

Sigurd Skogestad

Department of Chemical Engineering

Norwegian University of Science and Technology

N-7034 Trondheim, Norway

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1. Introduction
2. What is Plantwide control and Controllability analysis?
3. Plantwide control - control structure design
4. Some tools – controllability analysis
5. An outline of a procedure
6. Some examples
 - Tennessee Eastman plantwide challenge problem
 - Reactor with recycle (“snowballing” ??)
 - Buffer tanks for pH-control
 - Distillation column control
 - Optimizing control of Petlyuk distillation
7. Conclusion

The Trondheim **Plantwide control group** :

- **Audun Franæs** (pH-neutralization; control structure design)
- **Marius Govatsmark** (Refinery; HDA plant)
- **Ivar Halvorsen** (Petlyuk distillation; self-optimizing control)
- **Truls Larsson** (methanol plants; control structure design)
- **Tore Lid** (Refinery)
- **Sigurd Skogestad**

associated (earlier) members

- John Morud (Sintef Kjemi)
- Kjetil Havre (ABB)
- Bjørn Glemmestad (Borealis)

plus

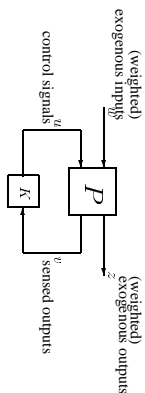
- Morten Hovd, *Inst. for teknisk kybernetikk*
- Stig Strand, *Statoil*

Written material:

- *Multivariable Feedback Control*, S. Skogestad and I. Postlethwaite, Wiley, 1996
 - Chapter 5: Limitations on performance in SISO systems (controllability)
 - Chapter 6: Limitations on performance in MIMO systems (more controllability)
 - Chapter 10: Control structure design (plantwide control)
- *A review of plantwide control*, S. Skogestad and T. Larsson, (Internal report, Aug. 1998). Available at:
http://www.chembio.ntnu.no/users/skoge/publications/1998/plantwide_review1.pdf
- Ph.D. theses of Morud (1995), Glemmestad (1997) and Havre (1998).
- *Plantwide control: The search for the self-optimizing control structure*, S. Skogestad (prepared for publication in J.Proc.Control). Available at:
<http://www.chembio.ntnu.no/users/skoge/publications/1999/self1.pdf>

EXISTING CONTROL THEORY

General controller design formulation (Ph.D.level)



- w : Disturbances (d) and setpoints (r)
- v : Measurements (y_m, d_m) and setpoints (r)
- u : Manipulated inputs (u)
- z : Control error, $y - r$
- Find a controller K which based on the information in v , generates a control signal u which counteracts the influence of w on z , thereby minimizing the closed-loop norm from w to z .

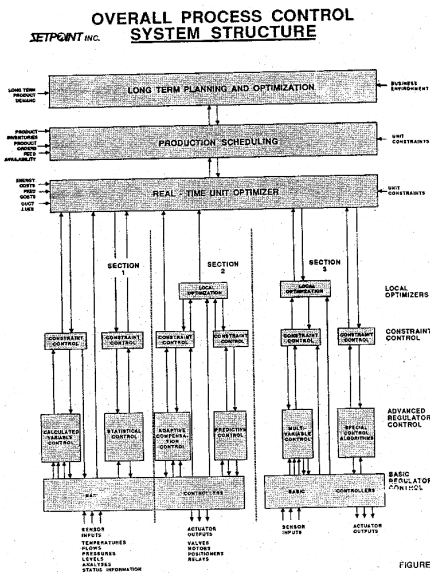
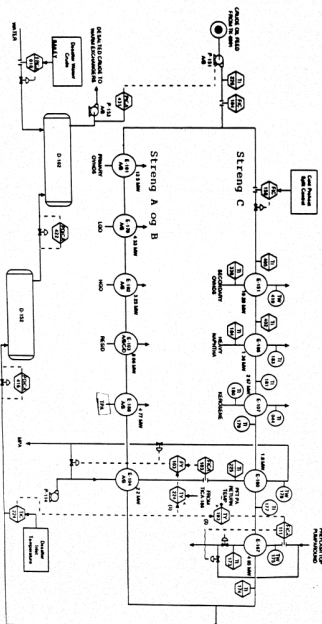


FIGURE 2

PRACTICE
Typical control hierarchy



PRACTICE
Typical base level control structure

Relevant questions in practice

1. How should the plant be controlled (*plantwide control*) ?
2. Is the plant easy or difficult to control? (*controllability analysis*)?

Controllability analysis

(Is the plant easy or difficult to control?)

- Judge control properties without a detailed control system design
- Useful at the early DESIGN stage (compare designs)
- Useful for evaluating alternative control structures for plantwide control

Need: A dynamic model of the plant (from which we can obtain a linearized model)

Most of the tools: Based on a linear model

Plantwide control

- The strategy and STRUCTURE of the control system
- Which boxes should we have and which signals should be sent between them?
- Useful at the later design stage (make P&ID)
- Useful for re-evaluation of control system at existing plant (Common!)

Relationship between controllability analysis and plantwide control

- **Plantwide control:** Controllability analysis is used for a quick evaluation of alternative control structures
- **Controllability analysis at early design stage:** Not done on the entire plant; must assume something about the plantwide control structure
- **Both controllability analysis and plantwide control**
Two basic approaches:
 1. Systematic based on dynamic process model (theoretical)
 2. Process-oriented (insights)

PLANTWIDE CONTROL

The control philosophy for the overall plant with emphasis on the structural decisions:

- Which “boxes” (controllers; decision makers) do we have and what information (signals) are sent between them

NOT:

- The inside of the boxes (design and tuning of all the controllers)

The most important sub-problem: CONTROL STRUCTURE DESIGN

Alan Foss (“Critique of chemical process control theory”, AIChE Journal, 1973):

The central issue to be resolved ... is the determination of control system structure.

Which variables should be measured, which inputs should be manipulated and which links should be made between the two sets?

The gap is present indeed, but contrary to the views of many, it is the theoretician who must close it.

CONTROL STRUCTURE DESIGN

Tasks:

1. *Selection of controlled outputs* (a set of variables which are to be controlled to achieve a set of specific objectives)
2. *Selection of manipulations and measurements* (sets of variables which can be manipulated and measured for control purposes)
3. *Selection of control configuration* (a structure interconnecting measurements/commands and manipulated variables)
4. *Selection of controller type* (control law specification, e.g., PID, decoupler, LQG, etc.).

Note distinction between control *structure* (all tasks) and *configuration* (task 3).

Tasks 1 and 2 combined: **input/output selection**

Task 3 (configuration): **input/output pairing**

Shinskey (1967, 1988); Morari (1982); Stephanopoulos (1984); Batchen and Mumme (1988)

Nent (1989); van de Wal and de Jager (1995); Skogestad and Postlethwaite (1996)

Approach Control structure design:

TASK 1: Selection of controlled outputs

Controlled output c : Measured output with reference (r , c_s)

Two distinct questions:

1. What should be the controlled variables c^i ?
(includes open-loop by selecting $c = u$)
2. What is their optimal values (c_{opt}^i)?

Second question: A lot of theory.

BUT First question: Almost no theory. Decisions mostly made on experience and intuition.

• Top-down consideration of control objectives and available degrees of freedom to meet these (tasks 1 and 2)

• Bottom-up design of the control system, starting with stabilization (tasks 3, 4, 5).

• Why do we in a plant control a lot of internal variables, like temperatures, pressures and compositions, for which there are no control requirements?

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ANSWER:

- We have degrees of freedom that need to be specified to achieve optimal operation
- But why do we select a particular set of controlled variables?

Example: A distillation column “inside” the plant. Why control the composition rather than specifying directly the reflux flow?

ANSWER:

- To reduce the sensitivity to uncertainty and achieve self-optimizing control

Example 1: Cake baking

Given: Bake cake for 15 minutes

Goal (purpose): Well-baked inside and nice outside

Manipulated input (degree of freedom): Heat input $u = Q$

Implementation:

1. Open-loop implementation: Heat input Q

- Problem: Sensitive to uncertainty and optimal value depends strongly on size of oven

2. Closed-loop implementation:

y = oven temperature

“Optimizer”: Cook book (look-up table)

Used in practice. Insensitive to changes.

There are many other possible pairs (y 's) which can be kept constant

- Two product compositions (x_D, x_B) 17
- Two temperatures (T_{top}, T_{btm})
- Reflux and one temperature (L, T_{top})
- Reflux ratio and one temperature ($L/D, T_{top}$)
- Two ratios (e.g. $L/D, V/B$)
- Reflux and boilup (L, V)
- ...

Question:

- Which of these pairs (y 's) should be kept at the given optimal setpoint?

Issues:

- Changes in operating point (disturbances)
- Accuracy of control (measurement noise)

Example 2: Distillation column

Goal (purpose): Operate the column such that overall operating costs of the entire plant are minimized (primarily determined by steady-state considerations)

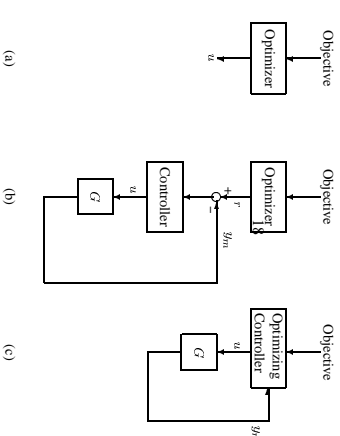
Degrees of freedom at steady state (with given feed and pressure): 2

May for example be selected as

1. Split D/F and reflux L

Optimization of the entire plant yields optimal value of these two variables (along with the corresponding values for the other column operating variables, such as compositions, temperatures, etc.)

BUT how should the optimal solution be implemented?



(a) Open-loop optimization.

(b) HERE: Closed-loop implementation with separate control layer.

(c) Integrated optimization and control.

Hierarchical structuring:

- *optimization layer* — computes references r
- *control layer* — implements this in practice, $y \approx r$ ($c \approx c_s$).

SELF-OPTIMIZING CONTROL

- Find the set of controlled variables c , which when kept constant, result in close-to-optimal operation (in spite of disturbances and other changes)
- Steady-state analysis often sufficient

Outline of the idea of self-optimizing control

- **Basis:** Have N_u degrees of freedom at steady-state which should be used to optimize the operation
 - **Assume:** Have an optimizer which for a given set of nominal disturbances computes all optimal values (of flows, temperatures etc.).
 - **Question:** How should this optimal solution be included in practice? (Which N_u variables should be specified?)
 - **Initial Answer:** Does not matter (as long as they are independent)
 - **But the real world is uncertain:**
 1. The data to the optimizer may be incorrect
 2. There are unknown disturbances entering during the time between each optimization
 3. The relative accuracy in the implementation (“signal to noise ratio”) for each variable is different.
- Thus the initial answer is only true in a perfect world (with no uncertainty).

Procedure for selecting controlled outputs

- **Better Answer:** Choose as specified variables (*controlled outputs*) the set which are least sensitive to uncertainty, i.e. which achieve self-optimizing control.
- **More precisely:** The selected set of variables c should
 1. Have a small variation in optimal setpoints
 2. Be easy to control accurately (small implementation error)
 3. Should be sensitive to the manipulated inputs (u) (i.e. have a large range)
 4. Be independent (not closely correlated)

Today: Steady-state optimization is performed routinely

Thus: Have the main tools needed for a proper selection of controlled outputs:

- Steady-state model
- Information about operational constraints
- Well-defined economic objective (scalar cost function J to be minimized)

Step 1: Degree of freedom analysis. Determine the number of degrees of freedom (N_u) available for optimization, and identify a base set (u) for the degrees of freedom.

Step 2: Cost function and constraints. Define the optimal operation problem by formulating a scalar cost function J to be minimized for optimal operation, and specify the constraints that need to be satisfied.

Step 3: Identify the most important disturbances (uncertainty). These may be caused by

- Errors in the assumed (nominal) model used in the optimization (including the effect of incorrect values for the nominal disturbances d_0 used in the optimization)
- Disturbances $d - d_0$ (including parameter changes) that occur after the optimization
- Implementation errors (d_0) for the controlled variables c (e.g. due to measurement error or poor control)

Step 4: Optimization.

Find the optimal steady-state operation for the various disturbances

Step 5: Identify candidate controlled variables. Typically, these are measured variables or simple combinations thereof. Look for variables which optimal setpoint is

constant.

Step 6: Evaluation of loss. Compute the mean value of the loss for alternative sets of controlled variables c . This is done by evaluating the loss

$$L(u, d) = J(u, d) - J(u_{opt}(d), d); \quad u = f^{-1}(c_s + d_{c1}d) \quad (1)$$

with fixed setpoints c_s for the defined disturbances $d \in \mathcal{D}$ and implementation errors $d_c \in \mathcal{D}_c$.

Step 7: Further analysis and selection.

- Select for further consideration the sets of controlled variables with acceptable loss.
- See if they are adequate with respect to other criteria that may be relevant, such like
 - region of feasibility
 - expected dynamic control performance (input-output controllability)

Let us next evaluate the losses. For this simple example the losses can be evaluated analytically, and we find for the three alternatives

$$L_1 = (10d_{c1})^2; \quad L_2 = (0.05d_{c2} - d)^2; \quad L_3 = (0.1d_{c3} - 0.5d)^2$$

(For example, for c_3 we have $u = (c_3 + 5d)/10$ and with $c_3 = c_{3s} + d_{c3} = d_{c3}$ we get $J = (u - d)^2 = (0.1d_{c3} + 0.5d - d)^2$). With $|d| = 1$ and $|d_{c1}| = 1$ the worst-case values of the losses are

$$L_1 = 100; \quad L_2 = 1.05^2 = 1.1025; \quad L_3 = 0.6^2 = 0.36$$

and we find that *output c_3 is the best overall choice for self-optimizing control* (with the smallest loss), and c_1 is the worst. (This is the same conclusion that followed by considering the three requirements.) We see that with no implementation error ($d_c = 0$) c_1 would be the best, and with no disturbance ($d = 0$) c_3 would be the best.

Toy example

Let $J = (u - d)^2$ where nominally $d_0 = 0$. For this problem we always have $J_{opt}(d) = 0$ corresponding to $u_{opt}(d) = d$. Let us now consider three alternative choices for the controlled output (e.g. we can assume they are three alternative measurements)

$$c_1 = 0.1(u - d); \quad c_2 = 20u; \quad c_3 = 10u - 5d$$

For the nominal case with $d_0 = 0$ we have in all three cases that $c_{opt}(d_0) = 0$, so we select in all three cases $c_s = 0$. Since $u_{opt}(d) = d$, we have that the optimal value for the three alternative controlled outputs as a function of the disturbance are

$$c_{1opt}(d) = 0; \quad c_{2opt}(d) = 20d; \quad c_{3opt} = 5d$$

We assume that the variables have been scaled such that $|d| \leq 1$ (disturbance) and $|d_{ci}| \leq 1, i = 1, 2, 3$ (assume same magnitude of implementation error for all three variables).

Let us first evaluate how the three candidate variables meet the three requirements.

1. *Its optimal value is insensitive to disturbances.* From this point of view, the preferred controlled variable is c_1 (zero sensitivity), followed by c_3 (sensitivity 5) and c_2 (sensitivity 20).

2. *It is easy to control accurately.* There is no difference here since the implementation error d_c is the same for the three variables.

3. *Its utility is insensitive to changes in u .* This favors c_2 (gain 20), followed by c_3 (gain 10), whereas variable c_1 (gain 0.1) is very poor in this respect.

- Let $c = Gu$ (linear model)

- Scale outputs c (and G) such that $\|c - c_{opt}(d)\| \approx 1$ (due to measurement errors and disturbances)

- Prefer a set of controlled outputs with large $\underline{\sigma}(G(0))$.

Note: $\bar{\sigma}(G^{-1}(0)) = 1/\underline{\sigma}(G(0))$.

SUMMARY

Rules for selecting controlled outputs c

Select the controlled outputs c such that:

1. Optimal value $c_{opt}(d)$ is insensitive to disturbances (changes in the operating point)
2. Result insensitive to expected control error for c .
 - (a) “Optimum is flat” and/or
 - (b) Can achieve tight control of c (need accurate measurement)
3. The outputs are weakly correlated

This is usually based on a steady-state analysis

TASK 2: Selection of manipulations and measurements

Dynamics and *controllability* are more important here.

- Manipulations u – usually fixed (the valves), but may not want to use all of them (see task 1) or may change their location.
- Measurements – may want to add secondary measurements $y_{2:m}$ to
 1. Compensate for lack of measurements of primary output y
 2. Improve dynamic response – e.g. by adding a measurement of y_2 “close” to the manipulation u

Can perform **controllability analysis** of alternative combinations.

PROBLEM: Combinatorial growth

Possibilities with 1 to M inputs and 1 to L outputs (Nett, 1989):

$$\sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{l=1}^L \binom{L}{l} \binom{M}{m}$$

$M = L = 2$: 4+2+2+1=9 candidates

$M = L = 4$: 225 candidates, etc.

TOOLS THAT AVOID COMBINATORIAL GROWTH DESIRED.

RGA is one such tool.

TASK 3: Selection of control configuration

Controller K connects available measurements/commands (v) and manipulations (u):

$$u = K^v$$

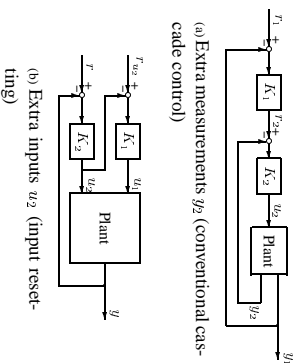
Control configuration: *The restrictions imposed on the structure of the overall controller K by decomposing it into a set of local controllers (subcontrollers, units, elements, blocks) with predetermined links and with a possibly predetermined design sequence.*

Some elements used to build up configuration:

- Decentralized controllers (K diagonal)
- Cascade controllers (with predetermined order for tuning)
- Feedforward elements
- Decoupling elements
- Selectors

⇒ Split the “big” controller into many smaller boxes.

Cascaded controllers



- Other advantages decentralized/cascade/hierarchical configurations:
- “Stabilize” the plant such that it is can be controlled by operators.
 - Simple or even on-line tuning
 - Tuning parameters have direct and “localized” effect
 - Often easier to understand for operators
 - Tend to be insensitive to uncertainty
 - Allow simple models when designing higher layers
 - Reduce the need for control links
 - Allow for decentralized implementation
 - Simpler implementation
 - Reduced computation load
 - Longer sampling intervals for the higher layers
- Comment.* The terms “stabilize” and “unstable” as used by operating people may not refer to a plant that is unstable in a mathematical sense, but rather to a plant that is *sensitive* to disturbances and which is difficult to control manually.

Why use control configurations?

- Decomposed configurations often quite complex.
- Better performance: Optimization problem – resulting in a centralized multivariable controller.

So why use control configurations?

- Cost associated with obtaining good plant models (needed for centralized control).
- Cascade, decentralized, etc.: Controller is usually tuned **on-line** one at a time with little modelling effort.
- \Rightarrow Rely on feedback rather than on models

THEORY FOR CONTROL CONFIGURATIONS

Partial control

Close loop involving u_2 and y_2 using controller K_2 :

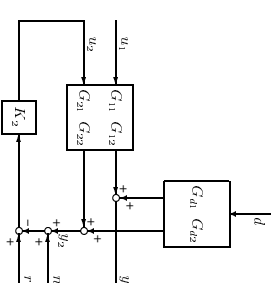


Figure. 1: Block diagram of a partial control system

IMPORTANT

- Closing a loop does not imply a loss of degrees of freedom (DOFs) (since the setpoint r_2 replaces u_2 as a DOF), **BUT** we usually “use up” some of the dynamic range.

Partial control

	Meas./Control of y_1 ?	Control objective for y_2 ?
Sequential decentralized control	Yes	Yes
Sequential cascade control	Yes	No
“True” partial control	No	Yes
Indirect control	No	No

Set $y_2 = r_2 - n_2$

$$y_1 = \underbrace{(G_{11} - G_{12}G_{22}^{-1}G_{21})}_{\triangleq P_u} u_1 + \underbrace{(G_{d1} - G_{12}G_{22}^{-1}G_{d2})}_{\triangleq P_d} d + \underbrace{G_{12}G_{22}^{-1}(r_2 - n_2)}_{\triangleq P_e}$$

Some criteria for selecting u_2 and y_2 in lower-layer:

1. Lower layer must quickly implement the setpoints from higher layers, i.e., controllability of subsystem u_2/y_2 should be good. (G_{22})
 2. Provide for local disturbance rejection. (partial disturbance gain P_d should be small)
 3. Impose no unnecessary control limitations on problem involving u_1 and/or r_2 to control y_1 . (P_u or P_e)
 - Avoid negative RGA for pairing u_2/y_2 – otherwise P_u likely has RHP-zero
- “Unnecessary”: Limitations (RHP-zeros, ill-conditioning, etc.) not in original problem involving u and y

THEORY FOR CONTROL CONFIGURATIONS

Stabilization

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Tool: Pole directions

Example: Tennessee Eastman challenge problem

Summary of procedure for plantwide control

The overall procedure consists of

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- I. **Top-down analysis** to identify degrees of freedom and control objectives
- II. **Bottom-up design** of the control structure

Iteration is required in this overall procedure!

A plantwide control design procedure

Step	Tools (in addition to insight)
Top-down analysis: CONTROLLED VARIABLES: What is the control objective and which variables should be controlled?	<i>Steady-state model and operational objectives</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Degree of freedom analysis Select candidate controlled variables Evaluate (economic) loss and look for "self-optimizing" control structure
PRODUCTION RATE: Where should the throughput be set? This choice has a large effect on the remaining control system	Optimal choice follows from steady-state optimization, but may require continuous reconfiguration (use MPC) If set one place: The throughput manipulator should have a strong and direct effect on the production rate.

CONTROLLABILITY ANALYSIS

Before attempting controller design one should analyze the plant:

- Is it a difficult control problem?
- Does there exist a controller that meets the specs?
- How should the process be changed to improve control?

A plantwide control design procedure

Bottom up design: (With given controlled and manipulated variables)	Controllability analysis Compute zeros, poles, relative gain array, minimum singular value, etc.
STABILIZATION: Selection of measurements and inputs for stabilization (including slowly drifting modes). Goal: enable manual operation of the plant	Pole vectors Give insight about which measurements and inputs can be used for each unstable mode. Select large elements; small input energy needed and large noise tolerated.
CASCADED CONTROLLERS: Selection of (extra) secondary measurements (and inputs) to improve dynamic control. Use of feedforward control (ratio controllers).	Partially controlled plant The relationships for a partially controlled plant tell how the plant looks from the above control layer.
DECENTRALIZED CONTROL: If noninteracting process: design a decentralized control structure.	Controllability analysis for decentralized control Pair on relative gain array close to identity matrix at crossover frequency, provided not negative at steady-state. More information for tuning (required bandwidth): Closed loop disturbance gain (CLDG) performance gain array (PRGA).
MULTIVARIABLE CONTROL <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use for interacting process (coordination including feedforward control) • MPC: Use for tracking active constraints (If steady-state optimization shows that the active constraints are changing with disturbances) 	

QUALITATIVE CRITERIA FROM SEBORG ET AL. (1989) REAL-TIME OPTIMIZATION dynamic simulation

(chapter on "The art of process control"):

1. *Control outputs that are not self-regulating*
 2. *Control outputs that have favorable dynamic and static characteristics, i.e., there should exist an input with a significant, direct and rapid effect.*
 3. *Select inputs that have large effects on the outputs.*
 4. *Select inputs that rapidly effect the controlled variables*
- We have developed controllability tools which quantify these statements.
 - Scale variables. Must then require
 1. Self-regulation: $|G_d| < 1$ at all frequencies
 2. Disturbance rejection: $|G_d(j\frac{1}{\theta})| < 1$
 3. Disturbance rejection: $|G_f| > |G_d|$ at frequencies where $|G_d| > 1$

y = concentration of product (meas. delay $\theta=10$ s)

u = $F^{\text{low}^{\text{base}}}$

d = $F^{\text{low}^{\text{acid}}}$

Introduce excess of acid $c = c_H - c_{OH}$ [mol/l].

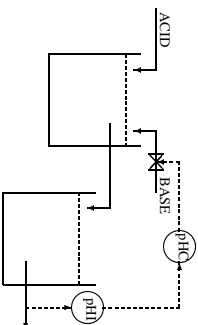
In terms of c the dynamic model is a simple mixing process !!

$$\frac{d}{dt}(Vc) = q_{AC}A + q_{BC}B - qc$$

EXTREMELY SENSITIVE TO DISTURBANCES.

IMPROVE CONTROLLABILITY BY REDESIGN OF PROCESS

- Use several similar tanks in series with gradual adjustment



With $\theta = 10$ s the following designs have the same controllability:

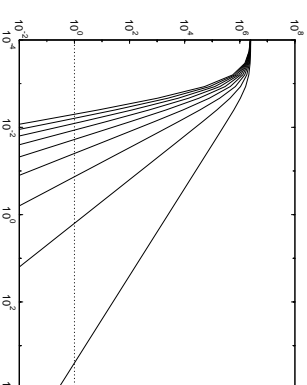
No. of tanks	Total volume V_{tot} [m^3]	Volume each tank [m^3]
1	250000	250000
2	316	158
3	40.7	13.6
4	15.9	3.98
5	9.51	1.90
6	6.96	1.16
7	5.70	0.81

Minimum total volume: 3.66 m^3 (18 tanks of 203 l each).

Economic optimum: 3 or 4 tanks.

Agrees with engineering rules.

With n tanks: $G_d(s) = k_d / (1 + \tau s)^n$.
 τ : residence time in each tank.



To reject disturbance must require

$$|G_d(j\frac{1}{\theta})| < 1$$

where θ is the measurement delay. Gives

$$\tau > \theta \sqrt{(k_d)^{2/n} - 1}$$

Total volume : $V_{tot} = n\tau q$ where $q = 0.01 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$.

PLANTWIDE DYNAMICS

- Poles are affected by recycle of energy and mass and by interconnections
- Parallel paths may give zeros - possible control problems
- Recycle yields positive feedback and often large *open-loop* time constants
- This does *not* necessarily mean that *closed-loop* must be slow
- See MYTH on distillation control where open-loop time constant for compositions is long because of positive feedback from reflux and boilup
- Luyben's "snowball effect" is mostly a steady-state design problem (do not feed more than the system can handle...)

EXAMPLE: Recycle around reactor (snowball effect)

Simple example (Luyben, Xu):

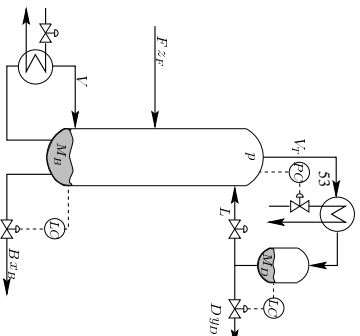
- Reaction $A \rightarrow B$
- Recycle of unreacted A
- Product is pure B

At steady-state

Feed of A = Generation of B in reactor = Production of B

where Generation of B in reactor is

$$G_B = k(T)x_A V_R$$



DISTILLATION EXAMPLE

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} L \\ V \end{bmatrix}; \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} y_D \\ x_B \end{bmatrix} \text{ [mol - \% light]}$$

Steady-state gains $y = Gu$ (LV-configuration)

$$G(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 87.8 & -86.4 \\ 108.2 & -109.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

RGAs-value about 35 at steady-state \Rightarrow Strong two-way interaction

$$G_B = k(T)x_A V_R$$

Three ways to increase G_B :

1. Increase reactor temperature T
2. Increase x_A by increasing the recycle ratio RR

$$x_A = \frac{RR}{1 + RR}$$

(the “snowball effect” of Luyben is that $x_A \rightarrow 1$ as $RR \rightarrow \infty$ – occurs when the reactor is too small)

3. Increase the reactor volume V_R

- BUT: Loose money by not operating at maximum volume (Possible trade-off between operating costs and controllability)
- Gas phase reactor: Increasing the pressure has the same effect (larger inventory in reactor).

OVERALL DISTILLATION PROBLEM

Typically, overall control problem has 5 inputs

$$u = [L \quad V \quad D \quad B \quad V_T]$$

(flows: reflux L , boilup V , distillate D , bottom flow B , overhead vapour V_T) and 5 outputs

$$y = [y_D \quad x_B \quad M_D \quad M_B \quad p]$$

(compositions and inventories: top composition y_D , bottom composition x_B , condenser holdup M_D , reboiler holdup M_B , pressure p)

Without any control we have a 5×5 model

$$y = Gu + G_d d$$

(which generally has some large RGA-elements at steady-state)

DISTILLATION CONFIGURATIONS

There are usually three “unstable” outputs with no or little steady-state effect

$$y_2 = [M_D \quad M_B \quad p]$$

Remaining outputs

$$y_1 = [y_D \quad x_B]$$

Many possible choices for the three inputs for stabilization. For example, with

$$u_2 = [D \quad B \quad V_T]$$

we get the LV -configuration where

$$u_1 = [L \quad V]$$

are left for composition control.

Another configuration is the DV -configuration (has small RGA-elements) where

$$u_1 = [D \quad V]$$

After closing the stabilizing loops ($u_2 \leftrightarrow y_2$) we get a 2×2 model for the remaining “partially controlled” system

$$y_1 = G^{u_1} u_1 + G_d^{u_1} d$$

Which configurations is the best?

A PARADOX

Distillation columns have large RGA-elements

⇒ Fundamental control problems (cannot have decoupling control)

BUT: DV configuration has small RGA-elements and we can decouple the compositions loops

How is this possible?

Solution to paradox: DV configuration has coupling between composition and level loops

(whereas LV has decoupling between level and composition)

Analyze G^{u_1} and $G_d^{u_1}$ with respect to

1. No composition control

- Consider disturbance gain $G_d^{u_1}$ (e.g. effect of feedrate on compositions)

2. Close one composition loop (“one-point control”)

- Consider partial disturbance gain (e.g. effect of feedrate on y_D with constant x_B)

3. Close two composition loops (“two-point control”)

- Consider interactions in terms of RGA
- Consider “closed-loop disturbance gains” (CLDG) for single-loop control

Problem:

- No single best configuration
- Generally, get different conclusion on each of the three cases
- ⇒ Stabilizing control is not necessarily a trivial issue

CONTROLLABILITY ANALYSIS OF VARIOUS DISTILLATION CONFIGURATIONS

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- S. Skogestad, “Dynamics and control of distillation columns: A tutorial introduction”, *Trans IChemE* (UK), 75, Part A, 1997, 539 - 561.

- Available at: http://www.chembio.rtmu.no/users/skoge/publications/1997/dist_plenary.pdf

CONCLUSIONS / FUTURE WORK

1. Important problem - theory has been lacking
2. General procedure (not only process control)
3. Many theoretical tools are already there – still some effort left to get a unifying approach
4. Want to avoid “case study approach” (but the case studies are useful for understanding the issues)
5. Hope to make good progress in near future