Lecture 1

- Introduction Course mechanics
- History
- Modern control engineering

Introduction - Course Mechanics

- What this course is about?
- Prerequisites & course place in the curriculum
- Course mechanics
- Outline and topics
- Your instructor

What this course is about?

- Embedded computing is becoming ubiquitous
- Need to process sensor data and influence physical world. This is control and knowing its main concepts is important.
- Much of control theory is esoteric and difficult
- 90% of the real world applications are based on 10% of the existing control methods and theory
- The course is about these 10%

Prerequisites and course place

- Prerequisites:
 - Linear algebra: EE263, Math 103
 - Systems and control: EE102, ENGR 105, ENGR 205
- Helpful
 - Matlab
 - Modeling and simulation
 - Optimization
 - Application fields
 - Some control theory good, but not assumed.
- Learn more advanced control theory in :
 - ENGR 207, ENGR 209, and ENGR 210

Course Mechanics

- Descriptive in addition to math and theory
- Grading
 - 25% Homework Assignments (4 at all)
 - 35% Midterm Project
 - 40% Final Project
- Notes at www.stanford.edu/class/ee392M/
- Reference texts
 - Control System Design, Astrom, posted as PDF
 - *Feedback Control of Dynamic Systems*, Fourth Edition, Franklin, Powell, Emami-Naeini, Prentice Hall, 2002
 - *Control System Design*, Goodwin, Graebe, Salgado, Prentice Hall, 2001

Outline and topics

Lectures - Mondays & Fridays Assignments - Fridays, due on Friday

Lecture topics

- 1. Introduction and history
- 2. Modeling and simulation
- 3. Control engineering problems
- 4. PID control
 - 5. Feedforward
 - 6. SISO loop analysis
 - 7. SISO system design

8. Model identification
9. Processes with deadtime, IMC
10. Controller tuning
11. Multivariable control - optimization
12. Multivariable optimal program
13. MPC - receding horizon control
14. Handling nonlinearity
15. System health management
16. Overview of advanced topics

Who is your instructor?

- Dimitry Gorinevsky
- Consulting faculty (EE)
- Honeywell Labs
 - Minneapolis
 - Cupertino
- Control applications across many industries
- PhD from Moscow University
 - Moscow \rightarrow Munich \rightarrow Toronto \rightarrow Vancouver \rightarrow Palo Alto

Some stuff I worked on



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Control Engineering

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Lecture 1 - Control History

- Watt's governor
- Thermostat
- Feedback Amplifier
- Missile range control
- TCP/IP
- DCS

Why bother about the history?

- Trying to guess, where the trend goes
- Many of the control techniques that are talked about are there for historical reasons mostly. Need to understand that.

1788 Watt's Flyball Governor

- Watt's Steam Engine
- Newcomen's steam engine (1712) had limited success
- Beginning of systems engineering
- Watt's systems engineering addon started the Industrial Revolution
- Analysis of James Clark Maxwell (1868)
- Vyshnegradsky (1877)



From the 1832 Edinburgh Encyclopaedia

Rubs

- Mechanical technology use was extended from power to regulation
- It worked and improved reliability of steam engines significantly by automating operator's function
- Analysis was done much later (some 100 years) this is typical!
- Parallel discovery of major theoretical approaches

Watt's governor

• Analysis of James Clark Maxwell (1868)



$$ml\ddot{\phi} = l\left(m\omega_{G}^{2}l\sin\phi\cos\phi - mg\sin\phi - b\dot{\phi}\right)$$

$$J\dot{\omega}_E = k\cos\phi - T_L$$
$$\omega_G = n\omega_E$$

• Linearization

$$\phi = \phi_0 + x \qquad x << 1$$

$$\omega_E = \omega_0 + y \qquad y << 1$$

$$\ddot{y} + a_1 \ddot{y} + a_2 \dot{y} + a_3 y = 0$$

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Watt's governor



• Gist:

- Model; P feedback control; linearization; LHP poles

• All still valid

1885 Thermostat

- 1885 Al Butz invented damper-flapper
 - bimetal plate (sensor/control)
 - motor to move the furnace damper)
- Started a company that became Honeywell in 1927



- Thermostat switching on makes the main motor shaft to turn one-half revolution opening the furnace's air damper.
- Thermostat switching off makes the motor to turn another half revolution, closing the damper and damping the fire.
- On-off control based on threshold

Rubs

- Use of emerging electrical system technology
- Significant market for heating regulation (especially in Minnesota and Wisconsin)
- Increased comfort and fuel savings passed to the customer customer value proposition
- Integrated control device with an actuator. Add-on device installed with existing heating systems

1930s Feedback Amplifier

- Signal amplification in first telecom systems (telephone) Analog vacuum tube amplifier technology R_2

 $\frac{V_1}{V_2} = R_1 \left[\frac{1}{R_2} - \frac{1}{G} \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \right) \right] = -\frac{R_1}{R_2} \left[1 - \frac{1}{G} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \right]$

• Bode's analysis of the transients in the amplifiers (1940)

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Feedback Amplifier - Rubs

- Electronic systems technology
- Large communication market
- Useful properties of large gain feedback realized: linearization, error insensitivity
- Conceptual step. It was initially unclear why the feedback loop would work dynamically, why would it not grow unstable.

1940s WWII Military Applications

- Sperry Gyroscope Company flight instruments later bought by Honeywell to become Honeywell aerospace control business.
- Servosystem gun pointing, ship steering, using gyro
- Norden bombsight Honeywell C-1 autopilot over 110,000 manufactured.
- Concepts electromechanical feedback, PID control.
- Nyquist, servomechanism, transfer function analysis,

Autopilot - Rubs

- Enabled by the navigation technology Sperry gyro
- Honeywell got the autopilot contract because of its control system expertise in thermostats
- Emergence of cross-application control engineering technology and control business specialization.

1960s - Rocket science

- SS-7 missile range control
 - through the main engine cutoff time.

- Range $r = F(\Delta V_x, \Delta V_y, \Delta X, \Delta Y)$
- Range Error



USSR R-16/8K64/SS-7/Saddler Copyright © 2001 RussianSpaceWeb.com http://www.russianspaceweb.com/r16.html

- $\delta r(t) = f_1 \Delta V_x(t) + f_2 \Delta V_y(t) + f_3 \Delta X(t) + f_4 \Delta Y(t)$
- Algorithm:
 - track $\delta r(t)$, cut the engine of f at T when $\delta r(T) = 0$

Missile range control - Rubs

- Nominal trajectory needs to be pre-computed and optimized
- Need to have an accurate inertial navigation system to estimate the speed and coordinates
- Need to have feedback control that keeps the missile close to the nominal trajectory (guidance and flight control system)
- f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4 , and f_T must be pre-computed
- Need to have an on-board device continuously computing $\delta r(t) = f_1 \Delta V_x(t) + f_2 \Delta V_y(t) + f_3 \Delta X(t) + f_4 \Delta Y(t)$

1975 - Distributed Control System

- 1963 Direct digital control was introduced at a petrochemical plant. (Texaco)
- 1970 PLC's were introduced on the market.
- 1975 First DCS was introduced by Honeywell
- PID control, flexible software
- Networked control system, configuration tuning and access from one UI station
- Auto-tuning technology

DCS example

Honeywell Experion PKS

Honeywell Plantscape



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DCS - Rubs

- Digital technology + networking
- Rapid pace of the process industry automation
- The same PID control algorithms
- Deployment, support and maintenance cost reduction for massive amount of loops
- Autotuning technology
- Industrial digital control is becoming a commodity
- Facilitates deployment of supervisory control and monitoring

1974 - TCP/IP



- TCP/IP Cerf/Kahn, 1974
- Berkeley-LLNL network crash, 1984
- Congestion control -Van Jacobson, 1986





- Flow control dynamics near the maximal transmission rate
- From S.Low, F.Paganini, J.Doyle, 2000

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TCP Reno congestion avoidance

- packet acknowledgment rate: *x*
- lost packets: with probability q

$$\Delta x_{lost} = -xW / 2$$

• transmitted: with probability (1-q) $\Delta x_{sent} = x/W$



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for every loss {

for every ACK {

}

W = W/2

W += 1/W

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TCP flow control - Rubs

- Flow control enables stable operation of the Internet
- Developed by CS folks no 'controls' analysis
- Ubiquitous, TCP stack is on 'every' piece of silicon
- Analysis and systematic design is being developed some 20 years later
- The behavior of the network is important. We looked at a single transmission.
- Most of analysis and systematic design activity in 4-5 last years and this is not over yet ...

Modern Control Engineering

- What BIG control application is coming next?
- Where and how control technology will be used?
- What do we need to know about controls to get by?

Modern Control Engineering



• This course is focused on **control computing** algorithms and their relationship with the overall system design.

Modern control systems

- Why this is relevant and important at present?
- Computing is becoming ubiquitous
- Sensors are becoming miniaturized, cheap, and pervasive. MEMS sensors
- Actuator technology developments include:
 - evolution of existing types
 - previously hidden in the system, not actively controlled
 - micro-actuators (piezo, MEMS)
 - control handles other than mechanical actuators, e.g., in telecom

Measurement system evolution. Navigation system example



• Laser ring gyro, used in aerospace presently.

- MEMS gyro good for any vehicle/mobile appliance.
 - $(1'')^3$ integrated navigation unit

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•Mechanical gyro by Sperry – for ships, aircraft. Honeywell acquired Sperry Aerospace in 1986 - avionics, space.

LOANIE

Circuitn

Axis Ref.

Master Clock

1-33

Oircuite

HeNe Laser Discharge Tube

Actuator evolution

• Electromechanical actuators: car power everything



• Adaptive optics, MEMS



• Communication - digital PLL



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Control computing

- Computing grows much faster than the sensors and actuators
- CAD tools, such as Matlab/Simulink, allow focusing on algorithm design. Implementation is automated
- Past: control was done by dedicated and highly specialized experts. Still the case for some very advanced systems in aerospace, military, automotive, etc.
- Present: control and signal-processing technology are standard technologies associated with computing.
- Embedded systems are often designed by system/software engineers.
- This course emphasizes practically important issues of control computing

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Lecture 2 - Modeling and Simulation

- Model types: ODE, PDE, State Machines, Hybrid
- Modeling approaches:
 - physics based (white box)
 - input-output models (black box)
- Linear systems
- Simulation
- Modeling uncertainty
Goals

- Review dynamical modeling approaches used for control analysis and simulation
- Most of the material us assumed to be known
- Target audience
 - people specializing in controls practical

Modeling in Control Engineering



Models

- Model is a mathematical representations of a system
 - Models allow simulating and analyzing the system
 - Models are never exact
- Modeling depends on your goal
 - A single system may have many models
 - Always understand what is the purpose of the model
 - Large 'libraries' of standard model templates exist
 - A conceptually new model is a big deal
- Main goals of modeling in control engineering
 - conceptual analysis
 - detailed simulation

Modeling approaches

- Controls analysis uses deterministic models. Randomness and uncertainty are usually not dominant.
- White box models: physics described by ODE and/or PDE
- Dynamics, Newton mechanics

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

• Space flight: add control inputs u and measured outputs y $\dot{x} = f(x, u, t)$

$$y = g(x, u, t)$$

Orbital mechanics example



1643-1736

- Newton's mechanics
 - fundamental laws
 - dynamics

$$\dot{v} = -\gamma m \cdot \frac{r}{\left|r\right|^{3}} + F_{pert}(t)$$

 $\dot{r} = v$





- Laplace
 - computational dynamics
 (pencil & paper computations)
 - deterministic model-based prediction

1749-1827 EE392m - Winter 2003

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

 r_2

 r_3

 \mathcal{V}_1

 \mathcal{V}_2

 v_3

Orbital mechanics example



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Gene expression model

System variables and symbols

Santillán-Mackey Model Equations

$$\begin{split} \dot{O}_{F} &= \frac{K_{r}}{K_{r} + R_{A}(T)} \{ \mu O - k_{p} P[O_{F}(t) - O_{F}(t - \tau_{p})e^{-\mu\tau_{p}}] \} - \mu O_{F}(t) \\ \dot{M}_{F} &= k_{p} PO_{F}(t - \tau_{m})e^{-\mu\tau_{m}}[1 - A(T)] - k_{p}\rho[M_{F}(t) - M_{F}(t - \tau_{p})e^{-\mu\tau_{p}}] - (k_{d}D + \mu)M_{F}(t) \\ \dot{E} &= \frac{1}{2}k_{p}\rho M_{F}(t - \tau_{e})e^{-\mu\tau_{e}} - (\gamma + \mu)E(t) \\ \dot{T} &= KE_{A}(E,T) - G(T) + F(T,T_{ext}) - \mu T(t) \\ R_{A}(t) &\coloneqq R\frac{T(t)}{T(t) + K_{t}} \\ A(T) &\coloneqq b(1 - e^{-T(t)/e}) \\ E_{A}(E,T) &\coloneqq \frac{K_{i}^{nH}}{K_{i}^{nH} + T^{nH}(t)}E(t) \\ G(T) &\coloneqq g\frac{T(t)}{T(t) + K_{g}} \\ F(T,T_{ext}) &\coloneqq d\frac{T_{ext}}{e + T_{ext}[1 + T(t)/f]} \end{split}$$

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Sampled Time Models

- Time is often sampled because of the digital computer use
 - computations, numerical integration of continuous-time ODE

$$x(t+d) \approx x(t) + d \cdot f(x,u,t), \qquad t = kd$$

- digital (sampled time) control system

$$x(t+d) = f(x, u, t)$$
$$y = g(x, u, t)$$

- Time can be sampled because this is how a system works
- Example: bank account balance
 - -x(t) balance in the end of day t
 - u(t) total of deposits and withdrawals that day
 - y(t) displayed in a daily statement
- Unit delay operator z^{-1} : $z^{-1}x(t) = x(t-1)$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) + u(t)$$
$$y = x$$

Finite state machines

• TCP/IP State Machine



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Hybrid systems

- Combination of continuous-time dynamics and a state machine
- Thermostat example
- Tools are not fully established yet





PDE models

- Include functions of spatial variables
 - electromagnetic fields
 - mass and heat transfer
 - fluid dynamics
 - structural deformations
- Example: sideways heat equation

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}$$
$$T(0) = u; \qquad T(1) = 0$$
$$y = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\Big|_{x=1}$$



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Black-box models

• Black-box models - describe *P* as an operator



- AA, ME, Physics state space, ODE and PDE
- EE black-box,
- ChE use anything
- CS state machines, probablistic models, neural networks

Linear Systems

- Impulse response
- FIR model
- IIR model
- State space model
- Frequency domain
- Transfer functions
- Sampled vs. continuous time
- Linearization

Linear System (black-box)

• Linearity

 $u_1(\cdot) \xrightarrow{P} y_1(\cdot) \qquad u_2(\cdot) \xrightarrow{P} y_2(\cdot)$ $au_1(\cdot) + bu_2(\cdot) \xrightarrow{P} ay_1(\cdot) + by_2(\cdot)$

• Linear Time-Invariant systems - LTI $u(\cdot - T) \xrightarrow{P} y(\cdot - T)$



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Impulse response

• Response to an input impulse



- Sampled time: *t* = 1, 2, ...
- Control history = linear combination of the impulses ⇒ system response = linear combination of the impulse responses

$$u(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta(t-k)u(k)$$
$$y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} h(t-k)u(k) = (h*u)(t)$$

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Linear PDE System Example

- Heat transfer equation,
 - boundary temperature input *u*
 - heat flux output y





FIR model

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} h_{FIR}(t-k)u(k) = (h_{FIR} * u)(t)$$

- FIR = Finite Impulse Response
- Cut off the trailing part of the pulse response to obtain FIR
- FIR filter state *x*. Shift register



IIR model

- IIR model: $y(t) = -\sum_{k=1}^{n_a} a_k y(t-k) + \sum_{k=0}^{n_b} b_k u(t-k)$
- Filter states: $y(t-1), ..., y(t-n_a), u(t-1), ..., u(t-n_b)$



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IIR model

- Matlab implementation of an IIR model: filter
- Transfer function realization: unit delay operator z^{-1}

$$y(t) = H(z)u(t)$$

$$H(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_N z^{-N}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}} = \frac{b_0 z^N + b_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + b_N}{z^N + a_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + a_N}$$

$$\underbrace{\left(1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}\right)}_{A(z)} y(t) = \underbrace{\left(b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_N z^{-N}\right)}_{B(z)} u(t)$$

• FIR model is a special case of an IIR with A(z) = 1 (or z^N)

IIR approximation example

- Low order IIR approximation of impulse response: (prony in Matlab Signal Processing Toolbox)
- Fewer parameters than a FIR model
- Example: sideways heat transfer
 - pulse response h(t)
 - approximation with IIR filter $a = [a_1 \ a_2], b = [b_0 \ b_1 \ b_2 \ b_3 \ b_4]$



Linear state space model

• Generic state space model:

$$x(t+1) = f(x, u, t)$$
$$y = g(x, u, t)$$

- LTI state space model
 - another form of IIR model
 - physics-based linear system model

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

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

- $y = \left[(Iz A)^{-1}B + D \right] \cdot u$ $H(z) = (Iz A)^{-1}B + D$
- Matlab commands for model conversion: help ltimodels

Frequency domain description

• Sinusoids are eigenfunctions of an LTI system: y = H(z)u

$$\begin{array}{c} & \text{LTI} \\ \text{Plant} \end{array} \xrightarrow{} & \begin{array}{c} & \text{OV} \\ & \text{Plant} \end{array} \end{array}$$
$$z^{-1}e^{i\omega t} = e^{i\omega(t-1)} = e^{-i\omega}e^{i\omega t}$$

• Frequency domain analysis

$$u = \int \widetilde{u}(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega \Rightarrow y = \int \underbrace{H(e^{i\omega})\widetilde{u}(\omega)}_{\widetilde{y}(\omega)} e^{i\omega t} d\omega$$

$$u \Longrightarrow \overset{\text{Packet}}{\text{of}} \underbrace{e^{i\omega t}}_{\widetilde{u}(\omega)} \Rightarrow \underbrace{H(e^{i\omega})}_{\text{Sinusoids}} \overset{\text{Packet}}{\text{of}} \underbrace{e^{i\omega t}}_{\text{Sinusoids}} \Rightarrow y$$
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Black-box model from data

- Linear black-box model can be determined from the data, e.g., step response data
- This is called model identification
- Lecture 8

z-transform, Laplace transform

- Formal description of the transfer function:
 - function of complex variable *z*
 - analytical outside the circle $|z| \ge r$
 - for a stable system $r \leq 1$

- function of complex variable *s*
- analytical in a half plane Re $s \le a$
- for a stable system $a \leq 1$

$$H(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} h(k) z^{-k}$$

$$H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t)e^{st}dt$$
$$\hat{y}(s) = H(s)\hat{u}(s)$$

Stability analysis

- Transfer function poles tell you everything about stability
- Model-based analysis for a simple feedback example:

- If *H*(*z*) is a rational transfer function describing an IIR model
- Then *L*(*z*) also is a rational transfer function describing an IIR model

Poles and Zeros <=> System

- ...not quite so!
- Example:

$$y = H(z)u = \frac{z}{z - 0.7}$$





IIR/FIR example - cont'd

• Feedback control:

$$y = H(z)u = \frac{z}{z - 0.7}$$

 $u = -K(y - y_d) = -(y - y_d)$

• Closed loop:

$$y = \frac{H(z)}{1 + H(z)}u = L(z)u$$

$$y = \frac{H_{FIR}(z)}{1 + H_{FIR}(z)}u = L_{FIR}(z)u$$



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IIR/FIR example - cont'd Poles and zeros

- Blue: Loop with IIR model poles x and zeros o
- Red: Loop with FIR model poles x and zeros o



Control Engineering

LTI models - summary

- Linear system can be described by impulse response
- Linear system can be described by frequency response = Fourier transform of the impulse response
- FIR, IIR, State-space models can be used to obtain close approximations of a linear system
- A pattern of poles and zeros can be very different for a small change in approximation error.
- Approximation error <=> model uncertainty

Nonlinear map linearization

- Nonlinear detailed model
- Linear conceptual design model
- Static map, gain range, sector linearity
- Differentiation, secant method

$$y = f(u) \approx \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta u} (u - u_0)$$



Nonlinear state space model linearization

- Linearize the r.h.s. map $\dot{x} = f(x,u) \approx \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} \underbrace{(x x_0)}_{q} + \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta u} \underbrace{(u u_0)}_{v}$ $\dot{q} = Aq + Bv$
- Secant method $\begin{bmatrix} \Delta f \\ \Delta x \end{bmatrix}^{j} = \frac{f(x + s_{j})}{s_{j}}$ $s_{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 1 \\ \#_{j} & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
- Or ... capture a response to small step and build an impulse response model

Sampled time vs. continuous time

• Continuous time analysis (Digital implementation of continuous time controller)

- Tustin's method = trapezoidal rule of integration for $H(s) = \frac{1}{2}$

$$H(s) \to H_s(z) = H\left(s = \frac{2}{T} \cdot \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1}}\right)$$

- Matched Zero Pole: map each zero and a pole in accordance with $s = e^{sT}$

• Sampled time analysis (Sampling of continuous signals and system)

Sampled and continuous time

- Sampled and continuous time together
- Continuous time physical system + digital controller
 - ZOH = Zero Order Hold



Signal sampling, aliasing

• Nyquist frequency: $\omega_{\rm N} = \frac{1}{2}\omega_{\rm S}; \ \omega_{\rm S} = 2\pi/T$



- Frequency folding: $k\omega_s \pm \omega$ map to the same frequency ω
- Sampling Theorem: sampling is OK if there are no frequency components above ω_N
- Practical approach to anti-aliasing: low pass filter (LPF)
- Sampled→continuous: impostoring



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Simulation

- ODE solution
 - dynamical model: $\dot{x} = f(x, t)$
 - Euler integration method: $x(t+d) = x(t) + d \cdot f(x(t), t)$
 - Runge-Kutta: **ode45** in Matlab
- Can do simple problems by integrating ODEs
- Issues:
 - mixture of continuous and sampled time
 - hybrid logic (conditions)
 - state machines
 - stiff systems, algebraic loops
 - systems integrated out of many subsystems
 - large projects, many people contribute different subsystems


Model block development

- Look up around for available conceptual models
- Physics conceptual modeling
- Science (analysis, simple conceptual abstraction) vs. engineering (design, detailed models - out of simple blocks)

Modeling uncertainty

- Modeling uncertainty:
 - unknown signals
 - model errors
- Controllers work with real systems:
 - Signal processing: data \rightarrow algorithm \rightarrow data
 - Control: algorithms in a feedback loop with *a real* system
- BIG question: Why controller designed for a model would *ever* work with a *real* system?
 - Robustness, gain and phase margins,
 - Control design model, vs. control analysis model
 - Monte-Carlo analysis a fancy name for a desperate approach

Lecture 3 - Model-based Control Engineering

- Control application and a platform
- Systems platform: hardware, systems software. Development steps
- Model-based design
- Control solution deployment and support
- Control application areas

Generality of control

- Modeling abstraction
- Computing element software
- System, actuator, and sensor physics might be very different
- Control and system engineering is used across many applications
 - similar principles
 - transferable skills
 - mind the application!

System platform for control computing

- Workstations
 - advanced process control
 - enterprise optimizers
 - computing servers
 (QoS/admission control)
- Specialized controllers:
 - PLC, DCS, motion controllers, hybrid controllers





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System platform for control computing

- Embedded: μP + software
- DSP

• FPGA



• ASIC / SoC



Complex-inte pipeline PCI-X bridge GPB 32 x 32 Simple-integer BTAC SDRAM DDB pipeline MML controller 13-bit ad GPR BHT 4K 32 x 32 Load-store pipeline DCR bus JTAG Interrupt 440 CPU and timers Debug Trace MAL 48 internal 13 external Interrupt interrupts controlle (4-channel) On-chip peripheral bus (OPB) 32 bits, 66 MHz Ethernet0 Ethernet MAC External peripheral bus GPT MAC 1 MII or 2 RMII 10/100 MHz

MPC555

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Control Engineering

System platform, cont'd

- Analog/mixed electric circuits
 - power controllers
 - RF circuits
- Analog/mixed other
 - Gbs optical networks



Controls development cycle

- Analysis and modeling
 - physical model, or empirical, or data driven
 - use a simplified design model
 - system trade study defines system design
- Heavy use of CAD tools
- Simulation
 - design validation using detailed performance model
- System development
 - control application, software platform, hardware platform
- Validation and verification
 - against initial specs
- Certification/commissioning

Control application software development cycle

- Matlab+toolboxes
- Simulink
- Stateflow
- Real-time Workshop

C



Hardware-in-the-loop simulation

- Aerospace
- Process control
- Automotive



Embedded Software Development





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Control Technology

- Science
 - abstraction
 - concepts
 - simplified models
- Engineering
 - building new things
 - constrained resources: time, money,
- Technology
 - repeatable processes
 - control platform technology
 - control engineering technology

Controls development cycle



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Controls analysis



Algorithms/Analysis

Much more than real-time control feedback computations

- modeling
- identification
- tuning
- optimization
- feedforward
- feedback
- estimation and navigation
- user interface
- diagnostics and system self-test
- system level logic, mode change

Practical Issues of Control Design

- Technical requirements
- Economics: value added, # of replications
 - automotive, telecom, disk drives millions of copies produced
 - space, aviation unique to dozens to several hundreds
 - process control each process is unique, hundreds of the same type
- Developer interests
- Integration with existing system features
- Skill set in engineering development and support
- Field service/support requirements
- Marketing/competition, creation of unique IP
- Regulation/certification: FAA/FDA

Major control applications

Specialized control groups, formal development processes

- Aviation
 - avionics: Guidance, Navigation, & Control
 - propulsion engines
 - vehicle power and environmental control
- Automotive
 - powertrain
 - suspension, traction, braking, steering
- Disk drives
- Industrial automation and process control
 - process industries: refineries, pulp and paper, chemical
 - semiconductor manufacturing processes
 - home and buildings

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Commercial applications

Advanced design - commercial

- Embedded mechanical
 - mechatronics/drive control
- Robotics
 - lab automation
 - manufacturing plant robots (e.g., automotive)
 - semiconductors
- Power
 - generation and transmission
- Transportation
 - locomotives, elevators
 - marine
- Nuclear engineering

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High-performance applications

Advanced design

- Defense and space
 - aero, ground, space vehicles piloted and unmanned
 - missiles/munitions
 - comm and radar: ground, aero, space
 - campaign control: C4ISR
 - directed energy
- Science instruments
 - astronomy
 - accelerators
 - fusion: TOKAMAKs, LLNL ignition

Embedded applications

No specialized control groups

- Embedded controllers
 - consumer
 - test and measurement
 - power/current
 - thermal control
- Telecom
 - PLLs, equalizers
 - antennas, wireless, las comm
 - flow/congestion control
 - optical networks analog, physics

Emerging control applications

A few selected cases

• Biomedical

- life support: pacemakers anesthesia
- diagnostics: MRI scanners, etc
- ophthalmology
- bio-informatics equipment
- robotics surgery
- Computing
 - task/load balancing
- Finance and economics
 - trading

Lecture 4 - PID Control

- 90% (or more) of control loops in industry are PID
- Simple control design model \rightarrow simple controller

P control

- Integrator plant:
 - $\dot{y} = u + d$



• P controller:

$$u = -k_P(y - y_d)$$

Example:

Utilization control in a video server Video stream *i*

- processing time *c*[*i*], period *p*[*i*]
- CPU utilization: U[i]=c[i]/p[i]



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P control

• Closed-loop dynamics

$$\begin{aligned} y_d(t) &= \hat{y}_d(i\omega)e^{i\omega t} \\ d(t) &= \hat{d}(i\omega)e^{i\omega t} \end{aligned} \quad \left| \hat{y}(i\omega) \right| = \frac{\left| \hat{y}_d(i\omega) + \hat{d}(i\omega) / k_p \right|}{\sqrt{(\omega/k_p)^2 + 1}} \end{aligned}$$

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•

I control

- $y = g \cdot u + d,$
- Introduce integrator into control $\dot{u} = v$,

$$v = -k_I(y - y_d)$$

• Closed-loop dynamics

$$y = \frac{gk_I}{s + gk_I} y_d + \frac{s}{s + gk_I} d$$

Example:

• Servosystem command



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Sampled time I control



• Closed-loop dynamics

$$y = g \cdot u + d$$

$$u = \frac{k_I}{z - 1} [y - y_d]$$

$$w = \frac{gk_I}{z - 1 + gk_I} y_d + \frac{z - 1}{z - 1 + gk_I} d$$

• Deadbeat control: $gk_I = 1$ \longrightarrow $y = z^{-1}y_d + (1 - z^{-1})d$

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Run-to-run (R2R) control

- Main APC (Advanced Process Control) approach in semiconductor processes
- Modification of a product recipe between tool "runs"
- Processes:
 - vapor phase epitaxy
 - lithography
 - chemical mechanical planarization (CMP)
 - plasma etch





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PI control

First-order system: •

 $\tau \dot{y} = -y + u + d$

P control + integrator for ulletcancelling steady state error

$$e = y - y_d;$$

$$\dot{v} = e$$

$$u = -k_I v - k_P e$$

Example:

WDM laser-diode temperature control



$$y(t)$$
 = temperature - ambient temperature



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PI control

- P Control + Integrator for cancelling steady state error
 - $e = y y_d;$

$$\dot{v} = e$$

$$u = -k_I v - k_P e = k_P (e - \underline{k_i} v)$$

• Velocity form of the controller $\dot{u} = -k_I e - k_P \dot{e}$ $u(t+1) = u(t) - k_I e(t) - k_P [e(t) - e(t-1)]$



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PI control

• Closed-loop dynamics

$$y = \frac{sk_{P} + k_{I}}{s(\tau s + 1) + sk_{P} + k_{I}} y_{d} + \frac{s}{s(\tau s + 1) + sk_{P} + k_{I}} d$$

- Steady state (s = 0): $y_{ss} = y_d$. No steady-state error!
- Transient dynamics: look at the characteristic equation

 $\tau \lambda^2 + (1 + k_P)\lambda + k_I = 0$

• Disturbance rejection

$$\left| \hat{y}(i\omega) \right| = \left| H_d(i\omega) \right| \cdot \left| \hat{d}(i\omega) \right|$$



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Control Engineering

Frequency (rad/sec)

PLL Example

• Phase-locked loop is arguably a most prolific feedback system

$$e = 2K_{m} LPF \langle r \times v \rangle$$

= $2K_{m} LPF \langle A \sin(\omega t + \theta_{d}) \times \cos(\omega_{o} t + \theta_{o})$
 $e \approx AK_{m} \sin(\omega t - \omega_{o} t + \theta_{d} - \theta_{o})$
 $\dot{\theta}_{o} = \Delta \omega_{o} = K_{o} u$



PLL Loop Model


PD control

2-nd order dynamics

 $\ddot{y} = u + d$

PD control

$$e = y - y_d$$

 $u = -k_D \dot{e} - k_P e$

Closed-loop dynamics

$$\ddot{e} + k_D \dot{e} + k_P e = d$$

$$e = \frac{1}{s^2 + k_D s + k_P} d$$
Optimal gains (critical damping)
$$k_P - 2\tau \cdot k_P - \tau^2$$

$$k_D = 2\tau;$$
 $k_P = \tau$

Example:



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PD control

- Derivative (rate of *e*) can be obtained
 - speed sensor (tachometer)
 - low-level estimation logic
- Signal differentiation
 - is noncausal
 - amplifies high-frequency noise
- Causal (low-pass filtered) estimate of the derivative

$$\dot{e} \approx \frac{s}{\tau_D s + 1} e = \frac{1}{\tau_D} e + \frac{1/\tau_D}{\tau_D s + 1} e$$

• Modified PD controller:

$$u = -k_D \frac{s}{\tau_D s + 1} e - k_P e$$

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PD control performance

- The performance seems to be infinitely improving for $k_D = 2\tau; k_P = \tau^2; \quad \tau \to \infty$
- This was a simple design model, remember?
- Performance is limited by
 - system being different from the model
 - flexible modes, friction, VCM inductance
 - sampling in a digital controller
 - rate estimation would amplify noise if too aggressive
 - actuator saturation
 - you might really find *after* you have tried to push the performance
- If high performance is really that important, careful application of more advanced control approaches might help

Plant Type

- Constant gain I control
- Integrator P control
- Double integrator PD control
- Generic second order dynamics PID control

PID Control

- Generalization of P, PI, PD
- Early motivation: control of first order processes with deadtime

$$y = \frac{ge^{-T_D s}}{\tau s + 1}u$$





PID Control

• PID: three-term control



• Sampled-time PID

- Velocity form
 - bumpless transfer between manual and automatic

$$\Delta u = -k_D \Delta^2 e - k_P \Delta e - k_I e$$
$$\Delta = 1 - z^{-1}$$

$$u(t+1) = u(t) - k_I e(t) - k_P (e(t) - e(t-1))$$

- $k_D (e(t) - 2e(t-1) + e(t-2))$

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Tuning PID Control

- Model-based tuning
- Look at the closed-loop poles
- Numerical optimization
 - For given parameters run a sim, compute performance parameters and a performance index
 - Optimize the performance index over the three PID gains using grid search or Nelder method.



Zeigler-Nichols tuning rule

- Explore the plant:
 - set the plant under P control and start increasing the gain till the loop oscillates
 - note the critical gain k_c and oscillation period T_c
- Tune the controller:

	k _P	k_{I}	k _D
P	$0.5k_{\rm C}$		
PI	$0.45k_{\rm C}$	$1.2k_{\rm P}/T_{\rm C}$	
PID	$0.5k_{\rm C}$	$2k_{\rm P}/T_{\rm C}$	$k_{\rm P}T_{\rm C}/8$

- Z and N used a Monte Carlo method to develop the rule
- Z-N rule enables tuning if a model and a computer are both unavailable, only the controller and the plant are.

Integrator anti wind-up

• In practice, control authority is always limited:

 $- u_{\text{MIN}} \le u(t) \le u_{\text{MAX}}$

- Wind up of the integrator:
 - if $|u_c| > u_{MAX}$ the integral vwill keep growing while the control is constant. This results in a heavy overshoot later

$$\dot{v} = e$$

$$u_{c} = -k_{I}v - k_{P}e$$

$$u = \begin{cases} u_{MAX}, & u_{c} > u_{MAX} \\ u_{c}, & u_{MIN} \le u_{c} \le u_{MAX} \\ u_{MIN}, & u_{c} < u_{MIN} \end{cases}$$

- Anti wind-up:
 - switch the integrator off if the control has saturated

$$\dot{v} = \begin{cases} e, & \text{for } u_{MIN} \leq u_c \leq u_{MAX} \\ 0, & \text{if } u_c > u_{MAX} \text{ or } u_c < u_{MIN} \end{cases}$$

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Industrial PID Controller

- A box, not an algorithm
- Auto-tuning functionality:
 - pre-tune
 - self-tune
- Manual/cascade mode switch
- Bumpless transfer between different modes, setpoint ramp
- Loop alarms
- Networked or serial port



Lecture 5 - Feedforward

- Programmed control
- Path planning and nominal trajectory feedforward
- Feedforward of the disturbance
- Reference feedforward, 2-DOF architecture
- Non-causal inversion
- Input shaping, flexible system control
- Iterative update of feedforward

Why Feedforward?

- Feedback works even if we know little about the plant dynamics and disturbances
- Was the case in many of the first control systems
- Much attention to feedback for historical reasons
- Open-loop control/feedforward is increasingly used
- Model-based design means we know something
- The performance can be greatly improved by adding openloop control based on our system knowledge (models)

Feedforward





- Main premise of the feedforward control: a model of the plant is known
- Model-based design of feedback control the same premise
- The difference: feedback control is less sensitive to modeling error
- Common use of the feedforward: cascade with feedback
 Feedforward



- Lecture 4 PID
- Lecture 6 Analysis
- Lecture 7 Design

Plant

Feedback

controller



Control Engineering

controller

Open-loop (programmed) control

- Control *u*(*t*) found by solving an optimization problem. Constraints on control and state variables.
- Used in space, missiles, aircraft FMS
 - Mission planning
 - Complemented by feedback corrections
- Sophisticated mathematical methods were developed in the 60s to overcome computing limitations.
- Lecture 12 will get into more detail of control program optimization.



$$\dot{x} = f(x, u, t)$$
$$J(x, u, t) \rightarrow \min$$
$$x \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U}$$

Optimal control: $u = u_*(t)$

Optimal control

- Performance index and constraints
- Programmed control
 - compute optimal control as a time function for particular initial (and final) conditions
- Optimal control synthesis
 - find optimal control for *any* initial conditions
 - at any point in time apply control that is optimal now, based on the current state. This is *feedback* control!
 - example: LQG for linear systems, gaussian noise, quadratic performance index. Analytically solvable problem.
 - simplified model, toy problems, conceptual building block
- MPC will discuss in Lecture 12

Path/trajectory planning

- The disturbance caused by the change of the command *r* influences the feedback loop.
- The error sensitivity to the reference R(s) is bandpass: $|R(i\omega)| <<1$ for ω small
- A practical approach: choose the setpoint command (path) as a smooth function that has no/little high-frequency components. No feedforward is used.
- The smooth function can be a spline function etc



Disturbance feedforward

- Disturbance acting on the plant is measured
- Feedforward controller can react *before* the effect of the disturbance shows up in the plant output

Example:

Temperature control. Measure ambient temperature and adjust heating/cooling

- homes and buildings
- district heating
- industrial processes crystallization
- electronic or optical components



Command/setpoint feedforward

- The setpoint change acts as disturbance on the feedback loop.
- This disturbance can be measured
- 2-DOF controller





Feedforward as system inversion y = P(s)u $y = y_d \Rightarrow u = [P(s)]^{-1}y_d$ $y_d \equiv -D(s)d$ $y_d(t)$ Feedforward u(t)

• Simple example:

$$P(s) = \frac{1+2s}{1+s}$$
$$[P(s)]^{-1} = \frac{1+s}{1+2s}$$

$$\underbrace{y_d(t)}_{controller} \underbrace{u(t)}_{Plant} \underbrace{y(t)}_{y(t)}$$

$$\underbrace{v(t)}_{Plant}$$

$$\underbrace{v(t)}_{Plant}$$

$$\underbrace{v(t)}_{Plant}$$

$$\underbrace{v(t)}_{Plant}$$

$$\underbrace{v(t)}_{Plant}$$

$$\underbrace{v(t)}_{Plant}$$

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Feedforward as system inversion

$$y = P(s)u$$

$$y = y_d \Rightarrow u = [P(s)]^{-1} y_d \qquad \qquad \widetilde{u}(i\omega) = \frac{\widetilde{y}_d(i\omega)}{P(i\omega)}$$

- Issue
 - high-frequency roll-off





- Approximate inverse solution:
 - ignore high frequency in some way

Proper transfer functions

- Proper means $deg(Denominator) \ge deg(Numerator)$
- Strictly proper <=> high-frequency roll-off, all physical dynamical systems are like that
- Proper = strictly proper + feedthrough
- State space models are always proper
- Exact differentiation is noncausal, non-proper



Differentiation

• Path/trajectory planning - mechanical servosystems

1

• The derivative can be computed if $y_d(t)$ is known ahead of time (no need to be causal then).

$$P^{-1}(s)y_{d} = \frac{1}{P(s)} \cdot \frac{1}{s^{n}} y_{d}^{[n]}, \qquad y_{d}^{[n]}(t) = \frac{d^{n} y}{dt^{n}}(t)$$
$$P(s) = \frac{1}{1+s} \qquad P^{-1}(s)y_{d} = \frac{1+s}{s} \dot{y}_{d} = \left(1+\frac{1}{s}\right) \dot{y}_{d} = \dot{y}_{d} + y_{d}$$

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Approximate Differentiation

• Add low pass filtering:



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'Unstable' zeros

- Nonminimum phase system
 - r.h.p. zeros \rightarrow r.h.p. poles
 - approximate solution: replace r.h.p. zeros by l.h.p. zeros

$$P(s) = \frac{1-s}{1+0.25s}, \qquad P^{\dagger}(s) = \frac{1+0.25s}{1+s}$$

- RHP zeros might be used to approximate dead time
 - exact causal inversion impossible

$$P(s) = e^{-2Ts} \approx \frac{1 - sT}{1 + sT}$$

• If preview is available, use a lead to compensate for the deadtime

Two sided *z*-transform, non-causal system

• Linear system is defined by a pulse response. Do not constrain ourselves with a causal pulse response anymore

$$y(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(x-k)u(k)$$

• 2-sided z-transform gives a "transfer function"

$$P(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) z^{-k}$$

• Fourier transform/Inverse Fourier transform are two-sided

• Oppenheim, Schafer, and Buck, *Discrete-Time Signal Processing*, 2nd Edition, Prentice Hall, 1999.

Impulse response decay

• Decay rate from the center $= \log r$





Non-causal inversion



Frequency domain inversion

- Regularized inversion: $\|y_d Pu\|_2^2 + \rho \|u\|_2^2 \to \min$ $\int \left(\|y_d(i\omega) - P(i\omega)u(i\omega)\|^2 + \rho |u(i\omega)|^2 \right) d\omega \to \min$ $u(i\omega) = \frac{P^*(i\omega)}{P^*(i\omega)P(i\omega) + \rho} y_d(i\omega) = P^{\dagger}(i\omega) y_d(i\omega)$
- Systematic solution
 - simple, use FFT
 - takes care of everything
 - noncausal inverse
 - high-frequency roll-off
 - Paden & Bayo, 1985(?)



Input Shaping: point-to-point control

- Given initial and final conditions find control input
- No intermediate trajectory \bullet constraints
- Lightly damped, imaginary axis poles
 - preview control does not work
 - other inversion methods do not work well
- FIR notch fliter
 - Seering and Singer, MIT
 - Convolve Inc.



 $\eta u(t)$

Pulse Inputs

- Compute pulse inputs such that there is no vibration.
- Works for a pulse sequence input
- Can be generalized to *any* input



Input Shaping as signal convolution

• Convolution: $f(t) * \left(\sum A_i \delta(t - t_i) \right) = \sum A_i f(t - t_i)$



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Iterative update of feedforward

- Repetition of control tasks
- Robotics
 - Trajectory control tasks:
 Iterative Learning Control
 - Locomotion: steps
- Batch process control
 - Run-to-run control in semiconductor manufacturing
 - Iterative Learning Control (*IEEE Control System Magazine*, Dec. 2002)



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Feedforward Implementation

- Constraints and optimality conditions known ahead of time
 - programmed control
- Disturbance feedforward in process control
 - has to be causal, system inversion
- Setpoint change, trajectory tracking
 - smooth trajectory, do not excite the output error
 - in some cases have to use causal 'system inversion'
 - preview might be available from higher layers of control system, noncausal inverse
- Only final state is important, special case of inputs
 - input shaping notch filter
 - noncausal parameter optimization

Feedforward Implementation

- Iterative update
 - ILC
 - run-to-run
 - repetitive dynamics
- Replay pre-computed sequences
 - look-up tables, maps
- Not discussed, but used in practice
 - Servomechanism, disturbance model
 - Sinusoidal disturbance tracking PLL
 - Adaptive feedforward, LMS update

Lecture 6 - SISO Loop Analysis

SISO = Single Input Single Output

Analysis:

- Stability
- Performance
- Robustness

ODE stability

- Lyapunov's stability theory nonlinear systems
 - stability definition
 - first (direct) method
 - exponential convergence
 - second method: Lyapunov function
 - generalization of energy dissipation



Lyapunov's exponent

- dominant exponent of the convergence
- for a nonlinear system
- for a linear system defined by the poles







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Stability: poles

 $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ $y = H(s) \cdot u$

$$y = Cx + Du \qquad H(s) = C(Is - A)^{-1}B + D$$

- Characteristic values = transfer function poles
 - l.h.p. for continuous time
 - unit circle for sampled time

• I/O model vs. internal dynamics

$$H(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} = \frac{g_1}{s - p_1} + \dots + \frac{g_n}{s - p_n} + g_0$$





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- The transfer function poles are the zeros of 1 + P(s)C(s)
- Watch for pole-zero cancellations!
- Poles define the closed-loop dynamics (including stability)
- Algebraic problem, easier than state space sim

Stability

- For linear system poles describe stability
- ... almost, except the critical stability
- For nonlinear systems
 - linearize around the equilibrium
 - might have to look at the stability theory Lyapunov
- Orbital stability:
 - trajectory converges to the desired
 - the state does not the timing is off
 - spacecraft
 - FMS, aircraft arrival



Performance

- Need to describe and analyze performance so that we can design systems and tune controllers
- There are usually many conflicting requirements
- Engineers look for a reasonable trade-off



Performance: Example



Performance - poles

- Steady state error: study transfer functions at s=0.
- Step/pulse response convergence, dominant pole



• Caution! Fast_response (poles far to the left) leads to peaking



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Performance - step response

• Step response shape characterization:



Performance - quadratic index

• Quadratic performance
- response, in frequency domain

$$J = \int_{t=0}^{\infty} |y(t) - y_d(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} |\tilde{e}(i\omega)|^2 d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int |S(i\omega)|^2 \frac{1}{\omega^2} d\omega$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int |S(i\omega)\tilde{y}_d(i\omega)|^2 d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int |S(i\omega)|^2 \frac{1}{\omega^2} d\omega$$

$$S(s) = [1 + P(s)C(s)]^{-1}$$

• If $y_d(t)$ is a zero mean random process with the spectral power $Q(i\omega)$

$$J = E\left(\int_{t=0}^{\infty} |y(t) - y_d(t)|^2 dt\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int |S(i\omega)|^2 Q(i\omega) d\omega$$

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Transfer functions in control loop



$$u = -S_u(s)d + S_u(s)y_d + S_u(s)n + T(s)v$$

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Transfer functions in control loop

$$e = y - y_d + n$$

$$y = P(s)(u + v) + d \implies y = S(s)d - S(s)y_d + T(s)n + S_y(s)v$$

$$y = S(s)d + T(s)y_d + T(s)n + S_y(s)v$$

$$u = -C(s)e \qquad u = -S_u(s)d + S_u(s)y_d + S_u(s)n + T(s)v$$

Sensitivity $S(s) = [1 + P(s)C(s)]^{-1}$ Complementary sensitivity $T(s) = [1 + P(s)C(s)]^{-1}P(s)C(s)$ Noise sensitivity $S_u(s) = [1 + P(s)C(s)]^{-1}C(s)$ Load sensitivity $S_y(s) = [1 + P(s)C(s)]^{-1}P(s)$

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Sensitivities



$$S(i\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + L(i\omega)}, \qquad L(s) = P(s)C(s)$$

- Feedback sensitivity
 - $|S(i\omega)| << 1$ for $|L(i\omega)| >> 1$
 - $|S(i\omega)| \approx 1$ for $|L(i\omega)| << 1$
 - can be bad for $|L(i\omega)| \approx 1$ ringing, instability

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$$S_{FF}(i\omega) = 1$$

- Feedforward sensitivity
 - good for any frequency
 - never unstable

Sensitivity requirements

 $e = S(s)d - S(s)y_d + T(s)n + S_y(s)v$ $y = S(s)d + T(s)y_d + T(s)n + S_y(s)v$ $u = -S_u(s)d + S_u(s)y_d + S_u(s)n + T(s)v$

$$S(i\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + P(i\omega)C(i\omega)}$$
$$S_{y}(i\omega) = \frac{P(i\omega)}{1 + P(i\omega)C(i\omega)}$$
$$S_{u}(i\omega) = \frac{C(i\omega)}{1 + P(i\omega)C(i\omega)}$$

- Disturbance rejection and reference tracking
 - $|S(i\omega)| <<1$ for the disturbance d; $|S_v(i\omega)| <<1$ for the input 'noise' v
- Limited control effort
 - $|S_u(i\omega)| << 1$ conflicts with disturbance rejection where $|P(i\omega)| < 1$
- Noise rejection
 - $|T(i\omega)| << 1$ for the noise *n*, conflicts with disturbance rejection

Robustness

- Ok, we have a controller that works for a *nominal* model.
- Why would it ever would work for *real system*?
 - Will know for sure only when we try V&V similar to debugging process in software
- Can check that controller works for a *range* of different models and hope that the real system is covered by this range
 - This is called robustness analysis, robust design
 - Was an implicit part of the classical control design Nyquist, Bode
 - Multivariable robust control Honeywell: G.Stein, G.Hartmann, '81
 - Doyle, Zames, Glover robust control theory



- Why control might work if the process differs from the model?
- Key factors
 - modeling error (uncertainty) characterization
 - time scale (bandwidth) of the control loop





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Robustness - Small gain theorem

- Nonlinear uncertainty!
- Operator gain $||Gu|| \le ||G|| \cdot ||u||$
 - G can be a nonlinear operator
- L_2 norm

$$\left\|u\right\|^{2} = \int u^{2}(t)dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \left|\widetilde{u}(i\omega)\right|^{2} d\omega$$



• L_2 gain of a linear operator $\|Gu\|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int |G(i\omega)\widetilde{u}(i\omega)|^2 d\omega \leq \sup_{\|G\|^2} \left(\frac{|G(i\omega)|^2}{2\pi} \int |\widetilde{u}(i\omega)|^2 d\omega \right)$

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Robustness

• Additive uncertainty



Condition of robust stability $\left| \frac{C(i\omega)}{1 + P(i\omega)C(i\omega)} \right| \cdot \left| \Delta(i\omega) \right| < 1$ $\|S_u\|$

• Multiplicative uncertainty



Condition of robust stability $\frac{\left|\frac{P(i\omega)C(i\omega)}{1+P(i\omega)C(i\omega)}\right| \cdot \left|\Delta(i\omega)\right| < 1}{\|\Delta\|}$

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Nyquist stability criterion



- Homotopy "Proof"
 - G(s) is stable, hence the loop is stable for $\gamma=0$. Increase γ to 1. The instability cannot occur unless $\gamma G(iw)+1=0$ for some $0 \le \gamma \le 1$.
 - $|G(i\omega_{180})| < 1$ is a *sufficient* condition
- Subtleties: r.h.p. poles and zeros
 - Formulation and real proof using the agrument principle, encirclements of -1
 - stable \rightarrow unstable \rightarrow stable as $0 \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow 1$

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Compare against Small Gain Theorem:

Gain and phase margins



Gain and phase margins



Advanced Control

- Observable and controllable system
 - Can put poles anywhere
 - Can drive state anywhere
- Why cannot we just do this?
 - Large control
 - Error peaking
 - Poor robustness, margins
 - Observability and controllability = matrix rank
 - Accuracy of solution is defined by condition number
- Analysis of this lecture is valid for *any* LTI control, including advanced

Lecture 7 - SISO Loop Design

- Design approaches, given specs
- Loopshaping: in-band and out-of-band specs
- Design example
- Fundamental design limitations for the loop
 - Frequency domain limitations
 - Structural design limitations
 - Engineering design limitations

Modern control design

- Observable and controllable system
 - Can put poles anywhere
 - Can drive state anywhere
 - Can design 'optimal control'
- Issues
 - Large control
 - Error peaking in the transient
 - Noise amplification
 - Poor robustness, margins
 - Engineering trade off vs. a single optimality index

Feedback controller design

- Conflicting requirements
- Engineers look for a reasonable trade-off
 - Educated guess, trial and error controller parameter choice
 - Optimization, if the performance is really important
 - optimality parameters are used as tuning handles



Loopshape requirements $L(i\omega) = P(i\omega)C(i\omega)$ Performance $S(i\omega) = [1 + L(i\omega)]^{-1}$

- Disturbance rejection and reference tracking
 - $|S(i\omega)| <<1$ for the disturbance d; $|P(i\omega)S(i\omega)| <<1$ for the load v
 - satisfied for $|L(i\omega)| >> 1$
- Noise rejection
 - $|T(i\omega)| = |S(i\omega)L(i\omega)| < 1$ is Ok unless $|1 + L(i\omega)|$ is small
- Limited control effort
 - $|C(i\omega) S(i\omega)| < 1$
 - works out with large $|C(i\omega)|$ for low frequency, where $|P(i\omega)| > 1$

Loopshape requirements

Robustness

- Multiplicative uncertainty
 - $|T(i\omega)| < 1/\delta(\omega)$, where $\delta(\omega)$ is the uncertainty magnitude
 - at high frequencies, relative uncertainty can be large, hence, $|T(i\omega)|$ must be kept small
 - must have $|L(i\omega)| <<1$ for high frequency, where $\delta(\omega)$ is large
- Additive uncertainty
 - $|C(i\omega) S(i\omega)| < 1/\delta(\omega)$, where $\delta(\omega)$ is the uncertainty magnitude
- Gain margin of 10-12db and phase margin of 45-50 deg
 - this corresponds to the relative uncertainty of the plant transfer function in the 60-80% range around the crossover



Loop Shape Requirements

- Low frequency:
 - high gain L= small S
- High frequency:
 - $\text{ small gain } L \\ = \text{ small } T \cdot \text{ large } \delta$
- Bandwidth
 - performance can be only achieved in a limited frequency band: $\omega \leq \omega_B$
 - $-\omega_B$ is the bandwidth



Fundamental tradeoff: performance vs. robustness

Loopshaping design

- Loop design
 - Use P,I, and D feedback to shape the loop gain
- Loop modification and bandwidth
 - Low-pass filter get rid of high-frequency stuff robustness
 - Notch filter get rid of oscillatory stuff robustness
 - Lead-lag to improve phase around the crossover bandwidth
 - P+D in the PID together have a lead-lag effect
- Need to maintain stability while shaping the magnitude of the loop gain
- Formal design tools H_2 , H_∞ , LMI, H_∞ loopshaping
 - cannot go past the fundamental limitations

Example - disk drive servo

- The problem from HW Assignment 2
 - data in diskPID.m, diskdata.mat
- Design model: $\Delta P(s)$ is an uncertainty $P(s) = \frac{g_0}{s^2} + \Delta P(s)$
- Analysis model: description for $\Delta P(s)$
- Design approach: PID control based on the simplified model

$$C(s) = k_P + \frac{k_I}{s} + k_D \frac{s}{\tau_D s + 1}$$



Disk drive servo controller

- Start from designing a PD controller
 - poles, characteristic equation

$$1 + C(s)P(s) = 0 \Longrightarrow \left(k_P + sk_D\right) \cdot \frac{g_0}{s^2} + 1 = 0$$
$$s^2 + sg_0k_D + g_0k_P = 0$$

• Critically damped system

$$k_D = 2w_0 / g_0;$$
 $k_P = w_0^2 / g_0$

where frequency w_0 is the closed-loop bandwidth

• In the derivative term make dynamics faster than w_0 . Select $\tau_D = 0.25/w_0$



Disk drive servo

• Step up from PD to PID control

$$1 + \left(k_{P} + sk_{D} + \frac{1}{s}k_{I}\right) \cdot \frac{g_{0}}{s^{2}} = 0$$

$$s^{3} + s^{2}g_{0}k_{D} + sg_{0}k_{P} + g_{0}k_{I} = 0$$

- Keep the system close to the critically damped, add integrator term to correct the steady state error, keep the scaling
 k_P = w₀² / g₀; k_D = aw₀ / g₀; k_I = bw₀³ / g₀ τ_D = c / w₀ where a, b, and c are the tuning parameters
- Initial guess: $w_0 = 2000; a=2; b=0.1; c=0.25$
- Tune *a*, *b*, *c* and w_0 by watching performance and robustness

Disk drive - controller tuning

- Tune *a*, *b*, w_0 , and τ_D by trial and error
- Find a trade off taking into the account
 - Closed loop step response
 - Loop gain performance
 - Robustness sensitivity
 - Gain and phase margins
- Try to match the characteristics of C2 controller (demo)
- The final tuned values:

 $w_0 = 1700; a = 1.5; b = 0.5; c = 0.2$

Disk servo - controller comparison

- PID is compared against a reference design
- Reference design: 4-th order controller: leadlag + notch filter
 - Matlab diskdemo
 - Data in diskPID.m, diskdata.mat







Fundamental design limitations

- If we do not have a reference design how do we know if we are doing well. May be there is a much better controller?
- Cannot get around the fundamental design limitations
 - frequency domain limitations on the loop shape
 - system structure limitations
 - engineering design limitations
Frequency domain limitation

 $S(i\omega) + T(\underline{i\omega}) = 1$ Robustness: $|T(i\omega)| <<1$

• Bode's integral constraint - waterbed effect

 $\int_{0}^{\infty} \log |S(i\omega)| d\omega = 0 \quad \text{(for most real-life stable system, or worse for the rest)}$



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Structural design limitations

- Delays and non-minimum phase (r.h.s. zeros)
 - cannot make the response faster than delay, set bandwidth smaller
- Unstable dynamics
 - makes Bode's integral constraint worse
 - re-design system to make it stable or use advanced control design
- Flexible dynamics
 - cannot go faster than the oscillation frequency
 - practical approach:
 - filter out and use low-bandwidth control (wait till it settles)
 - use input shaping feedforward

Unstable dynamics

- Very advanced applications
 - need advanced feedback control design





Flexible dynamics



- Very advanced applications
 - really need control of 1-3 flexible modes



Pathfoder-Plus flight in Hawaii

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Engineering design limitations

- Sensors
 - noise have to reduce $|T(i\omega)|$ reduced performance
 - quantization same effect as noise
 - bandwidth (estimators) cannot make the loop faster
- Actuators
 - range/saturation limit the load sensitivity $|C(i\omega) S(i\omega)|$
 - actuator bandwidth cannot make the loop faster
 - actuation increment sticktion, quantization effect of a load variation
 - other control handles
- Modeling errors
 - have to increase robustness, decrease performance
- Computing, sampling time
 - Nyquist sampling frequency limits the bandwidth

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Lecture 8 - Model Identification

- What is system identification?
- Direct pulse response identification
- Linear regression
- Regularization
- Parametric model ID, nonlinear LS

What is System Identification? Experiment Plant Data Identification Model

- White-box identification
 - estimate parameters of a physical model from data
 - Example: aircraft flight model
- Gray-box identification
 - given generic model structure estimate parameters from data
 - Example: neural network model of an engine

- Rarely used in real-life control
- Black-box identification
 - determine model structure and estimate parameters from data
 - Example: security pricing models for stock market

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Industrial Use of System ID

- Process control most developed ID approaches
 - all plants and processes are different
 - need to do identification, cannot spend too much time on each
 - industrial identification tools
- Aerospace
 - white-box identification, specially designed programs of tests
- Automotive
 - white-box, significant effort on model development and calibration
- Disk drives
 - used to do thorough identification, shorter cycle time
- Embedded systems
 - simplified models, short cycle time

Impulse response identification

• Simplest approach: apply control impulse and collect the data

0.6 0.4 0.2

• Difficult to apply a short impulse big enough such that the response is much larger than the noise



• Can be used for building simplified¹ control design models from complex sims

Step response identification

- Step (bump) control input and collect the data
 used in process control 1.5
 Actuator bumped
 0.5
- Impulse estimate still noisy: impulse(t) = step(t)-step(t-1)

200

0

0



600

TIME (SEC)

800

1000

400

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Noise reduction

Noise can be reduced by statistical averaging:

- Collect data for mutiple steps and do more averaging to estimate the step/pulse response
- Use a parametric model of the system and estimate a few model parameters describing the response: dead time, rise time, gain
- Do both in a sequence
 - done in real process control ID packages
- Pre-filter data

Linear regression

- Mathematical aside
 - linear regression is one of the main System ID tools



$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y(1) \\ \vdots \\ y(N) \end{bmatrix}, \Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_1(1) & \dots & \varphi_K(1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \varphi_1(N) & \dots & \varphi_K(N) \end{bmatrix}, \theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_K \end{bmatrix}, e = \begin{bmatrix} e(1) \\ \vdots \\ e(N) \end{bmatrix}$$

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Linear regression

- Makes sense only when matrix Φ is tall, N > K, more data available than the number of unknown parameters.
 - Statistical averaging
- Least square solution: $||e||^2 \rightarrow \min$
 - Matlab pinv or left matrix division $\$
- Correlation interpretation:



$$y = \Phi \theta + e$$

^

$$\hat{\theta} = \left(\Phi^T \Phi \right)^{-1} \Phi^T y$$

$$\theta = R^{-1}c$$

$$c = \frac{1}{N} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \varphi_{1}(t) y(t) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{t=1}^{N} \varphi_{K}(t) y(t) \end{bmatrix}$$
8-8

Example: linear first-order model

y(t) = ay(t-1) + gu(t-1) + e(t)

• Linear regression representation

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_1(t) &= y(t-1) \\ \varphi_2(t) &= u(t-1) \end{aligned} \qquad \theta = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ g \end{bmatrix} \qquad \hat{\theta} = \left(\Phi^T \Phi \right)^{-1} \Phi^T y \end{aligned}$$

• This approach is considered in most of the technical literature on identification

Lennart Ljung, System Identification: Theory for the User, 2nd Ed, 1999

- Matlab Identification Toolbox
 - Industrial use in aerospace mostly
 - Not really used much in industrial process control
- Main issue:

small error in *a* might mean large change in response
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Regularization

- Linear regression, where $\Phi^T \Phi$ is ill-conditioned
- Instead of $||e||^2 \rightarrow \min$ solve a regularized problem $||e||^2 + r||\theta||^2 \rightarrow \min$ y =

$$y = \Phi \theta + e$$

- r is a small regularization parameter
- Regularized solution

$$\hat{\theta} = \left(\Phi^T \Phi + rI\right)^{-1} \Phi^T y$$

• Cut off the singular values of Φ that are smaller than r

Regularization

- Analysis through SVD (singular value decomposition) $\Phi = USV^{T}; \quad V \in R^{n,n}; U \in R^{m,m}; S = \text{diag}\{s_{i}\}_{i=1}^{n}$
- Regularized solution $\hat{\theta} = \left(\Phi^T \Phi + rI\right)^{-1} \Phi^T y = V \left[\operatorname{diag}\left\{\frac{s_j}{s_j^2 + r}\right\}_{j=1}^n\right] U^T y$
- Cut off the singular values of Φ that are smaller than r



Linear regression for FIR model

- Identifying impulse response by applying multiple steps
- PRBS excitation signal
- FIR (impulse response) model

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} h(k)u(t-k) + e(t)$$



• Linear regression representation

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_1(t) &= u(t-1) \\ \vdots & \theta = \begin{bmatrix} h(1) \\ \vdots \\ h(K) \end{bmatrix} \\ \hat{\theta} &= \left(\Phi^T \Phi + rI \right)^{-1} \Phi^T y \\ h(K) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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Example: FIR model ID



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Example: FIR model ID



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Nonlinear parametric model ID

- Prediction model depending on the unknown parameter vector θ $u(t) \rightarrow \text{MODEL}(\theta) \rightarrow \hat{y}(t \mid \theta)$
- Loss index

 $J = \sum \left\| y(t) - \hat{y}(t \mid \theta) \right\|^2$

• Iterative numerical optimization. Computation of *V* as a subroutine



Lennart Ljung, "Identification for Control: Simple Process Models," *IEEE Conf. on Decision and Control*, Las Vegas, NV, 2002

Parametric ID of step response

- First order process with deadtime
- Most common industrial process model
- Response to a control step applied at $t_{\rm B}$

$$y(t \mid \theta) = \gamma + \begin{cases} g\left(1 - e^{(t - t_B - T_D)/\tau}\right), & \text{for } t > t_B - T_D \end{cases}$$

$$0, & \text{for } t \le t_B - T_D \end{cases}$$





Gain estimation

• For given τ, T_D , the modeled step response can be presented in the form

 $y(t \mid \theta) = \gamma + g \cdot y_1(t \mid \tau, T_D)$

• This is a linear regression

$$y(t \mid \theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{2} w_k \varphi_k(t) \qquad \begin{array}{l} w_1 = g \qquad \varphi_1(t) = y_1(t \mid \tau, T_D) \\ w_2 = \gamma \qquad \varphi_2(t) = 1 \end{array}$$

• Parameter estimate and prediction for given τ, T_D $\hat{w}(\tau, T_D) = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T y$ $\hat{y}(t \mid \tau, T_D) = \hat{\gamma} + \hat{g} \cdot y_1(t \mid \tau, T_D)$

Rise time/dead time estimation

• For given τ, T_D , the loss index is

$$V = \sum_{t=1}^{N} \left| y(t) - \hat{y}(t \mid \tau, T_D) \right|^2$$

• Grid τ, T_D and find the minimum of $V = V(\tau, T_D)$



Examples: Step response ID

- Identification results for real industrial process data
- This algorithm works in an industrial tool used in 500+ industrial plants, many processes each



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Linear filtering

- A trick that helps: pre-filter data
- Consider data model

$$y = h * u + e$$

• *L* is a linear filtering operator, usually LPF

$$Ly = L(h * u) + Le$$

$$y_{f}$$

$$L(h * u) = (Lh) * u = h * (Lu)$$

- Can estimate *h* from filtered *y* and filtered *u*
- Or can estimate filtered *h* from filtered *y* and 'raw' *u*
- Pre-filter bandwidth will limit the estimation bandwidth

Multivariable ID

- Apply SISO ID to various input/output pairs
- Need *n* tests excite each input in turn
- Step/pulse response identification is a key part of the industrial Multivariable Predictive Control packages.

Lecture 9 - Processes with Deadtime, IMC

- Processes with deadtime
- Model-reference control
- Deadtime compensation: Dahlin controller
- IMC
- Youla parametrization of all stabilizing controllers
- Nonlinear IMC
 - Dynamic inversion Lecture 13
 - Receding Horizon MPC Lecture 12

Processes with deadtime

• Examples: transport deadtime in mining, paper, oil, food



Processes with deadtime

• Example: resource allocation in computing



Control of process with deadtime

• PI control of a deadtime process PLANT: $P = z^{-5}$; PI CONTROLLER: $k_p = 0.3$, $k_1 = 0.2$ $P = e^{-sT_D}$ continuous time 0.8 0.6 $P = z^{-d}$ discrete time 0.4 0.2 0 10 15 5 20 25 0 Can we do better? DEADBEAT CONTROL $\frac{PC}{1+PC} = z^{-d}$ – Make 0.8 0.6 0.4 - Deadbeat controller 0.2 -d1 5 10 15 20 0 25

$$PC = \frac{z}{1 - z^{-d}} \Longrightarrow C = \frac{1}{1 - z^{-d}}$$

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u(t) = u(t - d) + e(t)

30

30

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Model-reference control

- Deadbeat control has bad robustness, especially w.r.t. deadtime
- More general model-reference control approach

- make the closed-loop transfer function as desired

$$\frac{P(z)C(z)}{1+P(z)C(z)} = Q(z)$$

$$C(z) = \frac{1}{P(z)} \cdot \frac{Q(z)}{1-Q(z)}$$

Works if Q(z) includes a deadtime, at least as large as in P(z)

Dahlin's controller

- Eric Dahlin worked for IBM in San Jose (?) \bullet then for Measurex in Cupertino.
- Dahlin's controller, 1968 ullet

$$P(z) = \frac{g(1-b)}{1-bz^{-1}} z^{-d}$$

- plant, generic first order response with deadtime
- $Q(z) = \frac{1 \alpha}{1 \alpha^{-1}} z^{-d} \qquad \bullet \text{ reference model}$

$$C(z) = \frac{1 - bz^{-1}}{g(1 - b)} \cdot \frac{1 - \alpha}{1 - \alpha z^{-1} - (1 - \alpha)z^{-d}} \quad \bullet \text{ Dahlin's controller}$$

Single tuning parameter: α - tuned controller



Dahlin's controller

- Dahlin's controller is broadly used through paper industry in supervisory control loops Honeywell-Measurex, 60%.
- Direct use of the identified model parameters.



9-7



- continuous time *s*
- discrete time *z*

IMC and Youla parametrization

• Sensitivities



 $Q = \frac{C}{1 + CP_0} \bullet \text{ If } Q \text{ is stable, then } S, T, \text{ and the loop are stable}$ $\bullet \text{ If loop is stable, then } Q \text{ is stable}$

- Choosing various stable Q parameterizes all stabilizing controllers
- This is called Youla parameterization
- Youla parameterization is valid for unstable systems as well

Q-loopshaping

- Systematic controller design: select Q to achieve the tradeoff
- The approach used in modern advanced control design: H_2/H_{∞} , LMI, H_{∞} loopshaping
- *Q*-based loopshaping:

$$S = 1 - QP_0$$
 $S \ll 1 \Rightarrow Q \approx (P_0)^{-1}$ • in band

• Recall system inversion In
Q-loopshaping

- Loopshaping
 - $S = 1 QP_0$ $S \ll 1 \Rightarrow Q \approx (P_0)^{-1}$ in band $T = QP_0$ $T \ll 1 \Rightarrow QP_0 \ll 1$ • out of band
- Lambda-tuned IMC †

$$Q = FP_0^{\dagger}, \quad S = 1 - QP_0 \approx 1 - F$$

$$F = \frac{1}{(1 + \lambda s)^n}$$
Loop@aping

- *F* is called IMC filter, $F \approx T$, reference model for the output
- For minimum phase plant $Q = FP_0^{\dagger} = F(P_0)^{-1}, \quad T = F$

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IMC extensions

- Multivariable processes
- Nonlinear process IMC
- Dynamic inversion in flight control Lecture 13 ?
- Multivariable predictive control Lecture 12

Nonlinear process IMC

- Can be used for nonlinear processes
 - linear Q
 - nonlinear model P_0
 - linearized model L



Industrial applications of IMC

- Multivariable processes with complex dynamics
- Demonstrated and implemented in process control by academics and research groups in very large corporations.
- Not used commonly in process control (except Dahlin controller)
 - detailed analytical models are difficult to obtain
 - field support and maintenance
 - process changes, need to change the model
 - actuators/sensors off
 - add-on equipment

Dynamic inversion in flight control



Dynamic inversion in flight control

- NASA JSC study for X-38
- Actuator allocation to get desired forces/moments
- Reference model (filter): vehicle handling and pilot 'feel'
- Formal robust design/analysis (μ-analysis etc)



Summary

- Dahlin controller is used in practice
 - easy to understand and apply
- IMC is not really used much
 - maintenance and support issues
- Youla parameterization is used as a basis of modern advanced control design methods.
 - Industrial use is very limited.
- Dynamic inversion is used for high performance control of air and space vehicles
 - this was presented for breadth, the basic concept is simple
 - need to know more of advanced control theory to apply in practice

Lecture 10 - Optimization

• LP

- Process plants Refineries
- Actuator allocation for flight control
- More interesting examples
- Introduce QP problem
- More technical depth
 - E62 Introduction to Optimization basic
 - EE364 Convex Optimization more advanced

Real-time Optimization in Control

- Important part of multivariable control systems
- Many actuators, control handles
- Quasistatic control, dynamics are not important
 - slow process
 - low-level fast control loops
 - fast actuators

Optimization methods

- Need to state problem such that a solution can be computed quickly, efficiently, reliably
- Least squares linear quadratic problems
 - analytical closed form, matrix multiplication and inversion
- Linear Programming
 - simplex method
- Quadratic Programming
 - interior point
- Convex optimization: includes LP, QP, and more

Optimization in Process Plants



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Optimization in Process Plants



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Linear programming

- LP Problem:
 - $Ax \le b$ Gx = h $J = f^T x \to \min$ $x \le y \iff \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \le y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \le y_n \end{bmatrix}$
- Might be infeasible! ... no solution satisfies all constraints
- Matlab Optimization Toolbox: LINPROG



$$Gx = h$$
$$J = f^{T}x \to \min$$



- Simplex method in a nutshell:
 - check the vertices for value of J, select optimal
 - issue: exponential growth of number of vertices with the problem size
 - Need to do 10000 variables and 500000 inequalities.
- Modern interior point methods are radically faster
 - no need to understand, standard solvers are available

Refinery Optimization

- Crude supply chain multiple oil sources
- Distillation separating fractions
- Blending ready products, given octane ratings
- Objective function profit
- LP works ideally:
 - linear equalities and inequalities, single linear objective function



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Blending Example

• A Blending Problem: A refinery produces two grades of fuel, A and B, which are made by blending five raw stocks of differing octane rating, cost and availability

Gasoline		Octane	Rating	Price \$/B
A		9	93	37.5
В		8	35	28.5
Stock	Octane	Rating	Price \$/B	Availability
1		70	9.0	2000
2		80	12.5	4000
3		85	12.5	4000
4		90	27.5	5000
5		99	27.5	3000

Blending Example



Blending Example

• LP problem formulation:

J = 9US1 + 12.5US2 + 12.5US3 + 27.5US4 + 27.5US5 + 37.5FA + 28.5FB -> MAX

[Stock Availability] S1A +US1 = 2000 +S1BS2A S2B US2 = 4000+ + S3A S3B = 4000US3 + + = 5000S4A S4B + US4 + US5 = 3000S5A+S5B + [Fuel Quantity] S1A+S2A+S3A+S4A+S5A= FAS1B+S2B+S4B+S5B= FB[Fuel Quality] 70S1A + 80S2A + 85S3A + 90S4A + 99S5A \geq 93FA [Quality A] 70S1B + 80S2B + 85S3B + 90S4B + 99S5B \geq 85FB [Ouality B] [Nonnegativity] $S1A, S2A, S3A, S4A, S5A, S1B, S2B, S4B, S5B, US1, US2, US3, US4, US5, FA, FB \geq 0$ EE392m - Winter 2003 **Control Engineering** 10-11

Matlab code for the example

```
OctRt Price $/B
%
Gas = [93
                37.5;
       85
                28.5];
%Stock OctRt Price $/B Availability
Stock = [70]
                   12.5
                                2000;
         80
                   12.5
                                4000;
         85
                   12.5
                               4000;
                   27.5
         90
                               5000;
         99
                   27.5
                               3000];
% Revenue
f = [zeros(10,1); Stock(:,3); Gas(:,2)];
% Equality constraint
G = [eye(5,5) eye(5,5) eye(5,5) zeros(5,2);
     ones(1,5) zeros(1,5) zeros(1,5) -1 0;
     zeros(1,5) ones(1,5) zeros(1,5) 0 -1];
h = [Stock(:,3); zeros(2,1)];
% Inequality (fuel quality) constraints
A = [-[Stock(:,1)' zeros(1,5) zeros(1,5);
       zeros(1,5) Stock(:,1)' zeros(1,5)] diag(Gas(:,1))];
b = zeros(2,1);
% X=LINPROG(f,A,b,Aeq,beq,LB,UB)
x = linprog(-f,A,b,G,h,zeros(size(f)),[]);
Revenue = f' \times x
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                                                             10-12
```

Blending Example - Results

• Blending distribution:





Total Revenue: \$532,125

GPS

- Determining coordinates by comparing distances to several satellites with known positions
- See E62 website:

http://www.stanford.edu/class/engr62e/handouts/GPSandLP.ppt



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Computing Resource Allocation

- Web Server Farm
- LP formulation for the optimal load distribution



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Aircraft actuator allocation



Aircraft actuator allocation

• Mutiple flight control surfaces: ailerons, elevons, canard foreplanes, trailing and leading edge flaps, airbrakes, etc

$$\begin{bmatrix} M_{roll} \\ M_{pitch} \\ M_{yaw} \end{bmatrix} = B(\alpha, \phi, V)u$$

$$F = Bu$$

$$F = Bu$$
Allocation
Algorithm

Actuator allocation

• Simplest approach - least squares

$$u = B^{\dagger} F$$
$$B^{\dagger} = (B^T B)^{-1} B^T \quad \text{solves} \quad Bu = F, \quad ||u||_2^2 \to \min$$

• LP optimization approach Bu = F, $\|w^T u\|_1 \to \min$ $\|w^T u\|_1 = \sum w_k \cdot |u_k|$, $w_k \ge 0$ $\|u^T u\|_1 = \sum w_k \cdot |u_k|$, $w_k \ge 0$ $Bu^+ - Bu^- = F$

Solve the LP, get $u = u^+ - u^-$

Actuator allocation

- Need to handle actuator constrains (*v* scale factor)
 - $\|w^{T}u\|_{1} v \to \min \qquad u^{l} \le u \le u^{u}$ $Bu = vF \qquad 0 \le v \le 1$
- LP can be extended to include actuator constrains

$$w^{T}u^{+} + w^{T}u^{-} - v \rightarrow \min Bu^{+} - Bu^{-} - vF = 0u^{l} \le u^{+} \le u^{u}u^{l} \le -u^{-} \le u^{u}0 \le v \le 1$$

$$f^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} w^{T} & w^{T} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ -I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} u^{u} \\ -u^{l} \\ u^{u} \\ -u^{l} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, x = \begin{bmatrix} u^{+} \\ u^{-} \\ v \end{bmatrix} G = \begin{bmatrix} B & -B & -F \end{bmatrix}, h = 0$$

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Actuator allocation example

• Problem:

$$\|w^{T}u\|_{1} - v \to \min \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & -0.7 & 0.4 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix} \\ Bu = vF \qquad w = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.02 & 0.001 \end{bmatrix} \\ -1 \le u \le 1$$

• LP problem solution for F = 1.5



SOLUTION FOR F=1.5



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Actuator allocation example

• LP problem solution for *F* from -2.5 to 2.5



Extreme actuator allocation

- (Xerox) PARC jet array table
- Jets must be allocated to achieve commanded total force and torque acting on a paper sheet



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Actuator allocation

• Least squares + actuator constraint

Bu = F, $\|u\|^2 \to \min$ $u^l \le u \le u^u$

• This is a QP optimization problem

Quadratic Programming

• QP Problem:

$$Ax \le b$$

$$Gx = h$$

$$J = \frac{1}{2}x^{T}Hx + f^{T}x \rightarrow \min$$

- Matlab Optimization Toolbox: **QUADPROG**
- Same feasibility issues as for LP
- Fast solvers available
- More in the next Lecture...

Lecture 11 - Optimal Program

- Grade change in process control
 - example
- QP optimization
- Flexible dynamics: input shaping, input trajectory
 - example
- Rocket, ascent
- Robotics

Optimization of process transitions

- Process plants manufacture different product varieties (grades)
- Need to optimize transitions from grade to grade



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Product Grade Change

- The requirement: to change manufacture from grade A to grade B with the minimum off-spec production.
- The implementation: using detailed models of process and operating procedures.
- The results: optimum setpoint trajectories for key process controllers during the changeover, resulting in minimum lost revenue.



Grade change control example

• Simple process model:



- The process is the initial steady state: u = 0; $y_1 = y_2 = 0$
- Need to transition, as quickly as possible, to other steady state: $u = \text{const}; y_1 = \text{const}; y_2 = y_d$

Grade change control example

• Linear system model in the convolution form

$$y = h * u$$

• Quadratic-optimal control

$$\int \left(\left| y_2(t) - y_d \right|^2 + r \left| \dot{u}(t) \right|^2 \right) dt \to \min$$

- Equality constraint (process transitioning to the new grade) • $\dot{y}_1(t) \equiv 0, y_2(t) \equiv y_d, \text{ for } T \leq t \leq T + T_f$
 - Inequality constraints

 - Control $|u(t)| \le u_*$ Temperature $|y_2(t)| \le d_*$
Grade change control example

• Sampled time: $t = k \tau$, (k=1,...,N);

- Y is a 2N vector
- H is a block-Toeplitz matrix
$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} H_1 U \\ H_2 U \end{bmatrix} = HU$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u(\tau) \\ \vdots \\ u(N\tau) \end{bmatrix}, Y_1 = \begin{bmatrix} y_1(\tau) \\ \vdots \\ y_1(N\tau) \end{bmatrix}, Y_2 = \dots$$

$$H_{1,2}U = h_{1,2} * U$$

• Dynamics as an equality constraint:

$$HU - Y = 0$$

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Grade change control example

• Quadratic-optimal control

$$(Y_{2} - Y_{d})^{T}(Y_{2} - Y_{d}) + rU^{T}D^{T}DU + w(Y_{1} - Y_{d1})^{T}(Y_{1} - Y_{d1}) \rightarrow \min$$

$$U^{T}D^{T}DU + Y_{2}^{T}Y_{2} - 2Y_{d}^{T}Y_{2} + \dots \rightarrow \min$$

$$Y_{d} = y_{d}\begin{bmatrix}1\\\vdots\\1\end{bmatrix} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix}1 & -1 & \cdots & 0\\\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots\\0 & \cdots & 1 & -1\\0 & \cdots & 0 & 0\end{bmatrix}$$
• Inequality constraints

- Control $-u_* \leq U \leq u_*$
- Temperature $0 \le Y_1 \le T_*$

Terminal constraint

• Equality constraints (new grade steady state)



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Quadratic Programming

• QP Problem:

$$Ax \le b$$

$$Gx = h$$

$$J = \frac{1}{2}x^{T}Hx + f^{T}x \rightarrow \min$$

• Matlab Optimization Toolbox: **QUADPROG**



Control Engineering

Sim

QP Program for the grade change with a terminal constraint at T = 8



 $T_{*} = 2$ $u_* = 20$



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Control Engineering

10

10

- Single flexible mode model
- Franklin, Section 9.2

$$J_1 \ddot{x}_1 = -k(x_1 - x_2) - b(\dot{x}_1 - \dot{x}_2) + gu$$

$$J_2 \ddot{x}_2 = k(x_1 - x_2) + b(\dot{x}_1 - \dot{x}_2)$$





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Linear system model $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ y = Cx



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• Linear system model in the convolution form

$$y = h * u$$

• Quadratic-optimal control

$$\int \left| u(t) \right|^2 dt \to \min$$

- Equality constraint (system coming to at target slew angle) $y(t) \equiv y_d$, for $T \leq t \leq T + T_f$
 - Inequality constraints
 - Control $|u(t)| \le 1$
 - Deformation $|y_2(t)| \le d_*$
 - Slew rate $|y_3(t)| \le v_*$

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• Sampled time: $t = k\tau$, (k=1,...,N); *Y* is a 3*N* vector; *H* is a block-Toeplitz matrix

Y = HU

• Quadratic-optimal control

 $U^T U \to \min$

- Equality constraint (system coming to at target slew angle) $SY = Y_d$
- Inequality constraints
 - Control $-1 \le U \le 1$
 - Deformation $d_* \leq S_2 Y \leq d_*$
 - Slew rate $v_* \leq S_3 Y \leq v_*$

This is a QP problem

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Robust design approach

- Replace exact terminal constraint by a given residual error
- Consider the system for several different values of parameters and group the results together
- As an optimality index, consider the average performance index or the worst residual error



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Ascend trajectory optimization

- Rocket launch vehicles
 - fuel (payload) optimality
 - orbital insertion constraint
 - flight envelope constraints
 - booster drop constraint





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Ascend trajectory optimization



- Nonlinear constraint optimization problem
 - not QP, not LP
 - iterative optimization methods: Gradient, Newton, Levenberg-Marquardt, SQP, SSQP
 - can get results if supervised by a human
 - QP, LP are guaranteed always produce a solution if the problem is feasible - suitable for one-line use inside control loop

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Mobile Robot Path Planning

$$F(\xi(\cdot), \eta(\cdot), t_f) \rightarrow \min$$

$$\ddot{\xi} = p, ||p|| \le p_{max},$$

$$\ddot{\eta} = q, ||q|| \le q_{max},$$

$$\xi(0) = \xi_0, \ \eta(0) = \eta_0, \ \dot{\xi}(0) = \dot{\xi}_0, \ \dot{\eta}(0) = \dot{\eta}_0,$$

$$\eta(t_f) = \eta(t_f) = \dot{\xi}(t_f) = \dot{\eta}(t_f) = 0$$

bint mass model:
$$(p,q)$$

Constraint optimization problem of finding an optimal path



Future Combat Systems (FCS)

- Ground and air robotics vehicles
- Potential application of robotics research
- Path planning and optimization are important



Lecture 12 - Model Predictive Control

- Prediction model
- Control optimization
- Receding horizon update
- Disturbance estimator feedback
- IMC representation of MPC
- Resource:
 - Joe Qin, survey of industrial MPC algorithms
 - http://www.che.utexas.edu/~qin/cpcv/cpcv14.html

Control Hierarchy



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Models for MPC

Plant structure:

•

- CV controlled variables y
- MV manipulated variables *u*
- DV disturbance variables *v*

$$MV: u \longrightarrow Plant \rightarrow CV: y$$
$$DV: v \longrightarrow Plant + CV: y$$

- FSR Finite Step Response model $y(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} S^{U}(k)\Delta u(t-k) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} S^{D}(k)\Delta v(t-k) + d$
 - compact notation

$$y(t) = (s^U * \Delta u)(t) + (s^D * \Delta v)(t) + d \qquad \qquad h = \Delta s;$$

$$\Delta = 1 - z^{-1}$$

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FSR Model



MPC Process Model Example



Prediction Model

past input trajectory

 $\underline{U}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u(t-1) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u(t-N+1) \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ Discuss later "Dynamic states" X(k) : memory of past Predicted future output past future hypothesized future input PREDICTOR trajectory $U(t) = \begin{vmatrix} \Delta u(t) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u(t+n) \end{vmatrix} -$ past future $Y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} y(t) \\ \vdots \\ y(t+n) \end{bmatrix}$ here FSR model

Prediction Model

$$y(t) = (s^U * \Delta u)(t) + (s^D * \Delta v)(t) + d$$



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Control Engineering

Hankel matrix

Future impact of the disturbance

Optimization of future inputs $Y(t) = \Psi U(t) + \underbrace{\Phi \cdot \underline{U}(t) + \Phi^{D} \underline{V}(t) + Dd}_{Y^{*}(t)}$

• Optimization problem

$$J = (Y(t) - Y_d(t))^T Q(Y(t) - Y_d(t)) + U^T(t)RU(t) \rightarrow \min$$

$$Y_d(t) = \begin{bmatrix} y_d(t) \\ \vdots \\ y_d(t+N) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q^{y} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & Q^{y} \end{bmatrix}, R = \begin{bmatrix} R^{u} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & R^{u} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Optimization constraints

• MV constraints

• CV constraints

$$y_{\min}(t) \le y(t) \le y_{\max}(t)$$
 \Longrightarrow $Y_{\min} \le Y(t) \le Y_{\max}$

• Terminal constraint:

$$y(t+k) = y_d; \Delta u(t+k) = 0 \text{ for } k \ge p$$

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QP solution

• QP Problem:

$$Ax \le b$$

$$A_{eq}x = b_{eq}$$

$$J = \frac{1}{2}x^{T}Qx + f^{T}x \rightarrow \min$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} U(t) \\ Y(t) \end{bmatrix} \text{ Predicted MVs, CVs}$$

• Standard QP codes are available

Receding horizon control

• Optimization problem solution at step *t* :

 $J(U) \rightarrow \min \implies U = U_{OPT}(t)$

• Use the first computed control value only

 $u(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot U_{OPT}(t)$

• Repeat at each *t*



Control dynamics

• System dynamics as an equality constraint in optimization

 $Y(t) = \Psi U(t) + Y^{*}(t)$ $Y^{*}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & \Phi^{D} \end{bmatrix} \cdot X(t) + d(t)$

• Update of the system state

 $X(t+1) = AX(t) + B\Delta u(t) + B^{D}\Delta v(t)$

- Optimization problem solution at step t : $J(U;Y(U)) \rightarrow \min \implies U = U_{OPT}(t)$
- Use the first of the computed control values $u(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot U_{OPT}(t)$

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State update and estimation

• State update - shift register

$$X(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{U}(t) \\ \underline{V}(t) \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{U}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u(t-1) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u(t-N+1) \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{V}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta v(t-1) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta v(t-N+1) \end{bmatrix}$$
• Disturbance estimator (feedback)

$$d(t+1) = d(t) + (y_m(t) - y(t))$$
• CV Prediction based on the current state X(t)

• Integrator feedback



Advantages and Conveniences

- Industrial strength products that can be used for a broad range of applications
- Flexibility to plant size, automated setup
- Based on step response/impulse response model
- On the fly reconfiguration if plant is changing
 - MV, CV, DV channels taken off control / returned into MPC
 - measurement problems, actuator failures
- Systematic handling of multi-rate measurements and missed measurement points
 - do not update d if no data

Technical detail

- Tuning of MPC feedback control performance is an issue.
 - Works in practice, without formal analysis
 - Theory requires
 - Large (infinite) prediction horizon
 - Terminal constraint
- Additional tricks for
 - a separate static optimization step
 - integrating and unstable dynamics
 - active constraints
 - regularization
 - shape functions for control
 - different control horizon and prediction horizon

MPC as IMC

- MPC is a special case of IMC
- Closed-loop dynamics (filter dynamics)
 - integrator in disturbance estimator
 - N poles z=0 in the FSR model update



Emerging MPC applications

- Vehicle path planning and control
 - nonlinear vehicle models
 - world models
 - receding horizon preview



Emerging MPC applications

• Spacecraft rendezvous with space station



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Emerging MPC applications

- Nonlinear plants
 - just need a computable model (simulation)
- Hybrid plants
 - combination of dynamics and discrete mode change
- Engine control
- Large scale operation control problems
 - operations management
 - campaign control
Lecture 13 - Handling Nonlinearity

- Nonlinearity issues in control practice
- Setpoint scheduling/feedforward
 - path planning replay linear interpolation
- Nonlinear maps
 - B-splines
 - Multivariable interpolation: polynomials/splines/RBF
 - Neural Networks
 - Fuzzy logic
- Gain scheduling
- Local modeling

Nonlinearity in control practice

Here are the nonlinearities we already looked into

- Constraints saturation in control
 - anti-windup in PID control
 - MPC handles the constraints
- Control program, path planning
- Static optimization
- Nonlinear dynamics
 - dynamic inversion
 - nonlinear IMC
 - nonlinear MPC

One additional nonlinearity in this lecture

• Controller gain scheduling

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Dealing with nonlinear functions

- Analytical expressions
 - models are given by analytical formulas, computable as required
 - rarely sufficient in practice
- Models are computable off line
 - pre-compute simple approximation
 - on-line approximation
- Models contain data identified in the experiments
 - nonlinear maps
 - interpolation or look-up tables
- Advanced approximation methods
 - neural networks

Path planning

- Real-time replay of a pre-computed reference trajectory $y_d(t)$ or feedforward v(t)
- Reproduce a nonlinear function $y_d(t)$ in a control system

$$t \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{Path planner,} \\ \text{data arrays } Y, \Theta \end{array} \longrightarrow y_d(t) \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 = y_d(\theta_1) \\ Y_2 = y_d(\theta_2) \\ \vdots \\ Y_n = y_d(\theta_n) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Code:

1. Find *j*, such that $\theta_j \le t \le \theta_{j+1}$

2. Compute $y_{d}(t) = Y_{j} \frac{\theta_{j+1} - t}{\theta_{j+1} - \theta_{j}} + Y_{j+1} \frac{t - \theta_{j}}{\theta_{j+1} - \theta_{j}}$



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13-4

Linear interpolation vs. table look-up

- linear interpolation is more accurate
- requires less data storage
- simple computation



Empirical models

- Aerospace most developed nonlinear approaches
 - automotive and process control have second place
- Aerodynamic tables
- Engine maps
 - jet turbines
 - automotive
- Process maps, e.g., in semiconductor manufacturing
- Empirical map for a attenuation vs. temperature in an optical fiber EE392m Winter 2003



Approximation

- Interpolation:
 - compute function that will provide given values Y_j in the nodes θ_j
 - not concerned with accuracy in-between the nodes
- Approximation
 - compute function that closely corresponds to given data, possibly with some error
 - might provide better accuracy throughout



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B-spline interpolation

- 1st-order
 - look-up table, nearest neighbor
- 2nd-order

ullet

– linear interpolation

$$y_d(t) = \sum_j Y_j B_j(t)$$





- Piece-wise *n*-th order polynomials, matched *n*-2 derivatives
- zero outside a local support interval
- support interval extends to *n* nearest neighbors

B-splines

- Accurate interpolation of smooth functions with relative few nodes
- For 1-D function the gain from using high-order B-splines is not worth an added complexity
- Introduced and developed in CAD for 2-D and 3-D curve and surface data
- Are used for defining multidimensional nonlinear maps



Multivariable B-splines

- Regular grid in multiple variables
- Tensor product B-splines
- Used as a basis of finite-element models



Linear regression for nonlinear map

- Linear regression $y(\overline{x}) = \sum_{j} \theta_{j} \varphi_{j}(\overline{x}) = \theta^{T} \cdot \phi(\overline{x})$ $\overline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n} \end{bmatrix}$ Multidimensional B-splines
- Multivariate polynomials $\boldsymbol{\varphi}_i(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = (x_1)^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot (x_n)^{k_n}$ $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_3 (x_1)^2 + \theta_4 x_1 x_2 + \dots$
- **RBF** Radial Basis Functions

$$\varphi_{j}(\overline{x}) = R\left(\left\|\overline{x} - \overline{c}_{j}\right\|\right) = e^{-a\left\|\overline{x} - \overline{c}_{j}\right\|^{2}}$$

Linear regression approximation

• Nonlinear map data

- available at scattered nodal points



• Linear regression map

$$Y = \theta^T \cdot \left[\phi(\overline{x}^{(1)}) \quad \dots \quad \phi(\overline{x}^{(N)}) \right] = \theta^T \Phi$$

- Linear regression approximation
 - regularized least square estimate of the weight vector

$$\hat{\theta} = \left(\Phi\Phi^T + rI\right)^{-1}\Phi Y^T$$

• Works just the same for vector-valued data!

Nonlinear map example - Epi

- Epitaxial growth (semiconductor process)
 - process map for run-to-run control



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Linear regression for Epi map

• Linear regression model for epitaxial grouth

$$y = c_{0}x_{1}p_{1}(x_{2}) + c_{1}(1 - x_{1})p_{2}(x_{2})$$

$$p_{1} = w_{0} + w_{1}x_{2} + w_{3}(x_{2})^{2} + w_{4}(x_{2})^{3}$$

$$c_{0}x_{1}p_{1} = \underbrace{w_{0}c_{0}}_{\theta_{1}}x_{1} + \underbrace{w_{1}c_{0}}_{\theta_{2}}x_{1}x_{2} + \underbrace{w_{3}c_{0}}_{\theta_{3}}x_{1}(x_{2})^{2} + \underbrace{w_{4}c_{0}}_{\theta_{4}}x_{1}(x_{2})^{3}$$

$$c_{1}(1 - x_{1})p_{2}(x_{2}) = \underbrace{v_{0}c_{1}}_{\theta_{5}}(1 - x_{1}) + \underbrace{v_{1}c_{1}}_{\theta_{6}}(1 - x_{1})x_{2} + \underbrace{v_{3}c_{0}}_{\theta_{7}}(1 - x_{1})(x_{2})^{2} + \underbrace{w_{4}c_{0}}_{\theta_{8}}(1 - x_{1})(x_{2})^{3}$$

$$\underbrace{y(x_{1}, x_{2}) = \sum_{j} \theta_{j}\varphi_{j}(x_{1}, x_{2}) = \theta^{T} \cdot \phi(x_{1}, x_{2})}_{Control Engineering} \qquad 13-14$$

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Neural Networks

• Any nonlinear approximator might be called a Neural Network



Multi-Layered Perceptrons

- Network parameter computation
 - training data set
 - parameter identification

 $y(\overline{x}) = F(\overline{x}; \theta)$

• Noninear LS problem

$$V = \sum_{j} \left\| y^{(j)} - F(\overline{x}^{(j)}; \theta) \right\|^2 \to \min$$

- Iterative NLS optimization
 - Levenberg-Marquardt
- Backpropagation
 - variation of a gradient descent







Fuzzy Logic

- Function defined at nodes. Interpolation scheme
- Fuzzyfication/de-fuzzyfication = interpolation
- Linear interpolation in 1-D



- Marketing (communication) and social value
- Computer science: emphasis on interaction with a user
 - EE emphasis on mathematical computations

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Neural Net application

- Internal Combustion Engine maps
- Experimental map:
 - data collected in a steady state regime for various combination of parameters
 - 2-D table
- NN map
 - approximation of the experimental map
 - MLP was used in this example
 - works better for a smooth surface



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Linear feedback in a nonlinear plant

• Simple example y = f(x) + g(x)u $u = -k(x)(y - y_d) + u_{ff}(x)$



- Control design requires $k(x), u_{ff}(x), y_d(x)$
- These variables are *scheduled* on *x*



Gain scheduling

- Single out several regimes - model linearization or experiments
- Design linear controllers in these regimes: setpoint, feedback, feedforward
- Approximate controller dependence on the regime parameters

B: Linearized Nonlinear setpoint models. error model system $A(\Theta_i) B(\Theta_i) \Big|_{\Delta}$ $\operatorname{vec}(A)$ $C(\Theta_i) D(\Theta_i)$ *Μ*, *K*, *G*(jω) vec(B)Y = $\operatorname{vec}(C)$ vec(L D: Gain C: Linear scheduled controller setpoint controllers $A_{K}(\Theta) B_{K}(\Theta)$ $A_{K}(\Theta_{i}) B_{K}(\Theta_{i})$ $C_{K}(\Theta) D_{K}(\Theta)$ $C_{K}(\Theta_{i}) D_{K}(\Theta_{i})$ Linear interpolation:

 $Y(\Theta) = \sum_{j} Y_{j} \varphi_{j}(\Theta)$

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Gain scheduling - example

- Flight control
- Flight envelope parameters are used for scheduling
- Shown ullet
- hown Approximation nodes $\Xi_{2.5}$ tion points
- Key assumption
 - Attitude and Mach are changing much slower than time constant of the flight control loop



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Local Modeling Based on Data



Lecture 14 - Health Management

- Fault detection and accommodation
- Health management applications
 - Engines
 - Vehicles: space, air, ground, marine, rail
 - Industrial plants
 - Semiconductor manufacturing
 - Computing
- Abnormality detection SPC
- Parameter estimation
- Fault tolerance redundancy

Diagnostics in Control Systems

- Control algorithms are less than 20% of the embedded control application code in safety-critical systems
- 80% is dealing with special conditions, fault accomodation
 - BIT (Built-in Test software)
 - BITE (Built-in Test Equipment hardware)
 - Binary results
 - Messages
 - Used in development and in operation





Health Management

- Emerging technology recent several years
 - less established than most of what was discussed in the lectures
- Systems fault management functions
 - Abnormality detection and warning something is wrong
 - Diagnostics what is wrong
 - Prognostics predictive maintenance
 - Accomodation recover
- On-line functions control system
 - Fault accommodation FDIR
- Off-line functions enterprise system
 - Maintenance automation
 - Logistics automation

Vehicle Health Management

- IVHM Integrated Vehicle Health Management On-board
- PHM Prognostics and Health Management On-ground
- Vehicles: space, air, ground, rail, marine
 - Integrated systems, many complex subsystems
 - Safety critical, on-going maintenance, on-board fault diagnostics



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Airline enterprise - maintenance

• Integrated on-board and on-ground system





Industrial plants



Semiconductor manufacturing

• E-diagnostics initiative by SEMATECH



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Computing

- Autonomic computing
 - Fault tolerance
 - Automated management, support, security
 - IBM, Sun, HP Scientific American, May 2002
- Sun Storage Automated Diagnostic Environment
 - Health Management and Diagnostic Services



K.Gross, Sun Microsystems

Abnormality detection - SPC

- SPC Statistical Process Control (univariate)
 - discrete-time monitoring of manufacturing processes
 - early warning for an off-target quality parameter
- SPC vs EPC
 - EPC (Engineering Process Control) 'normal' feedback control
 - SPC operator warning of abnormal operation
- SPC has been around for 80 years
- Three main methods of SPC:
 - Shewhart chart (20s)
 - EWMA (40s)
 - CuSum (50s)

Abnormality detection - SPC

- Process model SISO
 - quality variable randomly changes around a steady state value
 - the goal is to detect change of the steady state value

$$X(t) \approx \begin{cases} N(\mu_0, \sigma^2), & t \le T \\ N(\mu_1 \neq \mu_0, \sigma^2), & t > T \end{cases}$$

• Shewhart Chart

$$Y(t) = \frac{X(t) - \mu_0}{\sigma} \quad \text{detection:} \quad Y(t) > Z = c_1$$

- Simple thresholding for deviation from the nominal value μ_0
- Typical threshold of $3\sigma \iff 0.27\%$ probablity of false alarm

SPC - EWMA

- EWMA = Exponentially Weighted Moving Average
- First order low pass filter

$$Y(t+1) = (1-\lambda)Y(t-1) + \lambda X(t)$$



SPC - CuSum

- CuSum = Cumulative Sum
 - a few modifications
 - one-sided CuSum most common



Multivariate SPC - Hotelling's T²

• The data follow multivariate normal distribution

 $X(t)\approx N(\mu,\Sigma)$

• Empirical parameter estimates

$$\mu = E(X) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} X(t)$$



$$\Sigma = E\left((X-\mu)(X-\mu)^T\right) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n (X(t)-\mu)(X^T(t)-\mu)$$

• The Hotelling's T^2 statistics is

$$T^{2} = (X(t) - \mu)^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (X(t) - \mu) \qquad T^{2} = Y^{T}(t) Y(t)$$

• *T* can be trended as a univariate SPC variable (almost)

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Multivariate SPC



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Model-based fault detection



Model-based fault detection

- Compute model-based prediction residual X(t) at cycle t
 - flight/trip/maneuver for a vehicle
 - update time interval or a batch for a plant
 - semiconductor process run
- X(t) reflects modeling error, process randomness, and fault
- Use MSPC for detecting abnormality through *X*(*t*)
 - Hotelling's T²
 - CuSum
- Does not tell us what the fault might be (diagnostics)

Parameter estimation

• Residual model: $X = Y - f(U, \theta)$

$$X = \Phi \theta + \xi \qquad \Phi = -\frac{\partial f(U,\theta)}{\partial \theta}$$

- Fault models meaning of θ
 - Sensor fault model additive output change
 - Actuator fault model additive input change
- Estimation technique
 - Fault parameter estimation regression

$$\hat{\theta} = \left(\Phi^T \Phi + rI\right)^{-1} \Phi^T X$$

Fault tolerance: Hardware redundancy

• Boeing 777 Primary Flight Computer (PFC) Architecture



Analytical redundancy

- Analytical Redundancy
 - correlate data from diverse measurements through an analytical model of the system
- Estimation techniques
 - KF observer
- Talked about in the literature
- Used only in much simplified form:
 - on loss of a sensor, use inferential estimate of the variable using other sensor measurements
 - on loss of an actuator, re-allocate control to other actuators

Lecture 15 - Distributed Control

- Spatially distributed systems
- Motivation
- Paper machine application
- Feedback control with regularization
- Optical network application
- Few words on good stuff that was left out

Distributed Array Control

- Sensors and actuators are organized in large arrays distributed in space.
- Controlling spatial distributions of physical variables
- Problem simplification: the process and the arrays are uniform in spatial coordinate



Distributed Control Motivation

- Sensors and actuators are becoming cheaper
 - electronics almost free
- Integration density increases
- MEMS sensors and actuators
- Control of spatially distributed systems increasingly common
- Applications:
 - paper machines
 - fiberoptic networks
 - adaptive and active optics
 - semiconductor processes
 - flow control
 - image processing



- Control objective: flat profiles in the cross-direction
- The same control technology for different actuator types: flow uniformity control, thermal control of deformations, and others

Headbox with Slice Lip CD Actuators



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Profile Control System



Biaxial Plastic Line Control



Model Structure

• Process-independent model structure

 $\Delta Y = G\Delta U$ $Y \in \Re^m, U \in \Re^n, G \in \Re^{m,n}$

- *G* spatial response matrix with columns g_i
- Known parametric form of the spatial response (noncausal FIR)
- Green Function of the distributed system



$$g_{j,k} = g\varphi(x_k - c_j)$$



- Extract noncausal FIR model
- Fit parameterized response shape



Simple I control

• Compare to Lecture 4, Slide 5

I control

• Step to step update:

 $Y(t) = G \cdot U(t) + D(t)$ $U(t) = U(t-1) - k[Y(t-1) - Y_d]$

• Closed-loop dynamics

$$Y = ((z-1)I + kG)^{-1} [kGY_d + (z-1)D]$$

• Steady state: z = 1

$$Y = Y_d, \qquad U = G^{-1}(Y_d - D)$$

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Control Engineering

15-11

Simple I control

Issues with simple I control • *G* not square positive definite – use G^{T} as a spatial pre-filter $Y_{G}(t) = G^{T}G \cdot U(t) + D_{G}(t)$ $Y_{G} = G^{T}Y, \quad D_{G} = G^{T}D$

- For ill-conditioned G get very large control, picketing

 use regularized inverse
- Slowly growing instability
 - control not robust
 - regularization helps again



Control Engineering



15-12

Frequency Domain - Time

- LTI system is a convenient engineering model
- LTI system as an input/output operator
- Causal
- Can be diagonalized by harmonic functions
- For each frequency, the response is defined by amplitude and phase

Frequency Domain - Space

- Linear Spatially Invariant (LSI) system
- LSI system is a convenient engineering model
- LSI system as an input/output operator
- Noncausal
- Can be diagonalized by harmonic functions
- Diagonalization = modal analysis; spatial modes are harmonic functions



Control with Regularization

• Add integrator leakage term

$$\Delta U(t) = -K(Y(t-1) - Y_d) - SU(t-1)$$

- Feedback operator *K*
 - spatial loopshaping
 - $KG \approx 1$ at low spatial frequencies
 - $KG \approx 0$ at high spatial frequencies
- Smoothing operator S
 - regularization
 - $S \approx 0$ at low spatial frequencies
 - $S \approx s_0$ at high spatial frequencies regularization

Spatial Frequency Analysis

- Matrix $G \rightarrow$ convolution operator g (noncausal FIR) \rightarrow spatial frequency domain (Fourier) g(v)
- Similarly: $K \to k(v)$ and $S \to s(v)$
- Each spatial frequency mode evolves independently $y(v) = \frac{g(v)k(v)}{z - 1 + s(v) + g(v)k(v)} y_d + \frac{z - 1 + s(v)}{z - 1 + g(v)k(v)} d$
- Steady state

$$y(v) = \frac{g(v)k(v)}{s(v) + g(v)k(v)} y_d + \frac{s(v)}{s(v) + g(v)k(v)} d$$
$$u(v) = \frac{k(v)}{s(v) + g(v)k(v)} (y_d(v) - d(v))$$

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Sample Controller Design

- Spatial domain loopshaping is easy it is noncausal
- Example controller with regularization



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WDM network equalization

- WDM (Wave Division Multiplexing) networks
 - multiple (say 40) independent laser signals with closely space wavelength packed (multiplexed) into a single fiber
 - each wavelength is independently modulated
 - in the end the signals are unpacked (de-mux) and demodulated
 - increases bandwidth 40 times without laying new fiber



15-18

WDM network equalization

- Analog optical amplifiers (EDFA) amplify all channels
- Attenuation and amplification distort carrier intensity profile
- The profile can be flattened through active control





See more detail at:

www126.nortelnetworks.com/news/papers_pdf/electronicast_1030011.pdf

WDM network equalization

• Logarithmic (dB) attenuation for a sequence of notch filters

$$A = A_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot A_N$$

$$\log A = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \log A_k$$





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Good stuff that was left out

- Estimation and Kalman filtering
 - navigation systems
 - data fusion and inferential sensing in fault tolerant systems
- Adaptive control
 - adaptive feedforward, noise cancellation, LMS
 - industrial processes
 - thermostats
 - bio-med applications, anesthesia control
 - flight control
- System-level logic
- Integrated system/vehicle control