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Control systems

KON-C2004 Mechatronics Basics

Raine Viitala 5.11.2024

Lecture topics & learning outcomes

System modeling and response

- Know what system modelling is and analyse responses in simple cases

Open & closed loop control

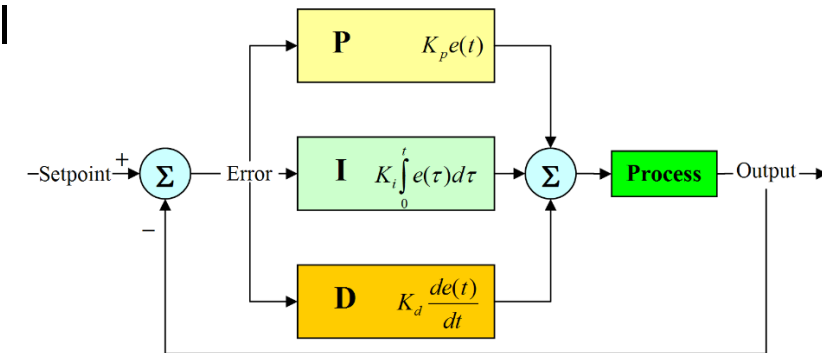
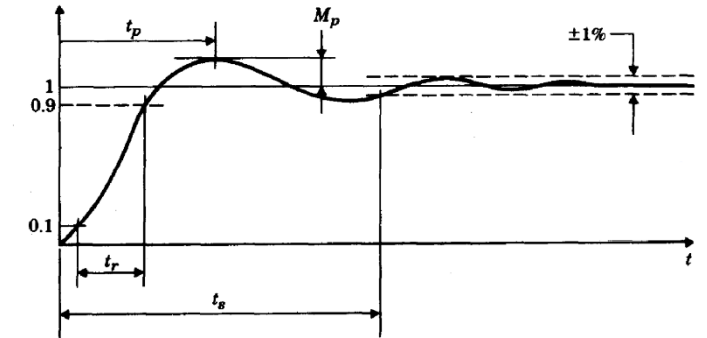
- Understand the difference between open and closed loop control

PID controller

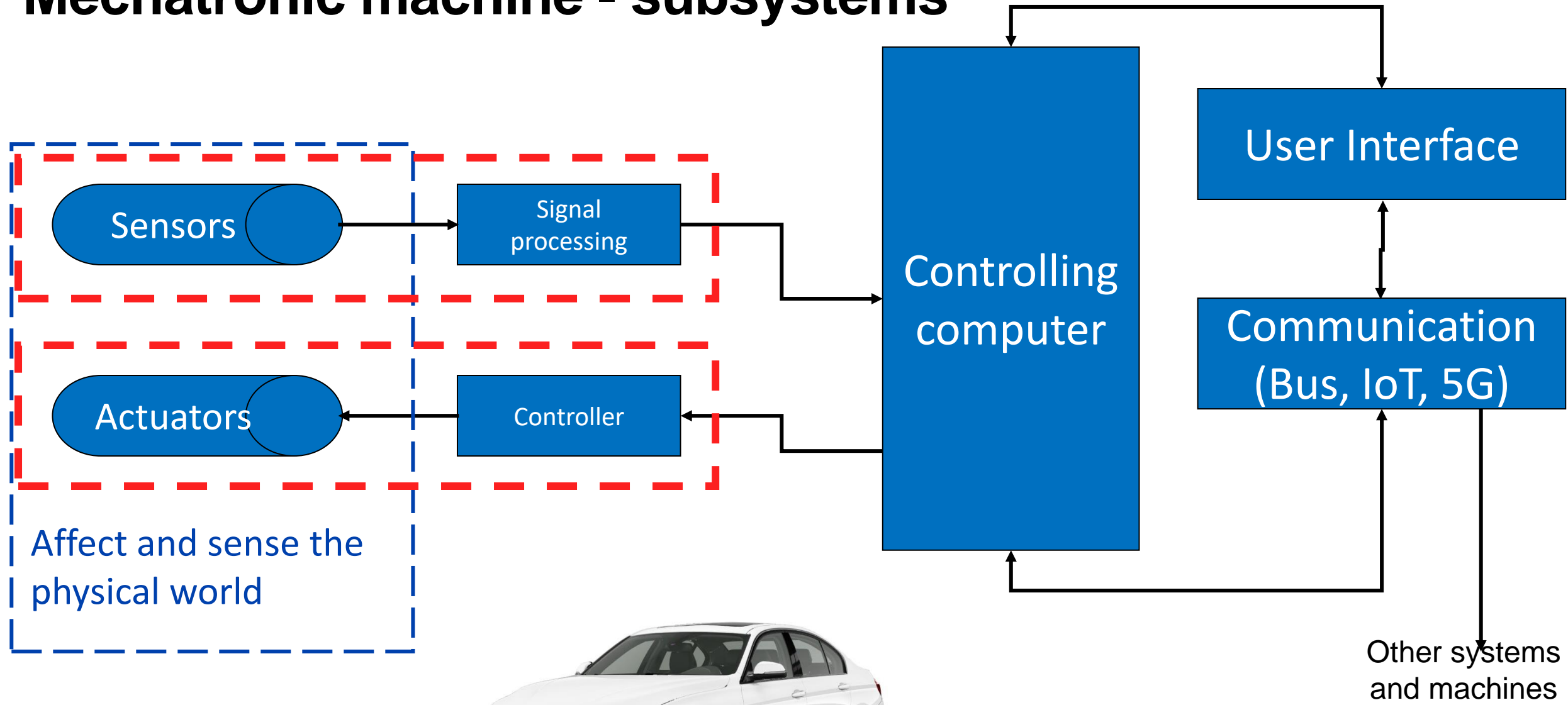
- Understand and trial and error tune PID controller

Servo motors

- Know what servo motor is



Mechatronic machine - subsystems



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Example



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Triple inverted pendulum

No actuators in rotational joints, only angle measurement



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Triple Pendulum on a Cart

Swing-up and Swing-down

Two-degrees-of-freedom design:

Constrained feedforward & optimal feedback control

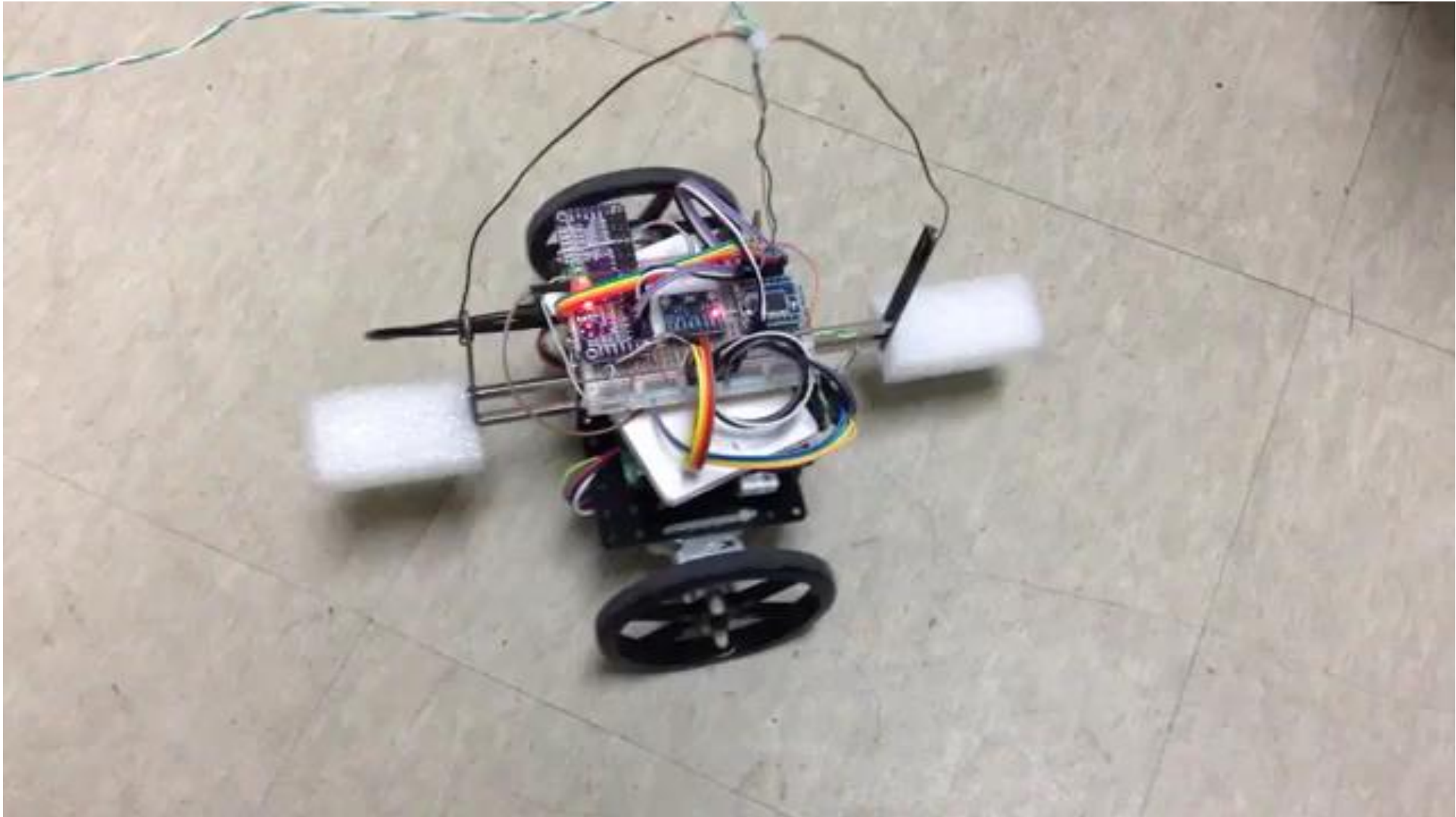
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Unstable controller



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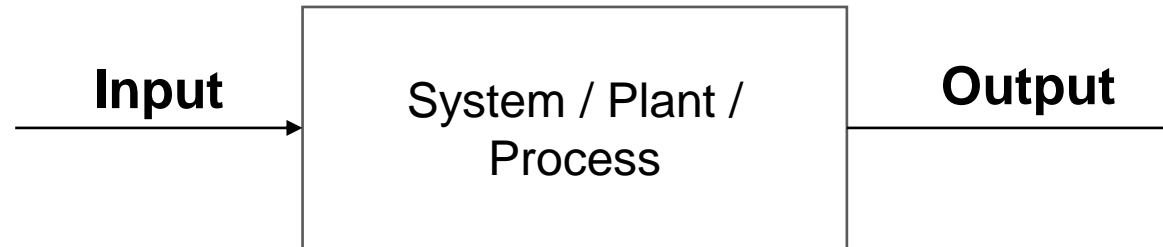
Unstable controller 2



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System response

System



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Mathematical models of systems

Zero order
=time independent

$$Ax_{out} = Bx_{in}$$

$$U = 1.45x \quad \text{Ideal sensor}$$

First order

$$A_1 \frac{dx_{out}}{dt} + A_0 x_{out} = B_0 x_{in}$$

$$C \frac{dV}{dt} + \frac{V}{R} = 0 \quad \text{RC-circuit}$$

Second order

$$A \frac{d^2 x_{out}}{dt^2} + B \frac{dx_{out}}{dt} + x_{out} = C x_{in}$$

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + b \frac{dx}{dt} + kx = F$$

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First order system: DC motor in terms of angular velocity

Laplace analysis to solve differential equations in analytical form

Electrical in time domain

$$U = L_A \frac{dI}{dt} + R_A I + K_E \omega$$

Mechanical in time domain

$$T = K_T I = (J_R + J_L) \frac{d\omega}{dt} + D\omega + T_f + T_L$$

Laplace transformation to Laplace domain

$$V(s) = LsI + RI + K_e \omega$$

$$K_t I(s) = Js\omega + D\omega$$

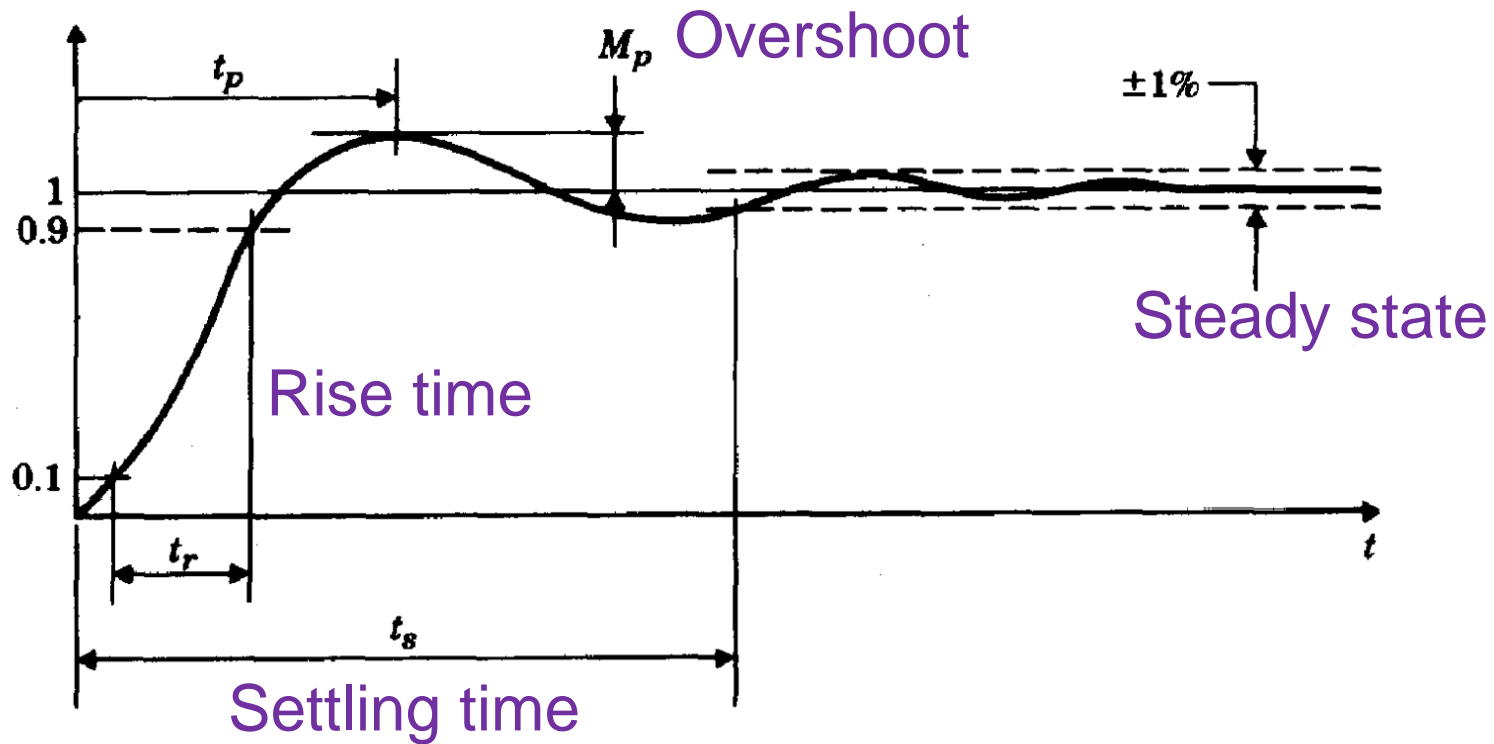
Transfer function

$$\frac{\omega(s)}{V(s)} = \frac{K_t}{(Js + D)(Ls + R) + K_t K_e} = \frac{K_t}{Js^2 + (RJ + DL)s + DR + K_t K_e}$$

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Step response of a system

This is what we put in



Parameters

Time constant τ – Represents 0-63 % rise time

Damping ratio ζ

- Damping ratio for underdamped < 1 , critically damped $= 1$, overdamped > 1
- Unstable when negative

Natural frequency ω_0

- Frequency at which system oscillates without driving or damping force
- Resonance happens when external force excites the system at natural frequency
 - At natural frequency, the energy transfer to the excited system is at its maximum

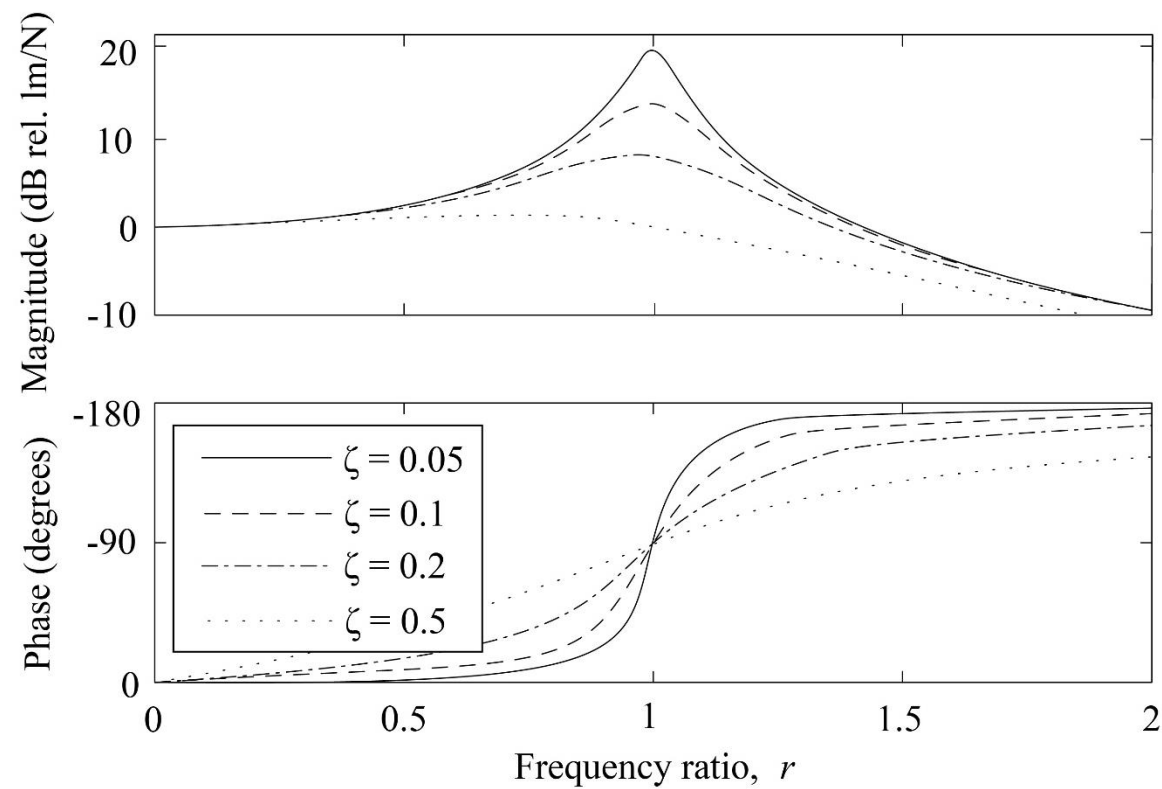
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Resonance



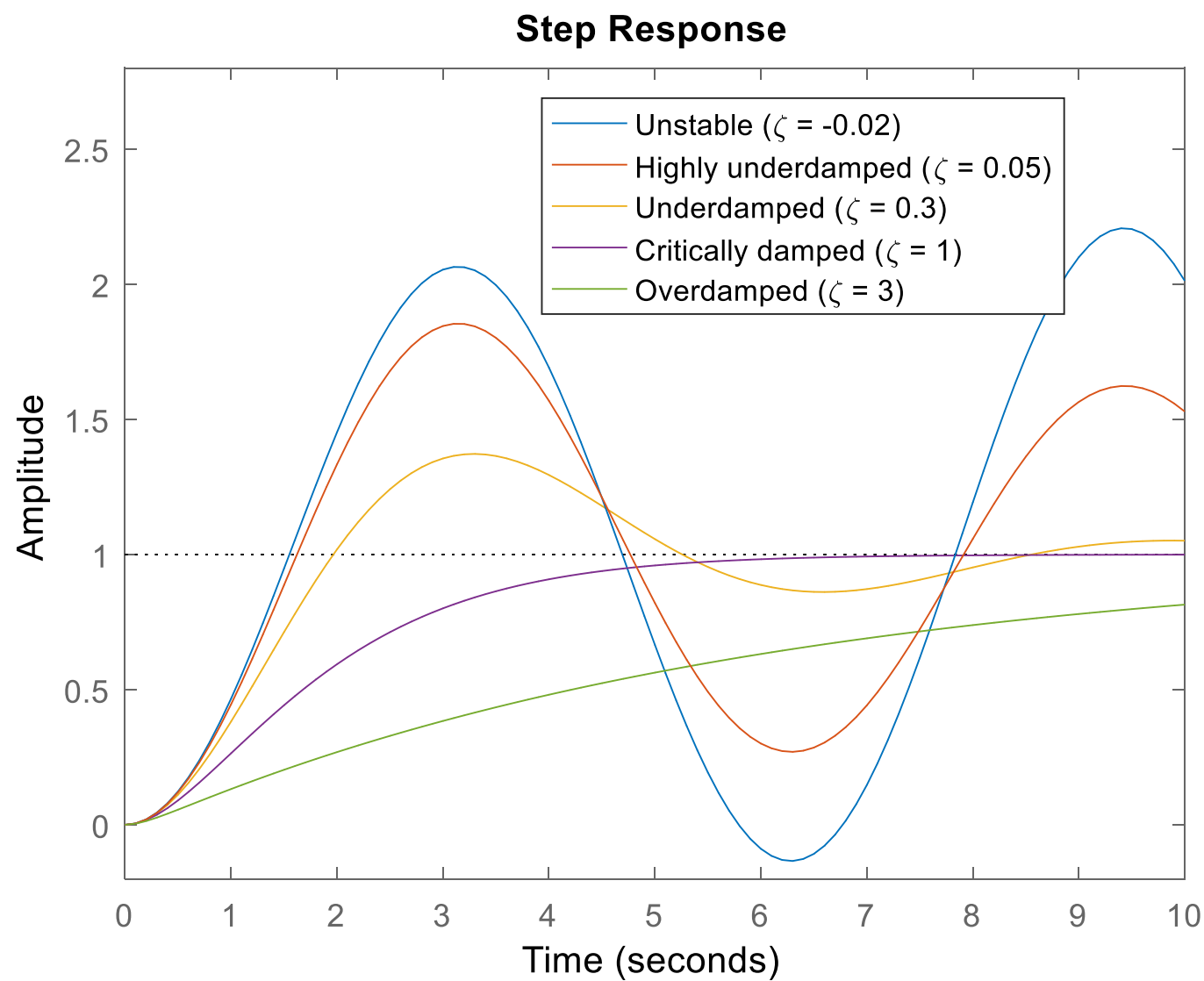
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Resonance 2



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System damping



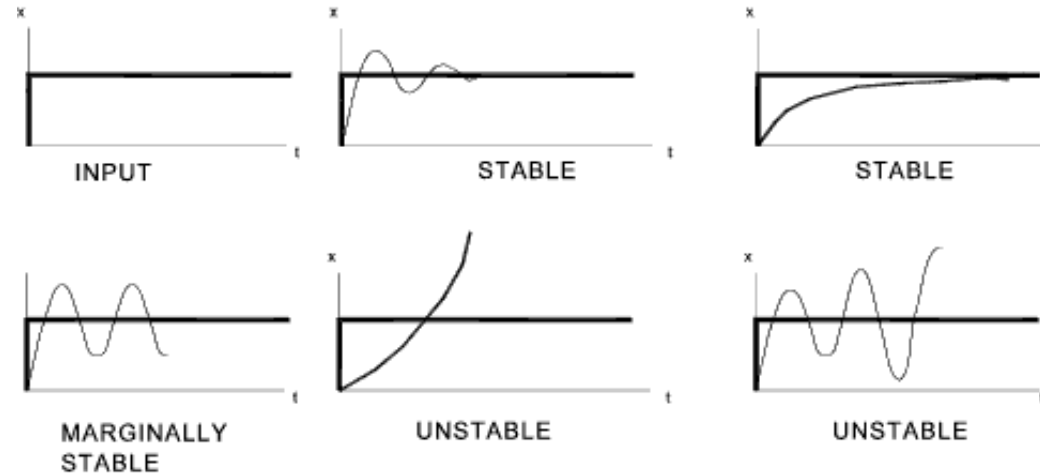
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Stability

System is stable when bounded input always causes a bounded output

Problems are caused by

- Inherently unstable systems
- Unstable controller
- Delay in control loop
- Too high control gains
- Positive feedback



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Control systems

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Requirements for a control system

The output of the process follows the desired value with some

- Steady state accuracy
- Transient accuracy
 - Time constant, overshoot
- Stability

And the controller requires reasonable

- Computational effort
- Amount of knowledge of the process
- Effort to tune

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Open loop control

Controlling the p

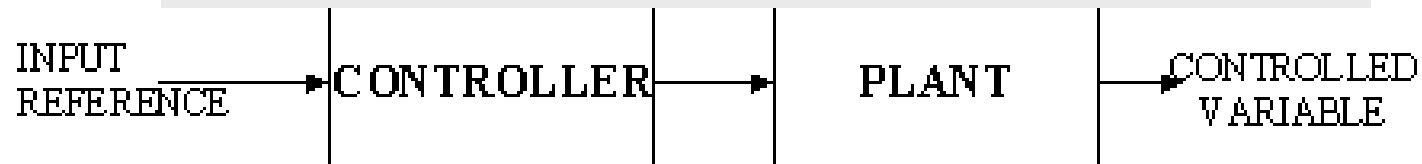
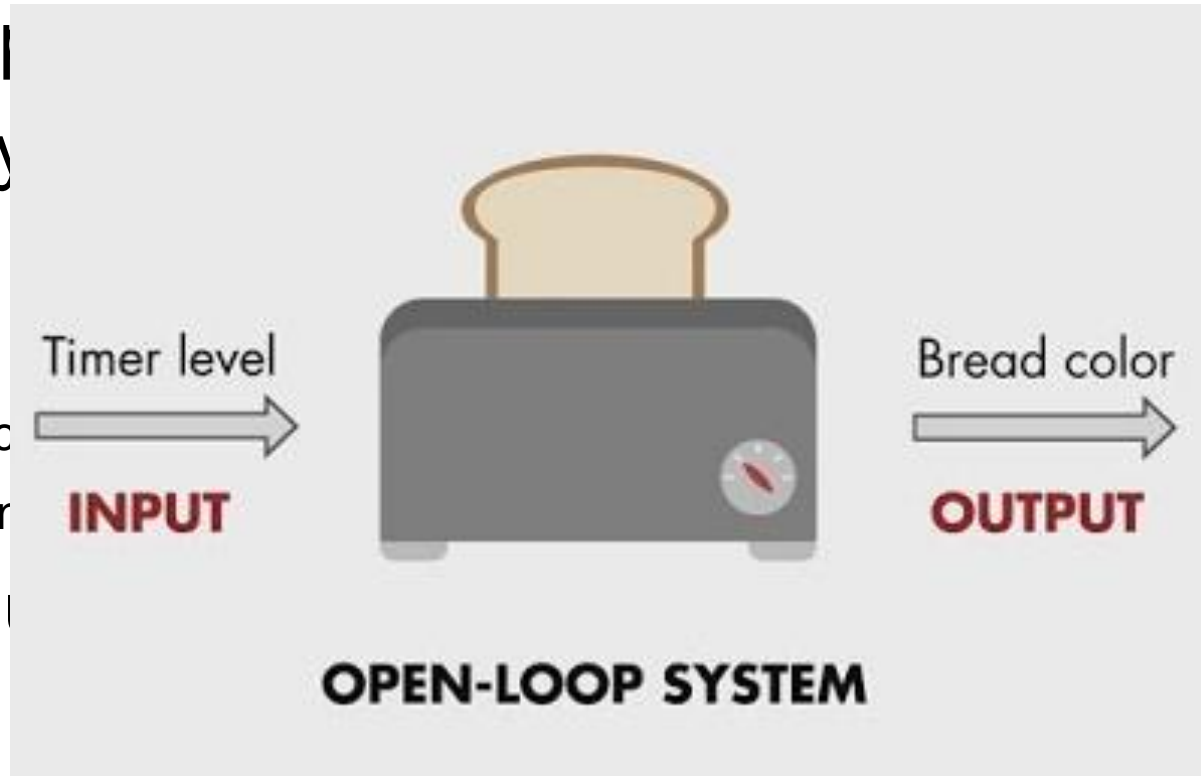
Controller always

Does not reject

- External forces
- Aging of devices (c
- Changes in environ

No sensors req

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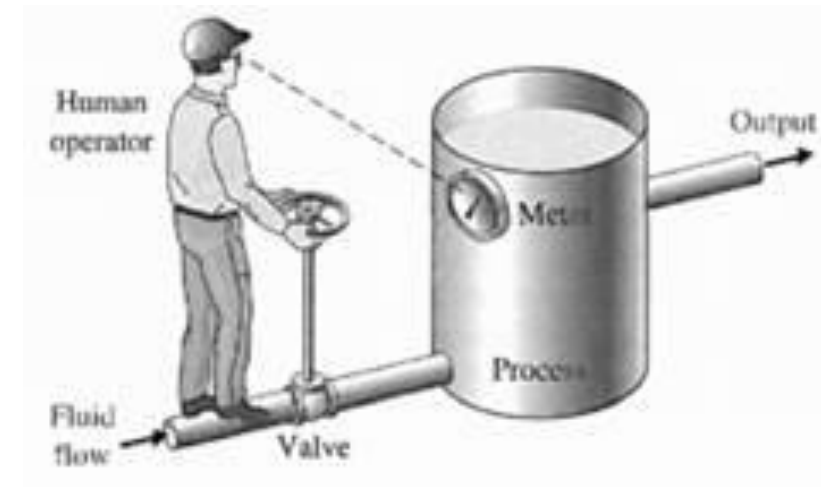
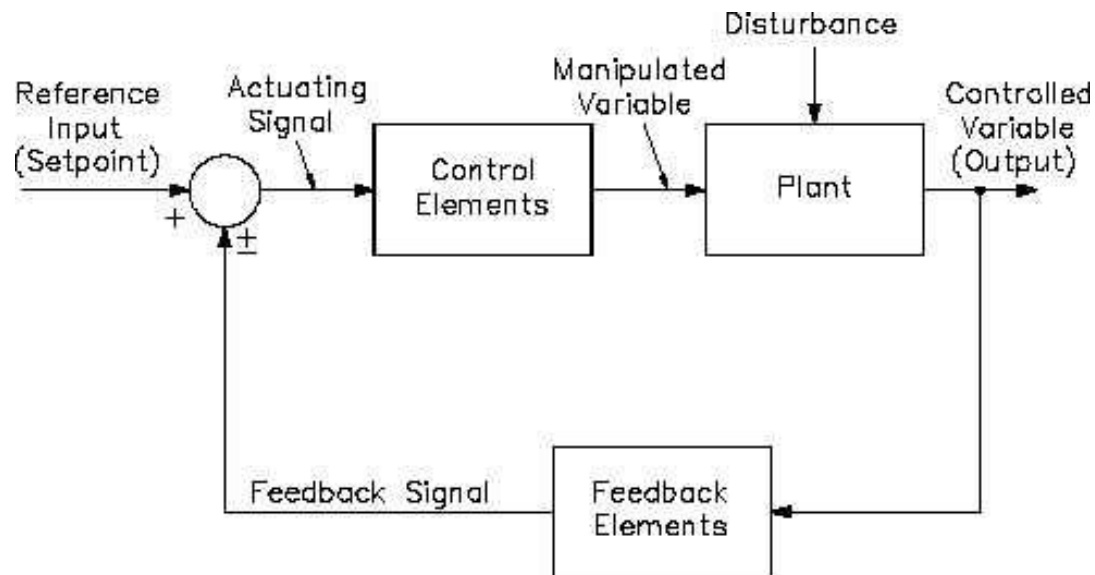


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Closed loop (feedback) control

Modifying the control signal using information of the current output of the process

Negative feedback stabilizes system

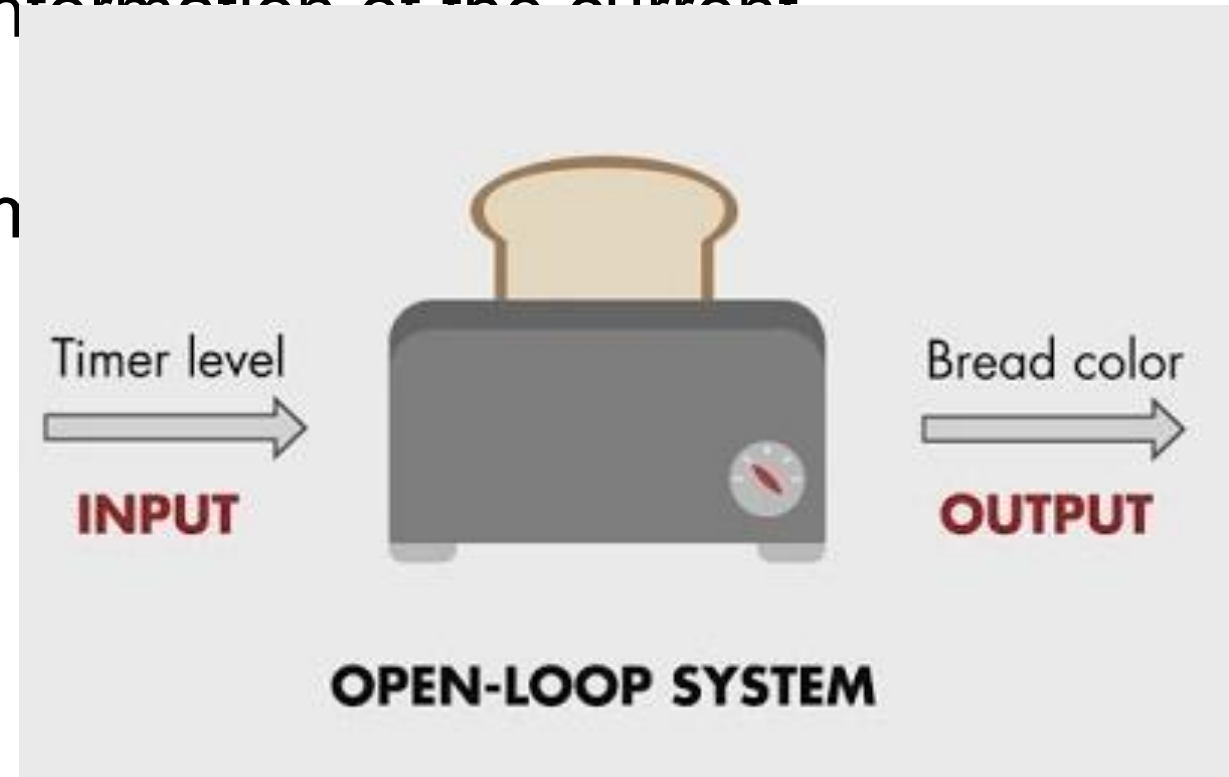
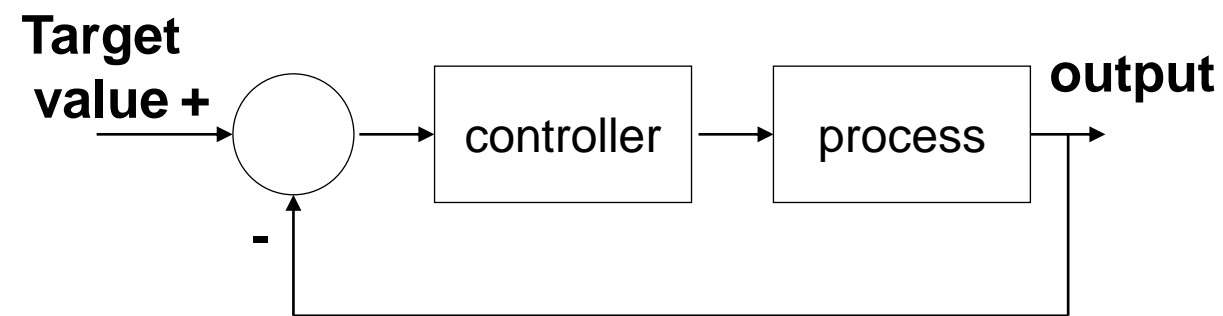


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Closed loop (feedback) control

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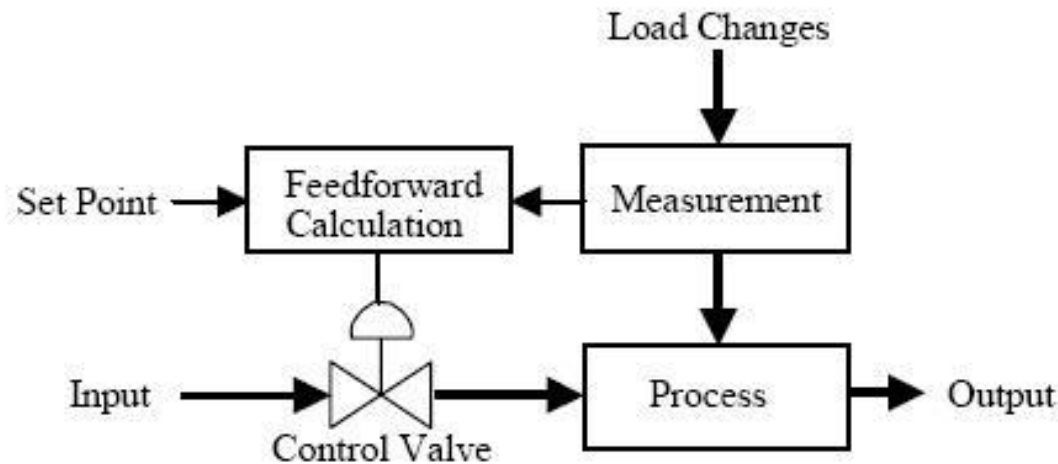
How to make this closed loop??

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Feed forward control

Modifying the control signal according to some external parameters

- Power steering in a car – speed affects in addition the the position



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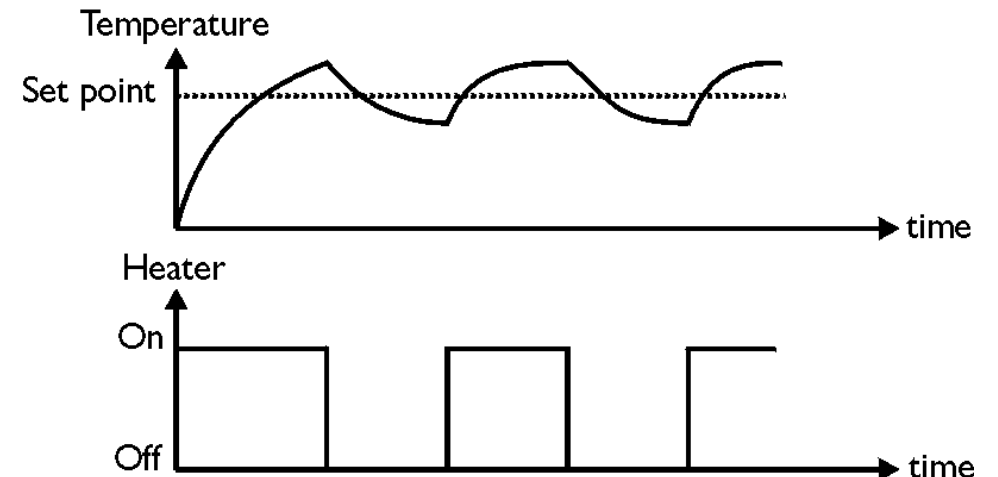
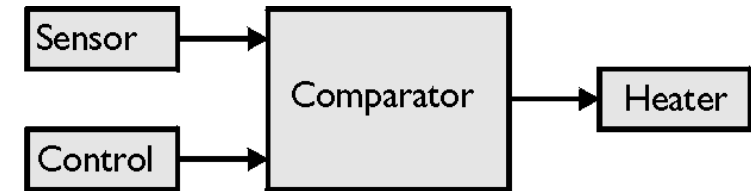
Bang bang controller

Actuator at full positive or negative power

Very simple and often fastest possible response

In some cases requires a system model for accuracy

Requires hysteresis to limit switching



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PID controller

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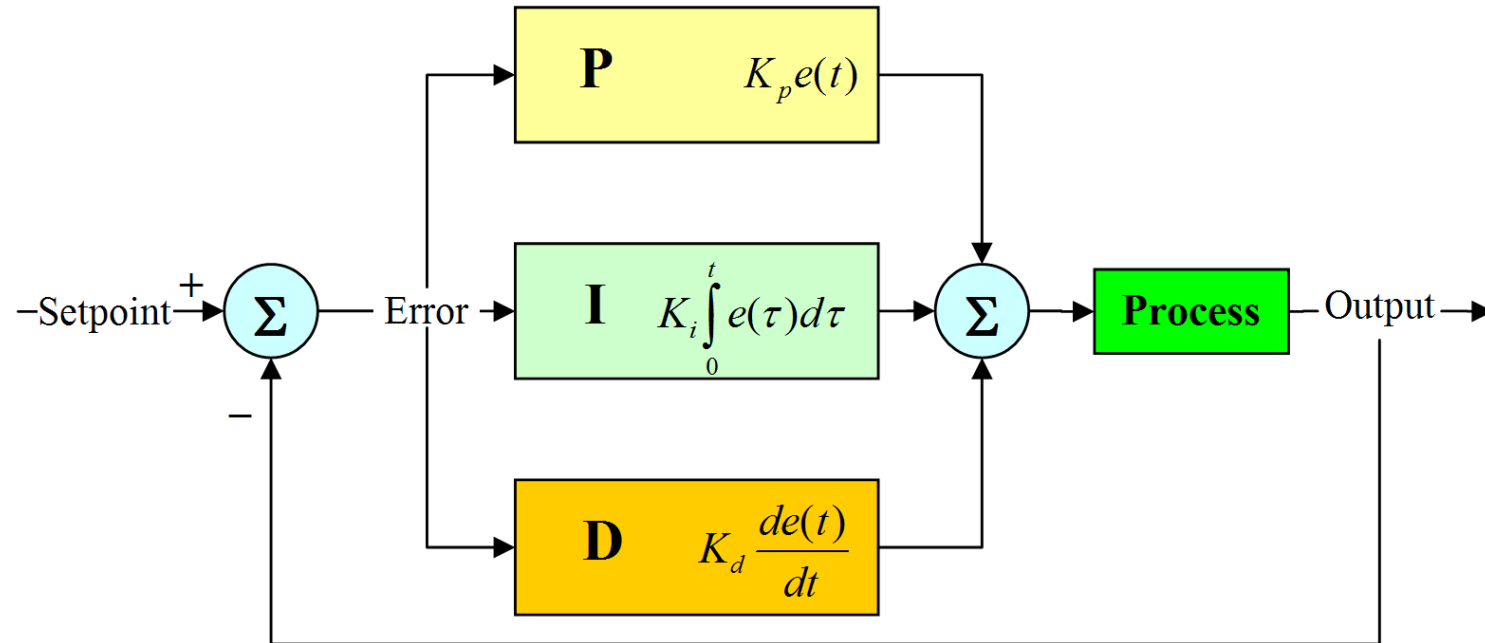
Back to the example



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PID controller

Proportional, Integral and Derivative terms



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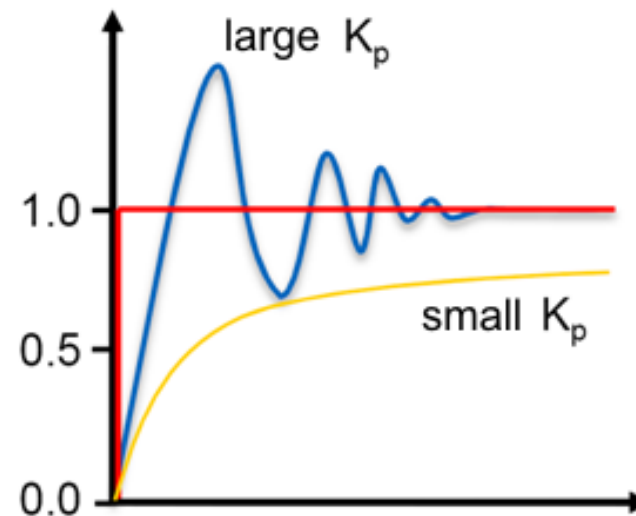
PID controller (P term)

Output proportional to error signal

Large gain K_p -> fast response, overshoot, oscillation

Small gain K_p -> slow response, large steady-state error

$$K_p e(t)$$



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PID controller (I term)

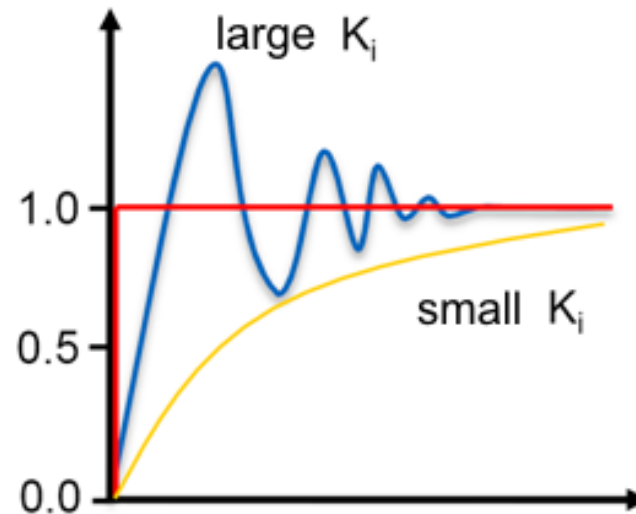
Output proportional to time integral of error

- Makes steady state error go to zero

Large K_i -> error decreases quickly, overshoot, oscillation

Small K_i -> error decreases slowly

$$K_i \int e(t) dt$$



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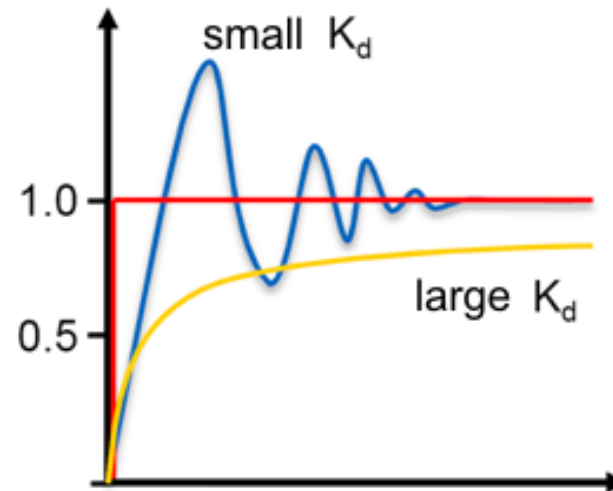
PID controller (D term)

Output proportional to change rate of the error

- K_d can dampen the response

If signal is noisy K_d may increase the interference

$$K_d \frac{d}{dt} e(t)$$



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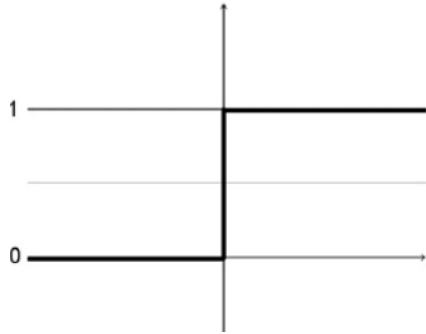
Parameter effects, warning, rough generalizations

	Overshoot	Steady state error	Stability
K_P	+	-	-
K_I	+	-> 0	-
K_D	-	-	+/-

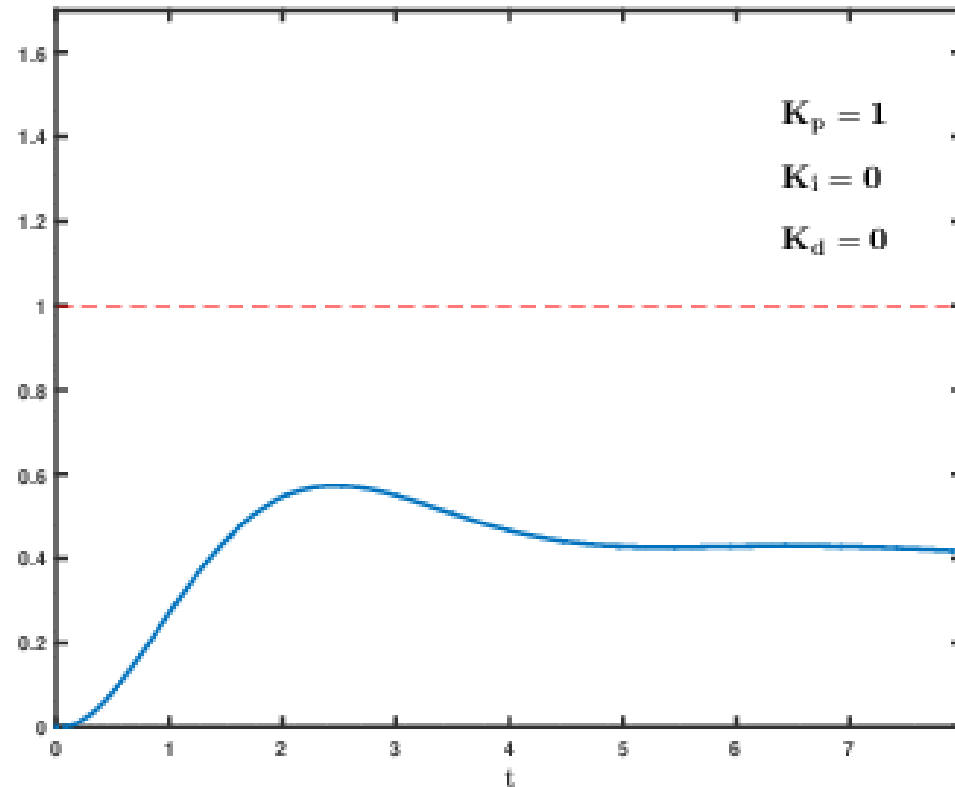
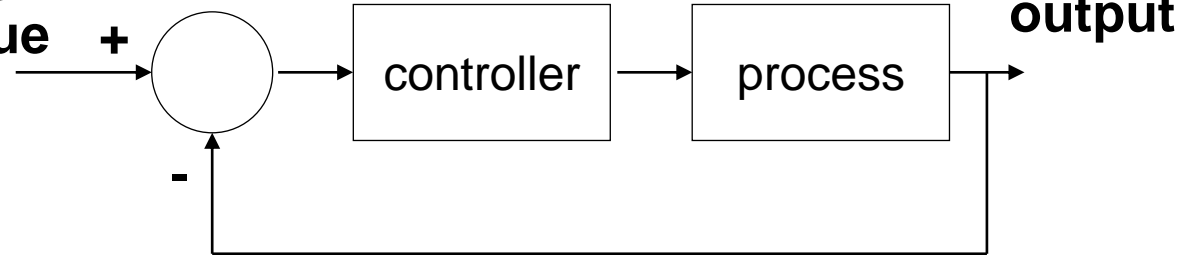
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Parameter effects

This is what we put in



Target
value



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Lecture task: PID-controller

Discuss in groups of 2-4 the operating principles of a PID-controller. If your colleague does not understand some part of it, teach!

- Why PID is cool and nice in many engineering applications?
- Negative feedback
- Proportional part
- Integral part
- Derivative part

If there is something unclear, write it down, and I will try to answer

A!

PID controller tuning

How to find the right gains?

Experimenting with a real system – might be dangerous

- Apply input and observe

Experimenting with a system model – might be tedious

- Simulink model – curves – adjust gains

Iterative optimization with a system model – requires cost function

- For example a Simulink model with Matlab optimization functions

Analytical optimization with mathematical system model – might be difficult

- Transfer function – calculus

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Example: Microcontroller code for PI controller

```
if(PID_on){  
    reference = read_adc(0)/4;           //Read reference from a potentiometer  
    error = reference-speed;             //Calculate error  
  
    proportional = P*error;              //Proportional part of control  
    integral = integral + I*error;       //Integral part of control  
    control = proportional+integral;     //Controller output  
  
    if(control<0){direction = 1;}else{direction = 0;} //Choose motor direction  
}  
  
PORTB.3 = direction;                   //Write to direction register  
OCR1A = control;                       //Write to PWM register
```

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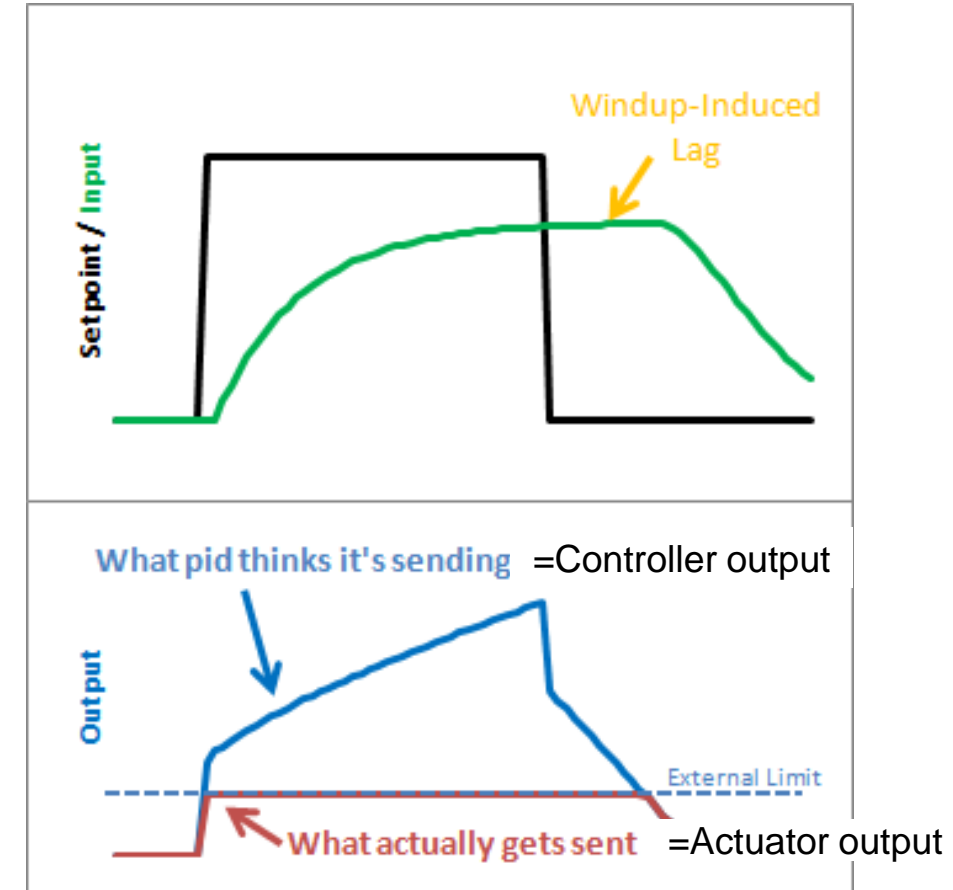
Actuator range and rate limitations

Real actuators have range and speed limitations

Actuator saturates -> modify control law

Anti-windup compensator

- Limits integral growth



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Analog vs digital controllers

Controllers implemented with digital devices do not work continuously

Analog controller can be implemented with operational amps

- High frequency, integration differentiation, summing etc
- Most controllers digital, some vefy fast control loops analog

Results slightly different in analog and digital controllers

Slightly different analysis methods

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Control rate

In digital technology, not even time is continuous

All tasks are done at certain intervals

- Measurements are either averaged or momentary
- Control algorithm calculated at constant and small enough control intervals

Control rate depends on time constant of the system

- Rise time from one state to another minimum 5-10 control loops
 - For a motor for example every 10 ms is often enough

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PID position control demo

This is a physical demonstration of a PID controller controlling the angular position of the shaft of a DC motor. It was designed as a teaching tool to show the effects of proportional, integral, and derivative control schemes as well as the effect of saturation, anti-windup, and controller update rate on stability, overshoot, and steady state error. Enjoy!

Gregory Holst
December 2015
<http://gregoryholst.com>

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Other controllers

Model-based control

- Using a model of the system to predict its behaviour

Adaptive control

- Modifying controller parameters according to output

Optimal control

- Optimizing a controller to minimize a cost function

Robust control

- Designing a controller that works with disturbances

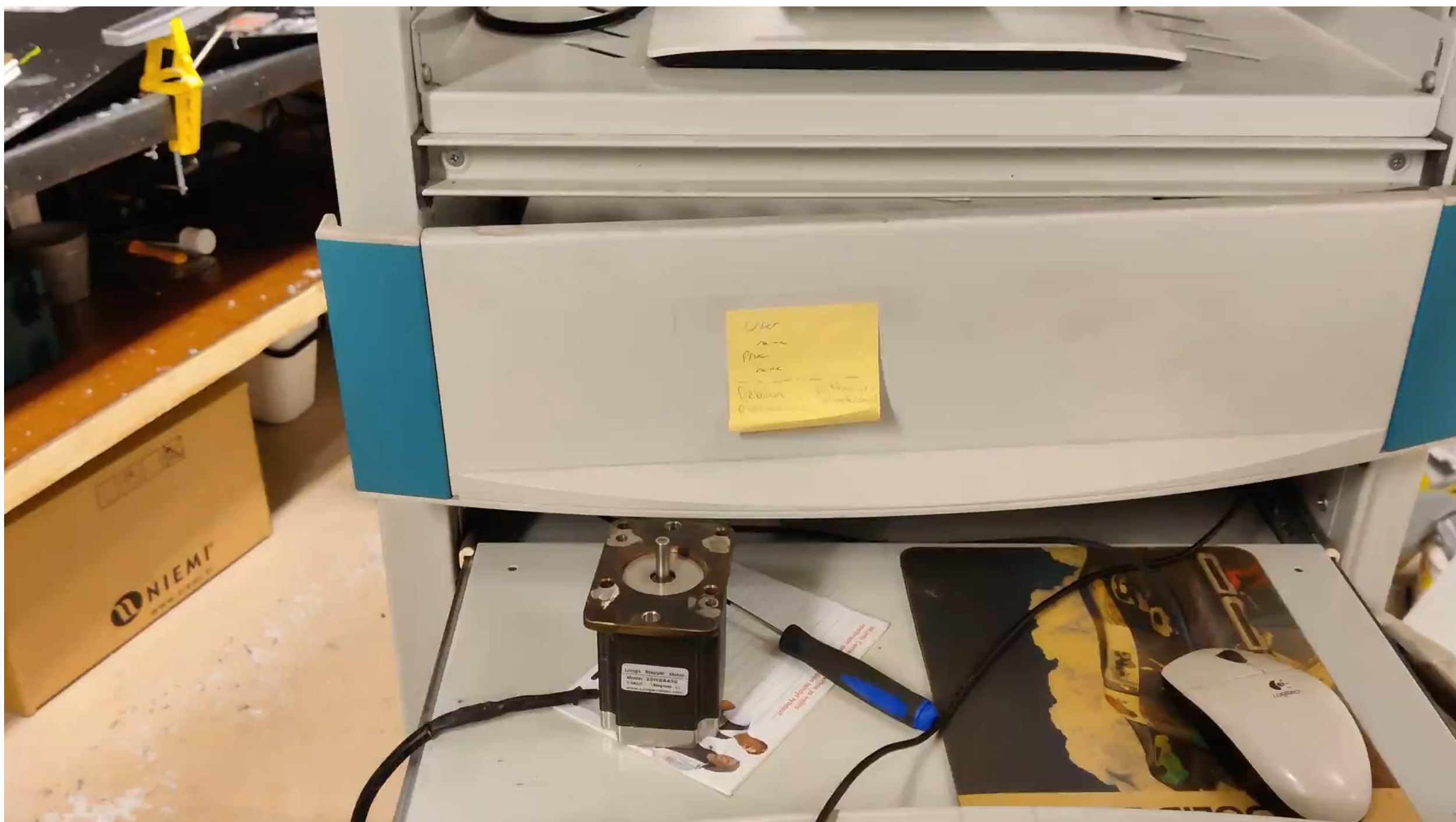
Fuzzy control

- Intuitive rule based controllers

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Servo motors

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Servo

The origin of the word is believed to come from the French "*Le Servomoteur*" or the slavemotor, first used by J. J. L. Farcot in 1868 to describe hydraulic and steam engines for use in ship steering.

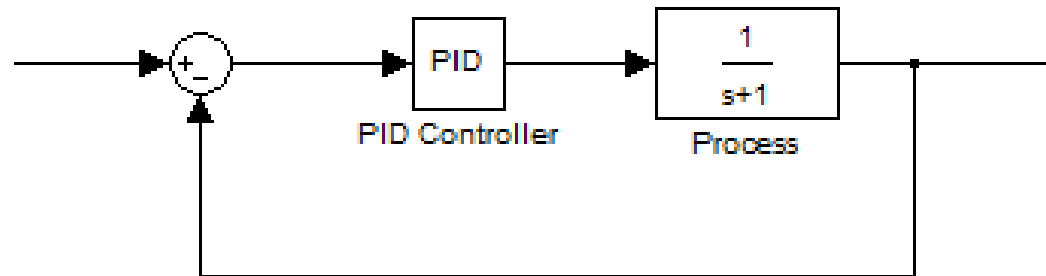
Latin servus = slave

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Servomotor control system

Goal:

- Motor that spins at the required speed regardless of load or disturbances
 - Velocity feedback
- Actuator that keeps at or goes to the required position regardless of load or disturbances
 - Position feedback

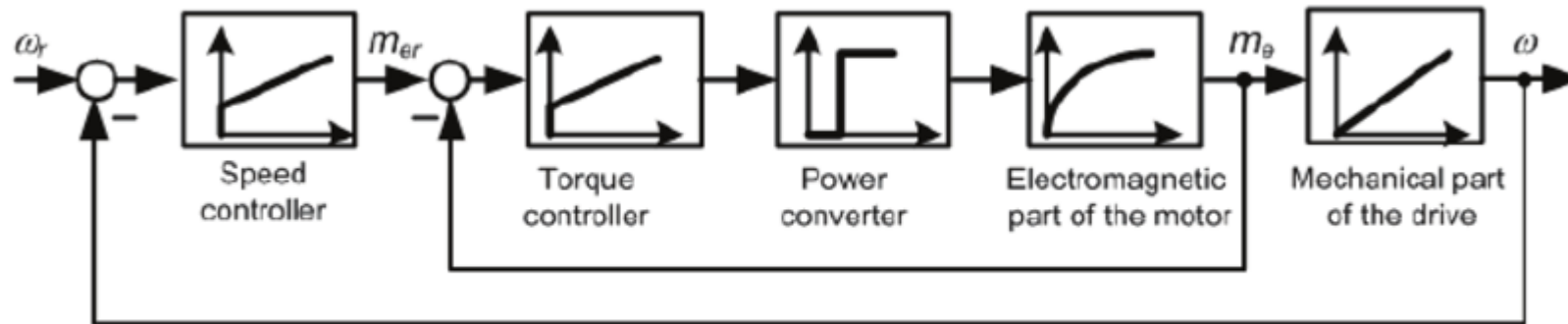


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Cascade control

Control loop inside a control loop

- Outer loop for speed control
- Inner for torque (current)

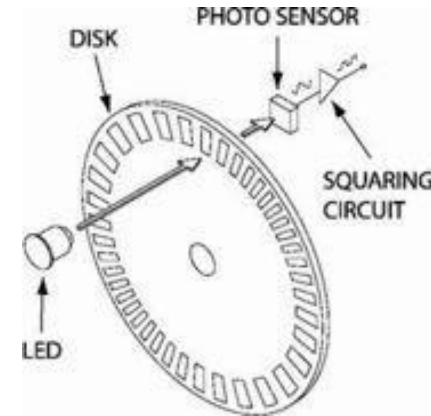


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Sensors for a servo motor

Encoders

- Incremental or absolute
- Optical, magnetic etc.



Resolvers & Synchros

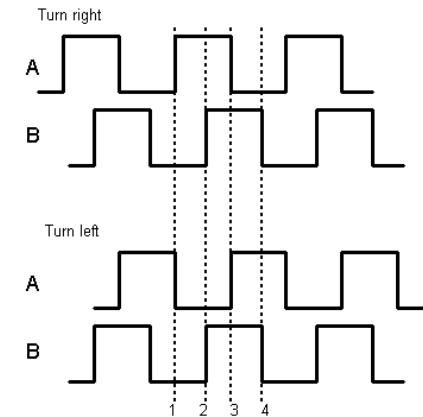
- Rotating transformers which measure position

Tachogenerators

- "Inverse motor", measures rotating speed

Potentiometers

- Variable voltage divider



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Motors for servo systems

DC (brushed or brushless)

AC (synchronous or asynchronous)

Integrated feedback sensors

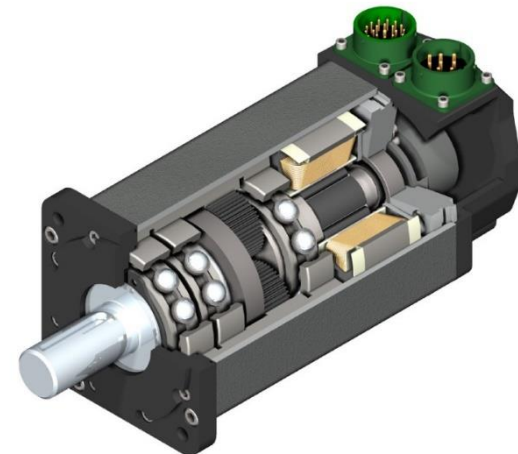
Ability to tolerate short term overloads

Low inductance

- Small electric time constant

Low rotor inertial mass

- Small mechanical time constant

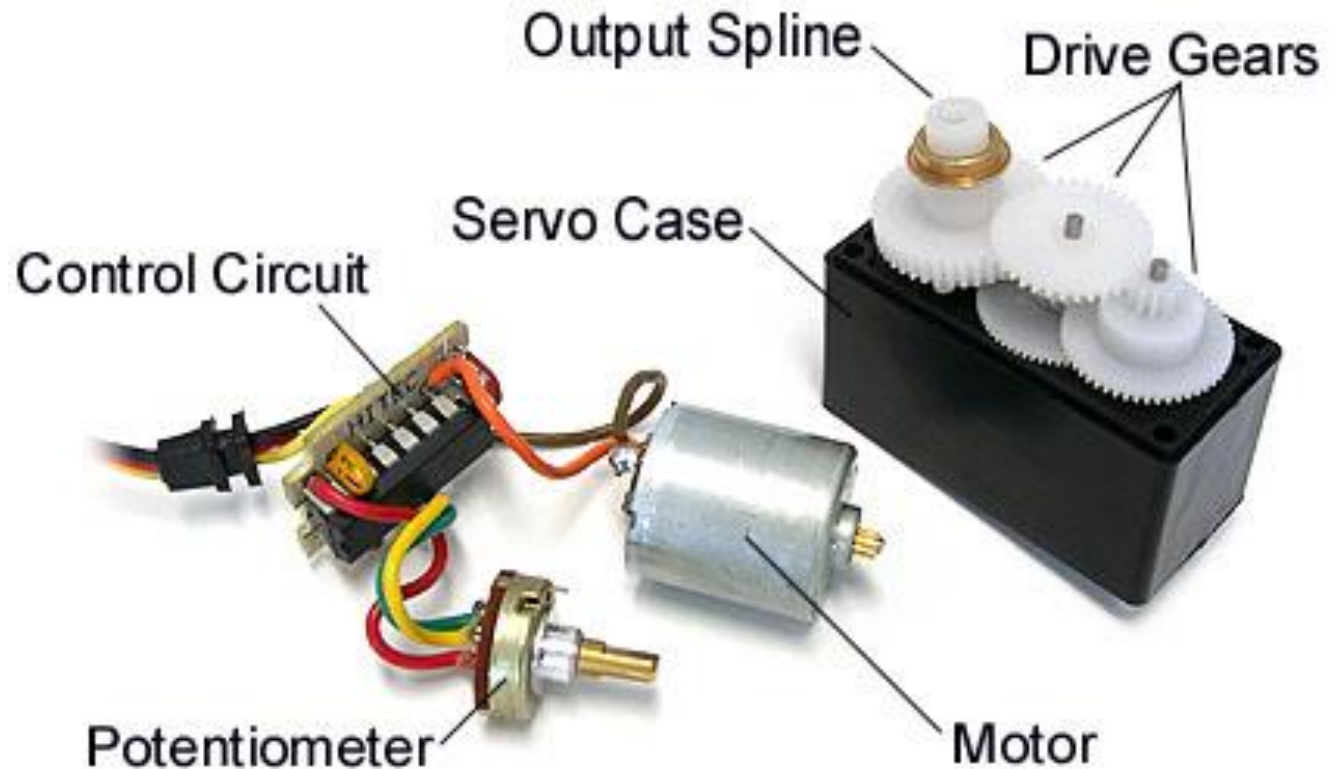


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Example: RC-servo

Built in components:

- Motor
- Reduction gear
- Potentiometer
- Control circuit
- Driver circuit



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Application examples

Industrial robots

- E.g. ABB IRB 7600
- Payload up to 630 kg
- Positioning accuracy 0.1 mm



Machining centers

- Rotation to linear motion with ball screws
- Positioning accuracy 0.005 mm



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Summary

A controller increases the performance of a system

Feedback control is used to reject disturbances

Feedback control can stabilize unstable systems

- Feedback control can also destabilize stable systems

A PID controller is easy to implement

- Every mechatronic engineer should understand it

Servomotor is a feedback controlled motor

- Servomotor is not a motor type

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