

Chapter 7: Sampled-data Systems

ECE 481 – Digital Control Systems

Yash Vardhan Pant

Outline

[X] Sampled-data systems: Introduction (again)

[] State-space analysis

[] Solution to Continuous-time state-space models

[] Step-invariant transformations (C2D) in the state-space

[] Direct step-invariant transformations (transfer function)

[] The effect of sampling on discretization

[] Example and definition of pathological sampling

[] Frequency domain

[] Selecting sampling time

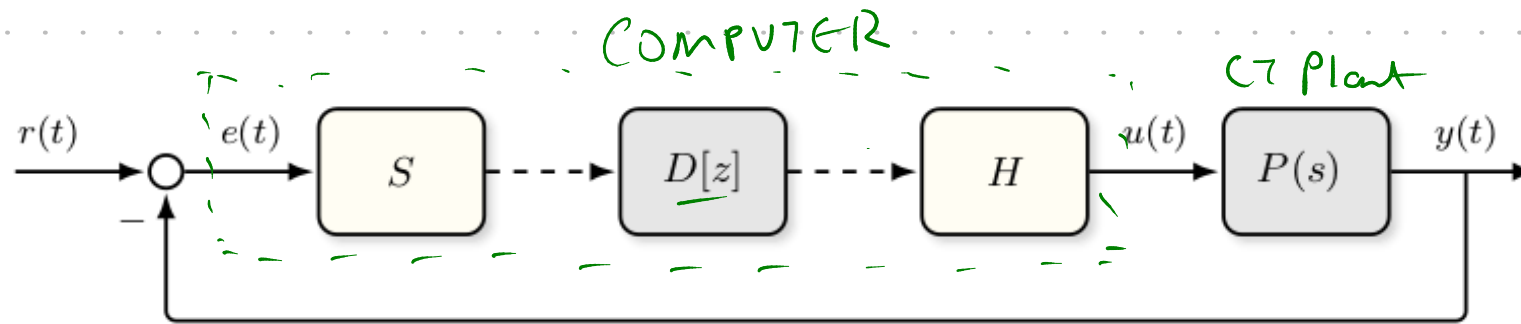
X = The upcoming topic

- = Topic that has been covered

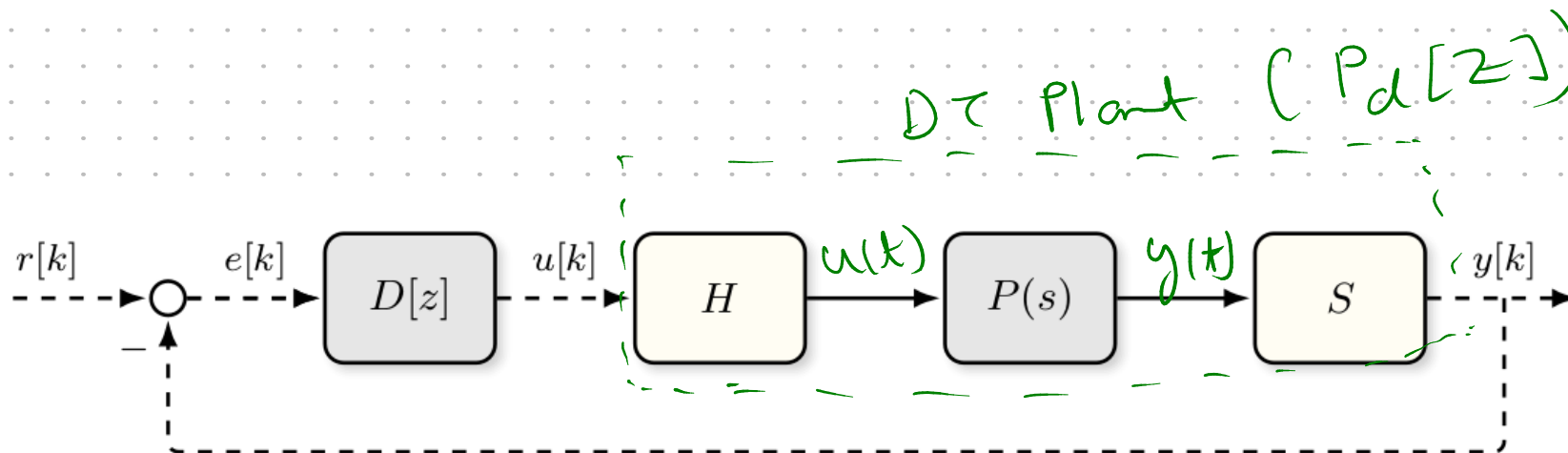
Sampled-data systems

———— CT signal
----- DT sequence

From the view of the microcontroller/digital controller:



Sample operator is linear (recall chapter 4), so we can rearrange to get an equivalent configuration:



Here, $P_d[z] := S P H$ is the step-invariant transform of the CT system into a DT system (again, chapter 4).

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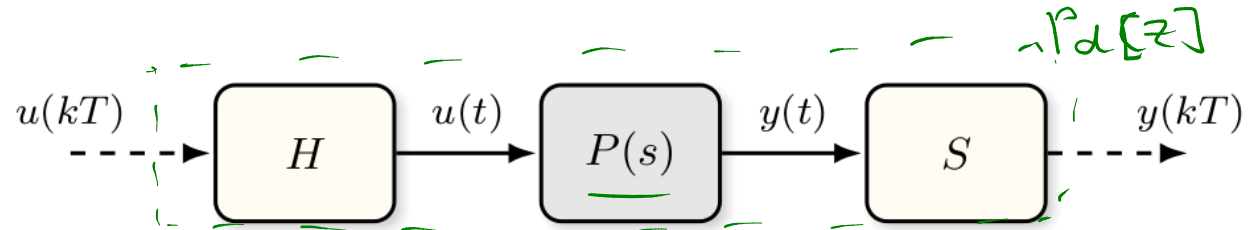
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State-space analysis



Step-invariance method applied to a LTI system

$P(s)$ corresponds to

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

$$u, y \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$$

Solution for CT LTI SS systems for a given $x(0) = x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$u(\tau) \forall \tau \in [0, t)$ is:

$$x(t) = \underbrace{e^{At}}_{\text{CT State Transition matrix}} x_0 + \underbrace{\int_0^t e^{(t-\tau)A} B u(\tau) d\tau}_{\text{Convolution}}$$

$$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$$

The matrix exponential

Definition 7.2.1. The matrix exponential of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is

$$e^A := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} A^k = I + A + \frac{1}{2!} A^2 + \frac{1}{3!} A^3 + \dots$$

Power
series

- The sum converges $\forall A$ (square).
- $\text{Size}(e^A) = \text{Size}(A)$, i.e., if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $e^A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
- Only defined for square matrices.

Properties of the matrix exponential (function e^{At}), $t \mapsto e^{tA}$
 $\mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

1. $e^{tA} \big|_{t=0} = I_{n \times n}$

2. $e^{t_1 A} e^{t_2 A} = e^{(t_1 + t_2) A}$

Note: $e^{tA_1} e^{tA_2} \neq e^{t(A_1 + A_2)}$, unless A_1 & A_2 commute,
 $e^{tA_1} e^{tA_2} = e^{t(A_1 + A_2)}$ if $A_1 A_2 = A_2 A_1$

3. $(e^A)^{-1} = e^{-A} \Rightarrow (e^{tA})^{-1} = e^{-tA}$

4. e^{At} & A commute

5. $\frac{d}{dt} e^{At} = A e^{At} = e^{At} A$ (using 4)

6. $\mathcal{L}\{e^{tA}\} = (sI - A)^{-1}$ [Similar to Z-TF of A^R],

Example

Calculate e^{At} for $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ using LTs.

Using property 6, $e^{At} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \{ (sI - A)^{-1} \}$

$$sI - A = \begin{bmatrix} s & -1 \\ 2 & s+3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (sI - A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 3s + 2} \begin{bmatrix} s+3 & +1 \\ -2 & s \end{bmatrix}$$

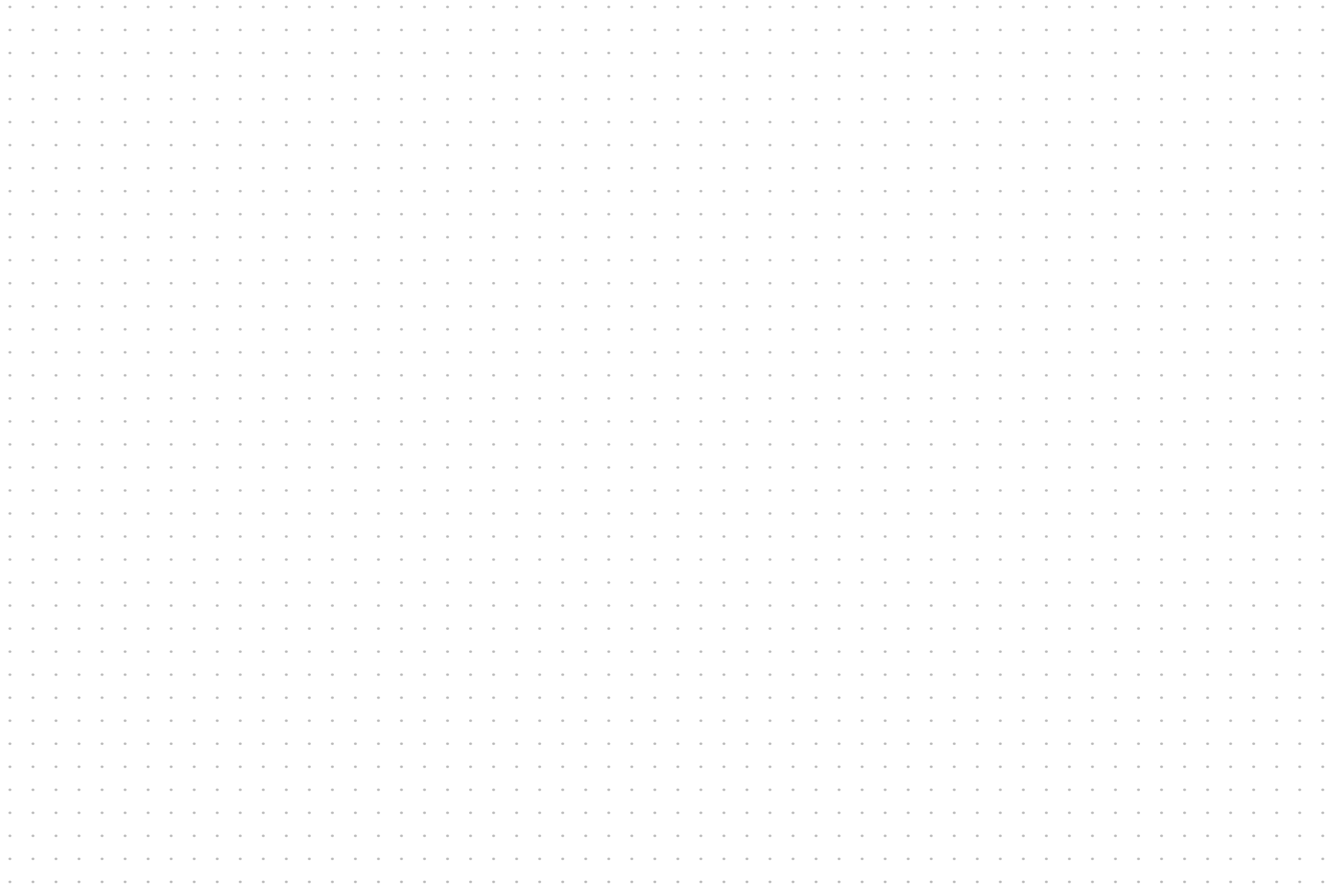
For each element, do a partial fraction expansion:

$$(sI - A)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2} & \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2} \\ -\frac{2}{s+1} + \frac{2}{s+2} & -\frac{1}{s+1} + \frac{2}{s+2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Take inv. LT

$$e^{At} = \begin{bmatrix} 2e^{-t} - e^{-2t} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise: compute the matrix exponential for the previous example without using LTs.



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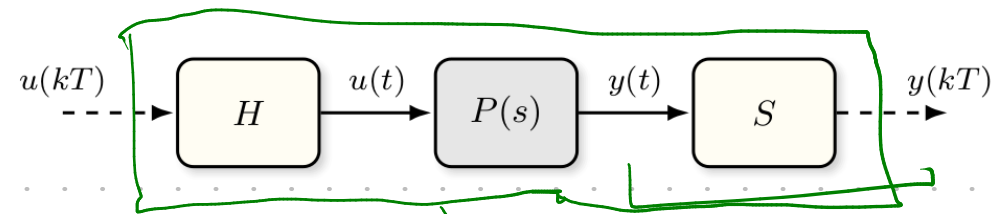
Step-invariant transformation (C2D)

Given the CT system: $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$

$$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$$

(Eq. 7.1 in the notes.)

and its solution: $x(t) = e^{tA}x_0 + \int_0^t e^{(t-\tau)A}Bu(\tau)d\tau$



C, D
matrices
unchanged.

$P_d(z)$

Theorem 7.2.2. The step-invariant transformation of (7.1) with sampling period T is the discrete-time system

$$x[k+1] = A_d x[k] + B_d u[k]$$

$$y[k] = Cx[k] + Du[k]$$

(7.3)

where $x[k] = x(kT)$, $u[k] = u(kT)$, $y[k] = y(kT)$ and

$$A_d := e^{TA}.$$

(7.4a)

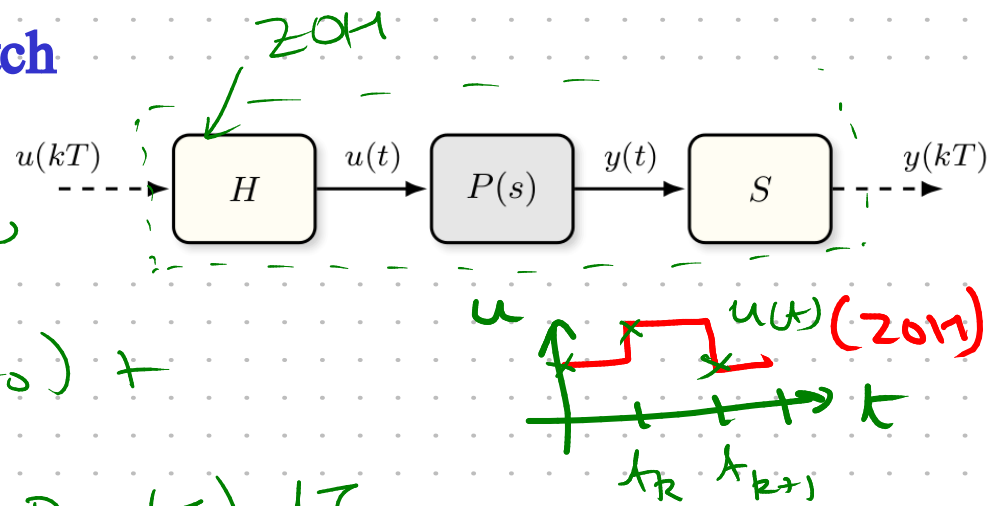
$$B_d := \int_0^T e^{\tau A} d\tau B.$$

(7.4b)

← Note, C & D
are unchanged

Step-invariant transformation (C2D): Proof sketch

A formal version is in the class notes, Appendix 7.A



Let's say that start time is t_0 ,

$x(t_0)$ is given,

then, $x(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)} x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d\tau$

Let $t_0 = t_k = kT$, let $t = t_{k+1} = (k+1)T$

Note, zoh on input \leftarrow why? $u(t) = u(t_k) \forall t \in [t_k, t_{k+1})$

$$x(t_{k+1}) = \underbrace{e^{AT} x(t_k)}_{Ad x[k]} + \underbrace{\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{A(t_{k+1}-\tau)} B d\tau}_{Bd} \underbrace{u[t_k]}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{since } zoh}}$$

Do a change of variables to turn the integral into $\int_0^T \Rightarrow$ Theorem on prev. page.

Step-invariant transformation (C2D): Remarks

Matlab uses this on the inside the function c2d (default).

It is a mapping from (A, B, C, D) to (A_d, B_d, C, D)

In terms of transfer functions:

$P(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$ is mapped to $P_d[z] = C(zI - A_d)^{-1}B_d + D$

If A is non-singular/full-rank/invertible, then we can explicitly integrate the matrix exponential:

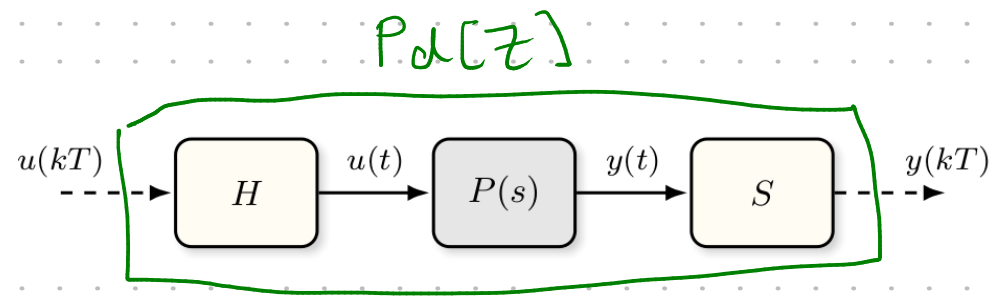
$$\int_0^T e^{\tau A} d\tau = A^{-1} (e^{AT} - I) \quad (\text{to compute } B_d)$$

Proof sketch:

$$\int_0^T A e^{\tau A} d\tau = \int_0^T \frac{d}{d\tau} e^{\tau A} d\tau$$

$$= e^{\tau A} \Big|_0^T = e^{TA} - I \quad (\text{property 1})$$

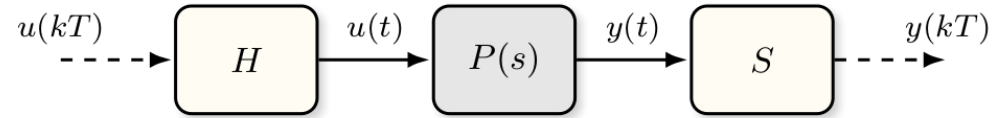
$$\text{Multiply with } A^{-1} \Rightarrow \int_0^T e^{\tau A} d\tau = A^{-1} (e^{TA} - I)$$



From Theorem 7.2.2.

Step-invariant transformation (C2D): Remarks

Matlab uses this on the inside the function c2d (default).



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If A is non-singular/full-rank/invertible, then we can explicitly integrate the matrix exponential:

$$\int_0^T e^{\tau A} d\tau = A^{-1} (e^{AT} - I) \quad (\text{to compute } B_d)$$

Unlike Euler/Tustin etc., this is an exact discretization and is valid for all T .

Computing A_d and B_d requires computing the matrix exponential $\exp(At)$; can be done via Laplace trf.

Finally, since $A_d = e^{AT}$ and the state solution of DT state-space systems is $x[k] = A_d^k x[0]$, we can also compute A_d^k (DT transition matrix) using the computed CT matrix exponential as follows:

$$A_d^k = (e^{AT})^k = e^{AkT}$$

Example: Scalar state-space system

$$\dot{x} = ax + bu, \quad y = cx + du, \quad a \neq 0. \quad x, y, u \in \mathbb{R}$$

Get the step-invariant DT system.

$a_d = e^{aT}$, to compute b_d , exploit a is full-rank.

$$b_d = a^{-1}(e^{aT} - 1)b = \frac{b}{a}(e^{aT} - 1)$$

DT system:

$$x[k+1] = \underbrace{e^{aT}}_{a_d} x[k] + \underbrace{\frac{b}{a}(e^{aT} - 1)}_{b_d} u[k]$$

$$y[k] = cx[k] + du[k]$$

Eigenvalues:

CT: $\lambda = a$

DT: $\lambda = a_d = e^{aT}$

Example: Double integrator

State space (1: $\ddot{y} = u$) $\rightarrow A$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u$$

(1F: $1/s^2$)

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x$$

To get the (2D) (step-invariant)

A is nilpotent, $A^2 = 0$.

$$\exists R > 0, \text{ s.t. } A^R = 0$$

Using definition (power-series) $\iff \lambda_i(A) = 0 \forall i$

of e^{At} ,
$$e^{At} = I + At + 0 \dots \quad (\because A \text{ is nilpotent, } A^2 = 0)$$

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

$$A_d = e^{TA} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & T \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \{T \text{ is sampling time}\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_d &= \int_0^T e^{\tau A} d\tau B = \int_0^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tau \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} d\tau \\ &= \int_0^T \begin{bmatrix} \tau \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} d\tau = \begin{bmatrix} T^2/2 \\ T \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

DT system:

$$x^+ = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & T \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} T^2/2 \\ T \end{bmatrix} u$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x$$

Step-invariant transform: Mapping the eigenvalues from c2d

In the scalar example, the CT pole at $s = \lambda$ is mapped to $e^{\lambda T}$

This relation holds in general when we do the step-invariant discretization of a CT LTI system!

Note: No such (simple) relation between the zeros of the CT and step-invariant DT transformation.

Eigenvalue mapping: Let λ be an eigenvalue of A , i.e. $\exists v, Av = \lambda v$

$$\underset{\substack{\text{Ad} \\ \text{Step-inv. c2d}}}{A_d} v = e^{AT} v = \left(I + TA + \frac{T^2}{2} A^2 + \frac{T^3}{6} A^3 + \dots \right) v$$

$$= v + TA v + \frac{T^2}{2} A^2 v + \dots \quad (A^n v = \lambda^n v)$$

$$\because Av = \lambda v$$

$$\Rightarrow A_d v = \underbrace{\left(1 + T\lambda + \frac{T^2}{2} \lambda^2 + \dots \right)}_{e^{\lambda T}} v$$

$$A_d v = \underbrace{e^{\lambda T}}_{\text{eigenvalue of } A_d} v$$

Example

The mapping is not just for eigenvalues, but also for the poles (since poles are a subset of eigenvalues).

Let $P(s) = \frac{1}{s^2(s+1)}$ and $T = 0.1$ seconds. See Matlab example for poles of corresponding DT TF.

Note: Given what we've seen so far, we would:

- a) Get the corresponding ODE
- b) Turn that into a CT state-space model
- c) Compute the DT state-space model via the step-invariant TF.
- d) Get a DT TF from the DT state-space model.

Step-invariant transform: Preserving stability

As we saw in Chapter 4, the step-invariant transform also preserves stability.

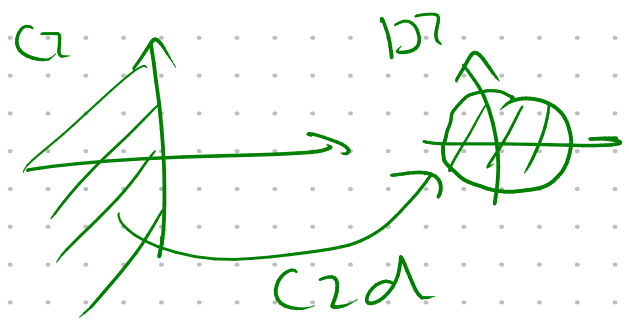
Let's say for the CT system, we have an eigenvalue $\lambda = \alpha + j\beta$

Stability $\Rightarrow \text{Re}(\lambda) < 0 \Rightarrow \alpha < 0$.

For the DT system, eigenvalue would be $e^{\lambda T}$ ($T > 0$)

$$|e^{\lambda T}| = |e^{\alpha T}| \cdot \underbrace{|e^{j\beta T}|}_{=1} = |e^{\alpha T}| < 1 \quad (\because \alpha < 0)$$

\Rightarrow DT stable.



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Step-invariant transformation: A view from the transfer function side of things

CT state-space

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du\end{aligned}$$

DT state-space

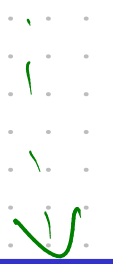
$$\begin{aligned}x^+ &= A_dx + B_d u \\ y &= Cx + Du\end{aligned}$$

$A_d = e^{AT}$
 $B_d = \int_0^T e^{A(T-\tau)} B d\tau$



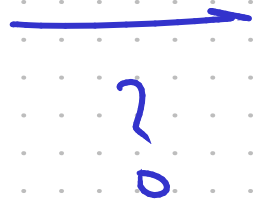
$$\frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = G(s)$$

CT TF



$$\frac{Y[z]}{U[z]} = G_d[z]$$

DT TF



Step-invariant transformation: A view from the transfer function side of things

How do we go directly from CT TF to DT TF via the step-invariant transformation?

Follow the recipe:

1. Let $u[k] = u(kT) = \mathbf{1}[k]$. Then $U[z] = z/(z - 1)$.
2. Then $u(t)$ is a continuous-time unit step $\mathbf{1}(t)$ so $U(s) = 1/s$.
3. Then $Y(s) = P(s)U(s)$. Get $y(t)$, the step response of P .
4. Sample $y(t)$ to get $y(kT) = y[k]$ and then $Y[z]$.
5. Finally, the step-invariant transformation of P is

$$\frac{Y[z]}{U[z]} = \frac{z-1}{z} \mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{P(s)}{s} \right\} \Big|_{t=kT} \right).$$

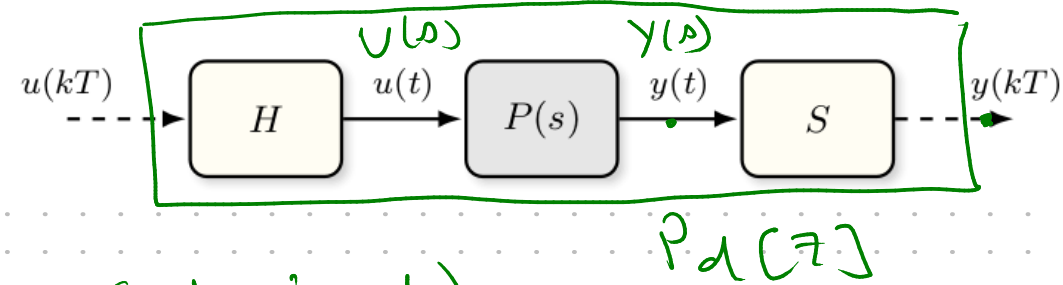
$\frac{1}{z-1}$ ZTF of unit step

ZTF

$y(t)$

sampling $y(t)$ to get $y(kT)$

$y[k]$



(Step signal)

$y(s)$

$Y[z]$

Example

Let $P(s) = \frac{3}{s+2}$, get $P_d[z]$ via
step-invariant transform (TF).

Recipe for the step-invariant transform (TF)

$$\frac{Y[z]}{U[z]} = \frac{z-1}{z} \mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{P(s)}{s} \right\} \Big|_{t=kT} \right)$$

\swarrow
 $y(s)$

$$Y(s) = P(s) U(s) = P(s) \cdot \frac{1}{s} = \frac{3}{s(s+2)}$$

Take inv LT, but first: $Y(s) = \frac{a}{s} + \frac{b}{s+2}$ (PF expansion)

$$a = 1.5, b = -1.5$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(s) = \frac{1.5}{s} - \frac{1.5}{s+2}$$

$$y(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{Y(s)\} = 1.5(1 - e^{-2t}) \mathbf{1}(t)$$

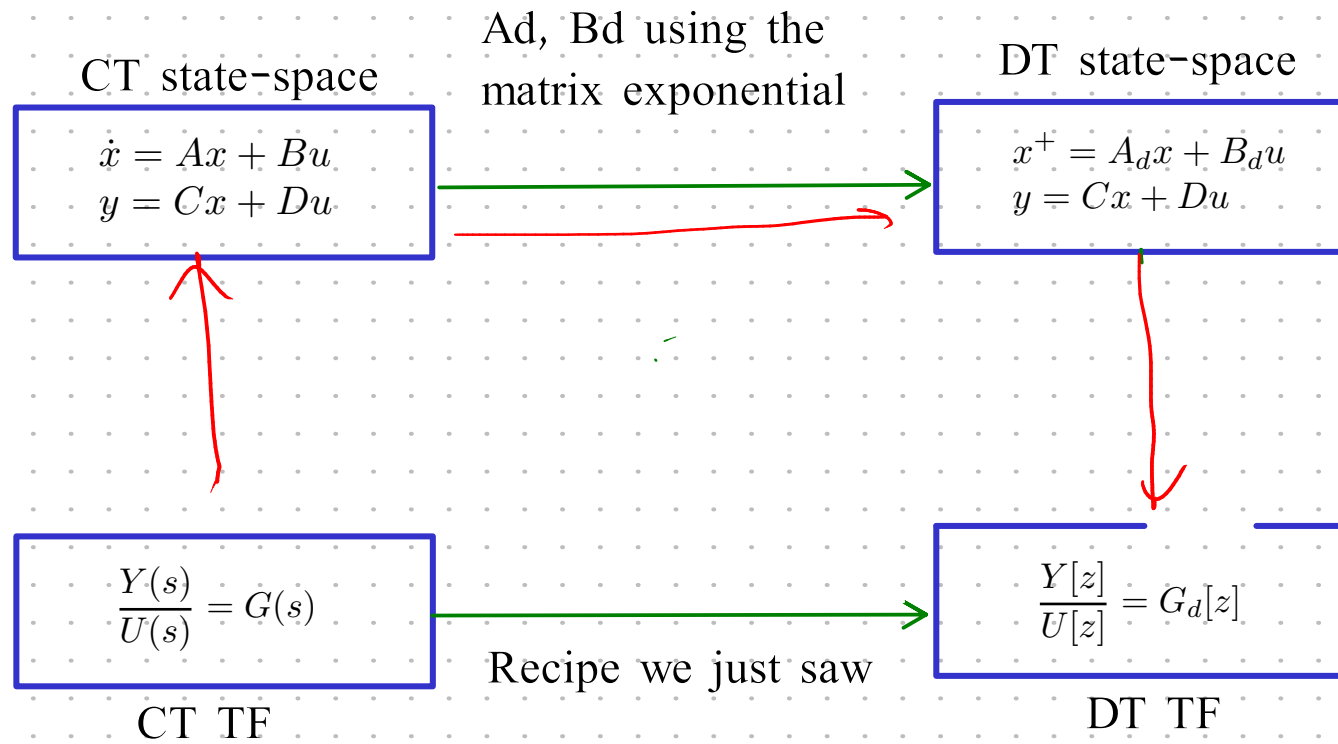
Sample at every T seconds: $y[k] = \frac{3}{2}(1 - e^{-2kT})$,
 $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$

Take Z-TF

$$\begin{aligned} Y[z] = Z\{y[n]\} &= 1.5 \frac{z}{z-1} - \frac{3}{2} \frac{z}{z-e^{-2T}} \\ &= \frac{3}{2} \frac{z(1-e^{-2T})}{(z-1)(z-e^{-2T})} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Finally } P_d[z] &= \frac{z-1}{z} Y[z] \\ &= \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1-e^{-2T}}{z-e^{-2T}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Step-invariant transformation: summary



→ Matlab's
c2d path.

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Pathological sampling: an example

What impact do the S and H have on the C2D of $P(s)$?

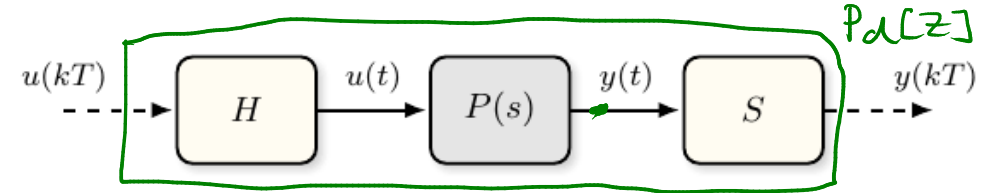


Figure 7.3: Step-invariance method applied to an LTI system.

Consider the case where the plant is an oscillator which oscillates as the sampling frequency, i.e.,

$$P(s) = \frac{\omega_s s}{s^2 + \omega_s^2}, \quad \omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T} \leftarrow \text{Sampling time}$$

What is the unit-step response of this system? Consider $u(t) = 1(t)$, and thus:

$$y(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{P(s)}{s} \right\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\omega_s}{s^2 + \omega_s^2} \right\} = \sin(\omega_s t)$$

Pass this $y(t)$ through the sampling (S) block, we get:

$$y[k] = y(t) \Big|_{t=kT} = \sin(\omega_s kT) = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{T} \cdot kT\right) = \sin(2\pi k) = 0 \quad \forall k.$$

The discretized system is now a "zero" system, i.e., $P_d[z] = 0$, even when $P(s)$ is not. $P(s) = 0$ would also map to this same discretized "zero" system, i.e., the C2D mapping is not one-to-one.

This example where we get a DT system that does not accurately represent the CT system is an example of "pathological sampling", where the continuous time behavior of the system is lost even for a step-invariant transform. However, this would only happen for some sampling frequencies, as seen above.

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Frequency response and sampling time

Consider the setup shown on the right.

We are interested in analyzing when the frequency response of the DT system is close to that of the CT system.

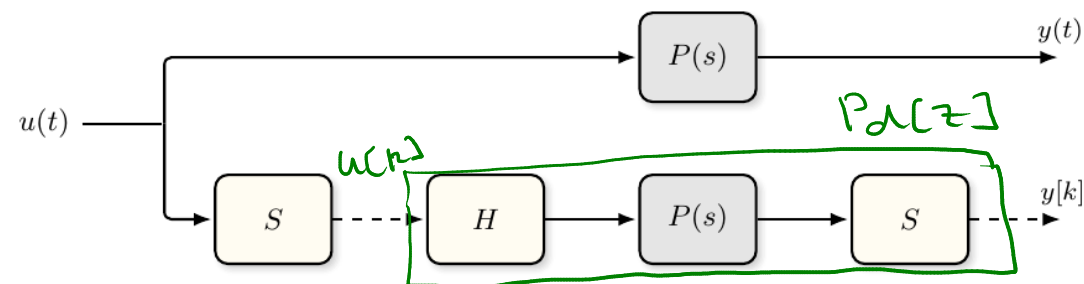


Figure 7.5: Comparing the frequency responses of $P(s)$ and $P_d[z]$.

Let the input to this system be a sinusoid $u(t) = e^{j\omega t}$.

Now consider the sampled version of the input to generate: $u[k] = e^{j\omega T k} = e^{j\theta k}$

$$(\theta = \omega T)$$

Let us divide the frequency (radians) axis into non-overlapping intervals of width $2\pi/T$:

$$\dots, \left(-\frac{\pi}{T}, \frac{\pi}{T}\right], \left(\frac{\pi}{T}, \frac{3\pi}{T}\right], \dots$$

Baseband ←

Assume $\omega \in (\pi/T, 3\pi/T]$. We can rewrite $\omega = \omega_0 + 2\pi/T$, where $\omega_0 \in (-\pi/T, \pi/T]$, i.e. is in the "baseband".

$$(\because \theta = \omega T)$$

Then we can rewrite the sampled input as $u[k] = e^{j(\omega_0 T + 2\pi)k} = e^{j\omega_0 T k} = e^{j\theta_0 k}$ where $\theta_0 := \omega_0 T \in (-\pi, \pi]$.

For the comparison with the CT system, we'll consider the case when $u(t)$ is at a low frequency. See appendix 7.B of the course notes for a general case.

Frequency response and sampling time

Continuing from the previous slide, let the sampling frequency be $\omega_s = 2\pi/T$. (rad/sec)

We'll assume that the Nyquist frequency is $\omega_N = \omega_s/2 = \pi/T$.

Considering the low-frequency input case, the CT input is $u(t) = e^{j\omega t}$, $\omega \ll \omega_N$.

What is the steady-state output from $P(j\omega)$ to this input?

$$y(t) = P(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \tilde{u} \approx u \\ \Rightarrow P(s)u \\ = P(\omega) \tilde{u} \\ \text{(at low freqs.)} \end{array} \right.$$

Similarly, what is the steady-state output from P_d to the sampled input $e^{j\theta k}$, where $\theta = \omega T \ll \pi$?

$$y[k] = P_d[e^{j\theta}] e^{j\theta k}$$

Focusing on the bottom (DT) path, since $\omega \ll \omega_N$, the hold block's output is close to $e^{j\omega t}$.

Therefore, the steady state outputs in CT and DT are close to each other, i.e., $P_d[e^{j\theta}]e^{j\theta k} \approx P(j\omega)e^{j\omega T k}$.

Thus at low frequencies, the two plants are similar to each other: $P_d[e^{j\omega T}] \approx P(j\omega)$ or $P_d[e^{j\theta}] \approx P\left(j\frac{\theta}{T}\right)$.

At higher frequencies, our assumption about the ZOH doesn't work anymore (due to aliasing), so the above statement doesn't hold.

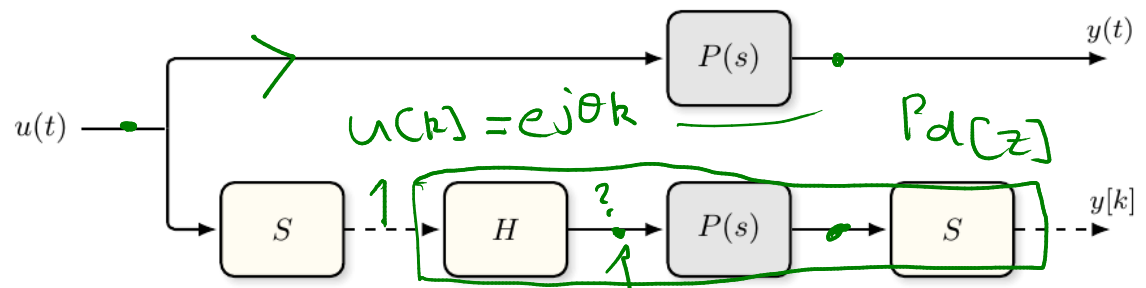


Figure 7.5: Comparing the frequency responses of $P(s)$ and $P_d[z]$.

Rule of thumb: $P_d[e^{j\omega T}] \approx P(j\omega)$ when $\omega \leq \omega_N/5 = \omega_N/10$ (see Ch. 4. $\omega_N = \omega/10$)

Example 7.4.2

Consider the CT plant $P(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 0.1s + 1}$, and its DT version via the step-invariant transform, discretized at a sampling frequency of 10 rad/s: $P_d[z] = \text{c2d}(P) = \frac{0.19(z + 0.98)}{z^2 - 1.57z + 0.94}$

Compare their Bode plots, and see if they are consistent with the discussion in the previous slides.

Example 7.4.3: Mismatch as frequency of input increases

Consider our setup as earlier (on the right).

$$P(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}, \quad P_d[z] = \text{c2d}(P(s)) = \frac{0.09516}{z - 0.9048}.$$

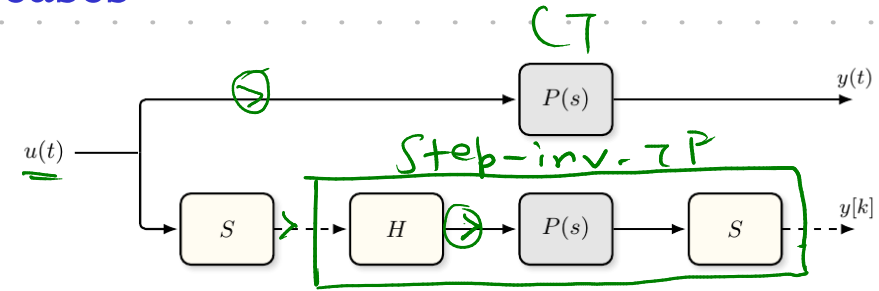


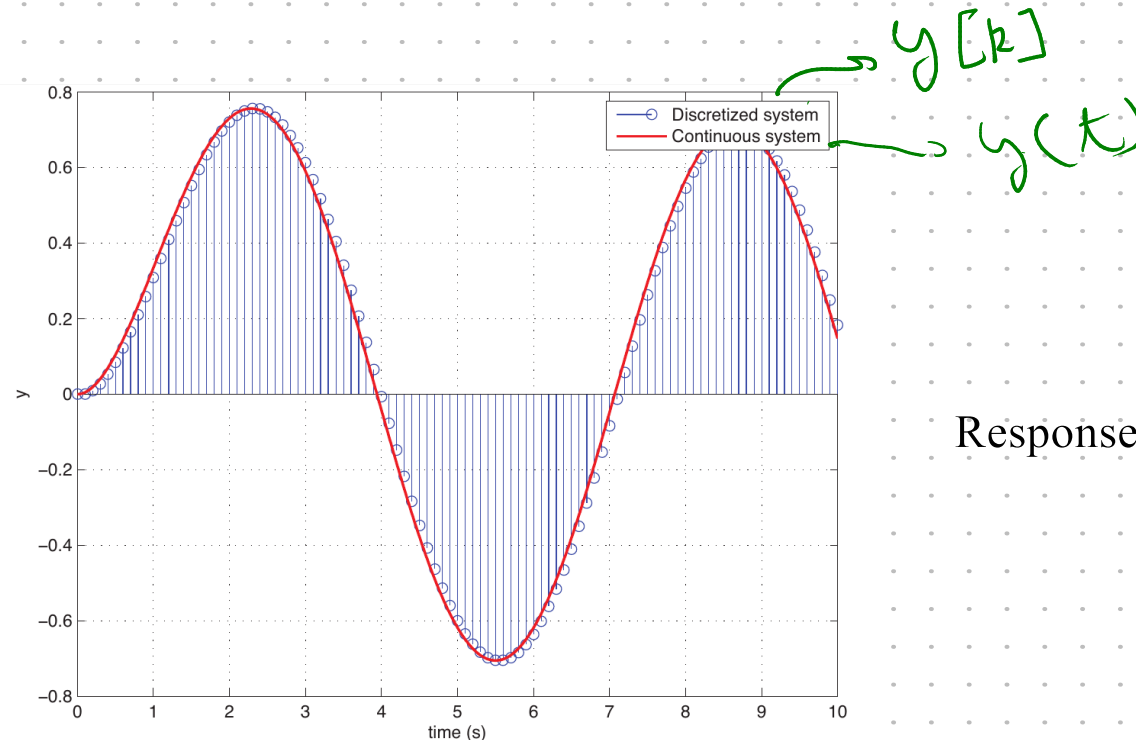
Figure 7.5: Comparing the frequency responses of $P(s)$ and $P_d[z]$.

Here, sampling time is $T = 0.1$ seconds to get the DT plant.

Let's assume $u(t) = \cos(\omega t)$. We expect steady-state responses to be similar when $\omega \ll \omega_N = \omega_s/2 = 10\pi$.

We can see this (and how the responses diverge) in action as the frequency of the input increases.

Case 1:

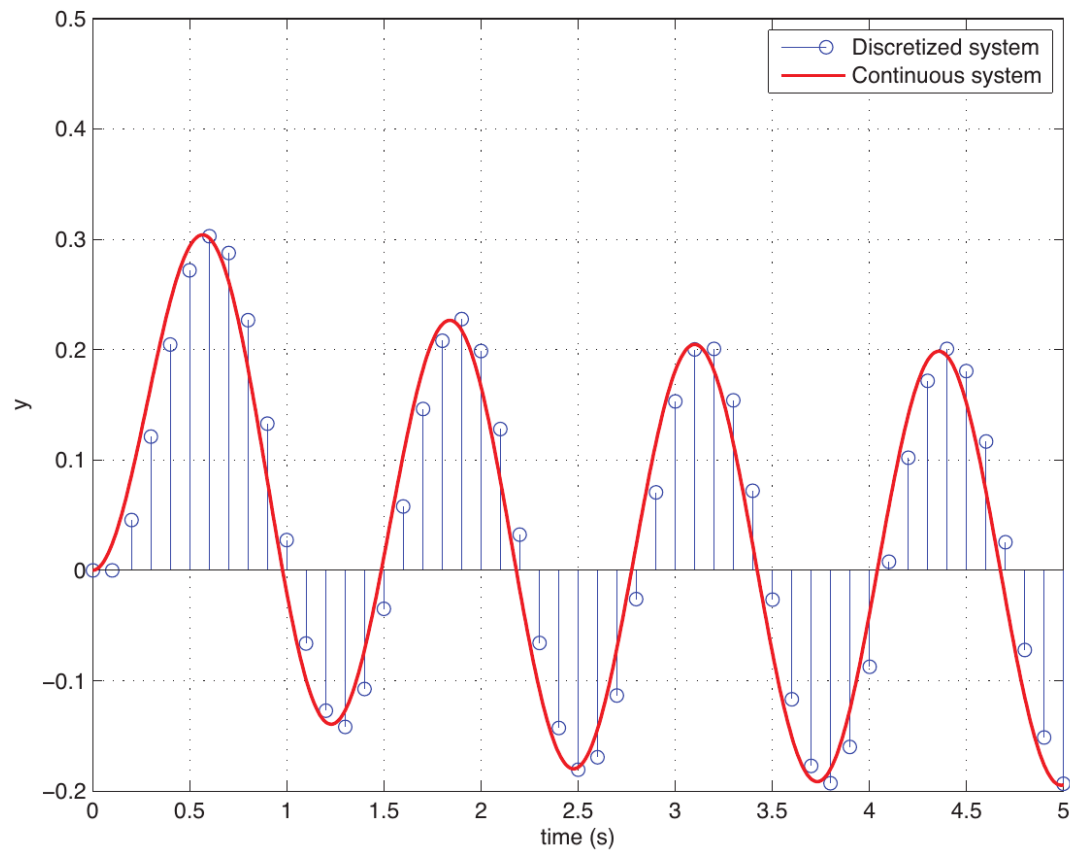


$\gamma \leftarrow$ Stem plot.

Responses match.

(a) $\omega = 1 \ll \omega_s/2 = 10\pi$.

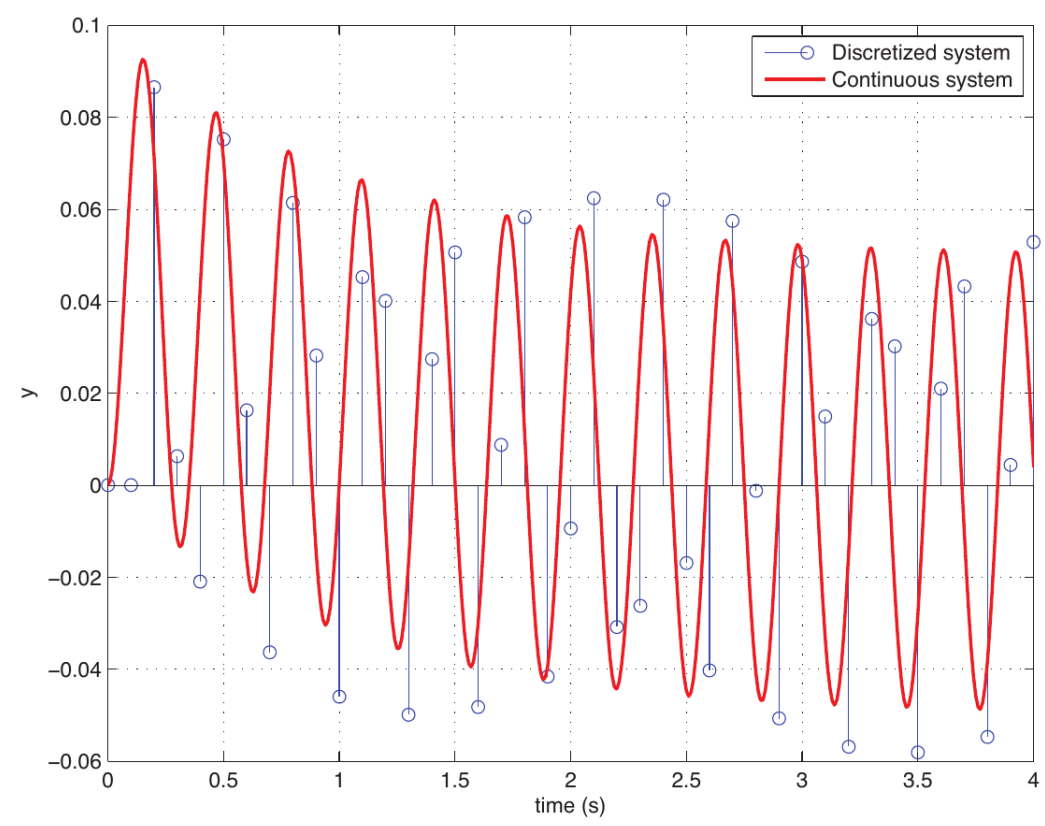
Case 2:



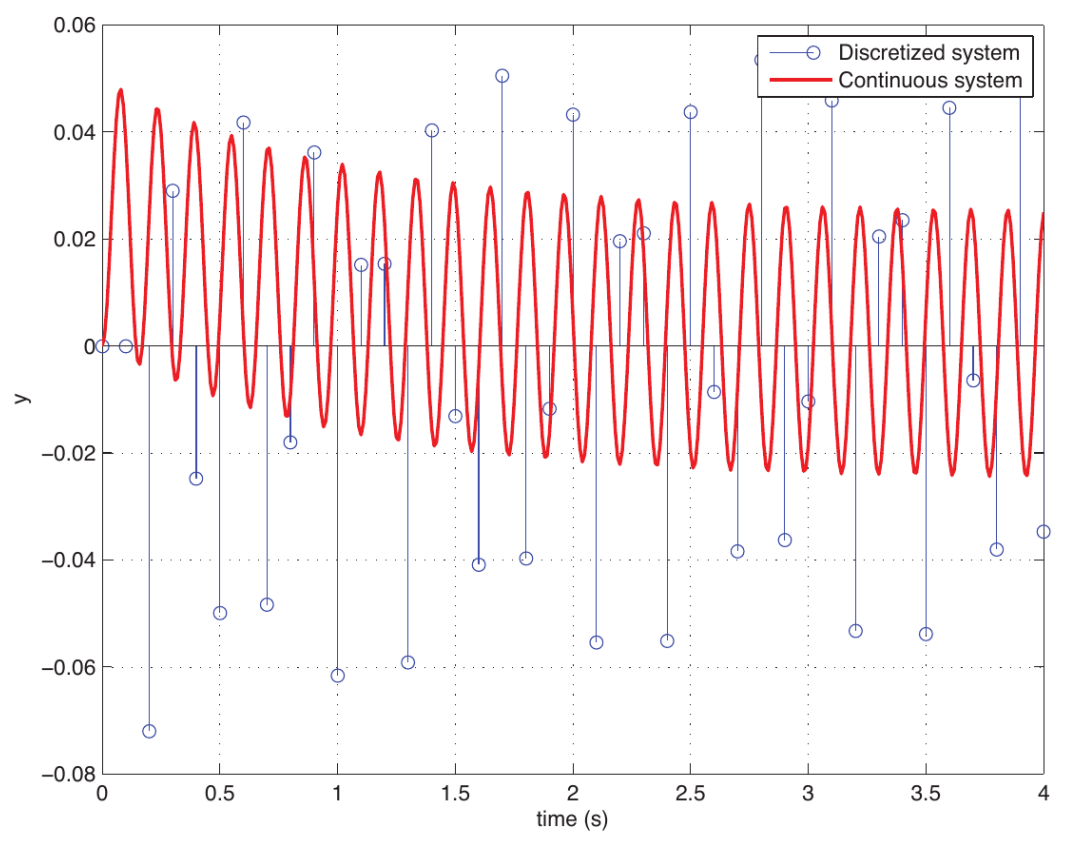
(b) $\omega = 5 \ll \omega_s/2 = 10\pi$.

Responses are still close.

Cases 3 and 4:



(c) $\omega = 20 < \omega_s/2 = 10\pi$.



(d) $\omega = 40 > \omega_s/2 = 10\pi$.

Response in CT and DT diverge as the input has high frequency, and unsurprisingly looks bad when the signal is faster than the Nyquist frequency (figure on right).

Outline

- [-] Sampled-data systems: Introduction (again)
- [-] State-space analysis
 - [-] Solution to Continuous-time state-space models
 - [-] Step-invariant transformations (C2D) in the state-space
 - [-] Direct step-invariant transformations (transfer function)
- [-] The effect of sampling on discretization
 - [-] Example and definition of pathological sampling
 - [-] Frequency domain
- [X] Selecting sampling time

X = The upcoming topic

- = Topic that has been covered

Comments on selecting the sampling period

TLDR: Sample as fast as physically possible!

- Select a sampling time T that avoid pathological sampling. Then we can do "direct design" of controllers on the DT model.
- For design via emulation, select a sampling time T so that the closed-loop bandwidth of the system satisfies $\omega_s \geq 10\omega_{BW}$. This is a direct consequence of the rule of thumb that we had introduced.
- Additionally, T should be small enough so that inter-sample behavior is "good", i.e., no wild jumps between sample values, otherwise safety constraints might be violated, e.g., temperature control of a room at 1-hour sampling intervals. This is best addressed through simulation, or analytically via the Lipschitz constant of the CT (possibly non-linear) system.
- On the flip side, T should be large enough (without violating above points) so that the processor speed is kept low to allow for real-time implementations. Think how much time it takes to compute $u[kT]$ from $y[kT]$. This time should be ideally an order of magnitude less than your sampling time.
- Finally, a slow CT plant (e.g., chemical reactions) with fast sampling can lead to outputs where very little changes across multiple time steps. This could cause issues with finite precision arithmetic.
- Note: The sampling period is mostly limited by the update rates of sensors and actuators (e.g., over a controller area network for cars), and not so much by "control-specific" issues that we have studied here.
- When possible: low-pass filters to all analog signals to satisfy the rule of thumb (cutoff freq $\leq \omega_s/5$).