



IEEE ICMA 2006 Tutorial Workshop: – Iterative Learning Control – Algebraic Analysis and Optimal Design

Presenters:

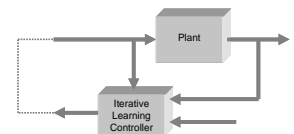
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IEEE 2006 International Conference on Mechatronics and Automation
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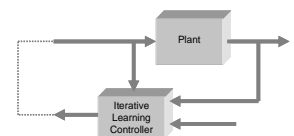
25 June 2006





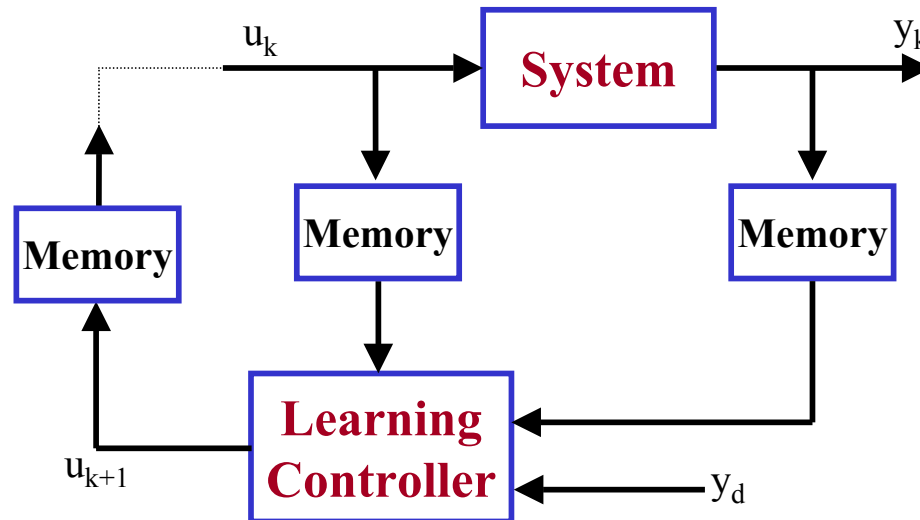
Outline

- Iterative Learning Control (ILC)
- Monotonic Convergence via Supervector Framework
- Current-Cycle Feedback Approach
- Non-Causal Filtering ILC Design
- Time-Varying ILC Design
- LMI Approach to ILC Design

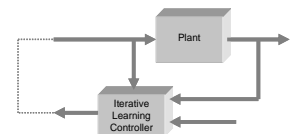


ILC - A Control Approach Based on Intuition

- Humans gain “skill” from doing the same thing over and over.
- ILC seeks to achieve the same effect in the case when a machine performs the same task repeatedly.



- Goal is to pick next input $u_{k+1}(t)$ to improve next output response $y_{k+1}(t)$ relative to desired response $y_d(t)$, using all past inputs and outputs.
- Assume $y_d(0) = y_k(0)$ for all k , $t \in [0, N]$, and system is linear, discrete-time, and has relative degree one.



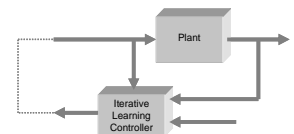
What Information can be Included in the ILC Update?

- Most generally, we can allow:

$$u_{k+1}(t) = f\{u_0(t'), u_1(t'), \dots, u_k(t'), \\ e_1(t'), e_2(t'), \dots, e_k(t'), \\ u_{k+1}(0), u_{k+1}(1), \dots, u_{k+1}(t-1) \\ e_{k+1}(1), e_{k+1}(2), \dots, e_{k+1}(t-1)\}$$

where $t' \in [0, N]$.

- That is, in general we can update $u_{k+1}(t)$ using:
 1. Information from all previous trials:
 - ⇒ Call this “**higher-order in iteration**” if more than one-trial back is used.
 2. Information from the entire time duration of any previous trial:
 - ⇒ Call this “**higher-order in time**” if filtering is done rather than using a single time instance.
 - ⇒ Note this allows non-causal signal processing – a key reason ILC works.
 3. Information up to time $t - 1$ on the current trial:
 - ⇒ Call this “**current cycle feedback.**”



Higher-Order vs. First-Order

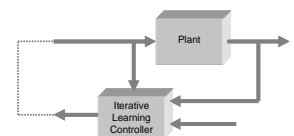
- Is there any reason to use higher-order ILC algorithms (in time or in iteration)?
- Maybe? Because of convergence? No, consider:

1. Classical Arimoto D-type ILC (for relative degree 1):

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma \frac{d}{dt} e_k(t)$$

2. PID-type ILC:

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + k_P e_k(t) + k_I \int_0^t e_k(\tau) d\tau + \gamma \frac{d}{dt} e_k(t)$$



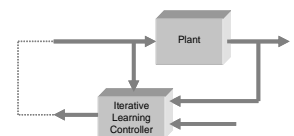
Higher-Order vs. First-Order (cont.)

- For both, the convergence condition is that

$$|1 - \gamma h_1| < 1$$

where h_1 is the first Markov (non-zero) parameter. This ensures $e_k(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty \forall t$.

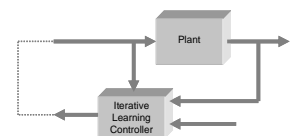
- Note: does not involve k_P , k_I , or with the system matrix A , either!
- That is, first-order in time and iteration is adequate to realize convergence.
- Something must be missing ...
- The answer is: “how the convergence is achieved.”





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- **Monotonic Convergence via Supervector Framework**
- Current-Cycle Feedback Approach
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- Time-Varying ILC Design
- LMI Approach to ILC Design



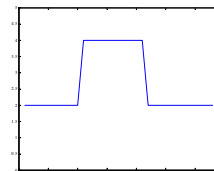
Two Examples

- Consider two systems, each stable, minimum phase, with the same ILC update law

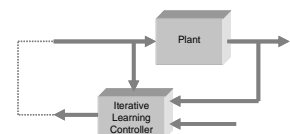
$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + 0.9e_k(t + 1)$$

- $y_k(t + 1) = -.2y_k(t) + .0125y_k(t - 1) + u_k(t) - 0.9u_k(t - 1)$
- $y_k(t + 1) = -.2y_k(t) + .0125y_k(t - 1) + u_k(t) + 0.1u_k(t - 1)$

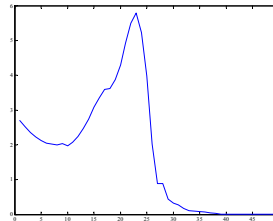
- Each is asked to track the following signal:



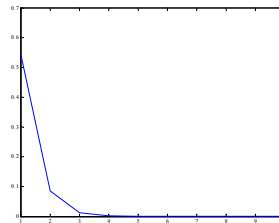
- The convergence condition guarantees that both converge, but ...



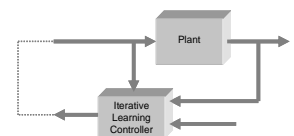
System 1 does not converge monotonically (in 2-norm):



System 2 does converge monotonically (in 2-norm):

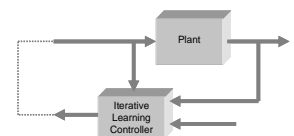


Question: Why do the two systems learn differently?



Comments

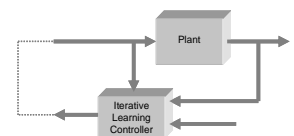
- In the literature it has been shown that ILC achieves monotonic convergence for the λ -norm (time-weighted-norm) of the tracking error.
- However, in general the ∞ -norm and 2-norm will often increase to a huge value before converging.
- Such ILC transients are typically not acceptable!
- It is not enough to ensure that $e_k(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Rather, we would like the convergence to be monotonic.
- And, the norm topology should be physically meaningful.





Comments (cont.)

- Our study of convergence shows that “higher-order-in-time” algorithms, that is, proper design of the ILC update filters or algorithms, can give monotonic convergence through:
 1. Higher-order-in-time (causal) current-cycle feedback.
 2. Non-causal filtering of the error from the previous trial.
 3. Time-varying ILC gains.
- We study these problems using “supervector” notation and in terms of the system Markov parameters.



Framework to Discuss Monotone Convergence

- Consider SISO discrete-time LTI system (relative degree 1):

$$Y(z) = H(z)U(z) = (h_1z^{-1} + h_2z^{-2} + \dots)U(z)$$

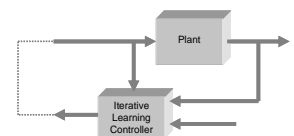
- Assume the standard ILC reset condition: $y_k(0) = y_d(0) = y_0$ for all k .
- Define the “supervectors:”

$$U_k = [u_k(0), u_k(1), \dots, u_k(N - 1)]^T$$

$$Y_k = [y_k(1), y_k(2), \dots, y_k(N)]^T$$

$$Y_d = [y_d(1), y_d(2), \dots, y_d(N)]^T$$

$$E_k = [e_k(1), e_k(2), \dots, e_k(N)]^T$$

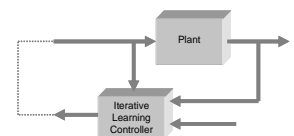


Framework to Discuss Monotone Convergence (cont.)

- Then the system can be written as $Y_k = H_p U_k$ where H_p is the matrix of Markov parameters of the plant, given by

$$H_p = \begin{bmatrix} h_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ h_2 & h_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ h_3 & h_2 & h_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_N & h_{N-1} & h_{N-2} & \dots & h_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- To simplify our presentation, introduce the operator T to map the vector $h = [h_1, h_2, \dots, h_N]'$ to a lower triangular Toeplitz matrix H_p , i.e., $H_p = T(h)$.



Framework to Discuss Monotone Convergence (cont.)

- Suppose we have a general higher-order ILC algorithm of the form:

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + L(z)e_k(t+1)$$

where $L(z)$ is a linear (possibly non-causal) filter.

- Then we can represent this ILC update law using supervector notation as:

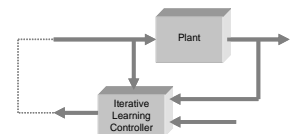
$$U_{k+1} = U_k + LE_k$$

where L is a Toeplitz matrix of the Markov parameters of $L(z)$.

- For instance, for the Arimoto-type discrete-time ILC algorithm given by

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t+1)$$

where γ is the constant learning gain, we have $L = \text{diag}(\gamma)$.



Monotonic Convergence Condition

- For the Arimoto-update ILC algorithm, the ILC scheme converges (monotonically) if the induced operator norm satisfies:

$$\|I - \gamma H_p\|_i < 1.$$

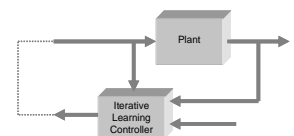
- Likewise, a NAS for convergence is:

$$|1 - \gamma h_1| < 1.$$

- Combining these, we can show that for a given gain γ , convergence implies monotonic convergence in the ∞ -norm if

$$|h_1| > \sum_{j=2}^N |h_j|.$$

- Note this condition is independent of γ , but instead puts restrictions on the plant.

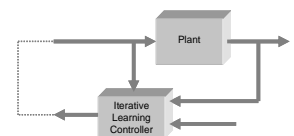




Higher-Order-in-Time Design for Monotone Convergence

Using the monotonic convergence condition, we have derived ILC algorithm designs using higher-order time-domain filtering to achieve monotonic convergence three ways:

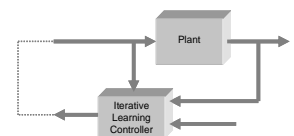
1. Higher-order-in-time (causal) current-cycle feedback .
2. Non-causal filtering of the error from the previous trial (optimal design of L for PD-type ILC).
3. Time-varying ILC gain.





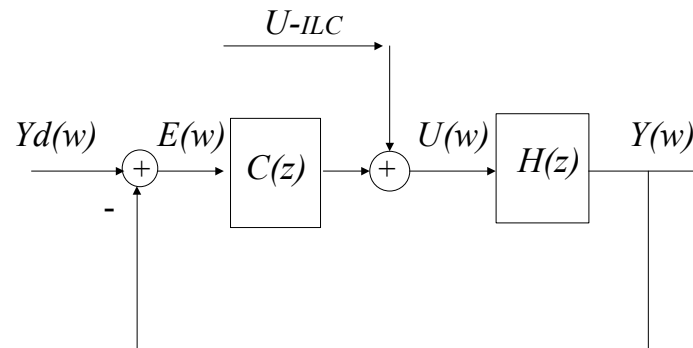
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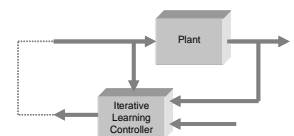
Method 1: Current-Cycle Feedback

- Case A:



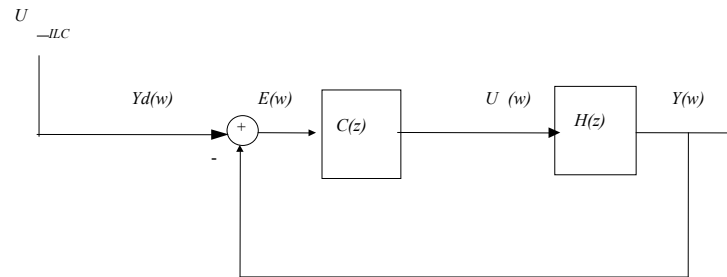
- Plant seen by the ILC algorithm:

$$H_{cl}^A = \frac{H(z)}{1 + C(z)H(z)}$$



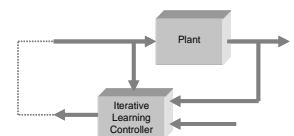
Method 1 (cont.)

- Case B:



- Plant seen by the ILC algorithm:

$$H_{cl}^B = \frac{C(z)H(z)}{1 + C(z)H(z)}$$



FIR Approach

- Let

$$H(z) = h_1 z^{-1} + h_2 z^{-2} + \dots ,$$

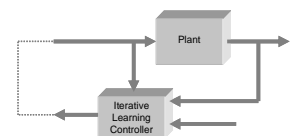
$$C(z) = c_0 + c_1 z^{-1} + c_2 z^{-2} + \dots ,$$

- For Case A the monotonic convergence condition can be shown to be:

$$|h_1| > \sum_{i=2}^N |h_i - h_1 \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} h_j c_{i-1-j}|.$$

- For Case B the monotonic convergence condition can be shown to be:

$$|c_0 h_1| > \sum_{i=2}^N \left| \sum_{j=1}^i h_j c_{i-j} - h_1 \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} h_j c_{i-1-j} \right|.$$



FIR Approach (cont.)

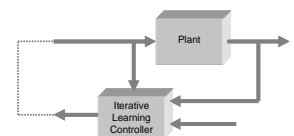
- For both Case A and Case B a controller always exists to give a closed-loop system that satisfies the monotone convergence condition.
- For example, for Case A we can pick:

$$\left| h_i - h_1 \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} h_j c_{i-1-j} \right| = 0,$$

- That is, we solve recursively the following:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= |h_2 - h_1 c_0|, \\ 0 &= |h_3 - h_1(h_1 c_1 + h_2 c_0)|, \\ 0 &= |h_4 - h_1(h_1 c_2 + h_2 c_1 + h_3 c_0)|, \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

- Then the system will have monotonic ILC convergence whenever ILC converges.



FIR Approach (cont.)

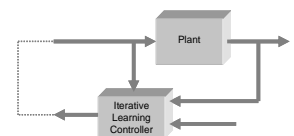
- Alternately (again for Case A), we can require:

$$|h_i - h_1 \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} h_j c_{i-1-j}| < \frac{|h_1|}{N-1},$$

- Or, equivalently, we solve the recursive equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|h_1|}{N-1} &> |h_2 - h_1 c_0| \\ \frac{|h_1|}{N-1} &> |h_3 - h_1(h_1 c_1 + h_2 c_0)| \\ \frac{|h_1|}{N-1} &> |h_4 - h_1(h_1 c_2 + h_2 c_1 + h_3 c_0)| \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

- This approach will be more robust than the previous case.



IIR Approach

- Now, suppose we let $C(z)$ be IIR:

$$H(z) = \frac{n_h(z)}{d_h(z)} = \frac{b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z^{-2} + \dots + b_n z^{-n}}{a_0 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2} + \dots + a_n z^{-n}},$$

$$C(z) = \frac{n_c(z)}{d_c(z)} = \frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z^{-1} + \beta_2 z^{-2} + \dots + \beta_n z^{-q}}{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 z^{-1} + \alpha_2 z^{-2} + \dots + \alpha_n z^{-q}}.$$

- Now we have:

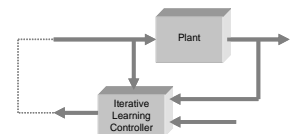
Case A:

$$H_{cl}^A = \frac{\Gamma^A(z)}{\Delta(z)} = \frac{n_h(z)}{n_h(z)n_c(z) + d_h(z)d_c(z)},$$

$$= \frac{\gamma_1^A z^{-1} + \dots + \gamma_{(q+n)}^A z^{-(q+n)}}{\delta_0 + \delta_1 z^{-1} + \dots + \delta_{(q+n)} z^{-(q+n)}},$$

$$= h_1^{cl-A} z^{-1} + h_2^{cl-A} z^{-2} + \dots .$$

Case B: Similar.



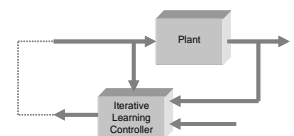
IIR Approach (cont.)

Define the following vectors:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{a} &= (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)^T, \\
 \mathbf{b} &= (0, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)^T, \\
 \boldsymbol{\alpha} &= (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_q)^T, \\
 \boldsymbol{\beta} &= (\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_q)^T, \\
 \boldsymbol{\gamma}^A &= (0, \gamma_1^A, \gamma_2^A, \dots, \gamma_{(q+n)}^A)^T, \\
 \boldsymbol{\gamma}^B &= (0, \gamma_1^B, \gamma_2^B, \dots, \gamma_{(q+n)}^B)^T, \\
 \boldsymbol{\delta} &= (\delta_0, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_{(q+n)})^T.
 \end{aligned}$$

Let the appropriately-dimensional matrices A and B be given as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{a} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{a} & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{a} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{b} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{b} & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}$$

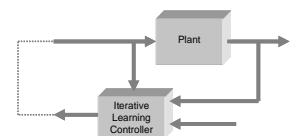


IIR Approach

Let

$$H^{cl-A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ h_1^{cl-A} & 0 & \cdots & \vdots \\ h_2^{cl-A} & h_1^{cl-A} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ h_{q+n+1}^{cl-B} & h_{q+n}^{cl-A} & \cdots & h_1^{cl-A} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_N^{cl-A} & h_{N-1}^{cl-A} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \cdot$$

A similar expression can be given for H^{cl-B} .



IIR Approach (cont.)

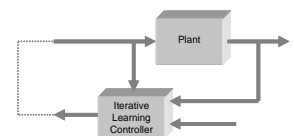
- Then we can derive

For Case A:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} = H^{cl-A}[B|A] \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}.$$

For Case B:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{B} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \end{pmatrix} = H^{cl-A}[B|A] \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}.$$

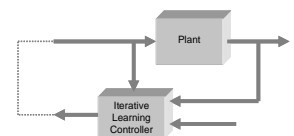


IIR Approach (cont.)

- Hence, given
 - the plant, defined by the Sylvester matrix $[B|A]$ and
 - a desired closed-loop matrix of Markov parameters, H^{cl-A} or H^{cl-B} ,

we can solve for the controller, defined by β and α .

- In general the solution of these equations is not known (they are over-determined).
- But, a solution can be possible for high enough controller order, as the null space of $[B|A]$ becomes non-trivial.
- In particular, by forcing the closed-loop system to be deadbeat a solution may be found.

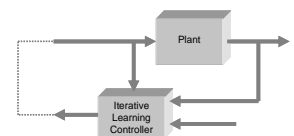


IIR Example

- Consider the second-order system:

$$Y_k(z) = \frac{z - 0.9}{z^2 + 0.2z - 0.125} U_k(z).$$

- Suppose we try a third-order controller for Case B, to give a deadbeat response.



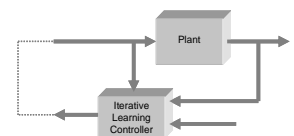
IIR Example (cont.)

Then

$$\delta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = [A|B] \begin{pmatrix} \beta(0) \\ \beta(1) \\ \beta(2) \\ \beta(3) \\ \alpha(0) \\ \alpha(1) \\ \alpha(2) \\ \alpha(3) \end{pmatrix}$$

where the Sylvester matrix $[A|B]$ is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.9 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -0.0125 & 0.2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.9 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -0.0125 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -0.9 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -0.0125 & 0.2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.0125 \end{bmatrix}$$

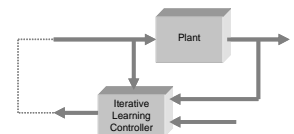


IIR Example (cont.)

All solutions to this equation can be parameterized as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta(0) \\ \beta(1) \\ \beta(2) \\ \beta(3) \\ \alpha(0) \\ \alpha(1) \\ \alpha(2) \\ \alpha(3) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0866 \\ -0.0169 \\ -0.0017 \\ 0.0001 \\ 1.0 \\ -0.1134 \\ -0.0260 \\ -0.0097 \end{pmatrix} + w_1 \begin{pmatrix} 0.4862 \\ -0.1418 \\ -0.0539 \\ 0.003 \\ 0 \\ -0.4862 \\ 0.6766 \\ -0.2151 \end{pmatrix} + w_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0.3703 \\ 0.6366 \\ 0.1079 \\ -0.007 \\ 0 \\ -0.3703 \\ -0.2292 \\ 0.5063 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The first vector on the left hand side of the equation produces the deadbeat response.
- The second two vectors form a basis for the null space of the Sylvester equation.
- Thus, w_1 and w_2 parameterize all possible deadbeat responses for the closed-loop system for Case B.



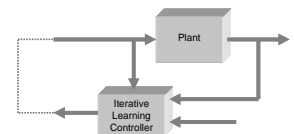
IIR Example (cont.)

Since the response is deadbeat, the numerator coefficients become:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^B &= (\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \gamma_3 \gamma_4 \gamma_5) \\ &= (h_1^{cl-B} h_2^{cl-B} h_3^{cl-B} h_4^{cl-B} h_5^{cl-B}) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.9 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.9 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -0.9 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta(0) \\ \beta(1) \\ \beta(2) \\ \beta(3) \\ \alpha(0) \\ \alpha(1) \\ \alpha(2) \\ \alpha(3) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{pmatrix} h_1^{cl-B} \\ h_2^{cl-B} \\ h_3^{cl-B} \\ h_4^{cl-B} \\ h_5^{cl-B} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.0866 \\ 0.0611 \\ 0.0135 \\ 0.0016 \\ -0.0001 \end{pmatrix} + w_1 \begin{pmatrix} 0.4862 \\ -0.5794 \\ 0.0737 \\ 0.0515 \\ -0.0027 \end{pmatrix} + w_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0.3707 \\ 0.3033 \\ -0.4650 \\ -0.1041 \\ 0.0063 \end{pmatrix}$$



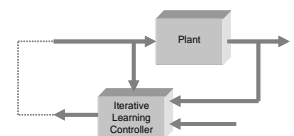
IIR Example (cont.)

- If we pick $w_1 = w_2 = 1$, for example, the resulting closed-loop system seen by the ILC algorithm is

$$H_{cl}^B = 0.7699z^{-1} - 0.2150z^{-2} - 0.3778z^{-3} - 0.0510z^{-4} + 0.0035z^{-5}.$$

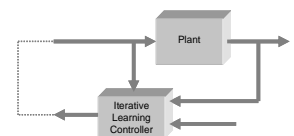
It is easily checked that this system satisfies the convergence conditions.

- Unfortunately, the method is not completely developed.
- Simply changing the zero from $z = -0.9$ to $z = -1.1$ results in an example in which it is not possible to meet the convergence conditions.
- More research is needed to understand this approach.



Comments

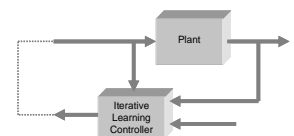
- With classical Arimoto-type ILC algorithms, the equivalence of ILC convergence with monotonic ILC convergence depends on the characteristics of the plant.
- If a plant does not have the characteristics that ensure such monotonic convergence it is possible to “condition” the plant prior to the application of ILC using current cycle-feedback.
- Two such current-cycle feedback strategies were presented:
 - FIR design (results in high-order controller; always guaranteed, but possible robustness problems)
 - IIR design (solution not always guaranteed)
- Future work will focus on the IIR design approach.





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- LMI Approach to ILC Design



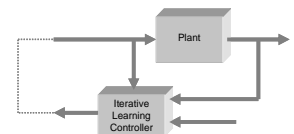
Examples: PD-Type ILC

Simulation scenarios:

- Second order IIR models are used. All initial conditions are set to 0.
- All plants have $h_1 = 1$, so we fix $\gamma=0.9$ such that $|1 - \gamma h_1| < 1$.
- We fix $N=60$ and max number of iterations = 60.
- The desired trajectory is a triangle given by

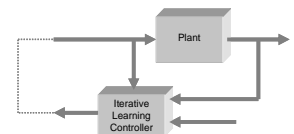
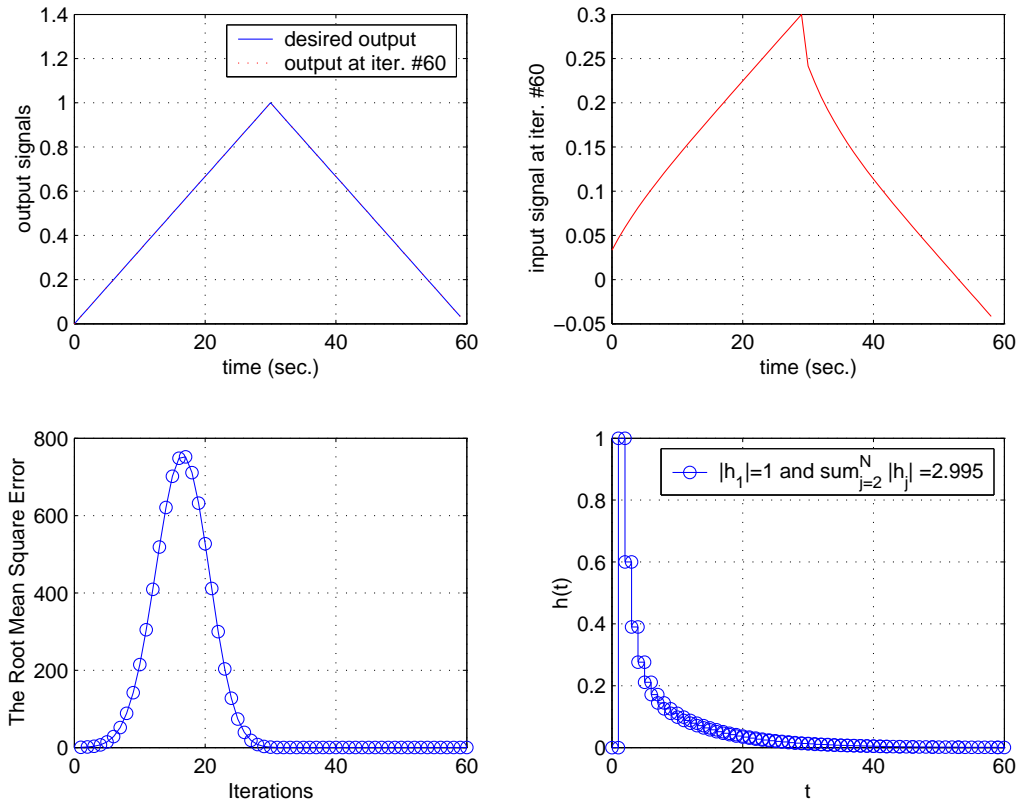
$$y_d(t) = \begin{cases} 2t/N & , i = 1, \dots, N/2 \\ 2(N - t)/N & , i = N/2 + 1, \dots, N. \end{cases}$$

- We compare $u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t + 1)$ with $u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma(e_k(t + 1) - \beta_1 e_k(t))$



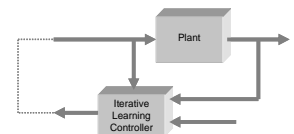
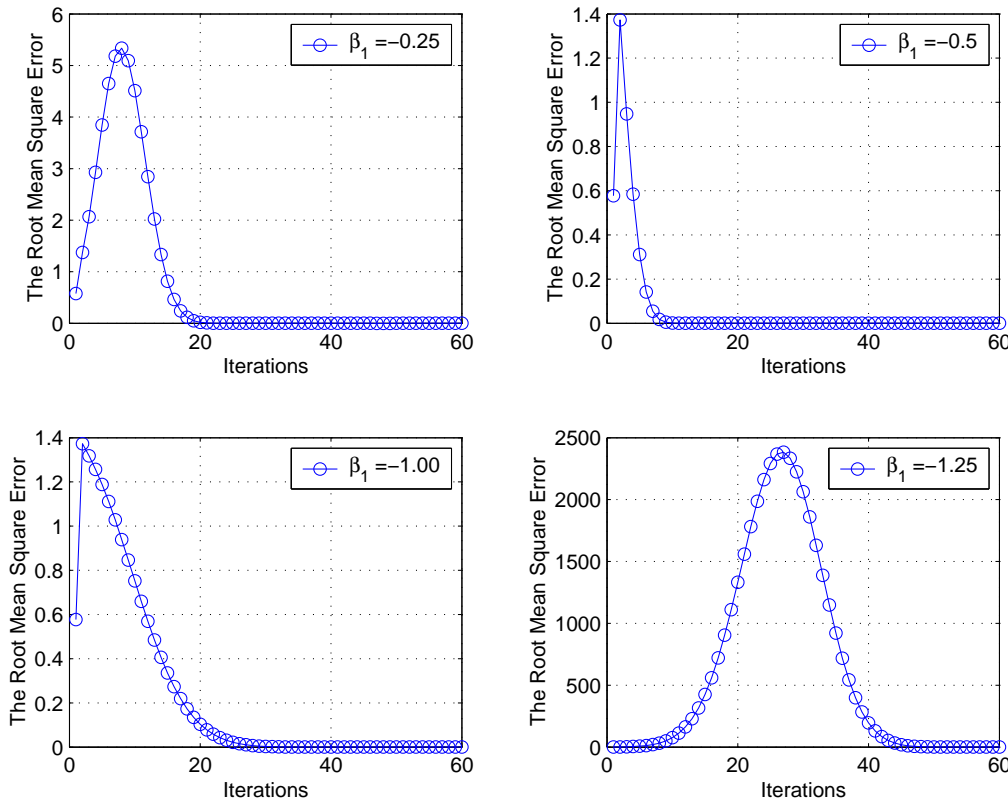
Plant 1a. Stable lightly damped. $H_1(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z-0.5)(z-0.9)}$.

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t + 1), \gamma = 0.9$$



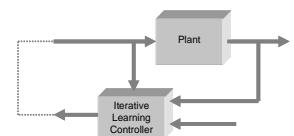
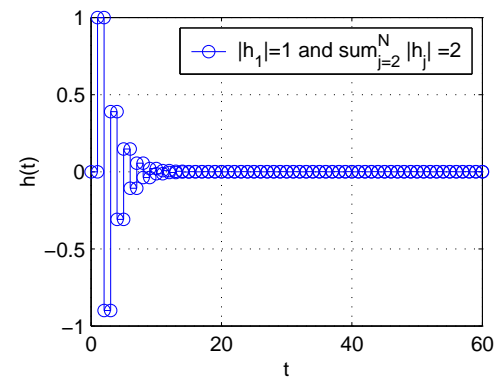
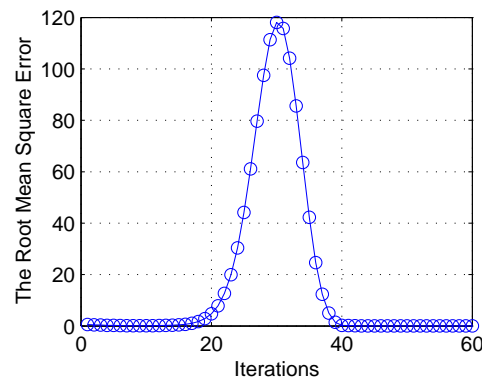
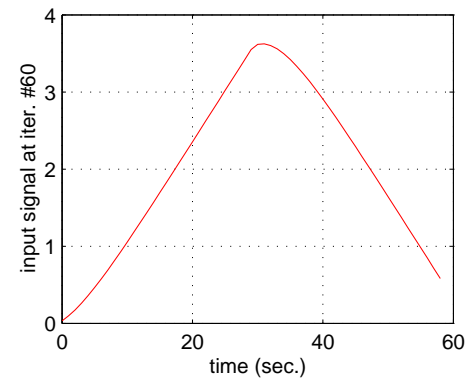
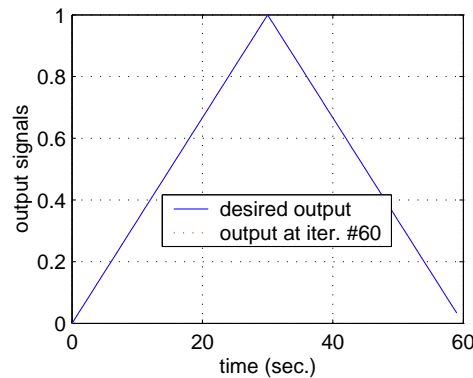
Plant 1b. Stable lightly damped. $H_1(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z-0.5)(z-0.9)}$.

$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma(e_k(t+1) - \beta_1 e_k(t))$ with $\gamma = 0.9$ fixed and β_1 shown on the plots.



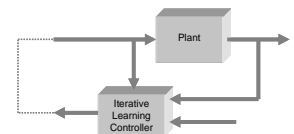
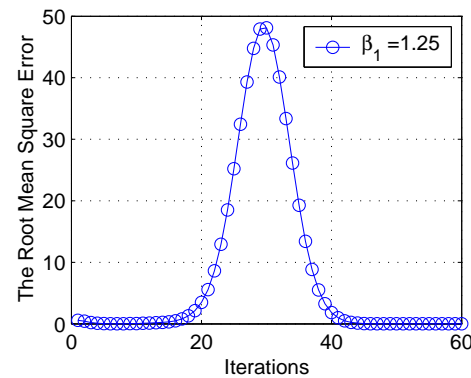
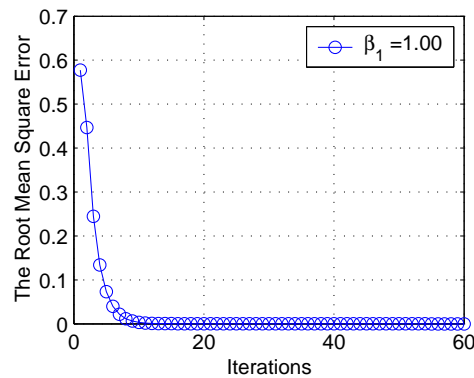
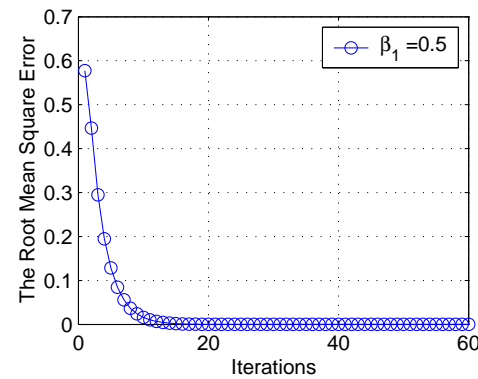
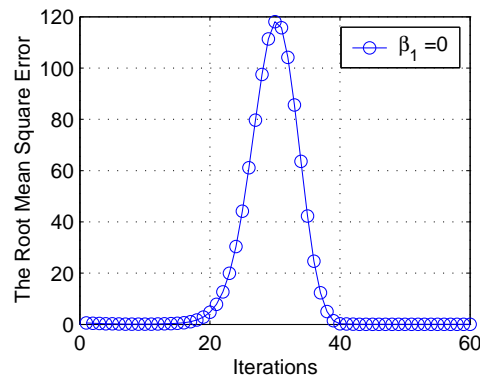
Plant 2a. Stable oscillatory. $H_2(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z-0.5)(z+0.6)}$.

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t+1), \quad \gamma = 0.9$$



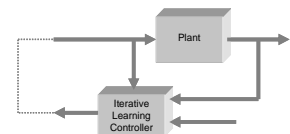
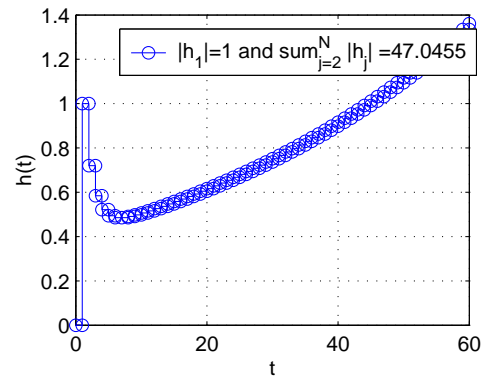
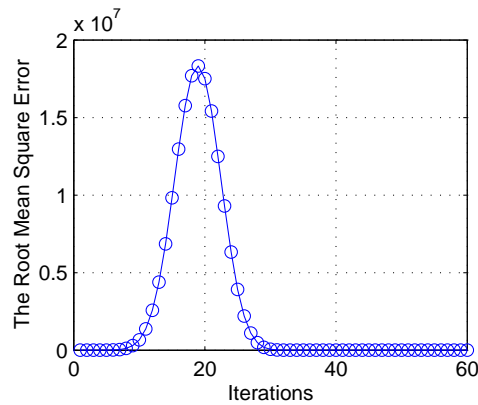
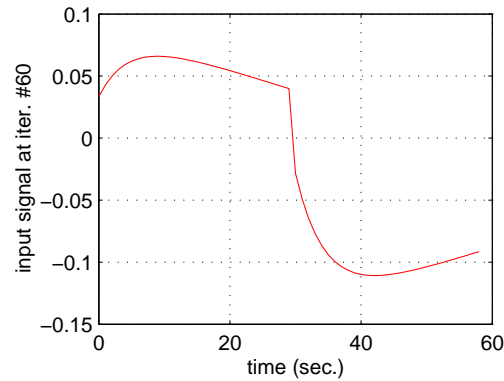
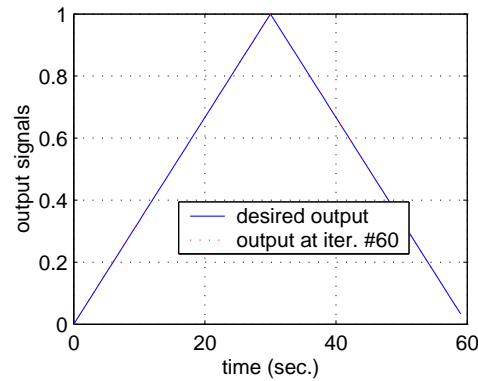
Plant 2b. Stable oscillatory. $H_2(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z-0.5)(z+0.6)}$.

$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma(e_k(t+1) - \beta_1 e_k(t))$ with $\gamma = 0.9$ fixed and β_1 shown on the plots.



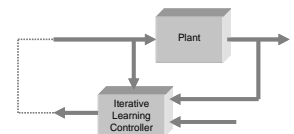
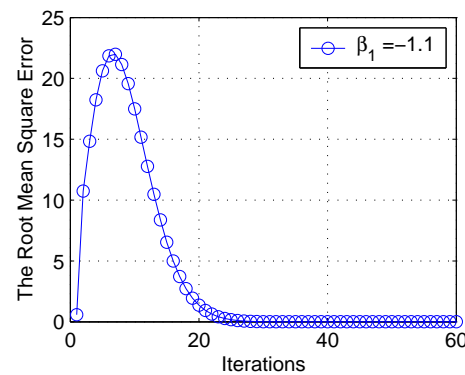
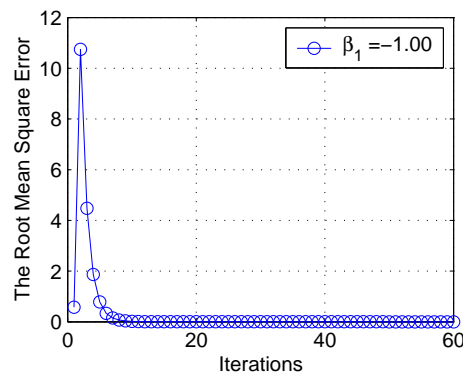
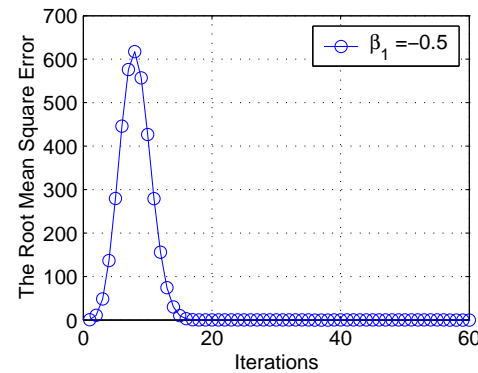
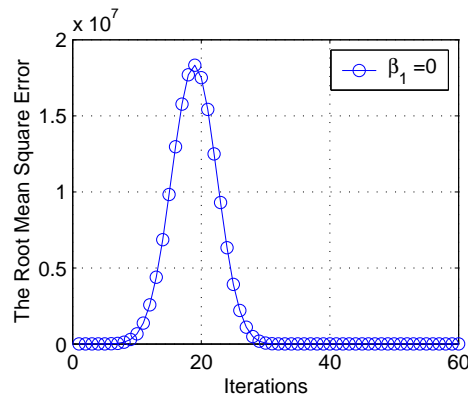
Plant 3a. Slightly unstable. $H_3(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z-0.5)(z-1.02)}$.

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t+1), \gamma = 0.9$$



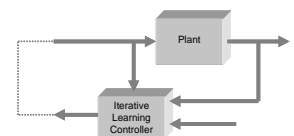
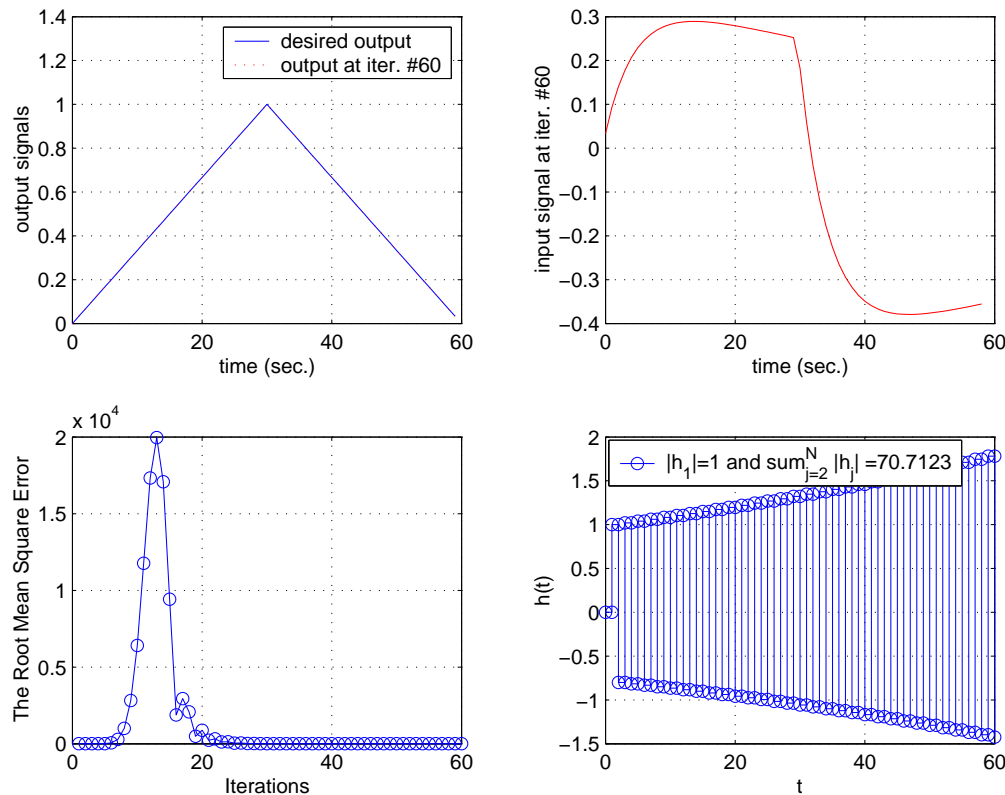
Plant 3b. Slightly unstable. $H_3(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z-0.5)(z-1.02)}$.

$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma(e_k(t+1) - \beta_1 e_k(t))$ with $\gamma = 0.9$ fixed and β_1 shown on the plots.



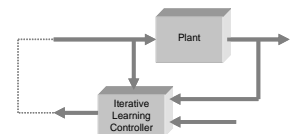
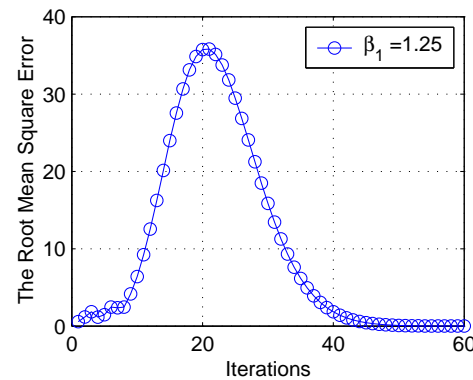
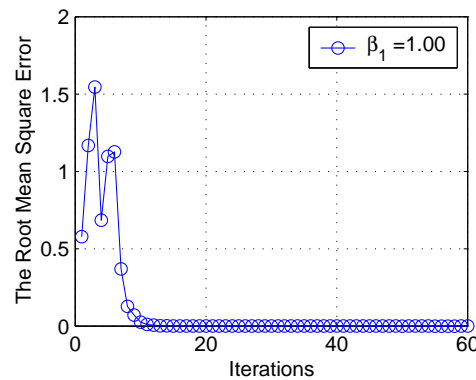
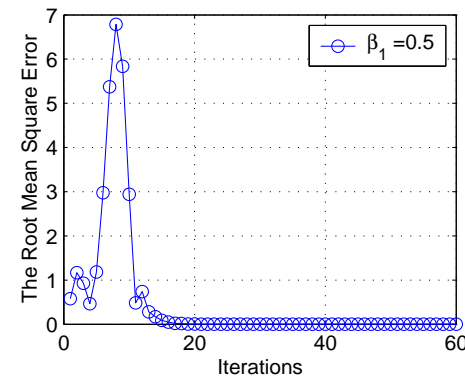
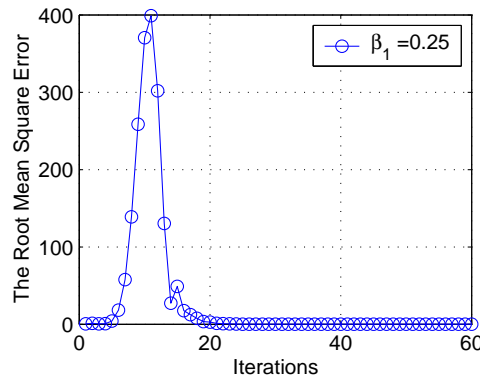
Plant 4a. Unstable oscillating. $H_4(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z+1.01)(z-1.01)}$.

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t+1), \quad \gamma = 0.9$$



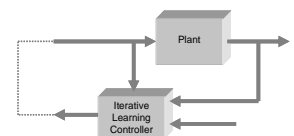
Plant 4b. Unstable oscillating. $H_4(z) = \frac{z-0.8}{(z+1.01)(z-1.01)}$.

$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma(e_k(t+1) - \beta_1 e_k(t))$ with $\gamma = 0.9$ fixed and β_1 shown on the plots.



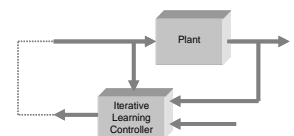
Examples: PD-Type ILC (cont.)

- For $u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma(e_k(t+1) - \beta_1 e_k(t))$ we conclude that:
 - Monotone convergence is possible for the right values of γ and β .
 - Can relate “overshoot” in convergence for some values of β to zeros in the iteration domain.
- In fact, further, can show:
 - Better convergence behavior is possible with $\beta < 0$.
 - How to pick the optimal β .
- In these simulations we used a simple structure. More generally, we can show how to pick a general lower triangular Toeplitz L (i.e, design of $L(z)$) to find the optimal ILC filter for monotonic convergence.



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Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 1

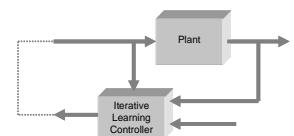
- By using a one step backward finite difference as the approximation of the derivative (D) signal, the PD-type ILC is given by

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + k_p e_k(t) + k_d(e_k(t+1) - e_k(t)) \quad (1)$$

where k_p and k_d are proportional and derivative learning gains respectively.

- Introduce the operator T to map the column vector $h = [h_1, h_2, \dots, h_N]'$ to a lower triangular Toeplitz matrix H_p , i.e., $H_p \triangleq T(h)$.
- For example, let $c_2 = [0, 1, 0, \dots, 0]'$. Then, we have

$$T_2 \triangleq T(c_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2)$$



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 2

- In the sequel, we shall use a more general notion T_i , similar to the definition of T_2 . Clearly, for $i = 1$, $T_i = I_N$.
- Using supervector representation, we can write

$$U_{k+1} = U_k(t) + k_p T_2 E_k + k_d (I_N - T_2) E_k \quad (3)$$

where $I_N = T_1$ is a square identity matrix of dimension N .

- Since $Y_k = H_p U_k$ and $E_k = Y_d - Y_k$, from (3) we have

$$E_{k+1} = H_e E_k = T(h_e) E_k \quad (4)$$

where

$$H_e = I_N - (k_p - k_d) H_p T_2 - k_d H_p \quad (5)$$

and

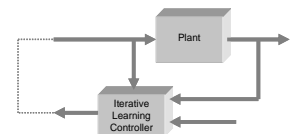
$$h_e = v_N - [\bar{h}_2, h - \bar{h}_2] [k_p, k_d]'. \quad (6)$$

- In the above equation, we used the following notations:

$$v_i \triangleq [1, 0, \dots, 0]' \in R^{i \times 1}$$

and

$$\bar{h}_2 \triangleq T_2 h = [0, h_1, h_2, \dots, h_{N-1}]'.$$



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 3

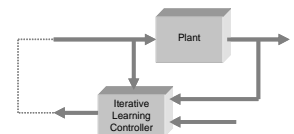
- The learning process is governed by (4) and the convergence condition is, analogous to

$$|h_1| > \sum_{j=2}^N |h_j|,$$

that

$$\|H_e\|_i < 1. \tag{7}$$

- Clearly, if all eigenvalues of H_e , denoted by $\lambda(H_e) = [\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N]'$, are absolutely less than one, the learning process will converge. However, $\max_i |\lambda_i| < 1$ does not imply (7). The consequence is that $\|E_k\|_i$ may not converge monotonically, which is widely recognized.
- In practice, we are more concerned with the monotonic convergence of the 1-norm, ∞ -norm and 2-norm of E_k . The convergence conditions are corresponding to replacing ‘ i ’ in (7) with ‘1’, ‘ ∞ ’ or ‘2’.



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 4

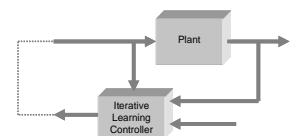
- Note that H_e is a lower triangular Toeplitz matrix and

$$\|H_e\|_1 = \|H_e\|_\infty. \quad (8)$$

- Furthermore, $\|H_e\|_1 = \|T(h_e)\|_1 < 1$ if and only if $\|h_e\|_1 < 1$.
- So, the condition $\|h_e\|_1 < 1$ is a sufficient condition for monotonic convergence of the 1-norm, ∞ -norm and 2-norm of E_k . The ILC design task becomes to optimizing $\|h_e\|_1 < 1$ with respect to k_p and k_d .
- Thus we can define the following optimization problem for ILC design

$$J_{PD}^* = \min_{k_p, k_d} J_{PD} \triangleq \min_{k_p, k_d} \|h_e\|_2^2.$$

Note that since $\|h_e\|_1 < \sqrt{N}\|h_e\|_2$, when J_{PD}^* is small, it is possible to ensure that $\|h_e\|_1 < 1$.



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 5

- Let $H = [\bar{h}_2, h - \bar{h}_2] \in R^{N \times 2}$ and $g = [k_p, k_d]'$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} J_{PD} &= [v_N - Hg]'[v_N - Hg] \\ &= 1 - 2v_N'Hg + g'H'Hg. \end{aligned}$$

- Thus the optimal g is simply

$$g^* = [k_p^*, k_d^*]' = (H'H)^{-1}H'v_N \quad (9)$$

and

$$J_{PD}^* = 1 - v_N'Hg^* = 1 - h_1k_d^*. \quad (10)$$

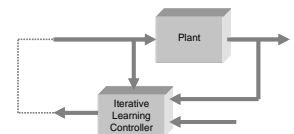
- Hence we get the following explicit design formulae:

$$k_p^* = -\frac{h_1\bar{h}_2'(h - \bar{h}_2)}{\bar{h}_2\bar{h}_2(h - \bar{h}_2)'(h - \bar{h}_2) - [\bar{h}_2'(h - \bar{h}_2)]^2}, \quad (11)$$

$$k_d^* = \frac{h_1\bar{h}_2'\bar{h}_2}{\bar{h}_2\bar{h}_2(h - \bar{h}_2)'(h - \bar{h}_2) - [\bar{h}_2'(h - \bar{h}_2)]^2} \quad (12)$$

and

$$J_{PD}^* = 1 - \frac{h_1^2\bar{h}_2'\bar{h}_2}{\bar{h}_2\bar{h}_2(h - \bar{h}_2)'(h - \bar{h}_2) - [\bar{h}_2'(h - \bar{h}_2)]^2}. \quad (13)$$



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 6

Simple Case-A

- Set $k_d = 0$ in PD-type ILC

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + k_p e_k(t) + k_d(e_k(t+1) - e_k(t)) \quad (14)$$

- Then we get the *pure* P-type ILC: $u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + k_p e_k(t)$.
- Using our optimal PD design formula, $J_{PD}^* = 1$.
- So, we cannot expect monotonic convergence of ILC since $J_{PD}^* = 1$. This in turn verifies that a correct time advance step, which corresponds to the system relative degree, is essential.

Simple Case-B:

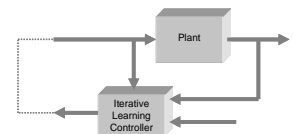
- Arimoto D-type ($k_p = k_d = \gamma$), for

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \gamma e_k(t+1). \quad (15)$$

- Then using our optimal PD design formula, with $h_e = v_N - \gamma h$, gives

$$\gamma^* = h_1/(h'h), \quad J_P^* = J_P(\gamma^*) = 1 - h_1^2/(h'h). \quad (16)$$

- It is expected that for a given nominally measured h , $J_{PD}^* < J_P^*$.
- This means that the optimally designed PD-type ILC can be better than the optimally designed Arimoto D-type ILC in terms of monotonic convergence speed.

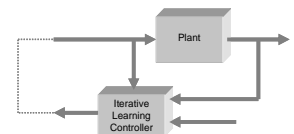


Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design - 7

Let's examine two simple extreme cases.

- **Extreme Case 1.** Let $h = [1, -1, 1, -1, \dots, 1, -1]'$, i.e., the system is $z/(1+z)$ which is an extreme case for highly oscillatory systems.
 - When P-type ILC is considered, the optimal values from (16) are $\gamma^* = 1/N$ and $J_P^* = (N-1)/N$.
 - With a PD-type ILC (14), the optimal values via (11), (12) and (13) are $k_p^* = 2$, $k_d^* = 1$ and $J_{PD}^* = 0$.
 - Clearly, $J_{PD}^* < J_P^*$.

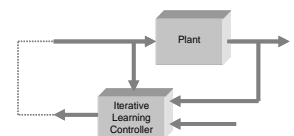
- **Extreme Case 2.** Let $h = [1, 1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, 1]'$, i.e., the system is $z/(-1+z)$ which is an extreme case for very lightly damped systems.
 - For the P-type ILC, the optimal values are the same as in **Case 1**.
 - With a PD-type ILC (14), the optimal values are $k_p^* = 0$, $k_d^* = 1$ and $J_{PD}^* = 0$.
 - Again, $J_{PD}^* < J_P^*$.





Outline

- Iterative Learning Control (ILC)
- Monotonic Convergence via Supervector Framework
- Current-Cycle Feedback Approach
- **Non-Causal Filtering ILC Design**
 - Examples
 - Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design
 - **Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: Averaged Derivative**
 - Remarks
- Time-Varying ILC Design
- LMI Approach to ILC Design



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: Averaged Derivative - 1

- For better noise suppression, it is a common practice to use a central difference formula.
- In this case, (14) becomes

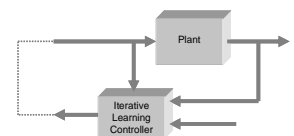
$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + k_p e_k(t) + k_d (e_k(t+1) - e_k(t-1))/2. \quad (17)$$

- The derivative estimate $(e_k(t+1) - e_k(t-1))/2$ can be regarded as an averaged value from two derivative estimates:
 - $e_k(t+1) - e_k(t)$
 - $e_k(t) - e_k(t-1)$
- For a more general averaged formula, we consider the following PD-type ILC scheme

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + k_p e_k(t) + \frac{k_d}{m} (e_k(t+1) - e_k(t-m+1)) \quad (18)$$

where $m > 0$ is the number of averaging points.

- Clearly, (14) is a special case of (18) when $m = 1$. The value of m depends on the noise suppression requirement. In practice, m can be chosen between 1 to 4.



Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: Averaged Derivative - 2

- Starting from (4), using (18), we now have

$$H_e = I_N - k_p H_p T_2 - k_d H_p / m + k_d H_p T_m / m \quad (19)$$

and

$$h_e = v_N - [\bar{h}_2, (h - \hat{h}_m)/m][k_p, k_d]' \quad (20)$$

where $\hat{h}_m = [0_{1 \times m}, h_1, h_2, \dots, h_{N-m}]'$. Similarly, we can get

$$g^* = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{h}_2' \bar{h}_2 & \bar{h}_2' (h - \hat{h}_m)/m \\ \frac{\bar{h}_2' (h - \hat{h}_m)}{m} & \frac{(h - \hat{h}_m)' (h - \hat{h}_m)}{m^2} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{h_1}{m} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (21)$$

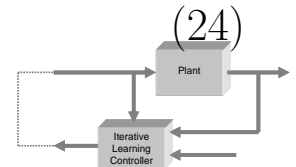
- The explicit design formulae using the averaged derivative:

$$k_p^* = - \frac{h_1 \bar{h}_2' (h - \hat{h}_m)}{\bar{h}_2' \bar{h}_2 (h - \hat{h}_m)' (h - \hat{h}_m) - [\bar{h}_2' (h - \hat{h}_m)]^2}, \quad (22)$$

$$k_d^* = \frac{m h_1 \bar{h}_2' \bar{h}_2}{\bar{h}_2' \bar{h}_2 (h - \hat{h}_m)' (h - \hat{h}_m) - [\bar{h}_2' (h - \hat{h}_m)]^2} \quad (23)$$

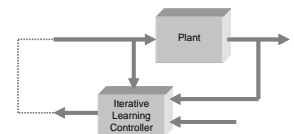
and from $J_{PD}^* = 1 - [0, h_1/m]g^*$,

$$J_{PD}^* = 1 - \frac{h_1^2 \bar{h}_2' \bar{h}_2}{\bar{h}_2' \bar{h}_2 (h - \hat{h}_m)' (h - \hat{h}_m) - [\bar{h}_2' (h - \hat{h}_m)]^2}. \quad (24)$$



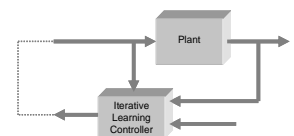
Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: Averaged Derivative - 3

- There is a trade-off between noise suppression and the rate of monotonic convergence of the ILC process. Consider $m = 2$:
 - **Extreme Case 1** : The optimal values via (22), (23) and (24) are $k_p^* = 1/(2N - 3)$, $k_d^* = (2N - 2)/(2N - 3)$ and $J_{PD}^* = (N - 2)/(2N - 3)$.
 - **Extreme Case 2.** $k_p^* = -1/(2N - 3)$; k_d^* and J_{PD}^* are the same as **Extreme Case 1**. Recall that J_{PD}^* when $m = 1$ is 0.
- Clearly, the smoothing or averaging scheme for noise suppression is at the expense of slowing down the best achievable ILC monotonic convergence rate.
- This trade-off should be taken into account during ILC applications.



Remarks

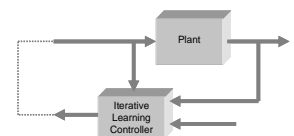
- We have presented an optimal design procedure for the commonly used PD-type ILC updating law.
- Monotonic convergence in a suitable norm topology other than the exponentially weighted sup-norm is emphasized.
- For practical reasons, an averaged difference formula for the numerical derivative estimate is preferred over the conventional one-step backward difference method, as it helps in smoothing out the high frequency noise.
- Via analysis, we showed a trade-off between noise suppression and the rate of monotonic convergence of ILC process.





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Time-Varying ILC Gain

- Suppose we let

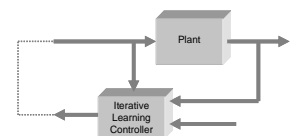
$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \lambda(t)e_k(t+1)$$

with

$$\lambda(t) = \gamma e^{-\alpha(t-1)}$$

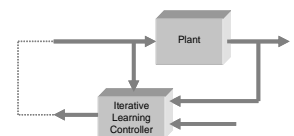
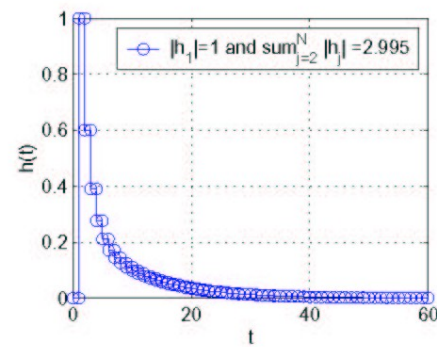
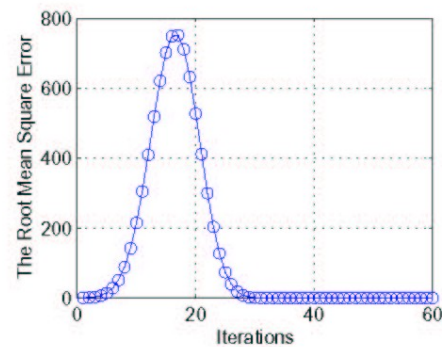
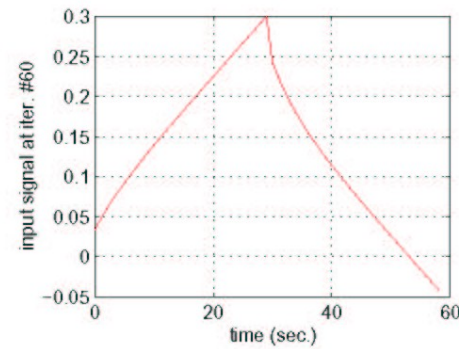
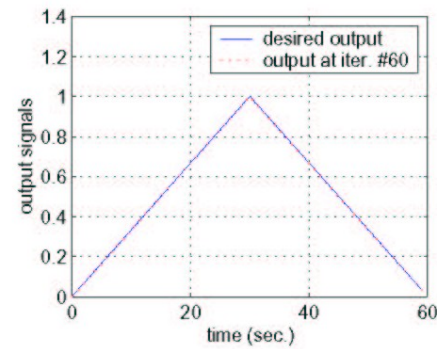
- We can show that there always exists α and γ so that $\|E_k\|_\infty$ and $\|E_k\|_2$ converge monotonically.
- The result also works with any general non-increasing function $\lambda(t)$.
- Example: Consider the stable, lightly-damped plant

$$H_1(z) = \frac{z - 0.8}{(z - 0.5)(z - 0.9)}$$



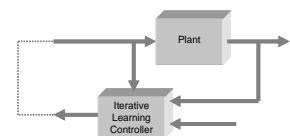
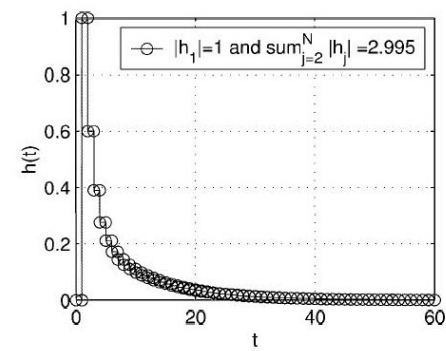
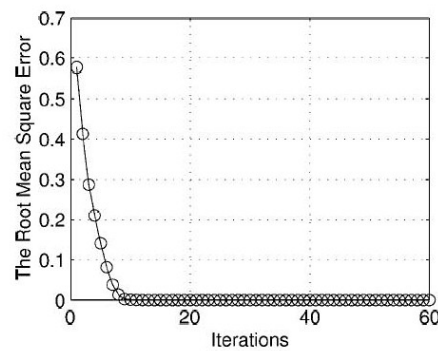
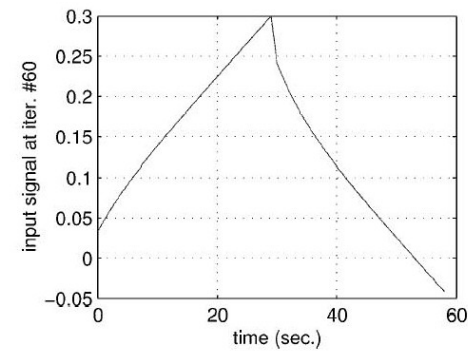
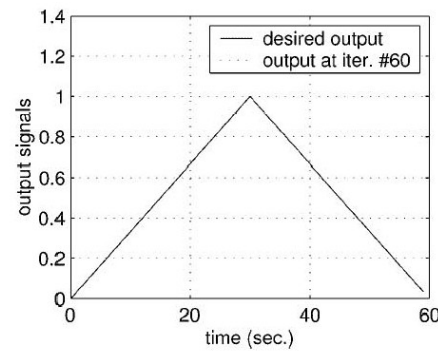
Normal ILC

$$\gamma = 0.9, \alpha = 0$$



ILC with a Time-Varying Gain

$$\gamma = 0.9, \alpha = 1.5/N$$



Asymptotic Stability with a Time-Varying Learning Gain

- Using a time-varying learning gain $\lambda(t)$, the learning updating law becomes

$$u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + \lambda(t)e_k(t+1).$$

- Let the varying learning gain $\lambda(t)$ be defined as follows:

$$\lambda(t) = \gamma e^{-\alpha(t-1)}$$

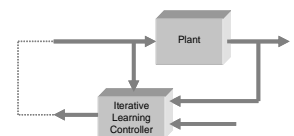
where α is a suitably chosen positive real number.

- Define the $N \times N$ matrix Γ by

$$\Gamma = \gamma \text{diag}\{1, e^{-\alpha}, e^{-2\alpha}, \dots, e^{-(N-1)\alpha}\}.$$

- Theorem 1** For the system $Y_k = HU_k$ and the learning control algorithm $U_{k+1} = U_k + \Gamma E_k$, the learning process converges iff

$$\rho_1 \triangleq |1 - \gamma h_1| < 1.$$



Recall: Monotonic Convergence Condition

- For the Arimoto-update ILC algorithm, the ILC scheme converges (monotonically) if the induced operator norm satisfies:

$$\|I - \gamma H_p\|_i < 1.$$

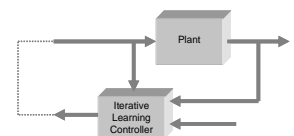
- Likewise, a NAS for convergence is:

$$|1 - \gamma h_1| < 1.$$

- Combining these, we can show that for a given gain γ , convergence implies monotonic convergence in the ∞ -norm if

$$|h_1| > \sum_{j=2}^N |h_j|.$$

- Note this condition is independent of γ , but instead puts restrictions on the plant.



Monotonic Convergence with a Time-Varying Learning Gain

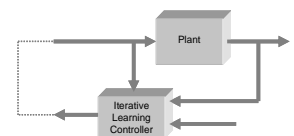
- As in the case of an Arimoto-type learning gain, the previous theorem cannot guarantee the monotonic convergence of the system with the time-varying learning gain.
- Here we will show there exists a choice of α such that the monotonic convergence is achievable.
- First, let $\bar{y}_k(t) = e^{-\alpha(t-1)}y_k(t)$, $\bar{y}_d(t) = e^{-\alpha(t-1)}y_d(t)$ and $\bar{e}_k(t) = e^{-\alpha(t-1)}e_k(t)$. The corresponding “supervectors” are denoted by $\bar{Y}_k = [\bar{y}_k(1), \bar{y}_k(2), \dots, \bar{y}_k(N)]^T$, $\bar{Y}_d = [\bar{y}_d(1), \bar{y}_d(2), \dots, \bar{y}_d(N)]^T$, $\bar{E}_k = [\bar{e}_k(1), \bar{e}_k(2), \dots, \bar{e}_k(N)]^T$.
- Then the transformed system can be written as

$$\bar{Y}_k = \bar{H}U_k,$$

where \bar{H} is its matrix of Markov parameters given by

$$\bar{H} = \begin{bmatrix} h_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ e^{-\alpha}h_2 & e^{-\alpha}h_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ e^{-2\alpha}h_3 & e^{-2\alpha}h_2 & e^{-2\alpha}h_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ e^{-(N-1)\alpha}h_N & e^{-(N-1)\alpha}h_{N-1} & e^{-(N-1)\alpha}h_{N-2} & \dots & e^{-(N-1)\alpha}h_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and ILC update rule becomes $U_{k+1} = U_k + \Gamma E_k = U_k + \gamma \bar{E}_k$.



Monotonic Convergence (cont.)

- Simple manipulations yield

$$\bar{E}_{k+1} = (1 - \gamma \bar{H}) \bar{E}_k.$$

We can then derive the following theorem:

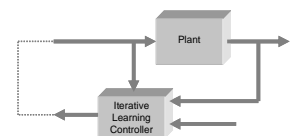
- **Theorem 2** For the system $\bar{Y}_k = \bar{H}U_k$ and the learning control algorithm $U_{k+1} = U_k + \gamma \bar{E}_k$, there exist a γ and an $\alpha > 0$ such that

$$\sum_{j=2}^N e^{-(j-1)\alpha} |h_j| < |h_1|,$$

and

$$\gamma h_1 \in (0, 1).$$

Thus, the monotonic convergence of $\|\bar{E}_k\|_\infty$ is guaranteed.

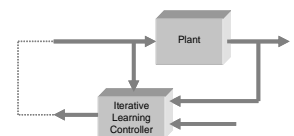


Monotonic Convergence (Cont.)

- Remark** Note that $\bar{e}_k(t) = e^{-\alpha(t-1)}e_k(t)$. From the fact that $\max_{t \in [1, N]} |\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)| < \max_{t \in [1, N]} |\bar{e}_k(t)|$ for all k , one cannot conclude that $\max_{t \in [1, N]} e^{\alpha(t-1)}|\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)| < \max_{t \in [1, N]} e^{\alpha(t-1)}|\bar{e}_k(t)|$. Therefore, the previous theorem does not guarantee the monotone convergence of $\|E_k\|_\infty$. Moreover, monotone convergence of $\|\bar{E}_k\|_\infty$ does not, in general, imply monotone convergence of $\|\bar{E}_k\|_1$ and $\|\bar{E}_k\|_2$.
- However, we can show that there exists an α such that monotone convergence of $\|\bar{E}_k\|_1$ and $\|\bar{E}_k\|_2$ can be ensured.
- First, however, we need the following intermediate result.

Theorem 3 *There exists an α such that for all k and t*

$$|\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)| \leq |\bar{e}_k(t)|.$$



Monotonic Convergence (cont.)

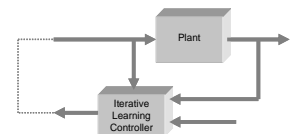
- With Theorem 3, we can immediately conclude that there exists an α such that the convergence of $\|\bar{E}_k\|_1$ and $\|\bar{E}_k\|_2$ can be ensured to be monotonic, i.e.,

$$\sum_{t=1}^N |\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)| - \sum_{t=1}^N |\bar{e}_k(t)| \leq 0,$$

$$\sum_{t=1}^N |\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)|^2 \leq \sum_{t=1}^N |\bar{e}_k(t)|^2 \text{ and } \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^N |\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)|^2} - \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^N |\bar{e}_k(t)|^2} \leq 0.$$

- Finally, from the monotonicity of $\|\bar{E}_k\|_1$ and $\|\bar{E}_k\|_2$ we can conclude the monotonicity of $\|E_k\|_1$ and $\|E_k\|_2$:

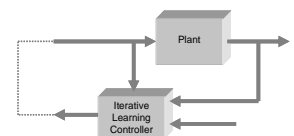
$$\begin{aligned} \|E_{k+1}\|_1 - \|E_k\|_1 &= \sum_{t=1}^N e^{\alpha(t-1)} |\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)| - \sum_{t=1}^N e^{\alpha(t-1)} |\bar{e}_k(t)| \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^N e^{\alpha(t-1)} (|\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)| - |\bar{e}_k(t)|) \leq 0, \\ \|E_{k+1}\|_2^2 - \|E_k\|_2^2 &= \sum_{t=1}^N e^{2\alpha(t-1)} (|\bar{e}_{k+1}(t)|^2 - |\bar{e}_k(t)|^2) \leq 0. \end{aligned}$$





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LMI Approach to ILC Design

- Consider again the SISO discrete-time system $Y_k(z) = H(z)U_k(z)$ with transfer function

$$H(z) = h_1z^{-1} + h_2z^{-2} + \dots$$

- For trial length N and desired output $y_d(t)$, lift the time-domain signals to form the super-vectors:

$$U_k = (u_k(0), u_k(1), \dots, u_k(N-1))$$

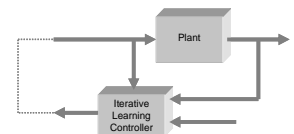
$$Y_k = (y_k(1), y_k(2), \dots, y_k(N))$$

$$Y_d = (y_d(1), y_d(2), \dots, y_d(N))$$

- Then write $Y_k = HU_k$, where H is given by:

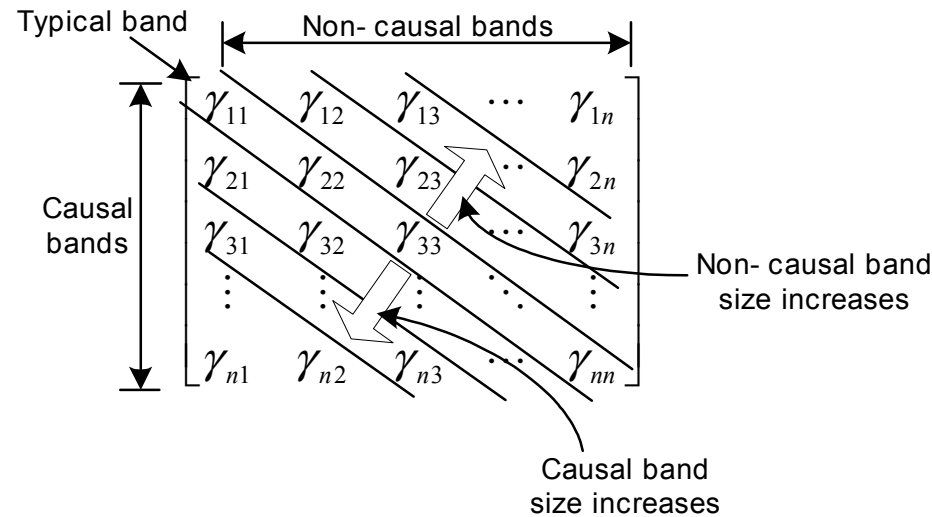
$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ h_2 & h_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_N & h_{N-1} & \dots & h_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Also, let the ILC update law be given as $u_{k+1}(t) = u_k(t) + L(z)(y_d(t+1) - y_k(t+1))$, which can also be written as $U_{k+1} = U_k + \Gamma E_k$, where Γ could be upper- or lower-triangular (Toeplitz or not), band-diagonal, or fully-populated, depending on the algorithm.



LMI Approach to ILC Design (cont.)

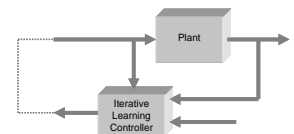
- Define “bands” in Γ as follows:



- In this section we use LMI techniques to design Γ for different band sizes and structure in Γ .
- Recall, the LMI techniques solves the problem of minimizing or maximizing a convex objective function $J(x)$ subject to the constraint

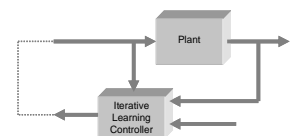
$$F(x) \equiv F_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i F_i \geq 0,$$

where $x \in \mathfrak{R}^m$ is the decision variable, $F_i = F_i^T, i = 1, \dots, m$, are given symmetric matrices, and the constraint ≥ 0 means positive semidefinite (i.e., nonnegative eigenvalues).



Definitions

- Γ is a *linear time-invariant* (LTI) ILC gain matrix if all the learning gain components in each diagonal are fixed as the same value.
- Γ is a *linear time-varying* (LTV) ILC gain matrix if the learning gain components in each diagonal are different from each other.
- The system is *asymptotically stable* if every finite initial state excites a bounded response, and the error ultimately approaches 0 as $k \rightarrow \infty$.
- The system is *monotonically convergent* if $\|e_{k+1}\| < \|e_k\|$, and ultimately approaches 0 as $k \rightarrow \infty$.



Basic Results

- When Arimoto or causal-only gains are used, the asymptotic stability condition is defined as:

$$|1 - \gamma_{ii}h_1| < 1, i = 1, \dots, n$$

- When non-causal gains are used in the ILC learning gain matrix the asymptotic stability condition becomes:

$$\rho(I - H\Gamma) < 1$$

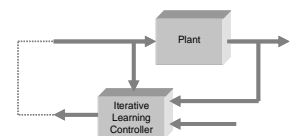
where ρ represents the spectral radius of $(I - H\Gamma)$.

- The condition for monotonic convergence is the same for all types of gain and requires:

$$\|I - H\Gamma\|_i < 1$$

where $\|\cdot\|_i$ represents the induced operator norm in the topology of interest.

- In this section we will consider the standard l_1 and l_∞ norm topologies.

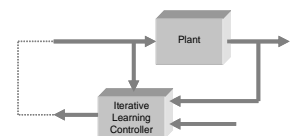


Basic Results (cont.)

Consider four different cases:

1. Arimoto gains with causal LTI gains.
2. Arimoto gains with causal LTV gains.
3. Arimoto gains with both causal and non-causal LTI gains.
4. Arimoto gains with causal and non-causal LTV gains.

- *Lemma 1:* In Case 1, the minimum of $\| I - H\Gamma \|_1$ and $\| I - H\Gamma \|_\infty$ occurs if and only if Γ is exactly equal to the inverse of H .
- *Lemma 2:* In Case 2, Case 3, and Case 4, the minimum of $\| I - H\Gamma \|_1$ and the minimum of $\| I - H\Gamma \|_\infty$ are zero if and only if Γ is exactly equal to the inverse of H .
- Thus, we conclude that the best structure of Γ is the inverse of H . This is a necessary and sufficient condition.
- However, it is unrealistic to assume that we know H exactly and it is not advisable to use the inverse of H as it can be ill-conditioned.
- Therefore, we seek to optimize Γ when it has a fixed structure.



More Definitions and Basic Results

- An LTI learning gain matrix with fixed band size is denoted as Γ_{LTI} , and an LTV learning gain matrix with the same band size as Γ_{LTI} is denoted as Γ_{LTV} .
- When Γ is fixed as Γ_{LTI} , the minimum of $\| I - H\Gamma_{LTI} \|$ is denoted by J_I^* ; and when Γ is fixed as Γ_{LTV} , the minimum of $\| I - H\Gamma_{LTV} \|$ is denoted by J_V^* .
- *Theorem:* If the same band size ILC gain matrices are used in Γ_{LTI} and Γ_{LTV} , the following inequality is satisfied:

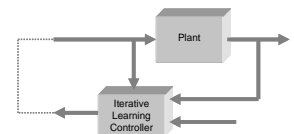
$$J_V^* \leq J_I^*$$

- *Corollary:* If the same band size is used in causal ILC and non-causal/causal ILC, then

$$J_N^* \leq J_C^*,$$

where J_N^* is the minimum value using causal, Arimoto, and non-causal learning gains; and J_C^* is the minimum value using only causal and Arimoto gains.

- In summary, we conclude that
 - The best gain matrix is just the inverse of H with respect to convergence in the l_1 and l_∞ norms.
 - When the band size is fixed, LTV is better than LTI
 - Including non-causal terms is more optimal than using Arimoto- or causal-only terms.



LMI Design Technique

- We wish to satisfy the monotonic convergence condition $\min[\bar{\sigma}(I - H\Gamma)] < 1$ (i.e., we wish to minimize the maximum (indicated by the overbar notation) singular value of the map $(I - H\Gamma)$).

- Now, because

$$\sigma[I - H\Gamma] \equiv \lambda([I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T)$$

(where σ denotes singular value and λ denotes eigenvalue) and because:

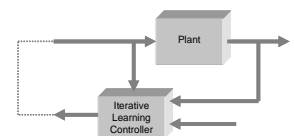
$$\lambda([I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T) \leq \| [I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T \|$$

then by minimizing $\| [I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T \|$, we can limit the upper bound of $\bar{\sigma}(I - H\Gamma)$.

- Thus, because

$$\min(\| [I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T \|)$$

is a typical matrix inequality problem, the ILC design problem can be solved by an LMI.



LMI Design for General Γ

- By minimizing $\|[I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T\|$, we can limit the upper bound of $\bar{\sigma}(I - H\Gamma)$.
- The optimization problem, $\min(\|[I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T\|)$, can be changed to an matrix inequality problem given by:

$$\min\{x_1^2\}$$

subject to

$$x_1^2 I > [I - H\Gamma][I - H\Gamma]^T.$$

- Then, to express the learning gain matrix Γ in a linear form, we convert this to the following inequality:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 I & [I - H\Gamma] \\ [I - H\Gamma]^T & x_1 I_{N \times N} \end{bmatrix} > 0_{2N \times 2N}$$

leading to the following:

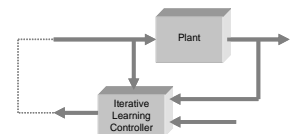
- **Suggestion** *Design a general Γ by solving the LMI*

$$\max\{-x_1^2\}$$

subject to

$$-x_1^2 I_{2N \times 2N} - \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & I \\ I & 0_- \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} H \\ 0_- \end{bmatrix} \Gamma \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & I \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0_- \\ I \end{bmatrix} \Gamma^T \begin{bmatrix} H^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix} < 0_{2N \times 2N}$$

where 0_- is $N \times N$ zero matrix.



LMI Design for Fixed Band-Size LTI Γ

- Consider a structure-fixed learning gain matrix such as:

$$\Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_p & \gamma_N^1 & \gamma_N^2 & \cdots & \gamma_N^{N-1} \\ \gamma_C^1 & \gamma_p & \gamma_N^1 & \cdots & \gamma_N^{N-2} \\ \gamma_C^2 & \gamma_C^1 & \gamma_p & \cdots & \gamma_N^{N-3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_C^{N-1} & \gamma_C^{N-2} & \gamma_C^{N-3} & \cdots & \gamma_p \end{bmatrix},$$

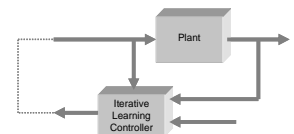
where subscript N denotes the noncausal gains, C denotes the causal gains, and the diagonal terms are fixed at a same value, (e.g., Toeplitz gain matrix denoting LTI learning algorithm).

- The algorithm for this case is described by:

Table 1: Markov matrices for LTI ILC

```

for  $j = 1 : 1 : N - 1$ 
     $H_C^j(:, 1 : N - j) = H(:, j + 1 : N)$ 
     $H_C^j(:, N - j + 1 : N) = 0_-$ 
     $H_N^j(:, j + 1 : N) = H(j, 1 : N - j)$ 
     $H_N^j(:, 1 : j) = 0_-$ 
end
    
```



LMI Design for Fixed Band-Size LTI Γ (cont.)

- **Suggestion:** For a fixed band-size, LTI update law, the following LMI can be used to find Γ :

$$\max\{-x_1^2\}$$

subject to

$$-x_1^2 I_{2N \times 2N} - \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & I \\ I & 0_- \end{bmatrix} + M_1 + M_2 + M_3 < 0_{2N \times 2N}, \quad (25)$$

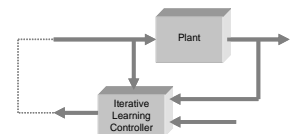
with

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & H_p \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma_p + \gamma_p \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ H_p^T & 0_{N \times N} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & H_C^1 \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma_C^1 + \gamma_C^1 \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ (H_C^1)^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix} + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & H_C^{N-1} \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma_C^{N-1} + \gamma_C^{N-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ (H_C^{N-1})^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix},$$

$$M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & H_N^1 \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma_N^1 + \gamma_N^1 \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ (H_N^1)^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix} + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & H_N^{N-1} \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma_N^{N-1} + \gamma_N^{N-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ (H_N^{N-1})^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix},$$

where $H_p = H$, and H_C^i and H_N^i are calculated from the algorithms in Table 1.



LMI Design for Fixed Band-Size LTI Γ (cont.)

- Proof:

- Expand $I - H\Gamma$ as

$$I - [\gamma_C^{N-1} H_C^{N-1} + \dots + \gamma_C^1 H_C^1 + \gamma_p H_p + \gamma_N^1 H_N^1 + \dots + \gamma_N^{N-1} H_N^{N-1}], \quad (26)$$

where $H_C^k, k = 1, \dots, N - 1$ are Markov matrices corresponding to causal gains; H_p is a Markov matrix corresponding to Arimoto-like gains; and $H_N^k, k = 1, \dots, N - 1$ are Markov matrices corresponding to non-causal gains.

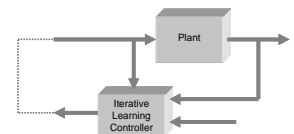
- These Markov matrices can be calculated by expanding $I - H\Gamma$ as shown in Table 1.
- The matrix inequality problem is then changed to the optimization problem:

$$\min\{x_1^2\}$$

subject to

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 I & [I - H\Gamma] \\ [I - H\Gamma]^T & x_1 I_{N \times N} \end{bmatrix} > 0_{2N \times 2N}. \quad (27)$$

- By inserting (26) into (27), we have (25).
- Therefore, since each learning gains are expressed in a linear form, LMI optimization can be used.



LMI Design for Fixed Band-Size LTV Γ

- Now consider the LTV case. The following learning gain matrix is used, assuming a fixed band size:

$$\Gamma = [\gamma_{ij}]$$

- Suggestion** *The optimization problem is designed as*

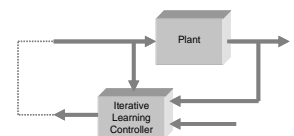
$$\max\{-x_1^2\}$$

subject to

$$-x_1^2 I_{2N \times 2N} - \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & I \\ I 0_- & \end{bmatrix} + \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N [H_u \gamma_{ij} + \gamma_{ij} H_l] < 0_{2N \times 2N},$$

where

$$H_u = \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & H_{ij} \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix}; \quad H_l = \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ H_{ij}^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix}.$$



LMI Design for Fixed Band-Size LTV Γ (cont.)

- H_{ij} are Markov matrices corresponding to γ_{ij} , which is calculated by expanding $I - H\Gamma$ as:

$$I - [H_{11}\gamma_{11} + \cdots + H_{1N}\gamma_{1N} \\ \vdots \\ H_{N1}\gamma_{N1} + \cdots + H_{NN}\gamma_{NN}],$$

where H_{kl} is a matrix composed of one column vector beginning from k^{th} row and l^{th} column such as:

$$H_{kl} = \begin{bmatrix} {}^{11}0 & \cdots & {}^{1l}0 & \cdots & {}^{1N}0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ {}^{k1}0 & \cdots & {}^{kl}h_1 & \cdots & {}^{kN}0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ {}^{N1}0 & \cdots & {}^{Nl}h_{N-k} & \cdots & {}^{NN}0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where left superscript represent k^{th} row and l^{th} element of matrix H_{kl} ; ${}^{ij}0$ means zero at i^{th} row and j^{th} column; and h_i are Markov parameters.

- When the band size is fixed as m , the algorithms in Table 2 and Table 3 are used, where Σ_1 Σ_2 are summed to make LMI constraints given by

$$-x_1^2 I_{2N \times 2N} - \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & I \\ I & 0_- \end{bmatrix} + \Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2 < 0_{2N \times 2N}.$$

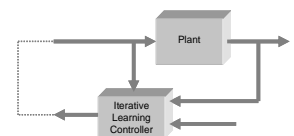


Table 2: : Markov matrices for LTV ILC

```

for  $i = 1 : 1 : m$ 
  for  $j = 1 : 1 : i$ 
    for  $k = 1 : 1 : N - j + 1$ 
       $l = k + j - 1$ 
       $\gamma' = \gamma_{kl}$ 
       $R(1 : N, 1 : N) = 0_-$ 
       $R(1 : N, l) = H(1 : N, k)$ 
       $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_1 + \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & R \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma' + \gamma' \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ R^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix}$ 
    end
  end
end

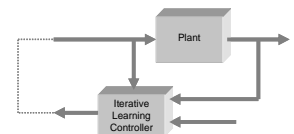
```

Table 3: Markov matrices for LTI ILC (cont.)

```

for  $i = 1 : 1 : m$ 
  for  $j = 1 : 1 : i - 1$ 
    for  $k = j + 1 : 1 : N$ 
       $l = k - j$ 
       $\gamma' = \gamma_{kl}$ 
       $R(1 : N, 1 : N) = 0_-$ 
       $R(1 : N, l) = H(1 : N, k)$ 
       $\Sigma_2 = \Sigma_2 + \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & R \\ 0_- & 0_- \end{bmatrix} \gamma' + \gamma' \begin{bmatrix} 0_- & 0_- \\ R^T & 0_- \end{bmatrix}$ 
    end
  end
end

```



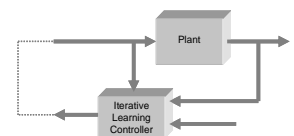
Simulation Illustration

- Consider the following unstable system:

$$x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.50 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 1.00 & 2.04 & -1.20 \\ 0.00 & 1.20 & 0.00 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_k = [1.0 \quad 2.5 \quad -1.5] x_k,$$

- A sinusoidal reference signal was used, with a trial length of ten time steps.
- For LMI solutions, the free online Matlab software *SeDuMi* and *SeDuMiInt* were used.
- We consider six cases:
 - Arimoto only gain, fixed at $\gamma = 0.5$
 - Unstructured learning gain matrix
 - Causal LTI ILC with fixed band size
 - Noncausal LTI ILC with fixed band size
 - Causal LTV ILC with fixed band size
 - Noncausal LTV ILC with fixed band size
- It is interesting to note that the LMI solution for Case 2 was in fact H^{-1} .
- Also, we see that monotonic convergence was improved by the use of non-causal gains.

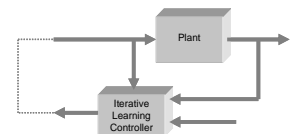
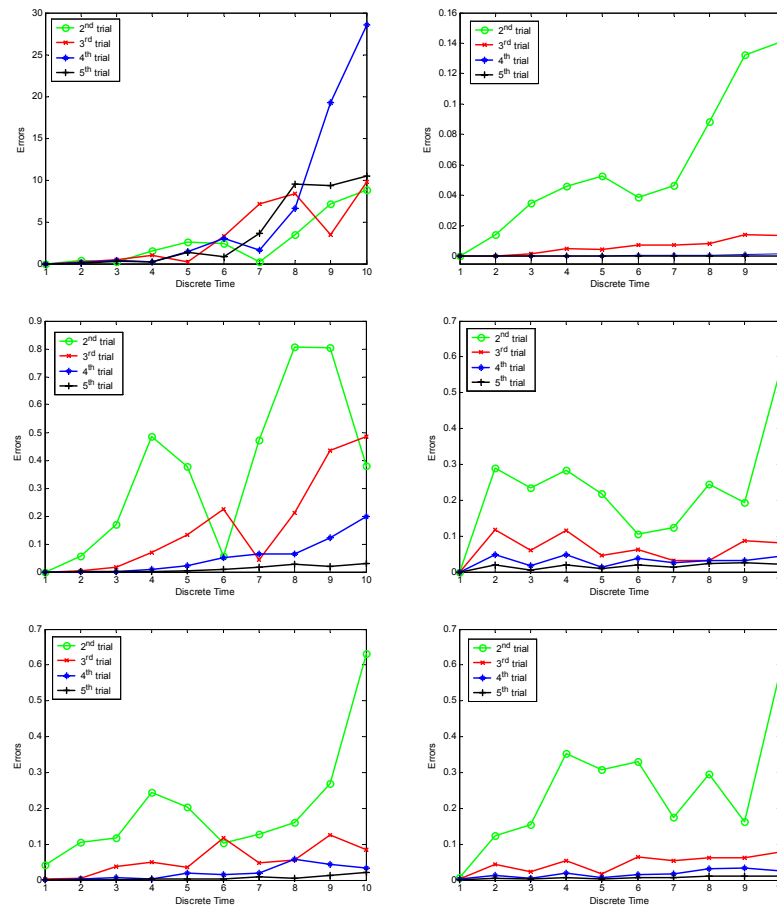


Simulation Illustration (cont.)

Upper-left: no LMI; Upper-right: using H^{-1}

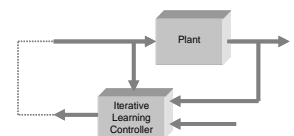
Middle-left: causal LTI with band size = 3; Middle-right: causal LTV with band size = 3

Bottom-left: non-causal LTI with band size = 3; Bottom-right: non-causal LTV with band size = 3



Comments about Monotonic ILC

- Guaranteeing monotonic convergence of an ILC system is practically important and is theoretically desirable.
- Both higher-order-in-time and first-order-in-iteration have been analyzed with respect to monotonic convergence.
- We found that time-varying learning gains could be used for monotonic convergence. This is practically important because without using causal and noncausal bands, the monotonic convergence can be achieved.
- If we just consider the time domain, it is very difficult to guarantee the monotonic condition, while in the iteration domain, the monotonic condition can be achieved relatively easily.
- Various monotonic convergence conditions under various ILC algorithms have been studied. In particular, we have shown that the LMI tool box can be used to design monotonically-convergent ILC algorithms.





Outline

- Iterative Learning Control (ILC)
- Monotonic Convergence via Supervector Framework
- Current-Cycle Feedback Approach
- Non-Causal Filtering ILC Design
 - Examples
 - Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: How to Design
 - Optimal PD-type ILC Scheme: Averaged Derivative
 - Remarks
- Time-Varying ILC Design
- LMI Approach to ILC Design

