intro.pid Introducing PID control

1 One of the most ubiquitous types is the proportional-integral-derivative (PID) controller. It has a transfer function with real constants K_P , K_I , and K_D :

$$C(s) = \underbrace{K_P}_{proportional} + \underbrace{K_1/s}_{integral} + \underbrace{K_Ds}_{derivative} \ . \tag{1}$$

Remember: the controller operates on the error E(s), so the PID controller effectively sums terms proportional to the error, its integral, and its derivative. Inspecting this in the time domain with error e(t) by taking the inverse Laplace transform of the output U(s) = C(s)E(s),

$$u(t) = \underbrace{K_{P}e(t)}_{\text{proportional}} + \underbrace{K_{I}\int_{0}^{t}e(\theta)\,\mathrm{d}\theta}_{\text{integral}} + \underbrace{K_{D}\dot{e}(t)}_{\text{derivative}}. \quad (2)$$

2 So the control effort u is responsive to:

- **P** the amount and direction of error (reactive, spring-like),
- I the accumulation of error over time (memoried, mass-like), and **D** the time rate of change of the error (anticipatory, damper-like).
- Although the mechanical spring-mass-damper analog above has its limitations, it is helpful for our intuition. More generally, we can consider the three constants K_P , K_I , and K_D to be "knobs" with which we can include more or less of each
- 3 Just how a controller will affect the closed-loop response is significantly dependent on the plant dynamics. Therefore, there is no way to make fully general statements about the impact of each of the PID terms. This is why we need the detailed analytic design tools of

Chapter rldesign and the intervening chapters hence. However, for some simple systems, we can make the assertions of Table pid.1. 4 There are many methods of tuning a PID controller: selecting K_P , K_I , and K_D to meet

certain performance criteria. The root locus design method of Chapter rldesign and the frequency response design method of Chapter freqd allow us to precisely design for specific performance criteria. However, there $\,$ are times when specific performance criteria and involved analysis are not available or convenient. In these cases, hand-tuning is possible via several algorithms. One such algorithm is presented in the following section.

Ziegler-Nichols tuning method

- 5 The Ziegler–Nichols method of tuning a PID controller is presented in the following algorithm.
- 1. Set $K_P, K_I, K_D = 0$. 2. Increase K_P until a marginally stable
- response¹ is observed. 3. Record this ultimate gain K_u and the
- oscillation period $T_{\rm u}$.
- 4. Set the controller gains:

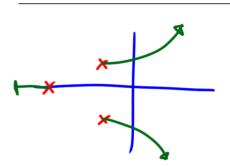
Example intro.pid-1

controller C(s).

 $\label{eq:Kp} K_P = 0.6 K_u \quad K_I = 1.2 K_u/T_u \quad K_D = 3 K_u T_u/40 \text{.}$

Table pid.1: occasionally true generalities about PID controller terms.

Proportional	Integral	Derivative
• is the workhorse • speeds up responses • can lead to instability when too large	• improves or eliminates steady- state error • slows down the response • becomes a liability when it can't forget (integral	• speeds up the response • can yield jitter when measurement noise is large • can lead to instability when measurement
	windup)	noise is large



1. This can be the impulse, step, or free response. Furthermore, it can be

Figure pid.1: block diagram for Example intro.pid-1.

re: hand-tuning a PID controller

For the block diagram of Fig. pid.1, with the $R \longrightarrow E$ C(s) G(s)plant 15000

 $G(s) = \frac{15000}{s^4 + 50s^3 + 875s^2 + 6250s + 15000}$ use the Ziegler–Nichols method to design a PID

We proceed with Matlab, symbolically at first. Let's define the transfer functions. syms S kp ki kd % S is the laplace transform s

G_sym = 15000/(S^4+50*S^3+875*S^2+6250*S+15000); % p ant C_sym = kp + ki/S + kd*S; % PID controller transfer fun

From the preceding lecture's ??, the closed-loop transfer function is as follows.

CL_sym = simplify(.. C_sym*G_sym/(1+C_sym*G_sym) ...

CL_sym =

(15000*kd*S^2 + 15000*kp*S + 15000*ki)/(15000*S + → 15000*ki + 15000*S*kp + 15000*S^2*kd + 6250*S^2

→ + 875*S^3 + 50*S^4 + S^5)

I have created a function sym_to_tf that creates a tf object, which we'll need for simulation.a

type sym_to_tf.m

function tf_obj = sym_to_tf(sym_tf,s_var)
% TODO test to make sure s_var is in

sym_tf = subs(sym_tf,s_var,s); tf_str = char(sym_tf);
s = tf([1,0],[1]);
eval(['tf_obj = ',tf_str,';']);

Let's wrap it in a function of our own K_sub, which will create a closed-loop tf object from our CL_sym with the PID gains included.

K_sub = @(Kp,Ki,Kd) sym_to_tf(CL_sym, {kp,ki,kd}, {Kp,Ki,Kd} .. K_sub(1,0,0) % e.g.

ans = s^5 + 50 s^4 + 875 s^3 + 6250 s^2 + 30000 s

Continuous-time transfer function.

ylabel('impulse response')

Now let's use impulse to simulate the response starting with a small proportional gain.

[y,t] = impulse(K_sub(1,0,0)); Now, we should plot the result – see Fig. pid.2. plot(t,y) grid on
xlabel('time (s)')

If we iteratively increase $K_P = 1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 5.25$ (the response for each of these values is plotted in Fig. pid.3), we find that around the last value, the system becomes marginally stable and therefore

 $K_u = 5.25$. The oscillation period appears to be around $T_{\mu} = 0.56$ seconds. Defining these quantities,

8.0 O.5

Figure pid.2: impulse response with (small) $K_{P}=1.$

we can now compute K_I and K_D from Eq. 3. KI = 1.2*Ku/Tu; KD = 3*Ku*Tu/40; disp(sprintf(...
'KP = %0.2f, KI = %0.2f, KD = %0.2f', ...

Tu = 0.56; KP = 0.6*Ku; KP,KI,KD ...

Figure pid.3: impulse responses with $K_{\rm I}=K_{\rm D}=0$ and $K_{\rm P}$ as shown. KP = 3.15, KI = 11.25, KD = 0.22 Let's try out this controller for step response

and see how it looks. [y,t] = step(K_sub(KP,KI,KD)); figure
plot(t,y)
xlabel('time (s)') ylabel('step response')

The resulting step response is plotted in Fig. pid.4. We didn't have specific expectations for performance, here, but this result is a nice, average-looking step response with some overshoot and a decent settling time.

a. The function is available in the repo: github.com/ricopicone/matlab-rico.