ANTIWINDUP AND OVERRIDE CONTROL FOR EXPONENTIALLY UNSTABLE SYSTEMS WITH ACTUATOR CONSTRAINTS

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Abstract: Control of exponentially unstable plants with an actuator having both position and rate saturations is investigated. The standard antiwindup technique is not able to increase the very limited radius of attraction. A novel design technique based on the override technique is proposed which enlarges the radius of attraction, such that the actuator working range can be utilized. Copyright[©] 2005 IFAC.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The closed loop performance of linear control systems may deteriorate if the actuator constraints are met. This is the case for asymptotically stable plants and even more so for exponentially unstable plants, where the area of attraction can be so small that even routine deviations may result in divergent behavior. Therefore constrained control of exponentially unstable systems has become of research interest recently, e.g. (Barbu *et al.*, 2002), (Tarbouriech and Garcia, 2002).

The graphic circle test (Khalil, 2002) is used for the analysis and design of control loops with saturating static actuators and stable plants with standard configurable industrial control systems (Glattfelder and Schaufelberger, 2003).

In this paper these techniques shall be applied to an exponentially unstable plant controlled by a dynamic actuator with both stroke and slew saturations.

The control problem is defined in sect. 2, and a benchmark case is specified in sect. 3. In sect. 4 the effect of the actuator constraints on the radius of attraction is investigated for step inputs on both reference and load. It is shown that the standard awf structure is not able to enlarge the radius of attraction significantly here. Therefore a new approach is proposed and investigated in sect. 5 which is based on the override technique. It is shown by stability analysis and with simulations that the radius of attraction is substantially enlarged, up to the working range of the actuator.

2. THE CONTROL PROBLEM

Consider the control system given in Figure 1.



Figure 1. The control system with plant P, nonlinear actuator A, and controller K

Plant P

The manipulated variable u, the 'load' z and the controlled variable y shall be scalars.

The operating point of P is determined by the steady state values of reference \overline{r} and load \overline{z} , which require manipulated input values \overline{u} for

equilibrium. Both \overline{r} and \overline{z} are specified on a bounded interval, such that the resulting \overline{u} shall be within $u_{lo} < \overline{u} < u_{hi}$, that is within the design operating range of A.

P is to be linear time invariant and in state space form, from where y/u = G(s) is derived.

At least one pole of G(s) shall be in the RHP (yielding the exponentially unstable open-loop modes), one or more is on the imaginary axis (for the stable modes), and one or more is in the LHP (for the asymptotically stable modes).

For simplicity let all state variables \mathbf{x} be directly accessible. Thus no observer is needed for the state feedback part of K.

Actuator A

Here a typical electro-hydraulic actuator subsystem is considered, Fig. 2, (Glattfelder and Schaufelberger, 2003) p.218. The mechanical end stops of the servomotor piston are at u_{lo} , u_{hi} (stroke constraints), and v_{lo} , v_{hi} represent the flow constraints from the pilot servovalve (slew constraints), and k_s is the gain of the P-controller. This model is embedded in the typical cascade structure, where the main controller outputs the position reference $u_c = r_s$.



Figure 2. The actuator subsystem from physical modelling (top), approximation (bottom)

This model contains two nonlinear elements, which makes the stability analysis much more involved than for one nonlinear element. Therefore an approximate model is proposed here, Fig. 2 (bottom). It is similar to the one used in (Barbu *et al.*, 2002), but avoids the very high gain used there and has a single nonlinear element. – Let $a_s = 1.0$

Then
$$w_{hi} = u_{hi};$$
 $w_{lo} = u_{lo}$
and $\frac{d}{dt}u_{up} = \frac{1}{\tau_s}w_{hi},$ $\frac{d}{dt}u_{dn} = \frac{1}{\tau_s}w_{lo}$ (1)

This determines τ_s and assumes symmetric saturation values. The approximate model is conservative with respect to the rate constraint, but reproduces the position constraint correctly, see Fig. 4.

Controller K

A standard state feedback is used with an output integral action and a static antiwindup feedback (gain k_a) acting on its input. w is the output of the saturation element in Fig. 2, and w_{lin} its input.

$$u_{c} = -\mathbf{k}^{T}\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{s} \left[\frac{k_{0}}{\tau_{0}} \left(r - y \right) + k_{a} (w - w_{lin}) \right]$$
(2)

The feedback gains can be determined by any linear design method. Here pole assignment to closed loop bandwidth Ω_1 is used with $k_a := \Omega_1$, see (Glattfelder and Schaufelberger, 2003) p.282.

3. THE BENCHMARK

Let P represent the inverted pendulum on a slider, around its upright position and valid for small inclination angles. The pendulum mass shall be concentrated at its center of gravity (cg). Denote the horizontal speed of its cg as x_1 , the horizontal displacement between the cg's of pendulum and slider as x_2 and the horizontal speed of the slider as x_3 . The actuator with state x_4 and input wshall exert a horizontal force on the slider. The load z is a horizontal force at the pendulum cg. Also the slider mass shall be much smaller than the pendulum mass. This finally yields as a suitable model:

$$\frac{x_1}{w} := \frac{1}{s\tau_4 + 1} \frac{1}{s^2 \tau_3 \tau_2 - 1} \frac{1}{s\tau_1}; \quad \frac{x_1}{z} := \frac{1}{s\tau_1}$$
(3)

which shall be used in the sequel. Its poles are at $-1/\tau_4$ from the actuator; at $+1/\tau_2$ and $-1/\tau_3$ with $\tau_3 = \tau_2$ from the unstable inclination dynamics, and one at the origin. – Further

$$\tau_1 := 1.0; \ \tau_3 := \tau_2 := 0.20; \ \tau_4 := 0.20$$
(4)

The actuator saturations are set to

$$u_{lo} = w_{lo} = -1.0; \quad u_{hi} = w_{hi} = +1.0$$
 (5)

The closed loop bandwidth is set to $\Omega_1 := 1.0/\tau_2$. Pole assignment to $(s + \Omega_1)^5 = 0$ yields

$$k4s = 5(\Omega_{1}\tau_{4})$$

$$k3s = 10(\Omega_{1}\tau_{3})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{4}) + (\tau_{4}/\tau_{2})$$

$$k2s = 10(\Omega_{1}\tau_{2})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{3})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{4}) + k4s$$

$$k1s = 5(\Omega_{1}\tau_{1})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{2})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{3})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{4})$$

$$k0s = (\Omega_{1}\tau_{0})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{1})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{2})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{3})(\Omega_{1}\tau_{4})$$
(6)

Then the state feedback is transformed to the cascade structure Fig. 3., with

- actuator loop $r_4 \rightarrow x_4$,

- inclination feedback $r_2 \rightarrow x_2$, using x_3 ,

- speed control $r_1 \rightarrow x_1$, with integral action x_0

$$k4 = k4s - 1; \quad k3 = k3s/k4s; \quad k2 = k2s/k3s$$

$$k1 = k1s/k2s; \quad k0 = k0s/k1s; \tag{7}$$



Figure 3. Structure of the awf control system

Finally for the awf gain

$$k_a = \Omega_1 \rightarrow ka_1 = ka/k1s$$
 or $k_a = 0$ (8)

Note that the actuator loop bandwidth results from the overall bandwidth design to Ω_1 . For instance $\Omega_1 = 5$ yields $k_4 = 4.0$; see Fig.4.



Figure 4. Step responses $r_4 \rightarrow x_4$ of the actuator loop with the approximate model

4. THE ANTIWINDUP APPROACH

4.1 Stability Analysis

The plant P and the controller K in Fig. 1 are both not asymptotically stable. Thus the saturation element must be replaced by a parallel arrangement of a unity gain and a deadspan element with unity gain slopes and breakpoints at w_{lo} , w_{hi} . Then for the stability test (cf. (Glattfelder and Schaufelberger, 2003), p.284ff):

$$\Delta_{min} = \frac{w_{hi}}{w_{lin_{max}} - w_{hi}} \tag{9}$$

and for the transfer function of the linear subsystem

$$F + 1 = \frac{1 + k_a \frac{1}{s}}{1 + R' \frac{1}{s}G} = \frac{d_G}{D_1}(s + k_a) \tag{10}$$

where d_G , D_1 denote the characteristic polynomials of the plant and of the linear closed loop.

As will be shown next, the unstable root factor produces a strong phase shift of the Nyquist contour F + 1 into the LHP, which indicates a substantial reduction of the radius of attraction. For the benchmark case:

$$F + 1 = \frac{\left(s + \frac{1}{\tau_4}\right)\left(s^2 - \frac{1}{\tau_3\tau_2}\right)s^2}{(s + \Omega_1)^5} \frac{s + k_a}{s} \quad (11)$$

where $(1/\tau_3) = (1/\tau_2) = (1/\tau_4) := \Omega_1$, and if the awf-gain is set to: $k_a := \Omega_1$, then finally

$$F + 1 = \frac{s}{s + \Omega_1} \frac{s - \Omega_1}{s + \Omega_1} \tag{12}$$

Fig. 5 shows the corresponding Nyquist contour. The graphic stability test then requires the distance $-\Delta_{min} < -0.5$. Using the definition of Δ above, the maximum allowable deviations w_{lin} are restricted to approximately three times the operating range w_{hi} .

For the case with no awf, set $k_a = 0$.:

$$F+1 = \frac{s}{s+\Omega_1} \frac{s-\Omega_1}{s+\Omega_1} \frac{s}{s+\Omega_1}$$
(13)

From the corresponding plot in Fig. 5 the shape of the Nyquist contour does not change significantly. Therefore the stability properties will not be significantly different.

In Fig. 5 the Nyquist contours are also drawn for the case where the unstable zero in d_G is mirrored into the LHP, that is for the corresponding stable plant.

$$F + 1 = \frac{s}{s + \Omega_1}$$
 and $\frac{s^2}{(s + \Omega_1)^2}$ (14)

Note the substantial difference in stability properties. The maximum allowable w_{lin} tends to ∞ for the 'awf ON' case and to about 10 for 'awf OFF'.

Note that the effect of the actuator rate constraint τ_4 on stability properties may be discussed as a generalization of this special case. However this shall not be pursued further here.



Figure 5. For the circle test: Nyquist contours for the antiwindup approach

4.2 Transient Responses

Fig. 6 illustrates the responses of the system for the maximum stabilizable r_1 step.



Figure 6. Response to the maximum stabilizable reference step

From simulations where reference steps were increased to the maximum stabilizable size r_1 :

$$r_{1_{max}} = 0.7190$$
 for $k_a = 0$
and $r_{1_{max}} = 0.7335$ for $k_a = \Omega_1$ (15)

This documents the weak influence of the awf gain on the radius of attraction.

Next the stability border from the simulation is correlated with the stability border from the graphic test Fig. 5, i.e. for $k_a := \Omega_1$. Using the off-axis circle test (or equivalently the Popov test), Δ_{min} is read from Fig.5:

$$\Delta_{StabT} = Re\{F(j\omega) + 1\} \text{ at } Im\{F(j\omega)\} = 0 (16)$$

And from $w_{lin}(t)$ in the simulation Fig. 6, $w_{lin_{max}}$ is read as 1.22/0.40 = 3.05 and this is converted to Δ_{Simul} .

$$\Delta_{StabT} = 0.50 \quad \text{vs.} \quad \Delta_{Simul} = 0.49 \tag{17}$$

Thus the predictions from the stability test are nicely confirmed by the simulations.

Fig. 7 shows the response to the maximum admissible load step size for $k_a := \Omega_1$, from simulations:

$$z_{max} = 0.575$$
 (18)



Figure 7. Response to the maximum stabilizable load step

To summarize, only a small part of the static working range of the actuator is utilizable. How this can be improved shall be shown next.

5. THE OVERRIDE APPROACH

5.1 The Basic Idea

Consider again the control structure, Fig.3. If w_{lin} is driven beyond its saturation values, then the negative feedback through k_3 , k_2 is inactivated, and thus the exponentially unstable inclination dynamics can no longer be stabilized. And this in turn is caused by excessive reference values $r_2(t)$ which are generated by the r_1 -controller. Therefore, in the override framework, w_{lin} may be seen as a secondary output variable y_c , which has to be constrained to an operating range

$$r_{c_{lo}} \le y_c \le r_{c_{hi}}$$
with $r_{c_{lo}} = w_{lo} + \Delta_c$; and $r_{c_{hi}} = w_{hi} - \Delta_c$

$$(19)$$

where e.g. $\Delta_c := 0.05^{1}$

And the constraints on y_c are implemented by overriding feedbacks on w_{lin} through Min-Max-Selectors, Fig.8.

In contrast to the 'saturation and awf'-approach in sect. 4, now one of the inclination control loops is always closed and thus will see to stabilizing the exponentially unstable dynamics.

¹ This is a compromise between loosing actuation operating range and inadvertently having the stabilizing feedback inactivated by the saturations



Figure 8. Structure of the override control system

In Fig. 8 these inclination feedbacks may be seen as 'slave' controllers in a cascade structure. The 'master' controller for the main variable x_1 is of PI(awf)-type, and for the override variable y_c it is of I(awf)-type. The integral actions are inserted to suppress steady state offsets on e_1 and e_c . Then awf gains ka_1, ka_C are needed to insure proper tracking. Two fully separate paths have been chosen here also for the 'slave' controllers (other structures are possible).

5.2 Designing the Override Loop

The x_1 -loop design is the same as in sect. 4. For the override control loop the state feedback for the inclination stabilization is designed first and then the I(awf) feedback.

Denote the output of the integral action in the y_c loop as u_{i_c} , see Fig. 8. Then

$$\begin{split} G_c &= \frac{w_{lin}}{u_{i_C}} = \left[1 + \frac{1}{1 + s\tau_4} k4c + \\ &+ \frac{(s\tau_2 k3c + k2c)}{(1 + s\tau_4)(s\tau_3 + 1)(s\tau_2 - 1)} \right]^{-1} \\ &= \frac{(1 + s\tau_4)(s\tau_3 + 1)(s\tau_2 - 1)}{d_{3_C}} \quad \text{with} \\ d_{3_C} &= s^3 \tau_4 \tau_3 \tau_2 + s^2 \tau_3 \tau_2 (k4c + 1) \\ &+ s\tau_2 (k3c - (\tau_4/\tau_2) + (k2c - (k4c + 1))) \end{split}$$

$$\rightarrow \quad G_c = - (1 - s\tau_2) \frac{n_{3_C}}{d_{3_C}} \tag{20}$$

where d_{3c} is the characteristic polynomial of the closed loops for actuator and inclination (which is

asymptotically stable by design), and n_{3_C} contains all zeros not in the RHP. Thus G_c is an 'inverse-unstable' plant with a negative sign. To implement the override action, the negative sign requires inverted signs on its I(awf)-

controller, and 'crossing-over' the u_{i_c} 's upstream of the selectors, see (Glattfelder and Schaufelberger, 2003), p.377.

Furthermore general design rules recommend for the inverse-unstable plant dynamics an integrating output feedback, see Fig. 8,

$$u_{i_{C_{hi;lo}}} = -e_{c_{hi;lo}} \frac{k_0 C}{s\tau_0} = \frac{k_0 C}{s\tau_0} (y_c - u_{c_{hi;lo}})$$
(21)

where $\tau_0 := \tau_2$, and also recommend to select the closed loop bandwidth at $\Omega_C \approx (1/\tau_2)$

Then from $(s + \Omega_C)^4 = 0$

$$k0c = (\Omega_C \tau_0)(\Omega_C \tau_2)(\Omega_C \tau_3)(\Omega_C \tau_4)$$

$$k4c = 4(\Omega_C \tau_4) + k0c(\tau_4/\tau_0)$$

$$k3c = 6(\Omega_C \tau_3)(\Omega_C \tau_4) + (\tau_4/\tau_2)k0c(\tau_3/\tau_0)$$

$$k2c = 4(\Omega_C \tau_2)(\Omega_C \tau_3)(\Omega_C \tau_4) - k0c(\tau_4/\tau_0) + k4c(22)$$

$$\rightarrow \quad \text{(for the cascaded structure, Fig.8)}$$

$$k4_C = k4c - 1; \quad k3_C = k3c/k4c$$

$$k2_C = k2c/k3c; \quad k0_C = k0c/k2c; \quad ka_C = \Omega_c/k2c(23)$$

5.3 Nonlinear Stability Properties

The nonlinearity in Fig. 8 has three inputs. This is equivalent to the one-input deadspan nonlinearity (Glattfelder and Schaufelberger, 2003), p. 114ff, producing the canonical structure required for the stability test. Then for the linear subsystem

$$F + 1 = \frac{1 + \frac{ka_1}{s}}{1 + R'_1 \frac{1}{s}G_1} \cdot \frac{1 + R'_c \frac{1}{s}G_c}{1 + \frac{ka_c}{s}} = (24)$$

$$\frac{d_{G_1} \cdot s}{(s + \Omega_1)^{N_1 + 1}} \frac{s + ka_1}{s} \frac{(s + \Omega_C)^{N_C + 1}}{d_{G_C} \cdot s} \frac{s}{s + ka_C} (25)$$

where from the basic idea of sect. 5.1, the characteristic open loop polynomial d_{G_C} of degree N_C contains the exponentially unstable poles of the plant, and d_{G_1} of degree N_1 stands for the series connection of d_{G_C} with additional but stable dynamics d_{G^+} of degree $N_1 - N_C$.

Thus by construction of the override system, the exponentially unstable poles (zeros of d_{G_C}) always cancel in F + 1, that is

$$F + 1 = d_{G_1^+} \frac{(s + \Omega_C)^{N_C + 1}}{(s + \Omega_1)^{N_1 + 1}} \cdot \frac{s + ka_1}{s + ka_C} \quad (26)$$

For the benchmark example $N_1 = 4; N_C = 3$ and for compensating awf: $ka_i = \Omega_i; i = 1, C$

$$d_{G_1^+} = s; \quad d_{G_C} = (s + \frac{1}{\tau_4})(s^2 - \frac{1}{\tau_3\tau_2})$$
$$F + 1 \to \frac{s}{(s + \Omega_1)} \frac{(s + \Omega_C)^3}{(s + \Omega_1)^3}$$
(27)

and as typically $\Omega_C :\approx \Omega_1$, the Nyquist contour of F + 1 will now avoid the LHP.

Fig. 9 illustrates this for $\Omega_C \tau_2 = [1.3, 1.2, 1.1]$



Figure 9. Nyquist contours for the override system

This indicates a very large radius of attraction, allowing large inputs $w_{lin_{max}}$ and thus either large reference steps r_1 or, for step loads, resulting steady state offsets \overline{w} close to the operating constraint setpoints on w_{lin} . Fig. 10 confirms this by the response to a large reference step $r_1 = 2.0$ (top) and to a load step z_1 to 0.90 (bottom), with $\Omega_c T_2 = 1.20$, and with constraint setpoints at $w_{hi} = 0.970$; $w_{lo} = -0.970$.

To summarize, the region of attraction for reference steps has been extended from 0.7335 to nearinfinity, and for load steps from 0.575 up to 0.90, i.e. close to the actuator working range.



Figure 10. Step responses for the override system

6. SUMMARY

The novel application of the override concept on an exponentially unstable system has enlarged its radius of attraction up to what practical applications would require.

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