

# Advanced Mechatronics Engineering

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# Types of Sampled Data Systems

- Sampled signals are easier to transmit.
- Transmitted signals can be regenerated without transmission error.
- Sampled signals can more easily be coded (cryptology).
- Sampled signals can better be modulated (multiplexing).

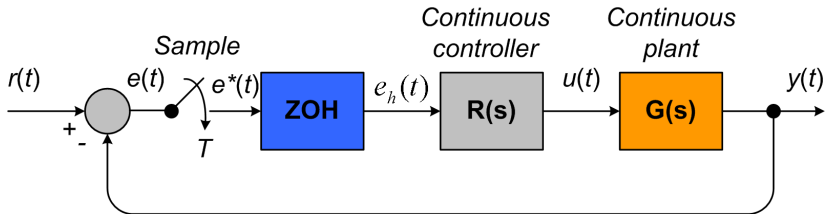


Figure: Sampling.

# Types of Sampled Data Systems

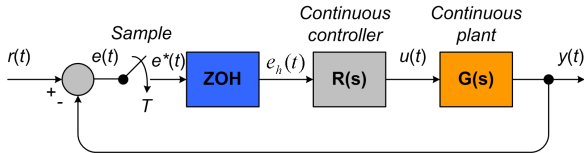
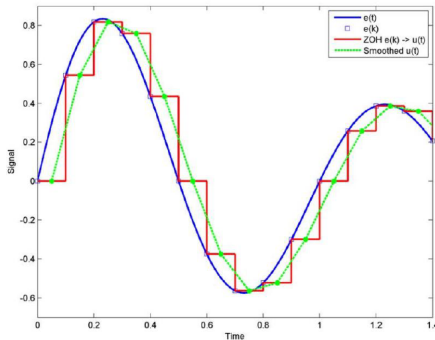
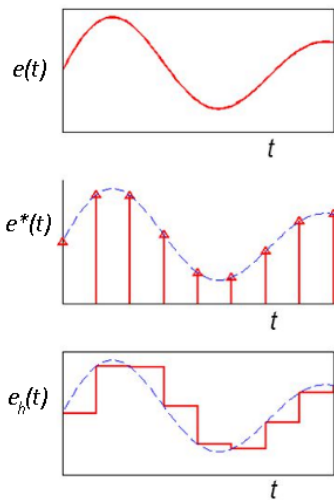


Figure: Sampling.



# Zero Order Hold Sampling

- A ZOH samples the current signal and holds that value until the next sample.
- In most systems, it is difficult to generate and transmit narrow, large amplitude pulses
- We can often use a variety of filtering and interpolation techniques to reconstruct the original time-domain signal, however often the zero-order hold signal is sufficiently accurate.



# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

Given  $f(t) \Rightarrow$  what is  $f^*(s)$ ?

Example

$$F(t) = \varepsilon(t) \Rightarrow F(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

$$f^*(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(kt)\delta(t - kT) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta(t - kT)$$

$$\begin{aligned} f^*(s) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \exp^{-kTs} = 1 + \exp^{-Ts} + \exp^{-2Ts} + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-Ts}} \end{aligned}$$

Is there a simple way to compute  $f^*(s)$  out of  $f(s)$ ?

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

**Is there a simple way to compute  $F^*(s)$  out of  $F(s)$ ?**

For poles of  $F(s)$  with multiplicity 1 (simple poles):

$$F(s) = \frac{P(s)}{Q(s)} \Rightarrow F^*(s) = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{P(s_n)}{Q'(s_n)} \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-T(s-s_n)}}$$

$k$  is the number of poles.

**Example:**  $F(s) = \frac{1}{s} \Rightarrow$  One pole at zero

$\Rightarrow P(s) = 1$  ,  $Q(s) = s \Rightarrow Q'(s) = 1$

$$F^*(s) = \sum_{n=1}^1 \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-T(s-0)}} = \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-Ts}}$$

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

$$F(s) = \frac{1}{s(s+1)} \Rightarrow \text{two poles, one at zero and one at } -1$$

$$\begin{aligned} F^*(s) &= \frac{P(s_1)}{Q'(s_1)} \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-T(s-s_1)}} + \frac{P(s_2)}{Q'(s_2)} \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-T(s-s_2)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-Ts}} + \frac{1}{-1} \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-T(s+1)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-Ts}} - \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-T} \exp^{-Ts}} \\ &= \frac{1 - \exp^{-T} \exp^{-Ts} - 1 + \exp^{-Ts}}{(1 - \exp^{-Ts})(1 - \exp^{-T} \exp^{-Ts})} \\ &= \frac{(1 - \exp^{-T}) \exp^{-Ts}}{(1 - \exp^{-Ts})(1 - \exp^{-T} \exp^{-Ts})} \end{aligned}$$

It turns out that, in both examples,  $F^*(s)$  is a function of the term  $\exp^{-Ts}$ .

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

The rule is pretty obvious and easy to derive. We use the partial fraction expansion on  $F(s)$ :

$$F(s) = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{P(s_n)}{Q'(s_n)} \frac{1}{s - s_n}$$

when going from  $F(s) \Rightarrow F^*(s)$ , we need only to find  $F^*(s)$  for  $\frac{a}{s-b}$ , and then we know the general formula for all  $F(s)$  with simple poles

$$F(s) = \frac{a}{s - b} \Rightarrow F^*(s) = \frac{a}{1 - \exp^{-T(s-b)}}$$

as can be easily verified by looking at the infinite series.



# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

Similar for multiple poles (multiplicity of poles  $n$  is  $m_n$ ):

$$F^*(s) = \sum_{n=1}^k \sum_{i=1}^{m_n} \frac{(-1)^{m_n-1} K_{ni}}{(m_n - 1)!} \frac{\partial^{m_n-i} \Delta T(s)}{\partial s^{m_n-i}} \Big|_{s=s-s_n}$$

where

$$K_{ni} = \frac{1}{(i-1)!} \frac{\partial^{i-1} [(s-s_n)^{m_n} F(s)]}{\partial s^{i-1}} \Big|_{s=s_n}$$

and

$$\Delta T(s) = \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-Ts}}$$

## Example

$$F(s) = \frac{2}{(s+a)^3} \Rightarrow s_1 = -a ; m_1 = 3$$

$$K_{11} = \frac{1}{1} (s+a)^3 F(s) \Big|_{s=-a} = 2 \Big|_{s=-a} = 2$$

$$K_{12} = \frac{1}{1} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (2) \Big|_{s=-a} = 0$$

$$K_{13} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 (2)}{\partial s^2} \Big|_{s=-a} = 0$$

only the first term gives a contribution

$$F^*(s) = \frac{(-1)^2 2}{(3-1)!} \frac{\partial^2 \Delta T(s)}{\partial s^2} \Big|_{s=s-s_n}$$

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

$$F^*(s) = \frac{(-1)^2 2}{(3-1)!} \frac{\partial \Delta T(s)}{\partial s^2} \Big|_{s=s-s_n}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \Delta T(s) = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \exp^{-Ts}} \right) = \frac{-T \exp^{-Ts}}{(1 - \exp^{-Ts})^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \Delta T(s) = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \Delta T(s) \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left( \frac{-T \exp^{-Ts}}{(1 - \exp^{-Ts})^2} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \Delta T(s) = \frac{T^2 \exp^{-Ts} (1 + 2 \exp^{-Ts})}{(1 - \exp^{-Ts})^3}$$

evaluate at  $s = s - s_n = s + a$

$$F^*(s) = \frac{T^2 e^{-T(s+a)} (1 + 2e^{-T(s+a)})}{(1 - e^{-T(s+a)})^3} = \frac{T^2 e^{-Ts} e^{-aT} (1 + 2e^{-aT} e^{-Ts})}{(1 - e^{-aT} e^{-Ts})^3}$$

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

$$F^*(s) = \frac{T^2 e^{-T(s+a)}(1 + 2e^{-T(s+a)})}{(1 - e^{-T(s+a)})^3} = \frac{T^2 e^{-Ts} e^{-aT}(1 + 2e^{-aT} e^{-Ts})}{(1 - e^{-aT} e^{-Ts})^3}$$

Again we obtained an expression in  $e^{-Ts}$  **Let us set:**

$$z = e^{Ts} \Leftrightarrow z^{-1} = e^{-Ts}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F^*(s) = \tilde{F}(z^{-1}) &= \frac{T^2 z^{-1} e^{-aT}(1 + 2e^{-aT} z^{-1})}{(1 - e^{-aT} z^{-1})^3} \\ &= F(z) = \frac{T^2 z e^{-aT}(z + 2e^{-aT})}{(z - e^{-aT})^3} \end{aligned}$$

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

## Laplace Transform

$$f(t) \implies F(s) \quad \text{Laplace}$$

$$f(t) \implies \tilde{F}(s^{-1}) \quad \text{Inverse Laplace}$$

## Z-Transform

$$f(t) \implies F(z) \quad \text{Z-Transform}$$

$$f(t) \implies \tilde{F}(z^{-1}) \quad \text{Inverse Z-Transform}$$

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

Like the Laplace transform, also the z-transform has a physical meaning:

## Physical Meaning

$$s = \text{Derivative } \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{s} = s^{-1} = \text{Integration } \left( \int \right)$$

$$z = \text{Left shifting by } T$$

$$\frac{1}{z} = z^{-1} = \text{Right shifting by } T$$

# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

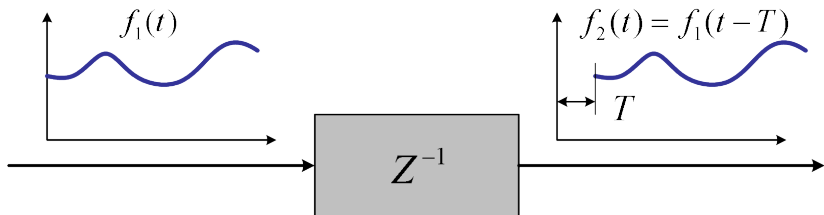
## Physical Meaning

$s$  = Derivative ( $\frac{d}{dt}$ )

$\frac{1}{s} = s^{-1}$  = Integration ( $\int$ )

$z$  = Left shifting by  $T$

$\frac{1}{z} = z^{-1}$  = Right shifting by  $T$



# Sampling of Arbitrary Signals

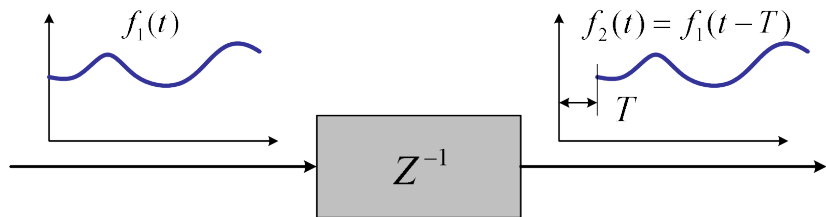


Figure: ZT.

The signal got delayed by  $T$ . Like in the Laplace transform, physically requires higher order denominator than nominators.



# Difference Equation

$$g(z) = \frac{b_n z^n + b_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + b_0}{z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k z^{-k}$$

Comparison of the coefficients leads to the recursive formula:

$$g_k = b_{n-k} - a_{n-1} g_{k-1} - a_{n-2} g_{k-2} - \dots - a_0 g_{k-n}$$

where  $b_k, g_k = 0$ .

## Example

$$g(z) = \frac{z^3 + 2z^2 + 3z}{z^4 - 1}$$

$$g_0 = b_4 - a_3 g_{-1} - \dots = b_4 = 0$$

$$g_1 = b_3 - a_3 g_0 = 1 - 0 = 1$$

$$g_2 = b_2 - a_3 g_1 - a_2 g_0 = 2 - 0 - 0 = 2$$

$$g_3 = b_1 - a_3 g_2 - a_2 g_1 - a_1 g_0 = 3 - 0 - 0 - 0 = 3$$

$$g_4 = b_0 - a_3 g_3 - a_2 g_2 - a_1 g_1 - a_0 g_0$$

$$g(z) = \frac{z^3 + 2z^2 + 3z}{z^4 - 1} = \frac{y(z)}{u(z)}$$

$$z^4 y(z) - y(z) = z^3 u(z) + 2z^2 u(z) + 3z u(z)$$

Now apply the shifting property

$$y^*(t + 4T) - y^*(t) = u^*(t + 3T) + 2u^*(t + 2T) + 3u^*(t + T)$$

or

$$y^*(t + T) = y^*(t - 3T) + u^*(t) + 2u^*(t - T) + 3u^*(t - 2T)$$

Given a system with the z-transfer function  $g(z)$  we can simulate the behaviour of the output out of measurements of previous inputs and outputs.

Given

$$g(z) = \frac{b_n z^n + b_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + b_0}{z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0}$$

We can obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}(k+1) &= \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{g}u(k) \\ y(k) &= \mathbf{h}\mathbf{x}(k) + iu(k) \end{aligned}$$

**F**: System matrix

**g**: Input vector

**h**: Output vector

*i*: Direct coupling.

# Relation Between z-Domain and Frequency Domain

$\omega$ -Domain

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k e^{-j\omega k}$$

z-Domain

$$H(z) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^k$$

Comparing the above we see that the connection is setting  $z = e^{j\omega}$  in  $H(z)$ , i.e.,

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = H(z) \Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}}$$

# The z-Plane and the Unit Circle

If we consider that z-plane, we see that  $H(e^{j\omega})$  corresponds to evaluating  $H(z)$  on the unit circle

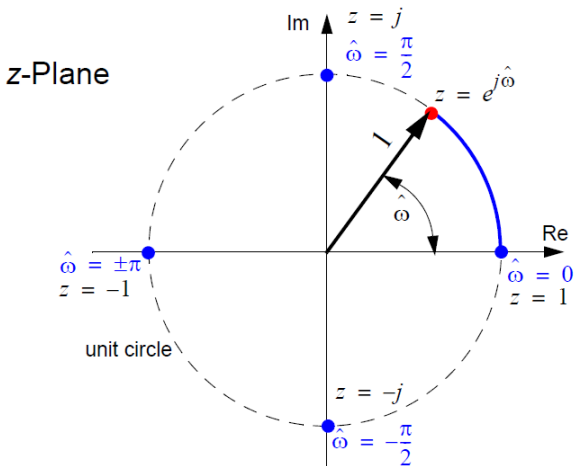
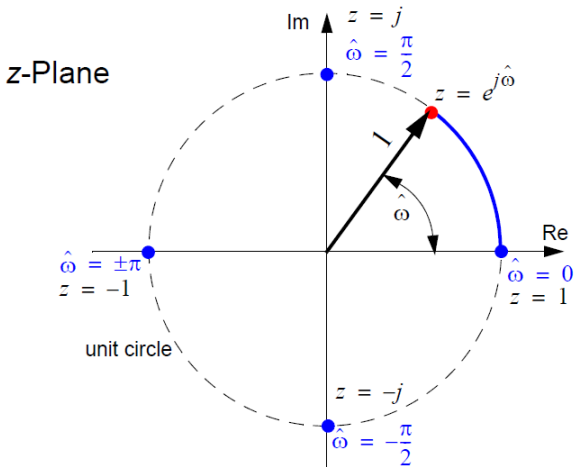


Figure: Z-plane.

# The z-Plane and the Unit Circle

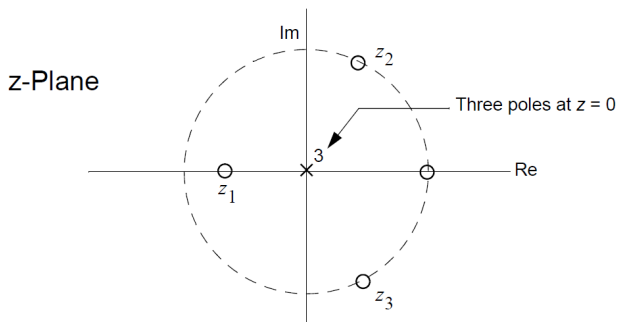
From this interpretation we also can see why  $H(e^{j\omega})$  is periodic with period  $2\pi$ . As  $\omega$  increases it continues to sweep around the unit circle over and over again.



# The Zeros and Poles of $H(z)$

$$H(z) = \frac{(z - z_1)(z - z_2)(z - z_3)}{z^3}$$

- The *zeros* are the locations where  $H(z)=0$ , i.e.,  $z_1, z_2, z_3$
- The *poles* are where  $H(z) \rightarrow \infty$ , i.e.,  $z \rightarrow 0$
- The *poles* and *zeros* only determine  $H(z)$  for certain parameters
- A *pole-zero* displays the *pole* and *zero* locations in the z-plane



A method for study of linear constant discrete systems is:

- Compute the transfer function of the system  $H(z)$ .
- Compute the transform of the input signal,  $E(z)$
- From the product,  $E(z)H(z)$ , which is the transform of the output signal,  $U$ .
- Invert the transform to obtain  $u(kT)$



# The Unit Impulse

The unit pulse is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}e_1(k) &= 1 \quad (k = 0) \\ &= 0 \quad (k \neq 0) \\ &= \delta_k.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore we have

$$E_1(z) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_k z^{-k} = z^0 = 1$$

This result is much like the continuous case, wherein the Laplace transform of the unit impulse is the constant 1.0.

The quantity  $E_1(z)$  gives us an instantaneous method of relate signals to systems: to characterize the system  $H(z)$ , consider the signal  $u(k)$ , which is the unit impulse response, then  $U(z) = H(z)$ .

# The Unit Step

Consider the unit step function defined by

$$\begin{aligned}e_2(k) &= 1 \quad (k \geq 0) \\ &= 0 \quad (k < 0) \\ &= 1(k).\end{aligned}$$

In this case, the z-transform is

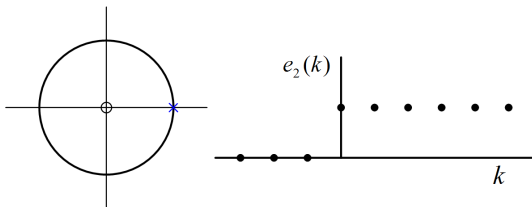
$$\begin{aligned}E_2(z) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} e_2(k)z^{-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^{-k} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}} \quad (|z^{-1}| < 1) \\ &= \frac{z}{z - 1} \quad (|z| > 1)\end{aligned}$$

Here the transform is characterized by a zero at  $z = 0$  and a pole at  $z = 1$ .

# The Unit Step

$$\begin{aligned} E_2(z) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} e_2(k)z^{-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^{-k} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}} \quad (|z^{-1}| < 1) \\ &= \frac{z}{z - 1} \quad (|z| > 1) \end{aligned}$$

The Laplace transform of the unit step is  $1/s$ ; we may keep in mind that a pole at  $s = 0$  for a continuous signal corresponds in some way to a pole at  $z = 1$  for discrete signals.



# Exponential

The one-sided exponential in time is

$$\begin{aligned}e_3(k) &= r^k & (k \geq 0) \\ &= 0 & (k < 0)\end{aligned}$$

Now we get

$$\begin{aligned}E_3(z) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k z^{-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (rz^{-1})^k \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - rz^{-1}} \quad (|rz^{-1}| < 1) \\ &= \frac{z}{z - r} \quad (|z| > |r|)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_3(z) &= \frac{1}{1 - rz^{-1}} \quad (|rz^{-1}| < 1) \\ &= \frac{z}{z - r} \quad (|z| > |r|) \end{aligned}$$

The pole of  $E_3(z)$  is at  $z = r$ . We also know that  $e_3(k)$  grows without bound if  $|r| > 1$ . We conclude that a  $z$ -transform that converges for large  $z$  and has a real pole outside the circle  $|z| = 1$  corresponds to a growing signal.

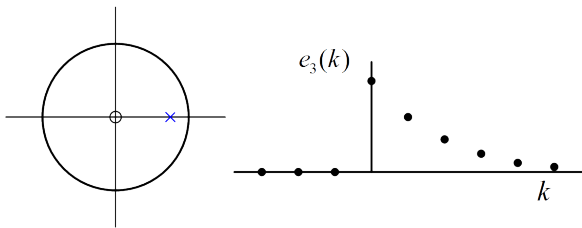


Figure: Exponential -  $e_3(k)$  for the stable value  $r = 0.6$

# General Sinusoid

Consider the sinusoid  $e_4(k) = [r^k \cos(k\theta)]1(k)$ , where we assume  $r \geq 0$ . We can decompose  $e_4(k)$  into the sum of two complex exponentials as

$$e_4(k) = r^k \left( \frac{e^{jk\theta} + e^{-jk\theta}}{2} \right) 1(k)$$

and because the z-transform is linear, we need only to compute the transform of each signal complex exponential and add the results later. We thus take first

$$e_5(k) = r^k e^{jk\theta} 1(k)$$

and compute

$$\begin{aligned} E_5(z) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k e^{jk\theta} z^{-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( r e^{j\theta} z^{-1} \right)^k \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_5(z) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k e^{jk\theta} z^{-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( r e^{j\theta} z^{-1} \right)^k \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - r e^{j\theta} z^{-1}} \\ &= \frac{z}{z - r e^{j\theta}} \quad (|z| > r) \end{aligned}$$

The signal  $e_5(k)$  grows without bound as  $k$  gets large if and only if  $r > 1$ , and a system with this pulse response is BIBO stable if and only if  $|r| < 1$ . The boundary of stability is the unit circle.

# General Sinusoid

To complete the argument given before  $e_4(k) = r^k \cos(k\theta)1(k)$ , we see immediately that the other half is found by replacing  $\theta$  by  $-\theta$

$$\mathcal{Z}\{r^k e^{-j\theta k} 1(k)\} = \frac{z}{z - re^{-j\theta}} \quad (|z| > r)$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned} E_4(z) &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{z}{z - re^{j\theta}} + \frac{z}{z - re^{-j\theta}} \right) \\ &= \frac{z(z - r \cos \theta)}{z^2 - 2r(\cos \theta)z + r^2} \quad (|z| > r) \end{aligned}$$

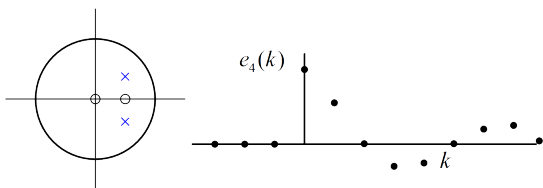


Figure: Exponential -  $e_4(k)$  for  $r = 0.7$  and  $\theta = 45$  deg



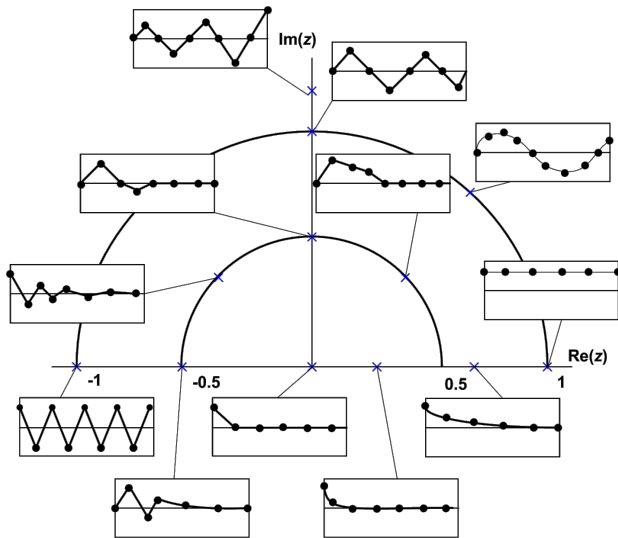


Figure: z-plane

Questions please