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Servoregulation & PID Control

ELEC 3004: Systems: Signals & Controls
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Lecture 17

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<http://robotics.itee.uq.edu.au/~elec3004/>

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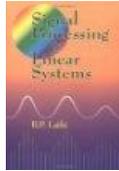


Lecture Schedule:

Week	Date	Lecture Title
1	27-Feb	Introduction
	1-Mar	Systems Overview
2	6-Mar	Systems as Maps & Signals as Vectors
	8-Mar	Systems: Linear Differential Systems
3	13-Mar	Sampling Theory & Data Acquisition
	15-Mar	Aliasing & Antialiasing
4	20-Mar	Discrete Time Analysis & Z-Transform
	22-Mar	Second Order LTID (& Convolution Review)
5	27-Mar	Frequency Response
	29-Mar	Filter Analysis
6	3-Apr	Digital Filters (IIR) & Filter Analysis
	5-Apr	PS 1: Q & A
7	10-Apr	Digital Windows
	12-Apr	Digital Filter (FIR)
8	17-Apr	Active Filters & Estimation
	19-Apr	Holiday
24-Apr		
26-Apr		
9	1-May	Introduction to Feedback Control
	3-May	Servoregulation & PID Control
10	8-May	Guest Lecture: FFT
	10-May	State-Space Control
11	15-May	Digital Control Design
	17-May	Stability
12	22-May	State Space Control System Design
	24-May	Shaping the Dynamic Response
13	29-May	System Identification & Information Theory
	31-May	Summary and Course Review



Follow Along Reading:



B. P. Lathi
*Signal processing
and linear systems*
1998
[TK5102.9.L38 1998](#)



**G. Franklin,
J. Powell,
M. Workman**
*Digital Control
of Dynamic Systems*
1990

[TJ216.F72 1990](#)
[\[Available as
UQ Ebook\]](#)

Today

→ P - I - D

- FPW
 - Chapter 4:
Discrete Equivalents to Continuous
Transfer Functions: The Digital Filter

- FPW
 - Chapter 5: Design of Digital Control
Systems Using Transform Techniques

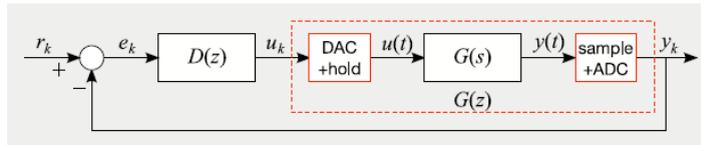
Next Time



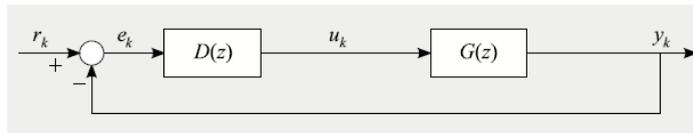
Purely Discrete Design

Designing in the Purely Discrete...

Analyse/design a discrete controller $D(z)$:



by considering the purely discrete time system:



Closed loop system transfer function: $\frac{Y(z)}{R(z)} = \frac{G(z)D(z)}{1 + G(z)D(z)}$

How do the closed loop poles relate to

- stability?
- performance?



Now in discrete

- Naturally, there are discrete analogs for each of these controller types:

Lead/lag: $\frac{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}{1 - \beta z^{-1}}$

PID: $k \left(1 + \frac{1}{\tau_i(1 - z^{-1})} + \tau_d(1 - z^{-1}) \right)$

But, where do we get the control design parameters from?
The s-domain?



Sampling a continuous-time system

suppose $\dot{x} = Ax$

sample x at times $t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots$: define $z(k) = x(t_k)$

then $z(k+1) = e^{(t_{k+1}-t_k)A}z(k)$

for uniform sampling $t_{k+1} - t_k = h$, so

$$z(k+1) = e^{hA}z(k),$$

a discrete-time LDS (called *discretized version* of continuous-time system)

Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-22



Piecewise constant system

consider *time-varying* LDS $\dot{x} = A(t)x$, with

$$A(t) = \begin{cases} A_0 & 0 \leq t < t_1 \\ A_1 & t_1 \leq t < t_2 \\ \vdots & \end{cases}$$

where $0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots$ (sometimes called jump linear system)

for $t \in [t_i, t_{i+1}]$ we have

$$x(t) = e^{(t-t_i)A_i} \dots e^{(t_3-t_2)A_2} e^{(t_2-t_1)A_1} e^{t_1 A_0} x(0)$$

(matrix on righthand side is called state transition matrix for system, and denoted $\Phi(t)$)

Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-23



Qualitative behaviour of $\mathbf{x}(t)$

suppose $\dot{x} = Ax$, $x(t) \in \mathbf{R}^n$

then $x(t) = e^{tA}x(0)$; $X(s) = (sI - A)^{-1}x(0)$

i th component $X_i(s)$ has form

$$X_i(s) = \frac{a_i(s)}{\mathcal{X}(s)}$$

where a_i is a polynomial of degree $< n$

thus the poles of X_i are all eigenvalues of A (but not necessarily the other way around)

Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-24



Qualitative behaviour of $\mathbf{x}(t)$ [2]

first assume eigenvalues λ_i are distinct, so $X_i(s)$ cannot have repeated poles

then $x_i(t)$ has form

$$x_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_{ij} e^{\lambda_j t}$$

where β_{ij} depend on $x(0)$ (linearly)

eigenvalues determine (possible) qualitative behavior of x :

- eigenvalues give exponents that can occur in exponentials
- real eigenvalue λ corresponds to an exponentially decaying or growing term $e^{\lambda t}$ in solution
- complex eigenvalue $\lambda = \sigma + j\omega$ corresponds to decaying or growing sinusoidal term $e^{\sigma t} \cos(\omega t + \phi)$ in solution

Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-25



Qualitative behaviour of $\mathbf{x}(t)$ [3]

first assume eigenvalues λ_i are distinct, so $X_i(s)$ cannot have repeated poles

then $x_i(t)$ has form

$$x_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_{ij} e^{\lambda_j t}$$

where β_{ij} depend on $x(0)$ (linearly)

eigenvalues determine (possible) qualitative behavior of x :

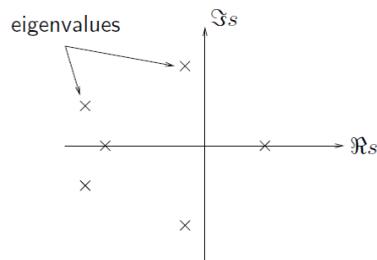
- eigenvalues give exponents that can occur in exponentials
- real eigenvalue λ corresponds to an exponentially decaying or growing term $e^{\lambda t}$ in solution
- complex eigenvalue $\lambda = \sigma + j\omega$ corresponds to decaying or growing sinusoidal term $e^{\sigma t} \cos(\omega t + \phi)$ in solution

Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-26



Qualitative behaviour of $\mathbf{x}(t)$ [4]

- $\Re \lambda_j$ gives exponential growth rate (if > 0), or exponential decay rate (if < 0) of term
- $\Im \lambda_j$ gives frequency of oscillatory term (if $\neq 0$)



Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-27



Qualitative behaviour of $\mathbf{x}(t)$ [5]

now suppose A has repeated eigenvalues, so X_i can have repeated poles

express eigenvalues as $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$ (distinct) with multiplicities n_1, \dots, n_r , respectively ($n_1 + \dots + n_r = n$)

then $x_i(t)$ has form

$$x_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^r p_{ij}(t) e^{\lambda_j t}$$

where $p_{ij}(t)$ is a polynomial of degree $< n_j$ (that depends linearly on $x(0)$)

Source: Boyd, Lecture Notes for EE263, 10-28



Emulation vs Discrete Design

- Remember: polynomial algebra is the same, whatever symbol you are manipulating:

$$\text{eg. } s^2 + 2s + 1 = (s + 1)^2$$

$$z^2 + 2z + 1 = (z + 1)^2$$

Root loci behave the same on both planes!

- Therefore, we have two choices:
 - Design in the s -domain and digitise (emulation)
 - Design only in the z -domain (discrete design)



Lead/Lag

Some standard approaches

- Control engineers have developed time-tested strategies for building compensators
- Three classical control structures:
 - Lead
 - Lag
 - Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID)
(and its variations: P, I, PI, PD)

How do they work?



Lead/lag compensation

- Serve different purposes, but have a similar dynamic structure:

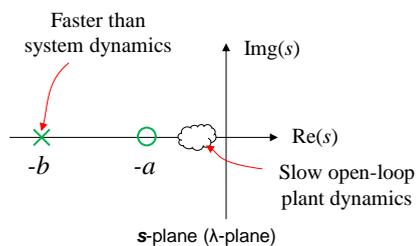
$$D(s) = \frac{s + a}{s + b}$$

Note:

Lead-lag compensators come from the days when control engineers cared about constructing controllers from networks of op amps using frequency-phase methods. These days pretty much everybody uses PID, but you should at least know what the heck they are in case someone asks.



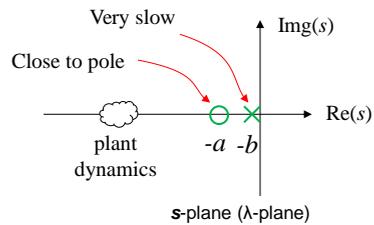
Lead compensation: $a < b$



- Acts to decrease rise-time and overshoot
 - Zero draws poles to the left; adds phase-lead
 - Pole decreases noise
- Set a near desired ω_n ; set b at ~ 3 to $20 \times a$



Lag compensation: $a > b$



- Improves steady-state tracking
 - Near pole-zero cancellation; adds phase-lag
 - Doesn't break dynamic response (too much)
- Set b near origin; set a at ~ 3 to $10 \times b$

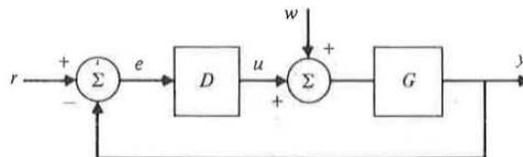


BREAK

PID (Intro)

PID

- Three basic types of control:
 - Proportional
 - Integral, and
 - Derivative
- The next step up from lead compensation
 - Essentially a combination of proportional and derivative control



Proportional Control

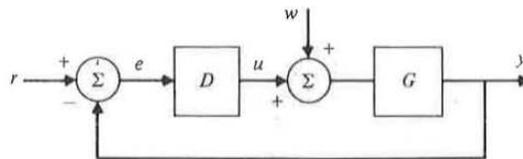
A discrete implementation of proportional control is identical to continuous; that is, where the continuous is

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) \Rightarrow D(s) = K_p,$$

the discrete is

$$u(k) = K_p e(k) \Rightarrow \boxed{D(z) = K_p}$$

where $e(t)$ is the error signal as shown in Fig 5.2.



Integral: P Control only

- Consider a first order system with a constant load disturbance, w ; (recall as $t \rightarrow \infty, s \rightarrow 0$)

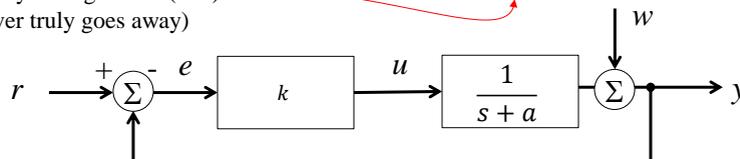
$$y = k \frac{1}{s+a} (r - y) + w$$

$$(s+a)y = k(r-y) + (s+a)w$$

$$(s+k+a)y = kr + (s+a)w$$

$$y = \frac{k}{s+k+a} r + \frac{(s+a)}{s+k+a} w$$

Steady state gain = $a/(k+a)$
(never truly goes away)



Integral

- Integral applies control action based on accumulated output error
 - Almost always found with P control
- Increase dynamic order of signal tracking
 - Step disturbance steady-state error goes to zero
 - Ramp disturbance steady-state error goes to a constant offset

Let's try it!



Integral Control

For continuous systems, we integrate the error to arrive at the control,

$$u(t) = \frac{K_p}{T_I} \int_{t_0}^t e(t) dt \Rightarrow D(s) = \frac{K_p}{T_I s},$$

where T_I is called the *integral*, or *reset time*. The discrete equivalent is to sum all previous errors, yielding

$$u(k) = u(k-1) + \frac{K_p T}{T_I} e(k) \Rightarrow D(z) = \frac{K_p T}{T_I (1 - z^{-1})} = \frac{K_p T z}{T_I (z - 1)}. \quad (5.60)$$

Just as for continuous systems, the primary reason for integral control is to reduce or eliminate steady-state errors, but this typically occurs at the cost of reduced stability.



Now with added integral action

$$y = k \left(1 + \frac{1}{\tau_i s} \right) \frac{1}{s+a} (r - y) + w$$

$$y = k \frac{s + \tau_i^{-1}}{s} \frac{1}{s+a} (r - y) + w$$

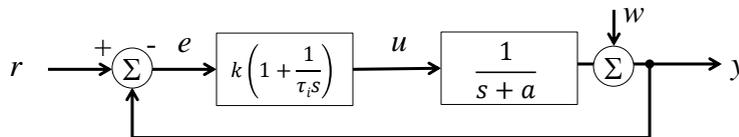
Same dynamics

$$s(s+a)y = k(s + \tau_i^{-1})(r - y) + s(s+a)w$$

$$(s^2 + (k+a)s + \tau_i^{-1})y = k(s + \tau_i^{-1})r + s(s+a)w$$

$$y = \frac{k(s + \tau_i^{-1})}{(s^2 + (k+a)s + \tau_i^{-1})} r + \frac{s(s+a)}{k(s + \tau_i^{-1})} w$$

Must go to zero for constant w!



Derivative Control

For continuous systems, derivative or rate control has the form

$$u(t) = K_p T_D \dot{e}(t) \Rightarrow D(s) = K_p T_D s$$

where T_D is called the *derivative time*. Differentiation can be approximated in the discrete domain as the first difference, that is,

$$u(k) = K_p T_D \frac{(e(k) - e(k-1))}{T} \Rightarrow \boxed{D(z) = K_p T_D \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{T} = K_p T_D \frac{z - 1}{Tz}}$$

In many designs, the compensation is a sum of proportional and derivative control (or PD control). In this case, we have

$$D(z) = K_p \left(1 + \frac{T_D(z-1)}{Tz} \right)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\boxed{D(z) = K \frac{z - \alpha}{z}}$$

Derivative Control [2]

- Similar to the lead compensators
 - The difference is that the pole is at $z = 0$

[Whereas the pole has been placed at various locations along the z-plane real axis for the previous designs.]
- In the continuous case:
 - pure derivative control represents the ideal situation in that there is no destabilizing phase lag from the differentiation
 - the pole is at $s = -\infty$
- In the discrete case:
 - $z=0$
 - However this has phase lag because of the necessity to wait for one cycle in order to compute the first difference



Derivative

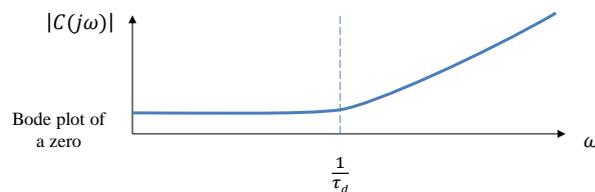
- Derivative uses the rate of change of the error signal to anticipate control action
 - Increases system damping (when done right)
 - Can be thought of as ‘leading’ the output error, applying correction predictively
 - Almost always found with P control*

**What kind of system do you have if you use D, but don't care about position? Is it the same as P control in velocity space?*

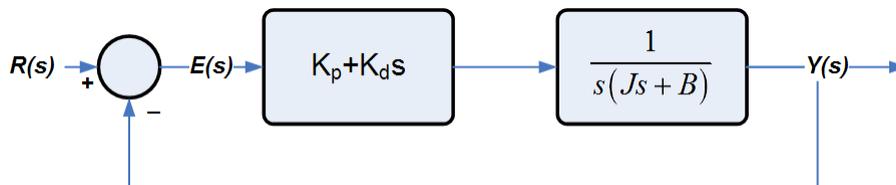


Derivative

- It is easy to see that PD control simply adds a zero at $s = -\frac{1}{\tau_d}$ with expected results
 - Decreases dynamic order of the system by 1
 - Absorbs a pole as $k \rightarrow \infty$
- Not all roses, though: derivative operators are sensitive to high-frequency noise



PD for 2nd Order Systems



- Consider:

$$\frac{Y(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{(K_P + K_D s)}{Js^2 + (B + K_D)s + (1 + K_P)}$$

- Steady-state error: $e_{ss} = \frac{1}{(1+K_P)}$
- Characteristic equation: $Js^2 + (B + K_D)s + (1 + K_P) = 0$
- Damping Ratio: $\zeta = \frac{B+K_D}{2\sqrt{(1+K_P)J}}$

➔ It is possible to make e_{ss} and overshoot small (\downarrow) by making B small (\downarrow), K_P large \uparrow , K_D such that ζ : between [0.4 – 0.7]



PID – Control for the PID-dly minded

- Proportional-Integral-Derivative control is the control engineer's hammer*
 - For P,PI,PD, etc. just remove one or more terms

$$C(s) = k \left(1 + \frac{1}{\tau I s} + \tau D s \right)$$

Proportional
Integral
Derivative

*Everything is a nail. That's why it's called "Bang-Bang" Control ☺



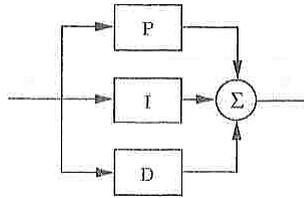
PID

- Collectively, PID provides two zeros plus a pole at the origin
 - Zeros provide phase lead
 - Pole provides steady-state tracking
 - Easy to implement in microprocessors
- Many tools exist for optimally tuning PID
 - Zeigler-Nichols
 - Cohen-Coon
 - Automatic software processes



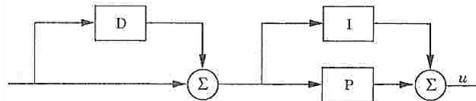
PID Implementation

- Non-Interacting



$$C(s) = K \left(1 + \frac{1}{sT_i} + sT_d \right)$$

- Interacting Form



$$C'(s) = K \left(1 + \frac{1}{sT_i} \right) (1 + sT_d)$$

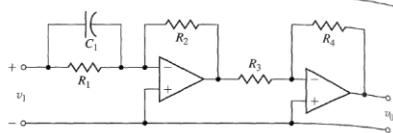
- Note: Different K, T_i and T_d



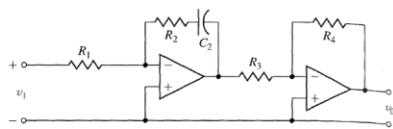
Operational Amplifier Circuits for Compensators

Type of Controller $G_c(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)}$

PD $G_c = \frac{R_4 R_2}{R_3 R_1} (R_1 C_1 s + 1)$

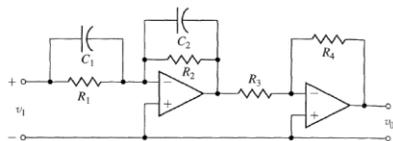


PI $G_c = \frac{R_4 R_2 (R_2 C_2 s + 1)}{R_3 R_1 (R_2 C_2 s)}$



Lead or lag $G_c = \frac{R_4 R_2 (R_1 C_1 s + 1)}{R_3 R_1 (R_2 C_2 s + 1)}$

Lead if $R_1 C_1 > R_2 C_2$
Lag if $R_1 C_1 < R_2 C_2$



- (Yet Another Way to See PID)

Source: Dorf & Bishop, *Modern Control Systems*, p. 828



PID Control

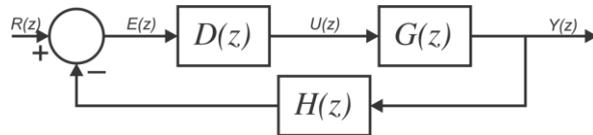
$$D(z) = K_p \left(1 + \frac{Tz}{T_I(z-1)} + \frac{T_D(z-1)}{Tz} \right)$$

The user simply has to determine the best values of

- K_p
- T_D and
- T_I



PID as Difference Equation



$$\frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = D(z) = K_p + K_i \left(\frac{Tz}{z-1} \right) + K_d \left(\frac{z-1}{Tz} \right)$$

$$u(k) = [K_p + K_i T + \left(\frac{K_d}{T}\right)] \cdot e(k) - [K_d T] \cdot e(k-1) + [K_i] \cdot u(k-1)$$



PID Algorithm (in various domains):

FPW § 5.8.4 [p.224]

- PID Algorithm (in Z-Domain):

$$D(z) = K_p \left(1 + \frac{Tz}{T_I(z-1)} + \frac{T_D(z-1)}{Tz} \right)$$

- As Difference equation:

$$u(t_k) = u(t_{k-1}) + K_p \left[\left(1 + \frac{\Delta t}{T_i} + \frac{T_d}{\Delta t} \right) e(t_k) + \left(-1 - \frac{2T_d}{\Delta t} \right) e(t_{k-1}) + \frac{T_d}{\Delta t} e(t_{k-2}) \right]$$

- Pseudocode [Source: Wikipedia]:

```
previous_error = 0, integral = 0
start:
  error = setpoint - measured_value
  integral = integral + error*dt
  derivative = (error - previous_error)/dt
  output = Kp*error + Ki*integral + Kd*derivative
  previous_error = error
  wait(dt)
  goto start
```



PID Intuition

Another way to see P I | D

- Derivative

D provides:

- High sensitivity
- Responds to change
- Adds “damping” &
∴ permits larger K_P
- Noise sensitive
- Not used alone

(∴ its on rate change of error – by itself it wouldn't get there)

→ “Diet Coke of control”



- Integral

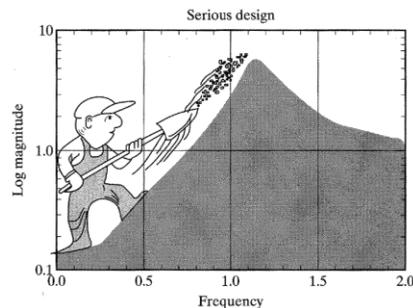
- Eliminates offsets (makes regulation ☺)
- Leads to Oscillatory behaviour
- Adds an “order” but instability (Makes a 2nd order system 3rd order)

→ “Interesting cake of control”



Seeing PID – No Free Lunch

- The energy (and sensitivity) moves around (in this case in “frequency”)



- Sensitivity reduction at low frequency unavoidably leads to sensitivity increase at higher frequencies.

Source: Gunter Stein's interpretation of the water bed effect – G. Stein, *IEEE Control Systems Magazine*, 2003.



PID Intuition & Tuning

- Tuning – How to get the “magic” values:
 - Dominant Pole Design
 - Ziegler Nichols Methods
 - Pole Placement
 - Auto Tuning

- Although PID is common it is often poorly tuned
 - The derivative action is frequently switched off!
(Why ∴ it’s sensitive to noise)
 - Also lots of “I” will make the system more transitory & leads to integrator wind-up.



PID Intuition

Effects of increasing a parameter independently					
Parameter	Rise time	Overshoot	Settling time	Steady-state error	Stability
K_p	↓	↑	Minimal change	↓	↓
K_I	↓	↑	↑	Eliminate	↓
K_D	Minor change	↓	↓	No effect / minimal change	Improve (if K_D small)



PID Intuition

$$u(t) = K \left[e(t) + \frac{1}{T_i} \int e(s) ds + T_d \frac{de(t)}{dt} \right]$$

- **P:**
 - Control action is proportional to control error
 - It is necessary to have an error to have a non-zero control signal
- **I:**
 - The main function of the integral action is to make sure that the process output agrees with the set point in steady state



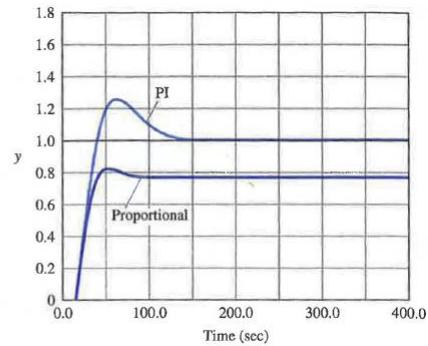
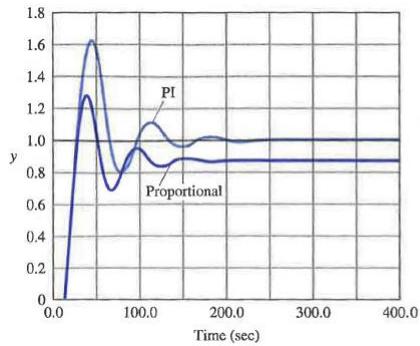
PID Intuition

$$u(t) = K \left[e(t) + \frac{1}{T_i} \int e(s) ds + T_d \frac{de(t)}{dt} \right]$$

- **P:**
- **I:**
- **D:**
 - The purpose of the derivative action is to improve the closed loop stability.
 - The instability “mechanism” “controlled” here is that because of the process dynamics it will take some time before a change in the control variable is noticeable in the process output.
 - The action of a controller with proportional and derivative action may be interpreted as if the control is made proportional to the *predicted* process output, where the prediction is made by extrapolating the error by the tangent to the error curve.

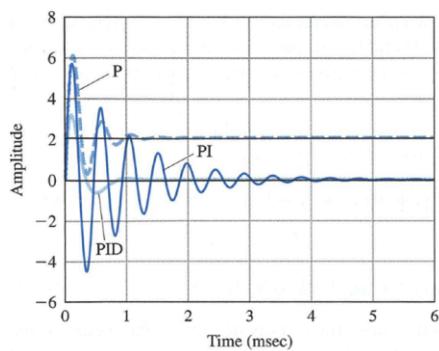


PID Intuition: P and PI

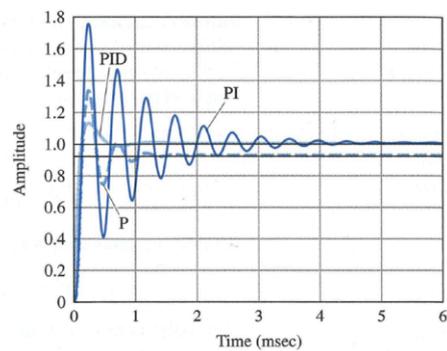


PID Intuition: P and PI and PID

- Responses of P, PI, and PID control to



(a) step disturbance input



(b) step reference input



PID (Tuning)

Ziegler-Nichols Tuning – Reaction Rate

FPW § 5.8.5 [p.224]

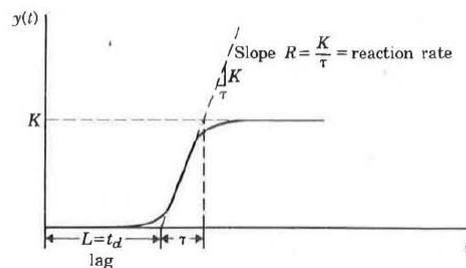
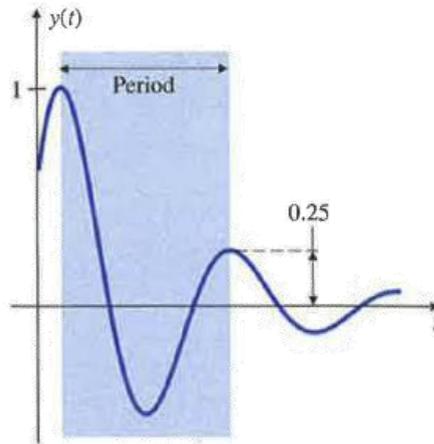


Table 5.2 Ziegler-Nichols tuning parameters using transient response.

	K_p	T_I	T_D
<i>P</i>	$1/RL$		
<i>PI</i>	$0.9/RL$	$3L$	
<i>PID</i>	$1.2/RL$	$2L$	$0.5L$

Quarter decay ratio



Ziegler-Nichols Tuning – Stability Limit Method

FPW § 5.8.5 [p.226]

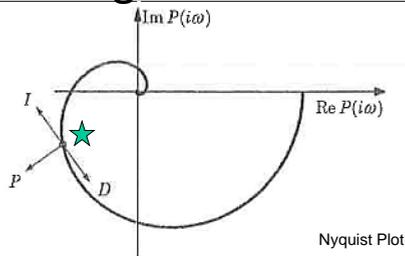
- Increase K_p until the system has continuous oscillations
 - $\equiv K_u$: Oscillation Gain for “Ultimate stability”
 - $\equiv P_u$: Oscillation Period for “Ultimate stability”

Table 5.3 Ziegler-Nichols tuning parameters using stability limit.

	K_p	T_I	T_D
P	$0.5K_u$		
PI	$0.45K_u$	$P_u/1.2$	
PID	$0.6K_u$	$P_u/2$	$P_u/8$



Ziegler-Nichols Tuning / Intuition



$$C(i\omega_u) = K \left(1 + i \left(\omega_u T_d - \frac{1}{\omega_u T_i} \right) \right) \approx 0.6K_u (1 + 0.467i)$$

- For a Given Point (★), the effect of increasing P, I and D in the “s-plane” are shown by the arrows above Nyquist plot

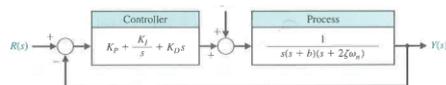


PID Example

- A 3rd order plant: $b=10, \zeta=0.707, \omega_n=4$

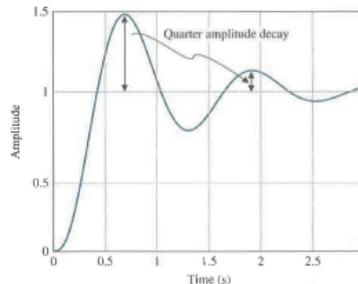
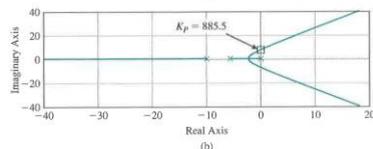
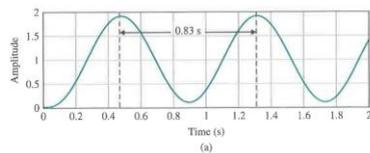
$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s(s+b)(s+2\zeta\omega_n)}$$

- PID:

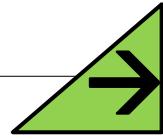


- $K_p=855$:

• 40% $K_p = 370$



Next Time...



- **Digital Feedback Control**
- Review:
 - Chapter 2 of FPW
- More Pondering??

