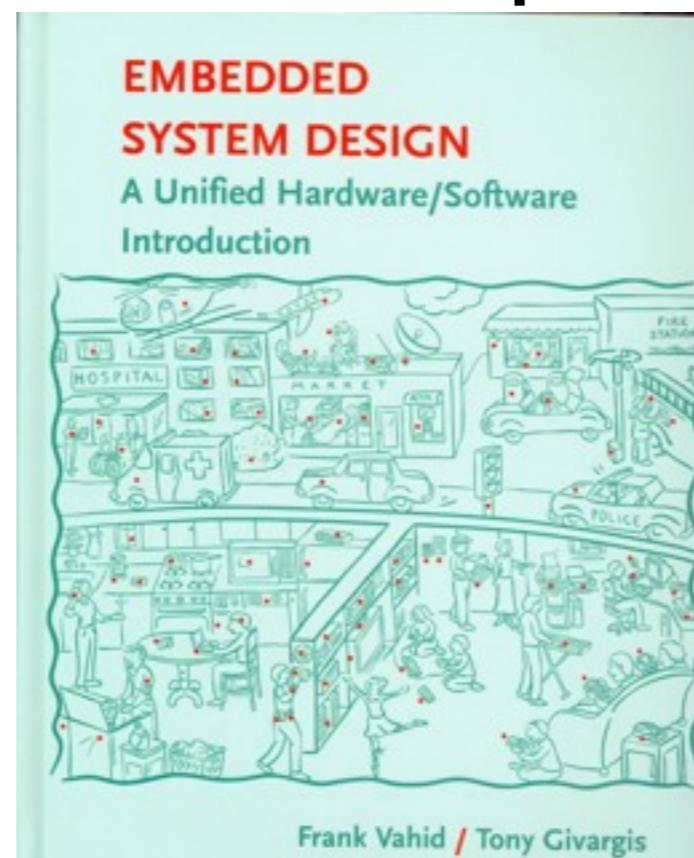




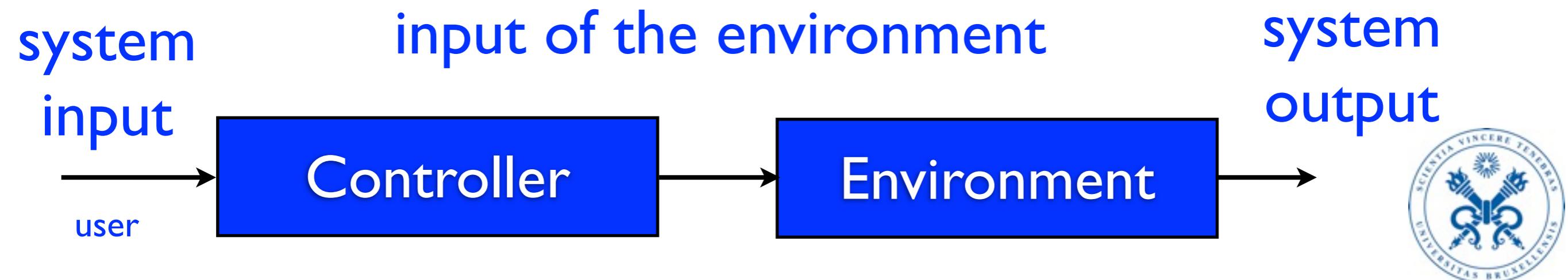
Reference

- These slides are freely adapted from the book *Embedded Systems design - A unified Hardware/Software introduction*, Frank Vahid, Tony Givargis
- Some figures are excerpt of the book



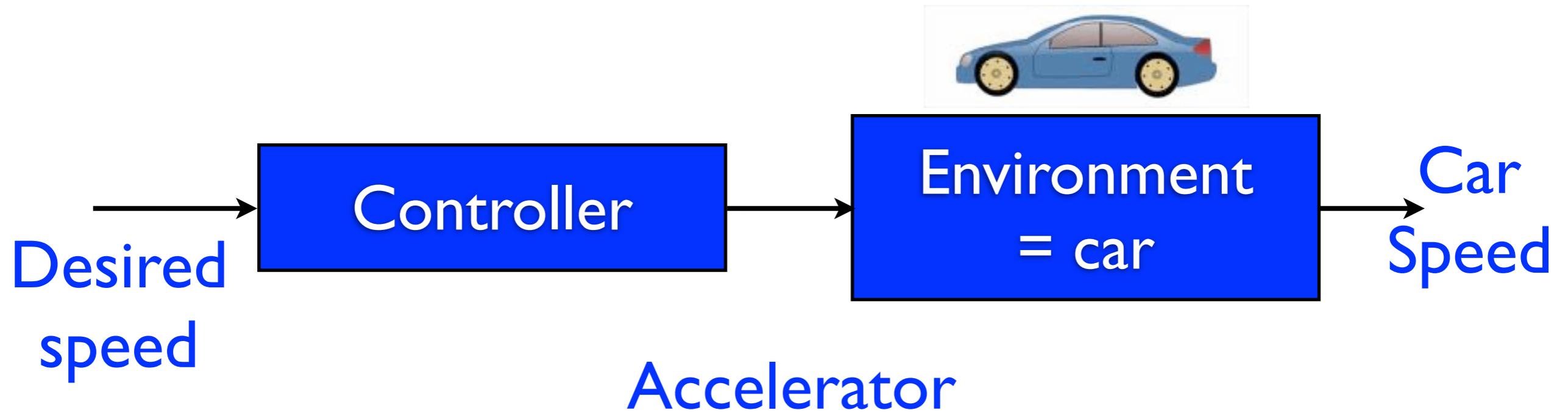
Controller

- A **controller** is a system acting on a **physical device** (called environment)
- The controller has to ensure that the **system output** (system = environment + controller) respects a **given property**
- The controller controls the **input** of the **environment**



Controller

- Example: a car “*cruise control*” system



The controller has to ensure that the car speed
is as close as possible
to the desired speed



Controller quality

- What is a **good controller** ?
- The **definition** we have given is **vague**.
 - A device that keeps the speed equal to 50 km per hour all the time is a controller...
- We will allow the actual speed to be “**more or less different**” from the requested speed

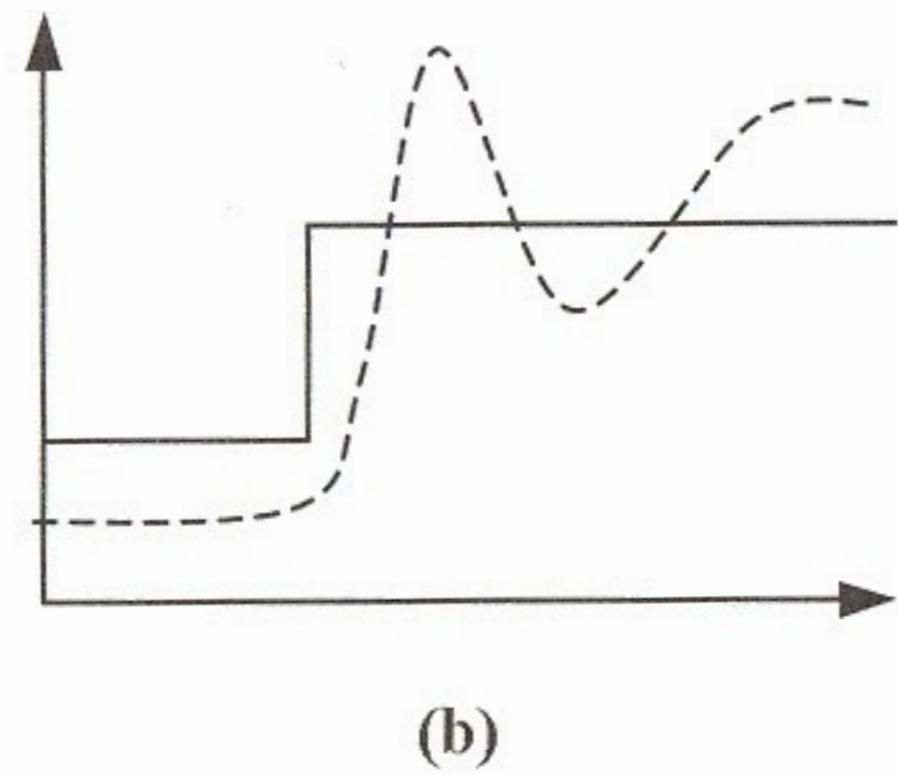
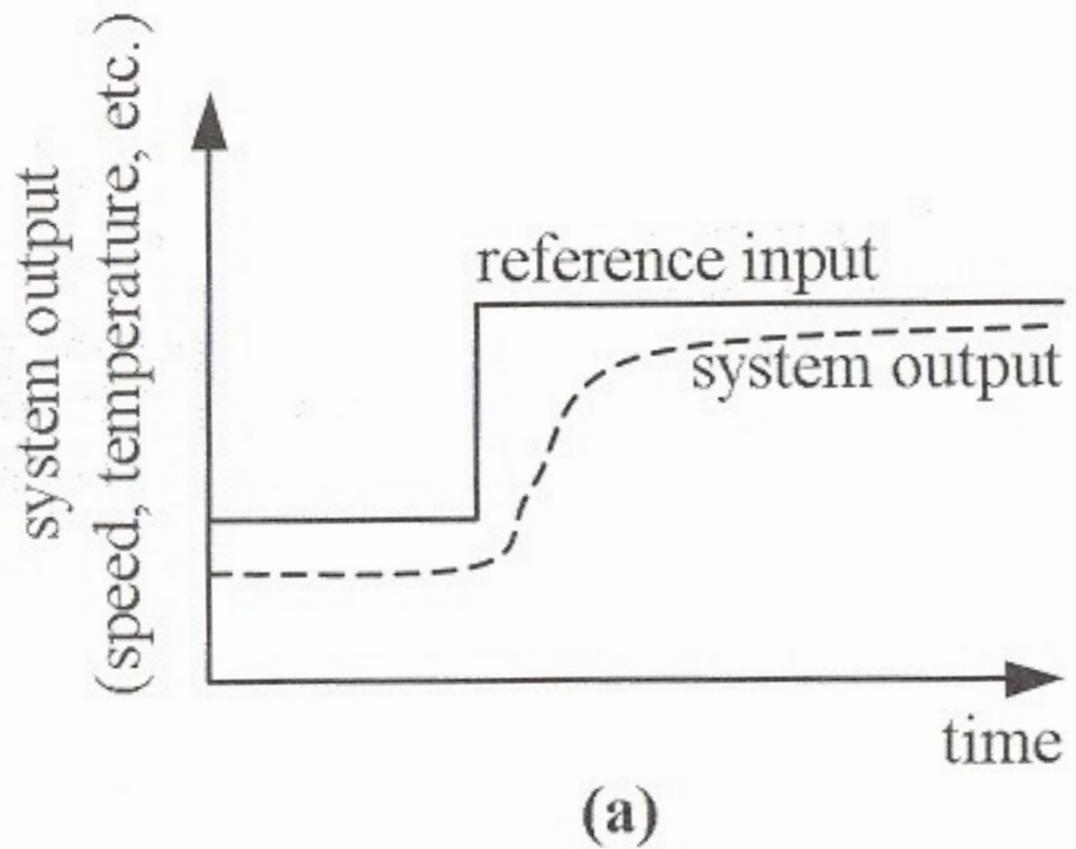


Controller quality

- What is a **good controller** ?
 - In this chapter, we will not provide a **formal definition** of a “**good controller**” (in contrast with next chapter)
 - The **quality** will be assessed by criteria that are **not strict**, mainly by testing.
 - We will often need **compromises**...



Controller quality



“good” controller

“acceptable” controller



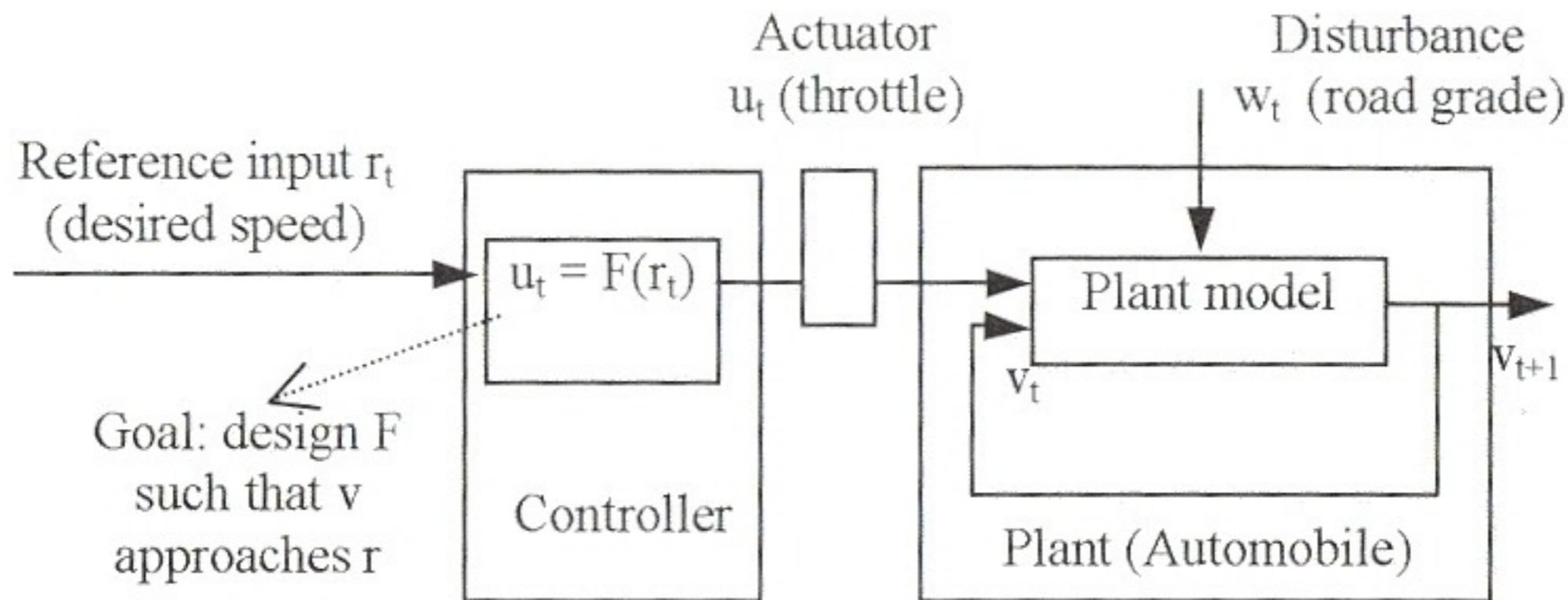
Vocabulary

- The **reference** is the **desired value** for the **output**
- An **actuator** is a **device** that allows to **control the input** of the environment (e.g.: accelerator pedal)
- A **disturbance** is an **uncontrolled parameter** of the **environment** (e.g.: road grade)
- A **sensor** is a **device** to measure the **output** of the environment (e.g.: speedometer)



Open loop systems

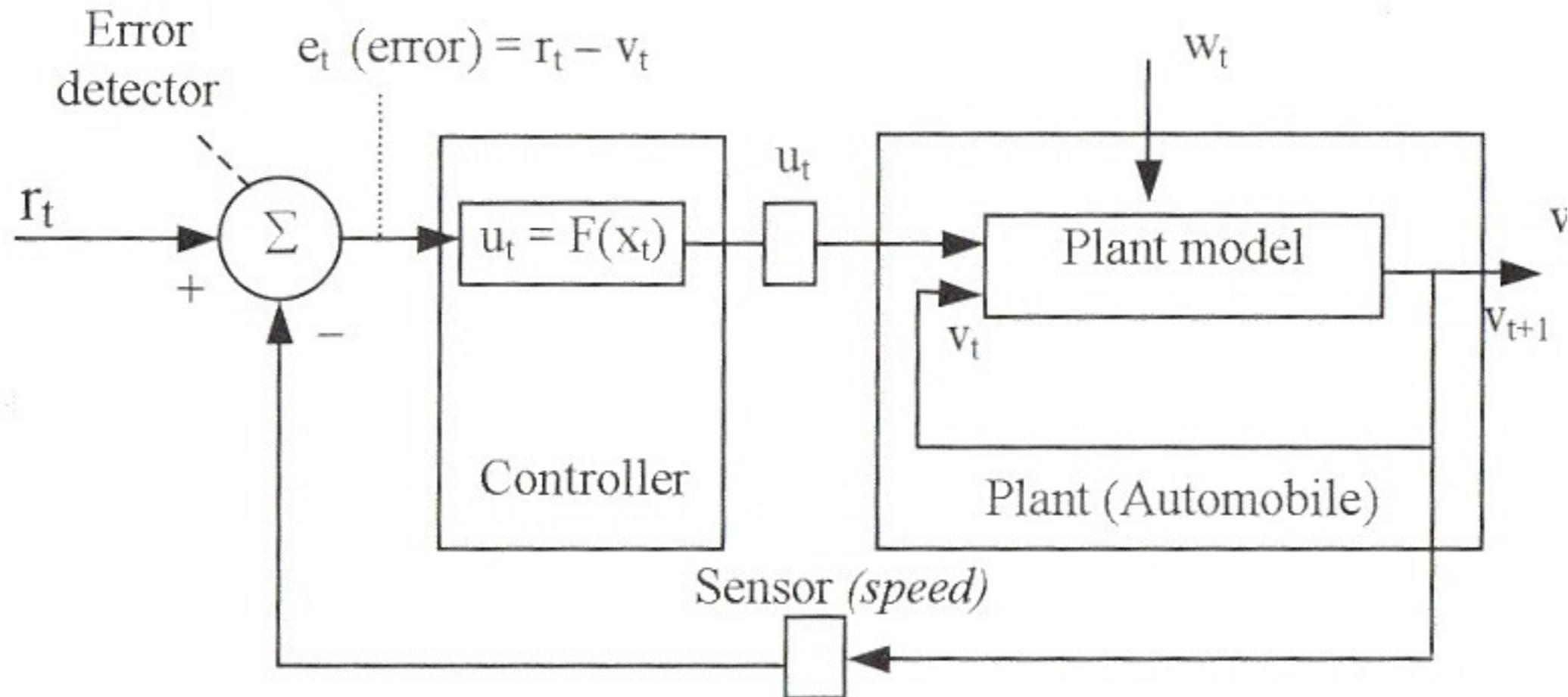
Speed at time $t+1$ depends on the speed at time t , the input and the disturbance



The controller as **no information** about the car's actual speed



Closed loop systems



The controller **knows** the car's speed.
It can use this information to **adapt** its output.



Controller - flows

- In this chapter, we'll see the **data** as “à la Lustre” **flows**
- The controller and the environment are thus **flow modifiers**
- **Example:**
 - r = flow that defines the ref. speed
 - r_t = reference at time t



Controller - flows

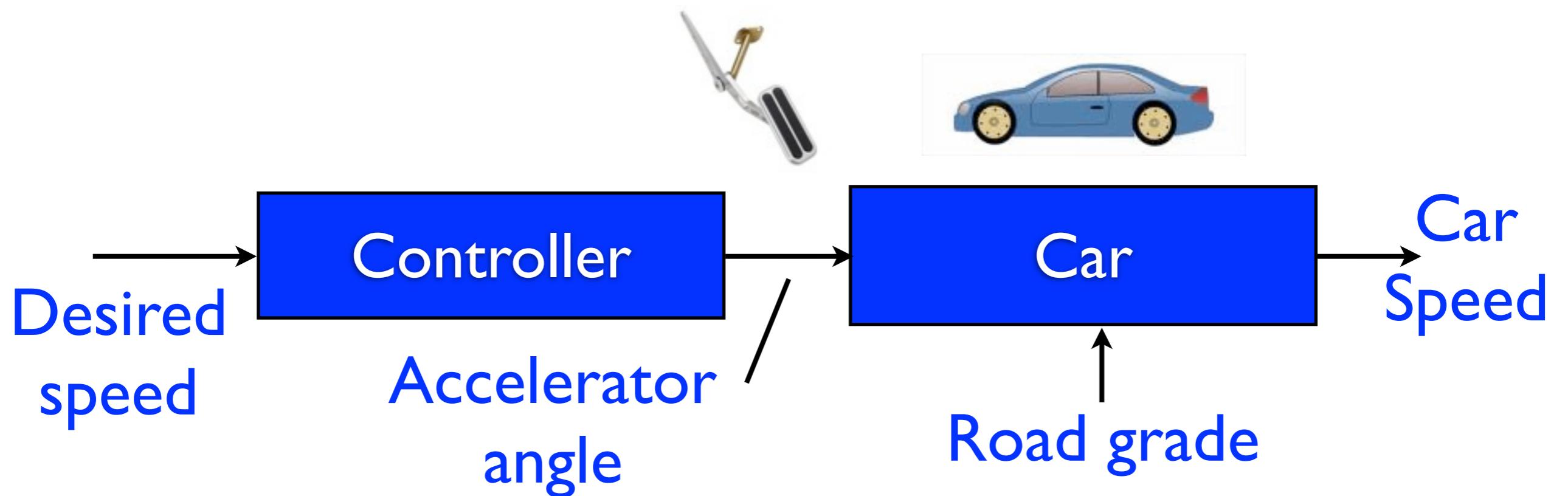
- Some flows will be regarded as **constant**
- We'll abuse notation and use the **flow name** instead of its (constant) **value**
- **Example:**
 - the road grade will be regarded as a constant
 - We have $w_t = w$ for all t





Open loop controller

Running example

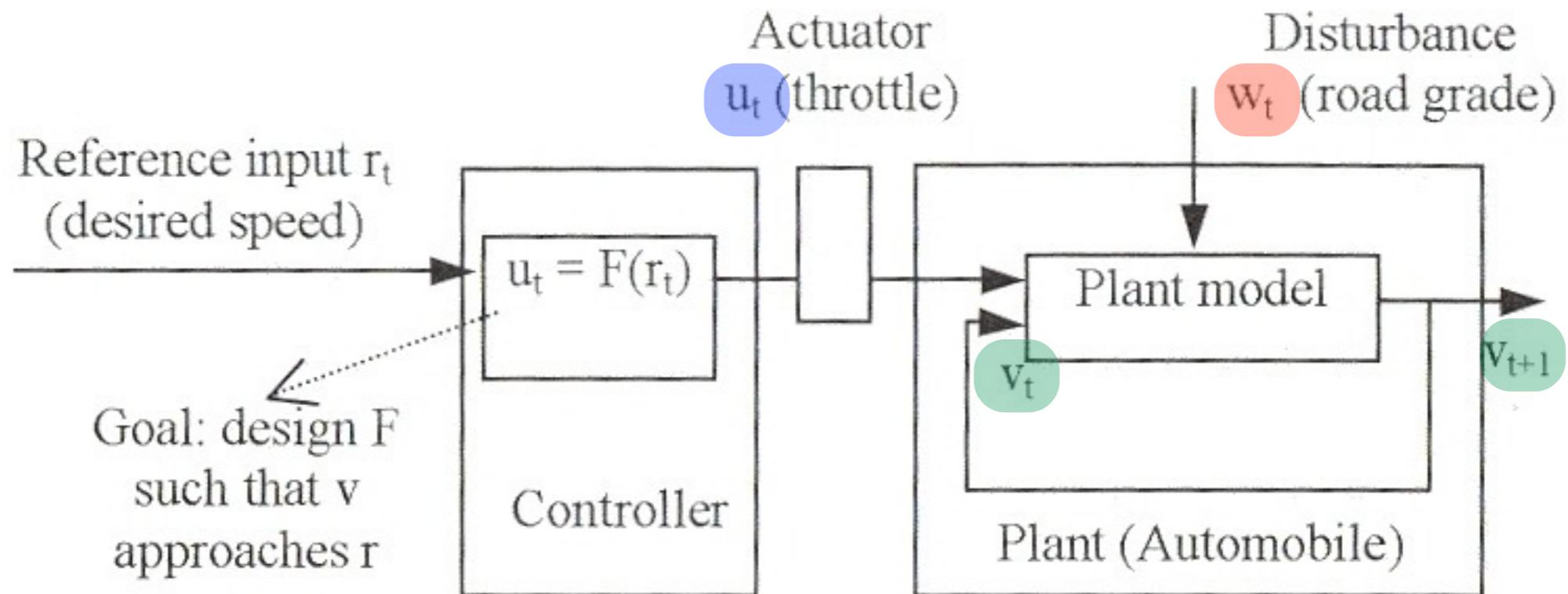


Flows at work in the example

- r_t = reference speed (constant)
- u_t = controller output = input to the car = accelerator position
- w_t = road grade (constant)
- v_t = actual speed car
- e_t = error = $r_t - v_t$



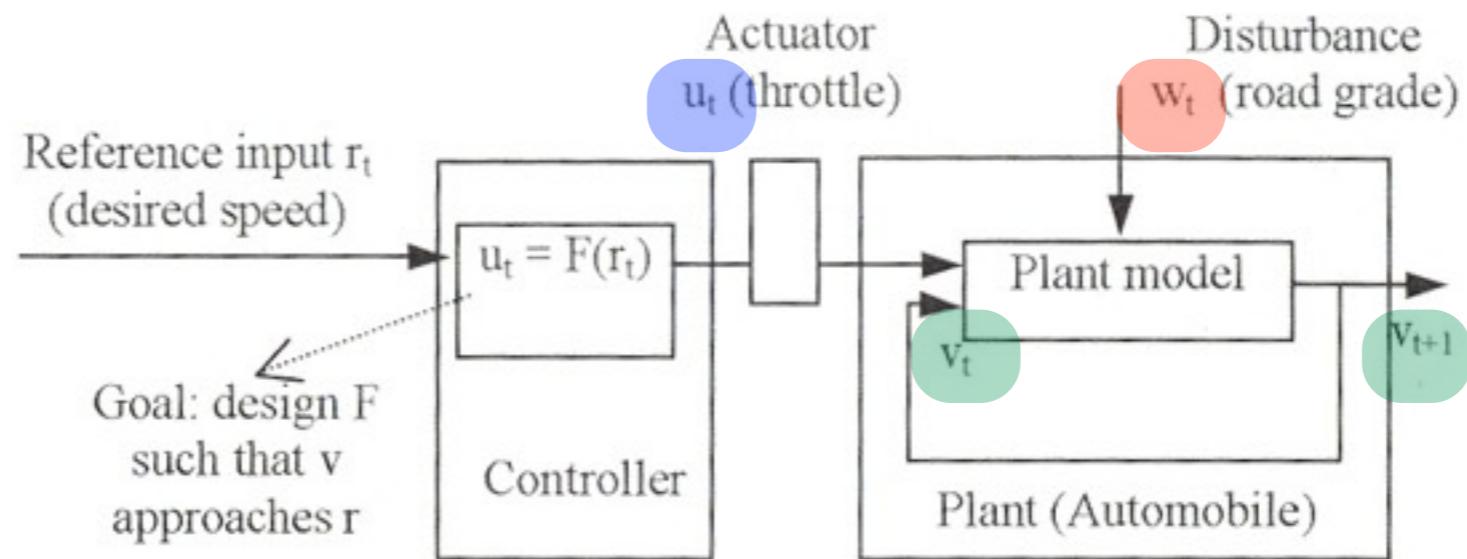
Open loop



- We first need a model for the car
 - How is v_{t+1} computed from v_t , u_t and w_t ?



Open loop



- Let us fix $v_{t+1} = 0,7v_t + 0,5u_t$
- We ignore disturbances for the moment



Car model

- $v_{t+1} = 0,7v_t + 0,5u_t$
- At each time the speed depends on the speed at previous step and the position of the accelerator pedal
- For each speed v , there exists a pedal position that allow to maintain v
- e.g. $v_t = v_{t+1} = 50 \rightarrow u_t = 30$

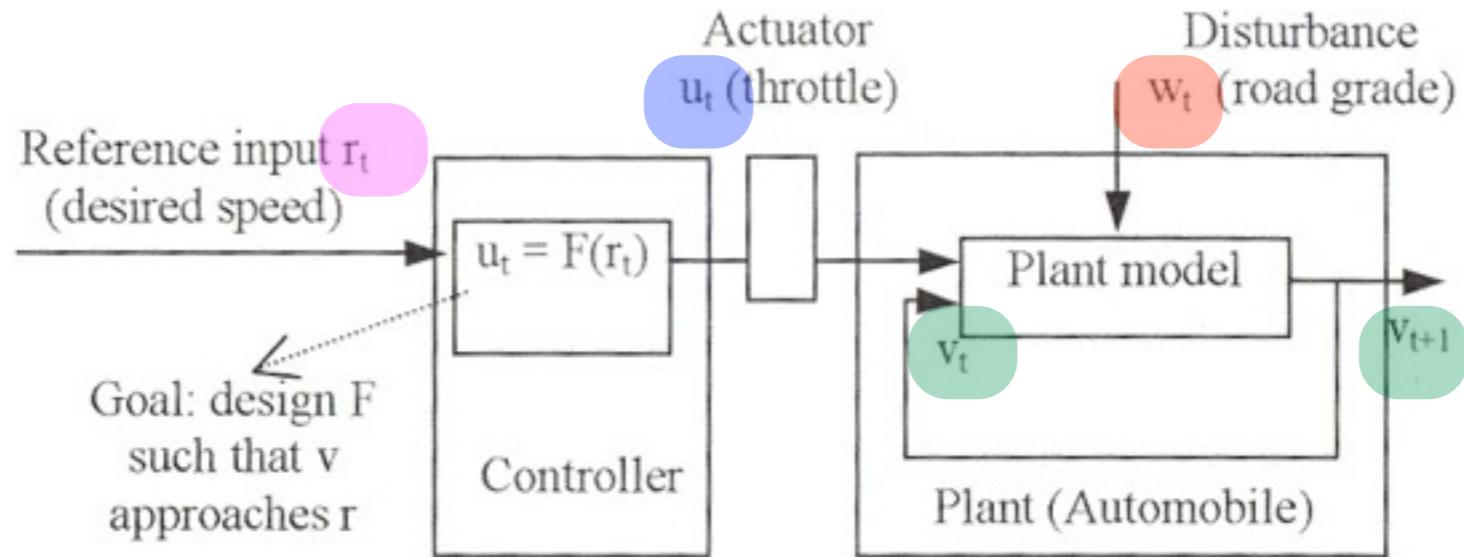


Car model

- $v_{t+1} = 0,7v_t + 0,5u_t$
- This can be simulated in SCADE... (file modele-voiture.avi)



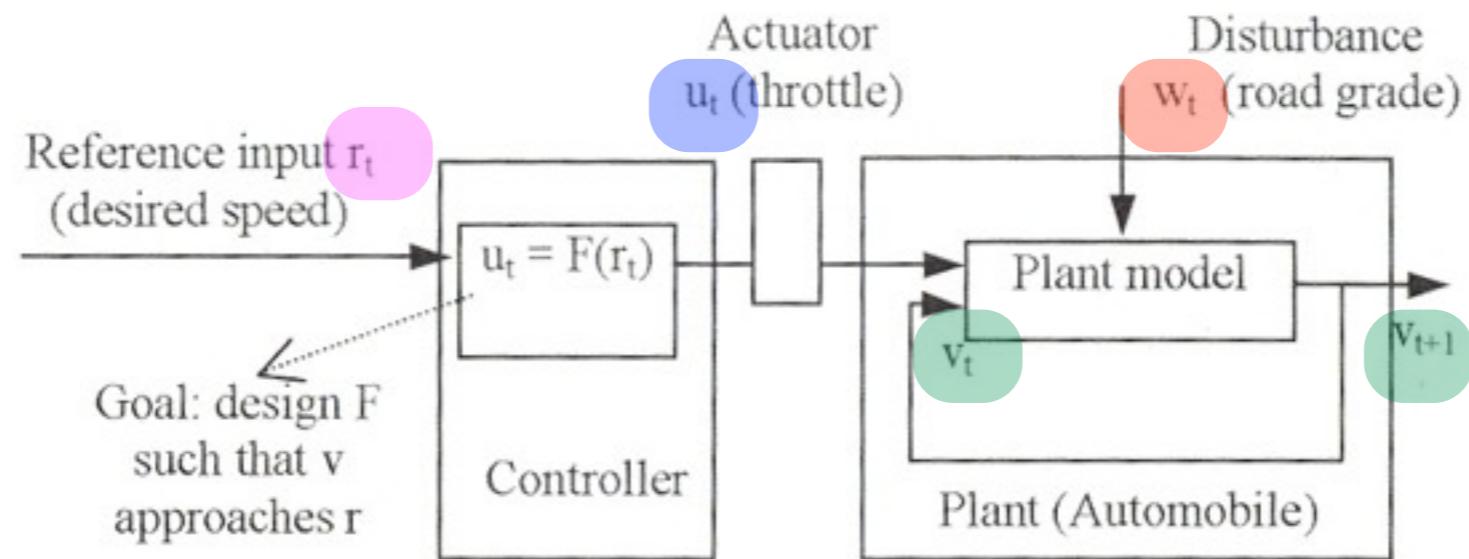
Open loop



- Let us now **design** a **controller** $F(r_t)$, that, depending on r_t , returns u_t to be fed to the environment



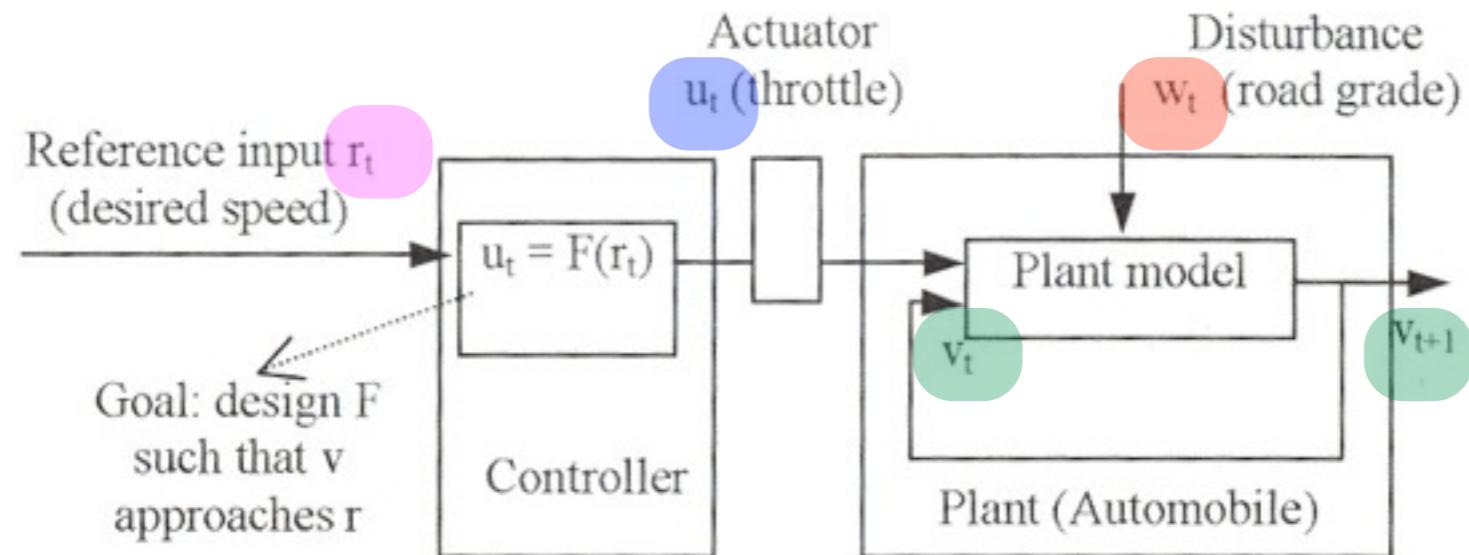
Open loop



- We'll start with a **simple linear function F**
$$(r_t) = P \times r_t$$



Open loop



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} F(r_t) = P \times r_t \\ u_t = F(r_t) \end{array} \right\} \text{Controller}$$

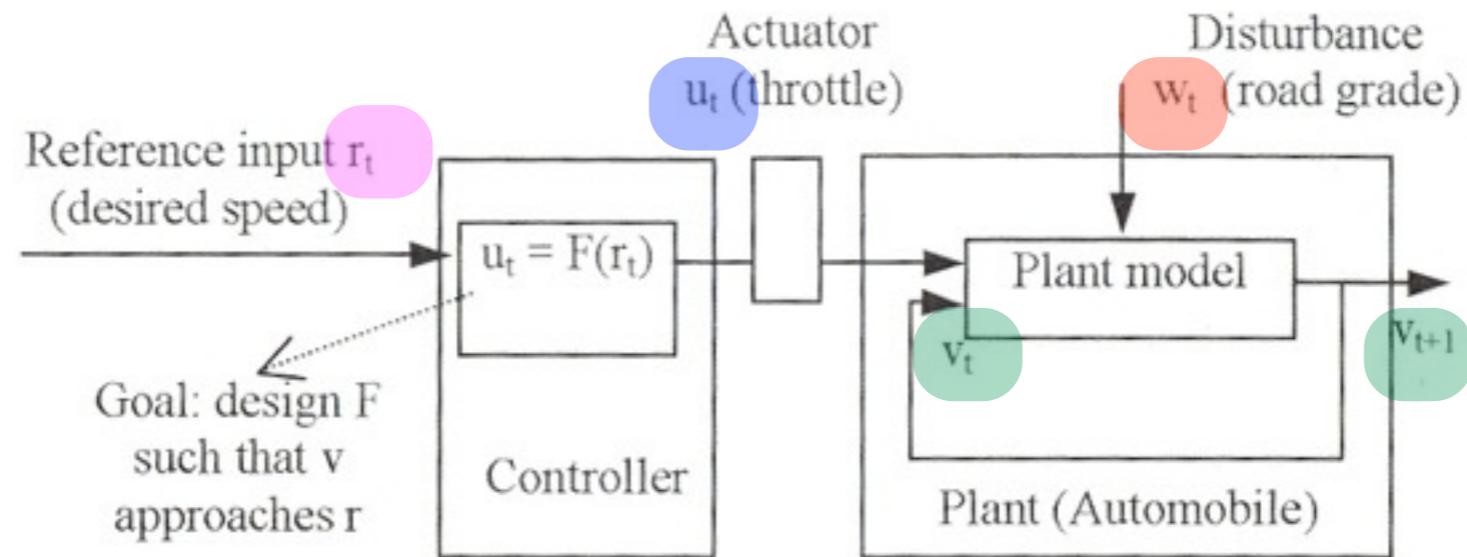
$$v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times u_t \quad \} \text{Car}$$

Hence:

$$v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times P \times r_t$$



Open loop

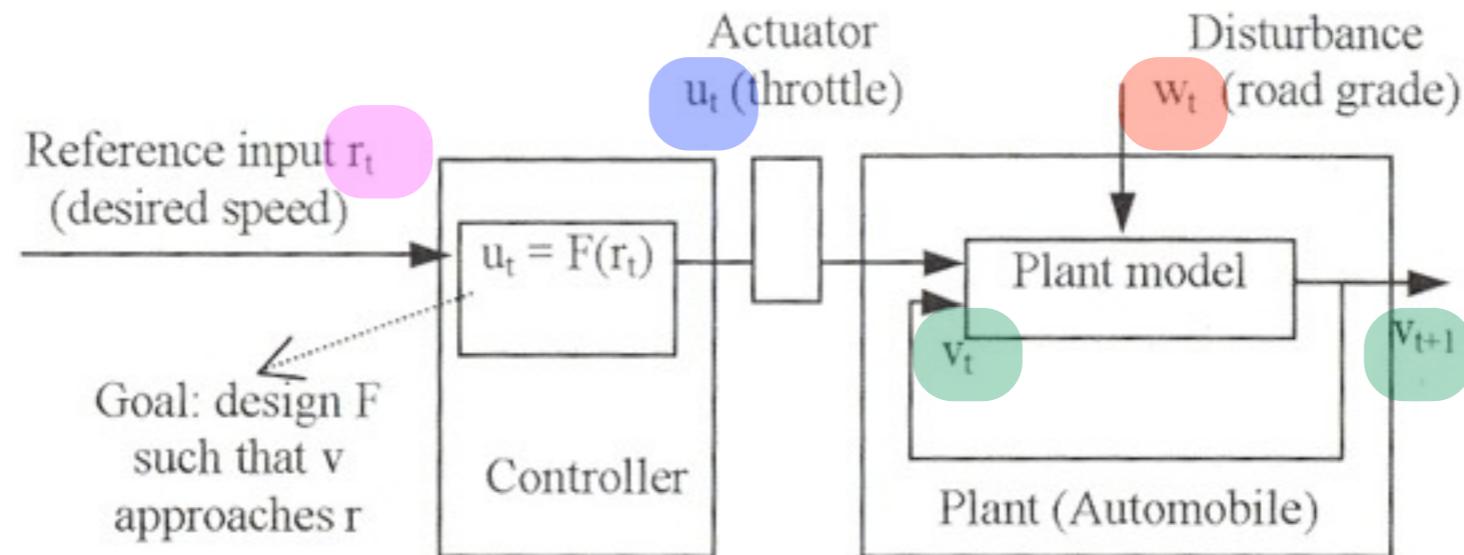


$$v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times P \times r_t$$

- Now, we have to fix a **control objective**
- We can't impose $v_{t+1} = r_t$ for any t , because the car takes time to **accelerate** or **slow down**



Open loop

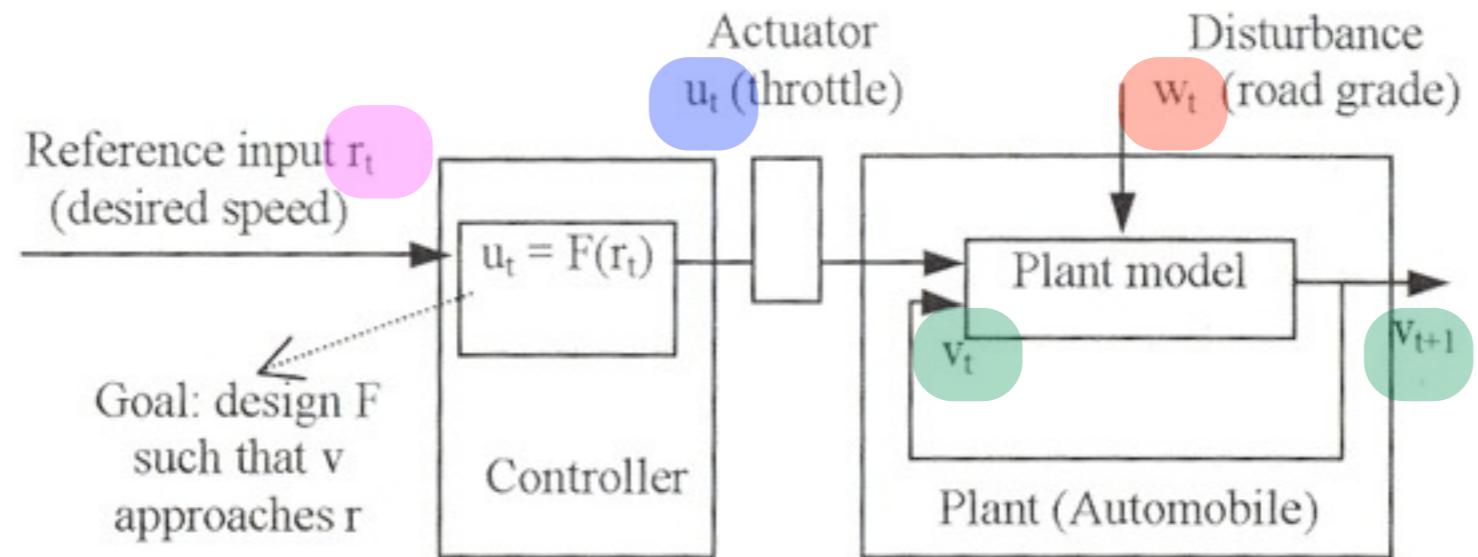


$$v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times P \times r_t$$

- Now, we have to fix a **control objective**
- Let us assume $r_t=r$ for any t
- The control objective will be: **the output speed must be equal to the reference if the output is stable**, that is if $v_t=v_{t+1}=v_{ss}$



Open loop



$$v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times P \times r$$

$$v_{t+1} = v_t = v_{ss}$$

Hence:

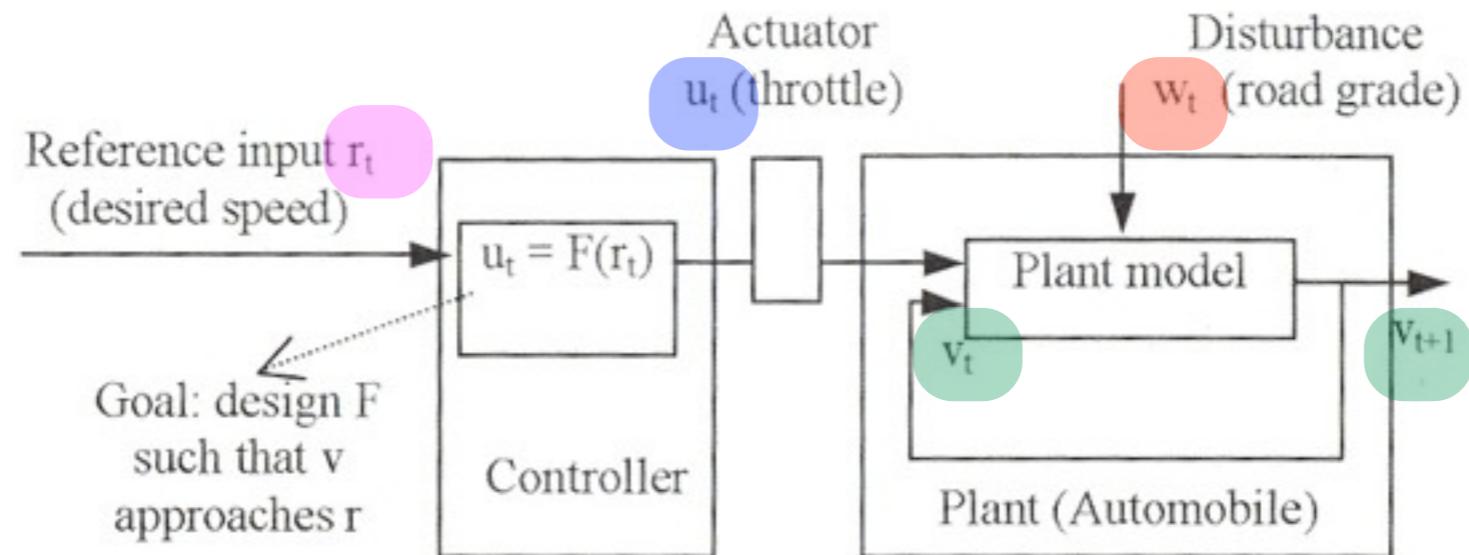
$$v_{ss} = 0.7 \times v_{ss} + 0.5 \times P \times r$$

Hence:

$$v_{ss} = 1.67 \times P \times r$$



Open loop



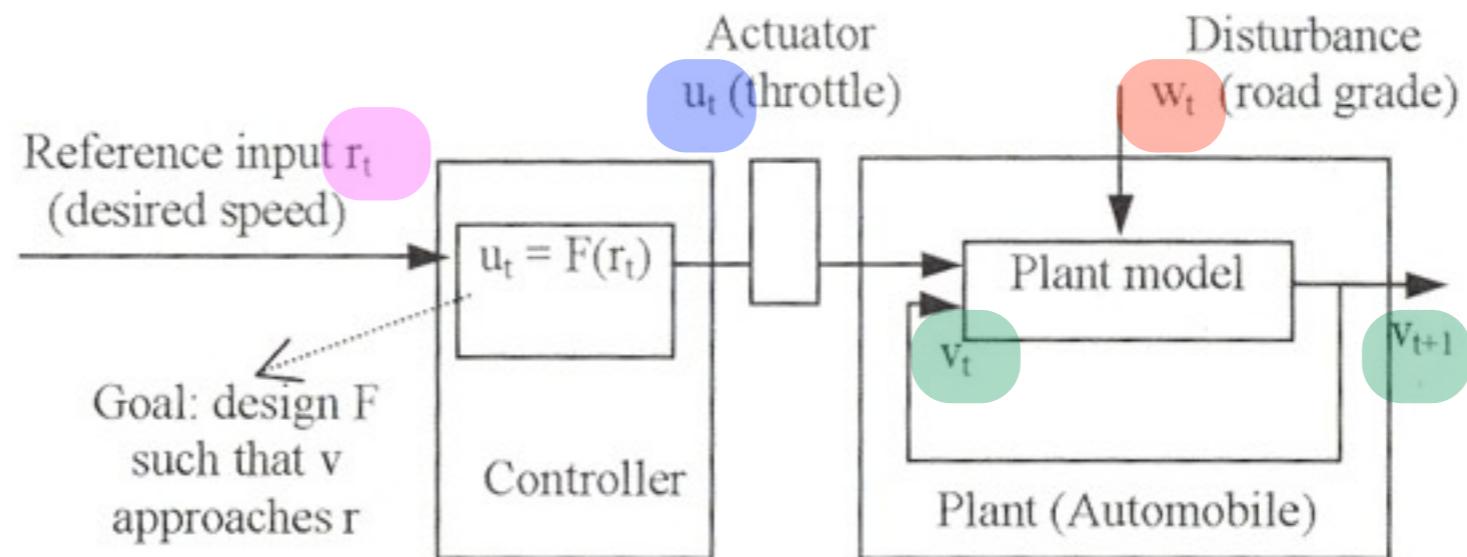
$$v_{ss} = 1.67 \times P \times r$$

That equation describes all the speeds
for which we want
the output speed to be equal to the reference speed:

$$v_{ss} = r$$



Open loop



$$v_{ss} = 1.67 \times P \times r$$

We want: $v_{ss} = r$

Thus, we choose $P = 1/1.67 = 0.6$



Example

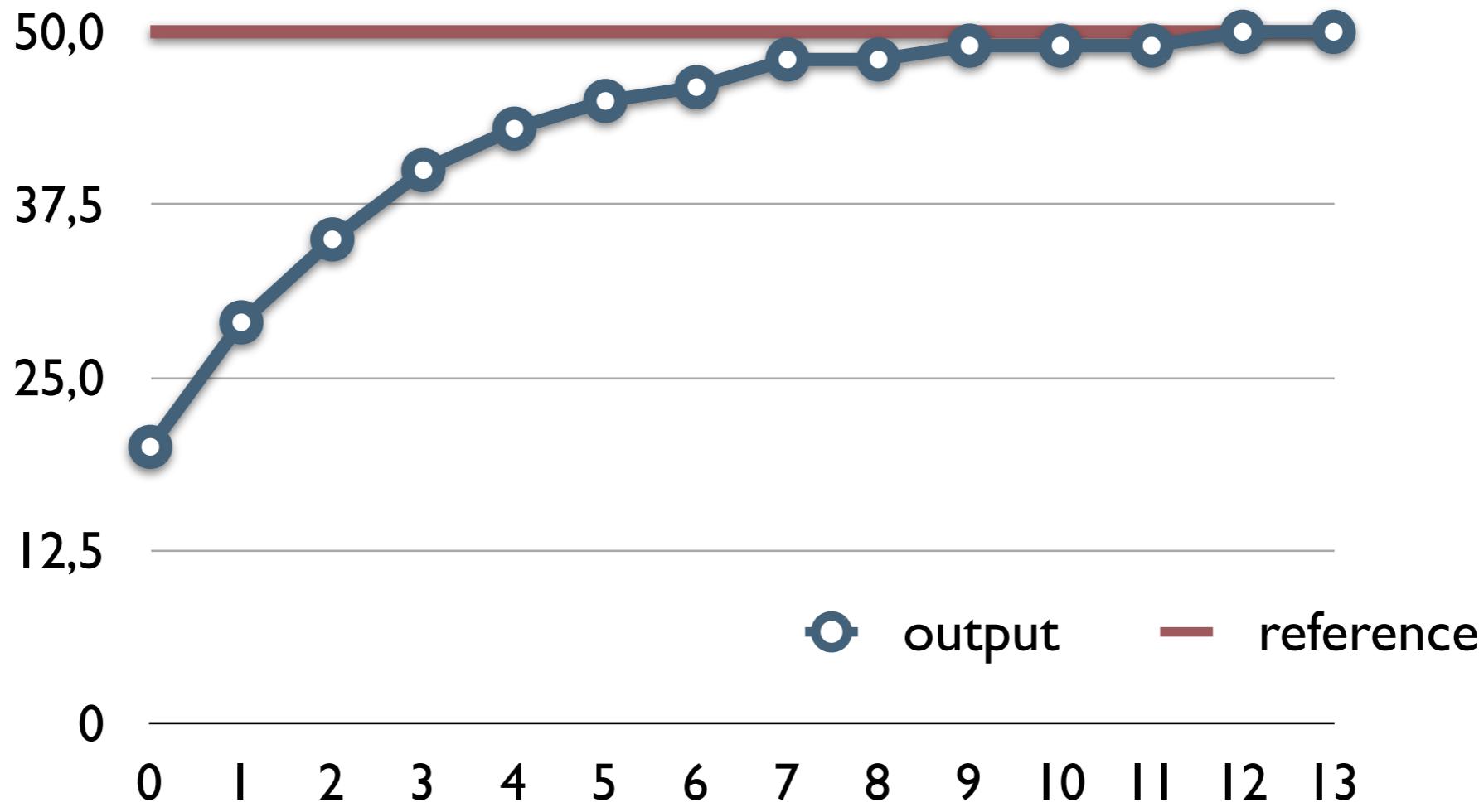
- Initial speed is 20 km/h, reference speed is $r=50$ km/h.
- $v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times P \times r$ with $P=0.6$

t	v_t	t	v_t
0	20	7	47,529371
1	29	8	48,27056
2	35,3	9	48,789392
3	39,71	10	49,152574
4	42,797	11	49,406802
5	44,9579	12	49,584761
6	46,47053	13	49,709333



Example

- Initial speed is 20 km/h, reference speed is $r=50$ km/h.
- $v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.5 \times P \times r$ with $P=0.6$

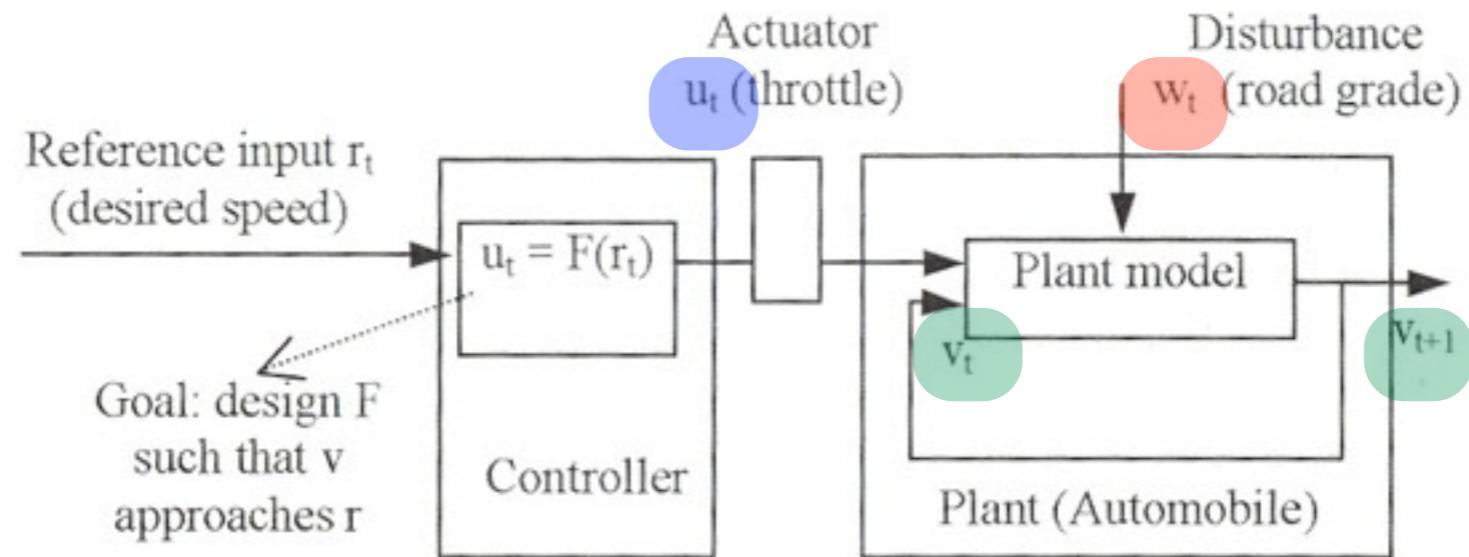


Drawbacks

- That example **works well** because the car is **highly predictable**
 - The acceleration will be the same **in every possible condition**
 - In practice, this is **not true !**
 - We will now **refine** the model to take **disturbances** into account



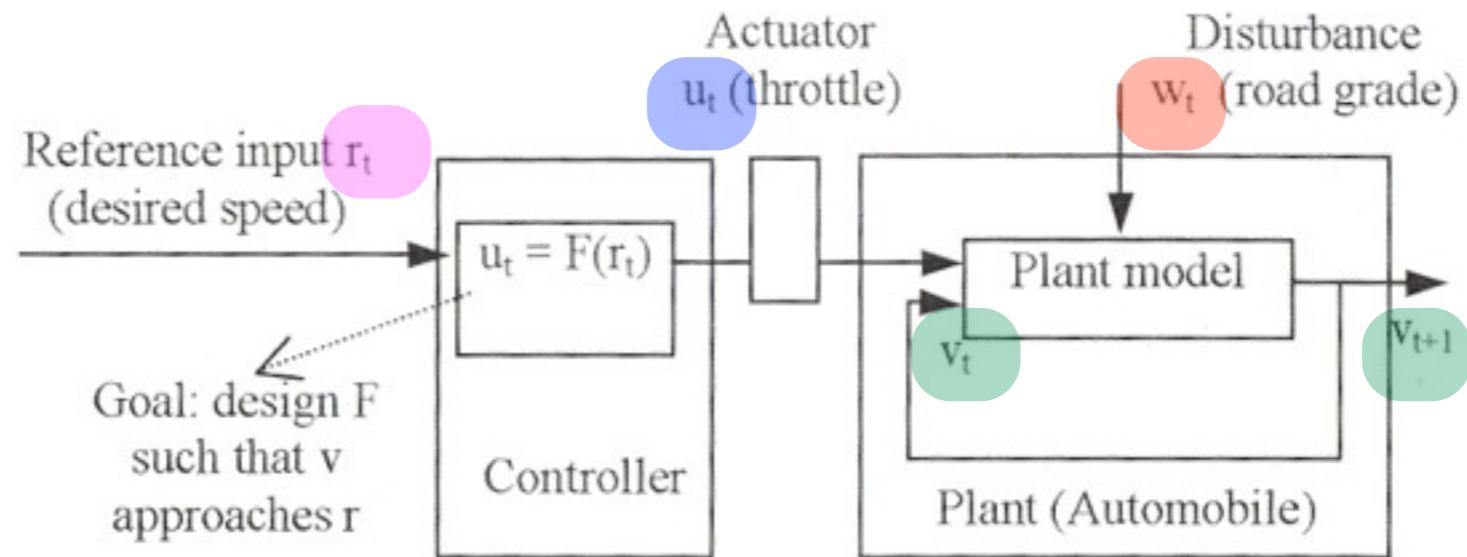
Open loop



- **New model:** $v_{t+1} = 0.7v_t + 0.5u_t - w_t$
- When the road grade is **negative**, the acceleration is **higher**



Open loop



- **New model:** $v_{t+1} = 0.7v_t + 0.5u_t - w_t$
- With the same controller we get:
 $v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.3 \times r_t - w_t$



Example

- Initial speed is 20 km/h, reference speed is $r=50$ km/h.
- $v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.3(r - w)$ for $w = 5$

t	v_t	t	vt
0	20	7	32,235276
1	24	8	32,564693
2	26,8	9	32,795285
3	28,76	10	32,9567
4	30,132	11	33,06969
5	31,0924	12	33,148783
6	31,76468	13	33,204148



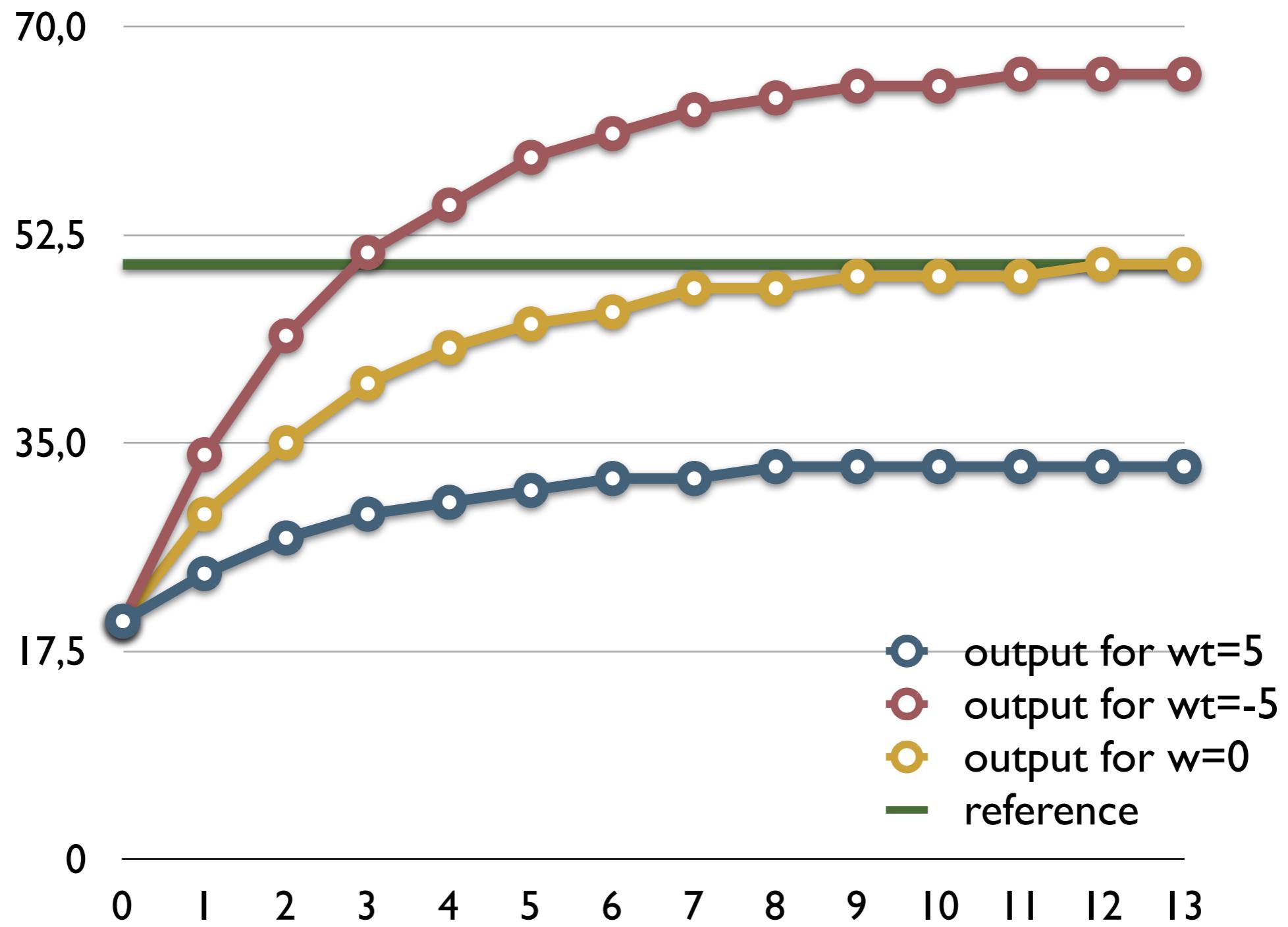
Example

- Initial speed is 20 km/h, reference speed is $r=50$ km/h.
- $v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.3(r - w)$ for $w = -5$

t	v_t	t	vt
0	20	7	62,823466
1	34	8	63,976426
2	43,8	9	64,783498
3	50,66	10	65,348449
4	55,462	11	65,743914
5	58,8234	12	66,02074
6	61,17638	13	66,214518



Example



Remark on the model

$$v_{t+1} = 0.7 \times v_t + 0.3 \ r - w$$

$$v_1 = 0.7 \times v_0 + 0.3 \ r - w$$

$$v_2 = 0.7 \times (0.7 \times v_0 + 0.3 \ r - w) + 0.3 \ r - w$$

$$= 0.7^2 \times v_0 + (0.7 + l) \times 0.3 \times r - (0.7 + l) \times w$$

$$v_3 = 0.7 \times [0.7^2 \times v_0 + (0.7 + l) \times 0.3 \times r$$

$$- (0.7 + l) \times w] + 0.3 \ r - w$$

$$= 0.7^3 \times v_0 + (0.7^2 + 0.7 + l) \times 0.3 \times r$$

$$- (0.7^2 + 0.7 + l) \times w$$



Remark on the model

In general:

$$v_t = 0.7^t \times v_0 + (I + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq t-1} 0.7^i) \times 0.3 \times r - (I + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq t-1} 0.7^i) \times w$$

At any time, the output depends on the initial speed
But this influence decreases quickly.

t	0	I	2	3	4	5	6
$0,7^t$	0,7	0,49	0,343	0,24	0,168	0,118	0,082



Remark on the model

$$v_{t+1} = 0.7^t \times v_0 + \dots$$

- The **0,7** value is denoted α and called the **decay rate** of v_0
- The **larger** the α the **greater** the **influence** of the initial speed in subsequent speeds



Remark on the model

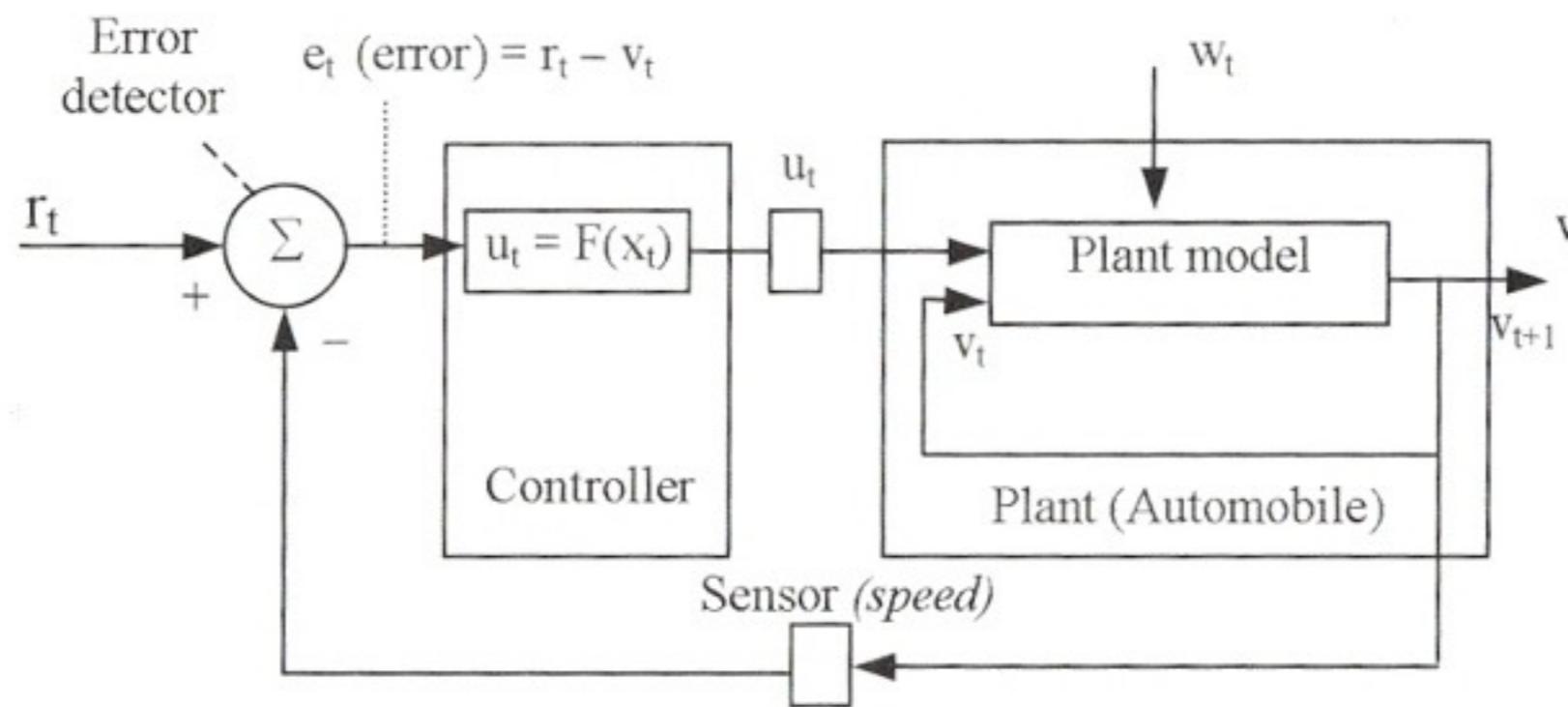
$$v_{t+1} = 0.7^t \times v_0 + \dots$$

- If $\alpha > 1$, the output **grows forever**, and does not stabilise !
- If α is negative, the output will **oscillate** !
- This will be important when dealing with closed loop controllers



Drawbacks

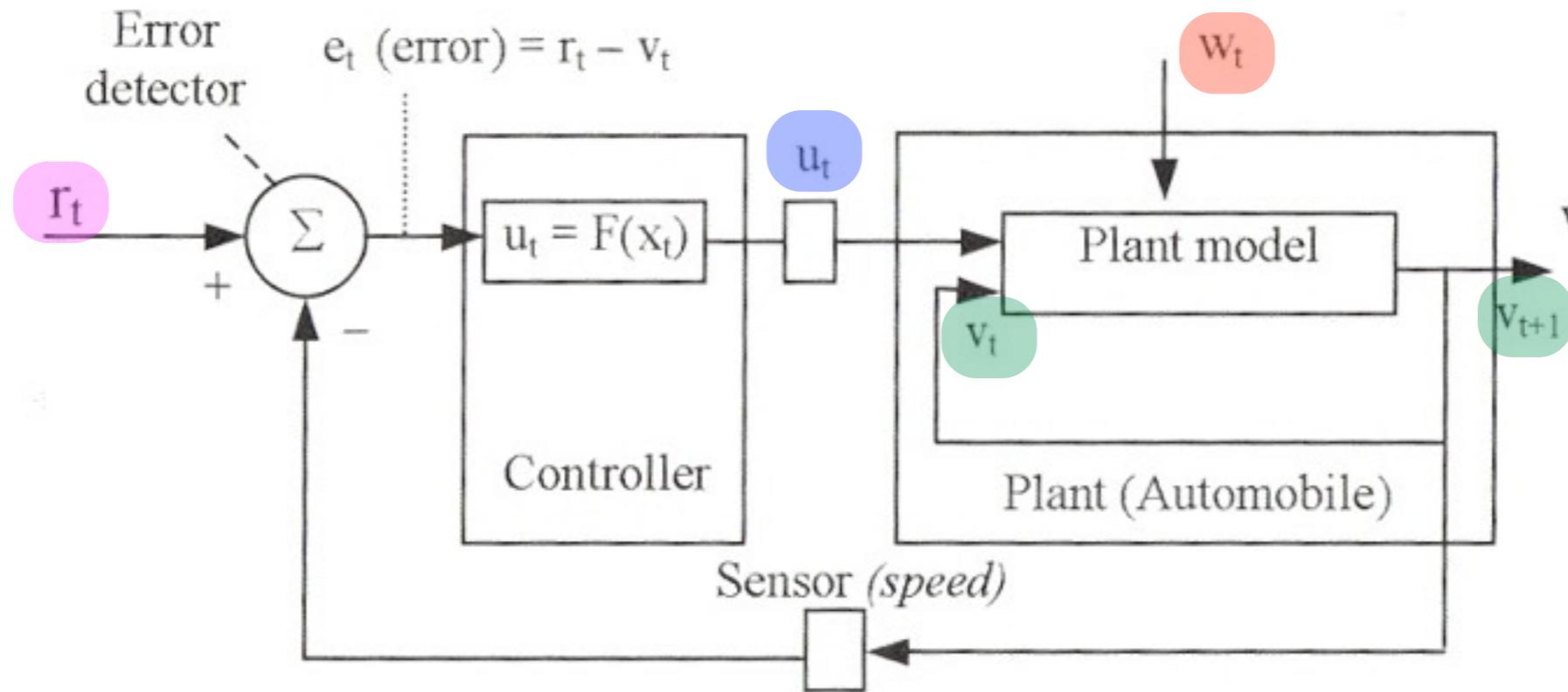
- To obtain a **more accurate controller**, we'll introduce a **feedback loop**
- The controller will **know** the **actual speed**, which in turn depends on the road grade, and will be able to **adapt** its policy to these **disturbances**



Closed loop controller



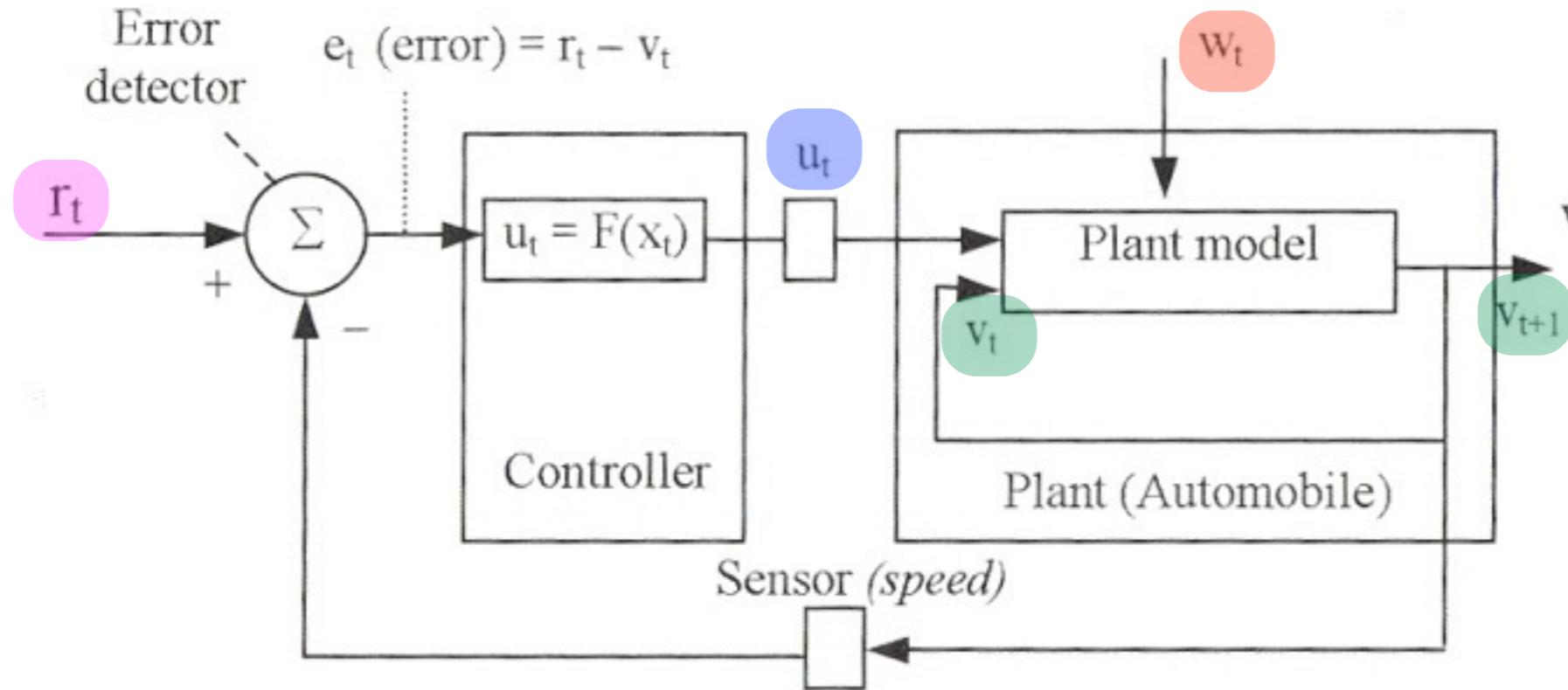
Closed loop



- **Remark:** The input to the controller is the **difference** between the desired speed and the current speed



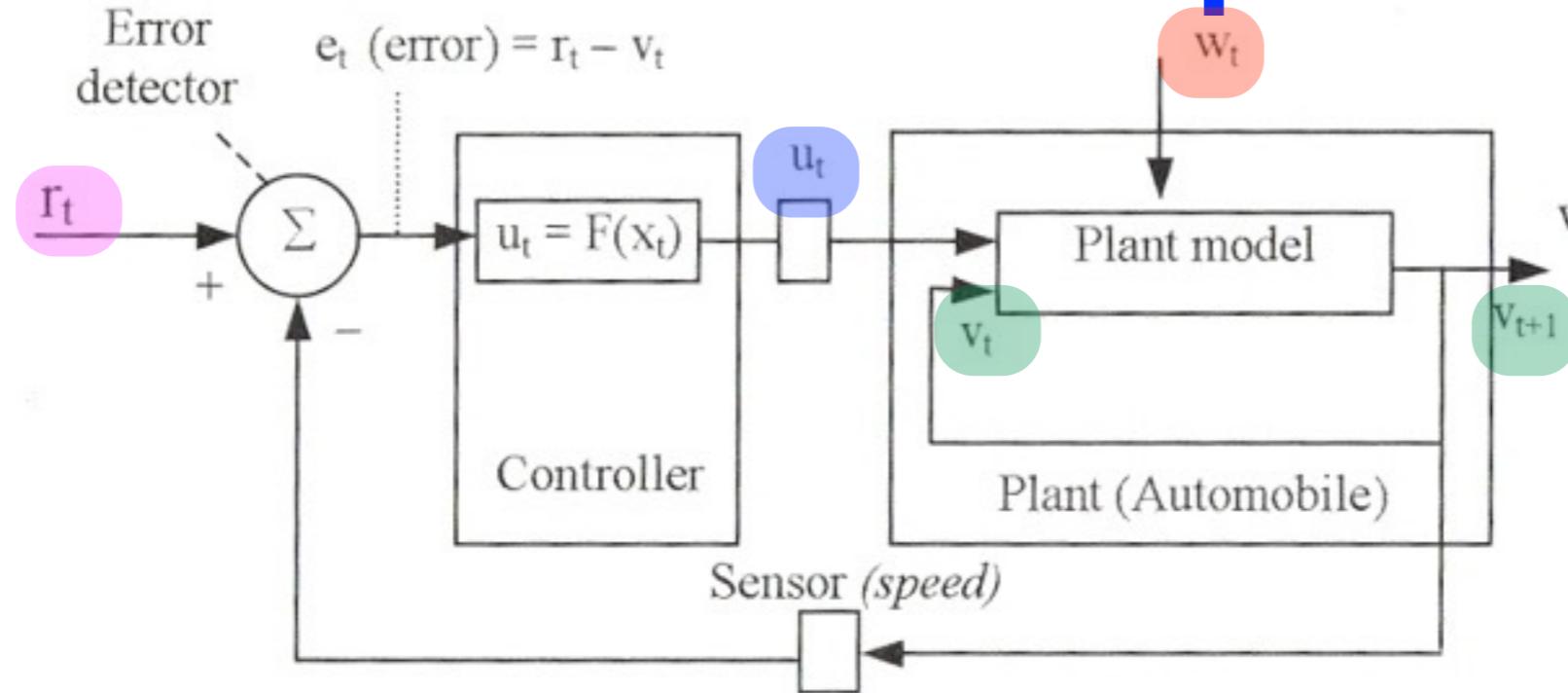
Closed loop



- Let us assume once again that the controller is a linear function $F(r_t - v_t) = P \times (r_t - v_t)$
- We keep $v_{t+1} = 0,7v_t + 0,5u_t - w_t$ as a model for the car



Closed loop



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} F(r_t - v_t) = P \times (r_t - v_t) \\ u_t = F(r_t - v_t) \end{array} \right\} \text{Controller}$$

$$v_{t+1} = 0,7v_t + 0,5u_t - w_t \quad \} \text{Car}$$

Hence:

$$v_{t+1} = 0,7 \times v_t + 0,5 \times P \times (r_t - v_t) - w_t$$



Closed loop

$$\begin{aligned}v_{t+1} &= 0,7 \times v_t + 0,5 \times P \times (r_t - v_t) - w_t \\&= (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t\end{aligned}$$

- Now, the P parameter appears in the expression of v_0 :
 $\alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P)$
- We have to take that in to account to keep $0 \leq \alpha < 1$
- This means we want $-0,6 < P \leq 1,4$



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

$$w_t = 0 \quad P = -0,5 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) = 0,95$$

t	v _t	t	v _t
0	20	7	-63,07519
1	6,5	8	-72,42143
2	-6,325	9	-81,30036
3	-18,50875	10	-89,73534
4	-30,08331	11	-97,74857
5	-41,07915	12	-105,3611
6	-51,52519	13	-112,5931



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

$$w_t = 0 \quad P = -0,5 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) = 0,95$$

By choosing

$$F(r_t - v_t) = -0,5 \times (r_t - v_t)$$

we have a controller that
decelerates when $r_t > v_t$...

Speeds < 0 don't make any
sense !



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

$$w_t = 0 \quad P = 1 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times 1) = 0,2$$

t	v _t	t	v _t
0	20	7	31,249856
1	29	8	31,249971
2	30,8	9	31,249994
3	31,16	10	31,249999
4	31,232	11	31,25
5	31,2464	12	31,25
6	31,24928	13	31,25



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

$$w_t = 0 \quad P = 1,4 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times 1,4) = 0$$

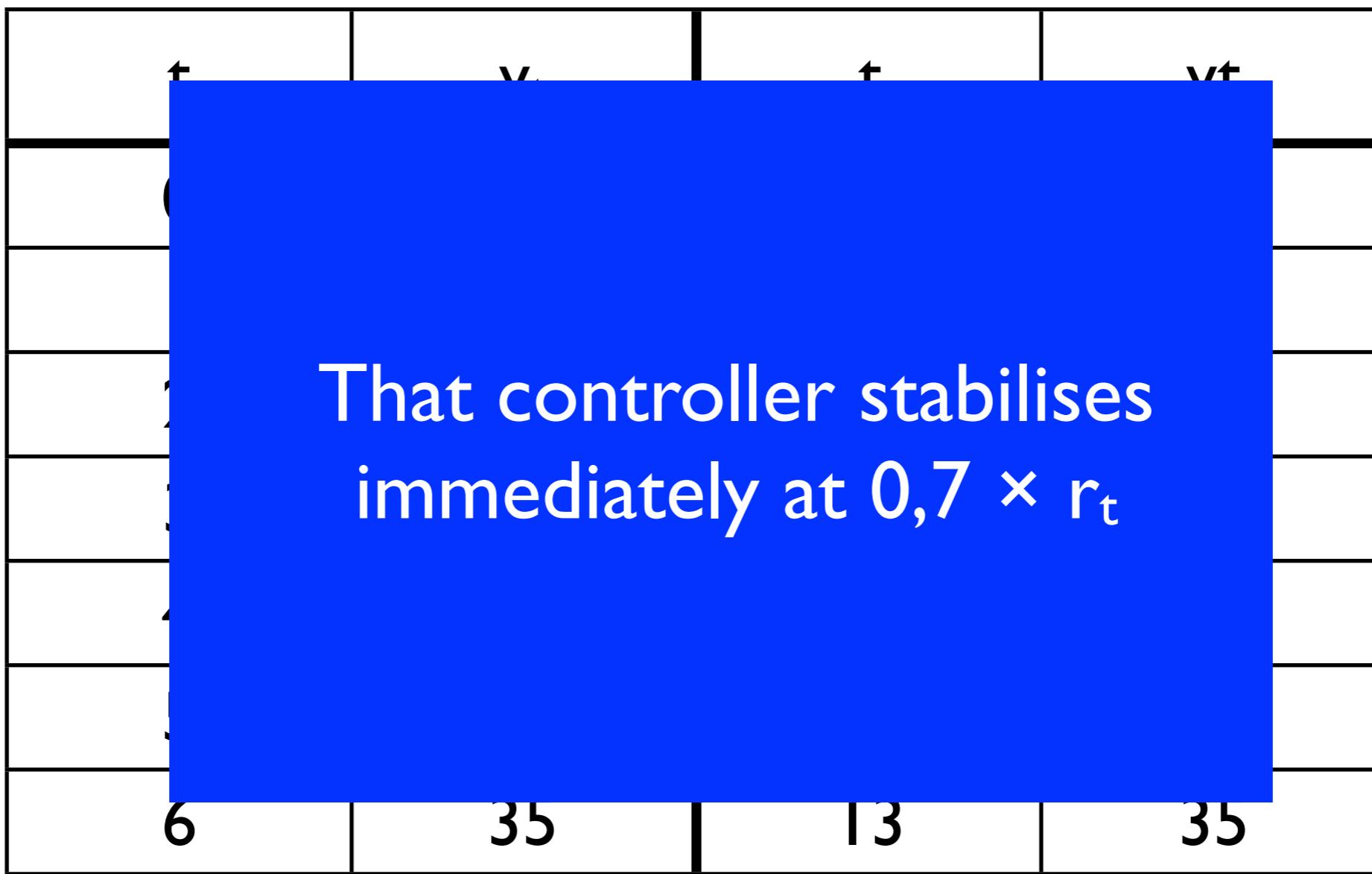
t	v _t	t	v _t
0	20	7	35
1	35	8	35
2	35	9	35
3	35	10	35
4	35	11	35
5	35	12	35
6	35	13	35



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

$$w_t = 0 \quad P = 1,4 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times 1,4) = 0$$



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

$$w_t = 0 \quad P = 3 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times 3) = -0,8$$

t	v _t	t	v _t
0	20	7	46,210496
1	59	8	38,031603
2	27,8	9	44,574717
3	52,76	10	39,340226
4	32,792	11	43,527819
5	48,7664	12	40,177745
6	35,98688	13	42,857804



Examples

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r_t - w_t$$

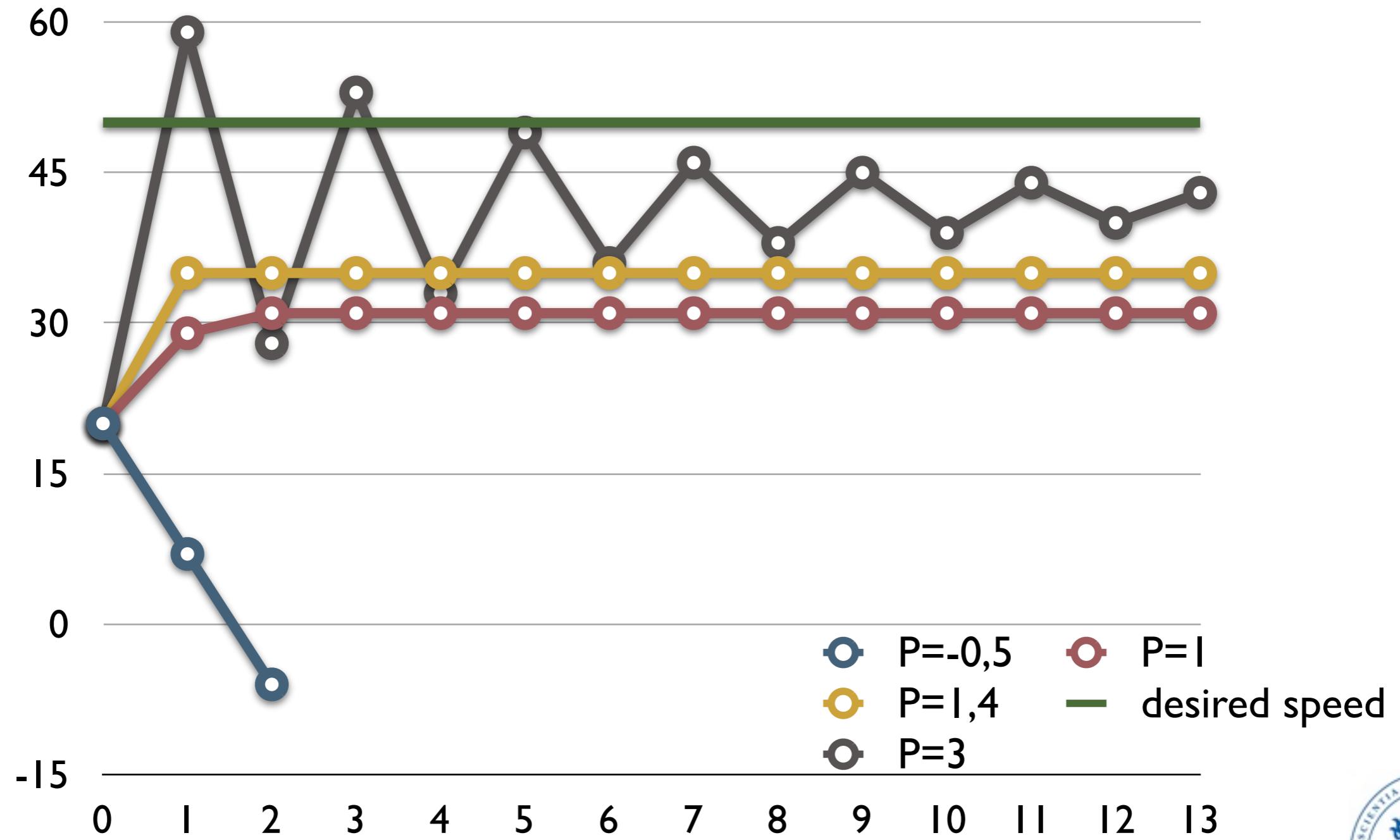
$$w_t = 0 \quad P = 3 \quad \alpha = (0,7 - 0,5 \times 3) = -0,8$$

t	v _t	t	v _t
0	20	7	46,210496
1	16,210496	8	50,603
2	15,603	9	47,717
3	15,717	10	42,226
4	15,226	11	39,319
5	48,7664	12	40,177745
6	35,98688	13	42,857804

With a negative α
oscillations appear



Examples



To sum up

- Up to now, we have only considered the effect of P on α
- If $P \leq -0,6$, then $\alpha \geq 1$ and the system does not converge
- If $-0,6 < P \leq 0$, the controller is «reversed»
- If $0 < P \leq 1,4$: quick stability but large error, (15 km/h for $P=1,4$; 25 km/h for $P=0,5$)
- If $1,4 < P < 3,4$ the $\alpha < 0$ and the system oscillates but the error is low
- If $P \geq 3,4$, then $\alpha \geq 1$ and the system does not converge



Steady states

- Let us now fix a **control objective**: that the v speed be equal to the requested speed r in steady states

- Steady states** are those where

$$v_{t+1} = v_t = v_{ss} = r$$

- By replacing v_t , v_{t+1} by v_{ss} in

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times P) v_t + 0,5 \times P \times r - w_0$$

we get:

$$v_{ss} = \frac{0,5 \times P}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times r - \frac{1}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times w_0$$



Steady states

$$v_{ss} = \frac{0,5 \times P}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times r - \frac{1}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times w_0$$

- **First observation:** We now compute P by taking into account the perturbation w_0 (which is supposed **constant**)
- The best value for P thus depends upon w_0 : we can't find a single value that allows perfect control in every situation !



Steady states

$$v_{ss} = \frac{0,5 \times P}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times r - \frac{1}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times w_0$$

- We'll try to **minimise** the influence of perturbation by having the **2nd term as small** as possible
- We **want** to have $1/(0,3 + 0,5 \times P) < 1$
 - this **implies** $P > 1.4$
 - but then $\alpha \leq 0$, and we have **oscillations** !



Steady states

$$v_{ss} = \frac{0,5 \times P}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times r - \frac{1}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times w_0$$

- Moreover, we'd like $v_{ss}=r$
- To achieve this, the coefficient of the first term should be as close to 1 as possible
- Thus P should be as large as possible



Steady states

$$v_{ss} = \frac{0,5 \times P}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times r - \frac{1}{0,3 + 0,5 \times P} \times w_0$$

P	coeff. 1	coeff. 2
0,5	0,4545454545	1,8181818182
1	0,625	1,25
2	0,7692307692	0,7692307692
10	0,9433962264	0,1886792453
100	0,9940357853	0,0198807157
10000	0,9999400036	0,000199988

Larger values of P are better !

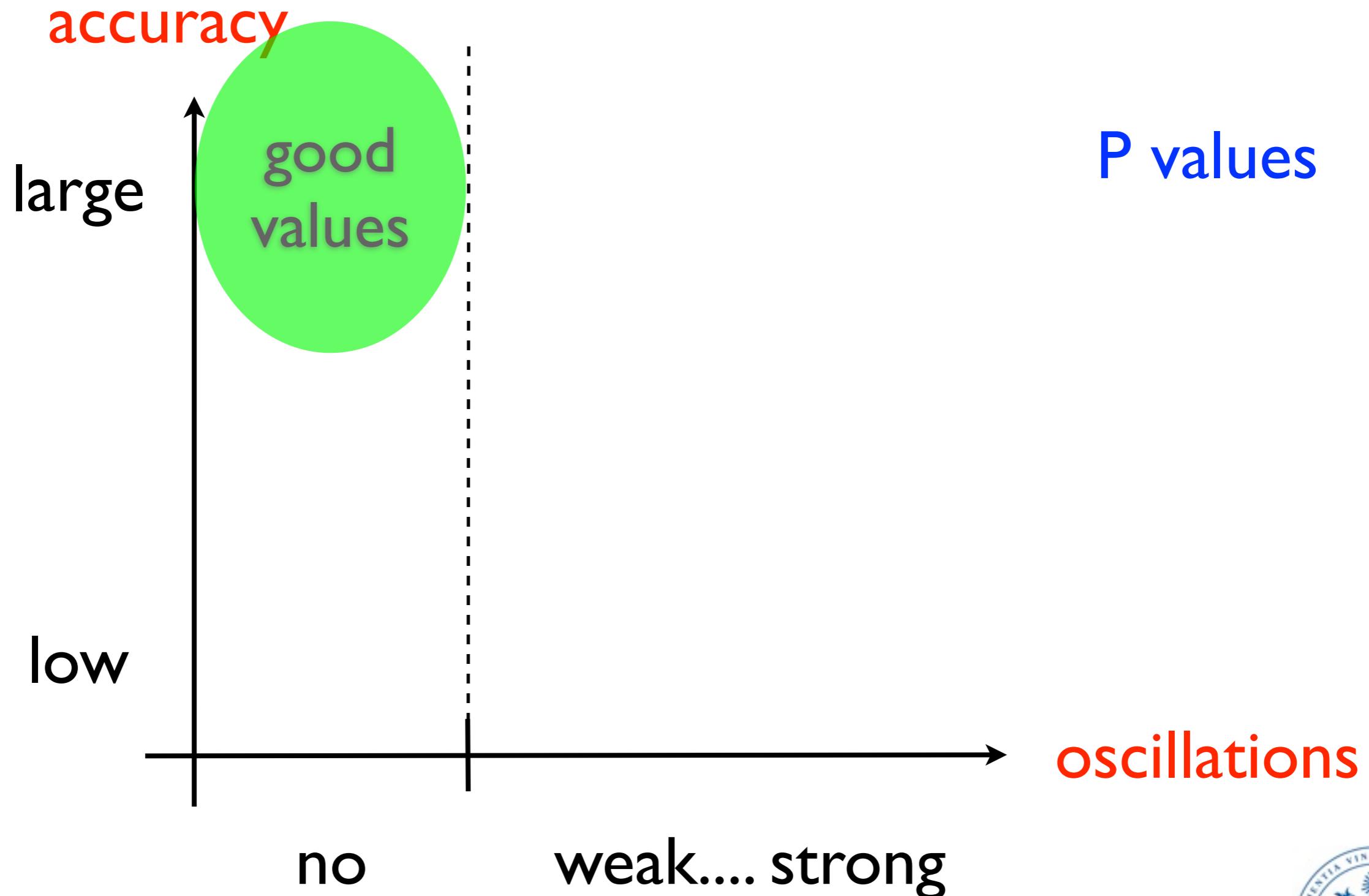


Steady states

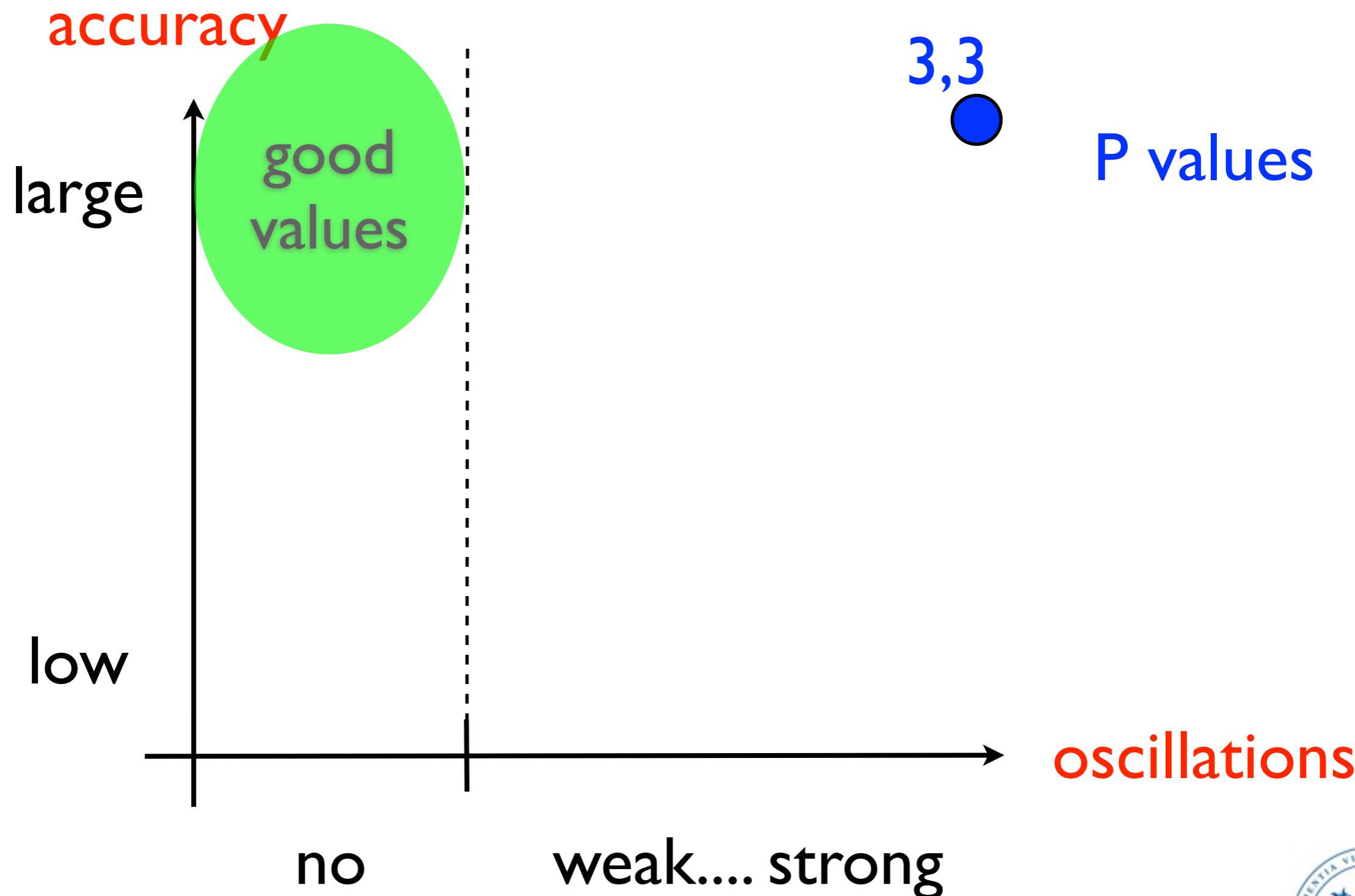
- We could try to use a P as big as possible...
- ... however, with $P > 3,4$ we get oscillations
- In this case, two control objectives are contradictory !
 - accuracy vs
 - smooth convergence (i.e. passenger comfort ;-)



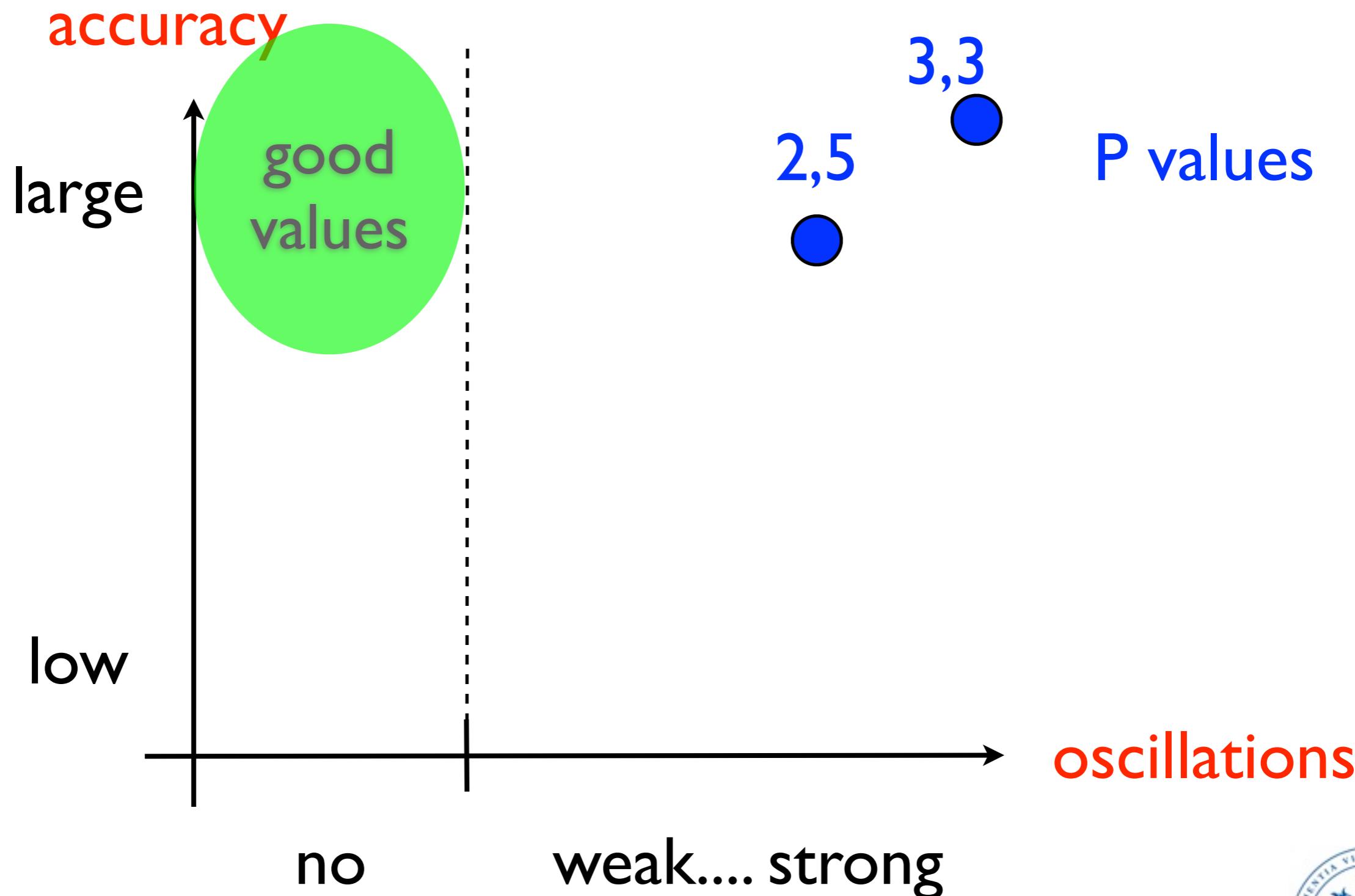
Control objectives



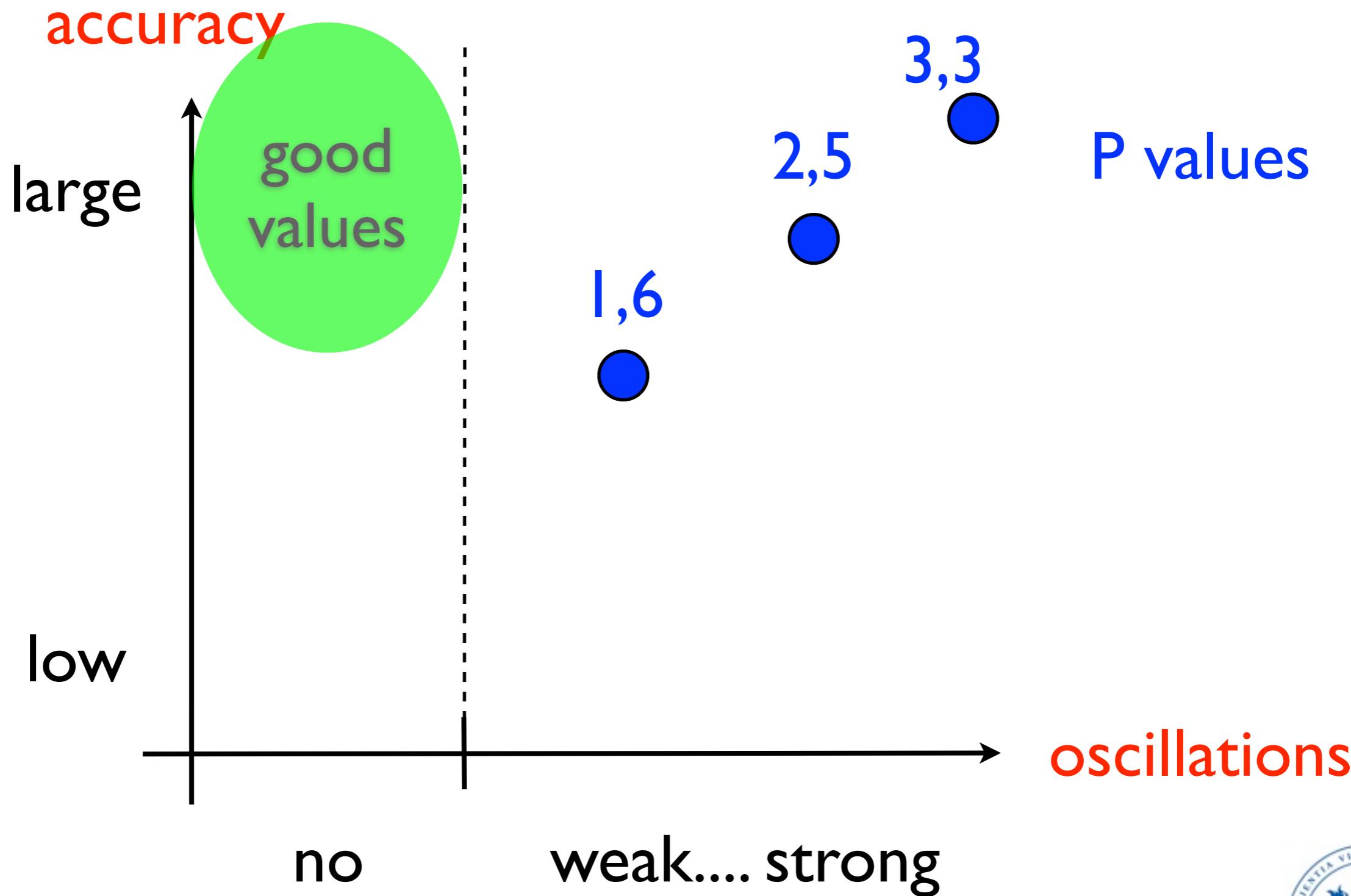
Control objectives



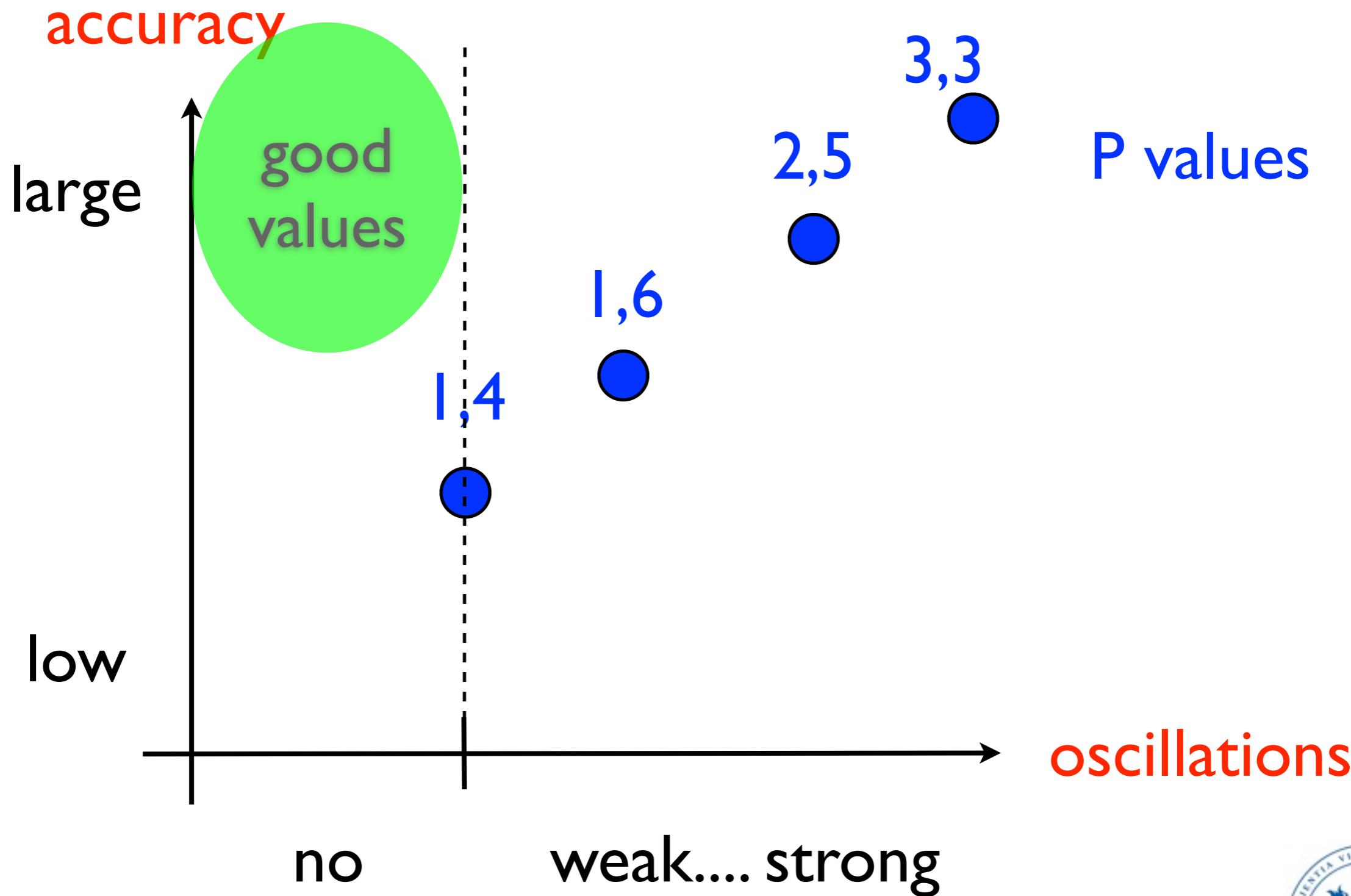
Control objectives



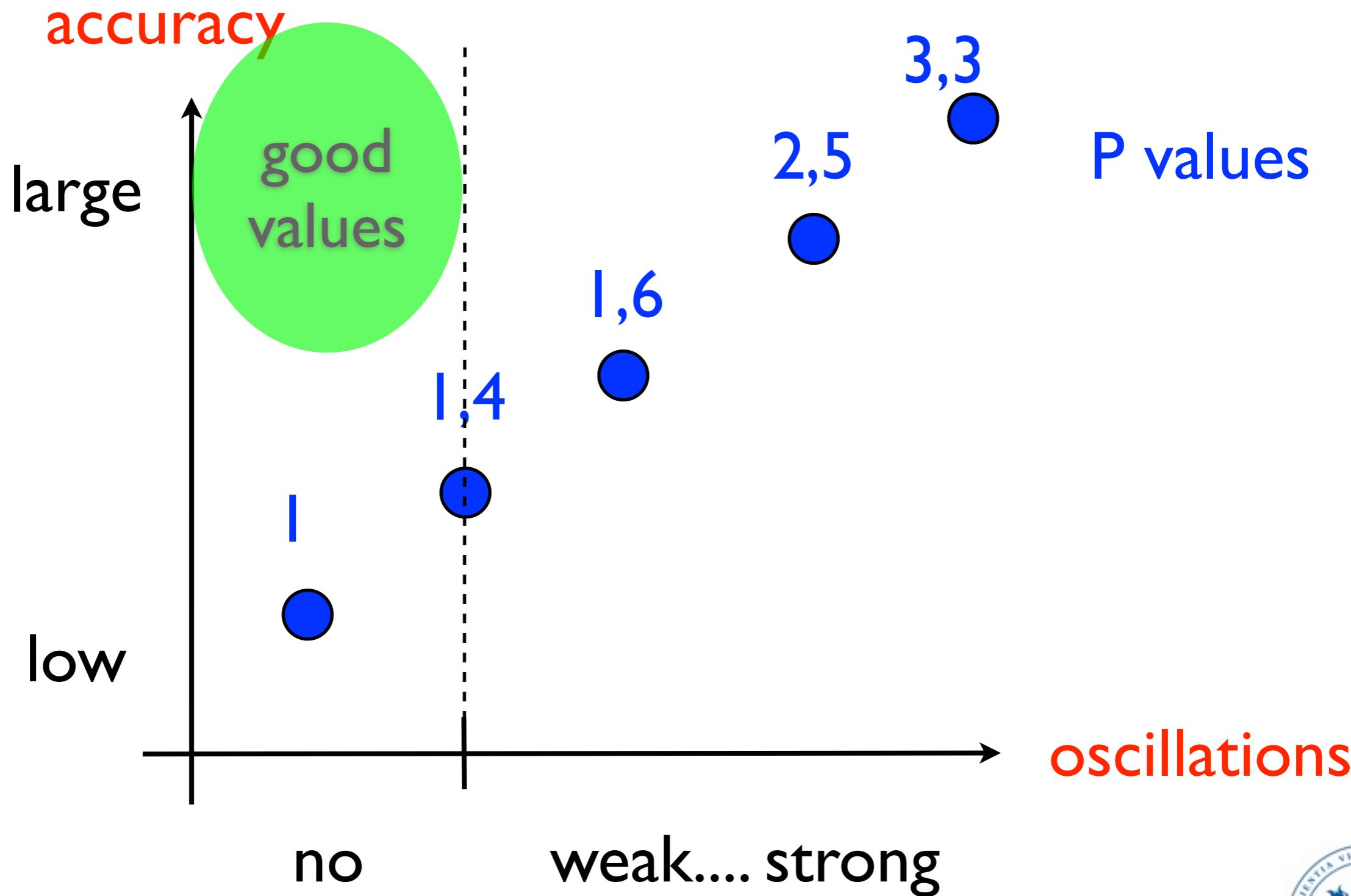
Control objectives



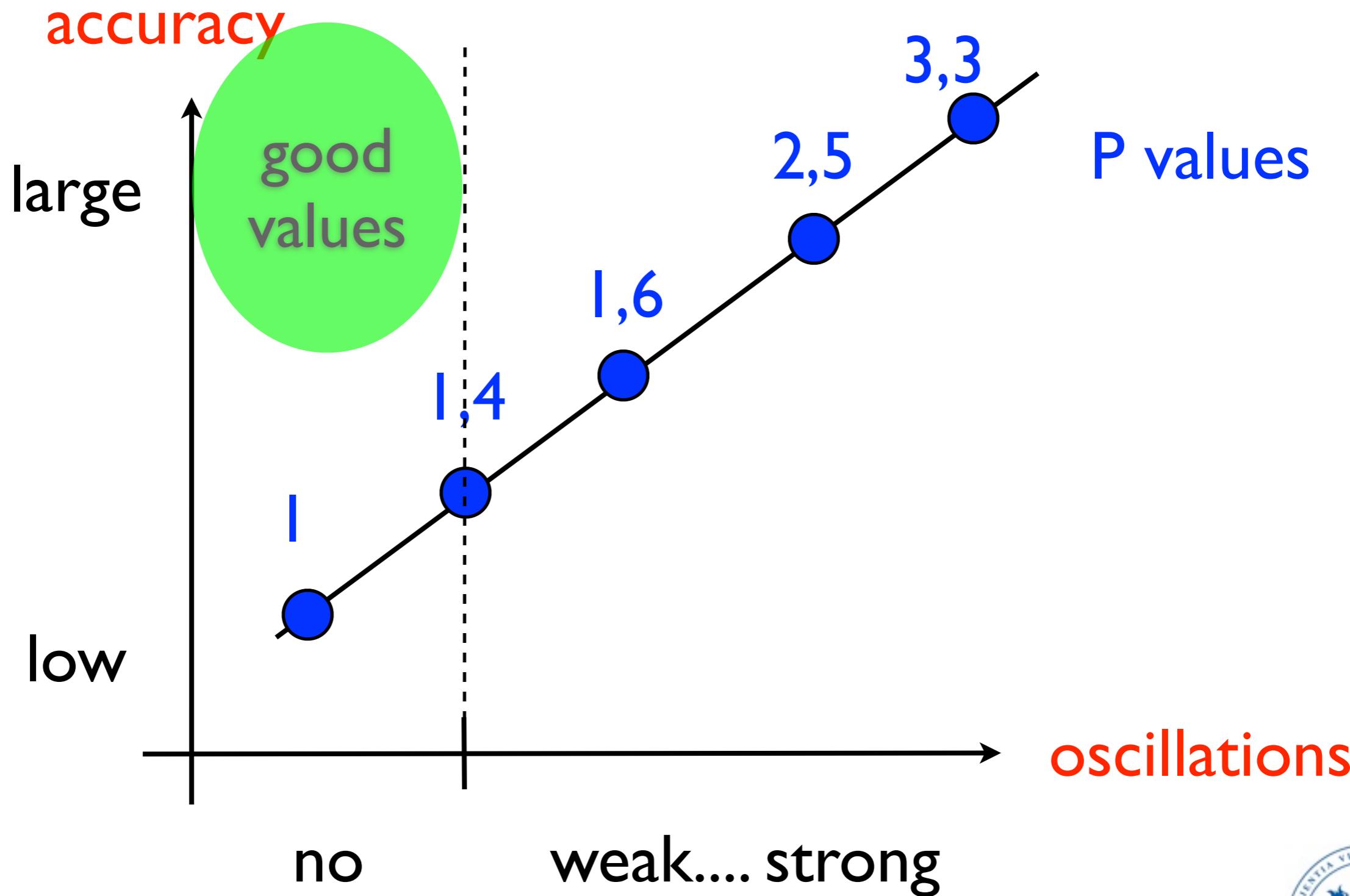
Control objectives



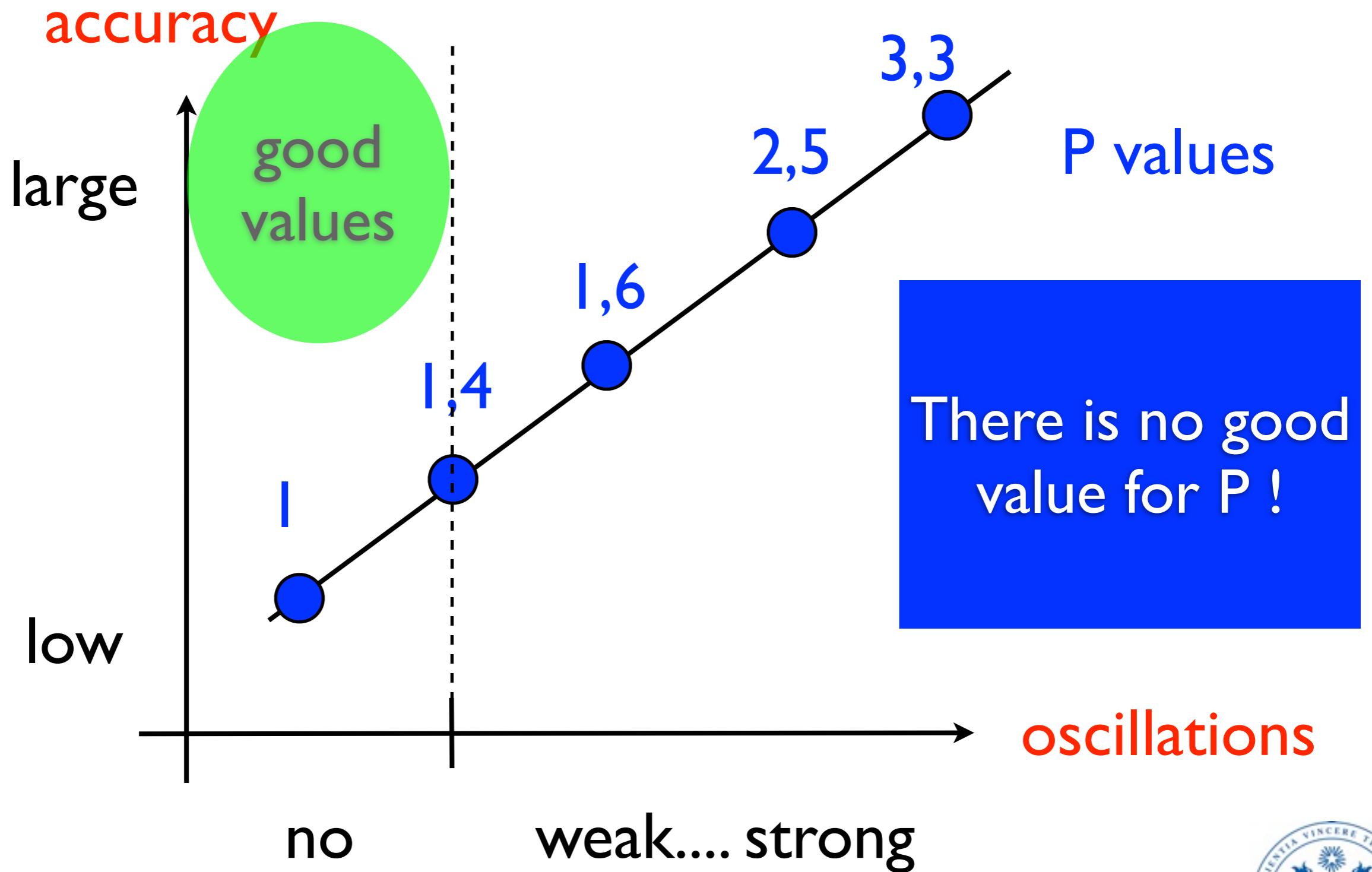
Control objectives



Control objectives



Control objectives



Contradictory objectives

- We have to take decisions:
 - With a value such as $P=3,3$ we advantage the accuracy, but the oscillations will threaten the passengers' comfort
 - With a value such as $P=1$ there are no oscillations, but the speed stabilises way under the desired speed
 - Nothing better can be achieved with such a simplistic controller



Disturbances

- Let us remind we had introduced closed loop controllers to **cope correctly with disturbances**
- It is the case ?



Disturbances

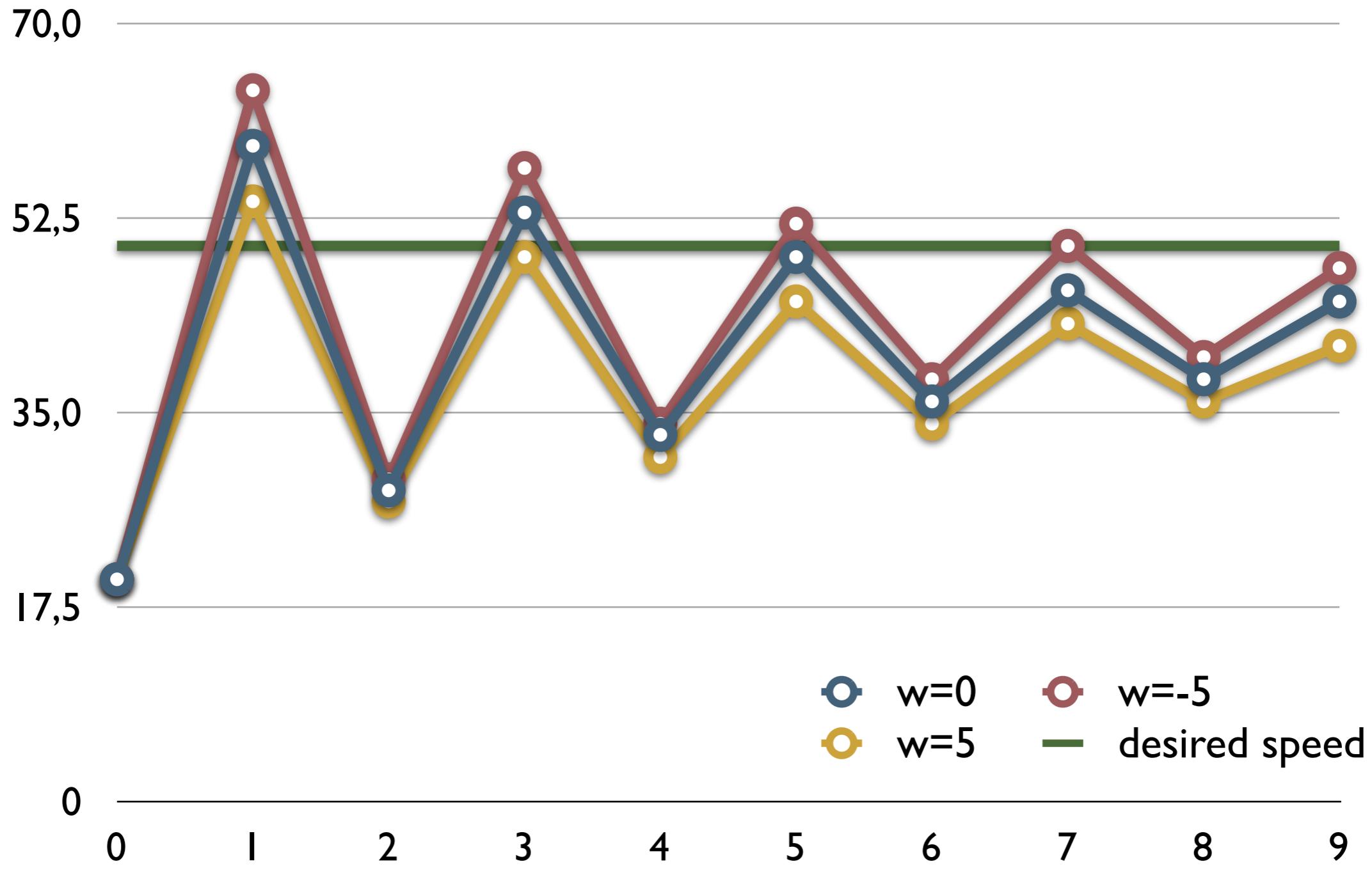
$$P = 3 \quad r = 50 \quad v_0 = 20$$

t	v for w=0	v for w=-5	v for w=5
0	20	20	20
1	59	64	54
2	28	29	27
3	53	57	49
4	33	34	31
5	49	52	45
6	36	38	34
7	46	50	43
8	38	40	36
9	45	48	41



Disturbances

$P = 3$ $r = 50$ $v_0 = 20$



Disturbances

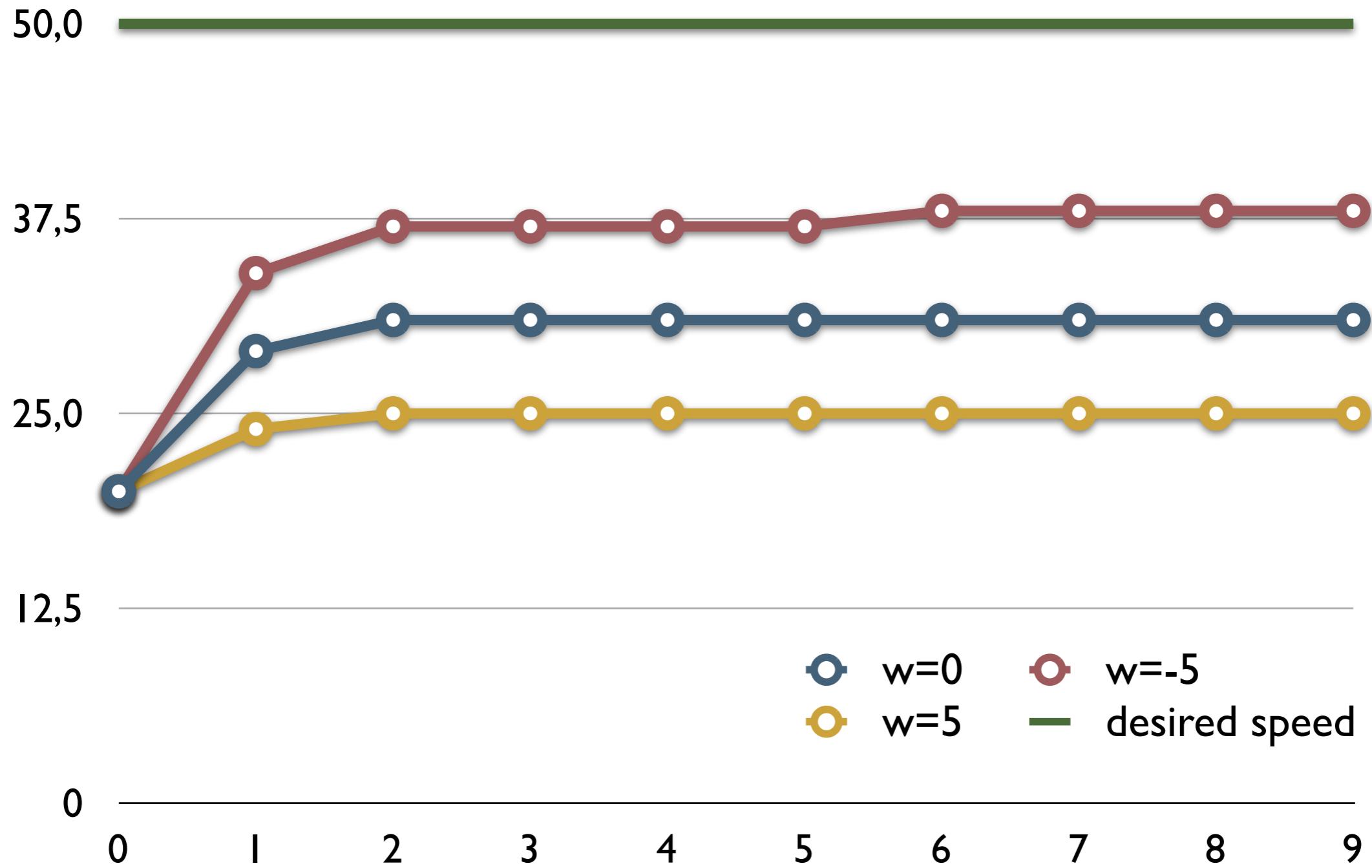
$$P = I \quad r = 50 \quad v_0 = 20$$

t	v for w=0	v for w=-5	v for w=5
0	20	20	20
1	29	34	24
2	31	37	25
3	31	37	25
4	31	37	25
5	31	37	25
6	31	38	25
7	31	38	25
8	31	38	25
9	31	38	25



Disturbances

$$P = I \quad r = 50 \quad v_0 = 20$$



Disturbances

- One can see that the plots for the different w values are indeed much closer
- In the $P=3$ case, they converge to very close values.





PID

- Let us now study a more general form of closed loop controller: **PID controller**
- We will **discuss** with more details the **control objectives**.



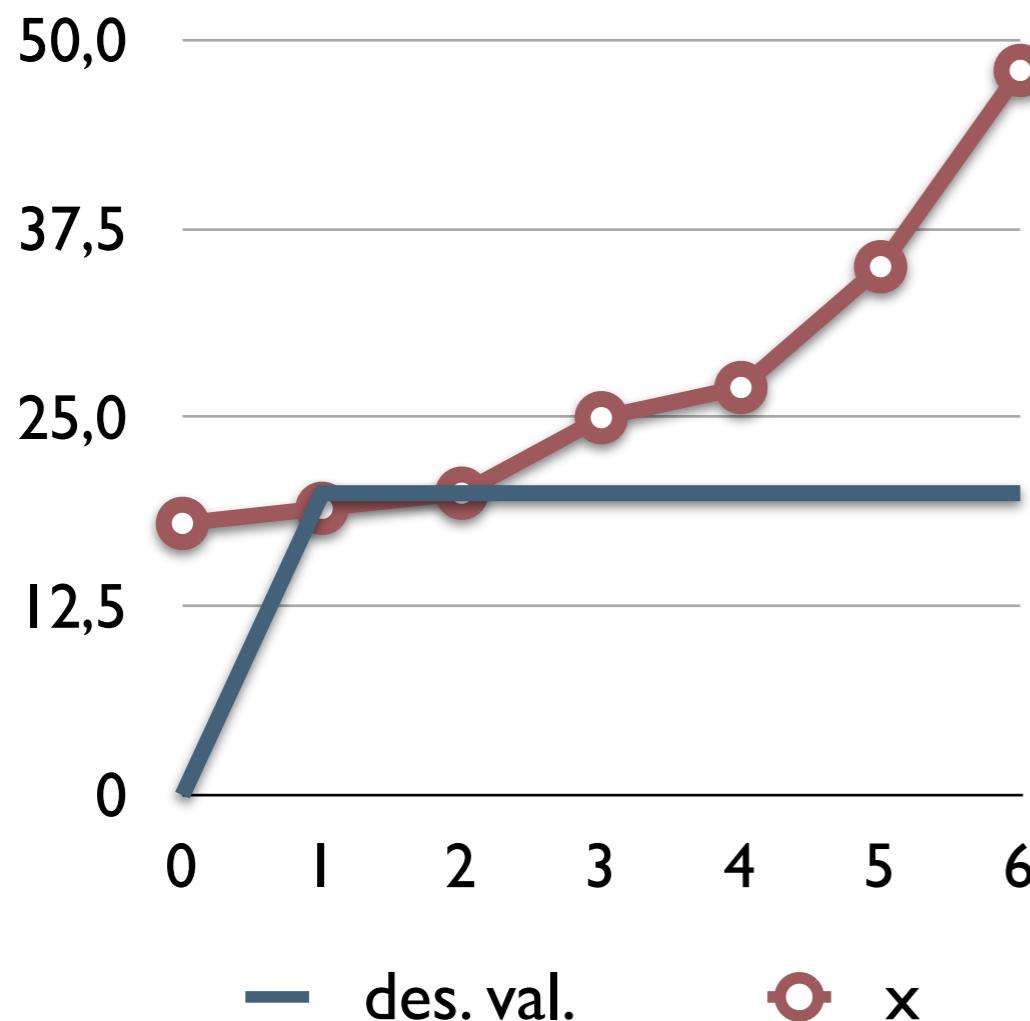
Control objectives

- **Stability:** All the system's **variables** (including error) must be **bounded**.
 - Ideally **error variables** should **converge to 0**
 - **Stability** is the **main control objective**
 - Without stability there is no actual control...

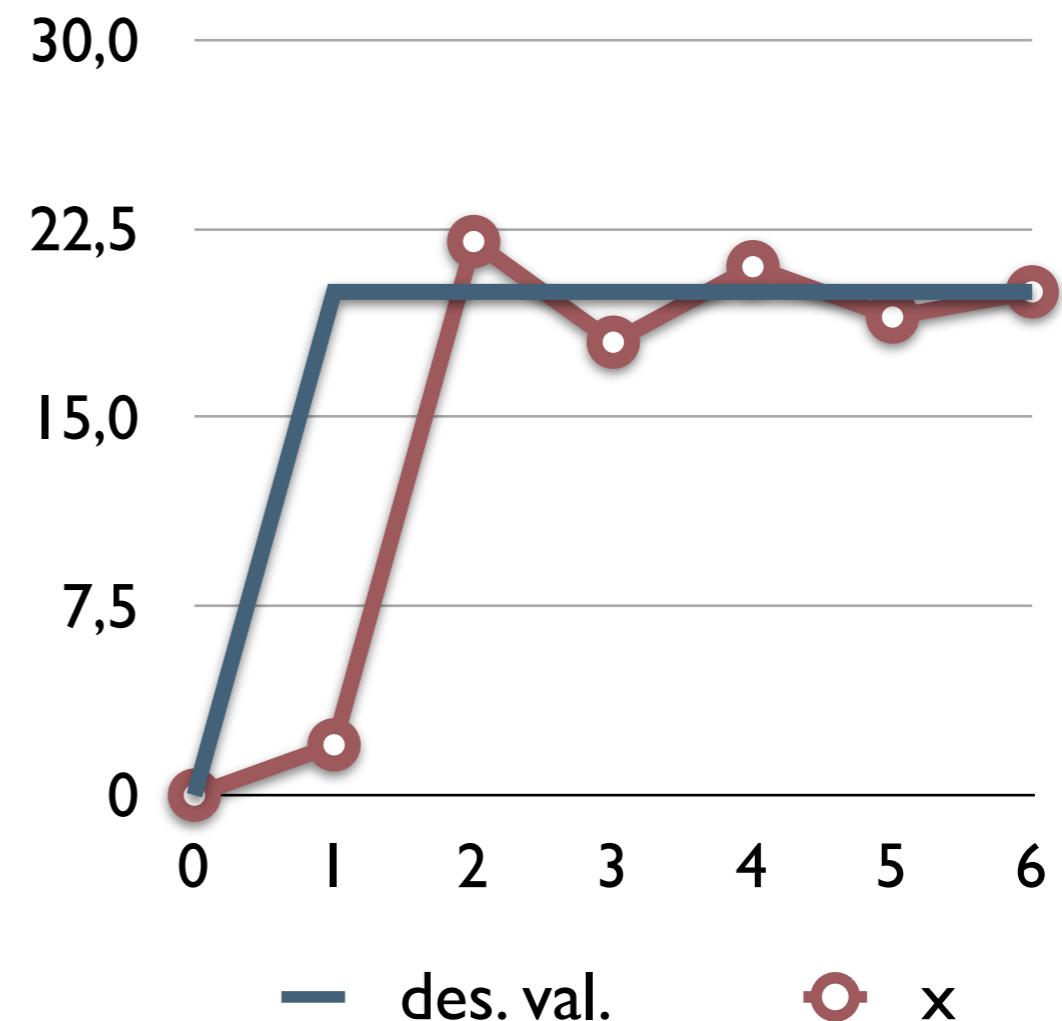


Control objective

Not stable



Stable

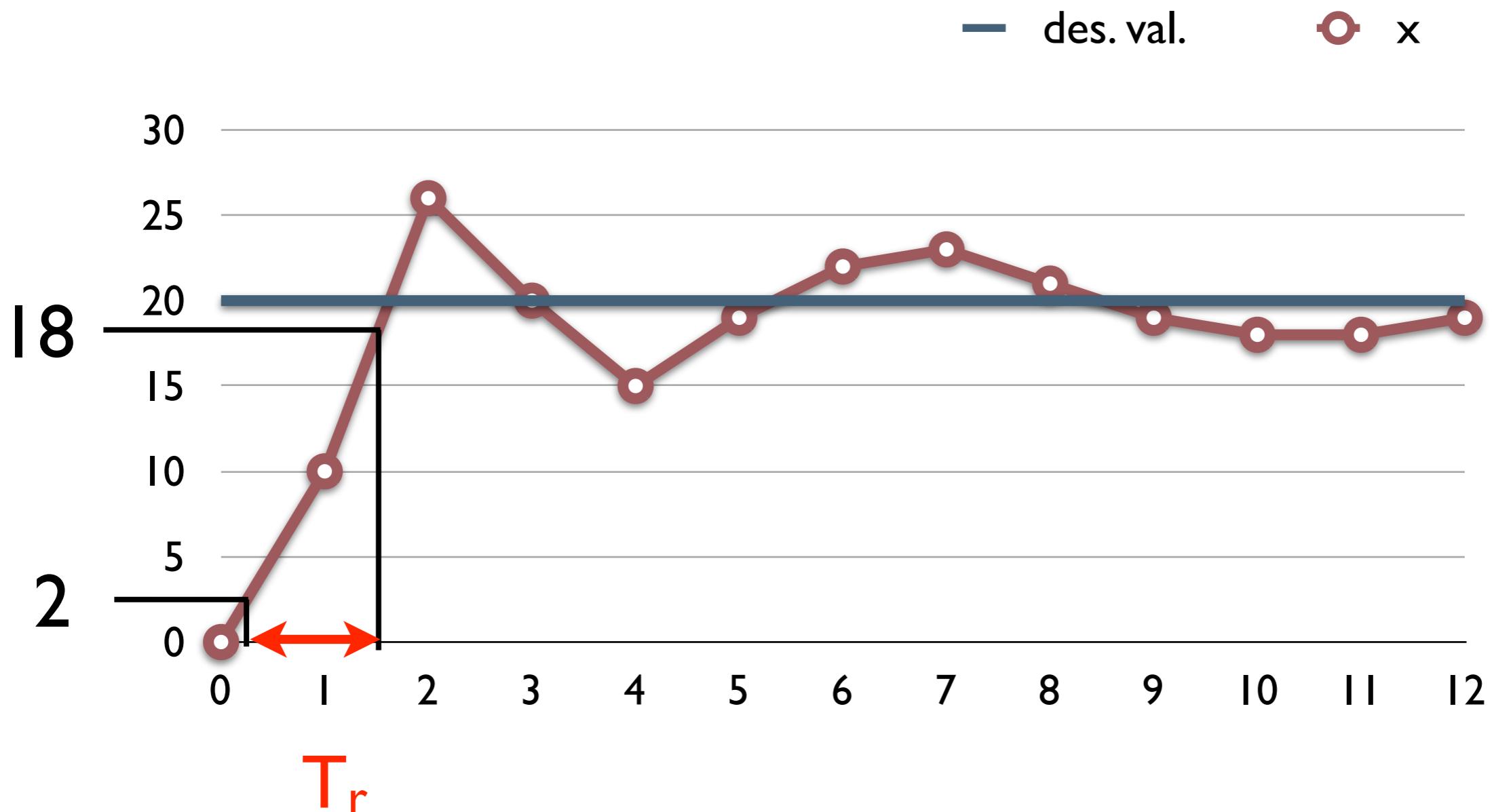


Control objectives

- **Performance:** In a **stable system**, performances measures, thanks to **several parameters**, the **distance between the output and the desired value**
- **Raising time T_r .** Let **d** be the distance between the initial value **i** and the desired value **r**, then **T_r** is the time need to see the output change from **$i + 10\% \times d$** to **$i + 90\% \times d$**



Control objectives

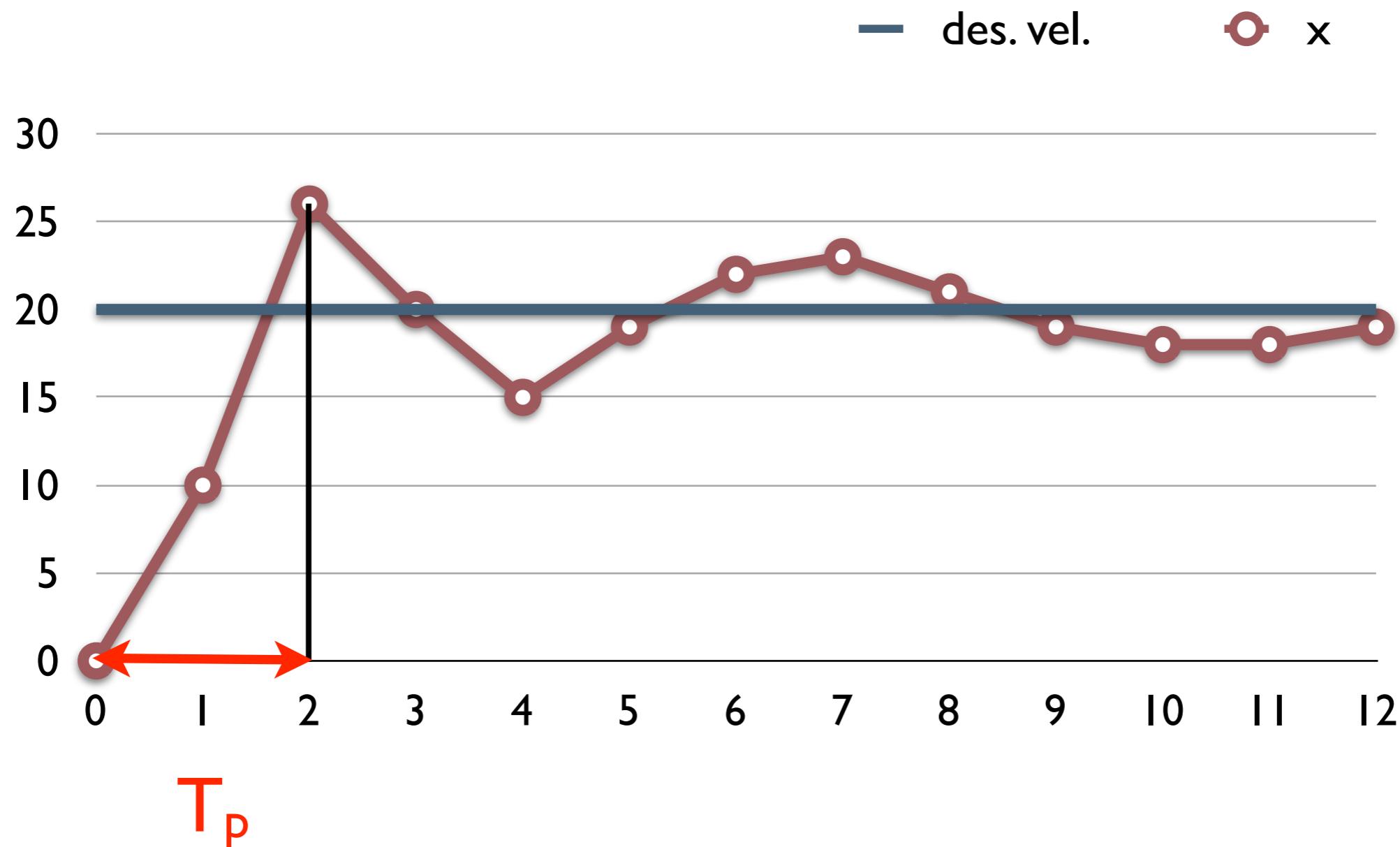


Control objectives

- Performance:
- Peak time T_p : Time to reach the first peak in the output



Control objectives

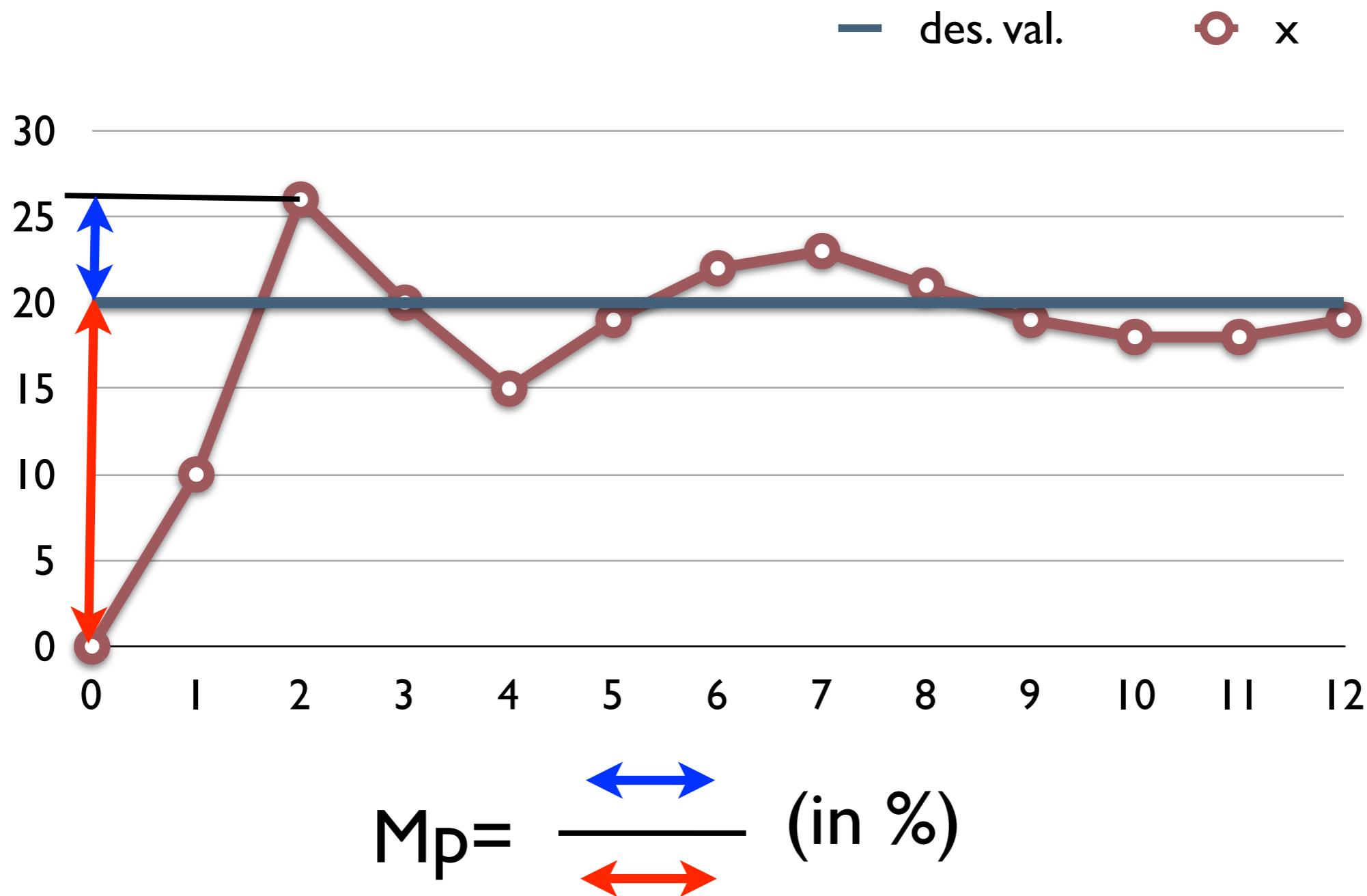


Control objectives

- Performance:
 - **Overshoot M_p :** Percentage amount by which the peak **exceeds** the desired value



Control objectives

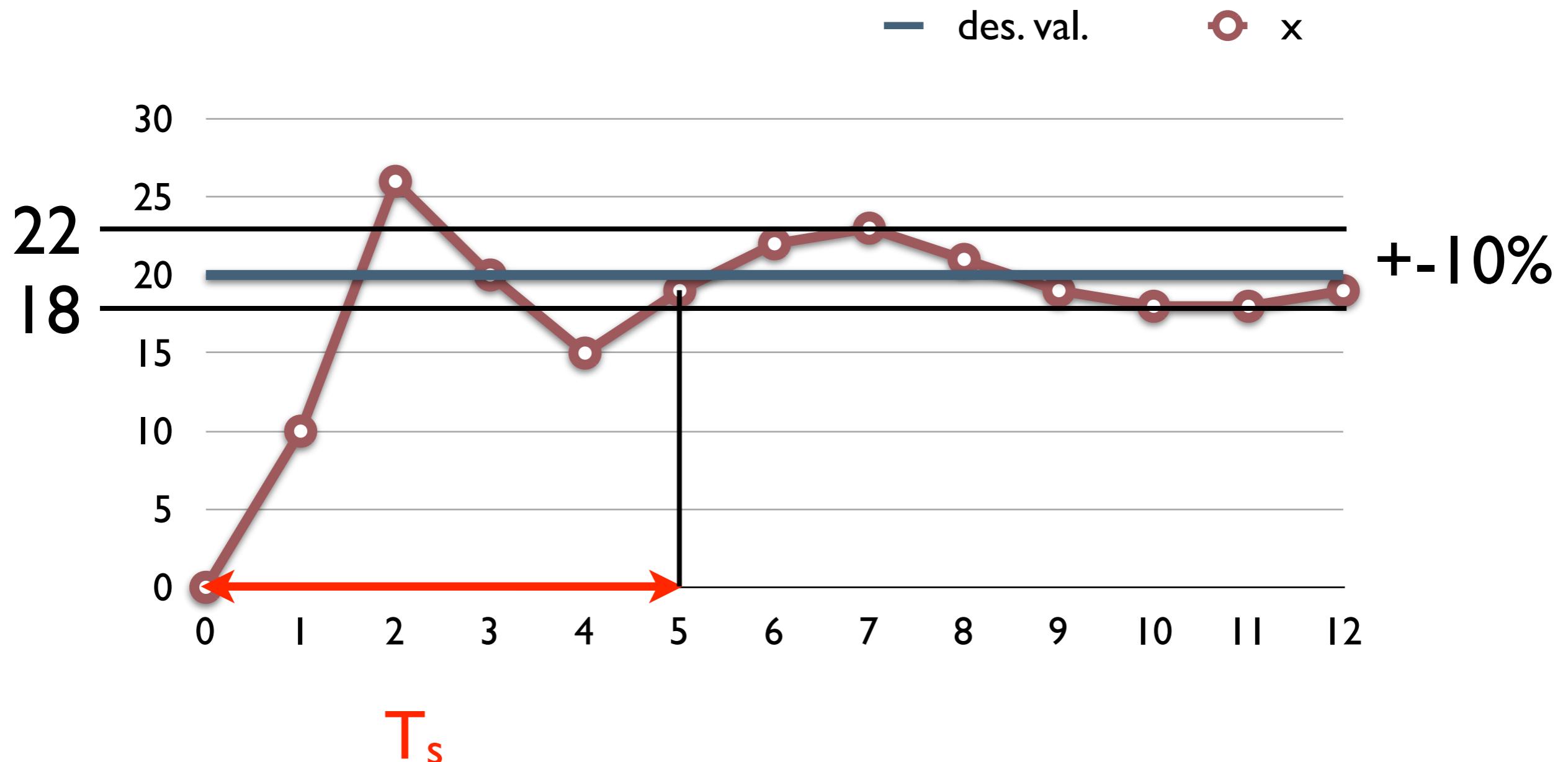


Control objectives

- Performance:
 - Settling time T_s : Time required for the system to settle down within an interval of $x\%$ centered on the desired value ($x=1, 10, \dots$)



Control objectives



Control objectives

- **Disturbance rejection:** the system should not be sensitive to disturbances
- **Robustness:** Remind that we are reasoning on a **model** of the environment. **Slight changes** in the behaviour of the environment should **not affect significantly the controller.**



Types of controllers

- From now on we only consider **closed loop controllers**
- The controller we have seen so far is a **proportional controller (P)**
- Its control law is $P \times e_t$, where e_t is the error $r_t - v_t$ at time t
- Its output is **proportional** to the error



P controllers

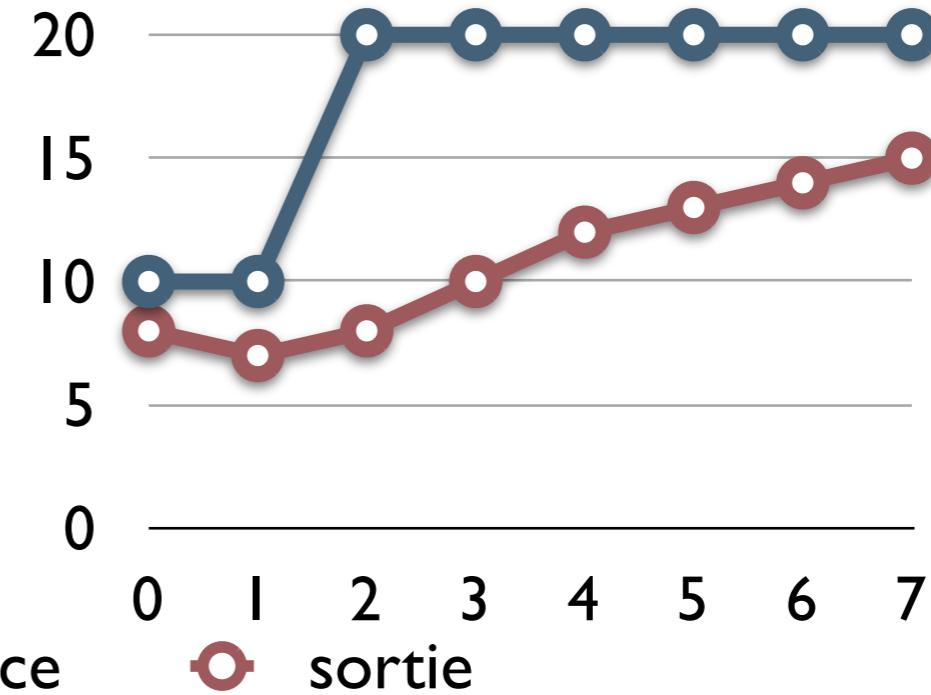
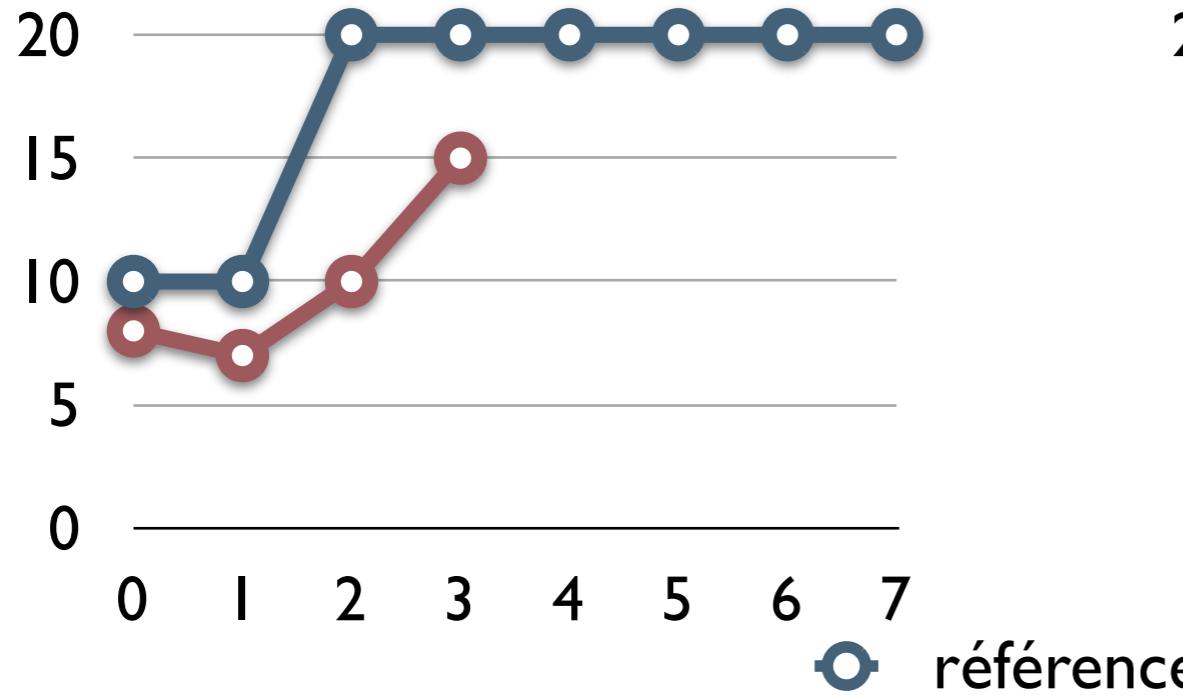
$$P \times e_t$$

- A P controller, has access to the previous error only
- In many cases, control would be much easier to achieve if one could “predict future errors”



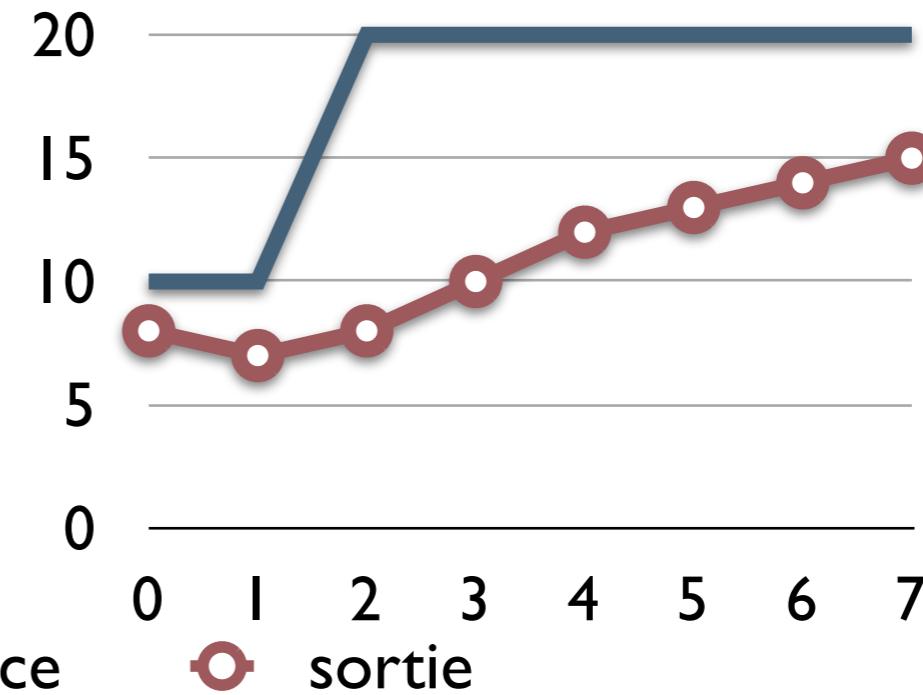
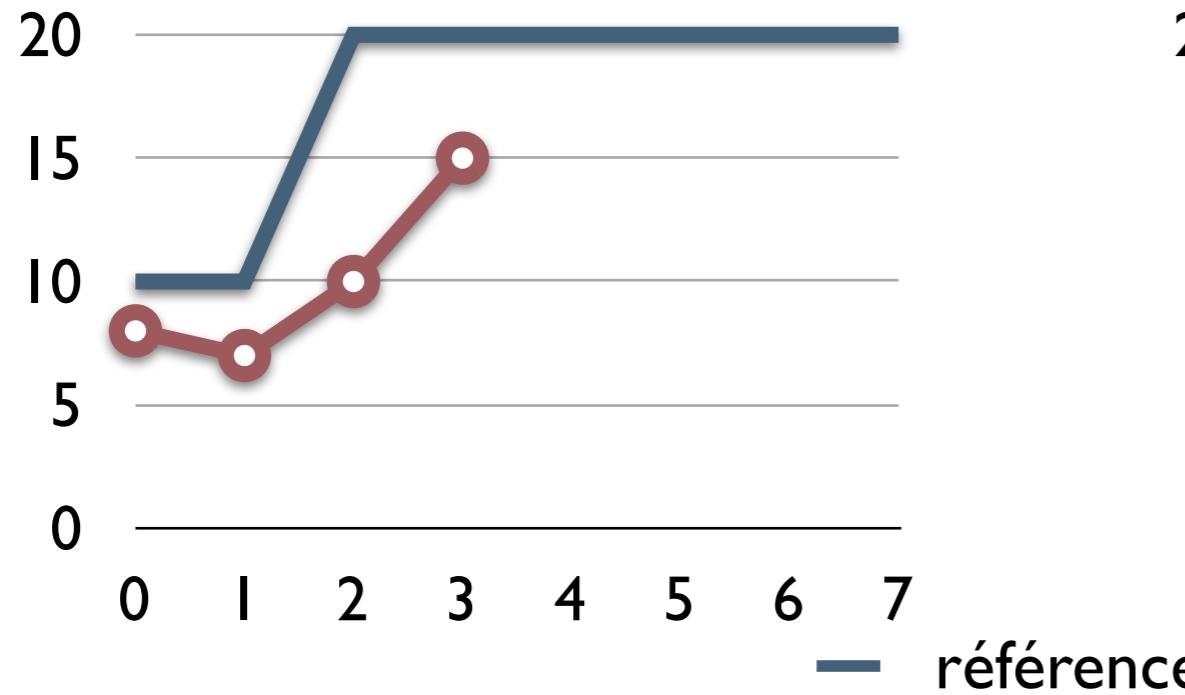
P controller

- At $t=3$, left and at $t=7$, right the errors are **equal**
- A P controller thus has the **same reaction**
- However, the **ideal** reaction is **different**



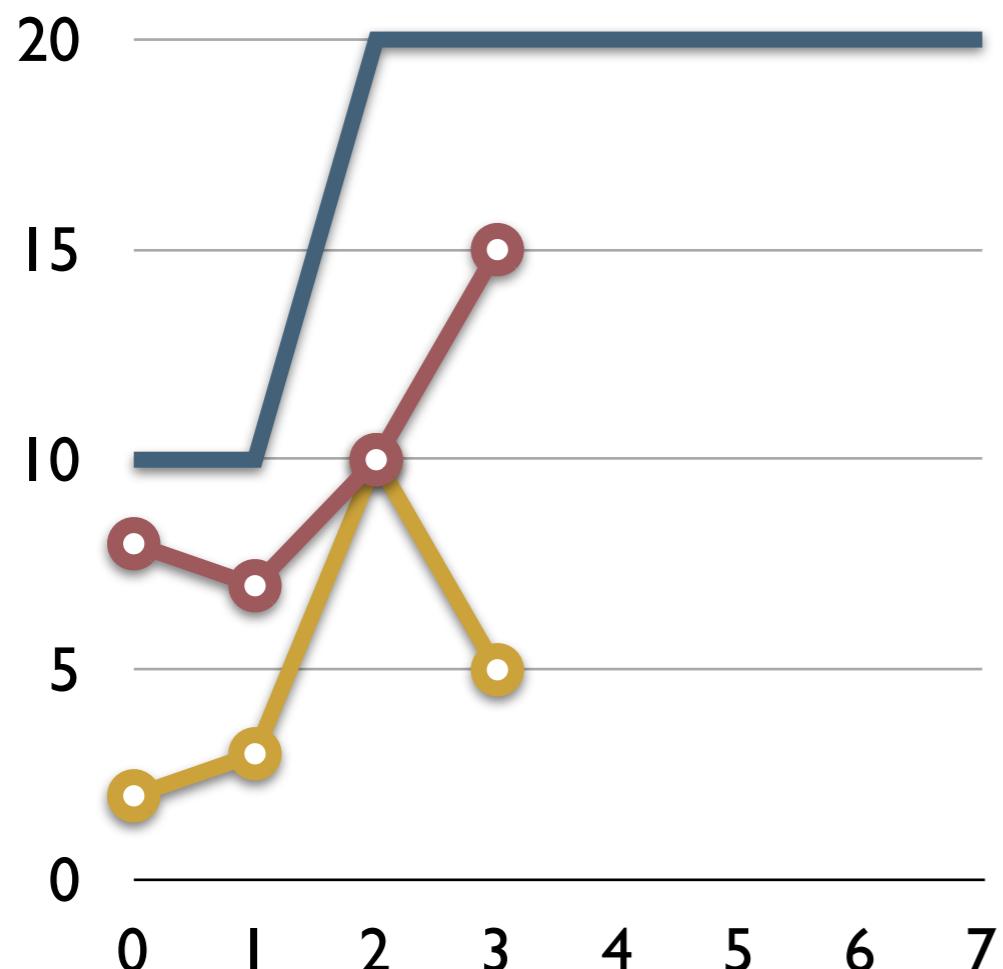
P controller

- **To the left:** one should **slow down** the grow rate to avoid overshooting the reference
- **To the right:** that rate should be **accelerated**



P controller

How the error behaves:

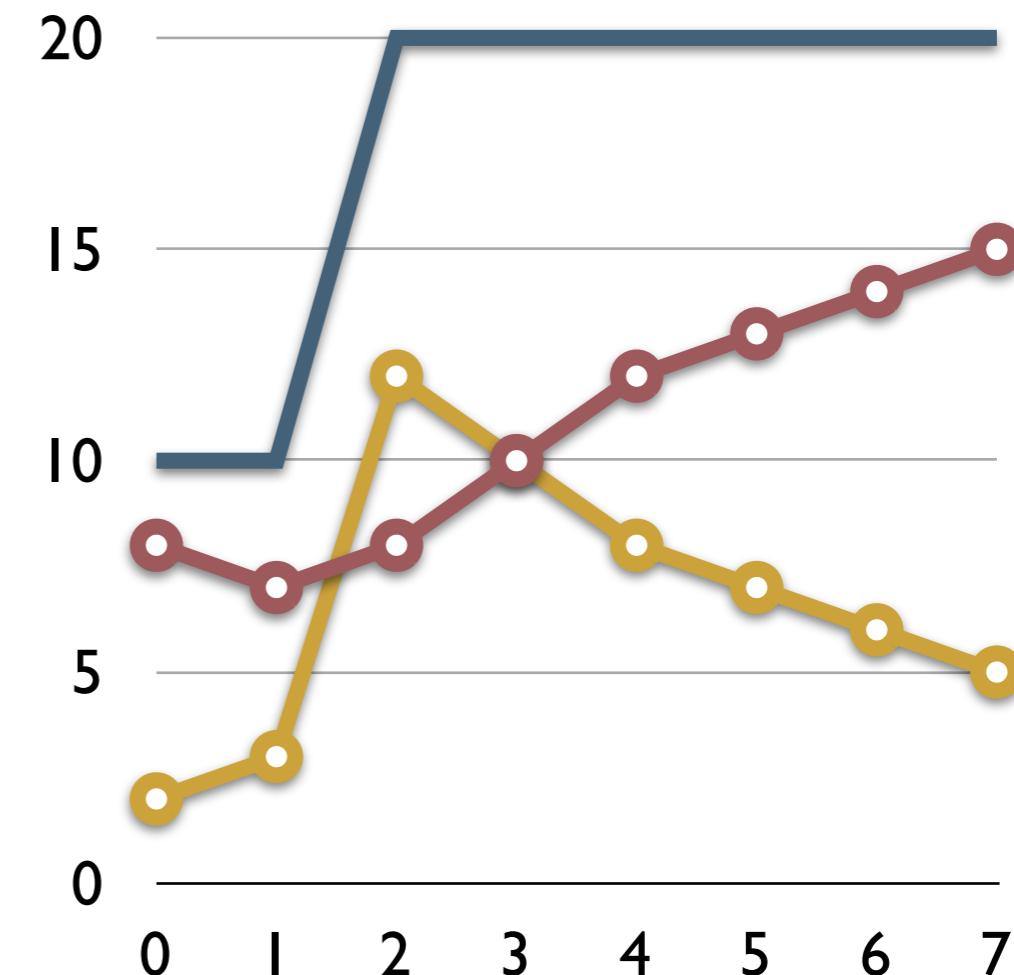


Quick
decrease

— ref. ○ output

○ error

Slow decrease



PD Controllers

- By taking into account **the first derivative of the error**, we can have a more precise controller
 - We'll use the derivative to **predict how the error behaves**
- Such controllers are called **Proportional and Derivative (PD)**
- **Control law** is of the form:
$$u_t = P \times e_t + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1})$$
- When $D=0$, we have a P controller



Example

- Let's go back to our example, considering r_t is constant and w_t is null.

$$v_{t+1} = 0,7v_t + 0,5u_t - w_t$$

$$u_t = P \times e_t + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1})$$

$$e_t = r - v_t$$

We get:

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times (P + D)) \times v_t + 0,5 \times D \times v_{t-1} + 0,5 \times P \times r$$



Example

- Let's consider again the steady states: $v_{t+1} = v_t = v_{t-1} = v_{ss}$

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times (P + D)) \times v_t + 0,5 \times D \times v_{t-1} + 0,5 \times P \times r$$

$$v_{t+1} = v_t = v_{t-1} = v_{ss}$$

We get:

$$v_{ss} = (0,5 \times P / (0,3 + 0,5 \times P)) \times r$$



Example

- Let's consider again the steady states: $v_{t+1} = v_t = v_{t-1} = v_{ss}$

$$v_{t+1} = (0,7 - 0,5 \times (P + D)) \times v_t + 0,5 \times D \times v_{t-1} + 0,5 \times P \times r$$

$$v_{t+1} = v_t = v_{t-1} = v_{ss}$$

We get:

$$v_{ss} = (0,5 \times P / (0,3 + 0,5 \times P)) \times r$$

It is the same result as with the P controller



Example

- The equation describing **steady states** is the same **as for the P controller**
- This is not (should not be ?) **surprising**. In the **steady states**, the output does not vary, neither the error !
- Adding a **derivative term** does **not** affect steady states
- But it allows **more flexibility**



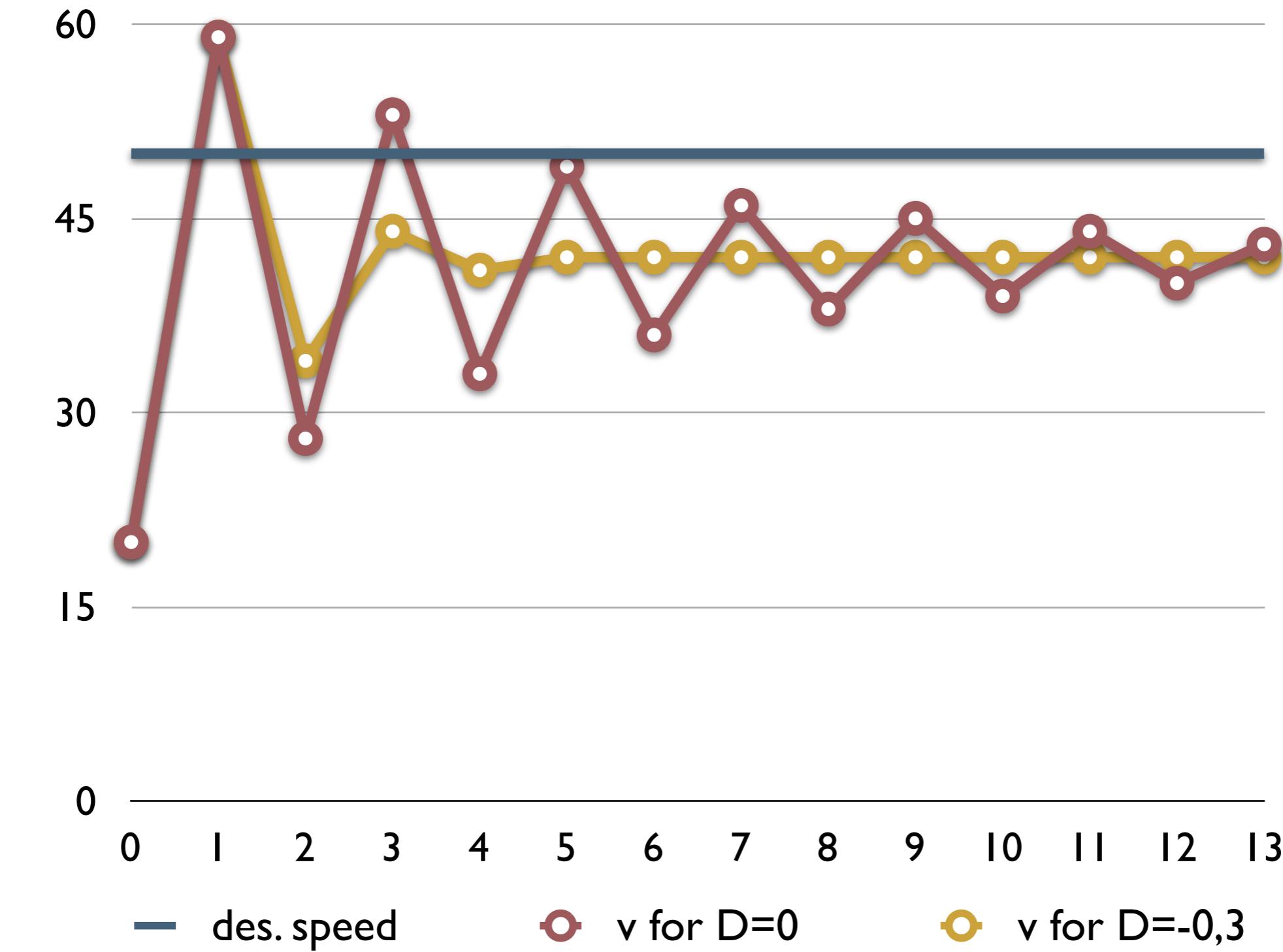
Example

- Remember: With P controllers, when P was high, we had high accuracy but many oscillations
- We will adapt the value of D in the PD controller to avoid oscillations
- D will clearly have a negative value: if the error grows fast (first derivative highly positive) we have to reduce the input to the environment.



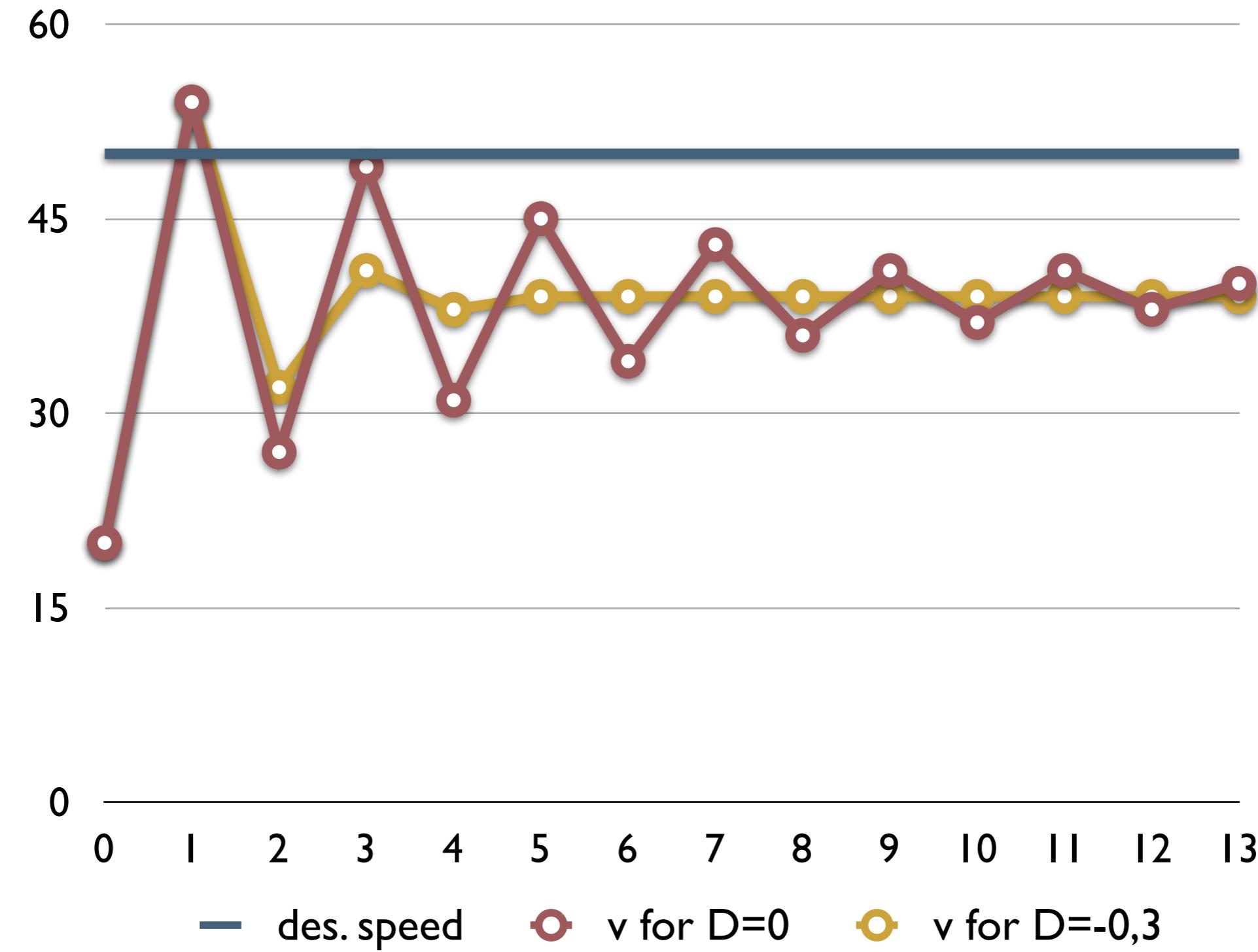
Examples

$$w = 0 \quad r = 50 \quad P = 3 \quad u_t = P \times e_t + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1})$$



Examples

$$w = 5 \quad r = 50 \quad P = 3 \quad u_t = P \times e_t + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1})$$



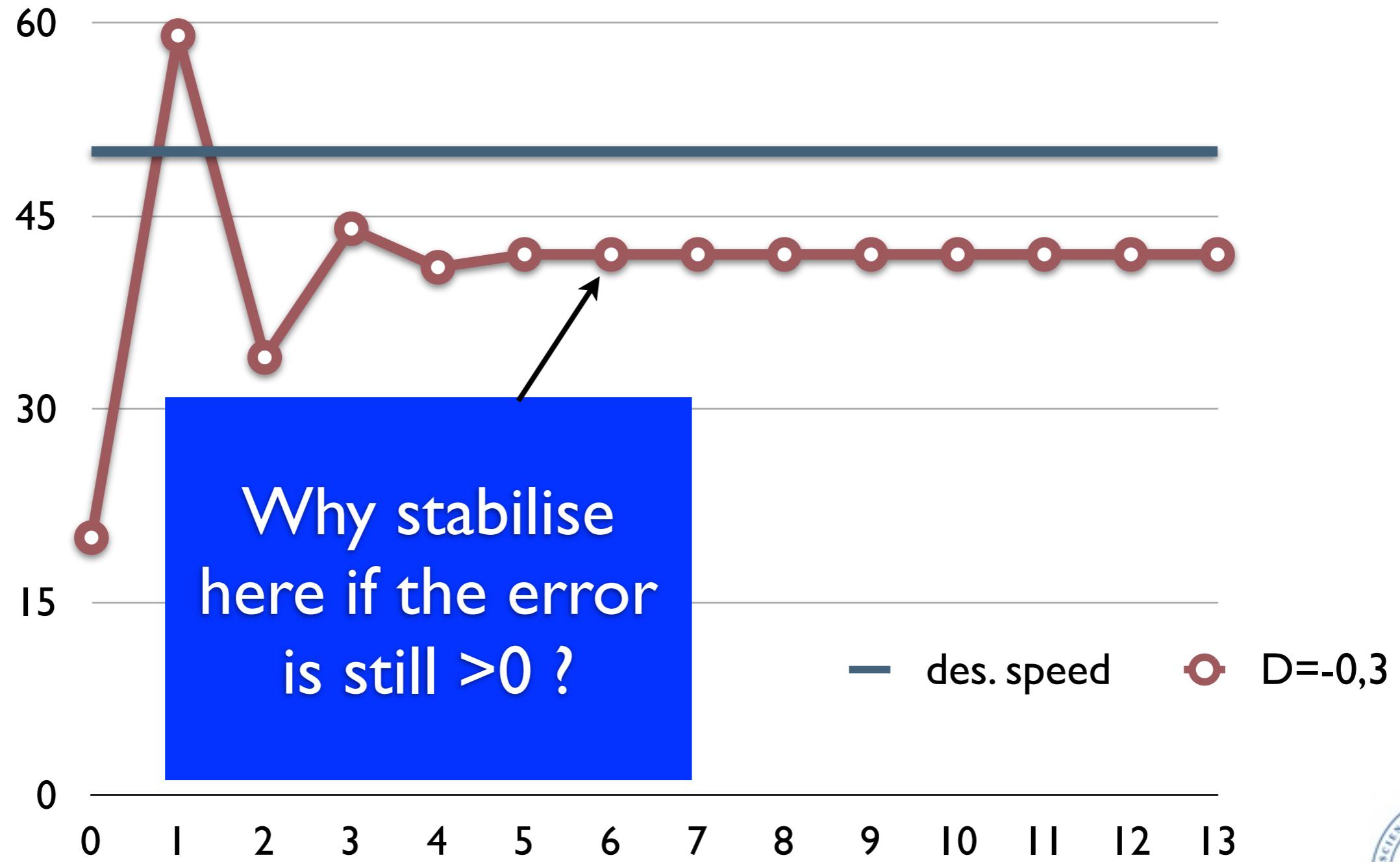
IP controller

- Adding the **differential term** has allowed to reduce oscillations
- Unfortunately, accuracy is still poor



Poor accuracy

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 3$



Poor accuracy

- We have seen that in **steady states**, the **DP controller** behaves like a **P controller** (for the same value of P)
- There is thus no reason that a **PD controller converges** with more **accuracy** than a **P controller**
- To obtain higher accuracy, we, should **take a larger P**, but then the system **diverges...**

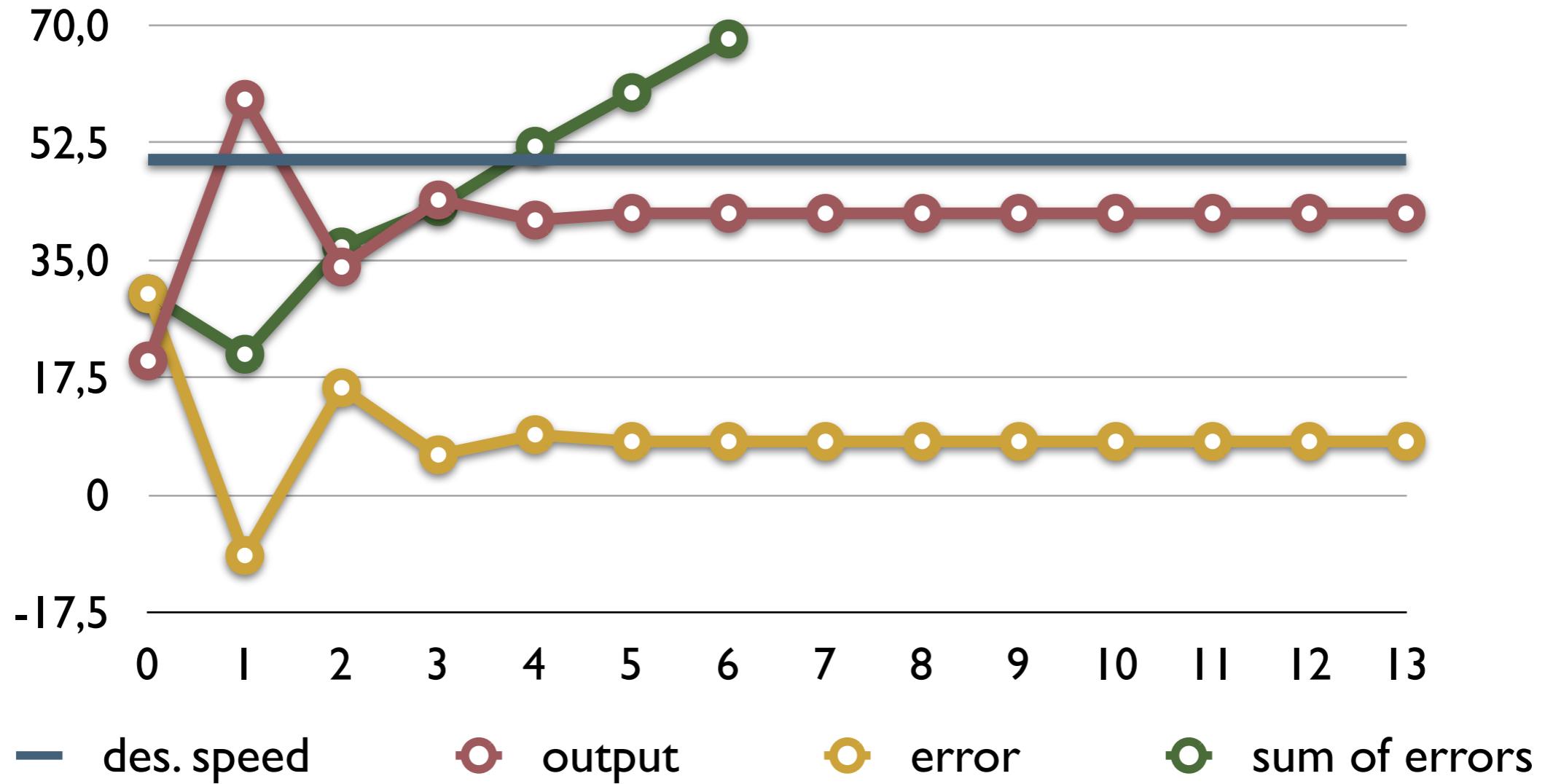


IP controller

- A **solution** consists in taking into account not only the punctual error, but also the **sum of all errors** since the initial point.
- This is an **Integral - Proportional (IP) controller**



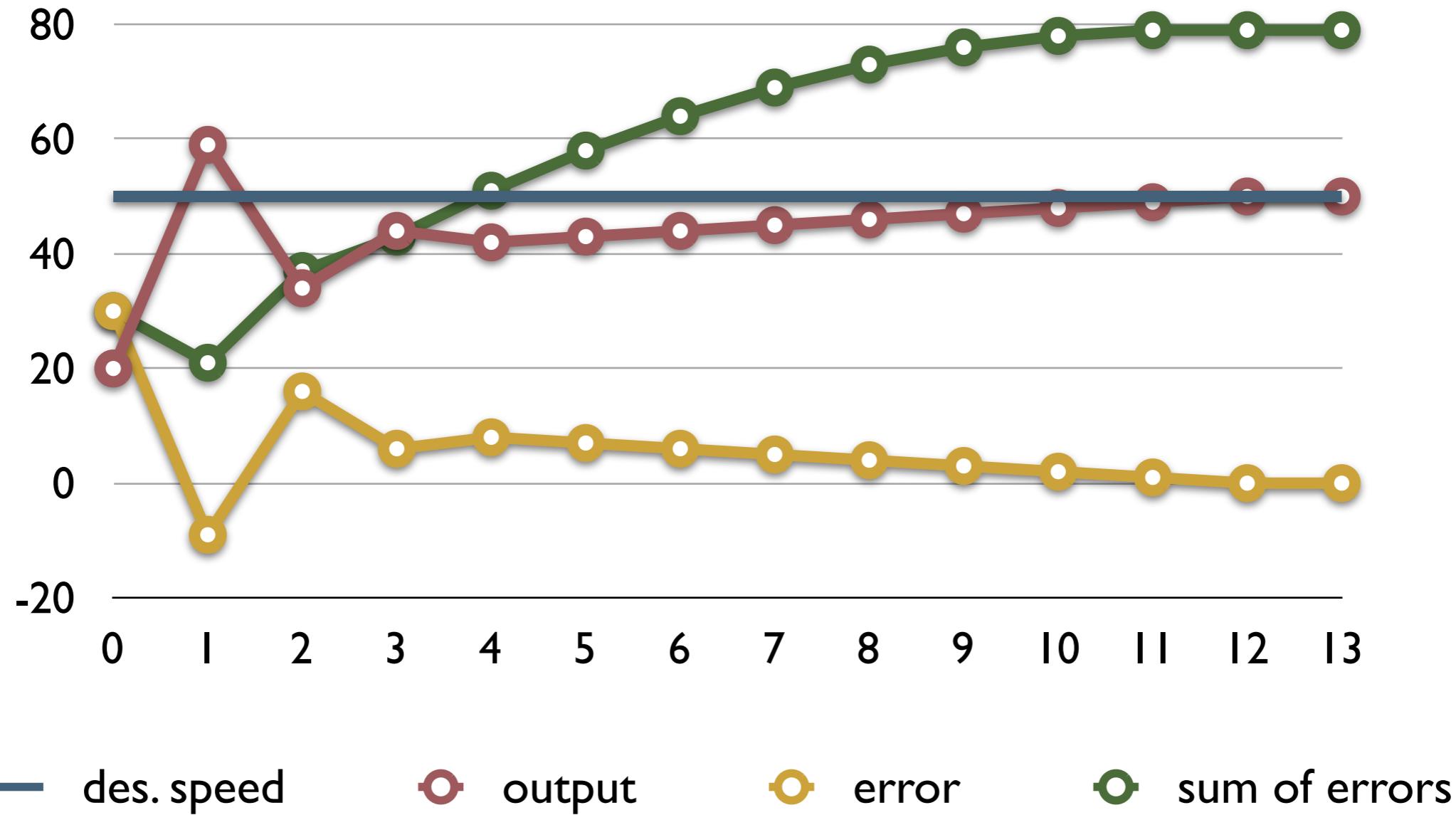
Convergence



In this example **speed** and **error** converge
but the **sum of errors** does not !



Convergence



If we manage to have the output **converge** to the reference, the **sum of errors** will converge too.



IP Controller

- The **control law** for IP controllers is of the form:
$$u_t = P \times e_t + I \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i$$
- It contains **two parameters**: P and I
 - When I=0, we have a P controller
 - The controller **lets the error converge to 0** to avoid **u_t diverging** (i.e. growing infinitely)



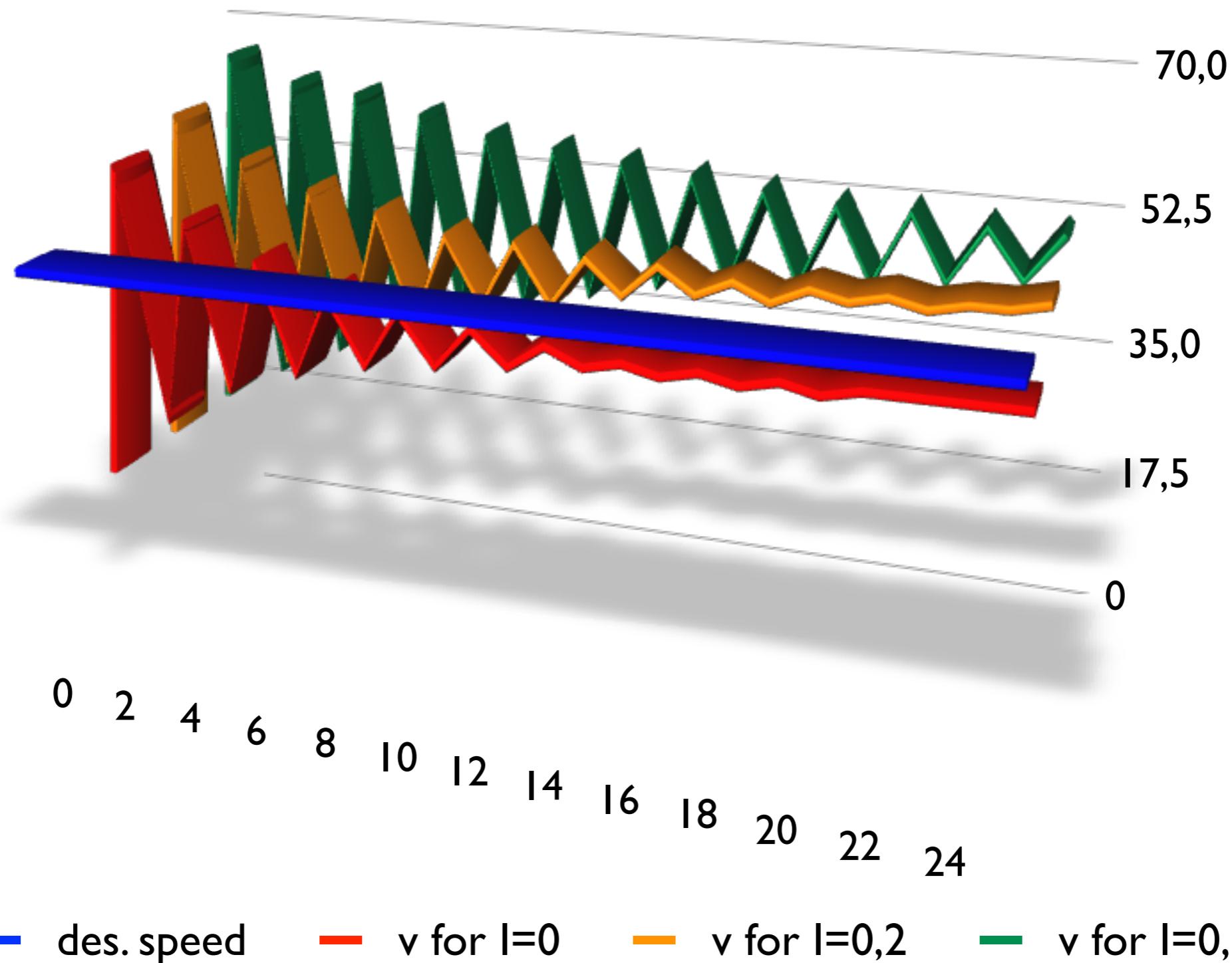
Example

- Again, the **closed loop controller**
- We use $P = 3$ since it gave **good results** with the P and PD controllers



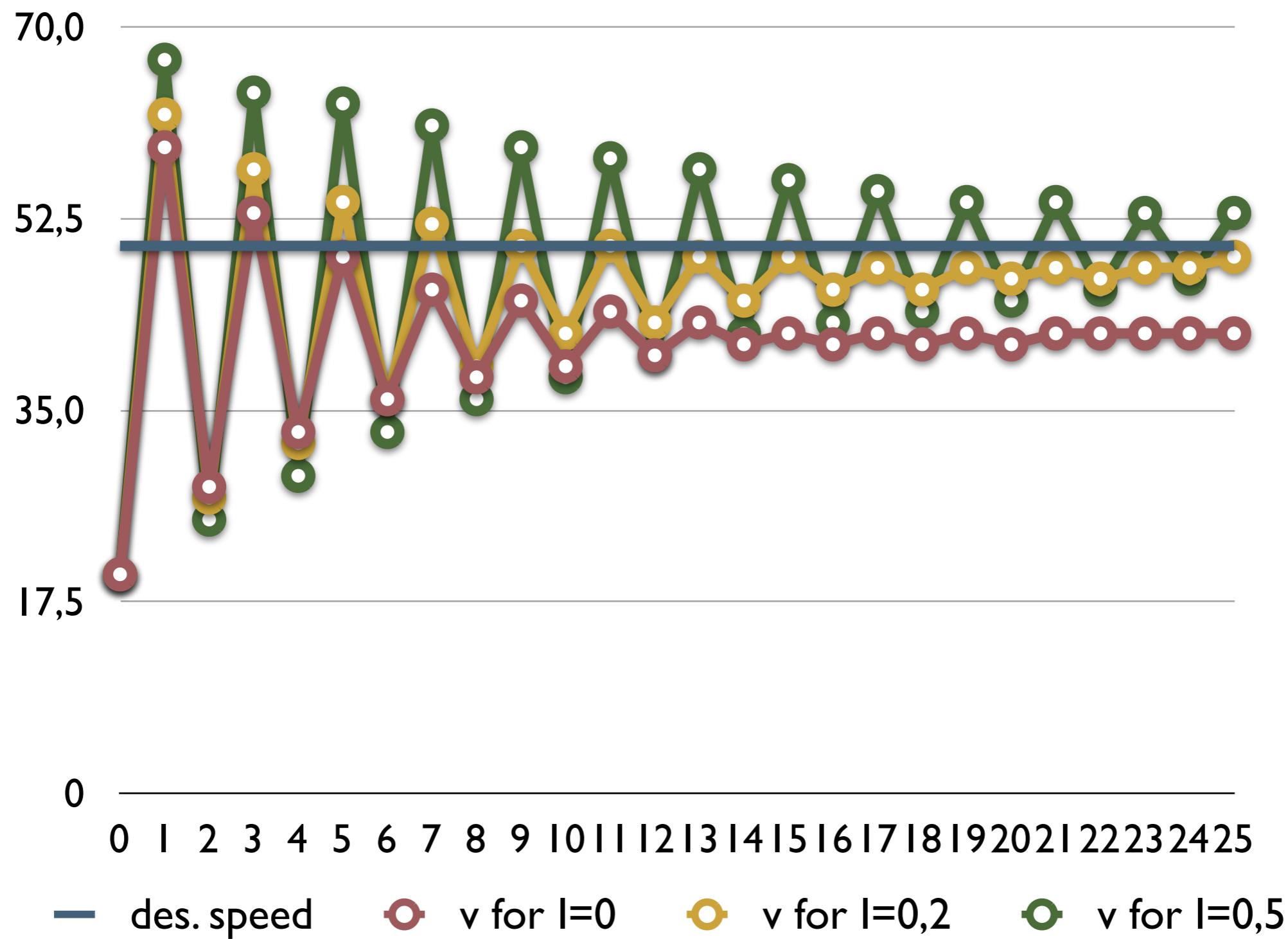
Examples

$$w = 0 \quad r = 50 \quad P = 3 \quad u_t = P \times e_t + l \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i$$



Examples

$$w = 0 \quad r = 50 \quad P = 3 \quad u_t = P \times e_t + l \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i$$



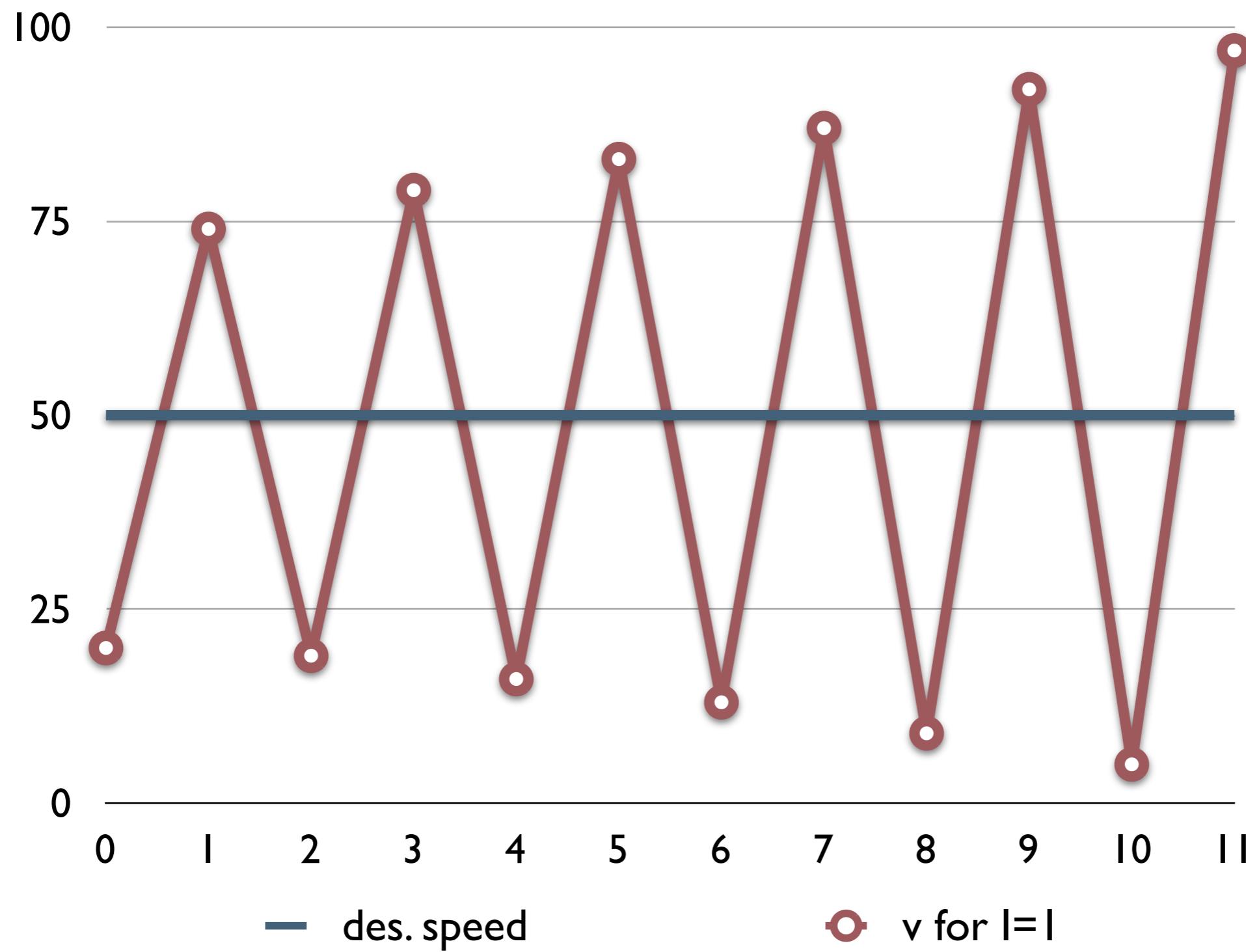
IP Controller

- With $I > 0$, we can see that the output converges to the reference value
- Unfortunately we have large oscillations
 - Taking a bigger I , exacerbates the phenomenon
 - For some values of I , the system diverges



Example - divergence

$$w = 0 \quad r = 50 \quad P = 3 \quad u_t = P \times e_t + l \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i$$



DP vs. IP

- To sum up:
 - The **differential term** allows to **avoid oscillations**, but does not increase accuracy
 - The **integral term** lets the controller **converge** to the reference value but exacerbates the oscillations that were already present in the P controller



PID Controller

- We can **combine DP** and **IP** controllers to (hopefully) combine their advantages
- This is a **Proportional - Integral - Derivative (PID)** controller



PID Controller

- The control law is:

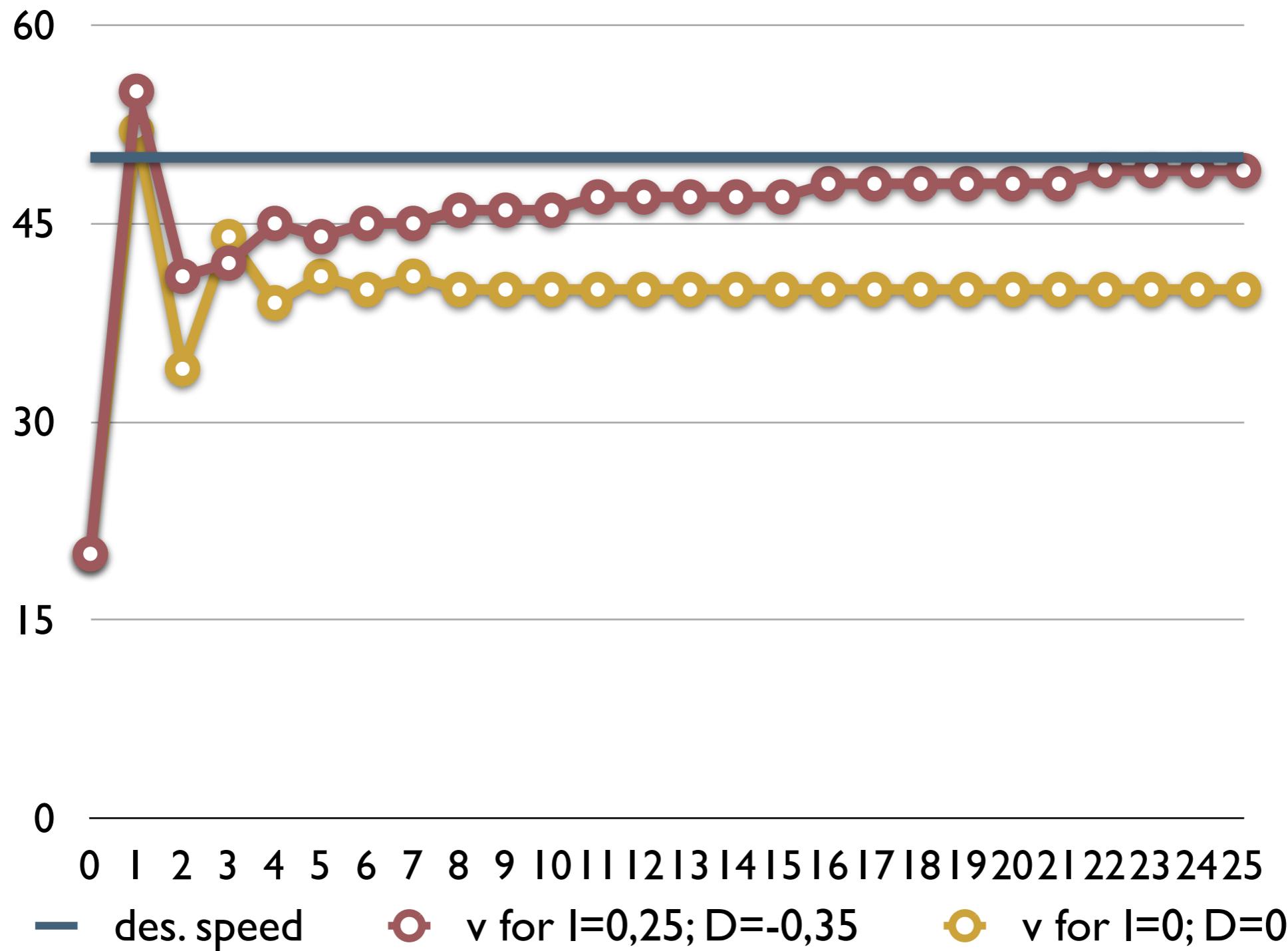
$$u_t = P \times e_t + I \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1})$$

- There are now **3 parameters**, that one should **tune** finely
 - If $D = 0$ et $I \neq 0$, we get an IP controller
 - If $D \neq 0$ et $I = 0$, we get a DP controller
 - If $D = I = 0$, we get a P controller



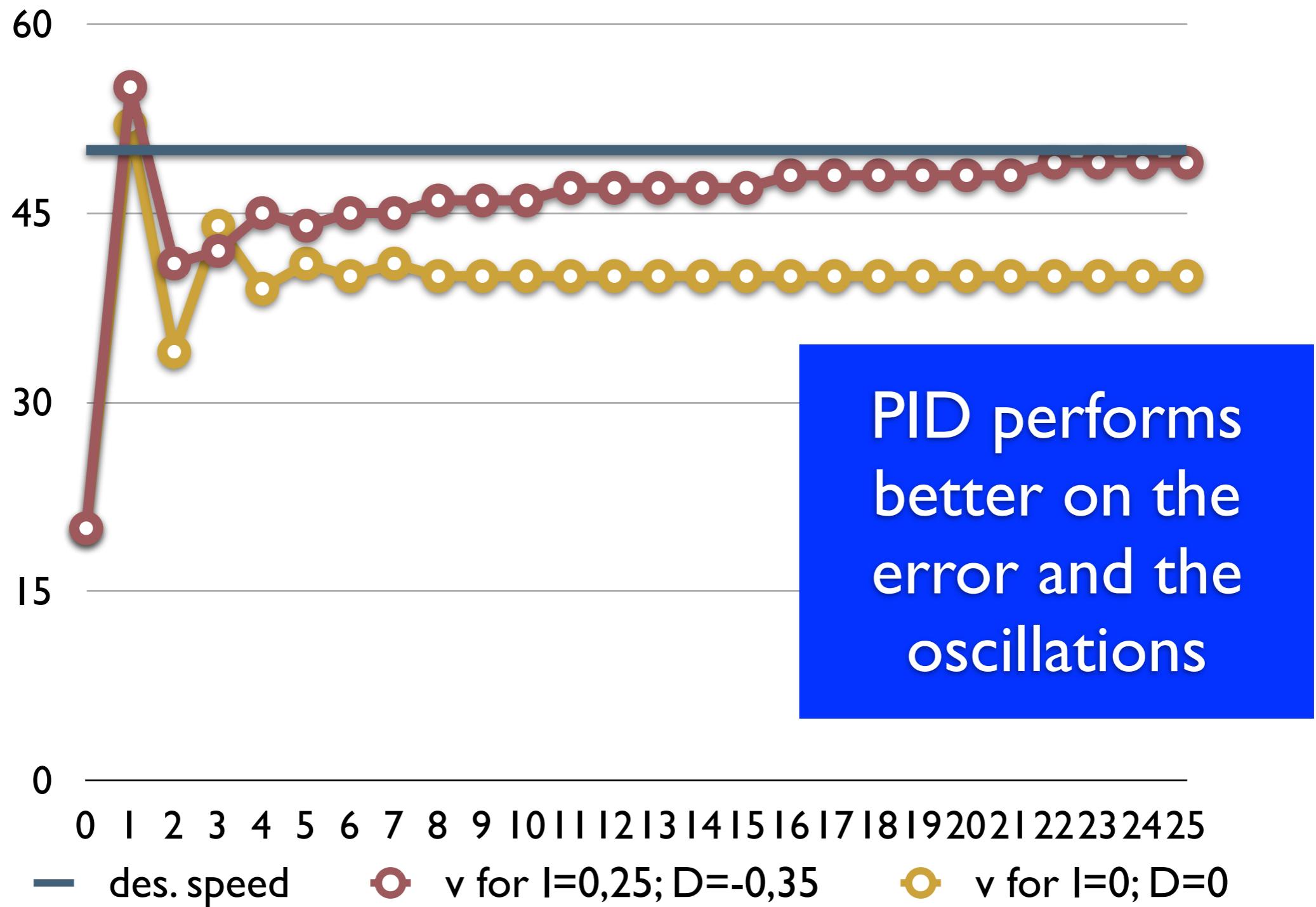
Example - PID vs P

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ PID



Example - PID vs P

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ PID

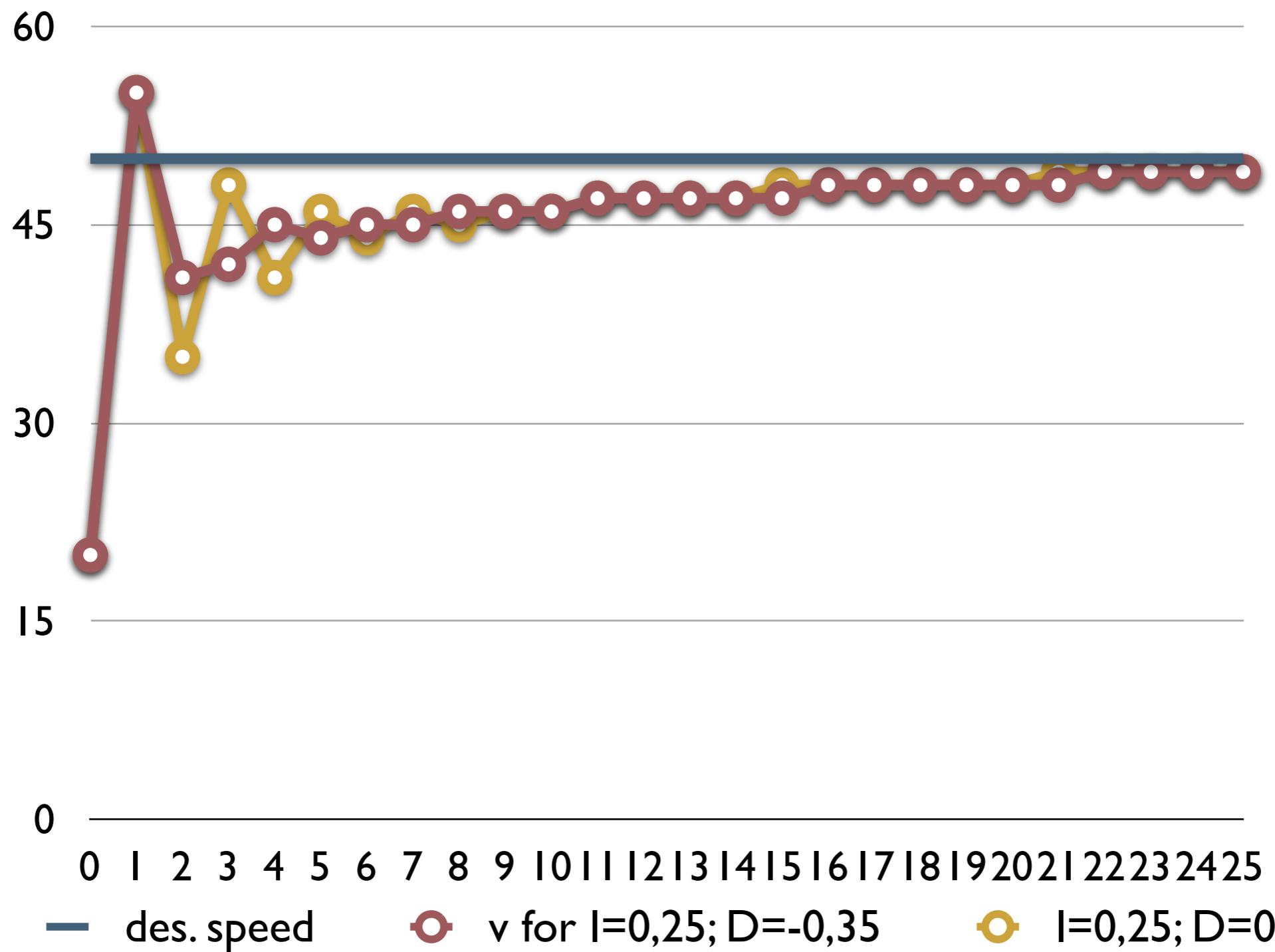


PID performs
better on the
error and the
oscillations

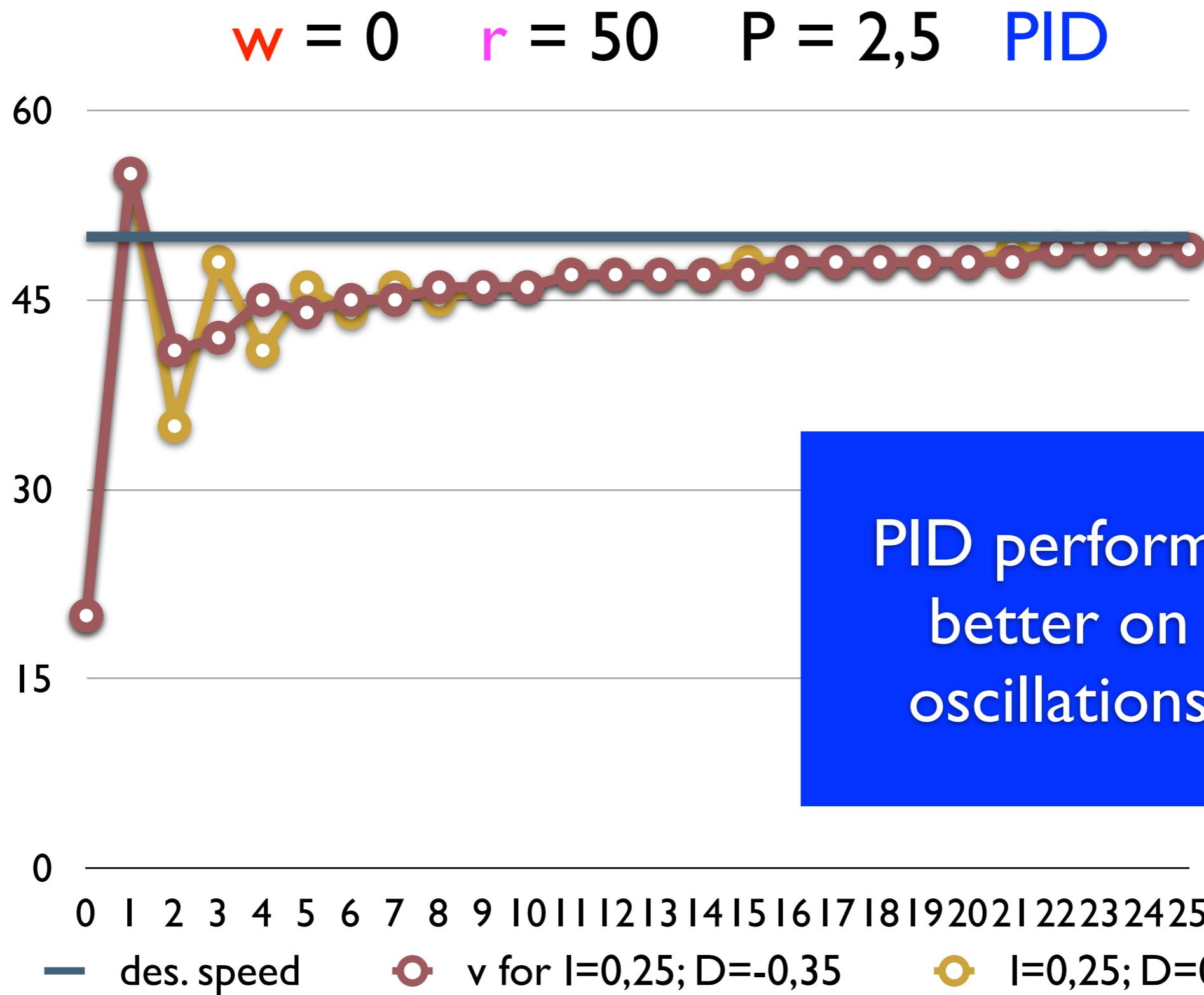


Examples PID vs IP

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ PID

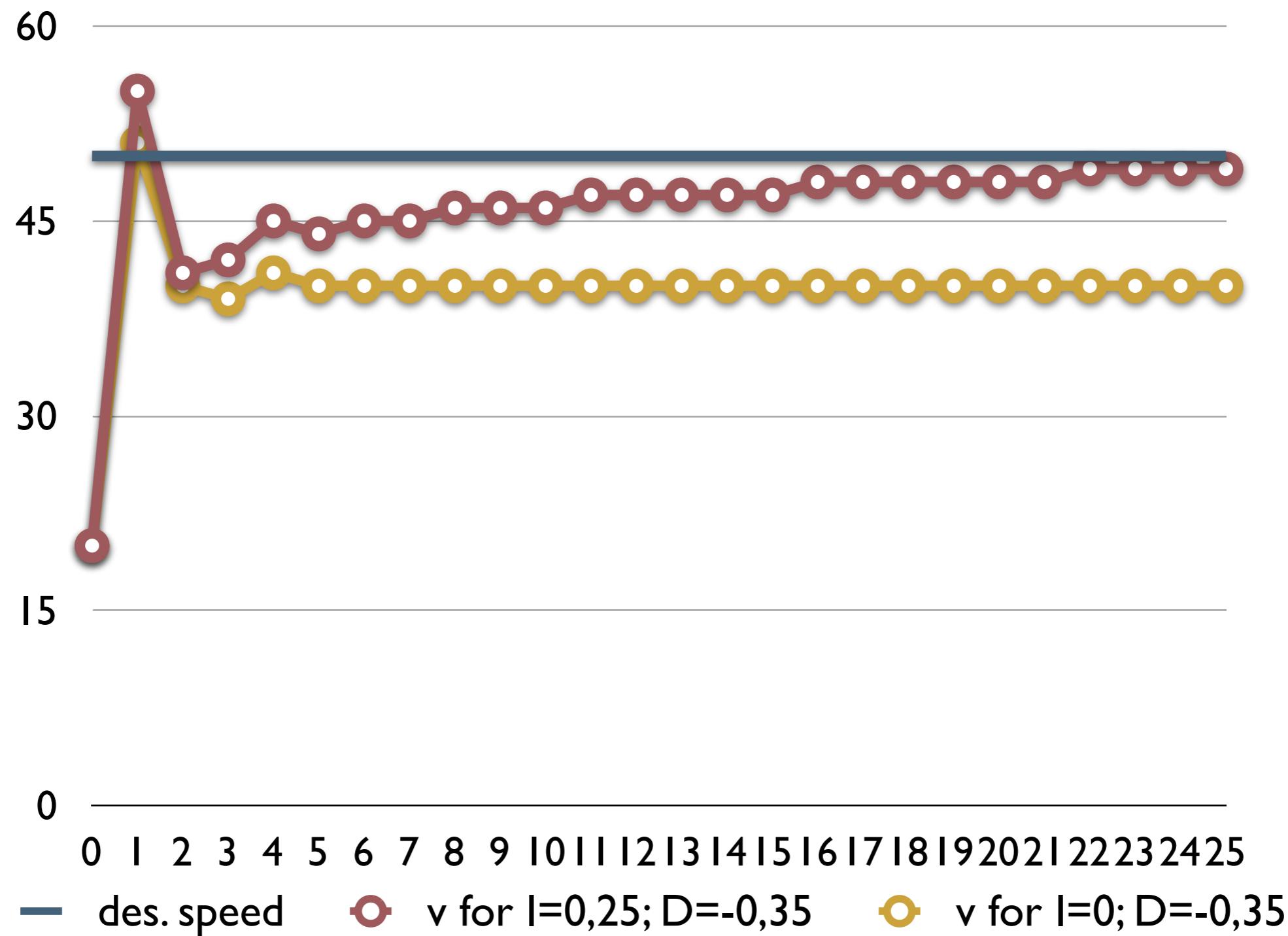


Examples PID vs IP



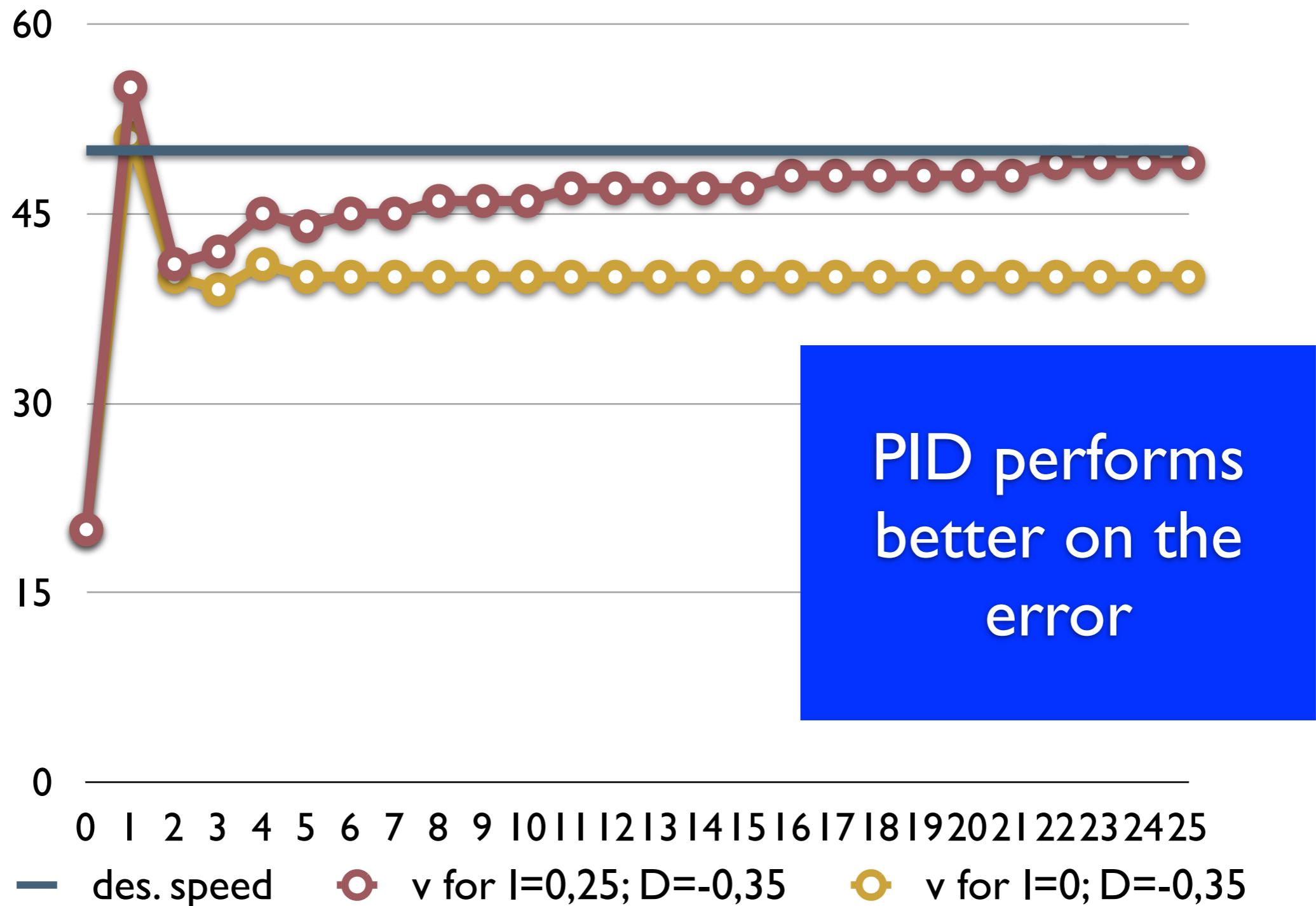
Example - PID vs DP

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ PID



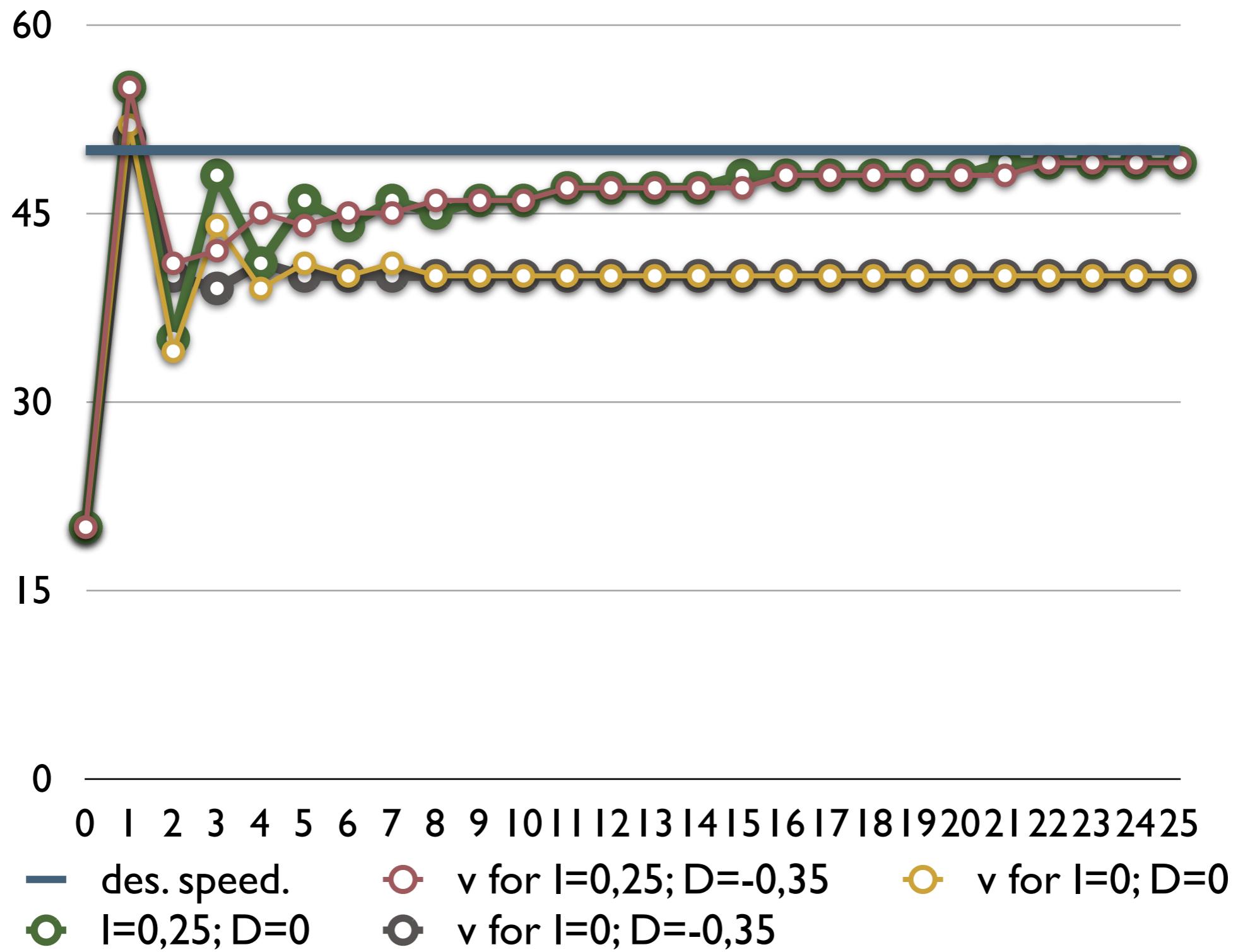
Example - PID vs DP

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ PID



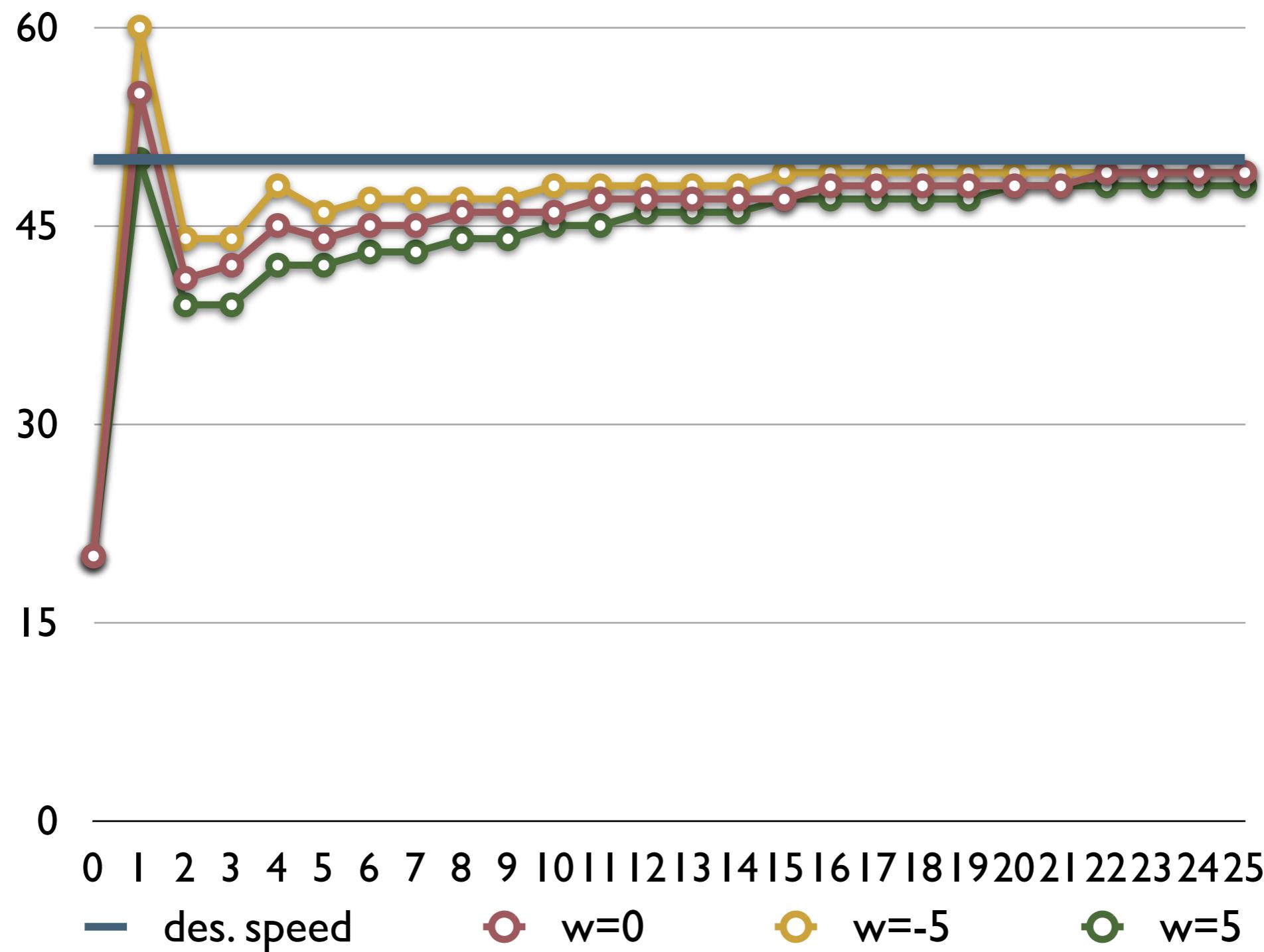
Examples

$w = 0$ $r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ PID

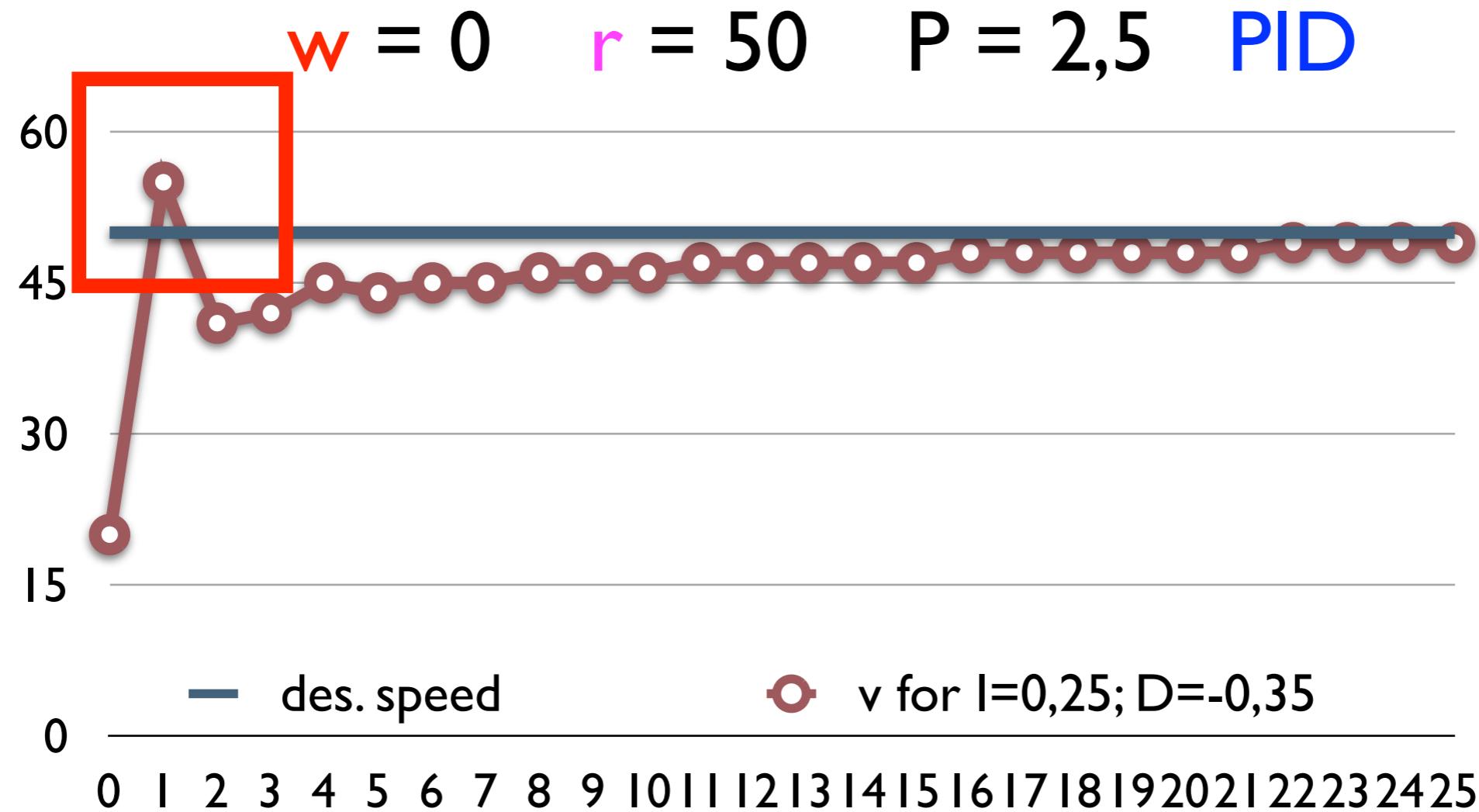


Disturbance rejection

$r = 50 \quad P = 2,5 \quad I = 0,25 \quad D = -0,35$



Remark



The output still has a **high peak value**
This is due in part to the **car model**.
In fact, acceleration will be **smoother** !



Remark - Saturation

- In practice, in a realistic model, one should take into account the saturation of some variables
- For example, u_t (gas pedal) should always be between 0 and 45 !
- In our model, we haven't remarked that the controller set u_t to 90 at time 1, hence the peak



Remark - Saturation

- We can thus **modify the controller**:

$$u_t = P \times e_t + I \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1})$$

as:

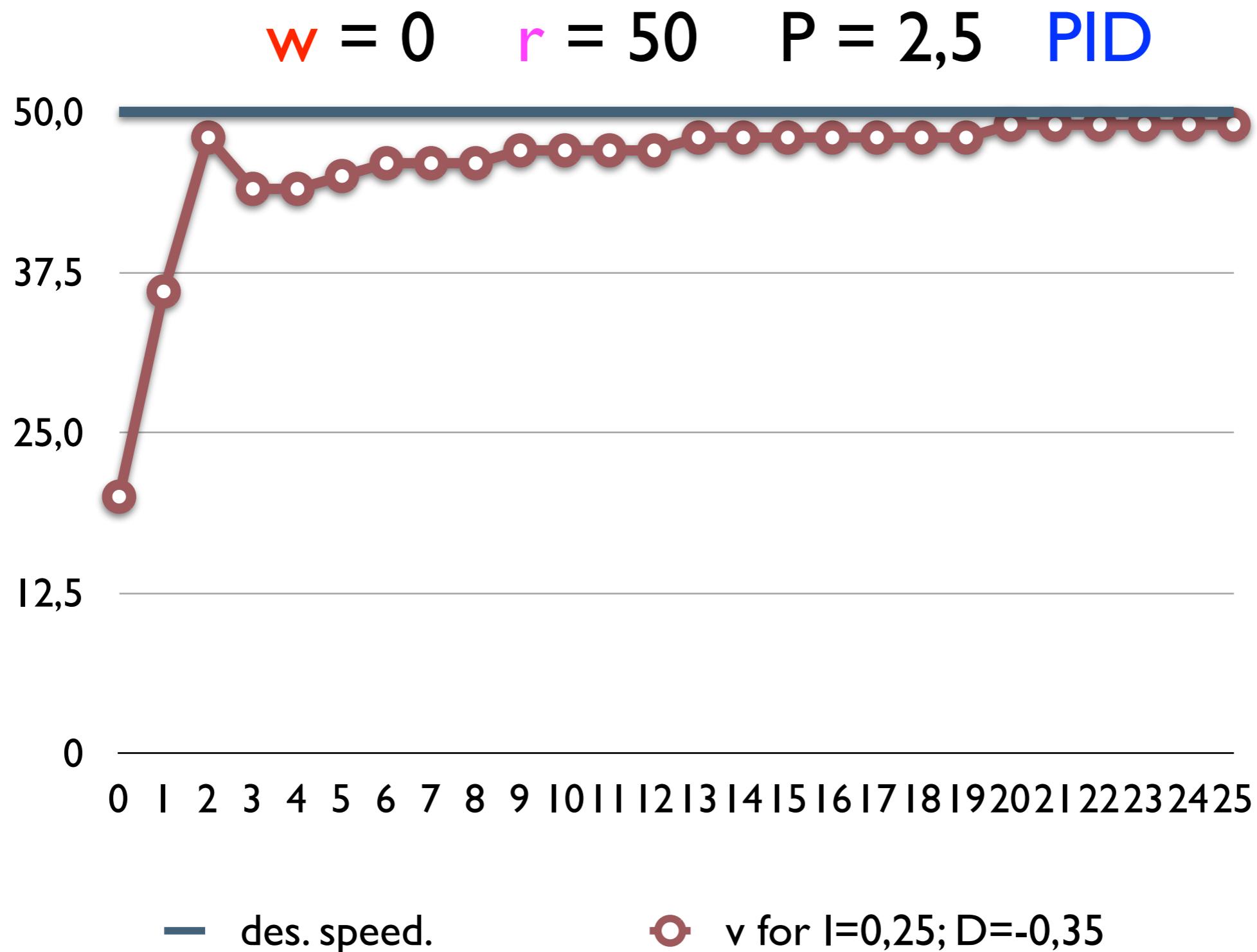
$$u_t = \min\{P \times e_t + I \times \sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} e_i + D \times (e_t - e_{t-1}), 45\}$$

to **avoid overshooting**

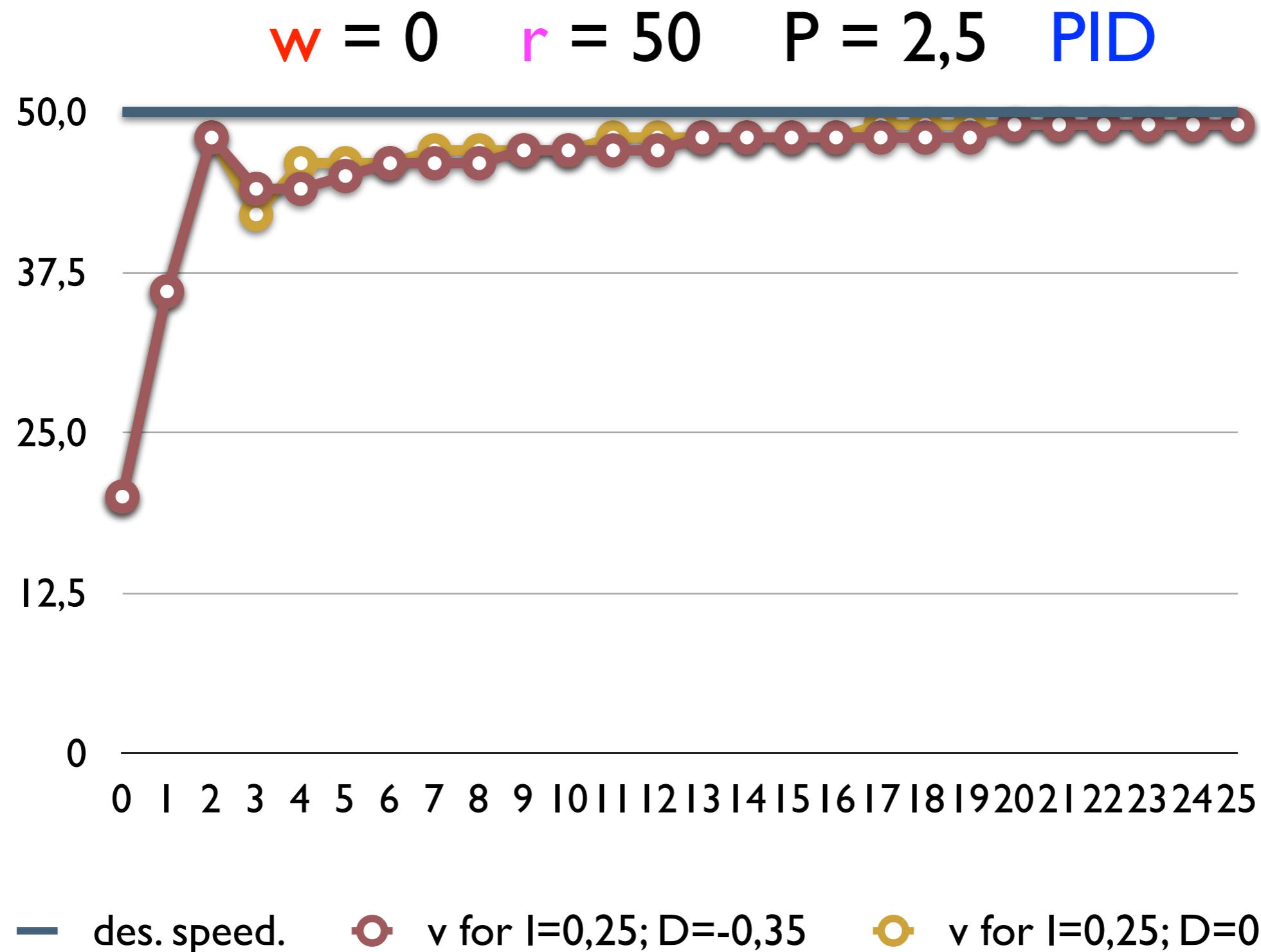
- The same can be done **symmetrically** (with a max) to avoid outputs <0



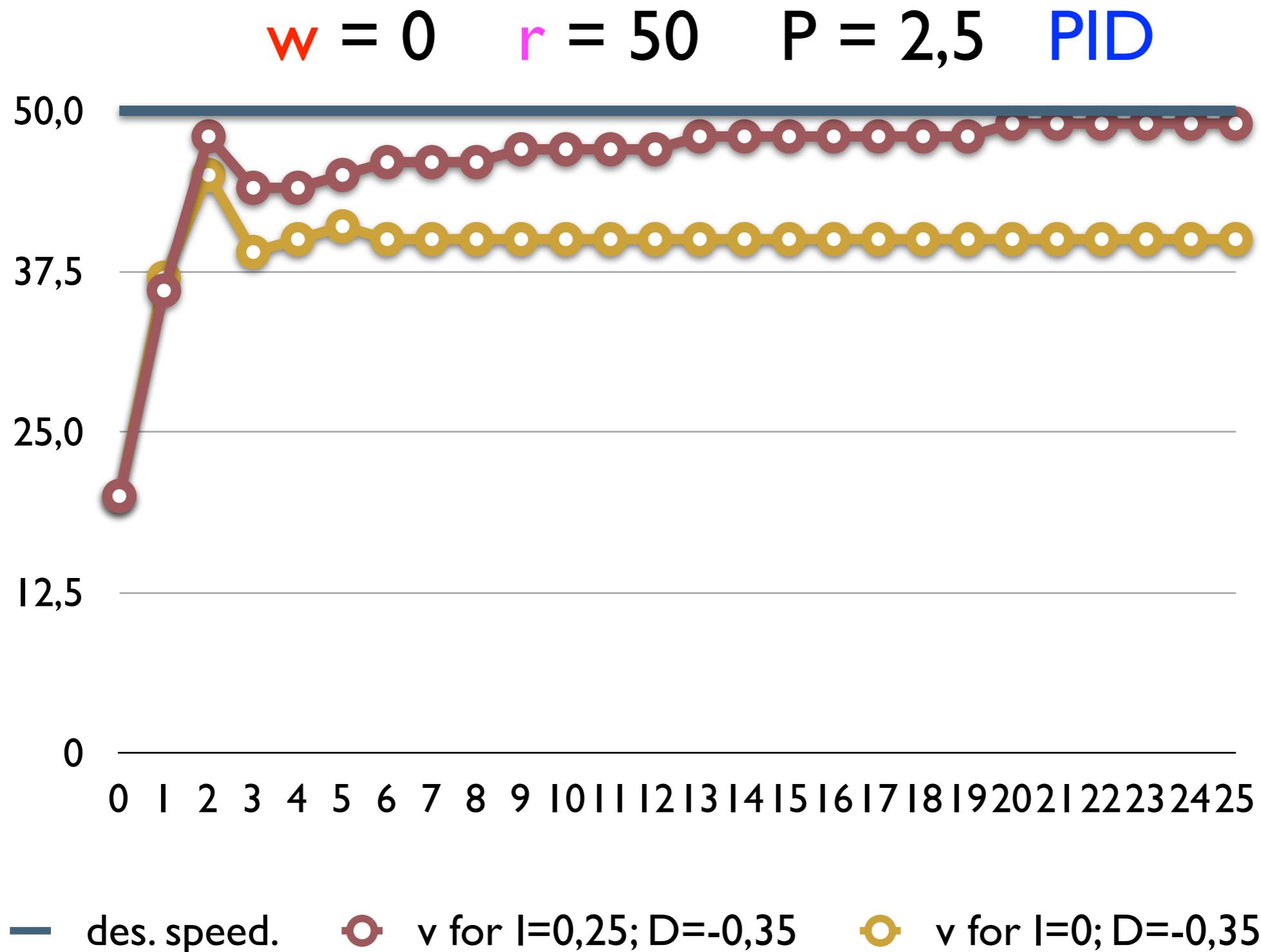
Example - saturation



Saturation - PID vs IP

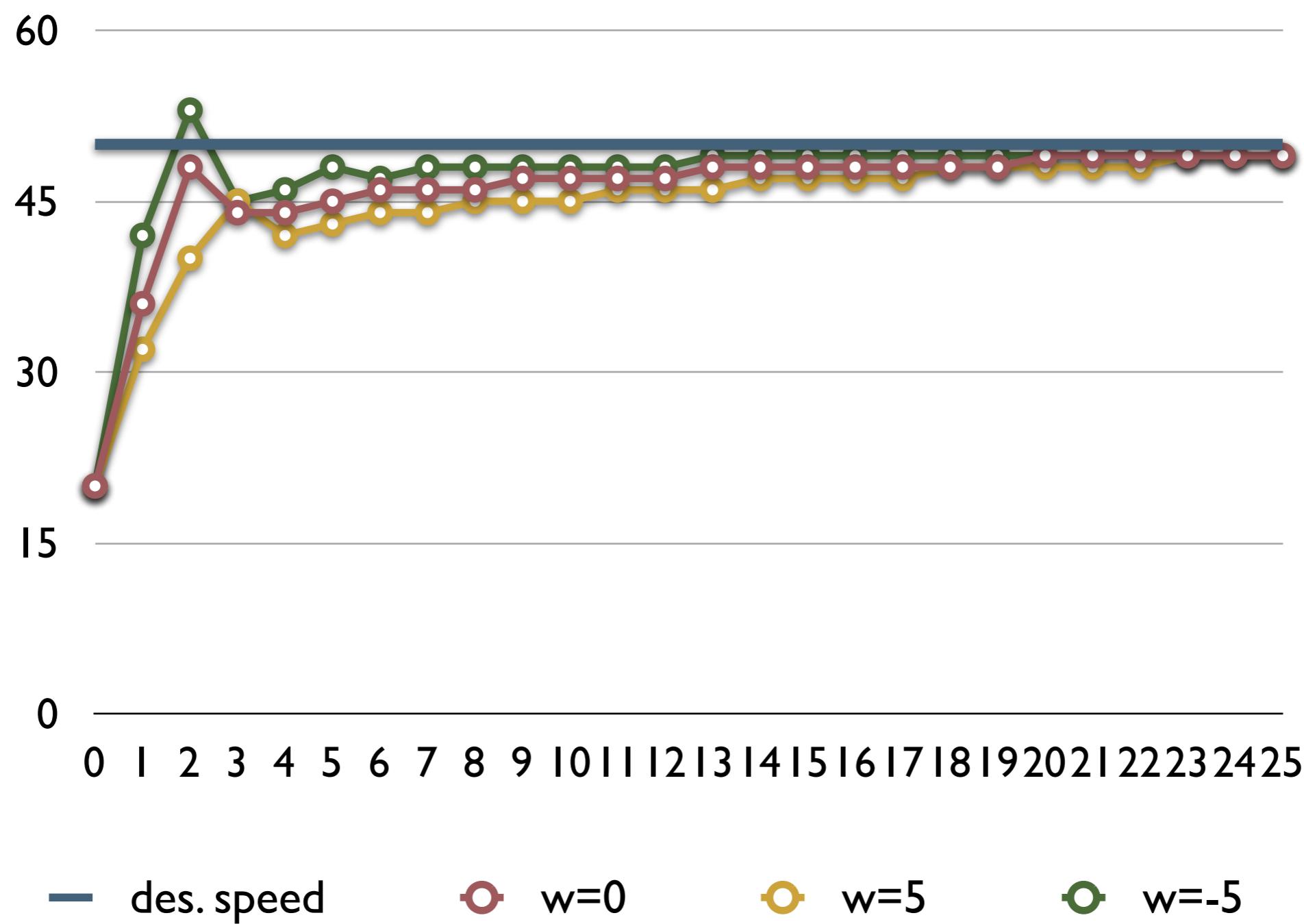


Saturation - PID vs DP



Saturation - disturbances

$r = 50$ $P = 2,5$ $I=0,25$ $D=-0,35$





Conclusion

- With PID controllers we have **achieved**:
 - **fast convergence** to the desired speed
 - **few and small oscillations**



Conclusion

- However, PID controllers are **extremely simple**:
 - **few operations** have to be computed at each step
 - trivial to **implement** !
 - Exist as ready-made IC !



Conclusion

- Those controllers are **sufficient** in many real- case **applications**
- The “**differential**” and “**integral**” terms exist as operators in SCADE library

