

Kuwait University

College of Engineering and Petroleum



جامعة الكويت
KUWAIT UNIVERSITY

ME319 MECHATRONICS

PART IV: THE MUSCLES – ACTUATORS

LECTURE 2: PRACTICAL FEEDBACK CONTROL 1

Spring 2021

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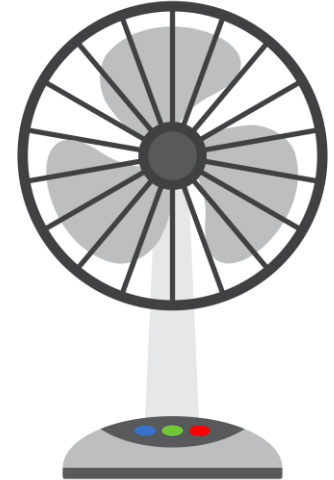
Objectives

- Understand the concept of feedback control
- Become familiar with practical aspects of feedback control
- Become familiar with PID Control
- Differentiate between each of the PID Control elements



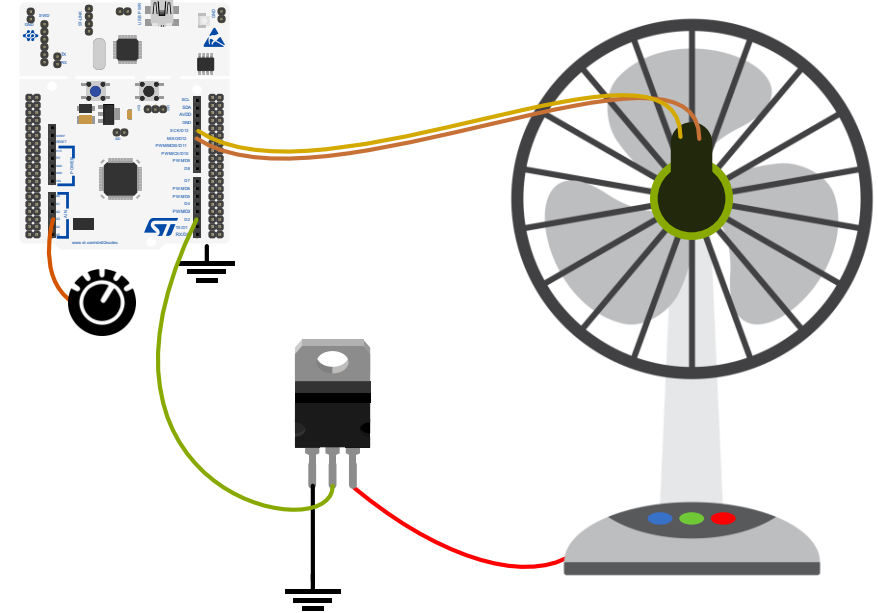
What is feedback control

- Picture a desk fan
 - 1P induction motor typically
- Speed is a function of AC line frequency
- Fixed speed settings give a nominal voltage (via regulator)
- But load affects the speed too
 - Bigger fan blades will rotate slower
- This is an “open-loop” system
 - Can’t control speed precisely
 - The actual speed is not measured
 - The actual speed is not used in regulating the input signal



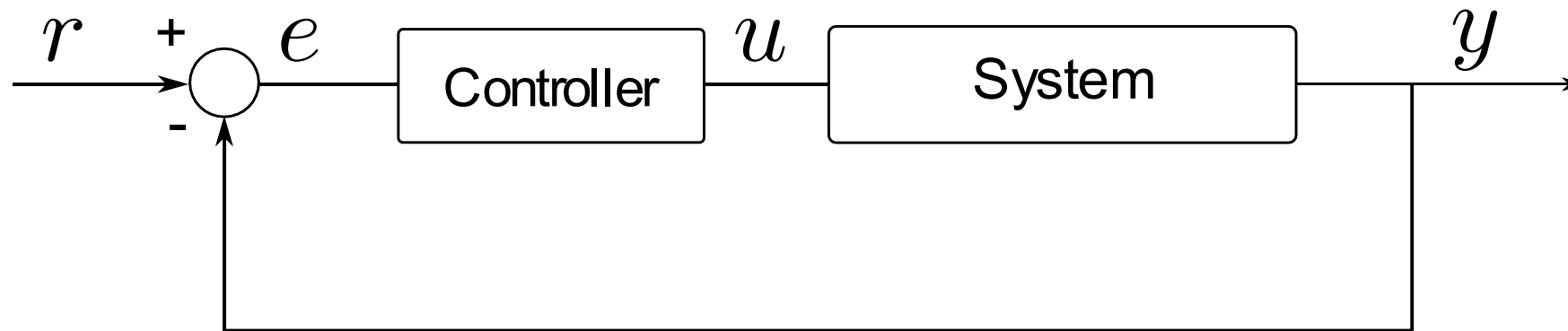
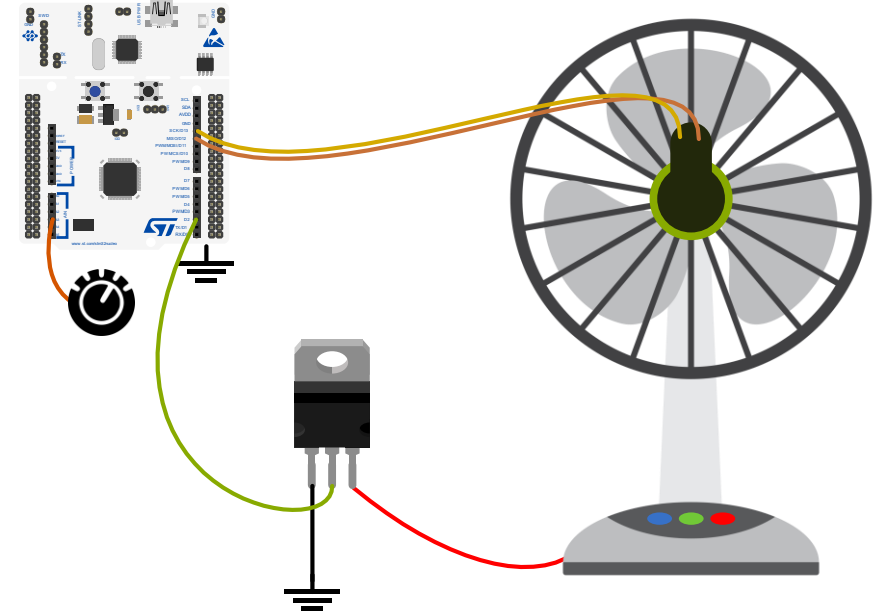
What is feedback control

- Now you add an encoder / hall effect sensor to measure fan-motor speed
- You connect the sensor to an MCU
- In the MCU, you read the fan-motor speed
- User speed setting given to MCU
- MCU compares actual vs desired speed
- And adjust the input to fan continuously
 - Induction motor speed controller via
 - Variable frequency device
- To achieve a specific speed of rotation
- This is feedback control
 - In some context: regulation



Feedback Control

- Think about the controller as a function: $u = f(e)$
- Where the error: $e = r - y$
- r is the reference, a.k.a desired output (user speed setting).
- y is the system output (actual speed of motor-fan).
- The output y , is fed back into the input through the summation block, to calculate e . Hence the name, feedback control.



PID Control

- A very practical method for designing the controller, is by constructing it as a PID controller.
 - The controller function (commonly called control law):
 - $u = f(e) = u_p + u_I + u_D$
 - P - **Proportional** to the error: $u_p = K_P e$
 - I - Proportional to the **Integral** of the error: $u_i = K_D \int e \, dt$
 - D – Proportional to the **Derivative** of the error: $u_d = K_D \frac{de}{dt}$



PID Control

- If $K_p \neq 0$ and $K_I = K_D = 0$. We call our controller a proportional controller (P Controller)
 - $u = u_p = K_p e$
- If $K_p \neq 0$ and $K_I \neq 0$, but $K_D = 0$. We have a PI Controller
 - $u = u_p + u_I = K_p e + K_I \int e dt$
- If $K_p \neq 0$ and $K_D \neq 0$, but $K_I = 0$. We have a PD Controller
 - $u = u_p + u_D = K_p e + K_D \frac{de}{dt}$
- And if all constants are not equal to zero, we have a full PID Controller

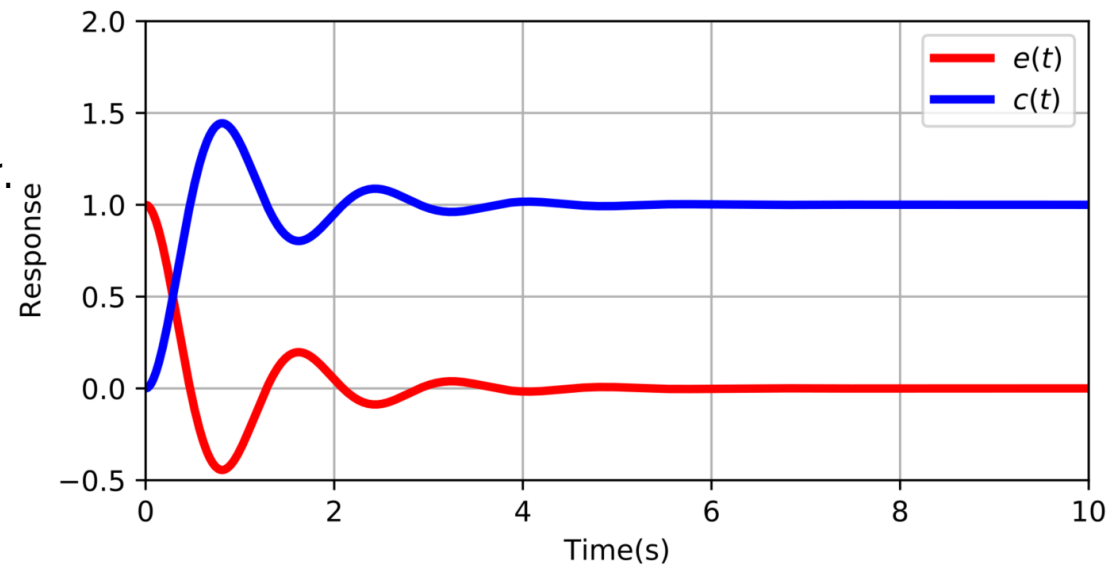
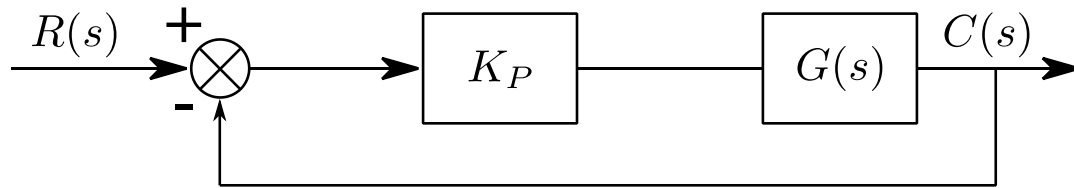


The error

- The error: $e(t) = r(t) - c(t)$, in unity feedback
- Since the proportional controller is proportional to the error, we expect the control output u_p to follow the error dynamics proportionally

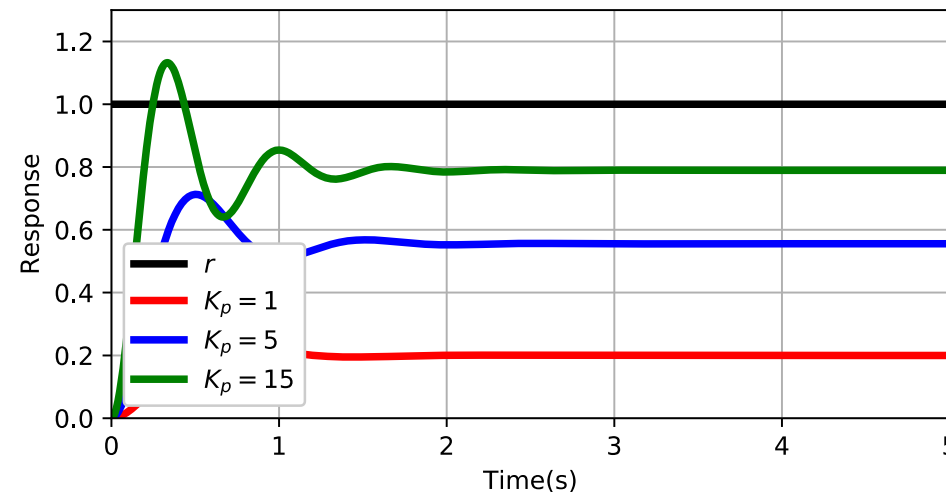
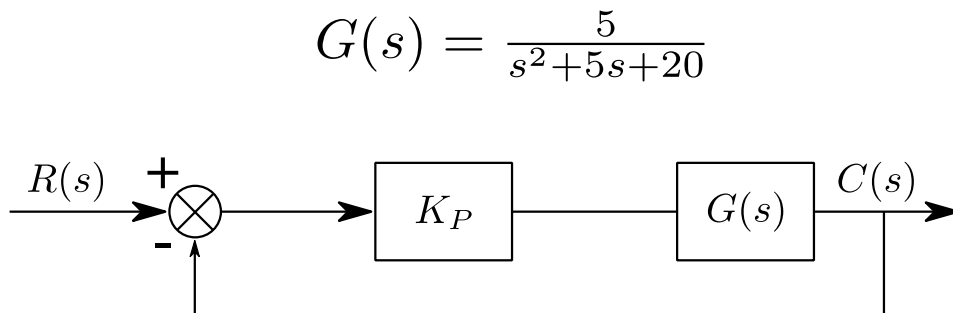
Error response to a unit-step input in a feedback control system with $G_{ol} = \frac{2}{s(s+2)}$, with a **P** Controller.

$$K_p = 8$$



The P Controller

- In terms of its affect on the response, increasing the proportional gain:
 - (+) Decreases the steady-state error
 - (+) For 2nd order and higher systems, increases %OS.
 - (-) Increases overshoot
 - (-) Increases actuator effort
 - *In a real-world application, there is a limit to power/force/input to a system, we can't increase K_p without a limit.*



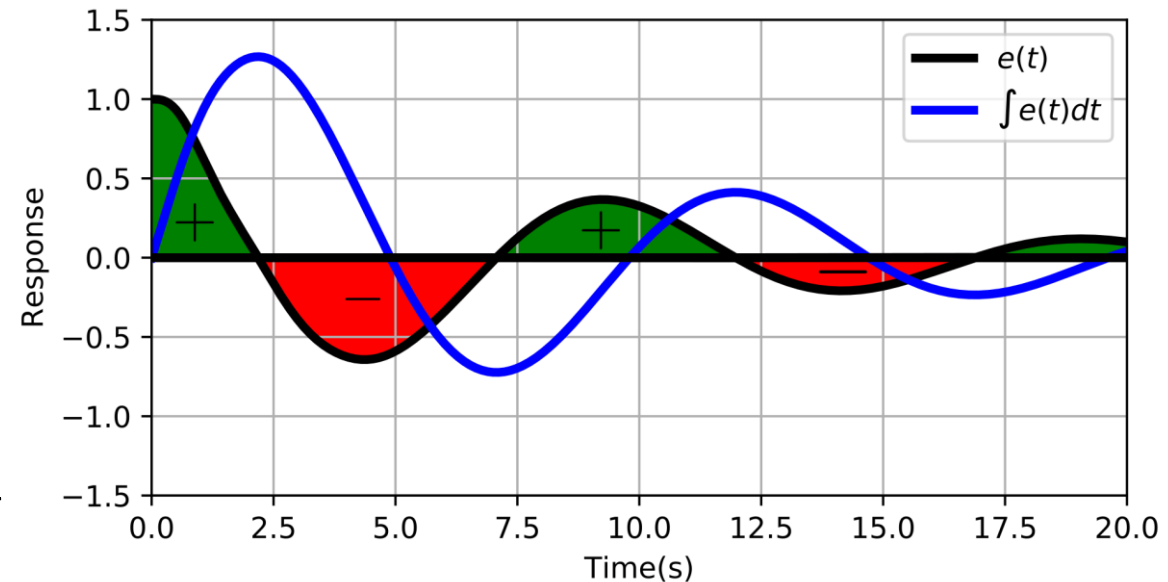
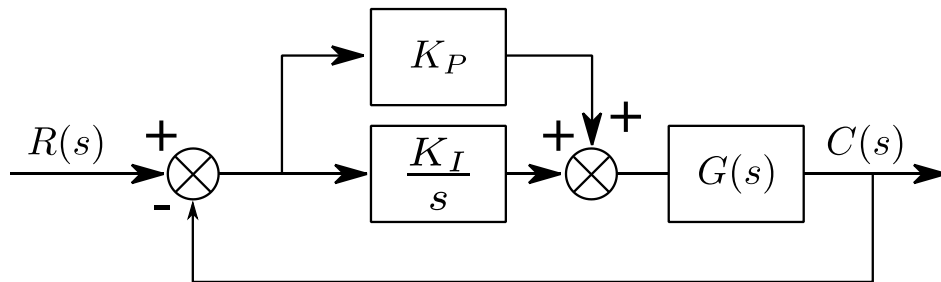
The Error Integral and Integral Control Component

- The integral of the error is the area under the error curve
- The PI Controller: $u_{PI}(t) = K_P e(t) + K_I \int e(t) dt$
- Conceptually, the integral component of the controller tries to reduce the steady-state error by balancing between the positive and negative areas.
- If Green area > Red Area $\rightarrow u_I = K_I \int e(t) dt > 0$, and vice versa
- If Green area = Red Area $\rightarrow u_I = 0$

Error response to a unit step input in a feedback control system with

$$G_{ol} = \frac{2}{s(s^2+2s+15)}, \text{ with a PI}$$

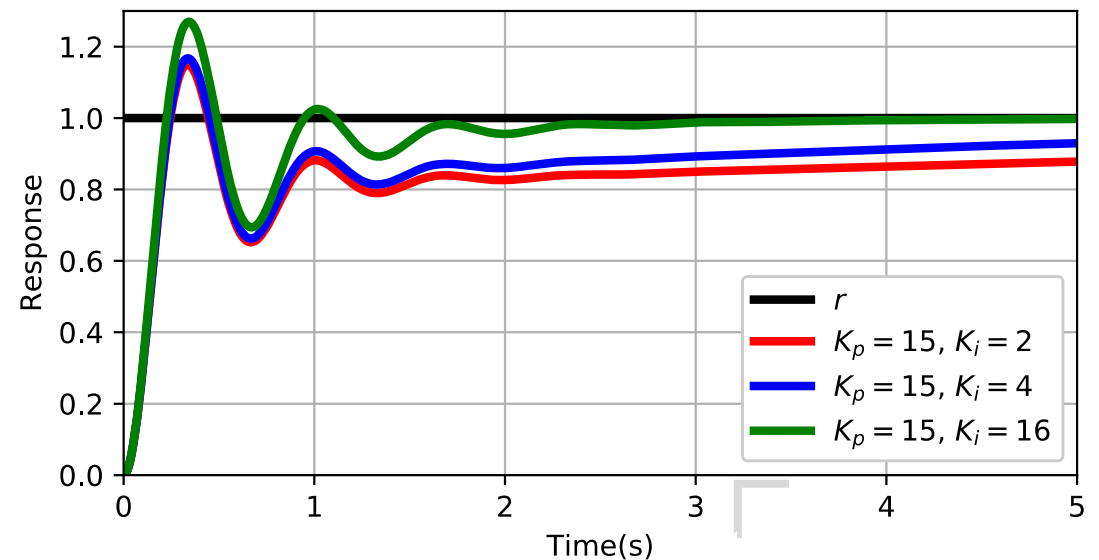
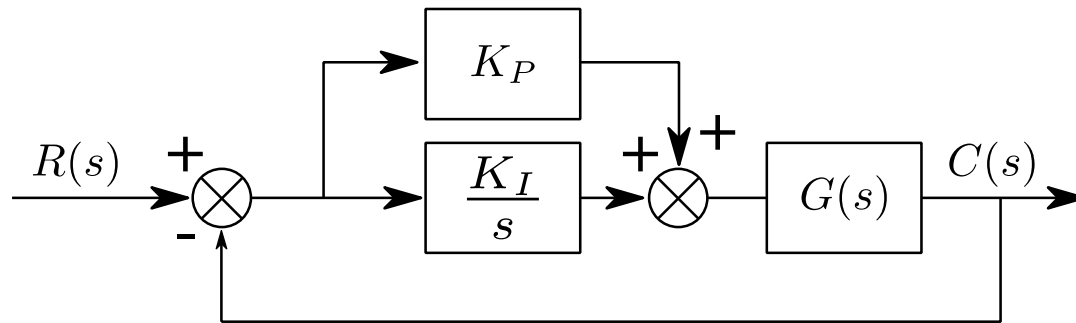
Controller. $K_P = 2, K_I = 3$



The PI Controller

- In terms of its affect on the response, increasing the integral gain:
 - (+) Reduces the steady-state error
 - (+) Reduces the need for aggressive K_p gain
 - (-) Increases oscillation
 - (-) Increases settling time T_s
 - (-) Increases overshoot

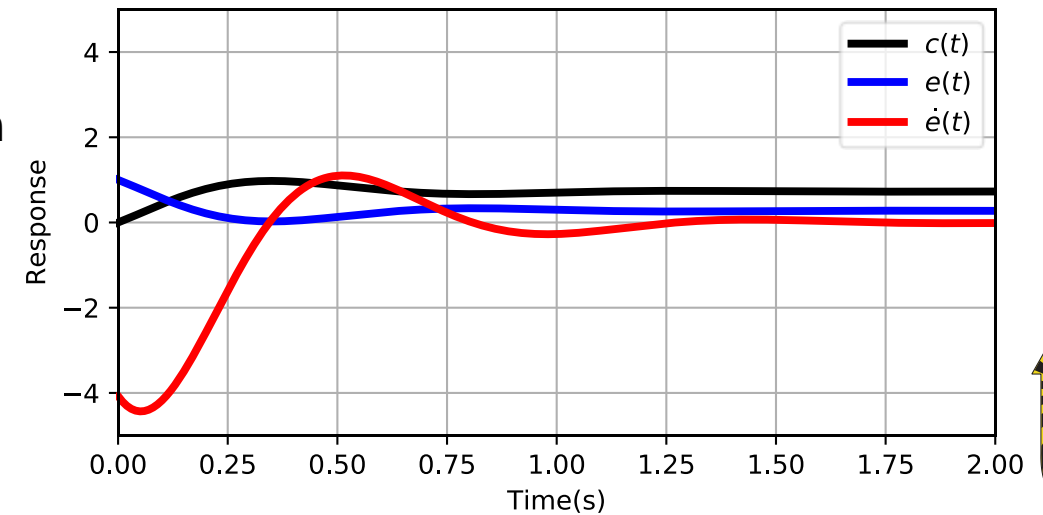
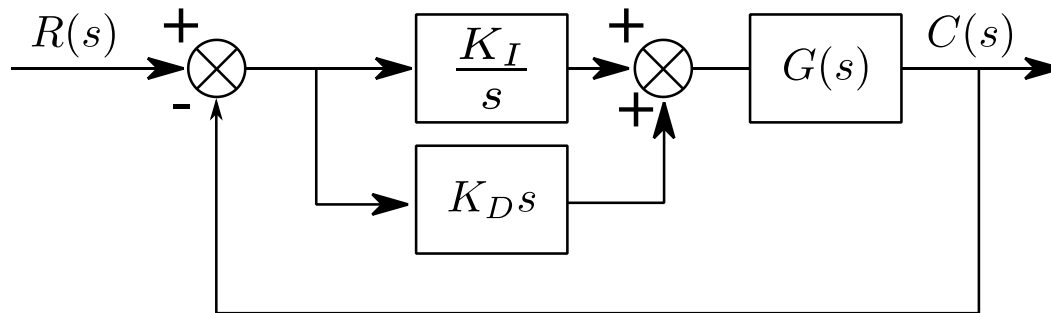
$$G(s) = \frac{5}{s^2 + 5s + 20}$$



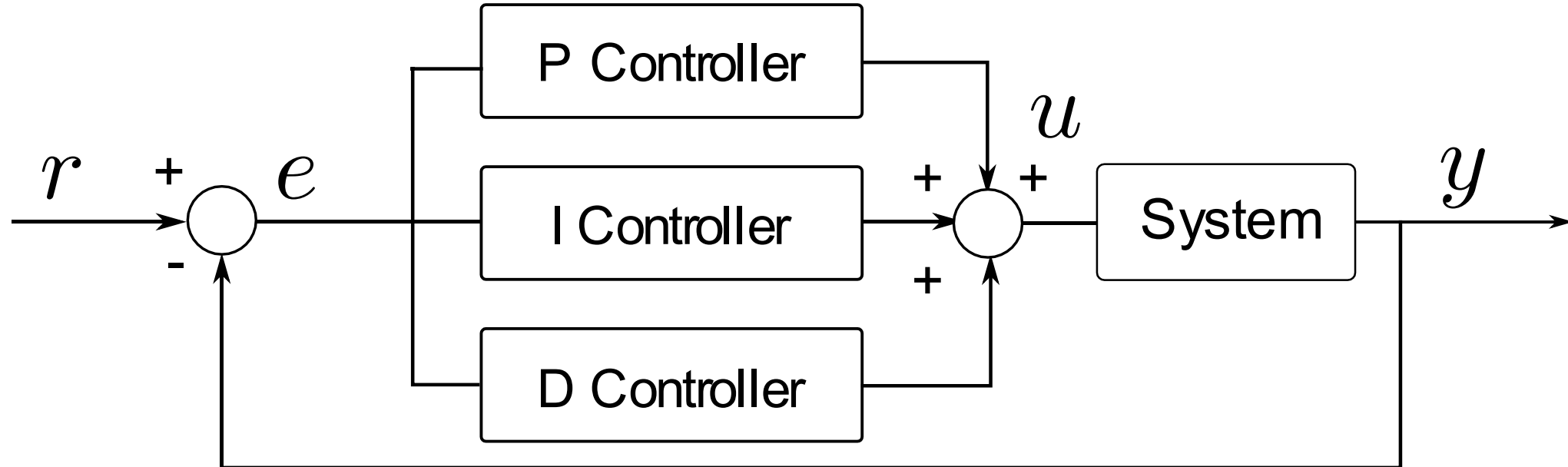
The Error Derivative and Derivative Control Component

- The error derivative $\dot{e}(t)$ responds to the rate of change of the error.
- In a way, it predicts the future by looking at the rate of change. The rate of change is an indication of how quick the desired reference is moving away from the system state (output).
 - *If you're in your car, following a friend's car, it is one thing to speed up/down to maintain a fixed gap, but if your friend suddenly speeds up or slams on the brakes, your response would be more aggressive in anticipation of a big error change.*
 - *Because you **know** the error **will** change*

Error response to a unit step input in a feedback control system with $G_{ol} = \frac{2}{(s^2+2s+15)}$, with a **PD** Controller. $K_p = 20, K_D = 2$

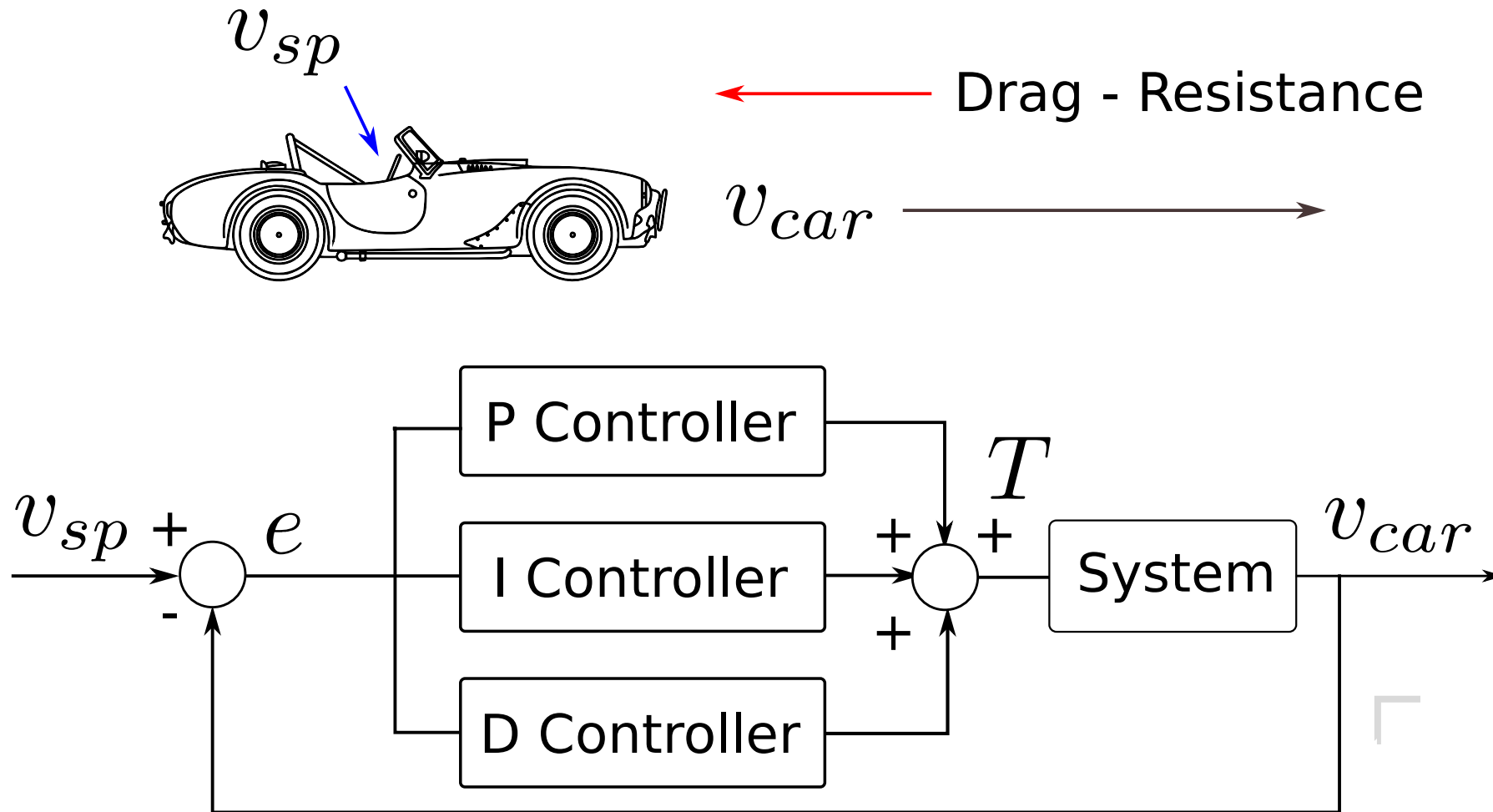


PID Control



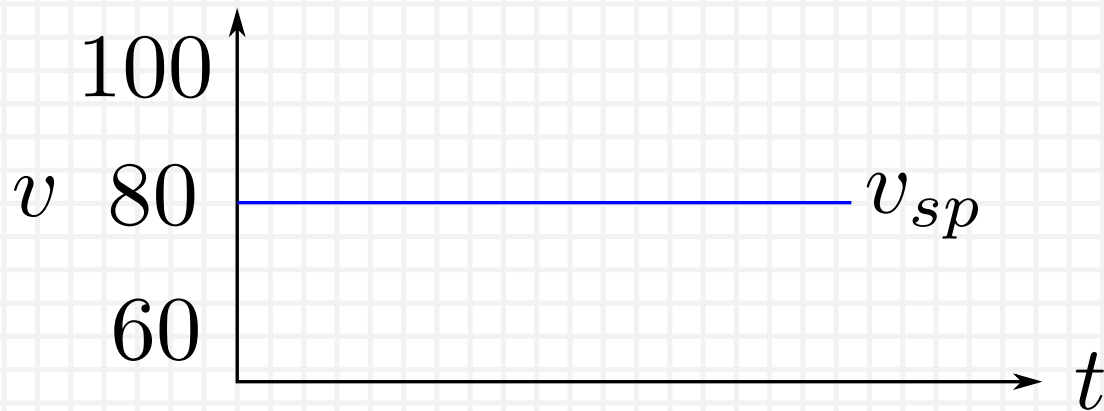
Cruise Control System Example

- T : Throttle (0% to 100%)



Cruise Control System Example

- Let's apply a P Controller with $K_p = 0.05$
 - $u = K_p e$
 - Assume drag force: $D = 0.1v$, Traction force: $F = 10T$

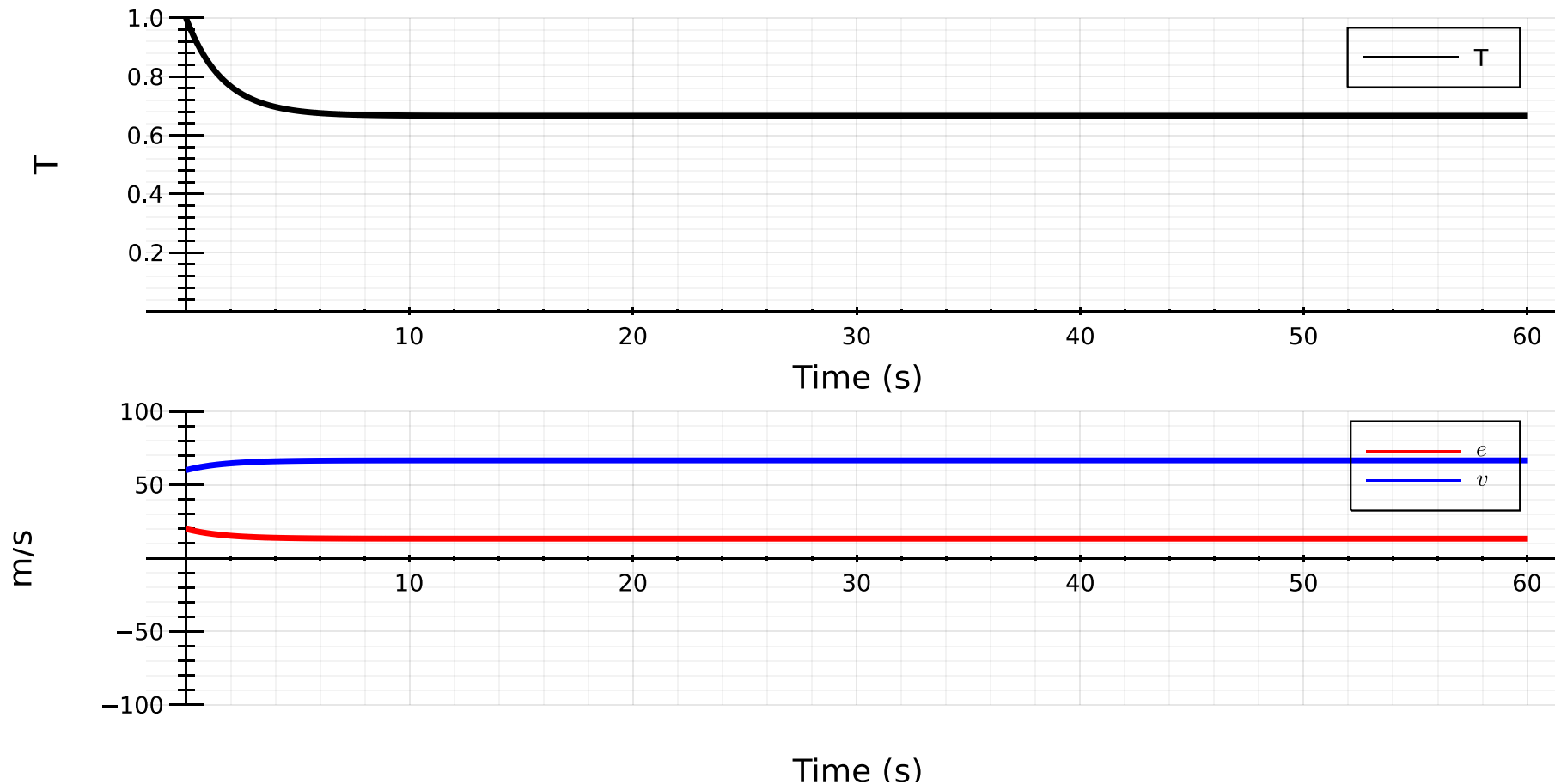


	T_0	T_1	T_2
v_{sp}			
v_{actual}			
e			
T			
F			
D			
ΣF			



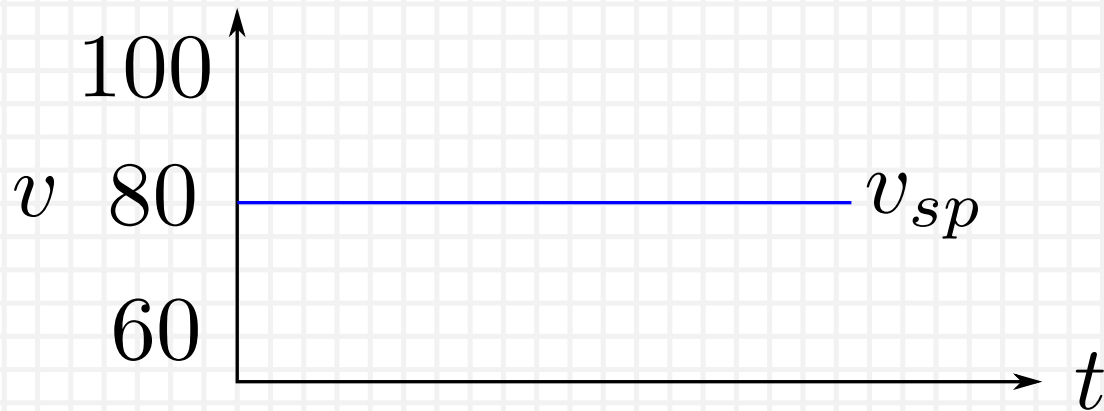
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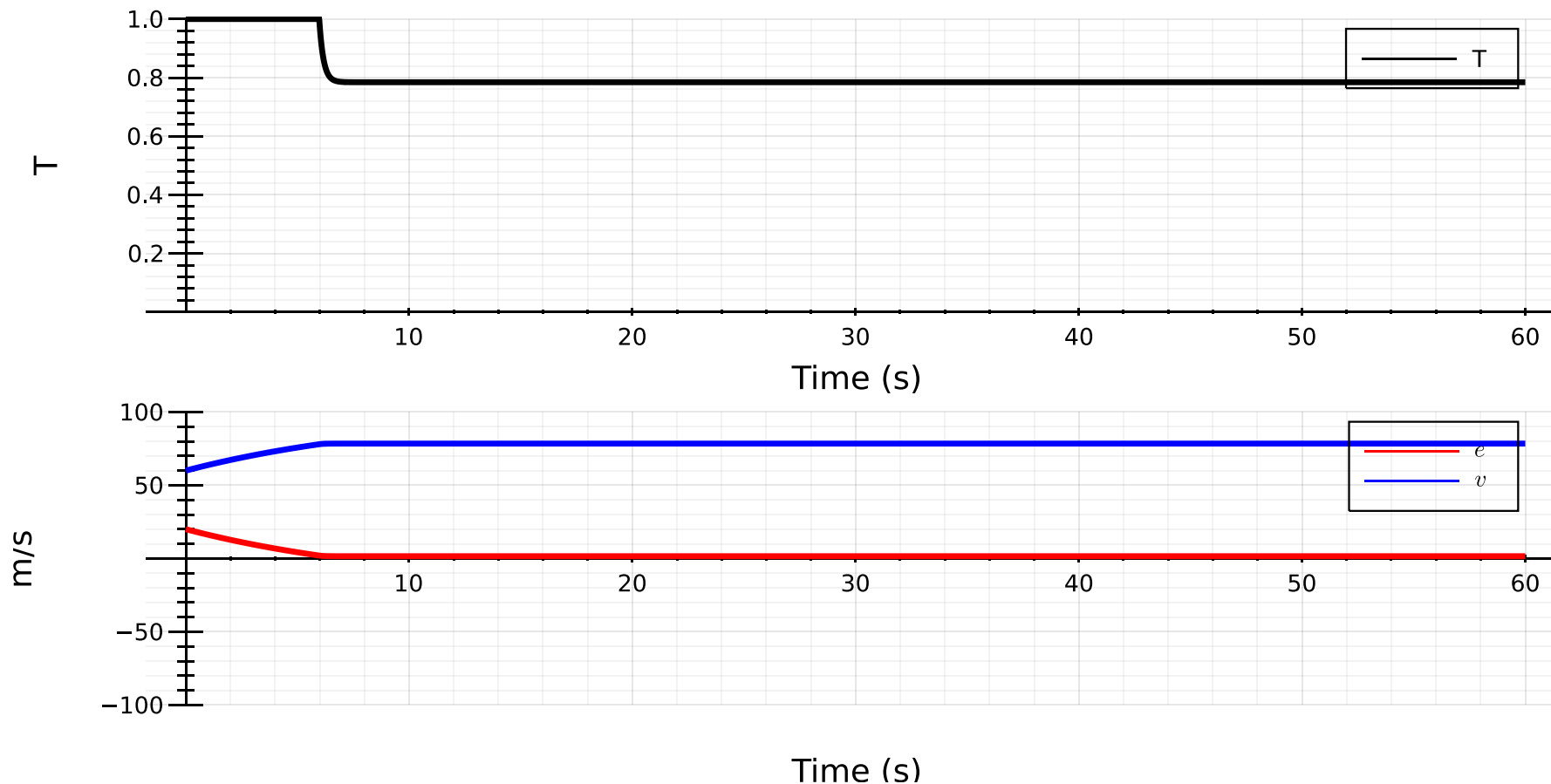


	T_0	T_1	T_2
v_{sp}			
v_{actual}			
e			
T			
F			
D			
ΣF			



Cruise Control System Example

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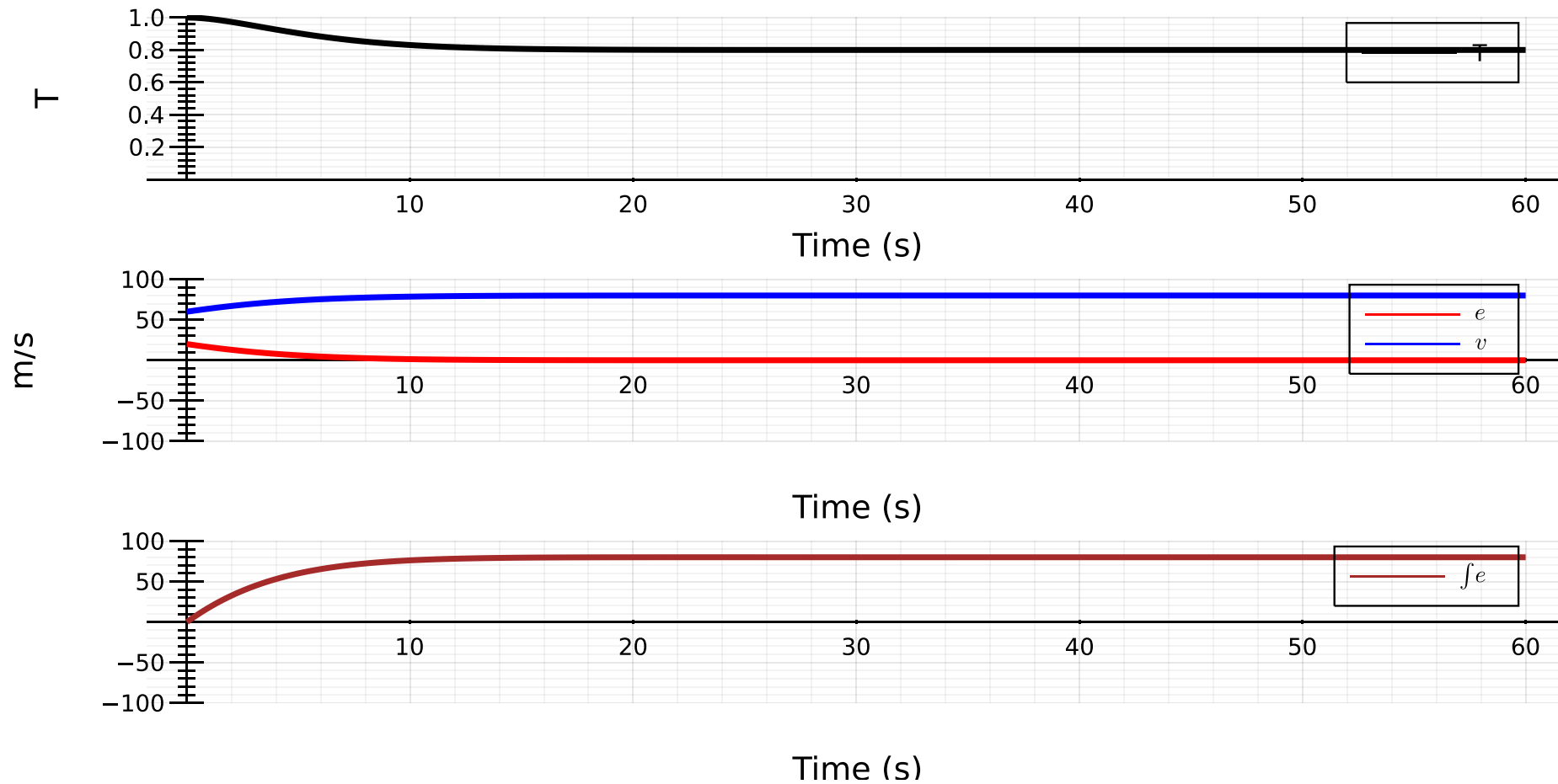
Cruise Control System Example

- How do we reduce the need to increase the P gain, and reduce the steady state error e_{ss}
- We can introduce the ***Integral*** Controller to make a PI Controller
 - $u = u_P + u_I = K_P e + K_I \int e dt$



Cruise Control System Example

- Using a PI Controller, with $K_P = 0.05$, and $K_I = 0.01$
- Assume drag force: $D = 0.1v$, Traction force: $F = 10T$

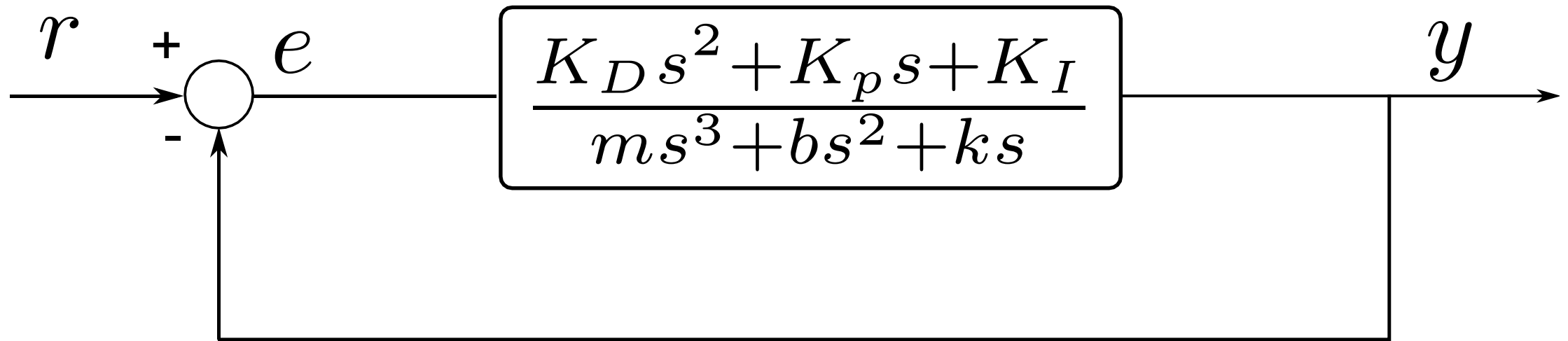


PI Controller

- $u = u_P + u_I = K_P e + K_I \int e dt$
 - The P and I term work together to produce a better output u
 - Near $e = 0$, the P term vanishes, but the I term converges to zero when the **integral of the error** is zero: when the area under the curve of error e was equally positive and negative.
 - Let's see the effect of changing the P and I gains on the response of a second order system
 - $G(s)_{plant} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$
 - The PID Controller transfer function is represented as
 - $C_{PID}(s) = \frac{K_D s^2 + K_P s + K_I}{s}$

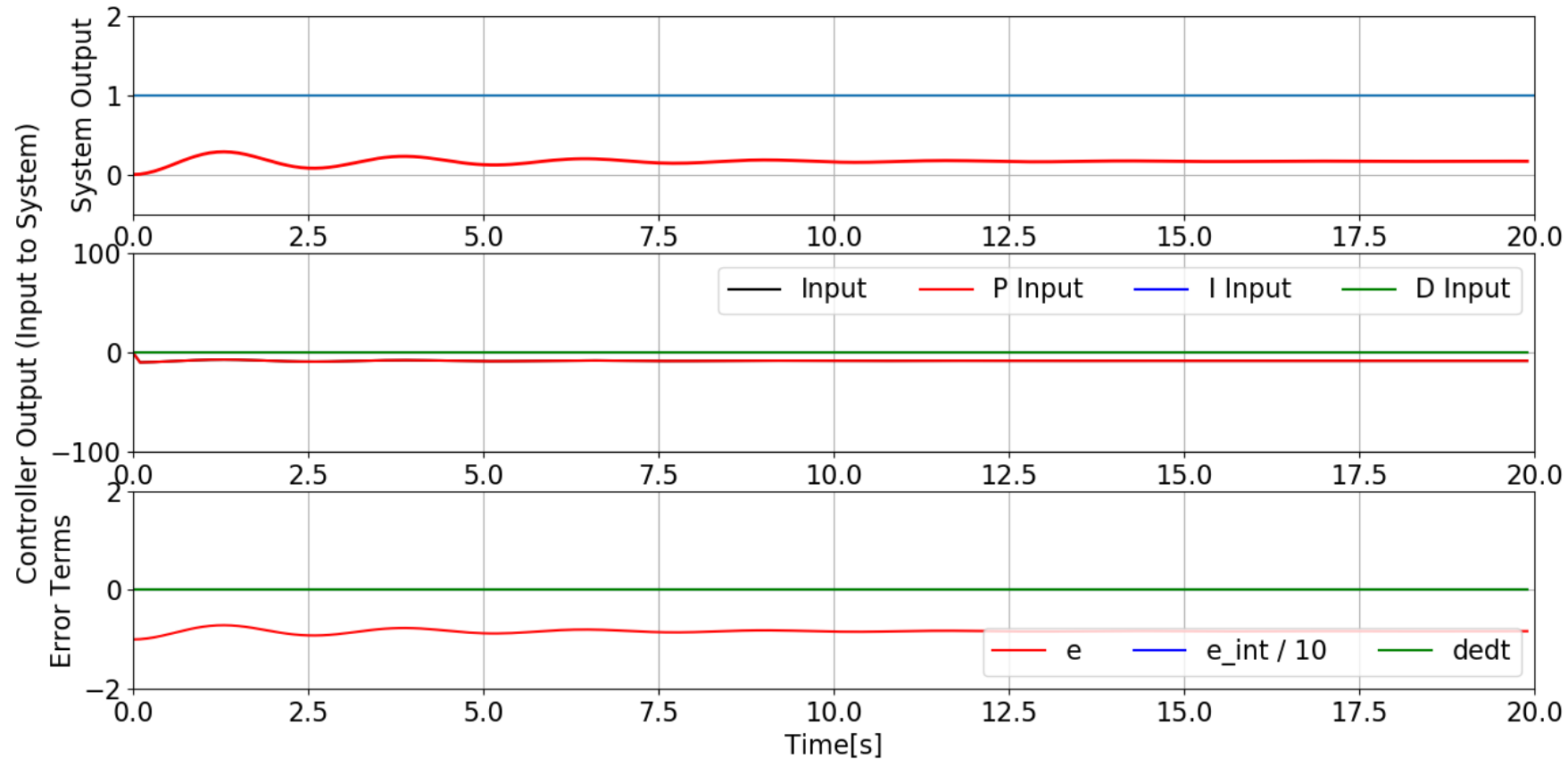


PID Control of 2nd Order System



PID Control of 2nd Order System

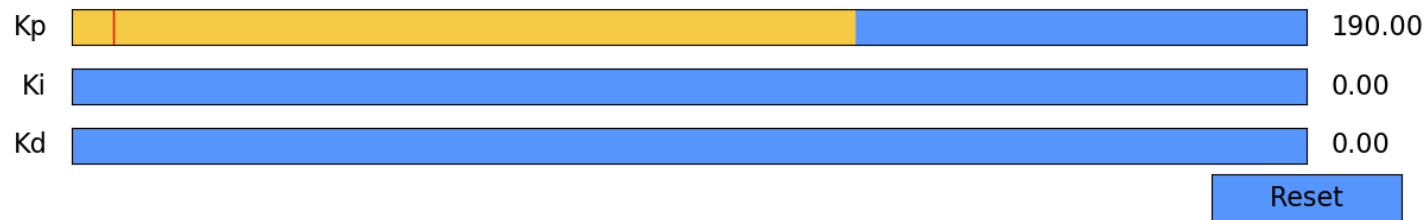
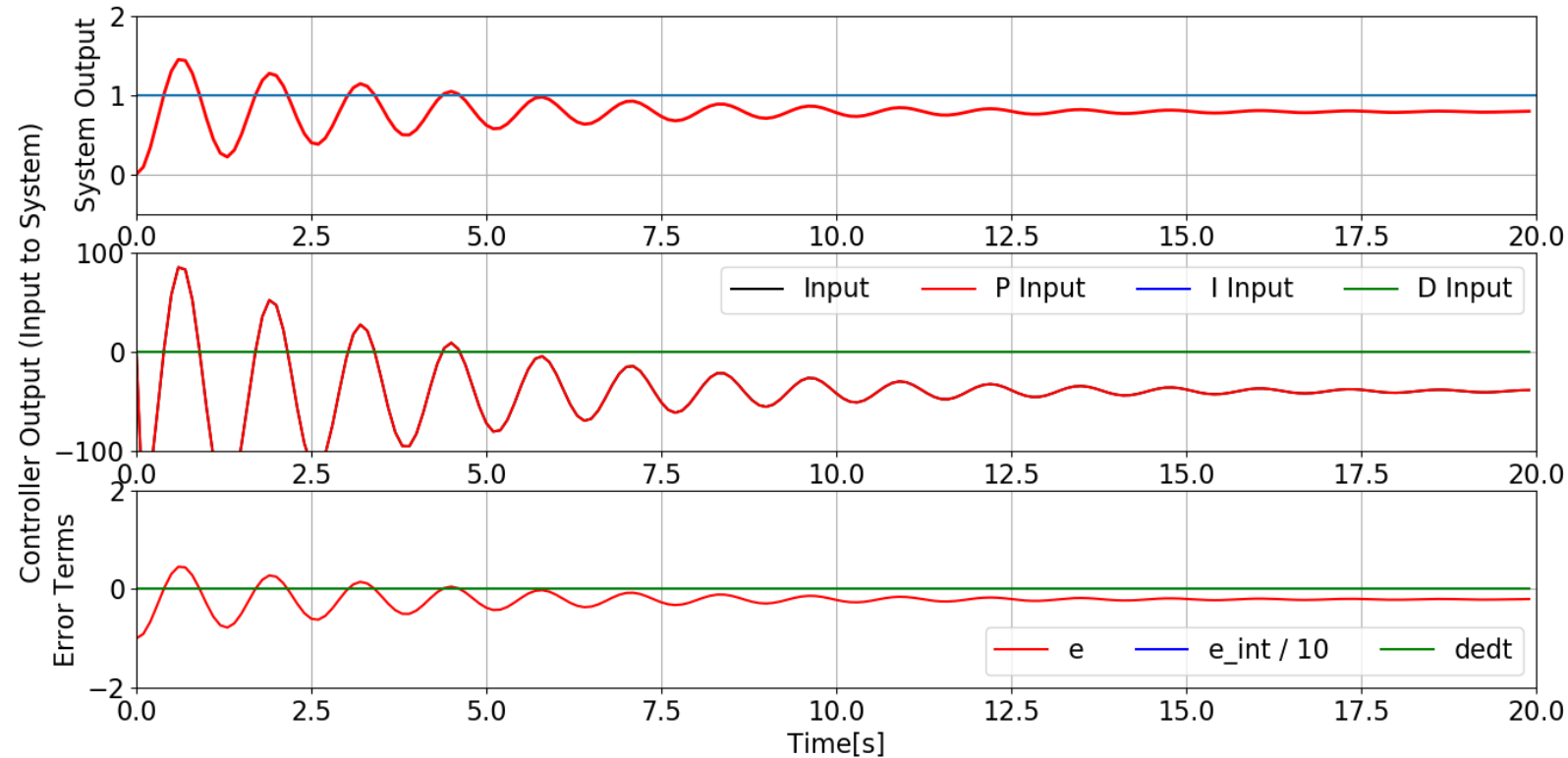
Step Input Response with a PID Controller on a 2nd Order System: $G(s)_{plant} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$



PID Control of 2nd Order System

- Increase K_P gain

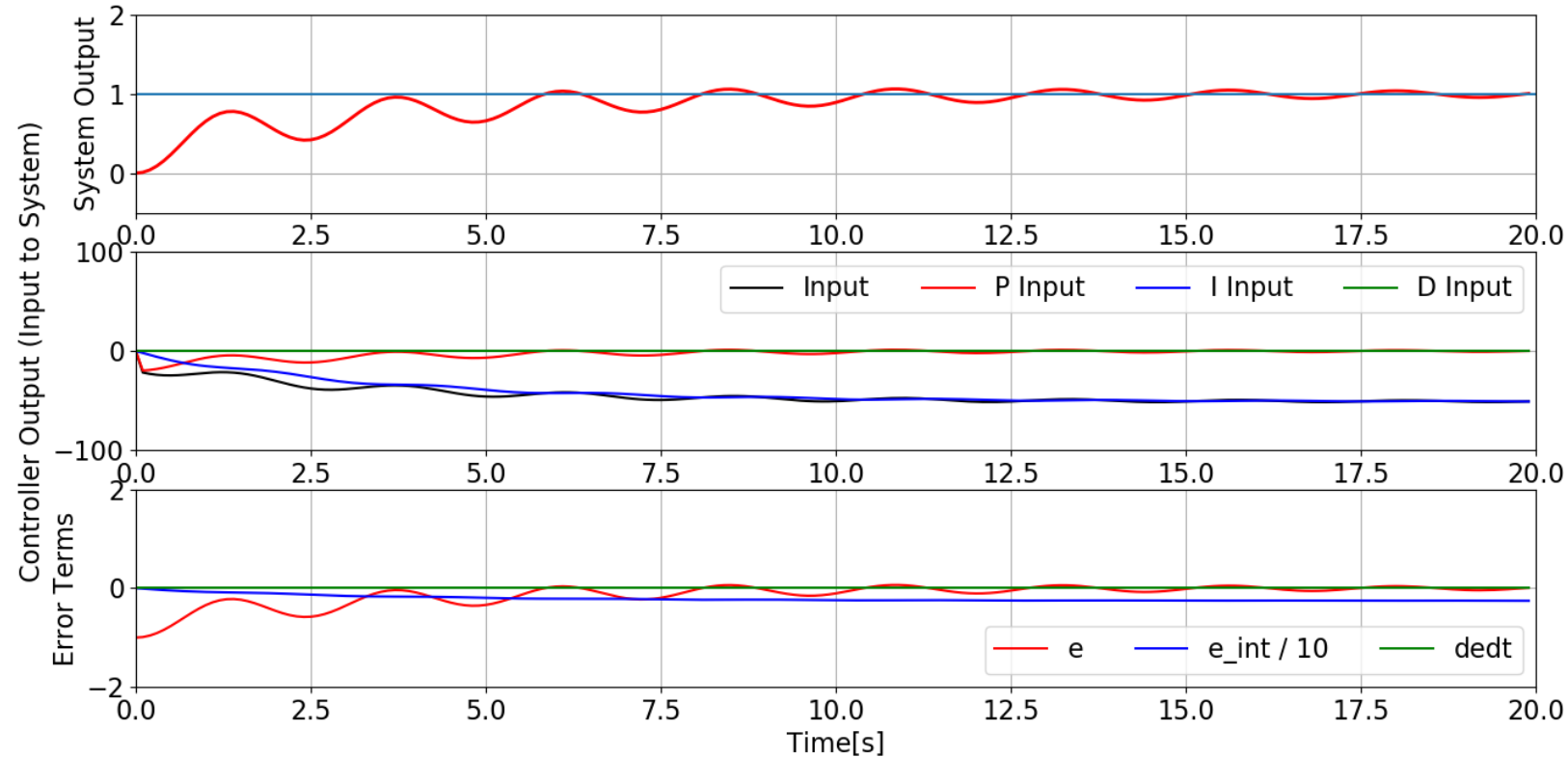
Step Input Response with a PID Controller on a 2nd Order System: $G(s)_{plant} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$



PID Control of 2nd Order System

- Introduce K_I gain

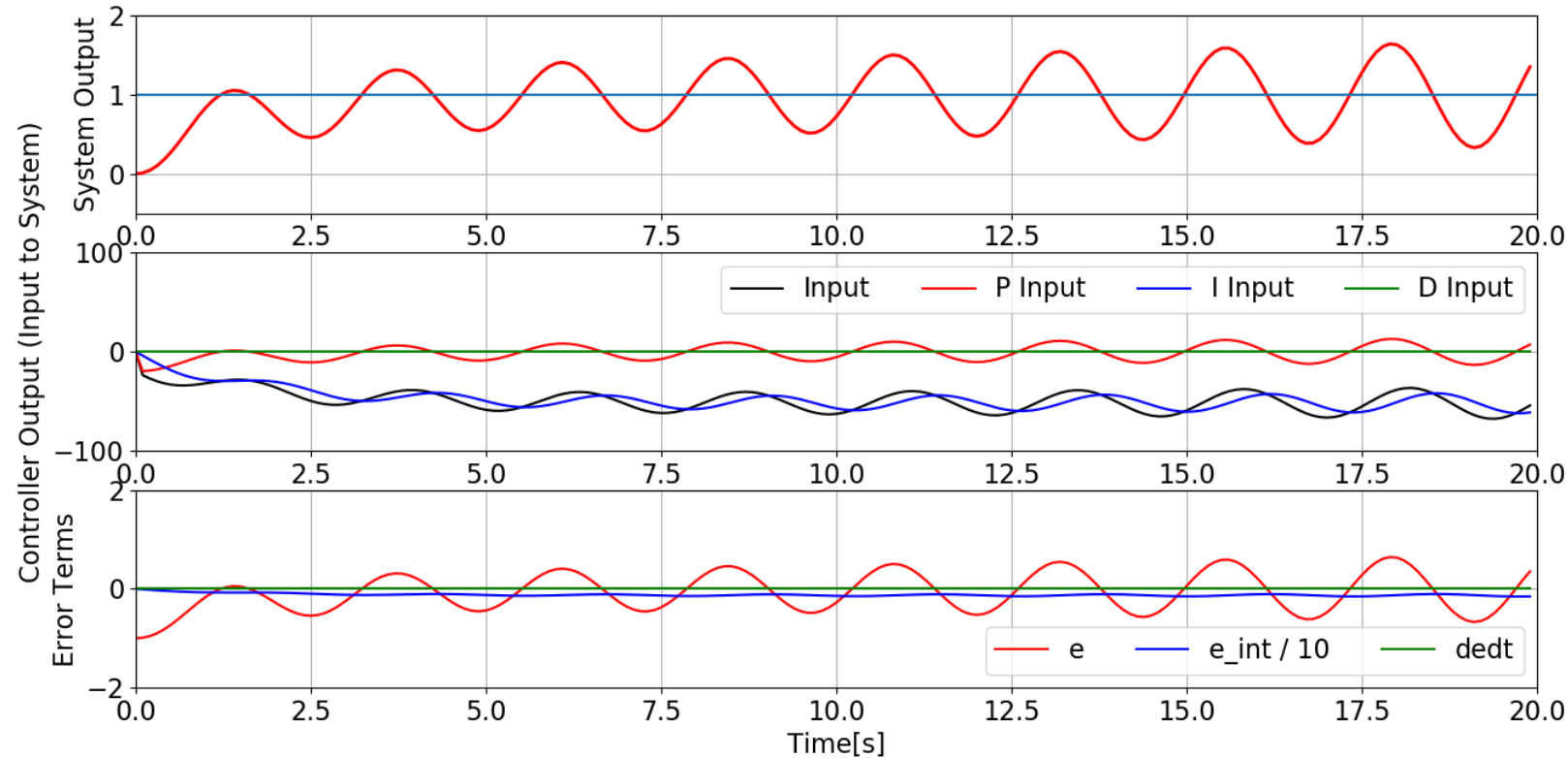
Step Input Response with a PID Controller on a 2nd Order System: $G(s)_{plant} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$



PID Control of 2nd Order System

- Increase K_I gain

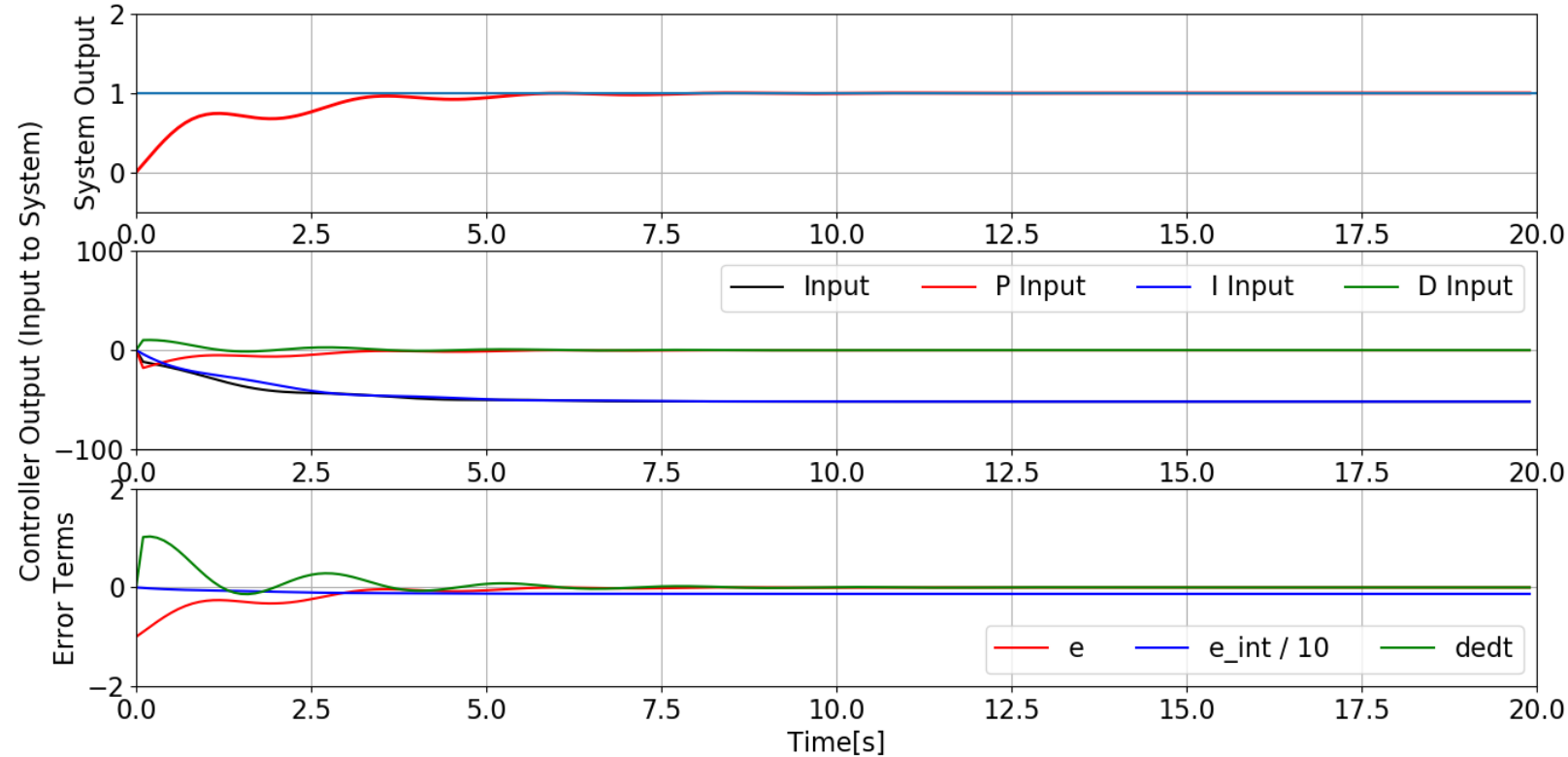
Step Input Response with a PID Controller on a 2nd Order System: $G(s)_{plant} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$



PID Control of 2nd Order System

- Introduce K_D gain

Step Input Response with a PID Controller on a 2nd Order System: $G(s)_{plant} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$



Reset



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Effects of P, I, and D Gains

Gain	Rise Time	Overshoot	Settling Time	e_{ss}
K_P	Decrease	Increase	Small Change	Decrease
K_I	Decrease	Increase	Increase	Decrease
K_D	Small Change	Decrease	Decrease	No Change



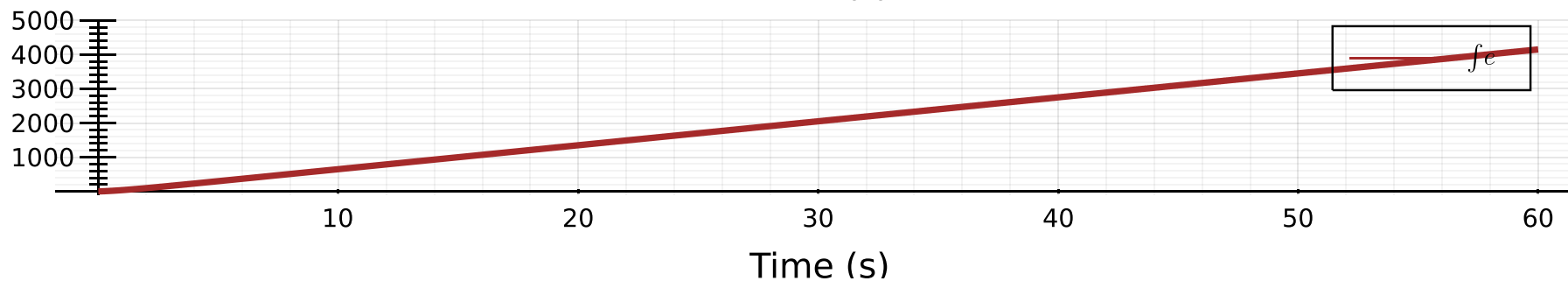
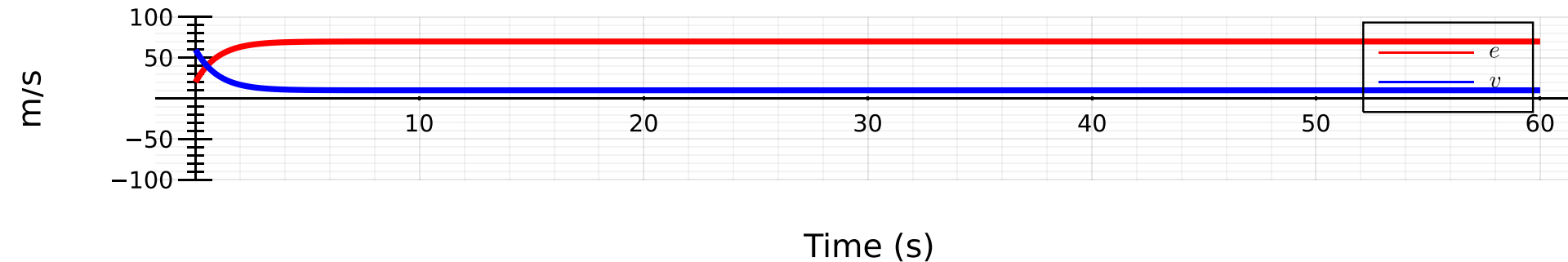
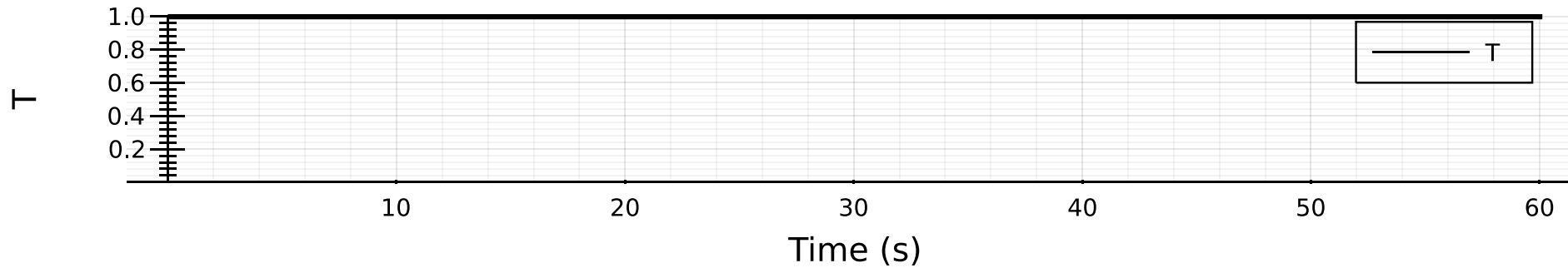
Integrator Wind-up

- Actuators have a finite amplitude
 - In the CCS example, the throttle input can only take values between 0.0 and 1.0.
 - What happens when the controller output value exceeds these limits, while we have an integrator term?
 - Take a look at the CCS example with P Controller, $K_p = 0.1$ and let's just observe what happens to the I term if $K_I = 0.1$



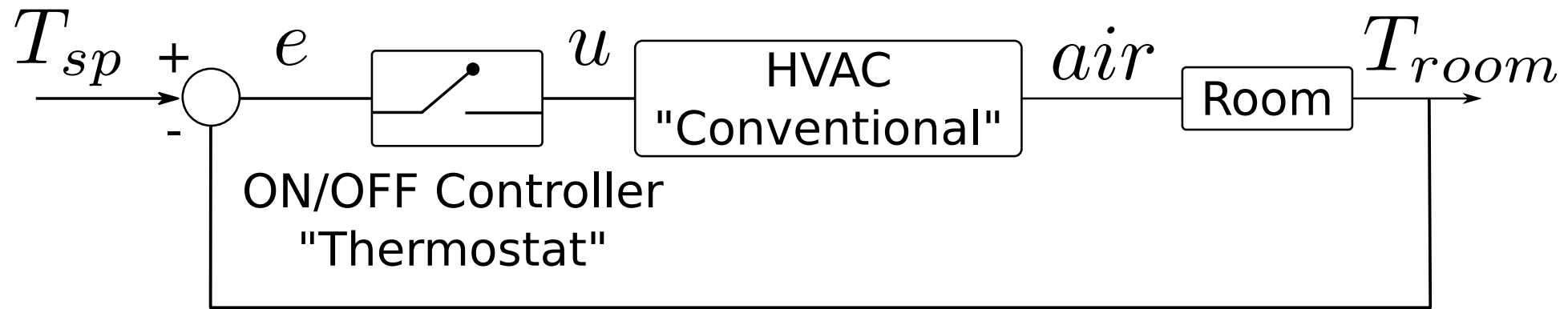
Integrator Wind-up

- What happens to $\int e \, dt$ when we increase $D = 1/v$?

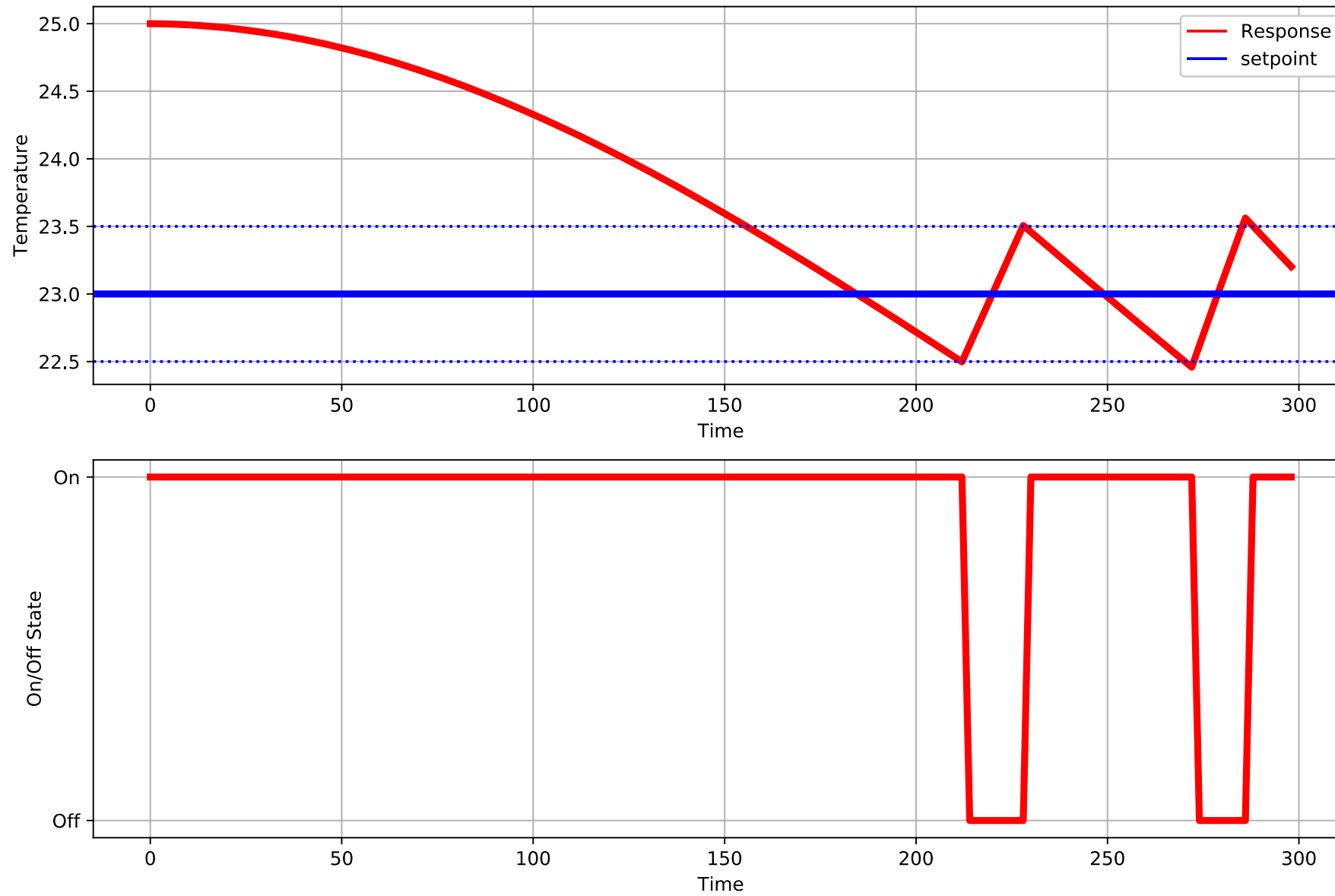


Another example: Feedback Control System - Conventional HVAC

- Controller is a simple On/Off controller
 - If $e \geq 0.5$ and *AC_Is_On*, then turn a/c off: $u = 0$
 - If $e \leq -0.5$ and *AC_Is_Off*, then turn a/c on: $u = 1$
 - Else, keep u unchanged.

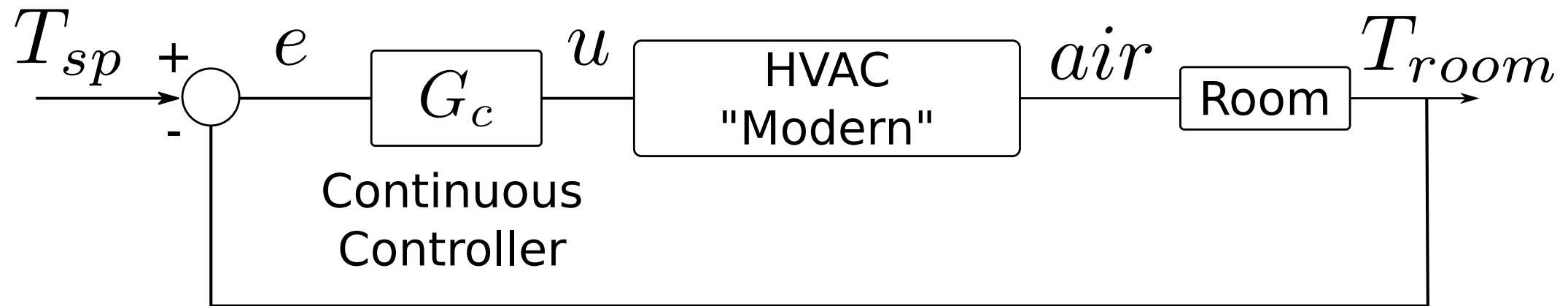


Conventional HVAC: Response

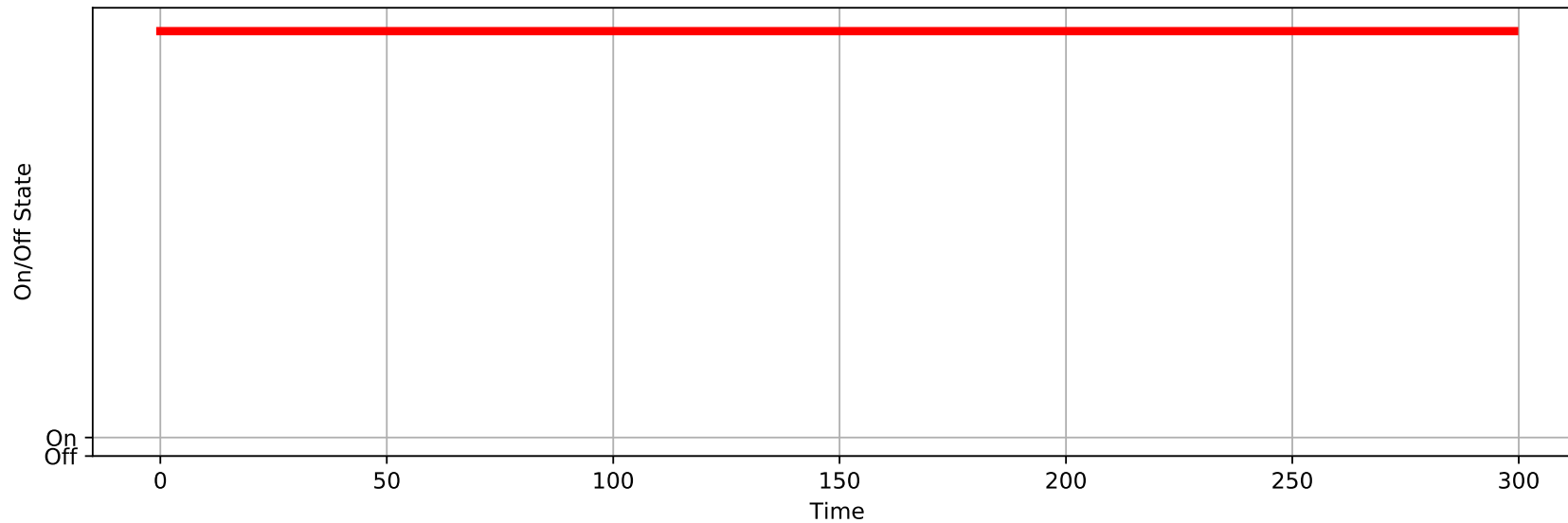
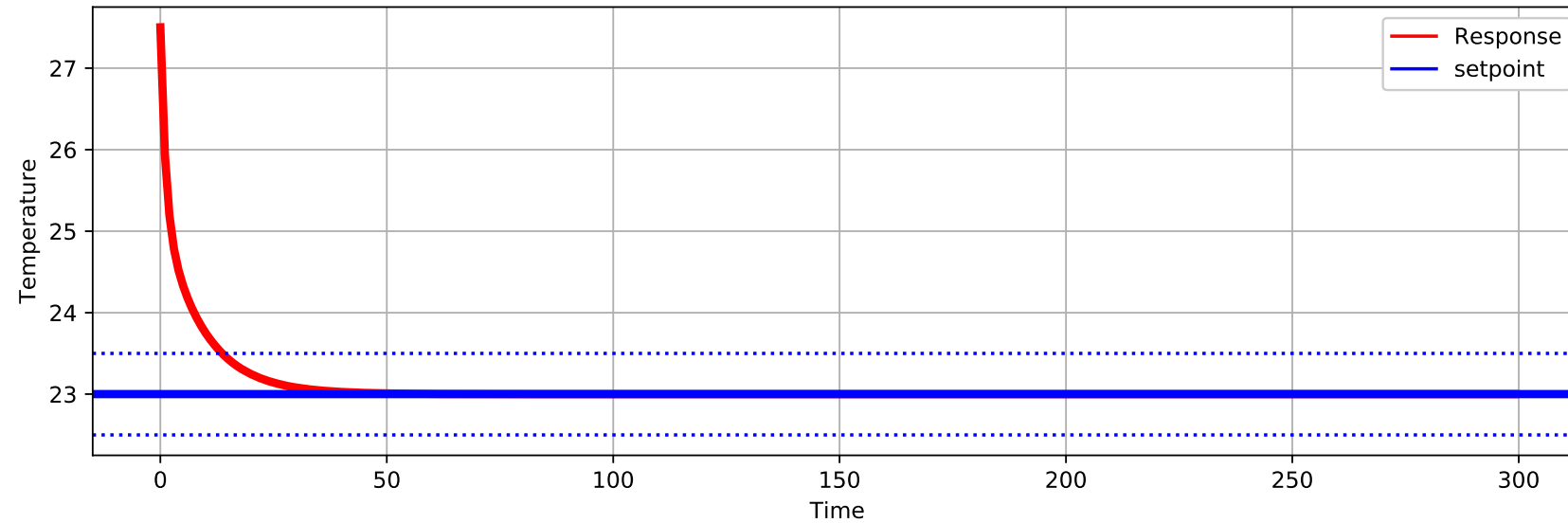


Modern HVAC

- What if we introduce a variable frequency drive (VFD) compressor?
 - The output of the controller will instead be a speed command to the compressor.



Modern HVAC: Response



Side Note: Efficiency of Conventional vs. VFD HVAC

- Assume is the HVAC system is On 50% (Duty Cycle is 50%)
 - Power: $P = \tau\omega$, and $\tau = K_T\omega^2$, so $P = K_T\omega^3$
 - Power is related to the speed of the compressor motor, cubed.
 - With 50% duty cycle, the power: $P_{conventional} = \frac{K_T\omega_c^3}{2}$
- Now, assume we install a VFD compressor on the same capacity HVAC, and would need to run it at 100% duty cycle, at 75% of the conventional setup speed
 - $\omega_{vfd} = \frac{3\omega_c}{4}$
 - Power would then be,
$$P_{VFD} = K_T\omega_{VFD}^3 = \frac{27}{2 \cdot 32} K_T\omega_c^3 = \frac{27}{32} P_{conventional}$$
 - That is 16% reduction in power consumption, plus accurate temperature control

