Digital Control

Control Systems

Fall 2023

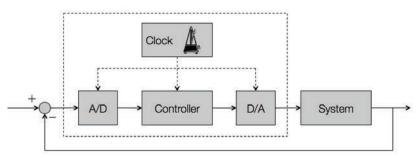
Outline

- Principles of digital control
 - Introduction
 - Sampling and reconstruction
 - Discrete-time systems
 - z-transform and its inverse
 - Discretization methods

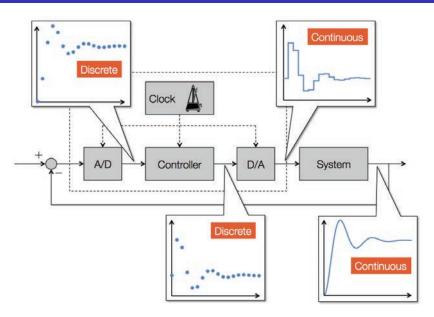
- Digital controller design
 - RST Controller
 - Pole Placement Technique

Introduction

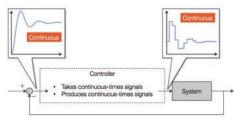
- The first PI controllers were applied using pneumatic devices.
- A PID controller can be implemented using analogue electronic circuits (RLC+OpAmp).
- Now, microprocessors are used to implement the controllers, because
 - they are more flexible and cheaper,
 - they can control many subsystems,
 - more complex control algorithms can be applied,
 - new sensors provide numerical values.



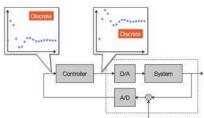
Introduction



Perspective of the system : System sees the digital controller as a continuous-time device.



Perspective of the controller : Controller sees the system as a discrete-time entity.



Continuous-time control:

- Find a physical model from differential equations, or
- Find a simplified model from step or frequency response;
- Design a continuous-time controller;
- Apply the discretized controller.

Designed specifications are achieved only if the sampling time is very small

Digital Control:

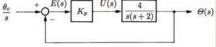
- Find a discrete-time model by discretizing the physical model, or
- Identify directly from data a discrete-time model (System Identification Course);
- Design a discrete-time controller and apply it.

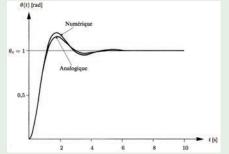
Designed specifications are achieved at sampling instants

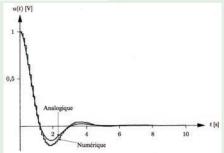
Example

Consider the position control of a DC motor with a proportional controller $K_p=1$ (Clock pulse h=0.1 s) :

$$e(t) = \theta_c - \theta(t)$$
 and $u(t) = e(t)$





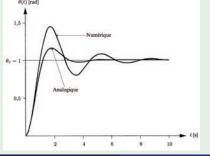


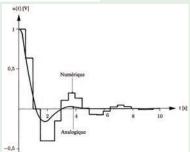
Example

Consider the position control of a DC motor with a proportional controller $K_p=1$ (Clock pulse h=0.5 s) :

$$e(t) = \theta_c - \theta(t)$$
 and $u(t) = e(t)$

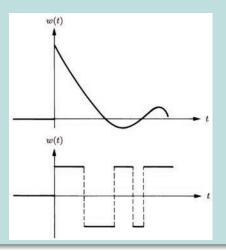
$$\frac{\theta_c}{s} \xrightarrow{+} \underbrace{E(s)}_{C} \underbrace{K_p} \underbrace{U(s)}_{S} \underbrace{\frac{4}{s(s+2)}}_{S} \xrightarrow{\Theta(s)}$$





Continuous-time signal

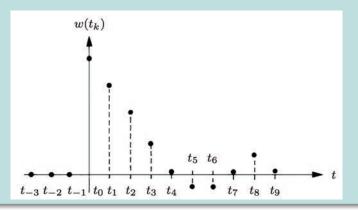
Continuous-time signal is a function defined as $w(t): \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.



Discrete-time signal

Discrete-time signal is defined as

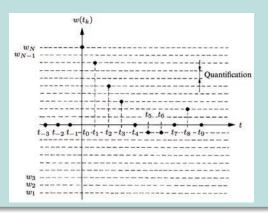
$$w(t_k) = w(kh) : \{k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \to \mathbb{R}$$



Digital signal

Digital signal is defined as

$$w(t_k) = w(kh) : \{k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \rightarrow \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_N\} \subset \mathbb{R}$$

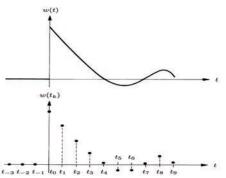


Sampling of a continuous-time signal : Normally we sample with a constant sampling period (période d'échantillonnage) h, i.e.

$$h = t_k - t_{k-1}, k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Sampling frequency : (fréquence d'échantillonnage) $f_e = \frac{1}{h}$ Hz

or (pulsation d'échantillonnage) $\omega_{e}=2\pi f_{e} \ \mathrm{rad/s}$

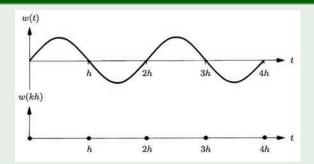


Question

Can we capture all of the information in a continuous-time signal by sampling?

It should depend on the sampling frequency and the frequency contents of the continuous-time signal.

Example



Theorem (Shannon Sampling Theorem)

An analogue signal w(t), whose Fourier transform is zero outside the interval $[-\omega_0, \omega_0]$, is completely defined by its sampled value $\{w(kh)\}$ if the sampling frequency satisfies

$$\omega_e > 2\omega_0$$

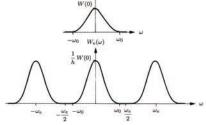
The signal w(t) can be reconstructed by :

$$w(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh) sinc\left(\frac{\omega_e(t-kh)}{2}\right)$$

Remark : This theorem is one of the most important results in the fields of information theory, communication and engineering.

Proof: Let $W(\omega)$ be the Fourier transform of w(t) and $W_e(\omega)$ a periodic function with period $\omega_e = \frac{2\pi}{h}$ defined as :

$$W_e(\omega) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} W(\omega + i\omega_e)$$
 and $w(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$



This periodic function can be represented by a Fourier series :

$$W_{\rm e}(\omega) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k {\rm e}^{-jkh\omega} \qquad {
m and} \qquad c_k = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-rac{\omega_{\rm e}}{2}}^{rac{\omega_{\rm e}}{2}} h W_{\rm e}(\omega) {\rm e}^{jkh\omega} d\omega$$

Proof (suit): Given the fact that

$$W(\omega) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} h W_e(\omega) & ext{for} & |\omega| \leq rac{\omega_e}{2} \ 0 & ext{for} & |\omega| > rac{\omega_e}{2} \end{array}
ight. \Rightarrow c_k = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(\omega) e^{jkh\omega} d\omega$$

But, $c_k = w(kh)$, therefore :

$$W_e(\omega) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh)e^{-jkh\omega}$$

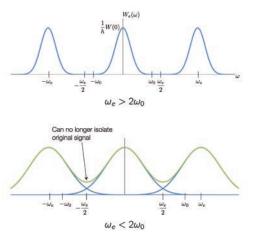
 $W_e(\omega)$ can be computed only with information on sampled signal w(kh)

Now, we compute (recover) the signal w(t):

$$\begin{split} w(t) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(\omega) e^{j\omega t} = \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\frac{\omega_e}{2}}^{\frac{\omega_e}{2}} W_e(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega \\ &= \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\frac{\omega_e}{2}}^{\frac{\omega_e}{2}} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh) e^{-jkh\omega} e^{j\omega t} d\omega = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh) \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\frac{\omega_e}{2}}^{\frac{\omega_e}{2}} e^{j(t-kh)\omega} d\omega \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh) \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} rect(\omega_e) e^{j(t-kh)\omega} d\omega = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh) sinc\left(\frac{\omega_e(t-kh)}{2}\right) \end{split}$$

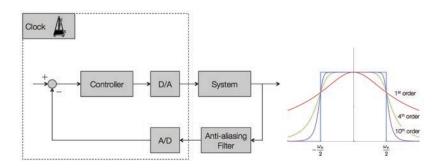
Anti-aliasing Filter

What happens if the sampling frequency is not large enough?



Apply a lowpass analog filter to cut all frequencies greater than $\omega_e/2$. This filter is called the anti-aliasing filter.

Anti-aliasing Filter



- Real signals are not band limited so there is always an aliasing effect.
- Anti-aliasing filter should be applied **before** sampling.
- A perfect lowpass filter does not exist.
- Higher order filters give better attenuation but introduce more phase lag or delay in the signal (there is always a trade-off).

Reconstruction

Reconstruction

Reconstruction is to recover the analogue signal w(t) from its samples $\{w(kh)\}.$

Shannon reconstruction : is based on the Shannon Theorem.

$$w(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w(kh) \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega_e(t-kh)}{2}\right)$$

- It is too complicated.
- It can only be applied in off-line applications in signal processing.
- It cannot be applied in real-time because the computation of w(t) depends the future samples w(kh), kh > t.
- In control applications an approximation of w(t) is constructed by a **hold** function.

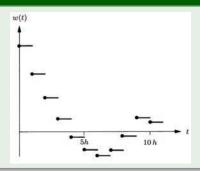
Reconstruction

Zero-Order-Hold (ZOH)

The signal remains constant between two samples.

$$w(t) = w(kh)$$
 $t \in [kh, kh + h[$

Example (ZOH)



Remark: Fast variations at the sampling instants add high frequency contents to the signal but they are usually filtered by the process dynamics, which is a lowpass filter.

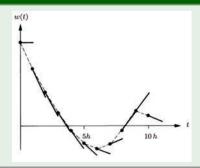
Reconstruction

First-Order-Hold

The signal is approximated by a linear extrapolation.

$$w(t) = w(kh) + \frac{t - kh}{h} (w(kh) - w(kh - h)) \qquad t \in [kh, kh + h]$$

Example (FOH)



Remark: First-order-hold reduces the jumps in the signal but will amplify the noise effect because of its derivative action.

According to Shannon Theorem : The sampling frequency should be greater than $2\omega_0$. However,

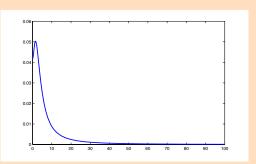
- The physical signals are not band limited ($\omega_0 = \infty$).
- The Shannon reconstruction cannot be used in real-time applications.
- In control applications, the sampling frequency is chosen according to the frequency response of the desired closed-loop system (a low pass filter). It is usually chosen 20 to 50 times of the desired closed-loop bandwidth.
- The sampling period can be chosen from the step response. The rule of thumb is to have between 5 to 10 samples during the rise-time.
- The sampling frequency should not be too large to avoid the numerical problems and hardware costs.

Sampling Period

Find a sampling period for the control of following system:

$$G(s) = \frac{s+1}{(s+2)(s+3)(s+4)}$$

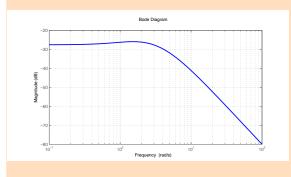
1. Frequency response in a linear scale : $\omega_e > 2\omega_0$



- (A): $\omega_e \approx 20 \text{ rad/s}$
- (B) : $\omega_e \approx 100 \text{ rad/s}$
- (C): $\omega_e \approx 200 \text{ rad/s}$
- (D): $\omega_e \approx 1000 \text{ rad/s}$

Sampling Period

2. Bode diagram : $\omega_e = (20 \text{ to } 50) \times \text{ Bandwidth}$



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(A) : \omega_e \approx (10 to 50) rad/s

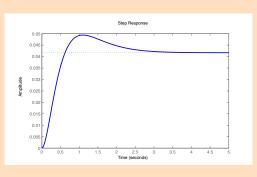
(B) : \omega_e \approx (20 to 100) rad/s
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(C) :
$$\omega_e \approx$$
 (80 to 200) rad/s

(D) :
$$\omega_e \approx$$
 (120 to 300) rad/s

Sampling Period

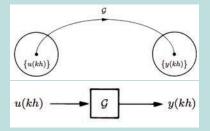
3. Step Response: (5 to 10) samples during the rise time.



- (A): $h \approx (0.05 \text{ to } 0.1) \text{ s}$
- (B): $h \approx (0.01 \text{ to } 0.02) \text{ s}$
- (C): $h \approx (0.2 \text{ to } 0.4) \text{ s}$
- (D): $h \approx (0.5 \text{ to } 1) \text{ s}$

Discrete-time systems

A discrete system maps a discrete signal to a discrete signal.



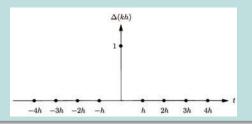
Dynamic system

The output at instant k_0h depends on the present and past inputs $\{u(kh): k \leq k_0\}$.

Unit impulse

Unit impulse or Kronecker delta is a discrete signal defined as :

$$\Delta(kh) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if} \quad k = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if} \quad k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$



Impulse Response

The response of a discrete system \mathcal{G} to a unit impulse is called the impulse response and is given by $\{g(kh)\}$.

Linear system

A linear system follows the superposition principle.

$$\mathcal{G}(\lbrace u_1(kh)\rbrace + \lbrace u_2(kh)\rbrace) = \mathcal{G}(\lbrace u_1(kh)\rbrace) + \mathcal{G}(\lbrace u_2(kh)\rbrace)$$
$$\mathcal{G}(a\lbrace u(kh)\rbrace) = a\mathcal{G}(\lbrace u(kh)\rbrace)$$

Time-invariant System

A discrete system $\mathcal G$ is stationary or time-invariant if its response to a shifted unit impulse by dh is shifted by dh:

$$\{\Delta(kh)\} o \{g(kh)\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \{\Delta(kh+dh)\} o \{g(kh+dh)\} \quad \forall d \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Theorem (Convolution Product)

The response of a Linear Time-Invariant (LTI) system to any input is given by the following convolution product :

$$y(kh) = u(kh) * g(kh) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell h)g(kh - \ell h)$$

Proof: Any input signal can be written as the shifted sum of weighted unit

impulses
$$\{u(kh)\}=\sum_{\ell=0}u(\ell h)\{\Delta(kh-\ell h)\}$$
. Using the properties of LTI systems

we have
$$\{y(kh)\} = \mathcal{G}\{u(kh)\} = \mathcal{G}\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} u(\ell h) \{\Delta(kh-\ell h)\}\right)$$

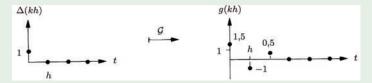
$$= \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} u(\ell h) \mathcal{G}\{\Delta(kh-\ell h)\} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} u(\ell h) \{g(kh-\ell h)\}$$

Because of the system's causality, the output at instant kh can be written as :

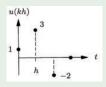
$$y(kh) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell h) g(kh - \ell h)$$

Example

Given the impulse response of a discrete system as



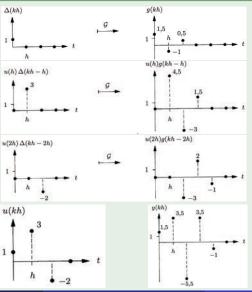
Compute the response of the system to the following input.



The input signal at instant kh can be written as :

$$u(kh) = \Delta(kh) + 3\Delta(kh - h) - 2\Delta(kh - 2h)$$

Example



Usually the simplified notation u(k) is used instead of u(kh)

Properties of convolution

Commutativity:

$$u(k) * v(k) = v(k) * u(k)$$

Distributivity:

$$u(k) * (v(k) + w(k)) = u(k) * v(k) + u(k) * w(k)$$

Associativity:

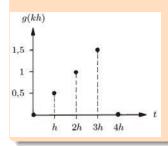
$$u(k) * (v(k) * w(k)) = (u(k) * v(k)) * w(k)$$

Identity: The identity element is the unit impulse.

$$u(k) * \Delta(k) = u(k)$$

Question

The impulse response $\{g(kh)\}$ of an LTI system is given. Compute the response of the system when excited by the signal $\{1,1,1,1,0,0,\ldots\}$.



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 \begin{aligned} \textbf{(A)}\{y(kh)\} &= \{\textbf{0}, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 3.5, \dots, \} \\ \textbf{(B)}\{y(kh)\} &= \{\textbf{0}, 0.5, 1.5, 2.5, 3, 2.5, 1.5, 0, 0, \dots, \} \\ \textbf{(C)}\{y(kh)\} &= \{\textbf{0}, 0.5, 1.5, 3, 3, 2.5, 1.5, 0, 0, \dots, \} \\ \textbf{(D)}\{y(kh)\} &= \{\textbf{0}, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 0.5, 1, \dots, \} \end{aligned}
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Linear Difference Equation

A linear difference equation with constant coefficients of order n represents the relation between the successive values of input and output of a system :

$$y(k) + a_1y(k-1) + \cdots + a_ny(k-n)$$

= $b_0u(k) + b_1u(k-1) + \cdots + b_mu(k-m)$

or equivalently by:

$$y(k) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i y(k-i) + \sum_{j=0}^{m} b_j u(k-j)$$

- If all of the initial conditions $y(-1), y(-2), \ldots, y(-n)$ and the values of $u(-1), u(-2), \ldots, u(-n)$ are zeros, the output at each instant can be computed recursively based only on the past inputs.
- Systems defined by linear difference equations are LTI systems.

Delay operator

The delay operator q^{-n} is a function that maps the discrete signal $\{w(k)\}$ to $\{w(k-n)\}$:

$$q^{-n}\{w(k)\} = \{w(k-n)\}$$

Therefore a difference equation can be represented as :

$$(1 + a_1q^{-1} + a_2q^{-2} + \cdots + a_nq^{-n})y(k) = (b_0 + b_1q^{-1} + \cdots + b_mq^{-m})u(k)$$

Example

Show the difference equation of a PD controller by the delay operator :

$$u(k) = K_p \left(e(k) + T_d \frac{e(k) - e(k-1)}{h} \right)$$

$$u(k) = \left(K_p + \frac{K_p T_d (1 - q^{-1})}{h}\right) e(k)$$

The z-Transform

Continuous-time and discrete-time systems are very similar

Continuous time System	Discrete-time System
g(t): Response to a Dirac impulse	g(k): Response to a unit impulse
Convolution integral	Convolution sum
$y(t) = \int_0^t u(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau$	$y(k) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell)g(k-\ell)$
Differential equation	Difference equation
$\dfrac{dy(t)}{d(t)} + ay(t) = bu(t)$	y(k) + cy(k-1) = du(k)
Laplace Transform	
$Y(s) = \mathcal{L}(y(t))$	
Transfer function	?
$G(s) = \mathcal{L}(g(t))$	
Y(s) = G(s)U(s)	

The z-Transform

z-Transform

The z transform of a discrete signal $\{w(kh)\}$ is denoted by W(z) or $\mathcal{Z}\{w(kh)\}$ and is defined by the following sum, where z is a complex variable $z \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$W(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{w(kh)\} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} w(kh)z^{-k}$$

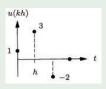
Remarks:

- This is a unilateral transformation (from k=0). In control theory, it is supposed that $w(kh)=0, \forall k<0$.
- The region of convergence is a set in the complex plane for which the *z*-transform summation converges.
- There exists a real number $r \ge 0$ such that the above sum converges for all |z| > r and diverges for all |z| < r. The number r is called the convergence radius.

The z-Transform

Example

Compute the z-transform of the following signal:



$$\mathcal{Z}\{u(kh)\} = 1 + 3z^{-1} - 2z^{-2} \qquad |z| > 0 = r$$

Example

Compute the z-transform of the following signal:

$$w(k) = a^k$$
 $a \in \mathbb{C}$, $a \neq 0$ $k \geq 0$

$$\mathcal{Z}{a^k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^k z^{-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (az^{-1})^k = \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} = \frac{z}{z - a} \qquad |z| > |a| = r$$

Theorem (Linearity)

The z-transform is a linear operator, i.e.

$$\mathcal{Z}\lbrace w_1(k) + w_2(k) \rbrace = \mathcal{Z}\lbrace w_1(k) \rbrace + \mathcal{Z}\lbrace w_2(k) \rbrace$$
$$\mathcal{Z}\lbrace aw_1(k) \rbrace = a\mathcal{Z}\lbrace w_1(k) \rbrace$$

The ROC of $\mathcal{Z}\{w_1(k)+w_2(k)\}$ is the intersection of the ROC $\mathcal{Z}\{w_1(k)\}$ and $\mathcal{Z}\{w_2(k)\}$.

Proof:

$$\mathcal{Z}\{w_1(k) + w_2(k)\} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (w_1(k) + w_2(k))z^{-k}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} w_1(k)z^{-k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} w_2(k)z^{-k} = \mathcal{Z}\{w_1(k)\} + \mathcal{Z}\{w_2(k)\}$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{aw_1(k)\} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} aw_1(k)z^{-k} = a\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} w_1(k)z^{-k} = a\mathcal{Z}\{w_1(k)\}$$

Example

Compute the z-transform of $w(kh) = \sin(\omega kh)$.

Because of the linearity of the z-transform, we have :

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\sin(\omega kh)\} = \mathcal{Z}\left\{\frac{e^{j\omega kh} - e^{-j\omega kh}}{2j}\right\}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2j}\left(\mathcal{Z}\{e^{j\omega kh}\} - \mathcal{Z}\{e^{-j\omega kh}\}\right)$$

Taking $a=e^{j\omega h}$ then $a=e^{-j\omega h}$ and using the result of the previous example, we have

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\sin(\omega kh)\} = \frac{1}{2j} \left(\frac{z}{z - e^{j\omega h}} - \frac{z}{z - e^{-j\omega h}} \right) = \frac{\sin(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z + 1}$$

Question

Compute the z-transform of $w(kh) = \cos(\omega kh)$.

(A)
$$\frac{\cos(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\sin(\omega h)z + 1}$$
 (B) $\frac{2z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z + 1}$

(B)
$$\frac{2z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z + 1}$$

bf(C)
$$\frac{z^2 - \cos(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z + 1}$$
 (D) $\frac{z^2 + \cos(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\sin(\omega h)z + 1}$

(D)
$$\frac{z^2 + \cos(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\sin(\omega h)z + 1}$$

Theorem (Time delay)

The z-transform of a delayed discrete signal is given by :

$$\mathcal{Z}\{w(k-d)\} = z^{-d}\mathcal{Z}\{w(k)\} = z^{-d}W(z)$$
 where $d \in \mathbb{N}$

Proof:

$$\mathcal{Z}\{w(k-d)\} = \sum_{k=0}^{50} w(k-d)z^{-k} = z^{-d} \sum_{k=d}^{50} w(k-d)z^{-(k-d)}$$
$$= z^{-d} \sum_{k'=0}^{\infty} w(k')z^{-k'} = z^{-d} W(z)$$

Example

$$\mathcal{Z}\{\Delta(k-1)\}=z^{-1}$$

Note that $\mathcal{Z}\{\Delta(k-1)\}$ is not defined for z=0, while $\mathcal{Z}\{\Delta(k)\}$ it is.

Theorem (Complex Derivative)

The z-transform has the following property :

$$\mathcal{Z}\{kw(k)\} = -z\frac{dW(z)}{dz}$$

Proof:
$$-z \frac{dW(z)}{dz} = -z \frac{d}{dz} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} w(k) z^{-k} = z \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kw(k) z^{-k-1}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kw(k) z^{-k} = \mathcal{Z}\{kw(k)\}$$

Example

Knowing that the z transform of the unit step, $w(k) = 1, k \ge 0$ is given by $W(z) = \frac{z}{z-1}$, find the z-transform of a ramp signal r(k) = k.

$$\mathcal{Z}\lbrace r(k)\rbrace = \mathcal{Z}\lbrace kw(k)\rbrace = -z\frac{d}{dz}\left(\frac{z}{z-1}\right) = \frac{z}{(z-1)^2}$$

Theorem (Initial Value)

The initial value w(0) of a discrete signal $\{w(k)\}$ can be evaluated from W(z) using :

$$w(0) = \lim_{z \to \infty} W(z)$$

Proof:
$$\lim_{z \to \infty} W(z) = \lim_{z \to \infty} \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} w(k) z^{-k}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{z \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} w(k) z^{-k} = \lim_{n \to \infty} w(0) = w(0)$$

Example

Compute the initial value of w(k), where

$$W(z) = \frac{b_0 z + b_1}{z + a_1}$$
$$w(0) = \lim_{z \to \infty} W(z) = b_0$$

Consider the following rational function :

$$W(z) = \frac{b_0 z^m + b_1 z^{m-1} + \dots + b_m}{z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n}$$

Properness

W(z) is called **proper** if $n \ge m$, **strictly proper** if n > m and **biproper** if n = m.

zero/pole

The roots of the denominators are called the **poles** and the roots of the numerator the **zeros** of W(z).

Monic Polynomials

The polynomial in the denominator is called **monic** because the coefficient of z^n is equal to 1. The rational functions, without loss of generality are usually represented by a monic denominator.

Theorem (Final Value)

If W(z) is a proper rational function with all poles inside the unit circle, except possibly one simple pole at 1, then

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} w(k) = \lim_{z\to 1} (z-1)W(z)$$

Proof:

$$\lim_{z \to 1} (z - 1)W(z) = \lim_{z \to 1} \frac{z - 1}{z} W(z) = \lim_{z \to 1} (1 - z^{-1})W(z)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{z \to 1} \sum_{k=0}^{n} (w(k) - w(k - 1))z^{-k}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} (w(k) - w(k - 1))$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} (w(0) - 0 + w(1) - w(0) + \dots + w(n) - w(n - 1))$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} w(n)$$

Final Value

Find the final value of w(k) if $W(z) = \frac{0.5z}{(z-1)(z-0.5)}$.

(A)
$$w(\infty) = -1$$
 (B) $w(\infty) = 0$ (C) $w(\infty) = \infty$ (D) $w(\infty) = 1$

(B)
$$w(\infty) =$$

(C)
$$w(\infty) = \infty$$

(D)
$$w(\infty) =$$

Final Value

Find the final value of w(k) if $W(z) = \frac{z}{z+2}$.

(A)
$$w(\infty) = 1/3$$

(B)
$$w(\infty) = 0$$

(C)
$$w(\infty) = \infty$$

(A) $w(\infty) = 1/3$ (B) $w(\infty) = 0$ (C) $w(\infty) = \infty$ (D) None of the above

Theorem (Convolution)

$$y(k) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell)g(k-\ell) \quad \Rightarrow \quad Y(z) = G(z)U(z)$$

Proof:
$$G(z)U(z) = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g(k)z^{-k}\right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} u(k)z^{-k}\right)$$

$$= (g(0) + g(1)z^{-1} + \cdots)(u(0) + u(1)z^{-1} + \cdots)$$

$$= u(0)g(0) + (u(0)g(1) + u(1)g(0))z^{-1}$$

$$+ (u(0)g(2) + u(1)g(1) + u(2)g(0))z^{-2} + \cdots$$

$$+ \left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell)g(k-\ell)\right)z^{-k} + \cdots$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell)g(k-\ell)\right)z^{-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} y(k)z^{-k} = Y(z)$$

Example

Compute the z-transform of the accumulative sum of a signal.

Solution : Take u(k) as a discrete unit step with $U(z) = \frac{z}{z-1}$. Then

$$\mathcal{Z}\left\{\sum_{\ell=0}^k w(\ell)\right\} = \mathcal{Z}\left\{\sum_{\ell=0}^k u(\ell)w(k-\ell)\right\} = U(z)W(z) = \frac{z}{z-1}W(z)$$

A pole at 1 represents the integrator effect.

Example

Compute the *z*-transform of the difference between two consecutive samples of a discrete signal.

Solution:
$$\mathcal{Z}\{w(k) - w(k-1)\} = W(z) - z^{-1}W(z) = \frac{z-1}{z}W(z)$$

A zero at 1 represents the derivative effect.

Table of z-Transforms

Tableau 4.3 Dictionnaire des transformées de Laplace et en z.

w(t)	$\mathcal{L}ig(w(t)ig)$	w(kh)	$\mathcal{Z}\big\{w(kh)\big\}$
$\delta(t)$	1		
		$\Delta(kh)$	1
1	$\frac{1}{s}$	1	$\frac{z}{z-1}$
t	$\frac{1}{s^2}$	kh	$\frac{hz}{(z-1)^2}$
$\frac{1}{2} t^2$	$\frac{1}{s^3}$	$\frac{1}{2}\left(kh\right)^{2}$	$\frac{h^2 z (z+1)}{2(z-1)^3}$
e^{-at}	$\frac{1}{s+a}$	e ^{-akh}	$\frac{z}{z-\mathrm{e}^{-ah}}$
$t e^{-at}$	$\frac{1}{(s+a)^2}$	$kh\mathrm{e}^{-akh}$	$\frac{h\mathrm{e}^{-ah}z}{\left(z-\mathrm{e}^{-ah}\right)^2}$

Table of z-Transforms

Tableau 4.3 Dictionnaire des transformées de Laplace et en z.

w(t)	$\mathcal{L}ig(w(t)ig)$	w(kh)	$\mathcal{Z}ig\{w(kh)ig\}$
$\sin(\omega t)$	$\frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$	$\sin(\omega kh)$	$\frac{\sin(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2\cos(\omega h)z + 1}$
$\cos(\omega t)$	$\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$	$\cos(\omega kh)$	$\frac{z(z-\cos(\omega h))}{z^2-2\cos(\omega h)z+1}$
$e^{-at}\sin(\omega t)$	$\frac{\omega}{(s+a)^2+\omega^2}$	$e^{-akh}\sin(\omega kh)$	$\frac{e^{-ah}\sin(\omega h)z}{z^2 - 2e^{-ah}\cos(\omega h)z + e^{-2ah}}$
$e^{-at}\cos(\omega t)$	$\frac{s+a}{(s+a)^2+\omega^2}$	$e^{-akh}\cos(\omega kh)$	$\frac{z(z - e^{-ah}\cos(\omega h))}{z^2 - 2e^{-ah}\cos(\omega h)z + e^{-2ah}}$
		a^k	$\frac{z}{z-a}$
		ka^{k-1}	$\frac{z}{(z-a)^2}$
		$\frac{1}{2}k(k-1)a^{k-2}$	$\frac{z}{(z-a)^3}$

Inverse z-transform

The inverse z-transform of a function $W: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ is a discrete signal w(k), denoted by $\mathcal{Z}^{-1}(W(z))$ such that $\mathcal{Z}\{w(k)\} = W(z)$.

Example

Compute the inverse z-transform of $W(z) = \frac{3}{(z+1)(z-2)}$

Solution: We use a similar method to the inverse of Laplace transform.

$$\frac{W(z)}{z} = \frac{3}{z(z+1)(z-2)} = -\frac{1.5}{z} + \frac{1}{z+1} + \frac{0.5}{z-2}$$

$$\Rightarrow W(z) = -1.5 + \frac{z}{z+1} + \frac{0.5z}{z-2}$$

$$\Rightarrow w(k) = -1.5\Delta(k) + (-1)^k + 0.5(2)^k \quad k \ge 0$$

Computing the inverse z-transform of a rational function :

$$W(z) = \frac{b_0 z^m + b_1 z^{m-1} + \dots + b_m}{z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n}$$

- **①** Compute the poles p_1 to p_n , where $p_i \in \mathbb{C}$.
- 2 Re-write W(z) in the following form :

$$W(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1 z}{z - p_1} + \frac{c_2 z}{z - p_2} + \dots + \frac{c_n z}{z - p_n}$$

3 Take $c_0 = W(0)$ and compute the constants $c_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$ by :

$$c_i = \lim_{z \to p_i} \left(\frac{z - p_i}{z} W(z) \right)$$

Compute the inverse transform from the Table.

$$w(k) = c_0 \Delta(k) + c_1 p_1^k + c_2 p_2^k + \dots + c_n p_n^k$$
 $k \ge 0$

Example

Compute the inverse z-transform of $W(z) = \frac{z+3}{z^2-3z+2}$.

- ① Compute the poles : $z^2 3z + 2 = (z 1)(z 2)$.
- **2** Re-write $W(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1 z}{z 1} + \frac{c_2 z}{z 2}$
- 3 Take $c_0 = W(0) = 1.5$ and compute c_1 and c_2 :

$$c_1 = \lim_{z \to 1} \left(\frac{z-1}{z} \frac{z+3}{(z-1)(z-2)} \right) = -4$$

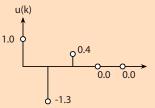
$$c_2 = \lim_{z \to 2} \left(\frac{z-2}{z} \frac{z+3}{(z-1)(z-2)} \right) = 2.5$$

3 Compute w(k) from the Table :

$$w(k) = 1.5\Delta(k) - 4 + 2.5(2)^k$$
 $k \ge 0$

Question: Exam 2015

Soit u(k) et y(k), respectivement, l'entrée et la sortie d'un système discret:





Trouver la fonction de transfert du système.

(A)
$$\frac{0.6z^2 - z + 0.8}{z(z^2 - 1.3z + 0.4)}$$
 (B) $\frac{0.6z^2 - z + 0.8}{z^2 - 1.3z + 0.4}$

(B)
$$\frac{0.6z^2 - z + 0.8}{z^2 - 1.3z + 0.4}$$

(C)
$$\frac{z^2 - 1.3z + 0.4}{z(0.6z^2 - z + 0.8)}$$
 (D) None of the above

Question: Exam 2015

• Calculer la réponse indicielle (step response) du système.

- (A) $y(k) = 2 8(-0.8)^k + 6(-0.5)^k$
- (B) $y(k) = 2 8(0.8)^{k} + 6(0.5)^{k}$
- (C) $y(k) = -2\Delta(k) + 4 8(0.8)^k + 6(0.5)^k$
- **(D)** None of the above

There are three special cases:

Complex poles

$$W(z) = \cdots + \frac{cz}{z-p} + \frac{c'z}{z-\bar{p}} + \cdots$$

where \bar{p} is the complex conjugates of p.

Multiple poles at zero

$$W(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1}{z} + \frac{c_2}{z^2} + \cdots + \frac{c_\ell}{z^\ell} + \cdots$$

Multiple non-zero poles

$$W(z) = \cdots + \frac{c_1 z}{(z-p)} + \frac{c_2 z}{(z-p)^2} + \cdots + \frac{c_\ell z}{(z-p)^\ell} + \cdots$$

1. Complex poles :
$$W(z) = \cdots + \frac{cz}{z-p} + \frac{c'z}{z-\bar{p}} + \cdots$$

We have

$$c = \lim_{z \to p} \left(\frac{z - p}{z} W(z) \right)$$
 $c' = \lim_{z \to \bar{p}} \left(\frac{z - \bar{p}}{z} W(z) \right)$

Since W(z) has real coefficients, $c' = \bar{c}$. Then,

$$w(k) = \cdots + cp^k + \bar{c}\bar{p}^k + \cdots \qquad k \ge 0$$

If we take $p=r\mathrm{e}^{j\omega}$, c=x+jy and $\phi=\arctan(y/x)$, we obtain :

$$w(k) = \dots + (x + jy)r^{k}e^{jk\omega} + (x - jy)r^{k}e^{-jk\omega} + \dots$$

$$= \dots + r^{k}x(e^{jk\omega} + e^{-jk\omega}) + jr^{k}y(e^{jk\omega} - e^{-jk\omega}) + \dots$$

$$= \dots + r^{k}(2x\cos(k\omega) - 2y\sin(k\omega)) + \dots$$

$$= \dots + 2|c|r^{k}\cos(k\omega + \phi) + \dots \qquad k \ge 0$$

Example (Complex poles)

Compute the inverse z-transform for $W(z) = \frac{3z^2 + 0.5z}{z^2 - z + 0.5}$

Compute the poles :

$$z^2 - z + 0.5 = (z - (0.5 + 0.5j))(z - (0.5 - 0.5j)).$$

- Re-write $W(z) = c_0 + \frac{cz}{z (0.5 + 0.5j)} + \frac{cz}{z (0.5 0.5j)}$
- **3** Take $c_0 = W(0) = 0$ and

$$c = \lim_{z \to (0.5 + 0.5j)} \left(\frac{z - (0.5 + 0.5j)}{z} \frac{3z^2 + 0.5z}{z^2 - z + 0.5} \right) = 1.5 - 2j$$

- $Take p = 0.5 + 0.5j = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}e^{j\frac{\pi}{4}}.$
- Finally: $w(k) = \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)^k \left(3\cos\left(k\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + 4\sin\left(k\frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right) \quad k \ge 0$

2. Multiple poles at zero : $W(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1}{z} + \frac{c_2}{z^2} + \cdots + \frac{c_\ell}{z^\ell} + \cdots$ We have

$$z^{\ell}W(z) = c_0z^{\ell} + c_1z^{\ell-1} + c_2z^{\ell-2} + \cdots + c_{\ell-1}z + c_{\ell} + \cdots$$

Therefore : $c_\ell = \lim_{z \to 0} z^\ell W(z)$. Let's take the derivative of $z^\ell W(z)$:

$$\frac{d}{dz}z^{\ell}W(z) = c_0\ell z^{\ell-1} + c_1(\ell-1)z^{\ell-2} + \cdots + 2c_{\ell-2}z + c_{\ell-1} + \cdots$$

Then : $c_{\ell-1} = \lim_{z \to 0} \frac{d}{dz} z^{\ell} W(z)$. For the general case :

$$c_{\ell-i} = \lim_{z \to 0} \left(\frac{1}{i!} \frac{d^i}{dz^i} \left(z^\ell W(z) \right) \right) \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots, \ell-1$$

From the Table $\mathcal{Z}^{-1}\{z^{-i}\} = \Delta(k-i)$ and therefore

$$w(k) = \cdots + c_0 \Delta(k) + c_1 \Delta(k-1) + c_2 \Delta(k-2) + \cdots + c_\ell \Delta(k-\ell) + \cdots + k \geq 0$$

Example (Multiple poles at zero)

Compute the inverse z-transform for $W(z) = \frac{(z+1)}{z^2(z-1)}$

• Re-write
$$(\ell = 2)$$
 $W(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1}{z} + \frac{c_2}{z^2} + \frac{c_3 z}{(z-1)}$

Use the given formula to compute the constants :

$$c_{2} = \lim_{z \to 0} \left(z^{2} \frac{(z+1)}{z^{2}(z-1)} \right) = -1$$

$$c_{1} = \lim_{z \to 0} \left(\frac{d}{dz} \left(z^{2} \frac{(z+1)}{z^{2}(z-1)} \right) \right) = -2$$

$$c_{0} = \lim_{z \to 0} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^{2}}{dz^{2}} \left(z^{2} \frac{(z+1)}{z^{2}(z-1)} \right) \right) = -2$$

$$c_{3} = \lim_{z \to 1} \left(\frac{z-1}{z} \frac{(z+1)}{z^{2}(z-1)} \right) = 2$$

3. Multiple non-zero poles:

$$W(z) = \cdots + \frac{c_1 z}{(z-p)} + \frac{c_2 z}{(z-p)^2} + \cdots + \frac{c_\ell z}{(z-p)^\ell} + \cdots$$

We have

$$\frac{(z-p)^{\ell}}{z}W(z) = \cdots + c_1(z-p)^{\ell-1} + c_2(z-p)^{\ell-2} + \cdots + c_{\ell} + \cdots$$

Therefore : $c_\ell = \lim_{z \to p} \frac{(z-p)^\ell}{z} W(z)$. Let's take the following derivative :

$$\frac{d}{dz}\left(\frac{(z-p)^{\ell}}{z}W(z)\right) = \cdots + c_1(\ell-1)(z-p)^{\ell-2} + c_2(\ell-2)(z-p)^{\ell-2} + \cdots + 2c_{\ell-2}(z-p) + c_{\ell-1} + \cdots$$

Therefore : $c_{\ell-1} = \lim_{z \to p} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{(z-p)^\ell}{z} W(z) \right).$

3. Multiple non-zero poles (suit): For the general case we have

$$c_{\ell-i} = \lim_{z \to p} \left(\frac{1}{i!} \frac{d^i}{dz^i} \left(\frac{(z-p)^\ell}{z} W(z) \right) \right) \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots, \ell-1$$

From the Table we have

$$\mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left\{\frac{z}{(z-p)^2}\right\} = kp^{k-1} \text{ and } \mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left\{\frac{z}{(z-p)^3}\right\} = \frac{1}{2}k(k-1)p^{k-2}$$

For the general case we have :

$$\mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left\{\frac{z}{(z-p)^{\ell}}\right\} = \frac{1}{(\ell-1)!} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{\ell-2} (k-i)\right) p^{k-\ell+1}$$

Therefore

$$w(k) = \cdots + c_1 p^k + c_2 k p^{k-1} + \cdots + \frac{c_\ell}{(\ell-1)!} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{\ell-2} (k-i) \right) p^{k-\ell+1} + \cdots + k \ge 0$$

Example (Multiple non-zero poles)

Compute the inverse z-transform for $W(z) = \frac{z^3 - 2z^2 + 2z}{(z-1)^2(z-2)}$

- Re-write $W(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1 z}{z 1} + \frac{c_2 z}{(z 1)^2} + \frac{c_3 z}{(z 2)}$
- **2** Take $c_0 = W(0) = 0$ and

$$c_{2} = \lim_{z \to 1} \left(\frac{(z-1)^{2}}{z} \frac{z^{3} - 2z^{2} + 2z}{(z-1)^{2}(z-2)} \right) = -1$$

$$c_{1} = \lim_{z \to 1} \left(\frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{(z-1)^{2}}{z} \frac{z^{3} - 2z^{2} + 2z}{(z-1)^{2}(z-2)} \right) \right) = -1$$

$$c_{3} = \lim_{z \to 2} \left(\frac{z-2}{z} \frac{z^{3} - 2z^{2} + 2z}{(z-1)^{2}(z-2)} \right) = 2$$

3 Finally: $w(k) = -1 - k + 2^{k+1}$ $k \ge 0$

Alternate method to compute the constants :

Step 1 : Consider the expansion of W(z) :

$$W(z) = c_0 + c_1 V_1(z) + c_2 V_2(z) + \cdots$$

where $V_i(z) = \frac{z}{(z - p_i)^{n_i}}$. This expression is linear in $C = [c_0, c_1, \dots, c_m]^T$.

- Step 2 : Choose z_0, z_1, \ldots, z_m different from the poles $z_j \neq p_i$.
- Step 3: Solve the following system of linear equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} W(z_0) \\ W(z_1) \\ \vdots \\ W(z_m) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & V_1(z_0) & V_2(z_0) & \cdots \\ 1 & V_1(z_1) & V_2(z_1) & \cdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & V_1(z_m) & V_2(z_m) & \cdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem (Numerical inverse z-transform)

Let W(z) be a rational function as :

$$W(z) = \frac{b_0 z^n + b_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + b_n}{z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n}$$

The inverse z-transform can be generated by the following recursive difference equation

$$w(k) = b_k - \sum_{\ell=1}^n a_\ell w(k-\ell)$$

where $b_i = 0$ for i > n.

Proof : From the rational function, we have :

$$b_0z^n + b_1z^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n = (z^n + a_1z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n)W(z)$$

Multiplying both sides by z^{-n}

$$b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_n z^{-n} = (1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_n z^{-n}) W(z)$$

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Proof (suit) : Computing the inverse z-transform, we have :

$$b_0\Delta(k) + b_1\Delta(k-1) + \cdots + b_n\Delta(k-n) =$$

$$w(k) + a_1w(k-1) + \cdots + a_nw(k-n)$$

The left side is equal to b_k . So we have :

$$b_k = w(k) + \sum_{\ell=1}^n a_\ell w(k-\ell) \quad \Rightarrow \quad w(k) = b_k - \sum_{\ell=1}^n a_\ell w(k-\ell)$$

Example

Find the inverse z-transform of W(z) by a recursive difference equation.

$$W(z) = \frac{z^3 - 2z^2 + 2z}{z^3 - 4z^2 + 5z - 2}$$

Solution : With $a_1 = -4$, $a_2 = 5$, $a_3 = -2$, $b_0 = 1$, $b_1 = -2$ and $b_2 = 2$:

$$w(0) = 1, w(1) = 2, w(2) = 5, w(3) = 12, w(4) = 27,...$$

Question

Find using numerical inversion the inverse Z transform of

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

- (A) $\{w(k)\} = \{\ldots, 1, 6, 16, 36, \ldots\}$
- **(B)** $\{w(k)\} = \{\dots, 0, 1, 0, -2, -6, \dots\}$
- (C) $\{w(k)\} = \{\dots, 0, 1, 6, 16, 26, \dots\}$
- (D) None of the above

Characteristics of the inverse z-transform of rational functions :

$$W(z) = \frac{b_0 z^n + b_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + b_n}{z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n} = \frac{b_0 z^n + b_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + b_n}{(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \dots (z - p_n)}$$

• The signal w(k) is the weighted sum of signals based on the poles :

$$w(k) = c_0 \Delta(k) + c_1 p_1^k + \dots + 2|c_i| r^k \cos(k\omega + \phi) + \dots + c_n p_n^k$$

- if |p| < 1 then the corresponding signal converges to zero.
- if |p| > 1 then the corresponding signal diverges.
- If p real and $0 then <math>p^k$ converges monotonically to zero.
- If p is real and $-1 then <math>p^k$ converges non monotonically to zero (we have a chattering effect).

Discrete-Time Transfer Function

Convolution sum: The output of an LTI discrete-time system to the

input signal
$$u(k)$$
 is given by : $y(k) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell)g(k-\ell) = g(k)*u(k)$.

Taking the z-transform from the both sides gives : Y(z) = G(z)U(z).

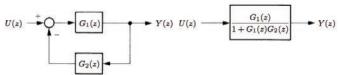
Discrete-Time Transfer Function

The z-transform of the impulse response $\{g(k)\}\$ of a causal LTI discrete-time system is called its discrete-time transfer function.

$$\mathcal{Z}{g(k)} = G(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{U(z)}$$

$$\mathcal{Z}\lbrace g(k)\rbrace = G(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{U(z)}$$
 $U(z) \longrightarrow G(z)$

The same rules as continuous-time case applied to closed-loop systems



Control Systems (Chapter 8)

Discrete-Time Transfer Function

Continuous-time and discrete-time systems are very similar

Continuous time System	Discrete-time System	
g(t): Response to a Dirac impulse	g(k): Response to a unit impulse	
Convolution integral	Convolution sum	
$y(t) = \int_0^t u(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau$	$y(k) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} u(\ell)g(k-\ell)$	
Differential equation	Difference equation	
$rac{dy(t)}{d(t)} + ay(t) = bu(t)$	y(k) + cy(k-1) = du(k)	
Laplace Transform	z-Transform	
$Y(s) = \mathcal{L}(y(t))$	$Y(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{y(k)\}$	
Transfer function in s	Transfer function in z	
$G(s) = \mathcal{L}(g(t))$	$G(z) = \mathcal{Z}\{g(k)\}$	
Y(s) = G(s)U(s)	Y(z) = G(z)U(z)	

Discrete-Time Transfer Function

Example (From difference equation to transfer function :)

Given the following difference equation

$$y(k) + a_1y(k-1) + \cdots + a_ny(k-n) = b_0u(k) + b_1u(k-1) + \cdots + b_mu(k-m)$$

Find the transfer function between the input U(z) and the output Y(z). **Solution** Take the z-transform of the both sides :

$$(1 + a_1z^{-1} + \dots + a_nz^{-n})Y(z) = (b_0 + b_1z^{-1} + \dots + b_mz^{-m})U(z)$$

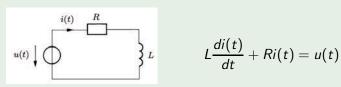
Therefore, (multiplying by z^n):

$$G(z) = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_m z^{-m}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_n z^{-n}} = \frac{b_0 z^n + b_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + b_m z^{n-m}}{z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n}$$

Discrete-Time Transfer Function

Example

Compute a discrete-time transfer function:



$$L\frac{di(t)}{dt} + Ri(t) = u(t)$$

The derivative can be approximated by :

$$\frac{di(kh)}{dt} \approx \frac{i(kh) - i(kh - h)}{h} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (L + Rh)i(kh) - Li(kh - h) = hu(kh)$$

Taking the z-transform, we have : $(L + Rh)I(z) - Lz^{-1}I(z) = hU(z)$

$$\Rightarrow G(z) = \frac{I(z)}{U(z)} = \frac{h}{L + Rh - Lz^{-1}} = \frac{hz}{(L + Rh)z - L}$$

Discrete-Time Transfer Function

Example (Discrete PD controller)

An ideal PD controller is given by :

$$u(kh) = K_p\left(e(kh) + T_d\frac{de(kh)}{dt}\right) \approx K_p\left(e(kh) + T_d\frac{e(kh) - e(kh - h)}{h}\right)$$

Taking the z-transform, we get :

$$U(z) = K_p \left(E(z) + \frac{T_d}{h} (1 - z^{-1}) E(z) \right)$$

$$K(z) = \frac{U(z)}{E(z)} = K_p \left(1 + \frac{T_d}{h} (1 - z^{-1}) \right) = \frac{K_p (h + T_d) z - K_p T_d}{hz}$$

Frequency Response (Discrete-time case)

Find the frequency response of H(z) to a sinusoidal signal $u(k) = \sin \omega kh$. **Solution :** We find first the response to $u(k) = e^{j\omega kh}$.

$$u(k) = e^{j\omega kh} = j\sin\omega kh + \cos\omega kh$$
 \Rightarrow $U(z) = \frac{z}{z - e^{j\omega h}}$

$$\Rightarrow Y(z) = H(z)U(z) = c_0 + \frac{c_1z}{z - p_1} + \dots + \frac{c_nz}{z - p_n} + \frac{cz}{z - e^{j\omega h}}$$

where p_i are the distinct poles of H(z). Taking the inverse z transform :

$$y(k) = c_0 \Delta(k) + c_1 p_1^k + \dots + c_n p_n^k + \mathcal{Z}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{cz}{z - e^{j\omega h}} \right\}$$

If the system is stable then all $|p_i| < 1$, and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} y(k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \mathcal{Z}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{cz}{z - e^{j\omega h}} \right\} = c e^{j\omega kh}$$

where

$$c = \lim_{z \to e^{j\omega h}} \frac{z - e^{j\omega h}}{z} Y(z) = H(e^{j\omega h})$$

Frequency Response (Discrete-time case)

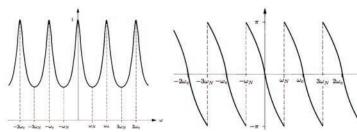
Therefore, the steady state response to $u(k) = \sin \omega kh$ is :

$$y_s(k) = I_m[H(e^{j\omega h})e^{j\omega kh}] = |H(e^{j\omega h})|\sin(\omega kh + \phi)$$
; $\phi = \angle H(e^{j\omega h})$

• $H(e^{j\omega h})$ is a periodic function with period $\omega_e=2\pi/h$:

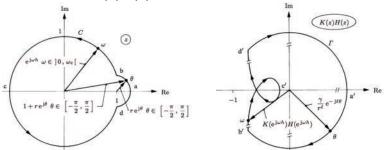
$$H(e^{j(\omega+\frac{2\pi}{h})h})=H(e^{j\omega h}e^{j2\pi})=H(e^{j\omega h})$$

• $|H(e^{j\omega h})| = |H(e^{-j\omega h})|$ is an even function and $\angle H(e^{j\omega h}) = -\angle H(e^{-j\omega h})$ an odd function. They are usually computed for $\omega \in [0\,,\,\omega_N[$, where $\omega_N = \omega_e/2$ is the Nyquist frequency. $|H(e^{j\omega h})|$ arg $H(e^{j\omega h})$



Nyquist Stability Criterion

Discrete-time case: Let's consider the unit circle as the Nyquist contour Γ_z in the z-plane with a counterclockwise direction. It should avoid the poles on the imaginary axis (like integrators) by a very small detour. Its typical image under K(z)H(z) is given below:



- The image of the detour $(z = 1 + re^{j\theta} 90^{\circ} < \theta < 90^{\circ})$, will be a semicircle with infinity radius.
- The image of the unit circle is the frequency response of $K(z)H(z) = K(e^{j\omega})H(e^{j\omega})$.

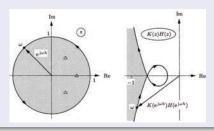
Nyquist Stability Criterion

Theorem (Discrete-time)

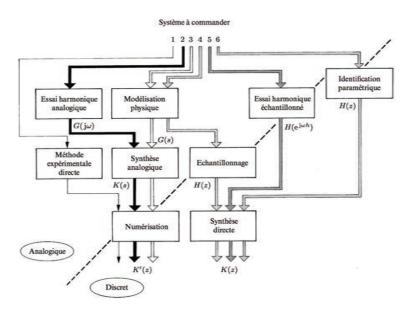
The zeros of 1 + K(z)H(z) are all inside the unit circle (i.e. the closed-loop system is stable), iff the image of Γ_z by the mapping $z \mapsto K(z)H(z)$ encircles counterclockwise the critical point (-1,0), P times, where P is the number of unstable poles of K(z)H(z).

Simplified criterion

For open-loop transfer functions with no pole and zero outside the unit circle and maximum one pole on the unit circle, the closed-loop system is stable if the critical point is at the left side of the Nyquist plot, when ω goes from zero to ω_N .

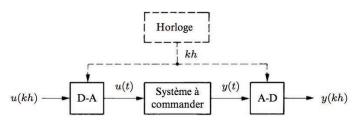


Continuous Versus Digital Controller Design

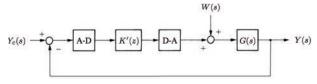


Discretization

Discretization of the plant model : The continuous-time plant model G(s) is seen by the controller as a discrete system H(z). Find H(z) for direct digital controller synthesis.



Discretization of the Controller : A continuous-time controller K(s) is designed. Find K'(z) for implementation.



Discretization

Discretization Methods:

- No exact discretization method exists.
- Several methods lead to approximate discretization.
- For very small sampling periods, there is no significant difference between the approaches.

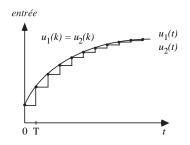
Input-Output relation :

- Zero-Order-Hold method,
- First-Order Hold method,
- Impulse Response method.

Derivative approximation :

- Euler approximation (forward method),
- Euler approximation (backward method),
- Bilinear approximation (Tustin).

Zero-Pole matching



$$u_1(k) = u_2(k) \quad \Rightarrow \quad y_1(k) \neq y_2(k)$$

$$H_1(z) = \frac{Y_1(z)}{U_1(z)} \neq H_2(z) = \frac{Y_2(z)}{U_2(z)}$$

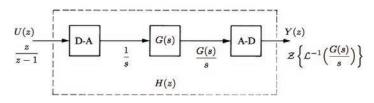
sortie $y_1(k)$ 0 T u(t)A/N

For a given G(s), H(z) depends on the input u(t)

Principle: A transfer function is the relation between Y(z) and U(z). Therefore, for a choice of the input signal we have :

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{U(z)} = \frac{Z\{y(k)\}}{Z\{u(k)\}} = \frac{Z\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}(G(s)U(s))\}}{Z\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}(U(s))\}}$$

Zero-Order Hold method: The output of a ZOH is the weighted sum of shifted unit steps. So we consider a unit step as input (U(s) = 1/s):



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

Example

Find H(z) from $G(s) = \frac{4}{s(s+2)}$ by the ZOH method (h = 0.025).

$$H(z) = (1-z^{-1})\mathcal{Z}\left\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{4}{s^{2}(s+2)}\right]\right\}$$

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

$$= (1-z^{-1})\left[\frac{-z}{z-1} + \frac{2hz}{(z-1)^{2}} + \frac{z}{z-e^{-2h}}\right]$$

$$= \frac{(-1+2h+e^{-2h})z+1-e^{-2h}(1+2h)}{z^{2}-(1+e^{-2h})z+e^{-2h}}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-3}(1.23z+1.21)}{z^{2}-1.95z+0.95} = \frac{10^{-3}(1.23z+1.21)}{(z-1)(z-0.95)}$$

First-Order Hold method: In this case the input signal will be a unit ramp $(U(s) = 1/s^2)$. This method is appropriate if a first-order hold is used after digital to analog conversion:

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{U(z)} = \frac{\mathcal{Z}\left\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{G(s)}{s^2}\right)\right\}}{\frac{hz}{(z-1)^2}} = \frac{(z-1)^2}{hz}\mathcal{Z}\left\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{G(s)}{s^2}\right)\right\}$$

Impulse Response method : The input signal is a Dirac impulse (U(s)=1). In this case U(z) is not defined but can be approximated by :

$$U(z) = \mathcal{Z}\left\{\delta(t)\right\} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} \mathcal{Z}\left\{\delta(k)\right\} \approx \frac{1}{h}$$

Therefore,

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{U(z)} \approx h \mathcal{Z}\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}(G(s))\}$$

Systems with pure time delay : A continuous-time system with a pure time delay of T seconds in series has this transfer function : $G(s) = e^{-Ts}G'(s)$. If T = dh where $d \in \mathbb{N}$ we obtain :

$$H(z) = (1-z^{-1})\mathcal{Z}\left\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(e^{-dhs}\frac{G'(s)}{s}\right)\right\} = (1-z^{-1})z^{-d}\mathcal{Z}\left\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{G'(s)}{s}\right)\right\}$$

Example

The dynamic model of a physical system is given by

$$\dot{y}(t) + ay(t) = au(t - T)$$

If T = dh, find its discrete transfer function using the ZOH method.

$$\frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = e^{-sT} \frac{a}{s+a} = e^{-sT} G'(s) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{G'(s)}{s} = \frac{a}{s(s+a)} = \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{s+a}$$

$$H(z) = (1-z^{-1})z^{-d} \left(\frac{z}{z-1} - \frac{z}{z-e^{-ah}}\right) = \frac{1-e^{-ah}}{z^d(z-e^{-ah})}$$

Principle: Consider the following differential equation:

$$u(t) = \frac{d^n y(t)}{dt^n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad U(s) = s^n Y(s)$$

In discrete-time the above derivative can be approximated with different methods leading to different H(z).

First method of Euler (forward): For small sampling period h, we have

$$u(k) \approx \frac{y(k+1) - y(k)}{h} \quad \Rightarrow \quad U(z) = \frac{z-1}{h}Y(z)$$

So we can replace s in G(s) with $\frac{z-1}{h}$ to find $H(z)=G(\frac{z-1}{h})$.

Example

Find H(z) from $G(s) = \frac{4}{s(s+2)}$, where h = 0.025.

$$H(z) = \frac{4}{\frac{z-1}{h}\left(\frac{z-1}{h}+2\right)} = \frac{4h^2}{(z-1)(z-1+2h)} = \frac{0.0025}{(z-1)(z-0.95)}$$

Second method of Euler (backward) : For small sampling period h, we have

$$u(k) \approx \frac{y(k) - y(k-1)}{h} \quad \Rightarrow \quad U(z) = \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{h} Y(z)$$

So we can replace s in G(s) with $\frac{z-1}{zh}$ to find $H(z)=G(\frac{z-1}{zh})$.

Example

Find H(z) from $G(s) = \frac{4}{s(s+2)}$, where h = 0.025.

$$H(z) = \frac{4}{\frac{z-1}{zh}\left(\frac{z-1}{zh}+2\right)} = \frac{4z^2h^2}{(z-1)(z-1+2zh)} = \frac{0.0025z^2}{(z-1)(1.95z-1)}$$

Bilinear method (Tustin): This method is based on the mean value of the forward and backward methods.

$$\begin{cases} \text{Forward}: & \frac{y(k+1)-y(k)}{h} = u(k) \\ \text{Backward}: & \frac{y(k)-y(k-1)}{h} = u(k) \Rightarrow \frac{y(k+1)-y(k)}{h} = u(k+1) \\ \frac{y(k+1)-y(k)}{h} = \frac{1}{2}[u(k)+u(k+1)] & \Rightarrow & \frac{z-1}{h}Y(z) = \frac{1}{2}(1+z)U(z) \end{cases}$$

So we can replace s in G(s) with $\frac{2}{h}\frac{z-1}{z+1}$ to find $H(z)=G(\frac{2}{h}\frac{z-1}{z+1})$.

Example

Find H(z) from $G(s) = \frac{4}{s(s+2)}$, using Tustin method.

$$H(z) = \frac{4}{\frac{2}{h} \frac{z-1}{z+1} \left(\frac{2}{h} \frac{z-1}{z+1} + 2\right)} = \frac{h^2(z+1)^2}{(z-1)^2 + h(z^2-1)}$$

Relation between the poles of G(s) and H(z): How the left side of the imaginary axis in the s plane is mapped to the z plane.

Forward method

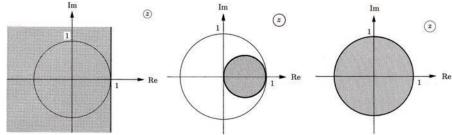
Backward method

Tustin method

$$z = sh + 1$$

$$z = \frac{1}{1 - sh} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1 + sh}{1 - sh}$$
 $z = \frac{1 + sh/2}{1 - sh/2}$

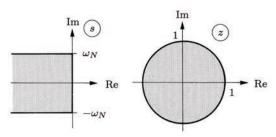
$$z = \frac{1 + sh/2}{1 - sh/2}$$



Remark: Forward approximation does not preserve the stability, i.e. a stable G(s) can be transformed to an unstable H(z).

Zero-Pole Matching

The function $z = e^{sh}$ maps the left hand side of the imaginary axis in the s plane to the inside of the unit circle in the z plane.



- s=0 is mapped to z=1 and $s=j\omega_N=j\pi/h$ is mapped to $z=e^{j\pi}=-1$.
- Relation with the derivative approximation methods :

Forward approximation : $z = e^{sh} \approx 1 + sh$.

Backward approximation : $z = e^{sh} = \frac{1}{e^{-sh}} \approx \frac{1}{1-sh}$.

Bilinear approximation : $z = e^{sh} = \frac{e^{sh/2}}{e^{-sh/2}} \approx \frac{1+sh/2}{1-sh/2}$

Zero-Pole Matching

Straightforward procedure to find H(z) from G(s):

- ① Compute the poles p_i and zeros z_i of G(s).
- 2 If the relative degree of G(s) (degree of denominator minus degree of numerator) is greater than 1, consider some zeros at infinity such that relative degree becomes equal to 1.
- Map the poles and zeros of G(s) to the z plane : zeros of H(z) : $e^{z_i h}$ (each zero at infinity gives a zero at -1) poles of H(z) : $e^{p_i h}$
- **3** Compute the gain of H(z) such that it has the same gain as G(s) in a chosen frequency (usually at s=0 to have the same steady state gain).

$$\lim_{s\to 0} G(s) = \lim_{z\to 1} H(z)$$

For systems with integrator, the steady-state gain is infinity so choose another frequency, e.g. the crossover frequency.

Zero-Pole Matching Method

Example

Given $G(s) = \frac{(s+1)}{(s+2)}$, find H(z) using the zero-pole matching method.

Solution : We have one zero at -1 that leads to a zero at e^{-h} and a pole at -2 that gives a pole at e^{-2h} , therefore :

$$H(z) = \frac{c(z - e^{-h})}{(z - e^{-2h})}$$

We choose to have the steady state gain for both systems :

$$\lim_{s \to 0} G(s) = \lim_{z \to 1} H(z) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} = \frac{c(1 - e^{-h})}{(1 - e^{-2h})} \quad \Rightarrow \quad c = \frac{(1 - e^{-2h})}{2(1 - e^{-h})}$$

Zero-Pole Matching Method

Question

Given $G(s) = \frac{4}{s(s+2)}$ find H(z) using the zero-pole matching method.

(A)
$$H(z) = \frac{c}{z(z - e^{-2h})}$$
 (B) $H(z) = \frac{c(z+1)}{(z-1)(z-e^{-2h})}$

(C)
$$H(z) = \frac{c}{(z - e^{-2h})}$$
 (D) $H(z) = \frac{c}{(z - 1)(z - e^{-2h})}$

Match the gains at $\omega = 1$.

(A)
$$c = \infty$$
 (B) $c = (1 - e^{-2h})$

(C)
$$c = 2(1 - e^{-2h})$$
 (D) $c = \left| \frac{4(e^{jh} - 1)(e^{jh} - e^{-2h})}{\sqrt{5}(e^{jh} + 1)} \right|$

Frequency Response Plots (Discrete-time case)

Computing the frequency response: $H(e^{j\omega})$ can be computed by a fine grid of $\omega \in [0, \omega_N]$, where $\omega_N = \omega_e/2$ is the Nyquist frequency. Use bode and nyquist in Matlab to plot the Bode and Nyquist diagram.

Sketching the frequency response: Since $H(e^{j\omega})$ is not a polynomial function of ω , it cannot be easily plotted. However, $H(e^{j\omega})\approx G(j\omega)$ in the frequency zone $\omega\in[0\,,\,\omega_N]$, where G(s) is obtained by transformation of H(z) to continuous time. The following methods are usually used:

• Bilinear Transformation: In this method we have

$$z = \frac{1 + sh/2}{1 - sh/2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad H(e^{j\omega}) \approx G(j\omega) = H\left(\frac{1 + \frac{j\omega h}{2}}{1 - \frac{j\omega h}{2}}\right)$$

• **ZOH method**: In this method we have

$$G(s) = s\mathcal{L}\left\{\mathcal{Z}^{-1}\left(\frac{z}{z-1}H(z)\right)\right\} \quad \Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) \approx G(j\omega)$$

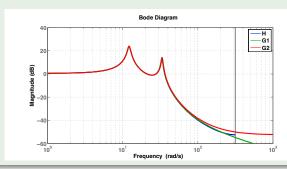
Frequency Response Plots (Discrete-time case)

Example

Consider H(z) with h = 0.01 s:

$$H(z) = \frac{0.01184z^3 - 0.01645z^2 + 0.007212z - 0.0008898}{z^4 - 3.852z^3 + 5.683z^2 - 3.806z + 0.9762}$$

Compare the Bode plot of $H(e^{j\omega})$ and $G_1(j\omega)$ (ZOH transformation, green) and $G_2(j\omega)$ (Tustin transformation, red).



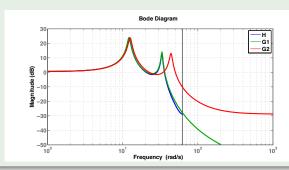
Frequency Response Plots (Discrete-time case)

Example

Consider the same dynamical system sampled with h = 0.05 s:

$$H(z) = \frac{0.2826z^3 + 0.5066z^2}{z^4 - 1.418z^3 + 1.589z^2 - 1.316z + 0.8864}$$

Compare the Bode plot of $H(e^{j\omega})$ and $G_1(j\omega)$ (ZOH transformation, green) and $G_2(j\omega)$ (Tustin transformation, red).



Find G(s) from H(z)

The inverse of all methods can be used for conversion from discrete to continuous-time models.

70H method

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

impulse response

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

forward difference

$$G(s) = H(z)\Big|_{z=1+hs}$$

Tustin method

$$G(s) = H(z)\Big|_{z=\frac{1+hs/2}{1-hs/2}}$$

Conclusions of Discretizing Methods

- For very small sampling periods all methods give good approximation.
- The ZOH method is used for discretizing a plant model G(s) if a zero order hold is used in the converters (almost always).
- For discretizing a controller K(s), the backward difference method is usually used with a small sampling period (forward difference should not be used). Tustin gives a better approximation but is more complicated.
- The ZOH, Impulse and Zero-Pole Matching methods preserve the modes (poles) in transformation. The zeros are only preserved in the Zero-Pole Matching method.
- For converting H(z) to G(s) the Tustin method is usually used (backward difference should not be used). If H(z) has high frequency resonance modes the ZOH or Zero-Pole matching may be preferred.

Digital Controller Design

- Discrete-Time Models
- RST Controller
- Pole Placement Technique
 - Desired Closed-loop Poles
 - Regulation (Diophantine Equation)
 - Tracking
- Related Design Methods
 - Internal Model Control (IMC)
 - Model Reference Control (MRC)

Difference Operator Models

We consider SISO-LTI discrete-time models of the form :

$$y(k) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n_A} a_i y(k-i) + \sum_{i=0}^{n_B} b_i u(k-i)$$

Define q^{-1} a backward shift operator such that $q^{-1}y(k) = y(k-1)$, then

$$A(q^{-1})y(k) = B(q^{-1})u(k)$$

or
$$y(k) = G(q^{-1})u(k)$$
 with $G(q^{-1}) = \frac{B(q^{-1})}{A(q^{-1})}$ where

$$A(q^{-1}) = 1 + a_1 q^{-1} + \dots + a_{n_A} q^{-n_A}$$

$$B(q^{-1}) = b_0 + b_1 q^{-1} + b_2 q^{-2} + \dots + b_{n_B} q^{-n_B}$$

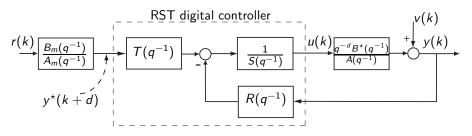
Delay d

The number of first zero coefficients of $B(q^{-1})$ is called delay d. For sampled systems $d \ge 1$ (b_0 is always zero) and $B(q^{-1}) = q^{-d}B^*(q^{-1})$ where $B^*(q^{-1})$ has no leading zero coefficients.

RST Controller

A general form of a two-degree of freedom digital controller is given by :

$$R(q^{-1})y(k) + S(q^{-1})u(k) = T(q^{-1})y^{*}(k+d)$$



where $y^*(k+d)$ is the desired tracking trajectory given with d steps in advance and

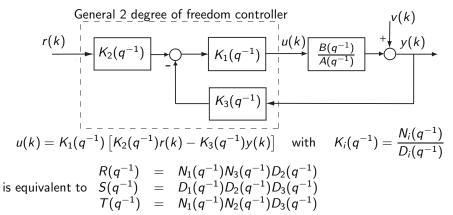
$$R(q^{-1}) = r_0 + r_1 q^{-1} + \dots + r_{n_R} q^{-n_R}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 + s_1 q^{-1} + \dots + s_{n_S} q^{-n_S}$
 $T(q^{-1}) = t_0 + t_1 q^{-1} + \dots + t_{n_T} q^{-n_T}$

RST Controller

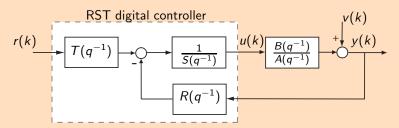
Advantages of RST controller:

- Can be easily implemented.
- It has two degrees of freedom (tracking and regulation dynamics can be designed independently).
- The other controller structures can be converted to an RST controller.



RST Controller

Question



- What is the transfer function between r and y assuming v(k) = 0?
 - $\frac{T(q^{-1})B(q^{-1})}{A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})}$ (A)
- $\frac{A(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})}{A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})}$ $B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$ $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$
- $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})$ (C) (D) $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$
- ② What is the transfer function between v and y assuming r(k) = 0? $A(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$
 - $T(q^{-1})B(q^{-1})$ (A) $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$
 - (B) $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$ $\hat{A}(q^{-1})S(\hat{q}^{-1})$
 - (C) (D) $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$
- $B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$ $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})$

Pole Placement Technique

Objective:

Place the closed-loop poles on the desired places.

Closed-loop poles

The roots of the characteristic polynomial $P(q^{-1})$ are the closed-loop poles.

$$P(q^{-1}) = A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1}) + B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1}) = 1 + p_1q^{-1} + p_2q^{-2} + \cdots$$

Desired closed-loop poles:

They should be chosen according to the desired performance.

Example (First-order polynomial)

Let $P(q^{-1}) = 1 + p_1q^{-1}$. When $r(k) \equiv 0$, the free output response is defined by $y(k+1) = -p_1y(k)$. Then $p_1 = -0.5$ leads to a relative decrease of 50% for the output amplitude at each sampling instant (choose p_1 between -0.2 and -0.8).

Pole Placement Technique

Example (Second-order polynomial)

Let
$$P(q^{-1}) = 1 + p_1 q^{-1} + p_2 q^{-2}$$

- Choose the time-domain performance (desired rise time, settling-time and overshoot for a step response).
- **2** Choose ζ (damping factor) and ω_n (natural frequency) of a second-order **continuous-time** model

$$H(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

that meets the time-domain performance.

- **3** Compute s_1 and s_2 , the roots of $s^2 + 2\zeta \omega_n s + \omega_n^2 = 0$.
- **1** Compute p_1 and p_2 from :

$$P(z^{-1}) = (z - e^{s_1 h})(z - e^{s_2 h}) = z^2 + p_1 z + p_2$$

Time-domain Performance

Overshoot: The overshoot M_p is a function of the damping factor:

$$M_p = e^{-\zeta \pi/\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}$$

Settling-time : The time t_s for which the response remains within 2% of the final value :

$$e^{-\zeta\omega_n t_s} < 0.02$$
 or $\zeta\omega_n t_s pprox 4$

Rise-time: The time it takes to rise from 10% to 90% of the final value. The following approximation can be used:

$$t_r \approx \frac{1.8}{\omega_n}$$

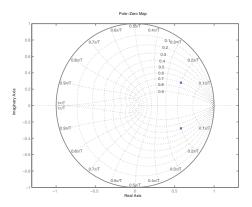
After computing ζ and ω_n , the desired $P(q^{-1})$ is computed by :

$$p_1 = -2e^{-\zeta\omega_n h} \cos\left(\omega_n h \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}\right)$$

$$p_2 = e^{-2\zeta\omega_n h}$$

Time-domain Performance

Using zgrid of MATLAB:



Desired closed-loop poles with the loci for constant ζ and ω_n The typical values for ζ and ω_n are :

$$\frac{0.25}{h} \le \omega_n \le \frac{1.5}{h} \quad ; \quad 0.7 \le \zeta \le 1$$

Time-domain Performance

Example

Compute the desired discrete-time closed-loop polynomial to have an overshoot of 10% and a settling time of $t_s = 1.2$ s. Suppose that the sampling period h = 0.1s.

- **①** For 10% overshoot we have : $e^{-\zeta\pi/\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}=0.1$ \Rightarrow $\zeta\approx0.6$
- ② The natural frequency is computed as $\omega_n pprox rac{4}{\zeta t_s} = 5.55$.
- The coefficients of the characteristic polynomial are :

$$p_1 = -2e^{-\zeta\omega_n h} \cos\left(\omega_n h \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}\right) = -1.294$$

$$p_2 = e^{-2\zeta\omega_n h} = 0.513$$

that corresponds to the following desired poles :

$$z_{1,2} = 0.647 \pm j0.308$$

Dominant and Auxiliary Poles

The desired closed-loop polynomial can be divided into two polynomials defining the dominant and auxiliary closed-loop poles :

$$P(q^{-1}) = P_d(q^{-1}) P_f(q^{-1})$$

Dominant closed-loop poles: Define the main dynamics of the closed-loop system in regulation and are computed based on the desired time-domain performance.

Auxiliary closed-loop poles : They introduce a filtering action in certain frequency regions in order to

- reduce the effect of the measurement noise;
- smooth the variations of the control signal;
- improve the robustness.

As a general rule, the "auxiliary poles" (called also the "observer poles"), are faster than the "dominant poles". It means that the roots of $P_f(q^{-1})$ should have a real part smaller than those of $P_d(q^{-1})$.

Once $P(q^{-1})$ is specified, in order to compute

$$R(q^{-1}) = r_0 + r_1 q^{-1} + \dots + r_{n_R} q^{-n_R}$$

$$S(q^{-1}) = 1 + s_1 q^{-1} + \dots + s_{n_S} q^{-n_S}$$

the following equation, known as "Bezout identity" (or Diophantine equation), must be solved :

$$A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1}) + B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1}) = P(q^{-1})$$

Theorem

The Diophantine equation has a unique solution with minimal degree for

$$n_R = deg R(q^{-1}) = n_A - 1$$

 $n_S = deg S(q^{-1}) = n_B - 1$
 $n_P = deg P(q^{-1}) \le n_A + n_B - 1$

If and only if $A(q^{-1})$ and $B(q^{-1})$ are coprime.

Question

Given
$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{0.2q^{-2}}{1 - 0.8q^{-1}}$$

Compute minimum order of $R(q^{-1})$ and $S(q^{-1})$:

(A)
$$n_R = 1, n_S = 1$$
 (B) $n_R = 0, n_S = 0$

(A)
$$n_R = 1, n_S = 1$$
 (B) $n_R = 0, n_S = 0$
(C) $n_R = 0, n_S = 1$ (D) $n_R = 0, n_S = 2$

Question

Given
$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{0.2q^{-2}}{1 - 0.8q^{-1}}$$

Compute $R(q^{-1}) = r_0$ and $S(q^{-1}) = 1 + s_1 q^{-1}$ to place the closed loop poles at the roots of $P(q^{-1}) = 1 - 1.3q^{-1} + 0.5q^{-2}$.

(A)
$$r_0 = 0.5, s_1 = -0.5$$
 (B) $r_0 = -0.5, s_1 = -0.5$

(C)
$$r_0 = -0.5, s_1 = 0.5$$
 (D) $r_0 = -5.9, s_1 = -2.1$

Example

Consider a discrete-time plant model given by :

$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{b_1 q^{-1} + b_2 q^{-2}}{1 + a_1 q^{-1} + a_2 q^{-2}}$$
 $n_A = 2, \quad n_B = 2$

Then $n_P \le n_A + n_B - 1 = 3$, and $n_R = n_A - 1 = 1$, $n_S = n_B - 1 = 1$. Let us take $n_P = 2$. Therefore, we should solve :

$$(1+a_1q^{-1}+a_2q^{-2})(1+s_1q^{-1})+(b_1q^{-1}+b_2q^{-2})(r_0+r_1q^{-1})=1+p_1q^{-1}+p_2q^{-2}$$

Then we have:

$$a_1 + s_1 + b_1 r_0 = p_1$$

 $a_2 + a_1 s_1 + b_2 r_0 + b_1 r_1 = p_2$ or
 $a_2 s_1 + b_2 r_1 = 0$

$$a_1 + s_1 + b_1 r_0 = p_1 a_2 + a_1 s_1 + b_2 r_0 + b_1 r_1 = p_2$$
 or
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_1 & 1 & b_1 & 0 \\ a_2 & a_1 & b_2 & b_1 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ s_1 \\ r_0 \\ r_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ p_1 \\ p_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving Diophantine Equation (Computing R and S)

A general solution to $A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1})+B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})=P(q^{-1})$ is given by :

$$x = M^{-1}p$$

where $x^T = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & \textit{s}_1 & \dots & \textit{s}_{\textit{n}_{S}} & \textit{r}_0 & \dots & \textit{r}_{\textit{n}_{R}} \end{array}\right]$ and

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} n_{B} & n_{A} \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & b_{0} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ a_{1} & 1 & \ddots & \vdots & b_{1} & b_{0} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & a_{1} & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & b_{1} & \ddots & 0 \\ a_{n_{A}} & \vdots & \ddots & 1 & b_{n_{B}} & \vdots & \ddots & b_{0} \\ 0 & a_{n_{A}} & \ddots & a_{1} & 0 & b_{n_{B}} & \ddots & b_{1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n_{A}} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & b_{n_{B}} \end{bmatrix}$$

M is called the Sylvester matrix and $p^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_1 & \dots & p_{n_P} & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Note that the inverse of M exists if and only if $A(q^{-1})$ and $B(q^{-1})$ are coprime polynomials (no simplifications between zeros and poles).

Fixed terms in the regulator: The performance and robustness of the closed-loop system can be improved by introducing some fixed terms, $H_R(q^{-1})$ and $H_S(q^{-1})$, in the polynomial R and S as:

$$R(q^{-1}) = H_R(q^{-1})R'(q^{-1})$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = H_S(q^{-1})S'(q^{-1})$

Therefore, we need to solve the following equation:

$$A(q^{-1})H_S(q^{-1})S'(q^{-1}) + B(q^{-1})H_R(q^{-1})R'(q^{-1}) = P(q^{-1})$$

This can be done after replacing $A(q^{-1})H_S(q^{-1})$ by $A'(q^{-1})$ and $B(q^{-1})H_R(q^{-1})$ by $B'(q^{-1})$.

Then, for the minimal order solution we should have :

$$egin{array}{lll} n_{R'} &=& \deg R'(q^{-1}) = n_{A'} - 1 = n_A + n_{H_S} - 1 \ n_{S'} &=& \deg S'(q^{-1}) = n_{B'} - 1 = n_B + n_{H_R} - 1 \ n_P &=& \deg P(q^{-1}) \leq n_{A'} + n_{B'} - 1 = n_A + n_{H_S} + n_B + n_{H_R} - 1 \end{array}$$

Regulation : Choice of H_R and H_S

Choice of H_S

- Zero steady state error for a step disturbance : Integrator in the controller : $H_S = 1 q^{-1}$
- Asymptotic rejection of a harmonic disturbance v(k):

$$v(k) = \frac{1}{1 + \alpha a^{-1} + a^{-2}} \delta(k)$$
 $\alpha = -2\cos(\omega h) = -2\cos(2\pi f h)$

Internal model principle :

$$H_S(q^{-1}) = 1 + \alpha q^{-1} + q^{-2}$$

Choice of H_R

• opening the loop (u = 0) at a disturbance frequency f:

$$H_R(q^{-1}) = (1 + \alpha q^{-1} + q^{-2})$$

• Opening the loop at Nyquist frequency $(f = f_s/2 = 1/(2h))$:

$$H_R(q^{-1}) = 1 + q^{-1}$$

Computation of T

The tracking performance is usually given by a tracking reference model :

$$H_m(q^{-1}) = \frac{B_m(q^{-1})}{A_m(q^{-1})}$$

The transfer function from the reference to the output is :

$$H_{cl}(q^{-1}) = \frac{B_m(q^{-1})T(q^{-1})B(q^{-1})}{P(q^{-1})A_m(q^{-1})}$$

Different dynamic for regulation and tracking:

In this case, $T(q^{-1}) = P(q^{-1})/B(1)$ cancels the regulation dynamic and make the steady-state gain of $H_{cl}(q^{-1})$ equal to 1. The tracking dynamic is imposed by the denominator of the reference model.

Same dynamic for regulation and tracking:

The reference model is chosen as $H_m(q^{-1})=1$ and $T(q^{-1})$, is chosen to have a steady-state gain of 1 for $H_{cl}(q^{-1})$. So we take : $T(q^{-1})=P(1)/B(1)$. If the controller or the plant model has an integrator, i.e. A(1)S(1)=0: Then P(1)=A(1)S(1)+B(1)R(1)=B(1)R(1) and $T(q^{-1})=R(1)$.

RST controller design

Example

Consider the following discrete-time second-order plant model :

$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{0.1q^{-1} + 0.2q^{-2}}{1 - 1.3q^{-1} + 0.42q^{-2}}$$

The sampling period is h = 1s.

Design an RST controller such that :

- The tracking dynamics are close to the dynamics of a second-order continuous-time model with $\omega_n = 0.5$ rad/s and $\zeta = 0.9$.
- The regulation dynamics are close to that of a second-order continuous-time model with $\omega_n = 0.4$ rad/s and $\zeta = 0.9$.
- The steady state error for an output step disturbance is zero.

RST controller design

Example

1 With $\omega_n = 0.4$ rad/s and $\zeta = 0.9$, we obtain :

$$P(q^{-1}) = 1 - 1.3741q^{-1} + 0.4867q^{-2}$$

- 2 Zero steady state error is obtained by $H_S(q^{-1}) = 1 q^{-1}$.
- The following Bezout equation should be solved :

$$A(q^{-1})H_S(q^{-1})S'(q^{-1}) + B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1}) = P(q^{-1})$$

We have $n_{S'}=n_B-1=1$ and $n_R=n_A+n_{H_S}-1=2$ and

$$A'(q^{-1}) = A(q^{-1})(1 - q^{-1}) = 1 - 2.3q^{-1} + 1.72q^{-2} - 0.42q^{-3}$$

Therefore the Bezout equation in the matrix form becomes :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2.3 & 1 & 0.1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1.72 & -2.3 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0 \\ -0.42 & 1.72 & 0 & 0.2 & 0.1 \\ 0 & -0.42 & 0 & 0 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ s'_0 \\ r_0 \\ r_1 \\ r_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1.3741 \\ 0.4867 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

RST controller design

Example

Solving the Bezout equation leads to

$$R(q^{-1}) = 3 - 3.94q^{-1} + 1.3141q^{-2}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = (1 + s_1'q^{-1})(1 - q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.3742q^{-1} - 0.6258q^{-2}$

4 : The reference model $H_m(q^{-1})$ is computed by discretization of a second-order model with $\omega_n=0.5$ rad/s and $\zeta=0.9$:

$$H_m(q^{-1}) = \frac{0.0927q^{-1} + 0.0687q^{-2}}{1 - 1.2451q^{-1} + 0.4066q^{-2}}$$

Finally, the polynomial $T(q^{-1})$ is computed as :

$$T(q^{-1}) = \frac{P(q^{-1})}{B(1)} = 3.333 - 4.5806q^{-1} + 1.6225q^{-2}$$

If we wish to have the same dynamics for tracking and regulation, then $H_m(q^{-1})=1$ and $T(q^{-1})=R(1)=0.3741$.

Internal Model Control (IMC)

IMC method is a special case of the pole placement technique.

- The plant poles are chosen as the dominant closed-loop poles : $P_d(q^{-1}) = A(q^{-1})$
- The plant model should be stable with well-damped poles.
- This technique has good robustness with respect to model uncertainty and appropriate control input.

The following equation should be solved:

$$A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1}) + B(q^{-1})R(q^{-1}) = A(q^{-1})P_f(q^{-1})$$

 $\Rightarrow R(q^{-1}) = A(q^{-1})R'(q^{-1})$

After elimination of the common factor $A(q^{-1})$:

$$S(q^{-1}) + B(q^{-1})R'(q^{-1}) = P_f(q^{-1})$$

Taking $R'(q^{-1}) = r'_0$ leads to a set of minimal order solutions :

$$S(q^{-1}) = P_f(q^{-1}) - B(q^{-1})r_0'$$

Internal Model Control (IMC)

IMC with integrator : if we assume that $S(q^{-1})$ contains an integrator, i.e. S(1)=0. Therefore, we have :

$$P_f(1) - B(1)r'_0 = S(1) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow r'_0 = \frac{P_f(1)}{B(1)}$$

as the simplest solution yielding:

$$R(q^{-1}) = A(q^{-1}) \frac{P_f(1)}{B(1)}$$

$$S(q^{-1}) = P_f(q^{-1}) - \frac{B(q^{-1})P_f(1)}{B(1)}$$

For tracking we have :

$$T(q^{-1}) = \frac{A(q^{-1})P_f(q^{-1})}{B(1)}$$

or if we choose the same dynamics for tracking and regulation

$$T(q^{-1}) = \frac{A(1)P_f(1)}{B(1)}$$

Control Systems (Chapter 8)

Internal Model Control (IMC)

Question

Consider the following discrete-time second-order plant model :

$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{0.2q^{-1} + 0.3q^{-2}}{1 - 1.3q^{-1} + 0.4q^{-2}}$$

Design an RST controller with integrator and the same dynamics for tracking and regulation based on IMC technique ($P_f = 1$).

(A)

$$R(q^{-1}) = 5 - 6.5q^{-1} + 2q^{-2}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 - q^{-1} - 1.5q^{-2}$
 $T(q^{-1}) = 0.5$

(C)

$$R(q^{-1}) = 2(1 - 1.3q^{-1} + 0.4q^{-2})$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.4q^{-1} - 0.6q^{-2}$
 $T(q^{-1}) = 0.5$

(B)

$$R(q^{-1}) = 0.2 - 0.26q^{-1} + 0.08q^{-2}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.04q^{-1} - 0.06q^{-2}$
 $T(q^{-1}) = 0.02$

(D)

$$R(q^{-1}) = 2 - 2.6q^{-1} + 0.8q^{-2}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.4q^{-1} - 0.6q^{-2}$
 $T(q^{-1}) = 0.2$

Model Reference Control (MRC)

In this approach the zeros of the plant model in

$$H_{cl}(q^{-1}) = \frac{q^{-d}B^{\star}(q^{-1})}{A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1}) + q^{-d}B^{\star}(q^{-1})R(q^{-1})}$$

are cancelled by the closed-loop poles :

$$A(q^{-1})S(q^{-1}) + q^{-d}B^{*}(q^{-1})R(q^{-1}) = B^{*}(q^{-1})P(q^{-1})$$

This can be done if

- the zeros of $B^*(q^{-1})$ are stable,
- ullet complex zeros have a sufficiently high damping factor ($\zeta>0.2$).

Remark

In discrete-time systems, unstable zeros can be the consequence of too fast sampling or a large fractional delay. This can be avoided by re-identification of a model with augmented delay or resampling.

Model Reference Control (MRC)

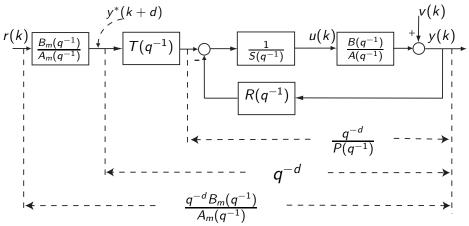
In order to have a solution to Diophantine Equation we should have $S(q^{-1})=B^\star(q^{-1})S'(q^{-1})$ and solve

$$A(q^{-1})S'(q^{-1}) + q^{-d}R(q^{-1}) = P(q^{-1})$$

with $n_P \leq n_A + d - 1$, $n_{S'} = d - 1$, $n_R = n_A - 1$ and $\frac{d}{d}$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ a_1 & 1 & \ddots & \vdots & 0 & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_2 & a_1 & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & a_2 & \ddots & 1 & 0 & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ a_{n_A} & \vdots & \ddots & a_1 & 1 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{n_A} & \ddots & a_2 & 0 & 1 & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n_A} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Model Reference Control (MRC)



Tracking: By choosing $T(q^{-1}) = P(q^{-1})$ the transfer function between the reference r(k) and y(k) will be:

$$H_{cl}(q^{-1}) = \frac{q^{-d}B_m(q^{-1})}{A_m(q^{-1})}$$

Model Reference Control

Example

Consider the following discrete-time second-order plant model :

$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{0.2q^{-2} + 0.1q^{-3}}{1 - 1.3q^{-1} + 0.42q^{-2}}$$

Design an RST controller based on MRC technique for placing the closed loop dominant pole at 0.7.

- $B^{\star}(q^{-1}) = 0.2 + 0.1q^{-1}$ has a zero at -0.5 (inside the unit circle).
- Taking $P_d = 1 0.7q^{-1}$ and solving $AS + q^{-d}B^*R = P_dB^*$ gives $S = B^*S'$. So we should solve $AS' + q^{-d}R = P_d$
- We have $n_{S'}=d-1=1$ and $n_R=n_A-1=1$ so we should solve :

$$(1 - 1.3q^{-1} + 0.42q^{-2})(1 + s_1'q^{-1}) + q^{-2}(r_0 + r_1q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.7q^{-1}$$

Model Reference Control

Example

We should solve:

$$(1-1.3q^{-1}+0.42q^{-2})(1+s_1'q^{-1})+q^{-2}(r_0+r_1q^{-1})=1-0.7q^{-1}$$

by the Sylvester Matrix method :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1.3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.42 & -1.3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.42 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ s'_1 \\ r_0 \\ r_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -0.7 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$-1.3 + s'_1 = -0.7 \Rightarrow s'_1 = 0.6$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
-1.3 + s_1 & = & -0.7 & \Rightarrow s_1 = 0.6 \\
0.42 - 1.3s'_1 + r_0 & = & 0 & \Rightarrow r_0 = 0.36 \\
0.42s'_1 + r_1 & = & 0 & \Rightarrow r_1 = -0.252
\end{array}$$

Finally we compute : $T(q^{-1}) = P_d(q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.7q^{-1}$.

A pole placement controller may not be implemented on the real system for the following reasons :

- 1 The controller may not have good robustness margins
 - Robustness can be verified using the robustness margins like gain, phase and modulus margin M_m (the inverse of the infinity norm of the sensitivity function). $M_m \geq 0.5$ implies a gain margin of greater than 2 and a phase margin of greater than 29° .

$$\|\mathcal{S}\|_{\infty} = \left\| \frac{AS}{AS + q^{-d}BR} \right\|_{\infty} = \max_{\omega} |\mathcal{S}(e^{-j\omega})| < 6 \text{dB} \quad \equiv \quad M_m > 0.5$$

- ② The control input may be too large and saturated in real experiment.
 - The magnitude of the transfer function between the external input and the control input should be reduced at high frequencies.
 - The dominant closed loop poles should be slowed down.

Example

Consider the following plant model with h = 1s:

$$G(q^{-1}) = \frac{q^{-1} + 0.5q^{-2}}{1 - 1.5q^{-1} + 0.7q^{-2}}$$

- Desired closed-loop poles : $z_{1,2} = 0.3 \pm j0.2$.
- Integrator in the controller : $H_S(q^{-1}) = 1 q^{-1}$.

Solving the Bezout equation, we obtain :

$$R(q^{-1}) = 1.4667 - 1.72q^{-1} + 0.6067q^{-2}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.5667q^{-1} - 0.4333q^{-2}$

This controller gives:

- $\bullet \ M_m = \|\mathcal{S}\|_{\infty}^{-1} = 0.39 \quad ; \quad \|\mathcal{U}\|_{\infty} \approx 17 \text{ dB}.$
- |u(k)| > 2 for an impulse output disturbance.
- Settling time of the output disturbance step response : 6 sec

Example

Slowing down the closed loop poles :

The dominant poles of the plant model have $\omega_n = 0.4926$ and $\zeta = 0.362$.

We choose the same ω_n with $\zeta=0.9$ to compute the desired closed-loop poles ($z_{1,2}=0.6272\pm j0.1368$).

Solving the Bezout equation, we obtain :

$$R(q^{-1}) = 0.8721 - 1.29q^{-1} + 0.5231q^{-2}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 - 0.6264q^{-1} - 0.3736q^{-2}$

This controller gives:

- $M_m = \|S\|_{\infty}^{-1} = 0.566$; $\|U\|_{\infty} \approx 10 \text{ dB}$.
- |u(k)| < 1.5 for an impulse output disturbance.
- Settling time of the output disturbance step response : 12 sec

The new controller is more robust but it's slower.

Example

Shaping the input sensitivity function:

We add a fixed term $H_R(q^{-1})=1+q^{-1}$ in the controller to reduce the input sensitivity function at high frequencies but we keep the same closed-loop poles as the original controller (fast poles). This leads to :

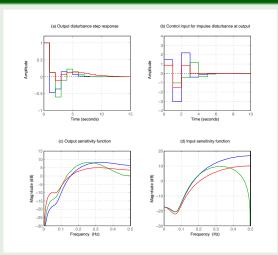
$$R(q^{-1}) = 0.8740 - 0.2382q^{-1} - 0.6973q^{-2} + 0.4149q^{-3}$$

 $S(q^{-1}) = 1 + 0.0260q^{-1} - 0.7297q^{-2} - 0.2964q^{-3}$

This controller gives:

- $M_m = \|\mathcal{S}\|_{\infty}^{-1} = 0.3913$; $\|\mathcal{U}\|_{\infty} \approx 10 \text{ dB}.$
- |u(k)| < 1 for an impulse output disturbance.
- Settling time of the output disturbance step response : 7 sec

Example



Original controller (blue curves), slowing down the closed-loop poles (red curves), adding a fixed term $H_R(q^{-1}) = 1 + q^{-1}$ (green curves)