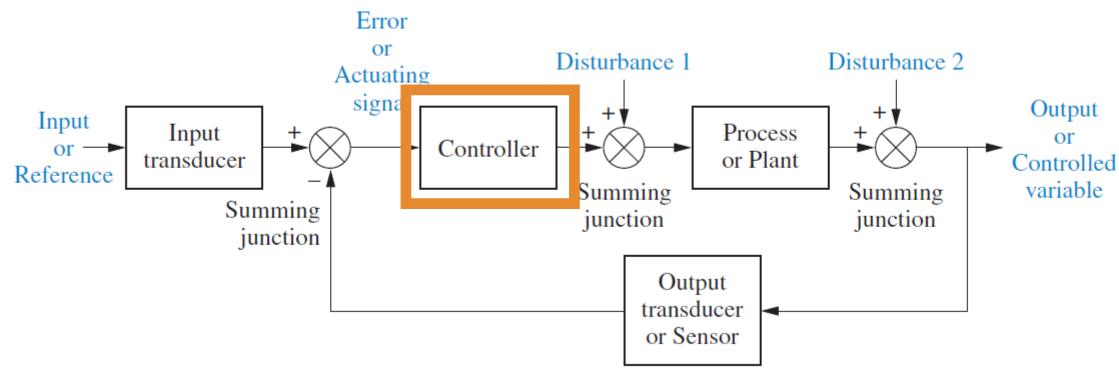
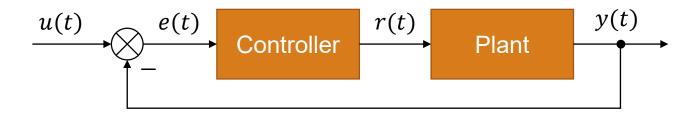
Course Syllabus

- Basic concepts in control theory
- Basic system classification
- Basic system properties
- System Identification
- Basic types of controllers
- Control quality evaluation
- Control systems stability
- Controller design methods
- Digital control
- Sensors



Control Systems Engineering 7th Ed., p. 7



- The controller continuously compares the measured value of the **controlled** variable y(t) with the **desired value** u(t)
- Based on the resulting **error signal** e(t) = u(t) y(t) it produces an output signal r(t) that influences the plant so as to reduce $e(t) \to 0$ or to as small a value as possible.
- The controller maintains **accurate tracking** of the desired value u(t) and ensures a **high-quality transient response** (smooth and stable), even when the system is affected by disturbances or parameter changes.

- There are many controller types, but most classical control systems start with PID control, which stands for:
 - Proportional (P)
 - Integral (I)
 - Derivative (D)
- The names of the controllers P, I, and D are derived from the method of generating the output signal based on the error signal e(t)
 - The P stands for Proportional, which is based on the current error
 - The I stands for Integral, which is based on the accumulated error over time
 - The D stands for Derivative, which is based on the rate of change of the error.

Proportional Controller



- The proportional controller generates a control signal that is directly proportional to the current error
- The ideal P controller is described by the following equation

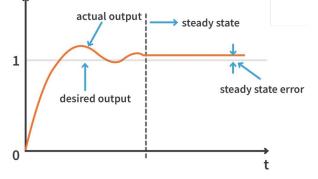
$$r(t) = K_P e(t)$$

- The constant of proportionality K_P is called **proportional gain**
- Transfer function

$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = K_P$$



- The control action increases when the error is large and decreases when the error is small
- A larger proportional gain K_P leads to a faster response but may cause overshoot or instability
- A larger proportional gain K_P reduces steady-state error but cannot eliminate it completely



Proportional Controller

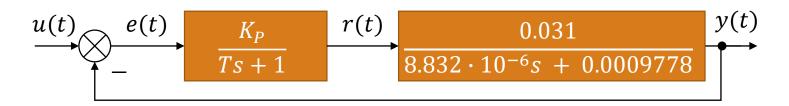


To model real hardware behavior, a first-order lag (time constant) is introduced:

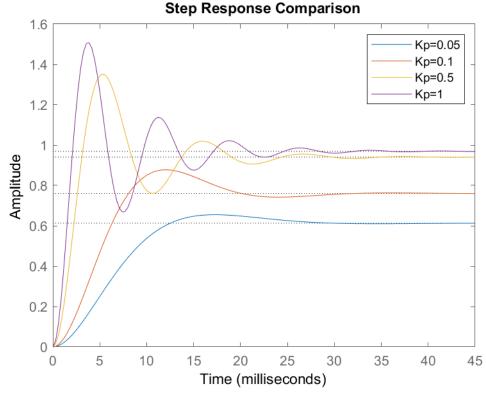
$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_P}{Ts+1}$$

- where K_P is proportional gain and T is controller time constant
- The controller output still increases with the error, but with a finite speed.
- The term Ts + 1 introduces a delay (inertia) that reflects the physical dynamics of the controller or actuator.

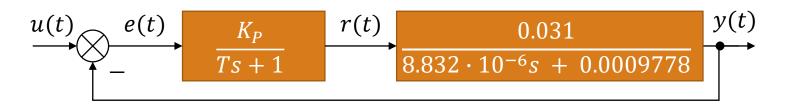
DC motor control with real P controller



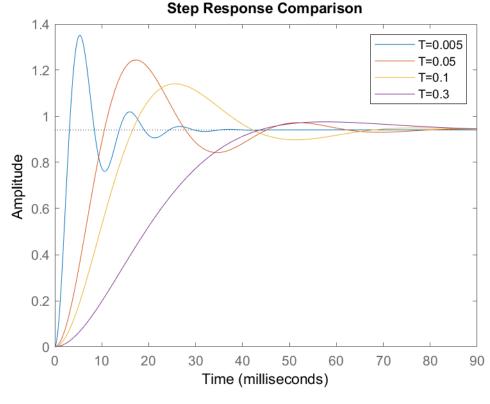
- $K_P = 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1 \text{ and } T = 0.005 s$
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- \blacksquare A larger K_P leads to a faster response
- \blacksquare A larger K_P may cause overshoot or instability
- lacktriangle A larger K_P reduces steady-state error



DC motor control with real P controller



- $K_P = 0.5$ and T = 0.005, 0.05, 0.1, 0.3
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger T leads to a slower response
- A larger T leads to lower overshoot
- A larger T does not change steady-state error

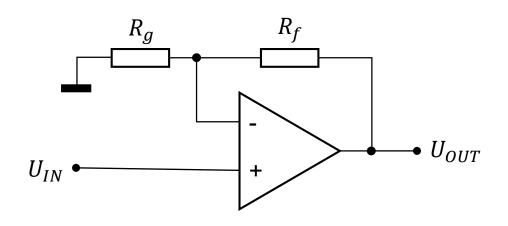


MATLAB Code that was used to generate step responses

```
clear; clc; close all;
s = tf('s'); % definition of symbolic variable
G1=0.031/(8.832e-6*s+9.9184e-6+0.0009679); % DC Motor first-order approximation
K \text{ list} = [0.05 \ 0.1 \ 0.5 \ 1];
T list = [0.005 0.05 0.1 0.3];
figure;
hold on;
for K=K list
    C = K/(0.005*s+1); % controller transfer function
    T=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(T);
end
legend('Kp=0.05','Kp=0.1','Kp=0.5','Kp=1');
figure;
hold on;
for T=T list
    C = 0.5/(T*s+1); % controller transfer function
    Tr=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(Tr);
end
legend('T=0.005','T=0.05','T=0.1','T=0.3');
```

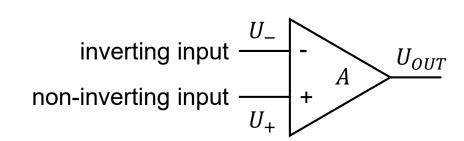
Analog implementation of a Proportional (P) controller

- A proportional controller produces an output proportional to the instantaneous error
- In analog hardware this is implemented as a simple amplifier with gain K_P
- Most common implementation is non-inverting operational amplifier (op-amp)



Transfer function with an ideal op-amp

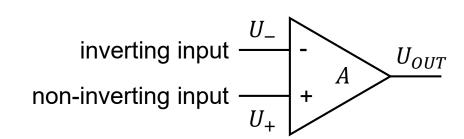
$$\frac{U_{OUT}}{U_{IN}} = 1 + \frac{R_f}{R_g}$$



- Ideal operational amplifier (op-amp)
 - The op-amp has two inputs:
 - "+" (non-inverting input)
 - "-" (inverting input)
 - It is an electronic device that compares two voltages and produces a large voltage output that is proportional to the difference between them

$$U_{OUT} = A(U_+ - U_-)$$

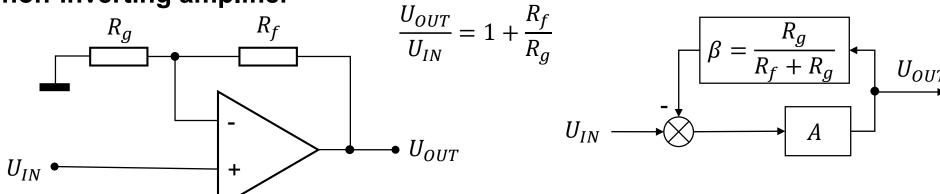
- where A is extremely high from 10^5 to 10^8 and is called amplifier's (open-loop) gain
- Because the op-amp can precisely measure and amplify small differences, we can
 use it to create analog control laws proportional, integral, or derivative actions –
 simply by connecting resistors and capacitors around it.



Ideal operational amplifier (op-amp)

12RSEN Control Systems and Sensors

- The magic of the op-amp comes when we use **feedback** connecting part of the output back to the inverting input.
- Feedback allows the op-amp to automatically adjust its output so that $U_+ \approx U_-$
- This makes the circuit's behavior predictable and linear, even though the op-amp itself has a huge gain.
- With two resistors we can construct the fundamental feedback network called non-inverting amplifier





The integral controller generates a control signal that is proportional to the

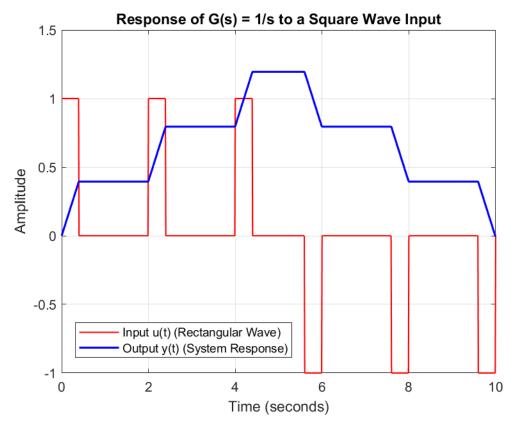
accumulated (integrated) error over time

The ideal I controller is described by the following equation

$$r(t) = K_I \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$$

- The constant of proportionality K_I is called integral gain
- Transfer function

$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_I}{s}$$





- The integral term **eliminates steady-state error** by continuously adjusting the control output until e(t) averages to zero
- Provides zero steady-state error but may slow the response or cause oscillations.
- Often used together with proportional action (PI control).

$$\xrightarrow{e(t)} \frac{K_I}{s(Ts+1)} \xrightarrow{r(t)}$$

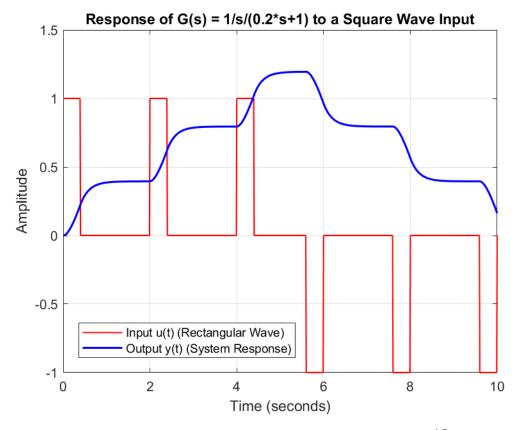
The ideal integrator is a useful mathematical model – but not physically

realizable

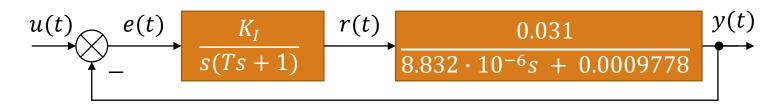
To model real integral controller, a firstorder lag (time constant) is introduced:

$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_I}{s(Ts+1)}$$

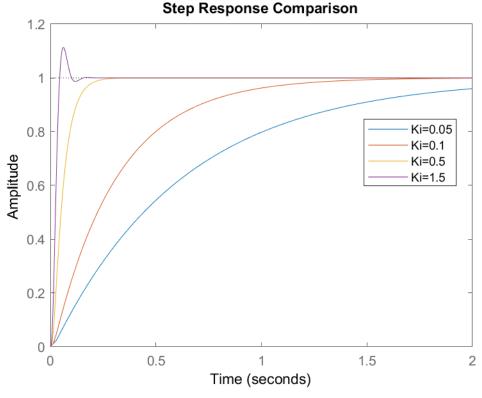
• where K_I is integral gain and T is controller time constant



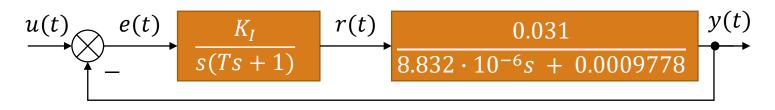
DC motor control with real I controller



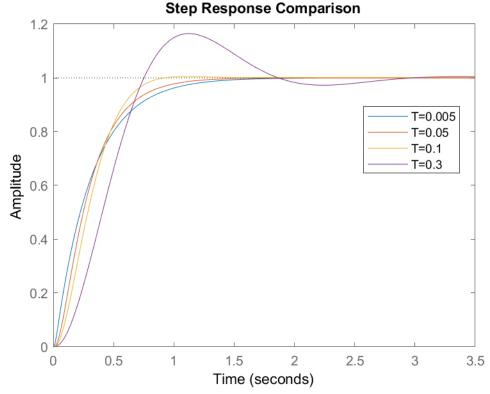
- $K_I = 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1.5 \text{ and } T = 0.005 s$
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- \blacksquare A larger K_I leads to a faster response
- \blacksquare A larger K_I may cause overshoot or instability
- Steady-state error is zero for all K_I



DC motor control with real I controller



- $K_I = 0.1$ and T = 0.005, 0.05, 0.1, 0.3
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger T leads to a slower response
- A larger T may lead to instability

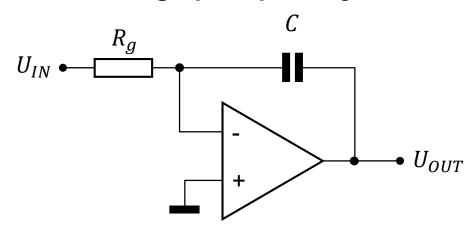


MATLAB Code that was used to generate step responses

```
clear; clc; close all;
s = tf('s'); % definition of symbolic variable
G1=0.031/(8.832e-6*s+9.9184e-6+0.0009679); % DC Motor first-order approximation
K \text{ list} = [0.05 \ 0.1 \ 0.5 \ 1.5];
T list = [0.005 0.05 0.1 0.3];
figure;
hold on;
for K=K list
    C = K/s/(0.005*s+1); % controller transfer function
    T=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(T);
end
legend('Ki=0.05','Ki=0.1','Ki=0.5','Ki=1.5');
figure;
hold on;
for T=T list
    C = 0.1/s/(T*s+1); % controller transfer function
    Tr=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(Tr);
end
legend('T=0.005','T=0.05','T=0.1','T=0.3');
```

Analog implementation of an Integral (I) controller

- An integral controller produces an output proportional to the integrated (accumulated) error over time
- In analog hardware this is implemented with op-amp, a resistor and a capacitor in inverting op-amp configuration



Transfer function with an ideal op-amp

$$\frac{U_{OUT}}{U_{IN}} = -\frac{1}{R_g C s} = \frac{-1/R_g C}{s} \qquad K_I = -\frac{1}{R_g C}$$



- The derivative controller generates a control signal that is proportional to the rate of change of the error
- The ideal D controller is described by the following equation

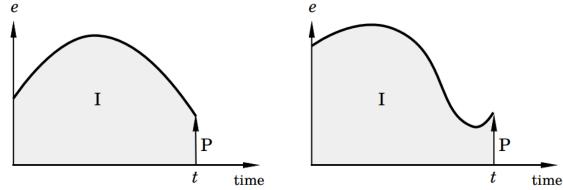
$$r(t) = K_D \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

- The constant of proportionality K_D is called **derivative gain**
- Transfer function

$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = K_D s$$



Reacts to how quickly the error is changing, predicting future behavior of the system



- In the left curve, the control error decreases rapidly and the control action should be cautious, in order not to cause an overshoot
- In the right curve, a decrease in the control error is followed by a sudden increase; here, the controller should apply a large control signal in order to lower the control error.



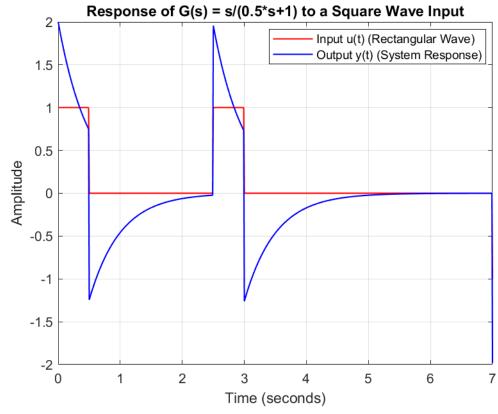
- Improves transient response and damping, reducing overshoot and oscillations
- Highly sensitive to measurement noise, so derivative action must be used carefully and often with filtering
- Derivative controllers can only be used in a feedback path, not alone in the main control path
 - The output of a derivative controller depends on the rate of change of the error e(t)
 - This means that the output is nonzero only when the input is changing.
 - If the control error e(t) is constant, then its derivative is zero so the controller output is zero as well

The ideal derivative is not physically implementable, because it would require infinite bandwidth and infinite gain

To make it physically realizable and noise-resistant, we add a first-order low-pass filter that limits the high-frequency gain

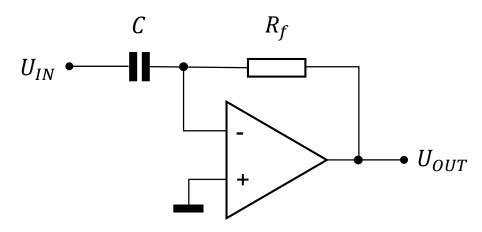
$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_D s}{Ts + 1}$$

• where K_D is **derivative gain** and T is **controller time constant**



Analog implementation of a Derivative (D) controller

- An derivative controller produces an output proportional to the to the rate of change of the error
- In analog hardware this is implemented with op-amp, a resistor and a capacitor in inverting op-amp configuration

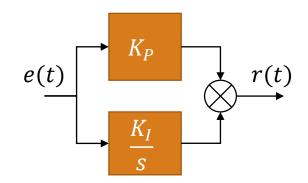


Transfer function with an ideal op-amp

$$\frac{U_{OUT}}{U_{IN}} = -R_f C s \qquad K_D = -R_f C$$

Basic types of controllers Basic Controllers Summary

Controller	Control Law	Main effect	Limitations
Р	$K_P e(t)$	Faster response, reduces error	Steady-state error remains
I	$K_I \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$	Eliminates steady-state error	Slower, may oscillate
D	$K_{D}\frac{de(t)}{dt}$	Improves stability and damping	Sensitive to noise



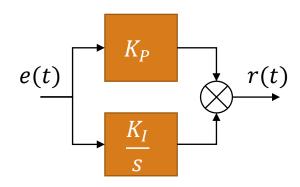
- The PI controller combines the fast response of the P action with the zero steady-state error of the I action
- The ideal PI controller is described by the following equation

$$r(t) = K_P e(t) + K_I \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$$

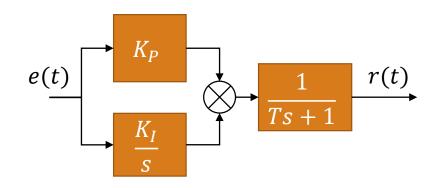
- where K_P is proportional gain, K_I is integral gain
- Transfer function

$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = K_P + \frac{K_I}{s} = K_P \left(1 + \frac{K_I}{K_P} \frac{1}{s} \right) = K_P \left(1 + \frac{1}{T_I s} \right)$$

• where $T_I = \frac{K_P}{K_I}$ is integral time constant



- The PI controller is the most widely used type of controller in practice
- Compared to Proportional controller alone → the PI controller removes steady-state offset
- Compared to Integral controller alone → it is faster and causes less overshoot
- It provides good dynamic and steady-state performance, and it is suitable even for controlling Type 1 systems, where the plant itself already contains one integrator
- Easy to tune (manual or automatic methods) has only two parameters K_P and K_I



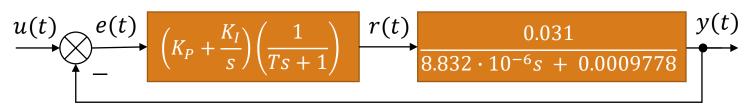
Real (practical) PI controller

■ The ideal form can be made practical by limiting the integrator's bandwidth with a filter, giving:

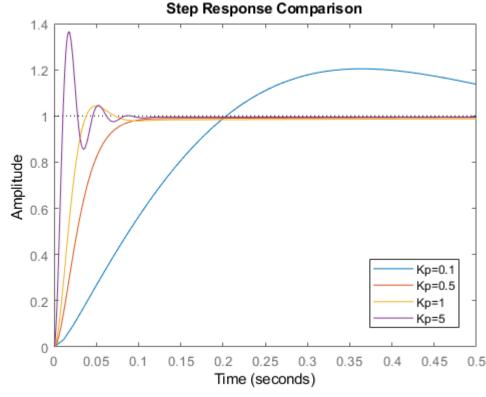
$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = \left(K_P + \frac{K_I}{s}\right) \left(\frac{1}{Ts+1}\right)$$

where T is filter time constant

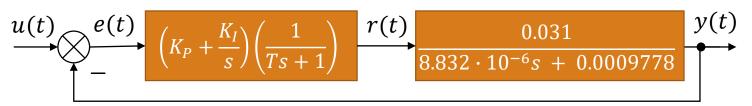
DC motor control with real PI controller



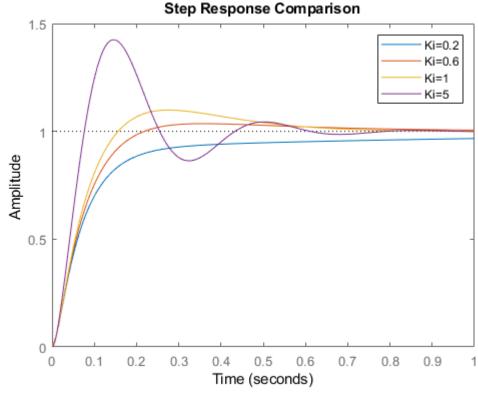
- $K_P = 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 5.0$ and $K_I = 0.8$ and T = 0.5 s
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger K_P leads to a faster response but may cause overshoot
- \blacksquare A larger K_P amplifies measurement noise



DC motor control with real PI controller



- $K_P = 0.2$ and $K_I = 0.2, 0.6 \ 1.0 \ 5.0$ and $T = 0.5 \ s$
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger K_I leads to a faster response but may cause overshoot

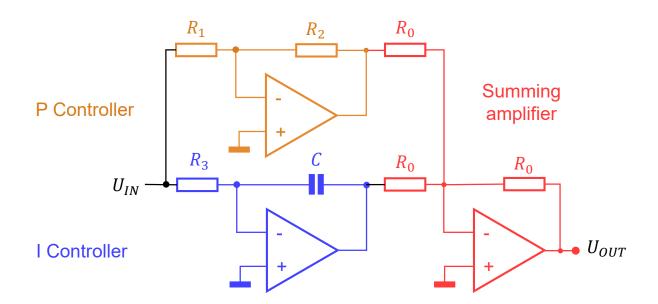


MATLAB Code that was used to generate step responses

```
clear; clc; close all;
s = tf('s'); % definition of symbolic variable
G1=0.031/(8.832e-6*s+9.9184e-6+0.0009679); % DC Motor first-order approximation
Kp list = [0.1 0.5 1 5];
Ki \ list = [0.2 \ 0.6 \ 1 \ 5];
figure; hold on;
Ki = 0.8; %integral gain
Tf = 0.1; % filter time constant
for Kp=Kp list
    C = (Kp+Ki/s)/(Tf*s+1); % controller transfer function
    T=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(T,1);
end
title('Step Response Comparison');
legend('Kp=0.1','Kp=0.5','Kp=1','Kp=5');
figure; hold on;
Kp = 0.8;
for Ki=Ki list
    C = (Kp+Ki/s)/(Tf*s+1); % controller transfer function
    Tr=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(Tr,1);
end
title('Step Response Comparison');
legend('Ki=0.2','Ki=0.6','Ki=1','Ki=5');
```

Analog implementation of PI controller

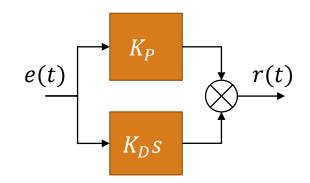
In analog hardware it is implemented with three op-amps in inverting op-amp configuration



Transfer function with ideal op-amps

$$\frac{U_{OUT}}{U_{IN}} = -\left(-\frac{R_2}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_3 Cs}\right) = \frac{R_2}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_3 Cs}$$

$$K_P = \frac{R_2}{R_1}, K_I = \frac{1}{R_3 C}$$



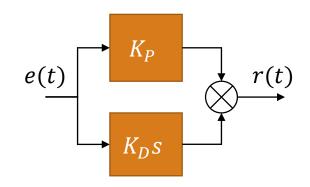
- A PD controller improves speed and stability rather than steady-state accuracy
- The ideal PD controller is described by the following equation

$$r(t) = K_P e(t) + K_D \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

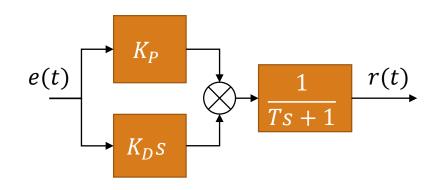
- where K_P is proportional gain, K_D is derivative gain
- Transfer function

$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = K_P + K_D s = K_P \left(1 + \frac{K_D}{K_P} s \right) = K_P (1 + T_D s)$$

• where $T_D = \frac{K_D}{K_P}$ is derivative time constant



- A PD controller improves speed and stability rather than steady-state accuracy
- The limitation of a P controller: increasing K_P speeds up the response but also increases overshoot and can cause oscillation
- We want the system to respond faster without becoming unstable
- So we add a derivative term to anticipate changes in the error
 like predicting where the system is heading

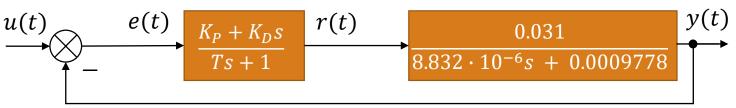


- Real (practical) PD controller
- To make ideal PD controller realizable, we need to add a small time constant T (a low-pass filter) in the denominator:

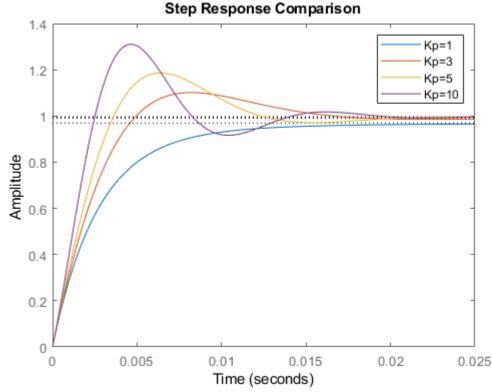
$$G(s) = \frac{R(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{K_P + K_D s}{Ts + 1}$$

where T is filter time constant

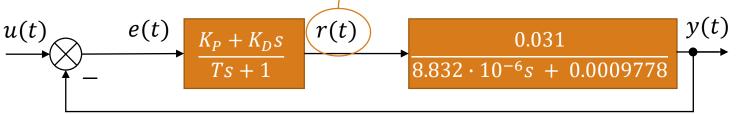
DC motor control with real PD controller



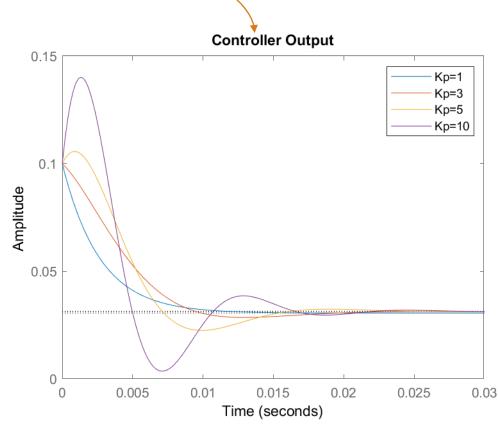
- $K_P = 1, 3, 5, 10$ and $K_D = 0.01$ and T = 0.1 s
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger K_P leads to a faster response but may cause overshoot
- \blacksquare A larger K_P amplifies measurement noise



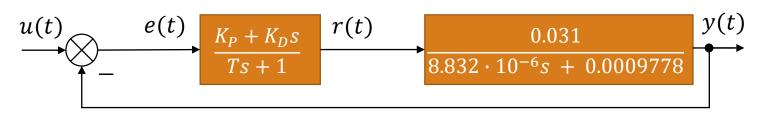
DC motor control with real PD controller



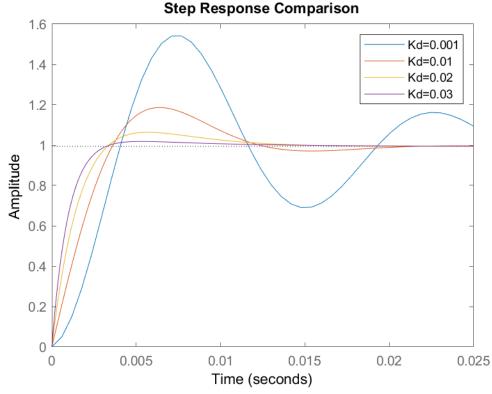
- $K_P = 1, 3, 5, 10$ and $K_D = 0.01$ and T = 0.1 s
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger K_P leads to a faster response but may cause overshoot
- \blacksquare A larger K_P amplifies measurement noise



DC motor control with real PD controller



- $K_P = 5$ and $K_D = 0.001, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03$ and T = 0.1 s
- Input u(t): Unit step function
- A larger K_D leads to a faster response and improved stability (lower overshoot)
- \blacksquare A larger K_D amplifies measurement noise



MATLAB Code that was used to generate step responses

```
clear; clc; close all;
s = tf('s'); % definition of symbolic variable
G1=0.031/(8.832e-6*s+9.9184e-6+0.0009679); % DC Motor first-order
approximation
Kp list = [1 3 5 10];
Kd list = [0.001 0.01 0.02 0.03];
f1 = figure; hold on; % open figure for plotting step responses
f2 = figure; hold on; % open another figure for ploting controller outputs
Kd = 0.01; %derivative gain
Tf = 0.1; % filter time constant
for Kp=Kp list
    C = (Kp+Kd*s)/(Tf*s+1); % controller transfer function
    T=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    PDout=feedback(C,G1); % controller output vs. input transfer func.
    figure(f1); step(T);
    figure(f2); step(PDout);
figure(f1);
title('Step Response Comparison');
legend('Kp=1','Kp=3','Kp=5','Kp=10');
figure(f2);
title('Controller Output');
legend('Kp=1','Kp=3','Kp=5','Kp=10');
```

```
figure; hold on;
Kp = 5;
for Kd=Kd_list
    C = (Kp+Kd*s)/(Tf*s+1); % controller transfer function
    Tr=feedback(G1*C,1,-1); % feedback loop transfer function
    step(Tr);
end
title('Step Response Comparison');
legend('Kd=0.001','Kd=0.01','Kd=0.02','Kd=0.03');
```