

Automatic Control 1

Discrete-time linear systems

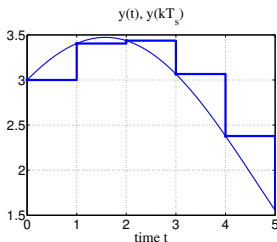
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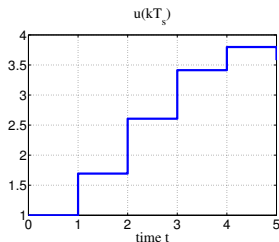


Academic year 2010-2011

Introduction



Sampling of a continuous signal



Discrete-time signal

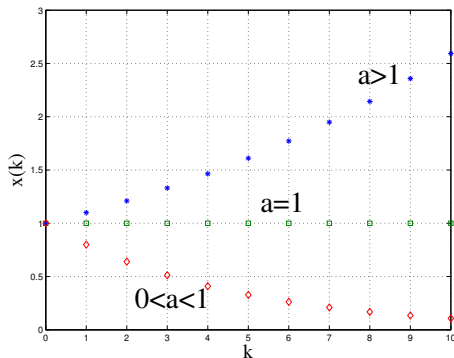
- Discrete-time models describe relationships between *sampled* variables $x(kT_s)$, $u(kT_s)$, $y(kT_s)$, $k = 0, 1, \dots$
- The value $x(kT_s)$ is kept constant during the *sampling interval* $[kT_s, (k+1)T_s)$
- A discrete-time signal can either represent the *sampling* of a *continuous-time* signal, or be an intrinsically discrete signal
- Discrete-time signals are at the basis of *digital controllers* (as well as of digital filters in signal processing)

Difference equation

- Consider the first order *difference equation* (autonomous system)

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) &= ax(k) \\ x(0) &= x_0 \end{cases}$$

- The solution is $x(k) = a^k x_0$



Difference equation

- First-order difference equation with input (non-autonomous system)

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) &= ax(k) + bu(k) \\ x(0) &= x_0 \end{cases}$$

- The solution has the form

$$x(k) = \underbrace{a^k x_0}_{\text{natural response}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a^i b u(k-1-i)}_{\text{forced response}}$$

- The *natural response* depends on the initial condition $x(0)$, the *forced response* on the input signal $u(k)$

Example - Wealth of a bank account

- k : year counter
- ρ : interest rate
- $x(k)$: wealth at the beginning of year k
- $u(k)$: money saved at the end of year k
- x_0 : initial wealth in bank account

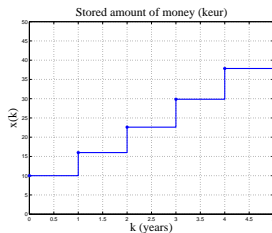


Discrete-time model:

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) &= (1 + \rho)x(k) + u(k) \\ x(0) &= x_0 \end{cases}$$

x_0	10 k€
$u(k)$	5 k€
ρ	10 %

$$x(k) = (1.1)^k \cdot 10 + \frac{1 - (1.1)^k}{1 - 1.1} 5 = 60(1.1)^k - 50$$



Linear discrete-time system

- Consider the set of n first-order linear difference equations forced by the input $u(k) \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{lll} x_1(k+1) & = & a_{11}x_1(k) + \dots + a_{1n}x_n(k) + b_1u(k) \\ x_2(k+1) & = & a_{21}x_1(k) + \dots + a_{2n}x_n(k) + b_2u(k) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_n(k+1) & = & a_{n1}x_1(k) + \dots + a_{nn}x_n(k) + b_nu(k) \\ x_1(0) = x_{10}, \dots & x_n(0) = x_{n0} & \end{array} \right.$$

- In compact matrix form:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} x(k+1) & = Ax(k) + Bu(k) \\ x(0) & = x_0 \end{array} \right.$$

where $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Linear discrete-time system

- The solution is

$$x(k) = \underbrace{A^k x_0}_{\text{natural response}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} A^i B u(k-1-i)}_{\text{forced response}}$$

- If matrix A is diagonalizable, $A = T \Lambda T^{-1}$

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^k = T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^k & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix} T^{-1}$$

where $T = [v_1 \dots v_n]$ collects n independent eigenvectors.

Modal response

- Assume input $u(k) = 0, \forall k \geq 0$
- Assume A is diagonalizable, $A = T\Lambda T^{-1}$
- The state trajectory (natural response) is

$$x(k) = A^k x_0 = T\Lambda^k T^{-1} x_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \lambda_i^k v_i$$

where

- λ_i = eigenvalues of A
- v_i = eigenvectors of A
- α_i = coefficients that depend on the initial condition $x(0)$

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} = T^{-1}x(0), \quad T = [v_1 \dots v_n]$$

- The system modes depend on the eigenvalues of A , as in continuous-time

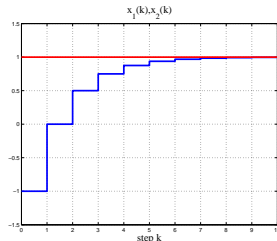
Example

- Consider the linear discrete-time system

$$\begin{cases} x_1(k+1) &= \frac{1}{2}x_1(k) + \frac{1}{2}x_2(k) \\ x_2(k+1) &= x_2(k) + u(k) \\ x_1(0) &= -1 \\ x_2(0) &= 1 \end{cases} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{cases} x(k+1) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k) \\ x(0) &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{cases}$$

- Eigenvalues of A: $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $\lambda_2 = 1$
- Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} x(k) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k-1-i) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2^k} & 1 - \frac{1}{2^k} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{2^i} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k-1-i) \\ &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k-1} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{natural response}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{2^i} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k-1-i)}_{\text{forced response}} \end{aligned}$$



simulation for $u(k) \equiv 0$

n^{th} -order difference equation

- Consider the n^{th} -order difference equation forced by u

$$a_n y(k-n) + a_{n-1} y(k-n+1) + \dots + a_1 y(k-1) + y(k) = b_n u(k-n) + \dots + b_1 u(k-1) + b_0 u(k)$$

- Equivalent linear discrete-time system in *canonical state matrix form*

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k) \\ y(k) = \begin{bmatrix} -a_n & -a_{n-1} & -a_{n-2} & \dots & -a_1 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + b_0 u(k) \end{cases}$$

- There are infinitely many state-space realizations

MATLAB
tf2ss

- n^{th} -order difference equations are very useful for digital filters, digital controllers, and to reconstruct models from data (*system identification*)

Discrete-time linear system

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) &= Ax(k) + Bu(k) \\ y(k) &= Cx(k) + Du(k) \\ x(0) &= x_0 \end{cases}$$

- Given the initial condition $x(0)$ and the input sequence $u(k)$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, it is possible to predict the entire sequence of states $x(k)$ and outputs $y(k)$, $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$
- The state $x(0)$ summarizes all the past history of the system
- The dimension n of the state $x(k) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called the *order* of the system
- The system is called *proper* (or *strictly causal*) if $D = 0$
- General multivariable case:

$$\begin{array}{ll} x(k) & \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ u(k) & \in \mathbb{R}^m \\ y(k) & \in \mathbb{R}^p \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ll} A & \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \\ B & \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \\ C & \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n} \\ D & \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m} \end{array}$$

Example - Student dynamics

- Problem Statement:

- 3-years undergraduate course
- percentages of students promoted, repeaters, and dropouts are roughly constant
- direct enrollment in 2nd and 3rd academic year is not allowed
- students cannot enrol for more than 3 years

- Notation:

k	Year
$x_i(k)$	Number of students enrolled in year i at year k , $i = 1, 2, 3$
$u(k)$	Number of freshmen at year k
$y(k)$	Number of graduates at year k
α_i	promotion rate during year i , $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq 1$
β_i	failure rate during year i , $0 \leq \beta_i \leq 1$
γ_i	dropout rate during year i , $\gamma_i = 1 - \alpha_i - \beta_i \geq 0$

- 3rd-order linear discrete-time system:

$$\begin{cases} x_1(k+1) &= \beta_1 x_1(k) + u(k) \\ x_2(k+1) &= \alpha_1 x_1(k) + \beta_2 x_2(k) \\ x_3(k+1) &= \alpha_2 x_2(k) + \beta_3 x_3(k) \\ y(k) &= \alpha_3 x_3(k) \end{cases}$$



Example - Student dynamics

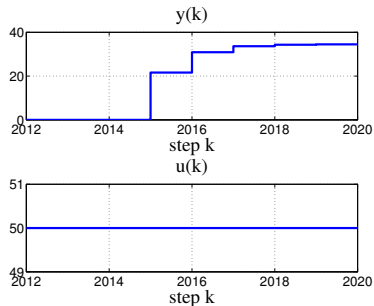
- In matrix form

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_1 & \beta_2 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 & \beta_3 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u(k) \\ y(k) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} x(k) \end{cases}$$

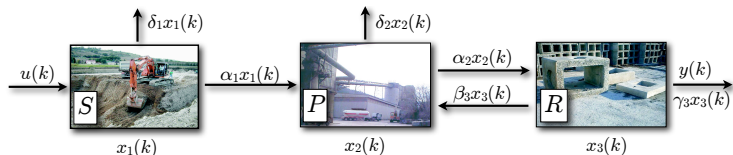
- Simulation

$\alpha_1 = .60$	$\beta_1 = .20$
$\alpha_2 = .80$	$\beta_2 = .15$
$\alpha_3 = .90$	$\beta_3 = .08$

$u(k) \equiv 50, k = 2012, \dots$



Example - Supply chain



• Problem Statement:

- S purchases the quantity $u(k)$ of raw material at each month k
- a fraction δ_1 of raw material is discarded, a fraction α_1 is shipped to producer P
- a fraction α_2 of product is sold by P to retailer R , a fraction δ_2 is discarded
- retailer R returns a fraction β_3 of defective products every month, and sells a fraction γ_3 to customers

• Mathematical model:

$$\begin{cases} x_1(k+1) &= (1 - \alpha_1 - \delta_1)x_1(k) + u(k) \\ x_2(k+1) &= \alpha_1 x_1(k) + (1 - \alpha_2 - \delta_2)x_2(k) + \beta_3 x_3(k) \\ x_3(k+1) &= \alpha_2 x_2(k) + (1 - \beta_3 - \gamma_3)x_3(k) \\ y(k) &= \gamma_3 x_3(k) \end{cases}$$

k	month counter
$x_1(k)$	raw material in S
$x_2(k)$	products in P
$x_3(k)$	products in R
$y(k)$	products sold to customers

Equilibrium

- Consider the discrete-time nonlinear system

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) &= f(x(k), u(k)) \\ y(k) &= g(x(k), u(k)) \end{cases}$$

Definition

A state $x_r \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and an input $u_r \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are an *equilibrium pair* if for initial condition $x(0) = x_r$ and constant input $u(k) \equiv u_r, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$, the state remains constant: $x(k) \equiv x_r, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$

- Equivalent definition: (x_r, u_r) is an equilibrium pair if $f(x_r, u_r) = x_r$
- x_r is called *equilibrium state*, u_r *equilibrium input*
- The definition generalizes to time-varying discrete-time nonlinear systems

Stability

- Consider the nonlinear system

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) &= f(x(k), u_r) \\ y(k) &= g(x(k), u_r) \end{cases}$$

and let x_r an equilibrium state, $f(x_r, u_r) = x_r$

Definition

The equilibrium state x_r is *stable* if for each initial conditions $x(0)$ “close enough” to x_r , the corresponding trajectory $x(k)$ remains near x_r for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ^a

^aAnalytic definition: $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : \|x(0) - x_r\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|x(k) - x_r\| < \epsilon, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$

- The equilibrium point x_r is called *asymptotically stable* if it is stable and $x(k) \rightarrow x_r$ for $k \rightarrow \infty$
- Otherwise, the equilibrium point x_r is called *unstable*

Stability of first-order linear systems

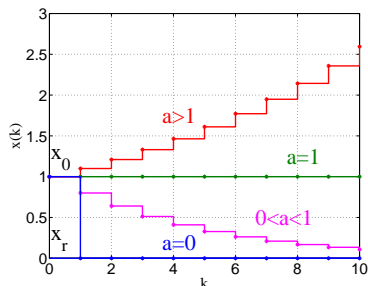
- Consider the first-order linear system

$$x(k+1) = ax(k) + bu(k)$$

- $x_r = 0$, $u_r = 0$ is an equilibrium pair
- For $u(k) \equiv 0$, $\forall k = 0, 1, \dots$, the solution is

$$x(k) = a^k x_0$$

- The origin $x_r = 0$ is
 - unstable if $|a| > 1$
 - stable if $|a| \leq 1$
 - asymptotically stable if $|a| < 1$



Stability of discrete-time linear systems

Since the natural response of $x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$ is $x(k) = A^k x_0$, the stability properties depend only on A . We can therefore talk about **system stability** of a discrete-time linear system (A, B, C, D)

Theorem:

Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$, $m \leq n$ be the eigenvalues of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. The system $x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$ is

- asymptotically stable iff $|\lambda_i| < 1$, $\forall i = 1, \dots, m$
- (marginally) stable if $|\lambda_i| \leq 1$, $\forall i = 1, \dots, m$, and the eigenvalues with unit modulus have equal algebraic and geometric multiplicity^a
- unstable if $\exists i$ such that $|\lambda_i| > 1$

^aAlgebraic multiplicity of λ_i = number of coincident roots λ_i of $\det(\lambda I - A)$. Geometric multiplicity of λ_i = number of linearly independent eigenvectors v_i , $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$

The stability properties of a discrete-time linear system only depend on the **modulus** of the eigenvalues of matrix A

Stability of discrete-time linear systems

Proof:

- The natural response is $x(k) = A^k x_0$
- If matrix A is diagonalizable¹, $A = T \Lambda T^{-1}$,

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^k = T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^k & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix} T^{-1}$$

- Take any eigenvalue $\lambda = \rho e^{j\theta}$:

$$|\lambda^k| = \rho^k |e^{jk\theta}| = \rho^k$$

- A is always diagonalizable if algebraic multiplicity - geometric multiplicity

□

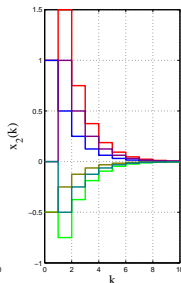
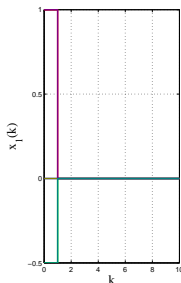
¹If A is not diagonalizable, it can be transformed to Jordan form. In this case the natural response $x(t)$ contains modes $k^j \lambda^k$, $j = 0, 1, \dots$, alg. multiplicity = geom. multiplicity

Example 1

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} x(k) \\ x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{10} \\ x_{20} \end{bmatrix} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{eigenvalues of } A: \left\{0, \frac{1}{2}\right\}$$

solution:

$$\begin{cases} x_1(k) = 0, k = 1, 2, \dots \\ x_2(k) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k-1} x_{10} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k x_{20}, k = 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$



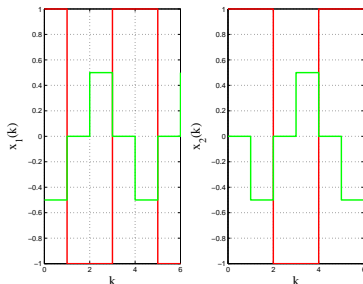
asymptotically stable

Example 2

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x(k) \\ x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{10} \\ x_{20} \end{bmatrix} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{eigenvalues of } A: \{+j, -j\}$$

solution:

$$\begin{cases} x_1(k) = x_{10} \cos \frac{k\pi}{2} + x_{20} \sin \frac{k\pi}{2}, & k = 0, 1, \dots \\ x_2(k) = x_{10} \sin \frac{k\pi}{2} + x_{20} \cos \frac{k\pi}{2}, & k = 0, 1, \dots, \end{cases}$$



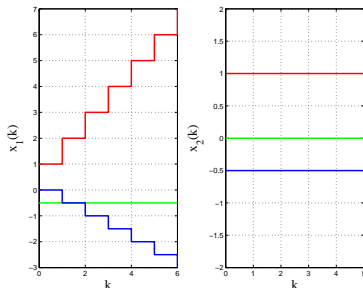
marginally stable

Example 3

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x(k) \\ x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{10} \\ x_{20} \end{bmatrix} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{eigenvalues of } A: \{1, 1\}$$

$$\begin{cases} x_1(k) = x_{10} + x_{20}k, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots \\ x_2(k) = x_{20}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots \end{cases}$$

Note: A is not diagonalizable !



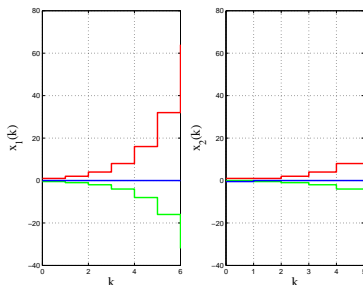
unstable

Example 4

$$\begin{cases} x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x(k) \\ x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{10} \\ x_{20} \end{bmatrix} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{eigenvalues of } A: \{0, 2\}$$

solution:

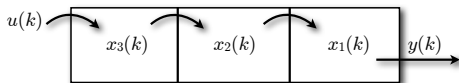
$$\begin{cases} x_1(k) = 2^k x_{10}, & k = 0, 1, \dots \\ x_2(k) = 2^{k-1} x_{10}, & k = 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$



unstable

Zero eigenvalues

- Modes $\lambda_i=0$ determine *finite-time* convergence to zero.
- This has no continuous-time counterpart, where instead all converging modes tend to zero in infinite time ($e^{\lambda_i t}$)
- Example: dynamics of a buffer



$$\begin{cases} x_1(k+1) &= x_2(k) \\ x_2(k+1) &= x_3(k) \\ x_3(k+1) &= u(k) \\ y(k) &= x_1(k) \end{cases} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{cases} x(k+1) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k) \\ y(k) &= [1 \quad 0 \quad 0] x(k) \end{cases}$$

- Natural response: $A^3 x(0) = 0$ for all $x(0) \in \mathbb{R}^3$
- For $u(k) \equiv 0$, the buffer deploys after at most 3 steps !

Summary of stability conditions for linear systems

<i>system</i>		<i>continuous-time</i>	<i>discrete-time</i>
asympt. stable	$\forall i = 1, \dots, n$	$\Re(\lambda_i) < 0$	$ \lambda_i < 1$
unstable	$\exists i$ such that	$\Re(\lambda_i) > 0$	$ \lambda_i > 1$
stable	$\forall i, \dots, n$	$\Re(\lambda_i) \leq 0$	$ \lambda_i \leq 1$
	and $\forall \lambda_i$ such that algebraic = geometric mult.	$\Re(\lambda_i) = 0$	$ \lambda_i = 1$

Exact sampling

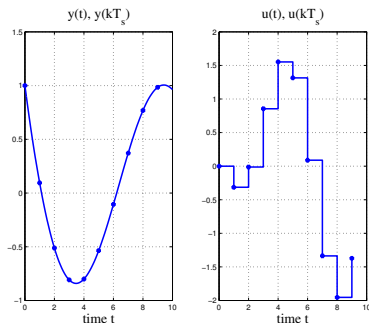
- Consider the continuous-time system

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) &= Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) &= Cx(t) + Du(t) \\ x(0) &= x_0 \end{cases}$$

- We want to characterize the value of $x(t)$, $y(t)$ at the time instants $t = 0, T_s, 2T_s, \dots, kT_s, \dots$, **under the assumption that the input $u(t)$ is constant during each sampling interval (zero-order hold, ZOH)**

$$u(t) = \bar{u}(k), \quad kT_s \leq t < (k+1)T_s$$

- $\bar{x}(k) \triangleq x(kT_s)$ and $\bar{y}(k) \triangleq y(kT_s)$ are the state and the output samples at the k^{th} sampling instant, respectively



Exact sampling

- Let us evaluate the response of the continuous-time system between time $t_0 = kT_s$ and $t = (k+1)T_s$ from the initial condition $x(t_0) = x(kT_s)$ using Lagrange formula:

$$x(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)}x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-\sigma)}Bu(\sigma)d\sigma = e^{A((k+1)T_s-kT_s)}x(kT_s) + \int_{kT_s}^{(k+1)T_s} e^{A((k+1)T_s-\sigma)}Bu(\sigma)d\sigma$$

- Since the input $u(t)$ is piecewise constant, $u(\sigma) \equiv \bar{u}(k)$, $kT_s \leq \sigma < (k+1)T_s$. By setting $\tau = \sigma - kT_s$ we get

$$x((k+1)T_s) = e^{AT_s}x(kT_s) + \left(\int_0^{T_s} e^{A(T_s-\tau)}d\tau \right) Bu(kT_s)$$

and hence

$$\bar{x}(k+1) = e^{AT_s}\bar{x}(k) + \left(\int_0^{T_s} e^{A(T_s-\tau)}d\tau \right) B\bar{u}(k)$$

which is a linear difference relation between $\bar{x}(k)$ and $\bar{u}(k)$!

Exact sampling

- The discrete-time system

$$\begin{cases} \bar{x}(k+1) &= \bar{A}\bar{x}(k) + \bar{B}\bar{u}(k) \\ \bar{y}(k) &= \bar{C}\bar{x}(k) + \bar{D}\bar{u}(k) \end{cases}$$

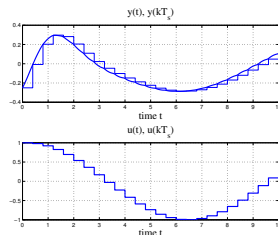
depends on the original continuous-time system through the relations

$$\bar{A} \triangleq e^{AT_s}, \quad \bar{B} \triangleq \left(\int_0^{T_s} e^{A(T_s-\tau)} d\tau \right) B, \quad \bar{C} \triangleq C, \quad \bar{D} \triangleq D$$

- If $u(t)$ is piecewise constant, $(\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}, \bar{D})$ provides the *exact* evolution of state and output samples at discrete times kT_s

MATLAB

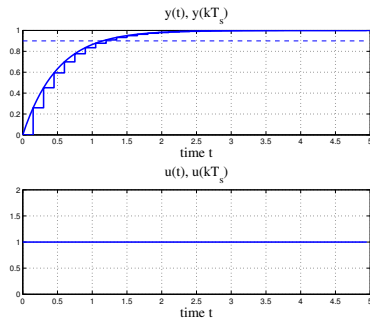
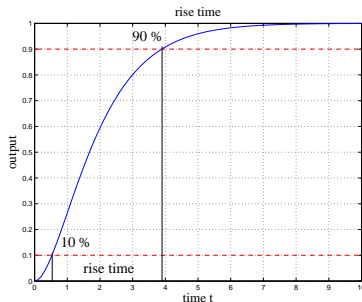
```
sys=ss(A,B,C,D);
sysd=c2d(sys,Ts);
[Ab,Bb,Cb,Db]=ssdata(sysd);
```



Exact sampling



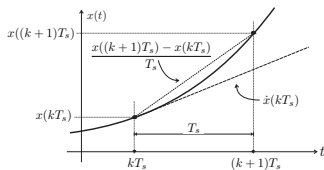
Rule of thumb: $T_s \approx \frac{1}{10}$ of the *rise time* = time to move from 10% to 90% of the steady-state value, for input $u(t) \equiv 1$, $x(0) = 0$



More on the choice of sampling time in the second part of the course ...

Approximate sampling - Euler's method

$$\dot{x}(kT_s) \approx \frac{x((k+1)T_s) - x(kT_s)}{T_s}$$



Leonhard Paul Euler
(1707-1783)

- For nonlinear systems $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t))$:

$$\bar{x}(k+1) = \bar{x}(k) + T_s f(\bar{x}(k), \bar{u}(k))$$

- For linear systems $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$:

$$x((k+1)T_s) = (I + T_s A)x(kT_s) + T_s B u(kT_s)$$

$$\bar{A} \triangleq I + AT_s, \quad \bar{B} \triangleq T_s B, \quad \bar{C} \triangleq C, \quad \bar{D} \triangleq D$$

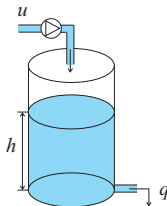
- Note that $e^{T_s A} = I + T_s A + \dots + \frac{T_s^n A^n}{n!} + \dots$

Therefore when T_s is small Euler's method and exact sampling are similar

Example - Hydraulic system

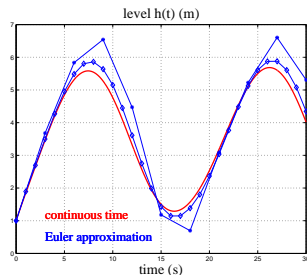
Continuous time:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt}h(t) &= -\frac{a\sqrt{2g}}{A}\sqrt{h(t)} + \frac{1}{A}u(t) \\ q(t) &= a\sqrt{2g}\sqrt{h(t)} \end{cases}$$



Discrete time:

$$\begin{cases} \bar{h}(k+1) &= \bar{h}(k) - \frac{T_s a \sqrt{2g}}{A} \sqrt{\bar{h}(k)} + \frac{T_s}{A} \bar{u}(k) \\ \bar{q}(k) &= a \sqrt{2g} \sqrt{\bar{h}(k)} \end{cases}$$



Tustin's discretization method

- Assume $u(k)$ constant within the sampling interval. Given the linear system $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$, apply the trapezoidal rule to approximate the integral

$$\begin{aligned}x(k+1) - x(k) &= \int_{kT_s}^{(k+1)T_s} \dot{x}(t) dt = \int_{kT_s}^{(k+1)T_s} (Ax(t) + Bu(t)) dt \\ &\approx \frac{T_s}{2} (Ax(k) + Bu(k) + Ax(k+1) + Bu(k)) \text{ (trapezoidal rule)}\end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned}(I - \frac{T_s}{2}A)x(k+1) &= (I + \frac{T_s}{2}A)x(k) + T_sBu(k) \\ x(k+1) &= \left(I - \frac{T_s}{2}A\right)^{-1} \left(I + \frac{T_s}{2}A\right)x(k) + \left(I - \frac{T_s}{2}A\right)^{-1} T_sBu(k)\end{aligned}$$

- Advantage: simpler to compute than exponential matrix, without too much loss of approximation quality

N-steps Euler method

- We can obtain the matrices A , B of the discrete-time linearized model while integrating the nonlinear continuous-time dynamic equations $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$
- *N-steps explicit forward Euler method*: given $x(k)$, $u(k)$, execute the following steps
 - 1 $x = x(k)$, $A = I$, $B = 0$
 - 2 for $n=1:N$ do
 - $A \leftarrow (I + \frac{T_s}{N} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, u(k)))A$
 - $B \leftarrow (I + \frac{T_s}{N} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, u(k)))B + \frac{T_s}{N} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u(k))A$
 - $x \leftarrow x + \frac{T_s}{N} f(x, u(k))$
 - 3 end
 - 4 return $x(k+1) \approx x$ and matrices A , B such that $x(k+1) \approx Ax(k) + Bu(k)$.
- Property: the difference between the state $x(k+1)$ and its approximation \hat{x} computed by the above iterations satisfies $\|x(k+1) - \hat{x}\| = O\left(\frac{T_s}{N}\right)$
- Explicit forward Runge-Kutta 4 method also available

English-Italian Vocabulary

	
discrete-time linear systems sampling interval difference equation zero-order hold piecewise constant rise time	<i>sistemi lineari a tempo discreto tempo (o intervallo) di campionamento equazione alle differenze mantenitore di ordine zero costante a tratti tempo di salita</i>

Translation is obvious otherwise.