

# Control Methods

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# Refresher

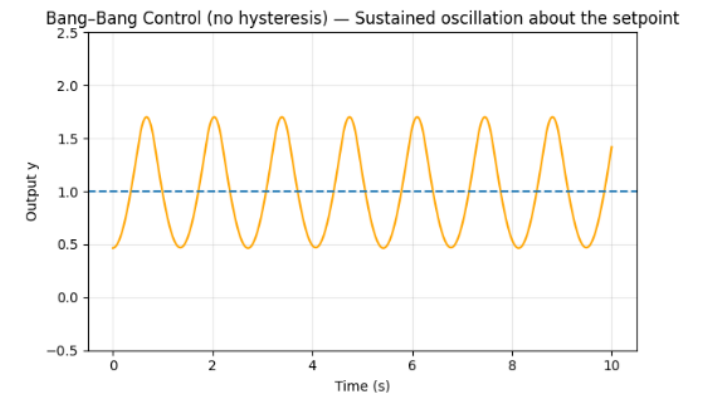
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- **Error:** The difference between the desired value (setpoint) and the actual measured value of a system.
- **Open-loop control:** A control system that operates without feedback, so it does not correct its output if conditions change.
- **Closed-loop control:** A control system that uses feedback to continuously compare output to the setpoint and adjust its response to reduce error.
- **Steady-state error:** The remaining difference between the setpoint and the system output after the system has settled and is no longer changing.

# Bang-Bang Control (On–Off Control)

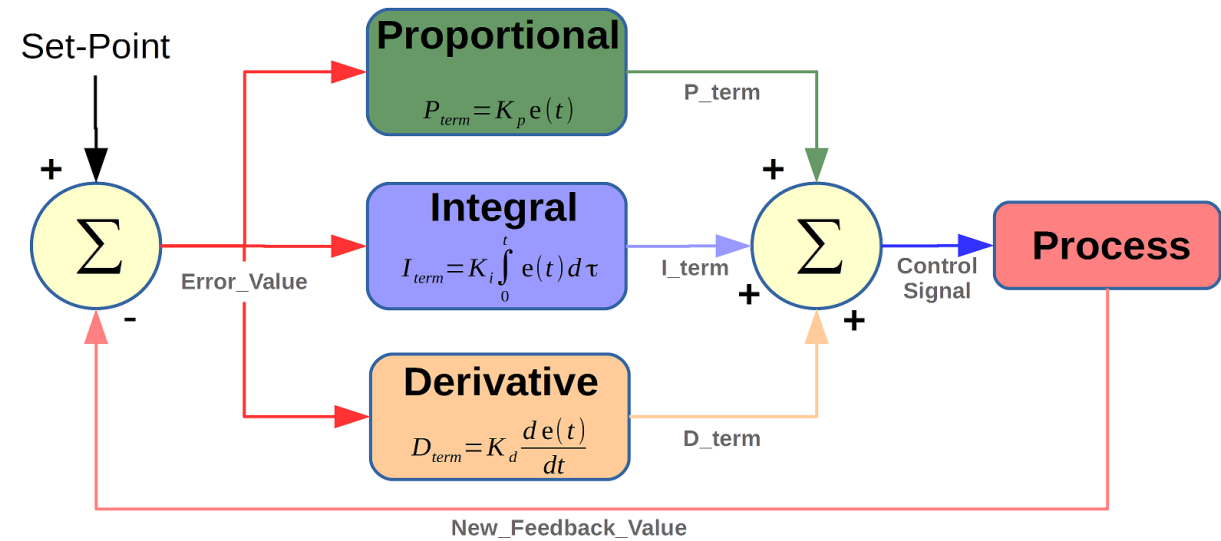
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- Bang-bang control is a **very simple** control method where the output is either fully on or fully off with no **intermediate levels**
- The controller switches state depending on whether the measured value is **above or below the setpoint**
- This often causes **oscillation around the setpoint** as seen on the graph
- Bang-bang control is **cheap, robust, and easy to implement**, but not very precise.
- Common applications include **thermostats, basic heaters, refrigerators, and float switches**.



# What is a PID Control

- PID control is a **closed loop** feedback mechanism commonly used in automation and robotics
- The system continuously adjusts the output to optimise the system, respond to changes and minimise error
- Calculates an output based on the present, past, and predicted future error.



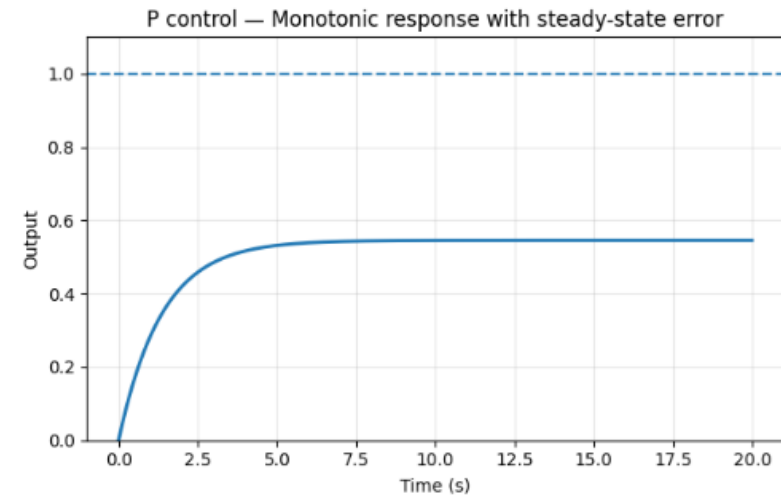
# What does PID stand for?

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- Proportional – Looking at the present
- Integral – Looking at the past
- Derivative – Looking at the future

# Proportional Control (P)

- Proportional control means that we adjust the output depending on how large our current error is
- **The bigger our error is, the bigger our correction is**
- **Increasing** proportional gain makes the system **respond faster**.
- Too much proportional gain can cause **oscillation** or **instability**.
- Proportional control alone often leaves a **steady-state error**.
- It is simple, fast, and commonly used as the base of PID control systems.



# Proportional Control (P) Equation

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$$u(t) = K_p e(t)$$

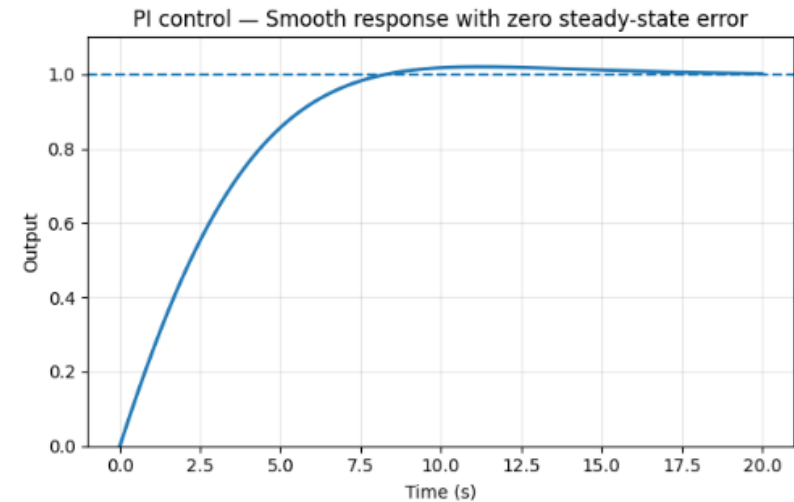
Proportional Output

Proportional Value (gain)

Error Value (setpoint - current)

# Integral Control (I)

- Integral control responds to the accumulated error over time, not just the current error.
- It **increases the output while error persists, until the error is removed.**
- Integral control is used to **eliminate steady-state error** left by proportional control.
- Too much integral action can cause **overshoot** and **slow system response.**
- It can also lead to **integral wind-up** if the system cannot respond quickly enough.
- Integral control improves accuracy but must be carefully tuned.





# Proportional Control (P) Equation

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$$I(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau.$$

The diagram illustrates the integral control equation  $I(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$ . Four blue arrows point from text boxes to specific parts of the equation: 'Integral Output' points to  $I(t)$ , 'Integral Value' points to  $K_i$ , 'Error Value (setpoint - current)' points to  $e(\tau)$ , and 'Change in time' points to the differential element  $d\tau$ .

Integral Output

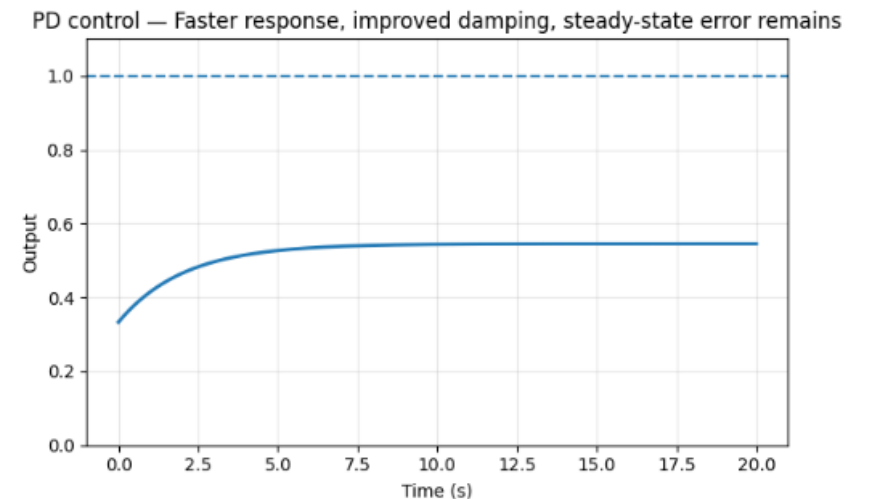
Integral Value

Error Value (setpoint - current)

Change in time

# Derivative Control (D)

- Derivative control responds to the **rate of change of the error** rather than the error itself.
- It **predicts future system behaviour** by observing how quickly **the error is changing**.
- Derivative action helps **reduce overshoot and oscillation**.
- It improves system **stability and damping**.
- Derivative control is **sensitive to noise** in sensor signals.
- It is rarely used on its own and is typically combined with P and I in PID control.



# Proportional Control (P) Equation

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$$D = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

The diagram illustrates the Derivative Control equation  $D = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$ . It features four blue-bordered boxes with labels, each connected to a part of the equation by a blue arrow. The 'Derivative Output' box points to the variable  $D$ . The 'Derivative Value' box points to the gain coefficient  $K_d$ . The 'Change in time' box points to the denominator  $dt$ . The 'Change in Error Value (setpoint - current)' box points to the numerator  $de(t)$ .

Derivative Output

Derivative Value

Change in time

Change in Error Value  
(setpoint - current)

# PID Equation

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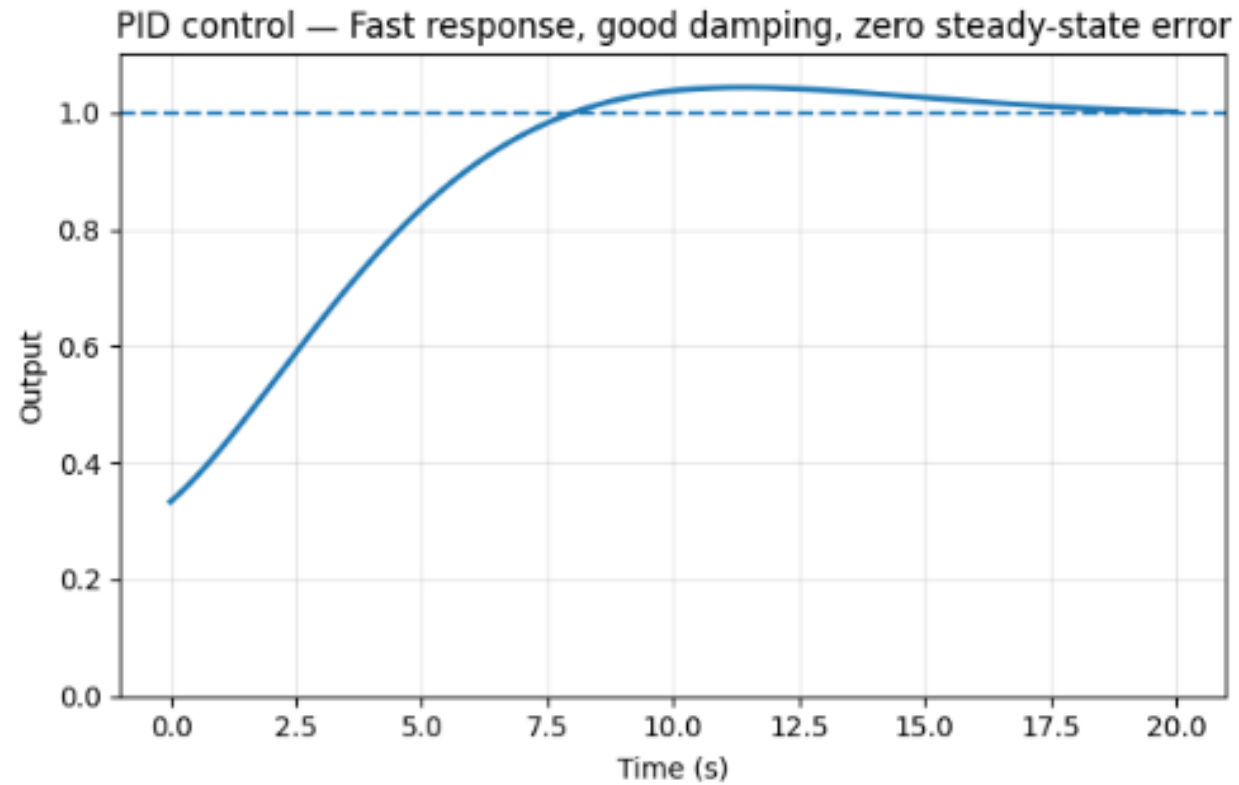
$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

The diagram illustrates the PID equation with four labeled components pointing to their respective parts in the equation:

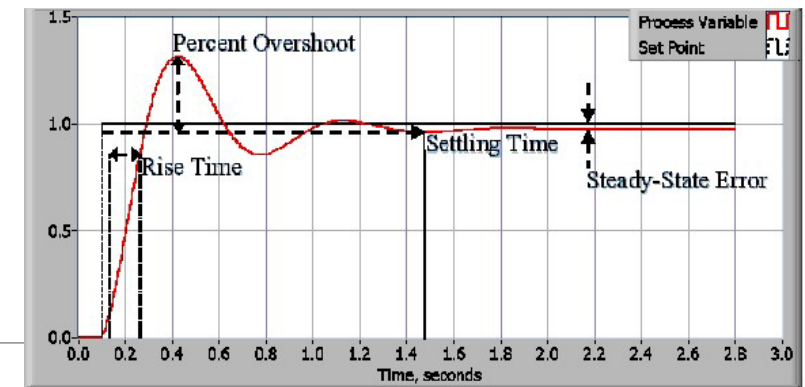
- System output**: Points to  $u(t)$ .
- Proportional Equation**: Points to  $K_p e(t)$ .
- Integral Equation**: Points to  $K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$ .
- Derivative Equation**: Points to  $K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$ .

# PID Response Graph

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# Tuning PID



- **PID tuning** is the process of **adjusting the P, I, and D** gains to achieve stable and accurate control.
- The aim is to **minimise steady-state error, overshoot, and settling time**.
- Increasing **P** makes the system **respond faster** but can cause **oscillation**.
- Increasing **I** removes **steady-state error** but can increase **overshoot** and **slow response**.
- Increasing **D** reduces **overshoot** and improves **stability** but can amplify noise.
- Tuning is usually done by **trial and error**, starting with P, then adding I, then D.
- Poor tuning can result in **oscillation, slow response, or instability**.