

Module 05

Discrete Time Systems

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EE 5143: Linear Systems and Control

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From CT to DT Systems

- In the previous module, we discussed the basic idea of discretization
- Basically, how to obtain state-space matrices for discretized representation of CT systems
- This necessitates understanding the calculus of DT systems, starting from the difference equation

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k), \quad y(k) = Cx(k) + Du(k)$$

- Note: A, B, C, D here are assumed to be discretized one (derived from one the discretization methods in the previous module). In other words, they're $\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}, \dots$
- In many situations, we arrive at a DT system after discretization
- However, in many other situations, DT systems (difference equations) depict the actual physics

DT Systems: An Example

- The problem of compound interest/loan payment is a DT control system
- Suppose you owe \$1000 to a bank at $t = k = 0$, and your monthly interest rate is 1.5%
- Also, suppose that the minimum payment is \$50 and you never pay more than the minimum payment
- Hence, we can write:

$$x(k+1) = 1.015x(k) + u(k), \quad x(0) = 1000$$

- $x(k)$ represents the amount of money you still owe; $u(k) = -50$ is the constant monthly payment
- Question 1: Compute your remaining debt after 10 payments
- Question 2: How long it will take to pay it all off?

Solution

$x(k+1) = \lambda x(k) + \beta u(k)$, $x(0) = x_0 = 1000$, $\lambda = 1.015$, $\beta = 1$ are given

① $x(1) = \lambda x(0) + \beta u(0)$, $x(2) = \lambda^2 x(0) + \lambda \beta u(0) + \beta u(1)$

$$x(3) = \lambda^3 x(0) + \lambda^2 \beta u(0) + \lambda \beta u(1) + \beta u(2)$$

② Hence, one can write: $x(k) = \lambda^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \lambda^j \beta u(k-1-j)$

③ For this particular problem, $u(k) = u(j) = -50 = \gamma$, therefore:

$$x(k) = \lambda^k x(0) + \beta \gamma \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \lambda^j = \lambda^k x(0) + \beta \gamma \left(\frac{1 - \lambda^k}{1 - \lambda} \right), \forall k$$

④ Question 1 Solution:

$$x(10) = (1.015)^{10} \cdot 1000 + (-50 \cdot 1) \left(\frac{1 - 1.015^{10}}{1 - 1.015} \right) = \$625.40$$

⑤ Question 2 Solution: find k such that $x(k) = 0$

$$0 = (1.015)^k 1000 - 50 \left(\frac{1 - 1.015^k}{1 - 1.015} \right) \Rightarrow k \approx 23.96 = 24 \text{ payments}$$

DT Systems: Why do we need it?

- As we saw in the previous example, we were able to compute two important quantities via the accurate model of loan payments
- We computed how many monthly payments is needed to pay off the debt
- We can also easily obtain how much is left at any $k < 24$
- This case that we discussed is for the scalar case, i.e.,

$$x(k+1) = \lambda x(k) + \beta u(k)$$

- What if we have n -dimensional state-space, i.e.,

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$$

- How can we find $x(k)$ at any k ? How can we find k that would yield $x(k) = 0$ -vector?
- To do that, we need to have theory that supports DT system, in contrast with CT LTI systems and matrix exponentials

State Space of DT LTI Systems

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k), \quad y(k) = Cx(k) + Du(k)$$

- To find $x(k)$, we need to find A^k (analogous to matrix exponentials for the CT case)
- Let's consider that $u(k) = 0$, then it's easy to see that:

$$x(1) = Ax(0), \quad x(2) = Ax(1) = A^2x(0), \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boxed{x(k) = A^kx(0) \Rightarrow y(k) = CA^kx(0)}$$

- How to find A^k ? Can you simply raise the entries of A to the k -th power?
- No! You cannot! To find A^k , diagonalize $A = TDT^{-1}$
- Then¹, we can write $A^k = TD^kT^{-1}$
- If the matrix is not diagonalizable, find the Jordan form, ($A^k = TJ^kT^{-1}$)

- In that case, $J^k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda^k & k\lambda^{k-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^k \end{bmatrix}$ for a Jordan block of λ with size 2

¹We proved that in one of the homeworks.

State Space of DT LTI Systems

- So, what if we have a nonzero control $u(k)$?
- We need to obtain an explicit solution $x(k)$ given $x(0)$ and $u(k)$
- We can prove that for

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$$

the state solution is:

$$x(k) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} Bu(j) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^j Bu(k-1-j) \quad (*)$$

- This is very similar to $x(t) = e^{At}x(0) + \int_0^t e^{A(t-\tau)}Bu(\tau)d\tau$ which we derived before
- Equation (*) can be proved via induction, or even by intuition

Solutions of DT LTI Systems

$$x(k) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} B u(j) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^j B u(k-1-j) \quad (*)$$

- The above equation entails: (a) finding closed form solution to A^k and (b) being clever with summations (instead of integrals)
- Again, as mentioned earlier, to find A^k : either find the diagonal or Jordan canonical forms
- The complexity remains if the summation is difficult to **analytically compute**
- Let's do two examples to demonstrate that
- Notice that there's two ways to compute $x(k)$ —look at $(*)$
- This means that you should pick the equation which is easy to analytically evaluate

DT LTI Systems — Example 2

$$x(k) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} B u(j) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^j B u(k-1-j) \quad (*)$$

- Consider this system:

$$x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(k)$$

$$u(k) = \lambda_1^k, \quad x(0) = 0, \quad \lambda_{1,2} \neq 1, 0, \quad \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$$

- Important summation rule 1: $\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha^j = \frac{1 - \alpha^k}{1 - \alpha}$ assuming that $\alpha \neq 1$
- Find $x(k)$. **Solution:**

$$x(k) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^{k-1} & 1 - \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}\right)^k \\ \lambda_2^{k-1} & 1 - \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

DT LTI Systems — Example 3

- Consider this system:

$$x(k+1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} u(k)$$

$$u(k) = 1, \quad x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{1,2} \neq 1, 0, \quad \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$$

- Important summation rule 2:**

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} j\alpha^{j-1} = \frac{d}{d\alpha} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha^j = \frac{d}{d\alpha} \left[\frac{1 - \alpha^k}{1 - \alpha} \right] = \frac{1 - k\alpha^{k-1} + (k-1)\alpha^k}{(1 - \alpha)^2}$$

- Find $x(k)$

Solution to Example 3

$$x(k) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} B u(j) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^j B u(k-1-j) \quad (*)$$

- ① First, we can write A as:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & -0.5 \end{bmatrix} = T J T^{-1}$$

- ② Find $A^k = T J^k T^{-1}$, with $J^k = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5^k & k 0.5^{k-1} \\ 0 & 0.5^k \end{bmatrix}$, then:

$$x(k) = T J^k T^{-1} x(0) + T \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} J^j T^{-1} B u(k-1-j)$$

- ③ $T^{-1} B u(k-1-j) = T^{-1} B = v = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^T$ constant, hence:

$$x(k) = T J^k T^{-1} x(0) + T \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} J^j \right) v$$

Solution to Example 3 — 2

$$x(k) = TJ^k T^{-1} x(0) + T \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} J^j \right) v$$

- The only difficult term to evaluate in the above equation is the summation
- Everything else is given
- Recall that

$$J^k = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5^k & k0.5^{k-1} \\ 0 & 0.5^k \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} J^j = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5^j & j0.5^{j-1} \\ 0 & 0.5^j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 0.5^j & \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} j0.5^{j-1} \\ 0 & \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 0.5^j \end{bmatrix}$$

- This matrix has three summations, that can be immediately evaluated via summation rules 1 and 2, then:

$$x(k) = TJ^k T^{-1} x(0) + T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1 - 0.5^k}{1 - 0.5} & \frac{1 - k0.5^{k-1} + (k-1)0.5^k}{(1 - 0.5)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1 - 0.5^k}{1 - 0.5} \end{bmatrix} v$$

Final Solution to Example 3

$$\begin{aligned}
 x(k) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5^k & k0.5^{k-1} \\ 0 & 0.5^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & -0.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &+ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1-0.5^k}{1-0.5} & \frac{1 - k0.5^{k-1} + (k-1)0.5^k}{(1-0.5)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1-0.5^k}{1-0.5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0.5^k & k0.5^{k-1} \\ 0 & 0.5^k \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1-0.5^k}{1-0.5} & \frac{1 - k0.5^{k-1} + (k-1)0.5^k}{(1-0.5)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1-0.5^k}{1-0.5} \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 - 0.5^k & 4 - 3k0.5^{k-1} + 4(k-1)0.5^k \\ 0 & 2 - 0.5^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 - 6k0.5^{k-1} + 8(k-1)0.5^k \\ 4 - 2 \cdot 0.5^k \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 12 - 6k0.5^{k-1} + (8k - 10)0.5^k \\ 4 - 6k0.5^{k-1} + (8k - 6)0.5^k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(k) \\ x_2(k) \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Remarks

- What we've done so far is analyze state solutions (and you can easily obtain output solutions) for DT systems
- DT systems emerge naturally from systems where time is discrete
- DT systems also emerge from discretization of CT systems
- If a discretization is computed, and it's very accurate, then $x(k) \approx x(t)$ between two sampling instances

Intro to TV DT Linear Systems

- Previously, we assumed that the system is time invariant

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$$

$$x(k) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^{k-1-j} Bu(j) = A^k x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} A^j Bu(k-1-j) \quad (*)$$

- A, B, C, D were all constant matrices for the LTI DT systems
- What if we have the following:

$$x(k+1) = A(k)x(k) + B(k)u(k)$$

- What will the state solution be?
- To do that, let's get some help from the STM for DT systems

STM of DT Systems with no Inputs

STM of DT Autonomous Systems

The STM for DT systems $x(k+1) = A(k)x(k)$ is defined as $\phi(n, k)$ such that for any $x(k)$, we have

$$x(n) = \phi(n, k)x(k)$$

- So what is $\phi(n, k)$ in this case? We can easily derive it:

$$x(k+1) = A(k)x(k); \quad x(k+2) = A(k+1)x(k+1) = A(k+1)A(k)x(k), \dots$$

- Hence:

$$x(n) = A(n-1)A(n-2) \cdots A(k+1)A(k)x(k) = \left(\prod_{j=k}^{n-1} A(j) \right) x(k)$$

STM of DT Autonomous Systems—2

For the above system, the STM is $\phi(n, k) = \prod_{j=k}^{n-1} A(j)$

Properties of STM of DT Systems

$$x(k) = \phi(k, 0)x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \phi(k, j+1)B(j)u(j)$$

$$\phi(n, k) = \prod_{j=k}^{n-1} A(j) = A(n-1)A(n-2)\cdots A(k+1)A(k)$$

- 1 For DT LTI systems, $\phi(n, k) = A^{n-k}$
- 2 For DT LTI systems, if $k = 0$ (i.e., zero ICs), $\phi(n) = A^n$
- 3 The STM $\phi(n, k)$ can be singular. If $A(k), \forall k$ is nonsingular, then $\phi(n, k)$ is nonsingular
- 4 $\phi(n, n) = I, \forall n$
- 5 $\phi(k_3, k_2)\phi(k_2, k_1) = \phi(k_3, k_1), \forall k_3 \geq k_2 \geq k_1$
- 6 STM satisfy the difference equation:

$$\phi(k+1, j) = A(k)\phi(k, j)$$

TV DT Systems

State Solution of TVDT Systems

The state solution for time-varying DT systems

$$x(k+1) = A(k)x(k) + B(k)u(k)$$

is defined as

$$x(k) = \phi(k, 0)x(0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \phi(k, j+1)B(j)u(j)$$

where $\phi(n, k) = \prod_{j=k}^{n-1} A(j)$.

- Can you prove the above theorem? You can do that by induction
- First, show that the formula is true for $k = 0$. Then, assume it's true for k , and prove it for $k + 1$
- You should use the fact that DT systems satisfy the difference equation: $\phi(k+1, j) = A(k)\phi(k, j)$

Example 4

- Consider this dynamical system

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k), \quad y(k) = C(k)x(k) + Du(k)$$

- For this system, only the $C(k)$ matrix is time-varying
- **Question:** Given that you have three sets of input-output data:

$$(y(k), u(k)), (y(k+1), u(k+1)), (y(k+2), u(k+2)))$$

and $x(k)$ is unknown, derive an equation that would allow you to obtain $x(k)$

- **Solution:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} y(k) \\ y(k+1) \\ y(k+2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C(k) \\ C(k+1)A \\ C(k+2)A^2 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 & 0 \\ C(k+1)B & D & 0 \\ C(k+2)AB & C(k+2)B & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u(k) \\ u(k+1) \\ u(k+2) \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 4 (Cont'd)

$$\begin{bmatrix} y(k) \\ y(k+1) \\ y(k+2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C(k) \\ C(k+1)A \\ C(k+2)A^2 \end{bmatrix} x(k) + \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 & 0 \\ C(k+1)B & D & 0 \\ C(k+2)AB & C(k+2)B & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u(k) \\ u(k+1) \\ u(k+2) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Given the above equation, and since the input-output data is given, we can write the following:

$$Y = \bar{A}x(k) + \bar{B}U \Rightarrow \boxed{(Y - \bar{B}U) = \bar{A}x(k)}$$

- The LHS of the boxed equation is constant, and the only unknown in this equation is $x(k)$
- How to find $x(k)$?
- This is similar to solving a linear systems of equations: $Ax = b$
- When is this linear system solved for a unique $x(k)$?
- Answer:** if \bar{A} is full row rank, then $x(k)$ can be obtained

Solution to Rectangular $Ax = b$

$$(Y - \bar{B}U) = \bar{A}x(k) \quad \equiv \quad b = Ax$$

- Matrix \bar{A} is a tall-skinny, rectangular matrix
- This equation is similar to solving $Ax = b$ for rectangular $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $m > n$
- How to solve this equation? When is there a solution?
- $Ax = b$ has a consistent solution when $\text{rank}[A, b] = \text{rank}(A)$
- Or whenever $b \in \text{column-space}(A)$
- The solution is unique if and only if $\text{rank}(A) = n$, i.e., A has full column rank
- The unique solution is given by: $x = A^{-L}b$, where A^{-L} is called the left inverse of A
- A left inverse of A is one that satisfies $A^{-L}A = I$
- Moore-Penrose pseudo left inverse is equal to: $A^{-L} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ (Matlab's `pinv` command computes that)
- How did we obtain this?

What if A is not full column rank

$$(Y - \bar{B}U) = \bar{A}x(k) \quad \equiv \quad b = Ax$$

- This method can be also generalized for fat matrices with more columns than rows (the left inverse then becomes a right inverse)
- So, after obtaining $x = A^{-L}b = (A^T A)^{-1}A^T b$, we get the initial conditions or the needed $x(k)$ given the input-output measurements
- What if the A -matrix (\bar{A}) is not full column rank and there's no solution to $Ax = b$?
- Well, we'll have to settle for a **least-squares solution**
- A least squares solution is a one that minimizes the error $b - Ax$
- It solve this problem:

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \|b - Ax\|_2,$$

i.e., find x that minimize the error—a simple optimization problem

Example

- Solve $Ax = b$ for $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$
- Clearly, A is not full column rank
- Solve on Matlab: $x = \text{pinv}(A) * b = \begin{bmatrix} 0.75 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ —this is a least squares solution, a solution that minimizes the error $b - Ax$
- Now, let's set $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ —full rank A
- $x = \text{pinv}(A) * b = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b = \begin{bmatrix} 0.99 \\ -1.99 \end{bmatrix}$
- `pinv` and the left-inverse yielded the same solution as the equations are consistent and A is full column rank

Questions And Suggestions?



Thank You!

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