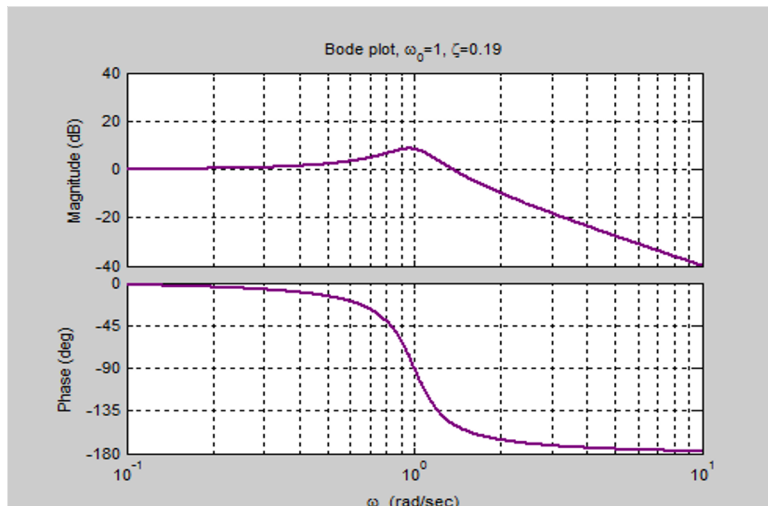
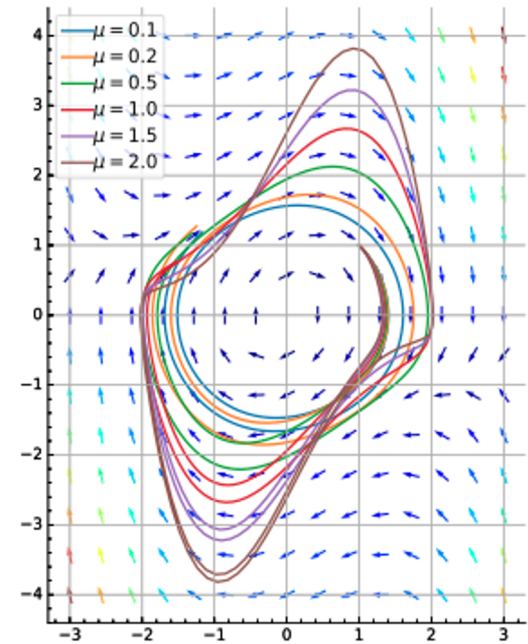
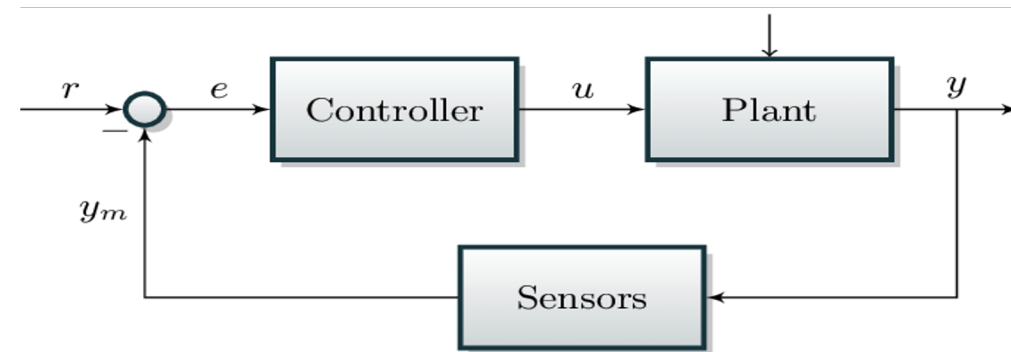


# Introduction to Control Systems

## Theory and applications



Enrico Regolin / Laura Nenzi

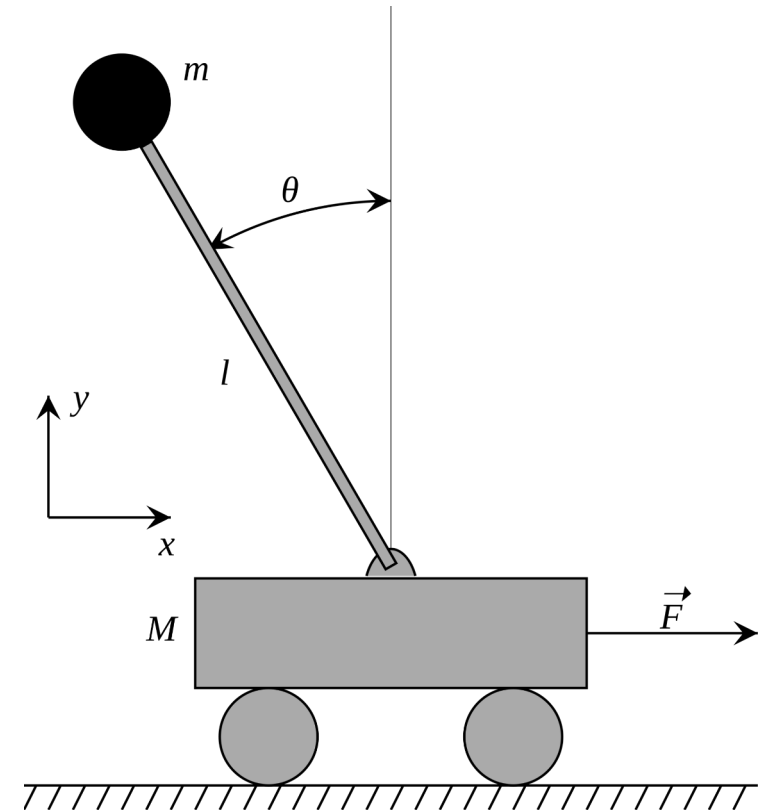


# Course Overview (1)

- Linear Control (time domain)
  - Introduction
  - Dynamical Linear Systems
  - Observability & Controllability
  - PID Controllers
  - Luenberger Observer
  
- Linear Control (frequency domain)
  - From State-space to Transfer Function
  - Classic Control Elements (Bode Diagram / Root Locus)
  - Ctrl Lab (days 1,2)

# Course Overview (2)

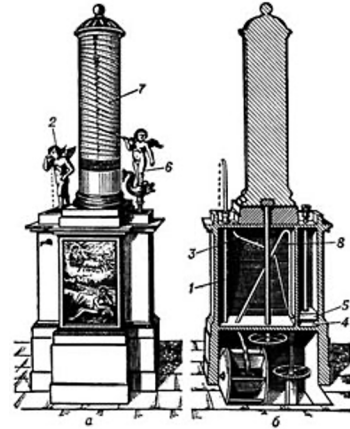
- Optimal Control and KF Estimation
  - Optimal Control (LQR)
  - Model Predictive Control
  - Kalman Filtering
- Control Laboratory
  - Matlab/Simulink
  - Kalman Filtering and Optimal Control
  - Cart-pole



# Control Systems History

- Water Clock

- Alexandria  
(Ctesibius, 3<sup>rd</sup> century BC)



- Centrifugal Governor

- Windmills  
(C. Huygeens, 17<sup>th</sup> century)

- Steam Engine  
(J. Watt, 1788)

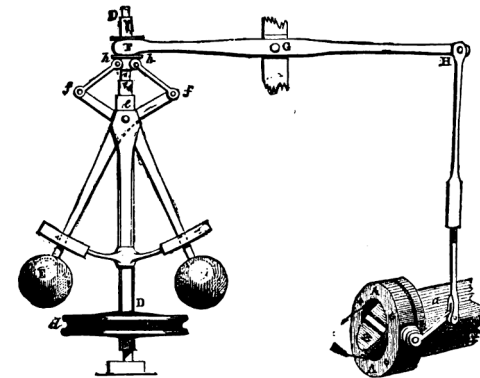
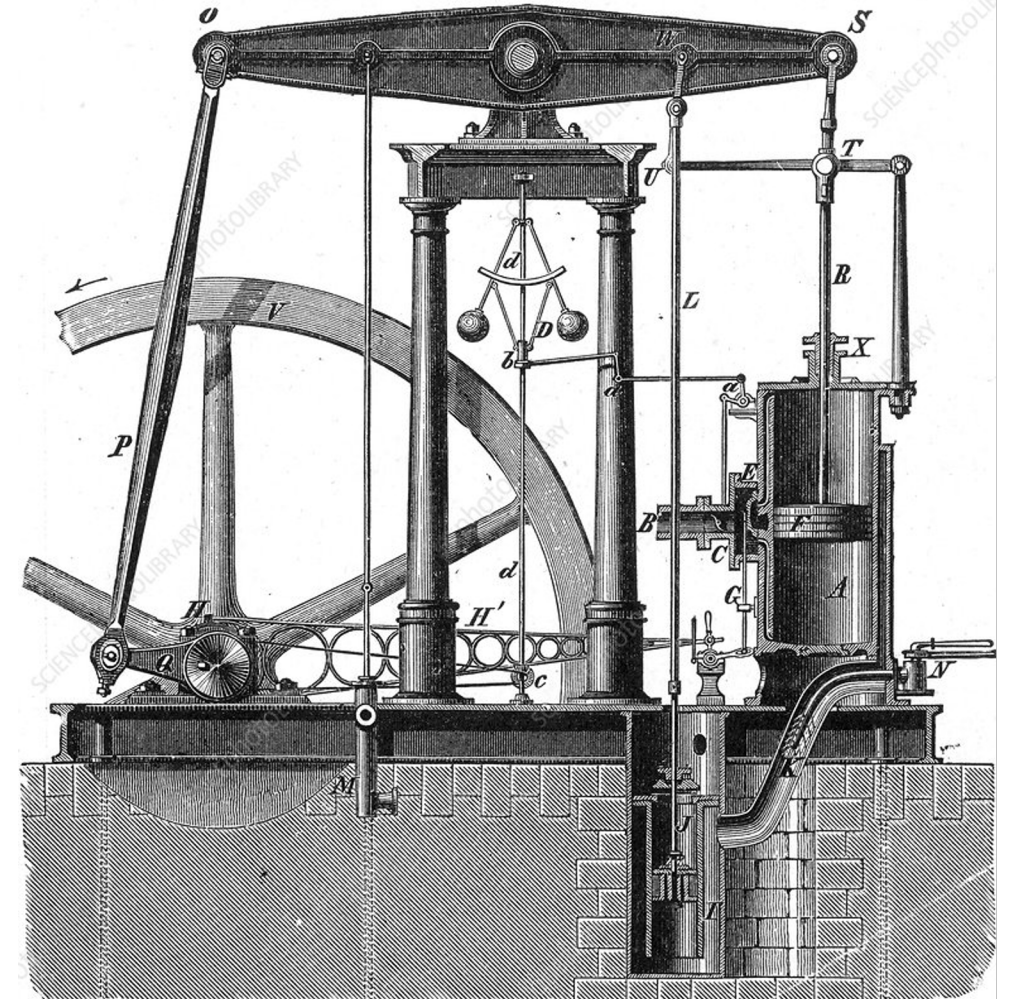


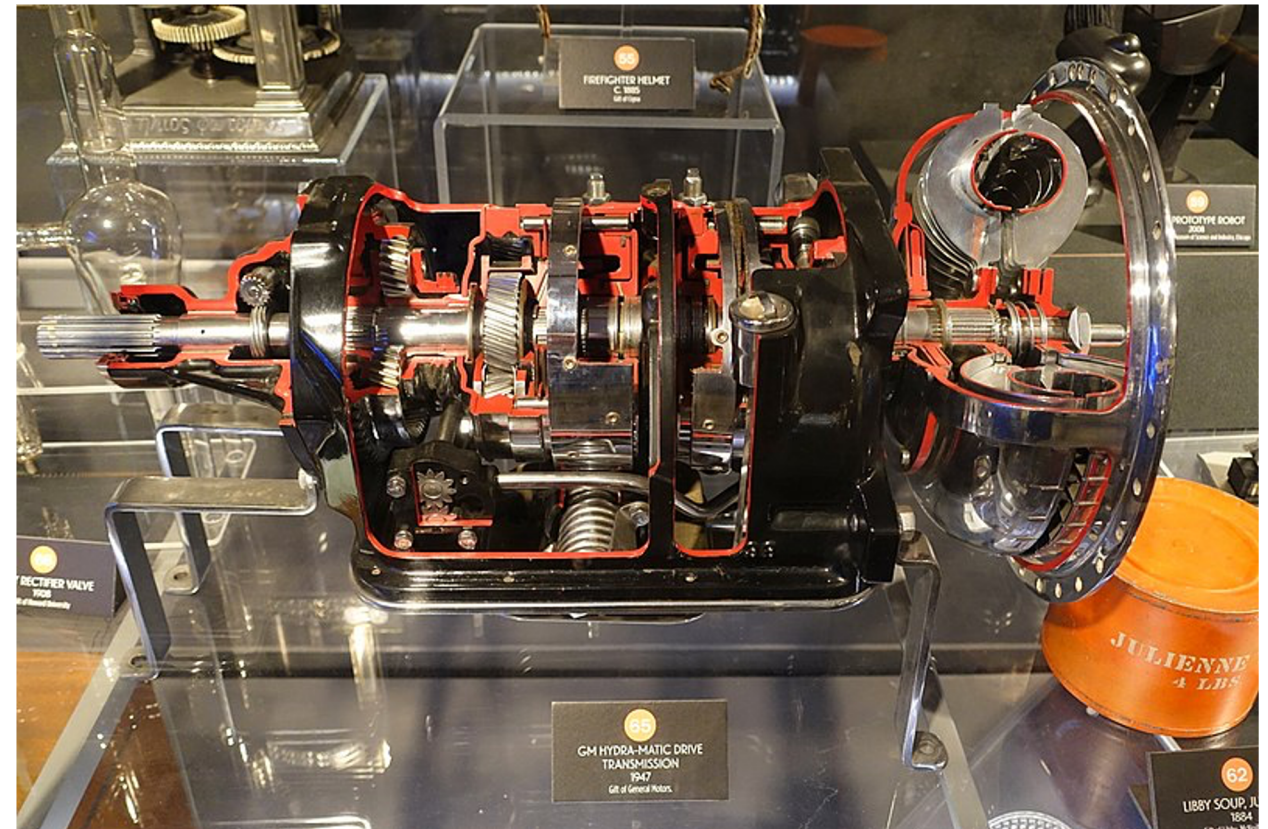
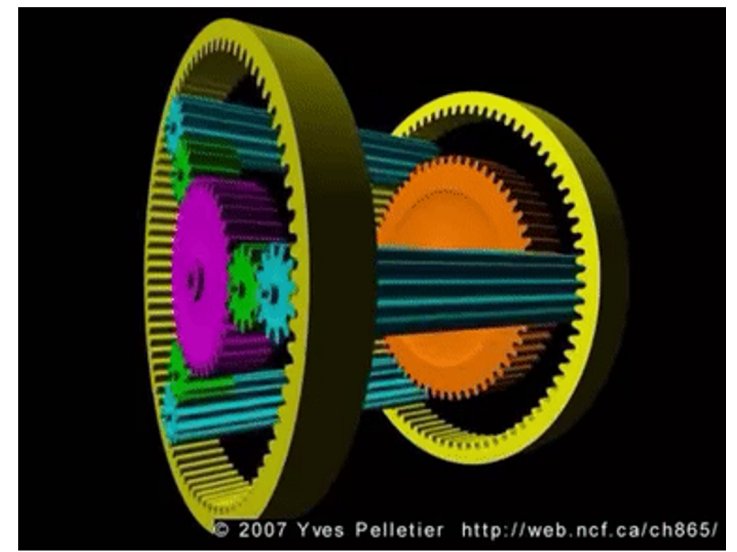
FIG. 4.—Governor and Throttle-Valve.





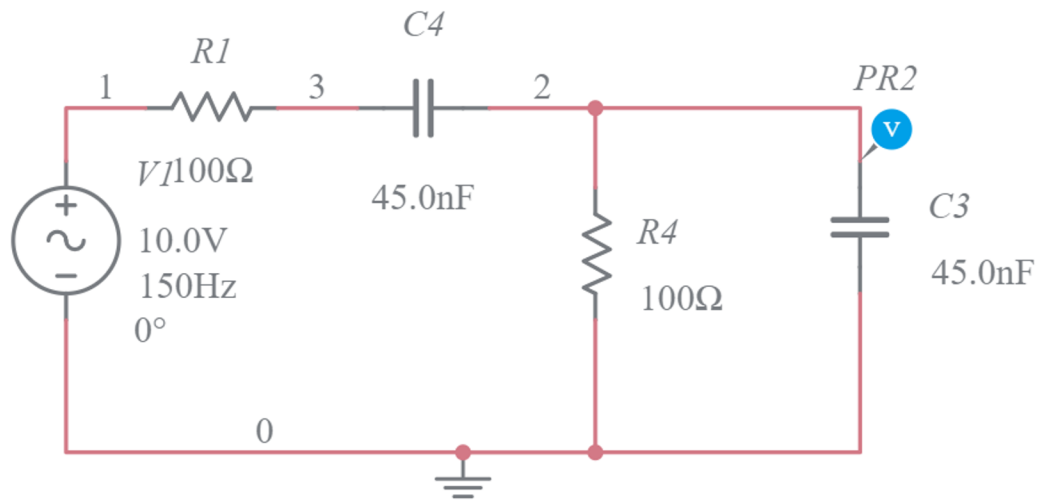
# Control Systems History

- First Automatic Transmission (Hydramatic, 1939)

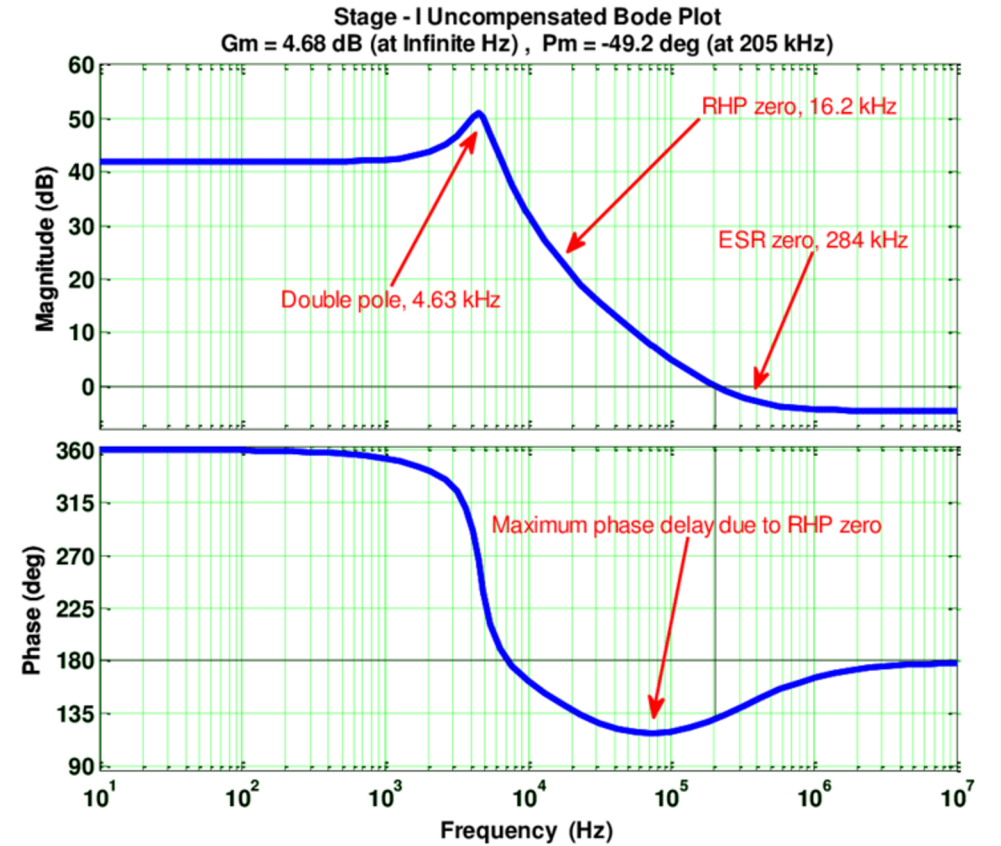


# Control Systems History

- Classical control theory formalized from circuits theory



## Tacoma Bridge Collapse



Linear Control (time domain)

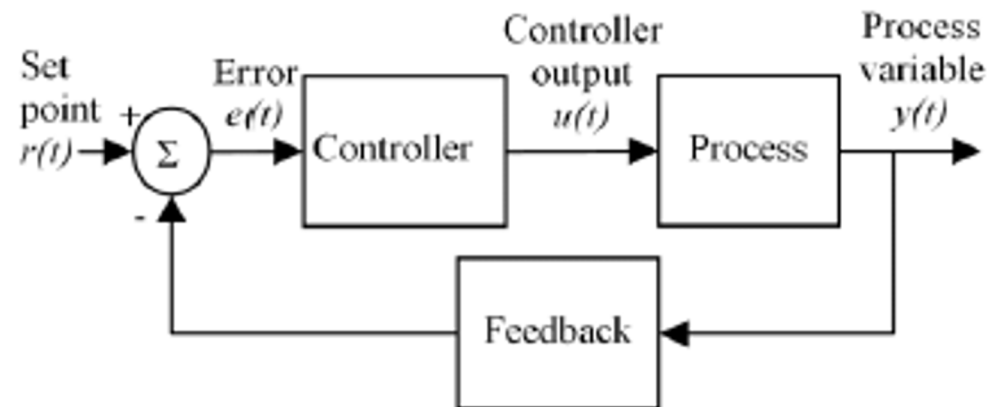
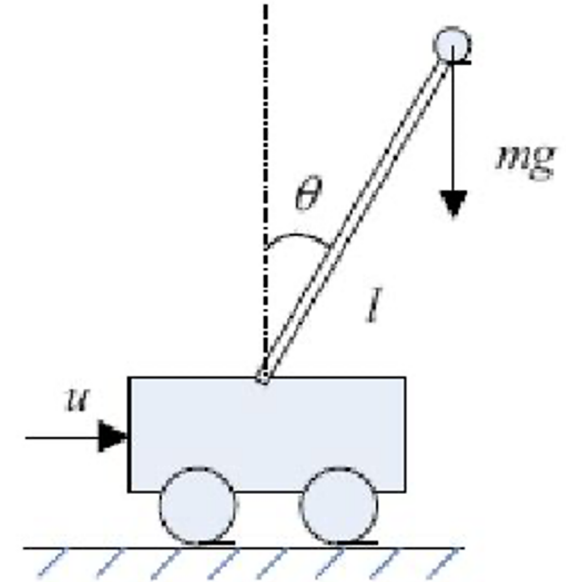
# Control Systems Fundamentals

## REQUIRED

- Dynamical System MODEL
- Control Input (non-autonomous systems)
- Reference Signal
- 

## CHALLENGES

- Missing/Noisy Information
- Physical limitations



# Dynamical Systems (1)

## Past history (state) influences future output

- **Continuous Time**

vs.

- **Discrete Time**

$$\dot{x} = f(x), \quad t \in [0, \infty)$$

$$x(k+1) = f(x(k)), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- **Autonomous**

vs.

- **Non-autonomous**

$$\dot{x} = f(x)$$

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u)$$

- **Linear**

vs.

- **Non-linear**

$$\dot{x}_1 = -2x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = -x_1x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = 0.5x_1 + x_2 + 0.4u$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = 0.5x_1^2 + \sin(x_2) + \frac{0.4}{u}$$

# Dynamical Systems (2)

- **SISO**

$$\dot{x} = Ax + b \cdot u$$

$$y = Cx (= 0.5x_1)$$

- **Time Invariant**

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u)$$

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

- **Deterministic**

$$\dot{x} = -x^2 - x + u$$

$$y = 0.5x$$

vs.

- **MIMO**

$$\dot{x} = Ax + B\mathbf{u}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = Cx$$

vs.

- **Time Variant**

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t), t)$$

$$\dot{x}(t) = A(t)x(t) + B(t)u(t)$$

vs.

- **Non-Deterministic (Stochastic, noisy, etc.)**

$$x(k+1) = -(2 + \nu)x(k)^2 - x(k) + u(k)$$

$$y(k) = 0.5x(k) + \eta$$

$$\nu \sim N(\mu, \sigma), \eta \sim U(0, 1)$$

# Dynamical Systems (3)

**.LTI systems --- State-Space representation**  $x(0) = x_0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

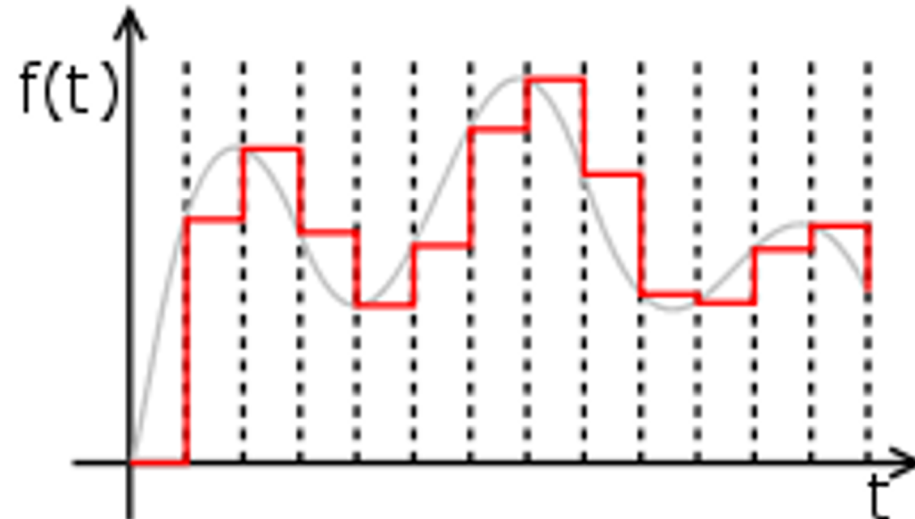
$$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$$

$$A_d = e^{A\Delta T}$$
$$B_d = A^{-1}(e^{A\Delta T} - 1)B$$



$$x(k+1) = A_d x(k) + B_d u(k)$$

$$y(k) = Cx(k) + Du(k)$$





# Dynamical Systems (3)

- LTI systems --- State-Space representation**  $x(0) = x_0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

$$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$$

$$A_d = e^{A\Delta T}$$

$$B_d = A^{-1}(e^{A\Delta T} - 1)B$$



$$x(k+1) = A_d x(k) + B_d u(k)$$

$$y(k) = Cx(k) + Du(k)$$

- Output response (continuous time)**

$$y(t) = \boxed{C e^{At} x_0} + \boxed{C \int_0^t e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d\tau} + Du(t)$$

Free Response  
(homogeneous  
solution)

Effect of input

- Output response (discrete time)**

$$y(k) = CA_d^k x_0 + C \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} A_d^{k-1-i} B_d u(i) + Du(k)$$

Stability condition (Hurwitz)

$$x(t) = e^{at}$$

$$a < 0 \qquad a > 0$$

$$real(eig(A)) < 0$$

$$x(k) = a^k$$

$$|a| < 1 \qquad |a| > 1$$

$$|eig(A_d)| < 1$$



# State-Space Realizations

## Similarity Transformations

- The choice of a state-space model for a given system is not unique.
- For example, let  $T$  be an invertible matrix, and consider a coordinate transformation  $x = T\tilde{x}$ , i.e.,  $\tilde{x} = T^{-1}x$ . This is called a [similarity transformation](#).
- The standard state-space model can be written as

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \\ y = Cx + Du. \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} T\dot{\tilde{x}} = AT\tilde{x} + Bu, \\ y = CT\tilde{x} + Du. \end{cases}$$

i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\tilde{x}} &= (T^{-1}AT)\tilde{x} + (T^{-1}B)u = \tilde{A}\tilde{x} + \tilde{B}u \\ y &= (CT)\tilde{x} + Du = \tilde{C}\tilde{x} + \tilde{D}u. \end{aligned}$$

- You can check that the time response is exactly the same for the two models  $(A, B, C, D)$  and  $(\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}, \tilde{C}, \tilde{D})$ !

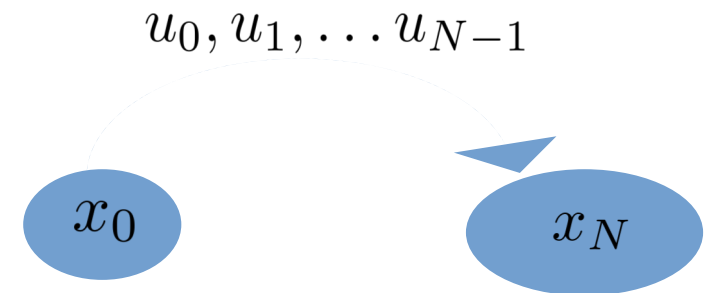
# LTI Systems Properties

Discrete case

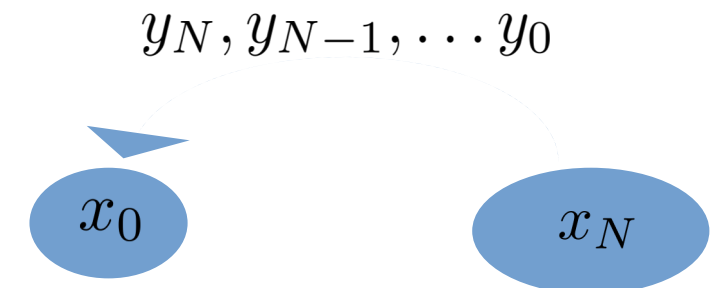
$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$$

$$y(k) = Cx(k)$$

Reaching a state



“Observing” the initial state



# LTI Systems Properties

Conditions for all LTI systems:

• Controllability  $\iff \text{rank}(\mathcal{C}) = n$

$$\mathcal{C} = [B, AB, A^2B, \dots, A^{n-1}B]$$

• Observability  $\iff \text{rank}(\mathcal{O}) = n$

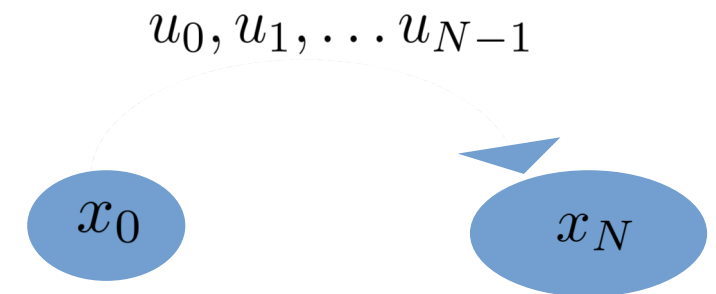
$$\mathcal{O} = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ CA \\ CA^2 \\ \dots \\ CA^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Discrete case

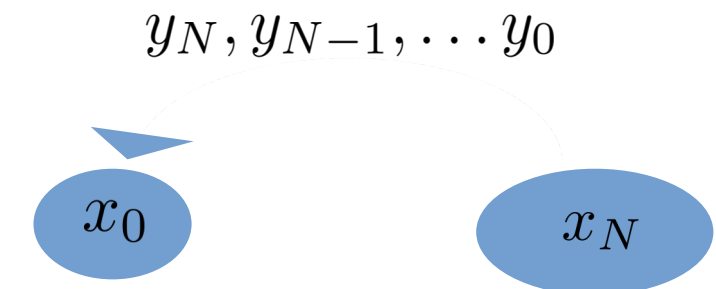
$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$$

$$y(k) = Cx(k)$$

Reaching a state



“Observing” the initial state



# LTI Systems Properties

- Pair (A,B) is “Controllable”  $\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(\mathcal{C}) = n$
- Pair (A,C) is “Observable”  $\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(\mathcal{O}) = n$
- LTI System  $\mathcal{S} : \{A, B, C\}$  is a “**minimal state-space realization**” if it is both observable and controllable.

- Example:

$$\mathcal{S}_0 : \{A_0, B, C\}, \quad \mathcal{S}_1 : \{A_1, B, C\}$$

$$B = [0 \quad 0 \quad 1]^T \quad C = [1 \quad 0 \quad 0]$$

$$A_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathcal{O}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{rank}(\mathcal{C}_0) = 1 \quad \text{rank}(\mathcal{O}_0) = 2$$

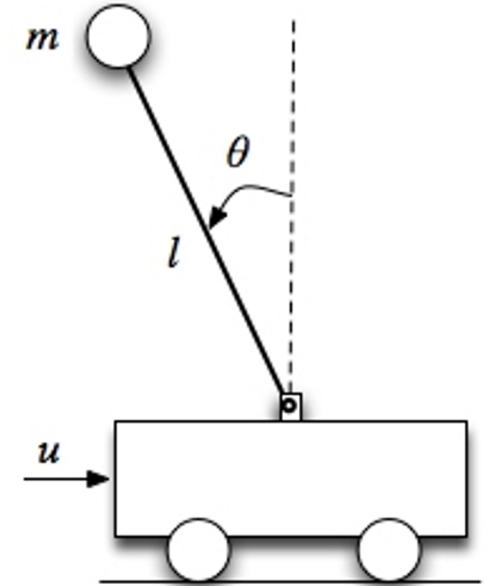
$$\mathcal{C}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathcal{O}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{rank}(\mathcal{C}_1) = 3 \quad \text{rank}(\mathcal{O}_1) = 3$$

# non-LTI Systems (example)

Is the inverted pendulum (cartpole) controllable?

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{p} &= \frac{u + m l \dot{\theta}^2 \sin \theta - m g \cos \theta \sin \theta}{M + m \sin^2 \theta} \\ \ddot{\theta} &= \frac{g \sin \theta - \cos \theta \ddot{p}}{l} \end{cases}$$

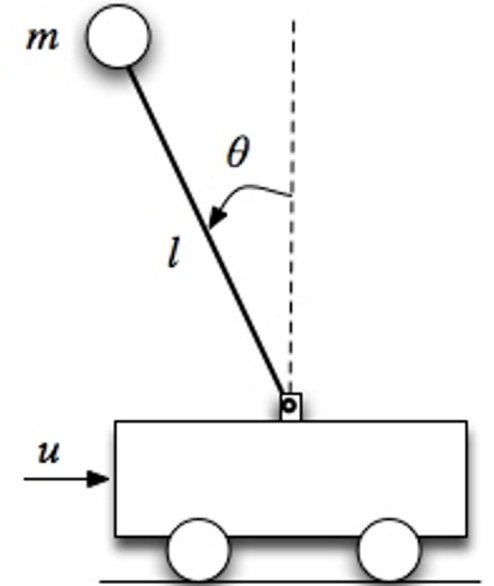


In non-linear systems Controllability and Observability Matrices represent LOCAL properties.

# non-LTI Systems (example)

Is the inverted pendulum (cartpole) controllable?

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{p} &= \frac{u + m l \dot{\theta}^2 \sin \theta - m g \cos \theta \sin \theta}{M + m \sin^2 \theta} \\ \ddot{\theta} &= \frac{g \sin \theta - \cos \theta \ddot{p}}{l} \end{cases}$$



In non-linear systems Controllability and Observability Matrices represent LOCAL properties.

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u), \quad \text{eq. point } x_0, u_0$$

$$\dot{x} = \underline{A}x + \underline{B}u$$

$$\underline{A} = \left. \frac{\partial f(x, u)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_0, u=u_0}$$

$$\underline{B} = \left. \frac{\partial f(x, u)}{\partial u} \right|_{x=x_0, u=u_0}$$

$$x = [p, \dot{p}, \theta, \dot{\theta}]^T$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} = \left[ 0, \frac{1}{(M + m(1 - \cos^2(\theta)))}, 0, \frac{-\cos(\theta)}{l(M + m(1 - \cos^2(\theta)))} \right]^T$$

# non-LTI Systems (example)

Linearization

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u), \quad \text{eq.point } x_0, u_0$$

$$\dot{x} = \underline{A}x + \underline{B}u$$

$$\underline{A} = \left. \frac{\partial f(x, u)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_0, u=u_0}$$

$$\underline{B} = \left. \frac{\partial f(x, u)}{\partial u} \right|_{x=x_0, u=u_0}$$

$$(\dot{x} = 0, \theta_0 = 0, \dot{\theta}_0 = 0, u_0 = 0)$$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -gm/M & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/M \\ 0 \\ -1/(Ml) \end{bmatrix}$$

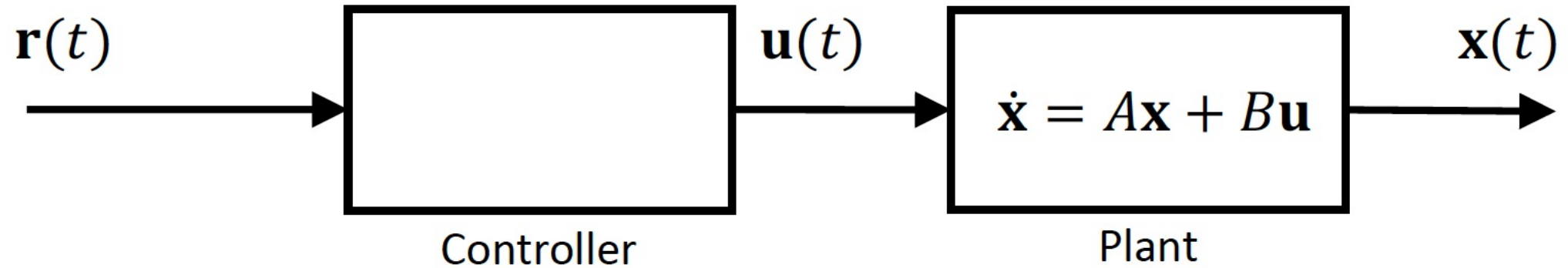
$$\alpha = \frac{(m + M)g}{Ml}$$

$$M = 1, m = 0.1, g = 9.81, l = 0.5$$

$$\mathcal{C} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 & -43 \\ -2 & 0 & -43 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{rank}(\mathcal{C}) = 4$$

# Reference Tracking



Given a reference trajectory  $r(t)$ , design  $u(t)$  such that  $x(t)$  closely follows  $r(t)$

Control objectives:

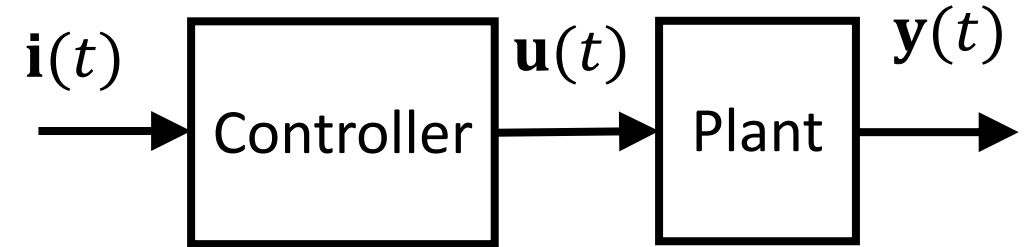
- Reject disturbances (if there is some perturbation in state, making it get back to initial state)
- Follow reference trajectories (if we want the system to have a certain  $\mathbf{x}_{ref}$  )
- Make system follow some other “desired behavior”



# Open-loop vs. Closed-loop control

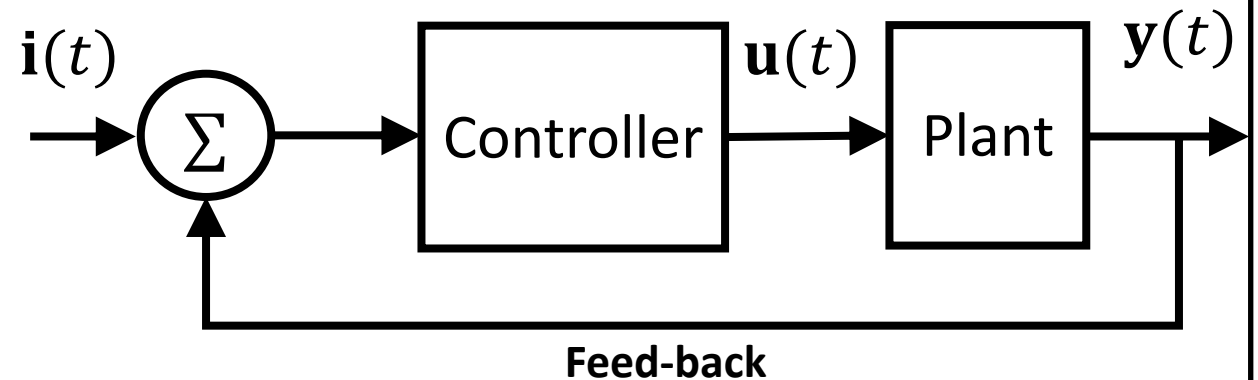
## Open-loop or feed-forward control

- ▶ Control action does not depend on plant output
- ▶ Cheaper, no sensors required.
- ▶ Quality of control generally poor without human intervention

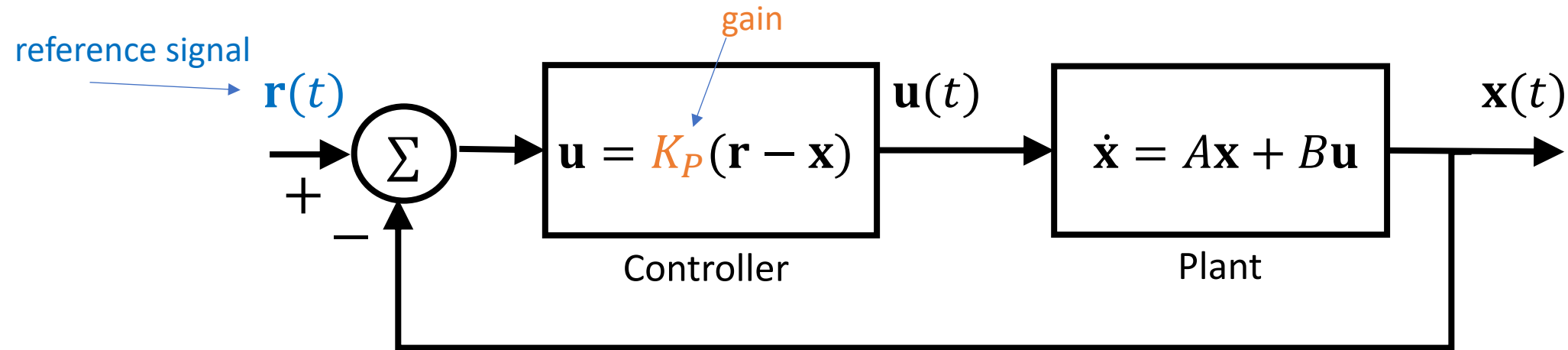


## Feed-back control

- ▶ Controller adjusts controllable inputs in response to observed outputs
- ▶ Can respond better to variations in disturbances
- ▶ Performance depends on how well outputs can be sensed, and how quickly controller can track changes in output

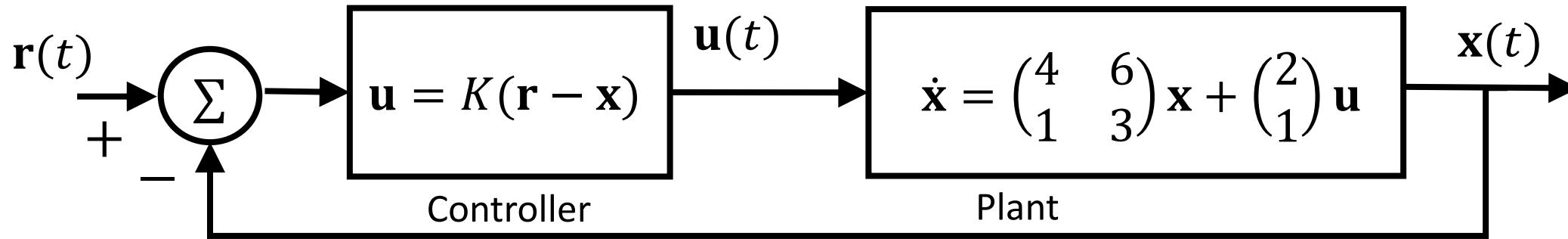


# Proportional Controller



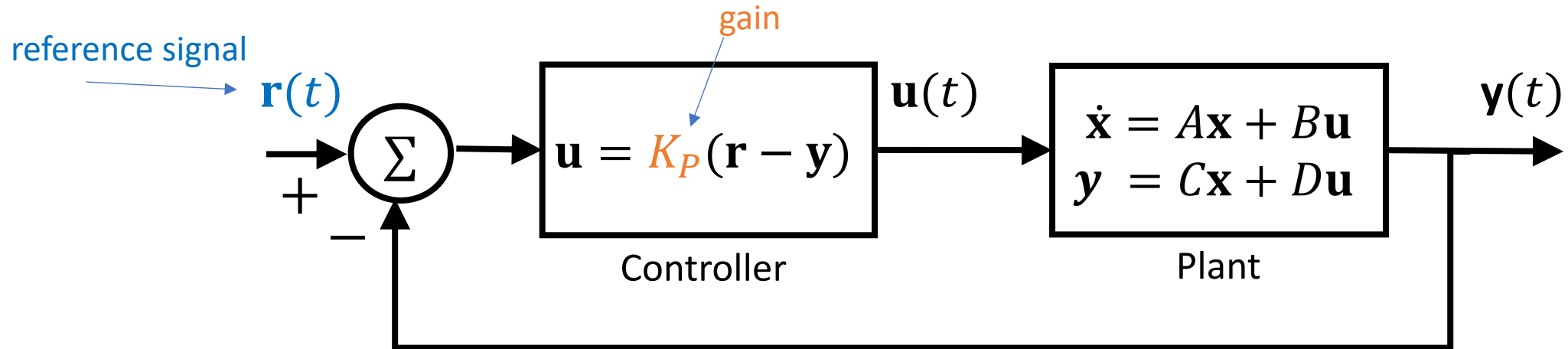
- ▶ Common objective: make plant state *track* the reference signal  $\mathbf{r}(t)$
- ▶  $e = r - x$  is the error signal
- ▶ Closed-loop dynamics:  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x} + BK_P(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x}) = (A - BK_P)\mathbf{x} + BK_P\mathbf{r}$
- ▶ pick  $K_P$  s.t. the composite system is asymptotically stable, i.e. pick  $K_P$  such that eigenvalues of  $(A - BK)$  have negative real-parts

# Designing a pole placement controller



- ▶  $\text{eigs}(A)$  are values of  $\lambda$  that satisfy the equation  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$
- ▶ Note  $\text{eigs}(A) = 6, 1 \Rightarrow$  unstable plant!
- ▶ Let  $K = (k_1 \quad k_2)$ . Then,  $A - BK = \begin{pmatrix} 4 - 2k_1 & 6 - 2k_2 \\ 1 - k_1 & 3 - k_2 \end{pmatrix}$
- ▶  $\text{eigs}(A - BK)$  satisfy equation  $\lambda^2 + (2k_1 + k_2 - 7)\lambda + (6 - 2k_2) = 0$ 
  - ▶ two distinct solutions  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  if  $(\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2) = \lambda^2 + (-\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)\lambda + \lambda_1\lambda_2$
  - ▶ That means  $2k_1 + k_2 - 7 = -\lambda_1 - \lambda_2$  and  $6 - 2k_2 = \lambda_1\lambda_2$
  - ▶ E.g.  $\lambda_1 = -1$  and  $\lambda_2 = -2$  gives  $k_1 = 4, k_2 = 2$ . Thus controller with  $K = (4 \quad 2)$  stabilizes the plant!

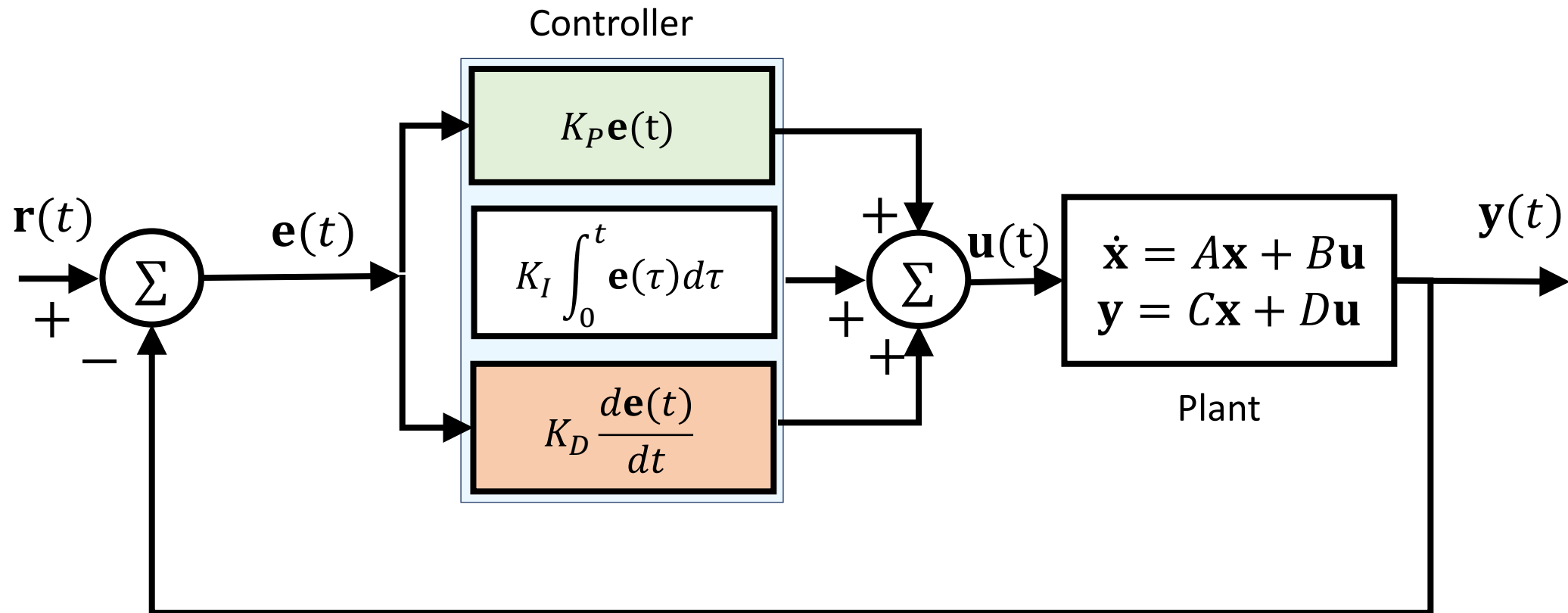
# Proportional Controller



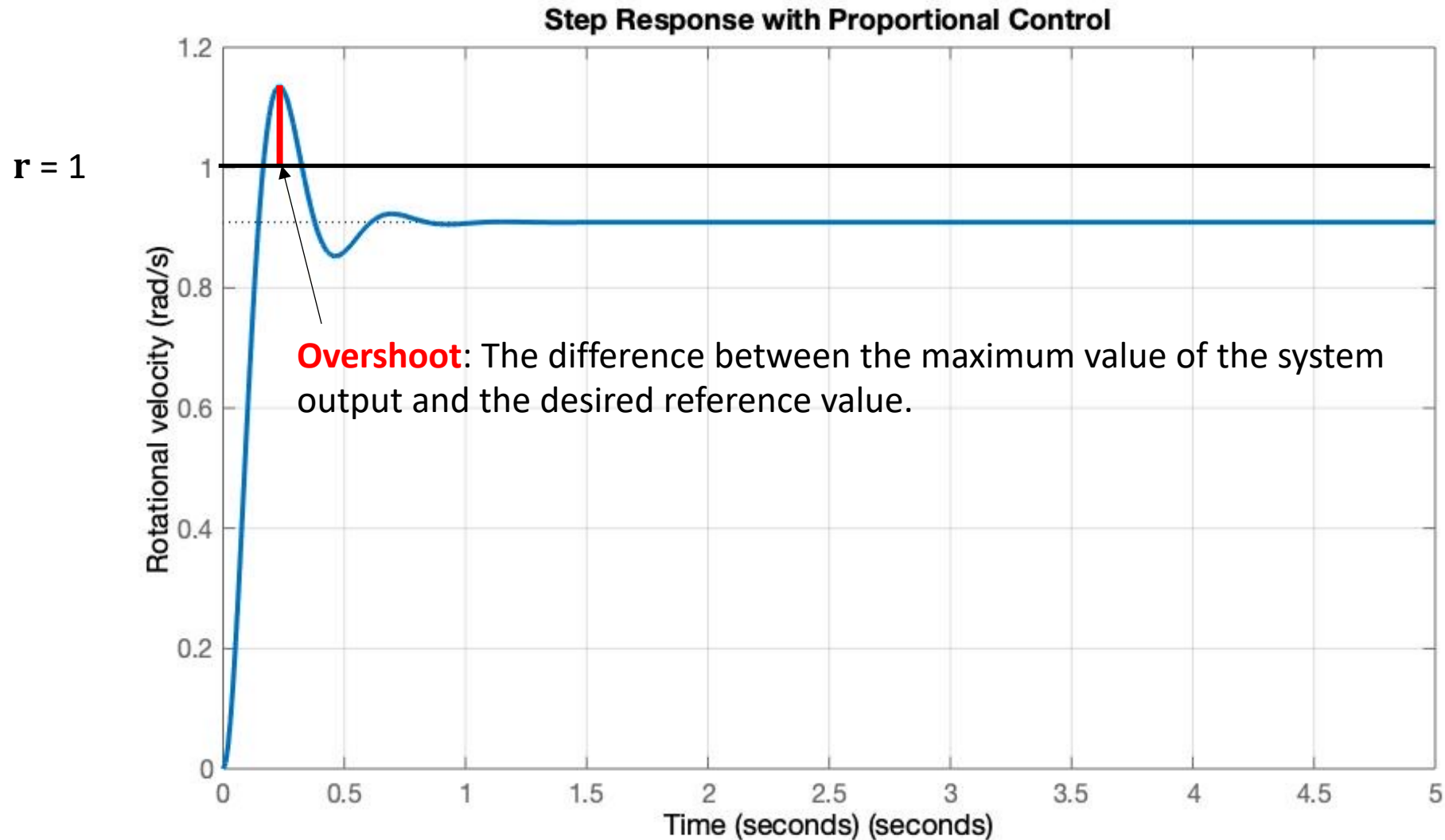
# Proportional Integral Derivative (PID) controllers

$\text{eigs}(A)$  are values of  $\lambda$  that satisfy the equation  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

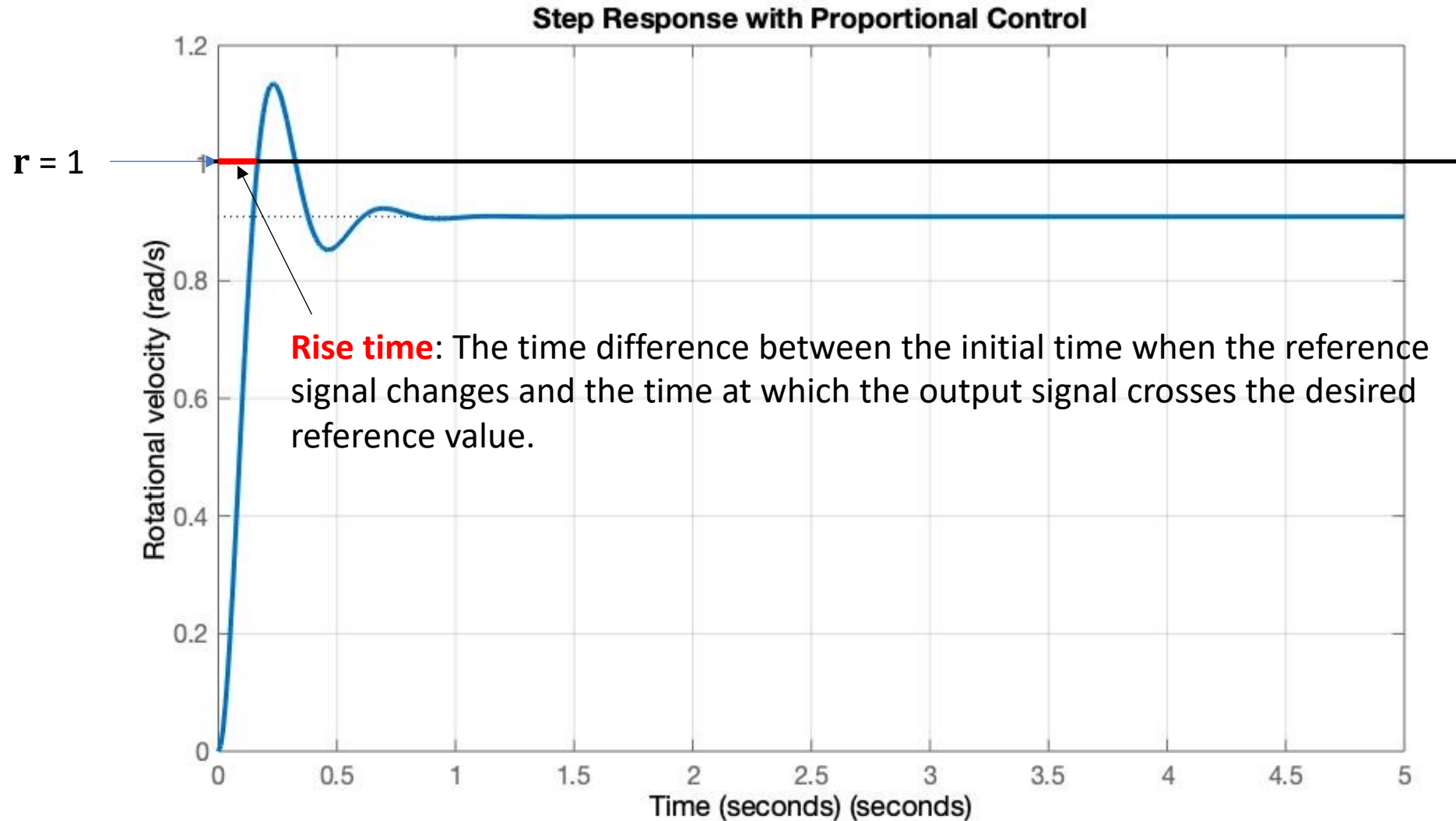
Note  $\text{eigs}(A) = 6, 1 \Rightarrow$  unstable plant!



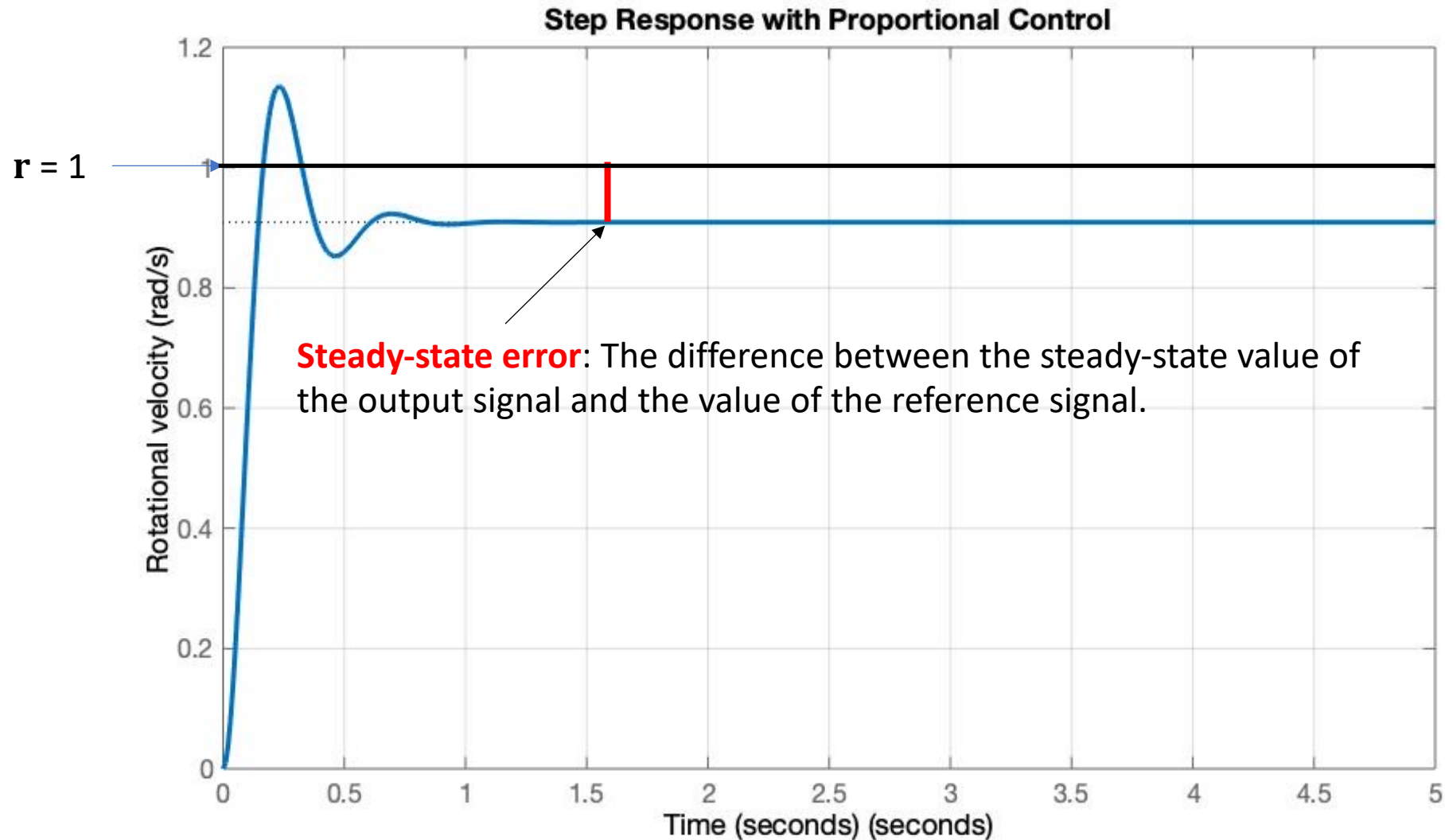
# Measuring control performance



# Measuring control performance

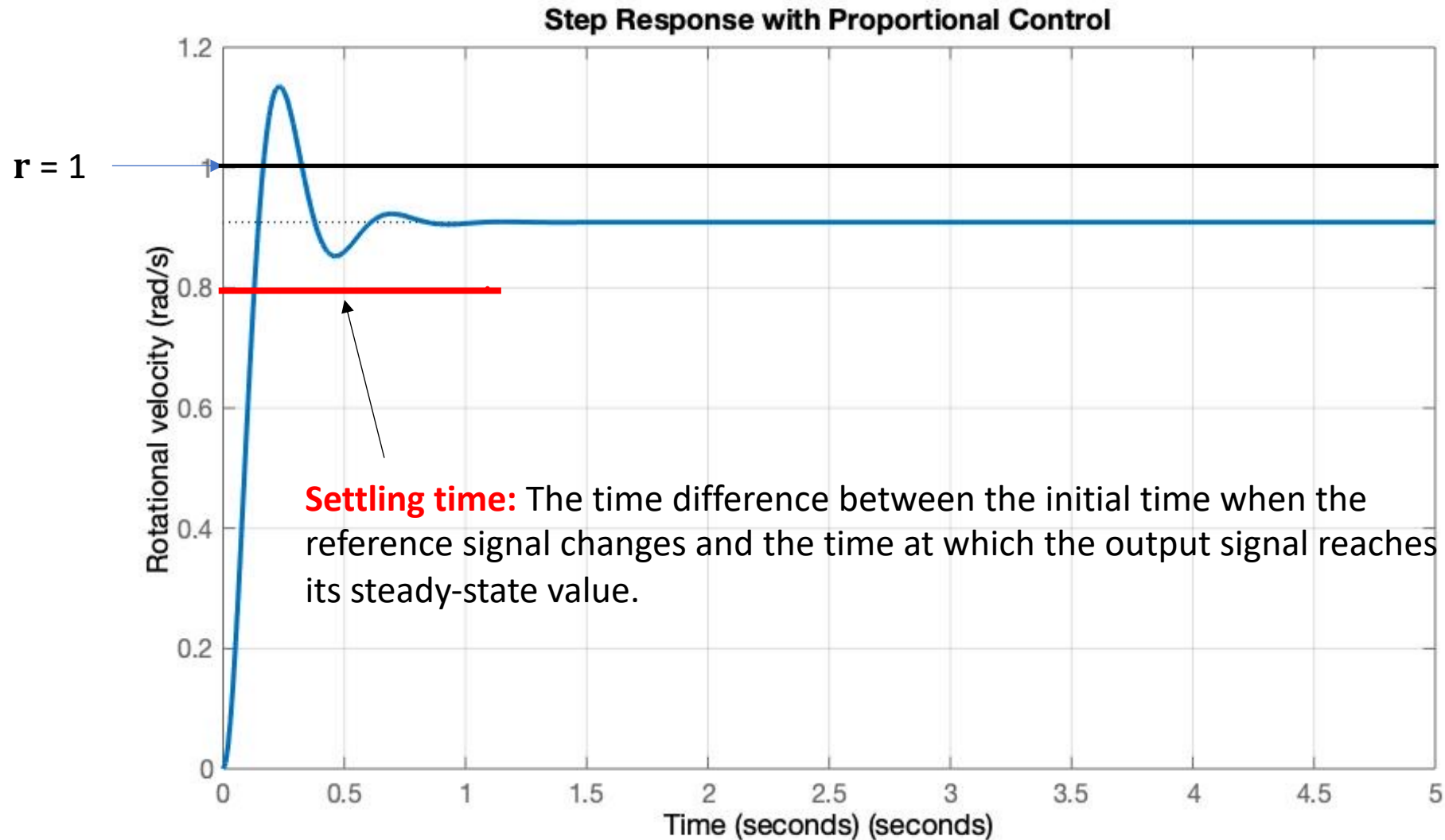


# Measuring control performance

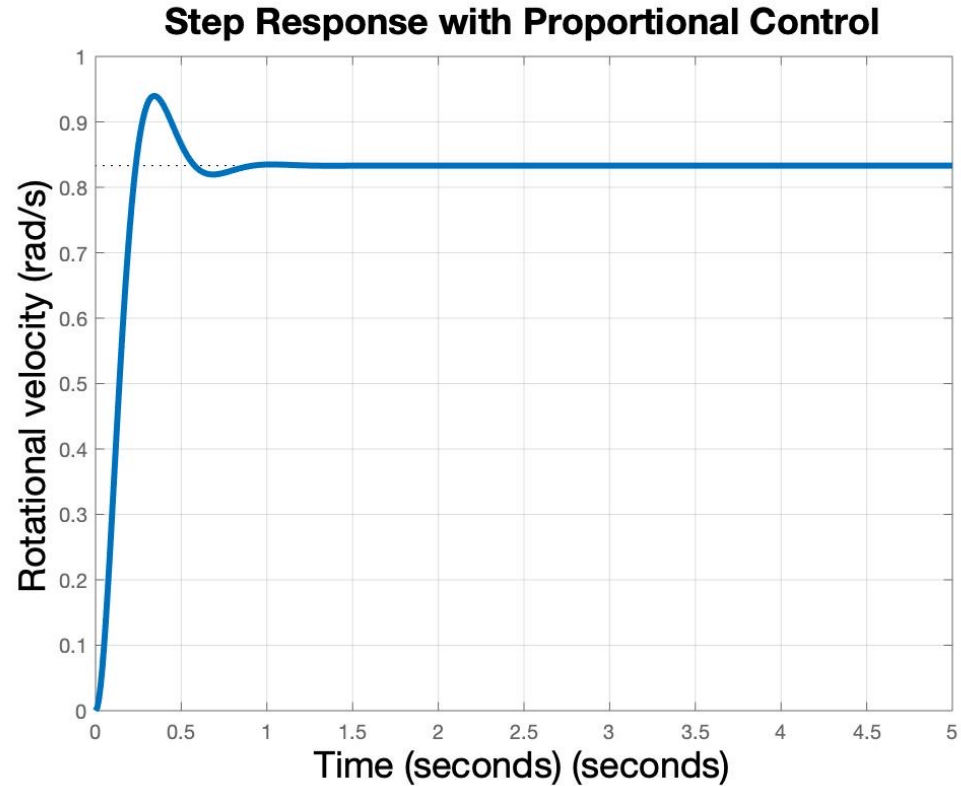




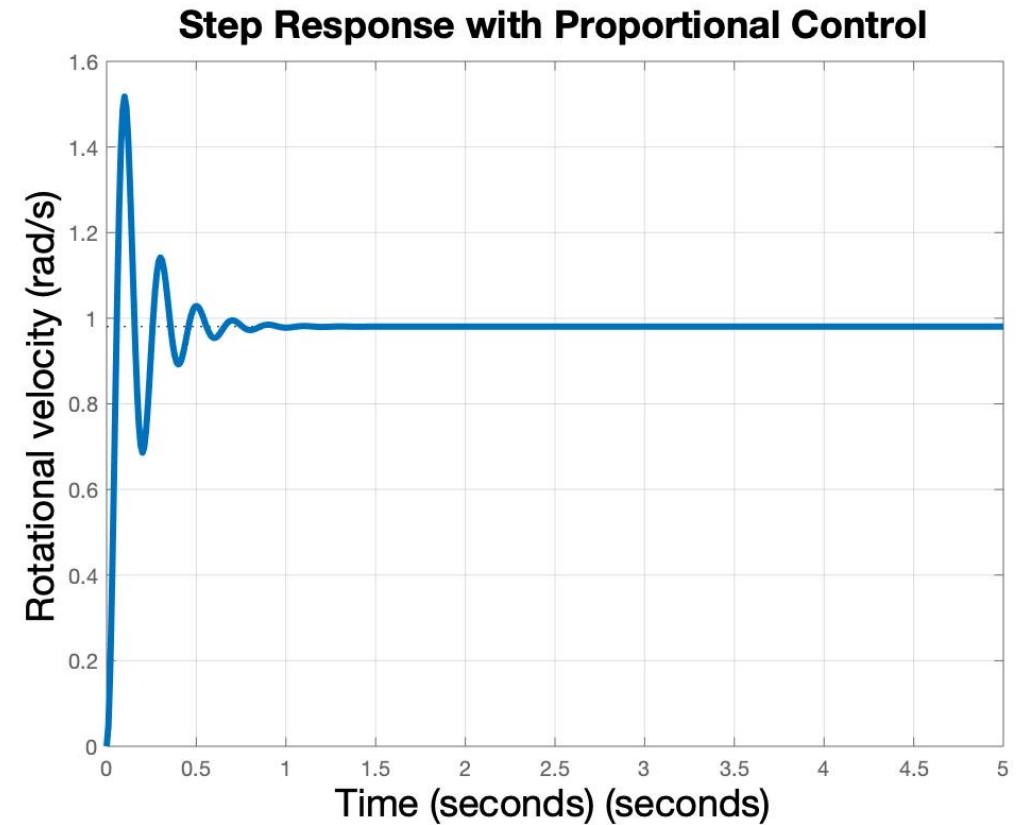
# Measuring control performance



# Measuring control performance



$K_P = 50$



$K_P = 500$

# P-only controller

- ▶ Compute error signal  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{y}$
- ▶ Proportional term  $K_p \mathbf{e}$ :
  - ▶  $K_p$  proportional gain;
  - ▶ Feedback correction proportional to error
- ▶ Cons:
  - ▶ If  $K_p$  is small, error can be large! [undercompensation]
  - ▶ If  $K_p$  is large,
    - ▶ system may oscillate (i.e. unstable) [overcompensation]
    - ▶ may not converge to set-point fast enough
  - ▶ P-controller always has steady state error or offset error

# PI-controller

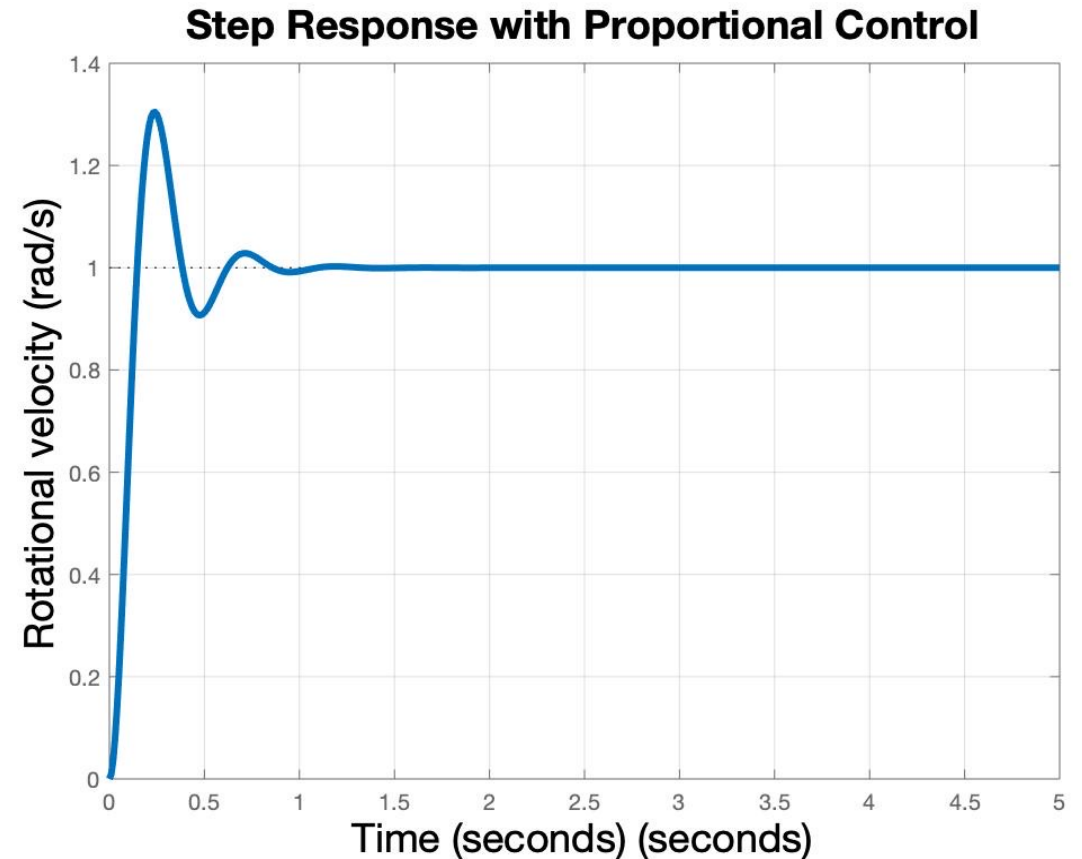
Compute error signal  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{y}$

Integral term:  $K_I \int_0^t \mathbf{e}(\tau) d\tau$

- $K_I$  integral gain;
- Feedback action proportional to cumulative error over time
- If a small error persists, it will add up over time and push the system towards eliminating this error): **eliminates offset/steady-state error**

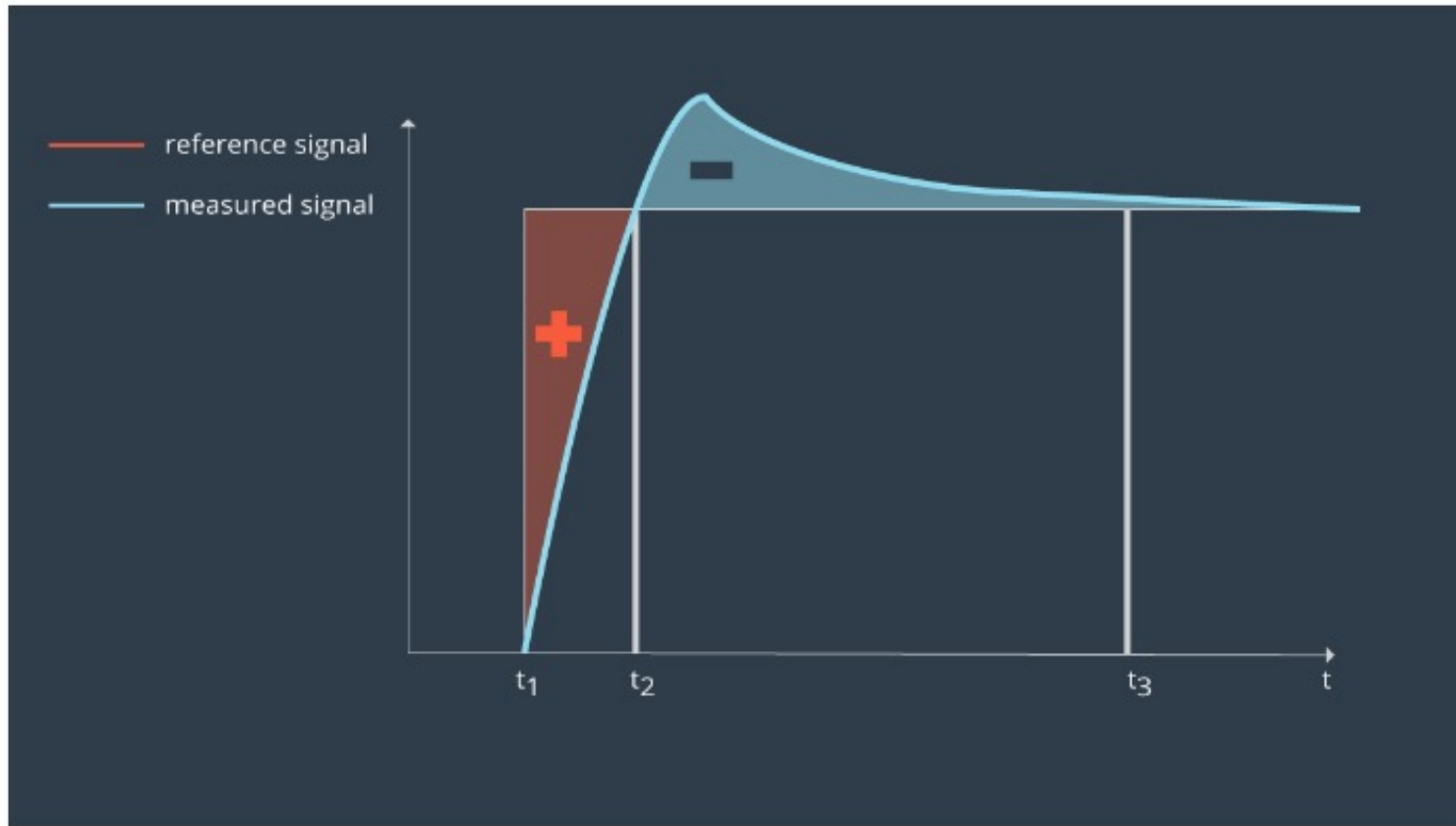
Disadvantages:

- Integral action by itself can increase instability
- Integrator term can accumulate error and suggest corrections that are not feasible for the actuators (integrator windup)
  - Real systems “saturate” the integrator beyond a certain value



# PI-controller

## Integrator windup



# PD-controller

Compute error signal  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{y}$

Derivative term  $K_d \dot{\mathbf{e}}$ :

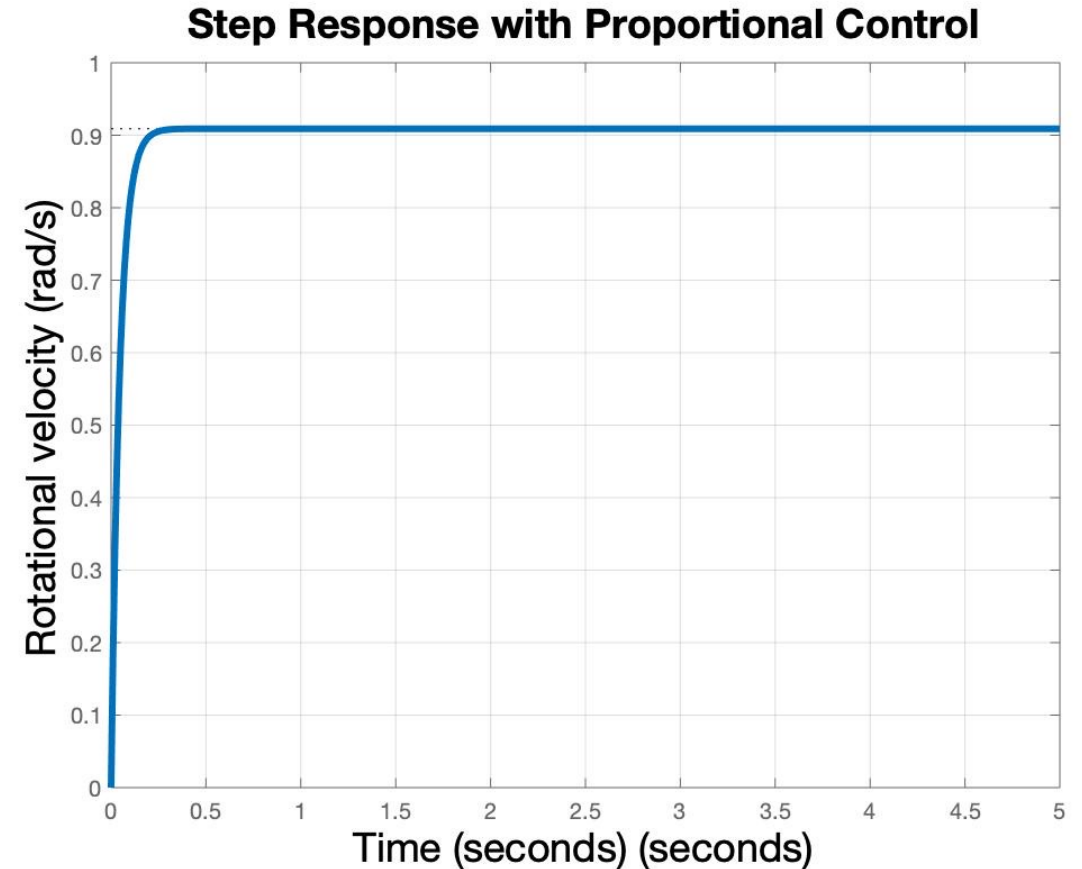
- $K_d$  derivative gain;
- Feedback proportional to how fast the error is increasing/decreasing

Purpose:

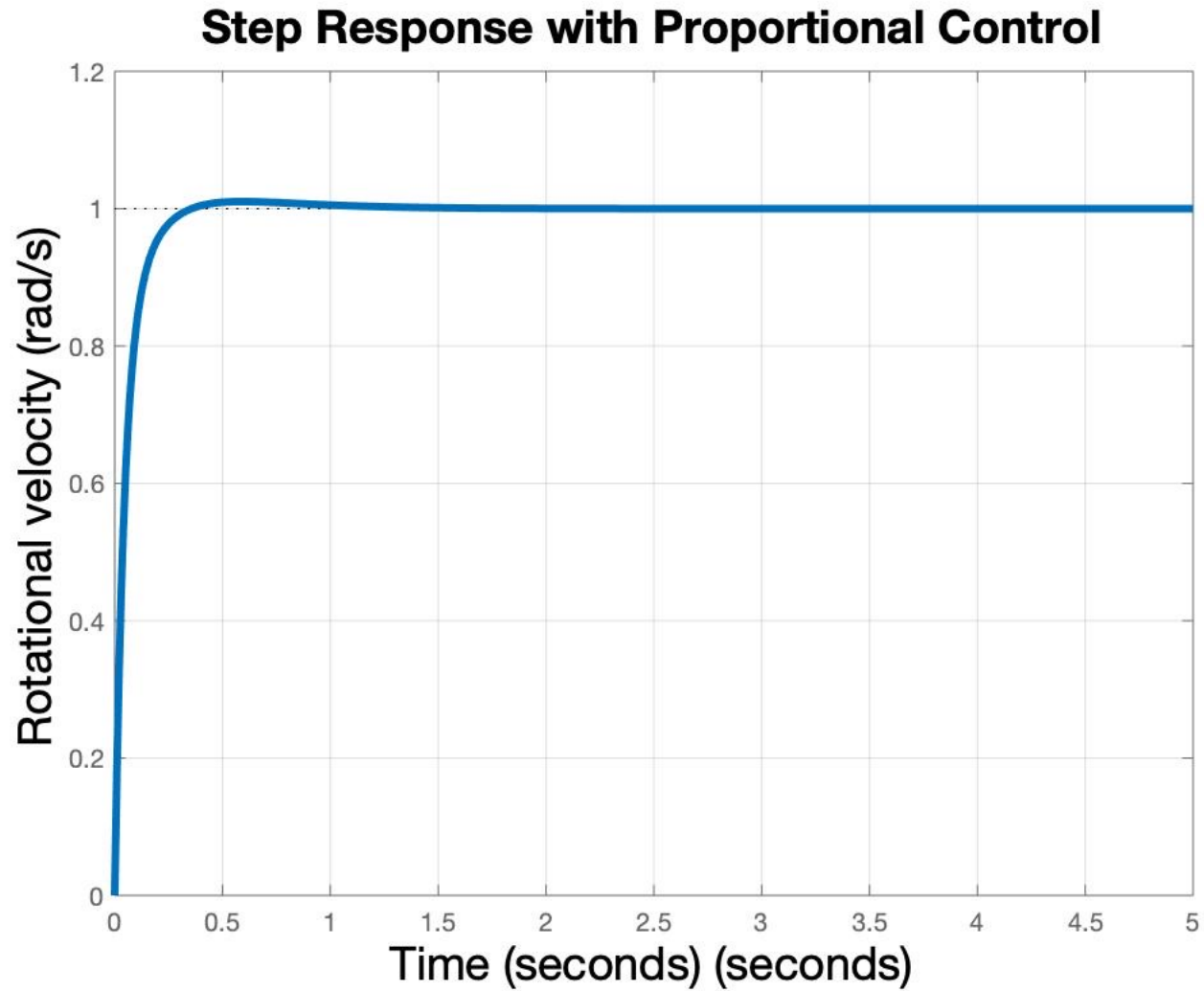
- “Predictive” term, can reduce overshoot: if error is decreasing slowly, feedback is slower
- Can improve tolerance to disturbances

Disadvantages:

- Still cannot eliminate steady-state error
- High frequency disturbances can get amplified



# PID-controller



# PID controller in practice

May often use only PI or PD control

Many heuristics to *tune* PID controllers, i.e., find values of  $K_P, K_I, K_D$

Several *recipes* to tune, usually rely on designer expertise

E.g. *Ziegler-Nichols* method: increase  $K_P$  till system starts oscillating with period  $T$  (say till  $K_P = K^*$ ), then set  $K_P = 0.6K^*$ ,  $K_I = \frac{1.2K^*}{T}$ ,  $K_D = \frac{3}{40}K^*T$

Matlab/Simulink has PID controller blocks + PID auto-tuning capabilities

Work well with linear systems or for small perturbations,

For non-linear systems use “gain-scheduling”

- (i.e. using different  $K_P, K_I, K_D$  gains in different operating regimes)



# Gain Scheduling Example

Used for NONLINEAR / unknown systems

## Calibration Routine Example

$$K_p = f_p(\text{state}, \text{param\_set})$$

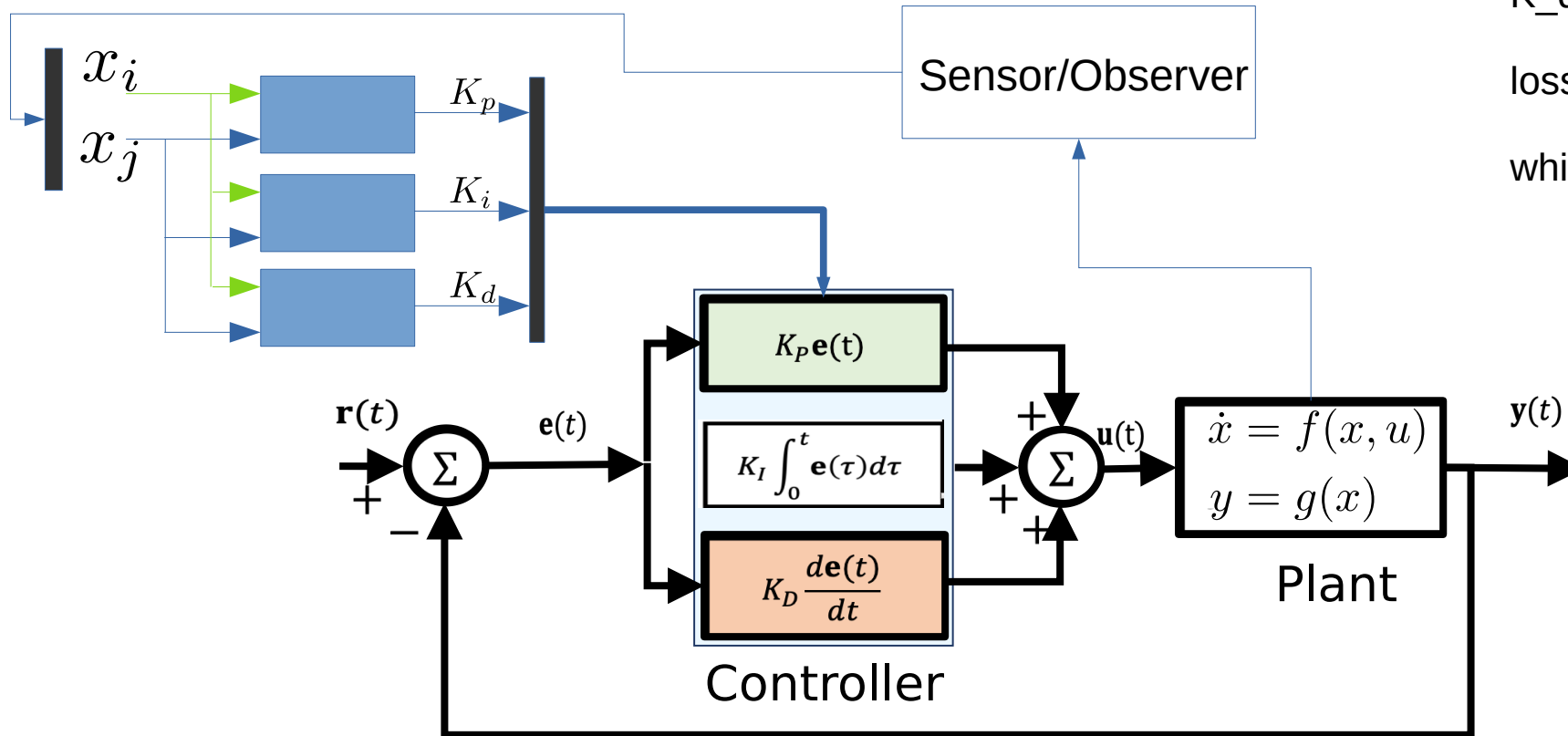
$$K_i = f_i(\text{state}, \text{param\_set})$$

$$K_d = f_d(\text{state}, \text{param\_set})$$

loss = g(stability, risetime, overshoot, etc.)

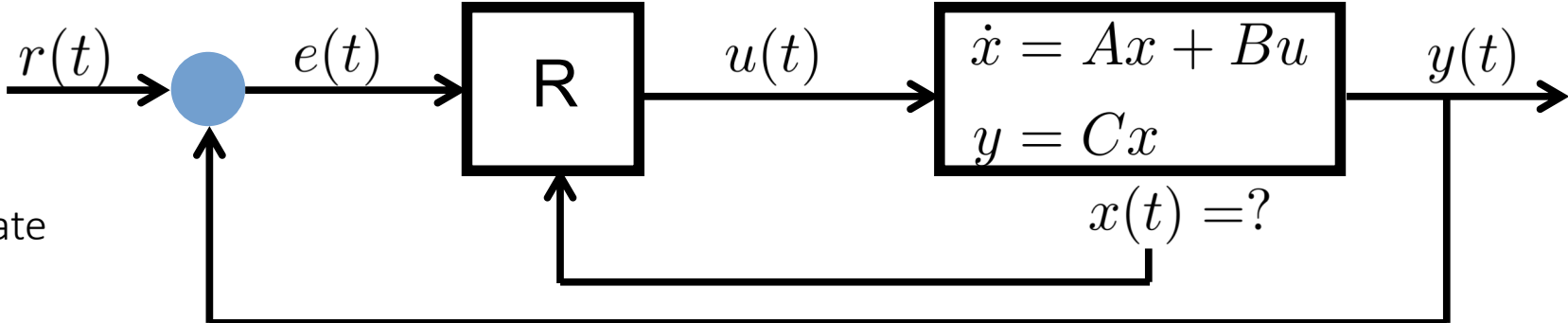
while not (end condition):

loss = run\_system(param\_set)  
optimization\_step(param\_set)

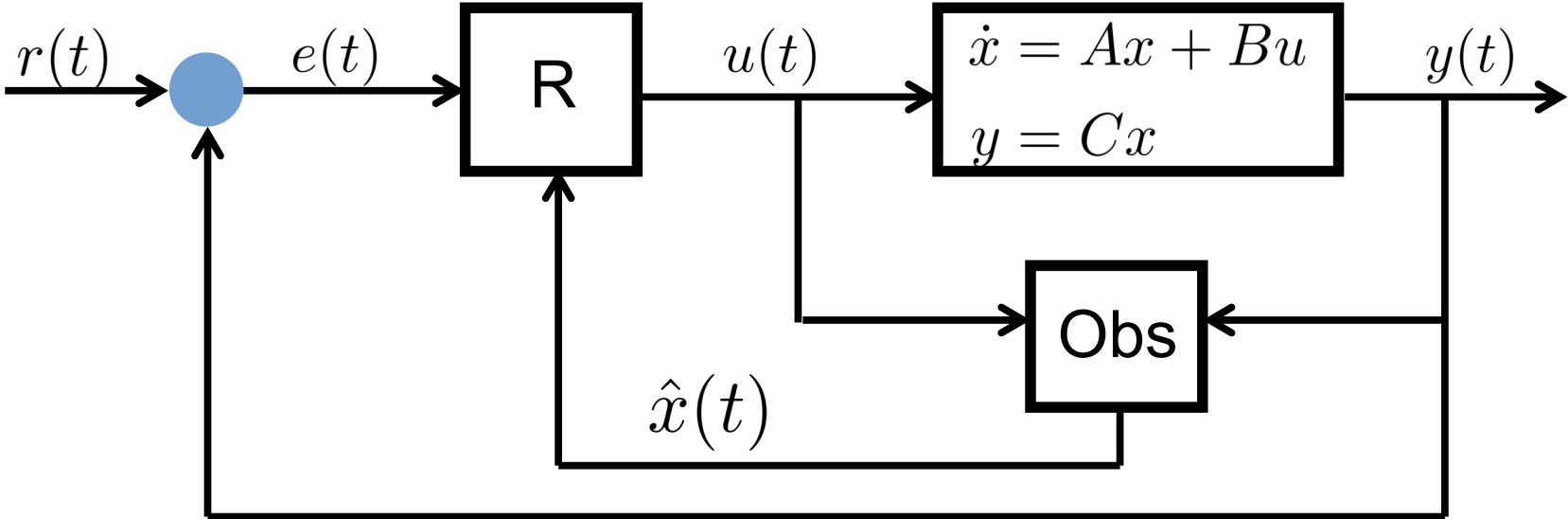


# Observation

- Problem:Control
  - design with (partially) unknown state



- Solution:
  - Luenberger Observer



# Luenberger Observer

- State-space representation

- $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$   
 $y = Cx$



$$\dot{\hat{x}} = A\hat{x} + Bu + L(y - \hat{y})$$

$$\hat{y} = C\hat{x}$$

$$u = K(x_{ref} - \hat{x})$$

Control design parameters

- Observer Error satisfies:  $\dot{e} = (A - LC)e$

- Required: Observability, Controllability

- Pole Placement

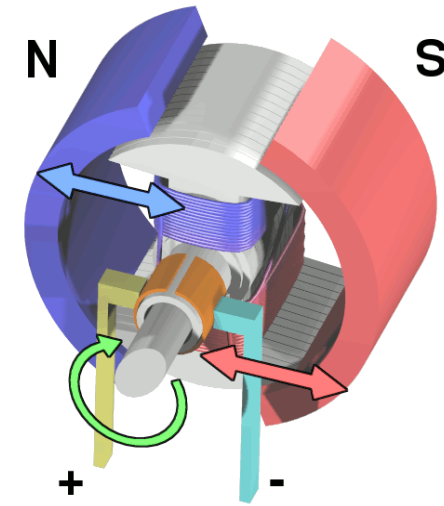
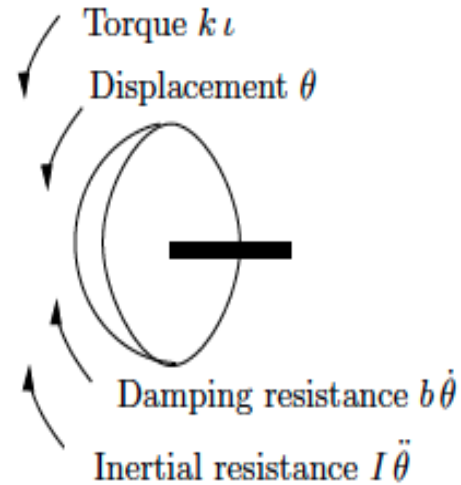
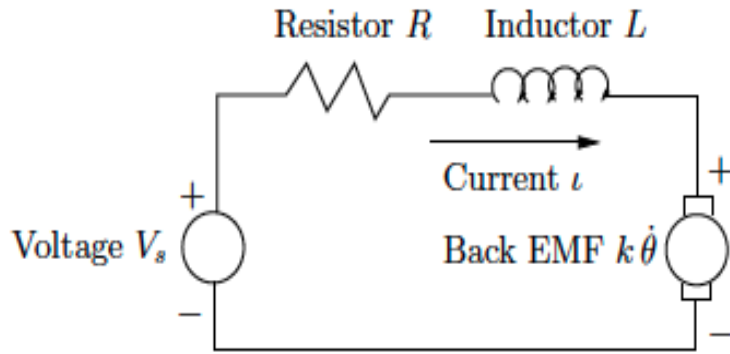
$$K : eig(A - BK) = \{\lambda_{c1}, \dots, \lambda_{cn}\}$$

$$L : eig(A^T - LC) = \{\lambda_{o1}, \dots, \lambda_{on}\}$$



Overall system is stable iff both observer and controller are stable

# Example - DC Motor



$b = 0.1$  # friction coefficient ( Nm/(rad/sec) )  
 $I = 0.01$  # mechanical inertia (Kg\*m<sup>2</sup>)  
 $k = 0.01$  # motor torque constant (Nm/A)  
 $R = 1$  # armature resistance (Ohm)  
 $L = 0.5$  # armature inductance (H)

$$V_s = Ri + L \frac{di(t)}{dt} + k\dot{\theta}_v$$

$$I \frac{d\theta_v}{dt} + b\theta_v = ki$$

State-space  
representation

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

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_v \\ i \end{bmatrix} \quad u = V_s$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -b/I & k \\ -k/L & -R \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = [1 \quad 0]$$