

# SRA Domain Session: Control Systems

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### What we will cover in this session?

- 1. What is a controller?
- 2. Why the need for a controller?
- 3. Feedback loop & Feedforward loop
- 4. Stability
- 5. Modelling a System (State space equations) linear/non-linear model
- 6. Controllability and Observability, State Estimator (Kalman Filter)
- 7. Control Systems:
  - a. PID
  - b. Pole Placement
  - c. LQR
  - d. MPC
- 8. Control Systems using RL

### What is a Controller?

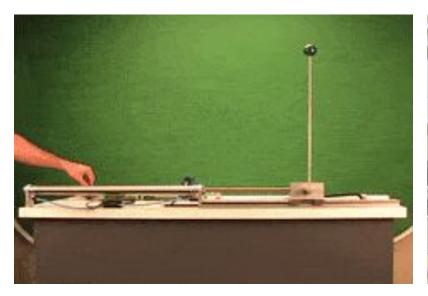
A Controller is a mechanism that seeks to <u>minimize the difference between the actual value of a system (i.e. the process variable) and the desired value of the system (i.e. the setpoint)</u>

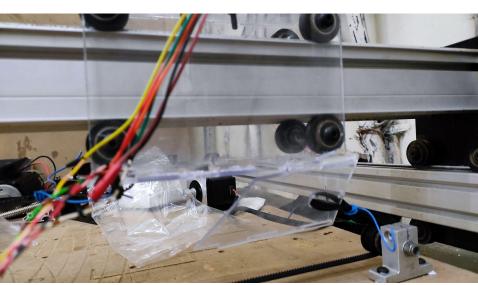
### What is a Control System?

A system of devices that <u>manages</u>, <u>commands</u>, <u>directs</u>, <u>or regulates</u> the behavior of other devices or systems to <u>achieve a desired result</u>.

### With Controller

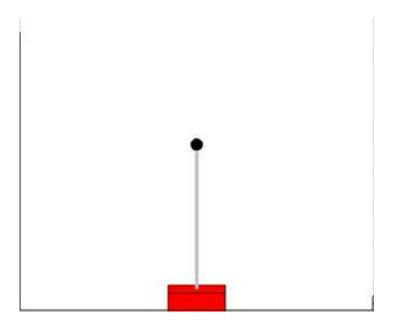
### Without Controller





### Pendulum

### **Inverted Pendulum**



# What is the major physical difference between the two?

### Pendulum

Trying to balance around <u>stable</u> <u>equilibrium point</u>. So no need of any external actuation

### **Inverted Pendulum**

Trying to balance around <u>unstable</u> <u>equilibrium point</u>. So external actuation is required

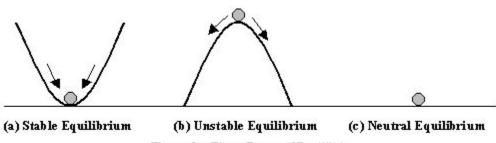


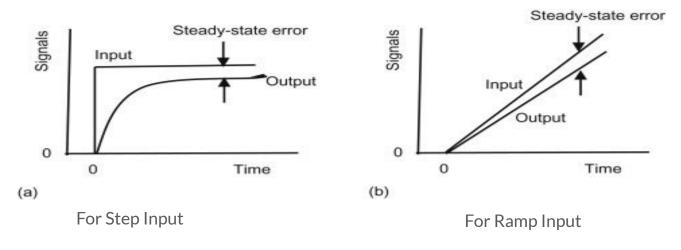
Figure 1 - Three Types of Equilibria

### Why the need for a Control System?

- 1. Controllers improve the steady-state accuracy by **decreasing the steady state error.**
- 2. As the steady-state accuracy improves, the stability also improves.
- 3. Controllers also help in reducing the unwanted offsets produced by the system.
- 4. Controllers can control the maximum overshoot of the system.
- 5. Controllers can help in **reducing the noise signals produced by the system**.
- 6. Controllers can help to speed up the slow response of an overdamped system.

### **Steady State Error**

The <u>difference between the desired value and the actual value</u> of a system output in the limit <u>as time</u> <u>goes to infinity</u> (i.e. when the response of the control system has reached steady-state).



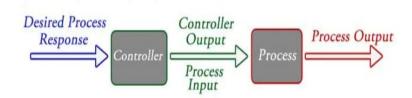
### **Open Loop**

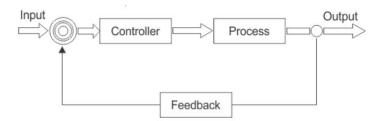
A control system in which the <u>control</u> <u>action is totally independent of the output</u> <u>of the system</u> then it is called an open-loop control system.

# itself calle

### **Closed Loop**

Control systems in which the <u>output has</u> <u>an effect on the input quantity</u> in such a manner that the input quantity will adjust itself based on the output generated is called a closed-loop control system.

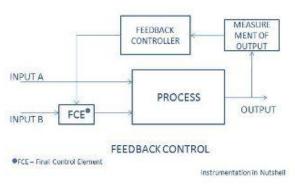




### **Feedback**

Measures the output of a process, calculates the error in the process and then adjusts one or more inputs to get the desired output value.

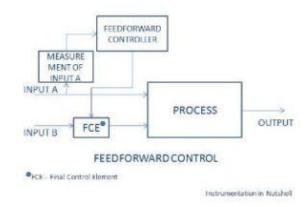
### **REACTIVE CONTROL**



### **Feedforward**

Measures one or more inputs of a process, calculates the required value of the other inputs and then adjusts it.

### PREDICTIVE CONTROL



### **Modelling a System**

The process of representing a physical system in terms of an idealized mathematical model.

**Newton - Euler Equations** 

$$F_{
m ext} = rac{d{f p}}{dt}. \quad {f M} = rac{d{f L}}{dt}. \quad egin{pmatrix} {f F} \ {m au} \end{pmatrix} = egin{pmatrix} m{f I}_3 & 0 \ 0 & {f I}_{
m cm} \end{pmatrix} egin{pmatrix} {f a}_{
m cm} \ {m lpha} \end{pmatrix} + egin{pmatrix} 0 \ {m \omega} imes {f I}_{
m cm} \ {m \omega} \end{pmatrix}$$

**Euler - Lagrange Equations** 

$$L=K.\,E-P.\,E \quad S[\{q_i(t)\}]=\int_{t_1}^{t_2}dt\,L(q_i,\dot{q}_i;t) \qquad \qquad rac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{q}}-rac{d}{dt}rac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}}=0$$
 Hamiltonian Equations

**Hamiltonian Equations** 

$$rac{doldsymbol{q}}{dt} = rac{\partialoldsymbol{\mathcal{H}}}{\partialoldsymbol{p}}, \quad rac{doldsymbol{p}}{dt} = -rac{\partial\mathcal{H}}{\partialoldsymbol{q}}.$$

### **Euler Lagrange Method - Example 1**

$$PE = mgy$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}mv^2=\frac{1}{2}m\dot{y}^2$$

$$L = KE - PE = \frac{1}{2} m\dot{y}^2 - mgy$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{1}{2} m \dot{y}^2 - m g y \right) = -m g \tag{4}$$

$$PE = mgy$$

$$(1) \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{1}{2} m \dot{y}^2 - mgy \right) = -mg$$

$$(4)$$

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{y}^2$$

$$(2) \qquad \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{y}} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{y}} \left( \frac{1}{2} m \dot{y}^2 - mgy \right) \right) = m \ddot{y}$$

$$(5)$$

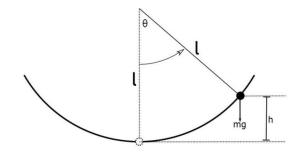
$$L = KE - PE = \frac{1}{2} m\dot{y}^{2} - mgy$$

$$(3) \qquad \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{y}}\right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$=> m\ddot{y} - (-mg) = 0$$

$$\ddot{y} = -g$$

### **Euler Lagrange Method - Example 2**



$$PE = mgh = mg(l - l\cos\theta) = mgl(1 - \cos\theta)$$

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2 = \frac{1}{2}ml^2\dot{\theta}^2$$

$$L = KE - PE = \frac{1}{2}ml^2\dot{\theta}^2 - mgl(1 - \cos\theta)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{\theta}} \left( \frac{1}{2} m l^2 \dot{\theta}^2 - mgl(1 - \cos \theta) \right) \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \frac{1}{2} m l^2 \dot{\theta}^2 - mgl(1 - \cos \theta) \right) = 0$$

$$=> ml^2 \ddot{\theta} + mgl \sin \theta = 0$$

$$\ddot{\theta} = \frac{-g}{l} \sin \theta$$

$$\dot{x}_1=f_1(t,x_1,\ldots,x_n,u_1,\ldots,u_p)$$

$$\dot{x}_2=f_2(t,x_1,\ldots,x_n,u_1,\ldots,u_p)$$

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$$\dot{x}_n = f_n(t,x_1,\ldots,x_n,u_1,\ldots,u_p)$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_p \end{bmatrix}, f(t, x, u) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(t, x, u) \\ f_2(t, x, u) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(t, x, u) \end{bmatrix}$$

We can rewrite the n first-order differential equations as one n-dimensional first-order vector differential equation

$$\dot{x} = f(t, x, u)$$

# Linearizing Systems using Jacobian

### (b) Linearize around these equilibrium points:

i.e Non-Linear system acts linear when we look rally close to equilibrium points.

Let 
$$\bar{X} =>$$
 Equilibrium point

For Non-Linear System,

$$\dot{X} = f(x)$$

where f(x) is a non-linear combination of state variables. Around Equilibrium point,

$$\therefore \dot{X} = f(\bar{X}) + \frac{Df}{Dx} \bigg|_{\bar{X}} (X - \bar{X}) + \frac{D^2 f}{DX^2} \bigg|_{\bar{X}} (X - \bar{X})^2 + \dots$$

This is the Taylor-Series expansion around  $\bar{X}$  where,  $\frac{Df}{DX}\Big|_{\bar{X}}$  is the Jacobian of  $\dot{X} = f(X)at\bar{X}$ 

Taking only the linear component of this expansion,

$$\dot{X} = \frac{Df}{DX} \Big|_{\bar{X}} (X - \bar{X})$$

$$\dot{X} = A \cdot X$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta f1}{\delta x1} & \frac{\delta f1}{\delta x2} & . & . \\ . & . & . & . \\ \frac{\delta fn}{\delta x1} & . & . & \frac{\delta fn}{\delta xn} \end{bmatrix} at\bar{X}$$

we come to realize that for a Non-Linear system, the matrix defines our state space model linearly is basically just the Ja-1 of the system taken at the equilibrium point.

### 1 State Space Analysis

1. Select States of System

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ \dot{\theta} \\ \phi \\ \dot{\phi} \end{bmatrix}$$

2. State Space Model

$$\dot{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\theta} \\ \ddot{\theta} \\ \dot{\phi} \\ \dot{\phi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \ddots & \ddots \\ \ddots & \ddots \\ \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ \dot{\theta} \\ \phi \\ \dot{\phi} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \dot{X} = A \cdot X$$

$$\therefore \frac{dX}{dt} = A \cdot X$$

$$\therefore X(t) = e^{At} \cdot X(0)$$

$$e^{At} = I + At + \frac{A^2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots$$

(1)

But this expansion will be tough to calculate and hence the equations become unnecessarily complex.

So instead we can make use of diagonalization to linearly transform our system to eigenvalue co-ordinates.

Considering P is orthogonal Matrix

$$\dot{Z} = D \cdot Z$$

D = Diagonal Matrix

$$\therefore \dot{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda n \end{bmatrix} \cdot Z$$

Equations become decoupled and thus have simple to calculate solutions.

$$i.e \ \dot{z1} = \lambda 1.z1$$

$$\dot{z2} = \lambda 2.z2$$

•

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Also,

$$Z(t) = e^{Dt} \cdot Z(0)$$

$$\therefore Z(t) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda 1} & & \\ & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot \\ & & e^{\lambda n} \end{bmatrix} \cdot Z(0)$$

Now,

Converting back to original state since it is important to preserve our required system state variables.

Thus, Using Power of Matrix Theorem in equation (1),

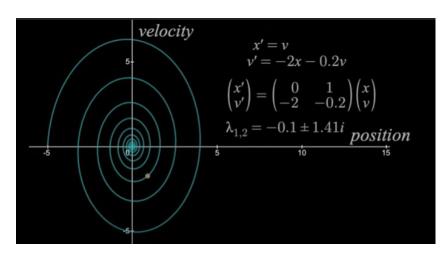
$$e^{At} = P^{-1} \cdot P + P^{-1} \cdot D \cdot Pt + \frac{P^{-1} \cdot D^{2} \cdot Pt^{2}}{2!} + \dots$$

$$\therefore e^{At} = P \left[ I + D + \frac{D^{2}t^{2}}{2!} + \frac{D^{3}t^{3}}{3!} + \dots \right] P^{-1}$$

$$\therefore e^{At} = P^{-1} \cdot e^{Dt} \cdot P$$

$$\therefore X(t) = P^{-1} \cdot e^{Dt} \cdot P \cdot X(0)$$
(2)

# Effect of Eigenvalues on Stability



Negative Real Part corresponding to damping of system which results in Stability

### Studying the Effect of Eigenvalues on Stability of System

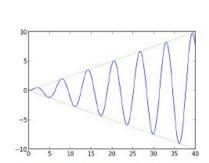
From equation (2), we can infer that X(t) will be some linear combination of  $e^{\lambda t}$  terms.

Now,

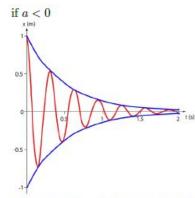
$$\therefore \lambda = a + ib$$

$$\therefore e^{\lambda t} = e^{at} \underbrace{(\cos(bt) + i.\sin(bt))}_{\text{always 1}}$$

if a > 0



System oscillations grow overtime so unstable.



System oscillations increase overtime so reaches stability.

However, this modelling only works if the system is linear. But in most practical applications, the systems are non-linear. So, in order to linearize them we make use of Jacobians.

### What about Eigenvalues having positive real part?

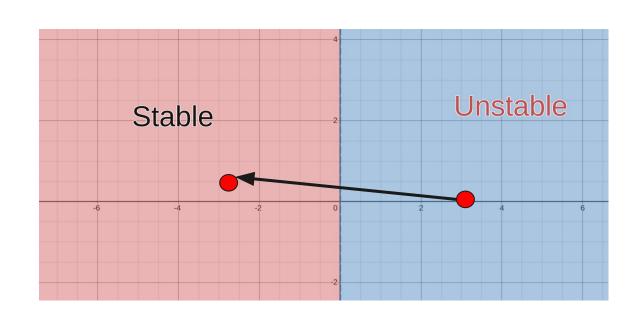
$$Ax => Ax + Bu$$

$$u = -Kx$$

So,

$$Ax => Ax - BKx$$

$$Ax => (A-B.K)x$$



State Equation 
$$\Rightarrow \dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$
  
Output Equation  $\Rightarrow y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$ 

Here

x(t)- State Vector (n x 1 matrix)

y(t)- Output Vector (p x 1 matrix)

u(t)- Input Vector (m x 1 matrix)

A - State (or system) matrix (n x n matrix)

B - Input matrix (n x m matrix)

C - Output Matrix (p x n matrix)

D - Feed-forward matrix (p x m matrix)

### **Controllability**

Now that we have out System Modelled, we can work towards making a controller for the same.

$$\dot{X} = A \cdot X + B \cdot u \tag{3}$$

where,

$$X \in \Re^n$$
;

$$A \in \Re^{nxn}$$
;

$$B \in \Re^{nxq};$$

$$u \in \Re^q$$
;

### Controllability Matrix C

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} B & A.B & A^2.B & . & . & . & A^{n-1}.B \end{bmatrix}$$

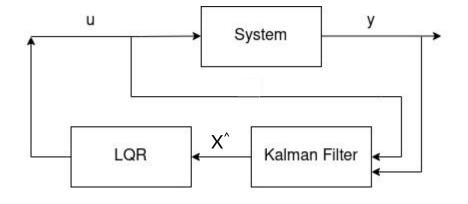
For system to be controllable,

$$C) = n$$

### **Observability and Kalman Filter**

$$\mathcal{O}_v = \left[egin{array}{c} C \ CA \ CA^2 \ dots \ CA^{v-1} \end{array}
ight]$$

- Observability of a control system is the ability of the system to determine the internal states of the system by observing the output in a finite time interval when input is provided to the system.
- If and only if the column rank of the *observability matrix* is equal to N, then the system is observable



Kalman Filters are a form of predictor-corrector used extensively in control system design for estimating the unmeasured states of a process.

### PID vs LQR Controller

- LQR is an optimal control regulator expected to be more robust than PID algorithm.
- LQR focuses on non-linear models rather than the classical linear equation approach of PID but it requires linearization and model of system.
- LQR is deals with Multiple Input Multiple Output (MIMO) Systems. For the same system
  (MIMO) we will require separate PID Controllers for each state variable, whereas LQR
  provides weights or "knobs" to control multiple state variables which are part of the model.

### **Pole Placement Method**

One method to ensure that the system is stable is to select the gain matrix K in such a way so that the eigenvalues of the (A-BK) matrix are purely real and negative.

We can select the desired eigenvalues for the system and calculate the K matrix such that (A-BK) has our desired eigenvalues.

For Pendulum with external torque:

Characteristic Equation:

$$(A - BK) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{g}{l} & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{ml^2} \end{bmatrix} [k_1 & k_2]$$

$$(A - BK) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{g}{l} - \frac{k_1}{ml^2} \\ \frac{g}{l} - \frac{k_1}{ml^2} \\ \frac{g}{ml^2} - \frac{k_2}{ml^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda^2 + \frac{k_2}{ml^2} \lambda + \left(\frac{k_1}{ml^2} - \frac{g}{l}\right) = 0$$

### **Pole Placement Method**

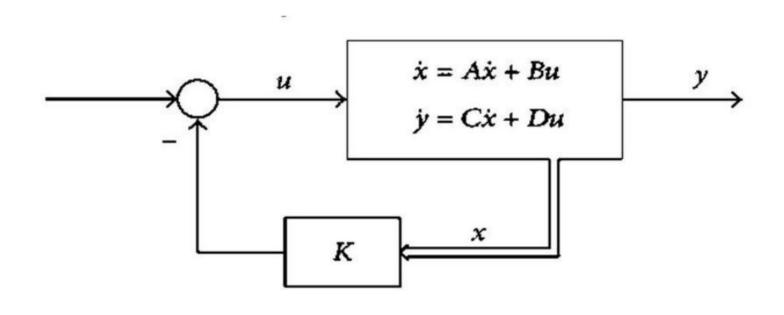
Select arbitrary values of  $\lambda$  as roots of the equation.

Substitute the values of  $\lambda$  in the equation obtained and find the values of K1, K2, K3, K4 to form the K matrix.

Note that while selecting values of  $\lambda$ , it's real part must be negative for it to be stable and positive for it to be unstable.

$$\lambda_1 = -1$$
  $\lambda_2 = -2$  
$$(\lambda + 2)(\lambda + 1) = 0$$
 
$$\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2 = 0$$
 
$$\frac{k_2}{ml^2} = 3 ; \frac{k_1}{ml^2} - \frac{g}{l} = 2$$
 
$$k_2 = 3ml^2; k_1 = 2ml^2 + mgl$$
 Hence, 
$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 2ml^2 + mgl & 3ml^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Intuition for LQR



i.e. 
$$U = -K \cdot X$$
  
 $\dot{X} = (A - B \cdot K) \cdot X$ 

### Intuition for LQR

• Linear Quadratic Regulator(LQR) helps us optimize the K matrix according to our desired response.

• Here we use a cost function,

$$J = \int_0^\infty (x^T Q x + u^T R u)$$

- Where, Q and R are positive semi-definite diagonal matrices and x and u are the state vector and input vector respectively.
- The controller is of the form u = -Kx which is a **Linear** controller and the underlying cost function is **Quadratic** in nature and hence the name **Linear Quadratic Regulator**.
- Each Qi are the weights for the respective states xi.
- The trick is to choose weights Qi for each state xi so that the desired performance criteria is achieved. Greater the state objective is, greater will be the value of Q corresponding to the said state variable.
- LQR minimizes this cost function J based on the chosen matrices Q and R.
- In real life applications we use **Discrete LQR**

### Demo: Applying a Controller to a Physical System



### **Model Predictive Control (MPC)**

• MIMO systems

Reference

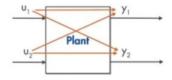
MPC Controller

Plant

Y<sub>1</sub>, Y<sub>2</sub>...Y<sub>n</sub>

Plant

Input-output interactions



Preview



Constraints

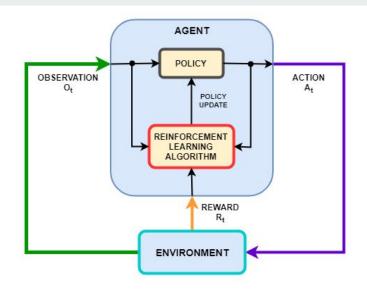


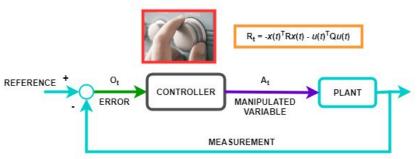
 Has been used in many industries such as process, automotive, and aerospace





### **Control Systems using RL**





- The behavior of a reinforcement learning policy—that is, how the policy observes the environment and generates actions to complete a task in an optimal manner—is similar to the operation of a controller in a control system.
- Many control problems encountered in areas such as robotics and automated driving require complex, nonlinear control architectures. Techniques such as gain scheduling, robust control, and MPC can be used for these problems, but often require significant domain expertise from the control engineer. For example, gains and parameters are difficult to tune. The resulting controllers can pose implementation challenges, such as the computational intensity of nonlinear MPC.
- You can use deep neural networks, trained using reinforcement learning, to implement such complex controllers. These systems can be self-taught without intervention from an expert control engineer. Also, once the system is trained, you can deploy the reinforcement learning policy in a computationally efficient way.

### References

- Steve Brunton <a href="https://www.youtube.com/c/Eigensteve">https://www.youtube.com/c/Eigensteve</a>
- Matlab Tech Talks <a href="https://in.mathworks.com/videos/tech-talks/controls.html">https://in.mathworks.com/videos/tech-talks/controls.html</a>