



ECE 486 Control Systems

Lecture 08: Basic properties & benefits of
feedback control; PID control

Liangjing Yang

Assistant Professor, ZJU-UIUC Institute

liangjingyang@intl.zju.edu.cn



Announcement

- Reminder: Term Test I next Thurs in class
- Sample papers from past year
- Homework solution

Checklist



Wk	Topic	Ref.
1	Introduction to feedback control	Ch. 1
	State-space models of systems; linearization	Sections 1.1, 1.2, 2.1–2.4, 7.2, 9.2.1
2	Linear systems and their dynamic response	Section 3.1, Appendix A
	Transient and steady-state dynamic response with arbitrary initial conditions	Section 3.1, Appendix A
Modeling	National Holiday Week	
3	System modeling diagrams; prototype second-order system	Sections 3.1, 3.2, lab manual
	Transient response specifications	Sections 3.3, 3.14, lab manual
Analysis	Effect of zeros and extra poles; Routh-Hurwitz stability criterion	Sections 3.5, 3.6
→	<u>Basic properties and benefits of feedback control; Introduction to Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) control</u>	Section 4.1-4.3, lab manual
6	Review A	
	Term Test A	
7	Introduction to Root Locus design method	Ch. 5
	Root Locus continued; introduction to dynamic compensation	Root Locus
8	Lead and lag dynamic compensation	Ch. 5
	Lead and lag continued; introduction to frequency-response design method	Sections 5.1–5.4, 6.1

Modeling

Analysis

Design

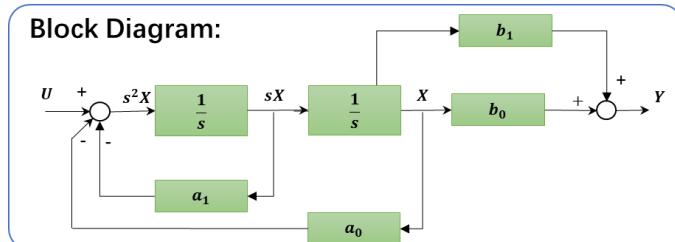
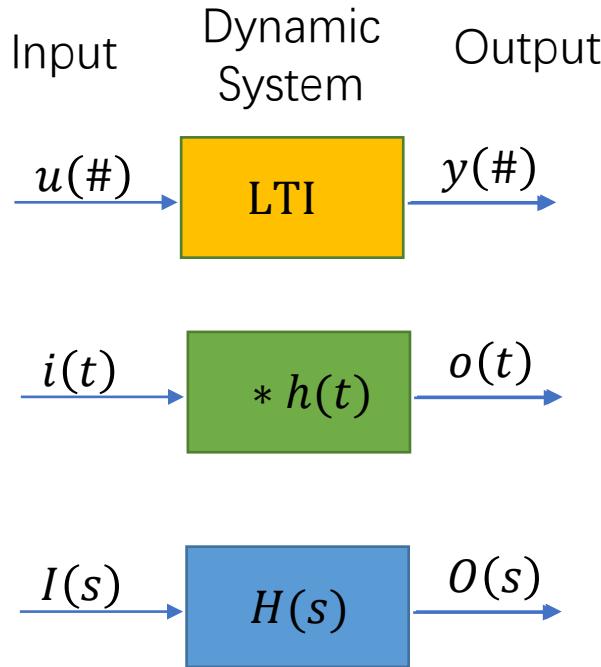
Root Locus

Frequency Response

State-Space

Wk	Topic	Ref.
9	Bode plots for three types of transfer functions	Section 6.1
	Stability from frequency response; gain and phase margins	Section 6.1
10	Control design using frequency response	Ch. 6
	Control design using frequency response continued; PI and lag, PID and lead-lag	Frequency Response
11	Nyquist stability criterion	Ch. 6
	Nyquist stability criterion continued; gain and phase margins from Nyquist plots	Ch. 6
12	Review B	
	Term Test B	
13	Introduction to state-space design	Ch. 7
	Controllability, stability, and pole-zero cancellations; similarity transformation; conversion of controllable systems to Controller Canonical Form	Ch. 7
14	Pole placement by full state feedback	Ch. 7
	Observer design for state estimation	Ch. 7
15	Joint observer and controller design by dynamic output feedback; separation principle	State-Space Ch. 7
	In-class review	Ch. 7
16	END OF LECTURES: Revision Week	
	Final	

Recap: System Representation & Stability Analysis



State space model:

State Equation $\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} u$

Output Equation $y = (b_0 \quad b_1) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$

Configuration form

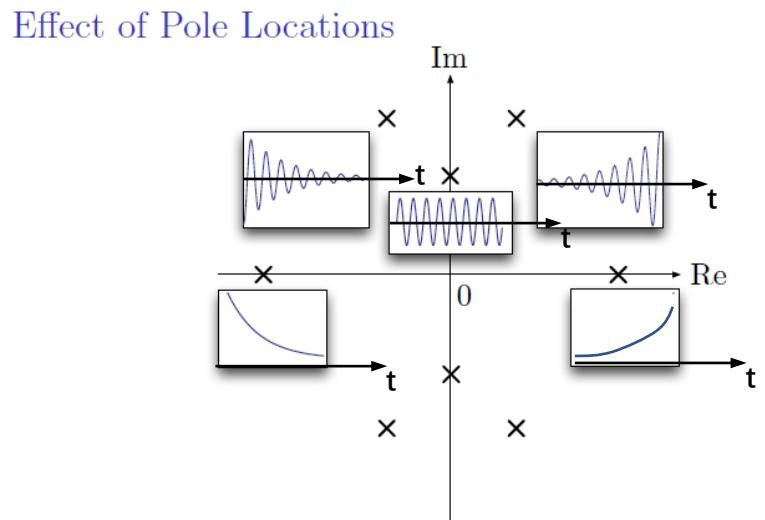
Equations of Motion
$$\begin{cases} \ddot{q}_1 = f_1(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t) \\ \ddot{q}_2 = f_2(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t) \\ \dots \\ \ddot{q}_n = f_n(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t) \end{cases}$$

Initial Conditions
$$\begin{cases} q_1(0) = q_{10}, \dots, q_n(0) = q_{n0} \\ \dot{q}_1(0) = \dot{q}_{10}, \dots, \dot{q}_n(0) = \dot{q}_{n0} \end{cases}$$

Transfer Function:

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

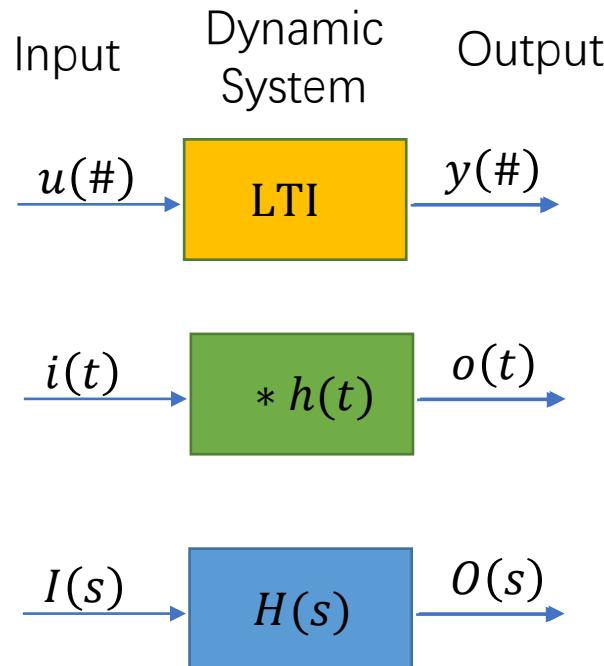
ICs = 0



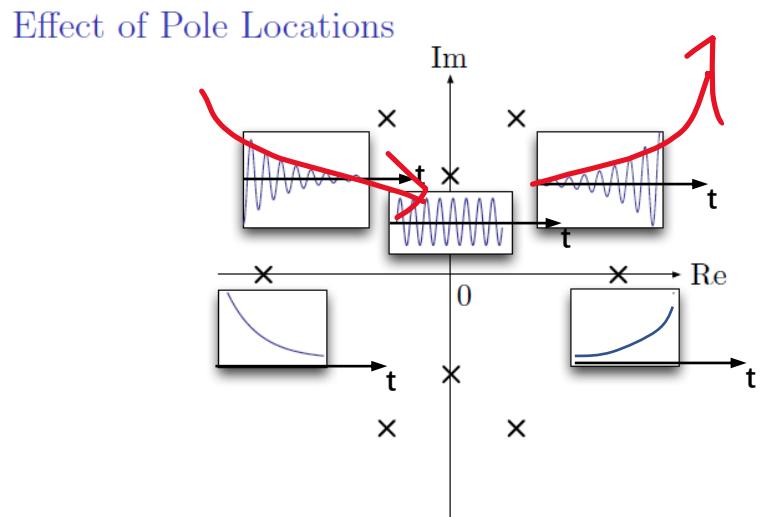
- poles in open LHP ($\text{Re}(s) < 0$) — stable response
- poles in open RHP ($\text{Re}(s) > 0$) — unstable response
- poles on the imaginary axis ($\text{Re}(s) = 0$) — tricky case

Using Routh-Hurwitz Stability Analysis

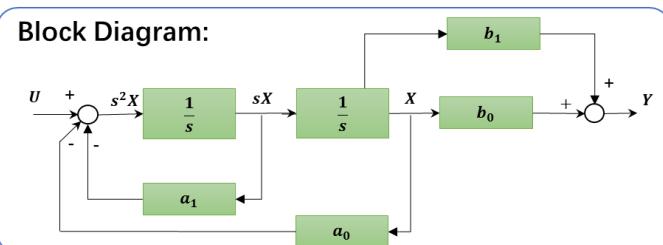
Recap: System Representation & Stability Analysis



$$H(s) = \frac{q(s)}{p(s)} = \frac{1}{s+a}$$



- poles in open LHP ($\text{Re}(s) < 0$) — stable response
- poles in open RHP ($\text{Re}(s) > 0$) — unstable response
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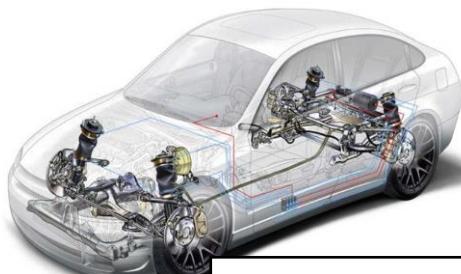


**Using Routh-Hurwitz
Stability Analysis**

Recap: Feedback Control

- Open-loop vs. closed-loop control
- Benefits of feedback control:
 - Reference tracking
 - Disturbance rejection
 - Reduction of sensitivity to parameter variations
 - Improvement of time response

Improve Time Response

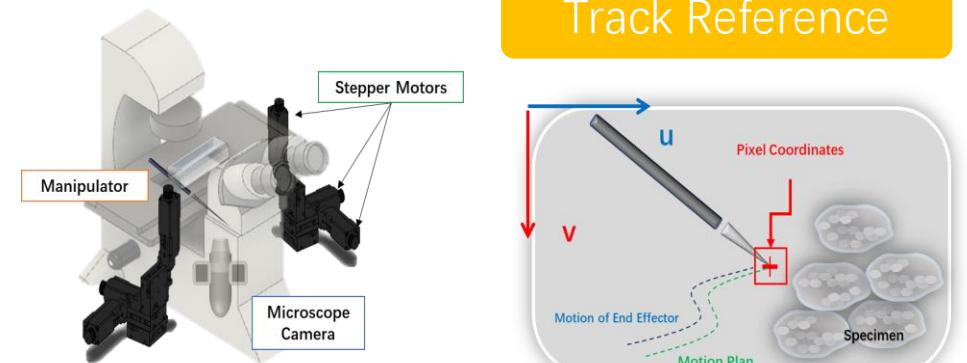


Active Suspension

Reject Disturbance



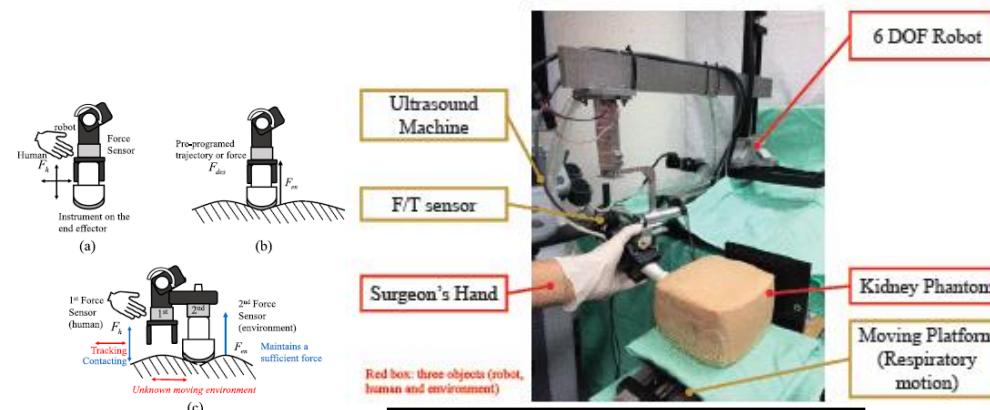
Filter Tremor Effect



Track Reference

Vision-based Trajectory Tracking

Reduce Effect of Uncertainties



Human-Robot Interaction

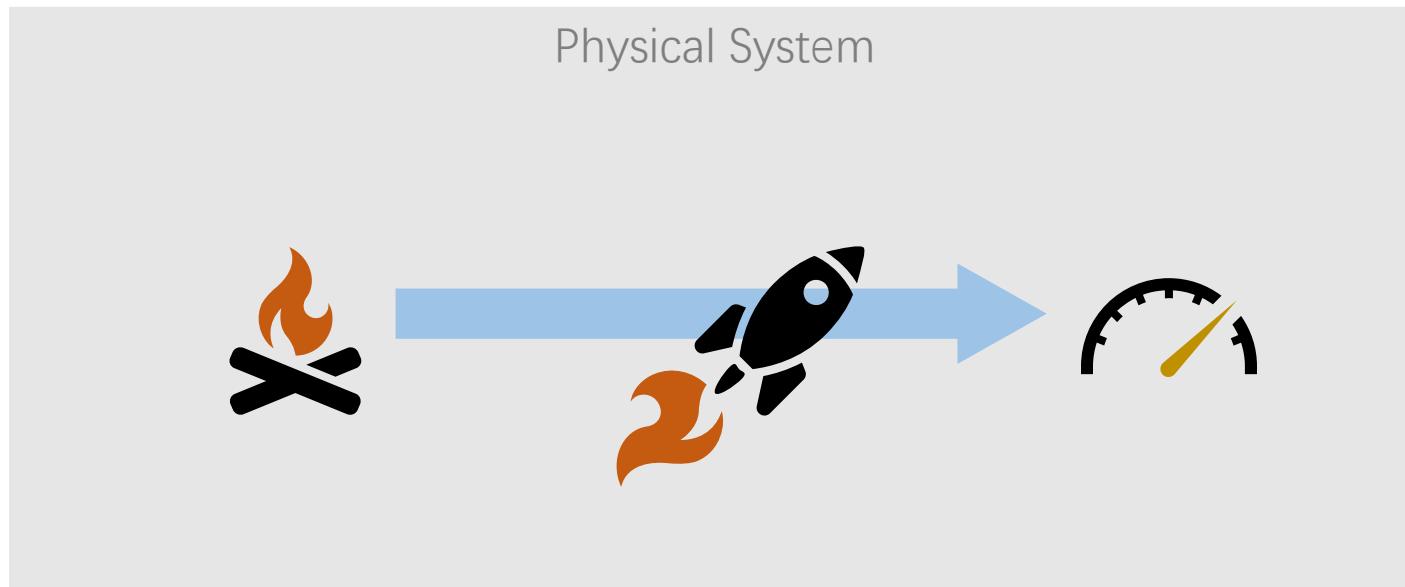


Recall: Feedback Control

- Difference between open-loop and closed-loop control
- Benefits of feedback control:
 1. Reference tracking
 2. Disturbance rejection
 3. Reduction of sensitivity to parameter variations
 4. Improvement of time response

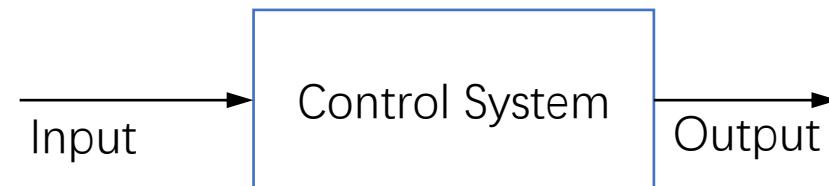
Concept of Control Systems

- A **control system** is designed to achieve a targeted output by generating the appropriate inputs in a **dynamical environment** (within specified **performance criteria**)

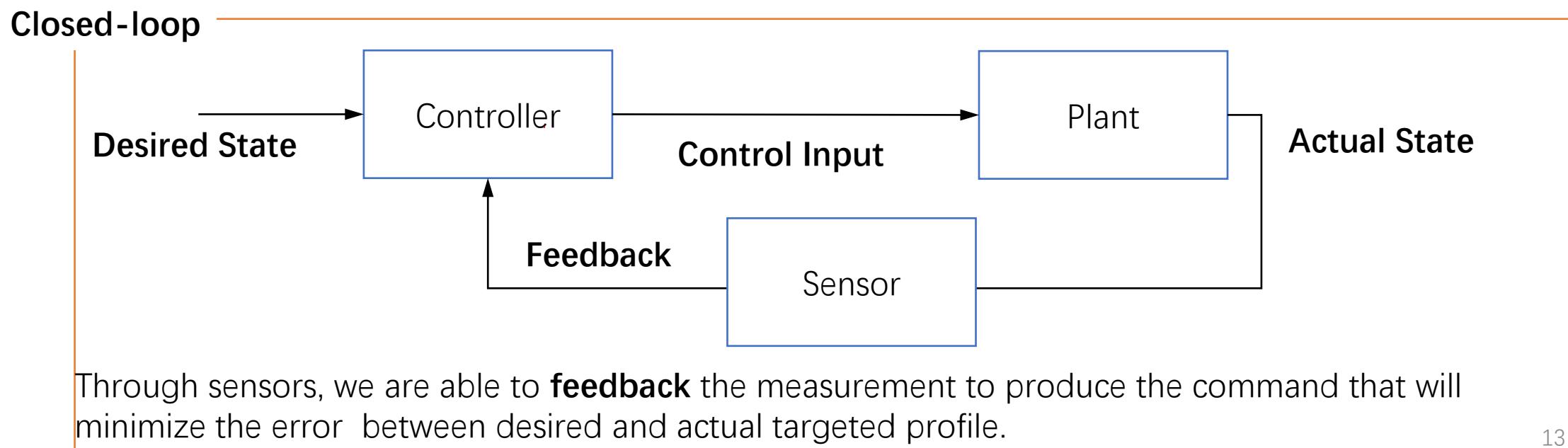
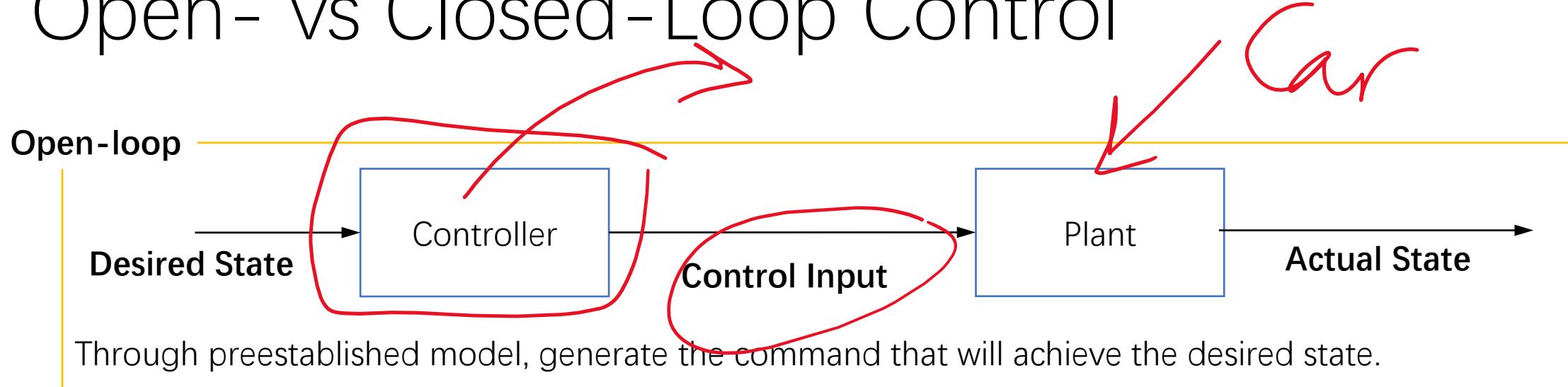


Concept of Control Systems

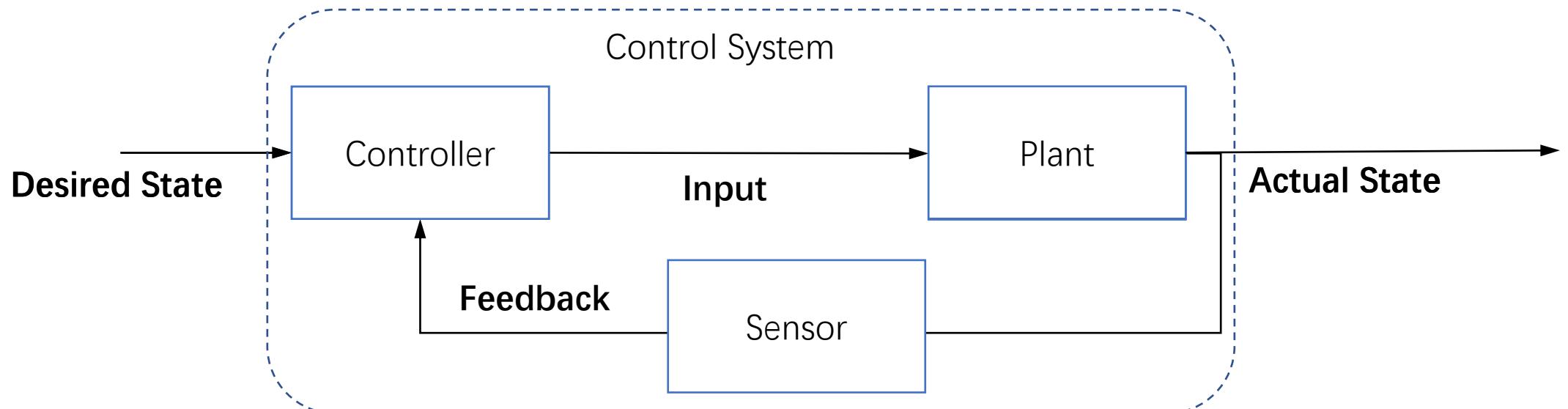
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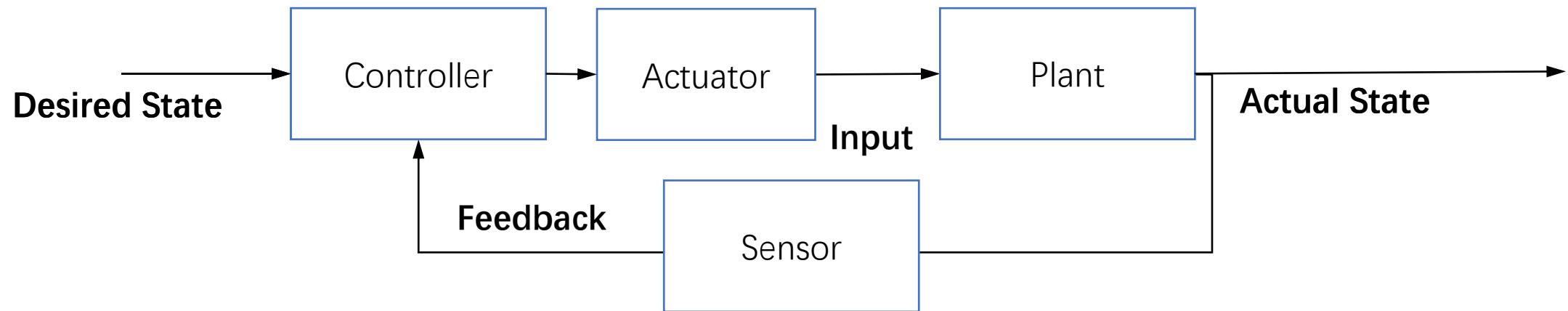
Open- vs Closed-Loop Control



Recall: Feedback Control



Recall: Terminology

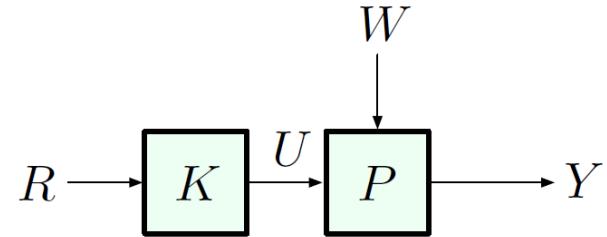


- **Plant** is the system being controlled
- **Sensors** measure the quantity that is subject to control
- **Actuators** act on the plant
- **Controller** processes the sensor signals and drives the actuators
- **Control law** is the rule for mapping sensor signals to actuator signals

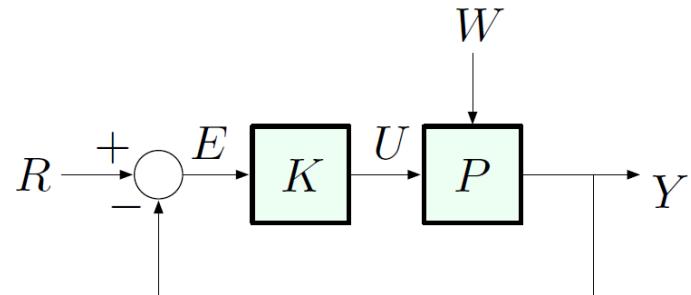


Open- vs Closed Loop Architectures

- ▶ Open-loop control

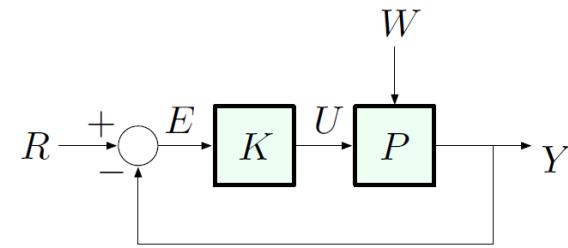
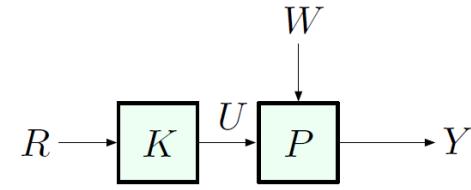


- ▶ Feedback (closed-loop) control



Here, W is a *disturbance*; K is *not necessarily* a static gain

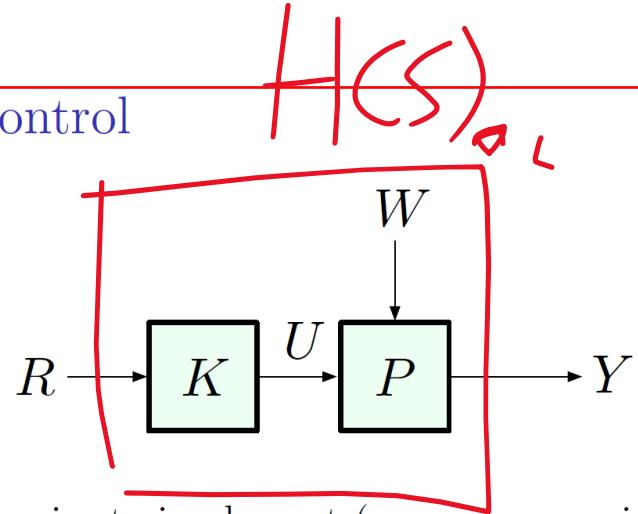
Open- vs Closed Loop Architectures



- ▶ track a given reference
- ▶ reject disturbances
- ▶ meet performance specs

Open- vs Closed Loop Architectures

Open-Loop Control



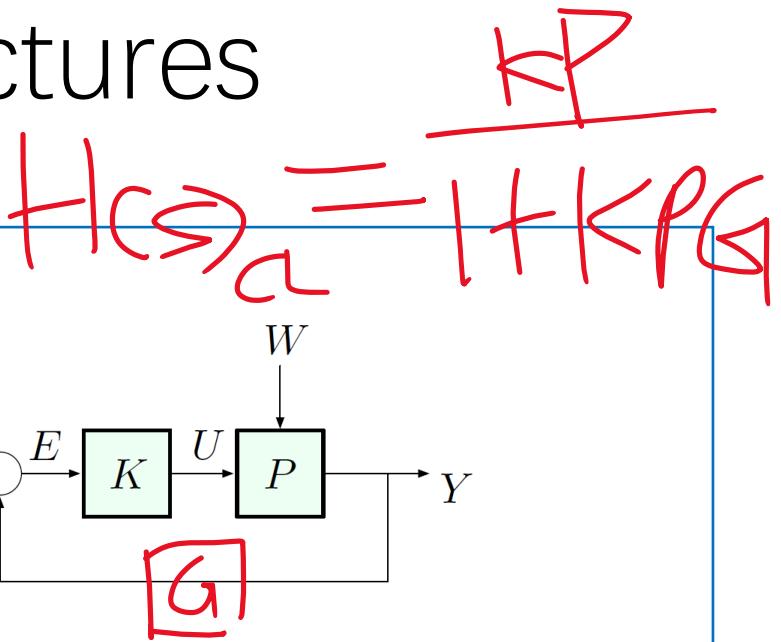
- ▶ cheaper/easier to implement (no sensor required)
 - ▶ does not destabilize the system
- e.g., if both K and P are stable (all poles in OLHP),

$$\frac{Y}{R} = KP$$

is also stable:

$$\{\text{poles of } KP\} = \{\text{poles of } K\} \cup \{\text{poles of } P\}$$

Feedback Control



- ▶ more difficult/expensive to implement (requires a sensor and an information path from controller to actuator)
- ▶ may destabilize the system:

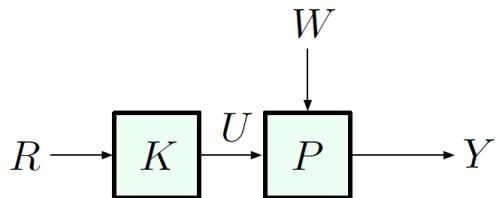
$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{KP}{1 + KP}$$

has new poles, which may be unstable

- ▶ **but:** feedback control is the *only way* to stabilize an unstable plant (this was the Wright brothers' key insight)

Open vs Closed Loop Architectures

► Open-loop control



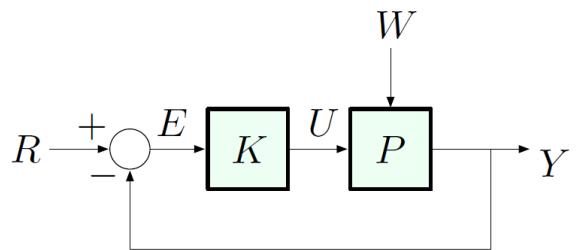
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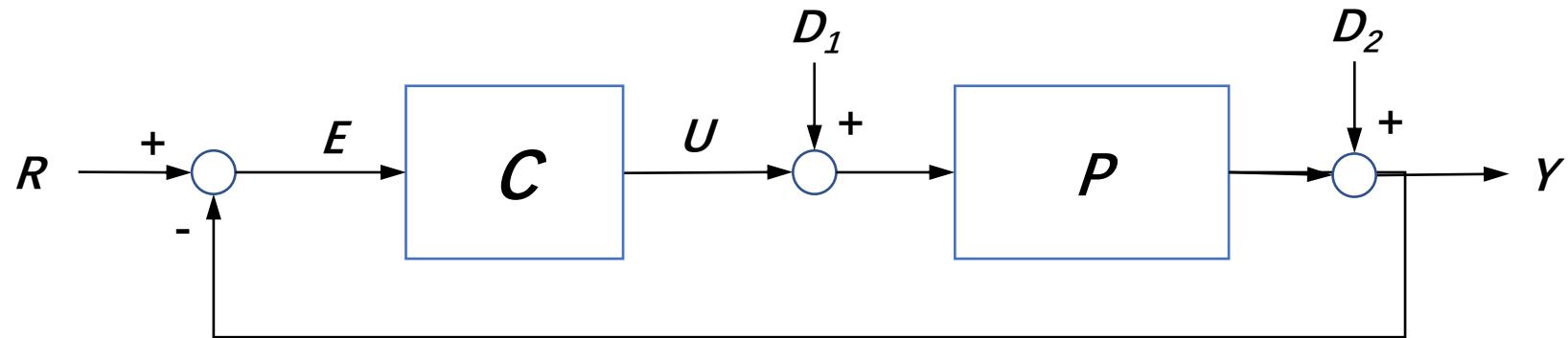
静中静非真静——《菜根谭》

Feedback control:

- ▶ reduces steady-state error to disturbances
- ▶ reduces steady-state sensitivity to model uncertainty (parameter variations)
- ▶ improves time response

- ▶ track a given reference
- ▶ reject disturbances
- ▶ meet performance specs

Feedback Control



Systems

C : Controller

P : Plant

R : Reference

E : Error

Variables

U : Input

Y : Output

D_1 : Disturbance 1

D_2 : Disturbance 2

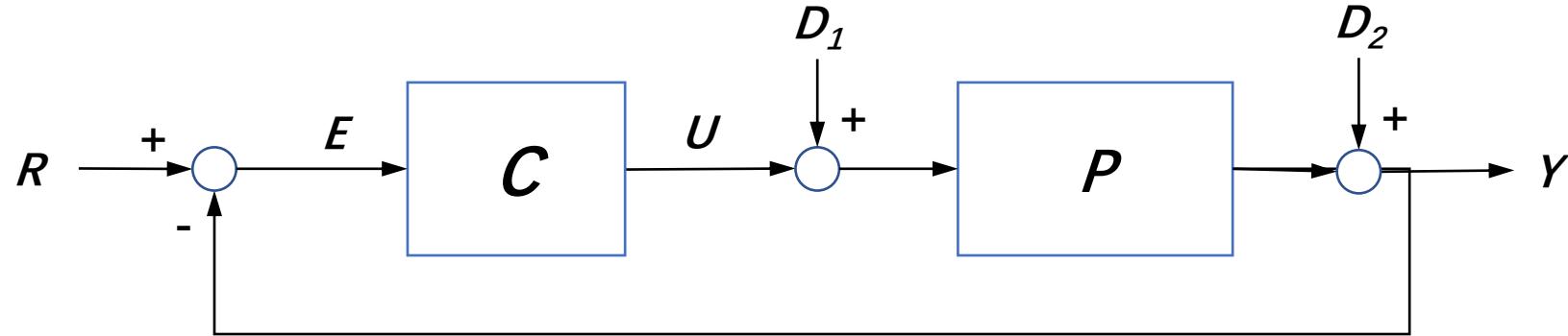
Relations

$$Y = D_2 + P(U + D_1)$$

$$U = CE;$$

$$E = R - Y$$

Feedback Control



Relations

$$Y = D_2 + P(U + D_1); \quad U = CE; \quad E = R - Y$$

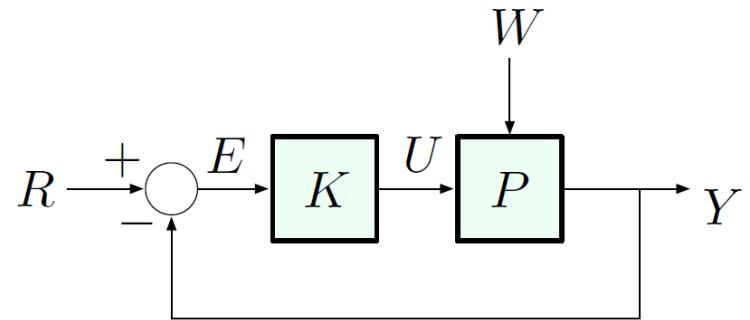
Expressing Y in terms of R, D_2, D_1

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= D_2 + P(CE + D_1) \\ &= D_2 + P(C(R - Y) + D_1) \\ &= D_2 + PCR - PCY + PD_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$Y = \frac{PC}{1 + PC}R + \frac{P}{1 + PC}D_1 + \frac{1}{1 + PC}D_2$$

What happen when C keeps getting larger?

Benefits of Feedback Control



Feedback control:

- ▶ reduces steady-state error to disturbances
- ▶ reduces steady-state sensitivity to model uncertainty
(parameter variations)
- ▶ improves time response

Case Study: DC Motor

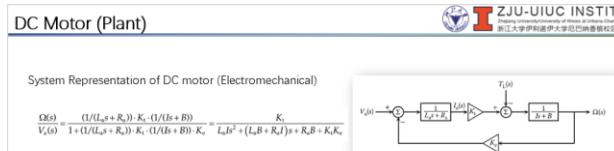
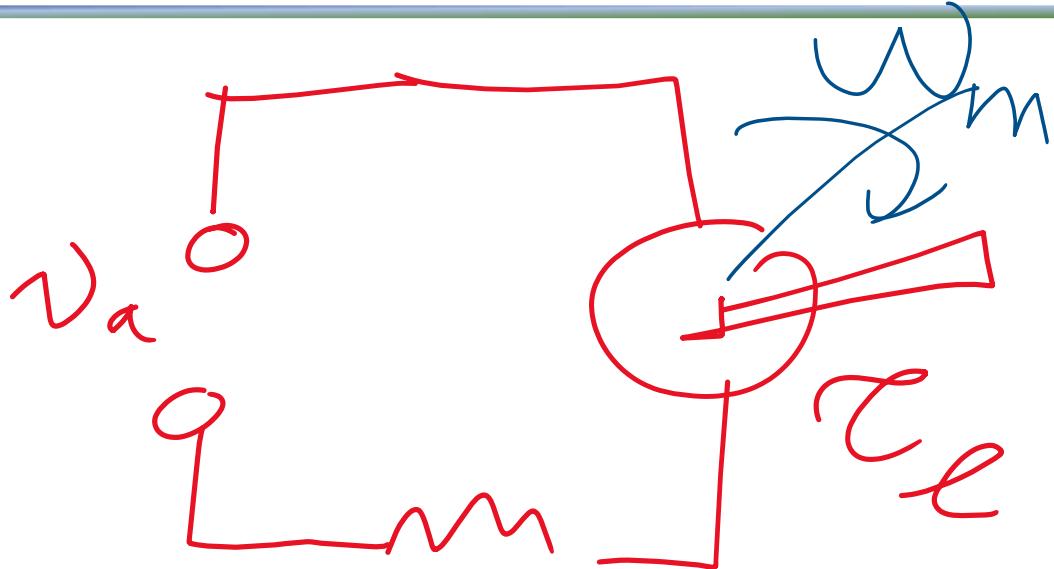
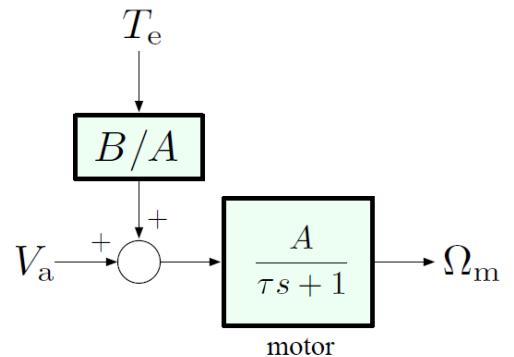
Inputs: v_a – input voltage

τ_e – load/disturbance torque

Outputs: ω_m – angular speed of the motor

Transfer function:

$$\Omega_m = \frac{A}{\tau s + 1} V_a + \frac{B}{\tau s + 1} T_e \quad \begin{aligned} \tau &= \text{time constant} \\ A, B &= \text{system gains} \end{aligned}$$

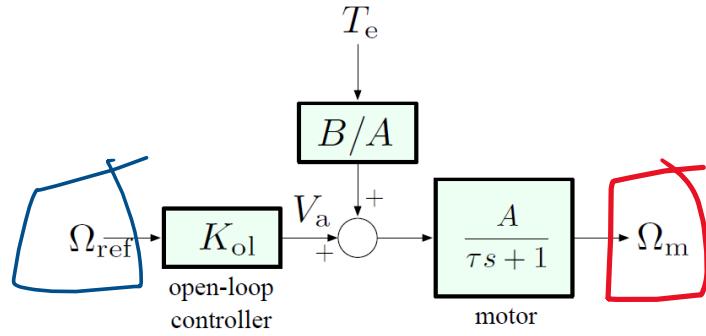


Objective: have Ω_m approach and track a given reference Ω_{ref} in spite of disturbance T_e .

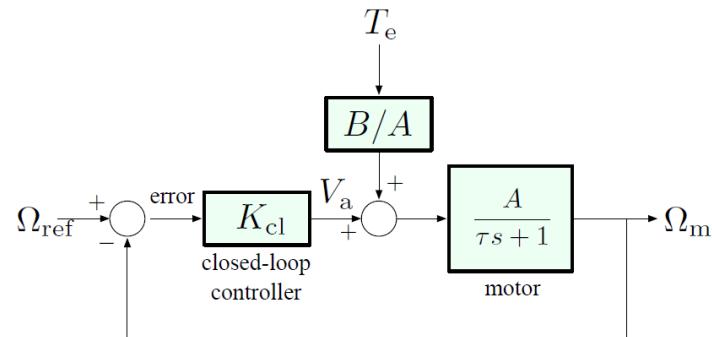


Case Study: DC Motor

- ▶ Open-loop control



- ▶ Feedback (closed-loop) control

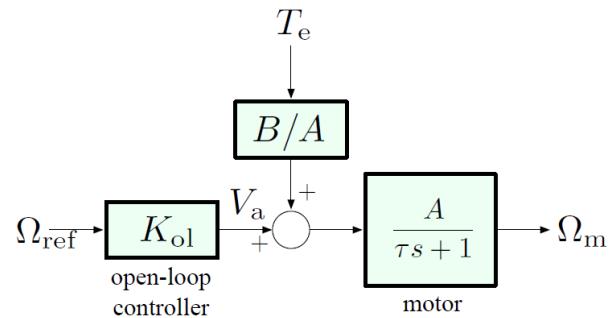


Case Study: DC Motor

Disturbance Rejection

Goal: maintain $\omega_m = \omega_{\text{ref}}$ in steady state in the presence of *constant* disturbance.

Open-loop:

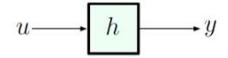


- the controller receives *no information* about the disturbance τ_e (the only input is ω_{ref} , no feedback signal from anywhere else)
- so, let's attempt the following: design for *no disturbance* (i.e., $\tau_e = 0$), then see how the system works in general

Recap: FVT: Steady-State Value

$$u(t) = 1(t) \quad U(s) = \frac{1}{s} \quad \Rightarrow \quad Y(s) = \frac{H(s)}{s}$$

Back to DC Gain



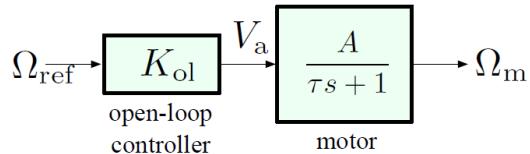
$$\text{Step response: } Y(s) = \frac{H(s)}{s}$$

— if all poles of $sY(s) = H(s)$ are strictly stable, then

$$y(\infty) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} H(s)$$

Disturbance Rejection: K_{ol}

First assume zero disturbance:



Transfer function:

$$\frac{A}{\tau s + 1} \text{ (stable pole at } s = -1/\tau\text{)}$$

We want DC gain = 1

$$\Omega_m = \frac{A}{\tau s + 1} V_a = \frac{K_{ol} A}{\tau s + 1} \Omega_{ref}$$

Let's just use constant gain: $K_{ol} = 1/A$

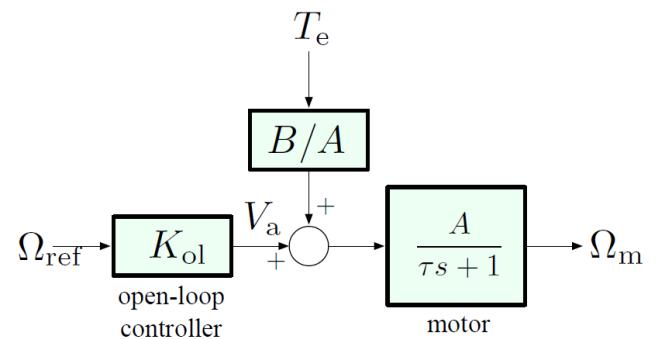
$$\omega_m(\infty) = \frac{1}{A} \cdot A \cdot \omega_{ref} = \omega_{ref} \quad (\text{for } T_e = 0)$$

What happens in the presence of nonzero T_e ?

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_m &= \underbrace{\frac{A}{\tau s + 1} \frac{1}{A} \Omega_{ref}}_{\text{DC gain}=1} + \underbrace{\frac{B}{\tau s + 1} T_e}_{\text{DC gain}=B} \\ \implies \omega_m(\infty) &= \underbrace{\omega_{ref}}_{\text{step input}} + B \underbrace{\tau_e}_{\text{step input}} \end{aligned}$$

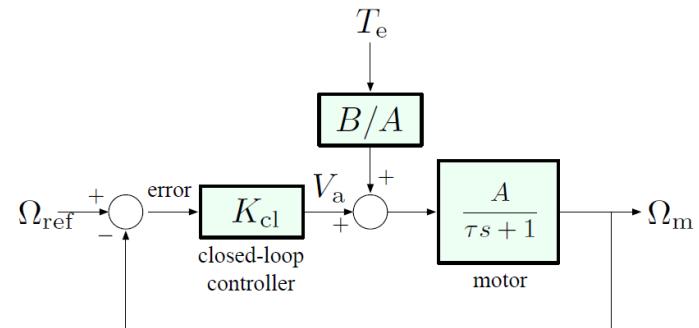
Steady-state motor speed for constant reference and constant disturbance:

$$\omega_m(\infty) = \omega_{ref} + B\tau_e$$



Conclusion: in the absence of disturbances, reference tracking is good, but disturbance rejection is pretty poor. Steady-state error is determined by B , and we have no control over it (and, in fact, cannot change this through any choice of controller K_{ol} , no matter how clever)

Disturbance Rejection: K_{cl}



$$V_a = K_{cl}E = K_{cl}(\Omega_{ref} - \Omega_m)$$

$$\Omega_m = \frac{A}{\tau s + 1} K_{cl} (\Omega_{ref} - \Omega_m) + \frac{B}{\tau s + 1} T_e$$

Solve for Ω_m : $(\tau s + 1)\Omega_m = AK_{cl}(\Omega_{ref} - \Omega_m) + BT_e$

$$(\tau s + 1 + AK_{cl})\Omega_m = AK_{cl}\Omega_{ref} + BT_e$$

$$\Omega_m = \frac{AK_{cl}}{\tau s + 1 + AK_{cl}} \Omega_{ref} + \frac{B}{\tau s + 1 + AK_{cl}} T_e$$

$$\Omega_m = \underbrace{\frac{AK_{cl}}{\tau s + 1 + AK_{cl}}}_{\text{DC gain} = \frac{AK_{cl}}{1+AK_{cl}}} \Omega_{ref} + \underbrace{\frac{B}{\tau s + 1 + AK_{cl}}}_{\text{DC gain} = \frac{B}{1+AK_{cl}}} T_e$$

(provided all transfer functions are strictly stable)

Assuming that the reference ω_{ref} and the disturbance τ_e are constant, we apply FVT:

$$\omega_m(\infty) = \frac{AK_{cl}}{1 + AK_{cl}} \omega_{ref} + \frac{B}{1 + AK_{cl}} \tau_e$$

Steady State speed for constant reference and disturbance:

Conclusions:

- ▶ $\frac{AK_{cl}}{1 + AK_{cl}} \neq 1$, but can be brought arbitrarily close to 1 when $K_{cl} \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, steady-state tracking is good with high gain, but never quite as good as in open-loop case.
- ▶ $\frac{B}{1 + AK_{cl}}$ is small (arbitrarily close to 0) for large K_{cl} . Thus, *much* better disturbance rejection than with open-loop control.

Sensitivity to Parameter Variations

Bode's sensitivity concept: In the “nominal” situation, we have the motor with DC gain = A , and the overall transfer function, either open- or closed-loop, has some other DC gain (call it T).

Now suppose that, due to modeling error, changes in operating conditions, etc., the motor gain changes:

$$A \rightarrow A + \underbrace{\delta A}_{\text{small perturbation}}$$

This will cause a perturbation in the overall DC gain:

$$T \rightarrow T + \delta T \quad (\text{from calculus, to 1st order, } \delta T \approx \frac{dT}{A} \delta A)$$

$$A \rightarrow A + \delta A \quad (\text{small perturbation in system gain})$$

$$T \rightarrow T + \delta T \quad (\text{resultant perturbation in overall DC gain})$$



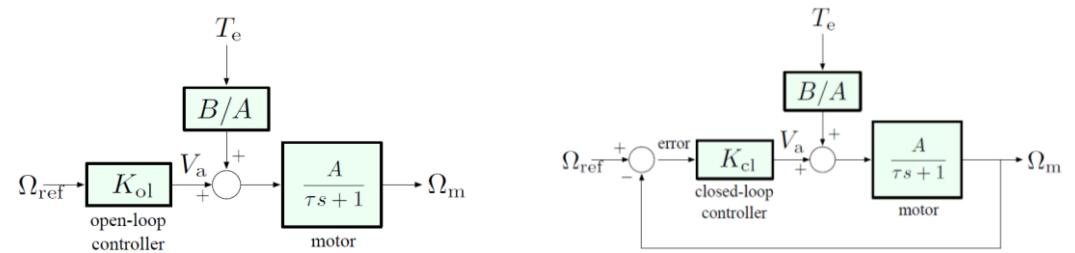
Hendrik Wade Bode
(1905–1982)

Bode's sensitivity:

$$\mathcal{S} \triangleq \frac{\delta T/T}{\delta A/A}$$

\mathcal{S} = relative error

$$= \frac{\text{normalized (percentage) error in } T}{\text{normalized (percentage) error in } A}$$



Let's compute \mathcal{S} for our DC motor control example, both open- and closed-loop.

Open-loop:

- ▶ nominal case $T_{\text{ol}} = K_{\text{ol}}A = \frac{1}{A}A = 1$
- ▶ perturbed case

$$A \rightarrow A + \delta A$$

$$T_{\text{ol}} \rightarrow K_{\text{ol}}(A + \delta A) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{A}}_{\text{design choice}} (A + \delta A) = \underbrace{1}_{T_{\text{ol}}} + \underbrace{\frac{\delta A}{A}}_{\delta T_{\text{ol}}}$$

$$\text{Sensitivity: } \mathcal{S}_{\text{ol}} = \frac{\delta T_{\text{ol}}/T_{\text{ol}}}{\delta A_{\text{ol}}/A_{\text{ol}}} = \frac{\delta A/A}{\delta A/A} = 1$$

For example, a 5% error in A will cause a 5% error in T_{ol} .

Sensitivity to Parameter Variations

Closed-loop:

- ▶ nominal case $T_{\text{cl}} = \frac{AK_{\text{cl}}}{1 + AK_{\text{cl}}}$
- ▶ perturbed case

$$A \longrightarrow A + \delta A \quad T_{\text{cl}} \longrightarrow T_{\text{cl}} + \underbrace{\delta T_{\text{cl}}}_{\substack{\text{how to} \\ \text{compute this?}}}$$

Taylor expansion:

$$T(A + \delta A) = T(A) + \frac{dT}{dA}(A)\delta A + \text{higher-order terms}$$

In our case:

$$\frac{dT_{\text{cl}}}{dA} = \frac{K_{\text{cl}}}{1 + AK_{\text{cl}}} - \frac{AK_{\text{cl}}^2}{(1 + AK_{\text{cl}})^2} = \frac{K_{\text{cl}}}{(1 + AK_{\text{cl}})^2}$$

$$\delta T_{\text{cl}} = \frac{K_{\text{cl}}}{(1 + AK_{\text{cl}})^2} \delta A$$

From before:

$$\delta T_{\text{cl}} = \frac{K_{\text{cl}}}{(1 + AK_{\text{cl}})^2} \delta A$$

$$T_{\text{cl}} = \frac{AK_{\text{cl}}}{1 + AK_{\text{cl}}}$$

Therefore

$$\delta T_{\text{cl}}/T_{\text{cl}} = \frac{\frac{K_{\text{cl}}}{(1+AK_{\text{cl}})^2} \delta A}{\frac{AK_{\text{cl}}}{1+AK_{\text{cl}}}} = \frac{1}{1 + AK_{\text{cl}}} \delta A/A$$

Sensitivity: $\mathcal{S}_{\text{cl}} = \frac{\delta T_{\text{cl}}/T_{\text{cl}}}{\delta A/A} = \frac{1}{1 + AK_{\text{cl}}} \quad (\ll 1 \text{ for large } K_{\text{cl}})$

With high-gain feedback, we get smaller relative error due to parameter variations in the plant model.

Time Response

We still assume no disturbance: $\tau_e = 0$.

So far, we have focused on DC gain only (steady-state response). What about *transient response*?

Open-loop

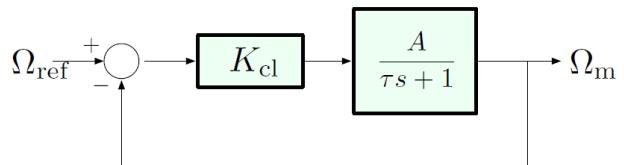
$$\Omega_m = \frac{AK_{cl}}{\tau s + 1} \Omega_{ref}$$

Pole at $s = -\frac{1}{\tau}$ \implies transient response is $e^{-t/\tau}$

Here, τ is the *time constant*: the time it takes the system response to decay to $1/e$ of its starting value.

In the open-loop case, larger time constant means faster convergence to steady state. This is not affected by the choice of K_{cl} in any way!

Closed-loop



$$\Omega_m = \frac{AK_{cl}}{\tau s + 1 + AK_{cl}} \Omega_{ref}$$

Closed-loop pole at $s = -\frac{1}{\tau}(1 + AK_{cl})$
(the only way to move poles around is *via feedback*)

Now the transient response is $e^{-\frac{1+AK_{cl}}{\tau}t}$, with

$$\text{time constant} = \frac{\tau}{1 + AK_{cl}}$$

— for large K_{cl} , we have a much smaller time constant, i.e., *faster convergence* to steady-state.



Summary

- Feedback Control:
 - reduces steady-state error to disturbances
 - reduces steady-state sensitivity to model uncertainty (parameter variations)
 - improves time response
- However, what we see so far works well for first order systems
 - static gain may cause underdamping or instability in higher order systems
- More sophisticated control: example PID in next lecture



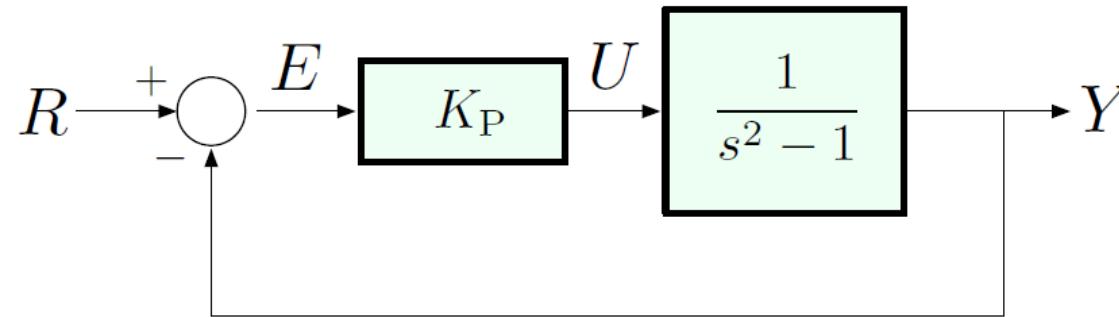
Recap: Feedback Control

- So far, we have only looked at proportional feedback (scalar gain) and 1st-order plants.
- Add two more basic ingredients and examine their effect on higher-order systems.
- Consider the following plant transfer function:

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 - 1}$$

- ▶ unstable: poles at $s = \pm 1$ (one pole in RHP)
- ▶ 2nd-order
 - not as easy as DC motor, which was 1st-order and stable.

Proportional Feedback



$$K_P \text{ -- "proportional gain" (P-gain)} \quad U = K_P E$$

Let's try to find a value of K_P that would stabilize the system:

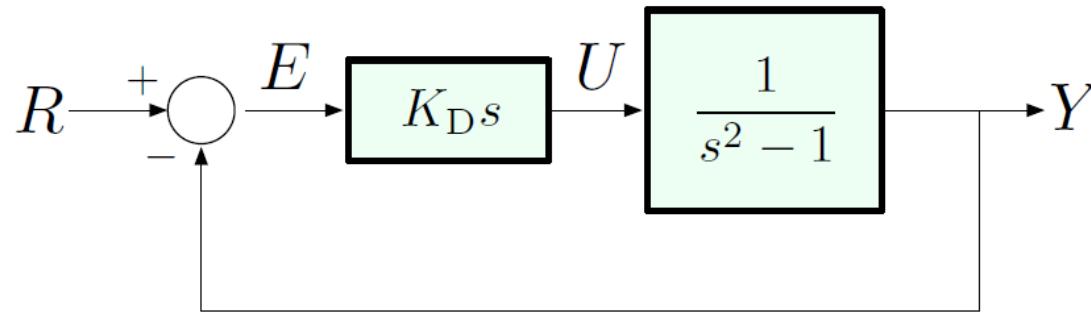
$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{\frac{K_P}{s^2 - 1}}{1 + \frac{K_P}{s^2 - 1}} = \frac{K_P}{s^2 - 1 + K_P}$$

- the polynomial in the denominator has zero coefficient of s
- ⇒ necessary condition for stability is not satisfied.

The feedback system is *not stable for any value of K_P !!*

Derivative Feedback

Let's feed the *derivative of the error*, multiplied by some gain, back into the plant:



Motivation: derivative = rate of change; faster change \Rightarrow more control needed.

Caveat: multiplication by s is not a causal element ([why?](#))

Derivative action and lack of causality: recall

$$\dot{e}(t) \approx \frac{e(t + \delta) - e(t)}{\delta} \quad (\text{for small } \delta)$$

— if $\delta > 0$, $e(t + \delta)$ is in the future of $e(t)!!$

Disclaimer 1 about D-Feedback: Lack of Causality

Consider some state-space models:

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx$$

$$sX = AX + BU$$

$$Y = CX$$

$$(s - A)X = BU$$

$$\frac{Y}{U} = \frac{CB}{s - A} \equiv \frac{q(s)}{p(s)}$$

$\deg(q) < \deg(p)$ — strictly proper transfer function

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu & sX &= AX + BU & (s - A)X &= BU \\ y &= Cx + Du & Y &= CX + DU & Y &= \frac{CB}{s - A}U + DU \\ & & & & &= \frac{CB + D(s - A)}{s - A}U \equiv \frac{q(s)}{p(s)} \end{aligned}$$

$\deg(q) = \deg(p)$ — proper transfer function

Causal systems have proper transfer functions.

Lack of Causality

$$\text{But if } u = K\dot{e}, \text{ then } U = KsE \implies \frac{U}{E} = Ks = \frac{q(s)}{p(s)}$$

$\deg(q) > \deg(p)$ — *improper system* (lack of causality)

So, $E \mapsto K_D s E$ is not implementable directly, but we can implement an approximation, e.g.

$$\frac{K_D a s}{a + s} \longrightarrow K_D s \quad \text{as } a \rightarrow \infty$$

(this can be done using op-amps).

Alternatively, we can approximate derivative action using finite differences:

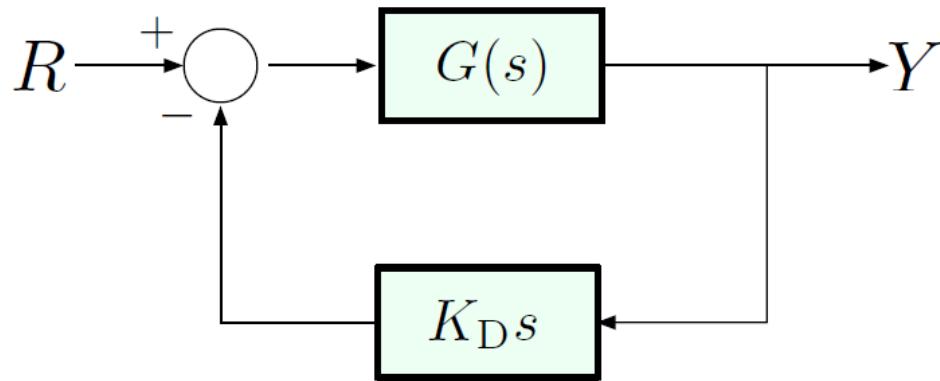
$$\dot{e}(t) \approx \frac{e(t + \delta) - e(t)}{\delta},$$

but then we must tolerate delays — must wait until time $t + \delta$ to issue a control signal meant for time t .

Disclaimer 2 about D-Feedback: Noise Amplification

Differentiators amplify noise (noise \rightarrow rapid changes in the reference).

In the lab, D-feedback is implemented differently, in the feedback path. This way, we avoid differentiating the reference, which may be rapidly changing:



Before:
$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{K_D s G(s)}{1 + K_D s G(s)}$$

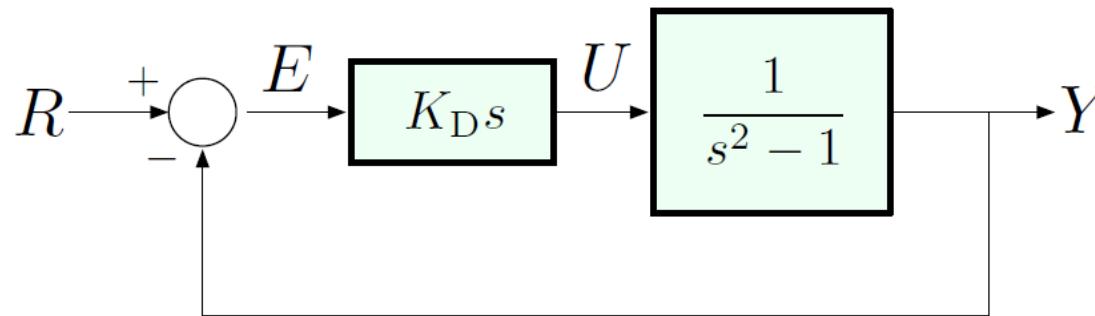
Now:
$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{G(s)}{1 + K_D s G(s)}$$

Poles:
$$1 + K_D s G(s) = 0$$

— same poles, but different zeros.

Now the reference signal is *smoothed out* by the plant $G(s)$ before entering the differentiator, which minimizes distortion due to noise.

Back to Analysis: Derivative Feedback



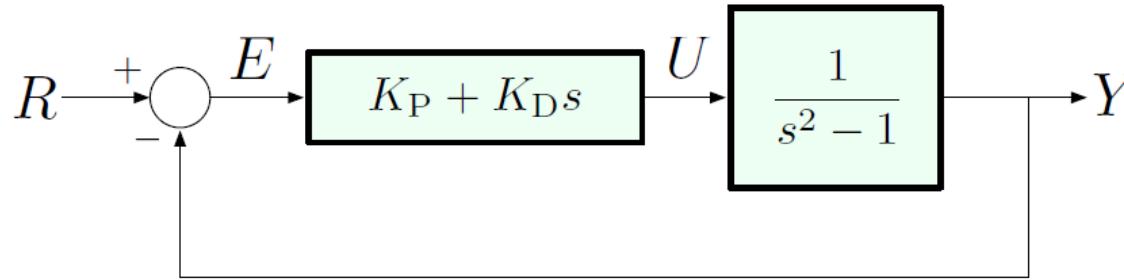
$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{\frac{K_D s}{s^2 - 1}}{1 + \frac{K_D s}{s^2 - 1}} = \frac{K_D s}{s^2 + K_D s - 1}$$

— still not good: the denominator has a negative coefficient
⇒ not stable; also we have picked up a zero at the origin.

But:

- ▶ P-control affected the coefficient of s^0 (constant term)
- ▶ D-control affected the coefficient of s
- let's combine them!!

Proportional-Derivative (PD) Control



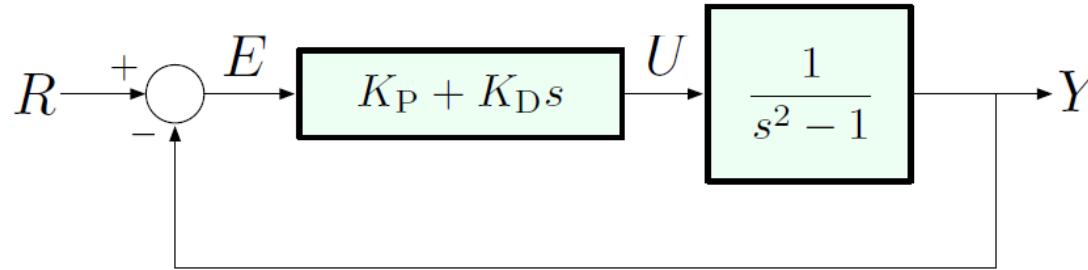
$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{\frac{K_P + K_D s}{s^2 - 1}}{1 + \frac{K_P + K_D s}{s^2 - 1}} = \frac{K_P + K_D s}{s^2 + K_D s + K_P - 1}$$

— now, if we set $K_D > 0$ and $K_P > 1$, then the transfer function will be stable.

Even more: by choosing K_P and K_D , we can *arbitrarily* assign coefficients of the denominator, and therefore the poles of the transfer function:

PD control gives us arbitrary pole placement!!

Proportional-Derivative (PD) Control



$$\frac{Y}{R} = \frac{K_P + K_D s}{s^2 + K_D s + K_P - 1}$$

By choosing K_P, K_D , we can achieve arbitrary pole placement!!

Also note that the addition of P-gain moves the zero:

$$K_D s + K_P = 0 \quad \text{LHP zero at } -\frac{K_P}{K_D}$$

But what's missing? DC gain = $\left. \frac{Y}{R} \right|_{s=0} = \frac{K_P}{K_P - 1} \neq 1$

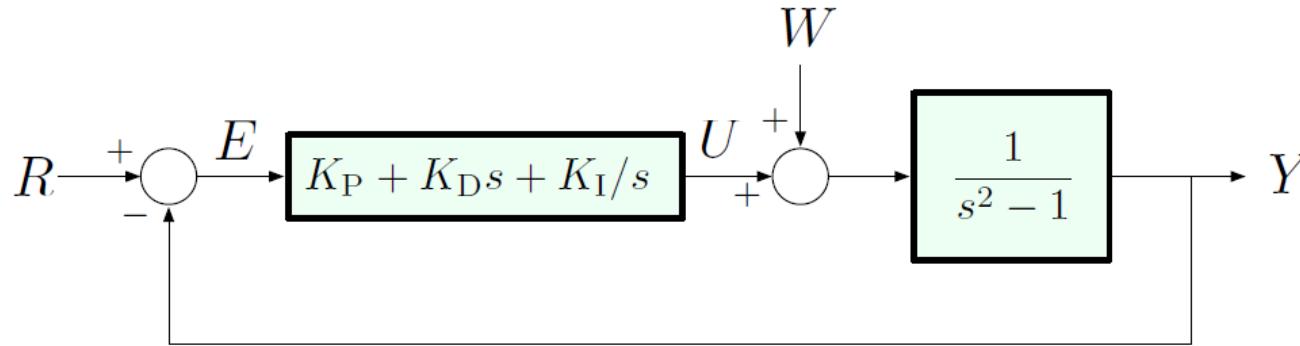
— can't have perfect tracking of constant reference.

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) Control

Let us try

$$U = \left(K_P + K_D s + \frac{K_I}{s} \right) E \quad - \text{the classic three-term controller}$$

In fact, let's also throw in a constant disturbance:

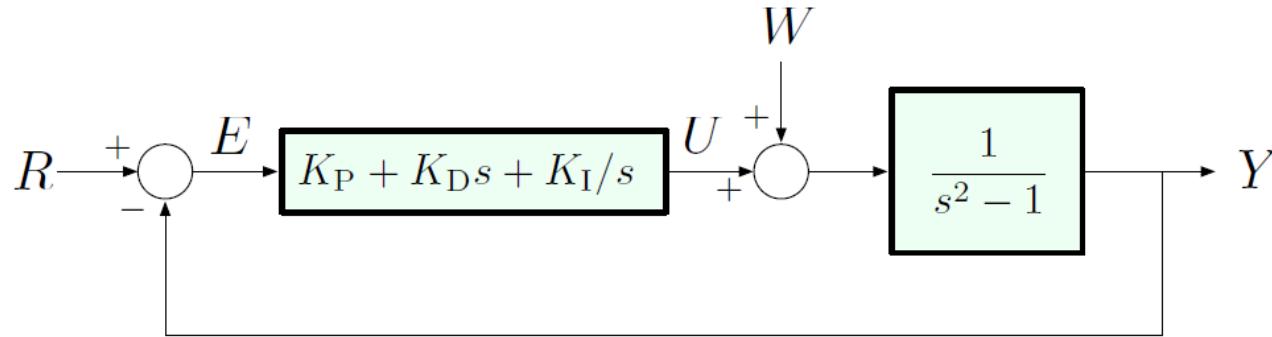


We will see that, with PID control, the goals of

- ▶ tracking a constant reference r
- ▶ rejecting a constant disturbance w

can be accomplished in one shot.

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) Control



$$Y = \frac{1}{s^2 - 1}(U + W), \quad U = \left(K_P + K_D s + \frac{K_I}{s} \right) (R - Y)$$

$$\text{so } Y = \frac{K_P + K_D s + \frac{K_I}{s}}{s^2 - 1} (R - Y) + \frac{1}{s^2 - 1} W$$

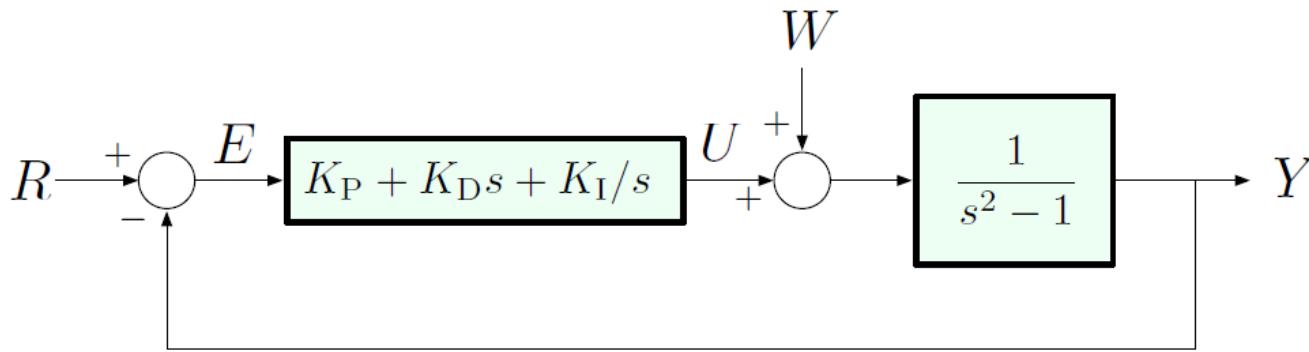
Simplify:

$$(s^2 - 1)Y = \left(K_P + K_D s + \frac{K_I}{s} \right) (R - Y) + W$$

$$\left(s^2 - 1 + K_P + K_D s + \frac{K_I}{s} \right) Y = \left(K_P + K_D s + \frac{K_I}{s} \right) R + W$$

$$(s^3 - s + K_P s + K_D s^2 + K_I)Y = (K_P s + K_D s^2 + K_I)R + Ws$$

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) Control

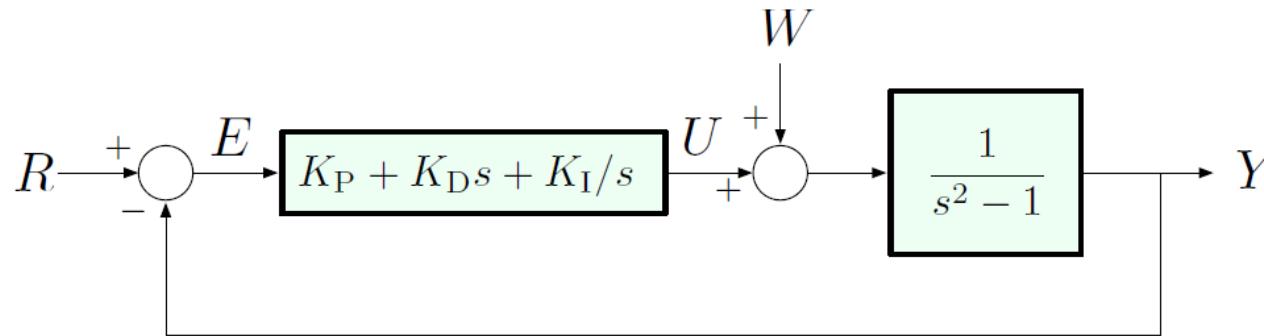


$$(s^3 - s + K_P s + K_D s^2 + K_I)Y = (K_P s + K_D s^2 + K_I)R + W s$$

Therefore,

$$Y = \frac{K_D s^2 + K_P s + K_I}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} R + \frac{s}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} W$$

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) Control

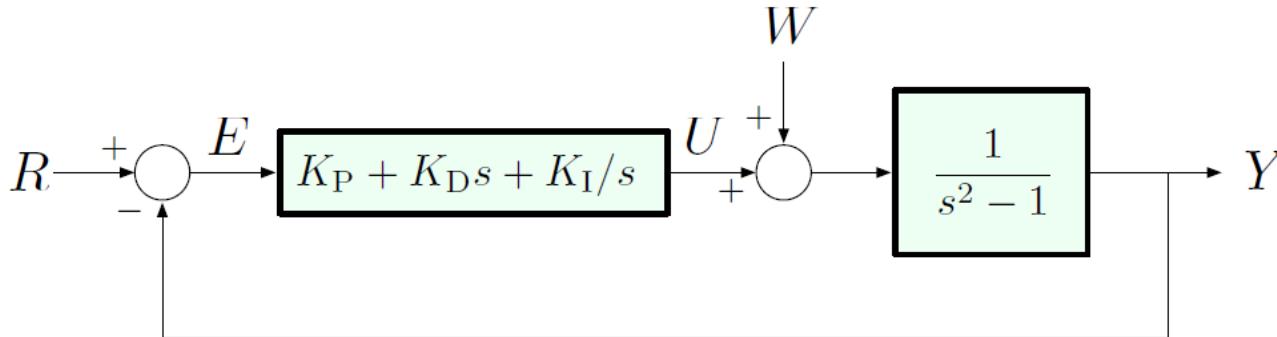


$$Y = \frac{K_D s^2 + K_P s + K_I}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} R + \frac{s}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} W$$

Stability:

- ▶ need $K_D > 0$, $K_P > 1$, $K_I > 0$ (necessary condition)
and $K_D(K_P - 1) > K_I$ (Routh–Hurwitz for 3rd-order)
- ▶ can still assign coefficients arbitrarily by choosing
 K_P, K_I, K_D

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) Control



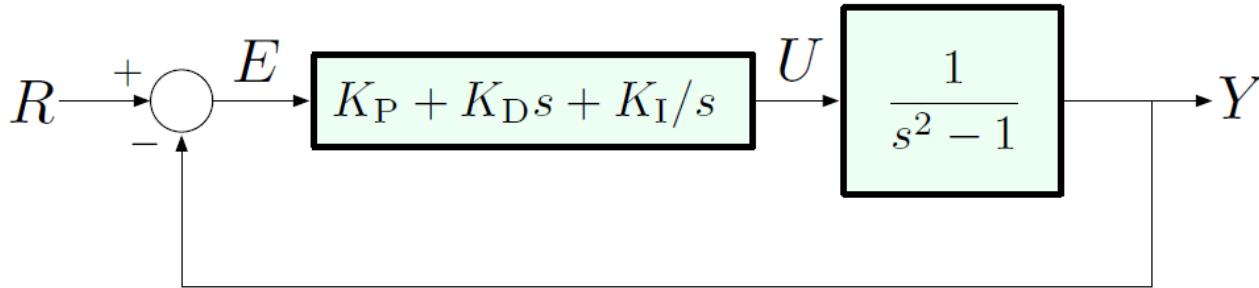
$$Y = \frac{K_D s^2 + K_P s + K_I}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} R + \frac{s}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} W$$

Reference tracking:

$$\text{DC gain}(R \rightarrow Y) = \left. \frac{K_D s^2 + K_P s + K_I}{s^3 + (K_P - 1)s + K_D s^2 + K_I} \right|_{s=0} = 1$$

— so, with the addition of I-feedback, we remove earlier limitation and achieve *perfect tracking!*

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) Control



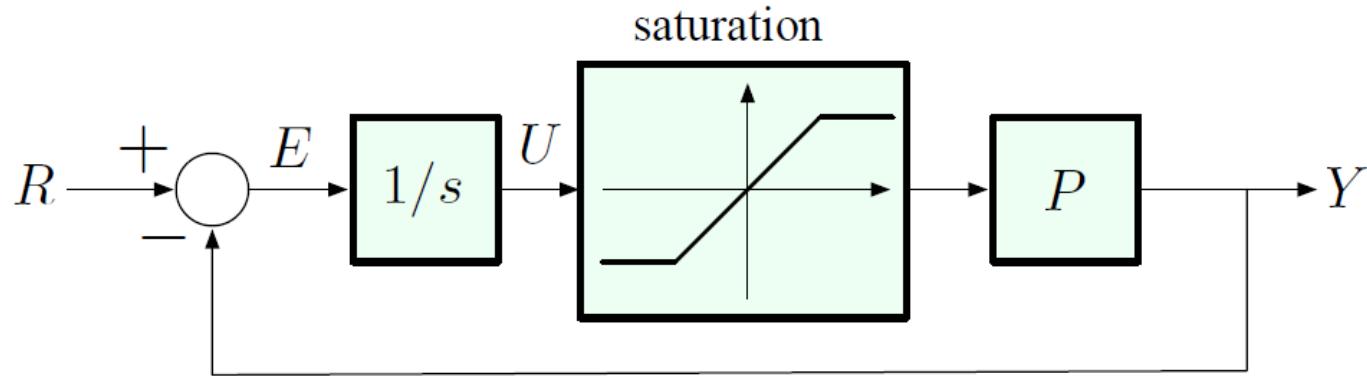
$$Y = \frac{K_D s^2 + K_P s + K_I}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} R + \frac{s}{s^3 + K_D s^2 + (K_P - 1)s + K_I} W$$

Disturbance rejection:

$$\text{DC gain}(W \rightarrow Y) = \left. \frac{s}{s^3 + (K_P - 1)s + K_D s^2 + K_I} \right|_{s=0} = 0$$

— so, integral gain also gives *complete attenuation* of *constant* disturbances!!

Wind-Up Phenomenon



When the actuator saturates, the error continues to be integrated, resulting in large overshoot.

We say that the integrator “winds up:” the error may be small, but its integrated past history builds up.

There are various *anti-windup* schemes to deal with this practically important issue. (Essentially, we attempt to detect the onset of saturation and turn the integrator off.)

PID Control: Summary & Further Comments

P-gain simplest to implement, but not always sufficient for stabilization

D-gain helps achieve stability, improves time response (more control over pole locations)

- ▶ arbitrary pole placement only valid for 2nd-order response; in general, we still have control over two *dominant poles*
- ▶ cannot be implemented directly, so need approximate implementation; D-gain also amplifies noise

I-gain essential for perfect steady-state tracking of constant reference and rejection of constant disturbance

- ▶ but $1/s$ is not a stable element by itself, so one must be careful: it can destabilize the system if the feedback loop is broken ([integrator wind-up](#))