

# DIGITAL CONTROL

(Course Material)

4 AE-SE

# DIGITAL CONTROL

This course belongs to the "UF" *Data Acquisition Architecture Systems and Digital Control*

- **LECTURES:** Germain Garcia (10 sessions)
- **ASSOCIATED TUTORIALS:** Yassine Ariba (6 sessions)
- Evaluation : 1 written Exam, 1 practical work together with Data Acquisition Architecture Systems
- All the associated supports on Moodle Page

*I4AEAU11\_01 - Commande Numérique*

- **PREREQUISITE:** Ordinary differential equations, Linear algebra, Basic course in signal theory, Analysis and control of linear continuous-time invariant systems.

## SOME REFERENCES

- *"Automatique Linéaire: Systèmes à Temps Discrets"* **B.Pradin, G. Garcia**, Course support of INSA , Toulouse, 2010-2011. (*Cover this course, available on the Moodle page*)
- *"Analog and Digital Control System Design"*. **C.T. Chen**, Saunders College Publishing, 2006. (*Very complete and covers many topics*)
- *"Discrete-Time Control Systems"*. **K. Ogata**. Prentice Hall. 1995, 2nd Edition. (*Covers many topics with a very pedagogical presentation*)
- *"Digital Control of Dynamic Systems"*. **G.F. Franklin, J. D. Powell, M.L. Workman**. Ellis-Kagle Press, 1997. (*Another interesting and complete book*)

# DIGITAL CONTROL

## Chapter I - Discrete Models For Linear Time Invariant Systems

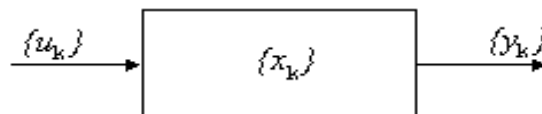
The objectives of this chapter are

- List the main properties of the linear invariant discrete models
- Present the three models: Difference (recurrent) equation, Transfer function, State-space model
- Relations between all the models

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## I.1 - Introduction



- The main assumptions are
  - Linearity
  - Invariance
  - Causality
- For the moment, we consider the independent variable  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  from a mathematical point of view. Later this variable will be the *discrete-time*.
- From the above assumptions, we can consider three different models: difference equation, transfer function and state-space model.

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## I.2 - Difference (Recurrent) Equation

From the adopted assumptions, a first model can be written as

$$a_n y_{k+n} + \dots + a_1 y_{k+1} + a_0 y_k = b_m u_{k+m} + \dots + b_1 u_{k+1} + b_0 u_k \quad m \leq n$$

with initial conditions  $y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Its properties follow from assumptions.

- Linearity

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \left( \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j u_{k+i}^j \right) &= \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j \left( \sum_{i=1}^m b_i u_{k+i}^j \right) = \\
 \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i y_{k+i}^j \right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \left( \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j y_{k+i}^j \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Invariance because  $a_i, b_j \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, m$
- Causality because  $m \leq n$

# I.1 - Difference (Recurrent) Equation

Introduce the shift operator  $q$  defined by

$$\begin{aligned} qu_k &= u_{k+1} \\ q^i u_k &= u_{k+i} \end{aligned}$$

The difference equation can be written as

$$D(q)y_k = N(q)u_k$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} D(q) &= a_0 + a_1 q + \dots + a_n q^n \\ N(q) &= b_0 + b_1 q + \dots + b_m q^m \end{aligned}$$

$D(q) = 0$  is *the characteristic equation* of the difference equation. Its roots are *the characteristic roots*.

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## I.3 - Z-Transform

We introduce a specific transform, the Z-Transform which is in some sense a transform similar as Laplace transform in the context of numerical series.

### Definition

Consider  $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  a numerical serie. The Z-Transform of  $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is the serie defined by

$$F(z) = \mathcal{Z}[\{f_k\}] = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} f_k z^{-k}, \quad z \in \mathbb{C}$$

*Some conditions are needed for ensuring convergence of the series (convergence radius)*

## I.3 - Z-Transform

Its main properties are summarized below.

### Properties of Z-Transform

#### 1. Linearity

$$\mathcal{Z}[\alpha \{f_k\} + \beta \{g_k\}] = \alpha \mathcal{Z}[\{f_k\}] + \beta \mathcal{Z}[\{g_k\}]$$

**2. Convolution product:** The Z-Transform of the convolution product of two numerical series  $\{f * g\}_k$  defined by

$$\sum_l f_l g_{n-l} = \sum_l f_{n-l} g_l$$

is given by

$$\mathcal{Z}[\{f * g\}_k] = F(z) G(z)$$

## I.3 - Z-Transform

### 3. Shifting theorem

$$\mathcal{Z}\{f_{k-l}\} = z^{-l} \mathcal{Z}\{f_k\} = z^{-l} F(z)$$

### 4. Differentiation theorem

$$\mathcal{Z}\{f_{k+l}\} = z^l \left[ \mathcal{Z}\{f_k\} - \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} f_i z^{-i} \right]$$

### 5. Initial value theorem

$$f_0 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} F(z)$$

### 6. Final value theorem

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (1 - z^{-1}) F(z)$$

if the poles of  $(1 - z^{-1})F(z)$  are in the unit disk.

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## I.4 - Transfer Function

Taking the Z transform of the difference equation, we have

$$(a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + \dots + a_nz^n)Y(z) = (b_0 + b_1z + b_2z^2 + \dots + b_mz^m)U(z) + I(z)$$

where

$$I(z) = 0 \text{ if the initial conditions are zero}$$

$$\neq 0 \text{ if the initial conditions are non zero}$$

and

$$Y(z) = \underbrace{\frac{N(z)}{D(z)}}_{\text{Transfer function}} U(z) + \frac{I(z)}{D(z)}$$

## I.4 - Transfer Function

The transfer function can be written as

$$G(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{b_m}{a_n} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^m (z - z_i)}{\prod_{i=1}^n (z - p_i)}$$

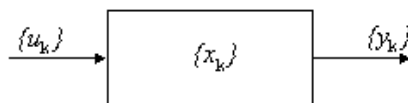
where

- The roots of numerator  $z_i$  are the zeros of the system
- The roots of dominator  $p_i$  are the zeros of the system
- $n$  is the order of the system
- $D(z) = 0$  is the characteristic polynomial of the system

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## I.5 - State-Space Model



The state space model is given by

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = Ax_k + Bu_k \\ y_k = Cx_k + Du_k, \quad x(0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

where

- $x_k$  is the state,  $u_k$  the input,  $y_k$  the output and  $x_0$  the initial condition
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ,  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ ,  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$
- $A$  is the dynamical matrix,  $B$  the input matrix,  $C$  the output matrix and  $D$  the feedforward matrix
- We consider a single-input single-output (SISO) system, i.e.  $m = p = 1$

## I.5 - State-Space Model: Non-uniqueness of state-space model

Consider

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} &= Ax_k + Bu_k \\ y_k &= Cx_k + Du_k, \quad x(0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

and consider a new state vector  $\bar{x}_k = Mx_k$ . Then

$$M\bar{x}_{k+1} = AM\bar{x}_k + Bu_k \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \bar{x}_{k+1} &= M^{-1}AM\bar{x}_k + M^{-1}Bu_k \\ y_k &= CM\bar{x}_k + Du_k, \quad \bar{x}(0) = M^{-1}x_0 \end{cases}$$

Selecting appropriately  $M$ , we can obtain particular state-space models

- Diagonal form
- Canonical form (controllability and observability)

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## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From TF to SS

Consider a transfer function

$$G(z) = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z + \dots + b_m z^m}{a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_n z^n} = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)}, \quad m < n$$

If the poles are distinct

$$G(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{N(z)}{a_n(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \dots (z - p_n)} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\alpha_i}{z - p_i}$$

The matrices of a state-space model are

$$\begin{cases} A = \begin{bmatrix} p_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & p_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & p_n \end{bmatrix} & B = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} \\ C = [\gamma_1 \quad \gamma_2 \quad \dots \quad \gamma_n] & \alpha_i = \beta_i \gamma_i \end{cases}$$

## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From TF to SS

If the poles are multiple

$$G(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{N(z)}{(z - \lambda)^n} = \frac{\alpha_1}{z - \lambda} + \frac{\alpha_2}{(z - \lambda)^2} + \dots + \frac{\alpha_n}{(z - \lambda)^n}$$

The matrices of a state-space model are

$$\begin{cases} A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & \\ & \lambda & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix} & B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ C = [\alpha_n \quad \alpha_{n-1} \quad \dots \quad \alpha_1] \end{cases}$$

## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From TF to SS

If  $a_n = 1$ , the two canonical forms can be obtained

### Controllability canonical form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & & 0 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 & \dots & -a_{n-2} & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = [b_0 \quad \dots \quad b_m \quad 0 \quad \dots]$$

### Observability canonical form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -a_{n-1} & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -a_{n-2} & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & & 1 \\ -a_0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \\ b_m \\ \vdots \\ b_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = [1 \quad 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad 0]$$

## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From TF to SS

When  $m = n$ , the transfer function is given by

$$G(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{b_0 + \dots + b_n z^n}{a_0 + \dots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n}$$

We can write

$$N(z) = N^*(z) + d D(z) \text{ with } d = b_n \text{ and } N^*(z) = N(z) - b_n D(z)$$

And

$$G(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{N^*(z)}{D(z)} + d$$

Then

$$G^*(s) \rightarrow (A, B, C) \quad G(s) \rightarrow (A, B, C, b_n)$$

## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From SS to TF

$$zX(z) - zx_0 = AX(z) + BU(z)$$

$$(zI - A)X(z) = BU(z) + zx_0$$

$$X(z) = (zI - A)^{-1}BU(z) + (zI - A)^{-1}zx_0$$

$$Y(z) = CX(z) + DU(z)$$

$$= [C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D] U(z) + \underbrace{C(zI - A)^{-1}zx_0}_{0 \text{ if C.I are zero}}$$

$$= G(z)U(z) + \underbrace{\frac{I(z)}{D(z)}}_{0 \text{ if C.I are zero}}$$

Then

$$G(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D$$

## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From SS to SS

The characteristic polynomial is

$$\begin{aligned} P(z) &= \det(zI_n - A) \\ &= z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0 \end{aligned}$$

The matrix  $M$  transforming the original model into *the controllability canonical form* is

$$M = [m_1 \quad \dots \quad m_n]$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} m_n &= B \\ m_{n-1} &= (A + a_{n-1}I_n)B \\ m_{n-2} &= (A^2 + a_{n-1}A + a_{n-2}I_n)B \\ &\dots \\ m_1 &= (A^{n-1} + a_{n-1}A^{n-2} + \dots + a_1I_n)B \end{aligned}$$

(Show it. Hint:  $AM = MA_c$  and  $MB_c = B$  with  $M = [m_1 \quad \dots \quad m_n]$ )

## I.6 - Some Model Transformations: From SS to SS

The matrix  $M_o$  transforming the original model into *the observability canonical form* is

$$M_o = ([m_1 \quad \dots \quad m_n]')^{-1}$$

with

$$m_1 = C'$$

$$m_2 = (A' + a_{n-1} I_n) C'$$

$$m_3 = ((A')^2 + a_{n-1} A' + a_{n-2} I_n) C'$$

...

$$m_n = ((A')^{n-1} + a_{n-1} (A')^{n-2} \dots + a_1 I_n) C'$$

(Show it. Hint:  $A'(M_o')^{-1} = (M_o')^{-1}A_o'$  and  $(M_o')^{-1}C_o' = C'$  with  $(M_o')^{-1} = [m_1 \quad \dots \quad m_n]$ )

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## I.7 - Summary

### Difference Equation

$$a_n y_{k+n} + \dots + a_1 y_{k+1} + a_0 y_k = b_m u_{k+m} + \dots + b_1 u_{k+1} + b_0 u_k$$

$$D(z)y_k = N(z)u_k$$

$$m \leq n$$

**Characteristic Equation:**

$$a_n r^n + \dots + a_1 r + a_0 = 0$$

**System Order:**  $n$

**Poles  $\equiv$  Roots of Characteristic Equation:**

$$r_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

### Transfer Function

$$G(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)}$$

$$G(z) = \frac{b_m z^m + \dots + b_1 z + b_0}{a_n z^n + \dots + a_1 z + a_0}$$

$$m \leq n$$

**Characteristic Polynomial:**

$$a_n z^n + \dots + a_1 z + a_0 = 0$$

**System Order:**  $n$

**Poles  $\equiv$  Roots of Characteristic Polynomial**

$$G(z) = \frac{b_m}{a_n} \frac{\prod_{j=1}^m (z - z_j)}{\prod_{i=1}^n (z - p_i)}$$

### State-Space Model

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = Ax_k + Bu_k \\ y_k = Cx_k + Du_k \end{cases}$$

**Characteristic Polynomial of A:**

$$P(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A)$$

**System Order:**  $n = \dim(A)$

**Poles  $\equiv$  Eigenvalues of A  $\equiv$  roots of Characteristic Polynomial;**

$$\lambda_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

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## I.8 - Example

Consider the system described by the difference equation

$$y_{k+2} + 3y_{k+1} + 2y_k = u_k, \quad y_0 = 1, \quad y_1 = 1$$

Taking the Z-transform, we have

$$z^2 Y(z) - z^2 y_0 - z y_1 + 3z Y(z) - 3z y_0 + 2Y(z) = U(z)$$

Replacing by the values of  $y_0$  and  $y_1$

$$(z^2 + 3z + 2)Y(z) = U(z) + z^2 + 4z$$

and

$$Y(z) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{(z+1)(z+2)}}_{G(z)} U(z) + \frac{z^2 + 4z}{(z+1)(z+2)}$$

The order is 2. The poles are:  $-1$  and  $-2$ . There is no finite zero.

## I.8 - Example

Taking as state variables  $x_{1k} = y_k$  and  $x_{2k} = y_{k+1}$ , we obtain

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

The transfer function is recovered as

$$\begin{aligned} G(z) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z & -1 \\ 2 & z+3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z+3 & 1 \\ -2 & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}{z^2 + 3z + 2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(z+1)(z+2)} \end{aligned}$$

## I.8 - Example

The eigenvalues are  $-1$  and  $-2$ . With

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The transformed system is :

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

The diagonal form can be obtained from the transfer function

$$G(z) = \frac{1}{(z+1)(z+2)} = \frac{1}{z+1} + \frac{-1}{z+2}$$

Then

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

## I.8 - Example

The canonical forms can be deduced from the transfer function.

### Controllability canonical form

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

### Observability canonical form

$$\begin{cases} \bar{x}_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \bar{x}_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \bar{x}_k \end{cases}$$

# DIGITAL CONTROL

## Chapter II - Models of Sampled-Data Systems

The objectives of this chapter are

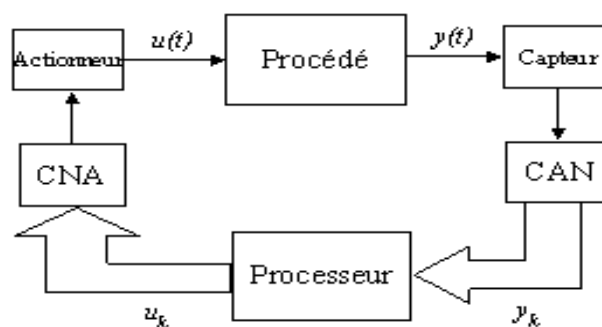
- How to obtain a sampled-data model for a continuous-time system
- The available models of the continuous-time system are the transfer function or a state-space model
- The deduced sampled-data models are the transfer function or a state-space model

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## II.1 - Introduction

A digital control system is represented in the following figure

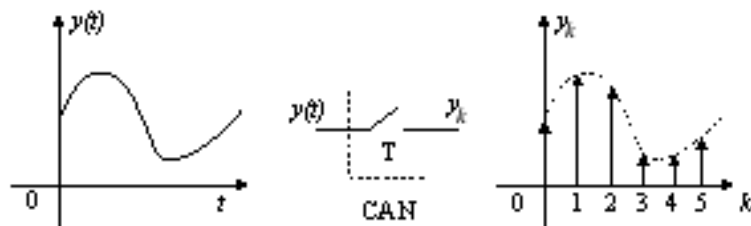


- To communicate with the real world, A/D and D/A conversions are needed.  
A/D :  $y(t) \rightarrow y(kT)$  and D/A :  $u(kT) \rightarrow u(t)$
- A sampling frequency has to be selected.  
**Shannon Theorem:** *If the signals spectra contain frequencies in the frequency band  $[0, \omega_B]$ , the sampling frequency has to be chosen at least equal to  $2\omega_B$ .*
- In practice and due to the feedback, the sampling frequency is chosen 5 to 10 times the maximal frequency contained in the system bandwidth.
- To prevent *aliasing*, *anti-aliasing filters* are also needed

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## II.2 - A/D Conversion



- The A/D conversion can be represented as the analog signal modulated by a pulse train

$$y^*(t) = y(t) \delta_T(t), \quad \delta_T(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \delta(t - kT)$$

$$y^*(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} y(t) \delta(t - kT) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} y_k \delta(t - kT)$$

$$y_k = y(kT) : \text{sample of } y(t) \text{ à } t=kT$$

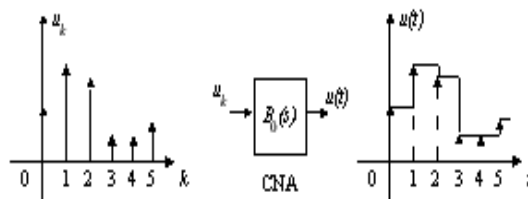
- The sampled signal is in fact the sequence  $y(kT)$

$$\{y(kT)\} \equiv \{y(k)\} \equiv \{y_k\}$$

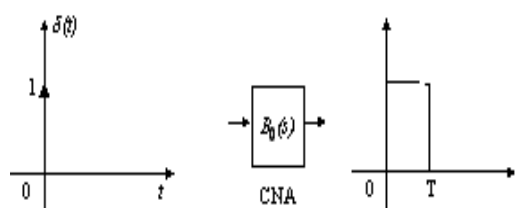
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## II.3 - D/A Conversion



- From the values  $u_k$ , the A/D conversion produces a continuous-time signal constant on a period  $T$  (*Zero-order hold*).
- To determine the transfer function associated with the zero-order hold, remark that



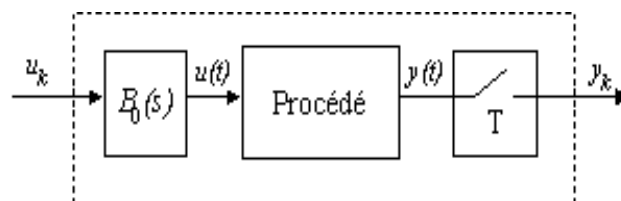
- The transfer function  $B_0(s)$  is the Laplace transform of the previous impulse response.

$$B_0(s) = \frac{1}{s} - \frac{e^{-Ts}}{s} = \frac{1 - e^{-Ts}}{s}$$

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## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System



- Transfer function of continuous-time system  $\xrightarrow{?}$  Z-transfer function of sampled-data system.

$$G_c(s) = \frac{\mathcal{L}[y(t)]}{\mathcal{L}[u(t)]} \xrightarrow{?} G(z) = \frac{\mathcal{Z}[y_k]}{\mathcal{Z}[u_k]}$$

- In the continuous-time domain, the sequence  $\{u_k\}$ , can be represented as

$$u^*(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} u_k \delta(t - kT)$$

## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System

We have

$$U(s) = B_0(s) U^*(s) \text{ with } U^*(s) = \mathcal{L}[u^*(t)] = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} u_k e^{-kTs}$$

Then

$$Y(s) = G_c(s) U(s) = \underbrace{G_c(s) B_0(s)}_{G_{bc}(s)} U^*(s) \text{ with } Y(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} G_{bc}(s) u_k e^{-kTs}$$

We can also write

$$y(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[Y(s)] = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} g_{bc}(t - kT) u(kT)$$

with  $g_{bc}(t)$  inverse Laplace transform of  $G_{bc}(s)$ .

## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System

Taking the samples a times  $nT$  of the previous signal, we have

$$y(nT) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} g_{bc}[(n - k)T] u(kT)$$

which is nothing but a discrete convolution product. Then by the property of Z-transform

$$Y(z) = G(z) U(z) \text{ with } G(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{G_{bc}(s)\} = \mathcal{Z}\{B_0(s) G_c(s)\}$$

$$G(z) = \mathcal{Z}\left\{\frac{1 - e^{-Ts}}{s} G_c(s)\right\}$$

By the linearity of the Z-transform

$$G(z) = (1 - z^{-1}) \mathcal{Z}\left\{\frac{G_c(s)}{s}\right\} = \frac{z-1}{z} \mathcal{Z}\left\{\frac{G_c(s)}{s}\right\}$$



## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System

Another important implication can be deduced. Consider a signal  $s(t)$  and its sampled version

$$s^*(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} s_k \delta(t - kT)$$

The Laplace transform of  $s^*(t)$  is given by

$$\mathcal{L}[s^*(t)] = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} s_k e^{-kTs}$$

Also remark that  $e^{Ts}s(t) = s(t+T)$ . If  $t = kT$ , we have  $e^{Ts}s(kT) = s(kT+T)$  which can also be written  $e^{Ts}s_k = s_{k+1}$ . And we conclude that

$$S(z) = \mathcal{L}[s^*(t)] = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} s_k \underbrace{e^{-kTs}}_{z^{-k}} \text{ and then } z = e^{Ts}$$

## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System

- The complex function  $e^{Ts}$  is a *multiform function* leading to the *aliasing phenomenon*
- From a frequency point of view, the aliasing results from the relation  $z = e^{Tj\omega}$ .
- Because of periodicity of the complex function  $e^{Tj\omega}$ , we see that the sampling process does not discriminate the frequencies  $\omega$  in the bands

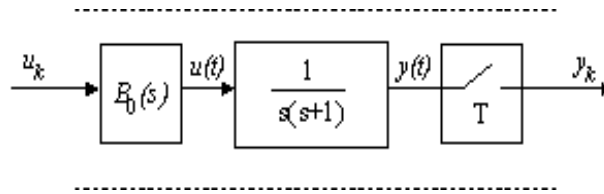
$$[-k\pi/T, k\pi/T], k \in \mathbb{N}$$

generating the aliasing phenomenon.

- This means that the maximal frequency for a sampled signal is  $\pi/T$ . This frequency is called *the Nyquist frequency* and it corresponds to  $z = e^{\pi} = -1$ .
- The Nyquist frequency is half of the sampling frequency.

## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System

### EXAMPLE



$$G(z) = \mathcal{Z}[B_0(s) G_c(s)] = \frac{z-1}{z} \mathcal{Z} \left[ \frac{G_c(s)}{s} \right]$$

$$\frac{G_c(s)}{s} = \frac{1}{s^2(s+1)} = \frac{-1}{s} + \frac{1}{s^2} + \frac{1}{s+1}$$

Using the Z-transform table, we have

$$G(z) = \frac{z-1}{z} \left[ -\frac{z}{z-1} + \frac{Tz}{(z-1)^2} + \frac{z}{z-e^{-T}} \right]$$

## II.4 - Transfer Function of a Sampled-Data System

### EXAMPLE: (Continued)

and

$$G(z) = \frac{K(z-b)}{(z-1)(z-a)}$$

with

$$K = e^{-T} - 1 + T$$

$$a = e^{-T}$$

$$b = 1 - \frac{T(1-e^{-T})}{e^{-T} - 1 + T}$$

### Numerical Application:

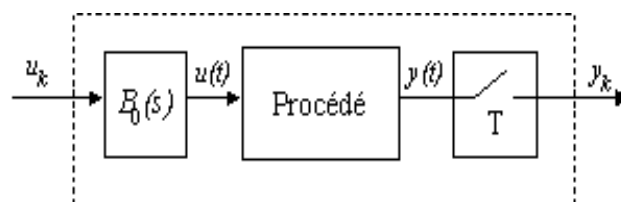
If  $T = 1$ s. then

$$G(z) = 0,3679 \frac{z + 0,7183}{(z-1)(z-0,3679)}$$

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- 5 State-Space Model of a Sampled-Data System

## II.5 - State-Space Model of a Sampled-Data System



- State-space model of continuous-time system  $\rightarrow$  State-space model of sampled-data system

$$(A_c, B_c, C_c, D_c) \rightarrow (A, B, C, D)$$

- The state-space model of the system is

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = A_c x(t) + B_c u(t) \\ y(t) = C_c x(t) + D_c u(t) \end{cases}$$

## II.5 - State-Space Model of a Sampled-Data System

We have

$$x(t) = e^{A_c(t-t_0)} x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A_c(t-\tau)} B_c u(\tau) d\tau$$

On the interval  $[kT, (k+1)T]$ , i.e.  $t_0 = kT$  and  $t = (k+1)T$  and from the zero-order hold

$$x_{k+1} = e^{A_c T} x_k + \int_{kT}^{(k+1)T} e^{A_c((k+1)T-\tau)} B_c u_k d\tau$$

By the change of variable  $\alpha = (k+1)T - \tau$

$$x_{k+1} = e^{A_c T} x_k + \left\{ \int_0^T e^{A_c \alpha} d\alpha \right\} B_c u_k$$

The output of the sampled-data system is  $y(kT)$ , then  $C = C_c$  and  $D = D_c$ , and

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = A x_k + B u_k \\ y_k = C x_k + D u_k \end{cases}$$

$$A = e^{A_c T}, B = \int_0^T e^{A_c \alpha} B_c d\alpha, C = C_c, D = D_c$$

## II.5 - State-Space Model of a Sampled-Data System

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Eigenvalues of } A_c : \lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, n \\ &\quad \downarrow \\ &\text{Eigenvalues of } A = e^{A_c T} : e^{\lambda_i T}, i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

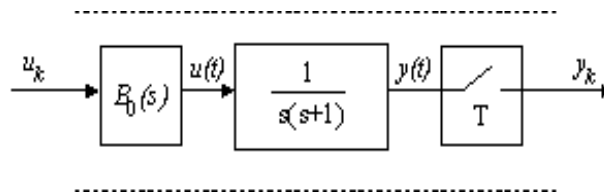
The sampling process does not change the open-loop stability property.

- If  $A_c$  invertible (Show it)

$$B = A_c^{-1} (e^{A_c T} - I) B_c = (e^{A_c T} - I) A_c^{-1} B_c$$

## II.5 - State-Space Model of a Sampled-Data System

### EXAMPLE



A state space-model for the system is (Show it)

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(t) \\ y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x(t) \end{cases}$$

For  $T = 1s$ , we have

$$A = e^{A_c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \int_0^1 e^{A_c \alpha} B_c d\alpha = \int_0^1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ e^{-\alpha} \end{bmatrix} d\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 - e^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

## II.5 - State-Space Model of a Sampled-Data System

### EXAMPLE (Continued)

The sampled-data state-space model is given by

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-1} \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 - e^{-1} \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

If we compute the transfer function, we recover the result of the previous section

$$G(z) = C(zI_n - A)^{-1} B$$

$$G(z) = 0,3679 \frac{z + 0,7183}{(z - 1)(z - 0,3679)}$$

# DIGITAL CONTROL

## Chapter III - Response of discrete-time linear system

The objectives of this chapter are

- Compute the response of the discrete-time linear system
- From all the models presented in the previous chapters
- In the case of sampled-data systems, discuss the relations with the original continuous-time system

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- 2 From the difference equation
- 3 From The Transfer Function  $G(z)$
- 4 From The State-Space Model

## III.1 - Introduction

- Evaluate the responses for a given system is important to analyze the system behavior
- Among the input signals of interest, some of them are particularly important: impulse, step, ramp, periodic signals...
- In that context, it is possible, for the considered models, to derive the responses analytically. But in practical situations, they are obtained numerically
- However, the principles of analytical determinations are important because they allow to identify the key parameters whose values have an impact on the responses

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## III.2 - From the difference equation

- The difference equation recalled here

$$a_n y_{k+n} + \dots + a_1 y_{k+1} + a_0 y_k = b_m u_{k+m} + \dots + b_1 u_{k+1} + b_0 u_k, \quad m \leq n$$

with initial conditions  $y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}$  can be interpreted as an algorithm directly adapted for a numerical simulation.

- A method very similar to the one existing for linear time-invariant differential equations exists in the context of linear time-invariant difference equations, but more involved. it can be used for analytical calculations.



## III.2 - From the difference equation

### EXAMPLE

$$y_{k+2} - 3y_{k+1} + 2y_k = u_k$$

with

$$y_k = 0 \quad \forall k \leq 0 \quad \text{et} \quad u_k = 0 \quad \forall k \neq 0 \quad \text{et} \quad u_0 = 1$$

$$u_k = 0 \quad \forall k \neq 0 \quad \text{et} \quad u_0 = 1$$

Iterating from the initial conditions

$$\begin{aligned} y_2 &= 3y_1 - 2y_0 + u_0 = 1 \\ y_3 &= 3y_2 - 2y_1 + u_1 = 3 \\ y_4 &= 3y_3 - 2y_2 + u_2 = 7 \end{aligned}$$

Here we can deduce a closed-form expression (in general this is not obvious)

$$y_k = -1 + 2^{k-1} \quad \forall k > 1$$

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### III.3 - From The Transfer Function $G(z)$

Consider the transfer function

$$\frac{Y(z)}{U(z)} = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = G(z)$$

If the case of non zero initial conditions, the initial conditions must be included.  
Then

$$\frac{Y(z)}{U(z)} = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} \rightarrow D(z)Y(z) = N(z)U(z) \xrightarrow{z^{-1}(.)}$$

Difference equation  $\xrightarrow{z^{-1}(.)} \text{with C.I.}$   $Y(z)$  is a rational function  $\rightarrow$

Decomposition of  $Y(z) \xrightarrow{z^{-1}(.)} \text{using table of Z-transform}$   $y_k$

### III.3 - From The Transfer Function $G(z)$

#### EXAMPLE (Continued)

The initial conditions are zero then

$$Y(z) = G(z)U(z) = \frac{U(z)}{z^2 - 3z + 2}$$

with  $U(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} u_k z^{-k} = 1$ . We have

$$Y(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 - 3z + 2} = \frac{1}{z-2} - \frac{1}{z-1}$$

and

$$Y(z) = z^{-1} \underbrace{\left[ \frac{z}{z-2} - \frac{z}{z-1} \right]}_{z^{-1} [.] \rightarrow 2^{k-1} - 1^k}$$

Then

$$y_k = 2^{k-1} - 1^{k-1} = 2^{k-1} - 1$$

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## III.4 - From The State-Space Model

It is possible to use the following formula

$$Y(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1} x_0 + \left[ C(zI - A)^{-1} B + D \right] U(z)$$

$$Y(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1} x_0 + G(z) U(z)$$

and work with the Z-transform. From the state-space model

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} &= A x_k + B u_k \\ y_k &= C x_k + D u_k, \quad x_0 \end{cases}$$

Iterating from a state  $x_m$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_{m+1} &= A x_m + B u_m \\ x_{m+2} &= A x_{m+1} + B u_{m+1} \\ &= A^2 x_m + A B u_m + B u_{m+1} \\ &\dots \\ x_k &= A^{k-m} x_m + \sum_{j=m}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} B u_j \end{aligned}$$

## III.4 - From The State-Space Model

If  $x_m = x_0$ , we obtain

$$x_k = A^k x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} B u_j$$

and

$$y_k = CA^k x_0 + C \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} B u_j + D u_k$$

## III.4 - From The State-Space Model: Computation of $A^k$

- $A = M \Lambda M^{-1} \rightarrow A^k = M \Lambda^k M^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i w_i^T \lambda_i^k$  where

$$M = [v_1 \cdots v_n] \quad M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1^T \\ \vdots \\ w_n^T \end{bmatrix} \quad \Lambda^k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & \\ & \lambda_2^k & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix}$$

- Another way for computing  $A^k$

$$zX(z) - z x_0 = A X(z)$$

$$X(z) = (zI - A)^{-1} z x_0$$

Taking the inverse of the Z-transform of the previous expression, we obtain

$$x_k = A^k x_0$$

and

$$A^k = \mathcal{Z}^{-1} [(zI - A)^{-1} z]$$

## III.4 - From The State-Space Model

### EXAMPLE (Continued)

Taking a state-space vector  $x_k = [y_k, y_{k+1}]^T$ , a state-space model is given by

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}, \quad x_0 = 0$$

The matrix  $M$  diagonalizing the dynamical matrix is given by

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$y_k = C A^{k-1} B u_0 = C M \Lambda^{k-1} M^{-1} B u_0 = [1 \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} 2 - 2^{k-1} & -1 + 2^{k-1} \\ 2 - 2^k & -1 + 2^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_k = 2^{k-1} - 1$$

# DIGITAL CONTROL

## Chapter IV - Stability

The objectives of this chapter are

- Identify the equilibrium states of a discrete-time system
- Give the conditions of stability of an equilibrium state
- Present algebraic criteria for stability
- The use of root locus in that context
- Introduce the notion of mode

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- 6 Notion of Mode

## IV.1 - Equilibrium States

Consider the system described in the state-space

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} &= Ax_k + Bu_k \\ y_k &= Cx_k + Du_k \end{cases}$$

### Definition

A state  $\bar{x}$  is *an equilibrium state* or *an equilibrium point* if when  $u_k = 0$ , the system being on  $\bar{x}$ , it remains on  $\bar{x}$  indefinitely.

An equilibrium state  $\bar{x}$  is a fixed point, i.e

$$x_{k+1} = x_k = \bar{x} \rightarrow A\bar{x} = \bar{x}$$

and

$$(A - I)\bar{x} = 0$$

## IV.1 - Equilibrium States

- If matrix  $A - I$  is regular, i.e.

$$\det(A - I) \neq 0$$

The unique equilibrium point is the origin  $\bar{x} = 0$ .

- If matrix  $A - I$  is singular i.e.

$$\det(A - I) = 0$$

The number of equilibrium points is infinite

## IV.1 - Equilibrium States

### Examples

$$x_{k+1} = A x_k = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k$$

$$\det(A - I) = -1$$

One one equilibrium point, the origin.

### Exemple 2

$$x_{k+1} = A x_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x_k$$

$\det(A - I) = 0 \rightarrow$  Etats d'équilibre :

$$A \bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \bar{x} = \bar{x} \rightarrow \bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$



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## IV.2 - Stability of Equilibrium States

### Definition

The equilibrium point  $\bar{x}$  is said *stable in the sense of Lyapunov* or (*stable*), if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $r > 0$  which can depend on  $\epsilon$  but independent of  $k$  such that

$$\|x_0 - \bar{x}\| < r \Rightarrow \|x_k - \bar{x}\| < \epsilon \quad \forall k > 0$$

Otherwise the equilibrium point will be said *unstable*

The previous notion of stability can be insufficient in some practical situations. We introduce a strengthened notion of stability called *asymptotic stability*

### Definition

The equilibrium point  $\bar{x}$  is said *asymptotically stable* if

- $\bar{x}$  is stable
- There exists  $r > 0$  such that  $\|x_0 - \bar{x}\| < r \Rightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k \rightarrow \bar{x}$

## IV.2 - Stability of Equilibrium States

$$x_{k+1} = A x_k \quad x_0 \neq 0 \quad \longrightarrow \quad x_k = A^k x_0$$

We have

$$x_k = A^k x_0 = M \Lambda^k M^{-1} x_0$$

- For distinct eigenvalues

$$M = [v_1 \cdots v_n] \quad M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1^T \\ \vdots \\ w_n^T \end{bmatrix} \quad e^{\Lambda t} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_k = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i \lambda_i^k w_i^T x_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n N_i x_0 \lambda_i^k$$

## IV.2 - Stability of Equilibrium States

- $A$  possesses  $r$  distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  and  $s$  Jordan blocks  $L_i$  and  $x_k = A^k x_0 = M J^k M^{-1} x_0$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} L_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & L_s \end{bmatrix} \quad L_j = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_j & 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \lambda_j \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J^k = \begin{bmatrix} L_1^k & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & L_s^k \end{bmatrix} \quad L_j^k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_j^k & \frac{k\lambda_j^{k-1}}{1!} & \frac{k(k-1)\lambda_j^{k-2}}{2!} & \cdots \\ & \lambda_j^k & \frac{k\lambda_j^{k-1}}{1!} & \ddots \\ & & \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_k = \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^k N_i(j) x_0 \lambda_i^k$$

## IV.2 - Stability of Equilibrium States

$$x_{k+1} = A x_k$$

$A$  :  $n \times n$  matrix, whose eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$ .

- ① Si  $\exists j \in \{1, \dots, r\}$  such that  $|\lambda_j| > 1$ , then  $\bar{x} = 0$  est instable.
- ② If  $\forall j = 1, \dots, r, |\lambda_j| \leq 1$ , then
  - (a) If  $\forall j = 1, \dots, r, |\lambda_j| < 1$ , then  $\bar{x} = 0$  is asymptotically stable,
  - (b) if  $\exists j \in \{1, \dots, r\}$  such that  $|\lambda_j| = 1$  and the multiplicity order of  $\lambda_j$  equal 1, then  $\bar{x} = 0$  is stable,
  - (c) if  $\exists j \in \{1, \dots, r\}$  such that  $|\lambda_j| = 1$  and the multiplicity order of  $\lambda_j$  is greater than 1,
    - ( $\alpha$ ) If the Jordan blocks associated with  $\lambda_j$  are scalar, then  $\bar{x} = 0$  is stable,
    - ( $\beta$ ) If  $\exists$  non scalar Jordan blocks associated with  $\lambda_j$ , then  $\bar{x} = 0$  is unstable.

## IV.2 - Stability of Equilibrium States

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0,5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0,25 \end{bmatrix}$$

$|\lambda_i| < 1$ . System asymptotically stable.

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$|\lambda_i| = 1$  distinct. Stable.

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\lambda_1 = 2 > 1$ . System unstable.

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\lambda = 1$  double . System unstable.

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## IV.3 - Algebraic Criteria: JURY Criterion

Consider a polynomial

$$P(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0$$

The *JURY criterion* gives a necessary and sufficient conditions for the modulus of the roots of  $P(z)$  to be strictly lower than unity. Its general formulation is complex. Here are the conditions for orders 2, 3 and 4.

$$n = 2 \quad \begin{cases} a_0 + a_1 + a_2 > 0 \\ a_0 - a_1 + a_2 > 0 \\ a_2 - a_0 > 0 \end{cases} \quad n = 3 \quad \begin{cases} a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 > 0 \\ -a_0 + a_1 - a_2 + a_3 > 0 \\ a_3 - |a_0| > 0 \\ a_0 a_2 - a_1 a_3 - a_0^2 + a_3^2 > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$n = 4 \quad \begin{cases} a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 > 0 \\ a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + a_4 > 0 \\ a_4^2 - a_0^2 - |a_0 a_3 - a_1 a_4| > 0 \\ (a_0 - a_4)^2 (a_0 - a_2 + a_4) + (a_1 - a_3)(a_0 a_3 - a_1 a_4) > 0 \end{cases}$$

## IV.3 - Algebraic Criteria: JURY Criterion

### EXAMPLE

$$x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -K & 0 & 0,25 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k$$

$$P(z) = \det(zI - A) = z^3 + (K - 0,75)z - 0,25$$

JURY Criterion

$$\begin{cases} a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 & = & K & > 0 \\ -a_0 + a_1 - a_2 + a_3 & = & K + 0,5 & > 0 \\ a_3 - |a_0| & = & 1 - 0,25 & > 0 \\ a_0 a_2 - a_1 a_3 - a_0^2 + a_3^2 & = & -K + 1,6875 & > 0 \end{cases}$$

Then  $0 < K < 1,6875$

## IV.3 - Algebraic Criteria: ROUTH Criterion

Introduce the bilinear transformation

$$z = \frac{1+w}{1-w} \implies w = \frac{z-1}{z+1}$$

If  $z = \alpha + j\beta$ , then

$$w = \frac{\alpha^2 + \beta^2 - 1 + 2j\beta}{(\alpha + 1)^2 + \beta^2}$$

We conclude that

$$|z| < 1 \iff \alpha^2 + \beta^2 < 1 \iff \Re(w) < 0$$

$P(z) \xrightarrow{\text{Bilinear Transformation}} Q(w)$ $  \text{Roots } P(z)   < 1 \Rightarrow \Re(\text{Roots } Q(w)) < 0$
--

It is possible to check the sign of the real part of roots of  $Q(w)$  by ROUTH criterion.

## IV.3 - Algebraic Criteria: ROUTH Criterion

### EXAMPLE (Continued)

$$P(z) = \det(zI - A) = z^3 + (K - 0,75)z - 0,25$$

$$Q(w) = w^3(K + 0,5) + w^2(3 - K) + w(4,5 - K) + K$$

ROUTH table :

$$\begin{array}{rcl} w^3 & K + 0,5 & 4,5 - K \\ w^2 & 3 - K & K \\ w^1 & \frac{-8K + 13,5}{3 - K} & \\ w^0 & K & \end{array}$$

Then by ROUTH criterion

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{lcl} K + 0,5 & > 0 \\ 3 - K & > 0 \\ 4,5 - K & > 0 \\ K & > 0 \\ -8K + 13,5 & > 0 \end{array} \right.$$

Then,  $0 < K < 1,6875$

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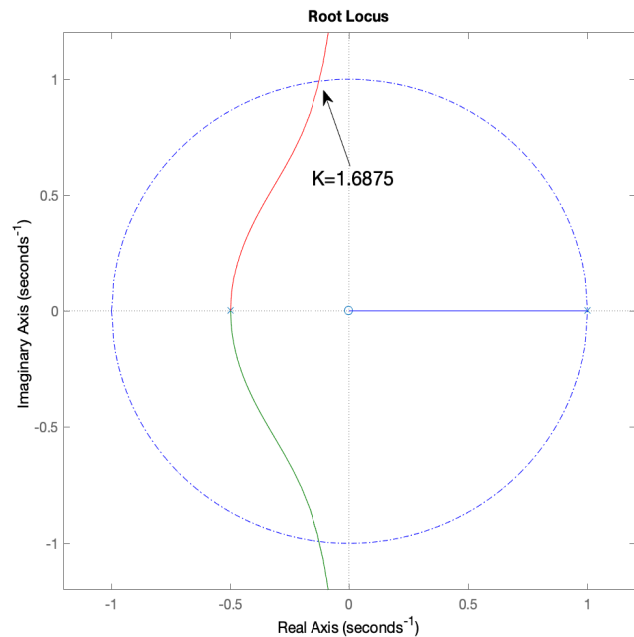
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## IV.4 - Root Locus

$$P(z) = z^3 + (K - 0,75)z - 0,25$$

$$1 + \frac{Kz}{(z-1)(z+0.5)} = 0$$

- The root locus can be used as for continuous-time systems
- Only the region of stability and the relations between poles values and associated dynamics change
- The simple rules to deduce approximately the root locus are summarized in classical courses on Control System Design (see for example the Pradin's et al. Book).
- The root locus can be obtained by efficient numerical tools (MATLAB for example)



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## IV.5 - Stability of Sampled-Data Systems: Open-Loop

Continuous-time Plant:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = A_c x(t) + B_c u(t) \\ y(t) = C_c x(t) \end{cases}$$

Sampled-data Model (*Remark  $A_c$  is invertible*):

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = e^{A_c T} x_k + A_c^{-1} (e^{A_c T} - I) B_c u_k \\ y_k = C_c x_k \end{cases}$$

N. S. Cond. Of Asymptotic Stab. :

$$\Re(\lambda_i) < 0 \quad \forall \lambda_i \in \text{Spectrum}(A_c)$$

N. S. Cond. Of Asymptotic Stab.

$$|\mu_i| < 1 \quad \forall \mu_i \in \text{Spectrum}(A)$$

We have the correspondance

$$\Re(\lambda_i) < 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |\mu_i| = |e^{\lambda_i T}| < 1$$

If the open-loop continuous-time system is asymptotically stable, Then the sampled-data system is also is asymptotically stable for all  $T > 0$

## IV.5 - Stability of Sampled-Data Systems: Closed-Loop

If the sampled-data system is in unitary feedback control structure, then

$$u_k = r_k - y_k = r_k - C_c x_k$$

where  $r_k$  is the reference signal. In closed loop, we have

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \mathcal{A} x_k + A_c^{-1} (e^{A_c T} - I) B_c r_k \\ y_k = C_c x_k \end{cases}$$

where

$$\mathcal{A} = e^{A_c T} - A_c^{-1} (e^{A_c T} - I) B_c C_c$$

The matrix  $\mathcal{A}$  is sampling-period dependent. The eigenvalues of  $\mathcal{A}$  are also sampling-period dependent and then stability property too.



## IV.5 - Stability of Sampled-Data Systems: Closed-Loop

### EXAMPLE

- Consider the continuous-time system

$$G(s) = \frac{K}{s(s+1)}$$

- If we put this system in unitary closed-feedback configuration, the closed-loop system is asymptotically stable for all  $K > 0$  (Show it).
- The sampled-data transfer function  $G(z)$  is (see Chapter II)

$$G(z) = \mathcal{Z} \left[ B_0(s) \frac{K}{s(s+1)} \right] = \frac{z-1}{z} \mathcal{Z} \left[ \frac{K}{s^2(s+1)} \right]$$

$$G(z) = K(e^{-T} - 1 + T) \frac{z-b}{(z-1)(z-e^{-T})}$$

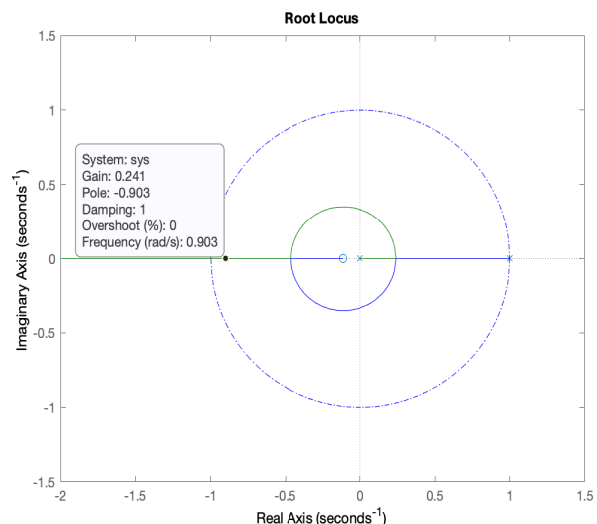
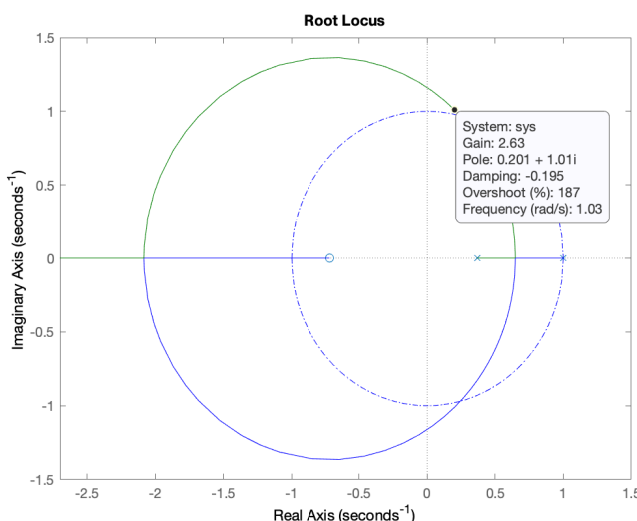
$$b = \frac{e^{-T}(T+1) - 1}{e^{-T} + T - 1}$$

## IV.5 - Stability of Sampled-Data Systems: Closed-Loop

### EXAMPLE (Continued)

The characteristic polynomial is given by

$$1 + G(z) = 1 + \frac{K(e^{-T} - 1 + T)(z-b)}{(z-1)(z-e^{-T})} = 0$$



Root Locus for  $T = 1s$  - Root Locus for  $T = 10s$

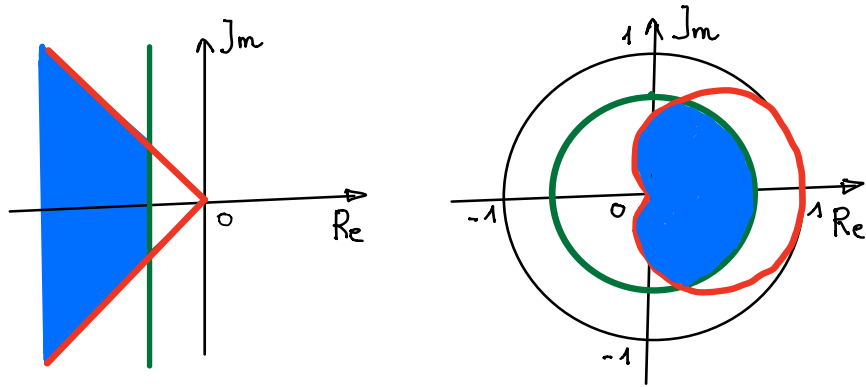
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## IV.6 - Notion of Mode

- For continuous-time systems
  - Real poles  $\lambda \rightarrow$  Aperiodic real mode
  - Complex poles  $\lambda, \bar{\lambda} \rightarrow$  Oscillatory complex mode
- For discrete-time systems
  - Real poles  $\lambda \rightarrow$  Real mode
    - $\nearrow$  Aperiodic if  $\lambda > 0$
    - $\searrow$  Oscillatory if  $\lambda < 0$
  - Complex poles  $\lambda, \bar{\lambda} \rightarrow$  Oscillatory complex mode

## IV.6 - Notion of Mode



Continuous-time

Sampled-time



$s_i$

$z_i$

$$\xrightarrow{e^{Ts_i}}$$

$$s_i = \alpha + j\omega$$

$$z_i = e^{Ts_i} = e^{T\alpha} e^{jT\omega} = e^{T\alpha} (\cos T\omega + j \sin T\omega)$$

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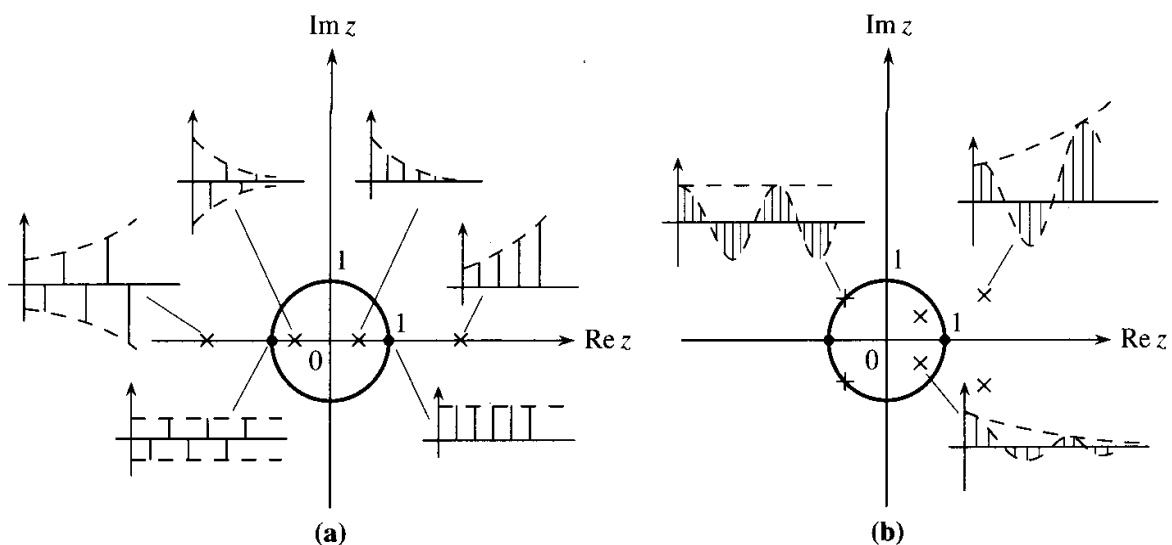
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DIGITAL CONTROL - Chapter IV

## IV.6 - Notion of Mode



Time Responses of Poles: a) Real mode, b) Complex mode  
(From C.T. Chen's Book)

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DIGITAL CONTROL - Chapter IV

## DIGITAL CONTROL

### Chapter V - Digital Implementation of Analog Compensators

The objectives of this chapter are

- To show how analog compensators can be used in the context of digital control
- To present some simple methods for a digital implementation of analog compensators

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Forward Discretization (*Euler's Method*)
- 3 Backward Discretization
- 4 Bilinear Approximation (*Tustin's approximation*)
- 5 Pole-Zero Matching Method
- 6 Digital PID Control
- 7 Zero-Order Hold
- 8 w-Transform Method
- 9 Example

## V.1 - Introduction

- In the context of linear time invariant systems, there exist several methods to design simple compensators largely used in industry (lead-lag , PID compensators for example).
- The idea is to see how they can be simply adapted in the context of digital control.
- The principle consists in designing an analog compensator whose transfer function is  $R_c(s)$ .
- Derive a discrete-time compensator  $R(z)$  which leads to a numerical algorithm implementable on a computer.
- A way consists in deriving approximated relations between Laplace variable  $s$  and variable  $z$ :  $s = f(z)$ . Then

$$R(z) = R_c(f(z)) = (R_c \circ f)(z)$$

- 1 Introduction
- 2 **Forward Discretization (Euler's Method)**
- 3 Backward Discretization
- 4 Bilinear Approximation (Tustin's approximation)
- 5 Pole-Zero Matching Method
- 6 Digital PID Control
- 7 Zero-Order Hold
- 8 w-Transform Method
- 9 Example

## V.2 - Forward Discretization

The derivative can be approximated as

$$\frac{dx}{dt} \approx \frac{x(t+T) - x(t)}{T}$$

Taking the Laplace transform, we have

$$sX(s) \approx \frac{\overbrace{e^{Ts}}^z - 1}{T} X(s)$$

Then, we obtain

$$s \approx \frac{z - 1}{T}$$

This approximation can also be obtained remarking that

$$\exp(Ts) \approx 1 + Ts$$

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## V.3 - Backward Discretization

The derivative can also be approximated as

$$\frac{dx}{dt} \approx \frac{x(t) - x(t - T)}{T}$$

Taking the Laplace transform, we have

$$sX(s) \approx \frac{1 - \overbrace{e^{-Ts}}^{z^{-1}}}{T} X(s)$$

Then, we obtain (*Euler's Method*)

$$s \approx \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{T} = \frac{z - 1}{Tz}$$

This approximation can also be obtained remarking that

$$\exp(Ts) = \frac{1}{e^{-Ts}} \approx \frac{1}{1 - Ts}$$

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## V.4 - Bilinear Approximation (*Tustin's approximation*)

If we consider

$$y(t) = \int_{\bullet}^t x(u) du = \int_{\bullet}^{t-T} x(u) du + \int_{t-T}^T x(u) du = y(t-T) + \int_{t-T}^T x(u) du$$

By *trapezoidal approximation* of the integral, we have

$$y(t) \approx y(t-T) + \frac{x(t-T) + x(t)}{2} T$$

Taking the Laplace transform, we have

$$Y(s) \approx e^{-Ts} Y(s) + \frac{e^{-Ts} + 1}{2} T X(s) \Rightarrow Y(s) = \frac{1}{s} X(s) \approx \frac{T}{2} \frac{1 + e^{-Ts}}{1 - e^{-Ts}} X(s) = \frac{T}{2} \frac{1 + z^{-1}}{1 - z^{-1}} X(s)$$

And then

$$s \approx \frac{2}{T} \frac{z-1}{z+1}$$

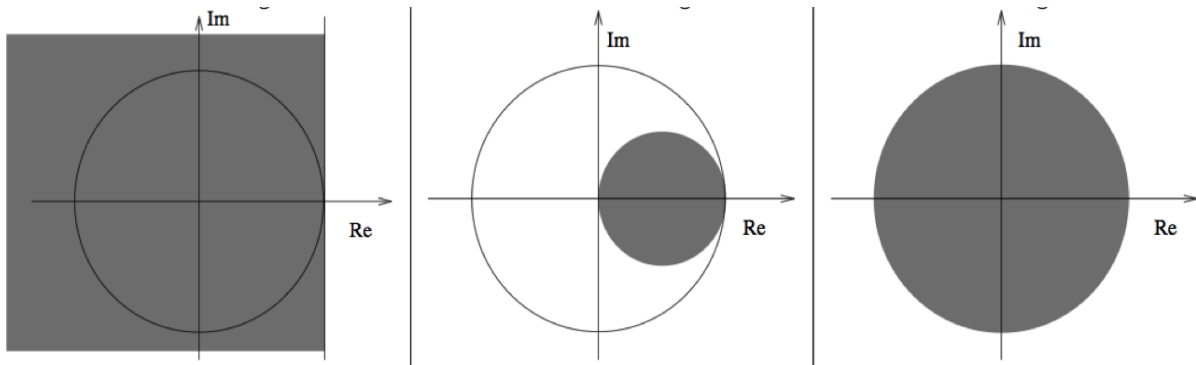
it can also be obtained remarking that

$$z = e^{Ts} = \frac{e^{Ts/2}}{e^{-Ts/2}} \approx \frac{1 + Ts/2}{1 - Ts/2}$$



## V.4 - Bilinear Approximation (*Tustin's approximation*)

The following figure shows how the stability region  $\Re(s) < 0$  in the  $s$ -plane is mapped onto the  $z$ -plane for the approximations above.



Forward Approximation

Backward Approximation

Bilinear Approximation

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## V.5 - Pole-Zero Matching Method

- The idea is to transform the poles and zeros of the compensator using the transformation

$$z = e^{Ts}$$

- Care is needed to preserve the static gain ( $s = 0$ ) and the gain at high frequencies ( $s \rightarrow \infty$ ). The static gain for discrete-time system is the gain for  $z = 1$  and the gains at high frequencies is the gains for  $z = -1$ .

### EXAMPLES

Consider the continuous-time compensator

$$R(s) = \frac{s + a}{s + b}$$

Applying the pole-zero matching method, the discrete-time compensator is

$$R(z) = \underbrace{\frac{a}{b} \frac{1 - e^{-bT}}{1 - e^{-aT}}}_{\text{To preserve DC- gain}} \frac{z - e^{-aT}}{z - e^{-bT}}$$

Remark that the high gain is not preserved for this example.

## V.5 - Pole-Zero Matching Method

### EXAMPLES (Continued)

Consider another continuous-time compensator

$$R(s) = \frac{s + a}{(s + b)(s + c)}$$

Applying the pole-zero matching method, the discrete-time compensator is

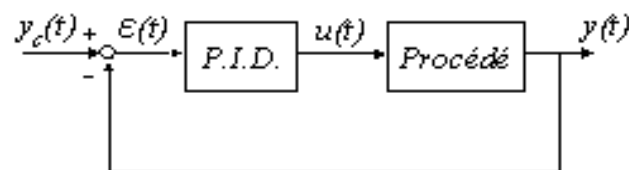
$$R(z) = \underbrace{\frac{a}{2bc} \frac{(1 - e^{-bT})(1 - e^{-cT})}{1 - e^{-aT}}}_{\text{To preserve DC- gain}} \underbrace{(z + 1)}_{\text{To preserve high-gain}} \frac{z - e^{-aT}}{(z - e^{-bT})(z - e^{-cT})}$$

The term  $z + 1$  is zero for  $z = -1$  and then the high gain is preserved because for the continuous-time regulator, the high gain is zero ( $s \rightarrow \infty$ ).

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## V.6 - Digital PID Control

Consider the following closed-loop system



An analog PID can be written as

$$u(t) = k_p \varepsilon(t) + \frac{k_p}{\tau_i} \int_0^t \varepsilon(t) dt + k_p \tau_d \frac{d\varepsilon(t)}{dt}$$

Using backward-approximation, it can be numerically approximated by

$$u_k = k_p (\epsilon_k + \frac{T}{\tau_i} \sum_{j=0}^k \epsilon_j + \frac{\tau_d}{T} (\epsilon_k - \epsilon_{k-1})) = p_k + i_k + d_k$$

When the sampling period is small enough to invalidate the assumption of a negligible computing-time,  $\epsilon_k$  can be simply predicted using the prediction  $\hat{\epsilon}_k$  (linear extrapolation)

$$\hat{\epsilon}_k - \epsilon_{k-1} = \epsilon_{k-1} - \epsilon_{k-2} \rightarrow \hat{\epsilon} = 2\epsilon_{k-1} - \epsilon_{k-2}$$

## V.6 - Digital PID Control: Implementation

The PID is tuned as done classically for the analog version. In general, some adaptations can be considered to obtain a control better adapted for real situations.

- The proportional term is taken as

$$p = k_p (y_{ck} - y_k)$$

- The derivative part is

$$d_k = k_p \frac{\tau_d}{T} (-y_k + y_{k-1})$$

To limit the high frequency gain of the derivative term, the derivative  $k_p \tau_d s$  is approximate by

$$\frac{k_p \tau_d s}{1 + s \tau_d / N}$$

and the differential equation giving the approximated analog derivative term is

$$\frac{\tau_d}{N} \frac{dD}{dt} + D = -k_p \tau_d \frac{dy}{dt}$$

## V.6 - Digital PID Control: Implementation

A discretization by backward approximation leads to

$$d_k = \frac{\tau_d}{\tau_d + NT} d_{k-1} - \frac{k_p \tau_d N}{\tau_d + NT} (y_k - y_{k-1})$$

- The integral term is taken as

$$i_k = i_{k-1} + \frac{k_p T}{\tau_i} (y_{ck} - y_k) + \frac{T}{\tau_t} (u_{k-1} - v_{k-1})$$

where  $v_k$  is the input of the actuator and  $u_k$  its output. The signal  $u_k$  is measured and if a measure is not available, a model of actuator has to be included in the algorithm.  $\tau_t$  is called *the tacking-time constant*.

The last term  $\frac{T}{\tau_t} (u_{k-1} - v_{k-1})$  is only active when the actuator saturates. it can be seen as an additional loop which resets the integrator to an appropriate value with a time-constant  $\tau_t$ .

## V.6 - Digital PID Control: Implementation

### An example of implementation with MATLAB

```
% yck: reference
% yk measured output time k
% ykold: measured output time k-1
% dk: derivative term time k
% dkold: derivative term time k-1
% ik: integral term time k
% ikold: integral term time k-1
% T: sampling period
% uk: simulated output actuator (control)
% vk: PID output time k
% ukold, vkold: uk, vk time k-1

% Proportional term:
% kp: proportional gain

pk=kp*(yck-yk);

% Integral term:
% ti: Integration constant
% tt: tracking-time constant
ik=ikold+(kp*T/ti)*(yck-yk)+(T/tt)*(ukold-vkold);

% Derivative term:
% td: Derivation constant
% N: Maximal gain of derivative term

dk=(td/(td+N*T))*dkold-(kp*N*td/(td+N*T))*(yck-ykold);

% Action P.I.D.:
vk=pk+ik+dk

% Simulated actuator:
% umin et umax: saturation limits

if vk<umin
    uk=umin;
elseif vk>umax
    uk=umax;
else
    uk=vk;
end
```

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## V.7 - Zero-Order Hold

The techniques proposed above do not consider the presence of zero-order hold in the loop. To consider an approximated transfer function, we can remark that the zero-order hold introduces an average delay equal to  $T/2$ . In fact, we have

$$B_0(s) = \frac{1 - e^{-Ts}}{s} = e^{-Ts/2} \frac{e^{Ts/2} - e^{-Ts/2}}{s} \approx T e^{-\frac{Ts}{2}}$$

The method consists in applying the continuous-time design techniques using a modified open-loop transfer function

$$G_o(s) = e^{-\frac{Ts}{2}} G(s)$$

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## V.8 - w-Transform Method

The method can be summarized as

- 1 Determination of the z-transfer function

$$G(z) = \mathcal{Z}(B_0(s)G_c(s))$$

- 2 Obtain the w-transfer function using

$$z = \frac{1+w}{1-w} \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad w = \frac{z-1}{z+1}$$

and

$$G(z) \longrightarrow G_m(w) = G_c\left(\frac{1+w}{1-w}\right)$$

- 3 Design a control law  $R_m(w)$  using the model  $G_m(w)$ .
- 4 The digital control law is obtained by

$$R(z) = R_m\left(\frac{z-1}{z+1}\right)$$

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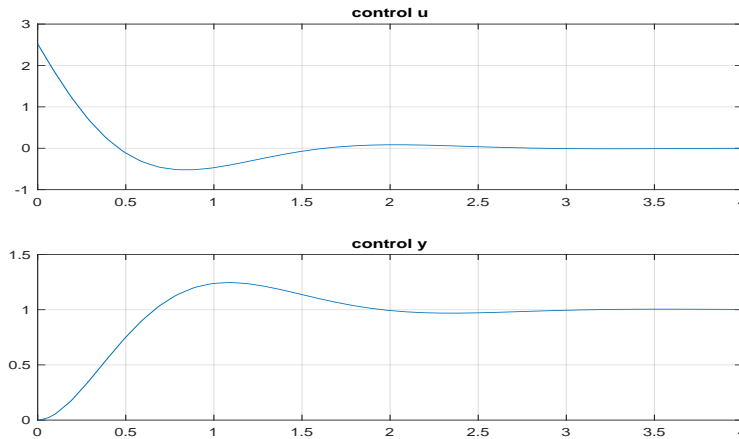
## V.9 - Example

Consider the following system

$$G(s) = \frac{5}{s(s+1)}$$

The gain has been selected equal to 5 to guarantee some steady-state performances (ramp). A phase lead compensator leading to a phase margin of 45 degrees is given by

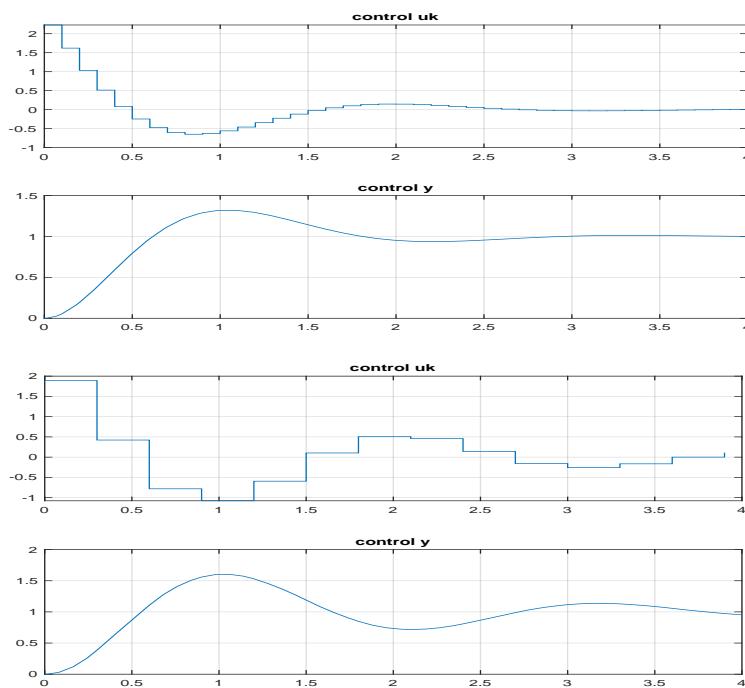
$$R(s) = \frac{1 + 0,53s}{1 + 0,21s}$$



Method	Sampling Period $T = 0,1\text{ s}$	Sampling Period $T = 0,3\text{ s}$
Forward Method: $s = \frac{z-1}{T}$	$R(z) = \frac{2,52z - 2,05}{z - 0,52}$	$R(z) = \frac{2,52z - 1,09}{z + 0,43}$
Backward Method: $s = \frac{z-1}{zT}$	$R(z) = \frac{2,03z - 1,71}{z - 0,68}$	$R(z) = \frac{1,63z - 1,04}{z - 0,41}$
Tustin : $s = \frac{T}{2} \frac{z+1}{z-1}$	$R(z) = \frac{2,23z - 1,85}{z - 0,61}$	$R(z) = \frac{1,89z - 1,06}{z - 0,17}$
Matched pole-zero	$R(z) = \frac{2,20z - 1,8}{z - 0,62}$	$R(z) = \frac{1,76z - 0,99}{z - 0,24}$
Zero-order hold Approx.		$R(z) = \frac{3z - 1,8}{z + 0,2}$
w-Transform		$R(z) = \frac{2,72z - 1,57}{z + 0,15}$

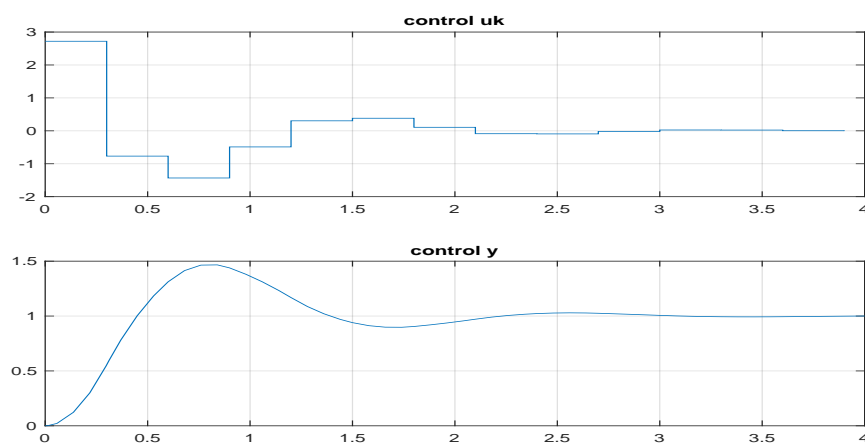


## V.9 - Example: Tustin Approximation



Tustin Approximation: top:  $T=0.1s$ , bottom:  $T=0.3s$

## V.9 - Example: Tustin Approximation



$w$ -Transform Method:  $T=0.3s$

# DIGITAL CONTROL

## Chapter VI - State-Space Control Design

The objectives of this chapter are

- Introduce the control design method when a discrete-time state-space model is available
- Consider the case where the state is measurable and develop the associated control, a state feedback control
- Discuss the case where only an output is measurable and present the state feedback/observer control structure

## 1 Introduction

## 2 State Feedback

## 3 State Reconstruction

## 4 Output Feedback Control: State-Feedback/Observer Control

## VI.1 - Introduction

- When a state-space model is available, the state provides a complete knowledge about the system.
- It can be used for control purpose if it is a measurable quantity (if there exist the adequate sensors).
- If the state is not measurable, an output is generally measured and because there is fewer outputs than states, we call the problem *a partial information control*
- In that case, one possibility is to implement a state feedback where the state is replaced by an appropriate reconstructed signal

- 1 Introduction
- 2 State Feedback
- 3 State Reconstruction
- 4 Output Feedback Control: State-Feedback/Observer Control

## V.2 - State Feedback: Pole Placement

Consider the following system

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = A x_k + B u_k \\ y_k = C x_k \end{cases}$$

A state feedback control is defined by

$$u_k = -L x_k + l_c y_{ck}$$

where  $y_{ck}$  is the reference signal,  $l_c$  is a gain used to impose a closed-loop static gain and  $L = [l_0 \ l_1 \ \dots \ l_{n-1}]$  is the state feedback gain. Then, the closed-loop system is

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = (A - B L) x_k + B l_c y_{ck} \\ y_k = C x_k \end{cases}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Pole Placement From Controllability Form

### Open-Loop System (Canonical Controllability Form)

The open-loop characteristic polynomial is

$$P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \cdots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n$$

and the controllability canonical form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 & \cdots & -a_{n-2} & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}'$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 & b_1 & \cdots & b_{n-2} & b_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Pole Placement From Controllability Form

### Closed-Loop System

The desired closed-loop characteristic polynomial is

$$\Psi(z) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 z + \cdots + \alpha_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n$$

and the closed-loop state-space model matrices are

$$A - BL = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & & 1 \\ -\alpha_0 & -\alpha_1 & \cdots & -\alpha_{n-2} & -\alpha_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Bl_c = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & l_c \end{bmatrix}'$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 & b_1 & \cdots & b_{n-2} & b_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\alpha_i = a_i + l_i \quad i = 0, \dots, n-1$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Pole Placement From Controllability Form

### State-Feedback and $l_c$ Gains Computation

The control gain is given by

$$l_i = \alpha_i - a_i \quad \forall i = 0 \dots n-1$$

### Closed-Loop transfer function

The closed-loop transfer function follows

$$\begin{aligned} G_F(z) &= \frac{l_c (b_0 + b_1 z + \dots + b_{n-1} z^{n-1})}{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 z + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n} \\ &= C (zI_n - A + B L)^{-1} B l_c \end{aligned}$$

and the gain  $l_c$  can be used to select an appropriate closed-loop static gain

$$\begin{aligned} G_F(1) &= \frac{l_c (b_0 + b_1 + \dots + b_{n-1})}{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} + 1} \\ &= C (I_n - A + B L)^{-1} B l_c \end{aligned}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Pole Placement For Any Form

### ALGORITHM

- 1 Open-Loop Characteristic Polynomial

$$P(z) = \det(zI_n - A) = z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0$$

- 2 Feedback-gain for the controllability canonical form

$$\tilde{L} = [\tilde{l}_0 \quad \tilde{l}_1 \quad \dots \quad \tilde{l}_{n-1}] \quad \text{with } \tilde{l}_i = \alpha_i - a_i \quad \forall i = 0, \dots, n-1$$

- 3 Matrix  $M$  leading to the controllability canonical form

$$M = [m_1 \quad \dots \quad m_n]$$

$$m_n = B$$

$$m_{n-1} = (A + a_{n-1} I_n) B$$

$$m_{n-2} = (A^2 + a_{n-1} A + a_{n-2} I_n) B$$

...

$$m_1 = (A^{n-1} + a_{n-1} A^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 I_n) B$$

- 4 Feedback-gain for the original system

$$L = \tilde{L} M^{-1}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Examples

### EXAMPLE 1

Consider the system

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

The sampling period is  $T = 1$ s. The resulting transfer function  $G(z)$  is

$$G(z) = \frac{0,3679z + 0,2642}{z^2 - 1,3679z + 0,3679}$$

and the controllability canonical form

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -0,3679 & 1,3679 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k &= \begin{bmatrix} 0,2642 & 0,3679 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

The desired closed-loop dynamic is

$$P_{A-BL}(z) = z^2$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Examples

### EXAMPLE 1 (Continued)

The associated state-feedback gain is

$$L = [\alpha_0 - a_0 \quad \alpha_1 - a_1] = [-0,3679 \quad 1,3679]$$

and the closed-loop transfer function

$$\frac{Y(z)}{Y_c(z)} = G_F(z) = l_c \frac{0,3679z + 0,2642}{z^2}$$

To obtain a closed-loop static gain equal to 1, we impose

$$G(1) = 1 \Rightarrow 0,6321 \times l_c = 1 \Rightarrow l_c = 1,582$$

The state-feedback control law is

$$u_k = -[-0,3679 \quad 1,3679] x_k + 1,582 y_{ck}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Examples

### EXAMPLE 2

Consider a sampled system described by the state-space model

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0,55 & 0,12 \\ 0 & 0,67 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0,01 \\ 0,16 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

The characteristic polynomial is

$$P(z) = z^2 - 1,22z + 0,37 = z^2 + \alpha_1 z + \alpha_0$$

Suppose that the desired closed-loop polynomial is (roots  $0.3150 + 0.3328i - 0.3150 - 0.3328i$ )

$$\psi(z) = z^2 - 0,63z + 0,21 = z^2 + \alpha_1 z + \alpha_0$$

The change of coordinate transforming the original state-space model into the controllability canonical form is given by

$$M = [A B + \alpha_1 B \quad B] = M = \begin{bmatrix} 0,0184 & 0,0100 \\ 0,0064 & 0,1600 \end{bmatrix}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Examples

### EXAMPLE 2 (Continued)

The state feedback gain associated with the controllability canonical form is

$$\tilde{L} = [\alpha_0 - a_0 \quad \alpha_1 - a_1] = [-0,16 \quad 0,59]$$

and its expression for the original state-space model is

$$L = \tilde{L} M^{-1} = [9,22 \quad 3,11]$$

The resulting closed-loop static gain is

$$G_F(1) = C (I_2 - A + B L)^{-1} B l_c = 0,0388 l_c$$

To have a static gain equal to 1,  $l_c = 1/0,0388 = 25,78$ . The complete control law becomes

$$u_k = -[9,22 \quad 3,11] x_k + 25,78 y_{ck}$$



## VI.2 - State Feedback: Examples

### EXAMPLE 3

We can also proceed by direct identification. Consider the unstable system

$$x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k$$

Find the state feedback gain  $L = [l_0 \quad l_1]$  such that the eigenvalues of the closed-loop system are  $1/2$  and  $1/4$ . We have

$$A - BL = A - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} [l_0 \quad l_1] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -l_0 & 2-l_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, the closed-loop characteristic polynomial

$$P(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A + BL) = \lambda^2 + (l_1 - 3)\lambda + 2 + l_0 - l_1$$

By direct identification with

$$\psi(\lambda) = (\lambda - 1/2)(\lambda - 1/4) = \lambda^2 - 3/4\lambda + 1/8$$

we obtain

$$L = [19/8 \quad 9/4]$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Structural condition

What are the structural conditions such that the pole placement problem be solvable?

- The problem is solvable if and only if the pair  $(A, B)$  is controllable
- A necessary and sufficient condition for controllability of pair  $(A, B)$  is (Kalman criterion)

$$\text{Rank}([B \quad A^2B \quad \dots \quad A^{n-1}B]) = \dim(x) = n$$

- If the system is not controllable, a stabilizing state-feedback exists if the system is *stabilizable*
- A pair  $(A, B)$  is stabilizable if the uncontrollable modes are asymptotically stable ( $|\lambda| < 1$ )

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Structural condition

### EXAMPLE

Consider the unstable system

$$x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_k$$

Find a state feedback  $L = [l_0 \quad l_1]$  to place the closed-loop eigenvalues at  $1/2$  and  $1/2$ . We have

$$A - BL = A - \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} [l_0 \quad l_1] = \begin{bmatrix} l_0 + 2 & l_1 + 1 \\ -l_0 & 1 - l_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the closed-loop characteristic polynomial is

$$\begin{aligned} P(\lambda) &= \det(\lambda I - A + BL) \\ &= \lambda^2 + (l_1 - l_0 - 3)\lambda + 2l_0 - 2l_1 + 2 = (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - l_0 + l_1 - 1) \end{aligned}$$

Identification with  $\psi(\lambda) = (\lambda - 1/2)^2 = \lambda^2 - \lambda + 1/4$  is impossible. In fact, the system is not controllable. The eigenvalue 2 is not controllable (*Show it*)

$$[B \ AB] = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## VI.2 - State Feedback: Matlab Procedure

- The function  $L = \text{place}(A, B, \text{lambda})$  can be used to determine the gain  $L$  placing the closed-loop eigenvalues contained in the vector  $\text{lambda}$  if the pair  $(A, B)$  is controllable. For the example 2,
  - »  $A = [0.55 \ 0.12; \ 0 \ 0.67]; \ B = [0.01; \ 0.16];$
  - »  $\text{lambda} = [0.3150 + 0.3328i \ -0.3150 - 0.3328i];$
  - »  $L = \text{place}(A, B, \text{lambda})$
- An important condition is that the closed-loop eigenvalues be selected different even if from a theoretically point of view, multiple eigenvalues can be selected.

## 1 Introduction

## 2 State Feedback

## 3 State Reconstruction

## 4 Output Feedback Control: State-Feedback/Observer Control

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction

When the state is not measurable, it is not possible to implement a state-feedback control law. In many situations, the only available information is an output. Consider the following system

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = A x_k + B u_k \\ y_k = C x_k \end{cases}$$

The objective is to obtain an information about the state from the knowledge of the output  $y_k$ , the control  $u_k$  and the state-space model  $(A, B, C)$ . The case  $D \neq 0$  can be considered defining a new output  $z_k = y_k - D u_k$ . A dynamical system exploiting all the available information is given by

$$\begin{cases} \hat{x}_{k+1} = \underbrace{A \hat{x}_k + B u_k}_{\text{model}} + \underbrace{H(y_k - \hat{y}_k)}_{\text{correction term}} \\ \hat{y}_k = \underbrace{C \hat{x}_k}_{\text{estimated output}} \end{cases}$$

where the design parameter is the gain  $H$ . This system is called a *state reconstructor* or an *observer*.  $\hat{x}_k$  is called the *reconstructed state*.

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction

To evaluate the performance of such a system, we define *the reconstruction error*

$$\epsilon_k = \hat{x}_k - x_k$$

Its dynamic can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_{k+1} &= \hat{x}_{k+1} - x_{k+1} \\ &= A \hat{x}_k + B u_k + H C (x_k - \hat{x}_k) - A x_k - B u_k \\ &= (A - LC) \epsilon_k\end{aligned}$$

If the initial error of reconstruction is  $\epsilon_0$ , then we have

$$\epsilon_k = (A - LC)^k \epsilon_0$$

If all the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  of  $A - LC$  are such that  $|\lambda_i| < 1$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_k = 0$$

and  $\hat{x}_k \rightarrow x_k$  when  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . The state is asymptotically reconstructed.

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction: From Observability Form

### Observer

The open-loop characteristic polynomial is

$$P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n$$

and the closed-loop state-space model matrices are

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \begin{bmatrix} -a_{n-1} & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -a_{n-2} & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ -a_1 & & & & 1 \\ -a_0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ B &= \begin{bmatrix} b_{n-1} & b_{n-2} & \dots & b_1 & b_0 \end{bmatrix}' \\ C &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction: From Observability Form

The desired closed-loop characteristic polynomial is

$$\phi(z) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z + \cdots + \beta_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n$$

and the closed-loop state-space model matrices are

$$A - HC = \begin{bmatrix} -\beta_{n-1} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -\beta_{n-2} & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ -\beta_1 & & & & 1 \\ -\beta_0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H = [h_{n-1} \quad h_{n-2} \quad \cdots \quad h_1 \quad h_0] \quad (1)$$

where

$$\beta_i = a_i + h_i \quad i = 0, \dots, n-1$$

The observer gain H is easily obtained

$$h_i = \beta_i - a_i \quad \forall i = 0 \dots n-1$$

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction: For Any Form

### ALGORITHM

- 1 Open-Loop Characteristic Polynomial

$$P(z) = \det(zI_n - A) = z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0$$

- 2 Observer-gain for the observability canonical form

$$\check{H} = [\check{h}_{n-1} \quad \cdots \quad \check{h}_1 \quad \check{h}_0]' \quad \text{with } \check{h}_i = \beta_i - a_i \quad \forall i = 0, \dots, n-1$$

- 3 Matrix M leading to the observability canonical form

$$M_o = ([m_1 \quad \cdots \quad m_n]')^{-1}$$

$$m_n = C'$$

$$m_{n-1} = (A' + a_{n-1} I_n) C'$$

$$m_{n-2} = ((A')^2 + a_{n-1} A' + a_{n-2} I_n) C'$$

...

$$m_1 = ((A')^{n-1} + a_{n-1} (A')^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1 I_n) C'$$

- 4 Observer-gain for the original system

$$H = M_o \check{H}$$

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction: For Any Form

### EXAMPLE 2 (Previous Paragraph)

Consider the sampled system described by the state-space model ( $T = 1s$ )

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0,55 & 0,12 \\ 0 & 0,67 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0,01 \\ 0,16 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ y_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_k \end{cases}$$

The characteristic polynomial is

$$P(z) = z^2 - 1,22z + 0,37 = z^2 + a_1 z + a_0$$

Suppose that the desired closed-loop polynomial is (roots 0.5, 0.6)

$$\varphi(z) = P_{A-HC}(z) = (z - 0,5)(z - 0,6) = z^2 - 1,1z + 0,3$$

The matrix of transformation  $M_o$  :

$$M_o = ([C' \quad A'C' + a_1 C']')^{-1}$$

$$M_o = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 5,5833 & 8,3333 \end{bmatrix}$$

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction: For Any Form

### EXAMPLE 2 (Continued)

Observer gain for observation canonical form is given by

$$\check{H} = [\beta_1 - a_1 \quad \beta_0 - a_0]' = [0,12 \quad -0,0685]'$$

The gain for the original system is then

$$H = M_o \check{H} = [0,12 \quad 0,0992]'$$

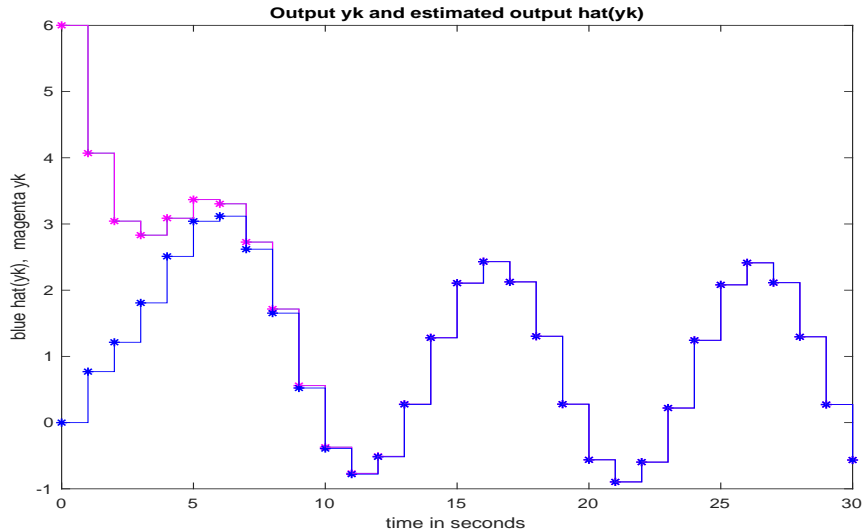
The observer equations are given by

$$\begin{cases} \hat{x}_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0,43 & 0,12 \\ -0,0992 & 0,67 \end{bmatrix} \hat{x}_k + \begin{bmatrix} 0,01 \\ 0,16 \end{bmatrix} u_k \\ \quad + \begin{bmatrix} 0,12 \\ 0,0992 \end{bmatrix} y_k \\ \hat{y}_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \hat{x}_k \end{cases}$$

## VI.3 - State Reconstruction: For Any Form

### EXAMPLE 2 (Continued)

For an input given by  $u_k = 5 + 30 \sin(0.2\pi k)$ ,  $T = 1s$  and initial condition  $x_0 = [6 \ 0]'$ , the following figure represents the output  $y_k$  and the estimated output  $\hat{y}_k$ .



Output  $y_k$  and estimated output  $\hat{y}_k$

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## VI.4 - Output Feedback Control: State-Feedback/Observer Control

If only an output is measurable, the following control law can be implemented (state/feedback/observer control)

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = A x_k + B u_k \\ y_k = C x_k \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} \hat{x}_{k+1} = A \hat{x}_k + B u_k + H(y_k - C \hat{x}_k) \\ \epsilon_{k+1} = \hat{x}_{k+1} - x_{k+1} \end{cases}$$

$$u_k = -L \hat{x}_k + l_c y_{ck}$$

The closed-loop system is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{k+1} \\ \epsilon_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A - BL & -BL \\ 0 & A - HC \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ \epsilon_k \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} Bl_c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} y_{ck}$$

$$y_k = [C \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ \epsilon_k \end{bmatrix}$$

## VI.4 - Output Feedback Control: State-Feedback/Observer Control

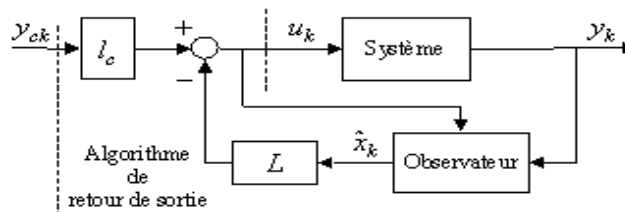
- The closed-loop system is of order  $2n$  and the closed-loop poles are the poles of  $(A - BL)$  et  $(A - HC)$
- There is a separation, *the separation principle*, which *a priori* ensures that the design of the state-feedback can be done independently of the design of the observer.
- A simple calculation shows that we have

$$\frac{Y(z)}{Y_c(z)} = C(zI_n - A + BL)^{-1} B l_c$$

- The dynamic of the observer is not affected by the reference signal  $y_{ck}$  (uncontrollable). But the dynamic of the observer is observable from the output  $y_k$ .
- This suggests that the dynamic of the observer has to be selected faster than the state-feedback dynamic (dominance), in general between 3 and 10 times faster. But...



## VI.4 - Output Feedback Control: Algorithm



$$\begin{cases} u_k = -L \hat{x}_k + l_c y_{ck} \\ \hat{x}_{k+1} = (A - HC) \hat{x}_k + B u_k + H y_k \end{cases}$$

Replacing  $u_k$  in the first equation, we have

$$\hat{x}_{k+1} = (A - HC - BL) \hat{x}_k + B l_c y_{ck} + H y_k$$

Then

$$U(z) = -L[zI_n - (A - HC - BL)]^{-1} H Y(z) + [1 - L[zI_n - (A - HC - BL)]^{-1} B] l_c Y_c(z)$$

And

$$U(z) = -R_1(z) Y(z) + R_2(z) Y_c(z)$$

From the previous equation, the algorithm (difference equation) involving  $y_{ck}$ ,  $y_k$  and  $u_k$  can be deduced.

## VI.4 - Output Feedback Control: State-Feedback/Observer Control

- Suppose that the real system can exactly described by

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= (A + \Delta A)x + (B + \Delta B)u \\ y &= (C + \Delta C)x \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Delta A$ ,  $\Delta B$  and  $\Delta C$  represent model uncertainties.

- The closed-loop system in this case is described by

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{X} &= \begin{bmatrix} (A + \Delta A) - (B + \Delta B)L & -(B + \Delta B)L \\ \Delta A - H \Delta C - \Delta B L & A - HC + \Delta B L \end{bmatrix} X + \begin{bmatrix} (B + \Delta B)l_c \\ -\Delta B l_c \end{bmatrix} y_c \\ y &= \begin{bmatrix} C + \Delta C & 0 \end{bmatrix} X \end{aligned}$$

The separation principle is not valid and we have to take into account the uncertainties.

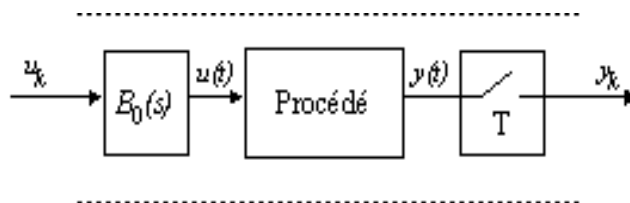
- The idea is to derive a model for uncertainties
- Several approaches exist using norms of matrices ( $\|\Delta A\| \leq \alpha$ )
- Other approaches suppose specific forms for uncertainties (polytopic, norm-bounded...). See *Robust Control Literature*.



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## VII.1 - Introduction

Consider the transfer function of a linear sampled-data system described in the following figure.

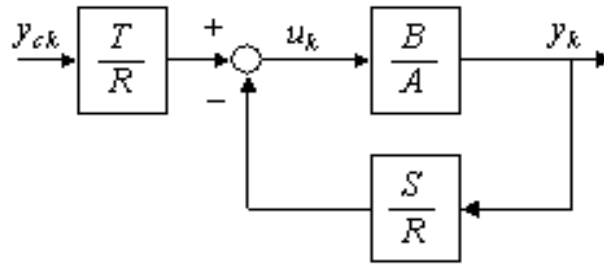


- The z-transfert function is given by

$$G(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)}, \quad \deg(A) = n$$

- Recall that  $A(z)$  and  $B(z)$  are prime polynomials. If not,  $G(z)$  is not the transfer function and the commun terms have to be simplified, revealing a lost of controllability or observability.

## VII.1 - Introduction



The proposed algorithm is a two-degree-of-freedom control expressed as

$$\mathbf{R}(z) \mathbf{U}(z) = \mathbf{T}(z) \mathbf{Y}_c(z) - \mathbf{S}(z) \mathbf{Y}(z)$$

or

$$u(z) = -\frac{S(z)}{R(z)}Y(z) + \frac{T(z)}{R(z)}Y_c(z)$$

and

$$C_T(z) = \frac{T(z)}{R(z)} \text{ and } C_R(z) = \frac{S(z)}{R(z)}$$

$$\deg(R) \geq \deg(T), \quad \deg(R) \geq \deg(S)$$

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## VII.3 - Regulation: Conditions of Rejection

Consider the perturbation (z-transform)

$$W(z) = \frac{N_W(z)}{D_W(z)}$$

- Remark that the closed-loop transfer functions involved in the reject of perturbations are

$$\frac{B(z)R(z)}{A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)} \text{ and } \frac{A(z)R(z)}{A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)}$$

then involving the controller  $C_R(z)$  or polynomials  $R(z)$  and  $S(z)$ .

- To solve the regulation problem, the role of  $R(z)$  has to be investigated because it appears in the two numerators.
- The dynamic of regulation is determined by  $A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)$ . If  $P(z)$  is the polynomial associated to the dynamic of regulation, under what generic conditions  $R(z)$  and  $S(z)$  satisfying the polynomial equation

$$A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z) = P(z)$$

exist?

## VII.3 - Regulation: Conditions of Rejection

- The contribution of the perturbations on the output are described by

$$Y(z) = S_j(z)W(z) = \frac{N_j(z)}{P(z)} \frac{N_W(z)}{D_W(z)}, j = A, B$$

where  $N_A(z) = A(z)R(z)$  and  $N_B(z) = B(z)R(z)$ .

- The perturbations will be rejected in steady state if the poles of  $D_W(z)$  are compensated by the numerators  $N_j(z)$ ,  $j = A, B$ .
  - If the roots of  $D_W(z)$  are not in the set of roots of  $A(z)$  and  $B(z)$ , a way to reject the perturbations is to include them in the polynomial  $R(z)$  associated with the controller.
  - In such a case,  $R(z)$  is selected as

$$R(z) = D_W(z)R_1(z)$$

- The conclusion is that for rejecting a perturbation, its model has to be present in the open-loop transfer function (*Internal Model Principle*).

## VII.3 - Regulation: Conditions of Rejection

### EXAMPLES

- If the perturbation is a step signal (bias), we have

$$D_W(z) = z - 1$$

- If the perturbation signal is of order  $l$

$$D_W(z) = (z - 1)^l$$

- If the perturbation is periodic, for example a cos or a sin

$$D_W(z) = z^2 - 2z \cos(\omega T) + 1$$



## VII.3 - Regulation: Solving $P(z) = A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)$

The dynamic of regulation is defined by the polynomial

$$P(z) = A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)$$

where the degree of freedoms are  $R(z)$ ,  $S(z)$  and  $P(z)$ . Remark that the following properties are satisfied.

- If  $A(z)$  and  $B(z)$  have a common factor, the equation possesses a solution if the common factor divides  $P(z)$ .
- If  $R_0(z)$  and  $S_0(z)$  are solutions, then  $R(z) = R_0(z) + Q(z)B(z)$  and  $S(z) = S_0(z) - Q(z)A(z)$  are solutions for all arbitrary polynomial  $Q(z)$ . *(this can be verified by a direct substitution)*
- There is an infinite number of solutions, but there exists only one of minimal order such that

$$\deg(R) < \deg(B) \text{ or } \deg(S) < \deg(A)$$

## VII.3 - Regulation: Solving $P(z) = A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)$

- Remark that if  $\deg(S) \leq \deg(R)$  and  $\deg(B) < \deg(A)$ , we have

$$\deg(AR + BS) = \deg(AR) = \deg(P) \Rightarrow \deg(R) = \deg(P) - \deg(A)$$

Among the solutions  $S(z)$  such that  $\deg(S) < \deg(A)$ , we select the one such that

$$\deg(S) = \deg(A) - 1$$

and the condition  $\deg(R) \geq \deg(S)$  leads to

$$\deg(P) - \deg(A) \geq \deg(A) - 1 \Rightarrow \deg(P) \geq 2\deg(A) - 1$$

- Usually the polynomial  $P(z)$  is selected to exhibit a dominant dynamic  $P_{\text{dom}}(z)$  where  $\deg(P_{\text{dom}}) < \deg(P)$ . Then  $P(z)$  is selected as

$$P(z) = P_{\text{dom}}(z)P_{\text{aux}}(z)$$

where  $P_{\text{aux}}(z)$  is an auxiliary polynomial of appropriate dimension whose roots are non dominant with respect to the roots of  $P_{\text{dom}}(z)$ .

## VII.3 - Regulation: Solving $P(z) = A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)$

The general procedure to solve the regulation problem

**Step 1** - Select the dynamic of regulation

$$P(z) = P_{\text{dom}}(z)P_{\text{aux}}(z) \quad \deg(P) \geq 2 \deg(A) - 1$$

**Step 2** - Solve the Diophantine equation

$$A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z) = P(z)$$

where

$$\deg(R) = \deg(P) - \deg(A) \quad \deg(S) = \deg(A) - 1$$

The Diophantine equation can be solved by the two equivalent techniques

- By direct substitution and identification of polynomials
- By solving a linear system of equations

## VII.3 - Regulation: Solving $P(z) = A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)$

Consider a system of order  $n$ . The polynomials are explicitly defined by

$$A(z) = a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + \dots + a_nz^n$$

$$B(z) = b_0 + b_1z + b_2z^2 + \dots + b_nz^n$$

$$R(z) = r_0 + r_1z + r_2z^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}z^{n-1}$$

$$S(z) = s_0 + s_1z + s_2z^2 + \dots + s_{n-1}z^{n-1}$$

$$P(z) = p_0 + p_1z + p_2z^2 + \dots + p_{2n-1}z^{2n-1}$$



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## VII.4 - Tracking

In several practical problems, the objective is to track a specific reference signal  $y_{mk}$ . To formulate the problem in a general setting, it is possible to consider that the reference is the output of a model described by

$$Y_m(z) = G_m(z)Y_c(z) = \frac{B_m(z)}{A_m(z)}Y_c(z)$$

where  $Y_c(z)$  is a normalized signal (impulse, step  $\dots$ ).  $G_m(z)$  is called *the reference model* whose dynamic is in general slower than the dynamic of regulation. A classical example of such a model is given below

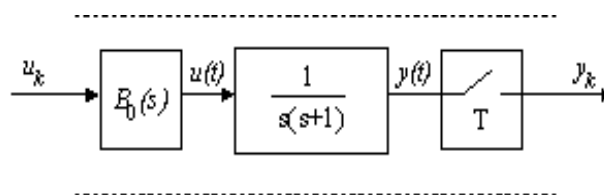
$$G_m(z) = \frac{b_{m0} + b_{m1}z}{a_{m0} + a_{m1}z + a_{m2}z^2}$$

This model can be obtained sampling a second order continuous-time system defined by damping  $\xi$  and frequency  $\omega_n$ .



## VII.5 - Example

Consider the system



The sampled transfer-function was obtained and is given

$$G(z) = \frac{K(z-b)}{(z-1)(z-a)} = \frac{K(z-b)}{z^2 - (a+1)z + a} = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} \quad (1)$$

with

$$K = e^{-T} - 1 + T \quad a = e^{-T} \quad b = 1 - \frac{T(1 - e^{-T})}{e^{-T} - 1 + T}$$

The dynamic of regulation is characterized by the dominant polynomial

$$P_{\text{dom}}(z) = z^2 + \alpha z + \beta$$



## VII.5 - Example: Continued

- The sampling period  $T$  has been selected equal to  $0.1s$ . The open-loop z-transfer function is

$$G(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)} = \frac{0,0048z + 0,0047}{z^2 - 1,9048z + 0,9048}$$

- For the regulation, the dominant dynamic is associated with a second order polynomial defined by parameters  $\zeta = 0,45$  and  $\omega_n = 5rd/s$  leading to the polynomial

$$z^2 - 1,4405z + 0,6376 = 0$$

- The characteristic of the tracking dynamic is associated with a second order polynomial defines by parameters  $\zeta = 0,7$  and  $\omega_n = 3rd/s$  leading to the reference model

$$\frac{B_m(z)}{A_m(z)} = \frac{0.0729}{z^2 - 1,5841z + 0,6570}$$

## VII.5 - Example: Continued

With the numerical values above  $K = 0.0048$ ,  $\alpha = 0.9048$ ,  $b = -0.9672$ ,  $\alpha = -1.4405$  and  $\beta = 0.6376$ . Then

$$R(z) = z + 0.1881, \quad S(z) = 57.10 z - 36.38$$

and the polynomial  $T(z)$  can be chosen to compensate the pole  $z = 0$  and guaranteeing a unitary static gain

$$T(z) = \frac{P(1)z}{B(1)} = 20.74 z$$

The controllers associated with the previous polynomials are

$$\frac{S(z)}{R(z)} = \frac{57.10 z - 36.38}{z + 0.1881}, \quad \frac{T(z)}{R(z)} = \frac{20.74 z}{z + 0.1881}$$

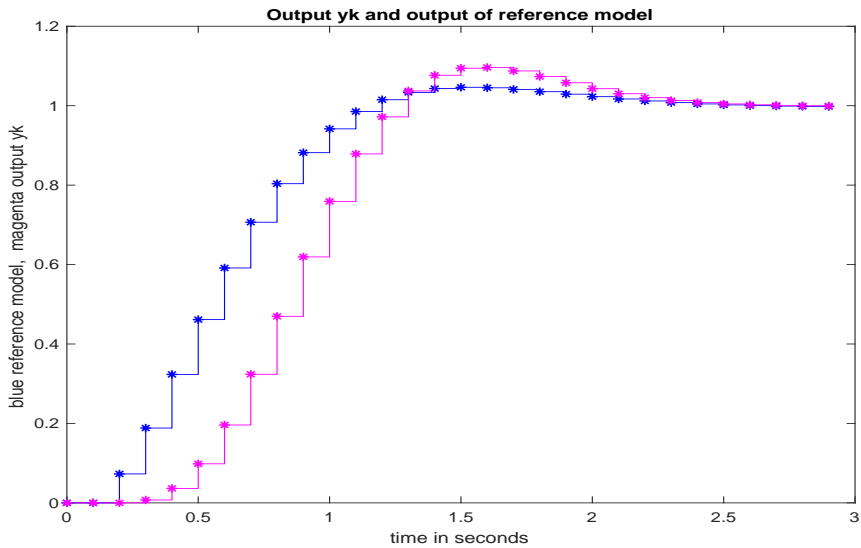
The closed-loop transfer function is

$$G_{BF}(z) = \frac{1,5120 z (0,0048 z + 0,0047)}{(z^2 - 1,4405z + 0,6376)(z^2 - 1,5841 z + 0,6570)}$$



## VII.5 - Example: Continued

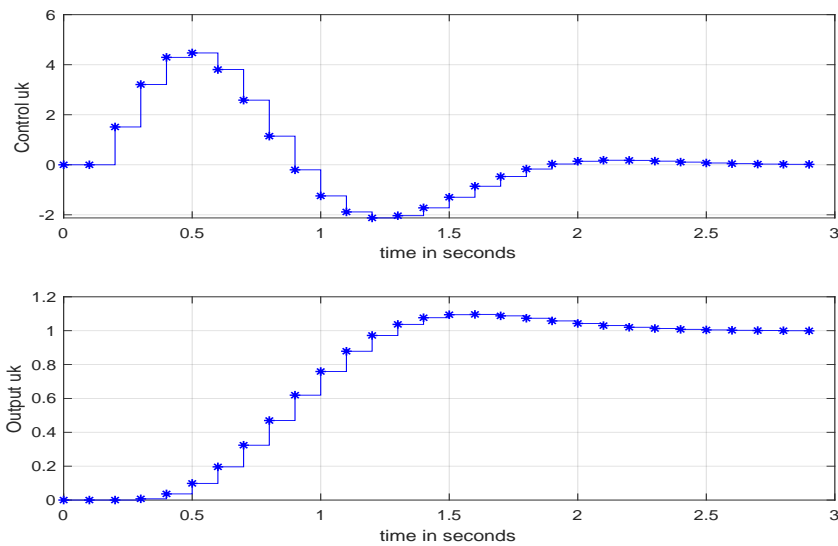
For the previous RST control, the system output is compared to the output of reference model.



Magenta: System Output, Blue: Reference Model Output

## VII.5 - Example: Continued

For the previous RST control, the control and the system output are represented in the following figure

Control  $u_k$  and System Output  $y_k$







- 1 Introduction
- 2 Tuning Method of RST digital Control
- 3 Regulation
- 4 Tracking
- 5 Example
- 6 Tracking and Regulation with Independent Objectives

## VII.6 - Tracking and Regulation with Independent Objectives

For plant with stable zeros, it is possible to use a strategy called *tracking and regulation with independent objectives*.

The closed-loop transfer function is given

$$G_{BF}(z) = \frac{B(z)T(z)}{A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)}$$

Then it is possible to include  $B(z)$  in the polynomial  $R(z)$ .  $R(z)$  is selected as

$$R(z) = B(z)R_1(z)$$

Replacing in the closed-loop transfer  $G_{BF}(z)$ , we have

$$G_{BF}(z) = \frac{B(z)T(z)}{A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)} = \frac{B(z)T(z)}{B(z)[A(z)R_1(z) + S(z)]} = \frac{B(z)T(z)}{B(z)P(z)} = \frac{T(z)}{P(z)}$$

## DIGITAL CONTROL - Chapter VII





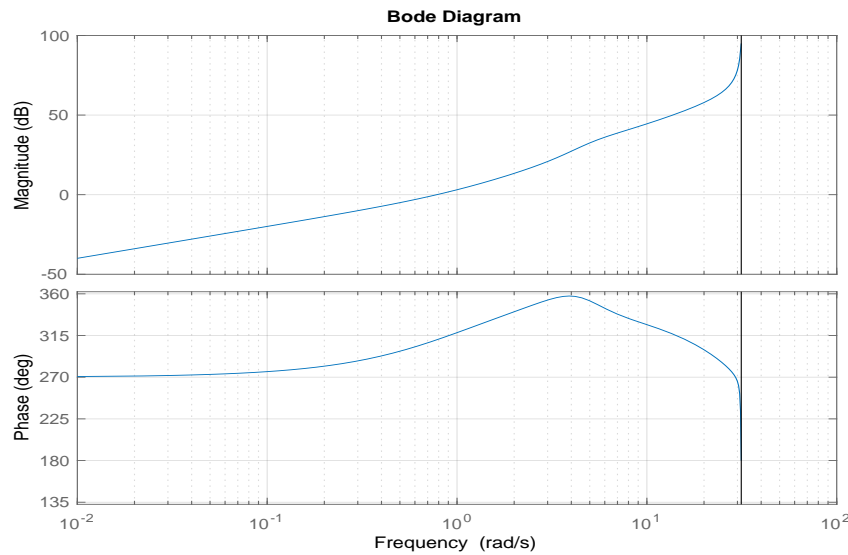


## VII.6 - Tracking and Regulation with Independent Objectives

The sensitivity function between the output perturbation and input is given by (*Show it*)

$$S_{yu}(z) = \frac{W_y(z)}{U(z)} = \frac{-A(z)S(z)}{A(z)R(z) + B(z)S(z)}$$

$$= 10^2 \frac{-1.46z^4 + 4.96z^3 - 6.37z^2 + 3.69z - 0.82}{z(0.48z^3 - 0.22z^2 - 0.37z + 0.30)}$$



Bode plot of  $S_{yu}(z)$