

Introduction to Control

July 22, 2015

Outline

- 1 Basics
 - Classical control loop
 - Demo: Inverted Pendulum
 - Elements
- 2 Control Goals
 - stability
 - disturbance rejection
 - Reference tracking
 - Exercise
- 3 Closed-loop system
 - Sensitivity
 - Robustness
 - Types of systems and Steady State Error
 - Noise- and disturbance rejection

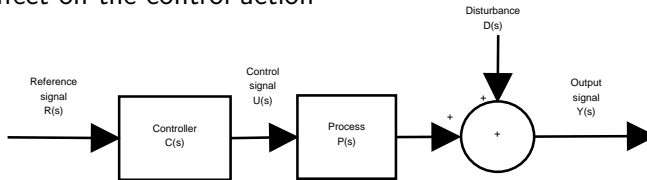
An introduction to control

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What is control?

- The goal is to find an input (control signal $U(s)$) such that the process produces the desired output
- Open loop control system: the actual output signal has no effect on the control action

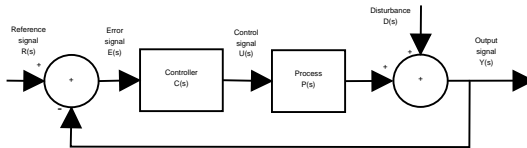


$$Y = PU = PCR$$

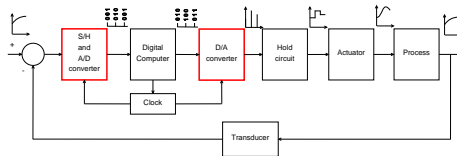
Remember the example of pouring a glass of water without looking at the glass

A general set-up of a closed loop system

- We will focus on closed loop control systems

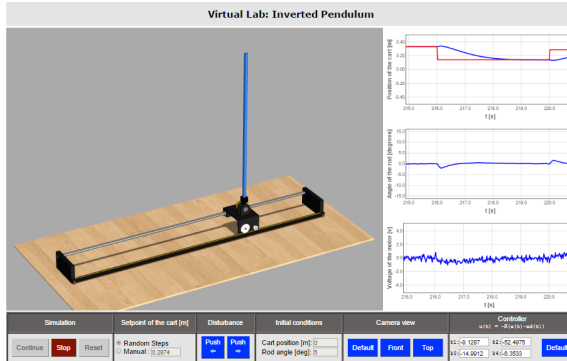


- Example: Inverted pendulum
- Digital Control Loop:



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KU Leuven ESAT
Oscar Mauricio Agudelo
Bart De Moor

Inverted Pendulum

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Concrete Control

- On-off controller
 - Thermostate at home
- **PID controllers, Lead and lag compensators (this course)**
 - Cruise-control in your car
- More advanced controllers
 - STATE-space feedback controllers
 - Model Predictive Controller (MPC)
 - Fuzzy Control
 - Neuro-fuzzy Control
 - ...

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What is good control?

- Before we will start to design control systems we will first focus on the question. What is good control?
- It depends on the application
 - Stability
 - Disturbance rejection
 - Reference tracking (speed)
 - Sensitivity to errors on model
 - Etc...

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Examples: stability



Space shuttles are like inverted pendulums. How do you make sure they don't flip over.

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Examples: Disturbance rejection

- Your body will try to keep the temperature in your body as constant as possible. No matter what the outside temperature is. Two people will have almost the same body temperature.



Flickr.com, [tent86](#), Marathon Des Sables 046



[Jack Zalium](#), Enduring,
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/2.0/>

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Examples: Reference tracking



Audi has a system for automatic driving in traffic jams. The audi will follow the car in front of him at an appropriate distance.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qa_ZSRj0WMO

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Exercise: name the correct property



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Transfer function of a closed-loop system

$$Y(s) - D(s) = P(s)U(s)$$

$$\text{with } U(s) = C(s)E(s)$$

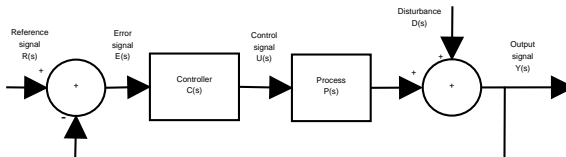
$$Y(s) - D(s) = P(s)C(s)E(s)$$

$$\text{with } E(s) = R(s) - Y(s)$$

$$Y(s) - D(s) = P(s)C(s)(R(s) - Y(s))$$

$$Y(s) - D(s) = P(s)C(s)R(s) - P(s)C(s)Y(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(s) = \frac{P(s)C(s)}{1 + P(s)C(s)}R(s) + \frac{1}{1 + P(s)C(s)}D(s)$$



Transfer function from $R(s)$ to $Y(s)$

We define S as the transfer function from $R(s)$ to $Y(s)$

$$S(s) \triangleq \frac{P(s)C(s)}{1 + P(s)C(s)}$$

This transfer function $S(s)$ will help us to evaluate tracking
Almost perfect tracking: the output $Y(s)$ will follow $R(s)$ very closely $\Rightarrow S(s) \approx 1$

Transfer function from $D(s)$ to $Y(s)$

We define $T(s)$ as the transfer function from $D(s)$ to $Y(s)$.

$$T(s) \triangleq \frac{1}{1 + P(s)C(s)}$$

If the disturbance rejection is very good the disturbances will have almost no effect on the output $\Rightarrow T \approx 0$

$$\begin{cases} |S(j\omega)| \cong 1 \\ |T(j\omega)| \cong 0 \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow |P(j\omega)C(j\omega)|$ (**open loop gain**) is very large.

! a large open loop amplification might lead to an unstable system

Model errors

- In practice, transfer function of $P(s)$ might be unknown. It is important to know what the effect of the model errors will be. Sensitivity and robustness are key-concepts to evaluate these effects.
- Sensitivity
 - Quantifies the effect of a small perturbation on the model will be on the output.
- Robustness
 - This concept refers to bigger changes on the model. A controller is robust if it works properly over a given set of parameters.

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Sensitivity

- Sensitivity is a measure for the effect of a (small) disturbance on the model (e.g. variations in the process parameters)

$$Y(s) + \Delta Y(s) = \frac{(P(s) + \Delta P(s))C(s)}{1 + (P(s) + \Delta P(s))C(s)} R(s) + \frac{1}{1 + (P(s) + \Delta P(s))C(s)} D(s)$$

- Look at the effect on the system without disturbances ($D(s)=0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta Y &= \frac{(P + \Delta P)C}{1 + (P + \Delta P)C} R - \frac{PC}{1 + PC} R \\ &= \frac{(P + \Delta P)C(1 + PC) - PC - PC(P + \Delta P)C}{(1 + (P + \Delta P)C)(1 + PC)} R \\ &= \frac{\Delta PC}{(1 + (P + \Delta P)C)(1 + PC)} R \\ &= Y \frac{\Delta P}{P} \frac{1}{1 + (P + \Delta P)C} \end{aligned}$$

Sensitivity

- Now take the relative change due to this disturbance of the model and take the limit for $\partial x \rightarrow 0$; this gives the following (measure of the) sensitivity:

$$S_P^Y(s) = \frac{\frac{\partial Y}{Y}(s)}{\frac{\partial P}{P}(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + P(s)C(s)}$$

- Again, a very large $|P(s)C(s)|$ looks like a good choice, but again there is a risk for instability!
- Note that the sensitivity can be determined for any parameter

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Example 1: robustness

- Suppose we want to stabilize the system $P(s) = 1/(s - a)$. We only know that $a \in [0.20; 0.80]$. We propose to use a proportional controller $C(s) = K$. The closed loop transfer function becomes

$$S(s) = \frac{P(s)C(s)}{1 + P(s)C(s)} = \frac{\frac{1}{s-a}K}{1 + \frac{1}{s-a}K} = \frac{K}{s - a + K}$$

The controller stabilizes the system if $a + K > 0$. If we choose K very large the system will be robust against changes in a .

Example 2: robustness

Suppose we want to stabilize the system $P(s) = \frac{1}{(s-a)}$ with $a \in [0.20; 0.80]$. If we choose the control law $C(s) = \frac{K}{s}$ this results in the same transfer function.

$$S(s) = \frac{P(s)C(s)}{1 + P(s)C(s)} = \frac{\frac{s}{s-a} \frac{K}{s}}{1 + \frac{s}{s-a} \frac{K}{s}} = \frac{K}{s - a + K}$$

Again we choose $K > a$ to ensure stability. But how does the controller perform on the slightly perturbed system $\tilde{P}(s) = \frac{(s+\epsilon)}{(s-a)}$?
The transfer function from $R(s)$ to $Y(s)$ becomes

$$S(s) = \frac{\frac{s+\epsilon}{s-a} \frac{K}{s}}{1 + \frac{s+\epsilon}{s-a} \frac{K}{s}} = \frac{(s+\epsilon)K}{s^2 + (K-a)s + \epsilon K}$$

Example 2: robustness

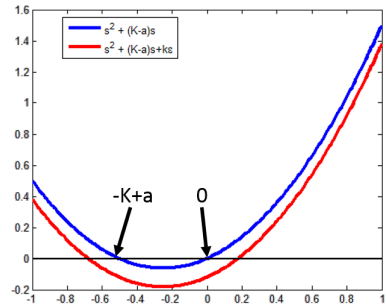
$$\tilde{S}(s) = \frac{(s + \epsilon)K}{s^2 + (K - a)s + \epsilon K}$$

The figure on the right plots

$$s^2 + (K - a)s$$

$$s^2 + (K - a)s + \epsilon K$$

For ϵ negative the system becomes unstable. The control system is not robust and useless in practical situations. You shouldn't use control laws which rely on a pole-zero cancellation.



Example 3: Robustness of steady-state error

- The steady state error is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e(t) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (r(t) - y(t)) \\ &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s(R(s) - Y(s)) \quad (\text{final value theorem})\end{aligned}$$

- A very small steady state error (preferably zero) indicates that the controller tracks the reference very well
- For the open loop system with a step reference

$$e_{ol}(\infty) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s(1 - C(s)P(s))R(s) = 1 - C(0)P(0)$$

- So the open loop controller can be free of a steady state error (for a step reference $\epsilon(t)$) by calibrating the controller such that $C(0)P(0) = 1$
- \Rightarrow a precise calibration of the DC gain

Example 3: Steady state error

- Closed loop system:

$$\begin{aligned} e_{cl} &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \left(1 - \frac{C(s)P(s)}{1 + C(s)P(s)} \right) R(s) \\ &= \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{1 + C(s)P(s)} R(s) = \frac{1}{1 + C(0)P(0)} \end{aligned}$$

- The steady state error is small if $C(0)P(0)$ is very large
- Again, calibrating the DC gain
- However, the difference is that here, we only need a large value for it, which is far less demanding than having to make it equal to 1

An open loop controller is not robust

- We can now show how this results in a great advantage of the closed loop strategy over the open loop strategy:
 - If P changes slightly (for instance due to a factor that has not been taken up into the model) to $P + \Delta P$
 - Then making $e_{ol}(\infty)$ small would require to calibrate anew
 - Whereas $e_{cl}(\infty)$ would remain small, as long as $(P(0) + \Delta P(0))C(0)$ remains large
- Hence an open loop controller cannot control the output **robustly** against changes in P

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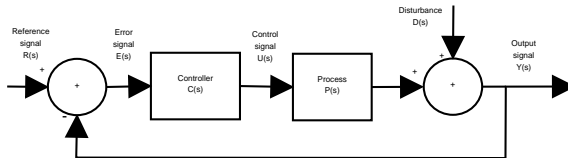
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Noise rejection and disturbance rejection

- Both refer to rejection of the input D but are not the same
- Measurement noise is often modelled by white noise. (High frequency signal)
- Disturbances are actual changes to the state of the system



Noise versus Disturbances

- Cruise control:
Measurement errors on the speed are noise
A change in slope is a disturbance

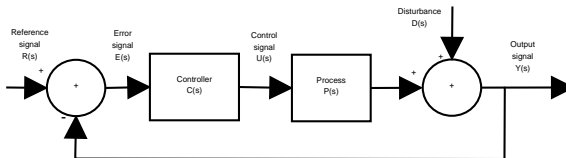


Noise versus Disturbances

- Remember from the start of the lecture

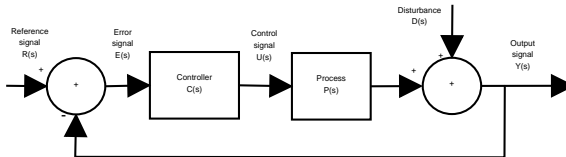
$$Y(s) = \frac{P(s)C(s)}{1 + P(s)C(s)} R(s) + \frac{1}{1 + P(s)C(s)} D(s)$$

- Choosing $T = \frac{1}{1+P(s)C(s)}$ sufficiently small results in the rejection of D . This can be achieved by choosing $C(s)$ sufficiently high



Disturbance vs noise

- But what happens to measurement noise
 - The amplified measurement noise will be applied to the input of the plant.
 - In reality measurement noise requires no control actions. Good noise rejection means that the controller ignores this noise.



Disturbance versus noise rejection

- Good disturbance rejection requires fast action to bring the state back to the desired state
- Good noise rejection requires that measurement noise will be ignored
- Note that a controller can not see the difference between measurement noise and disturbances. Slow controllers will be less sensitive to measurement noise. Fast system will have better disturbance rejection

Classical trade-offs in control theory

Slow Controllers:

Not sensitive to noise
Small control inputs

Robust controllers:

Model errors will not
affect the behaviour of
the system strongly

Fast controllers:

Good disturbance rejection
Fast tracking

Aggressive controllers:

Exchanges robustness for
better performance