

Introduction to PID

The PID controller is a commonly used feedback controller consisting of proportional, integral, and derivative terms, hence the name. This article will build up the definition of a PID controller term by term while trying to provide some intuition for how each of them behaves.

First, we'll get some nomenclature for PID controllers out of the way. The [reference](#) is called the setpoint (the desired position) and the [output](#) is called the [process variable](#) (the measured position). Below are some common variable naming conventions for relevant quantities.

The [error](#) is .

For those already familiar with PID control, this book's interpretation won't be consistent with the classical intuition of “past”, “present”, and “future” error. We will be approaching it from the viewpoint of modern control theory with proportional controllers applied to different physical quantities we care about. This will provide a more complete explanation of the derivative term's behavior for constant and moving [setpoints](#).

The proportional term drives the position error to zero, the derivative term drives the velocity error to zero, and the integral term accumulates the area between the [setpoint](#) and [output](#) plots over time (the integral of position [error](#)) and adds the current total to the [control input](#). We'll go into more detail on each of these.

Proportional Term¶

The *Proportional* term drives the position error to zero.

where is the proportional gain and is the error at the current time .

The below figure shows a block diagram for a [system](#) controlled by a P controller.

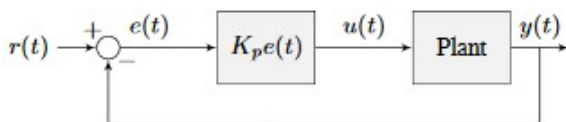


Figure 2.1: P controller block diagram

Proportional gains act like a “software-defined springs” that pull the [system](#) toward the desired position. Recall from physics that we model springs as where is the force applied, is a proportional constant, and is the displacement from the equilibrium point. This can be written another way as where is the equilibrium point. If we let the equilibrium point be our feedback controller's [setpoint](#), the equations have a one to one correspondence.

so the “force” with which the proportional controller pulls the [system's output](#) toward the [setpoint](#) is proportional to the [error](#), just like a spring.

Derivative Term¶

The *Derivative* term drives the velocity error to zero.

where is the proportional gain, is the derivative gain, and is the error at the current time .

The below figure shows a block diagram for a [system](#) controlled by a PD controller.

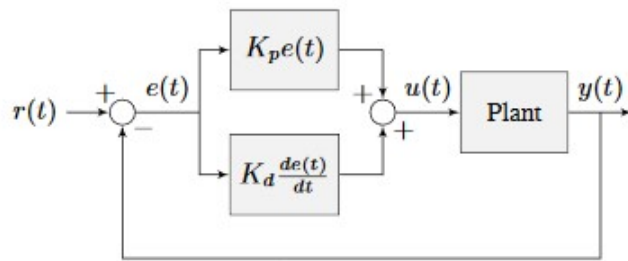


Figure 2.2: PD controller block diagram

A PD controller has a proportional controller for position () and a proportional controller for velocity (). The velocity [setpoint](#) is implicitly provided by how the position [setpoint](#) changes over time. To prove this, we will rearrange the equation for a PD controller.

where is the [control input](#) at timestep and is the [error](#) at timestep . is defined as where is the [setpoint](#) and is the current [state](#) at timestep .

Notice how is the velocity of the [setpoint](#). By the same reason, is the [system's](#) velocity at a given timestep. That means the term of the PD controller is driving the estimated velocity to the [setpoint](#) velocity.

If the [setpoint](#) is constant, the implicit velocity [setpoint](#) is zero, so the term slows the [system](#) down if it's moving. This acts like a “software-defined damper”. These are commonly seen on door closers, and their damping force increases linearly with velocity.

Integral Term¶

Important

Integral gain is generally not recommended for FRC® use. There are better approaches to fix [steady-state error](#) like using feedforwards or constraining when the integral control acts using other knowledge of the [system](#).

The *Integral* term accumulates the area between the [setpoint](#) and [output](#) plots over time (i.e., the integral of position [error](#)) and adds the current total to the [control input](#). Accumulating the area between two curves is called integration.

where is the proportional gain, is the integral gain, is the error at the current time , and is the integration variable.

The Integral integrates from time to the current time . we use for the integration because we need a variable to take on multiple values throughout the integral, but we can't use because we already defined that as the current time.

The below figure shows a block diagram for a [system](#) controlled by a PI controller.

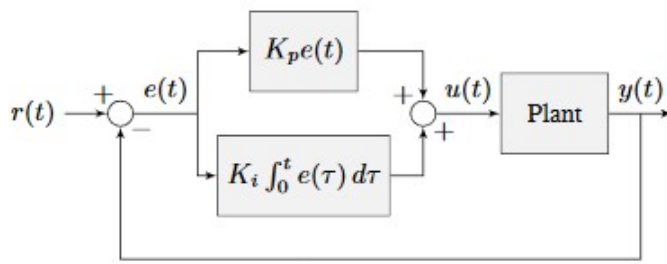


Figure 2.3: PI controller block diagram

When the [system](#) is close the [setpoint](#) in steady-state, the proportional term may be too small to pull the [output](#) all the way to the [setpoint](#), and the derivative term is zero. This can result in [steady-state error](#) as shown in figure 2.4

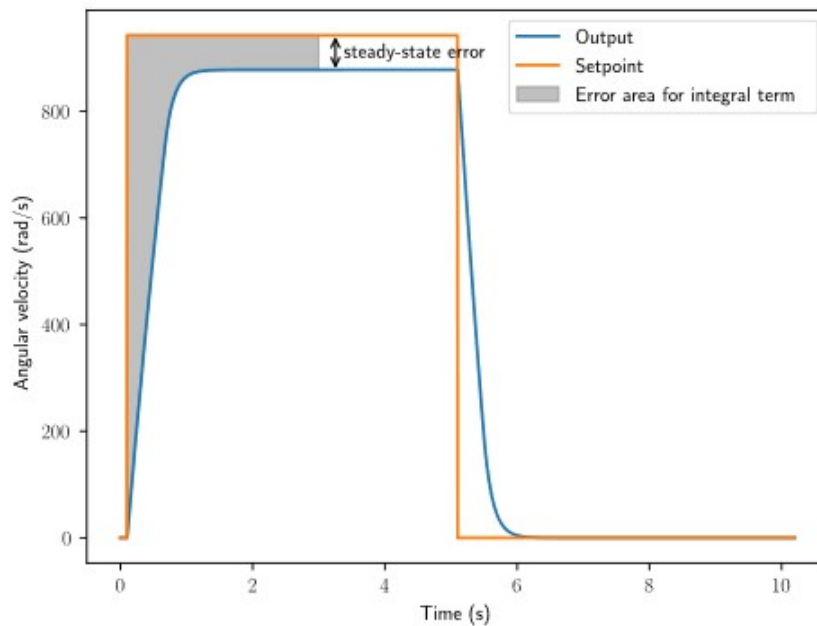


Figure 2.4: P controller with steady-state error

A common way of eliminating [steady-state error](#) is to integrate the [error](#) and add it to the [control input](#). This increases the [control effort](#) until the [system](#) converges. Figure 2.4 shows an example of [steady-state error](#) for a flywheel, and figure 2.5 shows how an integrator added to the flywheel controller eliminates it. However, too high of an integral gain can lead to overshoot, as shown in figure 2.6.

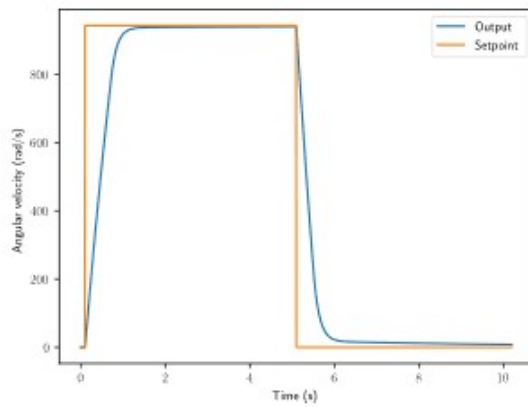


Figure 2.5: PI controller without steady-state error

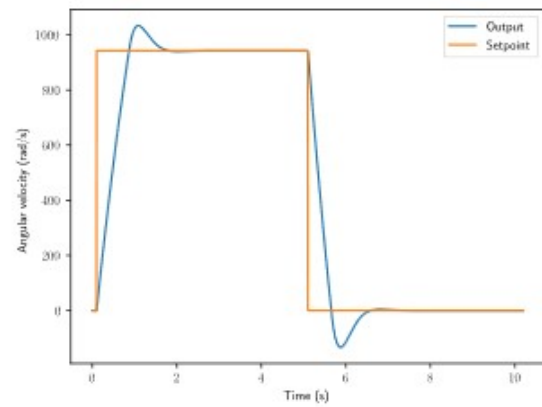


Figure 2.6: PI controller with overshoot from large K_i gain

PID Controller Definition¶

Note

For information on using the WPILib provided PIDController, see the [relevant article](#).

When these terms are combined, one gets the typical definition for a PID controller.

where K_p is the proportional gain, K_i is the integral gain, K_d is the derivative gain, $e(t)$ is the error at the current time, and τ is the integration variable.

The below figure shows a block diagram for a PID controller.

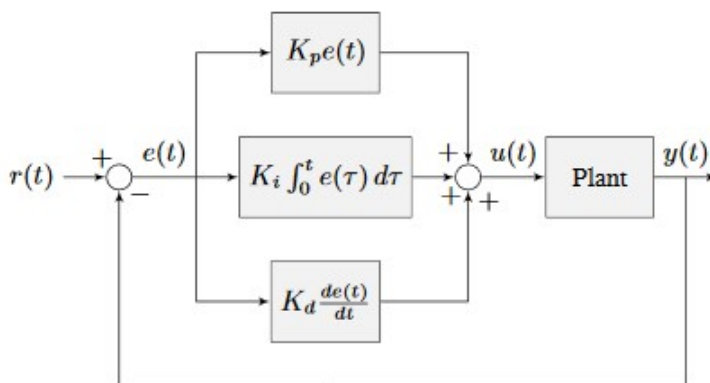


Figure 2.7: PID controller block diagram

Response Types¶

A [system](#) driven by a PID controller generally has three types of responses: underdamped, over-damped, and critically damped. These are shown in figure 2.8.

For the [step responses](#) in figure 2.7, [rise time](#) is the time the [system](#) takes to initially reach the reference after applying the [step input](#). [Settling time](#) is the time the [system](#) takes to settle at the [reference](#) after the [step input](#) is applied.

An *underdamped* response oscillates around the [reference](#) before settling. An *overdamped*

response

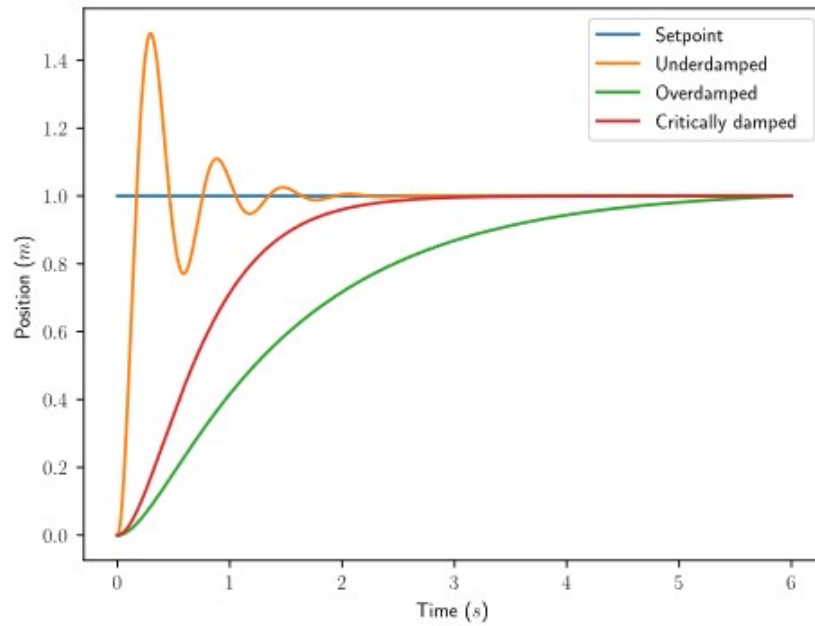


Figure 2.8: PID controller response types

is slow to rise and does not overshoot the [reference](#). A *critically damped* response has the fastest [rise time](#) without overshooting the [reference](#).