

## Robótica Móvel e Inteligente / Mobile and Intelligent Robotics

Academic year 2020-21

Departamento de Electrónica, Telecomunicações e Informática  
Universidade de Aveiro

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# Control systems

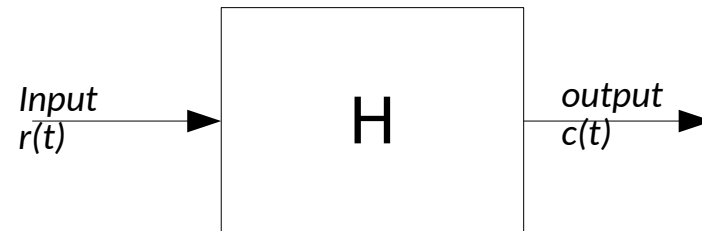
- **Objective: to impose a given value of some physical quantity in a system by acting on some other physical quantity**



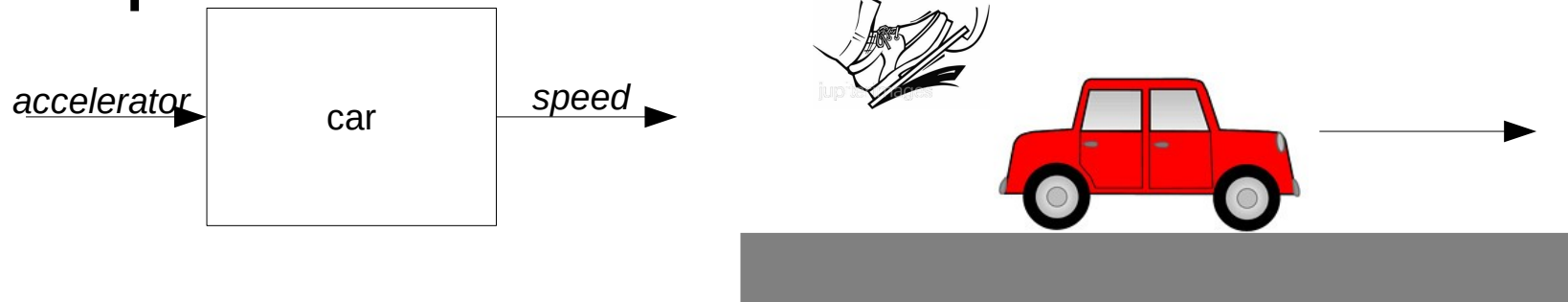
<http://blog.caranddriver.com/nissan-develops-fully-electric-steer-by-wire-system-will-go-on-sale-next-year/>

# basic concepts

- **Systems approach:**
  - Input signal
  - Output signal
  - Process, transforming input into output
- **Objective: to impose a given value at a system's output, by acting in its input**



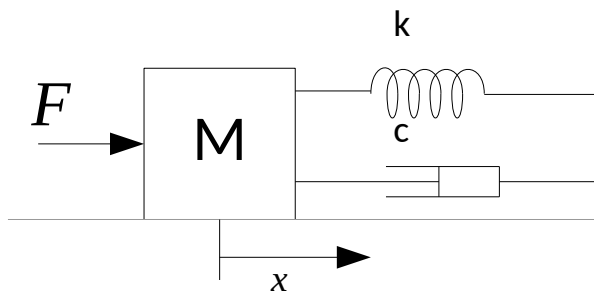
- **Example:**



# Input / output relationship

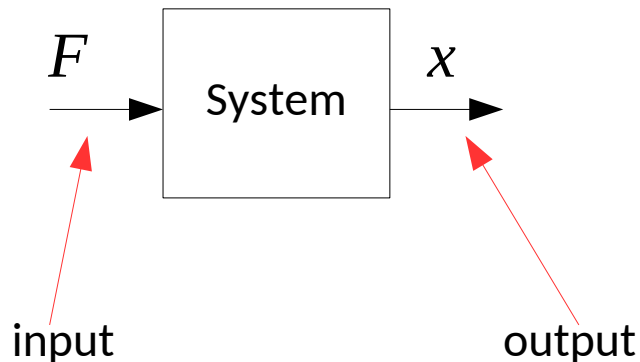
- **General case:**

- input  $r(t)$  and output  $c(t)$  are related by differential equations
  - this is the “default” in physical systems...



Mathematical relation  
between input and output

$$F(t) = M \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} + c \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + k x(t)$$



# Input / output relationship

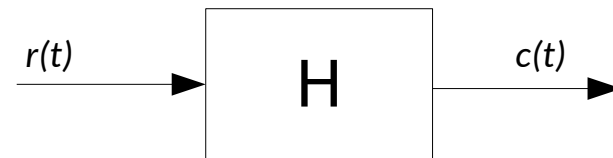
- **General case:**
  - input  $r(t)$  and output  $c(t)$  are related by differential equations

$$a_n \frac{d^n c(t)}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} c(t)}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_0 c(t) = b_m \frac{d^m r(t)}{dt^m} + b_{m-1} \frac{d^{m-1} r(t)}{dt^{m-1}} + \dots + b_0 r(t)$$

Combination of  $c(t)$  and its derivatives

Combination of  $r(t)$  and its derivatives

Difficult to solve and convert to a systems perspective

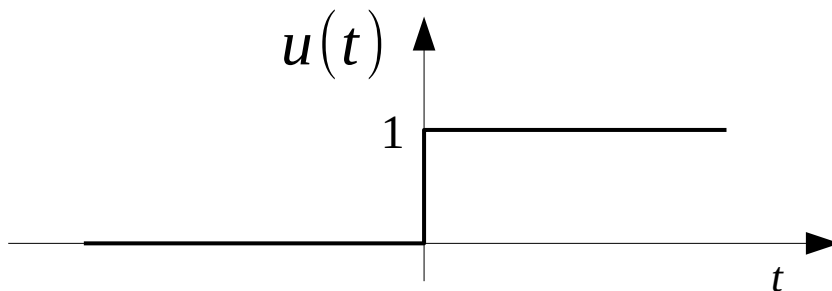


# Laplace transform

- Differential equations are simplified by the use of Laplace transforms.

$$L\{f(t)\} = F(s) = \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

$$L^{-1}\{F(s)\} = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma-j\infty}^{\sigma+j\infty} e^{st} F(s) dt = f(t) \cdot u(t)$$



$u(t)$  is the unit step function. We only consider the function  $f(t)$  to have non-null values for  $t > 0$ .

# Computing the Laplace transform



- Example for  $u(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} L\{u(t)\} &= \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-st} u(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-st} dt \\ &= \left[ -\frac{1}{s} e^{-st} \right]_0^{+\infty} \\ &= 0 - \left( -\frac{1}{s} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{s} \end{aligned}$$

# Laplace transform

**TABLE 2.1** Laplace transform table

Item no.	$f(t)$	$F(s)$
1.	$\delta(t)$	1
2.	$u(t)$	$\frac{1}{s}$
3.	$tu(t)$	$\frac{1}{s^2}$
4.	$t^n u(t)$	$\frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}$
5.	$e^{-at}u(t)$	$\frac{1}{s+a}$
6.	$\sin \omega t u(t)$	$\frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$
7.	$\cos \omega t u(t)$	$\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$



# Laplace transform

## Laplace transform theorems

Theorem	Name
$\mathcal{L}[f(t)] = F(s) = \int_{0-}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st} dt$	Definition
$\mathcal{L}[kf(t)] = kF(s)$	Linearity theorem
$\mathcal{L}[f_1(t) + f_2(t)] = F_1(s) + F_2(s)$	Linearity theorem
$\mathcal{L}[e^{-at}f(t)] = F(s + a)$	Frequency shift theorem
$\mathcal{L}[f(t - T)] = e^{-sT}F(s)$	Time shift theorem
$\mathcal{L}[f(at)] = \frac{1}{a}F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$	Scaling theorem
$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{df}{dt}\right] = sF(s) - f(0-)$	Differentiation theorem
$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{d^2f}{dt^2}\right] = s^2F(s) - sf(0-) - f'(0-)$	Differentiation theorem
$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{d^nf}{dt^n}\right] = s^nF(s) - \sum_{k=1}^n s^{n-k}f^{k-1}(0-)$	Differentiation theorem
$\mathcal{L}\left[\int_{0-}^t f(\tau)d\tau\right] = \frac{F(s)}{s}$	Integration theorem
$f(\infty) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s)$	Final value theorem <sup>1</sup>
$f(0+) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sF(s)$	Initial value theorem <sup>2</sup>

# Laplace transform

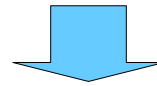
$$a_n \frac{d^n c(t)}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} c(t)}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_0 c(t) = b_m \frac{d^m r(t)}{dt^m} + b_{m-1} \frac{d^{m-1} r(t)}{dt^{m-1}} + \dots + b_0 r(t)$$

Computing the  
Laplace transform

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow L \left\{ a_n \frac{d^n c(t)}{dt^n} \right\} &= a_n L \left\{ \frac{d^n c(t)}{dt^n} \right\} && \text{Linearity} \\ &= a_n s^n L \{ c(t) \} && \text{Differentiation theorem} \\ &= a_n s^n C(s) && \text{Definition} \end{aligned}$$

# Laplace transform

$$a_n \frac{d^n c(t)}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} c(t)}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_0 c(t) = b_m \frac{d^m r(t)}{dt^m} + b_{m-1} \frac{d^{m-1} r(t)}{dt^{m-1}} + \dots + b_0 r(t)$$



$$a_n s^n C(s) + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} C(s) + \dots + a_0 C(s) = b_m s^m R(s) + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} R(s) + \dots + b_0 R(s)$$

$$(a_n s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0) C(s) = (b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \dots + b_0) R(s)$$

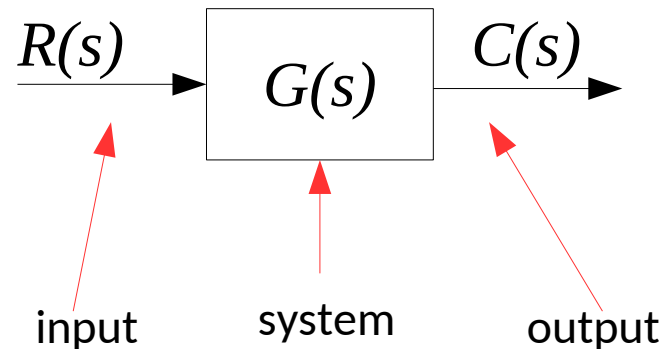
$$\frac{C(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \dots + b_0}{a_n s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0} = G(s)$$

# Transfer function

$$\frac{C(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \dots + b_0}{a_n s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0} = G(s)$$

Transfer function

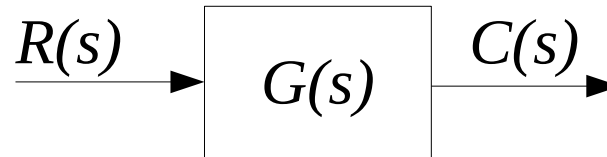
$$C(s) = G(s) \cdot R(s)$$



- A relation expressed originally in terms of a differential equation is expressed as a product
- the physical nature of input/output relationship is irrelevant; only mathematical relationship matters --> **abstraction**

# Transfer function

$$C(s) = G(s) \cdot R(s)$$




$$G(s) = \frac{b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \dots + b_0}{a_n s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0}$$

$$= \frac{b_m (s - z_1)(s - z_2) \dots (s - z_m)}{a_n (s - p_1)(s - p_2) \dots (s - p_n)}$$

$z_1, z_2, \dots$  Zeroes of  $G(s)$

$p_1, p_2, \dots$  Poles of  $G(s)$

Nearly all information about the system behaviour can be extracted from knowing the zeroes and poles.

Poles and zeroes are either:  In “real life” systems

- Real valued

- Complex conjugate

(meaning that the  $b_i$  and  $a_j$  are all real valued)

# Partial fraction expansion

All poles of  $F(s)$  are real and distinct

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} = \frac{N(s)}{(s-p_1)(s-p_2)\cdots(s-p_n)} \\ &= \frac{K_1}{(s-p_1)} + \frac{K_2}{(s-p_2)} + \cdots + \frac{K_n}{(s-p_n)} \end{aligned}$$

where  $K_i = \lim_{s \rightarrow p_i} (s-p_i) F(s)$

Assumption: order of  $N(s)$  is smaller than the order of  $D(s)$

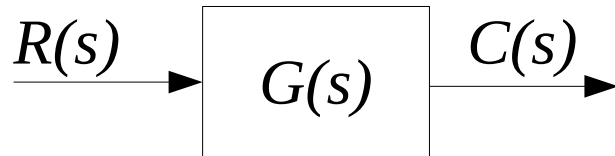
**Equivalent procedures exist when:**

- a) poles are real and repeated**
- b) poles are complex conjugated**

Computation hint:

You can use [Apart function in Wolfram Alpha](#)  
or the [Partial Fraction Calculator widget](#)

# Example



$$r(t) = u(t)$$

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s+4}$$

$$c(t) = ?$$

$$R(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

$$C(s) = G(s) \cdot R(s) \\ = \frac{1}{s+4} \cdot \frac{1}{s}$$

Inverse L.T.

$$c(t) = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} e^{-4t}$$

Corresponds to the pole  $s=0$ .  
Related to the input signal.

**Forced response**

Corresponds to the pole  $s=-4$ .  
Related to the system's response  
If system is stable, it will decay with time.

**Natural response**

# Stability

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$$F_i(s) = \frac{K_i}{(s - p_i)}$$

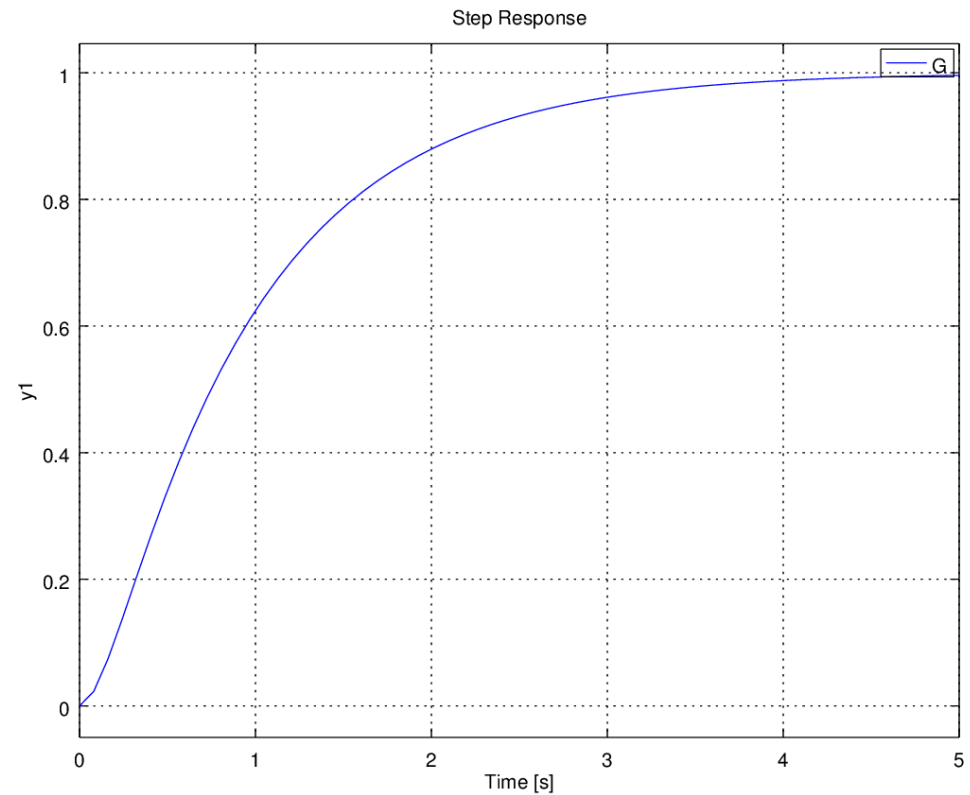
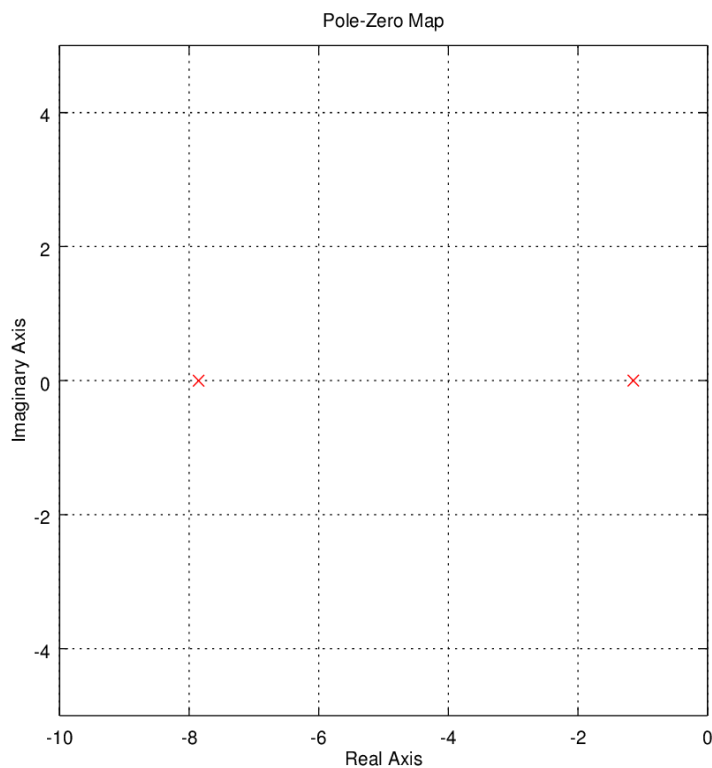
$$f_i(t) = K_i e^{p_i t}$$



# Poles and step response

$$G_1(s) = \frac{9}{s^2 + 9s + 9}$$

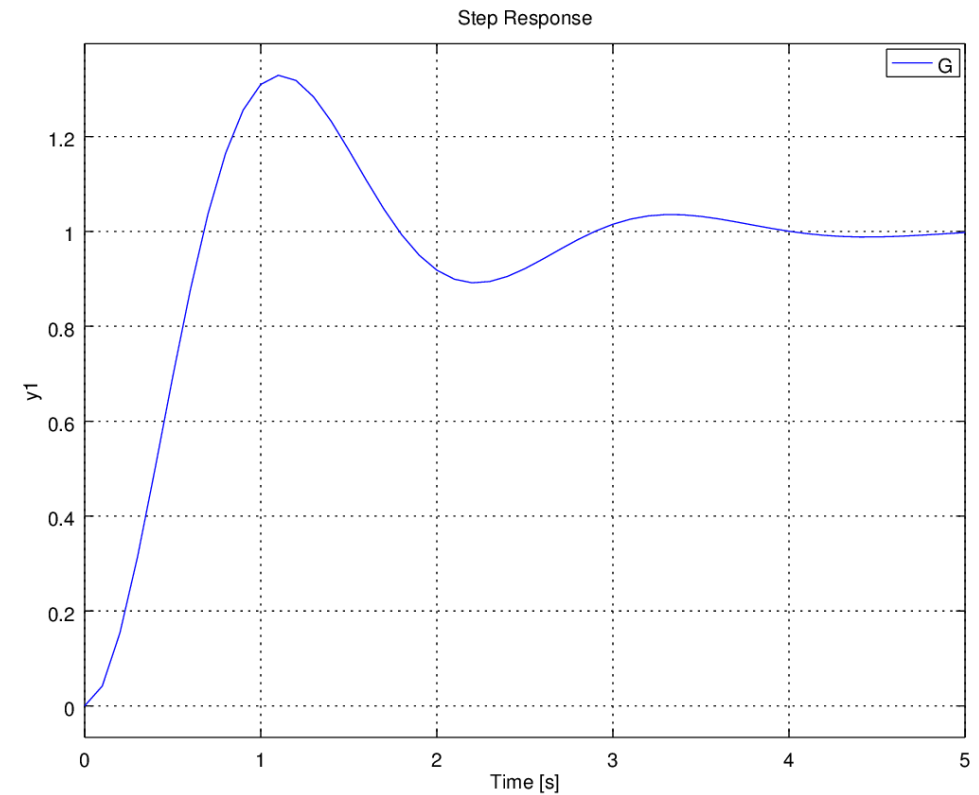
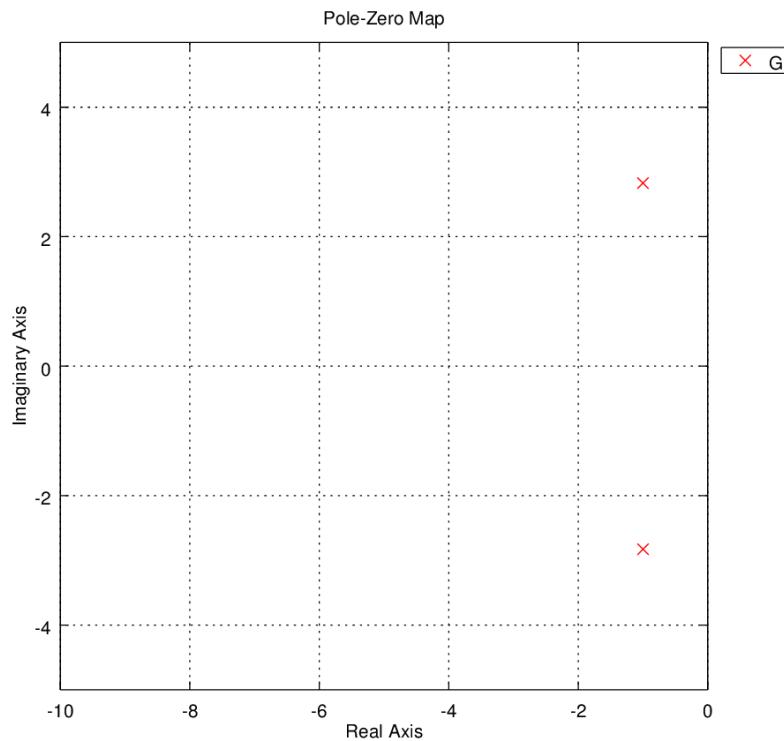
Overdamped



# Poles and step response

$$G_2(s) = \frac{9}{s^2 + 2s + 9}$$

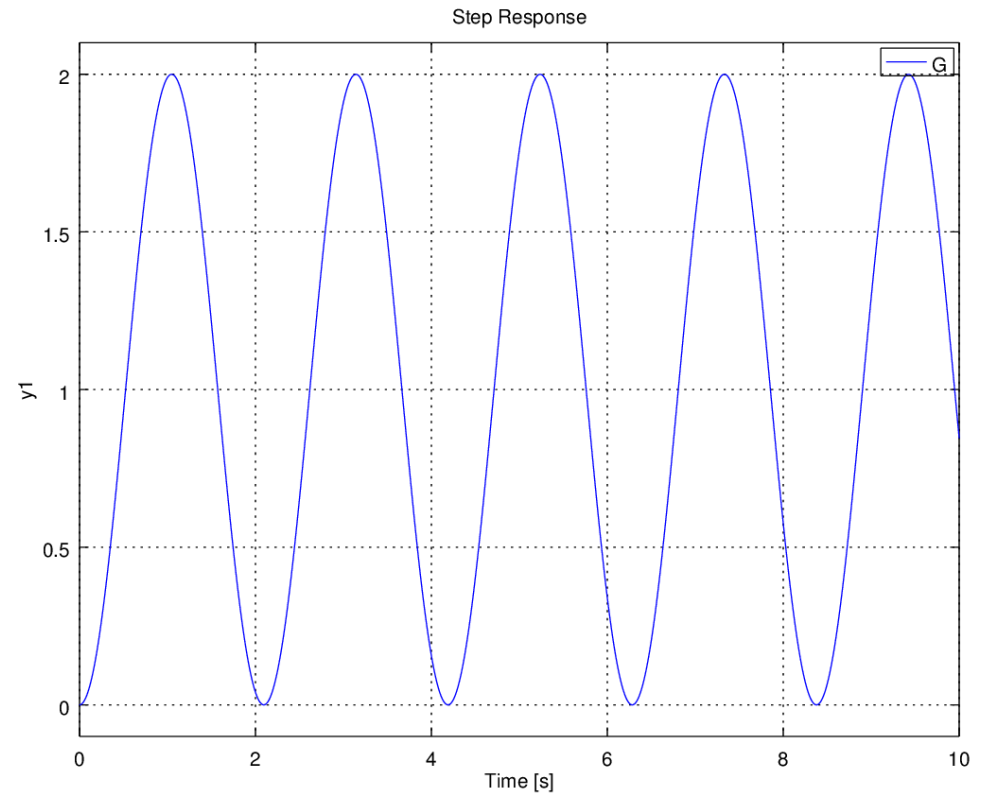
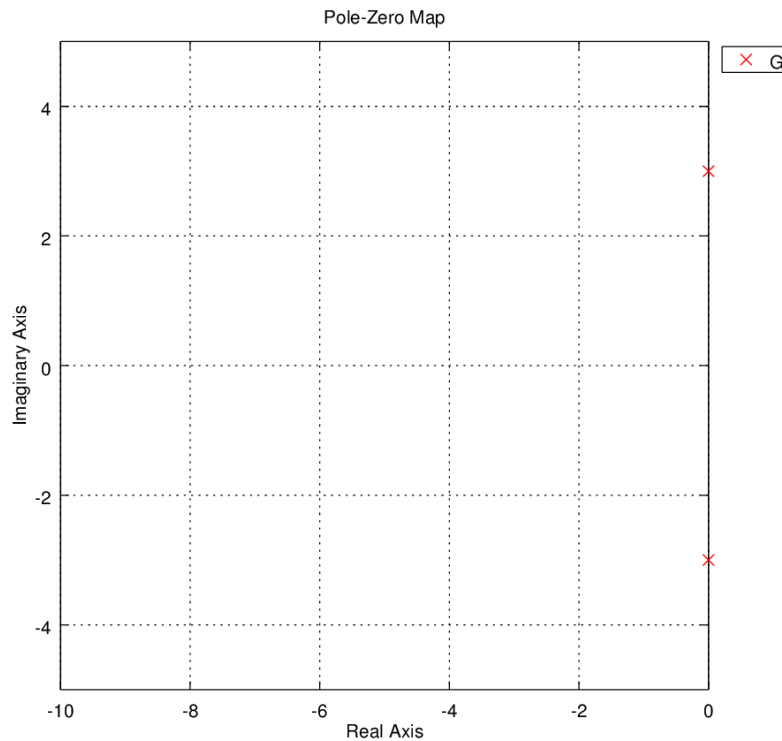
Underdamped



# Poles and step response

$$G_3(s) = \frac{9}{s^2 + 9}$$

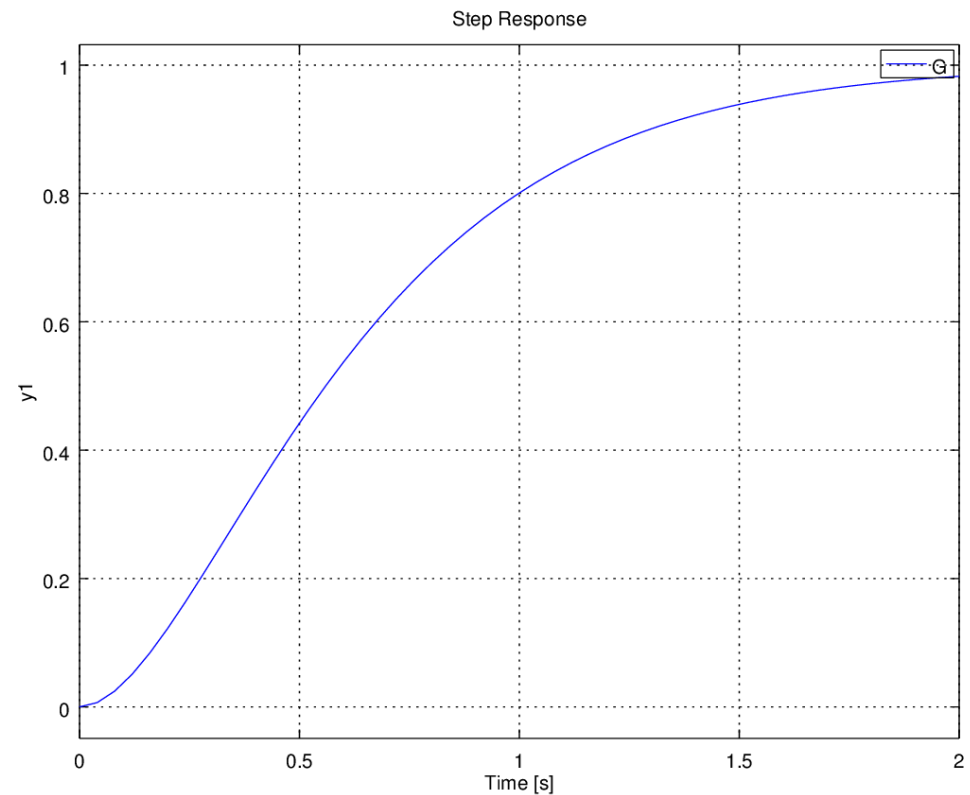
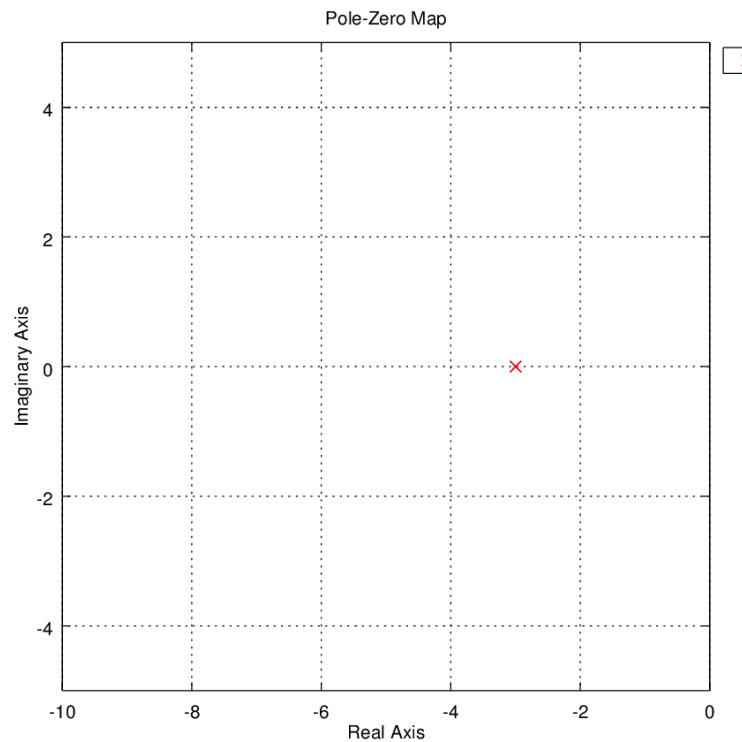
Undamped



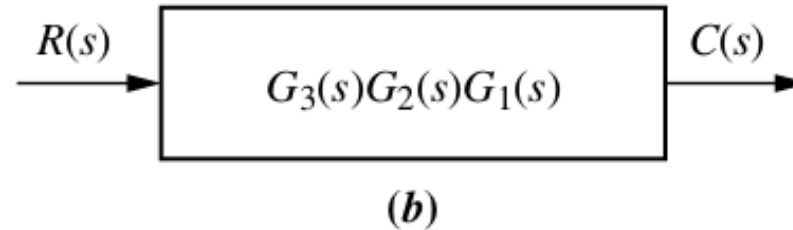
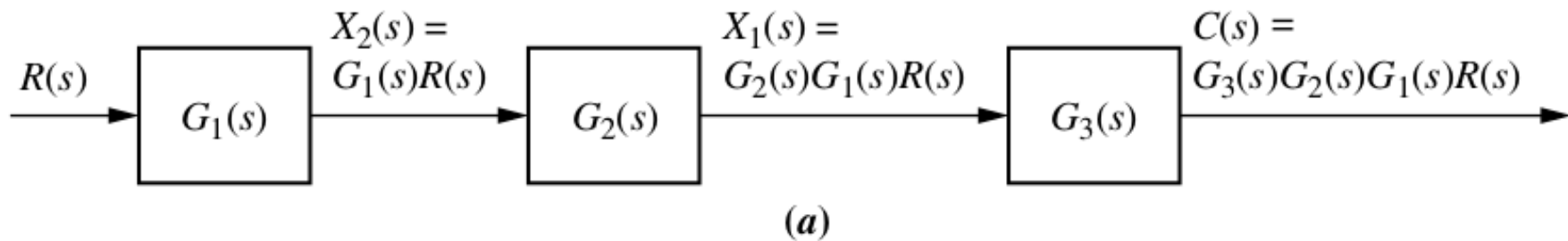
# Poles and step response

$$G_4(s) = \frac{9}{s^2 + 6s + 9}$$

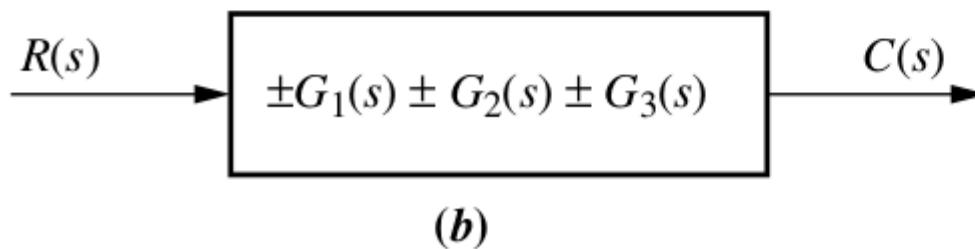
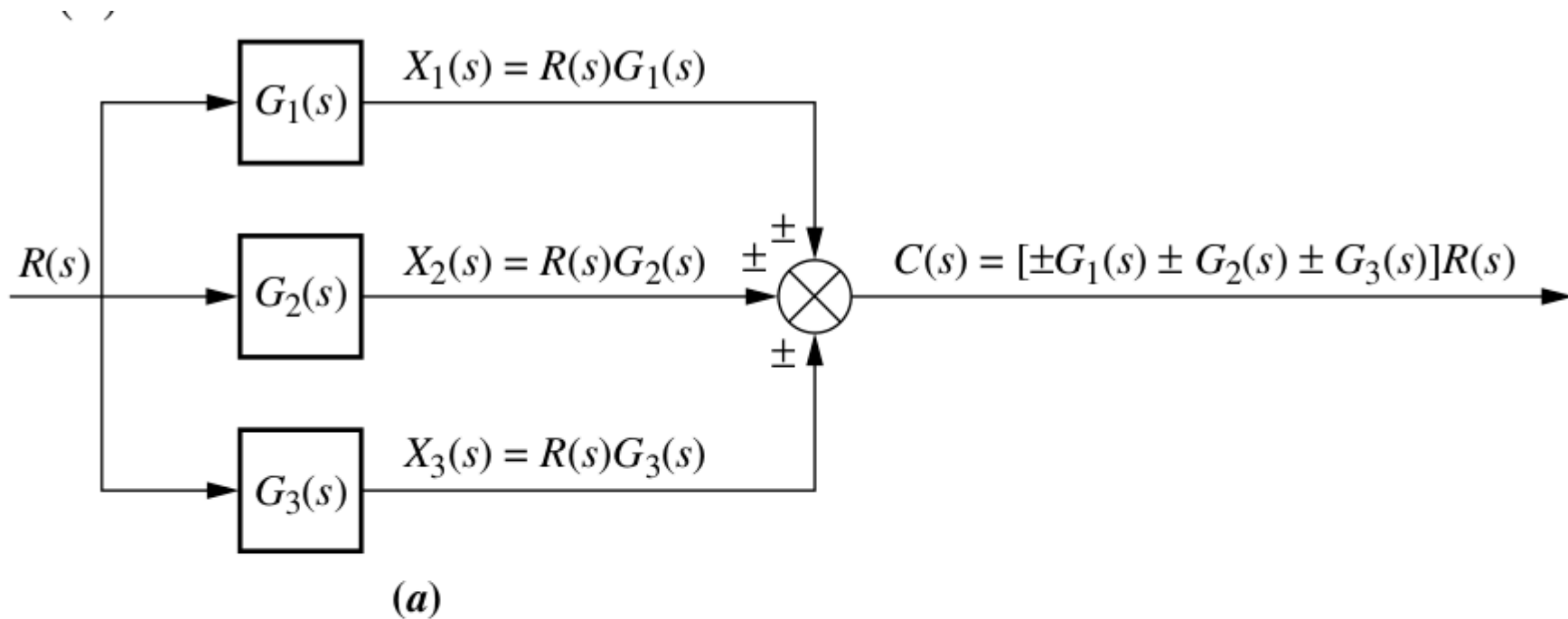
Critically damped



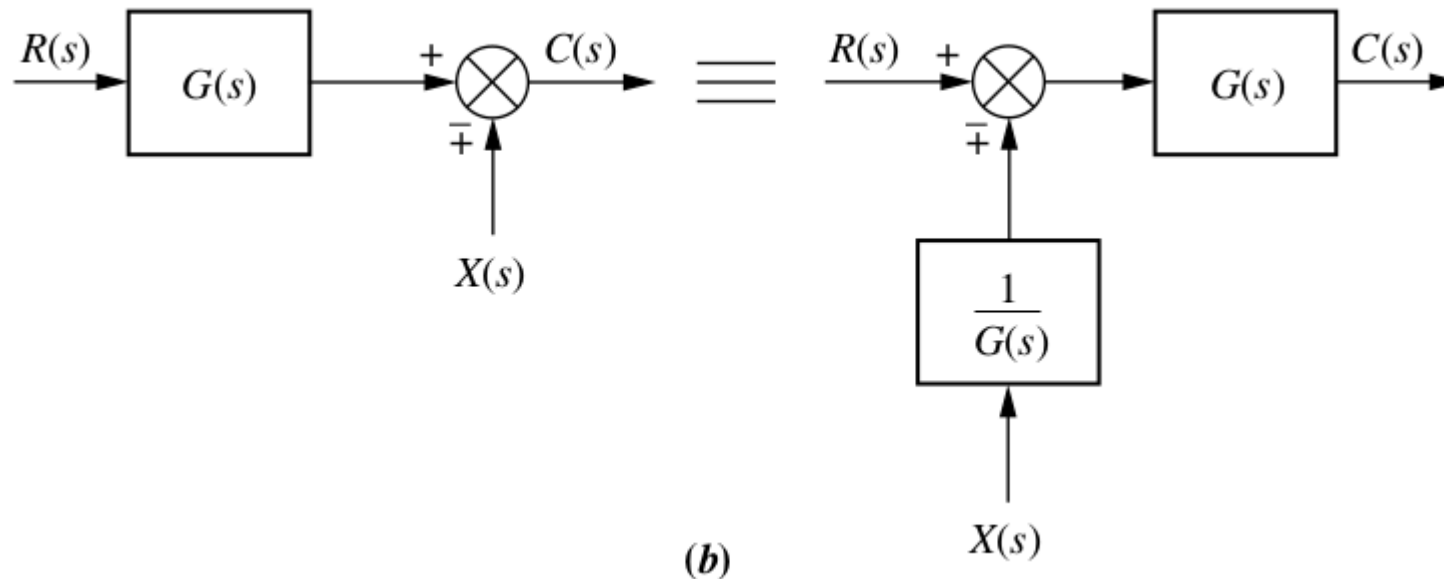
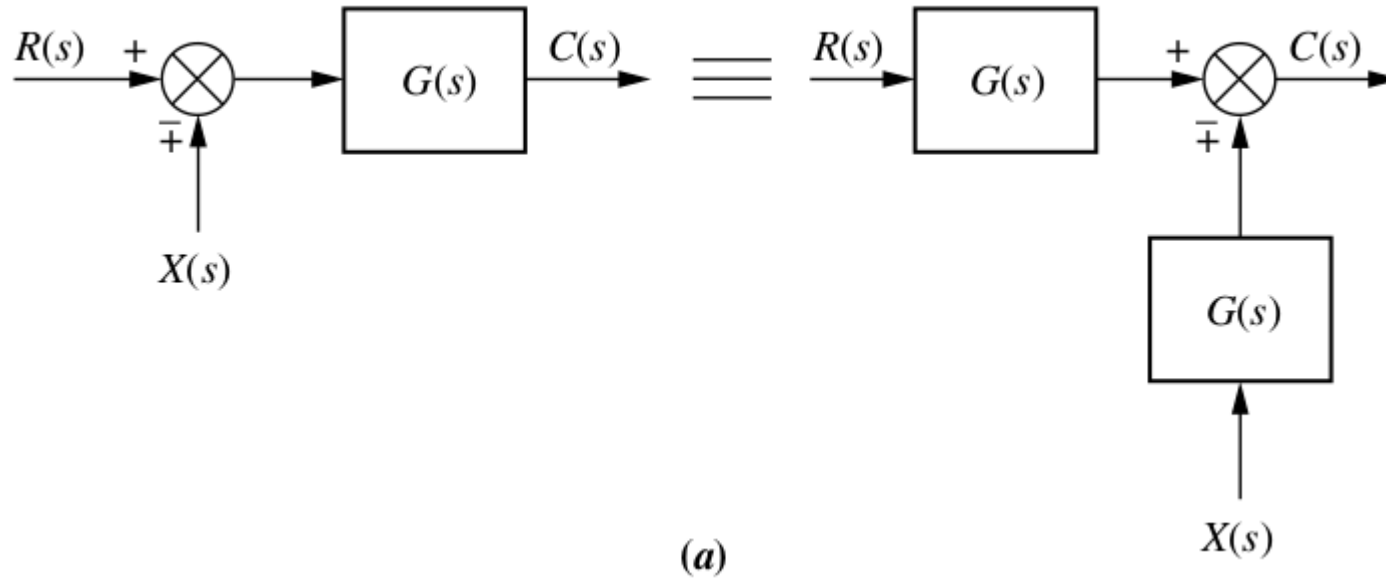
# Block diagram algebra



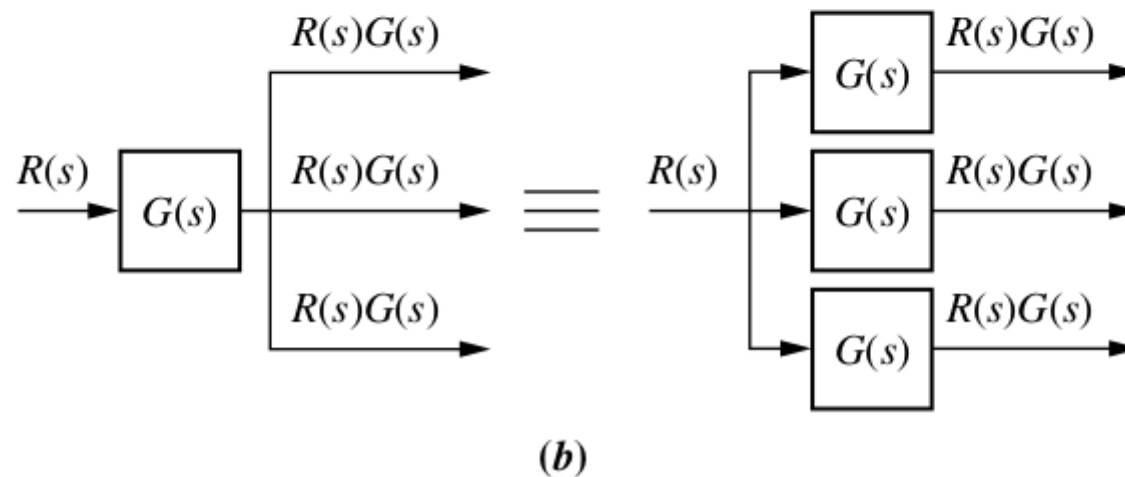
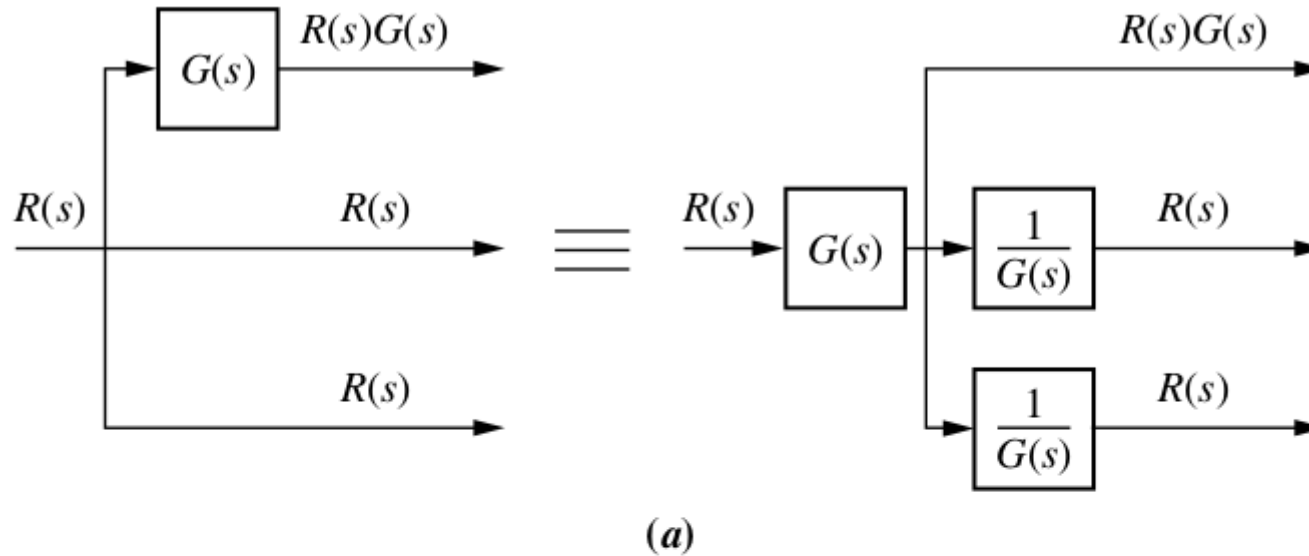
# Block diagram algebra



# Block diagram algebra



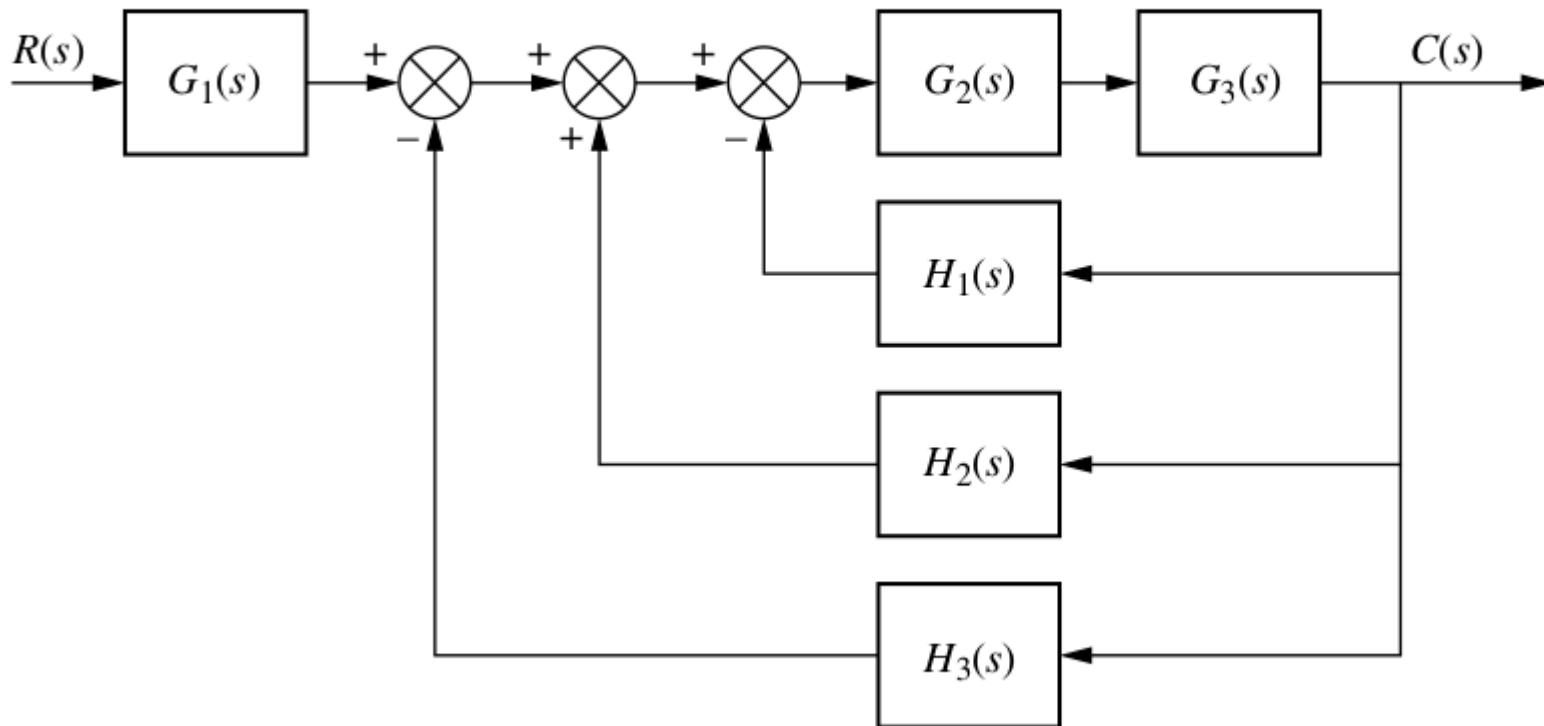
# Block diagram algebra



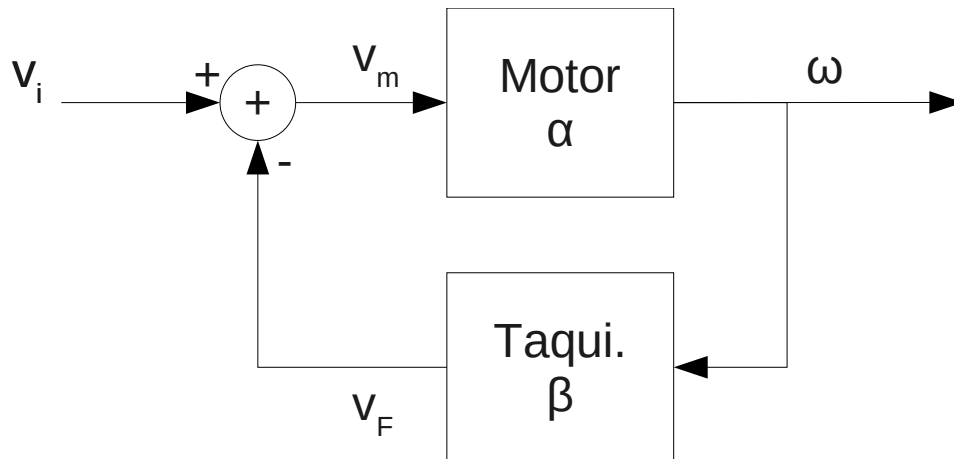


# Block diagram algebra

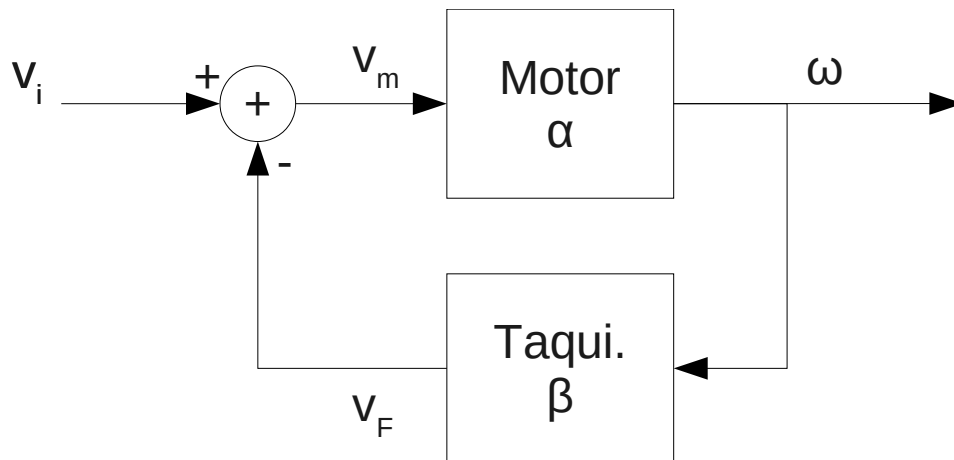
**PROBLEM:** Reduce the block diagram shown in Figure 5.9 to a single transfer function.



- a complex system is represented as a collection of interconnected set of simpler systems
  - each simple system has a known transfer function



# feedback

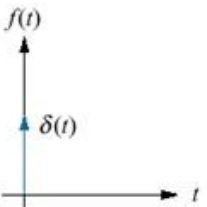
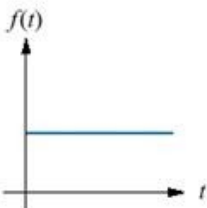
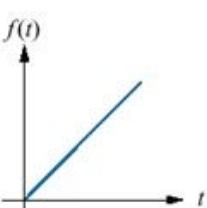
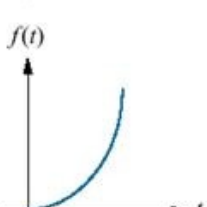
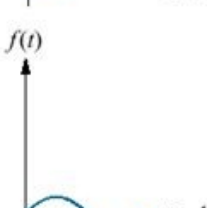


$$\begin{cases} v_m = v_i - v_T \\ \omega = \alpha v_m \\ v_F = \beta \omega \end{cases} \Rightarrow \omega = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha \beta} v_i$$

$$\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha \beta} = \frac{1}{\beta}$$

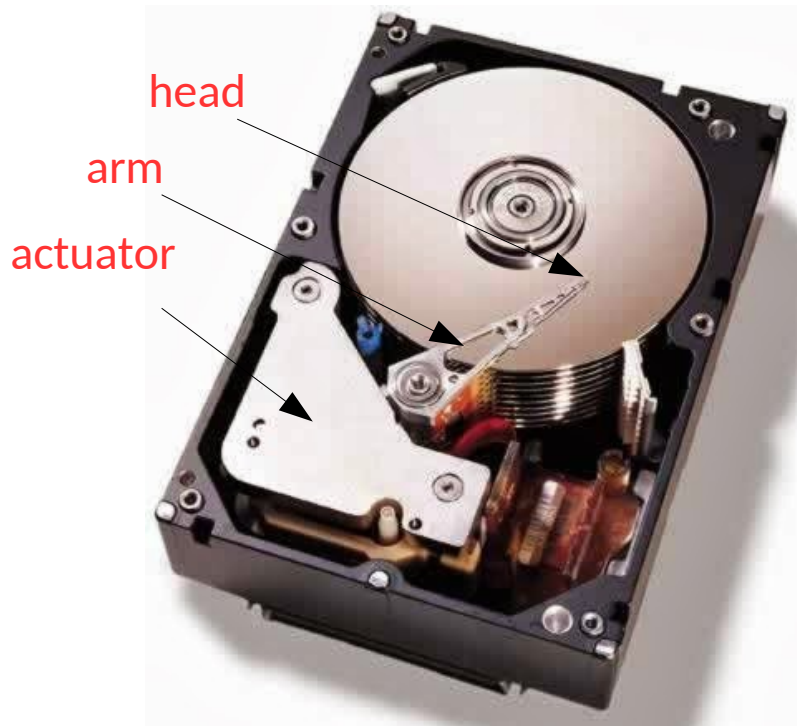
- for high values of  $\alpha$ , the output value will depend mainly on the *feedback* loop

# Test waveforms

Input	Function	Description	Sketch	Use
Impulse	$\delta(t)$	$\delta(t) = \infty$ for $0- < t < 0+$ $= 0$ elsewhere $\int_{0-}^{0+} \delta(t) dt = 1$		Transient response Modeling
Step	$u(t)$	$u(t) = 1$ for $t > 0$ $= 0$ for $t < 0$		Transient response Steady-state error
Ramp	$tu(t)$	$tu(t) = t$ for $t \geq 0$ $= 0$ elsewhere		Steady-state error
Parabola	$\frac{1}{2}t^2u(t)$	$\frac{1}{2}t^2u(t) = \frac{1}{2}t^2$ for $t \geq 0$ $= 0$ elsewhere		Steady-state error
Sinusoid	$\sin \omega t$			Transient response Modeling Steady-state error

# Example of a control system

- **Objective:** to impose a given value at a system's output, by acting in its input



The head position will be determined by a voltage applied to the arm actuator.

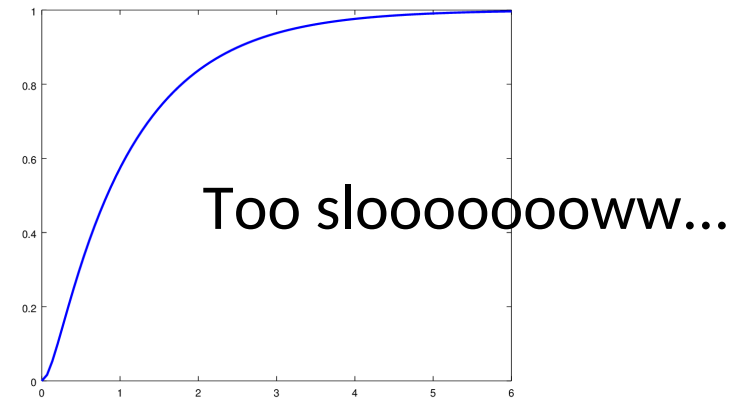
Usually, we are interested in having a reference signal  $r(t)$  that has a simple relation to the controlled variable  $c(t)$  (proportional, if possible...)

<http://www.bsierad.com/assembling-process-and-function-hdd-hard-drive-parts/>

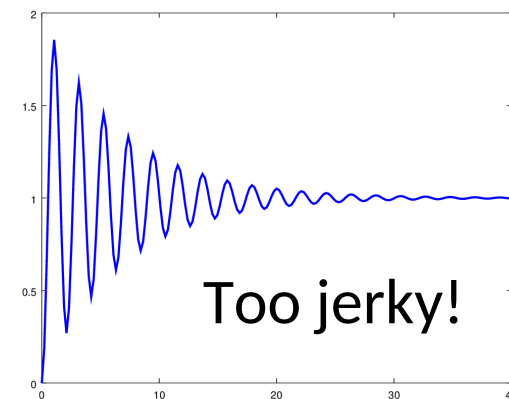
# Example of a control system

- **Objective:** to impose a given value at a system's output, by acting in its input

It is not good if the system reacts like this:

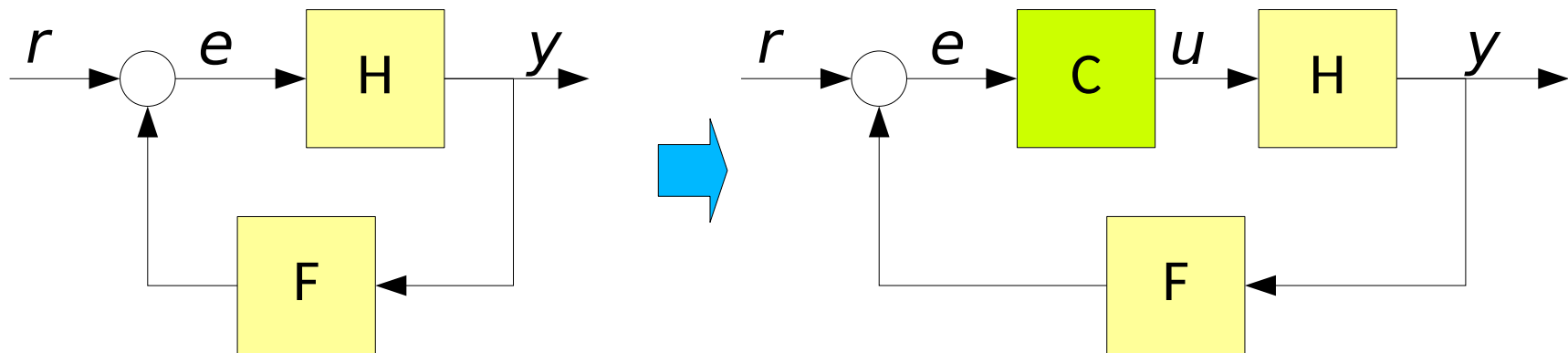


Or like this:



In both cases, it takes too long to reach the desired position.

- **Controller C:** included to improve the system response



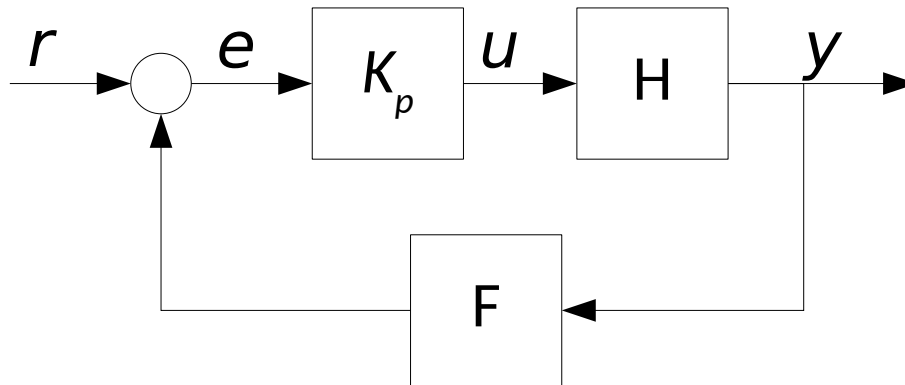
$e$ : error

# P controller

- P = “proportional”. Simplest form of controller

$$u = K_p e$$

- Gain:  $K_p$



The larger  $K_p$ , the smaller  $e$  for the same output.

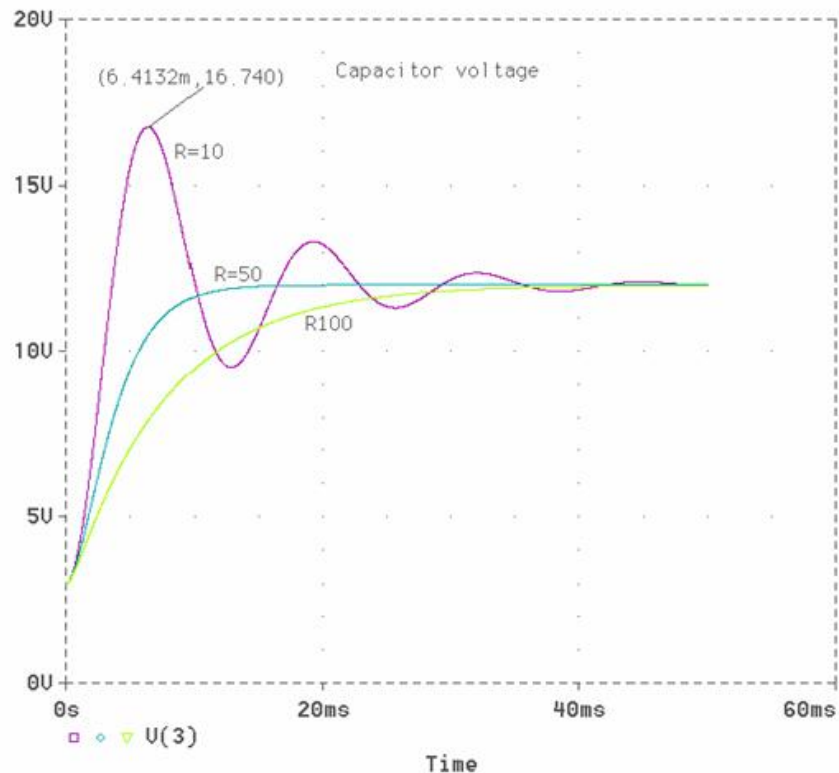
- $K_p$  low: soft system
  - it takes a large value of error for system to react
- $K_p$  high: hard system
  - strong reaction, even with small values of  $e$ .

$u \neq 0$  iif  $e \neq 0$

To reduce error, a high value of  $K_p$  is required



# P controller

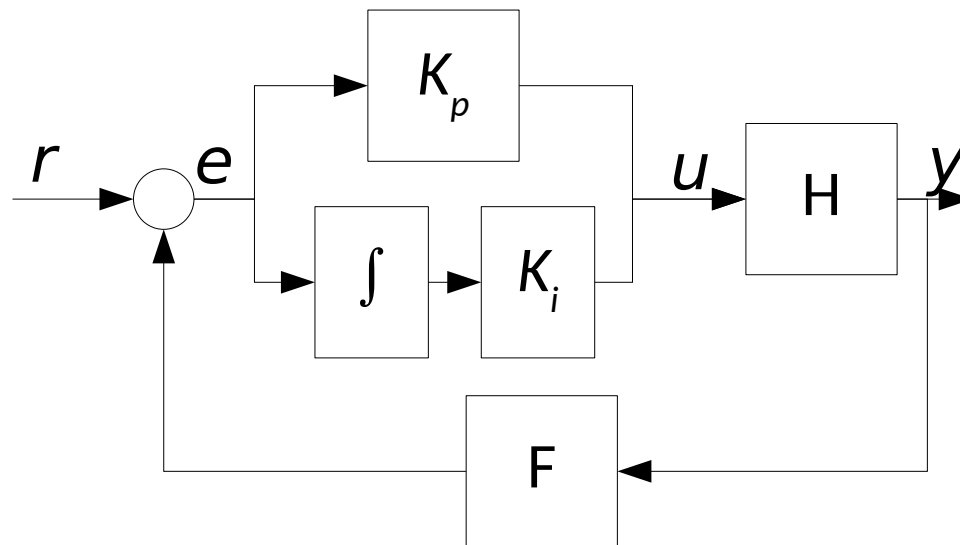


- Increasing gain  $K_p$  reduces error, but...
- High values of gain  $K_p$  may cause the system to be unstable

# PI controller

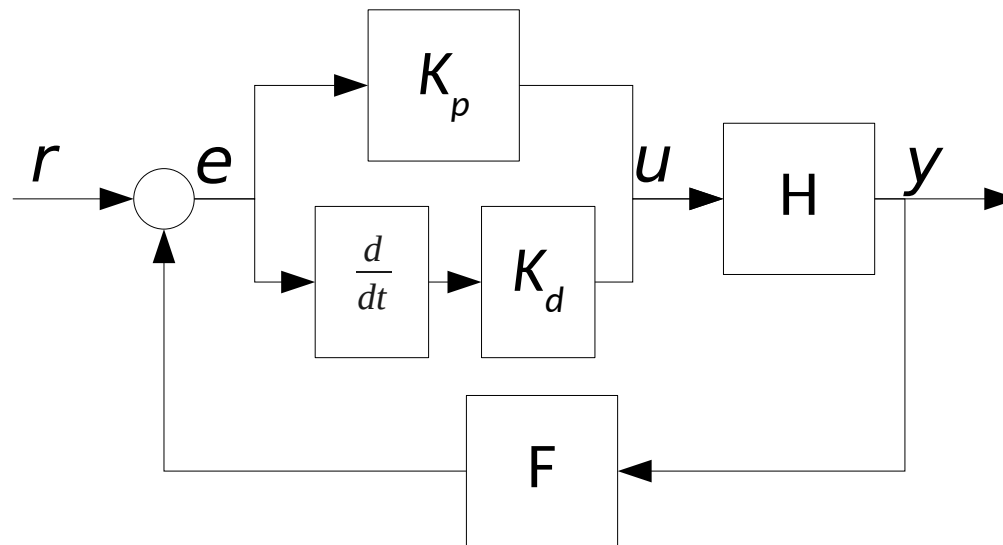
- **PI: Proportional + Integral**

- Adding a term  $K_i \int e \, dt$ .
- PI controller allows for systems with  $e=0$
- Problem: inertia (memory effect)
  - with rapid changes in the input,  $u$  may be at a value when the error  $e$  would require to be different



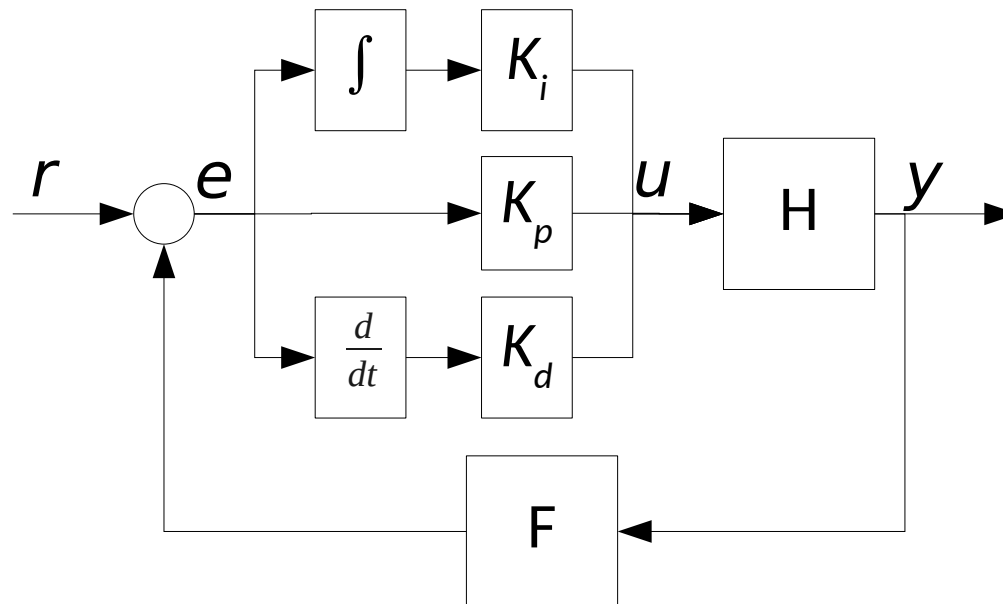
# PD controller

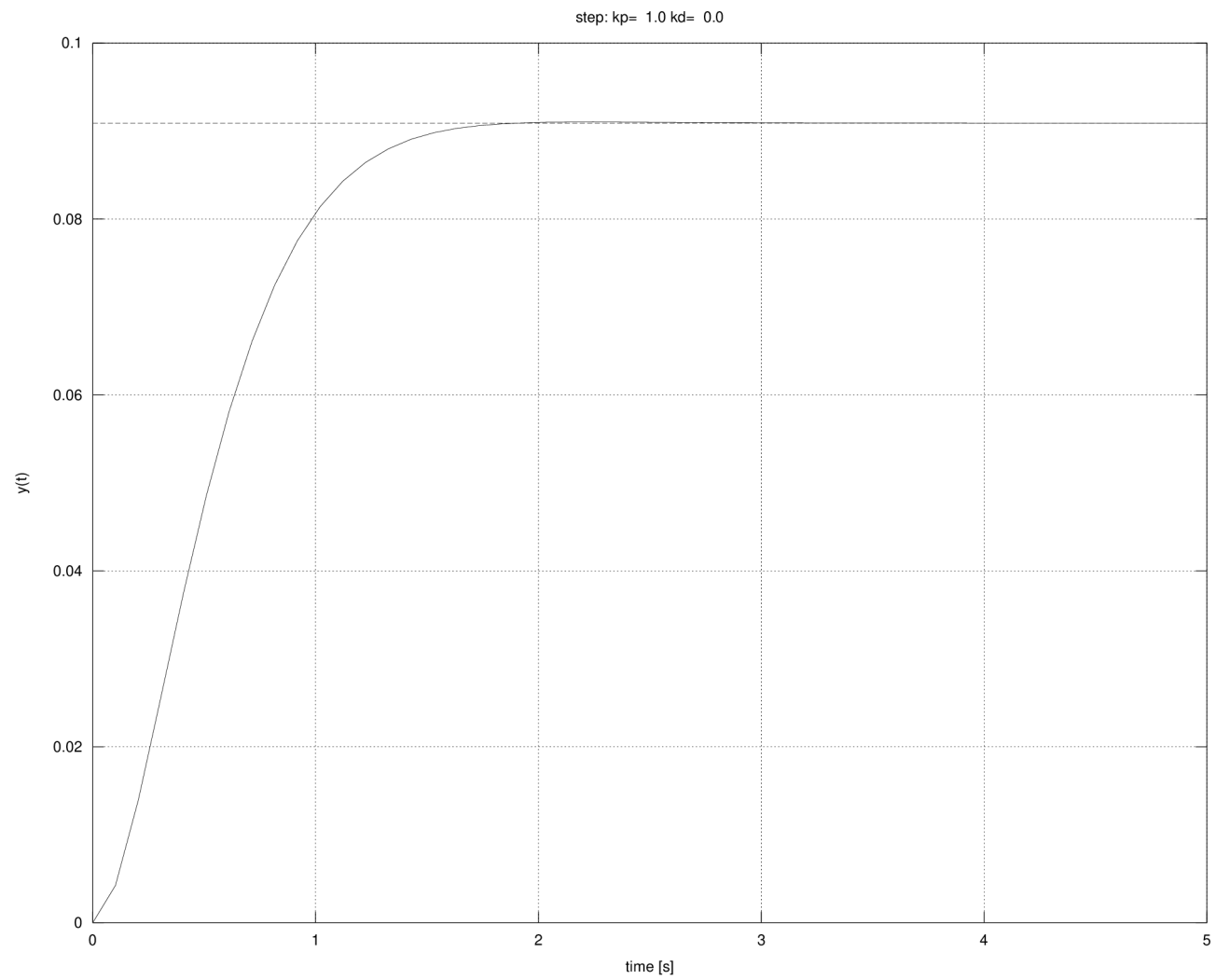
- **PD = Proportional + Derivative**
  - adding a term proportional to the error derivative
  - In general, it has the effect of reducing oscillations (damper)



# PID controller

- **PID = Proportional + Integral + Derivative**
  - Reunion of previous controllers
  - One of the most popular controllers

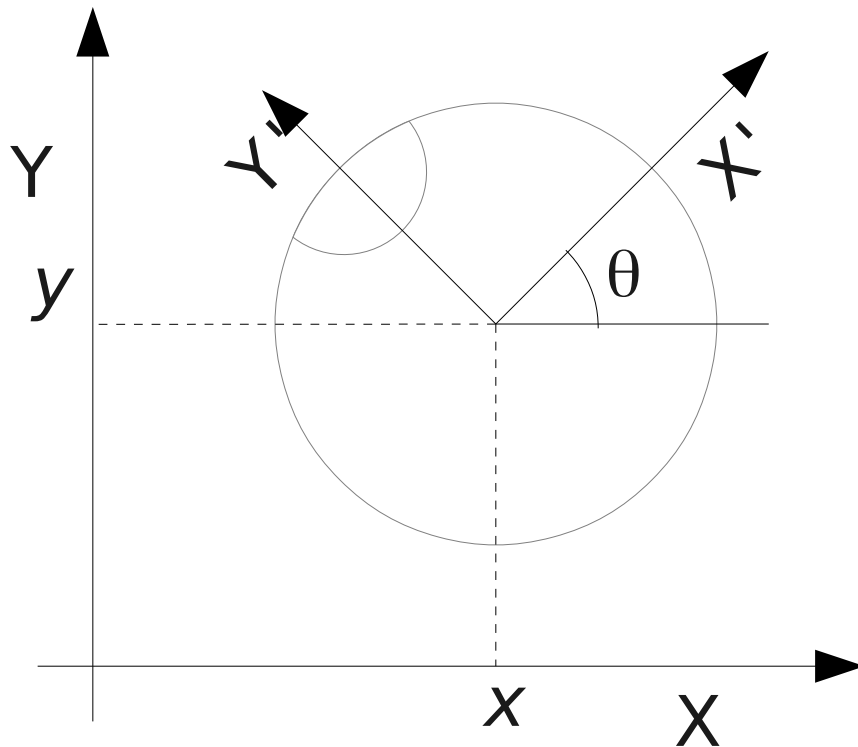




# control systems of CAMBADA robots



# position control in a mobile robot



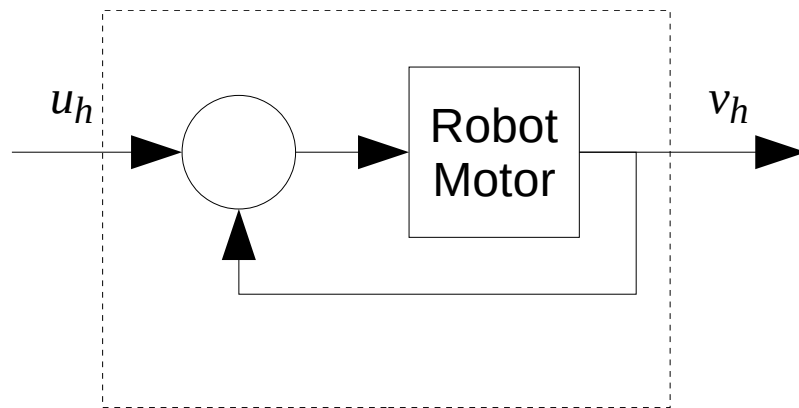
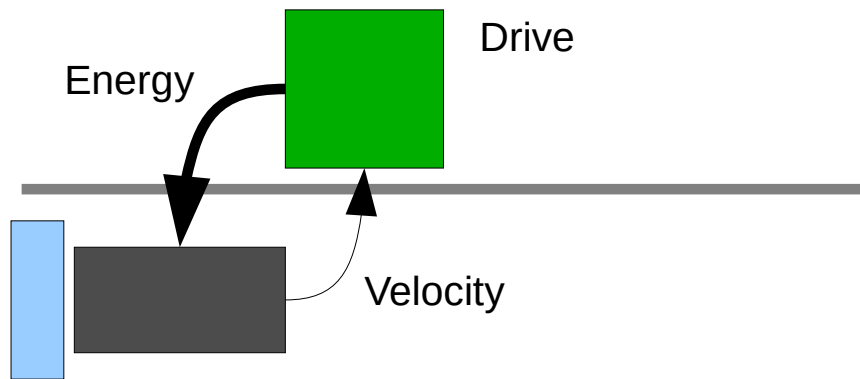
- Robot location in the plane

– Pose 
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ \Theta \end{bmatrix}$$

- system is defined by the pose and 1<sup>st</sup> derivative

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ \Theta \\ \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{\Theta} \end{bmatrix}$$

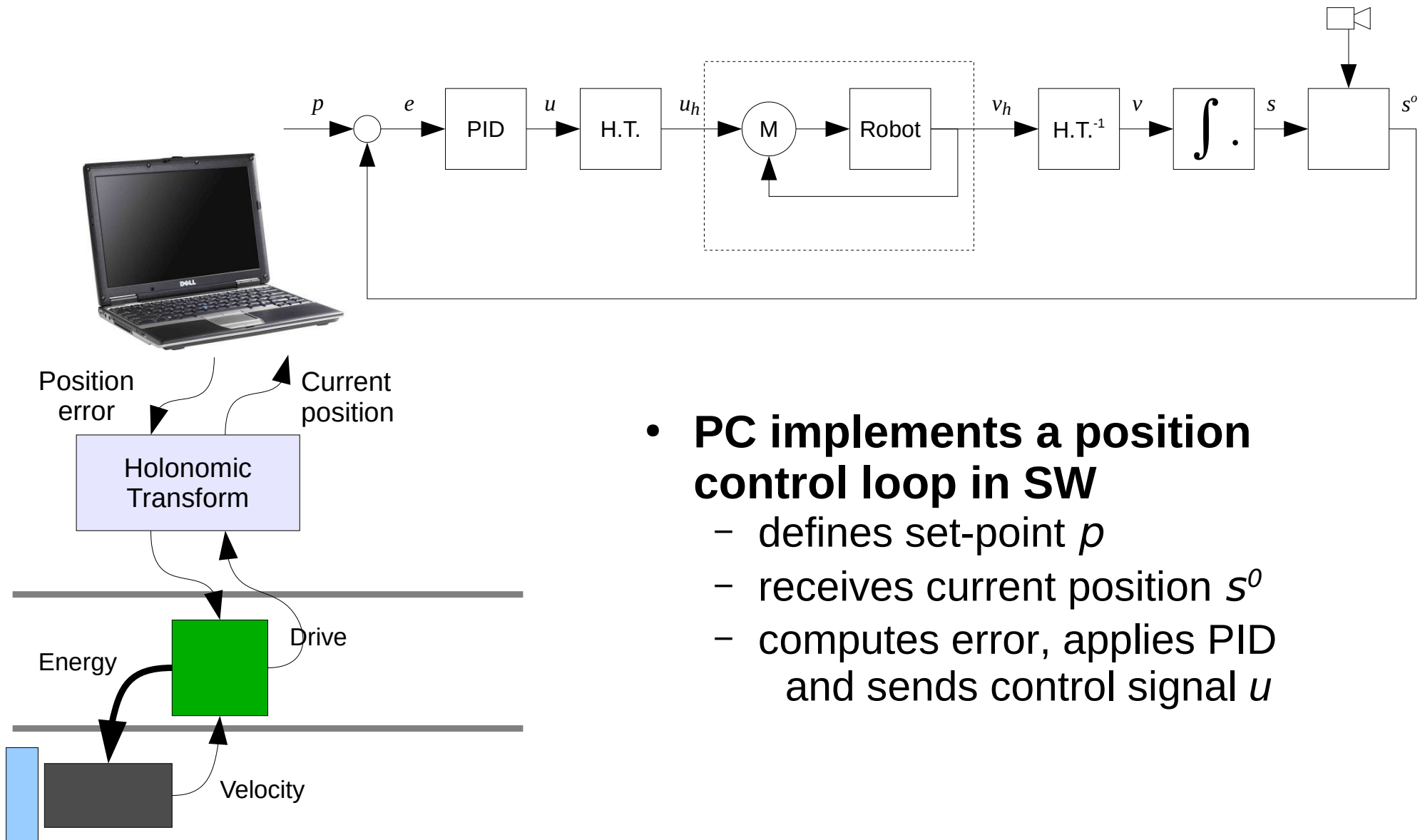
# lower level



- Motor and *drive* implement a local velocity feedback loop
- Motor drive:
  - Receives velocity command
  - Modulates energy delivered to the motor
  - Receives velocity feedback



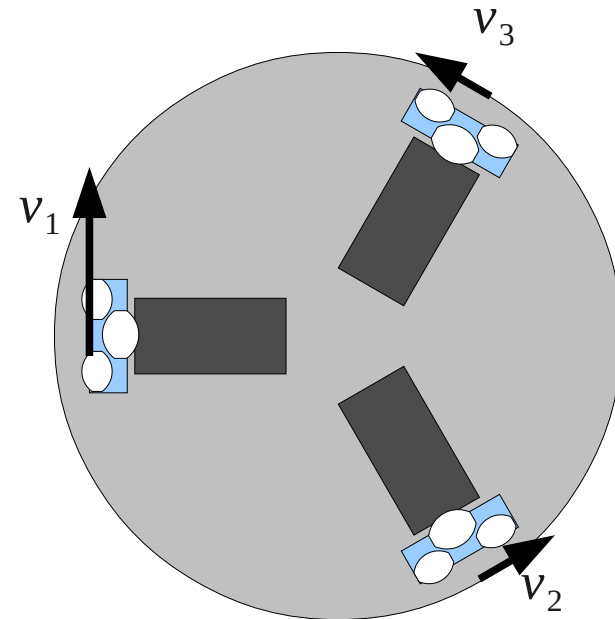
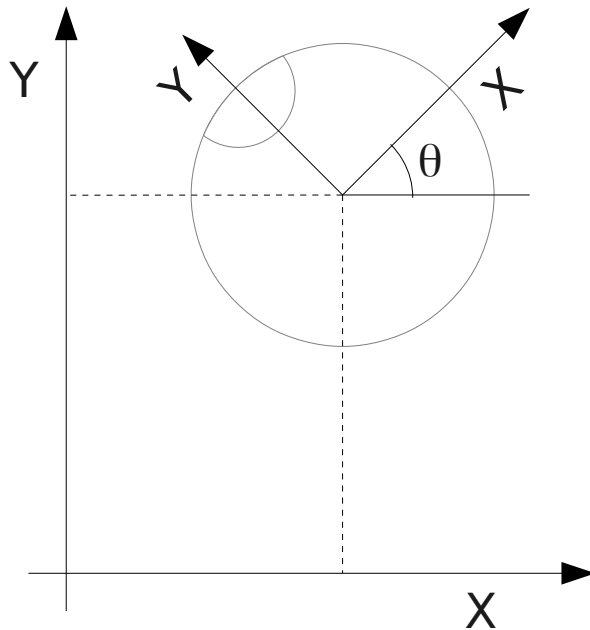
# upper level



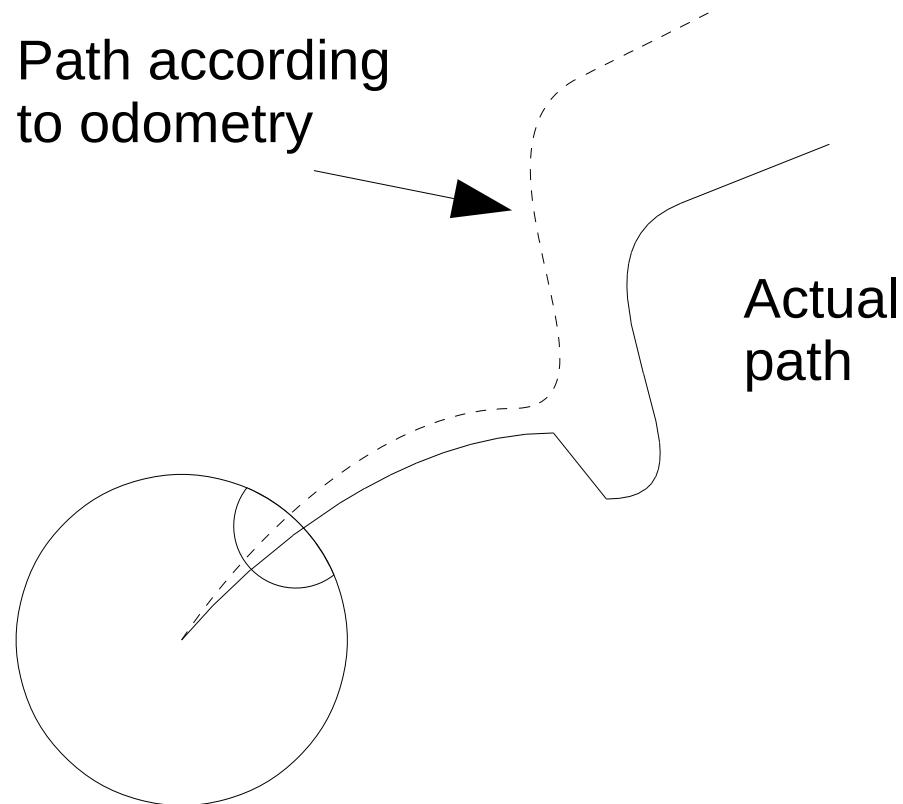
# holonomic movement

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{X} \\ \dot{Y} \\ \dot{\Theta} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Convert a set of 3 motor speeds to linear X, Y and rotating speed and vice-versa

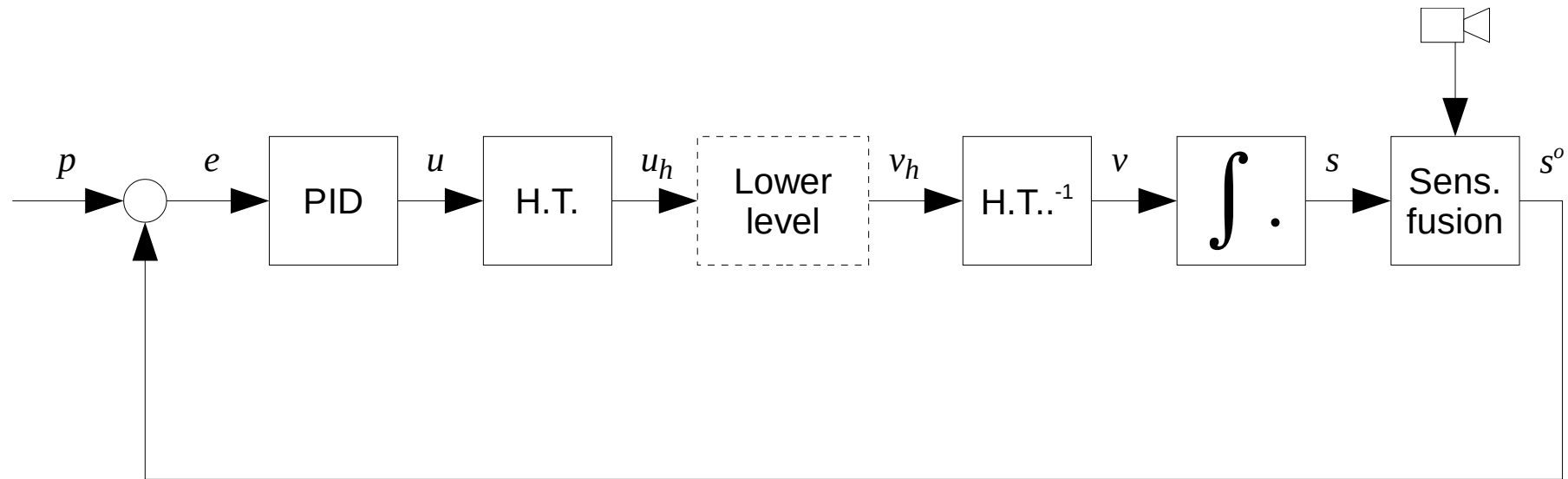


Odometry: to estimate the robot's displacement by the motors rotation (and holonomic conversion)



- **Sensorial fusion allows a more reliable position feedback**
  - e.g. robot position is given by:
    - odometry
    - camera image

# control structure in CAMBADA robots



- this control structure will try to place the robot at point  $p$
- robot control (and command) is done computing a sequence of points  $p$  over time
  - navigation output