

Automatic Control 2

Sampling

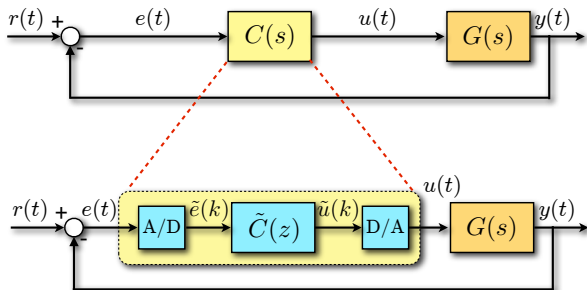
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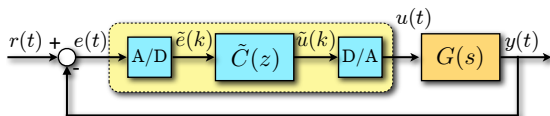
Academic year 2010-2011

Time-discretization of continuous-time controllers

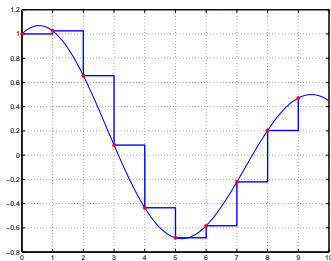


- We have designed an analog controller $C(s)$ in the *continuous-time* domain (by loop shaping, pole-placement, etc.)
- We want to implement $C(s)$ in digital form (for example, in a microcontroller). We need to convert the design to *discrete-time*

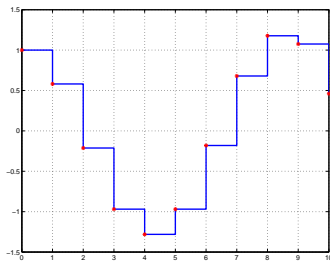
Relations between continuous/discrete-time signals



- Let the digital controller operate with sampling time T

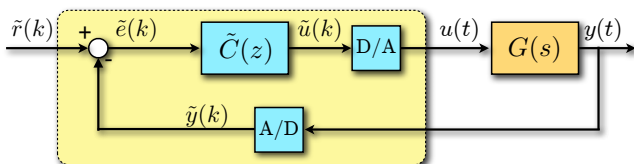


tracking error $\tilde{e}(k) \triangleq e(kT)$
for $k \in \{0, 1, \dots\}$



control input $u(t) = \tilde{u}(k) \triangleq u(kT)$
for $t \in [kT, (k+1)T)$

Time-discretization of continuous-time controllers



- Alternative scheme: more often the reference signal $r(t)$ is already given in digital form by its samples $\tilde{r}(k)$, $\tilde{r}(k) = r(kT)$, $k = 0, 1, \dots$, $T = \text{sampling time}$

Problem

How to synthesize a *discrete-time* control law $\tilde{C}(z)$ that in closed-loop behaves as the given *continuous-time* controller $C(s)$?

Time-discretization

- Consider the continuous-time controller $C(s)$

$$u(t) = C(s)e(t) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}e(t) = \frac{b_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \dots + b_0}{s^n + a_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0}e(t)$$

- We can look at the control law as at a differential equation linking $u(t)$ to $e(t)$

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}u(t) + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}u(t) + \dots + a_0u(t) = b_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}e(t) + \dots + b_0e(t)$$

- A *time-discretization* of $u(t) = C(s)e(t)$ is nothing else than a *numerical approximation* (with constant *integration-step* T)

$$\tilde{u}(k) = \tilde{C}(z)\tilde{e}(k)$$

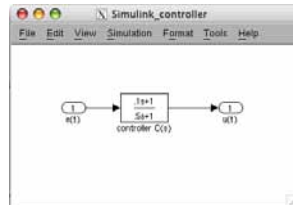
linking the input samples $\tilde{u}(k) \triangleq u(kT)$ to the error samples $\tilde{e}(k) \triangleq e(kT)$

- There are many numerical methods to integrate a differential equation (constant step, variable step, n -th order approximations, etc.)

Numerical integration in Simulink



Fixed-step integration panel



Variable-step integration panel



Example of time-discretization

- Consider the continuous-time controller

$$u(t) = \frac{1}{s+2}e(t) \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}u(t) + 2u(t) = e(t)$$

- Use *Euler method* to approximate the derivative

$$\frac{d}{dt}u(t) \approx \frac{u((k+1)T) - u(kT)}{T} = \frac{1}{T}(\tilde{u}(k+1) - \tilde{u}(k))$$

- Recall that z represents the unit-shift operator $z\tilde{u}(k) = \tilde{u}(k+1)$

$$\tilde{u}(k) = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{z-1}{T}\right) + 2} \tilde{e}(k) \triangleq \tilde{C}(z)\tilde{e}(k)$$

- Note that formally this is equivalent to replace $s = \left(\frac{z-1}{T}\right)$ in $C(s)$ to get $\tilde{C}(z)$

Finite-difference approximation of the controller

- Consider a state-space realization of $C(s)$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx_c}{dt} = A_c x_c + B_c e \\ u = C_c x_c + D_c e \end{cases}$$

$$C(s) = C_c(sI - A_c)^{-1}B_c + D_c$$

- Integrate between time kT and $(k+1)T$

$$x_c((k+1)T) - x_c(kT) = \int_{kT}^{(k+1)T} \frac{dx_c(\tau)}{d\tau} d\tau$$

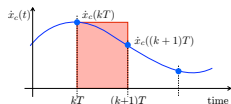
gives

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

- Unfortunately, in general both $x(\tau)$ and $e(\tau)$ are not constant between consecutive sampling instants, so we can't use *exact* discretization (i.e., the exponential matrix $e^{A_c T}$)

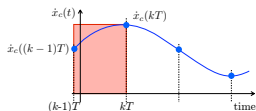
Approximation of the integral of $\dot{x}_c(\tau)$

• (forward) Euler method



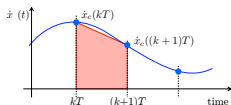
$$\underbrace{x_c((k+1)T) - x_c(kT)}_{(z-1)x_c(kT)} = \int_{kT}^{(k+1)T} \dot{x}_c(\tau) d\tau \approx T \underbrace{\dot{x}_c(kT)}_{T s x_c(kT)} \rightarrow s = \frac{z-1}{T}$$

• backward Euler method



$$\underbrace{x_c(kT) - x_c((k-1)T)}_{(1-z^{-1})x_c(kT)} = \int_{(k-1)T}^{kT} \dot{x}_c(\tau) d\tau \approx T \underbrace{\dot{x}_c(kT)}_{T s x_c(kT)} \rightarrow s = \frac{1-z^{-1}}{T}$$

• Trapezoidal rule



$$\underbrace{x_c((k+1)T) - x_c(kT)}_{(z-1)x_c(kT)} = \int_{kT}^{(k+1)T} \dot{x}_c(\tau) d\tau \approx \underbrace{\frac{T[\dot{x}_c((k+1)T) + \dot{x}_c(kT)]}{2}}_{\frac{T}{2}(z+1)sx_c(kT)}$$

$$\rightarrow s = \frac{2(z-1)}{T(z+1)}$$

Finite-difference approximation of the controller

$$(z-1)x_c = T(A_c x_c + B_c e) \longrightarrow \left[\left(\frac{z-1}{T} \right) I - A_c \right] x_c = B_c e$$

forward Euler method

$$\tilde{C}(z) = \frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = C_c \left[\left(\frac{z-1}{T} \right) I - A_c \right]^{-1} B_c + D_c = C \left(\frac{z-1}{T} \right)$$

$$(1-z^{-1})x_c = T(A_c x_c + B_c e) \longrightarrow \left[\left(\frac{z-1}{zT} \right) I - A_c \right] x_c = B_c e$$

backward Euler method

$$\tilde{C}(z) = \frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = C_c \left[\left(\frac{1-z^{-1}}{T} \right) I - A_c \right]^{-1} B_c + D_c = C \left(\frac{1-z^{-1}}{T} \right)$$

$$\tilde{C}(z) = C_c \left[\left(\frac{2(z-1)}{T(z+1)} \right) I - A_c \right]^{-1} B_c + D_c = C \left(\frac{2(z-1)}{T(z+1)} \right)$$

Tustin's method

Finite-difference approximation of the controller

- Formally, we just replace s in $C(s)$ with the corresponding function of z :
 - forward Euler method

$$s = \frac{z - 1}{T} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \dot{x}_c(kT) \approx \frac{x_c((k+1)T) - x_c(kT)}{T}$$

- backward Euler method

$$s = \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{T} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \dot{x}_c(kT) \approx \frac{x_c(kT) - x_c((k-1)T)}{T}$$

- Trapezoidal rule (*Tustin's method*)

$$s = \frac{2(z - 1)}{T(z + 1)} \quad (\text{bilinear transformation})$$

- Note that all three methods preserve the DC gain: $z = 1 \rightarrow s = 0$
(no approximation error exists in constant steady-state !)
- Compare to the *exact discretization method*: $\tilde{A}_c = e^{TA_c}$, $\tilde{B}_c = \int_0^T e^{tA_c} dt B_c$,
 $\tilde{C}_c = C_c$, $\tilde{D}_c = D_c$

Relations between poles in s and z

- What is the relation between the poles s_i of $C(s)$ and the poles z_i of $\tilde{C}(z)$?
 - forward Euler differences:

$$\frac{z_i - 1}{T} = s_i \Rightarrow z_i = 1 + Ts_i$$

- backward Euler differences:

$$\frac{z_i - 1}{Tz_i} = s_i \Rightarrow z_i = \frac{1}{1 - s_i T}$$

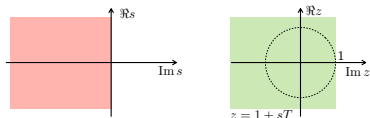
- Tustin's method:

$$\frac{2(z_i - 1)}{T(z_i + 1)} = s_i \Rightarrow z_i = \frac{1 + s_i T/2}{1 - s_i T/2}$$

- Exact method: $z_i = e^{s_i T}$
- Note that the three (approximate) integration methods approximate the function $z = e^{sT}$ by a rational function

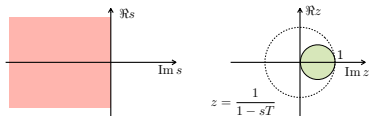
Relations between poles in s and z

forward Euler differences



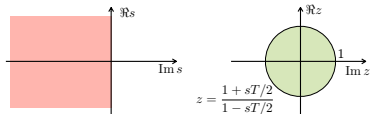
stable poles in s may be mapped to unstable poles in z

backward Euler differences



stable poles in s are also stable poles in z , marginally stable poles may become asymptotically stable

Tustin's rule



stable poles in s are also stable poles in z

Time-discretization in MATLAB

MATLAB

C2D Conversion of continuous-time models to discrete time.

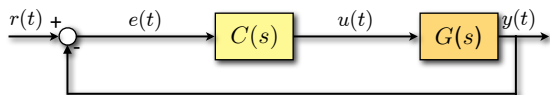
`SYSD = C2D(SYSC,TS,METHOD)` converts the continuous-time LTI model `SYSC` to a discrete-time model `SYSD` with sample time `TS`. The string `METHOD` selects the discretization method among the following:

- 'zoh' Zero-order hold on the inputs.
- 'foh' Linear interpolation of inputs (triangle appx.)
- 'tustin' Bilinear (Tustin) approximation.
- 'prewarp' Tustin approximation with frequency prewarping. The critical frequency W_c is specified as fourth input by `C2D(SYSC,TS,'prewarp',Wc)`.
- 'matched' Matched pole-zero method (for SISO systems only).

The default is 'zoh' when `METHOD` is omitted.

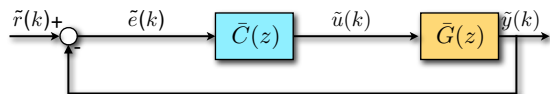
Sampled-data systems

- continuous-time control system (Laplace transform/frequency analysis)



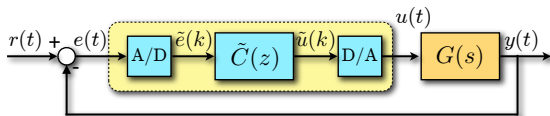
$t = \text{continuous time}$

- discrete-time control system (Z-transform)



$k = \text{discrete-time step counter}$

- *sampled-data system*

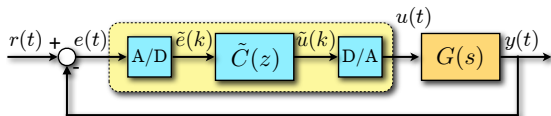


continuous-time and
discrete-time signals

Why analyzing sampled-data systems

- The model $G(s)$ of the *process* to be controlled is (very often) given in **continuous time**
 - differential equations
 - actuator signals (electrical voltages to motors, etc.) vary continuously in time
 - output variables (temperature, pressure, position, etc.) vary continuously in time
- On the other hand, the *controller* is (almost always) implemented in digital form, $\tilde{C}(z)$:
 - cheaper to implement (computer code)
 - easier to reconfigure
 - can exploit time-sharing (multiple controllers on the same hardware)
 - much more versatile (arbitrary nonlinear control laws)
- Hence the need to analyze sampled-data systems, namely a continuous process in closed loop with a digital controller

Ways to analyze sampled-data systems



- 1 Convert the system $G(s)$ to its discrete-time equivalent $\tilde{G}(z)$ (use for instance exact sampling), ignoring its inter-sampling behavior (**controller's point of view** or "*stroboscopic model*") \implies discrete-time analysis
- 2 Model the digital controller in continuous time

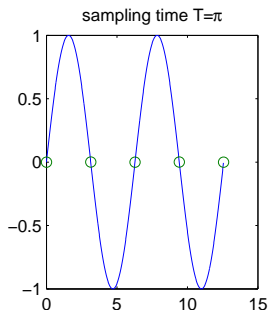
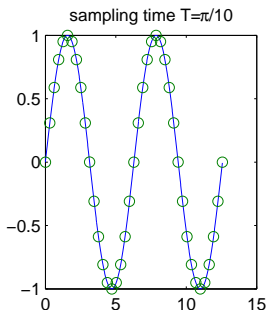
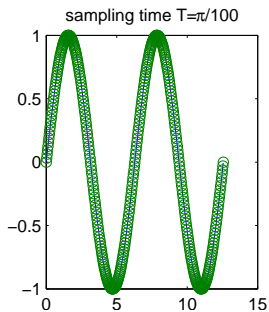
$$U(s) \simeq \frac{1 - e^{-sT}}{sT} \tilde{C}(e^{sT}) E(s) \quad (\text{this can be shown ...})$$

(**process' point of view**) \implies continuous-time analysis

- 3 Use numerical simulation (e.g., Simulink) (only provides an answer for a certain finite set of initial states)

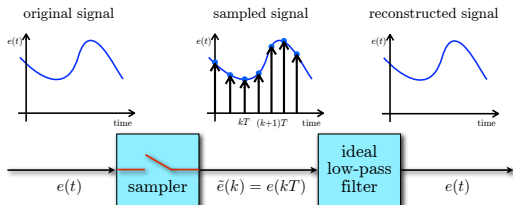
Choosing the sampling time

- How to choose the sampling time T ?
- Example: sampling of $\sin(t)$



- How can we say that a sampling time is “good” ?

Nyquist-Shannon sampling theorem



Claude Elwood
Shannon
(1916–2001)

Sampling theorem

Let $e(t)$ be a signal and $E(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e(\tau)e^{-j\omega\tau}d\tau$ its *Fourier transform* $\mathcal{F}[e]$.

Let $E(j\omega) = 0$ for $|\omega| \geq \omega_{\max}$. For all T such that $\omega_N \triangleq \frac{\pi}{T} > \omega_{\max}$

$$e(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} e(kT) \frac{\sin(\omega_N(t - kT))}{\omega_N(t - kT)}$$

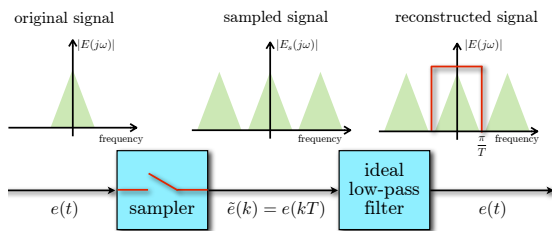
ω_N is called the *Nyquist frequency*, equal to half the sampling frequency $\omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T}$

Shannon's reconstruction

- We can look at sampling as at the modulation of a *Dirac comb* $\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - kT)$
- Let's go to Fourier transforms

$$\mathcal{F} \left[\underbrace{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} e(kT)\delta(t - kT)}_{\text{modulated Dirac comb}} \right] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} e(kT)e^{-jkT\omega} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} E(j(\omega + k\omega_s)) \triangleq \frac{1}{T} E_s(j\omega)$$

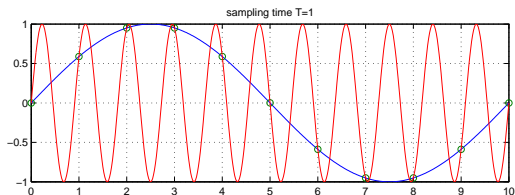
- $E_s(j\omega)$ is the periodic repetition of $E(j\omega)$ with period ω_s
- The ideal low-pass filter can only reconstruct $e(t)$ if $E(j\omega) = 0$ for $|\omega| \geq \omega_{\max}$



Aliasing

$$E_s(j\omega) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} E(j(\omega + k\omega_s))$$

- The value $E_s(j\omega_1)$ at a certain frequency ω_1 not only depends on $E(j\omega_1)$, but also on all the (infinite) contributions $E(j(\omega_1 \pm k\omega_s))$
- The frequency $\omega_1 \pm k\omega_s$ is called an *alias* of ω_1
- Example: consider the signals $\sin(\omega_1 t)$ and $\sin(\omega_2 t)$ and let the sampling time $T = 1$ s

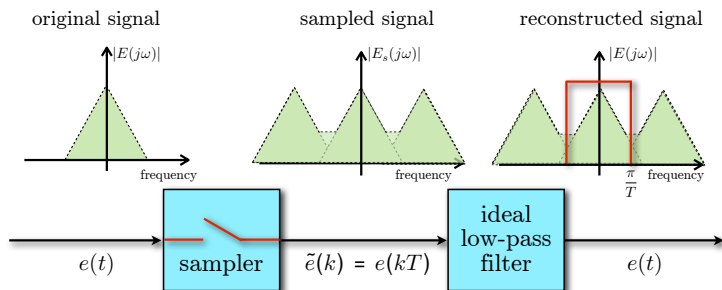


$$\omega_1 = \frac{2\pi}{10}$$

$$\omega_2 = \frac{2\pi}{T} + \frac{2\pi}{10} = \frac{22\pi}{10}$$

Aliasing

- What if $e(t)$ has spectral contributions $E(j\omega) \neq 0$ for $\omega > \omega_N = \frac{\pi}{T}$?



- Aliasing** is the phenomenon for which frequencies $\omega > \omega_N$ make contributions in the frequency range $[-\omega_N, \omega_N]$
- Under aliasing conditions it is impossible to reconstruct the original signal
- An **anti-aliasing filter** is a low-pass filter that removes from $e(t)$ its high-frequency contents before sampling it. It partially mitigates the problem

Selecting the sampling time

- In *signal processing* one is interested in making the difference between the original and the reconstructed signal as small as possible (=high fidelity)
- In *control systems* one is interested that the closed-loop system behaves according to specs, not much in carefully reconstructing $e(t) = y(t) - r(t)$!
- For control purposes, the sampling time is mainly related to the closed-loop bandwidth / settling-time
- The sampling time used in control is typically larger than the one used signal processing
- That's why in control applications we are often ok with micro-controllers and don't need DSPs (digital signal processors)

Selecting the sampling time

- Let ω_c be the desired bandwidth of the closed-loop system
- To avoid aliasing effects (and satisfy the sampling theorem) we must set

$$\frac{\pi}{T} > \omega_c$$

- A good choice is

$$5\omega_c \leq \frac{2\pi}{T} \leq 100\omega_c$$

so that the (non-ideal) anti-aliasing filter has cutoff frequency ω_f in between ω_c and ω_N

- By recalling the approximate relation $t_s \omega_c \approx \frac{5}{\zeta}$, where t_s is the settling time (1%) and ζ is the damping factor, we get

$$\frac{t_s}{100} \leq T \leq \frac{t_s}{5}$$

- A related good choice is also to let $T = \frac{t_r}{10}$, where t_r is the rise time of the open-loop system

Numerical errors

- Recall the relation between poles s_i and z_i

$$z_i = e^{s_i T}$$

- For $T \rightarrow 0$, we have $z_i \rightarrow 1$ whatever the poles s_i are !
- This can make troubles when working in finite precision (both in control design and in controller implementation)
- Consider the following example: we have two poles $s_1 = -1$ e $s_2 = -10$
 - Sample with $T = 1$ ms and get $z_1 = e^{-0.001} \approx 0.9990$, $z_2 = e^{-0.01} \approx 0.9900$. If we truncate after two digits, we get $z_1 = z_2$, and then $s_1 = \frac{1}{T} \ln z_1 = \frac{1}{T} \ln z_2 = s_2 \approx -10.05$
 - Sample with $T = 100$ ms and truncate, we get $z_1 = 0.90$, $z_2 = 0.36$, and then $s_1 \approx -1.05$, $s_2 \approx -10.21$

Final remarks on choice of sampling time

- Make the sampling time T small enough to reproduce the open-loop time response enough precisely ($T = \frac{t_r}{10}$), and to avoid aliasing effects (Nyquist frequency $\frac{\pi}{T}$ larger than closed-loop bandwidth)
- Make the sampling time T small enough to react enough readily to disturbances affecting the system
- Make the sampling time large enough to avoid numerical issues
- Make the sampling time large enough to avoid fast and expensive control hardware

Digital PID control

Any of the time-discretization we have seen so far can be used to convert a PID design in digital form. The following is most used:

- proportional part

$$P(t) = K_p(br(t) - y(t)) \quad \text{static relation, no need to approximate it !}$$

- integral part

$$I(t) = \frac{K_p}{T_i} \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$$

is approximated by forward Euler as

$$I((k+1)T) = I(kT) + \frac{K_p T}{T_i} e(kT)$$

Digital PID

- derivative part:

$$\frac{T_d}{N} \frac{dD(t)}{dt} + D(t) = -K_p T_d \frac{dy(t)}{dt}$$

is approximated by backward Euler as

$$D(kT) = \frac{T_d}{T_d + NT} D((k-1)T) - \frac{K_p T_d N}{T_d + NT} (y(kT) - y((k-1)T))$$

Note that the discrete pole $z = \frac{T_d}{T_d + NT}$ is inside the unit circle

- The complete control signal is

$$u(kT) = P(kT) + I(kT) + D(kT)$$

This type of approximation allows one to calculate P, I, and D actions separately

Digital PID in incremental form

- The digital PID form we described provides the full signal $u(kT)$ (*positional algorithm*)
- An alternative form is the so called *incremental form* (*velocity algorithm*), where the PID controller computes instead the input increments

$$\Delta u(kT) = u(kT) - u((k-1)T) = \Delta P(kT) + \Delta I(kT) + \Delta D(kT)$$

where

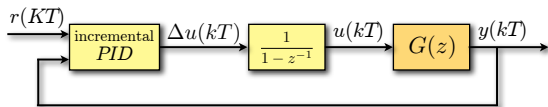
$$\Delta P(kT) = K_p(br(kT) - br((k-1)T) - y(kT) + y((k-1)T))$$

$$\Delta I(kT) = \alpha_1(r(kT) - y(kT)) + \alpha_2(r((k-1)T) - y((k-1)T))$$

$$\Delta D(kT) = \beta_1 \Delta D((k-1)T) - \beta_2(y(kT) - 2y((k-1)T) + y((k-2)T))$$

- Advantage: increased numerical precision in the presence of finite word-length (signal *quantization*)
- This form cannot be used for P and PD controllers



Digital PID in incremental form



- An integrator is needed to reconstruct the input signal $u(kT)$ from the incremental PID form

$$u(kT) = u((k-1)T) + \Delta u(kT) \quad \longrightarrow \quad u(kT) = \frac{1}{1-z^{-1}} \Delta u(kT)$$

English-Italian Vocabulary

	
<p>forward Euler method backward Euler method trapezoidal rule sampled-data system Nyquist-Shannon sampling theorem Dirac comb aliasing cutoff frequency</p>	<p><i>metodo di Eulero in avanti</i> <i>metodo di Eulero all'indietro</i> <i>regola dei trapezi</i> <i>sistema a dati campionati</i> <i>Teorema di Shannon</i> <i>pettine di Dirac</i> <i>aliasing</i> <i>frequenza di taglio</i></p>

Translation is obvious otherwise.