

# Basic Concepts in Control

393R: Autonomous Robots

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Slides Courtesy of  
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# Good Afternoon Colleagues

- Are there any questions?

# Logistics

- Reading responses
- Next week's readings - due Monday night
  - Braitenberg vehicles
  - Forward/inverse kinematics
  - Aibo joint modeling
- Next class: lab intro (start here)

# Controlling a Simple System

- Consider a simple system:  $\dot{x} = F(x, u)$ 
  - Scalar variables  $x$  and  $u$ , not vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$ .
  - Assume  $x$  is observable:  $y = G(x) = x$
  - Assume effect of motor command  $u$ :  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} > 0$
- The setpoint  $x_{set}$  is the desired value.
  - The controller responds to error:  $e = x - x_{set}$
- The goal is to set  $u$  to reach  $e = 0$ .

# The intuition behind control

- Use action  $u$  to push back toward error  $e = 0$ 
  - error  $e$  depends on state  $x$  (via sensors  $y$ )
- What does pushing back do?
  - Depends on the structure of the system
  - Velocity versus acceleration control
- How much should we push back?
  - What does the magnitude of  $u$  depend on?

Car on a slope example

# Velocity or acceleration control?

- If error reflects  $\mathbf{x}$ , does  $\mathbf{u}$  affect  $\mathbf{x}'$  or  $\mathbf{x}''$  ?
- Velocity control:  $\mathbf{u} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}'$  (valve fills tank)

– let  $\mathbf{x} = (x)$

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = (\dot{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = (u)$$

- Acceleration control:  $\mathbf{u} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}''$  (rocket)

– let  $\mathbf{x} = (x \ v)^T$

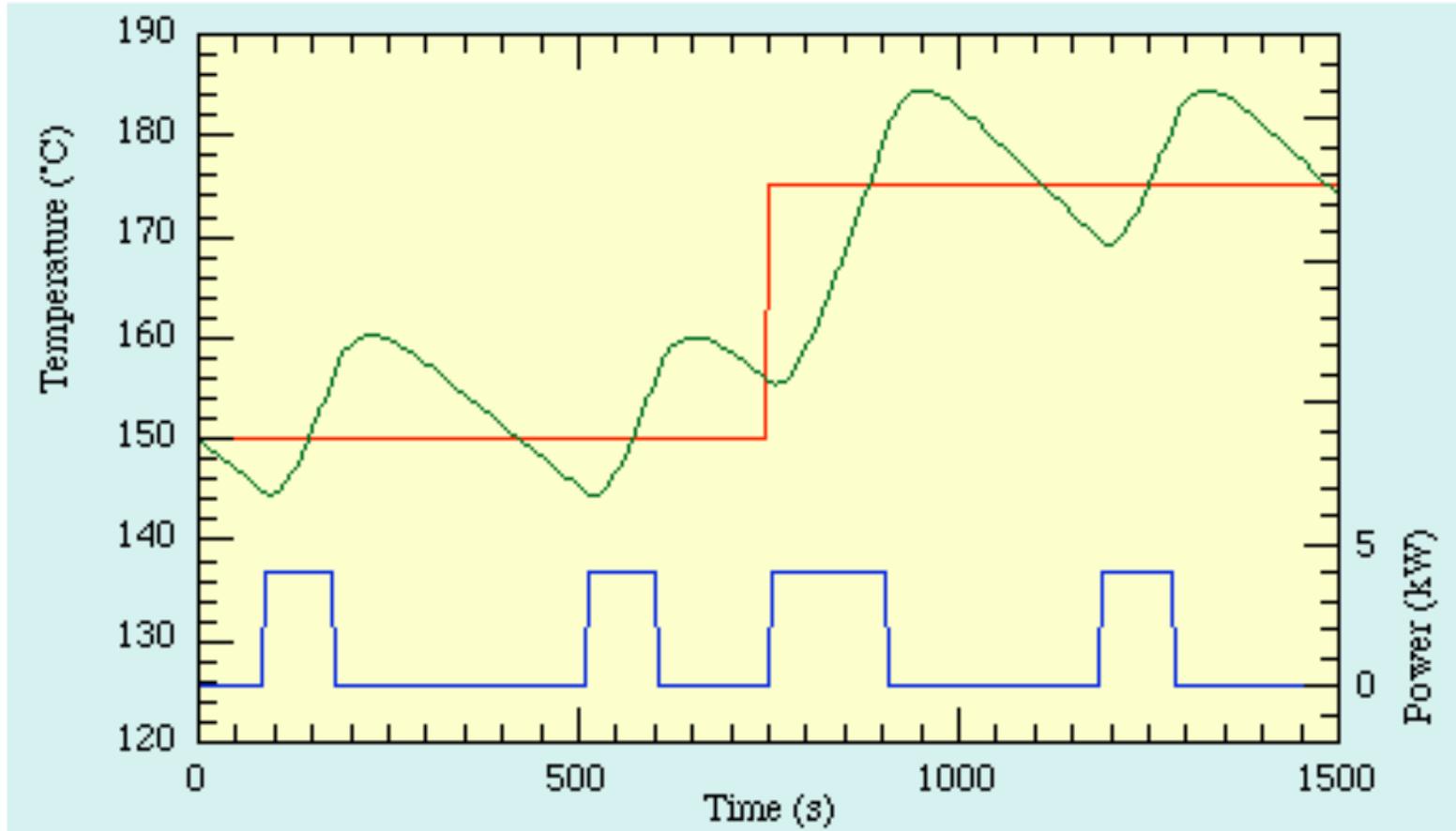
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{v} \end{pmatrix} = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = \begin{pmatrix} v \\ u \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\dot{v} = \ddot{x} = u$$

# The Bang-Bang Controller

- Push back, against the *direction* of the error
  - with constant action  $u$
- Error is  $e = x - x_{set}$ 
  - $e < 0 \implies u := on \implies \dot{x} = F(x, on) > 0$
  - $e > 0 \implies u := off \implies \dot{x} = F(x, off) < 0$
- To prevent chatter around  $e = 0$ ,
  - $e < -\varepsilon \implies u := on$
  - $e > +\varepsilon \implies u := off$
- Household thermostat. Not very subtle.

# Bang-Bang Control in Action



- Optimal for reaching the setpoint
- Not very good for staying near it

# Hysteresis

- Does a thermostat work exactly that way?
  - Car demonstration
- Why not?
- How can you prevent such frequent motor action?
- Aibo turning to ball example

# Proportional Control

- Push back, *proportional* to the error.

$$u = -ke + u_b$$

– set  $u_b$  so that  $\dot{x} = F(x_{set}, u_b) = 0$

- For a linear system, we get exponential convergence.

$$x(t) = Ce^{-\alpha t} + x_{set}$$

- The controller gain  $k$  determines how quickly the system responds to error.

# Velocity Control

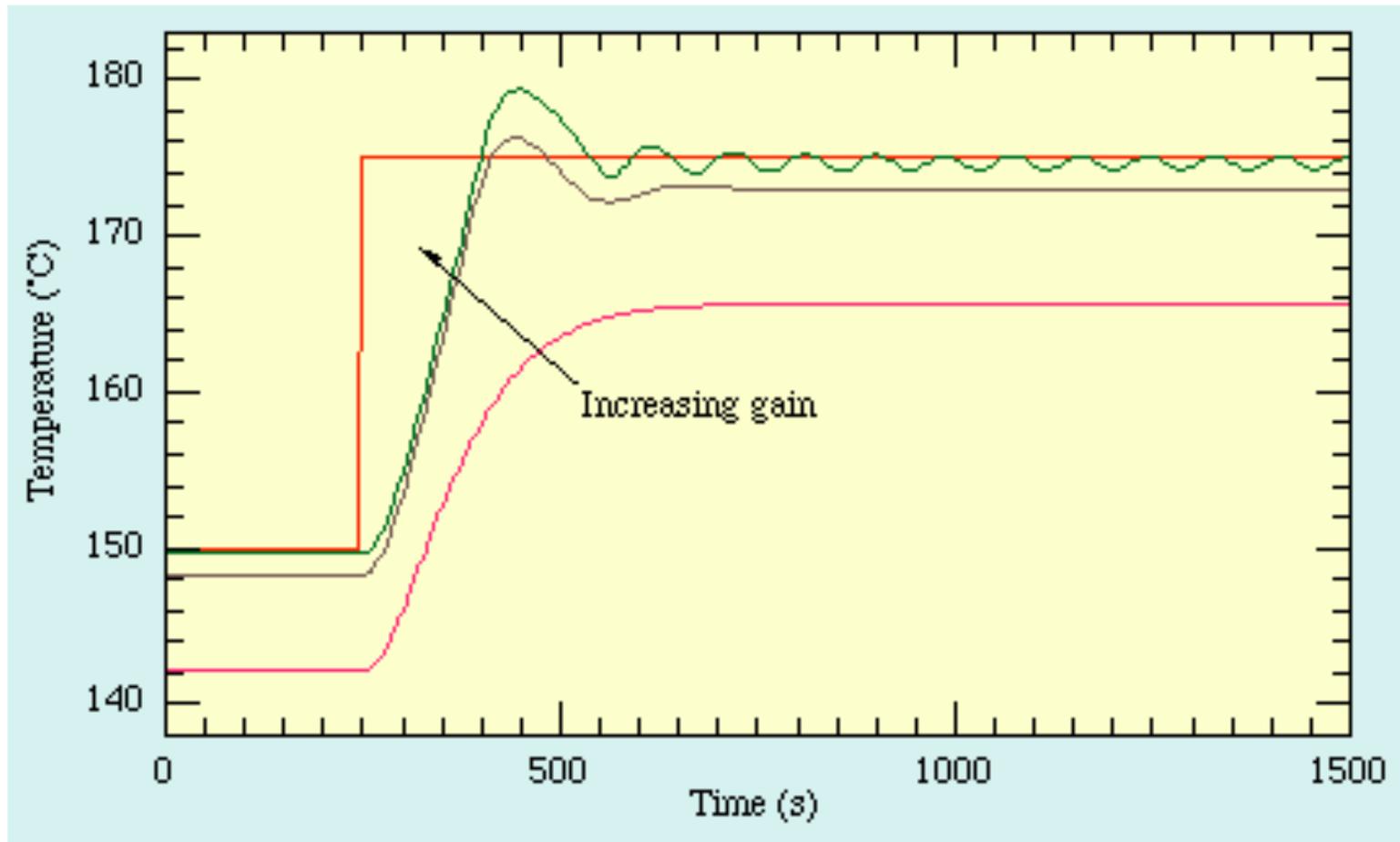
- You want to drive your car at velocity  $v_{set}$ .
- You issue the motor command  $u = pos_{accel}$
- You observe velocity  $v_{obs}$ .

- Define a first-order controller:

$$u = -k(v_{obs} - v_{set}) + u_b$$

–  $k$  is the controller gain.

# Proportional Control in Action



- Increasing gain approaches setpoint faster
- Can lead to overshoot, and even instability
- Steady-state offset

# Steady-State Offset

- Suppose we have continuing disturbances:

$$\dot{x} = F(x, u) + d$$

- The P-controller cannot stabilize at  $e = 0$ .
  - Why not?

# Steady-State Offset

- Suppose we have continuing disturbances:

$$\dot{x} = F(x, u) + d$$

- The P-controller cannot stabilize at  $e = 0$ .
  - if  $u_b$  is defined so  $F(x_{set}, u_b) = 0$
  - then  $F(x_{set}, u_b) + d \neq 0$ , so the system changes
- Must adapt  $u_b$  to different disturbances  $d$ .

# Adaptive Control

- Sometimes one controller isn't enough.
- We need controllers at different time scales.

$$u = -k_P e + u_b$$

$$\dot{u}_b = -k_I e \quad \text{where} \quad k_I \ll k_P$$

- This can eliminate steady-state offset.
  - Why?

# Adaptive Control

- Sometimes one controller isn't enough.
- We need controllers at different time scales.

$$u = -k_P e + u_b$$

$$\dot{u}_b = -k_I e \quad \text{where} \quad k_I \ll k_P$$

- This can eliminate steady-state offset.
  - Because the slower controller adapts  $u_b$ .

# Integral Control

- The adaptive controller  $\dot{u}_b = -k_I e$  means

$$u_b(t) = -k_I \int_0^t e dt + u_b$$

- Therefore

$$u(t) = -k_P e(t) - k_I \int_0^t e dt + u_b$$

- The Proportional-Integral (PI) Controller.

# Nonlinear P-control

- Generalize proportional control to
$$u = -f(e) + u_b \quad \text{where} \quad f \in M_0^+$$
- Nonlinear control laws have advantages
  - $f$  has vertical asymptote: bounded error  $e$
  - $f$  has horizontal asymptote: bounded effort  $u$
  - Possible to converge in finite time.
  - Nonlinearity allows more kinds of composition.

# Stopping Controller

- Desired stopping point:  $x=0$ .
  - Current position:  $x$
  - Distance to obstacle:  $d = |x| + \varepsilon$
- Simple P-controller:  $v = \dot{x} = -f(x)$
- Finite stopping time for  $f(x) = k\sqrt{|x|} \operatorname{sgn}(x)$

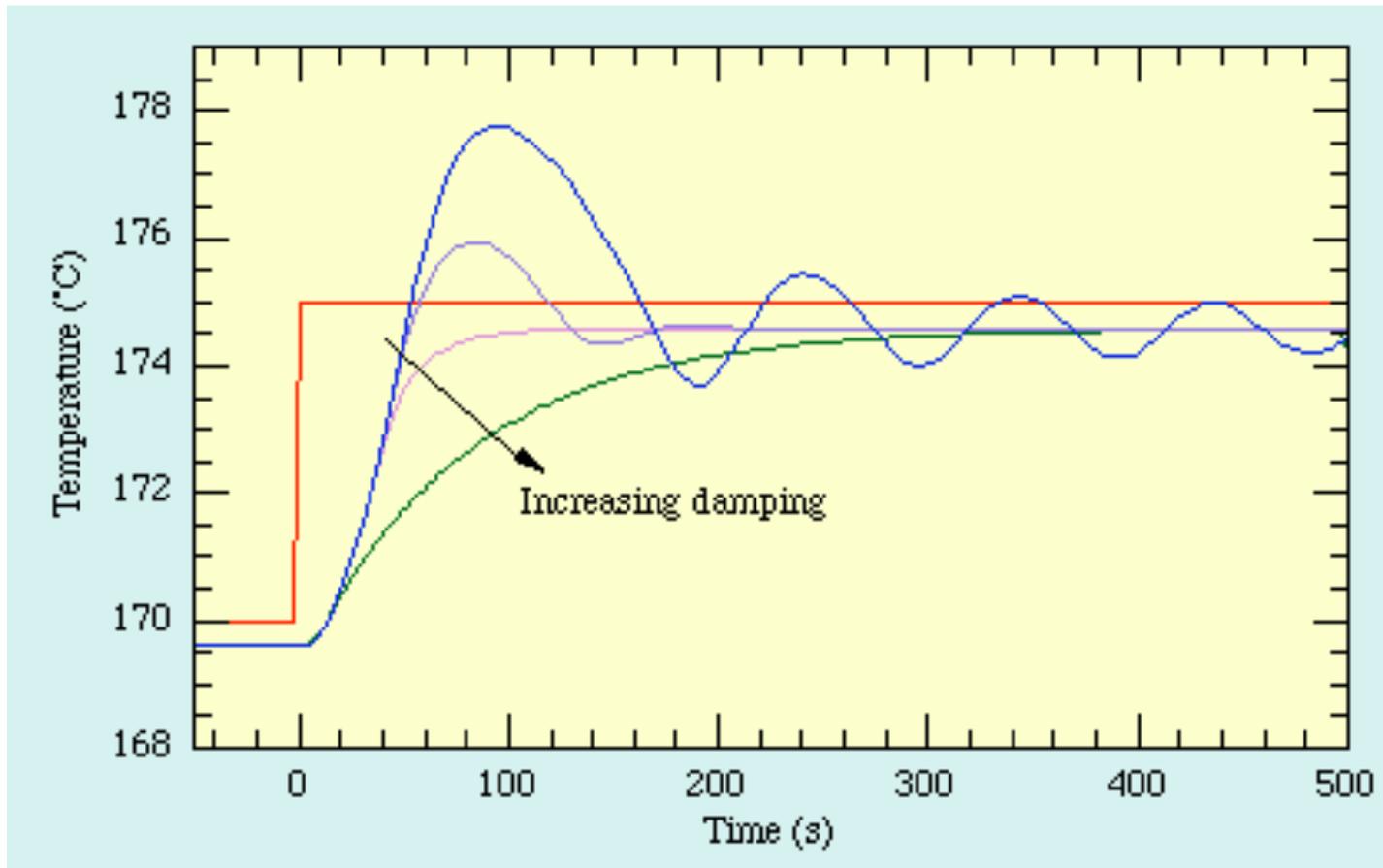
# Derivative Control

- Damping friction is a force opposing motion, proportional to velocity.
- Try to prevent overshoot by damping controller response.

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

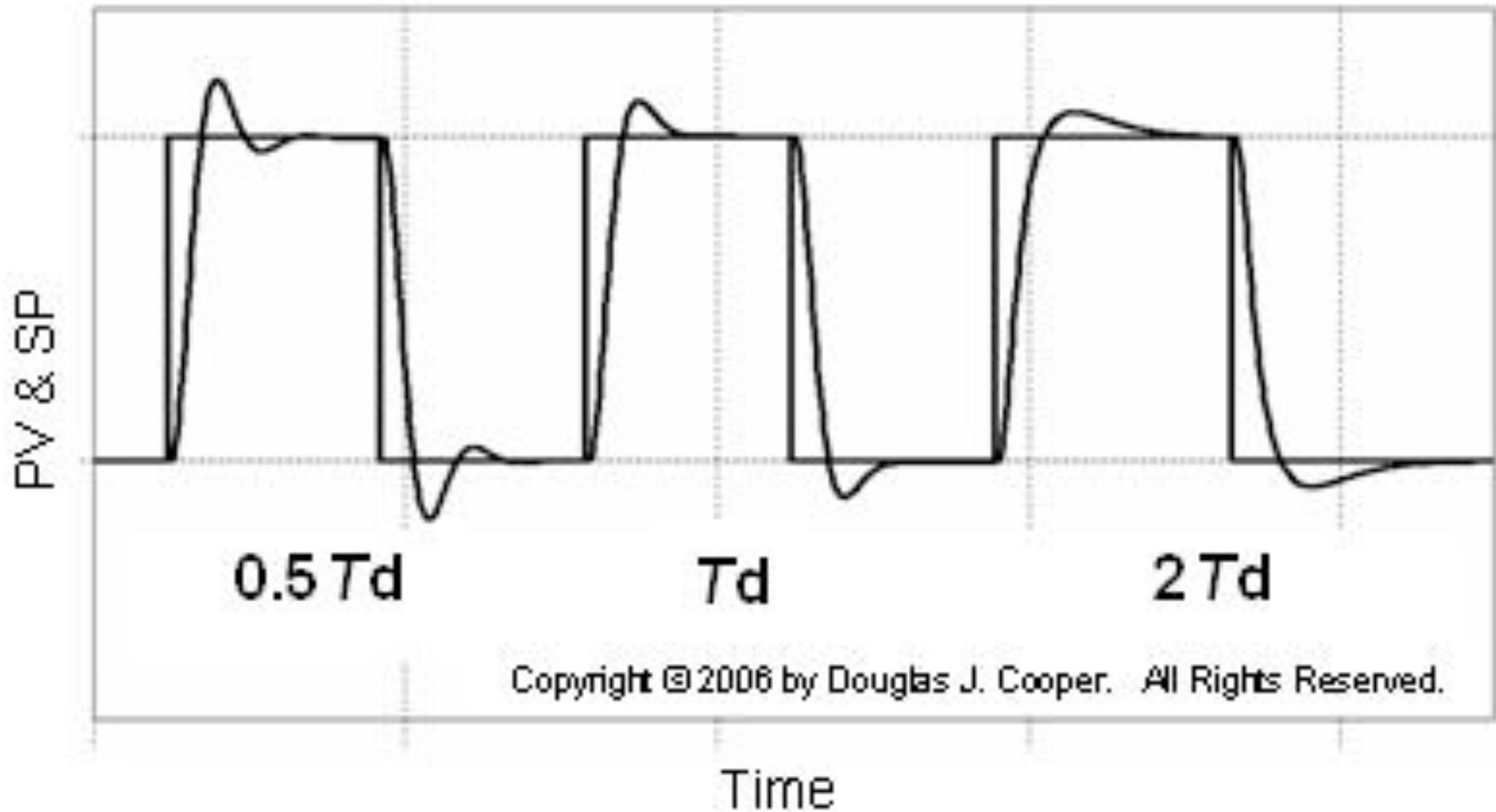
- Estimating a derivative from measurements is fragile, and amplifies noise.

# Derivative Control in Action



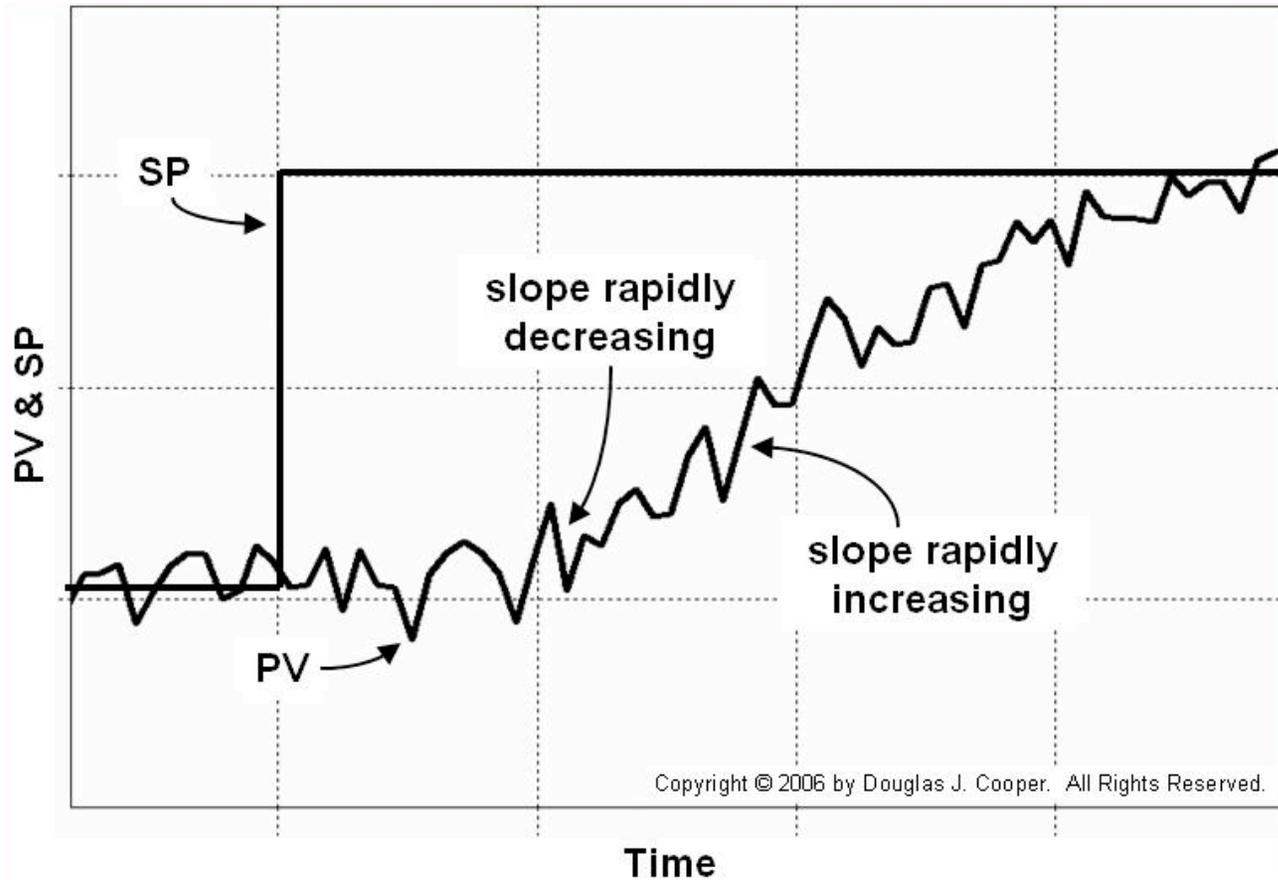
- Damping fights oscillation and overshoot
- But it's vulnerable to noise

# Effect of Derivative Control



- Different amounts of damping (without noise)

# Derivatives Amplify Noise



- This is a problem if control output (CO) depends on slope (with a high gain).

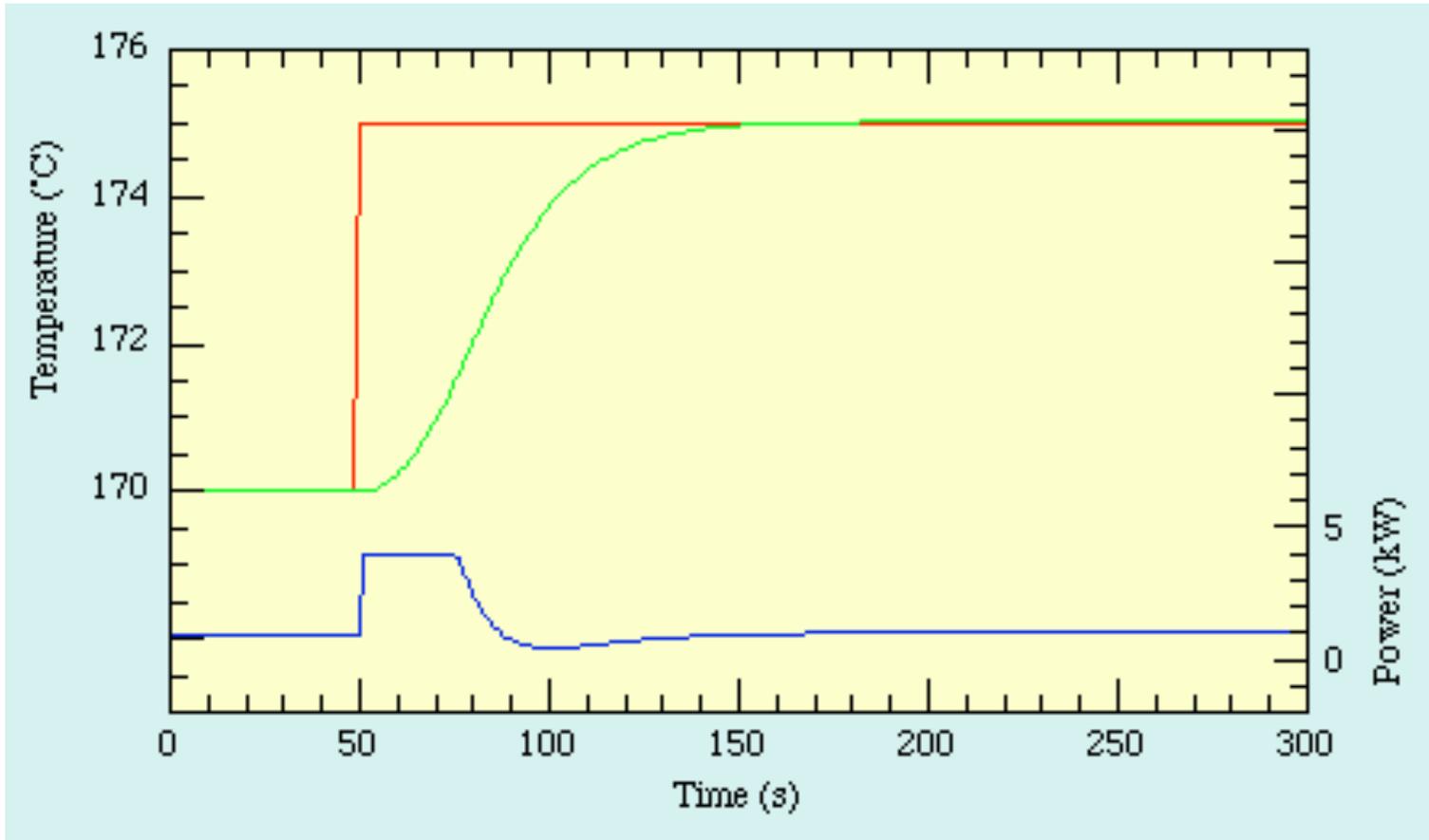
# The PID Controller

- A weighted combination of Proportional, Integral, and Derivative terms.

$$u(t) = -k_P e(t) - k_I \int_0^t e dt - k_D \dot{e}(t)$$

- The PID controller is the workhorse of the control industry. Tuning is non-trivial.
  - Next lecture includes some tuning methods.

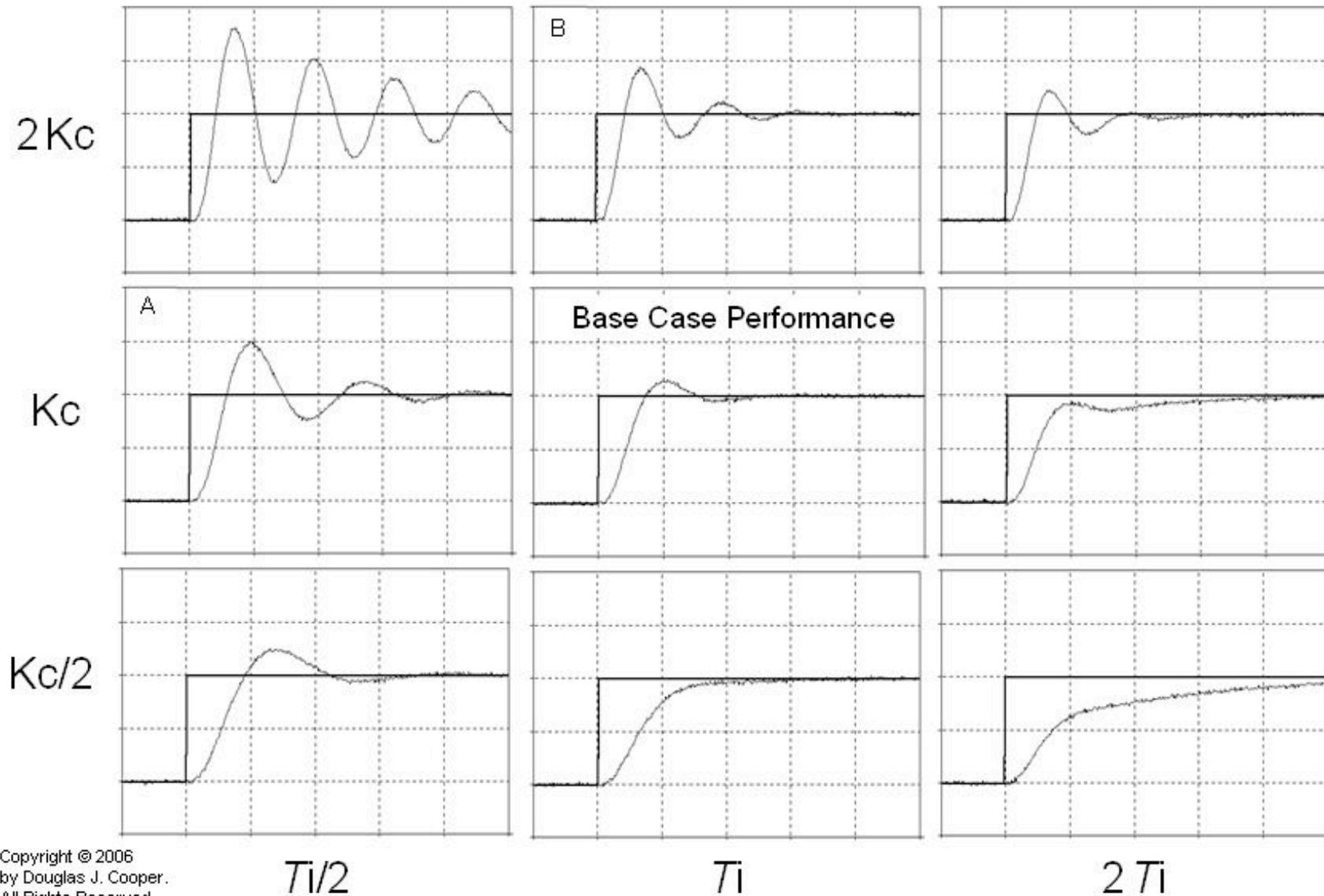
# PID Control in Action



- But, good behavior depends on good tuning!
- Aibo joints use PID control

# Exploring PI Control Tuning

Impact of  $K_c$  and  $T_i$  on Performance for PI Controller Form:  $CO = CO_{bias} + K_c e(t) + \frac{K_c}{T_i} \int e(t) dt$



# Habituation

- Integral control adapts the bias term  $u_b$ .
- Habituation adapts the setpoint  $x_{set}$ .
  - It prevents situations where too much control action would be dangerous.
- Both adaptations reduce steady-state error.

$$u = -k_P e + u_b$$

$$\dot{x}_{set} = +k_h e \quad \text{where} \quad k_h \ll k_P$$

# Types of Controllers

- **Open-loop control**
  - No sensing
- **Feedback control (closed-loop)**
  - Sense error, determine control response.
- **Feedforward control (closed-loop)**
  - Sense disturbance, predict resulting error, respond to predicted error before it happens.
- **Model-predictive control (closed-loop)**
  - Plan trajectory to reach goal.
  - Take first step.
  - Repeat.

Design open and closed-loop controllers for me to get out of the room.

# Dynamical Systems

- A *dynamical system* changes continuously (almost always) according to

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = F(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$$

- A *controller* is defined to change the coupled robot and environment into a desired dynamical system.

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$$

$$\mathbf{y} = G(\mathbf{x})$$

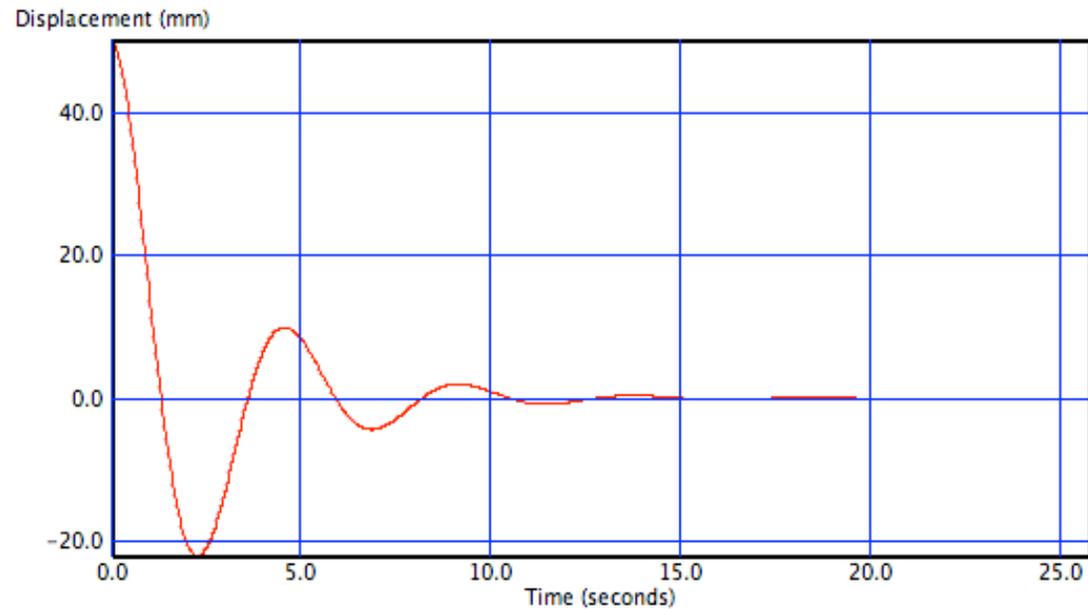
$$\mathbf{u} = H_i(\mathbf{y})$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = F(\mathbf{x}, H_i(G(\mathbf{x})))$$

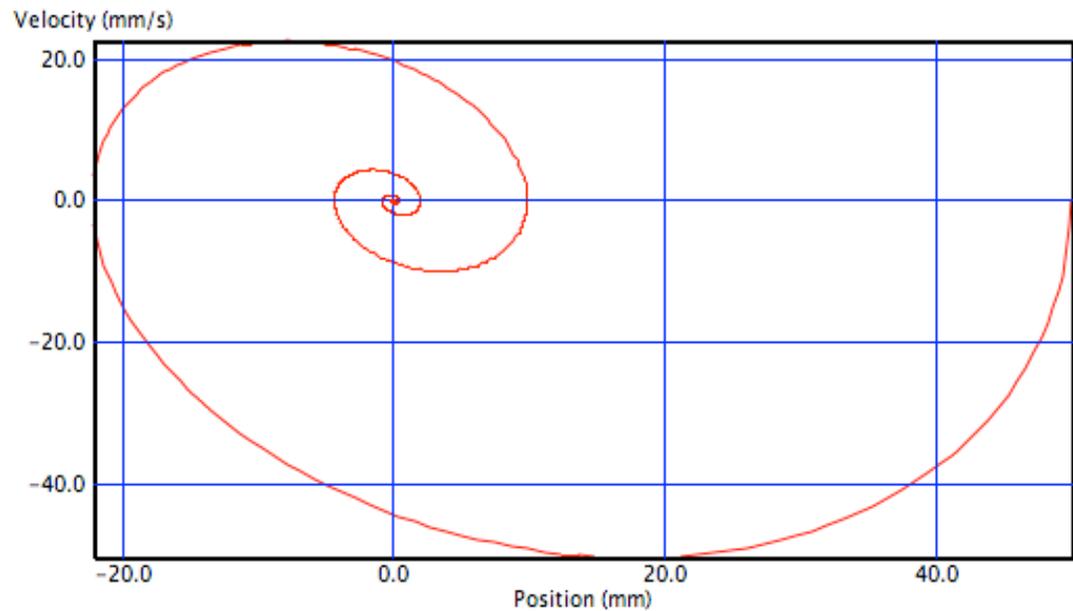
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \Phi(\mathbf{x})$$

# Two views of dynamic behavior

- Time plot  
 $(t, x)$

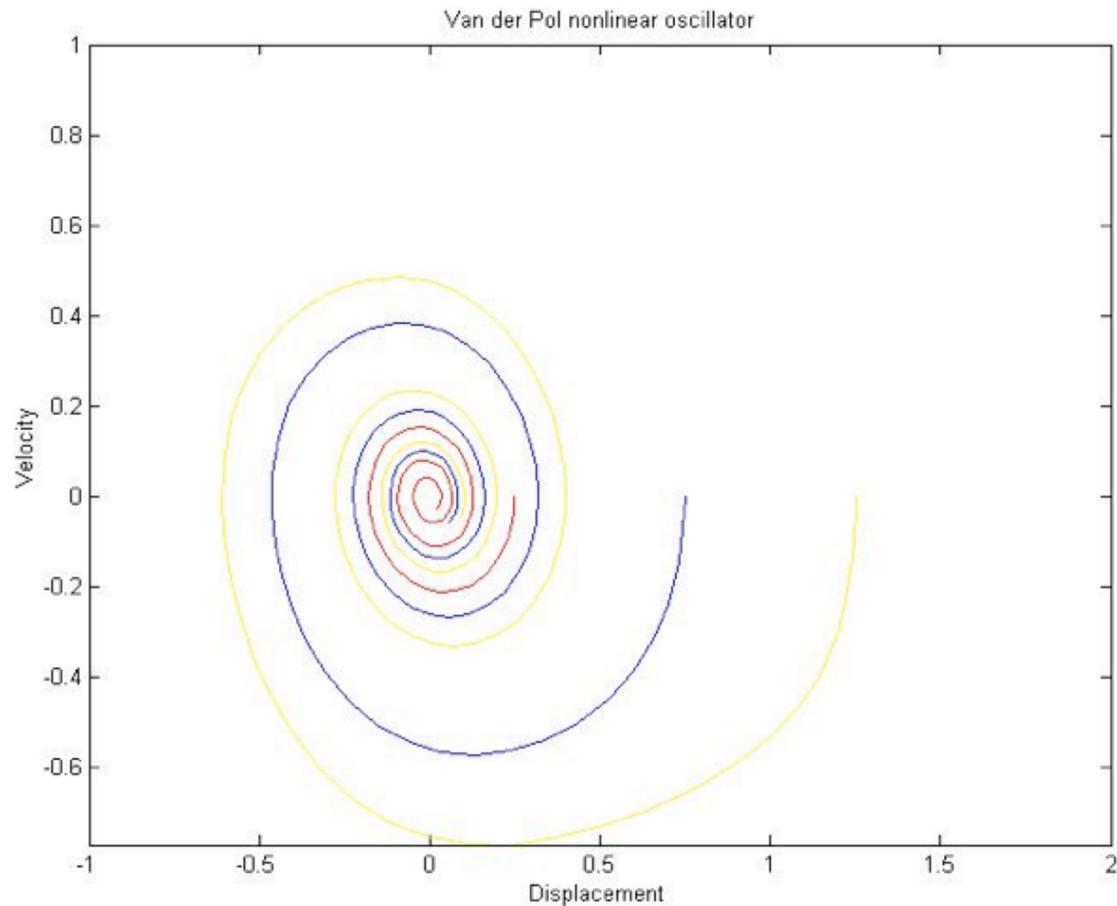


- Phase portrait  
 $(x, v)$



# Phase Portrait: $(x, v)$ space

- Shows the trajectory  $(x(t), v(t))$  of the system
  - Stable attractor here



# In One Dimension

- Simple linear system

$$\dot{x} = kx$$

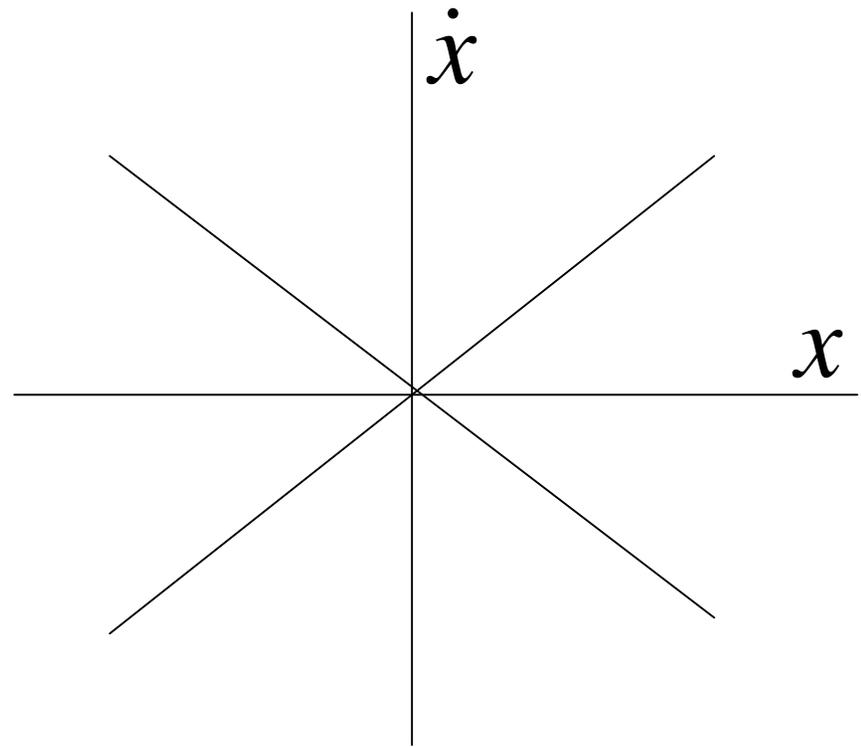
- Fixed point

$$x = 0 \implies \dot{x} = 0$$

- Solution

$$x(t) = x_0 e^{kt}$$

- Stable if  $k < 0$
- Unstable if  $k > 0$



# In Two Dimensions

- Often, we have position and velocity:

$$\mathbf{x} = (x, v)^T \quad \text{where} \quad v = \dot{x}$$

- If we model actions as forces, which cause acceleration, then we get:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{v} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \ddot{x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v \\ \text{forces} \end{pmatrix}$$

# The Damped Spring

- The spring is defined by Hooke's Law:

$$F = ma = m\ddot{x} = -k_1x$$

- Include damping friction

$$m\ddot{x} = -k_1x - k_2\dot{x}$$

- Rearrange and redefine constants

$$\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + cx = 0$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{v} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \ddot{x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v \\ -b\dot{x} - cx \end{pmatrix}$$

# Node Behavior

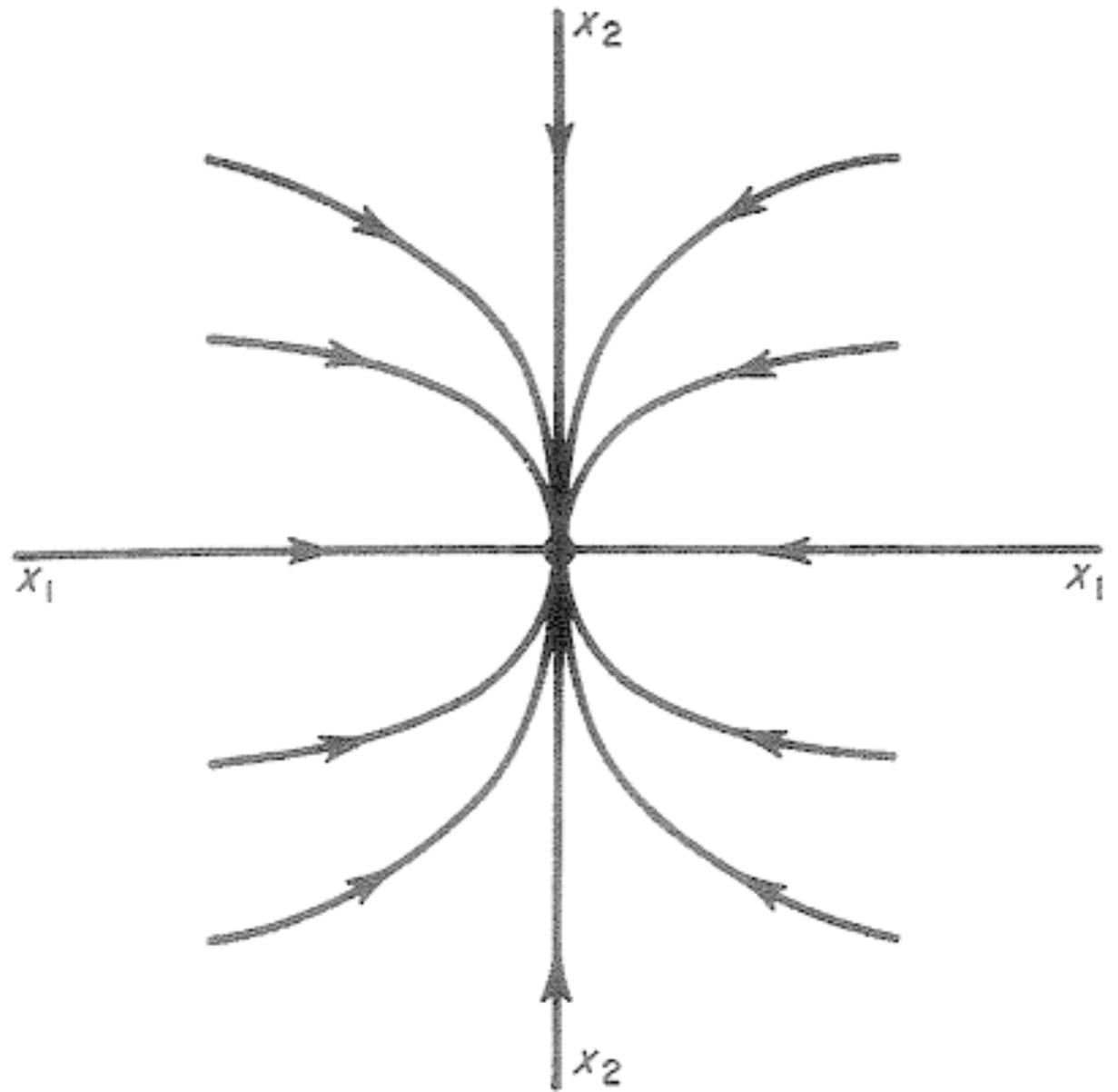


FIG. C. Node:  $B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\lambda < \mu < 0$ .

# Focus Behavior

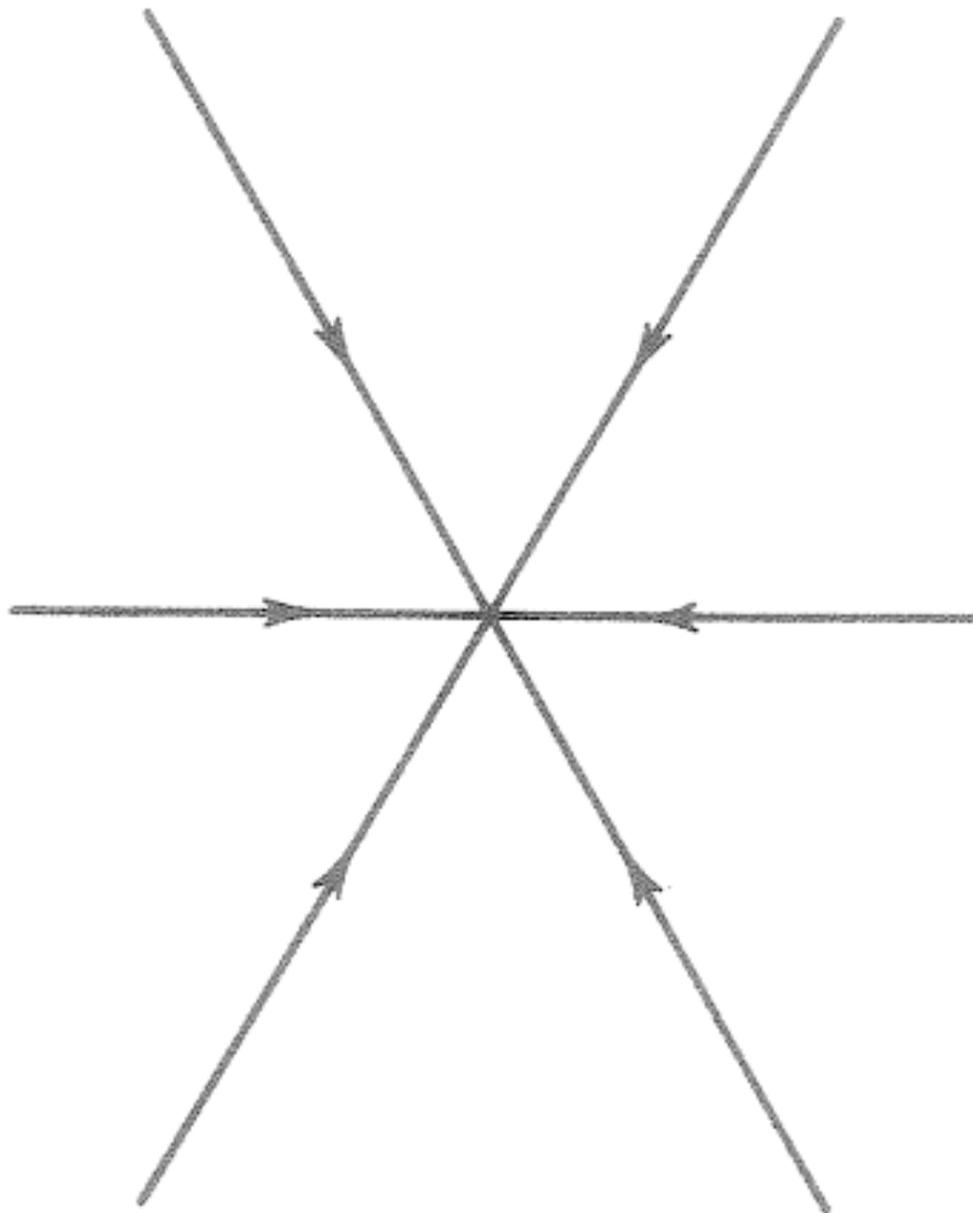


FIG. B. Focus:  $B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\lambda < 0$ .

# Saddle Behavior

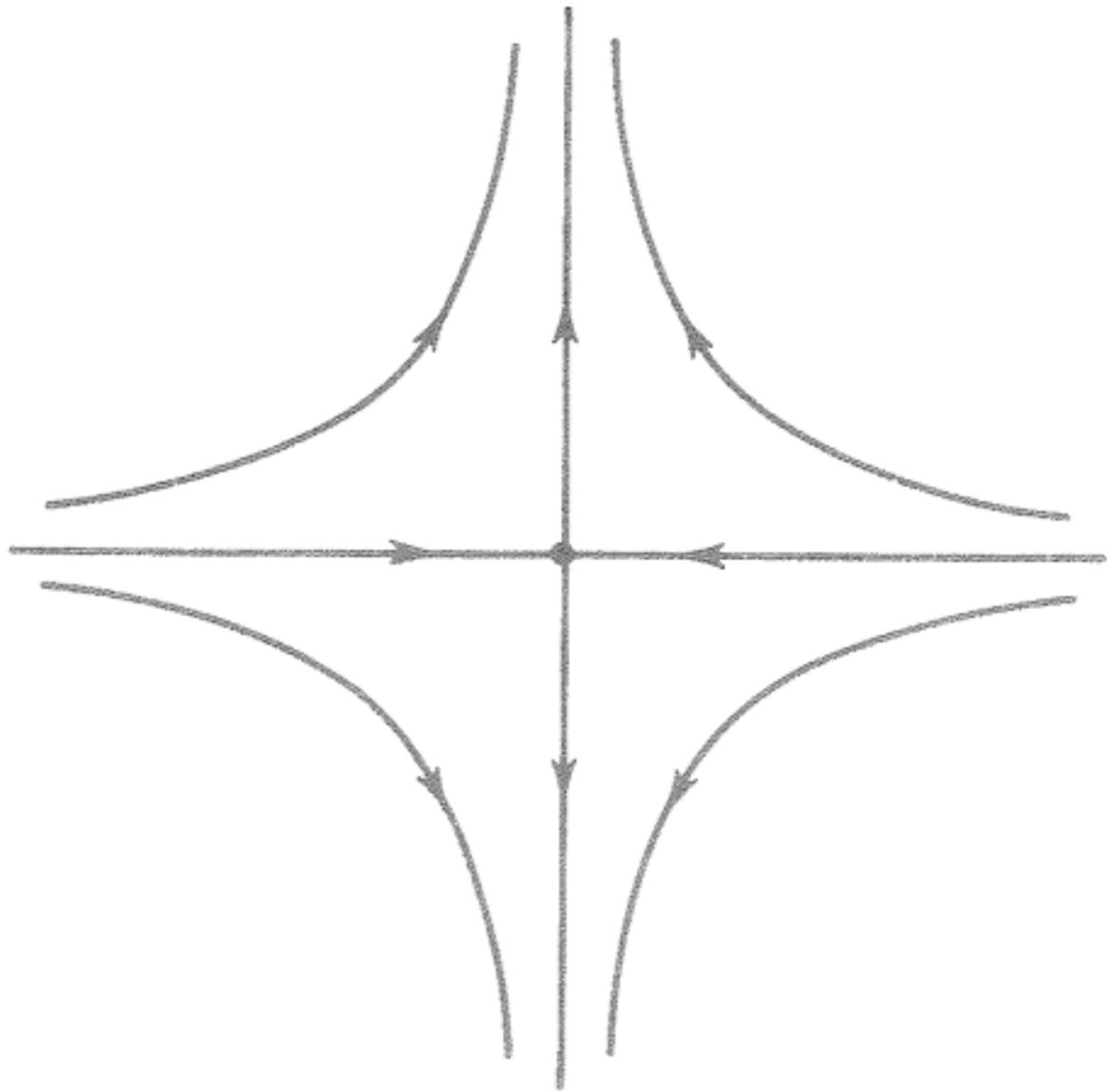


FIG. A. Saddle:  $B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\lambda < 0 < \mu$ .

# Spiral Behavior

(stable  
attractor)



FIG. E. Spiral sink:  $B = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $b > 0 > a$ .

# Center Behavior

(undamped  
oscillator)

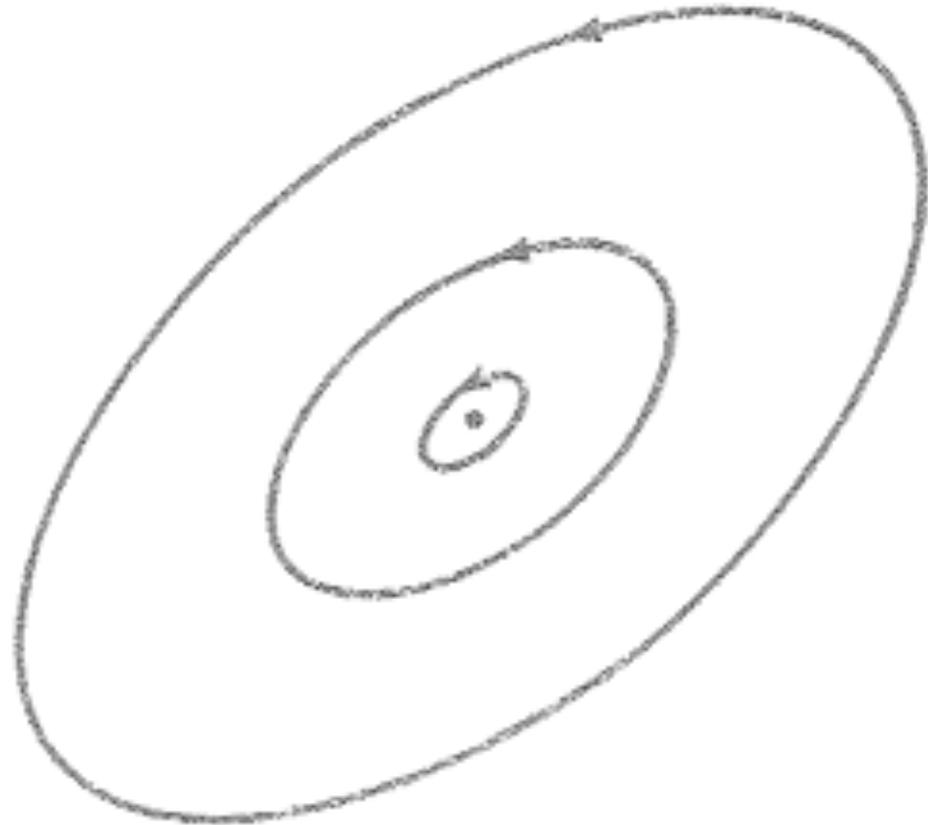
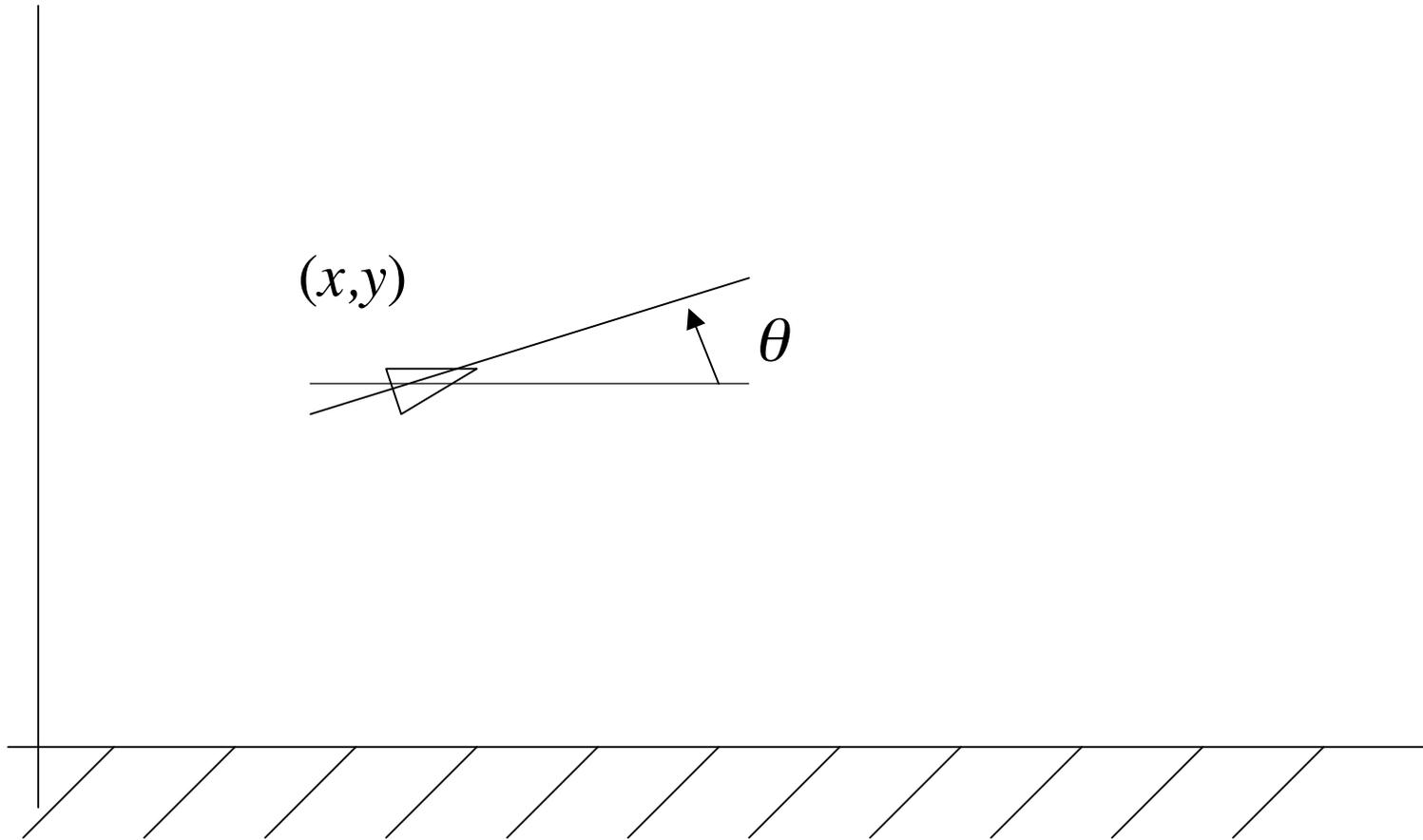


FIG. F. Center:  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -b \\ b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $b > 0$ .

# The Wall Follower



# The Wall Follower

- Our robot model:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{\theta} \end{pmatrix} = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = \begin{pmatrix} v \cos \theta \\ v \sin \theta \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{u} = (v \ \omega)^T \quad \mathbf{y} = (y \ \theta)^T \quad \theta \approx 0.$$

- We set the control law  $\mathbf{u} = (v \ \omega)^T = H_i(\mathbf{y})$

# The Wall Follower

- Assume constant forward velocity  $v = v_0$ 
  - approximately parallel to the wall:  $\theta \approx 0$ .
- Desired distance from wall defines error:  
$$e = y - y_{set} \quad \text{so} \quad \dot{e} = \dot{y} \quad \text{and} \quad \ddot{e} = \ddot{y}$$
- We set the control law  $\mathbf{u} = (v \ \omega)^T = H_i(\mathbf{y})$ 
  - We want  $e$  to act like a “damped spring”

$$\ddot{e} + k_1 \dot{e} + k_2 e = 0$$

# The Wall Follower

- We want a damped spring:  $\ddot{e} + k_1 \dot{e} + k_2 e = 0$
- For small values of  $\theta$

$$\dot{e} = \dot{y} = v \sin \theta \approx v \theta$$

$$\ddot{e} = \ddot{y} = v \cos \theta \dot{\theta} \approx v \omega$$

- Substitute, and assume  $v=v_0$  is constant.

$$v_0 \omega + k_1 v_0 \theta + k_2 e = 0$$

- Solve for  $\omega$

# The Wall Follower

- To get the damped spring  $\ddot{e} + k_1 \dot{e} + k_2 e = 0$
- We get the constraint

$$v_0 \omega + k_1 v_0 \theta + k_2 e = 0$$

- Solve for  $\omega$ . Plug into  $\mathbf{u}$ .

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} v \\ \omega \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ -k_1 \theta - \frac{k_2}{v_0} e \end{pmatrix} = H_i(e, \theta)$$

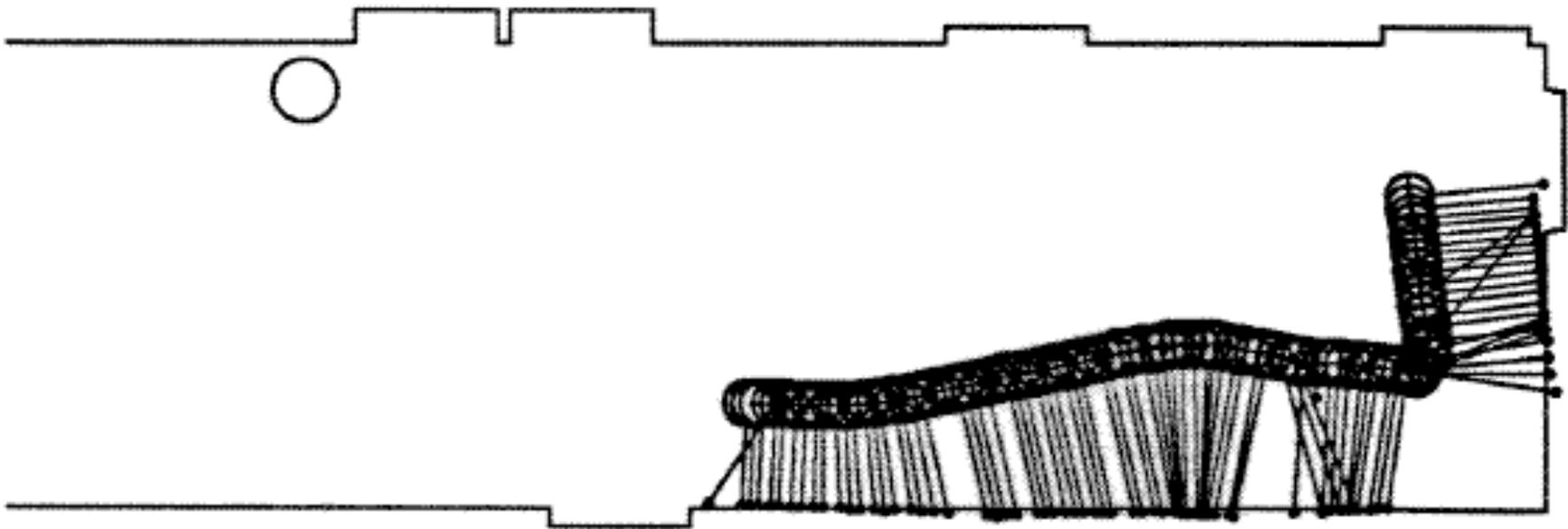
- This makes the wall-follower a **PD** controller.
- Because:

# Tuning the Wall Follower

- The system is  $\ddot{e} + k_1 \dot{e} + k_2 e = 0$
- Critical damping requires  $k_1^2 - 4k_2 = 0$   
$$k_1 = \sqrt{4k_2}$$
- Slightly underdamped performs better.
  - Set  $k_2$  by experience.
  - Set  $k_1$  a bit less than  $\sqrt{4k_2}$

# An Observer for Distance to Wall

- Short sonar returns are reliable.
  - They are likely to be perpendicular reflections.

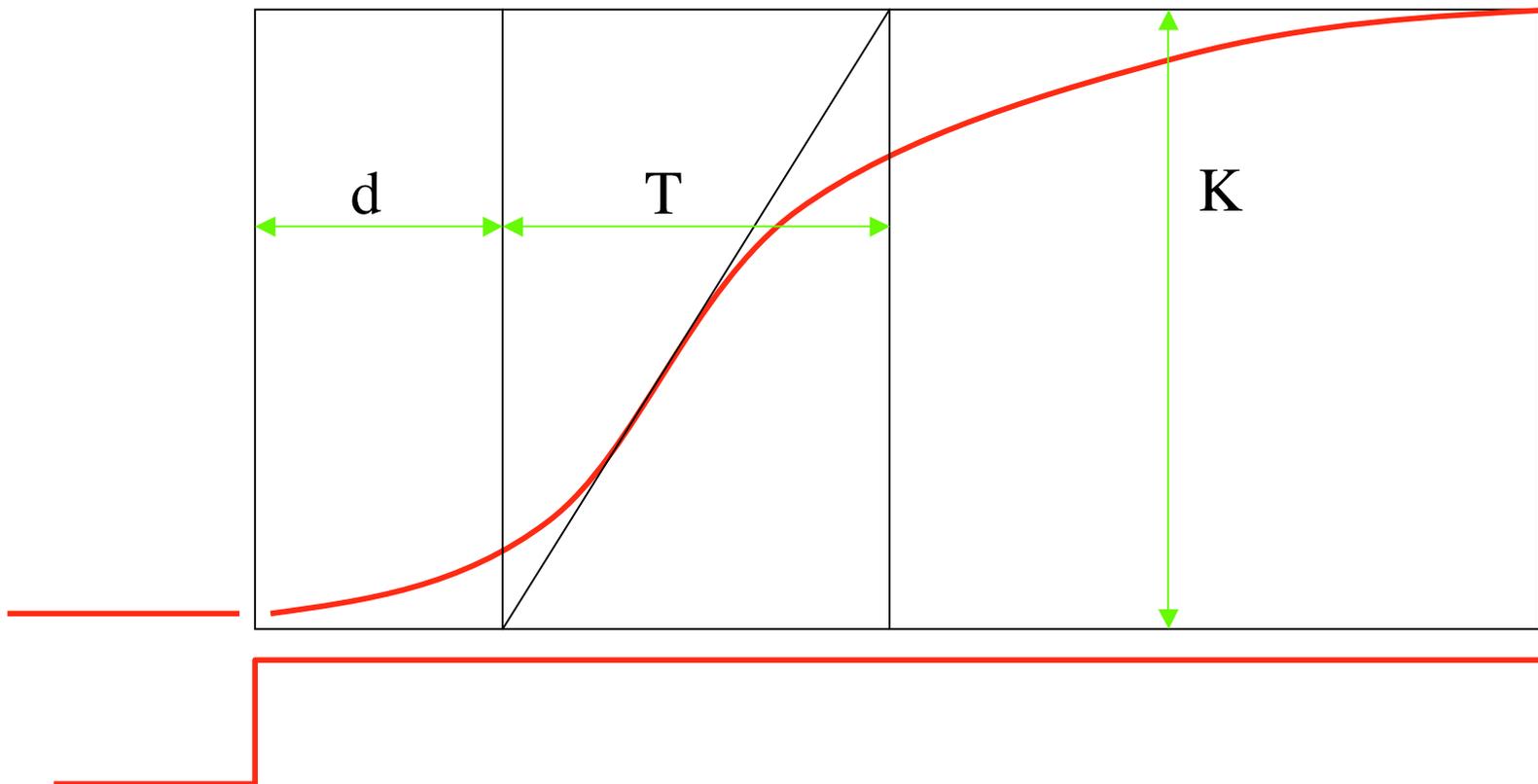


# Alternatives

- The wall follower is a PD control law.
- A target seeker should probably be a PI control law, to adapt to motion.
- Can try different tuning values for parameters.
  - This is a simple model.
  - Unmodeled effects might be significant.

# Ziegler-Nichols Tuning

- Open-loop response to a unit step increase.
  - $d$  is deadtime.  $T$  is the process time constant.
  - $K$  is the process gain.



# Tuning the PID Controller

- We have described it as:

$$u(t) = -k_P e(t) - k_I \int_0^t e dt - k_D \dot{e}(t)$$

- Another standard form is:

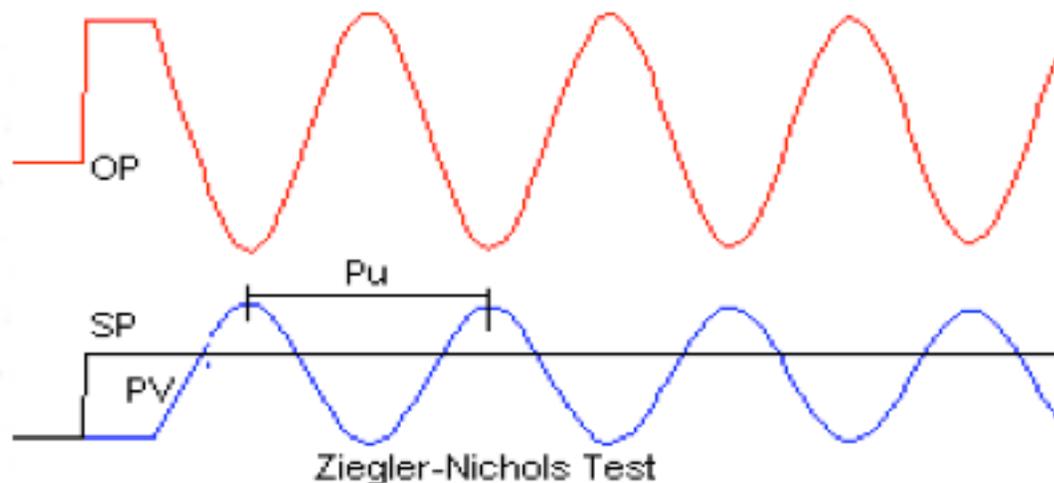
$$u(t) = -P \left[ e(t) + T_I \int_0^t e dt + T_D \dot{e}(t) \right]$$

- Ziegler-Nichols says:

$$P = \frac{1.5 \cdot T}{K \cdot d} \quad T_I = 2.5 \cdot d \quad T_D = 0.4 \cdot d$$

# Ziegler-Nichols Closed Loop

1. Disable D and I action (pure P control).
2. Make a step change to the setpoint.
3. Repeat, adjusting controller gain until achieving a stable oscillation.
  - This gain is the “ultimate gain”  $K_u$ .
  - The period is the “ultimate period”  $P_u$ .



# Closed-Loop Z-N PID Tuning

- A standard form of PID is:

$$u(t) = -P \left[ e(t) + T_I \int_0^t e dt + T_D \dot{e}(t) \right]$$

- For a PI controller:

$$P = 0.45 \cdot K_u \quad T_I = \frac{P_u}{1.2}$$

- For a PID controller:

$$P = 0.6 \cdot K_u \quad T_I = \frac{P_u}{2} \quad T_D = \frac{P_u}{8}$$

# Summary of Concepts

- Dynamical systems and phase portraits
- Qualitative types of behavior
  - Stable vs unstable; nodal vs saddle vs spiral
  - Boundary values of parameters
- Designing the wall-following control law
- Tuning the PI, PD, or PID controller
  - Ziegler-Nichols tuning rules
  - For more, Google: controller tuning

# Followers

- A follower is a control law where the robot moves forward while keeping some error term small.
  - Open-space follower
  - Wall follower
  - Coastal navigator
  - Color follower

# Control Laws Have Conditions

- Each control law includes:
  - *A trigger*: Is this law applicable?
  - The law itself:  $\mathbf{u} = H_i(\mathbf{y})$
  - *A termination condition*: Should the law stop?

# Open-Space Follower

- Move in the direction of large amounts of open space.
- Wiggle as needed to avoid specular reflections.
- Turn away from obstacles.
- Turn or back out of blind alleys.

# Wall Follower

- Detect and follow right or left wall.
- PD control law.
- Tune to avoid large oscillations.
- Terminate on obstacle or wall vanishing.

# Coastal Navigator

- Join wall-followers to follow a complex “coastline”
- When a wall-follower terminates, make the appropriate turn, detect a new wall, and continue.
- Inside and outside corners, 90 and 180 deg.
- Orbit a box, a simple room, or the desks.

# Color Follower

- Move to keep a desired color centered in the camera image.
- Train a color region from a given image.
- Follow an orange ball on a string, or a brightly-colored T-shirt.

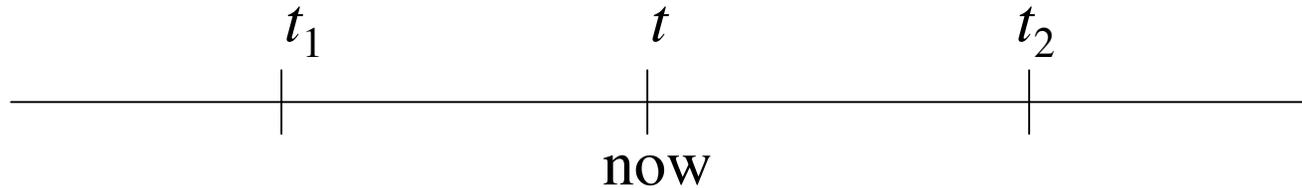
# Problems and Solutions

- Time delay
- Static friction
- Pulse-width modulation
- Integrator wind-up
- Chattering
- Saturation, dead-zones, backlash
- Parameter drift

# Unmodeled Effects

- Every controller depends on its simplified model of the world.
  - Every model omits almost everything.
- If unmodeled effects become significant, the controller's model is wrong,
  - so its actions could be seriously wrong.
- Most controllers need special case checks.
  - Sometimes it needs a more sophisticated model.

# Time Delay



- At time  $t$ ,
  - Sensor data tells us about the world at  $t_1 < t$ .
  - Motor commands take effect at time  $t_2 > t$ .
  - The lag is  $dt = t_2 - t_1$ .
- To compensate for lag time,
  - Predict future sensor value at  $t_2$ .
  - Specify motor command for time  $t_2$ .

# Predicting Future Sensor Values

- Later, *observers* will help us make better predictions.
- Now, use a simple prediction method:
  - If sensor  $s$  is changing at rate  $ds/dt$ ,
  - At time  $t$ , we get  $s(t_1)$ , where  $t_1 < t$ ,
  - Estimate  $s(t_2) = s(t_1) + ds/dt * (t_2 - t_1)$ .
- Use  $s(t_2)$  to determine motor signal  $u(t)$  that will take effect at  $t_2$ .

# Static Friction (“Stiction”)

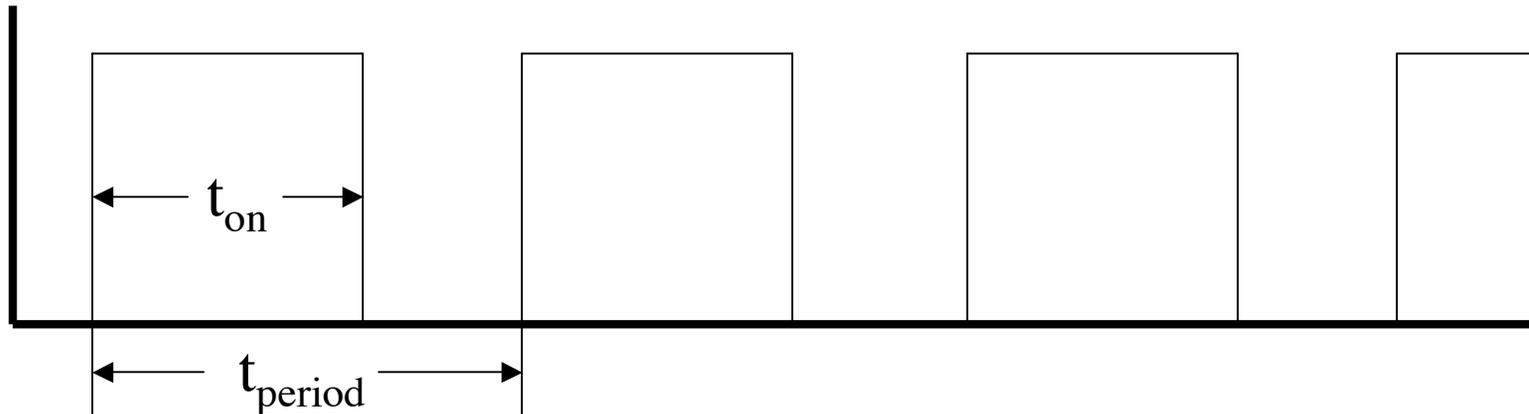
- Friction forces oppose the direction of motion.
- We’ve seen damping friction:  $F_d = -f(v)$
- Coulomb (“sliding”) friction is a constant  $F_c$  depending on force against the surface.
  - When there is motion,  $F_c = \eta$
  - When there is no motion,  $F_c = \eta + \varepsilon$
- Extra force is needed to unstick an object and get motion started.

# Why is Stiction Bad?

- Non-zero steady-state error.
- Stalled motors draw high current.
  - Running motor converts current to motion.
  - Stalled motor converts *more* current to heat.
- Whining from pulse-width modulation.
  - Mechanical parts bending at pulse frequency.

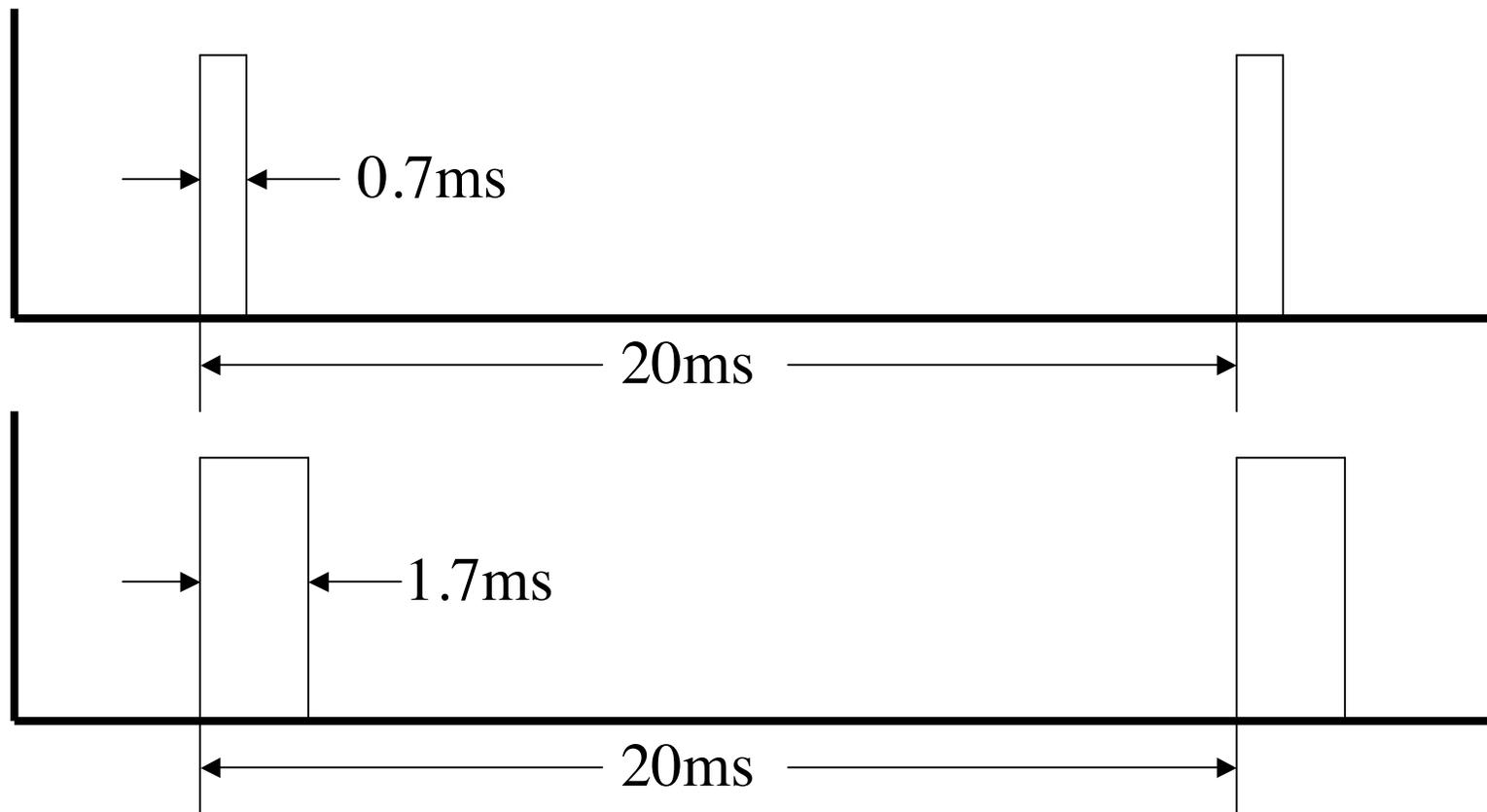
# Pulse-Width Modulation

- A digital system works at 0 and 5 volts.
  - Analog systems want to output control signals over a continuous range.
  - How can we do it?
- Switch very fast between 0 and 5 volts.
  - Control the average voltage over time.
- Pulse-width ratio =  $t_{\text{on}}/t_{\text{period}}$ . (30-50  $\mu\text{sec}$ )



# Pulse-Code Modulated Signal

- Some devices are controlled by the length of a pulse-code signal.
  - Position servo-motors, for example.



# Integrator Wind-Up

- Suppose we have a PI controller

$$u(t) = -k_P e(t) - k_I \int_0^t e dt + u_b$$

- Motion might be blocked, but the integral is winding up more and more control action.

$$u(t) = -k_P e(t) + u_b$$

$$\dot{u}_b(t) = -k_I e(t)$$

- Reset the integrator on significant events.

# Chattering

- Changing modes rapidly and continually.
  - Bang-Bang controller with thresholds set too close to each other.
  - Integrator wind-up due to stiction near the setpoint, causing jerk, overshoot, and repeat.

# Dead Zone

- A region where controller output does not affect the state of the system.
  - A system caught by static friction.
  - Cart-pole system when the pendulum is horizontal.
  - Cruise control when the car is stopped.
- Integral control and dead zones can combine to cause integrator wind-up problems.

# Saturation

- Control actions cannot grow indefinitely.
  - There is a maximum possible output.
  - Physical systems are necessarily nonlinear.
- It might be nice to have bounded error by having infinite response.
  - But it doesn't happen in the real world.

# Backlash

- Real gears are not perfect connections.
  - There is space between the teeth.
- On reversing direction, there is a short time when the input gear is turning, but the output gear is not.

# Parameter Drift

- Hidden parameters can change the behavior of the robot, for no obvious reason.
  - Performance depends on battery voltage.
  - Repeated discharge/charge cycles age the battery.
- A controller may compensate for small parameter drift until it passes a threshold.
  - Then a problem suddenly appears.
  - Controlled systems make problems harder to find

# Unmodeled Effects

- Every controller depends on its simplified model of the world.
  - Every model omits almost everything.
- If unmodeled effects become significant, the controller's model is wrong,
  - so its actions could be seriously wrong.
- Most controllers need special case checks.
  - Sometimes it needs a more sophisticated model.