ECE 171A: Linear Control System Theory Lecture 20: PID control

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Reading materials: Ch 11.1 - 11.3

Annoucements

- ▶ HW6 due tomorrow; HW7 will be out on Saturday and due by 11:59 pm, 29 May (Wednesday, Week 9)
- ▶ Midterm exam (II) in class, May 22 (Wednesday in Week 8)
	- Scope: Lectures 11 21, HW4 HW6, HW7 (Q1, Q2), DI 5-7; (Reading materials in the textbook)
	- Closed book, closed notes, closed external links.
	- Come on time (1 or 2 minutes early if you can; we will start at 9:00 am promptly)
	- No MATLAB is required. No graphing calculators are permitted. A basic arithmetic calculator is allowed.
	- The exams must be done in a blue book. Bring a blue book with you.
	- No collaboration and discussions are allowed. It is dishonest to cheat on exams. Instances of academic dishonesty will be referred to the Office of Student Conduct for adjudication. You don't want to take a risk for such a small thing.

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Overview

Proportional-integral-derivative (PID) control is by far the most common way of using feedback in engineering systems

▶ A survey of controllers for more than 100 boiler-turbine units: 94.4% of all controllers were PI, 3.7% PID, and 1.9% used advanced control.

Figure: PID using error feedback

PID control

- \blacktriangleright the proportional term (P) the present error;
- \blacktriangleright the integral term (I) the past errors;
- \blacktriangleright the derivative term (D) anticipated future errors.
- ▶ PID control appears in both simple and complex systems: as stand-alone controllers, as elements of hierarchical, distributed control systems, etc.

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PID controller

Input/output relation

$$
u = k_{\rm p}e + k_{\rm i}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau + k_{\rm d}\frac{de}{dt} = k_p \left(e + \frac{1}{T_i}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau + T_d\frac{de}{dt}\right).
$$

• Time constant $T_i = k_p/k_i$ (Integral time); $T_d = k_d/k_p$ (Derivative time) ▶ Also known as three-term controllers.

Figure: PID using error feedback

Example

 \blacktriangleright Consider a system with dynamics

$$
P(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)^3}.
$$

- \blacktriangleright Consider a controller $C(s)$
- ▶ The transfer function from reference to error is

$$
G_{\text{er}}(s) = \frac{1}{1 + C(s)P(s)}.
$$

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Numerical experiments

Figure 11.2: Responses to step changes in the reference value for a system with a proportional controller (a), PI controller (b), and PID controller (c). The process has the transfer function $P(s) = 1/(s+1)^3$, the proportional controller has parameters $k_p = 1, 2,$ and 5, the PI controller has parameters $k_p = 1, k_i = 0, 0.2,$ 0.5, and 1, and the PID controller has parameters $k_p = 2.5$, $k_i = 1.5$, and $k_d = 0$, 1, 2, and 4.

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Intuition about PID control – P term

The transfer function from reference to error is

$$
G_{\text{er}}(s) = \frac{1}{1 + C(s)P(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + k_{\text{p}}P(s)}.
$$

 \triangleright Assuming the closed loop is stable, the steady-state error for a unit step is

$$
G_{\text{er}}(0) = \frac{1}{1 + k_{\text{p}} P(0)}.
$$

- \blacktriangleright The error decreases with increasing gain, but the system also become more oscillatory.
- ▶ To avoid having a steady-state error, the P term can be changed to

$$
u(t) = k_{\rm p}e(t) + u_{\rm ff}.
$$

where $u_{\rm ff}$ is a feedforward term (also known as reset value — manually adjusted in early controllers).

Intuition about PID control – I term

Integral action guarantees that the process output agrees with the reference in steady state and provides an alternative to the feedforward term.

▶ Since this result is SO IMPORTANT, we provide a general proof below.

$$
u(t) = k_{\rm p}e(t) + k_{\rm i}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau.
$$

Assume that $u(t)$ and $e(t)$ converge to $u = u_0$ and $e = e_0$

$$
u_0 = k_{\rm p} e_0 + k_{\rm i} \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau.
$$

 \blacktriangleright The limit of the right hand side is not finite unless $e(t)$ goes to zero.

Integral control: if a steady state exists, the error will always be zero.

- ▶ This property is sometimes called the magic of integral action.
- ▶ Notice that we have NOT assumed that the process is linear or time-invariant (we have assumed that there is an equilibrium point).

Intuition about PID control – I term

The effect of integral action can also be understood from frequency domain analysis.

▶ The transfer function of a PID controller is

$$
C(s) = k_{\rm p} + \frac{k_{\rm i}}{s} + k_{\rm d}s.
$$

 \triangleright This controller has infinite gain at zero frequency — no steady-state error

$$
C(0) = \infty
$$
 \Rightarrow $G_{\text{er}}(0) = \frac{1}{1 + C(0)P(0)} = 0.$

▶ Integral action as Automatic reset $k_{\rm p}$ — one of the early inventions (magic of integral action)

$$
G_{\rm ue} = k_{\rm p} \frac{1 + sT_{\rm i}}{sT_{\rm i}} = k_{\rm p} + \frac{k_{\rm p}}{sT_{\rm i}}
$$

(a) Integral action (automatic reset)

▶ Converges more quickly for larger integral gains, but the system also becomes more oscillatory

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Intuition about PID control – D term

The original motivation for derivative feedback was to provide predictive or anticipatory action.

 \blacktriangleright The combination of the P and D terms can be written

$$
u(t) = k_{\mathrm{p}} e(t) + k_{\mathrm{d}} \frac{de}{dt} = k_{\mathrm{p}} \left(e(t) + T_{\mathrm{d}} \frac{de}{dt} \right) := k_{\mathrm{p}} e_{\mathrm{p}},
$$

where e_p — prediction of the error at time $t + T_d$ by linear extrapolation.

 \blacktriangleright Filtered derivative: difference between the signal and its low-pass filtered version

$$
G_{\text{ue}} = k_{\text{p}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + sT_{\text{d}}} \right)
$$

$$
= k_{\text{p}} \frac{sT_{\text{d}}}{1 + sT_{\text{d}}} = \frac{k_{\text{d}}s}{1 + sT_{\text{d}}}
$$

 \blacktriangleright The transfer function G_{ue} acts like a differentiator for signals with low frequencies and as a **constant gain** k_p for high-frequency signals

.

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PID control in engineering and biological systems

Although PID control was developed in the context of engineering applications, it also appears in nature.

 \blacktriangleright In biological systems proportional, integral, and derivative action are generated by combining subsystems with dynamical behavior.

Disturbance attenuation by feedback in biological systems is often called adaptation.

Figure 9.21: Light stimulation of the eye. In (a) the light beam is so large that it always covers the whole pupil, giving closed loop dynamics. In (b) the light is focused into a beam which is so narrow that it is not influenced by the pupil opening, giving open loop dynamics. In (c) the light beam is focused on the edge of the pupil opening, which has the effect of increasing the gain of the system since small changes in the pupil opening have a large effect on the amount of light entering the eye. From Stark [Sta68].

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Model reduction (simplification)

- ▶ Practical systems are always complex and nonlinear.
- ▶ Simplify the models to capture the essential properties that are needed for PID design.

All models are wrong and some are useful!

Low-order simplified models can be obtained from the first principles.

- ▶ Example:
	- Any stable system can be modeled by a static system if its inputs are sufficiently slow.
	- A first-order model is sufficient if the storage of mass, momentum, or energy can be captured by only one variable
	- $-$ System dynamics are of **second order** if the storage of mass, energy, and momentum can be captured by two state variables
- ▶ A wide range of techniques for **model reduction** are also available (beyond the scope of this class).

PI for first-order systems

Consider a first-order system with the transfer function $P(s) = \frac{b}{s+a}$.

▶ Consider a PI controller

$$
C(s) = k_{\rm p} + k_{\rm i} \frac{1}{s}.
$$

 \blacktriangleright The closed-loop transfer function from r to y is

$$
G_{\rm yr}(s) = \frac{PC}{1 + PC}
$$

=
$$
\frac{bk_{\rm p}s + bk_{\rm i}}{s^2 + (a + bk_{\rm p})s + bk_{\rm i}}
$$

Figure: PID using error feedback

 \triangleright Requiring that the closed loop system have the characteristic polynomial

.

$$
p(s) = s^2 + a_1 s + a_2.
$$

▶ Controller parameters are

$$
k_{\rm p}=\frac{a_1-a}{b}, \qquad k_{\rm i}=\frac{a_2}{b}.
$$

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PID control for Second-order Systems

Figure: PID using error feedback

▶ Consider a second-order plant:

$$
P(s) = \frac{b_0}{s^2 + a_1 s + a_0}
$$

Consider a PID controller

$$
C(s) = k_{\rm p} + k_{\rm i} \frac{1}{s} + +k_{\rm d}s.
$$

 \blacktriangleright The closed-loop transfer function from r to y is

$$
G_{\rm yr}(s) = \frac{PC}{1+PC}
$$

How should the controller $C(s)$ be designed to ensure that the closed-loop system is stable and its step response has zero steady-state error?

Case 1: Proportional (P) Control

A proportional (P) controller uses a constant gain k_p :

 $C(s) = k_p \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad u(t) = k_p e(t)$

▶ Closed-loop transfer function:

$$
G_{\rm yr}(s) = \frac{PC}{1 + PC} = \frac{k_{\rm p}b_0}{s^2 + a_1s + (a_0 + k_{\rm p}b_0)}
$$

- ▶ P control can accelerate the response of a second-order system by changing the natural frequency $\omega_0^2=(a_0+k_{\rm p}b_0)$
- \blacktriangleright To ensure stability, we need $a_1 > 0$ and $a_0 + k_{\rm p}b_0 > 0$.
- ▶ P control can stabilize only some systems because it adjusts one coefficient of the characteristic equation.

For $a_0 \neq 0$, the closed-loop system step response will have a constant finite steady-state error.

$$
G_{\rm yr}(0) = \frac{k_{\rm p}b_0}{a_0 + k_{\rm p}b_0} < 1.
$$

Case 2: Proportional-Integral (PI) Control

A proportional-integral (PI) controller uses a proportional gain k_p and an integral gain k_i :

$$
C(s) = k_{\rm p} + \frac{k_{\rm i}}{s} \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad u(t) = k_{\rm p}e(t) + k_{\rm i}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau
$$

▶ Closed-loop transfer function:

$$
G_{\rm yr}(s) = \frac{PC}{1+PC} = \frac{b_0(k_{\rm p}s + k_{\rm i})}{s^3 + a_1s^2 + (a_0 + k_{\rm p}b_0)s + k_{\rm i}b_0}
$$

▶ Zero steady-state error if the closed-loop system is stable

$$
G_{\rm yr}(0) = \frac{b_0 k_{\rm i}}{k_{\rm i} b_0} = 1.
$$

We achieved the steady-state error specification but the closed-loop system might still be unstable if $a_1 < 0$.

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Case 3: PID Control

A proportional-integral-derivative (PID) controller uses a proportional gain k_p , an integral gain k_i , and a derivative gain k_d :

$$
C(s) = k_{\rm p} + \frac{k_{\rm i}}{s} + k_{\rm d}s \qquad u = k_{\rm p}e + k_{\rm i}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau + k_{\rm d}\frac{de}{dt}
$$

▶ Closed-loop transfer function:

$$
G_{\rm yr}(s) = \frac{PC}{1+PC} = \frac{b_0(k_{\rm p}s + k_{\rm i} + k_{\rm d}s^2)}{s^3 + (a_1 + k_{\rm d}b_0)s^2 + (a_0 + k_{\rm p}b_0)s + k_{\rm i}b_0}
$$

▶ The coefficients of the characteristic polynomial can be set arbitrarily via an appropriate choice of $k_{\rm p}$, $k_{\rm i}$, $k_{\rm d}$

For a second-order plant, PID control can guarantee

▶ stability, good transient behavior, and zero steady-state step error.

PID Control Example

Example

Consider the plant

$$
P(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 - 3s - 1}
$$

Design a PID controller $C(s)$ to achieve step response with zero steady-state error and place the closed-loop system poles at -1 , -2 , -3

▶ PID controller: $C(s) = k_p + \frac{k_i}{s} + k_d s$

▶ Closed-loop transfer function:

$$
G_{\rm yr}(s) = \frac{PC}{1+PC} = \frac{k_{\rm d}s^2 + k_{\rm p}s + k_{\rm i}}{s^3 + (k_{\rm d}-3)s^2 + (k_{\rm p}-1)s + k_{\rm i}}
$$

 \blacktriangleright Matching coefficients with

$$
p(s) = (s+1)(s+2)(s+3)
$$

= $(s^2 + 3s + 2)(s+3)$
= $s^3 + 6s^2 + 11s + 6$,

we have $k_d = 9$, $k_p = 12$, $k_i = 6$.

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Summary

Figure: PID using error feedback

▶ Magic of integral action

PID control

- \blacktriangleright the proportional term (P) the present error;
- \blacktriangleright the integral term (I) the past errors;
- \blacktriangleright the derivative term (D) anticipated future errors.

$$
u(t) = k_{\rm p}e(t) + k_{\rm i}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau \Rightarrow \quad u_0 = k_{\rm p}e_0 + k_{\rm i}\lim_{t\to\infty}\int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau.
$$

- ▶ PID controller design for first-order and second-order systems
- ▶ PID tuning (such as Ziegler-Nichols' Tuning, not covered in this class)