

MENG366

System Types Error Constants

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Introduction

- ***Errors in a control system*** can be attributed to many factors:
 - **Imperfections in the system components** (*e.g.* static friction, amplifier drift, aging, deterioration, *etc...*)
 - **Changes in the reference inputs** → cause errors during transient periods & may cause steady-state errors.
- In this section, we shall investigate a **type of steady-state error that is caused by the incapability of a system to follow particular types of inputs.**

Steady-State Errors with Respect to Types of Inputs

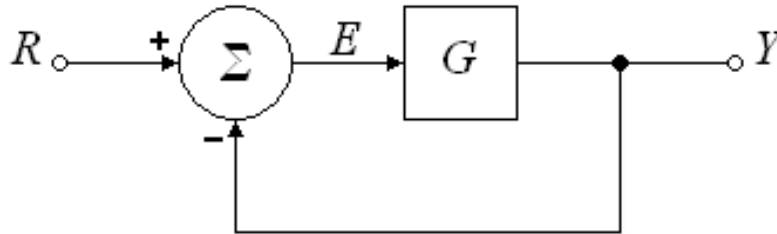
- Any physical control system inherently suffers steady-state response to certain types of inputs.
- A system may have no steady-state error to a step input, but the same system exhibit nonzero steady-state error to a ramp input.
- Whether a given unity feedback system will exhibit steady-state error for a given type of input depends on the type of **loop gain** of the system.

Classification of Control System

- Control systems may be ***classified according to their ability to track polynomial inputs***, or in other words, their ability to reach zero steady-state to step-inputs, ramp inputs, parabolic inputs and so on.
- This is a reasonable classification scheme because actual inputs may frequently be considered combinations of such inputs.
- The magnitude of the steady-state errors due to these individual inputs are indicative of the goodness of the system.

The Unity Feedback Control Case

Steady-State Error



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

- Error: $e(t) = r(t) - y(t) \Rightarrow E(s) = R(s) - Y(s) = \frac{R(s)}{1 + G(s)}$
- Using the FVT, the **steady-state error** is given by:

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sE(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sR(s) \frac{1}{1 + G(s)}$$

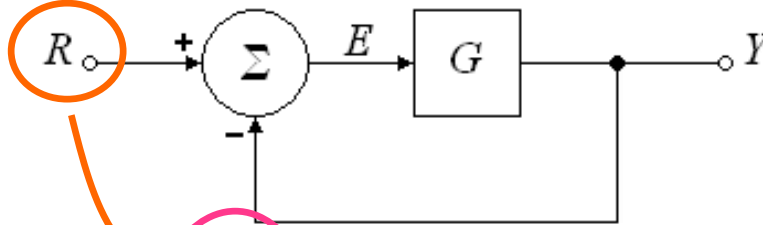
FVT

Steady-state error to polynomial input - Unity Feedback Control -

- Consider a **polynomial input**:

$$r(t) = t^{k-1}u(t) \Rightarrow R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

- The **steady-state error** is then given by:



$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \frac{1}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)}$$

System Type

A *unity feedback system* is defined to be **type k** if

the feedback system guarantees:

$$e_{ss} = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$$|e_{ss}| < \infty \quad \text{for} \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^{k+1}}$$

System Type (cont'd)

- Since, for an input

$$R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \frac{1}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)}$$

the *system* is called a **type k system** if:

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} = 0$$

$$\left| \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^{k+1}} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} \right| < \infty$$

Example 1: Unity feedback

- Given a stable system whose the open-loop transfer function is:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s} \quad \text{subjected to inputs} \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$(p_i \neq 0)$

- Step function: $R(s) = 1/s, k = 1$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{0 + G_0(0)} = 0$$

- Ramp function: $R(s) = 1/s^2, k = 2$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^2} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s}^2} \frac{\cancel{s}}{s + G_0(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{s + G_0(s)} = \frac{1}{G_0(0)} \neq 0$$

→ The system is type 1

Example 2: Unity feedback

- Given a stable system whose the open-loop transfer function is:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^2(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2} \quad \text{subjected to inputs } (p_i \neq 0) \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

- Step function: $R(s) = 1/s, k = 1$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} s^2 + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{0 + G_0(0)} = 0$$

- Ramp function: $R(s) = 1/s^2, k = 2$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^2} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} s^2 + G_0(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^2 + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{G_0(0)} = 0$$

$$R(s) = 1/s^3, k = 3$$

- Parabola function:

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^3} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} s^3} \frac{\cancel{s^2}}{s^2 + G_0(s)} = \frac{1}{G_0(0)} \neq 0 \rightarrow \text{type 2}$$

Example 3: Unity feedback

- Given a stable system whose the open loop transfer function is:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = G_0(s) \text{ subjected to inputs } (p_i \neq 0) \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

- Step function: $R(s) = 1/s, k = 1$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s}} \frac{1}{1 + G_0(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + G_0(0)} \neq 0$$

→ The system is type 0

- Impulse function: $R(s) = 1, k = 0$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{1} \frac{1}{1 + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{G_0(0)} = 0$$

Summary – Unity Feedback

- Assuming $p_i \neq 0$ unity system loop transfers such as:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = G_0(s) \quad \rightarrow \text{type 0}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s} \quad \rightarrow \text{type 1}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^2(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2} \quad \rightarrow \text{type 2}$$

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^n(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^n} \quad \rightarrow \text{type n}$$

General Rule – Unity Feedback

- An unity feedback system is of **type k** if the open-loop transfer function of the system has:

k poles at $s=0$

In other words,

- An unity feedback system is of **type k** if the open-loop transfer function of the system has:

k integrators

Error Constants

- A *stable unity feedback system is type k* with respect to reference inputs if the **open loop transfer function has k poles at the origin**:

$$D(s)G(s) = \frac{(s - z_1)(s - z_2)\cdots}{s^k (s - p_1)(s - p_2)\cdots} = \frac{D_0(s)G_0(s)}{s^k}$$

Then the **error constant** is given by:

$$K_k = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^k D(s)G(s) = D_0(0)G_0(0)$$

- The higher the constants, the smaller the steady-state error.

Error Constants

- For a **Type 0 System**, the error constant, called **position constant**, is given by:

$$K_p = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} D(s)G(s) \quad (\text{dimensionless})$$

- For a **Type 1 System**, the error constant, called **velocity constant**, is given by:

$$K_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sD(s)G(s) \quad (\text{sec}^{-1})$$

- For a **Type 2 System**, the error constant, called **acceleration constant**, is given by:

$$K_a = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^2 D(s)G(s) \quad (\text{sec}^{-2})$$

Example:

- A temperature control system is found to have zero error to a constant tracking input and an error of 0.5°C to a tracking input that is linear in time, rising at the rate of $40^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{sec}$.
- What is the system type?

The system is type 1

- What is the steady-state error?

$$e_{ss} = 0.5^{\circ}\text{C} = \frac{40^{\circ}\text{C} / \text{sec}}{K_v}$$

- What is the error constant?

$$K_v = \frac{40^{\circ}\text{C} / \text{sec}}{0.5^{\circ}\text{C}} = 80 \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

Conclusion

- *Classifying a system as **k type** indicates the ability of the system to achieve zero steady-state error to polynomials $r(t)$ of degree less but not equal to k .*
- The system is **type k** if the error is zero to all polynomials $r(t)$ of degree less than k but non-zero for a polynomial of degree k .

Conclusion

- A *stable unity feedback system is type k* with respect to reference inputs if the **loop transfer function has k poles at the origin:**

$$D(s)G(s) = \frac{(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^k (s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots}$$

$$K_k = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^k D(s)G(s)$$

- Then the **error constant** is given by:

Steady-State Errors as a function of System Type – Unity Feedback

<i>System type</i>	Step input	Ramp input	Parabola input
<i>Type 0</i>	$\frac{1}{1 + K_p}$	∞	∞
<i>Type 1</i>	0	$\frac{1}{K_v}$	∞
<i>Type 2</i>	0	0	$\frac{1}{K_a}$

The Classical Three- Term Controllers

Basic Operations of a Feedback Control

Think of what goes on in domestic hot water thermostat:

- The temperature of the water is measured.
- Comparison of the measured and the required values provides an error, *e.g. “too hot’ or ‘too cold’*.
- On the basis of error, a control algorithm decides what to do.
 - *Such an algorithm might be:*
 - *If the temperature is too high then turn the heater off.*
 - *If it is too low then turn the heater on*
- The adjustment chosen by the control algorithm is applied to some adjustable variable, *such as the power input to the water heater.*

Feedback Control Properties

- ***A feedback control system seeks to bring the measured quantity to its required value or set-point.***
- The control system *does not need to know why the measured value is not currently what is required, only that is so.*
- There are two *possible causes of such a disparity*:
 - The system has been disturbed.
 - The setpoint has changed. In the absence of external disturbance, a change in setpoint will introduce an error. The control system will act until the measured quantity reach its new setpoint.

The PID Algorithm

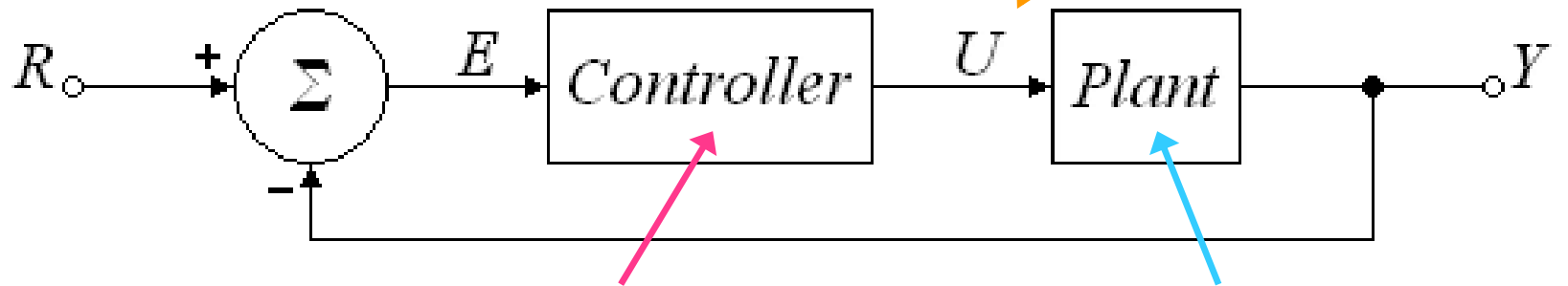
- The **PID algorithm** is the *most popular feedback controller algorithm used*. It is a robust easily understood algorithm that can provide *excellent control performance* despite the varied dynamic characteristics of processes.
- As the name suggests, the **PID algorithm** consists of **three basic modes**:
 - the **Proportional** mode,
 - the **Integral** mode
 - & the **Derivative** mode.

P, PI or PID Controller

- When utilizing the PID algorithm, it is necessary to decide which modes are to be used (P, I or D) and then ***specify the parameters (or settings) for each mode used.***
- Generally, three basic algorithms are used: ***P, PI or PID.***
- Controllers are designed to eliminate the need for continuous operator attention.
 - *Cruise control in a car and a house thermostat are common examples of how controllers are used to automatically adjust some variable to hold a measurement (or **process variable**) to a desired variable (or **set-point**)*

Controller Output

- The *variable being controlled* is the **output of the controller** (and the *input of the plant*):

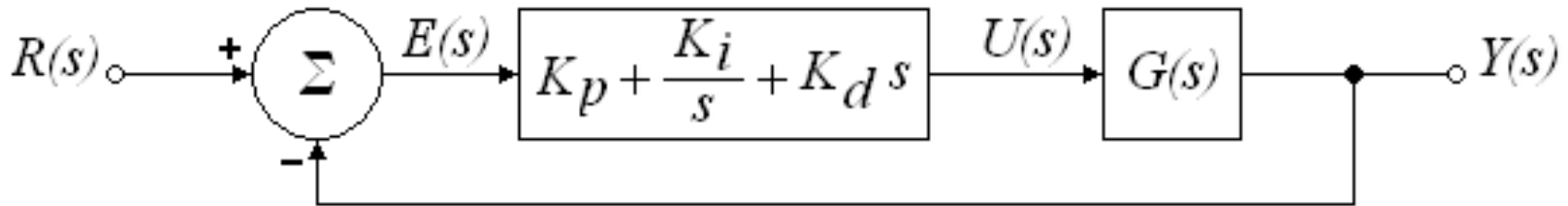


provides excitation to the plant

system to be controlled

- The output of the controller will change in response to a change in measurement or set-point (that said a change in the tracking error)

PID Controller



- In the s-domain, the PID controller may be represented as:

$$U(s) = \left(K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \right) E(s)$$

- In the time domain:

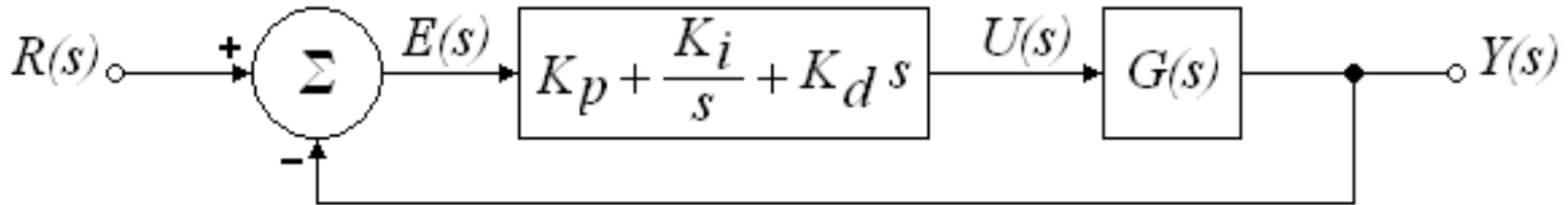
$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

proportional gain

integral gain

derivative gain

PID Controller



- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

- The signal $u(t)$ will be sent to the plant, and a new output $y(t)$ will be obtained. This new output $y(t)$ will be sent back to the sensor again to find the new error signal $e(t)$. The controller takes this new error signal and computes its derivative and its integral gain. This process goes on and on.

Definitions

- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

$$= K_p \left(e(t) + \frac{1}{T_i} \int_0^t e(t) dt + T_d \frac{de(t)}{dt} \right)$$

integral time constant

derivative time constant

where $T_i = \frac{K_p}{K_i}$,

$T_d = \frac{K_d}{K_i}$

derivative gain

proportional gain

integral gain

Controller Effects

- A proportional controller (P) *reduces error responses to disturbances*, but *still allows a steady-state error*.
- When the controller includes a term proportional to the integral of the error (I), then the *steady state error to a constant input is eliminated*, although typically *at the cost of deterioration in the dynamic response*.
- A derivative control (D) typically *makes the system better damped and more stable*.

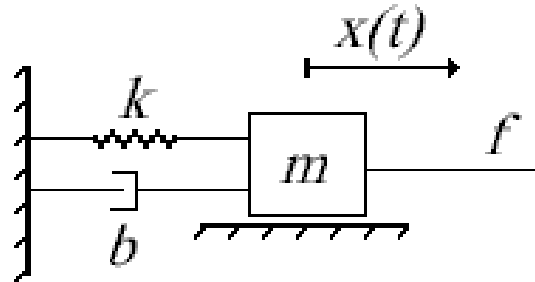
Closed-loop Response

	Rise time	Maximum overshoot	Settling time	Steady-state error
P	Decrease	Increase	Small change	Decrease
I	Decrease	Increase	Increase	Eliminate
D	Small change	Decrease	Decrease	Small change

- Note that these correlations may not be exactly accurate, because P, I and D gains are dependent of each other.

Example problem of PID

- Suppose we have a simple mass, spring, damper problem.



- The dynamic model is such as:

$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = f$$

- Taking the Laplace Transform, we obtain:

$$ms^2 X(s) + bsX(s) + kX(s) = F(s)$$

- The Transfer function is then given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$$

Example problem (cont'd)

- Let

$$m = 1\text{kg}, \quad b = 10\text{N}\cdot\text{s} / \text{m}, \quad k = 20\text{N} / \text{m}, \quad f = 1\text{N}$$

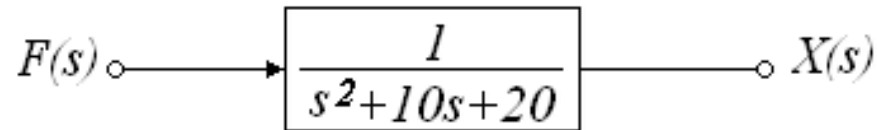
- By plugging these values in the transfer function:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 10s + 20}$$

- The goal of this problem is to show you how each of K_p , K_i and K_d contribute to obtain:

fast rise time,
minimum overshoot,
no steady-state error.

Ex (cont'd): No controller



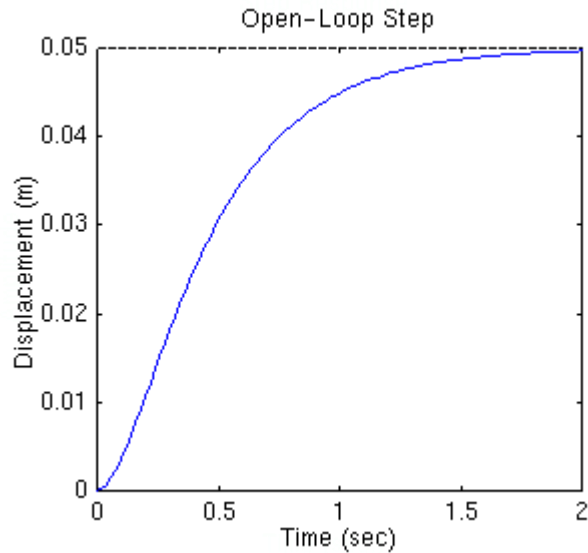
- The (**open**) loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 10s + 20}$$

- The steady-state value for the output in case of STEP input is:

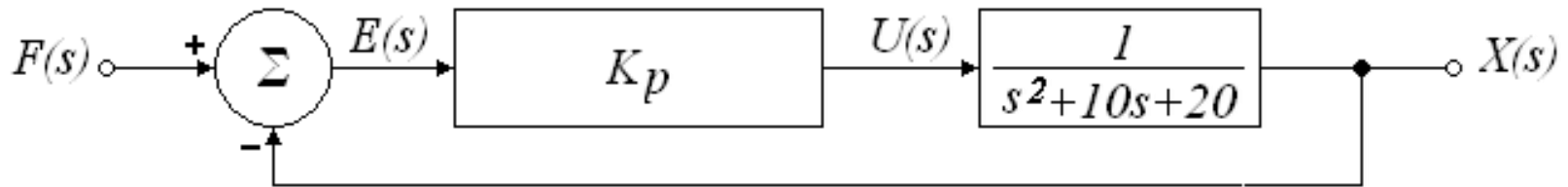
$$x_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sX(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s) \frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{20}$$

Ex (cont'd): Open-loop step response



- $1/20=0.05$ is the *final value* of the output to an *unit* step input.
- This corresponds to a **steady-state error of 95%, quite large!**
- The ***settling time is about 1.5 sec.***

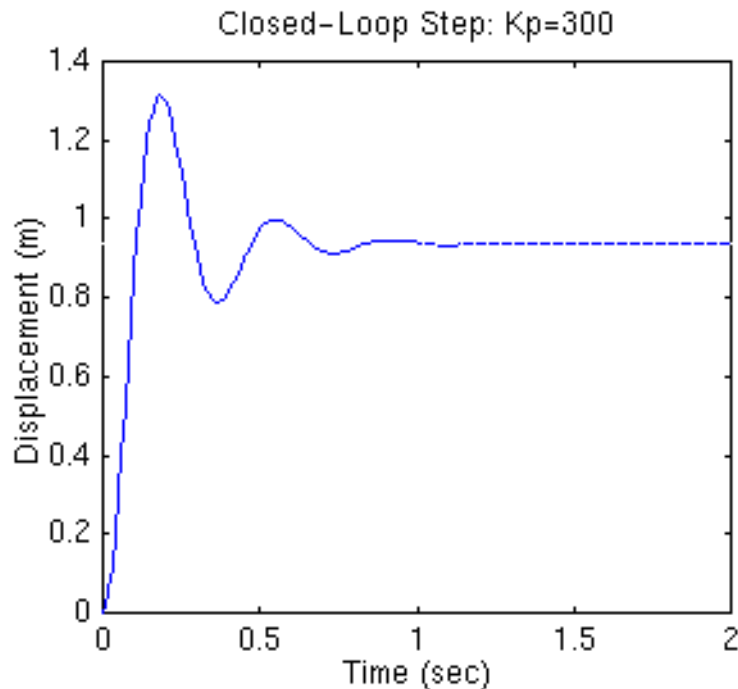
Ex (cont'd): Proportional Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

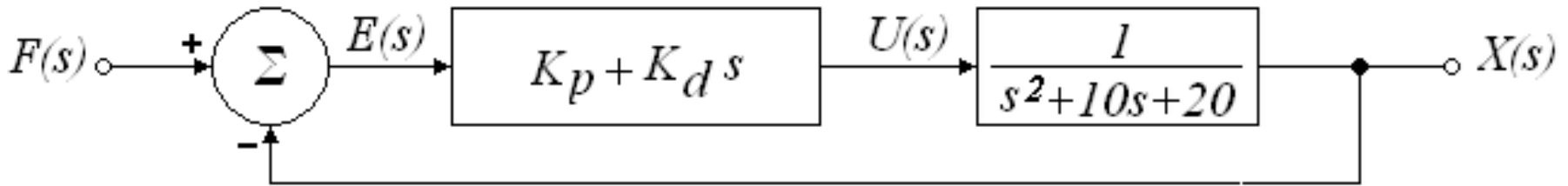
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + (20 + K_p)}$$

Ex (cont'd): Proportional control



- Let $K_p = 300$
- The above plot shows that the **proportional controller reduced both the rise time and the steady-state error, increased the overshoot, and decreased the settling time by small amount.**

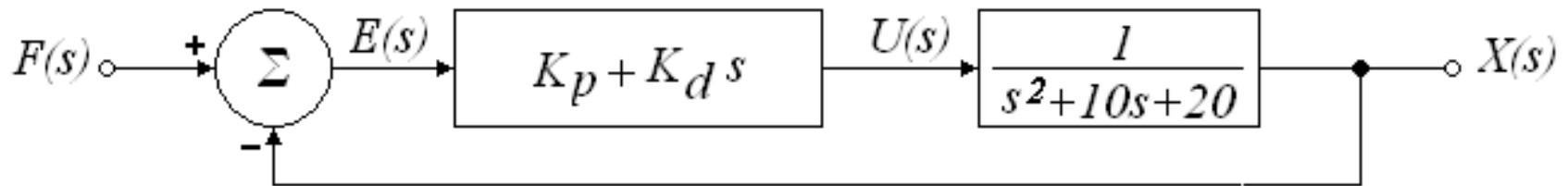
Teamwork Ex on PD Controller



- Find the closed loop transfer function if:

$$K_p = 300, \quad K_d = 10$$

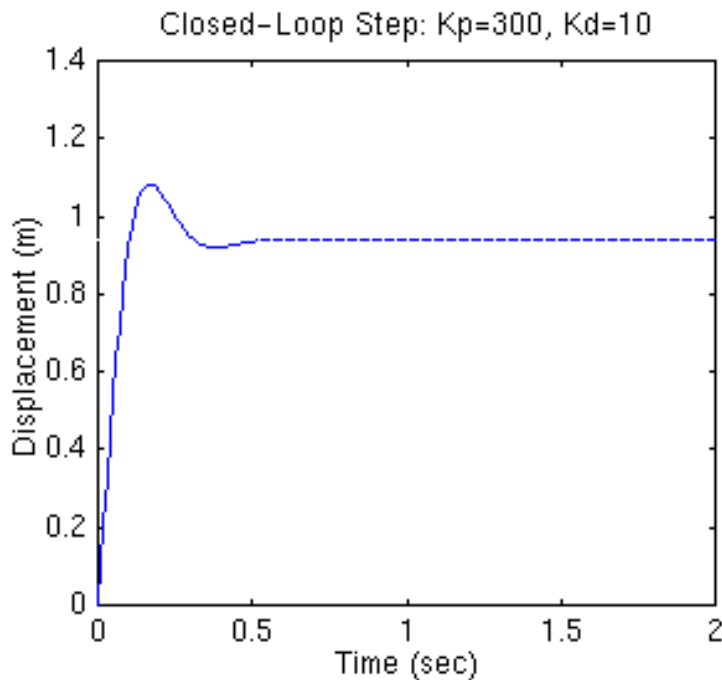
Ex (cont'd): PD Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

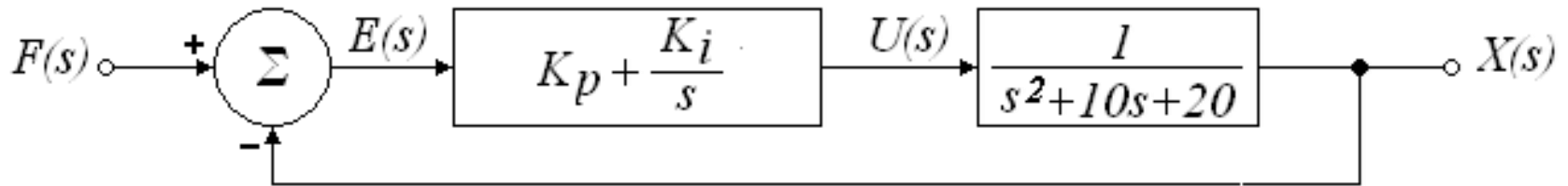
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + (10 + K_d)s + (20 + K_p)}$$

Ex (cont'd): PD control



- Let $K_p = 300$, $K_d = 10$
- This plot shows that the **proportional derivative controller reduced both the overshoot and the settling time**, and **had small effect on the rise time and the steady-state error**.

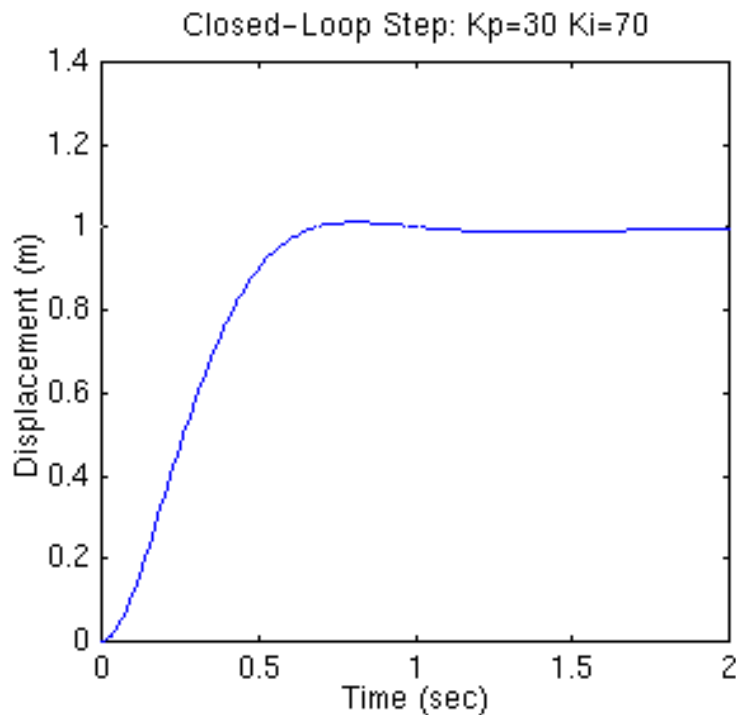
Ex (cont'd): PI Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

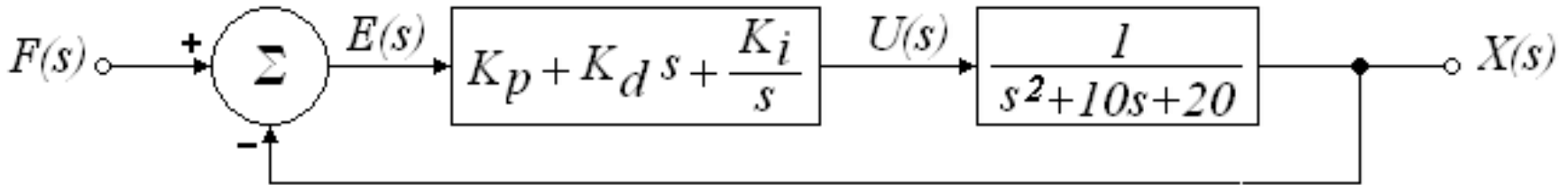
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p s + K_i}{s^3 + 10s^2 + (20 + K_p)s + K_i}$$

Ex (cont'd): PI Controller



- Let $K_p = 30$, $K_i = 70$
- We have reduced the proportional gain because the integral controller also ***reduces the rise time and increases the overshoot*** as the proportional controller does (double effect).
- The above response shows that the ***integral controller eliminated the steady-state error***.

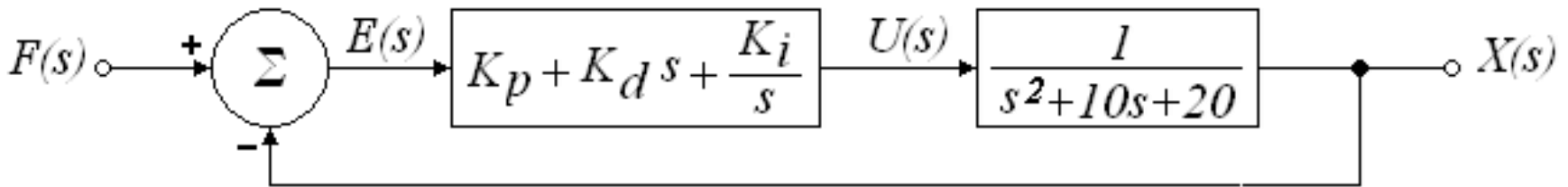
Teamwork Ex on PID Controller



- Find the closed loop transfer function if:

$$K_p = 350, K_i = 300, K_d = 5500$$

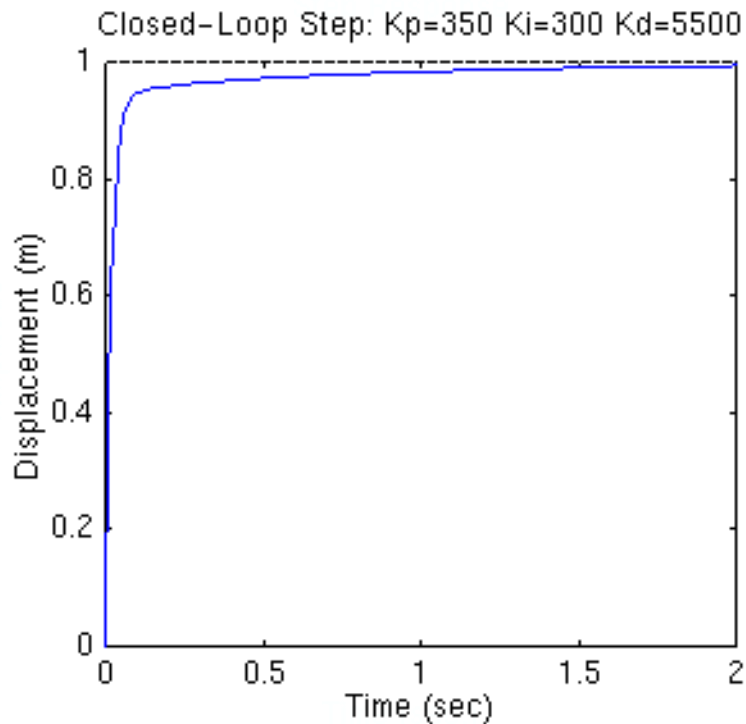
Ex (cont'd): PID Controller



- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_d s + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_d s + K_i / s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_d s^2 + K_p s + K_i}{s^3 + (10 + K_d)s^2 + (20 + K_p)s + K_i}$$

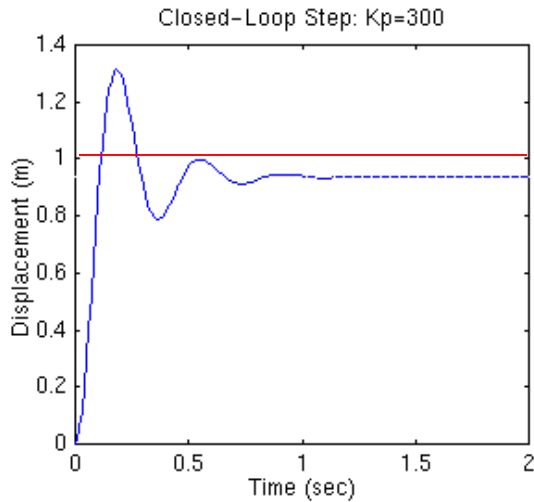
Ex (cont'd): PID Controller



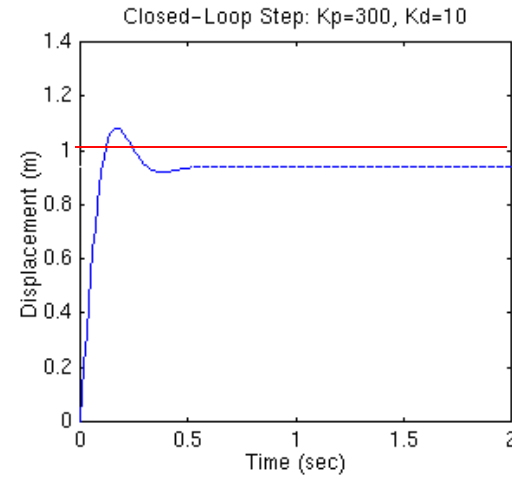
- Let $K_p = 350$, $K_i = 300$,
 $K_d = 5500$
- Now, we have obtained the system with **no overshoot, fast rise time, and no steady-state error.**

Ex (cont'd): Summary

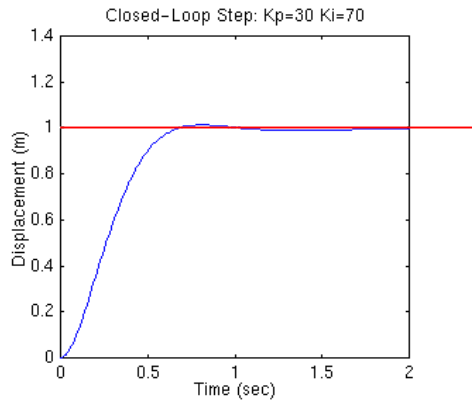
P



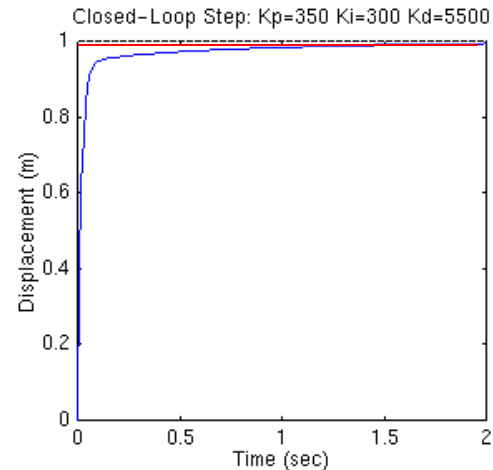
PD



PI



PID



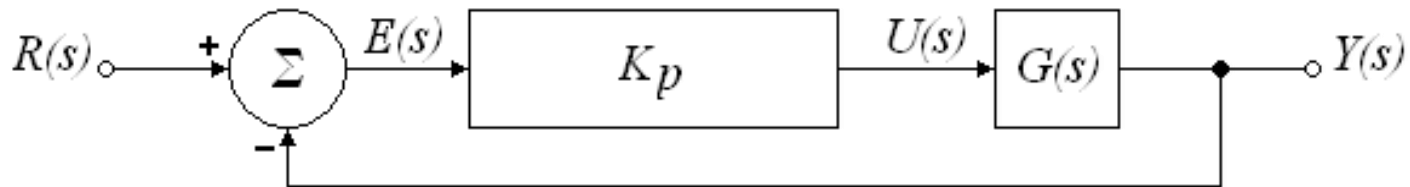
PID Controller Functions

- Output feedback
 - from **Proportional action**
compare output with set-point
- Eliminate steady-state offset (=error)
 - from **Integral action**
apply constant control even when error is zero
- Anticipation
 - From **Derivative action**
react to rapid rate of change before errors grows too big

Effect of Proportional, Integral & Derivative Gains on the Dynamic Response

Proportional Controller

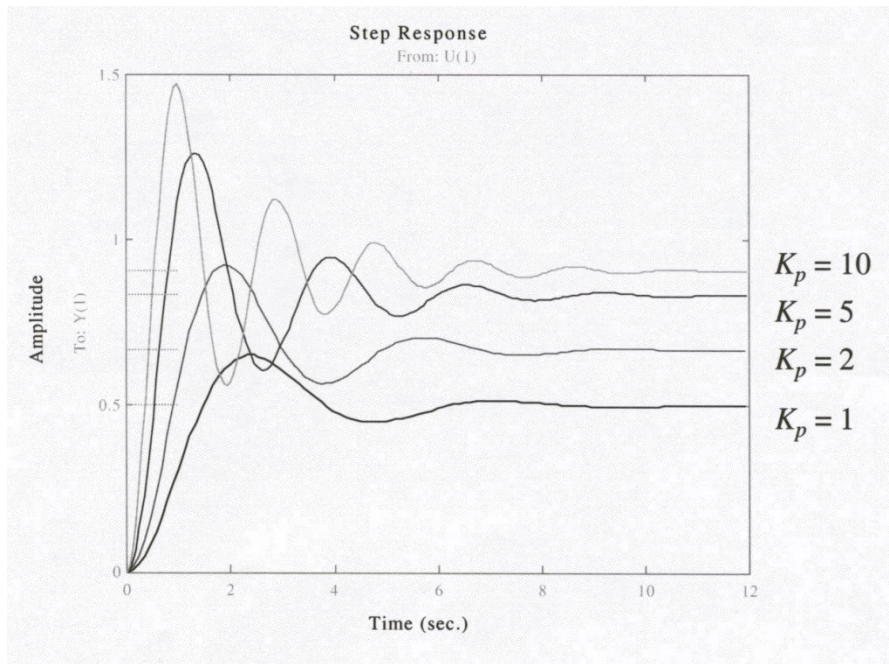
- Pure gain (or ***attenuation***) since:
 the controller input is error
 the controller output is a proportional gain



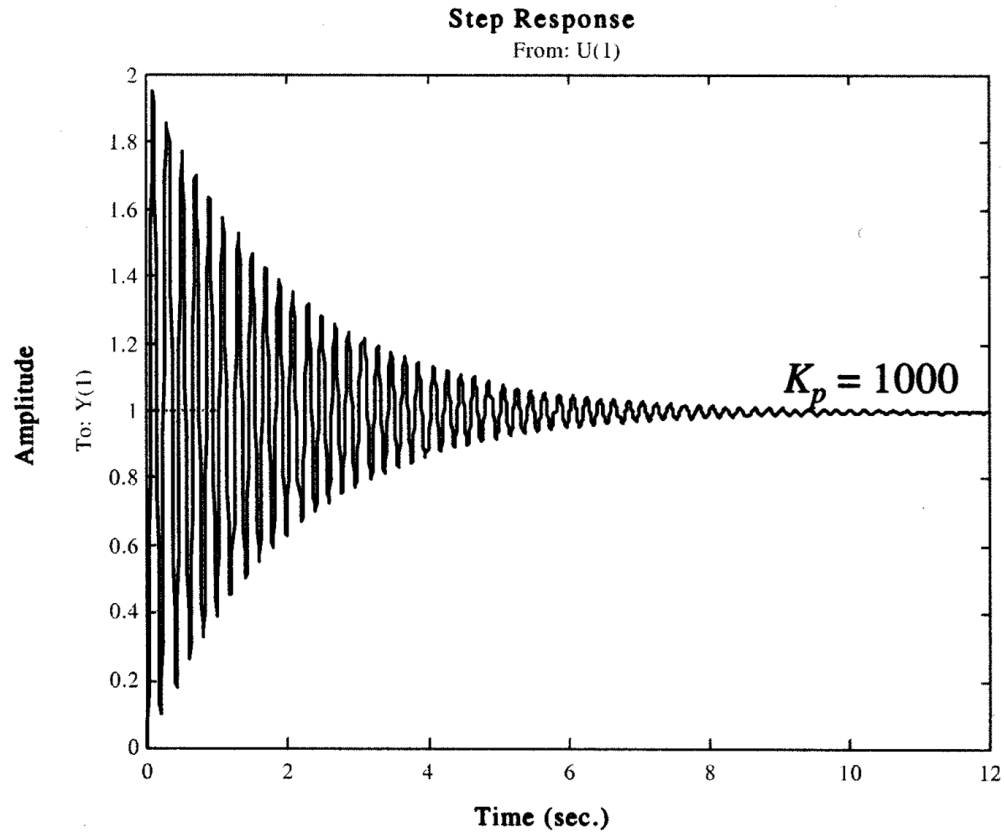
$$E(s)K_p = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_p e(t)$$

Change in gain in P controller

- Increase in gain:
 - Upgrade both steady-state and transient responses
 - Reduce steady-state error
 - **Reduce stability!**

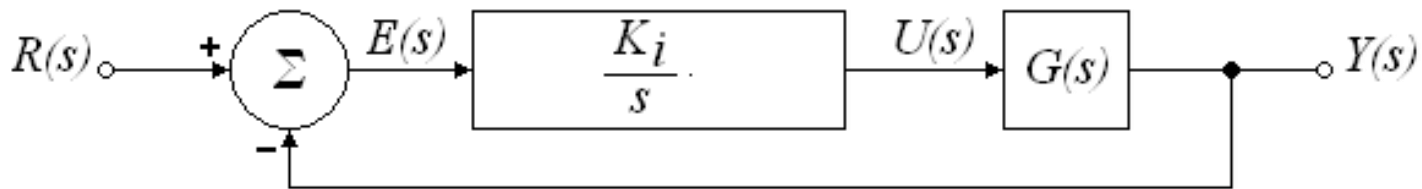


P Controller with *high* gain



Integral Controller

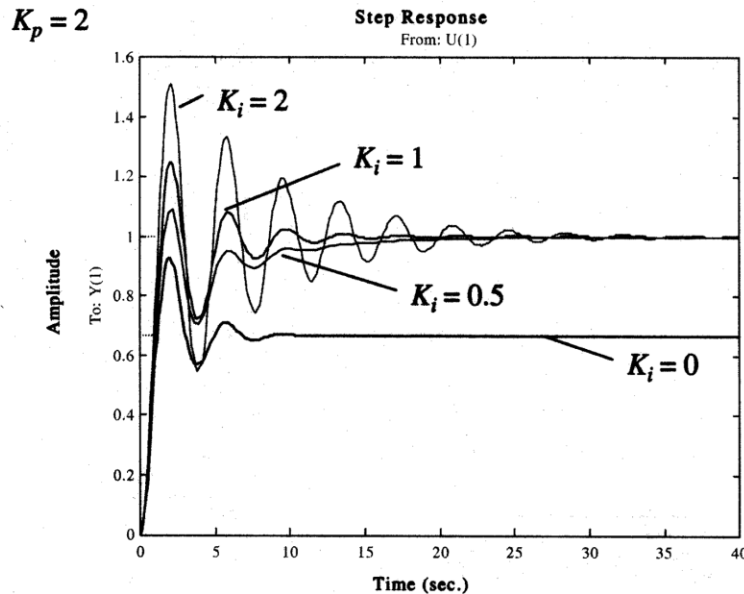
- Integral of error with a constant gain
 - increase the system type by 1
 - *eliminate steady-state error for a unit step input*
 - amplify overshoot and oscillations



$$E(s) \frac{K_i}{s} = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt$$

Change in gain for PI controller

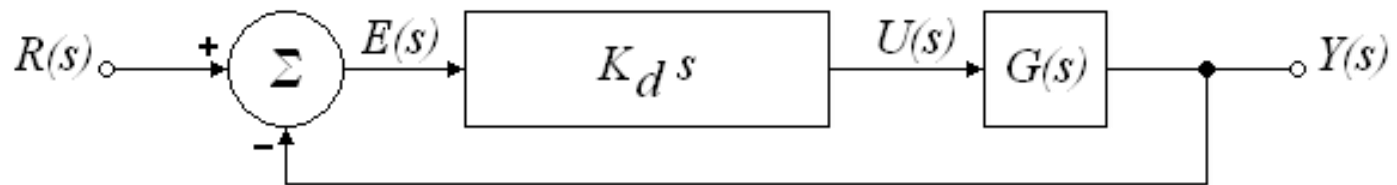
- Increase in gain:



- Do not upgrade steady-state responses
- Increase slightly settling time
- **Increase oscillations and overshoot!**

Derivative Controller

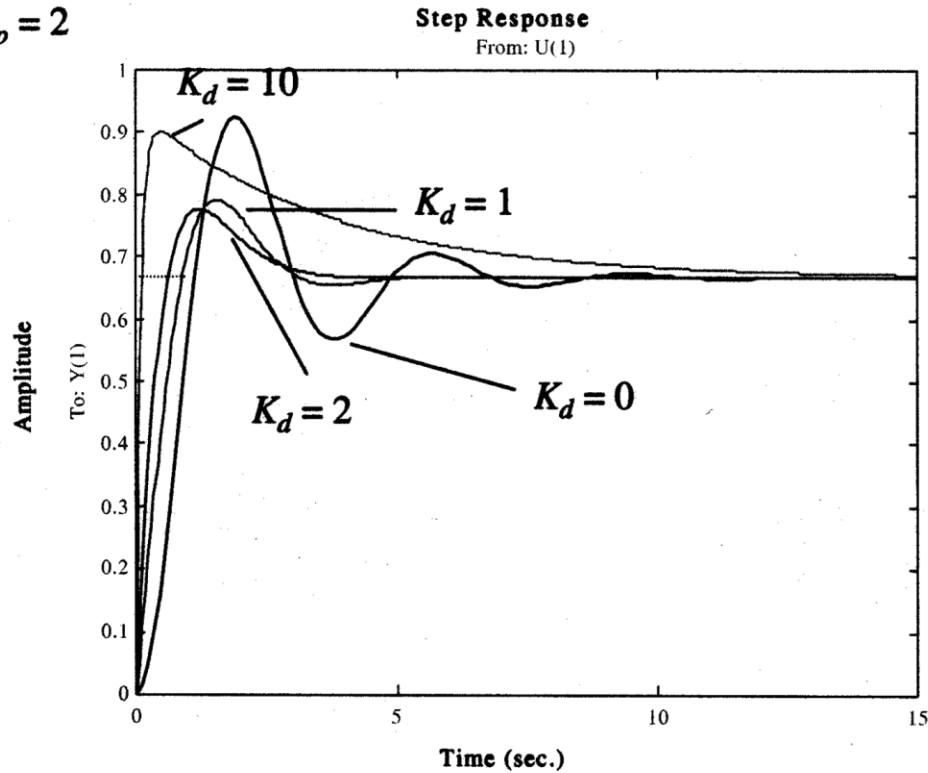
- Differentiation of error with a constant gain
 - detect rapid change in output
 - *reduce overshoot and oscillation*
 - do not affect the steady-state response



$$E(s)K_d s = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

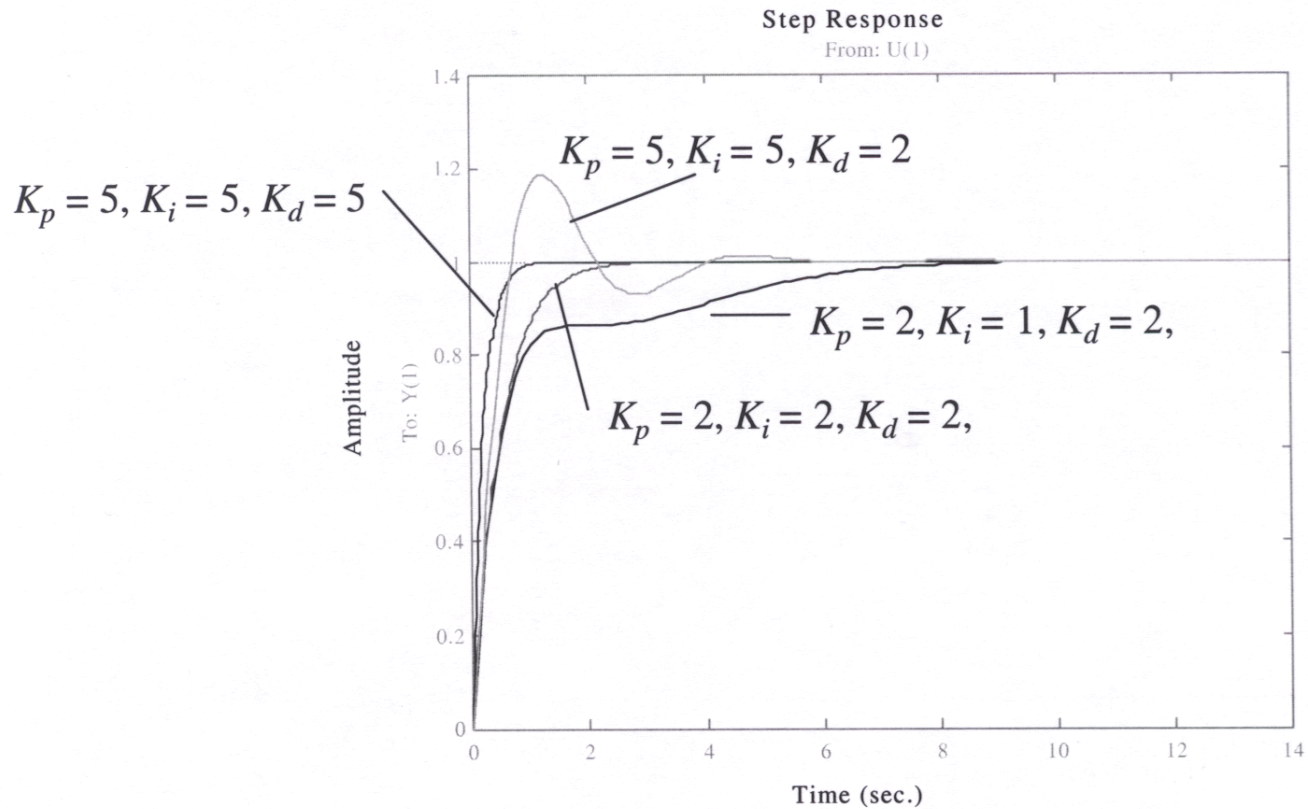
Effect of change for gain PD controller

$K_p = 2$



- Increase in gain:
 - Upgrade transient response
 - Decrease the peak and rise time
 - **Increase overshoot and settling time!**

Changes in gains for PID Controller



Conclusions

- Increasing the proportional feedback gain *reduces steady-state errors*, but high gains almost always *destabilize the system*.
- **Integral control** provides *robust reduction in steady-state errors*, but often *makes the system less stable*.
- **Derivative control** usually *increases damping and improves stability*, but has almost *no effect on the steady state error*
- These **3 kinds of control combined** from the classical PID controller

Conclusion - PID

- The standard PID controller is described by the equation:

$$U(s) = \left(K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \right) E(s)$$

or

$$U(s) = K_p \left(1 + \frac{1}{T_i} s + T_d s \right) E(s)$$

Application of PID Control

- PID regulators provide reasonable control of most industrial processes, provided that the performance demands is not too high.
- PI control are generally adequate when plant/process dynamics are essentially of 1st-order.
- PID control are generally ok if dominant plant dynamics are of 2nd-order.
- More elaborate control strategies needed if process has long time delays, or lightly-damped vibrational modes