Chapter 13: PID Controllers

August 19, 2015
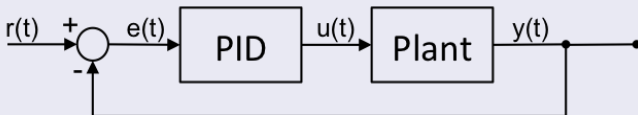
Outline

What is a PID controller?

Definition

A **P**roportional-**I**ntegral-**D**eriviative (PID) controller is a control-loop feedback mechanism (controller) widely used in process industry.

Continuous-time text book equation:

$$u(t) = \underbrace{K_p e(t)}_{\text{Proportional Action}} + \underbrace{K_i \int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau}_{\text{Integral Action}} + \underbrace{K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}}_{\text{Derivative Action}}$$

Note: 90% (or more) of control-loops in process industry are PID.

What is a PID controller?

- **P**roportional action $u_p(t) = K_p e(t)$: it depends on the instaneous value of the error.
    - $+$ Reduces rise time
    - $+$ Reduces but **does not eliminate the steady-state error**: Only when $K \to \infty$, error $\to 0$ (unless the plant has pole(s) at $s = 0$)
- **I**ntegral action $u_i(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau$: it is proportional to the accumulated error.
    - $+$ **Eliminates the steady-state error** for a constant or step input (e.g., in plants of type 0)
    - $-$ Makes transient response slower
- **D**erivative action $u_d(t) = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$: it is proportional to the rate of change of the error.
    - $+$ Increases the stability of the system, reduces overshoot, improves the transient response
    - $-$ Amplifies the noise present in the error signal

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Proportional Control

The continuous-time and discrete-time implementations are identical.

For the continuous-time case we have:

$$u_p(t) = K_p e(t) \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{U_p(s)}{E(s)} = K_p$$

and for the discrete-time case:

$$u_p[k] = K_p e[k] \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{U_p(z)}{E(z)} = K_p$$

where e(t) or e[k] is the error signal.

Derivative Control

In continuous-time it is given by:

$$u_d(t) = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{U_d(s)}{E(s)} = K_d s$$

and in discrete-time by (using backward Euler):

$$u_d[k] = K_d \frac{e[k] - e[k-1]}{T_s} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{U_d(z)}{E(z)} = K_d \frac{z-1}{T_s z}$$

with T_s the sampling time.

Integral Control

In continuous-time it is given by:

$$u_i(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau \quad \rightarrow \quad \dot{u}_i(t) = K_i e(t) \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{U_i(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_i}{s}$$

and in discrete-time by (using backward Euler)

$$u_i[k] = u_i[k-1] + K_i T_s e[k] \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{U_i(z)}{E(z)} = K_i \frac{z T_s}{z-1}$$

with T_s the sampling time.

Digital formulation (conventional version)

Digital PID controller (conventional version)

$$u[k] = K_p e[k] + \frac{K_d}{T_s}(e[k] - e[k-1]) + u_i[k]$$

$$\text{with } u_i[k] = u_i[k-1] + K_i T_s e[k]$$

In the $\mathcal{Z}$-domain:

$$\frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = K_p + K_i T_s \frac{z}{z-1} + \frac{K_d}{T_s} \frac{z-1}{z}$$

where $K_i T_s$ and $\frac{K_d}{T_s}$ are the new derivative and gains.

Digital PI controller

$$\frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = K_p + K_i T_s \frac{z}{z-1}$$

Digital PD controller

$$\frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = K_p + \frac{K_d}{T_s} \frac{z-1}{z}$$

Alternative Digital PID controller

If we discretize the continuous-time (analog) PID controller using the bilinear transformation,

$$\frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \bigg|_{s=\frac{2}{T_s}\left(\frac{z-1}{z+1}\right)}$$

we obtain an alternative form for a digital PID controller

$$\frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = K_p + \frac{K_i T_s(z+1)}{2(z-1)} + \frac{2K_d(z-1)}{T_s(z+1)}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_2 z^2 + \alpha_1 z + \alpha_0}{(z-1)(z+1)}$$

where $\alpha_2, \alpha_1, \alpha_0$ are design parameters.

PID Math Demystified

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JEpWlTl95Tw
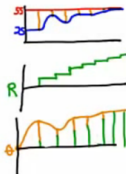
Alternative Derivative Action (Continuous-time)

Imagine a step change in reference signal $r(t)$. This results in a theoretically infinite, practically very large response of the derivative term.
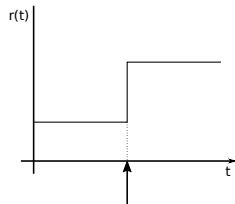
$\Rightarrow$ Add a low-pass filter to the derivative term:

$$\frac{U_d(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_d s}{1 + s\tau}$$

With $s = j\omega$, breakpoint at $\omega = 1/\tau$. This prevents amplification of high frequencies.

Alternative Derivative Action (Continuous-time)

$$\frac{U_d(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_d s}{1 + s\tau}$$

Further $e(t)$ is replaced by $c \cdot r(t) - y(t)$ with c the setpoint weighting, which is often set to zero to further reduce immediate influence of a sudden set-point jump.

In the time-domain:

$$u_d(t) = -\tau \frac{du_d}{dt} + K_d \frac{d}{dt}(c \cdot r(t) - y(t))$$

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Analog Implementation

The key building block is the operational amplifier (op-amp).

- PV - Process Variable $y(t)$
- SP - Setpoint $r(t)$
- Output - Control action $u(t)$

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Analog Implementation

Analog PID controller: FOXBORO 62H-4E-OH M/62H

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Analog PI Motor Speed Control
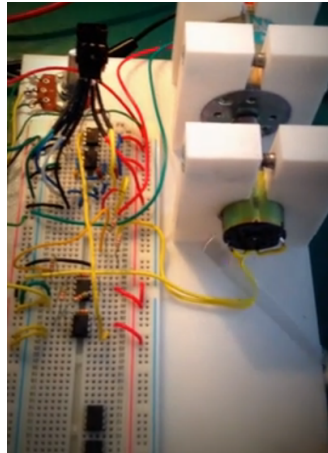
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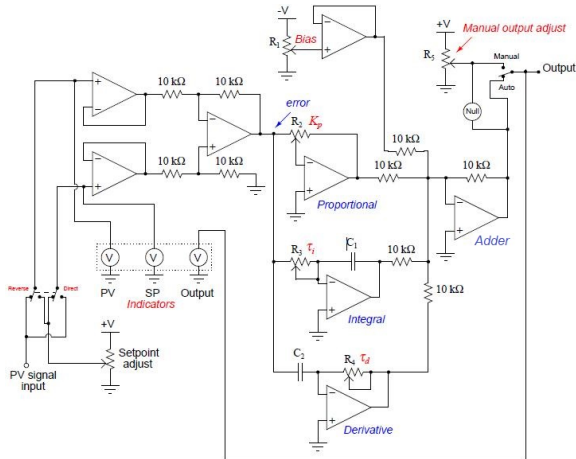Analog Implementation
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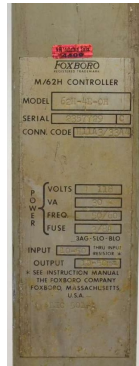   - Numerical Optimization Methods

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Digital Implementation

The difference equations are typically implemented in a microcontroller or in an FPGA (field-programmable gate array) device:

$$u[k] = K_p e[k] + \frac{K_d}{T_s}(e[k] - e[k-1]) + u_i[k]$$

$$\text{with } u_i[k] = u_i[k-1] + K_i T_s e[k]$$

Pseudocode

```
previous_error = 0
integral = 0
Start:
    error = setpoint − measured_value
    proportional = KP ∗ error
    integral = integral + Ki∗sampling_time∗error
    derivative = Kd∗(error−previous_error)/sampling_time
    output = proportional + integral + derivative
    previous_error = error
    wait (sampling_time)
    goto Start
```

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Digital Implementation

PLC with a digital PID module:

Digital PID:

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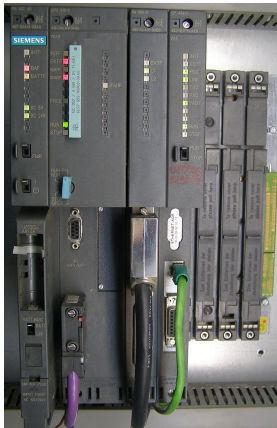
PLC

A **P**rogrammable **L**ogic **C**ontroller (PLC) is a digital computer used for automation in process industry.

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What is a PLC? Basics of PLCs

https://youtu.be/iWgHqqunsyE

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Manual Tuning

The effects of each of the controller parameters K_p, K_i, and K_d on the closed-loop system are summarized in the table below.

PID gains	Closed-loop response			
	Rise Time	Overshoot	Settling time	Steady-State error
$K_p \uparrow$	Decrease	Increase	Small Change	Decrease
$K_i \uparrow$	Decrease	Increase	Increase	Eliminate
$K_d \uparrow$	Small change	Decrease	Decrease	No change

Important note

Changing one parameter can influence the effect of the other two. Therefore, use this table only as a reference.

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One possible way is as follows (the controller is connected to the plant):

1. Set K_i and K_d equal to 0.

2. Increase K_p until you observe that the step response is fast enough and the steady-state error is small.

3. Start adding some integral action in order to get rid of the steady-state error. Keep in mind that too much K_i can cause instability!

4. Add some derivative action in order to quickly react to disturbances and/or dampen the response.

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Heuristic Methods

When the **mathematical model of a plant is unknown** or it is too complicated to obtain, an analytical approach to design a PID controller is not possible. Therefore in these cases we have to use an experimental approach to tune the PID controller. Among the existing experimental approaches we can mention:
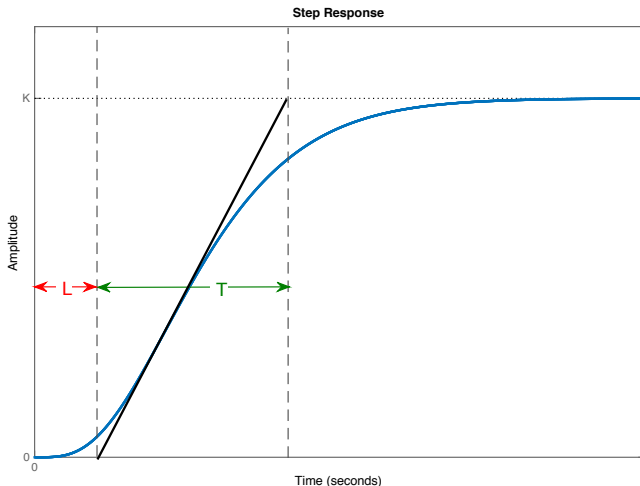
- Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule based on step response (First method)
- Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule based on critical gain and critical period (Second method)

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: First Method

In this method, the response of the plant to a unit-step input is obtained experimentally. If the plant involves neither integrators nor dominant complex-conjugate poles, then such a unit-step response curve may look S-shaped as shown in the figure on the next slide. This S-shaped curve may be characterized by two constants: delay time L and time constant T. The delay time and the time constant are determined by drawing a tangent line at the inflection point of the S-shaped curve and determining the intersections of the tangent line with the time axis and a horizontal line crossing the y-axis at point $(0,K)$.

If the response to a step input does not exhibit an S-shaped curve, the first method does not apply.

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: First Method

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: First Method

Ziegler and Nichols suggested to set the values of K_p, K_i, and K_d according to the formulas shown in the following table:

Control Type	K_p	K_i	K_d
P	T/L	0	0
PI	$0.9\frac{T}{L}$	$K_p\frac{0.3}{L}$	0
PID	$1.2\frac{T}{L}$	$\frac{K_p}{2L}$	$0.5LK_p$

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: First Method

The PID controller tuned by the first method gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{U(s)}{E(s)} &= K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \\
&= 1.2 \frac{T}{L} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2Ls} + 0.5Ls \right) \\
&= 0.6T \frac{\left(s + \frac{1}{L} \right)^2}{s}
\end{aligned}
$$

with a pole at the origin and a double zero at $s = -\frac{1}{L}$.

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: Second Method

This method is based on the value of K_p that results in marginal stability when only proportional control action is used.

1. Set the integral and derivative gains to zero ($K_p = K_d = 0$);

2. Increase the proportional gain K_p until the output of the control loop starts oscillating with a constant amplitude. The value of K_p at this point is referred to as ultimate gain ($K_u \triangleq K_p$);

3. Measure the period of the oscillations T_u at the output of the closed-loop system;

4. Use K_u and T_u to determine the gains of the PID controller according to the tuning rule table shown in the next slide.

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: Second Method

Control Type	K_p	K_i	K_d
P	$0.5K_u$	-	-
PI	$0.45K_u$	$1.2K_p/T_u$	-
PD	$0.8K_u$	-	$K_pT_u/8$
PID	$0.6K_u$	$2K_p/T_u$	$K_pT_u/8$
Pessen Integral Rule	$0.7K_u$	$2.5K_p/T_u$	$3K_pT_u/20$
Some overshoot	$0.33K_u$	$2K_p/T_u$	$K_pT_u/3$
No overshoot	$0.2K_u$	$2K_p/T_u$	$K_pT_u/3$

If the output does not exhibit sustained oscillations for whatever value K_p may take, then the second method does not apply.

Keep in mind that we are working with heuristic tuning rules, and therefore some additional fine tuning might be necessary.

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Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule: Sedond Method (example)

Example

Consider a plant with a given model:

$$P(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)^3}$$

- We compute the critical gain K_u. This is the value of K_p for which $\angle(K_p P(s)) = -180°$. On the Nyquist plot this is the value of K_p for which $K_p P(s)$ passes through $(-1, 0)$.
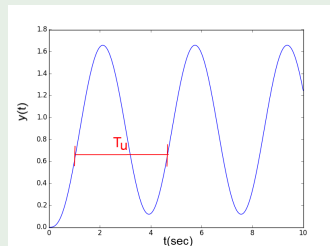
$K_u P(j\omega_u) = -1$

$\quad \Leftrightarrow K_u = -(j\omega_u + 1)^3$

$\qquad = (3\omega_u^2 - 1) + j(\omega_u^3 - 3\omega_u)$

$\quad \omega_u^3 - 3\omega_u = 0 \Rightarrow \omega_u = \sqrt{3}$

$\quad K_u = 8, T_u = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_u} = 3.628$
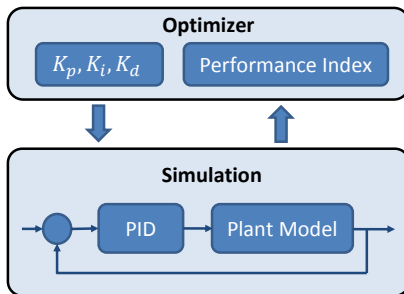
$K_p = 4.8, K_i = 2.6448, K_d = 2.16$

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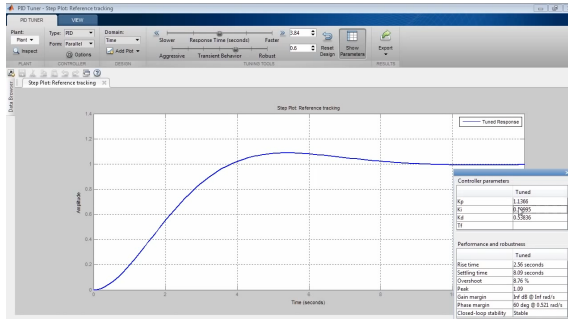The tuning of a PID controller is posed as a constrained optimization problem.

- For a given set of parameters K_p, K_i and K_d run a simulation of the closed-loop system, and compute some performance parameters (e.g. settling time, rise time, etc.) and a performance index.
- Optimize the performance index over the three PID gains.

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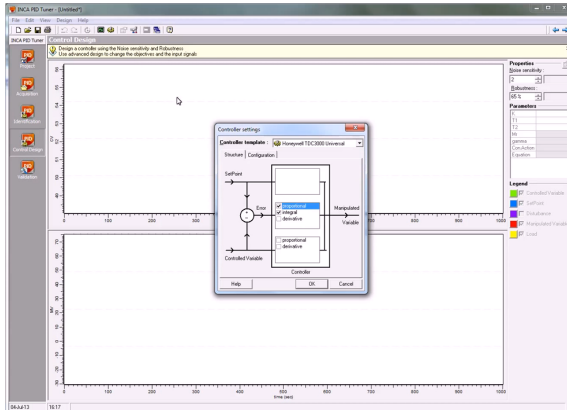Analog and Digital formulations
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Some Software Tools

Software Tool	Brief Description
pidtool/pidTuner	It is a Matlab tool to interactively design a SISO PID controller in the feed-forward path of single-loop, unity-feedback control configuration
Pidpy	It is a modular PID control library for python that supports PID auto tuning. https://pypi.python.org/pypi/pypid/
INCA PID Tuner	It is a commercial tuning tool developed by IPCOS. It has a vast library of PID structures for DCS and PLC Systems including Siemens, ABB, Honeywell, Emerson, etc. http://www.ipcos.com/advancedprocesscontrol/advanced-process-control/pid-tuning-software/inca-pid-tuning/

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pidtool/pidTuner - Demo

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2tKe0caUv1I

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INCA PID Tuner - Demo

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XH2bkq1URSg