



# Lecture 3

**Digital Interfacing, Sampling, Signal Conditioning, and Models of Sampled Data Systems**

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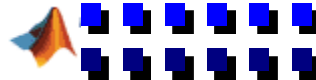
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***ECE 6095/4121***

***Digital Control of Mechatronic Systems***





# Models of Sampled Data Systems

## 1. Digital Interfacing

- Signal Conditioning
- A/D and D/A converters

## 2. Signal Sampling and Data Reconstruction

- Impulse sampling model; Nyquist theorem; Aliasing and interpretation
- Signal conditioning circuits

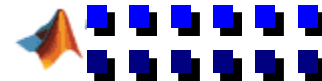
## 3. Discrete Equivalents: State-Space Approach

- Discretization algorithm

## 4. Discrete Equivalents: Transfer Function Approach

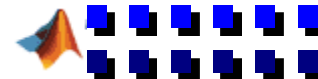
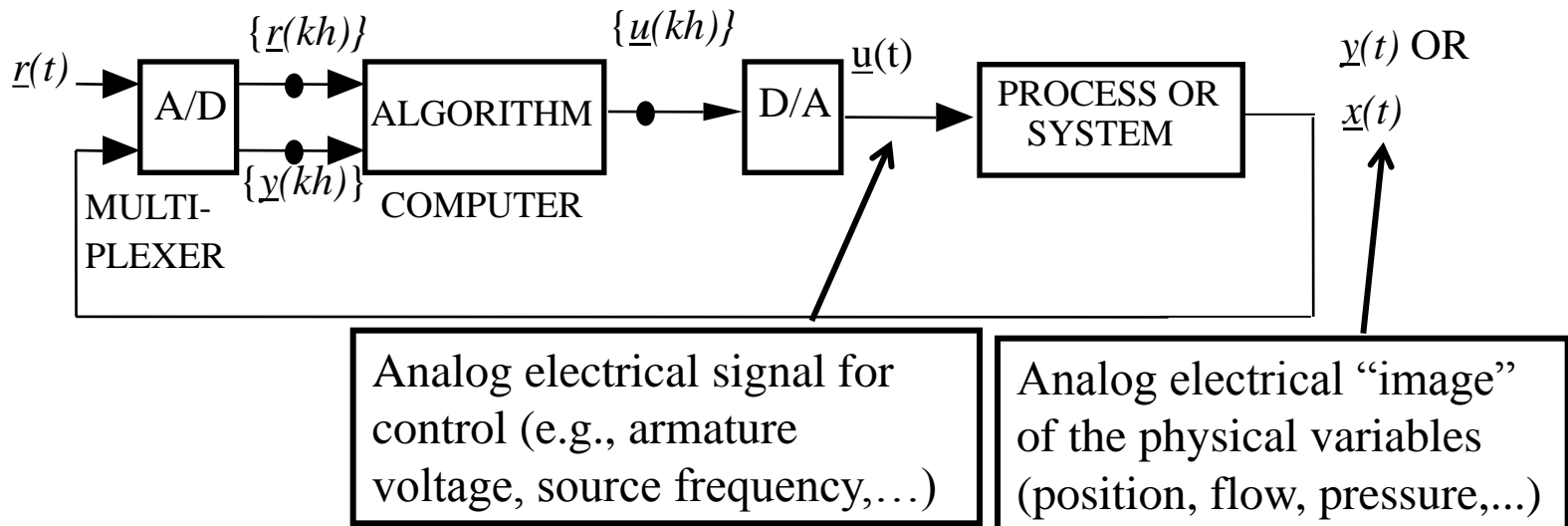
- Relation to original continuous system

## 5. Model Modifications with Delay in Control



# Digital Interfacing

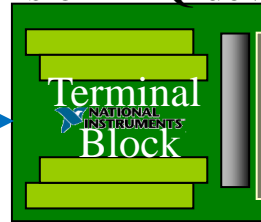
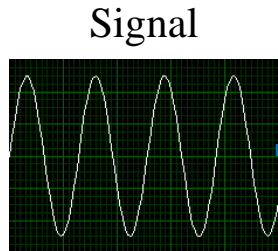
- The **system outputs, set points, state variables and control signals** are typically "analog" or continuous variables
- For digital control, the **sensed** and **conditioned** (i.e., amplified, attenuated, isolated, multiplexed, filtered, compensated) system outputs, state variables and set points are **converted from analog to digital** form using A/D (or ADC) and the control sequences from the micro-controller (computer) are **converted from digital to analog** form using D/A (or DAC) prior to applying them to the **actuators** of the process or system



# Data Acquisition (DAQ) Hardware

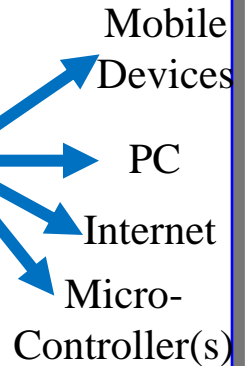
Routes signal to specific pins of DAQ device

50 or 68 pin connector



Cable

DAQ Device



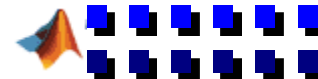
- Analog I/O
- Digital I/O
- Counters
- Bus connections (PCI, PXI/CompactPCI, USB, ISA/AT, PCMCIA, 1394/Firewire)

AIGND	1	2	AIGND
ACH0	3	4	ACH8
ACH1	5	6	ACH9
ACH2	7	8	ACH10
ACH3	9	10	ACH11
ACH4	11	12	ACH12
ACH5	13	14	ACH13
ACH6	15	16	ACH14
ACH7	17	18	ACH15
AISENSE	19	20	DAC0OUT <sup>1</sup>
DAC1OUT <sup>1</sup>	21	22	EXTREF <sup>2</sup>
AOGND	23	24	DGND
DIO0	25	26	DIO4
DIO1	27	28	DIO5
DIO2	29	30	DIO6
DIO3	31	32	DIO7
DGND	33	34	+5 V
+5 V	35	36	SCANCLK
EXTSTROBE*	37	38	PFI0/TRIG1
PFI1/TRIG2	39	40	PFI2/CONVERT*
PFI3/GPCTR1_SOURCE	41	42	PFI4/GPCTR1_GATE
GPCTR1_OUT	43	44	PFI5/UPDATE*
PFI6/WFTRIG	45	46	PFI7/STARTSCAN
PFI8/GPCTR0_SOURCE	47	48	PFI9/GPCTR0_GATE
GPCTR0_OUT	49	50	FREQ_OUT

50 pin connector

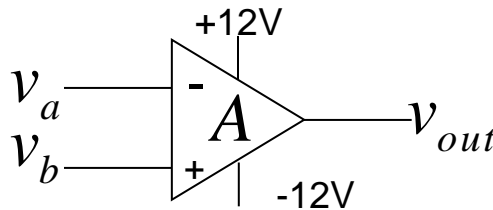
## DAQ Input Configurations

- Resolution/Accuracy
- Range
- Gain
- Code Width
- Mode: typically **differential** to reject common-mode voltage and common-mode noise. Two channels used for each signal.



# Back to Basics: Op-Amps - 1

OP-Amp

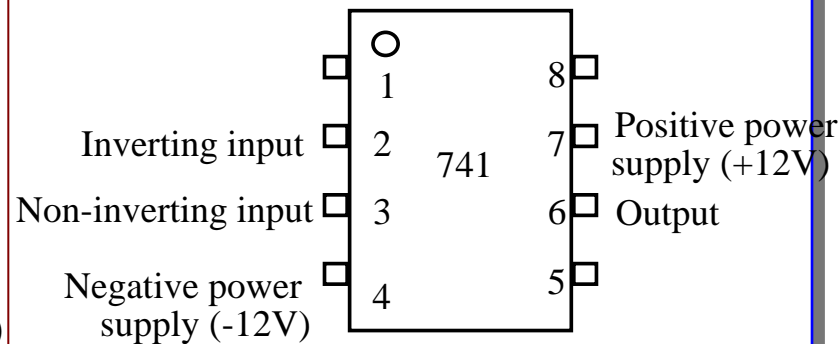


$$v_{out} = A(v_b - v_a)$$

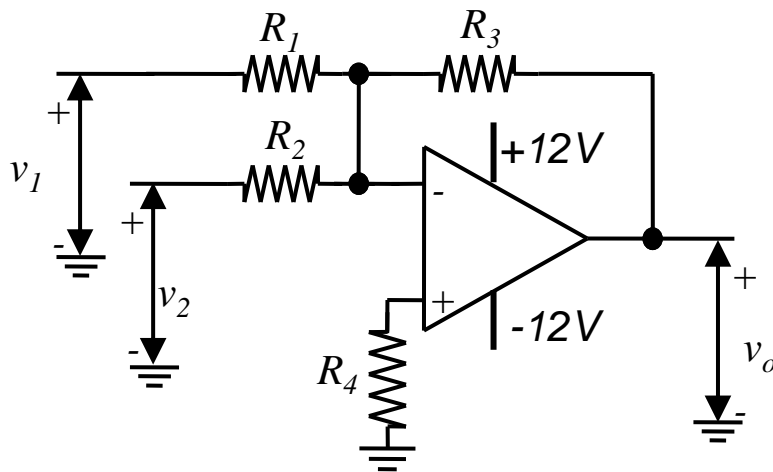
$A = \text{open-loop gain}$

**Ideal Op - Amp:**

1.  $A = \infty \Rightarrow v_a \approx v_b$
2. Input Resistance  $\approx \infty$
3. Output Resistance  $\approx 0$

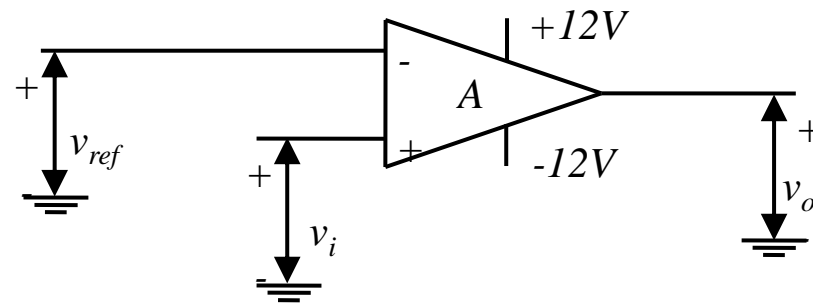


**Summing amplifier**



$$v_0 = -\left(\frac{R_3}{R_1} v_1 + \frac{R_3}{R_2} v_2\right); \quad \frac{1}{R_4} \approx \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

**Comparator**



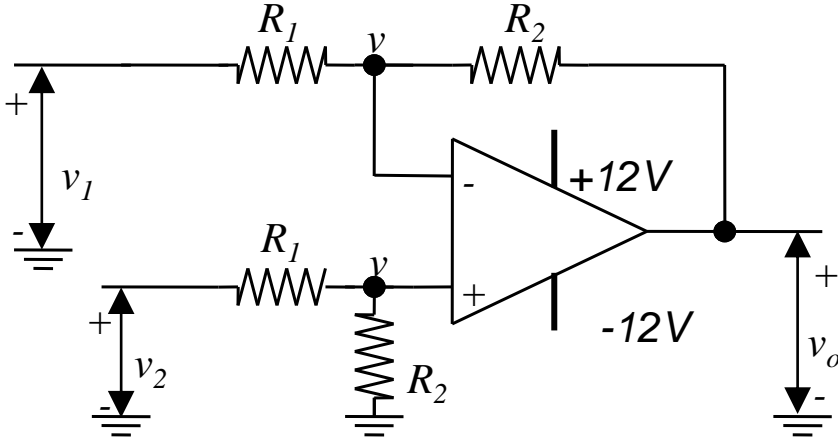
$$v_0 = \begin{cases} \min[A(v_i - v_{ref}), 12V] = 12V & \text{if } v_i > v_{ref} \\ \max[A(v_i - v_{ref}), -12V] = -12V & \text{if } v_i < v_{ref} \end{cases}$$

Recall  $A$  is big! Useful in Temperature Switches.



# Back to Basics: Op-Amps - 2

## Dual Input Differential Amplifier



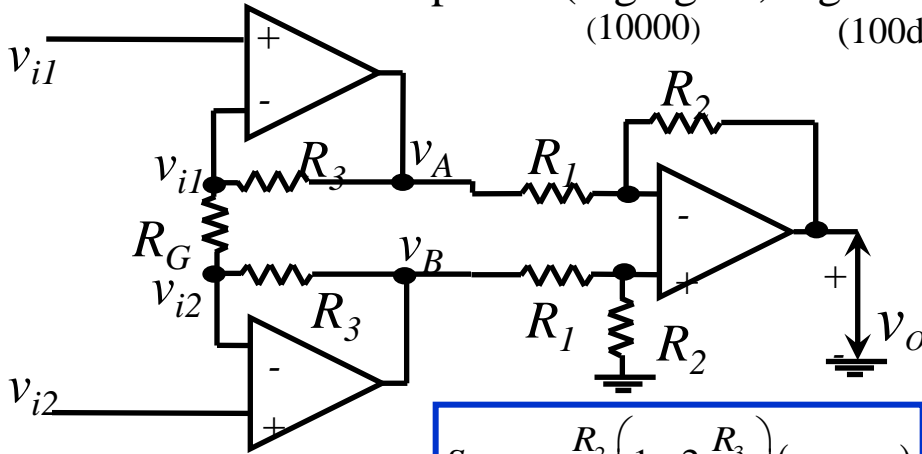
$$\frac{v_1 - v}{R_1} = \frac{v - v_0}{R_2} \Rightarrow \frac{v_0}{R_2} = -\frac{v_1}{R_1} + v \left( \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_1} \right)$$

$$\frac{v_2 - v}{R_1} = \frac{v}{R_2} \Rightarrow \frac{v_2}{R_1} = v \left( \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_1} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_0 = (v_2 - v_1) \frac{R_2}{R_1} \quad \leftarrow \text{Gain}$$

## Instrumentation Amplifier (high gain, high CMRR)

(10000)                      (100dB)



$$\text{So, } v_0 = \frac{R_2}{R_1} \left( 1 + 2 \frac{R_3}{R_G} \right) (v_{i2} - v_{i1}) \quad \leftarrow \text{Gain}$$

*Know*

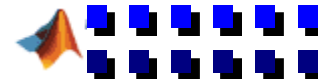
$$v_0 = \frac{R_2}{R_1} (v_B - v_A)$$

*Also,*  $\frac{v_{i1} - v_{i2}}{R_G} = \frac{v_A - v_{i1}}{R_3} = \frac{v_{i2} - v_B}{R_3}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{v_B}{R_3} = \left( \frac{1}{R_G} + \frac{1}{R_3} \right) v_{i2} - \frac{1}{R_G} v_{i1}$$

$$\frac{v_A}{R_3} = \left( \frac{1}{R_G} + \frac{1}{R_3} \right) v_{i1} - \frac{1}{R_G} v_{i2}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_B - v_A = \left( 1 + 2 \frac{R_3}{R_G} \right) (v_{i2} - v_{i1})$$





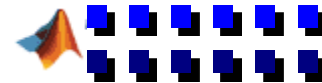
# Why Amplify Sensor Signals Prior to Conversion?

- Helps with **Code Width** of DAQ System
  - Smallest change in the signal that the DAQ system can detect
  - Function of **gain,  $G$** , **A/D resolution** (number of bits of A/D,  $b$ ), **range** of signal to be digitized,  $V_{max} - V_{min}$  (e.g., 0-10V, -10 to +10V)

$$Code\ width = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{G \cdot (2^b - 1)}$$

- Uncertainty in your measurement after A/D,  $U = \text{Code width}/2$  (recall how you round-off numbers!)
- Thermocouple Example
  - J-type thermocouple (measures 0 to 800<sup>o</sup> C) has sensitivity of 0.052 mV/deg C for 20-30<sup>o</sup> C.
  - Consider a 16-bit A/D with  $G = 1$  and  $V_{max} - V_{min} = 10\text{V}$ .
  - Code width =  $10/65535 = 0.153\text{ mV} \Rightarrow$  uncertainty in measurement,  $U = 0.076\text{mV} \Rightarrow$  **No Good**
  - A gain of 100 will have a code width of  $1.53\ \mu\text{V/deg C}$  and uncertainty,  $U$  of  $0.765\ \mu\text{V/deg C}$

You will also be filtering signals prior to conversion. We will see why later.

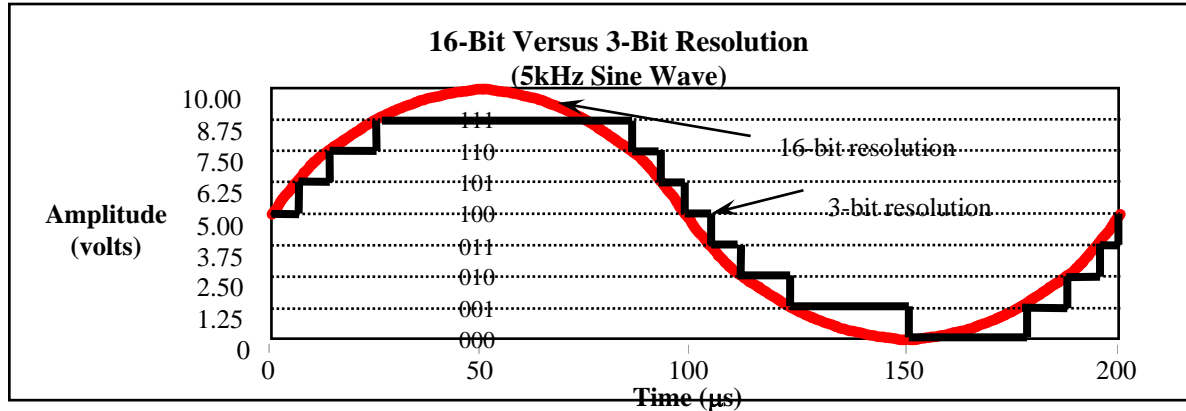




# Some Basic Concepts in Signal Conversion

- Resolution

- Determines how many different voltage changes can be measured
- 16 bit-resolution  $\Rightarrow$  65,536 levels  $\Rightarrow$  4-5 digit accuracy



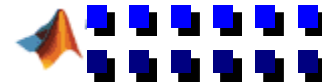
- Range

- DAQ devices have different ranges available (0-10V, -10V to +10V)
- Smaller range  $\Rightarrow$  more precise representation of your signal (It is like selecting a scale for your plot!)

- Gain

- Gain setting (typically 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, or 100) allows for best fit in A/D range
- For **required measurement uncertainty,  $U$** , gain,  $G$  is set via

$$G = \frac{2U (2^b - 1)}{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}$$





# Some D/A Converters

- Simple minded: Use summing amplifier
  - Wide range of precision resistors
  - 16 bits  $\Rightarrow 2^{15} = 32,768$  range

$$v_o = \left( B_{b-1} + \frac{B_{b-2}}{2} + \frac{B_{b-3}}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{B_i}{2^{b-i-1}} + \dots + \frac{B_0}{2^{b-1}} \right) \frac{V_{ref}}{2}; B_i = \text{bit } i$$

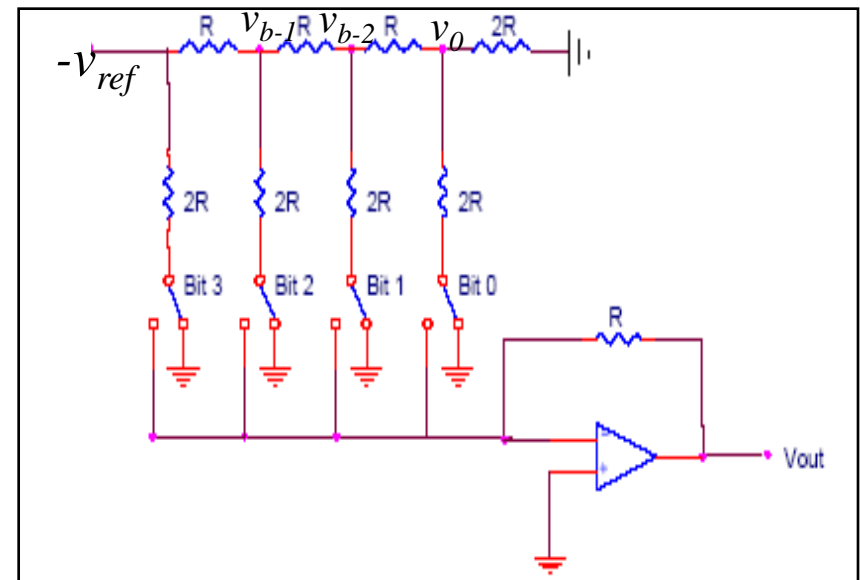
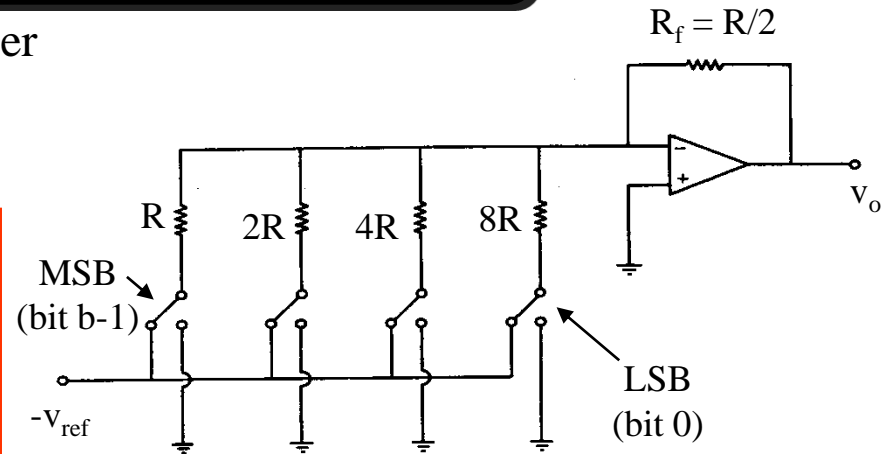
$$\text{Full scale value (FSV)} = \left( 1 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^b \right) V_{ref}$$

- R-2R Ladder D/A Converter

- $v_i = v_{i+1}/2; i=0,1,2,\dots,b-1; v_b = -v_{ref}$
- So,

$$v_{out} = \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^b} \right) V_{ref}$$

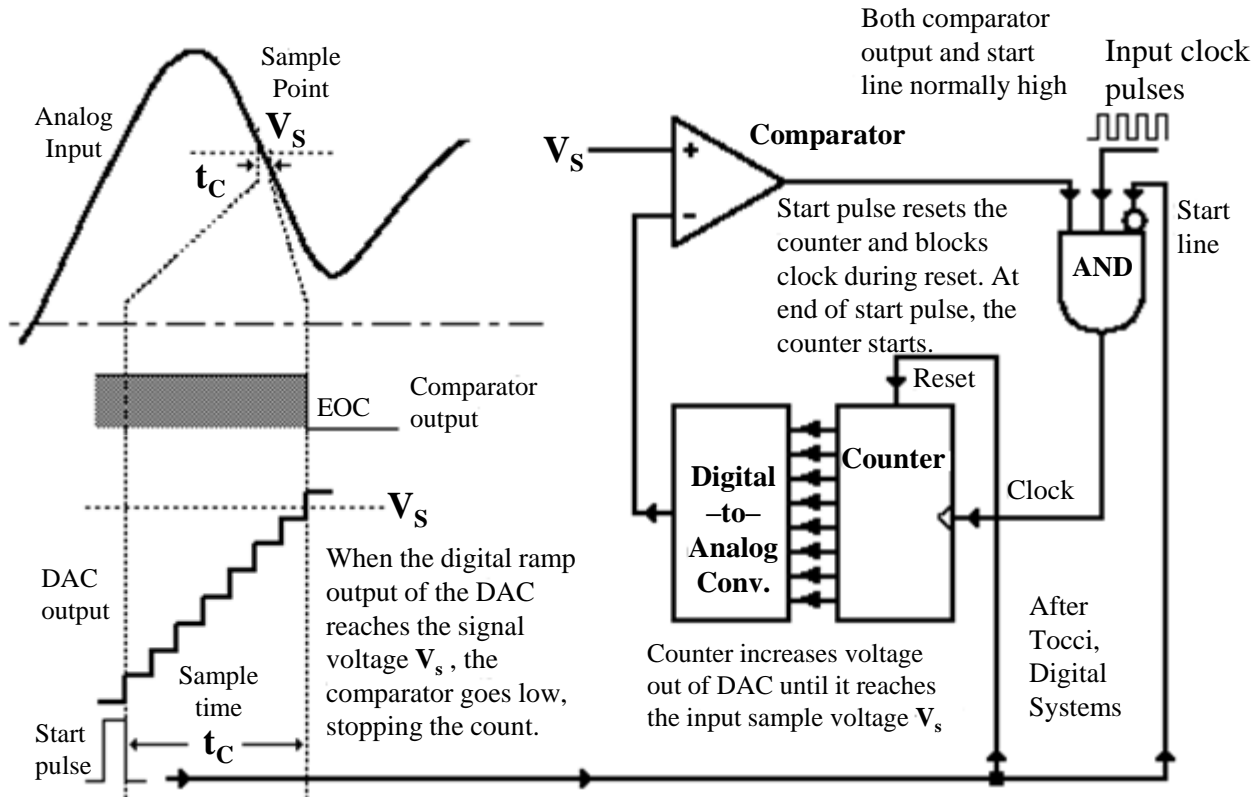
$$\text{Full scale value (FSV)} = \left( 1 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^b \right) V_{ref}$$





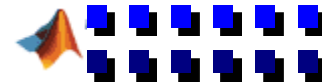
# Ladder Comparison A/D Converter

- Ladder Comparison (Ramp) A/D Converter



Cheap, but slow

- Apply analog voltage to +ve terminal of a comparator and the output of D/A converter to -ve terminal
- Output of comparator triggers a binary counter which drives the D/A converter
- When the D/A converter voltage exceeds analog voltage, counter stops and outputs the code

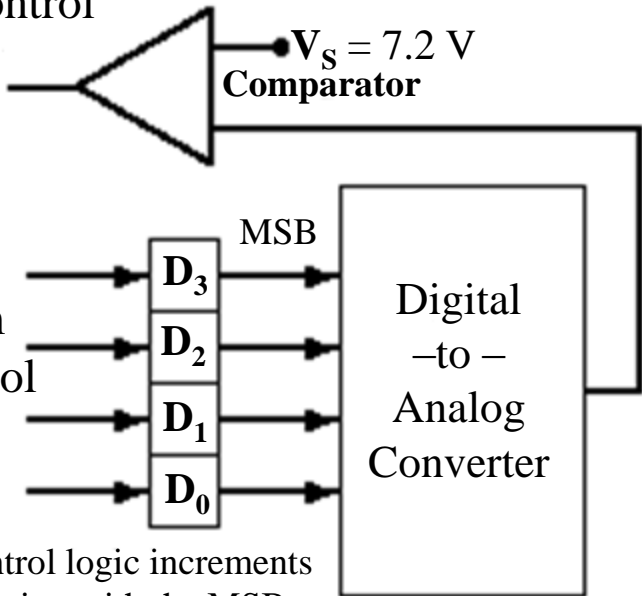




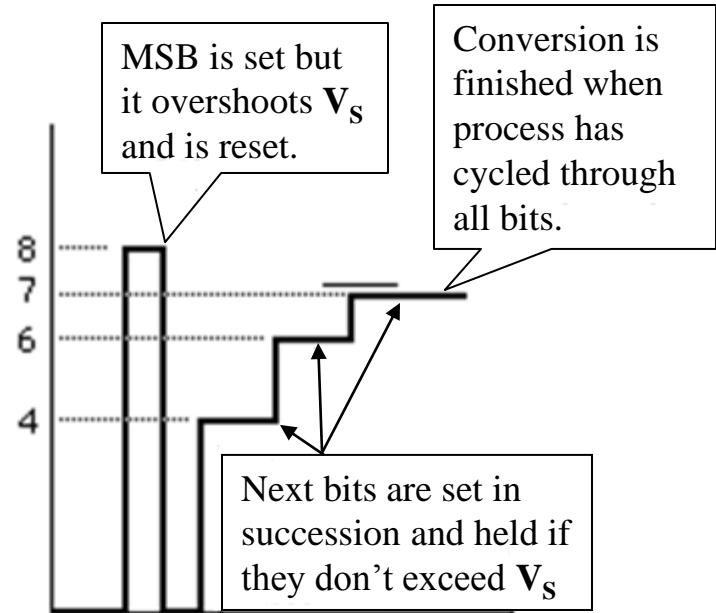
# Successive Approximation A/D Converter

- Successive Approximation A/D Converter

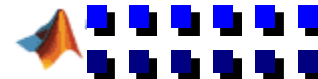
To control logic



The control logic increments bits, starting with the MSB



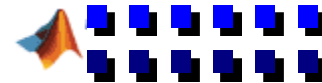
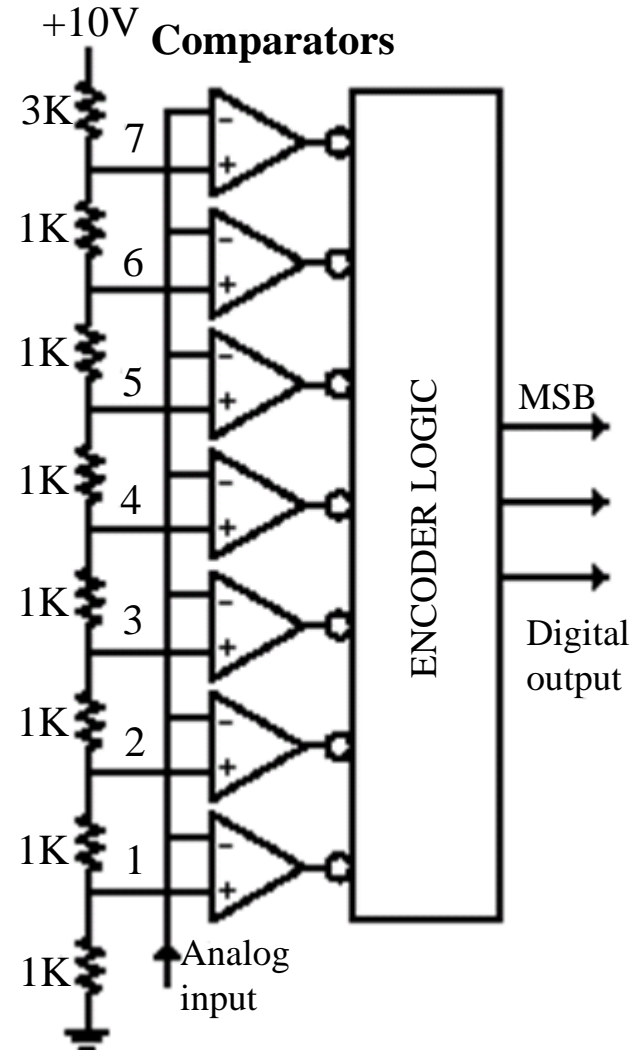
- Check if voltage corresponding to MSB  $> V_s$ . If it is, set next bits in succession and see if they don't exceed  $V_s$
- When the D/A converter voltage exceeds analog voltage, counter stops and outputs the code
- Works well in practice





# Flash A/D Converter

- Flash A/D Converter
  - Basically, a truth table that converts the ladder of inputs to the binary number output
  - Fastest type of A/D converter available
  - Very expensive





# Mathematics of Signal Sampling

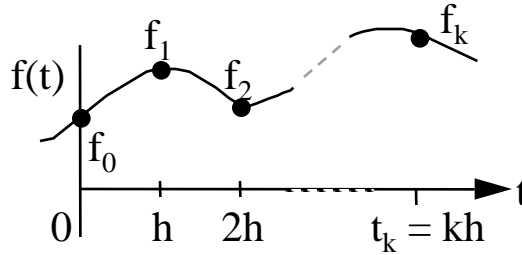
We will examine the sampling process from a mathematical viewpoint.

$h$  = sampling period or time step

$f_s$  = sampling frequency = number of samples/sec =  $1/h$

$$\omega_s = 2\pi/h$$

A/D quantizes (not a major issue if  $b = 16, 24, 32$ ) and samples



$f_k = f(kh) =$  sampled value of  $f(t)$  at  $t = kh$

The problem here is that sampling a signal loses information, namely the points in between  $(k-1)h$  and  $kh$ .

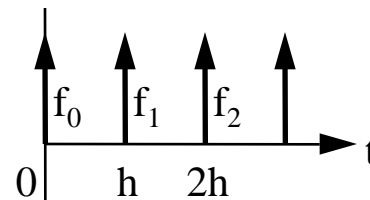
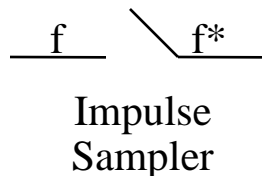
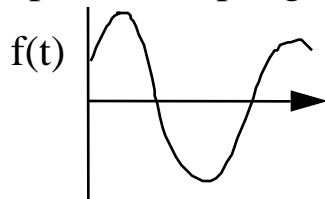
So if we sample too slowly - we lose information

if we sample too fast - we overwork the computer

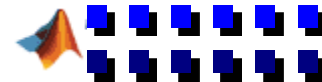
Major questions are -

- (1) how fast to sample so as not to lose information? and
- (2) how to reconstruct the signal  $f(t)$ , or an approximation, from  $\{f_k\}$ ?

"Impulse" sampling as a mathematical model:



Area of impulse  $k$  is  $f_k$ .



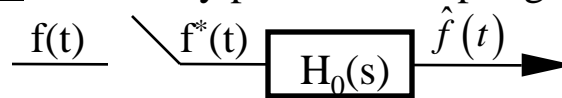
# Impulse Sampling

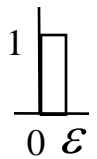
$$f^*(t) = f_0\delta(t) + f_1\delta(t-h) + f_2\delta(t-2h) + \dots$$

can be written as

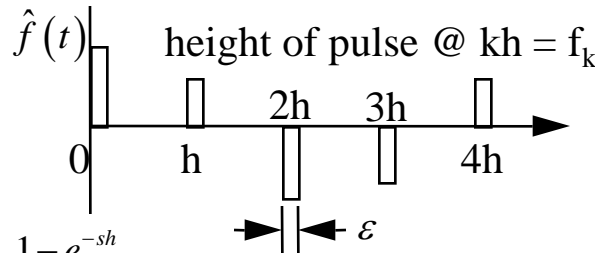
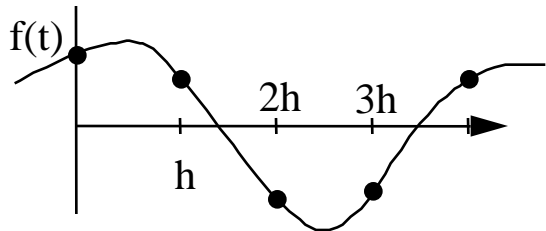
$$f^*(t) = f(t) \cdot m^*(t) \quad \leftarrow \text{periodic train of unit impulses } -\infty < t < \infty$$

The signal  $f^*(t)$  is not "real" but when an impulse sampler is followed by a suitable transfer function  $H_0(s)$ , we can model almost any practical sampling situation. We are really going from  $f(t)$  to  $\hat{f}(t)$  via  $f^*(t)$ .

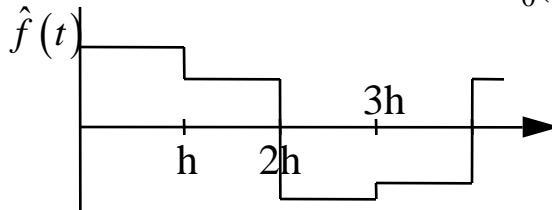


Ex. If impulse response of  $H_0$  is   $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{s} - \frac{e^{-\epsilon s}}{s} = H_0(s)$

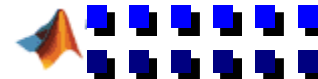
and we get as output a pulse train.  $\frac{1}{s}(1 - e^{-\epsilon s}) = H_0(s)$



If  $\epsilon = h$  the transfer function  $H_0(s)$  is  $\frac{1 - e^{-sh}}{s}$ .



This is a "sample-and-hold" and is the most common form of sampling process plus data reconstruction.





# Laplace Transform of a Sampled Signal

Take Laplace transform of  $f^*(t) \triangleq F^*(s)$

$$F^*(s) = \int_0^\infty f^*(t) e^{-st} dt = f_0 + f_1 e^{-sh} + f_2 e^{-2sh} + \dots$$

As an aside, since  $z^{-1} = e^{-sh}$

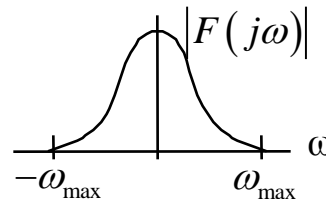
$$F^*(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k z^{-k} \Big|_{z=e^{sh}} = F(z) \Big|_{z=e^{sh}}$$

where  $F(z) = z$ -transform of the sampled sequence  $\{f_k\}$ . Notationally,  $F^*(s) = Z\{f(kh)\} \Big|_{z=e^{sh}}$

We wish to examine the relationship between  $F^*(s)$  and  $F(s) =$  Laplace transform of  $f(t)$ , and between

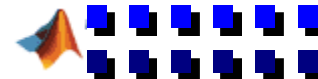
$$S_F(j\omega) = \text{"Spectrum" of } f(t) = |F(j\omega)|^2 \text{ and } S_{F^*}(j\omega) = \text{"Spectrum" of } f^*(t) = |F^*(j\omega)|^2$$

The spectrum indicates where a signal has power. (A sine wave has impulses at  $\pm\omega_0$ .)



To find  $L[f(t) \cdot m^*(t)]$  first use Fourier series to get a different way to write  $m^*(t)$ . Recall, if a signal  $x(t)$  is periodic with period  $h$ ,  $x(t) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{jn\omega_s t}$ ,  $\omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{h}$

where the Fourier coefficients,  $c_n = \int_0^h x(t) e^{-jn\omega_s t} dt$ .



# Nyquist Theorem

Apply Fourier series to  $x(t) = \delta(t)$

$$\Rightarrow c_n = \int_0^h \delta(t) e^{-jn\omega_s t} dt = 1 \quad \text{for all } n$$

So, an alternate representation of  $m^*(t)$  is

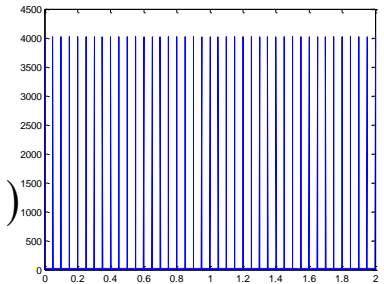
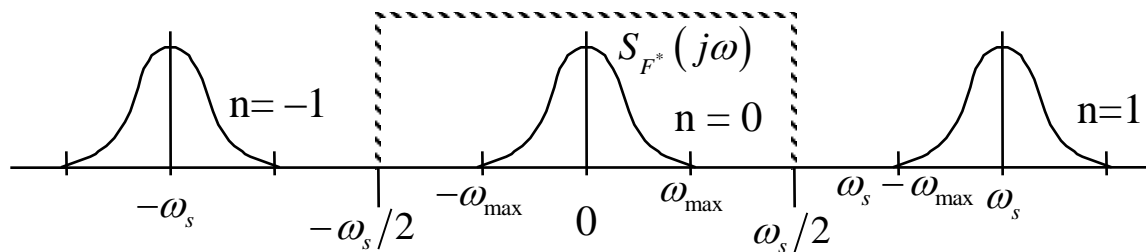
$$m^*(t) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jn\omega_s t} = \frac{1}{h} [1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2 \cos n\omega_s t] \quad \text{and} \quad f^*(t) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{jn\omega_s t}$$

Thus,

$$F^*(s) = L[f^*(t)] = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} L[f(t) e^{jn\omega_s t}]$$

Using the relation  $L[x(t)e^{at}] = X(s-a)$ ,

$$F^*(s) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} F(s - jn\omega_s) \quad \longrightarrow \quad F^*(j\omega) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} F(j\omega - jn\omega_s)$$



$$m^*(t) = \frac{1}{h} + \frac{2}{h} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos(n\omega_s t)$$

```

h=0.05;
omegas=2*pi/h;
t=[0:0.001:2];
delta=1/h*ones(size(t));
for i=1:100
    delta=delta+2*cos(omegas*t*i)/h;
    plot(t,delta)
    pause
end
    
```

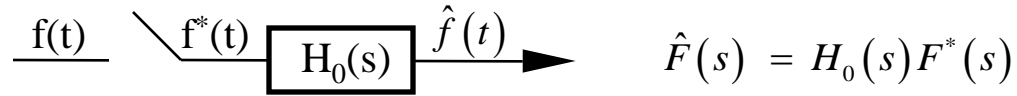
**Nyquist Result:** If original signal  $f(t)$  does not have any frequency components  $> \omega_s/2$  we can (in theory) reconstruct/recover  $f(t)$  from  $f^*(t)$  using an ideal low-pass filter.

$\omega_N = \omega_s/2 = \pi/h$  is called the Nyquist frequency. Thus, one must sample  $f(t)$  at a rate that is at least twice the highest frequency  $\omega_{\max}$  in the signal,  $\omega_s > 2\omega_{\max}$  (or  $\omega_N > \omega_{\max}$ ).

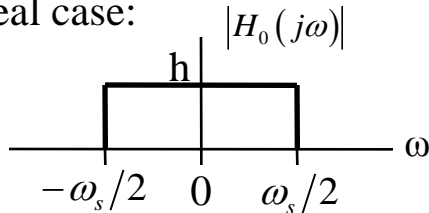


# Recovering $f(t)$ from $f^*(t)$

Assume  $\omega_s > 2\omega_{\max}$



- In ideal case:



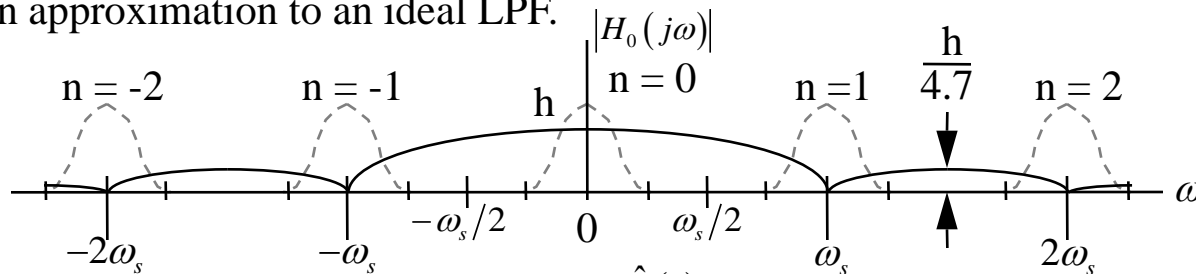
If  $|H_0(j\omega)|$  is as shown then  $\hat{f}(t) = f(t)$  and the signal is recovered from its samples. However, such an  $H_0(s)$  is unrealizable.

- Suppose  $H_0(s) = \frac{1 - e^{-sh}}{s}$ , i.e.,  $\hat{f}$  is a sample and hold (zero-order hold)

$$H_0(j\omega) = e^{-j\omega h/2} \left[ \frac{e^{j\omega h/2} - e^{-j\omega h/2}}{j\omega} \right] = e^{-j\omega h/2} \cdot h \cdot \left( \frac{\sin \omega h/2}{\omega h/2} \right)$$

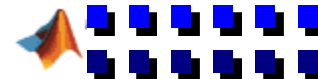
$$\Rightarrow |H_0(j\omega)| = h \left| \frac{\sin \omega h/2}{\omega h/2} \right| ; \quad \angle H_0(j\omega) = -\omega h/2 \quad (\text{delay of } h/2 \text{ sec., for } \omega < 2\pi/h = \omega_s)$$

This is an approximation to an ideal LPF.



Still get some high frequency components in  $\hat{f}(t)$ . Other signal reconstructors  $H_0(s)$  are possible (e.g., polynomial interpolators) but usually are not worth the added complexity.

**The zero-order hold is the most common form of  $H_0(s)$  in digital control.**



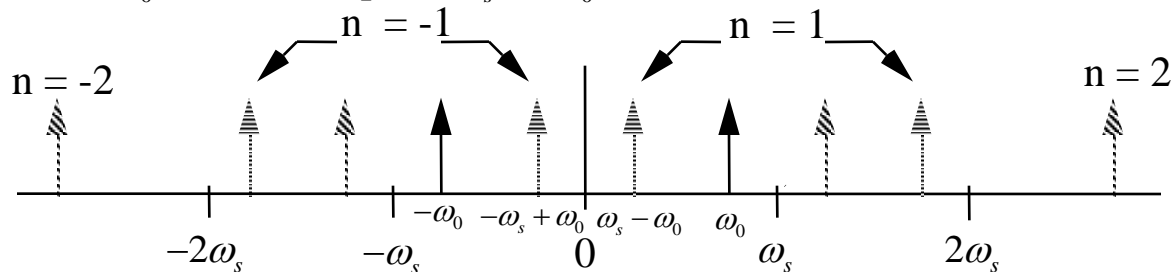


# Aliasing

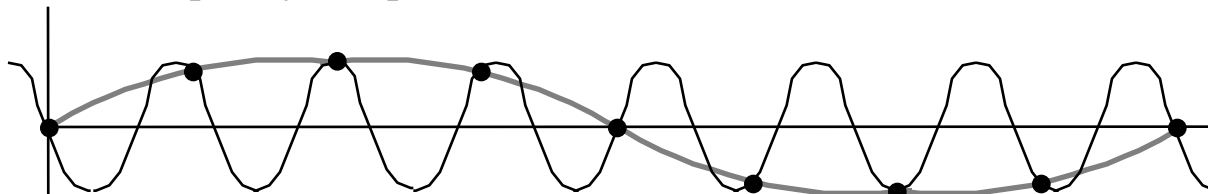
Typically,  $\omega_s \sim 10-30\omega_{\max}$ . An interesting phenomenon happens when  $\omega_s/2 < \omega_{\max}$ . In this case the components of  $F(j\omega - jn\omega_s)$  overlap in  $S_{F^*}(j\omega)$  and it becomes impossible to recover  $f(t)$ .

In addition, the sampled signal  $f^*(t)$  has power at frequencies not present in the original signal  $f(t)$ !

Ex.  $f(t) = A \sin \omega_0 t$  and we sample at  $\omega_s < 2\omega_0$ .



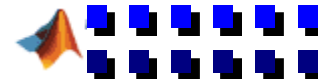
$F^*(t)$  has a low frequency component at  $(\omega_s - \omega_0)$ .



The original signal is "hidden", sampled signal is an "alias". The low frequency signal does not really exist in  $f(t)$ , but will exist in  $\hat{f}(t)$  since  $H_0(s)$  is a LP filter.

Ex. Sample a signal  $f(t)$  that has frequency components at  $f_1 = 0.1$  Hz,  $f_2 = 0.8$  Hz and  $f_3 = 1.4$  Hz using  $f_s = 2$  Hz (note Nyquist says  $f_s > 2.8$  Hz). What are the first 5 positive frequency components of sampled signal?

	$n = 0$	$n = 1$	$n = 2$
$f_1$	0.1	1.9   2.1	3.9   4.1
$f_2$	0.8	1.2   2.8	3.2   4.8
$f_3$	1.4	0.6   3.4	2.6   5.4

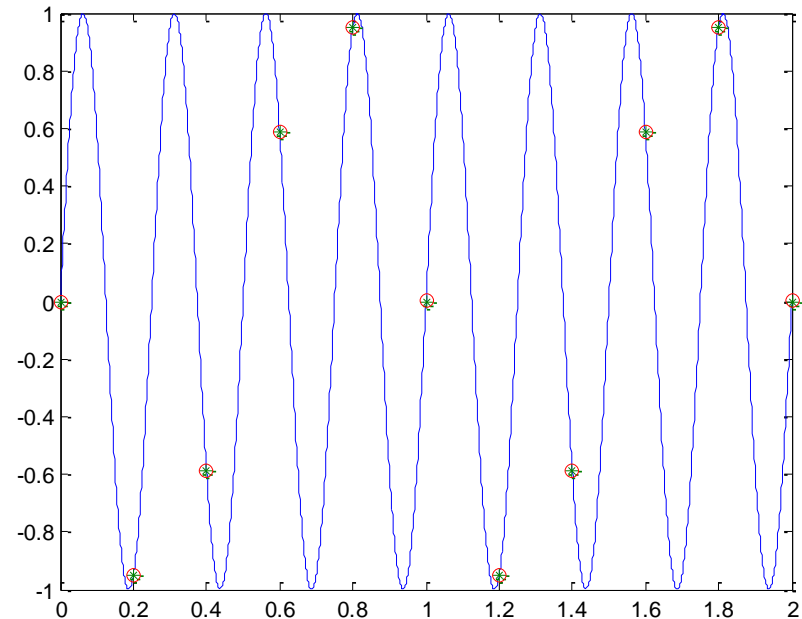




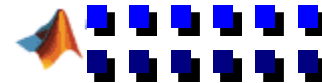
# Aliasing Illustrated in Time Domain

Let us take a simple sinusoid of frequency 4 Hz and sample it at 5Hz. We will show that a signal of 1 Hz is an alias.

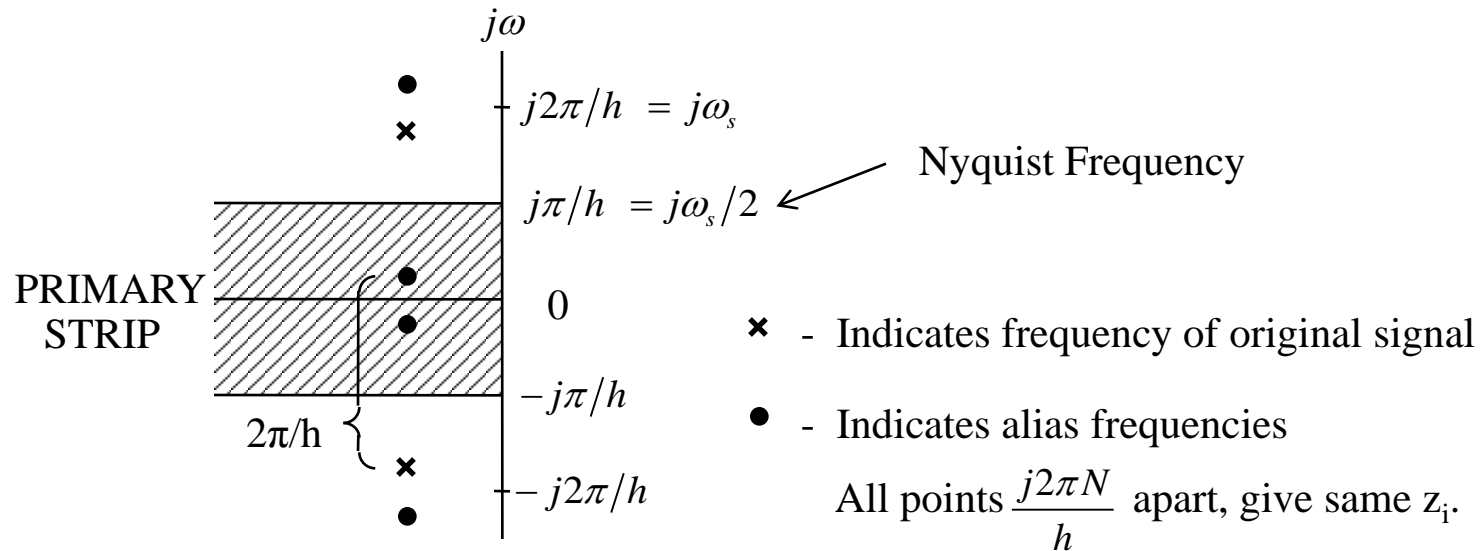
```
t=[0:0.001:2]
f=sin(2*pi*4*t); % continuous signal
t1=[0:0.2:2];
f1=sin(2*pi*4*t1); % sampled signal at 5Hz
f2=sin(2*pi*t1); % Alias signal 1Hz
plot(t,f,t1,f1,'*',t1,-f2,'o') % note negative sign
```



\* sampled signal  
o aliased signal



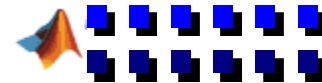
# Interpretation of Aliasing in s-Plane



After sample and hold (or other type of reconstructor), we pick out predominantly those signals in the primary strip,  $-\pi/h < \omega < \pi/h$ .

Since the aliased frequencies are not "real", i.e., not in original signal, any controller aimed at reducing the "observed" oscillations will fail.

- Aliasing effects will be observed in
  - frequency folding in s-plane
  - time response
  - Fourier spectrum



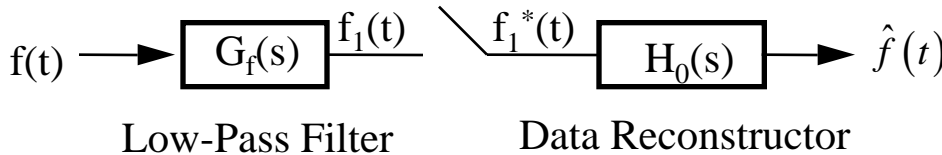


# How to Avoid Aliasing?

- **There is no way to fix  $f^*(t)$  after you have sampled.** So, you must assure that the signal to be sampled has no frequencies higher than  $\omega_N = \pi/h$ .

But, real signals have power in  $[-\infty, \infty]$  (with caveat).

$\Rightarrow$  Prefilter the signal  $f(t)$  before sampling (anti-aliasing).

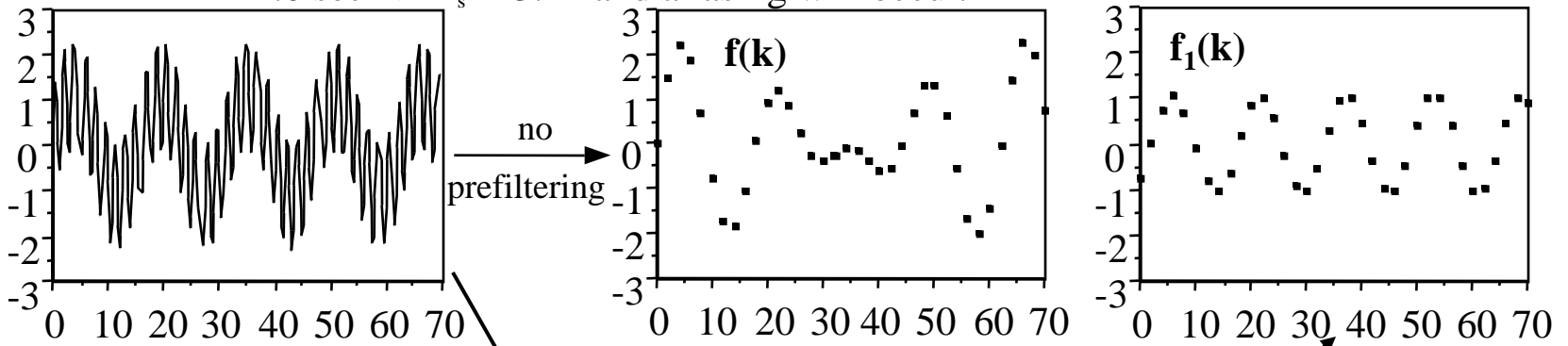


$$\text{Typical } G_f(s) = \frac{\omega_f^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_f s + \omega_f^2}$$

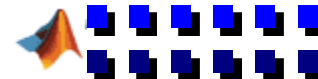
$$\zeta = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \quad (\text{Butterworth Filter})$$

Usually pick  $\omega_f \sim \omega_N/2 = \pi/2h$  to be safe, but beware of using a  $G_f(s)$  in a feedback loop due to added negative phase shift that reduces  $\phi_m$ . Some authors suggest  $\omega_N/1.28 \approx 0.8 \omega_N = 0.4 \omega_s$

Ex:  $f(t) = 1.1 \sin 0.4t + 1.2 \sin 3.45t \sim$  signal + high frequency noise. Sample period  $h = 2.0$  sec  $\Rightarrow \omega_s = 3.14$  and aliasing will occur.



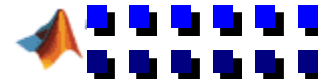
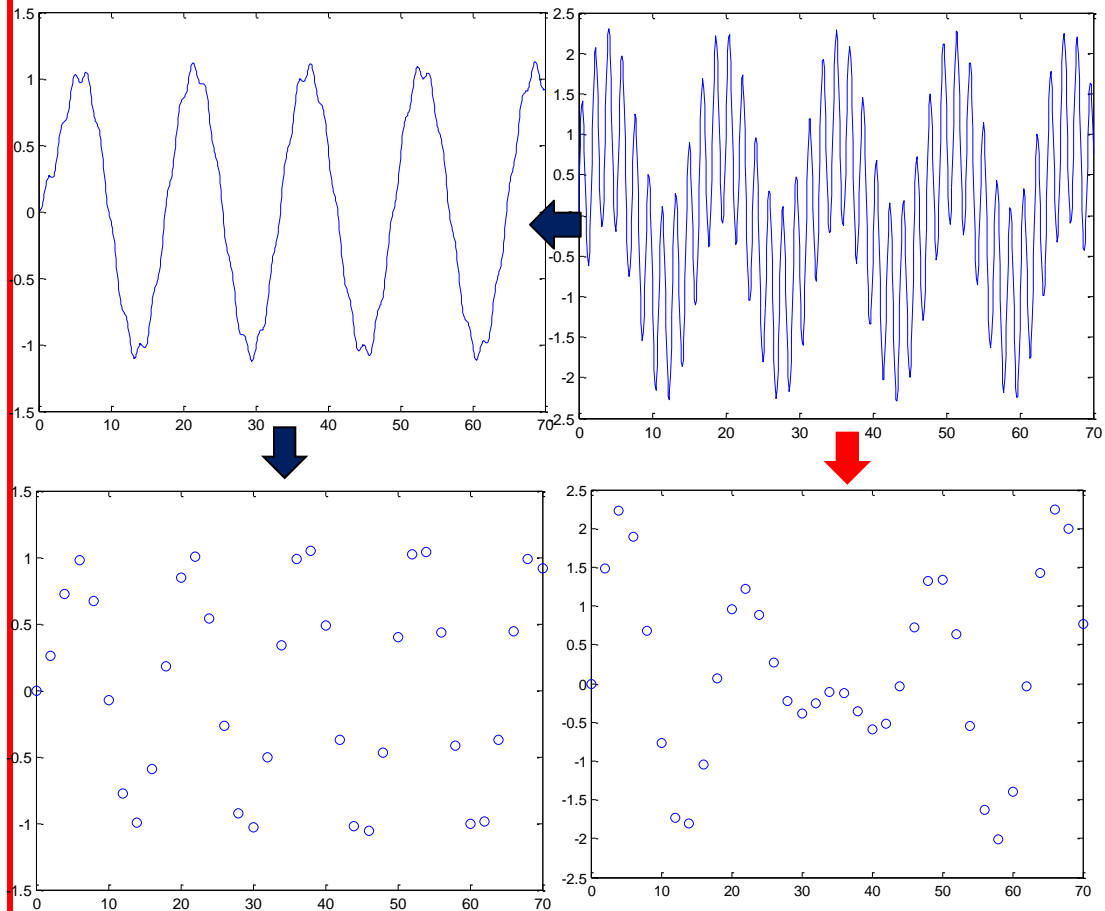
Prefilter  $f(t)$  using a 2nd-order Butterworth filter with  $\omega_f = 0.785$  and then sample the output,  $f_1(t)$ .



# How to Avoid Aliasing?

Ex:  $f(t) = 1.1 \sin 0.4t + 1.2 \sin 3.45t$  signal + high frequency noise. Sample period  $h = 2.0$  sec  $\Rightarrow \omega_s = 3.14$  and aliasing will occur.

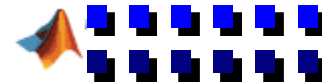
```
% nearly-continuous signal
delt=0.1;
t=[0:delt:70]';
n=length(t);
ft=1.1*sin(0.4*t)+1.2*sin(3.45*t);
plot(t,ft)
pause
% sampled signal
kt=[0:2:70]';
nk=length(kt);
fk=1.1*sin(0.4*kt)+1.2*sin(3.45*kt);
plot(kt,fk,'o')
pause
numgf=[0.785^2];
dengf=[1 2*0.707*0.785 0.785^2];
gfs=tf(numgf,dengf)
[y,t]=lsim(gfs,ft,t);
plot(t,y)
pause
% sampled signal
h=2.;
kt=t([1:h/delt:n])
f1=y([1:h/delt:n])
plot(kt,f1,'O')
```





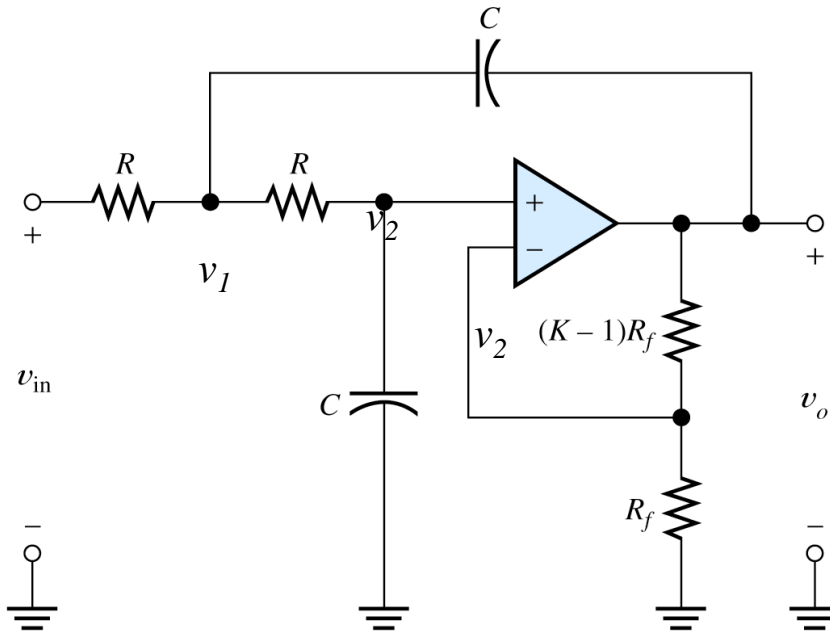
# Antialiasing/Aliasing Examples

- **Example 1:** Consider  $N = 1024$  data points from a signal sampled at 1ms interval ( $h = 0.001$  sec).
  - Sampling frequency,  $f_s = 1000$  Hz = 1kHz  $\Rightarrow \omega_s = 6280$  rad/sec
  - Nyquist frequency,  $f_N = 500$  Hz  $\Rightarrow \omega_N = 3140$  rad/sec
  - Antialiasing filter frequency,  $f_f = 250$ -400 Hz  $\Rightarrow \omega_N = 1570$  -2512 rad/sec
  - If you did discrete Fourier transform, you will get 1024 points representing frequencies  $(k/N)*f_s$ ;  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$ . These are also called spectral lines.
  - Spectral line separation =  $f_s/N = 0.9766$  Hz.
  - For an ideal filter with cut-off frequency of 250-400 Hz, keep the first 244-391 frequency components (i.e., set the rest to zero) as the useful spectrum and then do an IDFT to recover the noise filtered signal.
- **Example 2:** Suppose you have a sinusoidal signal of frequency 10 Hz and you sample it at 50Hz. Another sinusoidal signal of the same amplitude, but **higher** frequency,  $f$  was found to yield the same data when sampled at 50Hz. What is the likely frequency,  $f$ ?
  - Sampling frequency,  $f_s = 50$  Hz
  - Aliasing frequencies =  $n f_s \pm 10$  Hz.
  - So,  $f = 40$ Hz, 60 Hz, 90Hz, 110Hz, .....





# Sallen-Key Low Pass Butterworth Filter



$$G_f(s) = \frac{K / R^2 C^2}{s^2 + \frac{(3-K)}{RC} s + \frac{1}{R^2 C^2}}$$

$$= \frac{K \omega_n^2}{s^2 + (3-K)\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

For  $\xi = 1/\sqrt{2}$ ,  $K = 3 - \sqrt{2} = 1.586$

$$\frac{v_{in}(s) - v_1(s)}{R} + (v_o(s) - v_1(s))Cs = \frac{v_1(s) - v_2(s)}{R} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{v_1(s) - v_2(s)}{R} = v_2(s) Cs \Rightarrow v_1(s) = (1 + RCs)v_2(s) \quad (2)$$

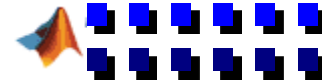
$$v_o(s) = Kv_2(s) \quad (3)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{in}(s) = (2 + RCs)v_1(s) - (1 + KRCs)v_2(s)$$

$$= ((2 + RCs)(1 + RCs) - (1 + KRCs))v_2(s)$$

In general, Butterworth low pass filters have flat frequency response. For order  $p$

$$|G_f(\omega)| = \frac{G_f(0)}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_n}\right)^{2p}}}$$



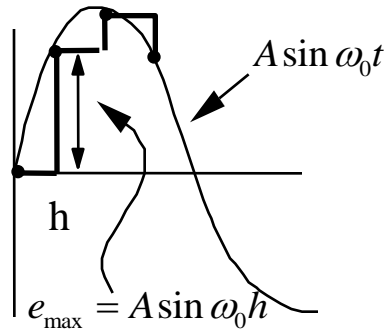


# Sampling for Accuracy

- For a single sine wave,  $A \sin \omega_0 t$ , Nyquist criterion says use more than two (2) samples/period ( $\omega_s > 2\omega_0$ ), but reconstruction error using a zero-order hold is terrible  $\implies$  we really need to sample at a higher rate.

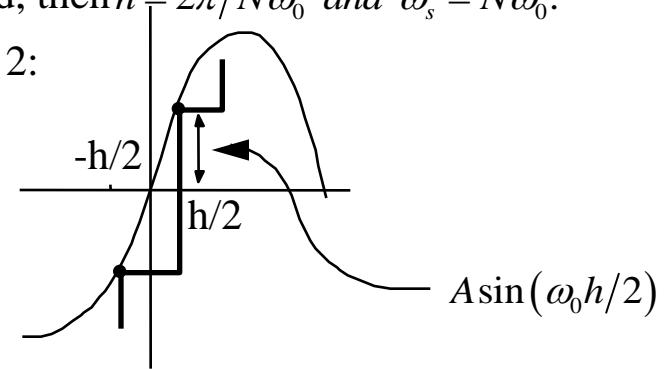
If we use a sample and hold with  $N \geq 4$  samples/period, then  $h = 2\pi/N\omega_0$  and  $\omega_s = N\omega_0$ .

Case 1:

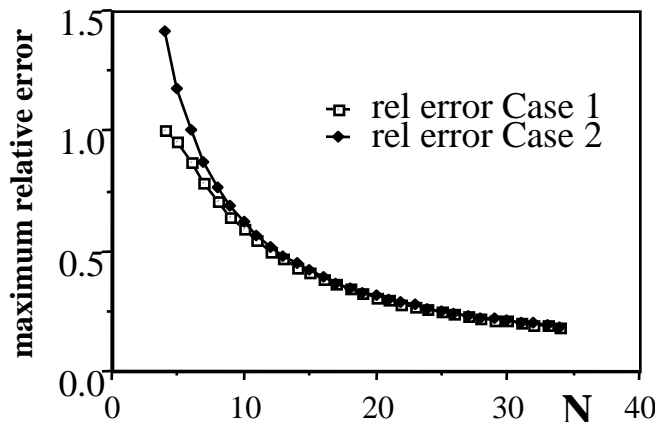


$$\text{max relative error} = \frac{A \sin(2\pi/N)}{A} = \sin(2\pi/N)$$

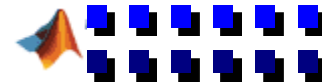
Case 2:



$$\begin{aligned} \text{max relative error with } h/2 \text{ shift} \\ = \frac{2A \sin(\pi/N)}{A} = 2 \sin(\pi/N) \end{aligned}$$



Usually we try for  $\omega_s = (10 \rightarrow 30) \omega_{\max}$   
when using a signal reconstruction criteria

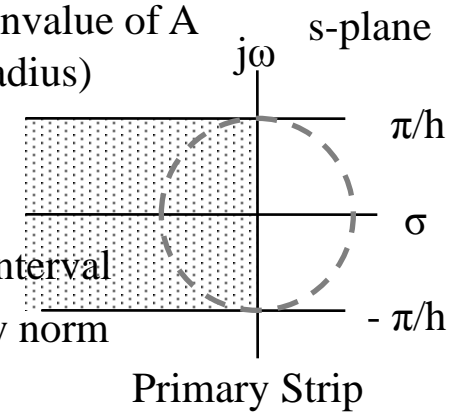




# Sampling Period h for Control

- State space representation:** If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of A, then to avoid aliasing we must have  $\lambda_i$  within primary strip in the s-plane, i.e.,  $|\text{Im}(\lambda_i)| < \pi/h$ .

More manageably,  $|\lambda_i| < \pi/h \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$   
 i.e., poles within circle of radius  $\pi/h \Rightarrow h_{\max} = \pi / |\lambda_{\max}(A)|$



This is too high a limit from a control viewpoint, instead we seek

$h \leq c / |\lambda_{\max}(A)|$  with  $c = 0.2$  to  $0.5$  ( $1/6 \rightarrow 1/15$  of Nyquist sampling interval)

An approximation:  $|\lambda_{\max}(A)| \sim \|A\|$  because  $|\lambda_{\max}(A)| \leq \|A\|$  for any norm

- Relation to Closed-loop bandwidth:**  $\omega_{BW}$  in rad/sec  $\Rightarrow f_{BW} = \omega_{BW} / 2\pi$  in Hz

$$\frac{1}{30f_{BW}} < h < \frac{1}{15f_{BW}} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{5\omega_{BW}} < h < \frac{2}{5\omega_{BW}}$$

- Relation to Rise time,  $T_r$ :** about 10% of the rise time  $\Rightarrow h \approx 0.1 T_r$

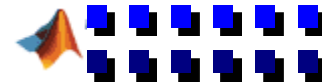
$$\text{A rule of thumb: } T_r \approx \frac{1}{2f_{BW}}$$

- Gain cross over frequency,  $\omega_c$**

$$0.15 < h\omega_c < 0.5$$

$\omega_c$  is an approx. measure of closed-loop bandwidth  $\Rightarrow 12$  to  $40$  times  $f_c = \omega_c / 2\pi$

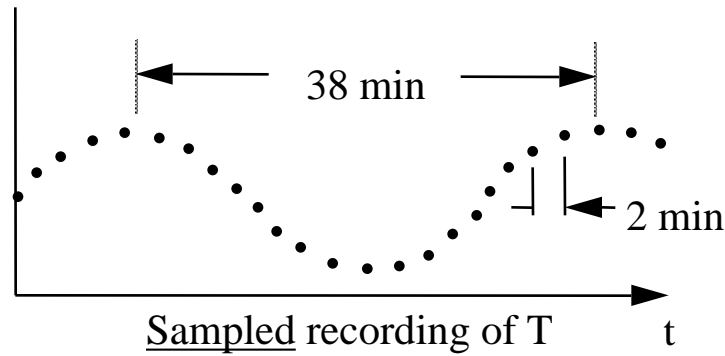
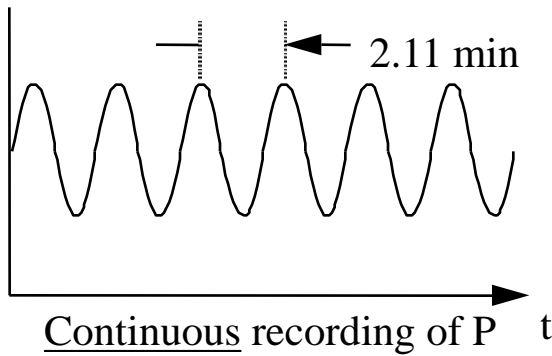
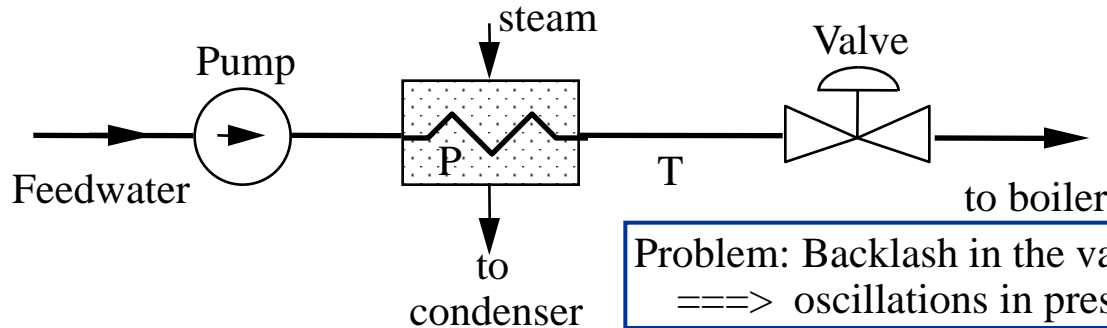
Need to experiment with different values of h during design





# Example of Aliasing in a Control Setting

- Feedwater heating in a ship propulsion plant (Astrom & Wittenmark)



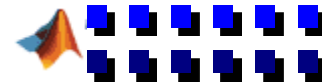
Pressure and temperature are coupled, and should oscillate at the same frequency! What happened?

Sampling frequency,  $\omega_s = 2\pi/2 = 3.14 \text{ rad/min}$

Pressure oscillation frequency,  $\omega_p = 2\pi/2.11 = 2.98 \text{ rad/min}$

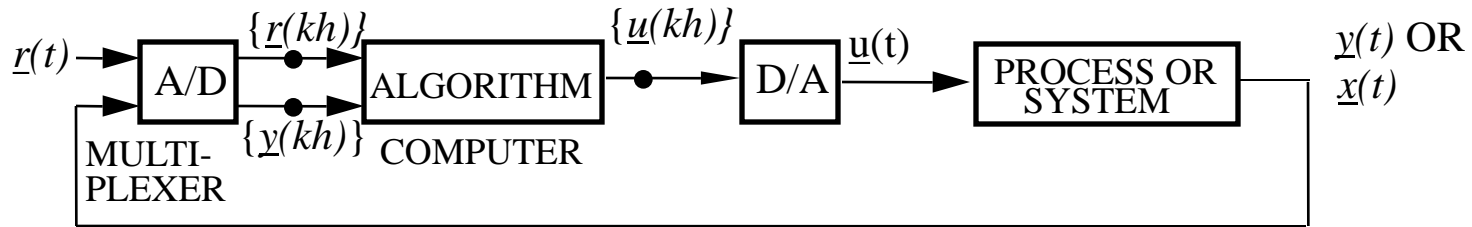
Lowest aliasing frequency,  $\omega_s - \omega_p = 0.16 \text{ rad/min} \Rightarrow T = 38\text{min}$

**Conclusion:** The sampler did not take this course!



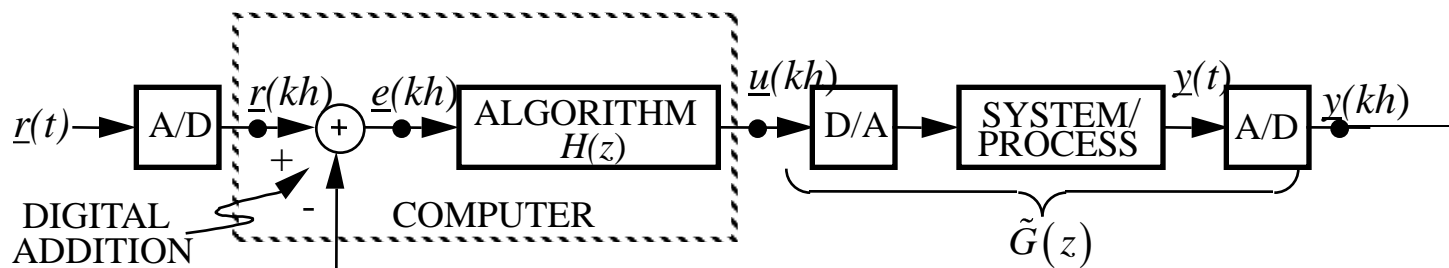


# Analysis of the Basic Digital Control Loop

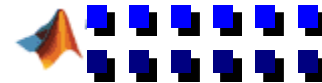


- The computer algorithm generates a sequence of values  $\underline{u}(kh)$  from the discrete samples  $\underline{y}(kh)$  and  $\underline{r}(kh)$ , or from  $\underline{e}(kh) = \underline{r}(kh) - \underline{y}(kh)$ , e.g.,  $\underline{u}(z) = H(z) \underline{e}(z)$ .
- Process Model - continuous inputs and outputs  

transfer function	or	State-Space Model
$G(s)$	$\longleftrightarrow$	$\dot{\underline{x}} = A\underline{x} + B\underline{u}, y = C\underline{x} + D\underline{u}$
- Computer outputs values  $\underline{u}(kh)$  and at some time later sees the response  $\underline{y}(mh)$ . The computer "puts out" samples and "sees" samples, i.e., it sees a discrete system from  $\underline{u}(kh)$  to  $\underline{y}(kh) \Rightarrow \tilde{G}(z)$ .
- Redraw loop from computer's view [eg.,  $\underline{u}(z) = H(z) \underline{e}(z)$ ].



- WHY? =>
1. to enable analysis as a discrete FB loop
  2. to enable design of a discrete  $H(z)$  vis-a-vis discrete  $\tilde{G}(z)$
  3. We are "controlling"  $\tilde{G}(z)$  not  $G(s)$ .





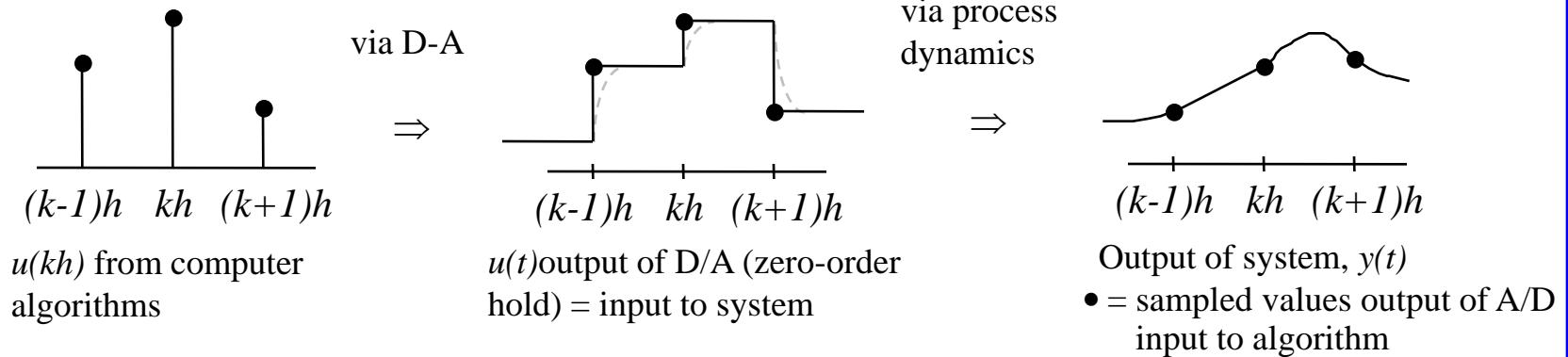
# Discrete System Time Signals

Typically there will be delays in the loop

- computational delays
  - measurement delays
  - process delays
- } lump as some equivalent delay  $\tau$

Assume: D/A is a zero-order hold ; All A/Ds are synchronized

Consider signals around the loop

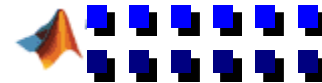


## Definitions

$\underline{y}(k) = \underline{y}(kh) =$  sampled values of  $\underline{y}(t)$  at time  $t = kh$

$\underline{u}(k) = \underline{u}(kh) =$  values of  $\underline{u}(\bullet)$  computed by algorithm using the samples  $\underline{y}(kh)$  and  $\underline{r}(kh)$ ; output from computer at time  $kh^+$ , if there is no computational delay

$\implies \underline{u}(kh) =$  values of system input over  $[kh^+, (k+1)h]$





# Model for Equivalent Discrete System, $\tilde{G}(z)$

1. System defined by state equations, no delay
2. System defined by transfer function, no delay
3. Modifications to 1 and 2 when  $\tau \neq 0$

## State-Space Approach

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\underline{x}}(t) &= \mathbf{A} \underline{x}(t) + \mathbf{B} \underline{u}(t) \\ \underline{y}(t) &= \mathbf{C} \underline{x}(t) + \mathbf{D} \underline{u}(t) \end{aligned} \Rightarrow G(s) = \mathbf{C}(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{D}$$

Compute  $\underline{x}[(k+1)h] \triangleq \underline{x}(k+1)$  = value of  $\underline{x}(t)$  at  $t = (k+1)h$  from knowledge of  $\underline{x}(kh)$  = value of  $\underline{x}(t)$  at  $t = kh$  and  $\underline{u}(kh)$  = system input over  $(kh, (k+1)h]$ .

Use state transition equation,

$$\underline{x}(t_2) = e^{\mathbf{A}(t_2-t_1)} \underline{x}(t_1) + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} e^{\mathbf{A}(t_2-\xi)} \mathbf{B} \underline{u}(\xi) d\xi$$

$$t_1 = kh, t_2 = (k+1)h \text{ and } \underline{u}(\xi) = \underline{u}(kh) \text{ over } (t_1, t_2]$$

$$\underline{x}[(k+1)h] = e^{\mathbf{A}h} \underline{x}(kh) + \int_{kh}^{(k+1)h} e^{\mathbf{A}((k+1)h-\xi)} \mathbf{B} d\xi \cdot \underline{u}(kh)$$

$$\text{let } \sigma = (k+1)h - \xi$$

$$\underline{x}[(k+1)h] = e^{\mathbf{A}h} \underline{x}(kh) + \int_0^h e^{\mathbf{A}\sigma} d\sigma \mathbf{B} \underline{u}(kh) \Rightarrow \underline{x}(k+1) = \Phi \underline{x}(k) + \Gamma \underline{u}(k)$$

$$\text{where } \Phi = e^{\mathbf{A}h}; \Psi(h) = \int_0^h e^{\mathbf{A}\sigma} d\sigma; \Gamma = \Psi(h) \mathbf{B}$$

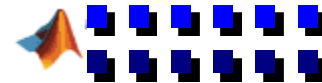
value of system input right at time  $t = kh$  (subtle point)

$$\text{Output } \underline{y}(kh) = \mathbf{C} \underline{x}(kh) + \mathbf{D} \underline{u}[(k-1)h]$$

$$\underline{y}(k) = \mathbf{C} \underline{x}(k) + \mathbf{D} \underline{u}(k-1)$$

$$\text{Transfer function Matrix (TFM): } \tilde{G}(z) = \mathbf{C}(z\mathbf{I} - \Phi)^{-1} \Gamma + \mathbf{D}z^{-1}$$

$$h = \frac{0.2}{\|A\|}$$





# Computing $\Phi$ and $\Gamma$ (or $\Psi$ )

- Note that  $\Phi$  and  $\Gamma$  are independent of  $k$ . Compute once for a given time step  $h$ .

Analytic: 
$$e^{Ah} = L^{-1} \left[ (sI - A)^{-1} \right] \Big|_{t=h}$$

exact value obtained, but very time-consuming and not practical for  $n > 3$ . Then, need to obtain  $\Psi$  by integrating  $e^{A\sigma}$  over  $[0, h]$ .

Numerical: If  $h$  is small  $\implies$  Taylor series approximations are good

$$e^{Ah} = I + Ah + A^2h^2/2! + \dots$$

To compute  $\Psi(h)$  substitute approximation  $e^{A\sigma} \sim I + A\sigma + A^2\sigma^2/2! + \dots$

$$\Psi(h) = \int_0^h e^{A\sigma} d\sigma = \int_0^h [1 + A\sigma + A^2\sigma^2/2! + \dots] d\sigma$$

$$\Psi(h) \doteq h \left[ I + Ah/2! + A^2h^2/3! + \dots + A^M h^M / (M+1)! \right]$$

where the number of terms  $M$  must be chosen large enough so that the Taylor approximations are valid; i.e., we want,

$$(Ah)^M / (M+1)! \ll I \implies \|A\|^M h^M / (M+1)! < 10^{-6} . \text{ Then } \Phi = e^{Ah} = I + A\Psi(h)$$

Algorithm to find  $M = \#$  terms in series, given  $h$

$$C_1 = \|A\| h/2$$

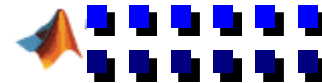
Do for  $M = 2, 20$

$$C_1 = C_1 * \|A\| h / (M+1)$$

if  $C_1 < 10^{-6}$  stop  $\rightarrow$  return  $M$ , if  $M < 4$  set  $M = 4$

End do

(Note:  $\|A\|^{19}/20! \sim 10^{-9}$  if  $\|Ah\| = \pi$ )





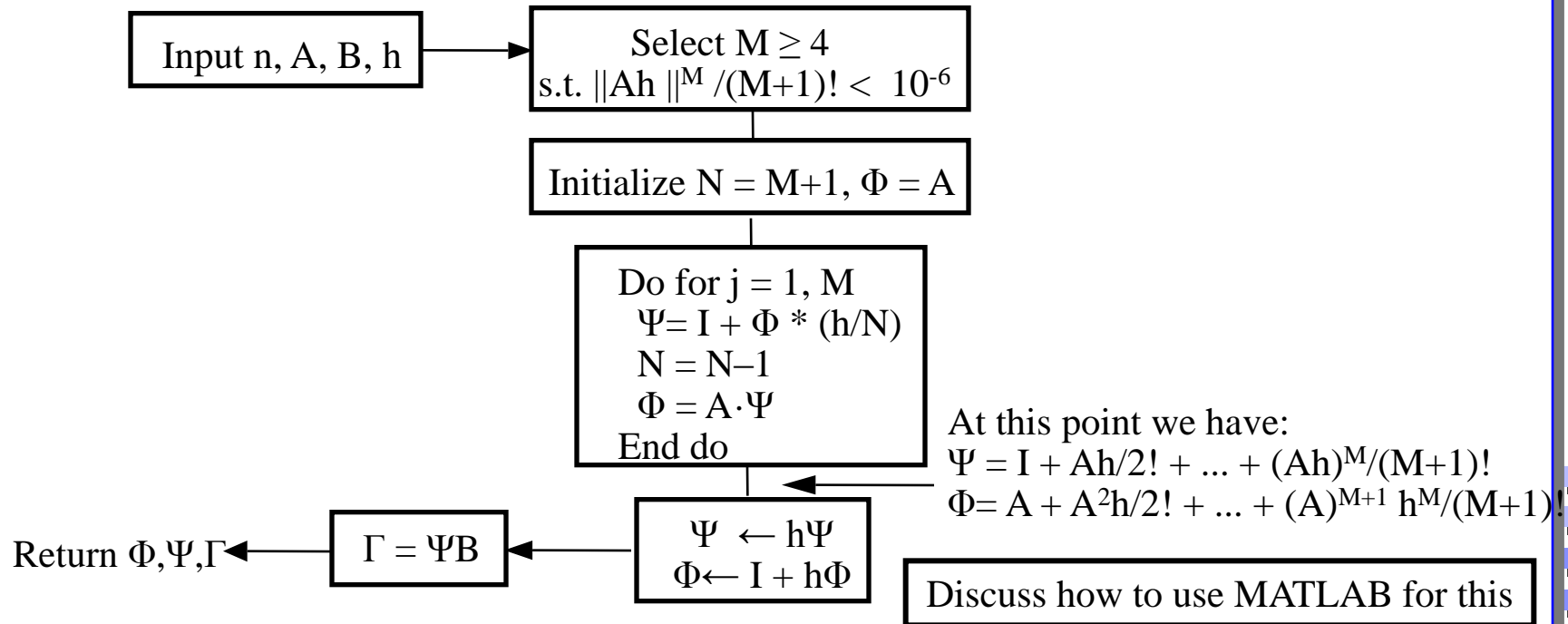
# Algorithm for Obtaining $\Psi(h)$ and $\Phi, \Gamma$

Once M is determined, compute  $\Psi(h)$  via series. Since the magnitude of the higher-order terms in series decreases as M grows, sum the series using reverse nesting. -

$$\Psi(h) = h \left[ I + \dots \frac{Ah}{M-2} \left( I + \frac{Ah}{M-1} \left( I + \frac{Ah}{M} \left( I + \frac{Ah}{M+1} \right) \right) \right) \dots \right]$$

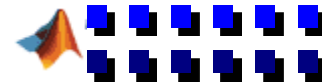
This assures that very small numbers are never added to much bigger numbers.

Flow diagram of a Subroutine "Dscrt" (your own c2d function) for general use:



Then:  $\tilde{G}(z) = C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} \Gamma + \{Dz^{-1}\}$

Use SS → TFM code to obtain coefficients.







# Modifications to SS → TFM

- Use modified SS→TFM code to obtain coefficients.

Let  $\underline{\gamma}_j$  be the  $j^{\text{th}}$  column of  $\Gamma$  and  $\underline{c}_k^T$  be the  $k^{\text{th}}$  row of  $C$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Key relation: } g_{kj}(z) &= \underline{c}_k^T (zI - \Phi)^{-1} \underline{\gamma}_j + d_{kj} z^{-1} = \frac{|zI - \Phi + \underline{\gamma}_j \underline{c}_k^T|}{|zI - \Phi|} - 1 + \frac{d_{kj}}{z} \\ &= \frac{z |zI - \Phi + \underline{\gamma}_j \underline{c}_k^T| + (d_{kj} - z) |zI - \Phi|}{z |zI - \Phi|} \end{aligned}$$

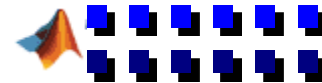
Let  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_n$  be the eigen values of  $(\Phi - \underline{\gamma}_j \underline{c}_k^T)$  and  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  be the eigen values of  $\Phi$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} g_{kj}(z) &= \frac{z \prod_{i=1}^n (z - \delta_i) + (d_{kj} - z) \prod_{i=1}^n (z - \lambda_i)}{z \prod_{i=1}^n (z - \lambda_i)} \\ &= \frac{z[z^n + \tilde{b}_1 z^{n-1} + \tilde{b}_2 z^{n-2} + \dots + \tilde{b}_n] + (d_{kj} - z)[z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + a_2 z^{n-2} + \dots + a_n]}{z(z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + a_2 z^{n-2} + \dots + a_n)} \\ &= \frac{z^{-1}(b_0 z^n + b_1 z^{n-1} + b_2 z^{n-2} + \dots + b_n)}{z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + a_2 z^{n-2} + \dots + a_n}; \quad b_i = \tilde{b}_{i+1} + d_{kj} a_i - a_{i+1}, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad a_0 = 1, \tilde{b}_{n+1} = a_{n+1} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

```

b(n+2,j,k)=0; a(n+2)=0;
for i =1:n+1
    b(i,j,k)=b(i+1,j,k)+D(k,j)*a(i)-a(i+1);
end
    
```

Mods to SS → TFM code



# Example: First Order System

- Example 1:  
Equivalent discrete model for scalar system

$$\dot{x} = -ax + bu, \quad y = x; \quad G(s) = b/(s+a)$$

$$\Phi = e^{-ah}, \quad \Psi = \int_0^h e^{-a\sigma} d\sigma = -\frac{1}{a} \left( e^{-a\sigma} \right) \Big|_0^h = (1 - e^{-ah})/a; \quad \Gamma = b\Psi = (1 - e^{-ah})b/a$$

$$x(k+1) = e^{-ah}x(k) + \left[ (1 - e^{-ah})/a \right] bu(k); \quad y(k) = x(k)$$

$$\tilde{G}(z) = \frac{b(1 - e^{-ah})/a}{z - e^{-ah}} = \frac{z^{-1}(1 - e^{-ah})(b/a)}{1 - z^{-1}e^{-ah}}$$

$$\tilde{G}(z) = \frac{\Gamma}{z - \Phi}$$

→ Note omnipresent one unit (h) delay in  $\tilde{G}(z)$  ( $b_0 = 0$ ).

# Example: Second Order System

• Example 2:

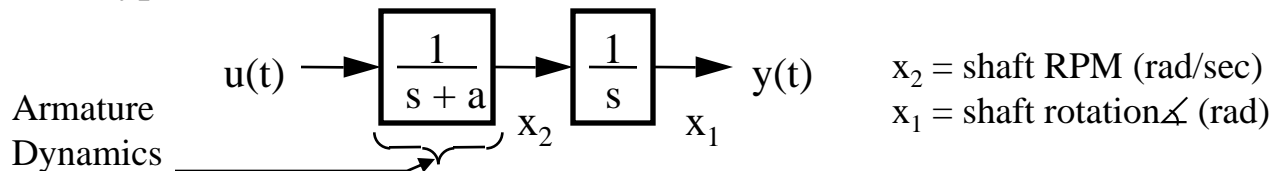
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$y(t) = [1 \quad 0] \underline{x}(k) = x_1(k)$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0$$

$$\lambda_2 = -a$$

This is typical of a model for a motor.



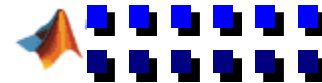
Analytic approach for arbitrary  $a$ :

$$\Phi = e^{Ah} = L^{-1} \left[ (sI - A)^{-1} \right]_{t=h} = L^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{s} & \frac{1}{s(s+a)} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{s+a} \end{bmatrix}_{t=h} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{a}(1 - e^{-ah}) \\ 0 & e^{-ah} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Eigenvalues } 1, e^{-ah}$$

$$\Psi = \int_0^h e^{A\sigma} d\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} h & \frac{1}{a} \left[ h + \frac{1}{a}(e^{-ah} - 1) \right] \\ 0 & \frac{1 - e^{-ah}}{a} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \Gamma = \Psi B = \begin{bmatrix} a^{-1} \left[ h + a^{-1}(e^{-ah} - 1) \right] \\ -a^{-1}(e^{-ah} - 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$\tilde{G}(z)$  = transfer function of equivalent discrete system,  $C(zI - \Phi)^{-1}\Gamma$  (tedious via hand calculation!)

$$= \frac{(ah + e^{-ah} - 1) \left( z + \frac{1 - e^{-ah} - ahe^{-ah}}{ah + e^{-ah} - 1} \right)}{a^2 (z-1)(z - e^{-ah})}$$





## Example 2a: Double Integrator System

Special case of Example 2 when  $a = 0 \Rightarrow G(s) = 1/s^2$

We can consider  $\lim$  as  $a \rightarrow 0$  using L'Hospital's rule (messy), or redo problem for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad C = [1 \quad 0]$$

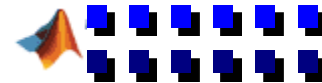
$$\Phi = e^{Ah} = L^{-1} \left[ (sI - A)^{-1} \right]_{t=h} = L^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{s} & \frac{1}{s^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{s} \end{bmatrix}_{t=h} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & h \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Psi = \int_0^h e^{A\sigma} d\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} h & h^2/2 \\ 0 & h \end{bmatrix}; \quad \Gamma = \Psi B = \begin{bmatrix} h^2/2 \\ h \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x}(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & h \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}(k) + \begin{bmatrix} h^2/2 \\ h \end{bmatrix} u(k)$$

$$\tilde{G}(z) = [1 \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{z-1} & \frac{h}{(z-1)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{z-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{h^2}{2} \\ h \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{G}(z) = \frac{h^2/2}{z-1} + \frac{h^2}{(z-1)^2} = \frac{h^2}{2} \frac{z+1}{(z-1)^2}$$



# Example 3: F-8 Aircraft Model - 1

a) continuous system model

$$\dot{\underline{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1.5 & -1.5 & 0 & 0.0057 & 1.5 \\ -12 & 12 & -0.6 & -0.0344 & -12 \\ -0.852 & 0.290 & 0 & -0.014 & -0.29 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.730 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0.16 & 0.80 \\ -19 & -3 \\ -0.015 & -0.0087 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{u} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1.1459 \end{bmatrix} d; \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}$$

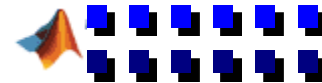
$$G(s) = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} -19s^2 - 26.85s - 0.3425 & -3s^2 + 5.058s + 0.06823 \\ 0.16s^3 + 0.09817s^2 - 26.58s - 0.2847 & 0.8s^3 + 0.4912s^2 + 5.107s + 0.06238 \end{bmatrix}}{s^4 + 2.114s^3 + 12.93s^2 + 0.1503s + 0.009442};$$

$$G_d(s) = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} -13.75s^2 - 0.1811s \\ 1.719s^3 + 1.053s^2 + 0.0133s + 0.01082 \end{bmatrix}}{s^5 + 2.844s^4 + 14.47s^3 + 9.588s^2 + 0.1192s + 0.006892}$$

b) select  $h$ :  $h = \frac{0.2}{\|A\|_2} = 0.0095 \Rightarrow h = 0.01 \text{ sec}$

c) Discrete system model

$$\underline{x}(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9994 & 5.958 \cdot 10^{-4} & 9.968 \cdot 10^{-3} & -1.705 \cdot 10^{-6} & -0.0005943 \\ 0.01488 & 0.9851 & 7.447 \cdot 10^{-5} & 5.656 \cdot 10^{-5} & 0.01483 \\ -0.1187 & 0.1187 & 0.9934 & -3.3395 \cdot 10^{-4} & -0.1183 \\ -8.496 \cdot 10^{-3} & 2.876 \cdot 10^{-3} & -4.244 \cdot 10^{-5} & 0.9999 & -2.866 \cdot 10^{-3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.9927 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}(k) + \begin{bmatrix} -9.477 \cdot 10^{-4} & 0 - 1.481 \cdot 10^{-4} \\ 1.583 \cdot 10^{-3} & 7.94 \cdot 10^{-3} \\ -0.1893 & -0.02943 \\ -1.10 \cdot 10^{-4} & -7.503 \cdot 10^{-5} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{u}(k) + \begin{bmatrix} -2.276 \cdot 10^{-6} \\ 8.53 \cdot 10^{-5} \\ -6.81 \cdot 10^{-4} \\ -1.649 \cdot 10^{-5} \\ 0.01142 \end{bmatrix} d(k)$$



## Example 3: F-8 Aircraft Model - 2

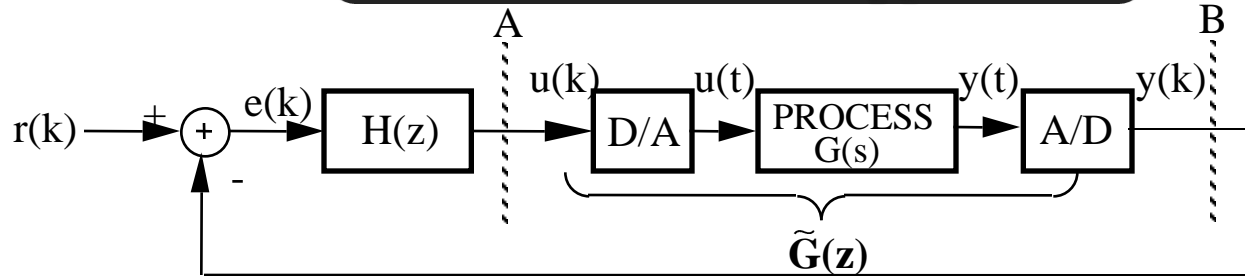
d) Discrete TFM

$$\tilde{G}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-0.0009477 z^3 + 0.0009366 z^2 + 0.0009433 z - 0.0009322}{z^4 - 3.978 z^3 + 5.935 z^2 - 3.936 z + 0.9791} & \frac{-0.0001481 z^3 + 0.0001525 z^2 + 0.0001443 z - 0.0001487}{z^4 - 3.978 z^3 + 5.935 z^2 - 3.936 z + 0.9791} \\ \frac{0.001583 z^3 - 0.004767 z^2 + 0.004757 z - 0.001574}{z^4 - 3.978 z^3 + 5.935 z^2 - 3.936 z + 0.9791} & \frac{0.00794 z^3 - 0.02377 z^2 + 0.02372 z - 0.007891}{z^4 - 3.978 z^3 + 5.935 z^2 - 3.936 z + 0.9791} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{G}_d(z) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-2.276e-006 z^4 - 4.487e-006 z^3 + 1.355e-005 z^2 - 4.549e-006 z - 2.243e-006}{z^5 - 4.971 z^4 + 9.884 z^3 - 9.827 z^2 + 4.886 z - 0.972} & \\ \frac{8.53e-005 z^4 - 0.0001707 z^3 + 1.371e-006 z^2 + 0.0001682 z - 8.415e-005}{z^5 - 4.971 z^4 + 9.884 z^3 - 9.827 z^2 + 4.886 z - 0.972} & \end{bmatrix}$$

- **MATLAB functions:**
  - **sysc=ss(A,B,C,D)**
  - **gs=tf(sysc)**
  - **sysd=c2d(sysc,h)**
  - **gz=tf(sysd)**
  - **gz=c2d(gs,h)**

# Discrete System Equivalents – Xfer Function Approach



If the process to be controlled is described by a transfer function  $G(s)$ , can we find  $\tilde{G}(z)$  directly?

Indirect approach - (1) Write a state-space model for the process e.g., SCF or SOF or Balanced

(2) Find  $\Phi, \Gamma$  using state variable approach

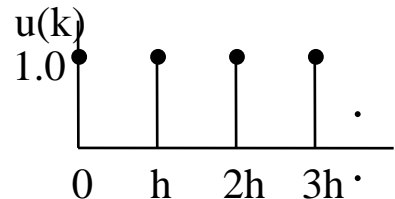
(3) Compute  $\tilde{G}(z) = C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} \Gamma$

• Direct approach - Find Z-transform of unit pulse response  $\equiv \tilde{G}(z)$ , between points A and B.

First obtain the step response.

(1) Let  $u(k)$  be a unit step input

$$u(z) = 1/(1-z^{-1}).$$



(2) If the D/A Converter is a zero-order hold, then  $u(t)$  will be a pure step,

$$u(t) = 1 \text{ for } t > 0 \implies u(s) = 1/s.$$

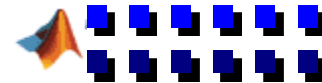
(3) Since the process is continuous,  $y(s) = G(s)/s$  and  $y(t) = L^{-1} [G(s)/s]$ .

(4) Sampling  $y(t)$  and taking the z-transform yields  $y(z)$

$$y(z) = Z\{L^{-1} [G(s)/s]\} = \text{z-transform of step response usual notation: } Z\{L^{-1} [F(s)]\} \triangleq Z\{F(s)\}.$$

(5) If  $u(k) = 1$ , the response is  $(1-z^{-1}) y(z) = (z-1) y(z)/z$

$$\tilde{G}(z) = (1-z^{-1}) Z\{L^{-1}(G(s)/s)\}$$





## Discrete System Equivalents (Cont'd)

The resulting  $\tilde{G}(z)$  must be the same as that obtained via state-space.

Example:  $G(s) = \frac{a}{s+a} \Rightarrow \frac{G(s)}{s} = \frac{a}{s(s+a)} = \left[ \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{s+a} \right]$

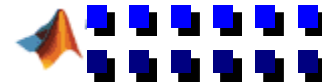
$$L^{-1} \left[ \frac{G(s)}{s} \right] = 1 - e^{-at} = y(t); \text{ sampled } y(kh) = 1 - e^{-ahk}$$

$$Z\{y(kh)\} = \frac{1}{1-z^{-1}} - \frac{1}{1-e^{-ah}z^{-1}} \Rightarrow (1-z^{-1})Z\{y(kh)\} = 1 - \frac{1-z^{-1}}{1-e^{-ah}z^{-1}} = \frac{z^{-1}(1-e^{-ah})}{1-e^{-ah}z^{-1}}$$

The direct approach gets quite messy for  $n > 2$ . Preferred method is via state-space  $\Phi, \Gamma$  then  $\tilde{G}(z)$ .

- Remember!
- (1) The computer is "controlling" a discrete process with transfer function  $\tilde{G}(z)$  not a continuous process  $G(s)$ .
  - (2) Zero-order D/A holds have been assumed (it is possible to re-do state-space approach with first order holds).

$\Rightarrow$  Of concern is the comparison of  $G(s)|_{s=j\omega}$  vs.  $\tilde{G}(z)|_{z=e^{j\omega h}}$ .







# Relationship Between $G(s)$ and $\tilde{G}(z)$

How close is  $\tilde{G}(z)|_{z=e^{sh}}$  to original  $G(s)$  when  $s = j\omega$ ?

Can expect differences in both magnitude and phase

$$\tilde{G}(z) = (1 - z^{-1})Z\left\{\frac{G(s)}{s}\right\} \Rightarrow \tilde{G}(z)|_{z=e^{sh}} = (1 - e^{-sh})\left[\frac{G(s)}{s}\right]^*$$

$$\left[ \text{Recall } F^*(s) \triangleq F(z)|_{z=e^{sh}}, \text{ and relationship between } F^*(s) \text{ and } F(s), F^*(s) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} F(s - jn\omega_s) \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{G(s)}{s}\right]^* \sim \frac{1}{h} \left[ \frac{G(s)}{s} + \frac{G(s - j\omega_s)}{s - j\omega_s} + \frac{G(s + j\omega_s)}{s + j\omega_s} \right]$$

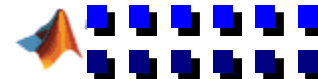
If  $\omega \ll \omega_s/2 = \pi/h$ , and  $|G(j\omega \pm j\omega_s)| \ll 1$  then to a first approximation;

$$\left[\frac{G(s)}{s}\right]^* \sim \frac{1}{h} \left[\frac{G(s)}{s}\right] \text{ and } \tilde{G}(z)|_{z=e^{sh}} \sim \underbrace{\left[\frac{1 - e^{-sh}}{sh}\right]}_{\text{Sample \& Hold } \div h} G(s)$$

$$\tilde{G}(e^{sh})|_{s=j\omega} = \underbrace{e^{-j\omega h/2}}_{h/2 \text{ sec Delay}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\sin \omega h/2}{\omega h/2}\right)}_{\text{Magnitude Distortion}} G(j\omega)$$

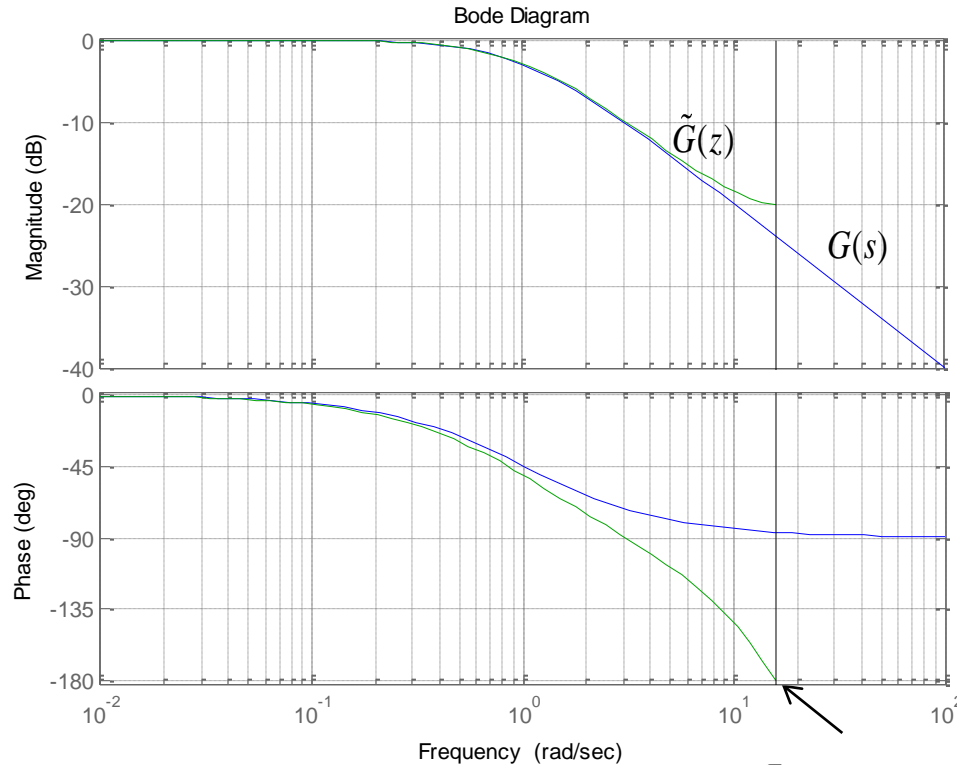
$\Rightarrow$  To a crude first approximation, equivalent discrete transfer function is  $\sim$  original continuous one with some magnitude distortion and an  $h/2$  sec delay, in the region  $\omega \ll \pi/h$ .

"Exact" comparison requires Bode plot of  $G(j\omega)$  vs.  $G(e^{j\omega h})$  – **c2d, bode**



# Comparison of Continuous and Discrete Equivalent Bode Plots

$$G(s) = 1/(s + 1); h = 0.2 \implies \tilde{G}(z) = 0.1813/(z - 0.8187)$$



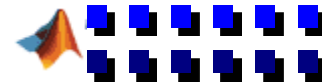
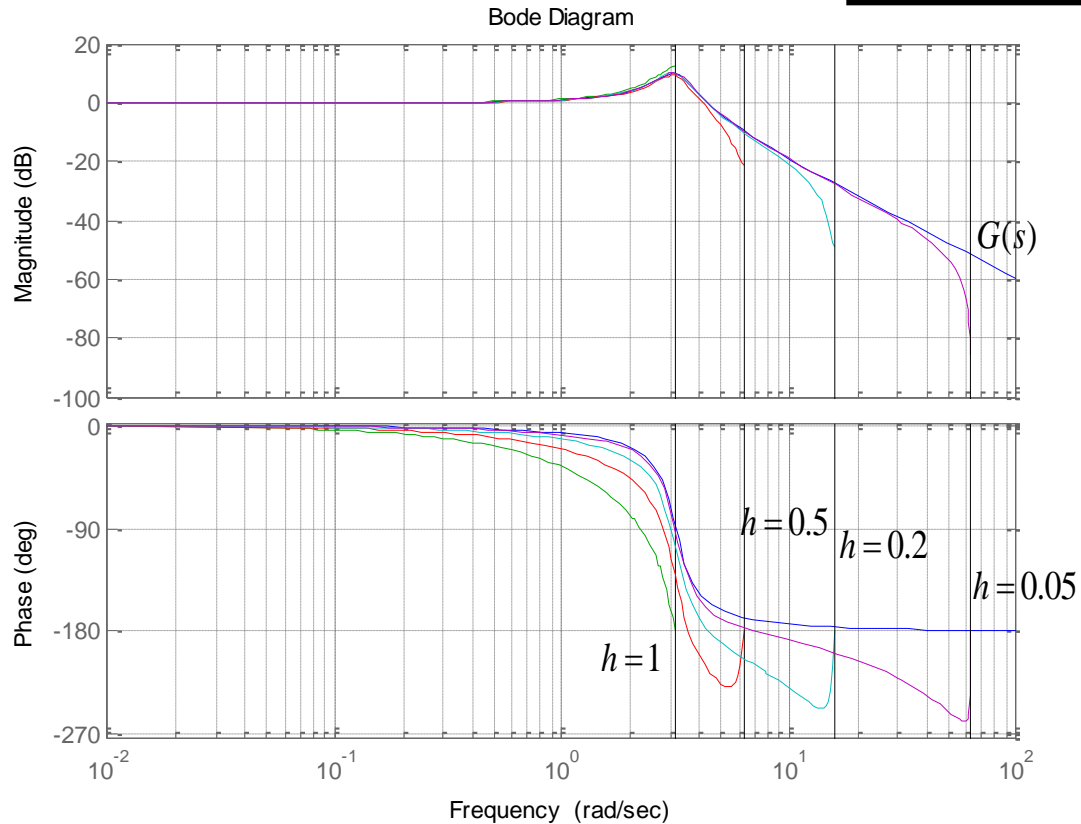
```
Code:  
gs = tf([1],[1 1])  
h=0.2  
gz=c2d(gs,h)  
bode(gs),grid  
hold  
bode(gz)
```

$$\frac{\pi}{h} = 5\pi = 15.71 \text{ rad / sec}$$

# Effects of Time Step $h$ on $\tilde{G}(z)$

$$G(s) = \frac{10}{s^2 + s + 10}; \quad h_{\max} = \frac{\pi}{|\lambda_{\max}|} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{10}} \sim 1.0$$

Suggested  $h = 0.05$





# Anatomy of a Discrete Transfer Function

- Examine Bode plot structure of  $G(e^{j\omega h})$  as a function of  $\omega$  for  $\omega > \pi/h$ 
  - For any discrete transfer function,  $G(z)$ , letting  $z = e^{j\omega h}$ :

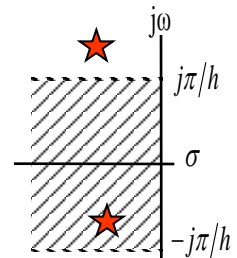
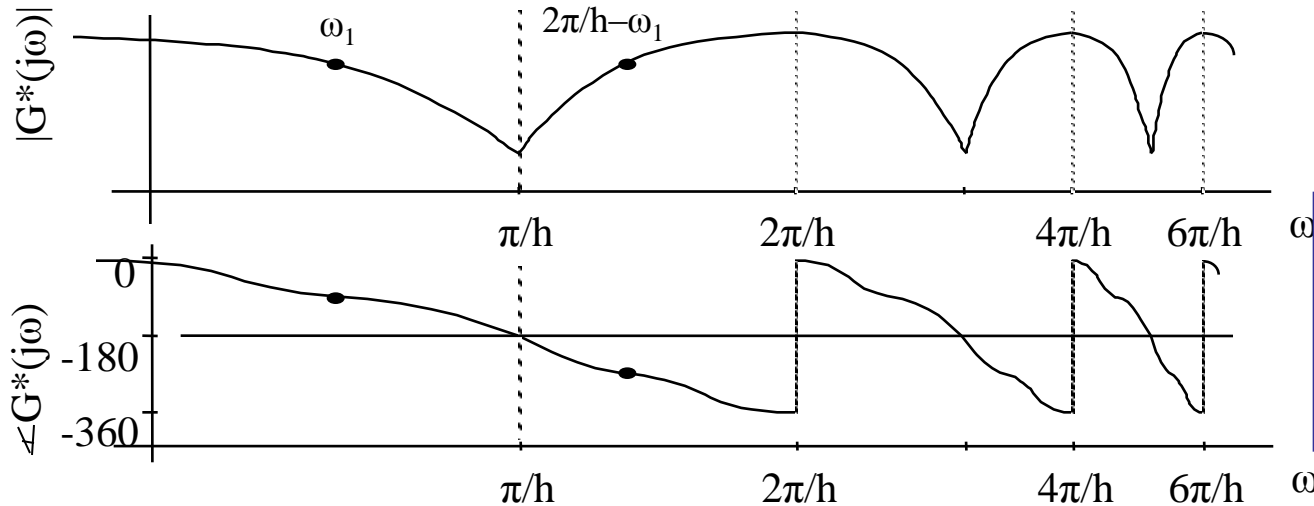
$$G^*(j\omega) \triangleq G(e^{j\omega h}) = G[e^{-j(2\pi/h - \omega)h}] = \text{conj}\{G[e^{j(2\pi/h - \omega)h}]\} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} |G^*(j\omega)| &= |G^*(2\pi/h - j\omega)| \\ \angle G^*(j\omega) &= -\angle G^*(2\pi/h - j\omega) \end{aligned}$$

so, over the interval  $[0, 2\pi/h]$ :

$|G^*(j\omega)|$  has even symmetry about  $\omega = \pi/h$

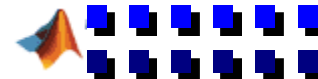
$\angle G^*(j\omega)$  has odd symmetry about  $\omega = \pi/h$   $\{\angle G^*(j\pi/h) = 0^\circ \text{ or } \pm 180^\circ \text{ since } e^{j\pi} = -1\}$

Over  $\left[2k\frac{\pi}{h}, 2(k+1)\frac{\pi}{h}\right]$ ,  $k=1, 2, \dots$ ,  $G^*(j\omega)$  is the same as that over  $\left[0, \frac{2\pi}{h}\right]$



$$\begin{aligned} \omega \frac{\pi}{h} + \omega \text{ maps to} \\ -\frac{2\pi}{h} + \frac{\pi}{h} + \omega &= -\frac{\pi}{h} + \omega \\ &= -(\frac{\pi}{h} - \omega) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  If  $G(s)$  has a pole at  $s = 0$ , then  $G^*(j\omega) \rightarrow \infty$  for  $\omega = 2\pi k/h$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$





# Modeling a Process with Delay in Control, $\tau = Mh + \epsilon$

If

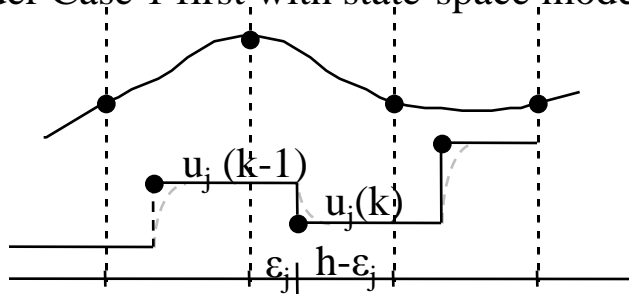
$$\dot{\underline{x}} = A\underline{x} + \sum_{j=1}^m \underline{b}_j u_j(t - \tau_j); \underline{y} = C\underline{x} + \sum_{j=1}^m \underline{d}_j u_j(t - \tau_j); \underline{d}_j = \text{column } j \text{ of } D \text{ or } G(s) \rightarrow G(s) \text{ Diag} [\exp(-s\tau_j)]$$

what is the appropriate discrete equivalent model?

Case 1:  $M_j = 0$ ;  $\tau_j = \epsilon_j$  and  $0 \leq \epsilon_j < h$   
(typical model of computational delay)

Case 2:  $M_j = \text{integer} \geq 1$ ;  $\tau_j = M_j h + \epsilon_j$  and  $0 \leq \epsilon_j < h$   
(for cases when there is a large delay)

Consider Case 1 first with state-space model.

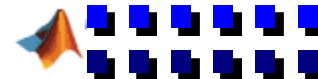


Obtain  $\underline{x} [(k+1)h]$  from  $\underline{x}(kh)$  and input to system over  $(kh, (k+1)h]$ .

### Delay Sources

- Computational delays
- Transmission delays
- Plant delays

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x} [(k+1)h] &= e^{Ah} \underline{x}(kh) + \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{kh}^{(k+1)h} e^{A((k+1)h-\xi)} \underline{b}_j u_j(\xi) d\xi \\ &= e^{Ah} \underline{x}(kh) + \sum_{j=1}^m \left[ \int_{kh}^{kh+\epsilon_j} e^{A((k+1)h-\xi)} \underline{b}_j d\xi u_j(k-1) + \int_{kh+\epsilon_j}^{(k+1)h} e^{A((k+1)h-\xi)} \underline{b}_j d\xi u_j(k) \right] \\ &\quad \downarrow \sigma = (k+1)h - \xi \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \sigma = (k+1)h - \xi \\ \underline{x} [(k+1)h] &= e^{Ah} \underline{x}(kh) + \sum_{j=1}^m \left[ \int_{h-\epsilon_j}^h e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j u_j(k-1) + \int_0^{h-\epsilon_j} e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j u_j(k) \right] \end{aligned}$$





# State Model for a Process with Fractional Delay

$$\underline{x}(k+1) = \Phi \underline{x}(k) + \sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_{-1j} u_j(k-1) + \sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_{-0j} u_j(k) = \Phi \underline{x}(k) + \Gamma_1 \underline{u}(k-1) + \Gamma_0 \underline{u}(k)$$

where  $\Phi = e^{Ah}$ ;  $\gamma_{-0j} = \int_0^{h-\varepsilon_j} e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j$ ;  $\gamma_{-1j} = \int_{h-\varepsilon_j}^h e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j = e^{A(h-\varepsilon_j)} \int_0^{\varepsilon_j} e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j$

To compute  $\Phi, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_0$ : Do for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$

- (1) Use c2d with  $(A, B, \varepsilon_j)$ : obtain  $e^{A\varepsilon_j}$  and  $\Psi(\varepsilon_j)$ ;
- (2) Use c2d with  $(A, B, h-\varepsilon_j)$ : obtain  $e^{A(h-\varepsilon_j)}$  and  $\Psi(h-\varepsilon_j)$ ;
- (3)  $\gamma_{-0j} = \Psi(h-\varepsilon_j) \underline{b}_j, \gamma_{-1j} = e^{A(h-\varepsilon_j)} \Psi(\varepsilon_j) \underline{b}_j, \Phi = e^{A(h-\varepsilon_j)} e^{A\varepsilon_j}$  (need to do this for any one  $j$ ).

- Augmented state model,  $\underline{\chi}(k) \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}(k) \\ \underline{u}(k-1) \end{bmatrix}$  an  $(n+m)$ - vector

Then 
$$\underline{\chi}(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}(k+1) \\ \underline{u}(k) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & \Gamma_1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{\chi}(k) + \begin{bmatrix} \Gamma_0 \\ I_m \end{bmatrix} \underline{u}(k)$$

Output equation (as long as  $\varepsilon < h$ )

$$\underline{y}(k) = C \underline{x}(k) + \{D \underline{u}(k-1)\} = [C \mid D] \underline{\chi}(k)$$

- Transfer function,  $\tilde{G}(z)$

$$\underline{\underline{x}}(z) = (zI - \Phi)^{-1} [\Gamma_1 z^{-1} + \Gamma_0] \underline{u}(z)$$

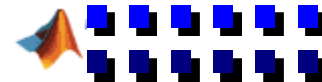
$$\underline{y}(z) = z^{-1} [C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} (z\Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1) + D] \underline{u}(z)$$

$\tilde{g}_{kj}(z)$  will have a form

$$\tilde{g}_{kj}(z) = \frac{c_{0kj} z^n + c_{1kj} z^{n-1} + \dots + c_{nkj}}{z(z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n)}; k = 1, 2, \dots, p; j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

Invoke the previous SS  $\rightarrow$  TFM routine with the augmented system. Alternately, compute  $C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} \Gamma_0$  &  $C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} \Gamma_1$ . Compute numerator and denominator (recall:  $z \rightarrow$  shift)

$$c_{0kj} = b_{01kj} + d_{kj}; c_{ikj} = b_{0i+1kj} + b_{1ikj} + d_{kj} a_i; b_{0n+1kj} = 0; a_{n+1} = 0$$



# State Model for a Process with Large Delay

$$\tau_j = M_j h + \varepsilon_j; \quad M_j = \text{integer} \geq 1; \quad 0 \leq \varepsilon_j < h; \quad j=1,2,\dots,m$$

Modeling approach same as for Case 1, but with added  $M_j$  time-step delay,

$$\underline{x}(k+1) = \Phi \underline{x}(k) + \sum_{j=1}^m [\underline{\gamma}_{-1j} u_j(k-1-M_j) + \underline{\gamma}_{0j} u_j(k-M_j)]$$

$$\underline{y}(k) = C \underline{x}(k) + \sum_{j=1}^m \underline{d}_j u_j(k-1-M_j); \quad \underline{d}_j = \text{column } j \text{ of } D$$

- Transfer function matrix  $M = \max_{1 \leq j \leq m} M_j$

$$\tilde{G}(z) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{z} \left[ C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} (z\Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1) + D \right]}_{\text{previous result with } M=0} \text{Diag}[z^{-M_j}] = \frac{1}{z^M} \underbrace{\frac{1}{z} \left[ C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} (z\Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1) + D \right]}_{\text{previous result with } M=0} \text{Diag}[z^{M-M_j}],$$

$$\underline{\gamma}_{0j} = \int_0^{h-\varepsilon_j} e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j, \quad \underline{\gamma}_{-1j} = e^{A(h-\varepsilon_j)} \int_0^{\varepsilon_j} e^{A\sigma} d\sigma \underline{b}_j; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

- Augmented State Model ( $m=2$ ): Define

$$\underline{\chi}(k) \triangleq [\underline{x}(k) \quad u_1(k-1-M_1) \quad u_1(k-M_1) \quad \dots \quad u_1(k-1) \quad u_2(k-1-M_2) \quad u_2(k-M_2) \quad \dots \quad u_2(k-1)]^T = n + m + \sum_{j=1}^m M_j \text{ vector}$$

$$\underline{\chi}(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & \underline{z}_{11} & \underline{z}_{01} & 0 & \dots & 0 & \underline{z}_{12} & \underline{z}_{02} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{\chi}(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ \dots & \dots \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \underline{u}(k); \quad \underline{y}(k) = [C \quad \underline{d}_1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \dots \quad 0 \quad \underline{d}_2 \quad 0 \quad \dots \quad 0] \underline{\chi}(k)$$



# SISO State Model for a Process with Large Delay

$$\tau = Mh + \varepsilon; \quad M = \text{integer} \geq 1; \quad 0 \leq \varepsilon < h$$

Modeling approach same as for Case 1, but with added M time-step delay,

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x}(k+1) &= \Phi \underline{x}(k) + \Gamma_1 u(k-1-M) + \Gamma_0 u(k-M) \\ y(k) &= C \underline{x}(k) + \{d u(k-1-M)\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.39)$$

- Augmented State Model,

Define  $\underline{\chi}(k) \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}(k) \\ u(k-1-M) \\ u(k-M) \\ \vdots \\ u(k-1) \end{bmatrix} = n+1+M \text{ vector}$

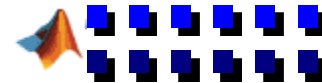
$$\underline{\chi}(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & \Gamma_1 & \Gamma_0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & & & & \\ 0 & & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & & & & 1 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underline{\chi}(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k)$$

$$y(k) = [c \quad d \quad 0 \quad \cdots \quad 0] \underline{\chi}(k)$$

- Transfer function

$$\tilde{G}(z) = \frac{1}{z^M} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{z} [C(zI - \Phi)^{-1} (z\Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1) + d]}_{\text{previous result with } M=0},$$

$$\Gamma_0 = \int_0^{h-\varepsilon} e^{A\sigma} d\sigma B, \quad \Gamma_1 = e^{A(h-\varepsilon)} \int_0^\varepsilon e^{A\sigma} d\sigma B$$







# Transfer Function Approach to Modeling a Process with Delay

Since  $g_{kj}(s) \rightarrow g_{kj}(s)e^{-(M_j h + \varepsilon_j)}$ , we have  $\tilde{g}_{kj}(z) = (1 - z^{-1}) Z \left\{ \frac{g_{kj}(s)e^{-(M_j h + \varepsilon_j)}}{s} \right\}$

But,  $e^{-M_j h s} = z^{-M_j} \Rightarrow \tilde{g}_{kj}(z) = z^{-M_j} (1 - z^{-1}) Z \left\{ \frac{g_{kj}(s)e^{-\varepsilon_j s}}{s} \right\}$

Approach - (1) Form  $\frac{g_{kj}(s)e^{-\varepsilon_j s}}{s}; 0 \leq \varepsilon_j \leq h$   
 (2) Take  $L^{-1}$  inverse Laplace  
 (3) Sample resulting time signal  
 (4) Take  $z$ -transforms

} Messy!

## Example

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s+a} e^{-Mhs} e^{-\varepsilon s} \Rightarrow \dot{x} = -ax + u(t - \tau)$$

$$\Phi = e^{-ah}; \Gamma_0 = \int_0^{h-\varepsilon} e^{-a\sigma} d\sigma = [1 - e^{-a(h-\varepsilon)}]/a; \Gamma_1 = e^{-a(h-\varepsilon)} \int_0^{\varepsilon} e^{-a\sigma} d\sigma = e^{-a(h-\varepsilon)} (1 - e^{-a\varepsilon})/a$$

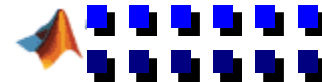
$$\tilde{G}(z) = \frac{1}{az^{M+1}} \left\{ \frac{(1 - e^{-a(h-\varepsilon)})z + e^{-ah}(e^{a\varepsilon} - 1)}{z - e^{-ah}} \right\}$$

Ex.  $a = 1.0, M = 2, \varepsilon = 0.5, h = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{G}(z) = \frac{1}{z^3} \left\{ \frac{(1 - e^{-0.5})z + e^{-1}(e^{0.5} - 1)}{z - e^{-1}} \right\} = \frac{0.393(z + 0.607)}{z^3(z - 0.368)}$$

Note: In many applications the time-step is dictated by the on-line computational requirements.

$\Rightarrow \tau$  is often comparable to  $h$ .





# Summary

## 1. Digital Interfacing

- Signal Conditioning
- A/D and D/A converters

## 2. Signal Sampling and Data Reconstruction

- Impulse sampling model; Nyquist theorem; Aliasing and interpretation
- Signal conditioning circuits

## 3. Discrete Equivalents: State-Space Approach

- Discretization algorithm

## 4. Discrete Equivalents: Transfer Function Approach

- Relation to original continuous system

## 5. Model Modifications with Delay in Control

