

Implementation Aspects

Real-Time Systems, Lecture 11

Martina Maggio

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Lund University, Department of Automatic Control
www.control.lth.se/course/FRTN01

Lecture 11: Implementation Aspects

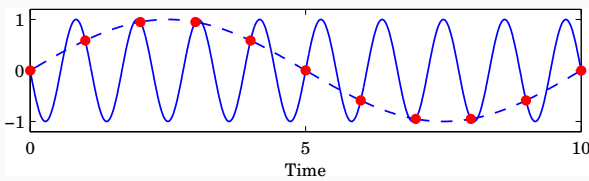
[IFAC PB Chapter 12, RTCS Chapter 11]

- Sampling, aliasing, and choice of sampling interval
- Computational delay
- Finite wordlength implementation
 - A-D and D-A quantization
 - Floating point and fixed point arithmetic
 - Controller realizations

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Sampling and Aliasing

Recall this example from Lecture 6:



$$y_1(t) = \sin(1.8\pi t - \pi)$$

$$y_2(t) = \sin(0.2\pi t)$$

$$h = 1, \omega_s = 2\pi \Rightarrow$$

$$\sin(0.2\pi kh) = \sin(1.8\pi kh - \pi) = \sin(2.2\pi kh) = \sin(3.8\pi kh - \pi) \dots$$

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Aliasing

Sampling a signal with frequency ω creates new signal components with frequencies

$$\omega_{\text{sampled}} = \pm\omega + n\omega_s$$

where $\omega_s = 2\pi/h$ is the sampling frequency and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Nyquist frequency:

$$\omega_N = \omega_s/2$$

The *fundamental alias* for a signal with frequency ω_1 is given by

$$\omega = |(\omega_1 + \omega_N) \bmod (\omega_s) - \omega_N|$$

(This frequency lies in the interval $0 \leq \omega < \omega_N$)

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Antialiasing Filter

Low-pass filter that attenuates all frequencies above the Nyquist frequency before sampling. **Must contain analog part!**

Options:

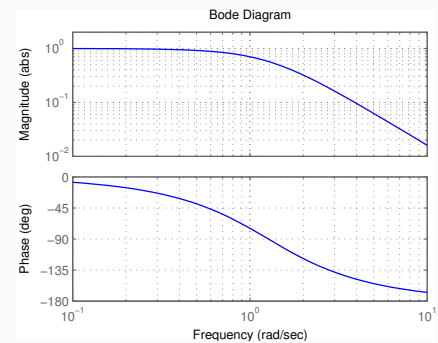
- Analog filter
 - E.g. 2–6th order Bessel or Butterworth filter
 - Difficult to change sampling interval
- Analog + digital filter
 - Fixed, fast sampling with fixed analog filter
 - Downsampling using digital LP-filter
 - Control algorithm at the lower rate
 - Easier to change sampling interval

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Example: Second-Order Bessel Filter

$$G_f(s) = \frac{\omega^2}{(s/\omega_B)^2 + 2\zeta(s/\omega_B) + \omega^2}, \quad \omega = 1.27, \zeta = 0.87$$

$\omega_B = 1$:



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Antialiasing Filter and Control Design

As a rule of thumb, the cut-off frequency of the filter should be chosen so that frequencies above ω_N are attenuated by at least a factor 10:

$$|G_f(i\omega_N)| \leq 0.1$$

Unless extremely fast sampling is used, the filter will affect the phase margin of the system

Include the filter in the process description or approximate it by a delay

- Digital design: E.g. 2nd order Bessel filter: $\tau \approx 1.3/\omega_B$. If $|G_f(i\omega_N)| = 0.1$ then $\tau \approx 1.5h$
- Analog design + discretization: must sample fast

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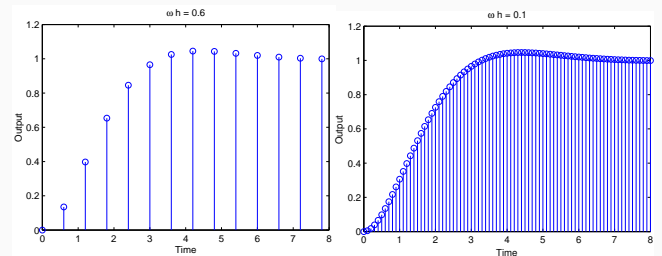
Choice of Sampling Interval – Digital Design

Common rule of thumb:

$$\omega h \approx 0.1 \text{ to } 0.6$$

ω is the desired natural frequency of the closed-loop system

Gives about 4 to 20 samples per rise time



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Choice of Sampling Interval – Analog Design

Sampler + ZOH \approx delay of $0.5h \Leftrightarrow e^{-s0.5h}$

Antialiasing filter \approx delay of $1.5h \Leftrightarrow e^{-s1.5h}$

Will affect phase margin (at cross-over frequency ω_c) by

$$\arg e^{-i\omega_c 2h} = -2\omega_c h$$

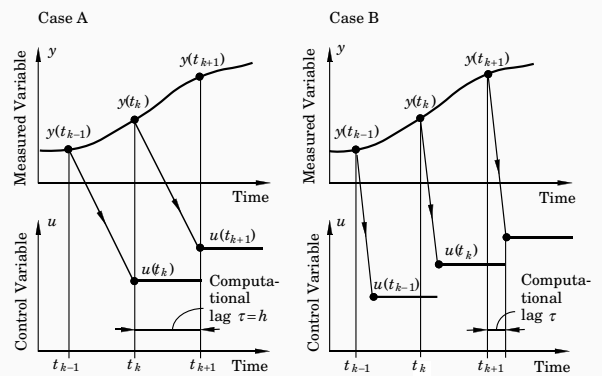
Assume phase margin can be decreased by 5° to 15° ($= 0.087$ to 0.262 rad). Then

$$\omega_c h \approx 0.04 \text{ to } 0.13$$

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Computational delay

Problem: $u(k)$ cannot be generated instantaneously at time k when $y(k)$ is sampled. Options:



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Case A: One sample delay

Controllers without direct term ($D = D_c = 0$)

A general linear controller in state-space form (including state feedback, observer, reference model, etc.):

$$x_c(k+1) = Fx_c(k) + Gy(k) + G_c u_c(k)$$

$$u(k) = Cx_c(k)$$

Output the control signal at the beginning of next sampling interval

```
CurrentTime(t);
LOOP
  daout(u);
  y := adin(1);
  uc := adin(2);
  /* Update State */
  xc := F*xc + G*y + Gc*uc;
  u := C*xc;
  IncTime(t, h);
  WaitUntil(h);
END;
```

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Case B: Minimize the computational delay

Controllers with direct term ($D \neq 0$ or $D_c \neq 0$)

A general linear controller in state-space form:

$$x_c(k+1) = Fx_c(k) + Gy(k) + G_c u_c(k)$$

$$u(k) = Cx_c(k) + Dy(k) + D_c u_c(k)$$

Do as little as possible between the input and the output:

```
CurrentTime(t);
LOOP
  y := adin(1);
  uc := adin(2);
  /* Calculate Output */
  u := u1 + D*y + Dc*uc;
  daout(u);
  /* Update State */
  xc := F*xc + G*y + Gc*uc;
  u1 := C*xc;
  IncTime(t, h);
  WaitUntil(h);
END;
```

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Finite-Wordlength Implementation

Control analysis and design usually assumes infinite-precision arithmetic
 All parameters/variables are assumed to be real numbers

Error sources in a digital implementation with finite wordlength:

- Quantization in A-D converters
- Quantization of parameters (controller coefficients)
- Round-off and overflow in addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, function evaluation and other operations
- Quantization in D-A converters

Finite-Wordlength Implementation

The magnitude of the problems depends on

- The wordlength
- The type of arithmetic used (fixed or floating point)
- The controller realization

A-D and D-A Quantization

A-D and D-A converters often have quite poor resolution, e.g.

- A-D: 10–16 bits
- D-A: 8–12 bits

Quantization is a nonlinear phenomenon; can lead to limit cycles and bias. Analysis approaches (outside scope of this course):

- Nonlinear analysis
 - Describing function approximation
 - Theory of relay oscillations
- Linear analysis
 - Quantization as a stochastic disturbance

Example: Control of the Double Integrator

Process:

$$P(s) = 1/s^2$$

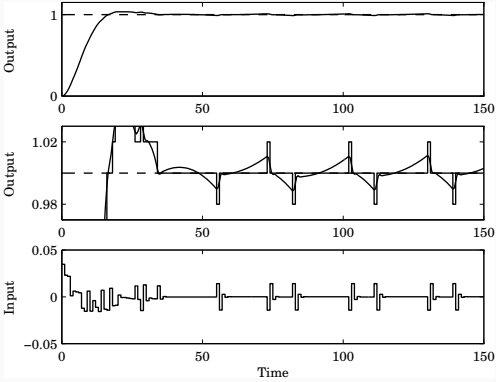
Sampling period:

$$h = 1$$

Controller (PID):

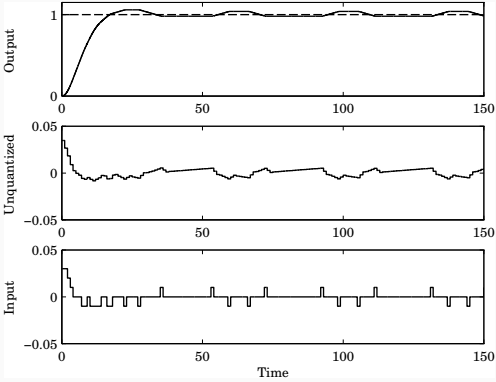
$$C(z) = \frac{0.715z^2 - 1.281z + 0.580}{(z - 1)(z + 0.188)}$$

Simulation with Quantized A-D Converter ($\delta y = 0.02$)



Limit cycle in process output with period 28 s, amplitude 0.01
 (can be predicted with describing function analysis)

Simulation with Quantized D-A Converter ($\delta u = 0.01$)



Limit cycle in process input with period 39 s, amplitude 0.01
 (can be predicted with describing function analysis)

Pulse-Width Modulation (PWM)

Poor D-A resolution (e.g. 1 bit) can often be handled by fast switching between fixed levels + low-pass filtering

PWM parameters:

- u_{\min}
- u_{\max}
- period T
- duty cycle $D(k)$ (0–100%)

PWM output in k th interval:

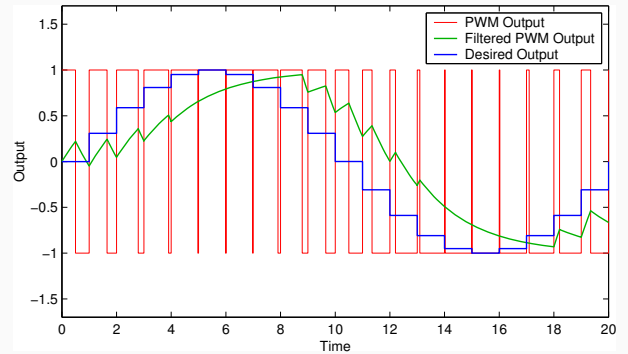
$$u(t) = \begin{cases} u_{\max}, & kT \leq t < kT + D(k)T \\ u_{\min}, & kT + D(k)T \leq t < (k+1)T \end{cases}$$

Average output: $\bar{u}(k) = D(k)u_{\max} + (1 - D(k))u_{\min}$

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Pulse-Width Modulation (PWM)

Example ($u_{\min} = -1$, $u_{\max} = 1$, $T = 1$, first-order output filter):



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Floating-Point Arithmetic

Hardware-supported on modern high-end processors (FPUs)

Number representation:

$$\pm f \times 2^{\pm e}$$

- f : mantissa, significand, fraction
- 2: base
- e : exponent

The binary point is variable (floating) and depends on the value of the exponent

Dynamic range and resolution

Fixed number of significant digits

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IEEE 754 Binary Floating-Point Standard

Used by almost all FPUs; implemented in software libraries

Single precision (Java/C float):

- 32-bit word divided into 1 sign bit, 8-bit biased exponent, and 23-bit mantissa (≈ 7 significant digits)
- Magnitude range: $2^{-126} - 2^{128}$

Double precision (Java/C double):

- 64-bit word divided into 1 sign bit, 11-bit biased exponent, and 52-bit mantissa (≈ 15 significant digits)
- Magnitude range: $2^{-1022} - 2^{1024}$

Supports Inf and NaN

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What is the output of this C program?

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {

    float a[] = { 10000.0, 1.0, 10000.0 };
    float b[] = { 10000.0, 1.0, -10000.0 };
    float sum = 0.0;
    int i;

    for (i=0; i<3; i++)
        sum += a[i]*b[i];

    printf("sum = %f\n", sum);
    return 0;
}
```

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What is the output of this C program?

Conclusions:

- The result depends on the order of the operations
- Finite-wordlength operations are neither associative nor distributive

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Arithmetic in Embedded Systems

Fixed-Point Arithmetic

Small microprocessors used in embedded systems typically do not have hardware support for floating-point arithmetic

Options:

- Software emulation of floating-point arithmetic
 - compiler/library supported
 - large code size, slow
- Fixed-point arithmetic
 - often manual implementation
 - fast and compact

Represent all numbers (parameters, variables) using **integers**

Use **binary scaling** to make all numbers fit into one of the integer data types, e.g.

- 8 bits (`char`, `int8_t`): [-128, 127]
- 16 bits (`short`, `int16_t`): [-32768, 32767]
- 32 bits (`long`, `int32_t`): [-2147483648, 2147483647]

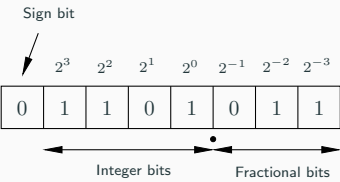
Challenges

Fixed-Point Representation

- Must select data types to get sufficient numerical precision
- Must know (or estimate) the minimum and maximum value of every variable in order to select appropriate scaling factors
- Must keep track of the scaling factors in all arithmetic operations
- Must handle potential arithmetic overflows

In fixed-point representation, a real number x is represented by an integer X with $N = m + n + 1$ bits, where

- N is the wordlength
- m is the number of integer bits (excluding the sign bit)
- n is the number of fractional bits



"Q-format": X is sometimes called a $Qm.n$ or Qn number

Conversion to and from fixed point

Negative Numbers

Conversion from real to fixed-point number:

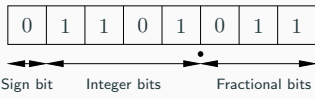
$$X := \text{round}(x \cdot 2^n)$$

Conversion from fixed-point to real number:

$$x := X \cdot 2^{-n}$$

Example: Represent $x = 13.4$ using $Q4.3$ format

$$X = \text{round}(13.4 \cdot 2^3) = 107 (= 01101011_2)$$



In almost all CPUs today, negative integers are handled using **two's complement**: A "1" in the sign bit means that 2^N should be subtracted from the stored value

Example ($N = 8$):

Binary representation	Interpretation
00000000	0
00000001	1
⋮	⋮
01111111	127
10000000	-128
10000001	-127
⋮	⋮
11111111	-1

Range vs Resolution for Fixed-Point Numbers

A $Qm.n$ fixed-point number can represent real numbers in the range

$$[-2^m, 2^m - 2^{-n}]$$

while the resolution is

$$2^{-n}$$

Fixed range and resolution

- n too small \Rightarrow poor resolution
- n too large \Rightarrow risk of overflow

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Example: Choose number of integer and fractional bits

We want to store x in a signed 8-bit variable.
 We know that $-28.3 < x < 17.5$.
 We hence need $m = 5$ bits to represent the integer part.
 ($2^4 = 16 < 28.3 < 32 = 2^5$)
 $n = 8 - 1 - m = 2$ bits are left for the fractional part.
 x should be stored in $Q5.2$ format

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Fixed-Point Addition/Subtraction

Two fixed-point numbers in the same $Qm.n$ format can be added or subtracted directly
 The result will have the same number of fractional bits

$$z = x + y \Leftrightarrow Z = X + Y$$

$$z = x - y \Leftrightarrow Z = X - Y$$

- The result will in general require $N + 1$ bits; risk of overflow

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Example: Addition with Overflow

Two numbers in $Q4.3$ format are added:

$$x = 12.25 \Rightarrow X = 98$$

$$y = 14.75 \Rightarrow Y = 118$$

$$Z = X + Y = 216$$

This number is however out of range and will be interpreted as

$$216 - 256 = -40 \Rightarrow z = -5.0$$

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Example: Addition with Overflow

	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
				•				
+	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
				•				
=	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
				•				

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Fixed-Point Multiplication and Division

If the operands and the result are in the same Q-format, multiplication and division are done as

$$z = x \cdot y \Leftrightarrow Z = (X \cdot Y) / 2^n$$

$$z = x / y \Leftrightarrow Z = (X \cdot 2^n) / Y$$

- Double wordlength is needed for the intermediate result
- Division by 2^n is implemented as a right-shift by n bits
- Multiplication by 2^n is implemented as a left-shift by n bits
- The lowest bits in the result are truncated (round-off noise)
- Risk of overflow

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Example: Multiplication

Two numbers in $Q5.2$ format are multiplied:

$$x = 6.25 \Rightarrow X = 25$$

$$y = 4.75 \Rightarrow Y = 19$$

Intermediate result:

$$X \cdot Y = 475$$

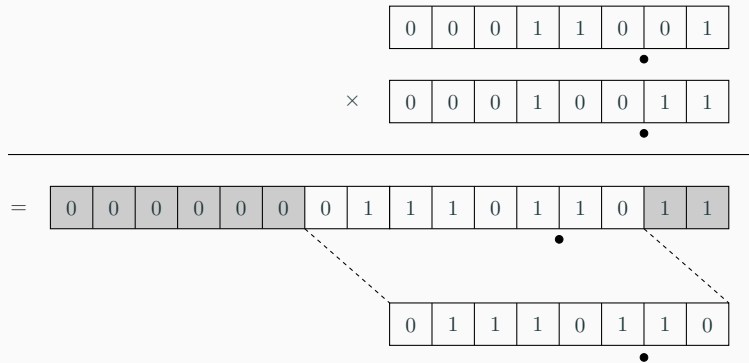
Final result:

$$Z = 475/2^2 = 118.75 \Rightarrow z = 29.6875$$

(exact result is 29.6875)

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Example: Multiplication



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Example: Division

Two numbers in $Q3.4$ format are divided:

$$x = 5.375 \Rightarrow X = 86$$

$$y = 6.0625 \Rightarrow Y = 97$$

Not associative:

$$Z_{bad} = (X/Y) \cdot 2^4 = (86/97) \cdot 2^4 = 0.2^4 = 0$$

$$Z_{good} = (X \cdot 2^4)/Y = 1376/97 = 14.185567 \Rightarrow z = 0.875$$

(correct first 6 digits are 0.888531)

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Multiplication of Operands with Different Q-format

In general, multiplication of two fixed-point numbers $Q_{m_1.n_1}$ and $Q_{m_2.n_2}$ gives an intermediate result in the format

$$Q_{m_1+m_2.n_1+n_2}$$

which may then be right-shifted $n_1+n_2-n_3$ steps and stored in the format

$$Q_{m_3.n_3}$$

Common case: $n_2 = n_3 = 0$ (one real operand, one integer operand, and integer result). Then

$$Z = (X \cdot Y)/2^{n_1}$$

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Implementation of Multiplication in C

Assume $Q4.3$ operands and result

```
#include <inttypes.h> /* define int8_t, etc. (Linux only) */
#define n 3 /* number of fractional bits */
int8_t X, Y, Z; /* Q4.3 operands and result */
int16_t temp; /* Q9.6 intermediate result */
...
temp = (int16_t)X * Y; /* cast operands to 16 bits and multiply */
temp = temp >> n; /* divide by 2^n */
Z = temp; /* truncate and assign result */
```

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Implementation of Multiplication in C with Rounding and Saturation

```
#include <inttypes.h> /* defines int8_t, etc. (Linux only) */
#define n 3 /* number of fractional bits */
int8_t X, Y, Z; /* Q4.3 operands and result */
int16_t temp; /* Q9.6 intermediate result */
...
temp = (int16_t)X * Y; /* cast operands to 16 bits and multiply */
temp = temp + (1 << n-1); /* add 1/2 to give correct rounding */
temp = temp >> n; /* divide by 2^n */
if (temp > INT8_MAX) /* saturate the result before assignment */
    Z = INT8_MAX;
else if (temp < INT8_MIN)
    Z = INT8_MIN;
else
    Z = temp;
```

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Implementation of Division in C with Rounding

```
#include <inttypes.h> /* define int8_t, etc. (Linux only) */
#define n 3 /* number of fractional bits */
int8_t X, Y, Z; /* Q4.3 operands and result */
int16_t temp; /* Q9.6 intermediate result */
...
temp = (int16_t)X << n; /* cast operand to 16 bits and shift */
temp = temp + (Y >> 1); /* Add Y/2 to give correct rounding */
temp = temp / Y; /* Perform the division (expensive!) */
Z = temp; /* Truncate and assign result */
```

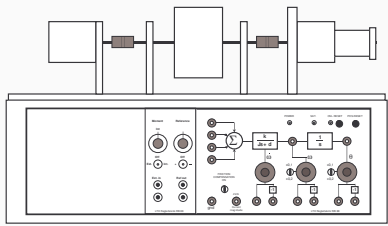
Atmel mega8/16 instruction set

Mnemonic	Description	# clock cycles
ADD	Add two registers	1
SUB	Subtract two registers	1
MULS	Multiply signed	2
ASR	Arithmetic shift right (1 step)	1
LSL	Logical shift left (1 step)	1

- No division instruction; implemented in math library using expensive division algorithm

Laboratory Exercise 3

- Control of a rotating DC servo using the ATmega16



- Velocity control (PI controller)
- Position control (state feedback from extended observer)
- Floating-point and fixed-point implementations
- Measurement of code size (and possibly execution time)

Controller Realizations

A linear controller

$$H(z) = \frac{b_0 + b_1z^{-1} + \dots + b_nz^{-n}}{1 + a_1z^{-1} + \dots + a_nz^{-n}}$$

can be realized in a number of different ways with equivalent input-output behavior, e.g.

- Direct form
- Companion (canonical) form
- Series (cascade) or parallel form

Direct Form

The input-output form can be directly implemented as

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

- Nonminimal (all old inputs and outputs are used as states)
- Very sensitive to roundoff in coefficients
- Avoid!

Companion Forms

E.g. controllable or observable canonical form

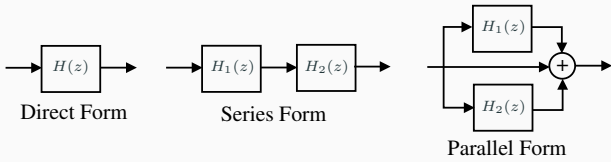
$$x(k+1) = \begin{pmatrix} -a_1 & -a_2 & \dots & -a_{n-1} & -a_n \\ 1 & 0 & & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} x(k) + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} y(k)$$

$$u(k) = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \end{pmatrix} x(k)$$

- Same problem as for the Direct form
- Very sensitive to roundoff in coefficients
- Avoid!

Better: Series and Parallel Forms

Divide the transfer function of the controller into a number of first- or second-order subsystems:



- Try to balance the gain such that each subsystem has about the same amplification

Example: Series and Parallel Forms

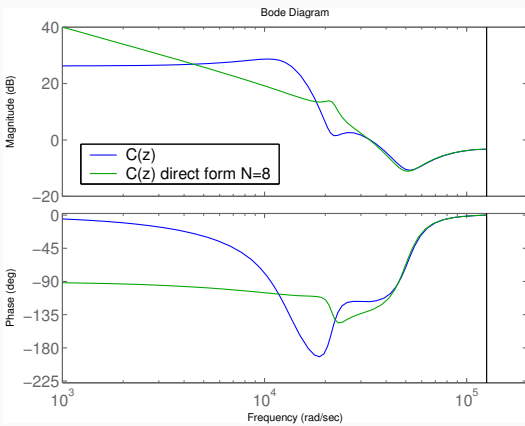
$$C(z) = \frac{z^4 - 2.13z^3 + 2.351z^2 - 1.493z + 0.5776}{z^4 - 3.2z^3 + 3.997z^2 - 2.301z + 0.5184} \quad (\text{Direct})$$

$$= \left(\frac{z^2 - 1.635z + 0.9025}{z^2 - 1.712z + 0.81} \right) \left(\frac{z^2 - 0.4944z + 0.64}{z^2 - 1.488z + 0.64} \right) \quad (\text{Series})$$

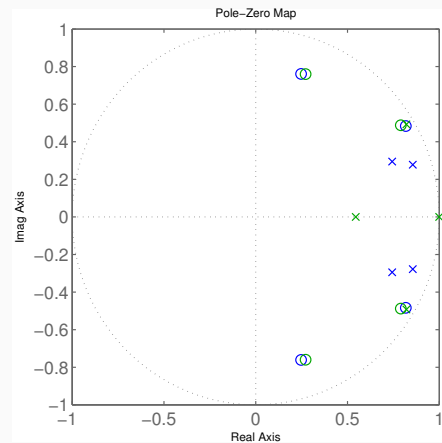
$$= 1 + \frac{-5.396z + 6.302}{z^2 - 1.712z + 0.81} + \frac{6.466z - 4.907}{z^2 - 1.488z + 0.64} \quad (\text{Parallel})$$

Example: Direct Form

Direct form with quantized coefficients ($N = 8, n = 4$):

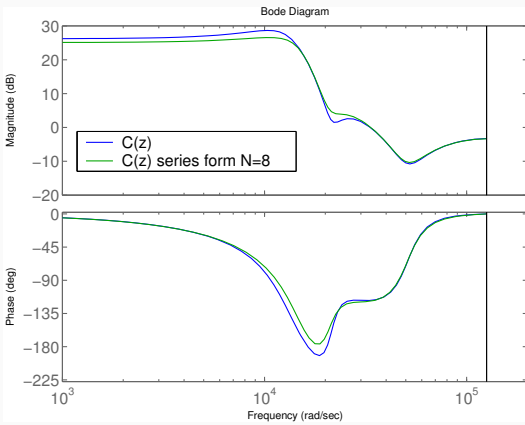


Example: Direct Form

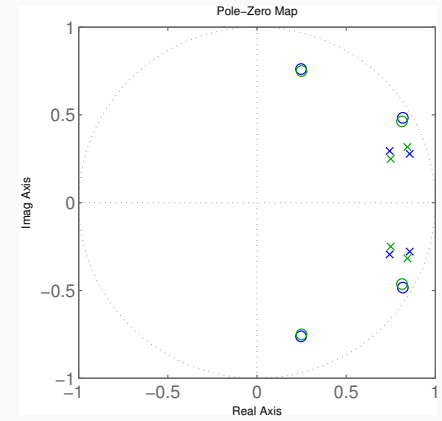


Example: Series Form

Series form with quantized coefficients ($N = 8, n = 4$):



Example: Series Form



Jackson's Rules for Series Realizations

How to pair and order the poles and zeros?

Jackson's rules (1970):

- Pair the pole closest to the unit circle with its closest zero. Repeat until all poles and zeros are taken.
- Order the filters in increasing or decreasing order based on the poles closeness to the unit circle.

This will push down high internal resonance peaks.

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Short Sampling Interval Modification

In the state update equation

$$x(k+1) = \Phi x(k) + \Gamma y(k)$$

the system matrix Φ will be close to I if h is small. Round-off errors in the coefficients of Φ can have drastic effects.

Better: use the modified equation

$$x(k+1) = x(k) + (\Phi - I)x(k) + \Gamma y(k)$$

- Both $\Phi - I$ and Γ are roughly proportional to h
 - Less round-off noise in the calculations
- Also known as the δ -form

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Short Sampling Interval and Integral Action

Fast sampling and slow integral action can give roundoff problems:

$$I(k+1) = I(k) + \underbrace{e(k) \cdot h/T_i}_{\approx 0}$$

Possible solutions:

- Use a dedicated high-resolution variable (e.g. 32 bits) for the I-part
- Update the I-part at a slower rate

(This is a general problem for filters with very different time constants)

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