

## Chapter 13 - PID Controllers

August 7, 2015

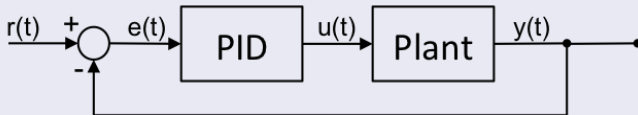
# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Analog and Digital formulations
- 3 Implementations
- 4 PID Tuning

# What is a PID controller?

## Definition

A **P**roportional-**I**ntegral-**D**erivative (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?

- **Proportional action**  $u_p(t) = K_p e(t)$ : it depends on the instantaneous value of the error.
  - + Reduces rise time
  - + Reduces but **does not eliminate the steady-state error**:  
Only when  $K \rightarrow \infty$ , error  $\rightarrow 0$  (unless the plant has pole(s) at  $s = 0$ )
- **Integral 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** in some cases
  - Makes transient response slower
- **Derivative 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 implementation 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:

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

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

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

with  $T_s$  the sampling time.

# Integral Control

In continuous-time it is given by:

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

$$\dot{u}_i = K_i e(t)$$

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  $\frac{K_d}{T_s}$  and  $K_i T_s$  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

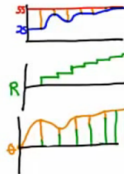
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{U(z)}{E(z)} &= K_p + \frac{K_i T_s (z+1)}{2(z-1)} + \frac{2K_d (z-1)}{T_s (z+1)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha_2 z^2 + \alpha_1 z + \alpha_0}{(z-1)(z+1)} \end{aligned}$$

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

## Proportional + Integral

$$u(t) = K \times e(t) + \sum \frac{K}{\tau_i} e(t)$$

Error := Setpoint - ProcessValue;  
 Reset := Reset + K/tau\_i \* Error;  
 Output := K \* Error + Reset;



Units of Tuning Constants

K -

Gain -----> Dimensionless ->  $K \cdot e(t)$

Proportional Band -> % of Span ----->  $e(t) / K$

Tau\_i -

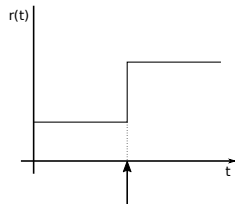
Seconds per Repeat ----->  $K / \tau_i \cdot \sum(e(t))$

Repeats per Minute ----->  $K \cdot \tau_i \cdot \sum(e(t))$

<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.



⇒ 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 set point weighting, which is often set to zero to further reduce immediate influence of a sudden set-point jump.

In the time-domain:

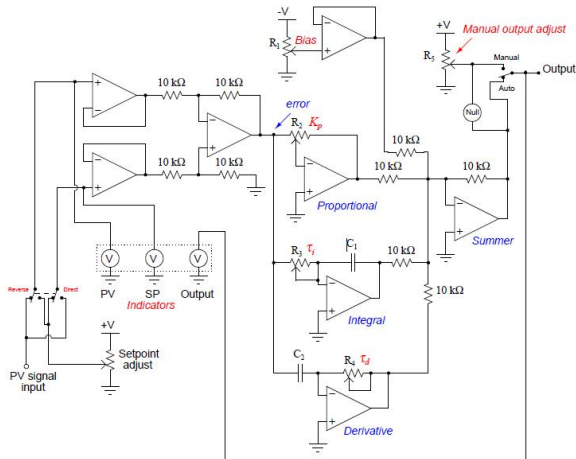
$$u_d(t) = -\tau \frac{du_d}{dt} + K_d \frac{d}{dt}(c \cdot r(t) - y(t))$$

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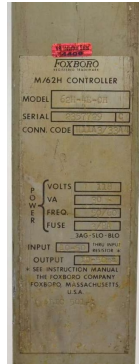
# Analog Implementation

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



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

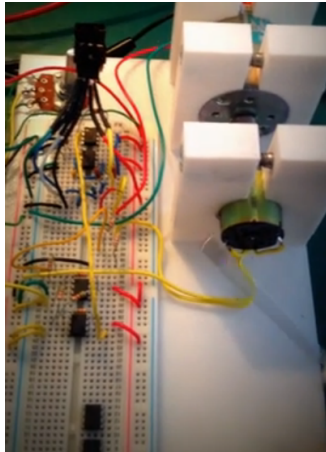
# Analog Implementation



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



# Analog PI Motor Speed Control



<https://youtu.be/6W3PLiVlcmE>

# Digital Implementation

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

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

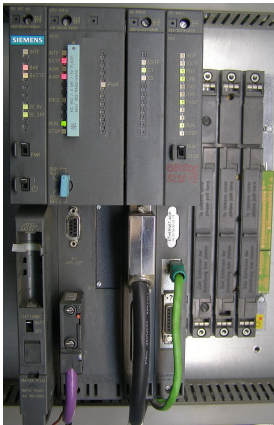
$$\text{with } u_i[k] = u_i[k-1] + K_i T_s e[k]$$

## 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
\textcolor{Blue}{wait} (sampling_time)
\textcolor{Blue}{goto} Start
```

# Digital Implementation

PLC with a digital PID module:



Digital PID:



# PLC

**A Programmable Logic Controller (PLC)** is a digital computer used for automation in process industry.



# 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.

# Manual Tuning

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.



# Heuristic Methods

Sometimes the **mathematical model** of the plant is **not known**. In these cases we will use the **heuristic methods**:

- Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule based on step response (First method)
- Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule based on critical gain and critical period (Second method)

## Heuristic Methods: Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule

This method relies on empirically determining two parameters of the system:

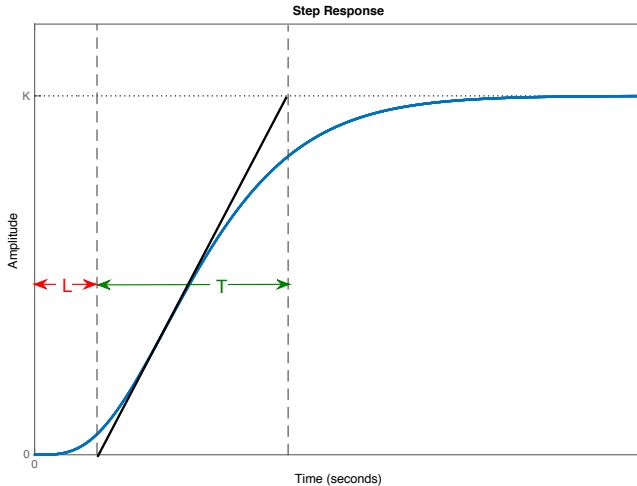
- 1 Set the integral and derivative gains to 0
- 2 Increase the proportional gain  $K_p$  until the output of the control loop starts oscillating with at constant amplitude. The value of  $K_p$  at this point is referred to as ultimate gain  $K_u \triangleq K_p$
- 3 Measure the period of the oscillations  $T_u$  at the output
- 4 Adjust the controller parameters according the table on the next slide.

# First Method

In this method, the response of the plant to a unit-step input is obtained experimentally (because we do not know the mathematical model). 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 line Amplitude =  $K$ .

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

# First Method



# First Method

Control Type	$K_P$	$K_I$	$K_D$
P	$\frac{T}{L}$	0	0
PI	$0.9\frac{T}{L}$	$K_p^{0.3}\frac{L}{T}$	0
PID	$1.2\frac{T}{L}$	$\frac{K_p}{2L}$	$0.5LK_P$

The PID controller tuned by the first method of Ziegler-Nichols rules 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  $s = -\frac{1}{L}$ .

## Second Method

With  $K_u$  and  $T_u$  defined as before, a starting point for the parameters can be determined:

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

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

# Ziegler-Nichols tuning rule(example)

## Example

Consider a plant with a given model:

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

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

$$K_c P(j\omega_c) = -1$$

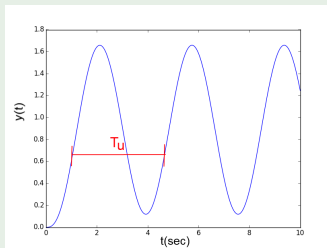
$$\Leftrightarrow K_c = -(j\omega_c + 1)^3$$

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

$$\omega_c^3 - 3\omega_c = 0 \Rightarrow \omega_c = \sqrt{3}$$

$$K_c = 8, T_u = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 3.628$$

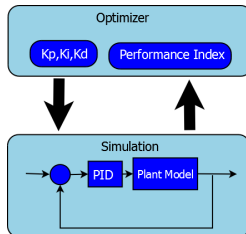
$$K_p = 4.8, K_I = 0.551K_p, K_d = 0.45K_p$$



# Numerical Optimization Methods

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. setting time, rise time, etc.) and a performance index.
- Optimize the performance index over the three PID gains.

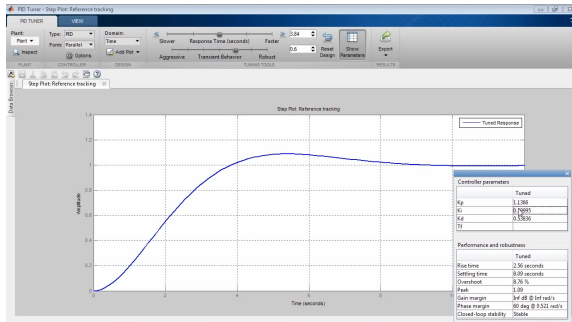




## Some Software Tools

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. <a href="https://pypi.python.org/pypi/pypid/">https://pypi.python.org/pypi/pypid/</a>
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. <a href="http://www.ipcos.com/advancedprocesscontrol/advanced-process-control/pid-tuning-software/inca-pid-tuning/">http://www.ipcos.com/advancedprocesscontrol/advanced-process-control/pid-tuning-software/inca-pid-tuning/</a>

# pidtool / pidTuner - Demo



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

