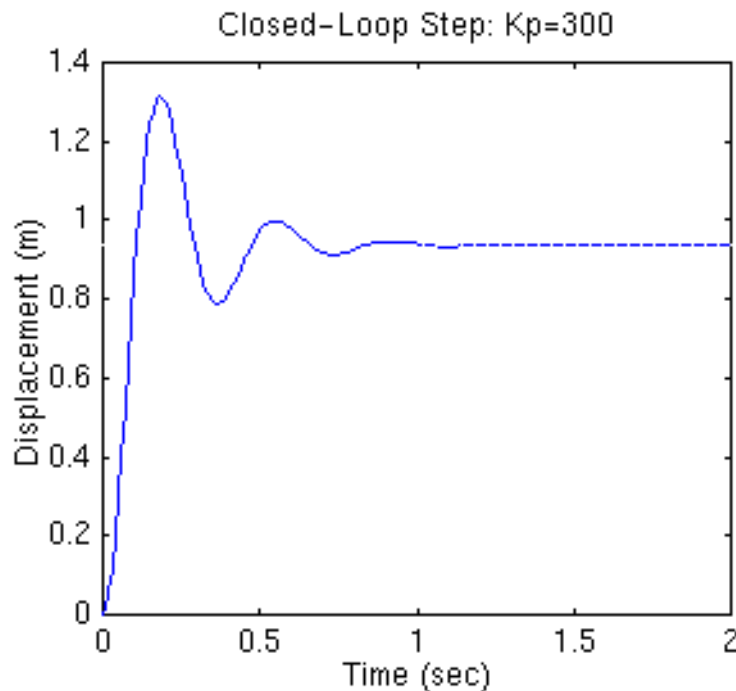
Ex (cont'd): Proportional Controller



- ▶ The closed loop transfer function is given by:

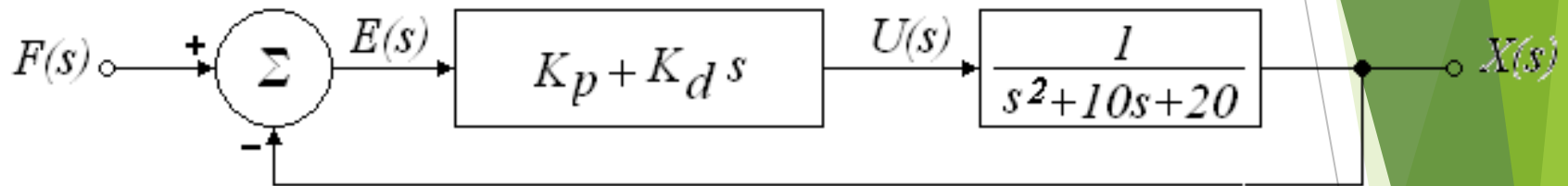
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + (20 + K_p)}$$

Ex (cont'd): Proportional control



- ▶ Let $K_p = 300$
- ▶ The above plot shows that the *proportional controller reduced both the rise time and the steady-state error, increased the overshoot, and decreased the settling time by small amount.*

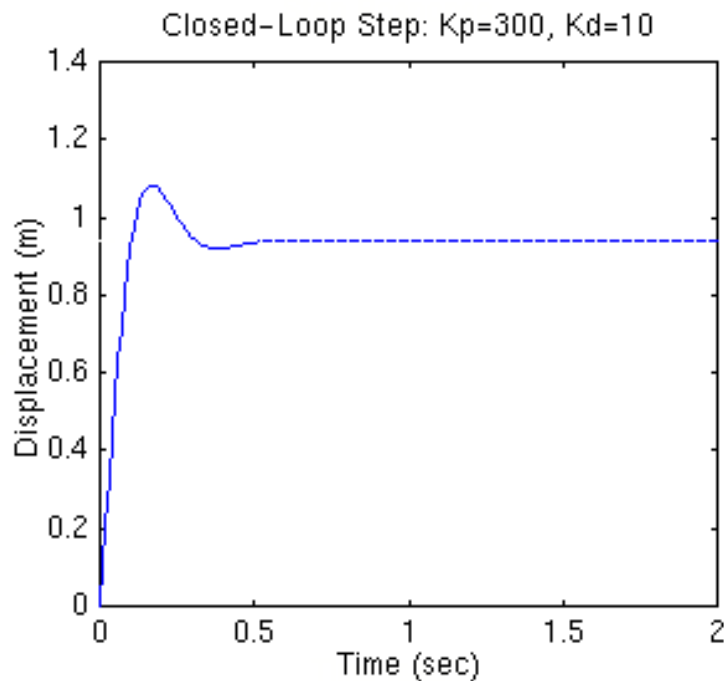
Ex (cont'd): PD Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

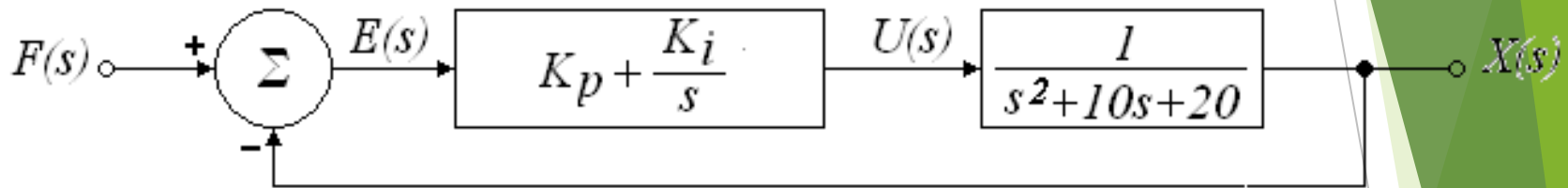
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + (10 + K_d)s + (20 + K_p)}$$

Ex (cont'd): PD control



- ▶ Let $K_p = 300$, $K_d = 10$
- ▶ This plot shows that the *proportional derivative controller reduced both the overshoot and the settling time*, and *had small effect on the rise time and the steady-state error*.

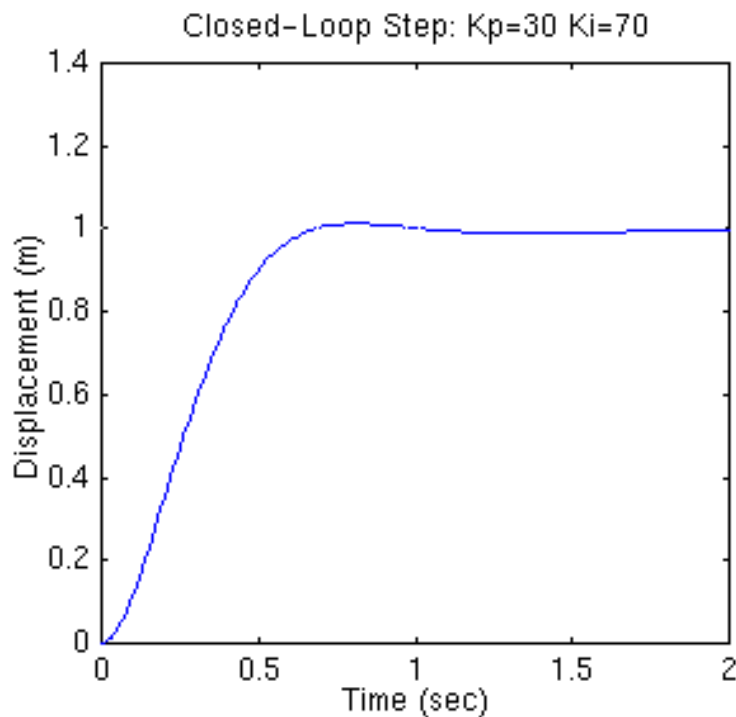
Ex (cont'd): PI Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

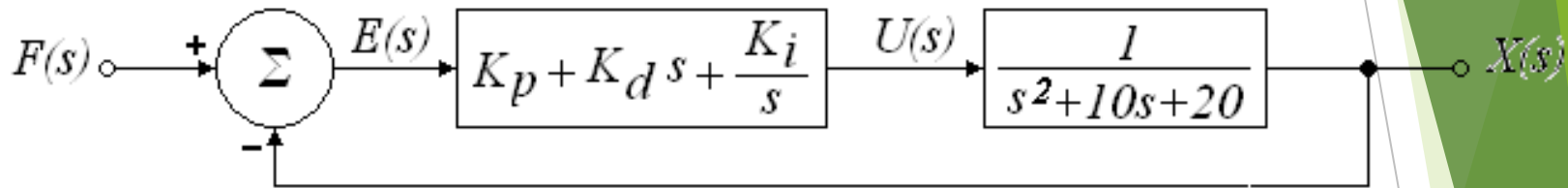
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p s + K_i}{s^3 + 10s^2 + (20 + K_p)s + K_i}$$

Ex (cont'd): PI Controller



- ▶ Let $K_p = 30$, $K_i = 70$
- ▶ We have reduced the proportional gain because the integral controller also *reduces the rise time and increases the overshoot* as the proportional controller does (double effect).
- ▶ The above response shows that the *integral controller eliminated the steady-state error*.

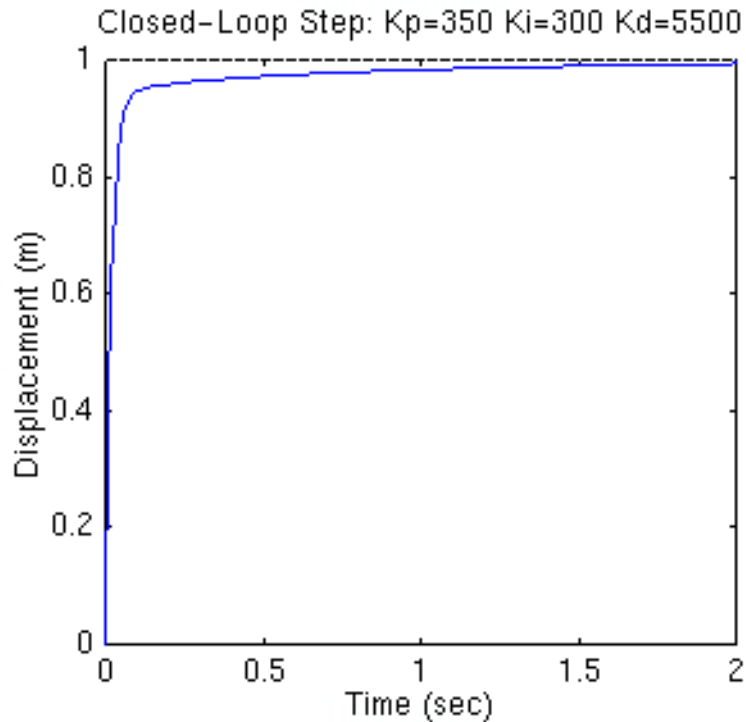
Ex (cont'd): PID Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_d s + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_d s + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_d s^2 + K_p s + K_i}{s^3 + (10 + K_d)s^2 + (20 + K_p)s + K_i}$$

Ex (cont'd): PID Controller

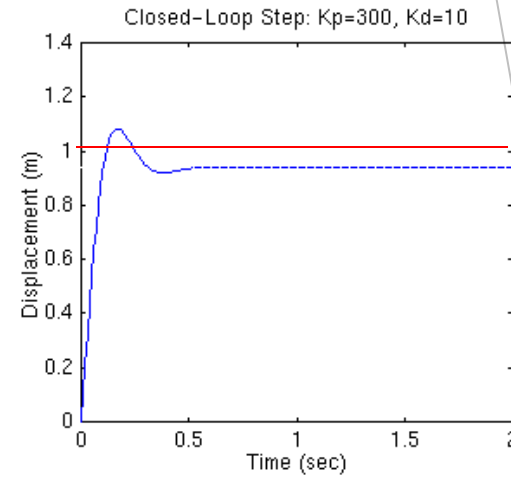
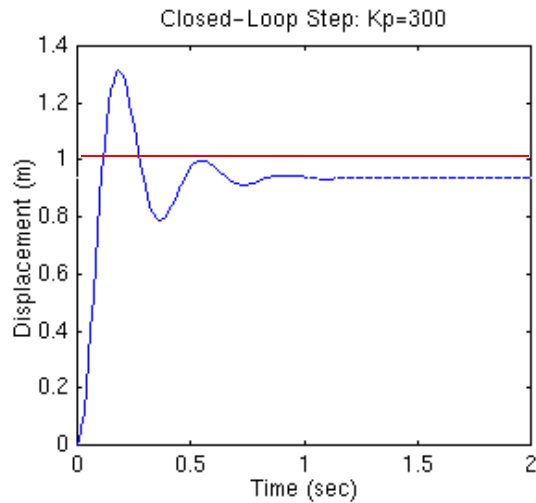


► Let $K_p = 350$, $K_i = 300$,
 $K_d = 5500$

► Now, we have obtained the system with **no overshoot, fast rise time, and no steady-state error.**

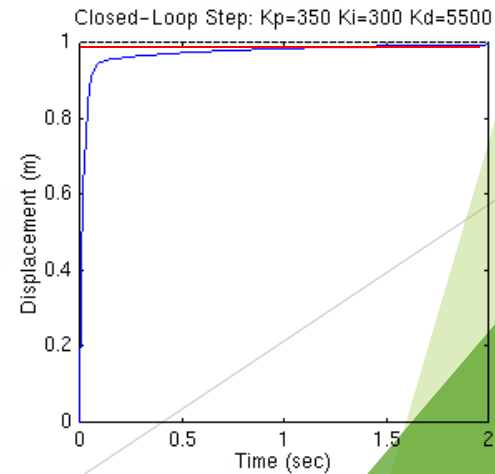
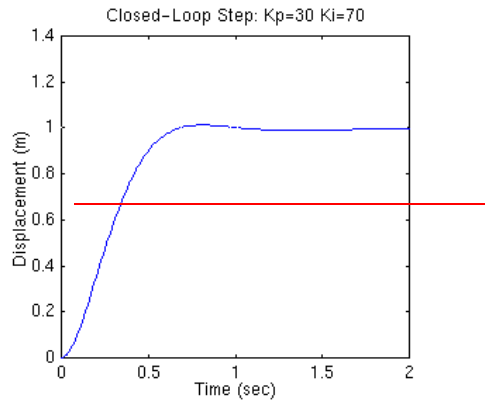
Ex (cont'd): Summary

P



PD

PI



PID

PID Controller Functions

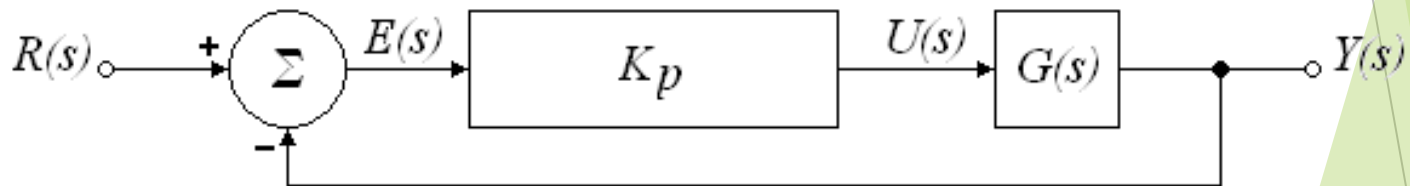
- ▶ Output feedback
 - from *Proportional action*
compare output with set-point
- ▶ Eliminate steady-state offset (=error)
 - from *Integral action*
apply constant control even when error is zero
- ▶ Anticipation
 - From *Derivative action*
react to rapid rate of change before errors grows too big

Proportional Controller

- ▶ Pure gain (or *attenuation*) since:

the controller input is error

the controller output is a proportional gain



$$E(s)K_p = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_p e(t)$$

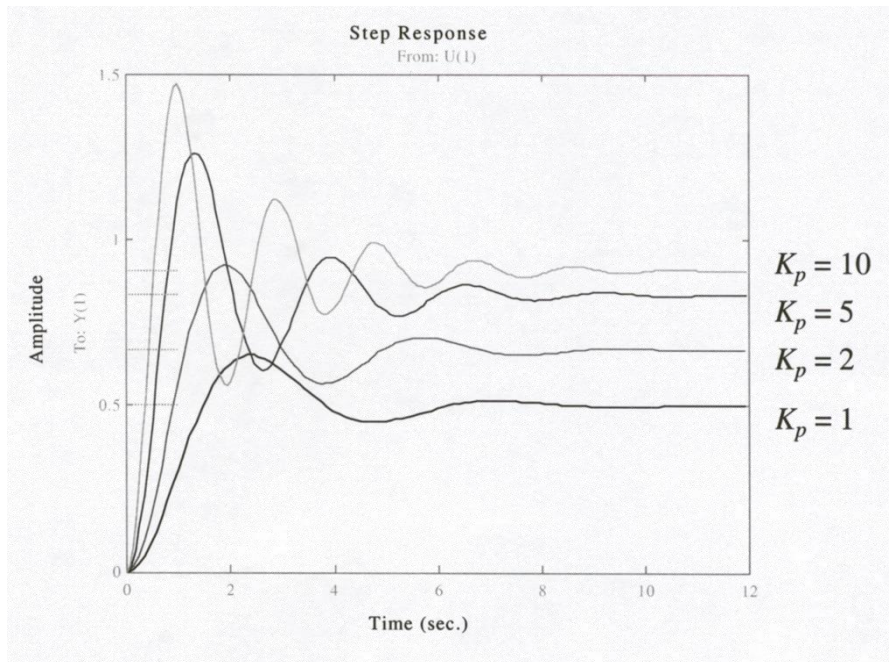
Change in gain in P controller

► Increase in gain:

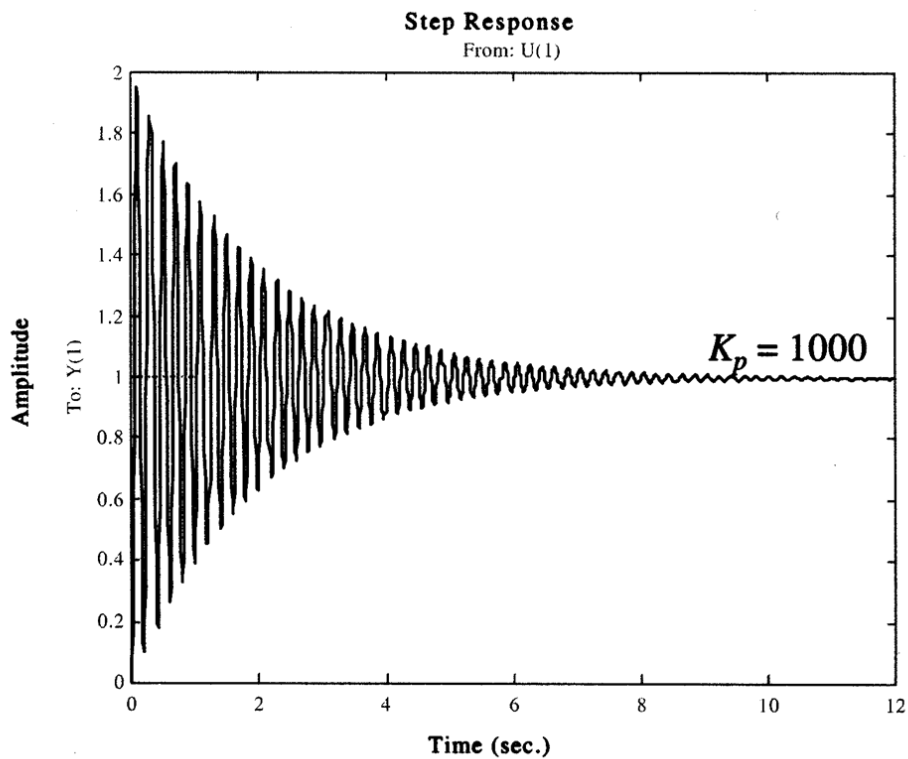
→ Upgrade both steady-state and transient responses

→ Reduce steady-state error

→ **Reduce stability!**

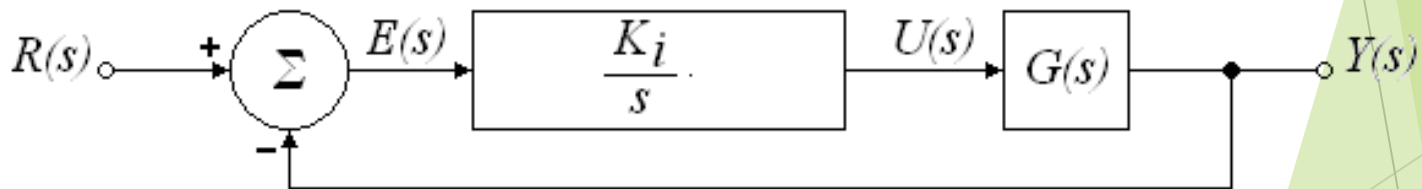


P Controller with *high* gain



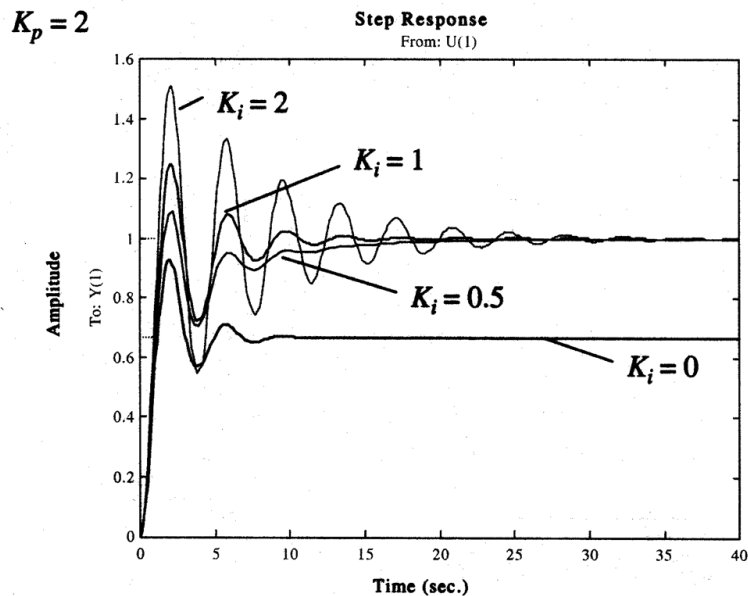
Integral Controller

- ▶ Integral of error with a constant gain
 - increase the system type by 1
 - *eliminate steady-state error for a unit step input*
 - amplify overshoot and oscillations



$$E(s) \frac{K_i}{s} = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt$$

Change in gain for PI controller

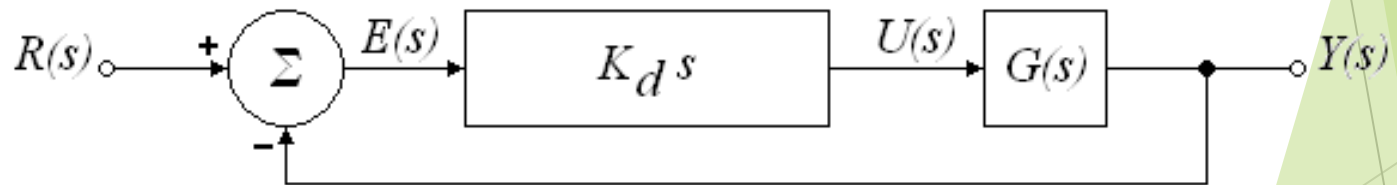


► Increase in gain:

- Do not upgrade steady-state responses
- Increase slightly settling time
- **Increase oscillations and overshoot!**

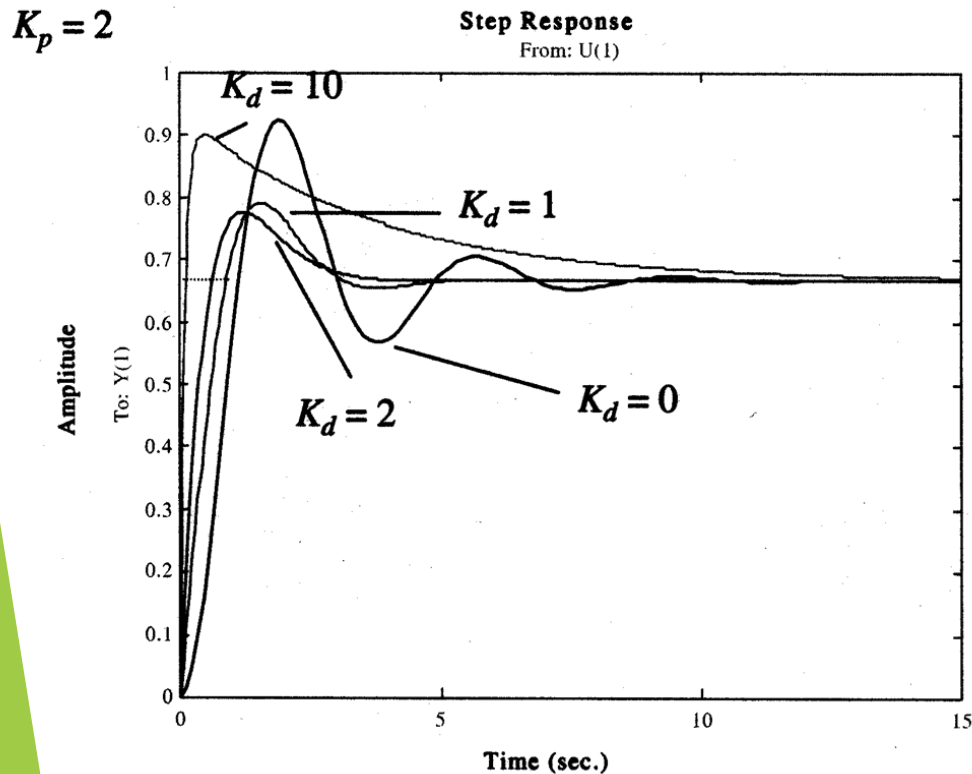
Derivative Controller

- ▶ Differentiation of error with a constant gain
 - detect rapid change in output
 - *reduce overshoot and oscillation*
 - do not affect the steady-state response



$$E(s)K_d s = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

Effect of change for gain PD controller



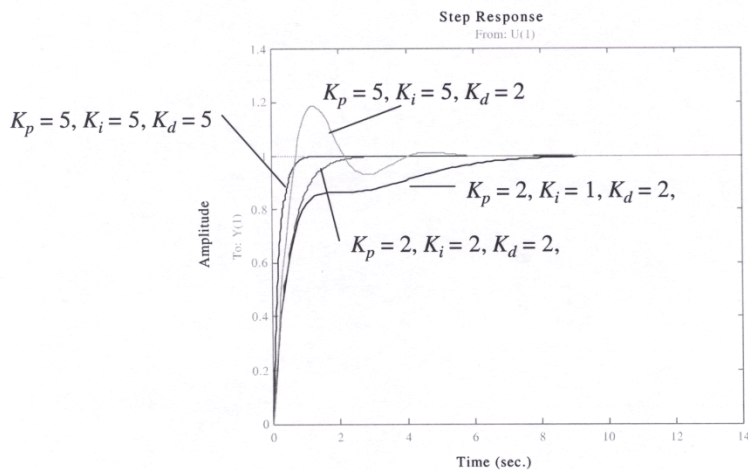
► Increase in gain:

→ Upgrade transient response

→ Decrease the peak and rise time

→ **Increase overshoot and settling time!**

Changes in gains for PID Controller



Conclusions

- ▶ Increasing the proportional feedback gain *reduces steady-state errors*, but high gains almost always *destabilize the system*.
- ▶ **Integral control** provides *robust reduction in steady-state errors*, but often *makes the system less stable*.
- ▶ Derivative control usually *increases damping and improves stability*, but has almost *no effect on the steady state error*
- ▶ These *3 kinds of control combined* from the classical PID controller

Conclusion - PID

- ▶ The standard PID controller is described by the equation:

$$U(s) = \left(K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \right) E(s)$$

or

$$U(s) = K_p \left(1 + \frac{1}{T_i} s + T_d s \right) E(s)$$

Application of PID Control

- ▶ PID regulators provide reasonable control of most industrial processes, provided that the performance demands is not too high.
- ▶ PI control are generally adequate when plant/process dynamics are essentially of 1st-order.
- ▶ PID control are generally ok if dominant plant dynamics are of 2nd-order.
- ▶ More elaborate control strategies needed if process has long time delays, or lightly-damped vibrational modes