

Agenda



Introduction

Course Overview Motivation

Open Loop Control

Feedback Control

Stability
Disturbance Rejection
Sensitivity Analysis
Linearization

Steady State Tracking

Cascade Control

Introduction

Curriculum for Reguleringsteknik (REG)



Matematiske og grafiske metoder til syntese af lineære tidsinvariante systemer: 1

- ► diskret og kontinuert tilstandsbeskrivelse
- analyse i tid og frekvens
- stabilitet, reguleringshastighed, følsomhed og fejl
- ► digitale PI, PID, LEAD og LAG regulatorer (serieregulatorer)
- ► tilstandsregulering, pole-placement og tilstands-estimering (observer)
- ► optimal regulering (least squares) og optimal tilstands-estimation (Kalman-filter)

Færdigheder:

Efter gennemførelse af kurset kan den succesfulde studerende:

 kunne analysere, dimensionere og implementere såvel kontinuert som tidsdiskret regulering af lineære tidsinvariante og stokastiske systemer

Kompetencer:

Efter gennemførelse af kurset kan den succesfulde studerende:

 anvende og implementere klassiske og moderne reguleringsteknikker for at kunne styre og regulere en robot hurtig og præcist

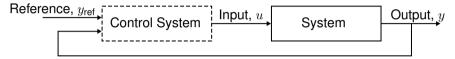
¹ Based on https://fagbesk.sam.sdu.dk/?fag_id=39673



The twelve lectures of the course are

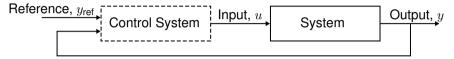
- ► Lecture 1: Introduction to Linear Time-Invariant Systems
- ► Lecture 2: Stability and Performance Analysis
- ► Lecture 3: Introduction to Control
- ► Lecture 4: Design of PID Controllers
- ► Lecture 5: Root Locus
- ► Lecture 6: The Nyquist Plot
- ► Lecture 7: Dynamic Compensators and Stability Margins
- ► Lecture 8: Implementation
- ► Lecture 9: State Feedback
- ► Lecture 10: Observer Design
- ► Lecture 11: Optimal Control (Linear Quadratic Control)
- ► Lecture 12: The Kalman Filter





- ▶ Control Input: Throttle position u
- Measured Output: Velocity of the car y
- ▶ Reference Input: Desired velocity of the car y_{ref}

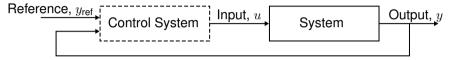




Today, answers to the following questions are provided:

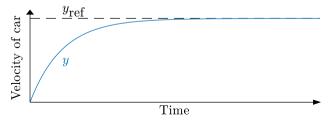
1. How should the control input u be designed such that a desired velocity $y_{\rm ref}$ is reached?



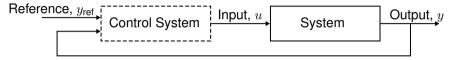


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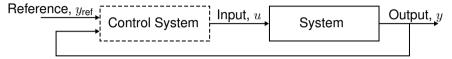




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- 1. How should the control input u be designed such that a desired velocity $y_{\rm ref}$ is reached?
- 2. Can y_{ref} be reached despite uncertainties in the system?





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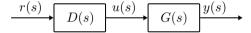
- 1. How should the control input u be designed such that a desired velocity $y_{\rm ref}$ is reached?
- 2. Can y_{ref} be reached despite uncertainties in the system?



Open Loop Control Example (1)



How should D(s) be chosen to ensure that the desired constant velocity r (in km/h) is reached?



Open Loop Control Example (1)



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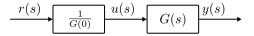
$$D(s) \qquad u(s) \qquad \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} 150 \\ 10s+1 \end{array}} y(s)$$

Consider an example where the step response of the system is given as follows, where u is the throttle position and y is the speed in km/h.

Open Loop Control Example (2)



A first approach to controlling the system could be to use $D(s)=\frac{1}{G(0)}$. Then the desired constant velocity r is reached.



Steady-State Value of Time Function Possible Final Values



- ► Unbounded.
- ▶ Undefined.
- ► Constant.



- ▶ **Unbounded**. If Y(s) has any poles in the open right half-plane.
- ► Undefined.
- Constant.



- ▶ **Unbounded**. If Y(s) has any poles in the open right half-plane.
- ▶ **Undefined**. If Y(s) has a pole pair on the imaginary axis.
- ► Constant.



- ▶ **Unbounded**. If Y(s) has any poles in the open right half-plane.
- ▶ **Undefined**. If Y(s) has a pole pair on the imaginary axis.
- ▶ Constant. If all poles of Y(s) are in the open left half-plane, except for one at s = 0.

Steady-State Value of Time Function The Final Value Theorem



If all poles of sY(s) are in the open left half of the s-plane, then

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} sY(s).$$

Steady-State Value of Time Function The Final Value Theorem



If all poles of sY(s) are in the open left half of the s-plane, then

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} sY(s).$$

The *Final Value Theorem* determines the constant value that the impulse response of a stable system converges to.



The Final Value Theorem can also by used to determine the DC gain of a system, i.e., the output when a step input is applied to the system.



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Recall that the impulse response of the transfer function 1/s is a constant (this is also seen from the Final Value Theorem).



The Final Value Theorem can also by used to determine the DC gain of a system, i.e., the output when a step input is applied to the system.

Recall that the impulse response of the transfer function 1/s is a constant (this is also seen from the Final Value Theorem). Thus, the DC gain of a system G(s) is

$$\lim_{s \to 0} sG(s) \frac{1}{s} = \lim_{s \to 0} G(s).$$

Open Loop Control Example (3)



Disturbances affect all systems; as an example, the inclination of the road changes.

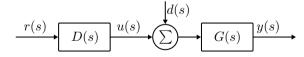




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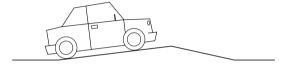


Block diagram of the system including a disturbance.





Disturbances affect all systems; as an example, the inclination of the road changes.



Block diagram of the system including a disturbance.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\hline
r(s) & U(s) \\
\hline
D(s) & U(s) \\
\hline
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\hline
G(s) & U(s) \\
\hline
\end{array}$$

The open loop control system, with $D(s) = \frac{1}{G(0)}$, only reaches the reference if d(s) = 0!

Feedback Control



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Feedback Control

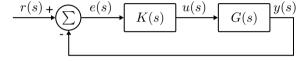
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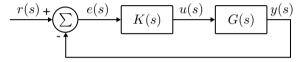


The connection of a controller K(s) and a system (also called plant) G(s) is called a closed-loop system.





The connection of a controller K(s) and a system (also called plant) G(s) is called a closed-loop system.



The closed-loop transfer function is derived in the following

$$\begin{cases} y(s) = G(s)u(s) \\ u(s) = K(s)(r(s) - y(s)) \end{cases}$$
$$y(s) = G(s)K(s)(r(s) - y(s))$$
$$(1 + G(s)K(s))y(s) = G(s)K(s)r(s)$$
$$\frac{y(s)}{r(s)} = \frac{G(s)K(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)}$$



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The closed loop system is stable when the closed-loop poles are in the open left half plane.

The *loop gain* is defined as L(s) = G(s)K(s). Then the closed-loop poles are given by

$$1 + L(s) = 0.$$



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The closed loop poles satisfy

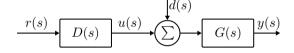
$$L(s) = -1$$

Disturbance Rejection

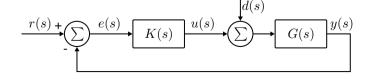


How does feedback affect the disturbance rejection properties of a control system?

Open loop control system



Closed loop control system



Disturbance Rejection



The output y(s) is given as a function of inputs d(s) and r(s) in the following.

Open loop control system

The output y(s) is given by

$$y(s) = G(s)d(s) + G(s)D(s)r(s)$$

Closed loop control system

The output y(s) is given by (superposition can be applied for deriving the expression)

$$y(s) = \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)}d(s) + \frac{G(s)K(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)}r(s)$$

Disturbance Rejection Example (1)



Consider the speed control of an engine, which is affected by an unknown load torque τ_l and has dynamics given by

$$J\dot{\omega} + b\omega = Au + A\tau_l$$

where J is the inertia, b is a viscous friction, u is the control torque, and A is a constant parameter.

Disturbance Rejection Example (1)



Consider the speed control of an engine, which is affected by an unknown load torque τ_l and has dynamics given by

$$J\dot{\omega} + b\omega = Au + A\tau_l$$

where J is the inertia, b is a viscous friction, u is the control torque, and A is a constant parameter.

The dynamics of the system can be written as

$$\omega(s) = \underbrace{\frac{A}{\tau s + 1}}_{=G(s)} u(s) + \frac{A}{\tau s + 1} \tau_l(s)$$

Disturbance Rejection Example (1)



Consider the speed control of an engine, which is affected by an unknown load torque τ_l and has dynamics given by

$$J\dot{\omega} + b\omega = Au + A\tau_{I}$$

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The dynamics of the system can be written as

$$\omega(s) = \underbrace{\frac{A}{\tau s + 1}}_{=G(s)} u(s) + \frac{A}{\tau s + 1} \tau_l(s)$$

Apply the feedback control K(s) ($u(s) = -K(s)\omega(s)$) then

$$\omega(s) = \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)} \tau_l(s)$$

Disturbance Rejection Example (2)



We aim to compare the steady state error of the open loop and closed loop system.

Disturbance Rejection Example (2)



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Example of system parameters

- ▶ **System**: DC gain of system is given by G(0) = 1.
- ▶ **Controller**: The controller is given by K(s) = 99.
- ▶ **Disturbance**: The controller is assumed to be a step of amplitude $w_0 = 1$.



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By the *final value theorem*, we compute the steady state value of open-loop and closed-loop systems.

Open-loop control

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} sG(s) \frac{w_0}{s} = 1$$

Closed-loop control

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)} \frac{w_0}{s} = \frac{1}{100}$$

Disturbance Rejection Example (2)



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Example of system parameters

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By the *final value theorem*, we compute the steady state value of open-loop and closed-loop systems.

Open-loop control

Closed-loop control

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} sG(s) \frac{w_0}{s} = 1 \qquad \qquad \lim_{t \to \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)} \frac{w_0}{s} = \frac{1}{100}$$

Conclusion: The sensitivity of the disturbance is reduced to 1/100 by feedback control.

Disturbance Rejection Influence of Measurement Noise

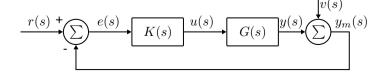


How does feedback affect the noise rejection properties of a control system?

Open loop control system

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
r(s) & u(s) \\
\hline
D(s) & g(s)
\end{array}$$

Closed loop control system



Disturbance Rejection Influence of Measurement Noise



The output $y_m(s)$ is given as a function of inputs v(s) and r(s) in the following.

Open loop control system

The measured output $y_m(s)$ is given by

$$y_m(s) = G(s)D(s)r(s) + v(s)$$

Closed loop control system

The output $y_m(s)$ is given by (superposition can be applied for deriving the expression)

$$y_m(s) = \frac{1}{1 + G(s)K(s)}v(s) + \frac{G(s)K(s)}{1 + G(s)K(s)}r(s)$$



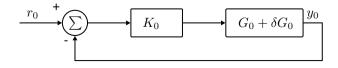
How does feedback affect the steady state gain when the DC gain of the plant changes?

Open loop control system

$$\begin{array}{c}
r_0 \\
\hline
D_0
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
G_0 + \delta G_0
\end{array}$$

Closed loop control system



Sensitivity Analysis Sensitivity to Change in DC-Gain



The output y_0 is given as a function of inputs r_0 and $G_0 + \delta G_0$, where $G_0 = G(s)$ for s = 0.

Open loop control system

The output y_0 is given by

$$y_0 = (G_0 + \delta G_0)D_0r_0 = (G_0D_0 + \delta G_0D_0)r_0 = (T_{\text{ol}} + \delta T_{\text{ol}})r_0$$

The ration of $\delta T_{\text{ol}}/T_{\text{ol}}$ to $\delta G_0/G_0$ is the **sensitivity**, S. For the open-loop system S=1.

Closed loop control system

The output y_0 is given by

$$y_0 = \frac{(G_0 + \delta G_0)K_0}{1 + (G_0 + \delta G_0)K_0}r_0$$

The sensitivity of the closed-loop system is $1/(1+G_0K_0)$.

Linearization Principle



Consider a nonlinear *n*th order differential equation

$$z^{(n)} = f(z, \dots, z^{(n-1)}, u)$$



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To approximate the differential equation in the neighborhood of a point $p=(\bar{z},\ldots,\bar{z}^{(n-1)},\bar{u})$, first-order Taylor approximation is applied

$$z^{(n)} \approx f(\bar{z}, \dots, \bar{z}^{(n-1)}, \bar{u}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}|_{p}\hat{z} + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z^{(n-1)}}|_{p}\hat{z}^{(n-1)} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}|_{p}\hat{u}$$

where $\hat{z}=z-\bar{z}$ and all partial derivatives are evaluated at the point $p=(\bar{z},\ldots,\bar{z}^{(n-1)},\bar{u})$.



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where $\hat{z}=z-\bar{z}$ and all partial derivatives are evaluated at the point $p=(\bar{z},\ldots,\bar{z}^{(n-1)},\bar{u})$.

The approximation is **linear** in $\hat{z}^{(i)}$.

Linearization Linearized model



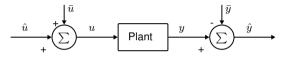
The transfer function from \hat{u} to \hat{y} of the linearized model is linear.



Linearization



The transfer function from \hat{u} to \hat{y} of the linearized model is linear.



To transform the linearized model into state space form, it is seen that

$$\hat{z}^{(n)} \approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}|_{p}\hat{z} + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z^{(n-1)}}|_{p}\hat{z}^{(n-1)} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}|_{p}\hat{u}$$

is on the standard form

$$z^{(n)} - a_{n-1}z^{(n-1)} - \dots - a_1\dot{z} - a_0z = b_1u_1(t) + \dots + b_mu_m(t)$$

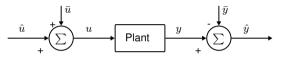
with

$$a_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z^{(i)}}|_p$$
 and $b_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i}|_p$

Linearization



The transfer function from \hat{u} to \hat{y} of the linearized model is linear.



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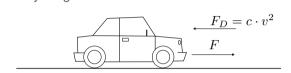
$$a_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x(i)}|_p$$
 and $b_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}|_p$

Then the following procedure from Lecture 1 can be followed, by defining the state variables x_i according to $x_1 = \hat{z}, x_2 = \hat{z}^{(1)}, \dots, x_n = \hat{z}^{(n-1)}$.

Linearization Example (1)



Consider a car affected by drag.



The dynamics of the system is

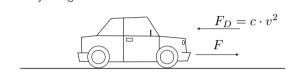
$$m\dot{v} = F - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}\rho C_D A}_{=c} v^2$$

where ρ is the air density [kg/m³], A is the projected area [m²], and C_D is the drag coefficient.

Linearization Example (1)



Consider a car affected by drag.



The dynamics of the system is

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where ρ is the air density [kg/m³], A is the projected area [m²], and C_D is the drag coefficient.

Objective: Design a controller that lets the vehicle drive at 25 m/s.

Steady State Tracking



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Steady State Tracking Definition of System Type

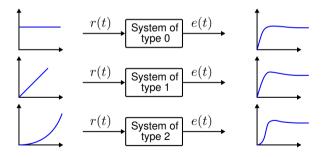


Stable systems can be classified according to its **system type**, defined to be the degree of the polynomial for which the steady-state error is a nonzero finite constant.

Steady State Tracking Definition of System Type



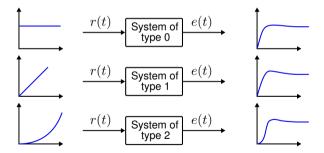
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Steady State Tracking Definition of System Type



Stable systems can be classified according to its **system type**, defined to be the degree of the polynomial for which the steady-state error is a nonzero finite constant.



The *final value theorem* can be used to determine the system type.



An expression for the tracing error is computed to determine the steady-state error

$$e(s) = \frac{1}{1 + L(s)}r(s)$$

where r(s) is the reference signal and L(s) is the loop gain.

Steady State Tracking Computation of Steady State Error (1)



An expression for the tracing error is computed to determine the steady-state error

$$e(s) = \frac{1}{1 + L(s)}r(s)$$

where r(s) is the reference signal and L(s) is the loop gain.

Final value theorem is used to determine the steady state error when the reference signal is a polynomial $r(t)=t^k\mathbf{1}(t)$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{t \to \infty} e(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} e(s)s$$
$$= \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{1}{1 + L(s)} r(s)$$
$$= \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{1}{1 + L(s)} \frac{1}{s^{k+1}}$$

Steady State Tracking Computation of Steady State Error (2)



The expression for the steady state error e_{ss} is simplified by rewriting the loop gain as

$$L(s) = \frac{L_0(s)}{s^n}$$

where n is the number of poles at the origin of L(s).

Steady State Tracking Computation of Steady State Error (2)



The expression for the steady state error e_{ss} is simplified by rewriting the loop gain as

$$L(s) = \frac{L_0(s)}{s^n}$$

where n is the number of poles at the origin of L(s).

The steady state error is then given by

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{1}{1 + \frac{L_0(s)}{s^n}} \frac{1}{s^{k+1}}$$
$$= \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{s^n}{s^n + K_n} \frac{1}{s^{k+1}}$$

where $K_n = L_0(0)$.



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$$= \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{s^n}{s^n + K_n} \frac{1}{s^{k+1}}$$

where $K_n = L_0(0)$.

From the above expression it is seen that the system type of a system is equal to the number of poles at the origin of the system's loop gain L(s).

Steady State Tracking



		Input	
Type	Step (Position)	Ramp (Velocity)	Parabola (Acceleration)
Type 0	$\frac{1}{1+K_p}$	∞	∞
Type 1	0	$\frac{1}{K_{m}}$	∞
Type 2	0	0	$\frac{1}{K_a}$

Steady State Tracking Example



Consider the system

$$G(s) = \frac{k}{\tau s + 1}$$

controlled by the PI controller

$$K(s) = k_p + \frac{k_I}{s}$$

Steady State Tracking Example



Consider the system

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The controlled system has loop gain

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The loop gain has one pole at the origin, i.e., the system type is one. The steady state error for ramp input is given by the velocity constant

$$K_v = \lim_{s \to 0} L_0(s) = \lim_{s \to 0} sL(s) = k \cdot k_I$$



Introduction
Course Overview
Motivation

Open Loop Control

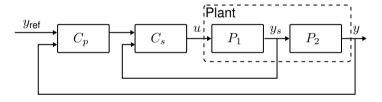
Feedback Control
Stability
Disturbance Rejection
Sensitivity Analysis
Linearization

Steady State Tracking

Cascade Control

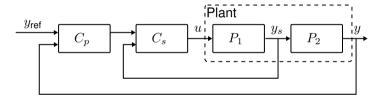


A **cascade control** uses the output from one controller as the input to another.





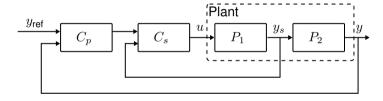
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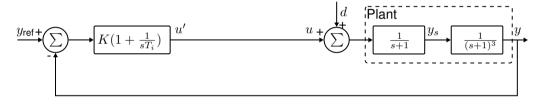
The nested control loops are called the *inner loop* (or secondary loop) and the *outer loop* (or primary loop).

A fundamental reason for applying cascade control is to obtain *better disturbance rejection* and *lower sensitivity to parameter variations*.

Cascade Control Example of Disturbance Rejection (1)



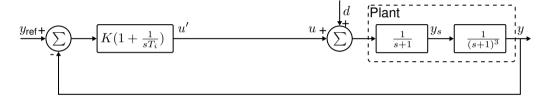
Single loop control

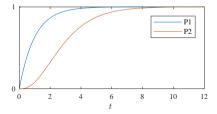


Cascade Control Example of Disturbance Rejection (1)



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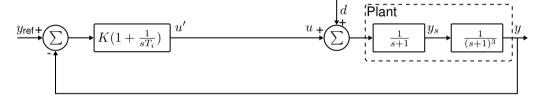




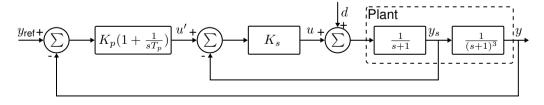
Example of Disturbance Rejection (1)



Single loop control



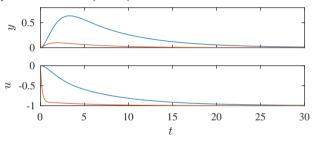
Cascade control



Cascade Control Example of Disturbance Rejection (2)



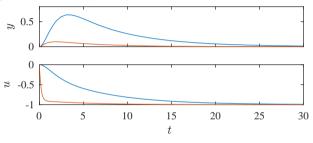
Response for step disturbance (d = 1)



Example of Disturbance Rejection (2)



Response for step disturbance (d = 1)



Single loop control

$$y(s) = P_2(s)P_1(s)d(s) + P_2(s)P_1(s)u'(s)$$

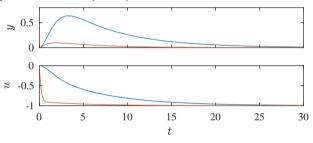
Cascade control

$$y(s) = \frac{P_2(s)P_1(s)}{1 + P_1(s)C_s(s)}d(s) + \frac{P_2(s)P_1(s)C_s(s)}{1 + P_1(s)C_s(s)}u'(s)$$

Example of Disturbance Rejection (2)



Response for step disturbance (d = 1)



Single loop control

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Cascade control

$$y(s) = \underbrace{\frac{P_2(s)P_1(s)}{1 + P_1(s)C_s(s)}}_{\text{Small for large } C_s} d(s) + \underbrace{\frac{P_2(s)P_1(s)C_s(s)}{1 + P_1(s)C_s(s)}}_{\approx P_2 \text{ for large } C_s} u'(s)$$



Cascade control can be used when

- ► There should be a well defined relation between the primary and secondary measured variable
- Essential disturbances should act in the inner loop
- ► The inner loop should be faster than the outer loop. A rule of thumb is that the average residence times should have a ratio of at least five.
- ▶ should be possible to have a high gain in the inner loop.



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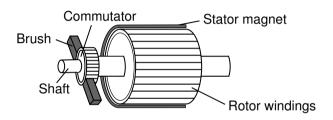
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The following procedure should be followed to tune a cascade control

- 1. Tune inner-loop controller (C_s) such that the transfer function from u' to y_s is critically damped or over damped (unity DC gain is not a requirement).
- 2. Tune the outer-loop controller (C_p) such that the desired performance is obtained.

Cascade Control DC Motor Model





Cascade Control DC Motor Dynamik



En børstet DC motors kraftmoment τ_m har størrelsen

$$\tau_m(t) = KI_a(t)$$
 [Nm]

hvor K er den mekaniske motorkonstant [Nm/A] og I_a er ankerstrømmen [A].

Den elektromotoriske kraft e for en børstet DC motor er

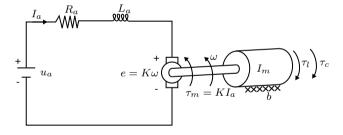
$$e(t) = K\omega(t)$$
 [V]

hvor K er den elektriske motorkonstant [V/(rad/s)] og ω er motorens vinkelhastighed [rad/s].

Permanent magnet børstet DC motor Egenskaber



Nu haves udtryk for motorens kraftmoment og spændingen over motoren (givet af den elektromotoriske kraft). Dermed kan følgende diagram anvendes til bestemmelse af motorens dynamik.



Cascade Control Exercise: Motor Control



In the exercise, we consider the following cascade control of a DC motor.

