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Autonomous Robotic Systems

PID Control

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Last week...

- Background
 - The behaviour based approach revisited
 - Behaviour arbitration
- Subsumption architecture
 - Brooks' assumptions about mobile robot design
 - levels of competence
 - layers of control
 - structure of layers
 - extensions; finite state machines
- Sensors
 - Sensor Characteristics
 - Sensor Types and categories
- Actuators
 - Effectors and actuators
 - DC motors and Servo Motors
 - DC motors – how they work
 - Degrees of Freedom

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This week...

- Control
 - The problem
 - Open-Loop Control
- PID Control
 - PID principles
 - PID parameter effects
 - PID tuning
 - Live example – PID DC motor control
 - PID implementation
- Video - The Grand Challenge



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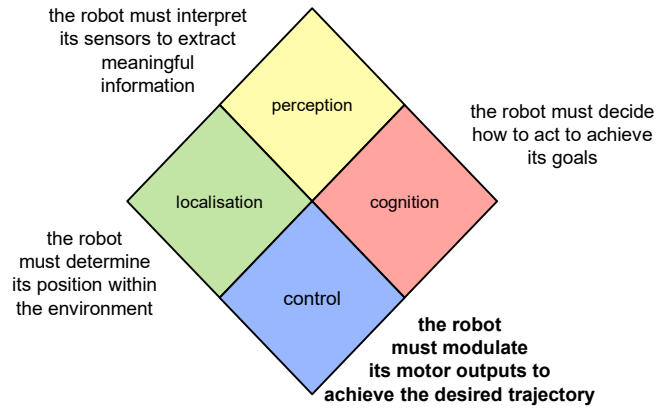
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Autonomous Mobile Robots - Navigation



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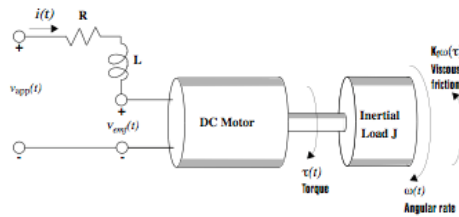
The Problem

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DC Motor

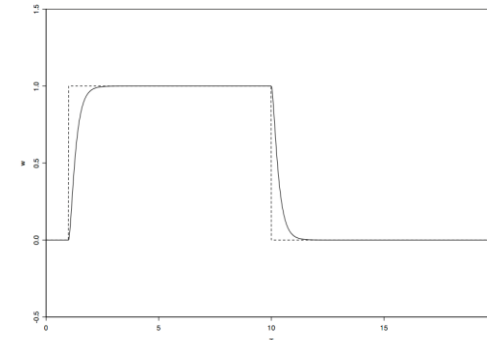
Input: voltage $v_{app}(t)$ Maintain desired Output: angular velocity $\omega(t)$

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Open-Loop Control

 $v_{app}(t) = 26.681V$  $\omega(t)$ reaches approx. 1 rotation per second

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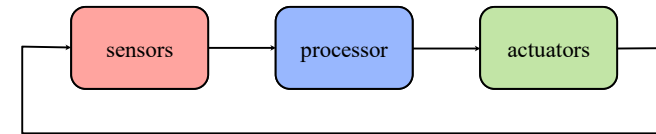
Proportional Integral Derivative Control

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The Sense-Think-Act Cycle



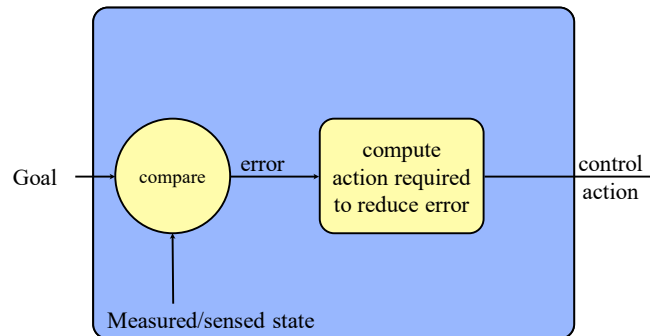
- Repeat
 - sense the current state
 - reduce difference between current state and goal state
- Until
 - current state = goal state

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The Sense-Think-Act Cycle



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Compute the Control Action

- Present
 - the current error
 - *proportional*
- Past
 - the sum of errors up to present time
 - *integral*
- Future
 - the rate of change of the error
 - *derivative*

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PID Control

- A proportional-integral-derivative controller (PID controller) simply combines these three terms in a **weighted** sum to obtain the control action
- The origins of PID control go back to research on automating and optimizing ship steering by N. Minorsky in the early 1900s. If you are interested, see: "Nicolas Minorsky and the Automatic Steering of Ships" by S. Bennett (<http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/xpl/articleDetails.jsp?arnumber=1104827>)

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

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Appropriate Parameters

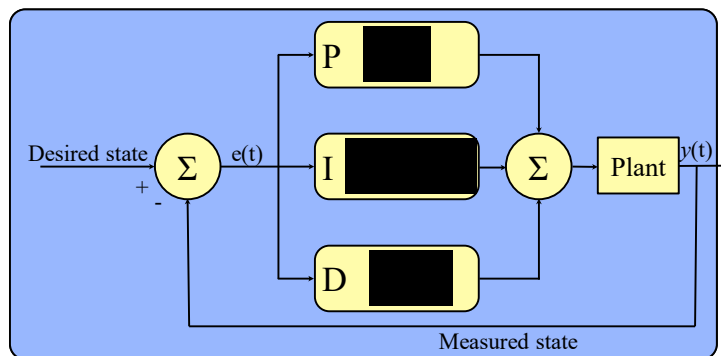
- Some applications may not require the use of all three terms
 - appropriate parameters can be set to zero in order to remove unused terms
- PI, PD, P or I controllers
 - PI particularly common since
 - the integral term is required in order to remove steady-state error
 - the derivative term is very sensitive to measurement noise (example?)

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PID Block Diagram



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PID Parameters and their Effects

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Proportional Term

$$P_{\text{out}}(t) = K_p e(t)$$

- A high proportional gain results in a large change in the output for a given error
 - if the proportional gain is too high, the system can become unstable
 - if the proportional gain is too low, the system will be very slow responding to changes
- Proportional term is often the dominant one
 - but pure proportional control will not settle at setpoint

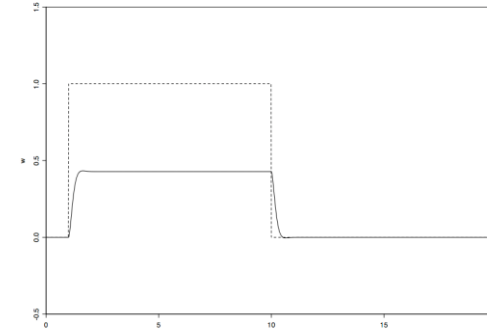
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P Control

P = 20



P small: note the steady state error

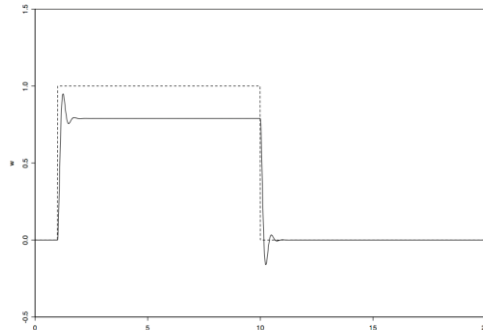
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P Control

P = 100



P increases: the steady state error persists, and oscillations appear

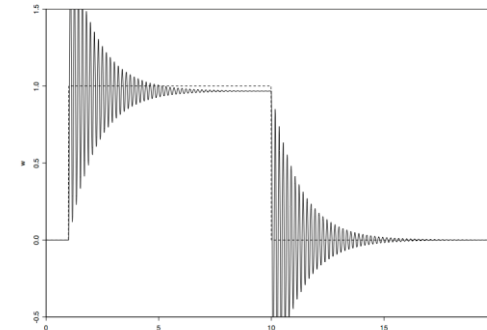
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P Control

P = 800



P increases: oscillations becoming dominant

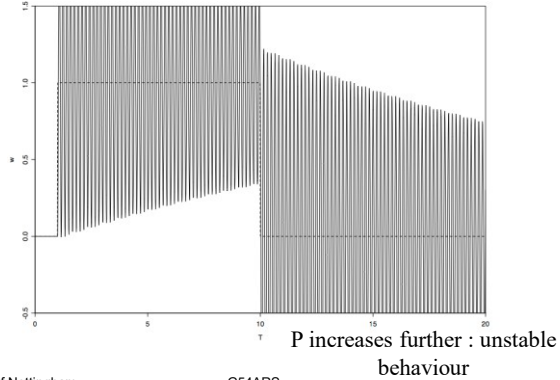
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P Control

P = 900



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Integral Term

$$I_{\text{out}}(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$$

- Contribution is proportional to both the **magnitude** and the **duration** of the error
 - sum of the instantaneous error over time
- Integral term accelerates the process towards setpoint and eliminates steady-state error
 - but easily causes overshoot (the actual value crosses over the setpoint and creates an error in the opposite direction)

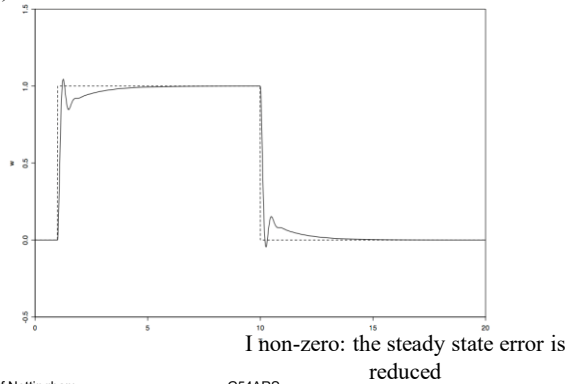
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PI Control

P = 100, I = 100



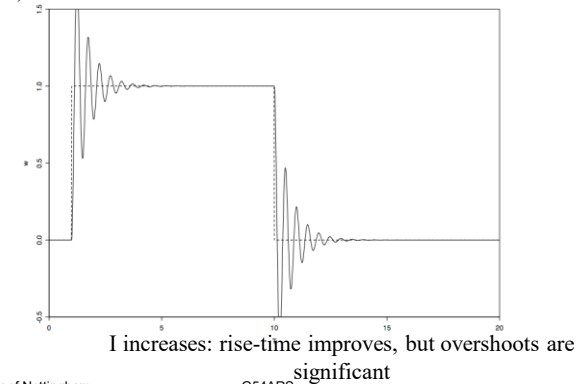
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PI Control

P = 100, I = 1000



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Derivative Term

$$D_{out}(t) = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

- Contribution is proportional to the rate of change of the error over time
 - first derivative of the instantaneous error
- Used to slow the rate of change of the error
 - effect is most noticeable near to the setpoint
- Helps reduce overshoot caused by integral term
- Differentiation amplifies signal noise and so derivative can cause instability with noise

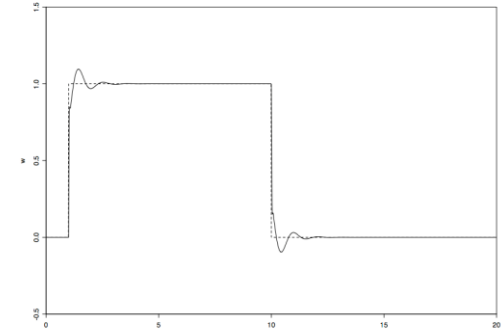
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PID Control

P = 100, I = 1000, D=20



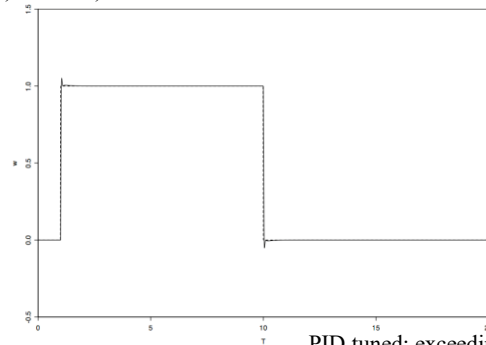
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PID Control

P = 300, I = 1000, D=20



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PID Summary

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

- Proportional gain: K_p
 - $\uparrow K_p \Rightarrow$ faster response \rightarrow instability
- Integral gain: K_i
 - $\uparrow K_i \Rightarrow$ elimination of steady state error \rightarrow overshoot
- Derivative gain: K_d
 - $\uparrow K_d \Rightarrow$ decreases overshoot, slows transient response
 - \rightarrow instability (particularly under noise)

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PID Tuning

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Parameter Tuning

- If PID parameters are chosen incorrectly
 - the process may be unstable
 - its output may diverge, with/without oscillation
- The parameters (i.e. weights) must be adjusted to achieve the desired behaviour for a given application
 - PID parameter tuning
- The optimum behaviour is application dependent
 - rise-time must be less than a specified time
 - overshoot may not be allowed (e.g., engines)
 - minimise the energy required to reach setpoint
 - oscillations may not be permitted

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Effects of *Increasing* Parameters

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Rise-time</i>	<i>Overshoot</i>	<i>Settling time</i>	<i>Steady-state error</i>
K_p	decrease	increase	small change	decrease
K_i	decrease	increase	increase	eliminate
K_d	small change	decrease	decrease	none

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Tuning Methods

- Manual heuristic method
 - set I and D to zero
 - increase P until the output oscillates
 - set P to about half the critical oscillating value
 - increase I until the steady-state error is eliminated in an appropriate amount of time for the application
 - increase D until overshoot is reduced to acceptable level
- Automated (software) tuning
 - repeat
 - automatically induce setpoint changes
 - analyse the process characteristics
 - automatically adjust parameters
 - until acceptable

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Other methods, e.g.: Ziegler-Nichols Method

- Set I and D to zero
 - increase P until it reaches the critical gain, K_c , at which output oscillates
 - note the oscillation period, P_c

	$0.5 K_c$	-	-
	$0.45 K_c$	$1.2 K_p / P_c$	-
	$0.6 K_c$	$2 K_p / P_c$	$K_p P_c / 8$

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PID Implementation

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Live Example: PID control for a DC Motor

- Example in Matlab / SimuLink
 - The example is available here:
http://www.mathworks.co.uk/matlabcentral/fileexchange/26275-pid-controller-design-for-a-dc-motor?s_iid=ovp_custom1_1363833138001-68881_rr
 - The provided model allows you to adjust the PID controller and see the effect of the changes to the parameters in terms of response time and overshoot.
 - Note the drastic increase in rapid voltage variation arising from tuning for rapid response – such variation will decrease the life-time of the DC motor.
 - → PID tuning is often not *only* about the output

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PID Control – Implementation Notes

- Continuous form of PID:

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

- In digital implementations, we want a discrete form over the last k iterations, where Δt is the sampling time (i.e. time between iterations):

$$C(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \sum_{i=1}^k e(t_i) \Delta t + K_d \frac{e(t_k) - e(t_{k-1})}{\Delta t}$$

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PID Pseudo-Code

```
previous_error = setpoint - measured_feedback;
Integral = 0;
while(true)
{
    wait(dt);
    error = setpoint - measured_feedback;
    integral = integral + error * dt;
    derivative = (error - previous_error) / dt;
    previous_error = error;
    output = Kp * error +
            Ki * integral +
            Kd * derivative;
}
```

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Applications of PID

Examples?

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The Grand Challenge



Source: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:DesertToCity.jpg>

- See here:
 - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DARPA_Grand_Challenge

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Summary

- Summary of this lecture
 - Control
 - The problem
 - Open-Loop Control
 - PID Control
 - PID principles
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