# Algorithms for Computer-Aided Design of Multivariable Control Systems



Stanoje Bingulac Hugh F. VanLandingham

# Algorithms for Computer-Aided Design of Multivariable Control Systems

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# Algorithms for Computer-Aided Design of Multivariable Control Systems

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Svetlana, Slavko and Slavica

and

Patricia, Peter, Mark and Lisa

without whose support and patience this book would not have been possible.

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### Preface

Practicing professionals increasingly find themselves in a position of modeling complex systems for understanding and/or control and require a more comprehensive knowledge of multivariable systems. This book focuses on the computer-aided approach as the most effective way of introducing the advanced topics of multivariable systems. Emphasis is placed on computer-aided modeling and analysis techniques to help both professionals and advanced students to extend their understanding well beyond a first course in automatic control systems. This book is also appropriate as a text for a senior or first-year graduate course in engineering. It is realistically possible to cover all essential contents of the book in one semester, and, with some selection, in one academic quarter. Appendices A and B and Chapter 1 present a summary of the essential material that is needed; this should be primarily a review for the reader.

The intent of the text is to supply only the most relevant mathematical developments, keeping proofs and detailed derivations to a minimum, while maximizing the utility of computer algorithms. These referenced and well-tested algorithms have been gathered together in a computer-aided design (CAD) package called *Linear Algebra and Systems (L-A-S)*. *L-A-S* is an interactive conversational software language that is supplied with this text. It is used extensively in the illustrative examples throughout the book, but the utility of *L-A-S* goes well beyond the scope of this text. The reader will find *L-A-S* to be a handy and easy-to-use tool for verifying an analysis technique or control design. It is assumed that the reader has access to a personal computer to work with *L-A-S*. The hardware recomendations are an IBM PC, AT, PS-2 or compatible with a minimum of 640k of memory, MS-DOS version 3,0 or higher, math co-processor and hard disk, CGA or higher graphics, dot-matrix or laser printer.

The motivation for this text is the underlying conviction that control engineers are not well prepared for significant design work at the completion of a basic undergraduate course. Computer technology has, on the other hand, brought a great deal of computing power to the desk of individual engineers and applied scientists. We believe that this text can provide a suitable bridge for students or professionals to learn complex modeling and analysis methods. To enhance the speed of learning, the main chapters provide a special section of application problems along with their solutions. The book may be considered to emphasize three important areas:

- (1) the theory of multivariable linear systems,
- (2) the development of algorithms from the theory, and
- (3) the L-A-S software to implement the algorithms.

This book is unique in the balanced presentation of these three areas. Other texts, e.g. those by Kailath, Brogan, and Chen, dealing with the same topics, offer only the first part. Texts which do offer areas (1) and (3), such as those by Jamshidi and others which combine *MATLAB*<sup>rs</sup> with control theory, generally do so at a beginning level and do not contain significant multivariable system discussion. Although one may extract "algorithms" from theoretical developments, it is, nevertheless, time-consuming and tedious work requiring good programming skills.

The subject matter is captured in the five chapter titles:

Introduction
 System Discretization
 System Modeling
 Intermodel Conversion
 System Identification

In Chapter 1 various basic concepts are presented in a review mode to bridge the gap between a first course in control systems and the multivariable system material. The topics of Chapter 2 concentrate on the conversion of system representations between the discrete-time (D-T) and the continuous-time (C-T) domains, including several conversion methods based on different assumptions regarding the sampling process. In addition to discretization procedures, Chapter 2 also offers robust algorithms for the inverse problem of continualization, which converts a D-T model into an "equivalent" C-T model. The understanding of multi-input, multi-output (MIMO) system structure is the subject of Chapter 3. In addition to the standard "canonical" forms, special emphasis is given to the use of pseudo-controllable (and -observable) forms, which generalize the standard forms and provide greater flexibility in achieving higher numerical accuracy in the modeling process. Also included in Chapter 3 is a detailed discussion of matrix. fraction descriptions (MFDs). MFDs represent an important alternative to the more standard state space and transfer function matrix models. Having presented the various system modeling concepts in the earlier chapters, Chapter 4 then provides a multitude of useful algorithms which can be used to convert any one form into any other. Finally, in Chapter 5 the "conversion" from input/output data to some specific system model, i.e. *identification*, is presented. The special identification techniques are based on the flexible structural considerations of Chapter 3.

In summary, this text presents a unified theory of linear MIMO system models, containing material that is unavailable outside of the "technical journal" literature. At this time there is no other published book which provides the depth

### Preface

and scope, as well as a professional level software package, on the topic of MIMO systems. Perhaps, more importantly, the material is presented in a fashion to be of immediate use to the reader due to its "algorithmic" approach.

The typical format for presenting material is to provide a brief introduction and discussion of the concepts followed by one or more algorithms for performing the required operations. The algorithms themselves are also implemented in L-A-S code and used in a few explanatory examples. Detailed code listings are included in Appendix C. The algorithms in this book are represented in a *pseudo-code* format as a neutral way of defining the algorithms. With this pseudo-code structure, the user may implement his or her own code using any available, or preferred, software package (such as MATLAB, Matrix/X, or Control-C), or a standard computer language (such as FORTRAN, Pascal, or C). If the user has no such preference, the L-A-S software will be found to be both powerful and efficient. The additional advantage of using L-A-S, is that the computer code is available, ready for use.

All algorithms in the book follow the same general format. The process can be illustrated by the "system block" diagram below. The simple, yet powerful, idea is that the algorithm implements a single command that "transforms" the input data into the desired output data. Both sets of data are usually combinations of arrays representing specific elements of a particular system model. The corresponding syntax used throughout the text is

### A1,-, A (Algorithm) = B1,..., Ba

where the  $A_i$ , i=[1,n], are the required input arrays, and the  $B_i$ , i=[1,m], are the desired output arrays.



As an aid to using this book as a classroom text, we recommend the following order of study:

- Appendix A, as a review of matrix fundamentals. This review could be supplemented by the instructor.
- Appendix C, to develop an early familiarity with the L-A-S software.
- Chapter 1, for an introduction to the notation and definitions used in the text. The instructor should determine if this chapter is a sufficient review, and, if not, provide some supplementary material.
- Chapter 2 is basic to the understanding of sampled systems and should follow next.

- Chapter 3 then provides the major link from SISO to MIMO systems.
- Appendix B may be useful to study at this point.
- Next, Chapter 4 is the culmination of the modeling process and should be exercised in analysis, or design, problems chosen by the instructor.
- If time permits, Chapter 5 presents a general approach to system identification, based on the previously studied MIMO structure.

We hope that you, the reader, find that our method of presentation facilitates your learning of the theoretical concepts, as well as helping you to apply them to nontrivial problems.

The authors would like to recognize the interest and help of the graduate students at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, as well as those from Yugoslavia, Brazil and Kuwait; and also the co-authors of the research which led to the creation of this text, who in a special way inspired us and greatly contributed to this material.

S. Bingulac and H.F. VanLandingham

# Contents

Preface					 	 v
Glossary	of Sy	mbols a	and Abbr	eviations	 	 xv

# Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1	Systems	s
1.2	Scope o	of the Text
1.3	Backgro	ound Material
	1.3.1	Linearization
	1.3.2	State Models for C-T Systems 7
	1.3.3	D-T State Models 10
	1.3.4	Controllability and Observability 17
	1.3.5	Responses of State Space Models
	1.3.6	C-T Transfer Matrices
	1.3.7	D-T Transfer Matrices
	1.3.8	Leverrier's Algorithm
	1.3.9	Transfer Function Matrix Calculation 29
1.4	Matrix	Fraction Description (MFD)
1.5	Summa	ary
1.6	Referen	sces
1.7	Exercis	ses

### Contents

Chapter 2	System	Discretization
-----------	--------	----------------

2.1	Introduction
2.2	Discretization Procedures
	2.2.1       The Step-Invariant Model       47         2.2.2       Ramp-Invariant (Linearly Interpolated) Model       50         2.2.3       Bilinear Transformation       53
2.3	Continualization Procedures , , ,
	2.3.1         SI to Continuous-Time Model         59           2.3.2         RI to Continuous-Time Model         62           2.3.3         Bilinear to Continuous-Time Model         63
2.4	Examples
2.5	Summary
2.6	References
2.7	Exercises

# Chapter 3 System Modeling

3.1	Canonical Forms for SISO Systems ,	17
	3.1.1 The Controllable Canonical Form	18
	3.1.2 The Observable Canonical Form	11
	3.1.3 The Jordan Canonical Form	13
3.2	Equivalent State Space Models	96
	3.2.1 Transformations between State Models	86
	3.2.2 Controllability and Observability Forms	99
	3.2.3 Transformation to Feedback Controllable Form 10	01
	3.2.4 Transformations: g(s) => SISO Canonical Forms 10	05

Cont	ents xi
3.3	Canonical Forms for MIMO Systems
	3.3.1       Controllability Forms - General Discussion       110         3.3.2       Observability Forms - General Discussion       115         3.3.3       Pseudo-Controllability Indices (PCI)       116         3.3.4       Pseudo-Observability Indices (POI)       117         3.3.5       MIMO Feedback and Observer Forms       122         3.3.6       Modeling Example       127
3.4	Matrix Fraction Description (MFD)
3.5	Summary
3.6	References
3.7	Exercises

### Chapter 4 Intermodel Conversion

4.1	Conve	rsions from a State Space Model
	4.1.1	General State Space to Observable Form 144
	4.1.2	General State Space to Controllable Form
	4.1.3	State Space to Transfer Function
	4.1.4	State Space to Markov Parameters
	4.1.5	Continuous-Time State Space Response
	4.1.6	Discrete-Time State Space Response
	4.1.7	Observable State Space to MFD Model
	4.1.8	Controllable State Space to MIFD Model
4.2	Conve	ersions from a Transfer Function Matrix
	4.2.1	Transfer Function to State Space Model
	4,2,2	Transfer Function to Markov Parameters
	4.2.3	Continuous-Time Transfer Function Response
	4.2.4	Discrete-Time Transfer Function Response
	4.2.5	Transfer Function to Left Coprime MFD
	4.2.6	Transfer Function to Right Coprime MFD
	4.2.7	Transfer Function to State Space Forms
		Second and a second and a second s Second second s Second second se

### Contents

4.3	Conversions from Markov Parameters
	4.3.1 Markov Parameters to Observable State Form
	4.3.2 Markov Parameters to Controllable State Form
	4.3.3 Markov Parameters to Left Coprime MFD
	4.3.4 Markov Parameters to Right Coprime MFD
	4.3.5 Markov Parameters to Transfer Function
	4.3.6 D-T Response from Markov Parameters
4.4	Conversions from MFD Models
	4.4.1 MFD to Observable State Model
	4.4.2 MFD to Controllable State Model
	4.4.3 Left Coprime MFD to Markov Parameters
	4.4.4 Right Coprime MFD to Markov Parameters
	4.4.5 Left Coprime MFD to Transfer Function
	4.4.6 Right Coprime MFD to Transfer Function
	4.4.7 Other MFD Conversion Algorithms
4.5	Summary of Conversion Options
4.6	Examples
	4.6.1 Example 1 (Model Conversions)
	4.6.2 Example 2 (Time Scaling)
4.7	Summary
4.8	References
4,9	Exercises

### Chapter 5 System Identification

5.1	The Identification Identity	y	33

Con	ten	ts:
0.011		

5.2	Conversions from Input/Output Samples
	5.2.1 Input/Output Data to Observable State Form
	5.2.2 Input/Output Data to Left Coprime MFD
	5.2.4 Input/Output Data to Transfer Function
5.3	Conversions between D-T and C-T
5.4	Identification Examples
5.5	Summary
5.6	References
5.7	Exercises

# Appendix A Matrix Algebra

A.1	Linear Equations
A.2	Eigensystems
A.3	Rank and Null Space
A.4	Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
A.5	Useful Results with Matrices
A.6	The Cayley-Hamilton Theorem
A.7	References

### Appendix B Special Topics

B.1	Linear Algebraic Equations
B.2	Hessenberg Transformations
B.3	The Kalman Decomposition
B.4	Computation of Generalized Eigenvectors
B.5	Modal Controllability/Observability Tests
B.6	References

## Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

C.1	Introduction
C.2	A List of L-A-S Operators
C.3	L-A-S Subroutines
C.4	A List of L-A-S Interpreter Commands
C.5	On-Line Help Files
C.6	L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms
C.7	References

# Glossary of Symbols and Abbreviations

•	This symbol denotes the end of a development or example or an important equation.							
A,B,C,	Boldface, capital letters denote matrices.							
x,y,z,	Boldface, lowercase letters denote vectors.							
f,g,h,	Italic, lowercase letters represent scalar valued functions.							
α_β,γ,	Greek letters typically denote scalar factors.							
x(s), G(s)	Boldface, italic letters denote the corresponding							
$x(z), G(z)$ Laplace or z-transformed quantity. For example, the $x(s) = \mathcal{L}[x(t)].$								
$\rho(\mathbf{A}), \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A})$	The rank of the matrix A.							
P(A), nullity(A)	The nullity of the matrix A.							
λ(Α)	The set of eigenvalues of the matrix A,							
$\mathbf{A}^{T}, \mathbf{x}^{T}$	The transpose of the matrix A and the vector x.							
det(A) The determinant of the matrix A.								
$\deg(g(s))$	The degree of the vector of polynomials $g(s) = \{g_i(s)\}$ .							
diag{a,b,c} Denotes a diagonal matrix with the given values a elements.								
adj(A)-	Denotes the adjoint matrix of the matrix A.							

xvi	Glossary of Symbols and Abbreviations					
tr(A)	Denotes the trace of the matrix A.					
A The norm of the matrix A, also Norm(A). The F norm, the square-root of the sum of the squares of a of A, is used throughout the text.						
*	Equals approximately					
$\mathbf{M}^{\mathbf{i}}$	Inverse of a (square) nonsingular matrix					
M*	Pseudo- (generalized) inverse of an $(n \times m)$ matrix M, satisfying: $M^+ M M^+ = M^+$ and $M M^+ M = M$					
$\theta_{n,m}$	$(n \times m)$ zero matrix, n or m may be zero					
I.,n	$(n \times m)$ identity matrix, $\mathbf{I} = \{e_{ij}\}, e_{ij} = 1, e_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$ .					
N(A)	$(m \times s)$ null space matrix of the $(n \times m)$ matrix A, satisfying: A N(A) = $0_{s,r}$ , where $s = m - r$ , $r = rank(A)$					
R(A)	(n×r) range space matrix of an (n×m) matrix A, satisfying: r = rank[R(A)] = rank(A).					
C-T, D-T ADC,DAC ZOH SISO SI,SO MIMO MI,MO PCI,POI PCF,POF CCF,OCF PMF	Continuous-time, discrete-time, as in D-T system Analog-to-digital converter, digital-to-analog converter Zero-order hold Single-input and single-output Single-input, single-output Multiple-input and/or multiple output Multiple-input, multiple-output Pseudo-controllability and pseudo-observability indices Pseudo-controllability and pseudo-observability indices Pseudo-controllable and pseudo-observable forms Controllable canonical form, observable canonical form Polynomial matrix form					

Computer representation of polynomials:

• An  $n^n$  order polynomial  $a(s) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i s^i$  (G1)

is represented in the computer by the (n+1)-dimensional row array:

$$a = [a_0 \ a_1 \ \cdots \ a_n] = [a_i]$$
 (G2)

### Glossary of Symbols and Abbreviations

The relationship between the polynomial a(s) and the row a could formally be written as

$$a(s) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{i}(s)$$
, where  $\mathbf{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ s \\ \vdots \\ s^n \end{bmatrix}$  (G3)

An n<sup>th</sup> order, (p × m) polynomial matrix

$$A(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} A_{i} s^{i} = \{ \alpha_{ij}(s) \}$$
(G4)

where  $a_{ij}(s)$ ,  $1 \le i \le p$  and  $1 \le j \le m$  are polynomials of up to  $n^{in}$  order, i.e. with  $a_{ij} = [a_{ij0} \ a_{ij1} \ \dots \ a_{ijn}] = \{a_{ijn}\}$ 

$$a_{ij}(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{ijk} s^{k} = \mathbf{a}_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{i}(s)$$
(G5)

are represented in the following two forms:

1. Polynomial matrix form (PMF),  $A_{\mu\nu}$ , a (pm × (n+1)) matrix defined by

$$\mathbf{A}_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{11} \\ \mathbf{a}_{21} \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{p1} \\ \mathbf{a}_{12} \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{p2} \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{p2} \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{pm} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{110} & a_{111} & \cdots & a_{11n} \\ a_{210} & a_{211} & \cdots & a_{21n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{p10} & a_{p11} & \cdots & a_{p1n} \\ a_{120} & a_{121} & \cdots & a_{12n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{p20} & a_{p21} & \cdots & a_{p2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{pm0} & a_{pm1} & \cdots & a_{pmn} \end{bmatrix}$$
(G6)

2. "Row" equivalent polynomial matrix form (PMF-r),  $A_r$ , a (p × m(n+1)) matrix defined by

$$\mathbf{A}_{r} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{0} & \mathbf{A}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \{\mathbf{A}_{k}\}$$
(G7)

The relationships between the polynomial matrix A(s) and coefficient matrices  $A_p$  and  $A_r$  are given by:

$$A(s) = \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{I}_{n}(s) , \text{ where } \mathbf{I}_{n}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{n} \\ \mathbf{I}_{n} s \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{I}_{n} s^{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(G8)

with  $I_m$  the  $(m \times m)$  identity matrix.

Sometimes, if it is more convenient, a polynomial, a(s), may be represented by the transpose of Eq.(G3), i.e.

$$a(s) = \mathbf{i}^{T}(s) \cdot \mathbf{a}^{T}$$
(G9)

Similarly, a polynomial matrix A(s) may sometimes be represented by its "column" equivalent polynomial matrix form (PMF-c), A, i.e.

$$\mathbf{A}(s) = \mathbf{I}_{\rho}(s) \mathbf{A}_{e} \text{, where } \mathbf{I}_{\rho}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{\rho} & \mathbf{I}_{\rho}s & - & \mathbf{I}_{\rho}s^{*} \end{bmatrix}$$
(G10)

with the  $(p(n+1) \times m)$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{e}$  given by  $\mathbf{A}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{0} \\ \mathbf{A}_{1} \\ 1 \\ \mathbf{A}_{n} \end{bmatrix}$ .

### **Computational Procedures:**

In this text the computational procedures are alternatively referred to as algorithms. Computational procedures operate on, or manipulate, input data arrays

to produce (desired) output arrays

which may be interpreted in specific ways. Algorithms will be presented symbolically using specific input variables, output variables and the algorithm abbreviation. For the generic algorithm (abbreviated *ComProc* for computational procedure) and the associated input/output variables above the procedure would be represented as: Glossary of Symbols and Abbreviations

 $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  (ComProc)  $\Rightarrow B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  (G11)

Such a procedure can be visualized in the "operator" form as a "black box" block diagram as illustrated in the figure below.



Block Diagrams Representing a Generic Algorithm with Input and Output Variables: (a) Complete Form, (b) Abbreviated Form.

Either representation, symbolical or graphical, should be interpreted the same; namely, "Apply the Algorithm 'ComProc' to the input data  $\{A_i, 1 \le i \le n\}$  in order to generate the output data  $\{B_j, 1 \le j \le m\}$ ." It is worth mentioning that the above algorithm representation resembles the "post-fix," or reverse Polish notation, where the input arguments are specified first, followed by the algorithm name and ended by the output arguments.

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A brief treatment of the background assumed for the remainder of the text is presented in this chapter. The presentation is not meant to be complete, but only indicative of the level of knowledge required. It is also appropriate that the reader review Appendix A for more details.

### 1.1

### Systems

The investigations of engineers and applied mathematicians often require them to study complicated physical systems for the purpose of understanding and/or modifying their operation. A physical system is the starting point for the modeling process in which the engineer tries to formulate a mathematical description of the physical operation. The art of deriving a plant model is usually an iterative procedure of adding or deleting complexity to match observed performance, always with an eye toward obtaining the simplest model which matches the physical system measurements. The resulting model is an engineering compromise between complexity and model match which is naturally influenced by the computational power available for working with the model. For the remainder of the text the word system will refer to a mathematical model, not a physical system. The actual modeling process is not within the scope of the present study.

Models generally fall into one of two categories. One, *input output* models, also known as *external* models, are constructed from input output measurements without detailed knowledge of the internal mechanisms which produce the responses. The other, *internal* models, are usually well structured from "first principles," such as the laws of Newton for mechanical elements or of Kirchhoff for electrical interconnections. In the subsequent chapters different forms of models and their interrelations are considered. One form, *transfer functions*, is a basic external model type while another, *state models*, is an internal model type.

### 1.2 Scope of the Text

Most of the material in this text is oriented toward multivariable, linear, constant-parameter systems and deals with modeling and representation of such systems. Many different algorithms will be presented along with the theory of MIMO systems. The emphasis is on "learning by doing," working with the *L-A-S* software, or other means of implementing the algorithms, to more easily understand the theory and limitations of multivariable system modeling.

## 1.3 Background Material

The reader is assumed to have had a first course in control systems which typically covers single-input single-output (SISO) systems using classical frequency domain methods. This section provides a brief review of definitions from basic control theory. The topics include both the continuous-time (C-T) and discrete-time (D-T) state space models as well as transfer function matrices for both domains. In the next chapter additional discussion will be presented regarding the transformation of models between C-T and D-T domains.

### 1.3.1 Linearization

The basic techniques of this text deal with linear constant-parameter systems. The utility of these methods is based on the fact that such idealized system models are good representations of most physical systems near a controlled equilibrium point. For example, a large class of models can be represented in the C-T domain as follows:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)), \quad \mathbf{x}(t_0)$$
  
$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t))$$
(1.1)

where  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  is the  $(n \times 1)$  state vector of the system,  $\mathbf{u}(t)$  is an  $(m \times 1)$  vector of input signals and  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  is the  $(p \times 1)$  vector of output signals. The general nonlinear dynamics are captured in the (assumed smooth) functions  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$  and  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$ . It is because of these nonlinear dynamics that the system is typically analytically intractable. One method of reducing the scope of the model is to consider the linearization of Eqs.(1.1) about a known equilibrium solution given by  $(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{y}_0)$  which, for simplicity, is taken to be a constant solution, i.e. each element of the 3-tuple is a constant vector and together they satisfy Eqs.(1.1) as shown in Eq.(1.3).

By formally expanding the above system in a Taylor series about the equilibrium point,

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}|_{0} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}|_{0} \times (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{0}) + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{u}}|_{0} \times (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}_{0})$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{h}|_{0} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}|_{0} \times (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{0}) + \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{u}}|_{0} \times (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}_{0})$$
(1.2)

where the *t*-dependence has been dropped for notational convenience. The subscript notation of Eq.(1.2) indicates vectors or matrices evaluated at the equilibrium solution. Noting that by assumption, Section 1.3 Background Material

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_0 = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0)$$
  
$$\mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0)$$
 (1.3)

The linearized system becomes

$$\frac{d}{dt} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \mathbf{B} \tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t_0)$$
$$\blacksquare (1.4)$$
$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) = \mathbf{C} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \mathbf{D} \tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t)$$

where the notation is that

$$\tilde{x} = x - x_0, \quad \tilde{u} = u - u_0, \quad \tilde{y} = y - y_0$$
 (1.5)

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0), \quad \mathbf{B} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0)$$
  
$$\mathbf{C} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0), \quad \mathbf{D} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0)$$
(1.6)

In keeping with the structure of the book we will introduce the first of many algorithms used to implement the theoretical developments. It is recommended that the reader implement the algorithm using the L-A-S code found in Appendix C. The best use of this text is to operate in a "hands-on" mode of exercising the algorithms as they appear in the reading. Some end-of-chapter problems are included to encourage computer usage. The purpose of this algorithm, denoted LIN, is to numerically calculate the linearized dynamic model (1.4) given a nonlinear model (1.1).

### Algorithm LIN

Syntax:

### p, $z_0$ , dz (LIN) $\Rightarrow$ A, B, dif

Purpose: Linearization of a system of nonlinear differential or difference equations, i.e. determination of the corresponding linearized state space representation.

#### Input/Output Arguments:

 p = {p<sub>i</sub>}, i = 1, ..., k, row containing parameters used in defining the nonlinear system.

- z<sub>0</sub> = (h × 1) column defining the nominal point at which the linearization is to be performed; h = n + m, n and m being the dimensions of the state, x(t), and input, u(t), vectors, respectively, i.e. z<sub>0</sub> = [x<sub>0</sub><sup>T</sup> | u<sub>0</sub><sup>T</sup>]<sup>T</sup>.
- dz = (h × 1) column containing finite difference values; dx, and du, for i = 1, ..., n and j = 1, ..., m; i.e. dz = [dx<sup>T</sup> | du<sup>T</sup>]<sup>T</sup>.
- A = (n × n) system matrix of the linearized model.
- B = (n × m) input matrix of the linearized model.
- dif = (n × 1) column defining the accuracy of the linearization.

Description: The system of nonlinear differential equations is given by:

$$\dot{x}(t) = g[x(t), u(t), p]$$
 (a)

where  $\mathbf{x}(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{u}(t)$  and  $\mathbf{p}$  are the state, input and parameter vectors of dimensions n, m and k, respectively, while  $\mathbf{g}(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot) = \{ g_i(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot) \}$  is a n-dimensional vector-valued function.

The linearized model in the state space corresponding to (a) evaluated at

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{x}_0$$
 and  $\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{u}_0$  (b)

is given by

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A} \, \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B} \, \mathbf{u}(t) \tag{C}$$

where the elements of  $\mathbf{A} = \{a_y\}$  and  $\mathbf{B} = \{b_y\}$  are calculated according to Eq.(1.6) by approximating the partial derivatives by finite differences.

The accuracy of the linearization process is measured by

dif = 
$$g(x_0 + dx, u_0 + du, p) - \{g(x_0, u_0, p) + [A B] \begin{bmatrix} dx \\ du \end{bmatrix}\}$$
 (d)

If g matches f in Eq.(1.1), then the first equation of Eq.(1.4) is forthcoming. Similarly, if g matches h in Eq.(1.1), then the second equation of Eq.(1.4) is obtained.

Note that in order to perform a linearization, a nonlinear vector-valued function g appearing in (a) should first be defined. The following notation is used in the algorithm steps:

$$\mathbf{z} = [\mathbf{x}^T, \mathbf{u}^T]^T$$

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Define vectors p, zo and dz
- Define Algorithm GZ performing p, z (GZ) ⇒ g , i.e. calculating the vector-valued function g
- Set the number of rows (elements) in z<sub>0</sub> ⇒ h

4. Set 
$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & \cdots & -1 \\ \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{A}} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}$$
  
5. Set p,  $\mathbf{z}_{2} (GZ) \Rightarrow \mathbf{g}_{2}$   
6. Set the number of rows (elements) in  $\mathbf{g}_{0} \Rightarrow n$   
7. Set  $\mathbf{g}_{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{H}$   
8. Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$   
9. Set  $i + 1 \Rightarrow i$   
10. Extract the *i*<sup>th</sup> element  $dz(i) \Rightarrow dz_{i}$   
11. Set 1 at the *i*<sup>th</sup> location of the  $(h \times 1)$  zero-vector,  $\mathbf{e}_{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{e}$   
12. Set  $\mathbf{z}_{0} + \mathbf{e}_{1} dz_{i} \Rightarrow \mathbf{z}_{i}$   
13. Set  $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{z}_{i} (GZ) \Rightarrow \mathbf{g}_{i}$   
14. Set  $[\mathbf{H} \mid \mathbf{g}_{i}] \Rightarrow \mathbf{H}$   
15. If  $i < h$ , go to 9; else, go to 16  
16. Set diag $\{dz_{1}, \dots, dz_{h}\} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}$   
17. Set  $\mathbf{H} \top \mathbf{D}^{1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{H}$   
18. Partition  $\mathbf{H} \Rightarrow [\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{B}]$ . A has *n* columns  
19. Set  $\mathbf{z}_{0} + d\mathbf{z} \Rightarrow \mathbf{z}_{1}$   
20. Set  $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{z}_{i} (GZ) \Rightarrow \mathbf{g}_{i}$   
21. Set  $\mathbf{g}_{1} - (\mathbf{g}_{0} + \mathbf{H} dz) \Rightarrow dif$ 

### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of the Algorithm LIN implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. The vectors  $\mathbf{g}_0$ ,  $\mathbf{g}_i$  and  $\mathbf{g}_1$  in Steps 5, 13, and 20 are calculated by the L-A-S subroutine GZ. As was emphasized earlier, prior to using Algorithm LIN, Algorithm GZ should be developed to calculate the vector function  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{p})$ .

Example 1.1 As an example of system linearization, consider the robot arm illustrated in Fig. 1.1. For a particular set of arm masses, lengths and inertias, the nonlinear equations of motion for the system are as follows:

$$\dot{w}_1 = \frac{1}{I} [T_1 - T_2 + .01 w_1 w_2 \sin(2\theta_1)]$$
  
$$\dot{w}_2 = 100 T_2 - \frac{1}{2} w_1^2 \sin(2\theta_2)$$

where

$$\dot{\theta}_1 = w_1$$
,  $\dot{\theta}_2 = w_2$ , and  $I = .07 + .06 \cos^2(\theta_2) + .05 \sin^2(\theta_2)$ 



FIGURE 1.1 A Two Degree-of-Freedom (DOF) Robot Arm

Let the state vector, x, and input vector, u, be defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{E} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 & 0_1 & w_2 & 0_2 \end{bmatrix}^T$$
$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} T_1 & T_2 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Thus, the full-dimensional vector-valued function g(x, u, p) = g(z, p) which depends on the six-dimensional vector  $z = [x^2, u^2]^x$  is given by:

where

$$g_1 = \frac{p_1 z_1 z_3 \sin(2z_2) + z_5 - z_6}{p_2 + p_3 \cos^2(z_4) + p_4 \sin^2(z_6)}, \qquad g_7 - z_1$$
  
$$g_7 = -p_5 z_1^2 \sin(2z_6) + \frac{z_6}{p_1}, \qquad g_4 - z_2$$

The parameters in the above opeation are the components of the parameter vector

p + [.01 .07 06 .05 .50]

The nonlinear differential equations described, i.e. the vector-valued function  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{p})$ , is linearized using Algorithm *LIN* for two nominal operating points:  $\mathbf{z}_{11} = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{z}_{12} = [1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9]$  while the "limite difference" vector dz  $\mathbf{z} \in [1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 7, 8, 10^{-1}]$ .

Using Algorithm GZ to develop the function g(z, p), and the vectors  $z_{cl}$  and dz, previously defined, Algorithm LIN gives the following linearized pair  $\{A, B\}$ 

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector dif, defining the accuracy of the linearization is

$$dif = \{.15385E - 12, 0, -.10000E - 11, 0\}^{2}$$

Similarly, linearization about  $z_{v_2}$  yields the pair (A, B):

۸ -	.009	.004	003	- 043 ]		7 783	-7.783
	ι	0	0	0	, <b>G</b> –	0	0
	· .072	0	υ	007		0	100
	0	0	1	۵,	ļ	0	0

with the accuracy of the linearization indicated by

### 1.3.2 State Models for Continuous-Time Systems

Based on the development of the previous section, we define a basic class of models for multi-input multi-input (MIMO) systems and discuss several fundamental system properties using this representation. Figure 1.2 illustrates the corresponding vector block diagram.

Definition 1.1 The continuous time state (variable) model is given by

 $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(t), \quad \mathbf{x}(t_{c})$   $\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D} \mathbf{u}(t)$ (3.7)

where **x** is an  $(a \times 1)$  vector, **u** is an  $(a \times 1)$  vector, **y** is a  $(p \times 1)$  vector and the matrices **A**, **B**, **C**, and **D** are constant with compatible dimensions.

Typically, the coefficient matrices **A**, **B**, **C** and **D** are known numerically along with the initial state,  $\mathbf{x}(r_0)$ . By analogy to the scalar equation



FIGURE 1.2 Vector Block Diagram of the State Model

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = ax(t)$$

whose solution is

$$x(t) = e^{at} x(t_0)$$

we introduce the definition of exp(At) for a square constant matrix, A, through the familiar infinite series for an exponential function.

Definition 1.2 The transition matrix, exp(At), for the  $(n \times n)$  constant matrix A is

$$\exp(At) = \mathbf{I} + At + A^2 \frac{t^2}{2!} + \dots + A^k \frac{t^k}{k!} + \dots$$
 (1.8)

It is important to recognize that exp(At) has meaning only through Eq.(1.8), which itself is well defined since  $A^{t}$  is simply A multiplied by itself k times. The series Eq.(1.8) is absolutely convergent for any finite matrix At, this permits manipulation of the series on a term by term basis.

Several important results are reviewed in the following developments.

$$\frac{d}{dt}\exp(At) = A + A^{2}t + \dots + A^{k+1}\frac{t^{k}}{k!} + \dots$$
(1.9)

Clearly, by factoring out A as a pre- or post-multiplier,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\exp(\mathbf{A}t) = \mathbf{A} \exp(\mathbf{A}t) = \exp(\mathbf{A}t) \mathbf{A} \qquad \qquad \blacksquare (1.10)$$

showing that the matrices A and exp(At) commute.

Another important result is the familiar property of exponential function

#### Section 1.3 Background Material

multiplication. Consider that

$$\exp(\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)) = \mathbf{I} + (t-\tau)\mathbf{A} + \frac{(t-\tau)^2}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2 + \cdots$$
 (1.11)

Separately, it can be shown that

$$e^{At}e^{A(-\tau)} = (\mathbf{I} + t\mathbf{A} + \frac{t^2}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2 + \cdots)(\mathbf{I} - \tau\mathbf{A} + \frac{\tau^2}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2 - \cdots)$$
  

$$e^{At}e^{-A\tau} = (\mathbf{I} + (t-\tau)\mathbf{A} + \frac{(t-\tau)^2}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2 + \cdots)$$
(1.12)

Thus, comparing Eqs.(1.11) and (1.12),

$$e^{At}e^{-At} = e^{A(t-t)} \qquad \qquad \blacksquare (1.13)$$

Since it follows from Eq.(1.11) that

$$e^{A(0)} = e^0 = I$$
 (1.14)

we readily deduce that

$$e^{-At} = [e^{At}]^{-1}$$
 = (1.15)

by letting  $\tau = t$  in Eq.(1.13), since the substitution gives  $e^{At} e^{-At} = I$ .

With the above results the general solution to the state model will now be developed. Rewriting Eq.(1.7),

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t) \tag{1.16}$$

Upon premultiplication by exp(-At), the left-hand side becomes an exact derivative. The reader can easily check this using the relation that for C = AB, then

$$\hat{C} = \hat{A}B + A\hat{B}$$
 (1.17)

Integrating Eq.(1.16) from to t,

$$\int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{d}{d\tau} \left[ e^{-A\tau} \mathbf{x}(\tau) \right] d\tau = \int_{t_0}^{t} e^{-A\tau} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau$$

$$e^{-A\tau} \mathbf{x}(t) - e^{-At_0} \mathbf{x}(t_0) = \int_{t_0}^{t} e^{-A\tau} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau$$
(1.18)

Finally,

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}(t-t_0)}\mathbf{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(\tau)d\tau \qquad \blacksquare (1,19)$$
is the general solution to the state in Eq.(1.7). Introducing Eq.(1.19) into the output equation of Eq.(1.7) with  $t_0 = 0$ ,

$$y(t) = y_{25}(t) + y_{25}(t)$$
 (1.20)

where

$$y_{z}(t) = Ce^{At}x(0)$$
 = (1.21)

is the zero-input response and

$$\mathbf{y}_{23}(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \mathbf{C} e^{\mathbf{A}(t-t)} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau + \mathbf{D} \mathbf{u}(t) \qquad \qquad \blacksquare (1.22)$$

is the zero-state response.

### 1.3.3 Discrete-Time State Models

In many cases the C-T system is to be interfaced with a digital computer. The usual analog-to-digital converters (ADCs) and digital-to-analog converters (DACs) are available on electronic boards which are connected to the computer and are jointly controlled by a synchronizing clock signal. The output of an ADC is therefore a sequence of numbers to be manipulated by the computer; however, each number is *quantized* due to the necessity of being represented as a finite length computer word. If the (usually small) errors between the ADC output and the ideal samples of the input signal are neglected, an acceptable model of the ADC interface is an ideal sampler, sampling at uniform intervals in time.

Similarly, the digital number sequence which is fed into the DAC is converted to a C-T signal by *holding* each sample constant until the next sample arrives. Control engineers refer to this type of action as a zero-order hold (ZOH).

Thus, if the above simplifications are made, a sampled-data system can be represented as shown in Fig. 1.3. The notation is that a D-T signal is given an argument of time equal to kT signifying that the values are defined only at integer multiples of the sample interval, T. The DAC interface is represented as a zeroorder hold and the ADC interface, by an ideal sampler which is synchronized to the ZOH by a system clock signal, not explicitly shown in Fig.1.3.

The effect of the signal conversion into and out of the C-T system in Fig. 1.3 is to create an equivalent D-T system with input vector  $\mathbf{u}(kT)$  and output vector  $\mathbf{y}(kT)$ . To establish the ZOH equivalent model, assume that the sampled state vector is known at  $t_0 = kT$ . From Eq.(1.19) with t = kT+T,

$$\mathbf{x}(kT+T) = e^{\mathbf{A}T}\mathbf{x}(kT) + \int_{kT}^{kT+T} e^{\mathbf{A}(kT+T-\tau)} \mathbf{B} d\tau \mathbf{u}(kT)$$
(1.23)

10



FIGURE 1.3 Sampled-Data System

where use has been made of the fact that u(t) is the output of the ZOH, i.e. that

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{u}(kT) \quad \text{for} \quad kT \le t \le kT + T \quad (1.24)$$

The resulting discrete-time model is given by

and is called the ZOH equivalent model. The notation is that

$$\mathbf{x}(k) = \mathbf{x}(kT), \quad \mathbf{u}(k) = \mathbf{u}(kT), \quad \mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{y}(kT)$$
 (1.26)

where T is the sample interval. The matrices  $A_d$  and  $B_d$  are obtained from Eq.(1.23) with the change of variable t = kT+T-r for the integral. The results are

$$\mathbf{A}_d = e^{\mathbf{A}T}, \qquad \mathbf{B}_d = \int_0^T e^{\mathbf{A}t} \mathbf{B} dt \qquad \blacksquare (1.27)$$

The output equation in Eq. (1.25) is simply the ideal sampled version of the output in Eq.(1.7). An alternative representation for B<sub>d</sub> when A is nonsingular is given by

$$\mathbf{B}_{d} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}(e^{\mathbf{A}T}-\mathbf{I})\mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(\mathbf{A}T)^{i}}{(i+1)!}\mathbf{B}T$$

As was done earlier in the chapter, we introduce the second algorithm used to implement the previous theoretical developments. Again, it is recommended that the reader implement the algorithm using the L-A-S code found in Appendix C. After having worked through the algorithms and the end-of-chapter exercises in this chapter, the reader will feel comfortable reviewing and exercising the algorithms in the remaining chapters. The purpose of this algorithm, denoted EAT, is to numerically calculate the transition matrix for a particular A matrix and scalar sampling interval, T.

# Algorithm EAT

Syntax:  $T, A, Nrm, N (EAT) \Rightarrow A_d$ 

Purpose: Calculation of the state transition matrix,  $A_d = e^{AT}$ 

### Input/Output Arguments:

- T = positive scalar
- A = (n×n) matrix
- Nrm = positive scalar, suggested value: 0.5 < Nrm < 1</li>
- N = integer defining number of terms in power series of Eq.(a)
- A<sub>d</sub> = (n×n) matrix satisfying: A<sub>d</sub> = exp[A7]

Description: The matrix A<sub>2</sub> is calculated using the truncated power series:

$$A_d = \left[\sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(AT/r)^i}{i!}\right]^k$$
, where  $r = 2^j$ , (a)

The integer j is given by:

$$j = \left[\frac{\ln(\|\mathbf{A}\| T / Nrm)}{\ln 2}\right]_{\text{integer}} + 1$$
(b)

Equation (b) guarantees that (see the Glossary for matrix norm)

$$|AT/r| < Nrm$$
 (c)

which leads to the satisfactory convergence of the power series of Eq.(a).

In order to save computational time and to reduce round-off errors, the  $N^{+}$  order polynomial c(A) used in Eq.(a),

$$c(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \mathbf{A}^{i} c_{i}, \text{ where } c_{i} = \frac{1}{i!} \left(\frac{T}{r}\right)^{i}$$
(d)

is evaluated by calculating the (n-1)" order polynomial c,(A) given by

$$c_r(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{A}^i c_{ri}$$
 (c)

where, according to the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem:

$$c_i(\lambda_i) = c(\lambda_i)$$
 for  $i = 1, ..., n$   
where  $(\lambda_i) = \lambda(\mathbf{A})$  (f)

The coefficients  $f_i = 1/i!$ , i=[1,N], are calculated by Algorithm FACT. Calculation of the coefficients  $c_n$  of the polynomial  $c_i(s)$  is done using Algorithm POLR. Calculation of the polynomial  $c_i(A)$  in Eq.(e) is accomplished with the POM algorithm. Algorithms such as FACT, POLR and POM below, not specifically discussed, are listed in Appendix C.

..., N

### Algorithm:

1. Define input arrays: T, A, Nrm and N

2. Set 
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\ln(\|\mathbf{A}\| T / Nrm)}{\ln(2)} \end{bmatrix}_{integer}_{part} + 1 \Rightarrow j$$
  
3. Set  $2^{i} \Rightarrow r$   
4. Set  $T/r \Rightarrow T_{1}$   
5. Set  $1/i! \Rightarrow f_{i}$  and  $f_{i} T_{1}^{i} \Rightarrow c_{i}$ , for  $i = 0$ ,

6. Set  $[c_0 c_1 - c_N] \Rightarrow C$ 

7. Set C, A (POLR)  $\Rightarrow$  C,

8. Set C<sub>n</sub> A (POM)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>d</sub>

If j ≤ 0, stop; else, go to 10

10. Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$ 

11. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$ 

12. Set  $A_d A_d \Rightarrow A_d$ 

If i < j, go to 11; else, stop</li>

### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of Algorithm EAT implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Algorithms POLR and POM are other algorithms also listed in Appendix C. The coefficients  $f_i$  of the  $(1 \times N+1)$  row array f used by the algorithm are calculated by the L-A-S subroutine FACT. For more details see Chapter 2.

As is mentioned in Chapter 2, if the matrix  $(n \times n) \Lambda$  is "diagonalizable," then  $\Lambda_{d} = e^{\Lambda T}$  may also be calculated using Eq.(2.1), i.e.:

A, - M diag(e<sup>1,T</sup>) M<sup>-1</sup>

where  $\lambda_r$  are eigenvalues of A, and M is an  $(n \times n)$  "modal" matrix containing n "ordinary" eigenvectors of A associated with eigenvalues  $\lambda_r$ . For more details see Chapter 2 as well as Appendices A and B.

In this specific case the matrix A<sub>4</sub> may be calculated by Algorithm EATJ given below which, in fact, implements Eq.(2.1).

Algorithm EATJ

Syntax:  $T, A (EAT) \Rightarrow A_d$ 

For input/output arguments see Algorithm EAT.

### Algorithm:

1. Define input arrays T and A 2. Set A (JFR)  $\Rightarrow$  M 3. Set A (EGV)  $\Rightarrow$  eg = {  $\lambda_i$  } 4. Set diag{ exp( $\lambda_i T$ ) }  $\Rightarrow$  ExJf 5. Set M ExJf M<sup>4</sup>  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>2</sub>

The listing of Algorithm *EATJ*, implemented using the *L-A-S* language, is given in Appendix C. The calculations in Steps 2, 3 and 4 are performed using the algorithms:

JFR (the Jordan form of a diagonalizable square matrix), EGV (the eigenvalues of a general square matrix), and

ExJf (a diagonal "Jordan" form having the scalars  $e^{\lambda_{i}T}$  on the main diagonal),

respectively. All these algorithms are available in L-A-S as simple "operators." For details on the concept of L-A-S operators see Appendix C.

### Linearly Interpolated Model

In a similar development one can work with higher-order hold devices, although they are not as commonly found in hardware form. A more accurate model is given by a linear interpolation between sampled values. This is referred to as the *trapezoidal rule* when used as an approximate integration technique. Thus, the C-T input signals are represented as straight lines between adjacent samples as illustrated in Fig. 1.4. From Fig. 1.4, for  $kT \le t < kT+T$ , we can write the relation

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \frac{(t-kT)}{T}\mathbf{u}(kT+T) + \frac{(kT+T-t)}{T}\mathbf{u}(kT)$$

With this more elaborate model of the inputs the general solution to the state equation can be used (in much the same manner as was done in the previous development for the ZOH model) to arrive at the *linearly interpolated model* 

$$\mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{A}_{d}\mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B}_{d0}\mathbf{u}(k) + \mathbf{B}_{d1}\mathbf{u}(k+1)$$
 = (1.28)

where the notation of Eq.(1.26) has been used to simplify the expression and



FIGURE 1.4 Linearly Interpolated Data

$$A_{d} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{T^{i}}{i!} A^{i}$$
  

$$B_{d0} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{i+1}{(i+2)!} T^{i+1} A^{i} B$$
  

$$B_{d1} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{T^{i+1}}{(i+2)!} A^{i} B$$
  
(1.29)

Equation (1.28) evaluates the present state as a weighted sum of present input, past input, and past state. The coefficient matrices would have to be handled numerically as e.g. truncated versions of Eqs.(1.29). We will not pursue higherorder developments along this line; however, more details will be presented in the next chapter on algorithms for implementing this discretization. We summarize with the following definition.

Definition 1.3 The discrete-time state (variable) model is given by

$$\mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{A}_d \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B}_d \mathbf{u}(k), \quad \mathbf{x}(0)$$
  
 $\mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{C} \, \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{D} \, \mathbf{u}(k)$ 
(1.30)

where x is an  $(n \times 1)$  vector, u is an  $(m \times 1)$  vector, y is a  $(p \times 1)$  vector and the matrices  $A_{dr}$ ,  $B_{dr}$ , C and D have corresponding compatible dimensions. Figure 1.5 illustrates the vector block diagram for this model.

**Recursive Solution** In the following development the subscript d is omitted for convenience. Working with Definition 1.3 and assuming that x(0) and u(k) are known for  $k \ge 0$ ,



FIGURE 1.5 Discrete-Time State Model

$$x(1) = Ax(0) + Bu(0)$$
  

$$x(2) = Ax(1) + Bu(1) = A2x(0) + ABu(0) + Bu(1)$$

Continuing this recursive process leads to the general solution:

$$\mathbf{x}(k) = \mathbf{A}^{k} \mathbf{x}(0) + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \mathbf{A}^{k-i-1} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(i)$$
 (1.31)

Introducing Eq.(1.31) into the output equation of Eq.(1.30),

$$y(k) - y_{22}(k) + y_{23}(k) = (1.32)$$

where the zero-input response, yzi(k) is

$$y_{zy}(k) = CA^{k}x(0)$$
 (1.33)

4.1

and the zero-state response,  $y_{zs}(k)$  is

$$\mathbf{y}_{ZS}(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{A}^{k-i-1} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(i) + \mathbf{D} \mathbf{u}(k)$$
 (1.34)

We will also review transform descriptions from the background of the state variable models. The Laplace and z-transforms provide these alternative descriptions of the systems of Definitions 1.1 and 1.3.

### Section 1.3 Background Material

# 1.3.4 Controllability and Observability

Both controllability and observability are fundamental concepts in the design of control systems. The first answers the question of whether we can be assured of being able to influence the state of a system using the available inputs; and, the second answers a related question of whether all state variation is "visible" in some way through the measurements. In the following developments a D-T state space model of the form of Eq.(1.30) will be assumed as a starting point; but, since it is the structure of the state space model that is important and not whether the model is D-T or C-T, the end results will hold for both Eq.(1.30), as well as Eq.(1.7).

### Controllability

By "controlling" a plant, we mean to use its available dynamic inputs (variables capable of being manipulated) and specify their time variations in order to obtain some desired response. We begin the discussion with the assumption that the D-T model in Eq.(1.30) is completely known and completely representative of the system to be controlled. Equation (1.30) has the general solution for its state given by Eq.(1.31). Here we recognize that it is the internal state and not just the output that is of concern.

**Definition 1.4** The discrete-time state (variable) model given by Eq.(1.30) is *(completely state) controllable* if it is possible to force the state from any initial state  $x_p$  to an arbitrary "target" state  $x_y$  in a finite number of steps.

We will use this definition to derive a simple rank calculation to test for the property of controllability in a linear system. It is noted that for linear systems the problems concerning the transfer from an arbitrary initial state  $x_0$  to the origin 0, or the transfer from the origin 0 to an arbitrary final state  $x_f$  are equivalent. This latter perspective is often used to define the related concept of *reachability*. Recalling Eq.(1.31), x(k) is the state after k steps. Intuitively, if we can drive a system from one state to any other, then we can control the system in some more complicated manner. Expanding Eq.(1.31) and equating x(k) to  $x_r$ , we can write

$$\mathbf{x}_{f} - \mathbf{A}^{k} \mathbf{x}(0) = [\mathbf{B} \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \quad \mathbf{A}^{2}\mathbf{B} \quad - \quad \mathbf{A}^{k-1}\mathbf{B}] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(k-1) \\ \mathbf{u}(k-2) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}(0) \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.35)

This expression is suggestive of solving for the set of input vectors which, when

applied to the system, will cause the state to end up at  $x_r$  after k steps. Since the left side of the equation is arbitrary, the coefficient (partitioned) matrix must have full rank, i.e. n. However, we have not, as yet, specified k. Is it possible that the partitions  $A^{k+1}$  B continue to generate linearly independent columns as k increases? In fact this is not the case. The Cayley-Hamilton theorem of matrix algebra tells us that  $A^*$  (where A is an  $(n \times n)$  matrix) satisfies its own characteristic polynomial and, therefore,  $A^*$  can be written as a linear combination of powers of A less than n. Thus, with k = n in Eq.(1.35) we maximize the number of linearly independent columns of the coefficient matrix. In this case the coefficient matrix is given a special name, i.e. the system controllability matrix.

Definition 1.5 The controllability matrix for the discrete-time state model given by Eq.(1.30) is defined as

$$\mathbf{Q}_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} & - & \mathbf{A}^{s-1}\mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}$$

Controllability is an inherent structural property of a system model, and equivalent systems will exhibit the same test results. The simple knowledge of whether a system is controllable, or not, is crucial to the subsequent state space control methods. Without controllability not all of the states can be "guided" by input manipulation. Unfortunately, the question of controllability gives rise to a yes or no answer and does not directly indicate the "degree of controllability," a measure of how close the system is to being uncontrollable. Yet another perspective is that if a particular model is not controllable, it simply means that additional actuation capability must be designed into the system.

We summarize this discussion with the following test and a subsequent algorithm for calculating the controllability matrix. It may be noted that in the Algorithm Qc, the definition of Q<sub>c</sub> is slightly modified. In particular, it is known that for MIMO systems no new linearly independent columns of Q<sub>c</sub> are added beyond the partition  $A^{**}$  B, where *m* is the number of (independent) columns in B. Therefore, Q<sub>c</sub> can be defined to end with the partition  $A^{**}$  B, rather than  $A^{*+}$  B.

Controllability Test: The system described by Eq.(1.30), or that described by Eq.(1.7), is *controllable* if and only if its controllability matrix,  $Q_c$ , given in Def. 1.5 has rank *n*, where *n* is the order of the system.

Algorithm QcSyntax: A, B  $(Qc) \Rightarrow Q_c$ 

Purpose: To calculate the n × (n-m+1)m matrix Q<sub>c</sub>=[ B AB ... A<sup>ere</sup>B ]

#### Section 1.3 Background Material

Description: The matrix Q, is calculated by the following recursive process:

$$Q_{ni} = [Q_{ni-1}] | A^{i-1}B]$$
, for  $i = 1$  to  $(n-m+1)$ 

with initial condition that  $Q_{e0} = 0_{\mu,0}$ . The matrix  $Q_e$  is equal to  $Q_{e + in + 10}$ .

Notation: 0<sub>n,0</sub> represents a zero matrix with n rows and zero columns, and [X<sub>1</sub> | X<sub>2</sub>] ⇒ X refers to concatenation "by columns," i.e.

 $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{X}_1 \mid \mathbf{X}_2]$ 

### Algorithm:

- 1. Define matrices A and B
- Set the number of columns in A ⇒ n
- 3. Set the number of columns in  $\mathbf{B} \Rightarrow m$
- 4. Set  $n m + 1 \Rightarrow i_{-}$
- 5. Set  $B \Rightarrow X$
- 6. Set  $0_{s,0} \Rightarrow Q_c$
- 7. Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$
- 8. Set  $i + 1 \Rightarrow i$
- 9. Set  $[Q_r | X] \Rightarrow Q_r$
- 10. Set  $A X \Rightarrow X$
- If i < i<sub>n</sub>, go to 8; else, stop

#### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of the Algorithm Qc implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Note the striking similarlity of the algorithm steps and the corresponding L-A-S operator statements.

### Observability

As in the previous discussion, the D-T model of Eq.(1.30) will be assumed to accurately represent the system at hand. The concept of *observability* is a fundamental property of systems related to how the measurements, or outputs, interact with the system states. It has been shown that the simple problem of identifying the initial state, x(0), by observing a finite number of outputs is equivalent to knowing that the complete state information is transmitted to the outputs. Although we know from Eq.(1.32) that the general solution consists of two parts, only the zero-input response need be used to develop the condition under which the initial state can be identified from a finite number of outputs. The reason for this is that, since the model and inputs are known, the zero-state response could simply be calculated and subtracted away from the total solution. **Definition 1.6** The discrete-time state model given by Eq.(1.30) is (completely state) observable if it is possible to determine x(0) from knowledge of u(k) and y(k) over a finite number of time steps.

This definition will be used to develop a simple rank test for the property of observability of a system, similar to that developed for controllability above. Since without loss of generality we can assume that u(k) = 0, as discussed previously, we can expand Eq.(1.33) to obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{CA} \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{CA}^k \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}(0) \\ \mathbf{y}(1) \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{y}(k) \end{bmatrix}$$

We can solve for x(0) given the known vector on the right if and only if the *n* columns of the coefficient matrix on the left are linearly independent. Since the number of linearly independent columns of a matrix equals the number of linearly independent rows, we can add partitions (C A<sup>i</sup>) to have this affect. Again, as in the case of the controllability test, the maximal rank of the coefficient matrix is assured when the final partition is (C A<sup>n</sup>). For this case the *observability matrix* is defined as follows.

Definition 1.7 The observability matrix for the discrete-time state model given by Eq.(1.30) is defined as

$$Q_{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ CA \\ - \\ CA^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $Q_o$  has *n* columns and *np* rows, the maximum rank of  $Q_o$  is *n*. Thus, for an arbitrary set of *n* output measurements, we can solve for x(0) above if and only if  $Q_o$  has *n* linearly independent columns. Consequently, we have the following test.

Observability Test: The system described by Eq.(1.30), or that described by Eq.(1.7), is observable if and only if its observability matrix,  $Q_e$ , given in Def. 1.7 has rank n, where n is the order of the system.

#### Section 1.3 Background Material

Like controllability, observability is an intrinsic property of a system. Equivalent state models exhibit identical test results. The test above provides a yes or no answer and, as with controllability, no direct measure of the "degree of observability." Since observability deals with how the sensors relate to the system dynamics, lack of observability can be interpreted as a need for more sensors for the system.

Algorithm Qo

Syntax: A, C  $(Qo) \rightarrow Q_o$ 

Purpose: To calculate the  $(n-p+1)p \times n$  matrix

$$Q_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ CA \\ ... \\ CA^{n-p} \end{bmatrix}$$

where p is the number of rows in C. Note that as in algorithm Qc, the rows of Q, have been truncated, thereby redefining Q, for ease of computation.

Description: The matrix Q, is calculated by the following recursive process:

$$\mathbf{Q}_{oi} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q}_{o(i-1)} \\ ---- \\ \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{i-1} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ for } i = 1 \text{ to } (n-p+1)$$

with initial condition that  $Q_{a0} = 0_{0,a}$ . The matrix  $Q_{a}$  is equal to  $Q_{a(a,p+1)}$ .

Notation:  $0_{0,n} = a$  zero matrix with zero rows and *n* columns. And

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ -- \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \mathbf{X} , \text{ means that } \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ -- \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e. concatenation "by rows."

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Define matrices A and C
- 2. Set the number of columns in  $A \Rightarrow n$
- 3. Set the number of rows in  $C \Rightarrow p$

4. Set n-p+1 ⇒ i<sub>p</sub>
5. Set C ⇒ X
6. Set 0<sub>0,s</sub> ⇒ Q<sub>s</sub>
7. Set 0 ⇒ i
8. Set i + 1 ⇒ i
9. Set [Q<sub>o</sub><sup>T</sup> | X<sup>T</sup>]<sup>T</sup> → Q<sub>o</sub>
10. Set X A ⇒ X
11. If i < i<sub>p</sub>, go to 8; else, stop
Algorithm Implementation: The listing of the Algorithm Qo implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C.

Duality Principle: It is found that for many types of calculations that a certain similarity exists. For example, in the previous tests for controllability and observability, there is a noticeable similarity in the calculations. Since this phenomenon shows up in several places, we will begin to explain with the following definition of *dual systems*.

Definition 1.8 If the discrete-time state model, S, is defined as

 $\mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(k)$  $\mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{u}(k)$ 

then the dual system, S', is given by

$$\mathbf{x}'(k+1) = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}'(k) + \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{u}'(k)$$
  
 $\mathbf{v}'(k) = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{x}'(k) + \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{u}'(k)$ 

with its own states, inputs and outputs.

It is easy to see that the relationship of duality is "reflexive," i.e. if a system S is the dual of a system S', then S' is also the dual of S. With regard to the previous tests of controllability and observability, we can say that:

• A system is controllable (observable) if and only if its dual system is observable (controllable). Specifically,  $Q_c$  may be calculated using Qc as follows:  $A_c^T$ ,  $C^T$  (Qc)  $\Rightarrow$  X

$$X^T \Rightarrow Q_s$$

and similarly Q, can be calculated using Qo. More will be said on this later.

## 1.3.5 Responses of State Space Models

Having created models of systems such as given in Eqs. (1.7) or (1.30), it is frequently necessary to numerically calculate and plot the responses of these systems from known initial conditions and input functions. In *L-A-S* it is convenient to symbolically represent the response of either D-T or C-T in the same way:

A, B, C, D, x<sub>o</sub>, u, T (CDSR) 
$$\rightarrow$$
 y

where A, B, C and D represent the D-T or C-T state space model;  $x_0$  is the initial state; u is the  $(m \times N)$  array of input vector samples, where N is the number of samples. The parameter T, shown as an input to Algorithm CDSR above, is a scalar which represents the total solution time for C-T models; for D-T models it should be set to zero or any negative scalar.

In the case of a C-T system, i.e. for u(t), the  $k^{th}$  column of u contains the vector  $u(t_i)$ , where

$$t_k = \frac{(k-1)T}{N-1}, \quad \text{for } 1 \le k \le N$$

The values of u(t) between samples are assumed to be linearly interpolated as illustrated in Fig. 1.4 and further described in the previous discussion of Linearly Interpolated Models. Finally, y is a  $(p \times N)$  matrix containing solutions of either of the state models, Eqs.(1.7) or (1.30).

Plotting of the responses y may be accomplished in L-A-S by the commands:

where (T) is a matrix transpose operator. For more details see Appendix C.

# 1.3.6 Continuous-Time Transfer Matrices

Applying the Laplace transform to the state space model of Definition 1.1 with  $t_0 = 0$ ,

$$sx(s) - x(0) = Ax(s) + Bu(s)$$
  
 $y(s) = Cx(s) + Du(s)$ 
(1.36)

Solving for y(s),

$$y(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}x(0) + [C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D]u(s) \qquad \blacksquare (1.37)$$

Definition 1.9 The continuous-time transfer matrix, G(s), is the zero-state relation between the transformed input and output vectors, e.g.

$$G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$$
 = (1.38)

**Definition 1.10** The characteristic polynomial of the generic state model is the  $n^{th}$  order polynomial

$$a(s) = \det(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) \qquad \blacksquare (1.39)$$

The transfer matrix G(s) reduces to a scalar and is called the *transfer function* when the system has only one input and one output.

Definition 1.11 The transfer matrix G(s) is said to be a proper transfer matrix if

$$\lim_{s \to \infty} G(s) = G_0 \qquad \qquad \blacksquare (1.40)$$

where  $G_0$  is a constant (finite) matrix, not dependent on s.

Definition 1.12 The transfer matrix G(s) is said to be a strictly proper transfer matrix if

$$\lim_{s \to \infty} G(s) = 0 \qquad \qquad \blacksquare (1.41)$$

# 1.3.7 Discrete-Time Transfer Matrices

In a similar manner to the previous development the z-transform can be applied to the system of Definition 1.3, where the subscript d is omitted for convenience,

$$zx(z) - zx(0) = Ax(z) + Bu(z)$$
  
 $y(z) = Cx(z) + Du(z)$ 
(1.42)

$$y(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1}z x(0) + [C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D] u(z) \qquad \blacksquare (1.43)$$

24

Definition 1.13 The discrete-time transfer matrix G(z) is the zero state relation between the z-transformed input and output vectors, e.g.

$$G(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D$$
 (1.44)

The reader should recognize the similarity between the D-T and the C-T transfer matrices. Both are *algebraic* quantities so that Definitions 1.10, 1.11 and 1.12, as well as many others, may be interpreted in either the *s*- or the *z*-domain. In many places throughout this text we will rely on the readers' recognition that a certain operation performed in the *s*-domain would be identical in the *z*-domain. The following algorithm is one such case.

# 1.3.8 Leverrier's Algorithm

In the previous section it was seen that the resolvent matrix, (sI - A)<sup>4</sup>, played an important roll in formulating the transfer matrix from the state-space model. Formally,

$$(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} = \frac{\operatorname{adj}(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})}{\det(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})} \qquad \blacksquare (1.45)$$

where the denominator of Eq.(1.45) is an  $n^{th}$  order polynomial, a(s), called the characteristic polynomial of the matrix A. Explicitly,

$$a(s) = s^{n} + \alpha_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \alpha_{n-2}s^{n-2} + \dots + \alpha_{1}s + \alpha_{0} \qquad \blacksquare (1.46)$$

From Eq.(1.45),

$$adj (s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) \cdot (s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = det (s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = a(s)\mathbf{I}$$
(1.47)

The adjoint matrix can be expanded as

$$adj(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{I} s^{n-1} + (\mathbf{A} + \alpha_{n-1}\mathbf{I})s^{n-2} + (\mathbf{A}^2 + \alpha_{n-1}\mathbf{A} + \alpha_{n-2}\mathbf{I})s^{n-3} + \dots + (\mathbf{A}^{n-1} + \alpha_{n-1}\mathbf{A}^{n-2} + \dots + \alpha_1\mathbf{I})$$
(1.48)

To see that this expansion is valid, the reader should take time to multiply Eq.(1.48) by (sI - A), thereby checking Eq.(1.47). Note that the *Cayley-Hamilton Theorem* requires that a (square) matrix satisfy its own characteristic equation, i.e. a(A)=0, where a(s) is given in Eq.(1.46). Let us formally write that

$$(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} = \frac{1}{a(s)} \left[ \mathbf{R}_{s-1} s^{s-1} + \mathbf{R}_{s-2} s^{s-2} + \dots + \mathbf{R}_1 s + \mathbf{R}_0 \right] = \frac{\mathbf{R}(s)}{a(s)} \quad (1.49)$$

#### Chapter 1 Introduction

The numerator polynomial matrix  $R(s) = \{r_0(s)\}$  is an  $(n \times n)$  matrix of  $(n-1)^n$  order polynomials,  $r_n(s)$ , which can be expressed as follows:

$$R(s) = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{R}_l s^l = \{r_{ij}(s)\}, \quad r_{ij}(s) = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} r_{ijl} s^l$$
(1.50)

It should be clear that the relation between the  $(n \times n)$  real matrices  $\mathbf{R}_{t}$  and the coefficients  $r_{at}$  of the polynomials  $r_{at}(s)$  is given by:

$$\mathbf{R}_{i} = \{r_{iii}\}, \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n, \ 1 \le j \le n, \ 0 \le l \le n-1$$

Comparing Eqs.(1.48) and (1.49), it may be concluded that:

$$\mathbf{R}_{n-1} = \mathbf{I}$$
,  $\mathbf{R}_{n-2} = \mathbf{R}_{n-1}\mathbf{A} + \alpha_{n-1}\mathbf{I}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}_{n-3} = \mathbf{R}_{n-2}\mathbf{A} + \alpha_{n-2}\mathbf{I}$ , (1.51)  
...,  $\mathbf{R}_0 = \mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{A} + \alpha_1\mathbf{I}$ 

Also, since the matrix A satisfies its own characteristic equation, a(A) = 0,

$$\mathbf{R}_{0}\mathbf{A} + \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{0}\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{0} \tag{1.52}$$

Leverrier's algorithm is a recursive method that calculates the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial in Eq.(1.46) as well as the matrix coefficients of adj(sI - A), as shown in Eq.(1.51). The recursion steps begin with a matrix result that the coefficient  $\alpha_{n-1}$  in Eq.(1.46) is the negative of the sum of the eigenvalues of A, which, in turn, is equal to the negative of the *trace* of A. The *trace* of A is defined as the sum of the main diagonal elements of A, denoted tr(A).

$$\mathbf{R}_{n-1} = \mathbf{I} , \qquad \alpha_{n-1} = -tr(\mathbf{A})$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{n-2} = \mathbf{R}_{n-1}\mathbf{A} + \alpha_{n-1}\mathbf{I} , \qquad \alpha_{n-2} = -\frac{1}{2}tr(\mathbf{R}_{n-2}\mathbf{A})$$

$$\dots$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{0} = \mathbf{R}_{1}\mathbf{A} + \alpha_{1}\mathbf{I} , \qquad \alpha_{0} = -\frac{1}{n}tr(\mathbf{R}_{0}\mathbf{A})$$
(1.53)

Equation (1.52) can be used as a numerical check on the above calculations.

Example 1.2 (Leverrier's Algorithm) Given the following matrix

1	0	1	0	ľ
A =	0	0	1	
	-2	-4	-3	Į.

We will calculate (sI - A)<sup>-1</sup> using Algorithm RESO to implement Eq.(1.53) and check the result with Eq.(1.52). Following the recursion steps of Eq.(1.53),

$$\mathbf{R}_{2} = \mathbf{I} , \qquad \alpha_{2} = 3$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{1} = \mathbf{R}_{2} \mathbf{A} + \alpha_{2} \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & -4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \alpha_{1} = 4$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{0} = \mathbf{R}_{1} \mathbf{A} + \alpha_{1} \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \alpha_{0} = 2$$

Equation (1.52) is satisfied identically; therefore,

$$(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}{s^2} + \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & -4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}} + \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}{s^3 + 3s^2 + 4s + 2} = \frac{R(s)}{a(s)}$$

or, equally,

$$(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} s^2 + 3s + 4 & s + 3 & 1 \\ -2 & s^2 + 3s & s \\ -2s & -4s - 2 & s^2 \end{bmatrix}}{s^3 + 3s^2 + 4s + 2} = \frac{\{r_{ij}(s)\}}{a(s)}$$

The reader is invited to further check the results by direct calculation of (sI - A)-1.

In the following we will discuss algorithms which not only calculate the resolvent matrix (Algorithm RESO), but also calculate the complete transfer matrix from a state space description (Algorithm LALG, using Leverrier's algorithm and Algorithm SSTF, which is not based on Leverrier's algorithm). In the sequel important notation is developed as well as additional examples for better understanding of MIMO system descriptions.

Algorithm RESO

Syntax: A (RESO) → a, R, R

**Purpose:** Calculation of coefficients of the characteristic polynomial a(s) and the numerator polynomial matrix R(s) defining the resolvent  $(sI - A)^4$  of the given (square) matrix A using the Leverrier algorithm.

Input/Output Arguments:

•  $A = given (n \times n) matrix$ 

**a** =  $(1 \times n+1)$  row containing coefficients  $a_i$ ,  $0 \le i \le n$ , of a(s). Coefficients are ordered by indices in increasing order. **R**<sub>r</sub> =  $(n \times n^2)$  matrix containing n ( $n \times n$ ) matrices **R**<sub>i</sub>,  $0 \le i \le n-1$ , defining the  $(n \times n)$  polynomial matrix R(s). Matrices **R**<sub>i</sub> are ordered by indices in increasing order.

 $\mathbf{R} = (n^2 \times n)$  matrix whose rows contain *n* coefficients,  $r_{gh}$ ,  $0 \le h \le n-1$ , of the polynomials  $r_g(s)$  defining the polynomial matrix  $\mathbf{R}(s)$ . Rows  $r_g$  are ordered "columnwise," i.e.

row 1 contains coefficients of  $r_{11}(s)$ , row 2 contains coefficients of  $r_{21}(s)$ ,

row *n* contains coefficients of  $r_{si}(s)$ , row *n*+1 contains coefficients of  $r_{12}(s)$ , (a)

row 2n contains coefficients of  $r_{a2}(s)$ ,

row  $n^2$  contains coefficients of  $r_{as}(s)$ .

The matrix R is said to be in polynomial matrix form (PMF). The rows  $r_q$ of R are:

$$r_{ij} = [r_{ij0} \ r_{ij1} \ \cdots \ r_{ij(n-1)}]$$

Description: The expressions in (1.53) can be represented by the following recursive process:

$$\mathbf{R}_{n-i-1} = \mathbf{R}_{n-i}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{I}_n \alpha_{n-i}$$
  
$$\alpha_{n-i-1} = -\frac{tr(\mathbf{R}_{n-i-1}\mathbf{A})}{i+1}$$
(b)

for  $0 \le i \le n$ , with initial conditions  $\mathbf{R}_n = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\alpha_n = 1$ .

Note that the matrix  $\mathbf{R}_1 = \mathbf{R}_0 \mathbf{A} + \alpha_0 \mathbf{I}$  calculated in the last step, i.e. for i = n, is not used in defining the numerator polynomial matrix  $\mathbf{R}(s)$ . The norm of this matrix could be used for checking the accuracy of the calculation since:

$$\mathbf{R}_{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \alpha_i \mathbf{A}^i \tag{c}$$

which according to the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem should be equal to the zero matrix.

In addition to the  $(1 \times n+1)$  row a and the  $(n \times n^2)$  matrix  $\mathbf{R}_n$  namely

 $a = [\alpha_0 \quad \alpha_1 \quad \cdots \quad \alpha_{n-1} \quad \alpha_n]$  $\mathbf{R} = [\mathbf{R}_0 \quad \mathbf{R}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{R}_{n-1}]$ (d)

Algorithm RESO also calculates the  $(n^2 \times n)$  matrix **R** whose rows contain the coefficients,  $r_{ijk}$ , of the  $(n-1)^{ik}$  order polynomials  $r_{ij}(s)$ , defining the numerator polynomial matrix R(s) in Eq.(1.50). The arrays **R**, and **R** contain the same scalars,  $r_{ijk}$ , but arranged differently. The reason for calculating both arrays is, as will become clear later, that some control algorithms require the form of **R**<sub>r</sub>, while others make use of the polynomials of **R** more directly.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Define square matrix A
- Set number of columns in A ⇒ n
- 3. Set I., ⇒ I
- 4. Set 0<sub>a,0</sub> ⇒ R,
- Set I ⇒ R<sub>i</sub>
- 6. Set  $n^2 \Rightarrow nn$
- 7. Set  $0_{an0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{R}$
- 8. Set  $1 \Rightarrow a$
- 9. Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$
- Set i+1 ⇒ i
- 11. Set  $\mathbf{R}_i \times \mathbf{A} \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}$
- 12. Set  $-tr(\mathbf{E})/l \Rightarrow a_l$
- 13. Set  $[a, |a] \Rightarrow a$
- 14. Set  $[\mathbf{R}_i | \mathbf{R}_r] \Rightarrow \mathbf{R}_r$
- Set all n columns of R<sub>i</sub> into a single n<sup>2</sup> dimensional column ⇒ r<sub>i</sub>
- 16. Set  $[r, |R] \Rightarrow R$
- 17. Set  $\mathbf{E} + a_i \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{R}_i$
- If i < n, go to 10; else, stop</li>

Algorithm Implementation: (See Appendix C for the L-A-S listing.)

## 1.3.9 Transfer Function Matrix Calculation

From the previous discussion it is clear that in addition to the resolvent matrix of Eq.(1.45) the transfer function matrix G(s), defined in Eq.(1.38), or G(z)in Eq.(1.44), is an important representation of a system. The next two algorithms were designed to calculate the transfer matrix from a given state space representation, {A,B,C,D}. Algorithm LALG, based on Leverrier's algorithm will be considered first. This algorithm calculates the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial a(s) and the  $(m \times p)$  numerator polynomial matrix, W(s), related to the transfer matrix by

$$G(s) = C (sI - A)^{-1}B + D = \frac{W(s)}{a(s)}$$
 (1.54)

for a given nº order system with m-inputs and p-outputs.

Similarly, as in Eq.(1.49), the  $(p \times m)$  polynomial matrix W(s) can be represented as

$$W(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} W_{k} s^{k} = \left\{ w_{ij}(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_{ijk} s^{k} \right\}$$
(1.55)

where

$$W_{k} = \{w_{ijk}\}, 1 \le i \le p, 1 \le j \le m, 0 \le h \le n$$

# Algorithm LALG

Syntax: A, B, C, D  $(LALG) \Rightarrow a, W_o, W$ 

**Purpose:** Calculation of coefficients of the characteristic polynomial a(s) and the  $(p \times m)$  numerator polynomial matrix W(s) defining the transfer matrix G(s) of a given state space representation  $\{A, B, C, D\}$  using the Leverrier algorithm.

#### Input/Output Arguments:

- {A, B, C, D} = state space representation of given system with n states, m inputs and p outputs.
- a = (1 × n+1) row array containing coefficients a<sub>i</sub>, 0 ≤ l ≤ n, of a(s). Coefficients are ordered by indices in increasing order.
- W<sub>i</sub> = (p × (n+1)m) matrix containing n+1 (p × m) matrices W<sub>i</sub>, for 0 ≤ i ≤ n, defining the (p × m) polynomial matrix W(s) in (1.55). The matrices W<sub>i</sub> are ordered by indices in increasing order.
- W = (pm × n+1) matrix whose rows contain n+1 coefficients w<sub>gh</sub>, for 0 ≤ h ≤ n, of polynomials w<sub>g</sub>(s) defining the polynomial matrix W(s). As was true for Algorithm RESO, the rows w<sub>gv</sub> 1 ≤ i ≤ p, 1 ≤ j ≤ m, are ordered "columnwise," i.e.

row 1 contains coefficients of  $w_{11}(s)$ , row 2 contains coefficients of  $w_{21}(s)$ , ... row p contains coefficients of  $w_{k1}(s)$ , row p+1 contains coefficients of  $w_{k2}(s)$ ,

(a)

row 2p contains coefficients of who(s),

row pm contains coefficients of win(s).

The matrix W is said to be in the polynomial matrix form (PMF). The rows  $w_a$  of W are :

 $w_{ij} = [w_{ij0} \ w_{ij1} - w_{ijn}]$ 

Description: The calculation of the coefficients of a(s) and matrices  $W_i$ ,  $0 \le i \le n$ , defining G(s) can, as in algorithm RESO, be represented by the following recursive process:

$$\mathbf{R}_{n-i-1} = \mathbf{R}_{n-i}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{I}_{n}\alpha_{n-i}$$

$$\alpha_{n-i-1} = -\frac{tr(\mathbf{R}_{n-i-1}\mathbf{A})}{i+1}$$

$$\mathbf{W}_{n-i} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{R}_{n-i}\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{D}\alpha_{n-i}$$
(b)

for  $0 \le i \le n$ , with initial conditions  $\mathbf{R}_n = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\alpha_n = 1$ . Again note that the matrix  $\mathbf{R}_1$  calculated in the last step, i.e. for i = n, could be used for checking the accuracy of the algorithm.

In addition to the  $(1 \times n+1)$  row matrix a and the  $(p \times (n+1)m)$  matrix  $W_n$  namely

$$a = [\alpha_0 \quad \alpha_1 \quad - \quad \alpha_{n-1} \quad \alpha_n] \\ W_r = [W_0 \quad W_1 \quad - \quad W_{n-1} \quad W_n]$$
(c)

Algorithm LALG also calculates the  $(pm \times n+1)$  matrix W whose rows contain the coefficients,  $w_{qn}$ , of the  $(n-1)^n$  order polynomials  $w_q(s)$ , defining the numerator polynomial matrix W(s) as in Eq.(1.55), i.e.

$$W(s) = \sum_{h=0}^{n} W_{h} s^{h} = \left\{ w_{ij}(s) = \sum_{h=0}^{n} w_{ijk} s^{h} \right\}$$
(d)

where  $W_h = \{w_{ijh}\}, 1 \le i \le p, 1 \le j \le m, 0 \le h \le n$ 

Algorithm:

- Define square matrix A
- 2. Set number of columns in  $A \Rightarrow n$
- 3. Set I, ⇒ 1
- 4. Set  $D \Rightarrow W$ , and  $I \Rightarrow R$ ,

Set all m columns of D into a pm dimensional column ⇒ W
 Set I = a

0. Set 
$$1 \Rightarrow a$$

9 Set 
$$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{A} \Rightarrow \mathbf{F}$$

11. Set C R, B + D 
$$a_i \Rightarrow W_i$$

12. Set 
$$[a_i \mid a] \Rightarrow a$$

13. Set 
$$[W_i | W_j] \Rightarrow W_j$$

14. Set all m columns of W, into a single pm dimensional column ⇒ w,

15. Set 
$$[w_i | W] \Rightarrow W$$

16. Set 
$$\mathbf{E} + a_i \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{R}_i$$

17. If 
$$i < n$$
, go to 8; else, stop

Algorithm Implementation: (See Appendix C for the L-A-S listing.)

Example 1.3 (Transfer Matrix Calculation) For this example the given MIMO system {A, B, C, D} is (in system matrix form)

	0	1	0	1	0	1	
	0	0	1	1.	1	0	
AB.	-2	-4	-3	1	1	0	(1.56)
CD				- -			(1.50)
	1	0	0	1	1	0	
	0	0	2	1	0	0	

Note that state matrix, A, is identical to that used in Example 1.2 to illustrate the calculation of the resolvent matrix (sI - A)<sup>1</sup>. In this example we are looking for the transfer matrix

$$G(s) = \mathbf{C} (s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{D} = \frac{W(s)}{a(s)}$$

From applying Algorithm LALG:

 $a = [a_0 \ a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3] = [2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1]$ 

The characteristic polynomial is interpreted from this to be

$$a(s) = 2 + 4s + 3s^2 + s^3$$

In addition the algorithm provides W, , as follows

$$\mathbf{W}_{r} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_{0} & \mathbf{W}_{1} & \mathbf{W}_{2} & \mathbf{W}_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 & | & 5 & 3 & | & 3 & 1 & | & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & | & -8 & -4 & | & 2 & 0 & | & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and W, which contains the same information in different form,

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{11} \\ \mathbf{w}_{21} \\ \mathbf{w}_{12} \\ \mathbf{w}_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 & 3 & 1 \\ -4 & -8 & 2 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

From W we directly interpret that W(s) is

$$W(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 6 + 5s + 3s^2 + s^3 & 4 + 3s + s^2 \\ -4 - 8s + 2s^2 & -4s \end{bmatrix}$$

which completes the transfer matrix G(s) = W(s)/a(s).

As can be seen from the previous discussion, the Leverrier algorithm is both simple to understand and easy to inplement, but due to its recursive nature, it is susceptible to the accumulation of round-off errors. The next algorithm offers an alternative means for calculating the transfer matrix G(s) without using the Leverrier algorithm.

Algorithm SSTF

Syntax: A, B, C, D (SSTF)  $\Rightarrow$  a, W

**Purpose:** Calculation of coefficients of the characteristic polynomial a(s) and the  $(p \times m)$  numerator polynomial matrix W(s) defining the transfer matrix G(s) of a given state space representation {A, B, C, D} using polynomial manipulation.

Input/Output Arguments:

- {A, B, C, D} = state space representation of given system with n states, m inputs and p outputs.
- a = (1 × n+1) row array containing coefficients a<sub>i</sub>, 0 ≤ i ≤ n, of a(s). Coefficients are ordered by indices in increasing order.
- W = (pm × n+1) matrix whose rows contain n+1 coefficients w<sub>jin</sub>, for 0 ≤ h ≤ n, of polynomials w<sub>a</sub>(s) defining the polynomial matrix

W(s). As in the case of Algorithm RESO, the rows  $w_{ij}$ ,  $1 \le i \le p$ ,  $1 \le j \le m$ , are ordered "columnwise," i.e.

row 1 contains coefficients of  $w_{11}(s)$ , row 2 contains coefficients of  $w_{21}(s)$ , ... row p contains coefficients of  $w_{12}(s)$ , row p+1 contains coefficients of  $w_{12}(s)$ , ... row 2p contains coefficients of  $w_{12}(s)$ , ... row pm contains coefficients of  $w_{12}(s)$ .

The matrix W is said to be in polynomial matrix form (PMF). The rows  $w_g$ of W are

 $w_{ii} = [w_{ii0} \ w_{ii1} \ \cdots \ w_{iin}]$ 

Description: The polynomials  $w_q(s)$  in the  $(p \times m)$  matrix W(s) can be calculated differently from Algorithm LALG starting with the following result:

$$w_{ij}(s) = v_{ij}(s) + d_{ij}a(s)$$
 (a)

where a(s) is the characteristic polynomial of A,  $d_q$  is the  $ij^{th}$  element of D, and  $v_q(s)$  is the  $(n-1)^{th}$  order polynomial given by

 $v_{ij}(s) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} r_{ik}(s) b_{kj}$  (b)

where  $b_N$  is the  $hf^n$  element of the input matrix **B** and the  $(n-1)^n$  order polynomial  $r_n(s)$  is defined by

$$r_{ik}(s) = \det R_{ik}(s)$$
 (c)

and  $R_{\mu}(s)$  is the  $(n \times n)$  polynomial matrix obtained by substituting the  $h^{\mu}$ row in (sI - A) by the  $i^{\mu}$  row,  $c_{\mu}$  of the output matrix C,

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \cdots \\ c_i \\ \cdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}$$
(d)

Assuming that a computational procedure for calculating the characteristic polynomial of a square matrix is available (without using Leverrier's algorithm), the calculation of the polynomials  $r_{\mu}(s)$  could be performed by

$$r_{ik}(s) = r_{ikc}(s) - r_{kc}(s)$$
 (c)

where  $r_{sk}(s)$  and  $r_{k}(s)$  are characteristic polynomials of the  $(n \times n)$  matrices  $\mathbf{R}_{sk}$  and  $\mathbf{R}_{sk}$ , respectively, defined by

$$\mathbf{R}_{ihc} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \cdots \\ a_{k-1} \\ c_i \\ a_{k+1} \\ \cdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{R}_{kz} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \cdots \\ a_{k-1} \\ z \\ a_{k+1} \\ \cdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \cdots \\ a_{k-1} \\ a_k \\ a_{k+1} \\ \cdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$
(f)

In other words,  $\mathbf{R}_{ikc}$  is obtained from A by substituting the  $h^{th}$  row with the  $i^{th}$  row of C, and  $\mathbf{R}_{ikc}$  is obtained from A by substituting the  $h^{th}$  row with the *n*-dimensional zero row, z.

The alternate expression for calculating the polynomials  $v_q(s)$  in Eq.(a), to be used when p > m, is

$$v_{ij}(s) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_{ik} q_{kj}(s)$$
 (g)

where  $c_{a}$  is the *ih*<sup>a</sup> element of the output matrix C and the  $(n-1)^{a}$  order polynomial  $q_{b}(s)$  is defined by

$$q_{kl}(s) = \det Q_{kl}(s) \tag{h}$$

The  $(n \times n)$  polynomial matrix  $Q_{q}(s)$  is obtained by substituting the  $h^{th}$  column in (sI - A) by the  $j^{th}$  column of the input matrix **B**,

 $\mathbf{B} = [b_1 - b_j - b_m] \tag{(i)}$ 

The calculation of polynomials  $q_{ij}(s)$  can be performed by:

$$q_{kj}(s) = q_{kjk}(s) = q_{kj}(s)$$
 (j)

where  $q_{xy}(s)$  and  $q_{xx}(s)$  are characteristic polynomials of  $(n \times n)$  matrices  $Q_{xy}$  and  $Q_{xy}$ , respectively, defined by

$$Q_{kjb} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_{k-1} & c_i & a_{k+1} & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q_{kz} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_{k-1} & z & a_{k+1} & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$
(k)
where  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_{k-1} & a_k & a_{k+1} & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$ 

In other words,  $Q_{ij0}$  is obtained from A by substituting the  $h^{th}$  column with the  $j^{th}$  column of B, and  $Q_{ic}$  is obtained from A by substituting the  $h^{th}$ column with the *n*-dimensional zero column, z.

#### Algorithm:

- Set the number of columns in A ⇒ n
- 2. Set the number of columns in  $\mathbf{B} \Rightarrow m$
- Set the number of rows in C ⇒ p

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- 4. Set  $n+1 \Rightarrow n_1$
- 5. Set  $0_{1,a} \Rightarrow z$
- 6. Set  $I_{n,n} \Rightarrow I$
- 7. Set  $0_{a,0} \Rightarrow W_C$
- 8. Set  $0_{0,a1} \Rightarrow W_{SC}$
- 9. Set  $0 \Rightarrow j$
- 10. Set  $j+1 \Rightarrow j$
- 11. Extract  $j^{\text{th}}$  row from  $C \Rightarrow c_j$
- 12. Set  $0_{0,n1} \Rightarrow W_{e}$
- Set 0 ⇒ i
- 14. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$
- 15. Replace  $i^{th}$  row of A by  $c_i \Rightarrow A_{ch}$
- 16. Replace  $i^{\pm}$  row of A by  $z \Rightarrow A_{ii}$
- Set coefficients of det (sI A<sub>oi</sub>) ⇒ row a<sub>ci</sub>
- Set coefficients of det (sI A<sub>n</sub>) ⇒ row a<sub>n</sub>
- 19. Set  $a_{ni} a_{ni} \Rightarrow det$

It has been computationally verified that for higher-order systems, i.e. for n > 10, Algorithm SSTF is more accurate than Algorithm LALG.

The listing of Algorithm SSTF above, corresponding to Eqs.(a) to (f), should be used when m < p. The L-A-S implementation is given in Appendix C. If p > m, instead of using Eqs.(g) to (k), it is more convenient to use the concept of duality and apply the algorithm to the system representation given by

Chapter 1 Introduction

$$R_r = \{\mathbf{A}^T, \mathbf{C}^T, \mathbf{B}^T, \mathbf{D}^T\}$$

and then to transpose the obtained W(s). This sequence of operations is represented by the following three steps:

Set 
$$\mathbf{A}^{T}$$
,  $\mathbf{B}^{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}^{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}^{T} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}_{i}$ .  
Set  $\mathbf{A}_{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}_{i}$  (SSTF)  $\Rightarrow$  **a**,  $\mathbf{W}_{i}$ .  
Set  $\mathbf{W}_{i}^{T} \Rightarrow \mathbf{W}$ .

# 1.4 Matrix Fraction Description (MFD)

An alternative representation to either the state space description or the transfer matrix description is the matrix fraction description (MFD). For a C-T MIMO system the MFD model is of the form

$$D(s) y(s) = N(s) u(s)$$
 (1.57)

where y(s) is the  $(p \times 1)$  system output and u(s) is the  $(m \times 1)$  system input. The matrices  $D(s) = \{ d_q(s) \}$  and  $N(s) = \{ n_q(s) \}$  are left coprime  $(p \times p)$  and  $(p \times m)$  polynomial matrices. The orders of polynomials  $d_q(s)$  and  $n_q(s)$  satisfy:

$$0 \le \text{deg}[d_{ij}(s)] \le k$$
  
 $0 \le \text{deg}[n_{ij}(s)] \le k$ 
(1.58)

where  $k \leq n$ , *n* being the order of the system.

In keeping with the notation already established, polynomials  $d_q(s)$  and  $n_q(s)$  will be represented by:

$$d_{ij}(s) = \sum_{h=0}^{k} d_{ijh} s^{h}$$
 and  $n_{ij}(s) = \sum_{h=0}^{k} n_{ijh} s^{h}$  (1.59)

Similarly, polynomial matrices D(s) and N(s) may be written as:

$$D(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{k} D_{k} s^{k}$$
 and  $N(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{k} N_{k} s^{k}$  (1.60)

where

$$\mathbf{D}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11k} - d_{1pk} \\ 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ d_{p1k} & \cdots & d_{ppk} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{N}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} n_{11k} - n_{1mk} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ n_{p1k} & \cdots & n_{pmk} \end{bmatrix}$$

Two polynomial matrices are left coprime if they do not have common terms, or if: Section 1.4 Matrix Fraction Description

$$\operatorname{rank}[D(s) \mid N(s)] = p$$
 for all s

In other words, it is assumed that all existing common terms in D(s) and N(s) have been cancelled. In some relevant literature the MFD model is referred to as an auto-regressive-moving average (ARMA) model. As is the case with state space models, the MFD representation is not unique, i.e. there are more than one pair of polynomial matrices  $\{D(s), N(s)\}$  that will represent a given system. One variation of an MFD model is the following model:

$$y(s) = \tilde{N}(s) \tilde{D}^{-1}(s) u(s)$$
 (1.61)

which is sometimes expressed as

$$y(s) = \tilde{N}(s) v(s)$$
 (1.62)  
 $\tilde{D}(s) v(s) = u(s)$ 

where v(s) is an auxiliary *m* dimensional vector. It can be concluded that the MFD model is related to the system transfer matrix, G(s) by

$$G(s) = D^{-1}(s) N(s) = \tilde{N}(s) \tilde{D}^{-1}(s)$$
 (1.63)

Similarly, the  $(p \times m)$  and  $(m \times m)$  matrices  $\hat{N}(s)$  and  $\hat{D}(s)$  are right coprime if:

$$\operatorname{rank}\left[\tilde{N}^{T}(s) \mid \tilde{D}^{T}(s)\right] = m \quad \text{for all } s \tag{1.64}$$

It is worth mentioning that in the case of SISO models, i.e. for p = m = 1, matrices D(s) and N(s) become scalar polynomials d(s) and n(s), respectively, and the coprime condition reduces to: 

$$\operatorname{rank}[d(s) \mid n(s)] = 1 \quad \text{for all } s \tag{1.65}$$

The condition of Eq.(1.65), in fact, implies that polynomials d(s) and n(s) have no common factors, i.e. there is no value  $s = s_0$  for which both  $d(s_0)$  and  $n(s_0)$  are equal to zero. In other words, for  $s = p_i$ , i=[1,n], i.e. system poles,  $d(p_i) = 0$ , but  $n(p_i) \neq 0$ ; i.e. the transfer function g(s) = n(s)/d(s) does not have any pole-zero cancellations. Similarly, if there are no common factors, then for  $s = z_j$ , i.e. system zeros for which  $n(z_i) = 0$ ,  $d(z_i) \neq 0$ .

In the case of SISO systems, it is typically assumed that d(s) is a monic polynomial, i.e.

$$d(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i s^i$$
 where  $d_n = 1$  (1.66)

In Chapter 3 we extend this "normalization" concept to MIMO systems.

### Summary

In this chapter a general background of knowledge has been set. The reader is expected to have a basic understanding of *linear control systems* such as one might acquire with a first course in Control Systems. The direction of the material of this text is to extend this fundamental knowledge to include a working computational facility with MIMO linear systems. The authors feel that understanding MIMO systems is complemented by the exercise obtained from studying the algorithms that are used to work with these systems.

The concept of system *linearization* was discussed early in the chapter since linearization is the basis of obtaining the models of concern from real-world models. In the remainder of the chapter *state space* models were used to describe various fundamental relationships between models of different types. The two most important relationships are:

 The relation between the continuous-time (C-T) models and the corresponding discrete-time (D-T) models which is required for most computer-aided calculations; and

(2) The relation between the time domain models, either C-T or D-T, usually specified as state space models, and the corresponding frequency domain models. The reader is expected to be familiar with both the s-domain and the z-domain.

In the latter portions of the chapter, starting with Leverrier's algorithm, the important problem of converting from a state space representation to a transfer matrix representation was considered. In the process of presenting the computational algorithms useful notation was introduced. Finally, in Section 1.4 the useful matrix fraction description (MFD) method of system representation was introduced.

The emphasis in this chapter has been on definitions and notation. In the subsequent chapters the emphasis will be on computational methods of converting between model types as well as accomplishing various operations that are useful in the analysis and design of control systems.

# 1.6

# References

Although this chapter is presented as a transition chapter between the expected background of a classical control course and the subsequent study of multivariable systems, there are, no doubt, several topics for which the reader might want to obtain further information. This is a typical reference section in that at the end of each chapter a similar section gives suggestions for further reading, more or less, by chapter section.

1.5

#### Section 1.6 References

Much of the material in this chapter can be found in more detailed form in many existing texts. One that is very attractive because of the many worked-out problems is Brogan (1991). In Chapter 15 of Brogan the reader can find an excellent review of *nonlinear system linearization*. Similarly, Chapters 3, 9 and 11 of Brogan offer relevant discussions of this chapter's topics. Other books that fall in the catagory of general references for this chapter are listed below. Another general text which emphasizes a similar "computer-aided" approach is Jamshidi (1992), particularly Chapters 2 and 3.

Specific references for the D-T models developed in Section 1.3.3 are VanLandingham (1985) and Haykin (1972). For details on the calculation of transfer functions see Bingulac (1975a and 1975b), and for controllability and observability, Bingulac and Luse (1990).

Bingulac, S. (1975), "On the calculation of the transfer function matrix," IEEE Trans. on Automatic Control, AC-20, 1, 134-135.

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Bingulac, S. and W. Luse (1990), "Computational simplification in controllability and Observability tests," *Proceeding of the 28<sup>th</sup> Allerton Conference*, University of Illinois, October 3-5, 1990, 527-528.

Brogan, W.L. (1991), Modern Control Theory, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Haykin, S.S. (1972), "A unified treatment of recursive digital filtering," IEEE Trans. on Automatic Control, February 1972, pp 113-116.

Jamshidi, M. et al (1992), Computer-Aided Analysis and Design of Linear Control Systems, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

VanLandingham, H.F. (1985), Introduction to Digital Control Systems, Macmillan Publishing Co., New York, NY.

# Exercises

1.1 Using the following system state space representation, given in the system matrix partitioned form:

$$R_{g} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix}$$

namely,

	-1.0	1.0	1.0	.0	.0	1	1.0	.0	.0 ]	
	5	-1.5	.5	5	.0	1	.5	.5	.0	
	5	.5	-1.5	.5	.0	T.	5	.5	.0	
	.0	1.0	.0	-2.0	1.0	1	.0	.0	1.0	
<i>K<sub>g</sub></i> =	.5	5	5	5	-2.0	1	.5	5	.0	
						- -		***		
	.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	1	.0	.0	.0	
	.0	1.0	.0	2.0	1.0	1	.0	.0	.0	

Calculate:

- (a) —the controllability matrix Q, of the pair {A,B},
- (b) -- the observability matrix Q, of the pair {A,C},
- (c) —the ranks of both Q<sub>e</sub> and Q<sub>o</sub> to check the controllability and observability of R<sub>o</sub>
- (d) —the resolvent matrix R in PMF and the characteristic polynomial a(s) of A,
- (e) -- the resolvent matrix R, in a PMF-r form, and
- (f) —the system transfer function matrix G(s) in the form G(s) = W(s)/d(s). Express W(s) in PMF, i.e. determine the array W.

### Hints:

- Define the matrices of R<sub>s</sub> and the scalar ε using the L-A-S operator DMA.
- Use operators Qo and Qc to calculate Q<sub>o</sub> and Q<sub>c</sub>, respectively.
- The rank of a matrix is obtained using the operator NRS.
- Calculate the resolvent matrices R and R, with the L-A-S subroutine RESO.SUB.
- The transfer function matrix W in PMF may be obtained with the operator SSTF.

- The results may be displayed on screen by using the flag T with the operator OUT.
- The results may be written to the L-A-S print file by using the flag L with the operator OUT.
- Use the subroutine SYSM.SUB to build the system matrix R<sub>i</sub>.
- The individual matrices of R<sub>g</sub> may be extracted by the subroutine M14.SUB.
- Store your program on a Disk Program file using the Interpreter Command (IC) WPF (or simply W).
- Recall your program from a Disk Program file using the IC RPF (or simply R).
- Remember that information on L-A-S operators or IC syntax may be obtained by: HELP, <xyz> or simply h, <xyz> and for subroutine syntax: HELP, SUB, <xyz> or h, sub<xyz>.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER11.DPF.

1.2 Linearize the nonlinear mathematical model of the robot arm, Fig. 1.1, Section 1.3.1. As elements of the parameter vector p, defining the system dynamics, use

p = [ 0.0125 0.07 0.06 0.05 0.4 ]

Linearize the model around the following nominal point, zo

 $\mathbf{z}_{n} = [0.2 \quad 0.2 \quad 0.4 \quad 0.4 \quad 0.6 \quad 0.6]^{T}$ 

using for "finite differences,"  $dz = [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1]^{T} 10^{5}$ .

Your results should show the resulting matrices A and B, as well as estimate the accuracy of the linearization.

Hints:

- Define vectors using the DMA operator.
- The subroutine LIN.SBR can be used for performing the linearization.
- The subroutine GZ.SUB, defining the system dynamics, is available in the L-A-S master subdirectory C:\LAS\SUB\ and will be called by LIN.SBR.
- See also the hints following Exercise 1.1.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER12.DPF. 1.3 A 5<sup>th</sup> order "weakly" controllable and "weakly" observable state space representation with m=1 input and p=2 outputs is given below:

Determine:

- (a) —the eigenvalues λ<sub>i</sub>, i=[1,n], of A,
- (b) —the degrees of controllability and observability of each λ<sub>i</sub>, i=[1,n], of A.
- (c) Estimate the least controllable and the least observable eigenvalue λ<sub>i</sub>, i=[1,n], of A.

	-1.0	2.0	2	.6	.0	1	202 ]
	-2.0	-1.0	.4	.8	.0	1	.405
1	.0	.0	-2.0	1.0	.0	1	006
	.0	.0	-1.0	-2.0	.0	Ĩ.	012
K, =	2.0	2.0	4	8	1.0	Ĩ.	.595
		***				- -	
	03	1.06	-2.0	1.03	1.0	1	.0
	06	03	-1.0	-2.0	.0	1	.0

Hints:

- Define the representation R using either the operator DMA or INPM.
- The eigenvalues of A may be calculated using the operator EGV.
- The degrees of controllability and observability may be estimated using the subroutine COTS.SBR. See Section B.5 for more details on this topic.
- To plot the eigenvalues of the "auxiliary" matrices A<sub>cc</sub> and A<sub>ccs</sub> use operator NIK. For scaling of the axes operator YXSC may be used.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER13.DPF. As pointed out in Chapter 1, with the widespread use of computers in control loops it is inevitable that control engineers will face problems associated with sampled-data systems. Such systems by their very definition contain a mixture of continuous-time and discrete-time signals. A common problem that arises with sampled-data control systems is to find the equivalent effect of continuous-time operations as seen by the computer in the loop. Typically, the modeling of the signal converters assumes an ideal uniform sampler for the analog-to-digital converter and a simple (zero-order) hold device synchronized with the samples for a digital-to-analog converter. With these assumptions one may find in many references the standard zero-order hold model, also known as the step invariant (SI) model which will be discussed subsequently.

# 2.1 Introduction

In addition to simple plant modeling with SI equivalents there are occasions, such as in digital redesign or system identification, that demand more accuracy between a given continuous-time (C-T) system and its discrete-time (D-T) equivalent model. In these instances higher-order discrete models are required. Two models which have been introduced for this purpose are the *bilinear transformation (BT)* (without prewarping) and a method which assumes a linearly interpolated input, also known as the *trapezoidal rule*. This latter method is referred to as a *ramp-invariant (RI)* model in contrast to the standard *ZOH* model being a *step-invariant (SI)* model. This model was introduced as a *linearly interpolated (input)* model in Chapter 1; see Eq.(1.29). There are many other useful models, but this chapter will focus on only these three methods of discretization as being the most useful in practice.

The reverse problem, called *continualization*, is that of reconstructing a C-T model from a given D-T model. This problem could arise, for instance, when measured discrete data are used to identify a C-T system. The particular method of continualization selected would depend on how the discrete data was derived (if known). The method of continualization is presented for each of the three discretization techniques, thereby offering the designer a great deal of flexibility in going between the continuous and the discrete domains.

For the SI and RI models both the forward, discretization, and reverse, continualization, problems may be viewed as functional transformations on a given matrix A, i.e. in calculating  $\exp(A_cT)$  for discretization or  $\ln(A_d)/T$  for continualization. If the matrix A is transformed into its Jordan canonical form, A<sub>c</sub>, then
$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{Q}^{-1}$$

The modal matrix Q contains as columns the eigenvectors and/or generalized eigenvectors of A, depending on the eigenstructure of A. Then, relating the problem at hand, it is well known that

$$f(A) = Qf(A_{j})Q^{-1}$$
 (2.1)

when the scalar function f(x) is analytic at the eigenvalues of A. This approach is convenient if  $A_j$  is diagonal because  $f(A_j)$  is then itself diagonal. However, in the general case this approach is very restrictive in that it is not so straightforward to evaluate either the matrix Q or  $f(A_j)$ . Since it is desired to have robust algorithms to solve the continualization and discretization problems which are completely general, this method will not be pursued here.

Using basic properties of the exponential and logarithmic functions, a unified approach is presented in this chapter which provides simple robust algorithms for system discretization, as well as system continualization, using the three methods mentioned above. Examples are presented to illustrate the effectiveness of the algorithms, showing convergence properties versus the computation parameters used for truncation and scaling. In addition, practical guidelines are discussed, specifically for selecting the computation parameters and, more generally, for efficient computation of the matrix power series involved in the procedures.

## 2.2 Discretization Procedures

In the area of systems and controls, as well as related areas such as signal processing, it is useful to be able to discretize a given continuous-time system. This problem and its reverse problem of continualizing a discrete-time system are considered here. We assume a basic state variable representation for a continuoustime system as follows. A *state space realization* for a linear, continuous-time, constant parameter system consists of a 4-tuple of matrices; namely,

$$R_{e} = \{\mathbf{A}_{e}, \mathbf{B}_{e}, \mathbf{C}_{e}, \mathbf{D}_{e}\}$$

which defines the state model

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}_{e} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{e} \mathbf{u}(t)$$
  
$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C}_{e} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D}_{e} \mathbf{u}(t)$$
 (2.2)

where x(t), u(t) and y(t) are the state, input and output vectors with dimensions n, m and p, respectively, while the matrices  $A_t$ ,  $B_c$ ,  $C_c$  and  $D_c$  are constant matrices with compatible dimensions.

## 2.2.1 The Step-Invariant Model

The familiar step-invariant (SI) or ZOH equivalent discrete-time (D-T) model introduced in Section 1.3.3 assumes that the input vector u(t) in Eq.(2.2) is constant between (uniform) samples. The equivalent D-T model can be represented as

$$R_d = \{\mathbf{A}_d, \mathbf{B}_d, \mathbf{C}_d, \mathbf{D}_d\}$$
(2.3)

which implies the D-T state model

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}(k+1) &= \mathbf{A}_d \, \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B}_d \, \mathbf{u}(k) \\ \mathbf{y}(k) &= \mathbf{C}_d \, \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{D}_d \, \mathbf{u}(k) \end{aligned} \tag{2.4}$$

The matrices  $A_d$  and  $B_d$  are related to  $A_c$  and  $B_c$  in Eq.(2.2) by the relations, repeated here from Chapter 1:

$$A_d = e^{A_c T} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(A_c T)^i}{i!}$$
 (2.5)

$$\mathbf{B}_{d} = \int_{0}^{T} e^{\mathbf{A}_{d}} \mathbf{B}_{c} dt = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{c}T)^{i}}{(i+1)!} \mathbf{B}_{c}T$$
(2.6)

Also, if A, is nonsingular,

$$B_d = A_c^{-1} (e^{A_c T} - I) B_e$$
 (2.7)

And since the output y(t) in Eq.(2.2) is assumed to be ideally sampled, the matrices  $C_d = C_c$  and  $D_d = D_c$ .

The following algorithm, (SI-C-D), can be used to calculate the SI (ZOH) equivalent model of a continuous-time linear system. In particular, this algorithm is a numerically robust procedure for calculating  $A_d$  and  $B_d$  described above. The standard general method for calculating  $A_d$  is to compute a truncated version of Eq.(2.5). The problem with this approach is that for matrices  $A_e$  and sampling intervals T satisfying that

$$|A,T| > 1$$
 (2.8)

a truncated version of Eq.(2.5) may either require large N, leading to considerable round-off errors, or may not converge at all. The algorithm presented here is completely general.

It is easily shown that the SI model can be calculated using an intermediate matrix E as follows:

$$\mathbf{A}_d = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}_e T$$
 and  $\mathbf{B}_d = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{B}_e T$  where  $\mathbf{E} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_e T)^i}{(i+1)!}$  (2.9)

and

To resolve the problem associated with Eq.(2.8), it is possible to utilize the property of the exponential function that

$$\exp(x) = e^x = (e^{(x/r)})^r$$
 (2.10)

The following algorithm extends this technique to permit calculation of both  $A_d$  and  $B_d$  under the condition of Eq. (2.8) as well as the condition that  $A_c$  may be singular.

First let us define a scaling factor  $r = 2^{j}$  in terms of the scalar Nrm, Nrm < 0.5, and the integer scaling parameter j given by

$$j = \left[\frac{\ln(\|\mathbf{A}_{c}T\|/Nrm)}{\ln(2)}\right]_{integer} + 1$$
(2.11)

The series

$$A_{d1} = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(A_c T/r)^i}{i!} \qquad (2.12)$$

will converge satisfactorily with the value of j given in Eq.(2.11) since  $||A_cT/r|| < Nm$ . It is easily developed from the property in Eq.(2.10) that the series in Eq.(2.5), truncated to N+1 terms, satisfies the following recursive process

$$(\mathbf{A}_d)_{k=1} = (\mathbf{A}_d)_k^2$$
, for  $k=1,2,\cdots,j$  (2.13)

From Eq.(2.9) we formally obtain the recursion relationships

$$(A_d)_k = I + E_k A_c T_k$$
  
 $(A_d)_{k+1} = I + E_{k+1} A_c T_{k+1}$ 
(2.14)

Introducing Eq.(2.14) into Eq.(2.13), we obtain the following:

$$(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}_k \mathbf{A}_c T_k)^2 = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}_{k+1} \mathbf{A}_c T_{k+1}$$

$$\mathbf{I} + 2\mathbf{E}_k \mathbf{A}_c T_k + (\mathbf{E}_k \mathbf{A}_c T_k)^2 = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}_{k+1} \mathbf{A}_c T_{k+1}$$
(2.15)

This last equation leads us to the final recursion

$$T_{k+1} = 2T_k$$
  

$$E_{k+1} = E_k (I + E_k A_c T_k/2)$$
(2.16)

which must be initialized with

$$T_1 = \frac{T}{r}$$
 and  $E_1 = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(A_e T/r)^i}{(i+1)!}$  (2.17)

The desired  $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_{j+1}$ . By the arguments given above for Eq.(2.12), the convergence of Eq.(2.17) is guaranteed. Once  $\mathbf{E}$  has been calculated,  $\mathbf{A}_d$  and  $\mathbf{B}_d$  can be obtained using Eq.(2.9). Thus, this algorithm is similar to the introductory algorithm of Chapter 1, *EAT*, but it is more powerful in that the complete discrete-time *SI* equivalent model can be determined, not just the transition matrix. The algorithm is summarized in the following.

Algorithm SI-C-D Syntax:  $T, A_c, B_c, Nrm, N (SI-C-D) \Rightarrow A_d, B_d$ Purpose: Calculation of the SI D-T model Input/Output Arguments: T = positive scalar  $A_c = (n \times n) \text{ matrix}$   $B_c = (n \times m) \text{ matrix}$   $Nrm = \text{positive scalar}, \le 0.5$ , defining the norm of the matrix  $A_cT/r$   $N = \text{integer for truncation (suggested value <math>N \ge 16)$ }  $A_d = (n \times m) \text{ matrix satisfying Eq.(2.5)}$  $B_d = (n \times m) \text{ matrix satisfying Eq.(2.6)}$ 

Description: The matrices  $A_d$  and  $B_d$  are calculated using the truncated power series:

$$\mathbf{E} = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{z}T)^{i}}{(i+1)!} \qquad (2.18)$$

modified according to the development given in Eqs.(2.11) to (2.17). Subsequently,

$$\mathbf{A}_d = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}_c T$$
,  $\mathbf{B}_d = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{B}_c T$  (2.19)

as stated in Eq.(2.9).

#### Algorithm:

- Define input arrays A<sub>c</sub> and B<sub>c</sub>, scalars T and Nm and integer N. The suggested values for Nm and N are Nm ≤ 0.5 and N ≥ 16
- 2. Calculate j using Eq.(2.11)
- 3. Calculate E<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>1</sub> using Eq.(2.17)
- For k = 1, 2, -., j calculate E<sub>k+1</sub> recursively from Eq.(2.16)
- 5. Set  $\mathbf{E}_{j+1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}_{c}T \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{c}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_{d} \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}\mathbf{B}_{c}T$  from Eq.(2.19)

#### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of Algorithm SI-C-D implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. As in Algorithm EAT, Section 1.3.3, the matrix  $E_1$  in Eq.(2.17) is calculated using Algorithms POLR and POM, while the coefficients  $f_i = 1/i!$ , i=[0,N], are obtained by Algorithm FACT.

## 2.2.2 Ramp-Invariant (Linearly Interpolated) Model

In Chapter 1 the linearly interpolated model was introduced which assumed that the input samples are interpolated as in Fig. 1.4, i.e. straight lines connecting the individual sampled values. Since this model is *ramp invariant* in the same way that the SI (ZOH) equivalent is *step invariant*, we will refer to this model as the *ramp-invariant* (RI) equivalent model. This model may be used for situations which require increased accuracy of discretization over the SI equivalent model of the previous section.

Although Eqs.(1.28) to (1.30) describe the basic approach, several important developments are necessary before achieving the desired robust conversion algorithm. First we note that there is one extra input matrix. The five-matrix state space model in the discrete domain will be represented by

$$R_{dr} = \{ \mathbf{A}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d0}, \mathbf{B}_{d1}, \mathbf{C}_{d}, \mathbf{D}_{d} \}$$
(2.20)

which, in turn, can be written as

$$\mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{A}_d \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B}_{d0} \mathbf{u}(k) + \mathbf{B}_{d1} \mathbf{u}(k+1)$$
  
$$\mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{C}_d \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{D}_d \mathbf{u}(k)$$
 (2.21)

Later in the chapter an algorithm will be presented for the conversion of such fivematrix models to a standard four-matrix model.

The matrices  $A_d$ , E,  $C_d$  and  $D_d$  were described in the previous section, see Eqs.(2.9) and (2.10). To specify the remaining matrices, we define the series

$$\mathbf{F} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{c}T)^{i}}{(i+2)!}$$
(2.22)

from which we obtain

$$\mathbf{B}_{d0} = (\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{F})\mathbf{B}_{e}T, \qquad \mathbf{B}_{d1} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{B}_{e}T \qquad (2.23)$$

Also, if A, is nonsingular,

$$\mathbf{F} = (\mathbf{A}_d - \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_e T)(\mathbf{A}_e T)^{-2}$$
(2.24)

Following the guidelines of Algorithm SI-C-D, it is desirable to create an algorithm which allows the condition of Eq. (2.8) and singular A<sub>c</sub> matrices. The following is a development of this algorithm, referred to as Algorithm RI-C-D.

By comparing the power series in Eq.(2.9) with that of Eq.(2.22), it may be determined that the matrices E and F satisfy the following relation:

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}\mathbf{A}_{c}T \tag{2.25}$$

With j and r as previously defined in Eq.(2.11) let

$$\mathbf{E}_{1} = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{z}T/r)^{i}}{(i+1)!}$$
(2.26)

Using Eq.(2.25), we can write, as was done to arrive at Eq.(2.15), the recursion equations

$$\mathbf{E}_{k} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}_{k} \mathbf{A}_{k} T_{k} \qquad (2.27)$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{k+1} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}_{k+1} \mathbf{A}_c T_{k+1}$$
(2.28)

Now using Eq.(2.16) and eliminating  $E_k$  and  $E_{k+1}$  from Eqs.(2.27) and (2.28), the following relationship between  $F_k$  and  $F_{k+1}$  can be derived:

$$T_{k+1} = 2 T_k$$
  
 $F_{k+1} = 0.5 F_k + 0.25 (I + F_k A_c T_k)^2$ 
(2.29)

which must be initialized with

$$T_1 = \frac{T}{r}$$
 and  $\mathbf{F}_1 = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_e T/r)^i}{(i+2)!}$  (2.30)

The desired  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_{j+1}$ . The series will obviously converge satisfactorily with the value of *j* given in Eq.(2.11) since  $\|\mathbf{A}_{c}T/r\| < Nrm$ . Once **F** has been calculated,  $\mathbf{A}_{d}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_{d0}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{d1}$  can be obtained using Eqs.(2.25), (2.19) and (2.23). Thus, this algorithm is similar to *SI-C-D*, but it is more powerful in that the more accurate discrete-time RI equivalent model can be determined. The algorithm is summarized in the following.

Algorithm *RI-C-D* Syntax:  $T, A_c, B_c, Nrm, N (RI-C-D) \Rightarrow A_d, B_{d0}, B_{d1}$ 

Purpose: Calculation of the RI D-T model

## Input/Output Arguments:

T = positive scalar  $\mathbf{A}_c = (n \times n) \text{ matrix}$   $\mathbf{B}_c = (n \times m) \text{ matrix}$   $Nnm = \text{positive scalar}, \le 0.5, \text{ defining the norm of matrix } \mathbf{A}_c T/r$  N = integer for truncation (suggested value N = 16)  $\mathbf{A}_d = (n \times n) \text{ matrix satisfying Eq.(2.5)}$   $\mathbf{B}_{d0} = (n \times m) \text{ matrix satisfying Eq.(2.23)}$   $\mathbf{B}_{d0} = (n \times m) \text{ matrix satisfying Eq.(2.23)}$ 

Description: The matrices  $A_d$ ,  $B_{d0}$  and  $B_{d1}$  are calculated using the truncated power series:

$$\mathbf{F} = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{e}T)^{i}}{(i+2)!}$$
(2.31)

in the derived recursive form of Eqs.(2.29) and (2.30). Subsequently, once F is known

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}\mathbf{A}_{e}T, \qquad \mathbf{A}_{d} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}_{e}T \qquad (2.32)$$

and

$$\mathbf{B}_{d0} = (\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{F})\mathbf{B}_{e}T, \qquad \mathbf{B}_{d1} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{B}_{e}T \qquad (2.33)$$

as stated in Eq.(2.23).

#### Algorithm:

- Define input arrays A<sub>e</sub> and B<sub>e</sub>, scalars T and Nrm and integer N. The suggested values for Nrm and N are Nrm ≤ 0.5 and N ≥ 16.
- Calculate J using Eq.(2.11).
- Calculate F<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>1</sub> using Eq.(2.30).
- For k = 1, 2, ..., j calculate F<sub>k+1</sub> recursively from Eq.(2.29).
- Set F<sub>j+1</sub> ⇒ F and solve for E, Eq.(2.25), A<sub>d</sub>, Eq.(2.19), B<sub>d0</sub> and B<sub>d1</sub>, Eq.(2.23).

#### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of Algorithm RI-C-D implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. See also Algorithm R5R4 below. For more details see either Algorithm SI-C-D, or Algorithm EAT, in Section 1.3.3.

52

## General C-T $\Rightarrow$ D-T Algorithm EATF

Recall that in order to calculate the output arrays  $A_d$ ,  $B_{d0}$  and  $B_{d1}$ , Algorithm *RI-C-D* must calculate matrices F and E given by Eqs.(2.31) and (2.32), respectively. Note also that the same matrix E is needed in Algorithm *SI-C-D* for calculating  $B_d$ , Eq(2.19). Thus, both SI D-T and RI D-T models could be calculated using a single algorithm if it has as output arguments the arrays:

Then, the desired SI or RI D-T model (or both) could be obtained simply by using Eqs. (2.19) and (2.33). To achieve this, the algorithm referred as *EATF* (the name stems from the calculation of  $e^{AT}$  using the matrix F) is formulated:

Syntax:  $T, A_o, Nrm, N (EATF) \Rightarrow A_o, E, F$ 

while the input arguments are exactly the same as in EAT, SI-C-D and RI-C-D. It is interesting to note that in the version:

$$T, A_c, Nrm, N (EATF) \Rightarrow A_d$$

where only one output argument is specified, Algorithm EATF is "formally" equal to Algorithm EAT, discussed in Chapter 1.

The listing of Algorithm EATF, implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Due to its generality and flexibility, it is recommended that this algorithm be used whenever either of the SI D-T or RI D-T models, or even just the matrix  $A_d$  is sought. In fact, this algorithm may be considered numerically advantageous over both of the Algorithms EAT and SI-C-D, since the terms in the truncated power series, Eq.(2.30), are divided by (i+2)!, while in EAT and SI-C-D the same terms are divided by i! and (i+1)!, respectively, see Eqs.(2.12) and (2.17), which improves the convergence properties of the Algorithm EATF.

## 2.2.3 Bilinear Transformation

This algorithm is included because of its popularity with the signal processing community. The method is also known in the signal processing literature as *Tustin's approximation*. We will see in the development that the technique was designed for models in the transform domain. This algorithm, referred to as (*BT*-*C-D*), is known in the transform domain as a conversion from the *s*-domain to the *z*-domain using the direct substitution:

$$s = \frac{2}{T} \frac{(z - 1)}{(z + 1)}$$
(2.34)

Thus, introducing Eq.(2.34) into the C-T state equation of Eq.(1.36) and collecting terms to match Eq.(1.28), the *BT-C-D* Algorithm provides a five matrix discrete-time model as in Eq.(2.21) where, in this case, (with a = 2/T)

$$\mathbf{A}_{d} = (\mathbf{a}\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{c})^{-1}(\mathbf{a}\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}_{c})$$
  

$$\mathbf{B}_{ab} = \mathbf{B}_{d1} = (\mathbf{a}\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{c})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{d}$$
(2.35)

And, as in the previous results,  $C_d = C_c$  and  $D_d = D_c$ . Algorithm *BT-C-D* may be symbolically represented by:

$$A_{\mu}, B_{\mu}, T (BT-C-D) \Rightarrow A_{\mu}, B_{\mu}, B_{\mu}, P$$

The listing of Algorithm BT-C-D, implemented using the L-A-S language, is given in Appendix C. Note that in the L-A-S implementation its name is BCDC, and the syntax is:

$$A_{c}, B_{c}, T, lcdc (BCDC) \Rightarrow A_{c}, B_{d0}, B_{c}, P$$

where, for reasons explained later, the algorithm "flag" *Icdc* should have the value Icdc = 1. For more details see also Section 2.5.

### Algorithm R5R4

Since both Algorithm *RI-C-D* and Algorithm *BT-C-D* result in a non-standard five-matrix model, it is useful to have a method of converting to a standard model as given in Eq.(2.4). Specifically, we describe the transformation from Eq.(2.21) to the following *equivalent* model:

$$\mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{A}_{de} \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B}_{de} \mathbf{u}(k)$$
  

$$\mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{C}_{de} \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{D}_{de} \mathbf{u}(k)$$
(2.36)

The simplest computational procedure for obtaining the conversion to standard state model is derived using the identity of transfer function matrices, i.e.

$$C_d(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_d)^{-1}(\mathbf{B}_{d0} + z\mathbf{B}_{d1}) + \mathbf{D}_d$$
  
=  $C_{de}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{de})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{de} + \mathbf{D}_{de}$  (2.37)

The detailed algorithm, referred to as Algorithm R5R4, is presented in the following.

In this development first consider the two D-T state space representations:

$$R_j = \{A, B_0, B_1, C, D\}$$
 and  $R_d = \{A_e, B_e, C_e, D_e\}$  (2.38)

defining the state models of Eqs. (2.21) and (2.4), respectively, where the d notation

#### Section 2.2 Discretization Procedures

has been dropped for convenience. Since these two models represent the same D-T system, the corresponding transfer function matrices should be the same. Thus, we obtain the following equality:

$$C(zI - A)^{-1} (B_0 + zB_1) + D = C_e (zI - A_e)^{-1} B_e + D_e$$
(2.39)

Also the two transfer matrices should have identical characteristic polynomials. So, without loss of generality, it may be assumed that in both representations the system and output matrices are equal, i.e.

$$A_{,} = A_{,}$$
 and  $C_{,} = C_{,}$  (2.40)

In each of the five-matrix representations given in Eqs.(2.21) and (2.35), as well as in the conversions yet to come, there is a distinct relationship between matrices  $\mathbf{B}_0$  and  $\mathbf{B}_1$ . It can be verified from Eqs.(2.23) and (2.35), respectively, that this relationship is given be

$$B_1 = P B_0$$
 (2.41)

where the  $n \times n$  matrix P is expressible in each case by

$$P = F(E - F)^{-1}$$
 and  $P = I_{e}$  (2.42)

respectively. Using Eq.(2.41) and the identity

$$(zI - A)^{-1}z = I + (zI - A)^{-1}A$$
 (2.43)

Eq.(2.39) may be written as

$$C(zI - A)^{-1}[(I + AP)B_0 - B_e] + (CPB_0 + D - D_e) = 0$$
 (2.44)

Since Eq.(2.44) should be satisfied for all z, it reduces to

$$C(zI - A)^{-1}[(I + AP)B_0 - B_e] = 0$$
  
 $D_e = CPB_0 + D$ 
(2.45)

We now introduce the following notation

$$C(zI - A)^{-1} = \frac{V(z)}{d(z)}$$
 (2.46)

where  $V(z) = C \operatorname{adj}[zI - A]$ ,  $d(z) = \operatorname{det}[zI - A]$  (2.47)

The  $p \times n$  polynomial matrix  $V(z) = \{v_q(z)\}$ , consisting generally of  $(n-1)^n$  order polynomials, can also be represented as a matrix polynomial with real-number  $p \times n$  matrices, i.e.

$$V(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} V_i z^i$$
 (2.48)

Using Eqs.(2.47) and (2.48) and defining the arrays

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} V_0 \\ V_1 \\ \vdots \\ V_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad I(z) = \begin{bmatrix} I_p & zI_p & \cdots & z^{n-1}I_p \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.49)

Eq.(2.45) becomes

$$V[(I + AP)B_0 - B_e] = 0$$
 (2.50)

It is easily shown that if the pair {A, C} is observable, V is a full (column) rank matrix and that the unknown matrix B, becomes

$$\mathbf{B}_{e} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{AP})\mathbf{B}_{0} \tag{2.51}$$

However, if {A, C} is not an observable pair, the general solution to Eq.(2.50) may be written as

$$B_{a} = (I + AP)B_{0} + NT$$
 (2.52)

where N is an  $n \times h$  "null space" matrix (h is the nullity or dimension of the null space of V) satisfying that

and T is an arbitrary  $h \times m$  matrix, which, if desired, may be chosen to be a zero matrix. If, however, T is selected as

$$\mathbf{T} = -\mathbf{N}^* (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}) \mathbf{B}_0 \tag{2.54}$$

where

$$\mathbf{N}^* = (\mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N})^{-1} \mathbf{N}^T$$

is the pseudo-inverse of N, then B, may be written as

$$B_{r} = (I - NN')(I + AP)B_{0}$$
 (2.55)

which represents the minimum norm solution for  $B_{e}$ . It should be mentioned that even when the pair {A, C} is unobservable, the matrix  $B_{e}$  given in Eq.(2.51) satisfies the transfer function matrix identity Eq.(2.39).

The result of the previous development is the following computational procedure for converting from a five-matrix model to a four-matrix model. Section 2.2 Discretization Procedures

Algorithm R5R4 A, B, P, C, D (R5R4) - B, D, Syntax: Purpose: Transformation from a five-matrix model to a (standard) fourmatrix model. Input/Output Variables: A =  $(n \times n)$  system matrix of the five-matrix model  $B_n = (n \times m)$  first-input matrix of the five-matrix model  $\mathbf{P} = (n \times n)$  transform matrix between  $\mathbf{B}_0$  and  $\mathbf{B}_1$  (see Eq.(2.41))  $C = (p \times n)$  output matrix of the five-matrix model  $D = (p \times m)$  feedthrough matrix of the five-matrix model  $B_{e} = (n \times m)$  input matrix of the four-matrix model  $D_{a} = (p \times m)$  feedthrough matrix of the four-matrix model Description: From a given five-matrix model, e.g. Eq.(2.21) or Eq.(2.35) and Eq.(2.41), a standard four-matrix model with equivalent transfer matrix is generated using Eq.(2.45). Algorithm: 1. Define the matrices A, Bo, P, C and D. 2. If the pair {A, C} is observable, calculate the unknown matrices B, and D, from Eqs.(2.51) and (2.45), respectively. 3. If {A, C} is an unobservable pair, Eq.(2.51) may be substituted for Eq. (2.55) which requires the evaluation of the polynomial matrix V(z), Eq.(2.47), building the  $(pn \times n)$  matrix V, Eq.(2.49), and calculation of the null space matrix N, Eq.(2.53). The listing of Algorithm R5R4, implemented in L-A-S, is given in Appendix C.

## Algorithm R4R5

Transformation from a standard four-matrix representation to an equivalent fivematrix representation is the reverse process of the previous Algorithm, R5R4, and is used primarily as an intermediate step in the subsequent continualization procedure of Algorithm RI-C-D. The relation indicated in Eqs.(2.41) and (2.42) will be used in this procedure to ensure that a unique four-matrix state space representation is obtained. Thus, assuming Eqs.(2.40) and (2.41), only  $B_0$  and D are unknown. Following the same line of reasoning as in the previous algorithm, if the pair {A, C} is observable, then from Eq.(2.51) we obtain

$$B_0 = (I + AP)^{-1} B_c \qquad (2.56)$$

while from Eq.(2.45)

$$D = D_{c} - CPB_{0}$$
 (2.57)

If  $\{A, C\}$  is an unobservable pair, the minimum norm solution for  $B_0$  can be obtained in a manner similar to the development of Eq. (2.55) from

$$B_{n} = (I - NN')(I + AP)^{-1}B_{n}$$
(2.58)

where N was defined above, see Eq.(2.53).

Thus, from the transfer matrix equivalency Eq.(2.39) we are led to the following algorithm for converting from a standard four-matrix model to an equivalent five-matrix model.

Algorithm R4R5

Syntax:

A, B, C, D, P (R4R5) 
$$\rightarrow$$
 B, D

Purpose: Transformation from a (standard) four-matrix model to a fivematrix model.

Input/Output Arguments:

 $A = (n \times n)$  system matrix of the four-matrix model  $B_n = (n \times m)$  input matrix of the four-matrix model

 $C = (p \times n)$  output matrix of the four-matrix model

 $D_{e} = (p \times m)$  feedthrough matrix of the four-matrix model

 $\mathbf{P} = (n \times n)$  transform matrix between  $\mathbf{B}_0$  and  $\mathbf{B}_1$  (see Eq.(2.41))

 $B_p = (n \times m)$  first input matrix of the five-matrix model

 $D = (p \times m)$  feedthrough matrix of the five-matrix model

Description: From a given *four-matrix* model a *five-matrix* model is generated using the transfer matrix equivalency of Eq.(2.39).

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Define the matrices A, B, C, D, and P.
- If the pair {A, C} is observable, calculate the unknown martices B<sub>0</sub> and D from Eqs. (2.56) and (2.57), respectively.
- If {A, C} is an unobservable pair, Eq.(2.58) may be used in place of Eq.(2.56). This necessitates the evaluation of the polynomial matrix

V(z), Eq.(2.47), building V, Eq.(2.49), and calculation of the matrix N in Eq.(2.53).
The listing of Algorithm R4R5, implemented using L-A-S, can be found in Appendix C.

## 2.3 Continualization Procedures

The reverse process of converting from a D-T model to an *equivalent* C-T model will now be considered, i.e. converting from the model in Eq.(2.4) to the model in Eq.(2.2),  $R_d \rightarrow R_c$  in the SI case, or from Eq.(2.21) to Eq.(2.2),  $R_{df} \rightarrow R_c$  in the RI sense and from Eq.(2.35) to Eq.(2.2) in the BT sense. Of course, by itself  $R_d$  has no information regarding the signal values between samples so that model conversion in this direction should be taken in the context of some prior knowledge regarding the type of inputs used.

### 2.3.1 SI to Continuous-Time Model

The algorithms for continualization require *logarithmic* operations instead of matrix exponentiation. When  $(A_d - I)$  or  $A_c$  is invertible, it is easily concluded that the matrices of  $R_c$  in Eq.(2.2) can be found from Eqs.(2.5) and (2.7) by:

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = \frac{1}{T} \ln(\mathbf{A}_{d}) , \quad \mathbf{B}_{e} = (\mathbf{A}_{d} - \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{e} \mathbf{B}_{d}$$
(2.59)

with the understanding that  $C_c = C_d$  and  $D_c = D_d$  as before, thus completing the continuous-time model in Eq.(2.2). To begin the development, consider the Taylor series expansion for the function ln(x) in the neighborhood of x = 1 which leads to

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{d} - \mathbf{I})^{i}}{i} (-1)^{(i+1)}$$
(2.60)

The problem of using a truncated version of Eq. (2.60) is that for matrices A<sub>d</sub> with

$$\lambda_m \triangleq |\lambda_{max}| > 0.5 \tag{2.61}$$

where  $\lambda_{max}$  is the maximum magnitude eigenvalue of  $(A_d - I)$ , the series may require large N, leading to considerable round-off errors if it converges at all. As will be seen, the present algorithm will resolve this problem by using the following basic property of the logarithm function.

$$\ln(x) = r \ln[(x)^{1/r}] = r \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x^{1/r} - 1)^i}{i} (-1)^{(i+1)} = -r \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1 - x^{1/r})^i}{i} \quad (2.62)$$

With this approach the truncated series for calculation becomes

$$\mathbf{A}_{\epsilon} = -\frac{r}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{d}^{-1/r})^{i}}{i}$$
(2.63)

where the integer / satisfies that

$$\left|\lambda(\mathbf{A}_d^{1/r} - \mathbf{I})\right|_{\max} < \lambda_m, \text{ with } r = 2^J$$
(2.64)

An algorithm which calculates A, according to Eq.(2.63) is referred to as Algorithm LNM. It has been experimentally verified that the accuracy of using Eq.(2.63) is satisfactory even for matrices  $A_d$  where some eigenvalues of L = A,-I have magnitude greater than one. From the previous development the following algorithm is formalized.

## Algorithm LNM

Syntax: T, A<sub>d</sub>,  $\lambda_{-}$ , N, (LNM)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>c</sub>

**Purpose:** The calculation of the natural logarithm of an  $(n \times n)$  matrix A<sub>n</sub>.

#### Input/Output Arguments:

- T = sampling interval used in the discrete-time model
- $A_d = (n \times n)$  system matrix of the discrete-time model
- $\lambda_{m} = \text{scaling parameter, see Eq.(2.64)}$
- N = series truncation parameter
- $A_n = (n \times n)$  system matrix of the continuous-time model

Description: A continuous-time equivalent system matrix is constructed from a corresponding discrete-time system matrix.

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Define the matrix  $A_{dr}$  scalars T and  $\lambda_m$  and integer N (suggested values for N and  $\lambda_{\perp}$  are  $N \ge 36$  and  $\lambda_{\perp} \le 0.25$ )
- 2. Set  $0 \Rightarrow j$  and  $A_d \Rightarrow A_j$
- Set I A, ⇒ L
- 4. If  $|\lambda(\mathbf{L})|_{\max} < \lambda_w$ , go to 6; else, go to 5 5. Set  $j+1 \Rightarrow j$ ;  $(\mathbf{A}_j)^{1/2} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_j$  and go to 3
- Set  $2^{j} \Rightarrow r$  and calculate  $A_{i}$  using  $A_{i} \Rightarrow A_{i}^{1/r}$  in Eq.(2.63) 6.

The square root of the matrix A, is calculated by Algorithm SQM, described later. Calculation of A, in Step 6 is accomplished using Algorithms POLR and POM, mentioned earlier. Calculation of the coefficients  $f_i = 1/l$ , i=[1,N], required by

60

#### Section 2.3 Continualization Procedures

POLR is done by Algorithm FLN. The listing of Algorithm LNM, implemented using L-A-S, is given in Appendix C.

Having determined  $A_e$ , the remaining matrices in the SI C-T equivalent state space model of Eq.(2.2) could be calculated using Eq.(2.59) if  $A_e$  is nonsingular. If, however,  $A_e$  is singular, then the matrix E, appearing in Eq.(2.9) should be calculated using the procedure given in Algorithm *SI*-*C*-*D*. It follows that  $C_e = C_d$ ,  $D_e = D_d$  and

$$\mathbf{B}_{d} = \frac{1}{T} \mathbf{E}^{-1} \mathbf{B}_{d} \tag{2.65}$$

In the spirit of algorithm formulation and algorithm "naming," Eqs. (2.59) and (2.65) could be symbolically represented by Algorithm SI-D-C, i.e.

$$A_d, B_c, T(SI-D-C) \Rightarrow A_c, B_c$$

For reasons explained later, there is no direct L-A-S "counter-part" to Algorithm SI-D-C. However, as will be shown in Section 2.5, there is an L-A-S algorithm which, among other tasks, performs the task of Algorithm SI-D-C.

### Algorithm LNMj

An alternate algorithm, referred to as *LNMj*, applicable for calculating  $A_c$ , given by (2.59), in the *specific* case when the matrix  $A_d$  is "diagonalizable," is given below. It is worth mentioning that this algorithm is "in a way" equivalent to Algorithm *EATJ*, mentioned in Chapter 1, Section 1.3.3.

Syntax:  $T, A_d (LNMj) \Rightarrow A_r$ 

For input/output arguments see Algorithm LNM.

Algorithm:

- 1. Define the matrix A<sub>d</sub> and the scalar T
- 2. Set  $A_{i}(JFR) \Rightarrow M$
- 3. Set  $A_d$  (EGV)  $\Rightarrow$  egd = {  $\lambda_{dl}$  }
- 4. Set diag{  $ln(\lambda_d)$  }  $\Rightarrow$  LnJf
- 5. Set M LnJf  $M^{-1}/T \Rightarrow A_{+}$

The listing of Algorithm LNMj, implemented using L-A-S, is given in Appendix C. Note that the steps in this algorithm are similar to the steps of Algorithm EATJ, discussed in Section 1.3.3. The only difference is that in Step 4 the array LnJf contains in its main diagonal the natural log of the eigenvalues  $\lambda_{st}$ , i.e.

#### $\ln(\lambda_{di})$

while in Algorithm *EATJ*, the array ExJf contains the terms  $exp(\lambda_i T)$ .

### Algorithm SQM

The square root of the matrix A<sub>j</sub>, required in Step 5 of Algorithm LNM, could be calculated by Algorithm SQM given below. This algorithm is based on the standard recursive procedure:

$$x_{i+1} = 0.5(x_i + \frac{b}{x_i})$$
 (2.66)

used to determine the square root  $x = (b)^{1/2}$  of a positive scalar b.

### Algorithm SQM

Syntax: A,  $\epsilon$  (SQM)  $\Rightarrow$  X

Purpose: To calculate the square root of a positive-definite matrix.

#### Input/Output Arguments:

A = Given square positive definite matrix

 $\epsilon$  = Small scalar parameter used to terminate the recursion

X = The square-root matrix of A

Description: Determination of the square root of an  $n \times n$  matrix A, X =  $(A)^{1/2}$ .

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Define the matrix A and a small scalar parameter e < < 1
- Set X<sub>0</sub> = I and i = 0
- 3. Set i = i+1 and  $X_{i+1} = 0.5 (X_i + A X_i^{-1})$
- 4. If  $\|\mathbf{X}_{i+1} \mathbf{X}_i\| > \epsilon$ , go to 3; else, stop

The listing of Algorithm SQM, implemented using L-A-S, can be found in Appendix C.

## 2.3.2 RI to Continuous-Time Model

It is easily determined that the C-T model in Eq.(2.2) can be obtained from the five-matrix model in Eq.(2.21) by using Algorithm LNM to calculate A<sub>e</sub>, and

62

from the availability of F in Eq.(2.31), i.e. Algorithm RI-C-D, solving Eq.(2.33) to get

$$\mathbf{B}_{e} = \frac{1}{T}\mathbf{F}^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{d1} = \frac{1}{T}(\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{F})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{d0}$$
(2.67)

Note that from Eq.(2.67), or from Eq.(2.42)

$$B_{d1} = PB_{d0}$$
, where  $P = F(E - F)^{-1}$  (2.68)

The required five-matrix D-T model of Eq.(2.21) can be obtained as an initial step from a standard four-matrix D-T model in Eq.(2.36) by applying Algorithm *R4R5* presented earlier. Similarly, as in the case of Algorithm *SI-D-C*, Section 2.3.1, Eq.(2.59), together with Eqs.(2.67) and (2.68), could symbolically be represented by

$$\mathbf{A}_{I}, \mathbf{B}_{II}, \mathbf{B}_{II}, T(RI-D-C) = \mathbf{A}_{I}, \mathbf{B}_{II}$$

As has already been mentioned, there is no L-A-S algorithm which directly corresponds to RI-D-C. This will be made clear in Section 2.5.

## 2.3.3 Bilinear to Continuous-Time Model

The C-T model of Eq.(2.2), which corresponds to the bilinear transformed model specified in Eq.(2.35), can be obtained by a direct substitution of

$$z = \frac{a+s}{a-s}, \text{ where } a = \frac{2}{T}$$
(2.69)

into the z-domain transfer function, thereby providing an s-domain transfer function from which  $R_c$  could be derived. Specifically, taking the z-transform of Eq.(2.4), introducing Eq.(2.69) and converting back to the time domain:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}_{c}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{c0}\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{c1}\dot{\mathbf{u}}(t)$$
  
 $\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C}_{c}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D}_{c}\mathbf{u}(t)$ 
(2.70)

where (with a = 2/T)

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = a(\mathbf{A}_{d} + \mathbf{I})^{-1}(\mathbf{A}_{d} - \mathbf{I}) , \quad \mathbf{B}_{e0} = a(\mathbf{A}_{d} + \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{d}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{e1} = -(\mathbf{A}_{d} + \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{d} , \quad \mathbf{C}_{e} = \mathbf{C}_{d} , \text{ and } \mathbf{D}_{e} = \mathbf{D}_{d}$$
(2.71)

As was discussed previously in terms of the five-term model of Eq.(2.21), if a four-term C-T model is required, Algorithm R5R4 can be applied to Eq.(2.70) to obtain an equivalent standard model of the form in Eq.(2.2). Note that in this case Eq.(2.41) holds with

$$\mathbf{P} = -\frac{T}{2}\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{g}} \tag{2.72}$$

Similarly, as with Eqs.(2.35) and Algorithm BT-C-D, Eqs.(2.71) may be symbolically represented by Algorithm BT-D-C, i.e.

$$\mathbf{A}_d, \mathbf{B}_d, T (BT-C-D) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_c, \mathbf{B}_{c0}, \mathbf{B}_{c1}, \mathbf{P}$$

However, its L-A-S implementation requires:

$$\mathbf{A}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d}, T, Icdc (BCDC) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d}, \mathbf{P}_{d}$$

where now, as opposed to the case of Algorithm BT-D-C, the algorithm flag Icdcshould have the value Icdc = 2. The listing of Algorithm BCDC, implemented using L-A-S, and performing the tasks of both BT-D-C and BT-C-D, is given in Appendix C. For more details see also Section 2.5.

This completes the three methods of continualization. The reader now has the algorithmic tools to discretize a C-T system using piecewise constant inputs (SI), piecewise linear inputs (RI) and the bilinear transformation (BT), as well as to perform the inverse operation of continualization corresponding to each of these methods. In converting a physically sampled C-T system to a D-T model the SI method most closely approximates the common digital-to-analog device operation. However, any one of the three techniques may be used when it is desired to mimic a linear C-T process with a D-T model. Such a situation might arise, for instance, for preprocessing data in a computer by developing a filter algorithm from a known frequency filter in the C-T domain. In this instance, it would be prudent to compare the frequency responses of the D-T models with the desired frequency response. Yet another area of utility is system identification. The RI method can be an effective approach to identifying a system from discrete data because of the additional accuracy inherent in the method. In the remainder of this chapter we present several examples which illustrate the convergence and robustness of both the discretization and the continualization procedures.

# 2.4 Examples

Three examples are presented in this section. They have been selected to illustrate the computational accuracy that can be achieved using the exponential and the logarithmic matrix calculations discussed previously. The first example demonstrates convergence rates when calculating  $A_d$  from a given  $5 \times 5$  singular matrix  $A_c$ , followed by a similar development in the second example in calculating  $A_d$  given  $A_d$ . The third example illustrates the remaining discretization and continualization procedures mentioned in the chapter. The calculations were performed using the algorithms discussed earlier.

#### Section 2.4 Examples

Example 1. For this example the matrix A, is given by

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & -4 & -3 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & .5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.73)

The eigenvalues of A, are  $\lambda(A_{c}) = \{0, -1, -1, -1+j1, -1-j1\}$  (2.74)

Note that  $A_e$  is singular and has multiple eigenvalues. In addition, the Jordan form,  $A_p$ , corresponding to  $A_e$  is not diagonal. The selection of this matrix was motivated by the fact that some widely used software packages are not capable of calcuating either the Jordan form, or the natural logarithm, of non-diagonalizable matrices. The well known packages *MATLAB* and *MATHEMATICA* are examples of this deficiency. It is suggested that the reader repeat the calculations in these examples with another package at his or her disposal. The desired sampling interval for the discretization is T = 2 sec.; and the norm of  $A_eT$  is calculated to be 15.65. Eqs.(2.5) and (2.10) to (2.12) combined provide the following truncated summation, which is similar to Algorithm *SI-C-D* for calculating the exponential matrix.

$$\mathbf{A}_{d} = \left[\sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{A}_{c}T/r)^{i}}{i!}\right]^{r}$$
(2.75)

As in SI-C-D,  $r = 2^j$  where *j* is given in Eq.(2.11). Both the truncation number N and the scaling parameter *j* are of key interest to this development. To emphasize the dependence of our calculated matrix  $A_d$  on these parameters, we will use the notation  $A_d(N_d)$ . Results will be presented for the following 36 parameter combinations:

and j = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5N = 16, 14, 12, 10, 8, 6 (2.76)

Each A<sub>d</sub> is compared to the "exact" matrix A<sub>de</sub> given by

	99900 E-1	.50637 E+0	.19165 E+0	.14761 E+0	.10999 E+1
	76662 E+0	31657 E+0	68595 E-1	.44044 E-1	.76662 E+0
A., =	.27438 E+0	10893 E+0	11078 E+0	~.11264 E+0	27438 E+0
	.00000 E+0	.00000 E+0	.00000 E+0	.13534 E+0	.00000 E+0
	54995 E+0	.25318 E+0	.95827 E-1	.73805 E-1	.15500 E+1

The "exact" matrix A<sub>de</sub> above was calculated by transforming A<sub>e</sub> manually into its Jordan canonical form A<sub>e</sub> and then using

$$e^{A_r T} = Q e^{A_r T} Q^{-1}$$
 (2.77)

It may be verified that for A<sub>c</sub> given in Eq.(2.73),

$$\mathbf{A}_{J} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} , \quad \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 2 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and for T = 2 seconds

	e TcosT	$e^{-T} \sin T$	0	0	0		.056	.123	0	0	0]
	$-e^{-T}\sin T$	$e^{-T}\cos T$	0	0	0		123	.056	0	0	0
e *, 7 =	0	0	e-T	Te-T	0	*	0	0	.135	.271	0
	0	0	0	e-7	0		0	0	0	.135	0
	0	0	0	0	1		0	0	0	0	1

Note that A, is given in the real number Jordan form. See Section B.4.

The  $\log_{10}$  of the norm of the error matrix  $\mathbf{E}_{cl} = \mathbf{A}_{slr} - \mathbf{A}_{sl}(N_sl)$  is tabulated for each combination in Eq.(2.76) in Table 2.1 below. Since the particular norm used is not critical, the *Frobenius* norm, defined as the square root of the sum of squares of all matrix elements, is used. From Table 2.1 and corresponding Fig. 2.1 it can be seen that N = 16 terms is sufficient for  $\mathbf{A}_{sl}$  in Eq.(2.75) even for matrices  $\mathbf{A}_{c}T$ with relatively high norms. And, as we can see from Table 2.1, N may be chosen as low as N = 6 with judicious choice of the scaling parameter j.

		Log <sub>is</sub> ()E,	TABLE 2 () vs. Trunc of Scaling Par	.1. ation Number ameter j	r N	
N	<i>j=</i> 0	<i>j</i> =1	<i>j</i> =2	j=3	j=4	j=5
16	-3.783	-10.069	-14.422	-14.448	-14.551	-14.551
14	-3.783	-8.079	-12.114	-14.613	-14,551	-14.551
12	-2.305	-6.035	-9.631	-13.100	-14.551	-14.551
10	-1.241	-4.337	-7.157	-9.937	-12.684	-14.440
8	-0.101	-2.601	-4.965	-7.198	-9.362	-11.496
6	0.637	-1.155	-2.780	-4.361	-5.908	-7.435



FIGURE 2.1 Log (Norm(E\_)) vs. Computation Parameters

**Example 2.** In this example the matrix  $A_d$  is taken to be  $A_{de}$  given above. The calculation used to determine  $A_e$  is the truncated series in Eq.(2.63). We note that the eigenvalues of  $L = I - A_{de}$  influencing the convergence of the series, can exceed unit magnitude. In particular,  $\lambda(L)$  are:

$$\lambda(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{d}) = \{0, -0.86, -0.86, -1.06 + j0.12, -1.06 - j0.12\}$$
 (2.78)

To illustrate the convergence properties, the power series Eq. (2.63) was evaluated for all combinations of the parameters N and j given by

$$j = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$$
  
and  $N = 35, 30, 25, 20, 15, 10$  (2.79)

As in Example 1, the error matrix is defined to be

$$\mathbf{E}_{e} = \mathbf{A}_{e} - \mathbf{A}_{e}(N, j) \tag{2.80}$$

where the explicit notation  $A_e(N_d)$  is used to emphasize the dependence of the calculated matrix on the computation parameters N and j. The  $log_{10}$  of the norm of the matrix  $E_e$  is tabulated for the combinations indicated in Eqs.(2.79) in Table 2.2. As in Example 1 the Frobenius norm is used for convenience.

We see from the results in Table 2.2 that the series Eq.(2.63) can be truncated as high as N = 35 even when the maximum eigenvalue of L is greater than unity. It is also noted that the truncation may be as low as N = 10 provided that the scaling parameter j is appropriately selected. In practice, N can be fixed at a nominal value, say 20, and j can be varied over 3 or 4 values to ensure good convergence to the desired matrix. This is true whether the problem requires discretization or continualization.

As before, the information of Table 2.2 is given in graphical form in Fig. 2.2 to illustrate the convergence of the series Eq. (2.63).

		Log <sub>ic</sub> (]E, and	TABLE 2. ) vs. Trunci Scaling Par	2. ation Number amoter j	N	
N	<i>j=</i> 0	<i>j</i> =1	<i>j</i> =2	j=3	<i>j</i> ≈4	j=5
35	1.015	-2.565	-9.252	+10.123	-10.123	=10.123
30	0.915	-1.998	-7.845	-10,123	-10.123	-10.123
25	0.748	-1.753	-6.403	-10.123	-10.123	-10.123
20	0.678	-1.212	-4.962	-9.758	-10.123	-10.123
15	0,784	-0.779	-3.519	-7.194	-10.095	-10.123
10	0.896	-0.374	-2.081	-4.490	-7.015	-9.594



FIGURE 2.2 Log (Norm(E.)) vs. Computation Parameters

#### Section 2.4 Examples

Example 3. In this example the following C-T state space representation is considered:

$$R_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{c} & \mathbf{B}_{c} \\ \mathbf{C}_{c} & \mathbf{D}_{c} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & -4 & -3 & 1 & 4 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & | & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ - & - & - & - & - & + & - & - & - \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.81)

Note that  $A_c$  is the same matrix used in Example 1, Eq.(2.73). The input signal u(t) is specified over the interval 0 < t < 8T, with T = 2 seconds by the components defined in Table 2.3.

	TABLE 2.3. In	put Signal for Exe	mple 3.
Time Interval	M <sub>1</sub> (1)	442(1)	¥,(1)
$0 \le t \le 47$	1/(4T)	sin( <i>nt</i> /(47))	0.5 (cos(nt/(47)) - 1)
$4T \leq i \leq 8T$	2 - 1/(47)	0	<i>ti</i> (47) - 2

Discretization: Using the sampling interval T = 2, the representation  $R_e$  is discretized into the following equivalents, each represented in the partitioned system matrix form of the given state space model in Eq. (2.81):

- (a)  $R_{di} = \{ A_{di}, B_{di}, C_{di}, D_{di} \}$ , D-T step-invariant (SI) equivalent
- (b) R<sub>dr</sub> = { A<sub>dr</sub> , B<sub>dr</sub> , C<sub>dr</sub> , D<sub>dr</sub> } , D-T ramp-invariant (RI) equivalent
- (c) R<sub>ab</sub> = { A<sub>ab</sub> , B<sub>ab</sub> , C<sub>ab</sub> , D<sub>ab</sub> } , D-T bilinear transform (BT) equivalent

As was pointed out in Sec. 2.2, in the cases of (b) and (c) the five-matrix D-T models of Eqs.(2.21) and (2.35) were first calculated. This was followed by a conversion to the standard four-matrix D-T model using Algorithm R5R4. These three results are given below:

	100	.506	.192	.148	1.100	ा	.787	.127	.275 ]
	767	317	069	.044	.767	1	1.100	.148	.192
	.274	109	111	113	274	1	.767	.044	069
Ada Bda	0	0	0	.135	0	1	0	.865	0
R <sub>ds</sub> = C <sub>dr</sub> D <sub>dr</sub> =	550	.253	.096	.074	1.550	1	2.394	.064	.137
	-	-			-	+	. <b>T</b>	<b>a</b>	-
	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	100	.506	.192	.148	1.100	L	2.084	.238	.309
	767	317	069	.044	.767	I.	1.235	.070	034
	.274	109	111	113	274	1	135	104	177
Adr Bdr	0	0	0	.135	0	L	0	.374	0
$R_{dr} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{dr} & D_{dr} \end{bmatrix}^{=}$	550	.253	.096	.074	1.550	Ĩ.	3.042	.119	.154
14422 (192	-	-	Ξ.	-	1	+	-	-	-
	1	0	0	0	0	L	1.196	.035	.098
3	0	1	0	0	0	L	.394	.064	.137
	.200	.800	.200	.100	.800	Ē	1.840	.180	.260 ]
	800	200	.200	.100	.800	1	1.040	.080	.060
	800	-1.200	800	.100	.800	1	.240	020	140
Adb Bdb	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	.500	0
Kab Cab Dab	400	.400	.100	.050	1.400	1	2.920	.090	.130
24 (323)	-	-	-	-	4	+	-	-	-
	1	0	0	0	0	I	1.400	.050	.100
	0	1	0	0	0	1	.400	.050	.100

Responses of these models to samples of the input signal u(t) at  $t_i = iT$  for i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, are given in Table 2.4 below. Also included in Table 2.4 for comparison are the samples of the C-T system response. The norms of the differences between the C-T response,  $y_c(t_i)$ , and those of the three D-T models are:

4 (sec	.)	0	2	4	6	8
y.(i)	3	0.000	0.309	1.228	3.011	5.594
	<i>y</i> 2	0.000	0.123	0.555	0.966	1.374
y <sub>e</sub> (r <sub>i</sub> )	у	0.000	0.250	0.747	2.107	4.290
	Уз	0.000	0.000	0.351	0.790	1.171
$y_{\phi}(t_i)$	y,	0.000	0.309	1.228	3.011	5.594
	у <sub>2</sub>	0.000	0.123	0.555	0.966	1.374
ya(I)	y,	0.000	0.371	1.249	2.994	5.615
	y2	0.000	0.121	0.508	0.987	1.383

In order to illustrate the application of continualization procedures, i.e. the determination of C-T models from a given D-T model, we will first "generate" a D-T model using an input/output identification procedure which will be presented in Chapter 5 in detail.

Identification from Sampled Input/Output Data: As is well known, in order to perform a successful identification, the input signal selected should be sufficiently long and sufficiently rich. To this end the selected input vector u<sup>\*</sup>(t) is defined by

> $u_1^*(t) = u_1(t) + u_1(t - 10T)$   $u_2^*(t) = u_2(t) + u_2(t - 12T)$  $u_3^*(t) = u_3(t) + u_3(t - 14T)$

where  $u_i(t)$  are given in Table 2.3. Using  $u^*(t)$ , the response  $y^*(t)$  of the system in Eq.(2.81) was calculated in the time interval  $0 \le t \le 22T = 44$  seconds. The simulation of the C-T system in Eq.(2.81) was accomplished by solving the state-space differential equations at points 0.5 seconds apart. No measurement noise was added to the system response. The signals  $\{u^*(t), y^*(t)\}$ , shown in Figs. 2.3 and 2.4, were then sampled at intervals of T = 2 seconds yielding the input-output samples  $\{u^*(t), y^*(t)\}$  of a C-T system to be identified. For present purposes it suffices that we obtain the "identified D-T" four-matrix model given by the following system matrix:

	0	0	1	0	0	1	2.084	.238	.309 ]
	0	0	0	1	0	1	1.235	.070	034
	.124	.058	.876	1.020	1.530	1	3.737	.178	.088
$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_d & \mathbf{B}_d \end{bmatrix}$	0	0	0	0	1	1	.352	090	096
$K_d = \begin{bmatrix} C_d & D_d \end{bmatrix}^{d}$	030	017	.030	086	281	1	.015	037	008
RH 7.0	5	-	-			+	-	-	$\overline{a}$
	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.196	.035	.098
	0	1	0	0	0	1	.394	.064	.137

With the identification procedure used, the representation  $R_d$  is in the *pseudo-observable* form. (Canonical forms will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3). As an admissible set of pseudo-observability indices,  $\{n_i\}$ , the following was selected, namely  $\{n_i\} = \{2, 3\}$ . The unique set of observability indices of  $R_c$  is  $\{n_i\} = \{3, 2\}$ . As was mentioned earlier, more details on this identification procedure will be presented in Chapter 5. Finally, the "identified D-T model" will now be used as a basis for illustrating the continualization techniques.

Continualization: Using the sampling interval T = 2, the D-T representation  $R_d$  above is *continualized* into:

- (a) R<sub>ct</sub> C-T step-invariant (SI) equivalent
- (b) Rer C-T ramp-invariant (RI) equivalent
- (c) R<sub>cb</sub> C-T bilinear transform (BT) equivalent

As was pointed out in Sec. 2.3, to determine  $R_{cr}$ , it was first necessary to convert  $R_d$  into an equivalent five-matrix representation,  $R_{d0}$ , using Algorithm R4R5. Subsequently, using Eqs.(2.63), (2.64) and (2.67), the desired  $R_{cr}$  was obtained. To determine  $R_{do}$ , the identified  $R_d$  was first converted to a five-matrix C-T repre-



FIGURE 2.3 Excitations for Example 3

#### Section 2.4 Examples



FIGURE 2.4 Responses for Example 3

sentation using Eqs.(2.69) to (2.71). Following this, Algorithm R5R4 was used to obtain the desired four-matrix model,  $R_{c0}$ . The C-T representations thus obtained are given below:

	[001	1.000	.001	002	010	1	.394	.064	.137 ]
	-4.070	-3.712	4.070	-6.702	5.474	1	.552	.076	.096
	.000	.000	000	1.001	004	1	1.629	.134	.104
rca =	.344	.147	344	033	1.061	1	.415	030	081
A <sub>cr</sub> B <sub>cr</sub>	074	038	.074	295	260	1	.033	036	-,015
Ces Des	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-
eren anderen eren eren eren eren eren eren ere	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.196	.035	.098
	0	1	0	0	0	1	.394	.064	.137
	C 1250 / 1								

	001	1.000	.001	002	010	1	003	005	.000]
	-4.070	-3.712	4.070	-6.702	5.474	1	.012	.016	003
P -	.000	.000	.000	1.001	004	1	1.100	.148	.192
n <sub>or</sub> -	.344	.147	344	033	1.061	Û.	.766	.044	069
A <sub>cr</sub> B <sub>cr</sub>	074	038	.074	295	260	1	.121	057	044
C <sub>cr</sub> D <sub>cr</sub>	-	-		-		+	-	-	-
	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.000	.001	.000
	0	1	0	0	0	1	003	004	.001

	-1.158	076	1.158	-1.148	487	Ĩ.	832	030	.285 ]
	051	-1.028	.051	1.847	-1.502	1	1.142	.316	.265
D -	.158	.076	158	1.148	.487	Î.	1.507	.222	.163
n <sub>cb</sub> -	.051	.028	051	847	1.502	1	.651	059	158
Acb Bcb	051	028	.051	153	502	1	.026	056	017
Ceb Deb	-	-		-	-		-	-	-
	1	0	0	0	0	T	.858	061	126
	0	1	0	0	0	1	503	064	.084

It is worth mentioning that the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A_{\alpha}$  (=  $A_{\alpha}$ ) obtained by the continualization of  $A_{\alpha}$  are:

{0, -0.9844, -1.0211, -1.0004 + j1.0002, -1.0004 - j1.0002}

which are only slightly different from those of A, given by Eq.(2.74).

Having determined the C-T models above, the responses of these models to the four samples of the input signal u(t), Table 2.3, were calculated, as was done for the D-T models, Table 2.4. In order to assess the accuracy of the proposed continualization procedures, only the samples of these C-T responses at the sampling instants are considered. Table 2.5 contains these results as well as the samples of the identified D-T model for comparison. The norms of the differences between  $y_n(t_n)$  and the responses of the three derived C-T models are as follows:

$$\begin{split} \Delta_{e_{0}} &= \left\| \mathbf{y}_{d}(t_{i}) - \mathbf{y}_{\alpha}(t_{i}) \right\| = 2.0550 \\ \Delta_{cr} &= \left\| \mathbf{y}_{d}(t_{i}) - \mathbf{y}_{\alpha}(t_{i}) \right\| = 0.12935 \times 10^{4} \\ \Delta_{cb} &= \left\| \mathbf{y}_{d}(t_{i}) - \mathbf{y}_{\alpha}(t_{i}) \right\| = 0.73568 \times 10^{4} \end{split}$$

From the normed differences, both for the discretization and the continualization, it may be concluded that the RI transformation is superior to either of the other two, primarily because of the particular selection of  $\mathbf{u}^{*}(t)$  which does not contain step discontinuities. This should be expected since the SI transformation assumes constant values of input between samples, and the bilinear transformation (BT) is only satisfactory if  $|p_iT| < 0.5$  for all poles  $p_i$  of the C-T system, which is not the case for this example.

4 (800	.)	0	2	4	6	8
5.60)	y,	0.000	0.309	1.228	3.011	5.594
23303	y2	0.000	0,123	0.555	0.966	1.374
(I) <sub>0</sub>	y,	0.000	0.567	1.927	4.108	7.110
	32	0.000	0.322	0.765	1.161	1.585
(I)	3	0.000	0.309	1.228	3.011	5.594
	y2	0.000	0.123	0.555	0.966	1.374
·(1)	<i>y</i> 1	0.000	0.253	1.219	3.001	5.578
	y2	0.000	0.164	0.561	0.956	1.374

With the accuracy given in Tables 2.4 and 2.5 it cannot be seen just how well the C-T *identified* system output  $y_{o}(t)$  matches that of the original C-T system, but the largest magnitude difference between the two, component by component, is  $0.421 \times 10^4$ . The reader is urged to verify parts of the above examples using the same, or different, input data.

We conclude this chapter with a short section on an efficient method for the calculation of truncated power series.

## Polynomial Reduction Using the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

In several developments presented earlier, it was required that an  $n \times n$  matrix, say A, be calculated using a truncated power series of the form

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i \mathbf{X}^i \tag{2.82}$$

In this section we discuss an efficient method for the calculation of truncated power series, referred to as Algorithm *POLR*. The series of Eq.(2.82) can be interpreted as an evaluation of the matrix polynomial C(X) of the matrix X where the  $N^{6}$  order polynomial C(s) is given by

$$C(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i s^i$$
 (2.83)

As a result of the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, the calculation of Eq. (2.82) can be reduced to the evaluation of an  $(n-1)^4$  order matrix polynomial  $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X})$  of the matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  where the coefficients  $r_i$  of the scalar polynomial  $\mathbf{R}(s)$  satisfy the following *n* conditions:

$$R(\lambda_i) = C(\lambda_i)$$
, for  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$  (2.84)

where  $\lambda_i$  is the  $l^{\pm}$  eigenvalue of the  $n \times n$  matrix X. Using this approach, it can be verified that given the matrix X and the N+1 coefficients  $c_i$  of the polynomial C(s), the *n* coefficients of the polynomial R(s) can be obtained with the following:

## Algorithm POLR

Syntax: c, X (POLR)  $\Rightarrow$  r

Algorithm:

1. Set  $c_i \Rightarrow r_i$ , for  $0 \le i \le N$ 2. Set  $N+1 \Rightarrow k$  and  $det(sI - X) \Rightarrow f(s)$ 3. Set  $k-1 \Rightarrow k$ 4. Set  $r_{ks+j} - r_k f_j \Rightarrow r_{ks+j}$ , for  $0 \le j \le n-1$ 5. If k > n, go to 3; else, stop

A listing of Algorithm POLR, implemented in L-A-S, may be found in Appendix C.

If the coefficients f<sub>i</sub> define the (monic) characteristic polynomial of X,

$$f(s) = \det(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X}) \triangleq s^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f_i s^i$$
 (2.85)

then the first n coefficients  $r_j$ ,  $0 \le j \le n-1$  define the  $(n-1)^n$  order polynomial R(s)satisfying Eq.(2.84).

From Algorithm POLR it is clear that evaluating the matrix A in Eq.(2.82) is equivalent to evaluating

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r_i \mathbf{X}^i$$
 (2.86)

thereby considerably reducing the computational time and, more importantly, the accumulation of round-off errors. This method works well even if X is completely general with multiple eigenvalues. The *POLR* algorithm given above may be considered as a computational simplification of a standard procedure based on the Cayley-Hamilton theorem of matrix algebra. This standard procedure calculates coefficients  $r_i$  of the polynomial r(s) from

$$r^{(0)}(\lambda_i) - c^{(0)}(\lambda_i)$$
, for  $i = 1, 2, ..., m$  and  $k = 1, 2, ..., n_i$  (2.87)

where  $\lambda_i$  is an eigenvalue of X,  $n_i$  is its algebraic multiplicity and m is the number of distinct eigenvalues. Obviously, if all of the eigenvalues of X are distinct, then m = n and  $n_i = 1$  for all i. The notation of Eq.(2.87) is defined by

$$r^{(k)}(\lambda_i) = \frac{d^k r(\lambda)}{d\lambda^k} |_{\lambda = \lambda_i}$$
(2.88)

The computational simplification of the POLR algorithm is useful in that when X has multiple eigenvalues, it is neither necessary to determine the algebraic multiplicities, nor to evaluate the derivatives in Eq.(2.88). The POLR algorithm also works for matrices having a spectral radius greater than 0.5.

## 2.5

## Summary

To summarize the developments in this chapter a set of numerically robust algorithms was presented. These algorithms deal with the often encountered problems of *discretization* of continuous-time (C-T) models as well as the inverse problem of recreating a C-T model from a given discrete-time (D-T) model. This latter operation we have referred to as *continualization*. The algorithms described comprise, in addition to the standard SI (*ZOH*) procedures, two methods which are commonly referred to in the signal processing literature, namely the *bilinear transformation* (BT) and a method called the *ramp-invariant* (RI) method that is equivalent to the next higher order approximation beyond the SI (ZOH), representing a piecewise linear approximation to the input functions. With these algorithms the design engineer has complete flexibility to move between the continuous and discrete model domains.

To assist readers in the "maze" of "time-domain" conversion algorithms introduced in this chapter, as well as in Chapter 1, and to relate these algorithms to their L-A-S implementations given in Appendix C, let us review these algorithms once more in a slightly different way. The list below relates algorithms that have been discussed with the names of their L-A-S "counter-parts," i.e. L-A-S operators, or subroutines:

Algorithm	L-A-S Operator or	
Name	Subroutine Name	
EATJ	EATJ.SUB	
EAT	EAT.SBR	
EATF	EATF and EATF.SBR	
LNM	LNM and LNM.SBR	
LNMj	LNMj.SUB	
SI-C-D	SICD.SBR	
RI-C-D	RICD.SBR	

78	Chapter 2	System Discretization		
	10000000	245220007622285285222		
BT-C-D	BCDC.SUB			
BT-D-C	BCDC.SUB			
SI-D-C	not available			
RI-D-C	not available			
"Serv	ice" Algorithms:			
SQM	SQM and S	SQM and SQM.SUB		
POLR	POLR and POLR.SUB			
POM	POM and POM.SUB			
FACT	FACT.SUB			
FLN	FLN.SUB			
RSR4	R5R4.SUB			
R4R5	R4R5.SUB			
JFR	JFR			
EGV	EGV			
EFJF	EFJF			

Note that whenever an L-A-S operator is available, it is more convenient to use the operator version, rather than the corresponding subroutine, since its execution is much faster. The listings of certain subroutines are given to show how they might be implemented using the L-A-S language, or any other CAD package. A close correspondence should be noticed between the steps of an algorithm and the associated L-A-S implementation.

Historically, the development of the L-A-S language progressed by constantly undergoing modifications and upgrading. Early on, all algorithms were implemented as subroutines. As specific algorithms saw increasing use, users requested "single step operations" for speed and convenience. As L-A-S continues to grow, this trend of "upgrading" subroutines to operators will, no doubt, continue. Thus, in the future some algorithms which are implemented as subroutines in this text will be implemented as operators.

Recall that both Algorithms BT-C-D and BT-D-C are implemented by a single L-A-S algorithm with the syntax:

## $A_1, B_1, T, Icdc (BCDC) \rightarrow A_2, B_2, P$

where, in the case of the algorithm flag, Icdc:

Icdc = 1, it performs the task of BT-C-D, Eqs.(2.35), while for Icdc = 2, Eqs.(2.71), required by BT-D-C are used.

Some of these algorithms, such as RI-C-D, BT-C-D and BT-D-C calculate five matrix models from a standard four matrix model, albeit in a different time-domain, while other algorithms, e.g. RI-D-C, calculate a four matrix model from a five matrix model. To help this situation, a set of L-A-S algorithms has been developed which greatly facilitates these various time-domain conversions. This is achieved by developing algorithms which convert from a standard four-matrix model in one domain into a corresponding standard four-matrix model in the other domain. All of these algorithms and subroutines use four matrices in  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  and produce a corresponding "converted" representation  $\vec{R} - \{\vec{A}, \vec{B}, \vec{C}, \vec{D}\}$ . The syntactical definitions of these algorithms are

For C-T 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 D-T conversions: (2.89)  
 $\mathbf{A}_{e}, \mathbf{B}_{e}, \mathbf{C}_{e}, \mathbf{D}_{e}, T, \epsilon (SRCD) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{ds}, \mathbf{B}_{ds}, \mathbf{C}_{d}, \mathbf{D}_{ds}, \mathbf{D}_{ds}$   
 $\mathbf{A}_{e}, \mathbf{B}_{e}, \mathbf{C}_{e}, \mathbf{D}_{e}, T, \epsilon (BLCD) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{db}, \mathbf{B}_{db}, \mathbf{C}_{db}, \mathbf{D}_{db}$   
and for D-T  $\Rightarrow$  C-T conversions: (2.90)  
 $\mathbf{A}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d}, \mathbf{C}_{d}, \mathbf{D}_{d}, T, \epsilon (SRDC) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{e}, \mathbf{B}_{es}, \mathbf{B}_{er}, \mathbf{C}_{e}, \mathbf{D}_{ds}, \mathbf{D}_{er}$   
 $\mathbf{A}_{d}, \mathbf{B}_{d}, \mathbf{C}_{d}, \mathbf{D}_{d}, T, \epsilon (SRDC) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{eb}, \mathbf{B}_{eb}, \mathbf{C}_{eb}, \mathbf{D}_{eb}$ 

As the names of the algorithms in Eq.(2.89) suggest, given a C-T state space representation:

 $R_c = \{A_c, B_c, C_c, D_c\}$  and the sampling interval T

Algorithm SRCD calculates four matrix D-T models for both SI and RI equivalents:

$$R_{dr} = \{\mathbf{A}_{dr}, \mathbf{B}_{dr}, \mathbf{C}_{dr}, \mathbf{D}_{dr}\} \text{ and } R_{dr} = \{\mathbf{A}_{dr}, \mathbf{B}_{dr}, \mathbf{C}_{dr}, \mathbf{D}_{dr}\}$$
(2.91)

where  $A_{ds} = A_{ds} = A_d$  and  $C_{ds} = C_{ds} = C_d$ .

 Algorithm BLCD calculates a four matrix D-T model using the bilinear transformation:

$$R_{\phi} = \{\mathbf{A}_{\phi}, \mathbf{B}_{\phi}, \mathbf{C}_{\phi}, \mathbf{D}_{\phi}\}$$
(2.92)

Both algorithms, in addition to using the "basic" conversion algorithms, i.e. EATF and BT-C-D (or the subroutine BCDC.SUB), also use Algorithm R5R4 to obtain the four matrix D-T model given by Eqs.(2.91) and (2.92).

Similarly, considering the algorithms in Eq.(2.90), given a D-T state space representation:

 $R_d = \{A_d, B_d, C_d, D_d\}$  and the sampling interval T

Algorithm SRDC calculates four matrix C-T models for both SI and RI equivalents:

$$R_{\alpha} = \{\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{B}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{C}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{D}_{\alpha}\} \text{ and } R_{\alpha} = \{\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{B}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{C}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{D}_{\alpha}\}$$
(2.93)

where  $A_{\alpha} = A_{\alpha} = A_{\epsilon}$  and  $C_{\alpha} = C_{\alpha} = C_{\epsilon}$ .

 Algorithm BLCD calculates a four matrix D-T model using the bilinear transformation:

$$R_{ab} = \{\mathbf{A}_{ab}, \mathbf{B}_{ab}, \mathbf{C}_{ab}, \mathbf{D}_{ab}\}$$
(2.94)

#### Chapter 2 System Discretization

In accordance with the developments in Section 2.3, Algorithm SRDC, in addition to using the basic conversion Algorithm LNM, first uses Algorithm R4R5 in order to obtain the five matrix D-T model required by RI-C-D. On the other hand, Algorithm BLDC, in a similar manner to the previously mentioned BLCD and SRCD, uses Algorithm BT-C-D, i.e. subroutine BCDC.SUB, followed by Algorithm R5R4 in order to obtain the desired four matrix model R<sub>s</sub> given by Eq.(2.94).

In order to facilitate time domain conversions even further, a single "unifying" algorithm, referred to as CTDT, has been developed. Its syntax is:

$$\mathbf{A}$$
,  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{e}$ , Istb (CTDT) =  $\mathbf{\tilde{A}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\tilde{B}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\tilde{C}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\tilde{D}}$  (2.95)

where, given a state space representation in ONE domain (C-T or D-T)

$$R = \{A, B, C, D\}$$

it calculates the equivalent model in THE OTHER domain (D-T or C-T)

## Ř - Ă, B, Ĉ, Ď

The desired conversion is specified by the seventh input argument, i.e. algorithm flag *Isrb* (where "srb" stands for the *step*, *ramp* and *bilinear* transformations). More specifically, for *Isrb* = 1, 2 or 3, Algorithm *CTDT* assumes that the given

R is a C-T model and that the representation  $\tilde{R}$  is consequently a D-T model corresponding to SI, RI or BT equivalents, respectively.

Conversely, if the algorithm flag Isrb = -1, -2 or -3, the algorithm treats the the given representation R as the D-T model and calculates a C-T model  $\tilde{R}$  as an SI, RI or BT equivalent.

For more details about this "unifying" algorithm readers are referred to Chapter 5, where a full description of Algorithm *CTDT* from the user's point of view is given. Listings of all algorithms mentioned in this section, implemented using the *L-A-S* language, are given in Appendix C.

# References

Brogan (1991), Chen (1984), Golub and Van Loan (1991) and Kailath (1980) are a few of the better standard references in the general context of multivariable systems. More specific references are Bingulac and Cooper (1990) for SI and RI discretization techniques, and Cooper and Bingulac (1990), as well as Bingulac and VanLandingham (1992), for background on computing the corresponding "continualized" models. See also Laub (1985) and Moler and Van Loan (1978) for some interesting reading on the topic of discretization.

2.6

#### Section 2.6 References

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Moler, C.B., and C.F. Van Loan (1978), "Nineteen dubious ways to compute the exponential of a matrix," SIAM Review, 20, 801-836.

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# 2.7 Exercises

2.1 Two (4 × 4) matrices A, and A, are given below:

$$\mathbf{A}_{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{A}_{\epsilon 1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate:

- (a) The eigenvalues of A<sub>e</sub> and A<sub>ct</sub>.
- (b) Verify that A<sub>ct</sub> is not diagonalizable.
- (c) Determine A<sub>d</sub> = exp(A<sub>d</sub>T) and A<sub>di</sub> = exp(A<sub>di</sub>T) with a sampling interval of T = 2 sec.
- (d) Determine  $A_{curv} = \ln(A_d)/T$  and  $A_{clow} = \ln(A_{dl})/T$
- (e) Verify that  $A_c = A_{corr}$  and that  $A_{cl} = A_{close}$
- (f) If available, use some other software package to perform the same calculations. Many such packages do not implement functions of a matrix if the matrix is not diagonalizable.

#### Hints:

- To calculate the eigenvalues of a matrix, use operator EGV.
- To verify if a matrix A is diagonalizable, check the rank, or null space of the matrix B = A - λ<sub>i</sub>I<sub>s</sub>, where λ<sub>i</sub> is an eigenvalue of A.
- To calculate the rank, or null space, use operator NRS.
- To calculate the natural log of a matrix, use either (or both) the operator LNM and/or the subroutine LNMj.SUB.
- To calculate the matrix exponential function of a matrix, use either (or both) the operator EATF and/or the subroutine EATJ.SUB.
- Verify that subroutines LNMj.SUB and EATj.SUB are not applicable in the case of non-diagonalizable matrices.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER21.DPF.

#### Section 2.7 Exercises

2.2 Two (4 × 4) matrices A, and A, are given below:

$$\mathbf{A}_{d} = \begin{bmatrix} -.9 & .8 & 1 & -.8 \\ -.8 & .1 & 0 & 1.7 \\ -1.4 & .8 & 1.5 & .2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & .8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{d1} = \begin{bmatrix} -.9 & .8 & 1 & -.8 \\ -.8 & .1 & 0 & 1.4 \\ -1.4 & .8 & 1.5 & .2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & .5 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Calculate:

- (a) —the eigenvalues of A<sub>4</sub> and A<sub>6</sub>.
- (b) Verify that A<sub>d</sub> is not diagonalizable.
- (c) Determine A<sub>c</sub> = ln(A<sub>d</sub>)/T and A<sub>cl</sub> = ln(A<sub>d</sub>)/T with a sampling interval of T = 2 sec.
- (d) Determine  $A_{down} = \exp(A_c T)$  and  $A_{down} = \exp(A_{cl} T)$ .
- (e) Verify that  $A_d = A_{deex}$  and that  $A_{d1} = A_{d1acx}$ .
- (f) If available, use some other software package to perform the same calculations.

#### Hints:

- To calculate the eigenvalues of a matrix, use operator EGV.
- To verify if a matrix A is diagonalizable, check the rank, or null space of the matrix B = A - λ,I<sub>e</sub>, where λ<sub>i</sub> is an eigenvalue of A.
- To calculate the rank, or null space, use operator NRS.
- To calculate the natural log of a matrix, use either (or both) the operator LNM and/or the subroutine LNMj.SUB.
- To calculate the matrix exponential function of a matrix, use either (or both) the operator EATF and/or the subroutine EATJ.SUB.
- Verify that subroutines LNMj.SUB and EATj.SUB are not applicable in the case of non-diagonalizable matrices.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER22.DPF. 2.3 Using the following system state space representation R<sub>d</sub> of a D-T MIMO system:

	1.1	.8	1	.8	1	1	0
	8	.1	0	.6	1	0	-1
Ad Bd	6	8	5	.2	1	-1	0
+ =	0	0	0	.5	1	0	1
C <sub>4</sub>   D <sub>4</sub>					-1-		
8 S - 538	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
	1	0	1	0	1	0	0

with sampling interval T = 2 sec., and the number of samples N = 41, calculate:

- (a) —the response y<sub>d</sub>(k), k=[0,N-1], of R<sub>d</sub> to zero initial conditions and an input vector u(k), with u(0)=0. For non-zero values of u(k), i.e. u(k), k=[1,N-1], use pseudo random numbers.
- (b) —equivalent C-T models using:
  - (1) -a step-invariant assumption the SI-C-T model Ra
  - (2) -a ramp-invariant assumption the RI-C-T model Ray
  - (3) -a bilinear transformation the BT-C-T model Rab
- (c) —the responses y<sub>α</sub>(t), y<sub>α</sub>(t) and y<sub>φ</sub>(t) of the obtained SI-C-T, RI-C-T and BT-C-T models, respectively, to zero initial conditions and an input vector u(t) having at t = kT, k=[0,N-1], the same values u(k) used in calculating the response y<sub>a</sub>(k) of the given system R<sub>a</sub>.
- (d) Plot all responses and check the differences between y<sub>d</sub>(k) and the responses of each obtained C-T equivalent model.
- (e) Determine which C-T model gives the response which is closest to y<sub>n</sub>(k).

#### Hints:

- Define the matrices in R<sub>d</sub> using either the DMA or the INPM operator.
- Define the scalars T and N using either the DMA or the DSC operator.
- The system order and number of inputs may be extracted from A<sub>d</sub> and B<sub>d</sub> either by the operator CDI or subroutine GETD.SUB.
- The matrix u containing the samples u(k) may be defined using operators DPM and SHR.
- Zero initial conditions may be established using the DZM operator.
- The responses of the D-T and C-T models may be calculated using CDSR.SUB.
- Response plotting may be performed using the DIS operator.
- For axes labeling and scaling, operators YLAB, XLAB and YXSC may be used.

#### Section 2.7 Exercises

- The required C-T models can be calculated in the following two ways:
  - The "easy" way, i.e. using subroutine CTDT.SBR, where the quantities Isrb = -1, -2 and -3 should be used for the algorithm flag Isrb.
    - The "hard" way, i.e. for
      - —the SI-C-T model use operators LNM and EATF, Eqs.(2.63), (2.65) and (2.9).
      - the RI-C-T model use the same operators, but Eqs.(2.63), (2.33), (2.67) and (2.68), as well as subroutine R4R5.SUB for converting the given four-matrix D-T model R<sub>d</sub> into the required five-matrix model given by Eq.(2.21).
      - --the BT-C-T model use Eqs.(2.70) (2.72) and subroutine R5R4.SUB for converting the obtained five-matrix C-T model into the required four-matrix model R<sub>de</sub>.
- Note that the matrix A<sub>g</sub> has multiple eigenvalues and that it is not diagonalizable. Therefore, subroutines LNMj.SUB and EATJ.SUB should not be used!
- The L-A-S program EXER23.DPF, residing in the subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\, contains a possible solution to Exercise 2.3.

2.4 Using the following system state space representation R<sub>e</sub> of a C-T MIMO system:

	-1	1	0	1	1	1	0 ]
	1	-1	1	0	1	0	-1
A <sub>e</sub>   B <sub>e</sub>	1	-1	0	0	1	-1	0
+ =	0	0	0	-1	1	0	1
C <sub>c</sub>   D <sub>c</sub>					-1-		
50 E	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
	1	0	1	0	1	0	0

with sampling interval T = 2 sec., and the number of samples N = 41, calculate:

- (a) —the response y<sub>c</sub>(k), k=[0,N-1], of R<sub>c</sub> to zero initial conditions and an input vector u(t), with u(0)=0. For samples u(kT), k=[1,N-1], use pseudo random numbers.
- (b) -equivalent D-T models using:
  - —a step-invariant assumption the SI-D-T model R<sub>ds</sub>
  - —a ramp-invariant assumption the RI-D-T model R<sub>dr</sub>
  - (3) —a bilinear transformation the BT-D-T model R<sub>ab</sub>

- (c) —the responses y<sub>dr</sub>(t), y<sub>dr</sub>(t) and y<sub>dr</sub>(t) of the obtained SI-D-T, RI-D-T and BT-D-T models, respectively, to zero initial conditions and an input vector u(k) having the same values as u(kT), k=[0,N-1], used in calculating the response y<sub>c</sub>(t) of the given system R<sub>c</sub>.
- (d) Plot all responses and check the differences between y<sub>c</sub>(kT) and the responses of each obtained D-T equivalent model.
- (e) Determine which D-T model gives the response which is closest to y<sub>c</sub>(kT).

### Hints:

- Define the matrices in R, using either the DMA or the INPM operator.
- Define the scalars T and N using either the DMA or the DSC operator.
- The system order and number of inputs may be extracted from A<sub>c</sub> and B<sub>c</sub> either by the operator CDI or subroutine GETD.SUB.
- The matrix u containing the samples u(kT) may be defined using operators DPM and SHR.
- Zero initial conditions may be established using the DZM operator.
- The responses of the C-T and D-T models may be calculated using CDSR.SUB.
- Response plotting may be performed using the DIS operator.
- For axes labeling and scaling, operators YLAB, XLAB and YXSC may be used.
- The required D-T models can be calculated in the following two ways:
  - The "easy" way, i.e. using subroutine CTDT.SBR, where for the algorithm flag *Isrb* the quantities *Isrb* = 1, 2 and 3 should be used.
  - The "hard" way, i.e. for
    - —the SI-D-T model use the operator EATF and Eq.(2.9).
    - the RI-D-T model use the same operator, but Eqs.(2.32), (2.33) and the subroutine R5R4.SUB for converting the obtained five-matrix D-T model, Eq.(2. 21), into the required four-matrix model R<sub>ar</sub>.
- Note that the matrix A<sub>c</sub> is singular, has multiple eigenvalues and is not diagonalizable. Therefore, the subroutines EATJ.SUB should <u>not</u> be used!
- The L-A-S program EXER24.DPF, residing in the subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\, contains a possible solution to Exercise 2.4.

# Chapter 3 System Modeling

In this chapter we will elaborate on the brief introduction of system models given in Chapter 1. In carrying out design problems engineers and analysts frequently need to convert between various system descriptions for insight into the different phases of the design process. The principal linear, time-invariant, dynamic system model types considered in this chapter are:

- (1) State space models,
- (2) Transfer function matrices, and
- (3) Matrix fraction description (MFD) models.

In the first section single-input, single-output (SISO) systems and their canonical representations are considered.

# 3.1 Canonical Forms for SISO Systems

As an introduction to the special standard forms for representing systems in state space, we will restrict our attention to SISO systems in this section. Later in the chapter the concepts will be extended to MIMO systems. There are three main state space structures that are recognized as "standard:"

- The controllable canonical form,
- The observable canonical form, and
- The Jordan canonical form.

These three forms also have versions which have minor variations, which can arise, for instance, from different labelings of the state variables. The following discussion will be presented from the point of view of C-T systems and the Laplace Transform variable, s; but the reader should keep in mind that exactly the same canonical forms also hold for D-T systems with the corresponding z-Transform notation.

In the following each of the three forms mentioned above will be studied as they pertain to the SISO transfer function:

$$y(s) = g(s)u(s) = \frac{b(s)}{a(s)}u(s)$$
 (3.1)

where the numerator and denominator of the transfer function g(s) are polynomials given by

$$a(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i s^i$$
 and  $b(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} b_i s^i$  (3.2)

87

Of course, it is well known that the transfer function of Eq.(3.1) represents a system described by the differential equation

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} \frac{d^{i}}{dt^{i}} y(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} b_{i} \frac{d^{i}}{dt^{i}} u(t)$$
(3.3)

For the model in either form to be realizable, the order of the numerator, m, must be less than or equal to the order of the denominator, n. In the subsequent discussions it will be assumed that  $a_n = 1$  and m = n, i.e. a proper system.

### 3.1.1 The Controllable Canonical Form

The first method to be presented is a state model based on a natural extension of the *phase variables* of a differential equation, namely,

$$x_1 = y$$
,  $x_2 = \frac{dy}{dt}$ , ...,  $x_n = \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dt^{n-1}}$ 

In order to simplify the notation, a third-order transfer function will be used for the development. However, because of the regularity of the canonical form, the general case will be clear. Consider that the transfer function, g(s), of Eq.(3.1) is given by

$$g(s) = \frac{y(s)}{u(s)} = \frac{b_3 s^3 + b_2 s^2 + b_1 s + b_0}{s^3 + a_2 s^2 + a_1 s + a_0}$$
(3.4)

Alternatively, g(s) could be written as

$$g(s) = \frac{y(s)}{u(s)} = \frac{b_3 + b_2 s^{-1} + b_1 s^{-2} + b_0 s^{-3}}{1 + a_2 s^{-1} + a_1 s^{-2} + a_0 s^{-3}}$$
(3.5)

From Eq.(3.5) we can solve for y(x) as

$$y(s) = (b_3 + b_2 s^{-1} + b_1 s^{-2} + b_0 s^{-3}) e(s)$$
(3.6)

where

$$e(s) = \frac{u(s)}{1 + a_2 s^{-1} + a_1 s^{-2} + a_0 s^{-3}}$$
(3.7)

An equivalent expression for e(s) can be obtained by cross-multiplying in Eq.(3.7) and solving for e(s) in terms of itself and u(s), i.e.

$$e(s) = u(s) - (a_2 s^{-1} + a_1 s^{-2} + a_0 s^{-3}) e(s)$$
(3.8)

The lower portion of Fig. 3.1 illustrates Eq.(3.8) in that the signal e is the sum of

#### Section 3.1 Canonical Forms for SISO Systems

the four terms:  $u_1 - a_2 s'^1 e_1 - a_1 s'^2 e_2$  and  $-a_0 s'^3 e_1$ ; the last three terms are the "feedback" terms in the diagram. It is easy to see how the diagram of Fig. 3.1 extends to higher order systems by cascading the *n* integration blocks together for an *n*<sup>th</sup> order system.

By labeling the outputs of the integration blocks as state variables, as shown in Fig. 3.1, the following equations may be derived:

$$\dot{x}_1(t) = x_2(t)$$
  
 $\dot{x}_2(t) = x_3(t)$   
 $\dot{x}_3(t) = -a_0 x_1(t) - a_1 x_2(t) - a_2 x_3(t) + u(t)$ 
(3.9)

Finally, from Eq. (3.6) the upper portion of Fig. 3.1 may be drawn; that is, y(s) is a linear combination of the signal e(s) and its integrals. We may refer to  $s^{-1}e(s)$  as the integral of e(s). Thus, the output equation is

$$y(t) = (b_0 - a_0 b_3) x_1(t) + (b_1 - a_1 b_3) x_2(t) + (b_2 - a_2 b_3) x_3(t) + b_3 u(t) \quad (3.10)$$

When Eqs.(3.9) and (3.10) are put into a vector-matrix form, the following structure of the state space model is obtained.

$$\begin{vmatrix} \dot{x}_{1}(t) \\ \dot{x}_{2}(t) \\ \dot{x}_{3}(t) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{vmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \end{vmatrix} u(t)$$

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} b_{0} - a_{0}b_{3} & b_{1} - a_{1}b_{3} & b_{2} - a_{2}b_{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{3} \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$(3.11)$$

In general, the controllable canonical SISO model is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}_{e} \, \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{b}_{e} \, u(t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{c}_{e} \, \mathbf{x}(t) + d_{e} \, u(t)$$

$$(3.12)$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_{n-1} \\ -\mathbf{a} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{c}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{1} & \cdots & c_{n} \end{bmatrix}, \quad d_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.13)

with  $\mathbf{a} = [a_0 - a_{n-1}]$ , and  $c_i = b_{i-1} - a_{i-1}b_n$  for  $0 \le i \le n-1$  (3.14) Note that for SISO systems A is an  $(n \times n)$  matrix, b is an  $(n \times 1)$  column, c is a  $(1 \times n)$  row, and d is a scalar.



FIGURE 3.1 SISO Feedback (Controllable) Form

As will be made clear later, the canonical form of Eqs.(3.11), represented in Fig. 3.1, will be called the SISO feedback (controllable) form. Its main property is that the input vector  $\mathbf{b}_e$  has a unit element at the location corresponding to the row of  $\mathbf{A}_r$  with non-zero/non-unity elements. A modification of Eqs.(3.11) preferred by some authors is obtained by labeling the states in Fig. 3.1 in reverse order. In this case, with  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_3$  interchanged in Fig. 3.1, the Eqs.(3.11) become

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_{1}(t) \\ \dot{x}_{2}(t) \\ \dot{x}_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -a_{2} & -a_{1} & -a_{0} \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} b_{2} - a_{2}b_{3} & b_{1} - a_{1}b_{3} & b_{0} - a_{0}b_{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{3} \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$(3.15)$$

which presents a different looking, but still, a controllable form.

The controllable canonical form of either version provides an extremely useful method of obtaining a set of state equations from a given transfer function. With sufficient practice the reader will be able to skip the intermediary diagram and fill in the state model directly from the transfer function. For instance, in Eqs.(3.11) the upper rows of the state coefficient matrix are formed from a shifted identity matrix, while the last row has a direct correspondence to the denominator of the transfer function. The input matrix is all zeros except for the last entry, which is unity. The output matrix and feedthrough element incorporate the numerator

#### Section 3.1 Canonical Forms for SISO Systems

coefficients in a specific manner. Note that the absence of the b<sub>3</sub> (feedthrough) element greatly simplifies the output matrix.

### 3.1.2 The Observable Canonical Form

In this section a second state space form will be presented based on the same transfer function g(s) in Eq.(3.4) or Eq.(3.5). In a later section the concept of equivalent state space descriptions, i.e. when two state models represent the same system, will be discussed. For now it is sufficient to accept the non-uniqueness of state space models.

As in the previous section the generic third-order system will be used for the development. After cross-multiplying in Eq.(3.5) we isolate y and group terms as follows.

$$y = b_3 u + s^{-1}(b_2 u - a_2 y) + s^{-2}(b_1 u - a_1 y) + s^{-2}(b_0 u - a_0 y)$$
 (3.16)

where the argument s was omitted for simplification. The diagram for Eq.(3.16) is illustrated in Fig. 3.2. To elaborate, Eq.(3.16) contains four terms for y(s); one, a direct feedthrough from u(s), and three others which are associated with one, two, or three integrations. The reader should be able to follow the contribution of each term to the output signal. For instance, the single-integration term,  $s^{-1}(b_2u - a_2y)$ , is incorporated into the diagram of Fig. 3.2 by feeding the signals  $b_2u(s)$  and  $-a_2y(s)$  into the final integrator block.

As in the previous case of Fig. 3.1 state variables are assigned to the outputs of the integrator elements in some order. With the assignment shown in Fig. 3.2 the resulting *observable canonical form* is given by the following structured equations:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \dot{x}_{1}(t) \\ \dot{x}_{2}(t) \\ \dot{x}_{3}(t) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -a_{0} \\ 1 & 0 & -a_{1} \\ 0 & 1 & -a_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{0} - a_{0}b_{3} \\ b_{1} - a_{1}b_{3} \\ b_{2} - a_{2}b_{3} \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{3} \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$(3.16)$$

In general, the observable canonical SISO model is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}_{o} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{b}_{o} u(t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{c}_{o} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{d}_{o} u(t)$$

$$(3.17)$$



FIGURE 3.2 Observer (Observable) Canonical Form

where

$$\mathbf{A}_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & -\mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{I}_{n-1} & -\mathbf{a} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{c}_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{d}_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.18)

with

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \mathbf{b}_i = b_{i-1} - a_{i-1} b_n \text{ for } 0 \le i \le n-1 \quad (3.19)$$

To reiterate, for SISO systems A is an  $(n \times n)$  matrix, b is an  $(n \times 1)$  column, c is a  $(1 \times n)$  row, and d is a scalar. The canonical form Eqs.(3.18), represented in Fig. 3.2, is called the SISO observer (observable) form. As a dual property to the controllable form Eqs.(3.11), the row vector c<sub>o</sub> has a unit element at the location corresponding to the column of A<sub>o</sub> containing non-zero/non-unity elements.

Again, a variation of Eqs.(3.17) may be obtained by reversing the order of the state variables. Thus, with  $x_1$  and  $x_3$  interchanged in Fig. 3.2, the Eqs.(3.17) become

Section 3.1 Canonical Forms for SISO Systems

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} -a_2 & 1 & 0 \\ -a_1 & 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} b_2 - a_2 b_3 \\ b_1 - a_1 b_3 \\ b_0 - a_0 b_3 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} b_3 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$
(3.20)

which presents another possible observable form.

### 3.1.3 The Jordan Canonical Form

The third specific form of state space representation of a system to be discussed corresponds to a diagonal, or block diagonal, coefficient matrix, which, as we will see, implies some form of decoupling of the system. This representation is referred to as the *Jordan canonical form* because the resulting coefficient matrix is that of a *Jordan canonical matrix*. Before discussing the more general Jordan form we will consider the simple, but important, case where the transfer function g(s) has distinct poles. In this case the partial fraction expansion of g(s) is

$$g(s) = b_{5} + \frac{r_{1}}{s - \lambda_{1}} + \frac{r_{2}}{s - \lambda_{2}} + \frac{r_{3}}{s - \lambda_{3}}$$
(3.21)

The diagram for Eq.(3.21) is illustrated in Fig. 3.3. Note the decoupling of the dynamics into first-order blocks. With the state variables as labeled in Fig. 3.3, the corresponding state space representation may be written directly as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 & \mathbf{r}_2 & \mathbf{r}_3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} b_3 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$(3.22)$$

If the roots are not distinct, for instance, if  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$ , then the partial fraction expansion becomes

$$g(s) = b_3 + \frac{q_1}{(s-\lambda_1)^2} + \frac{r_1}{s-\lambda_1} + \frac{r_3}{s-\lambda_3}$$
(3.23)



FIGURE 3.3 Block Diagram for a System with Distinct Poles

Figure 3.4 illustrates the diagram corresponding to Eq. (3.23). Note that the dynamics associated with common pole,  $\lambda_1$ , are separated from the distinct pole,  $\lambda_3$ . Thus, the Jordan form model results more generally in a "block diagonal" structure, where each block is associated with one of the distinct poles. The corresponding state equation for Fig. 3.4 is given by

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{r}_1 & \mathbf{r}_3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} b_3 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$
(3.24)

Equation (3.22) or Eq.(3.24) completes the third state model representing g(s) in Eq.(3.4). Based on previous knowledge, the reader should be able to extend this third-order example to more general systems, including the extension to higher-order systems with repeated poles of degree greater than two. The Jordan form structure is discussed further in Appendices A and B. Obviously, state model representations for a given system are not unique. In the next section the concept of general state model equivalence is discussed. We summarize with some general remarks regarding Jordan form models for SISO systems.

The generalization of Eqs.(3.22) is clearly a diagonal coefficient matrix and column of ones for the input matrix, but when one or more pairs of poles (eigenvalues) are complex conjugates, it is sometimes more convenient to write the



FIGURE 3.4 Block Diagram for System with Multiple Poles

coefficient matrix in a real number Jordan form. For example, if  $\lambda_1 = \sigma_1 + j\omega_1$ and  $\lambda_2 = \sigma_1 - j\omega_1$ , where j represents (-1)<sup>6</sup>, the real parameters,  $\sigma_1$  and  $\omega_1$ , are used instead of the complex values,  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ , as illustrated in the following:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & - \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & - \\ \cdots & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \omega_1 & \cdots \\ -\omega_1 & \sigma_1 & - \\ \cdots & & \end{bmatrix}$$

A coefficient matrix as shown above corresponds to a partial fraction of second order with complex conjugate roots, i.e.

$$\frac{q_1s+q_0}{(s-\sigma_1)^2+\omega_1^2}$$

in place of

$$r_1 = \alpha_1 + j\beta_1, \quad r_2 = \overline{r}_1 = \alpha_1 - j\beta_1$$
  
$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1, \quad a_2 = -2(\alpha_1\sigma_1 + \beta_1\omega_2)$$

where for

The generalization of Eqs.(3.24) is more involved. As we know, when a matrix A has multiple eigenvalues, the resulting Jordan form matrix may, or may not, be diagonal. It depends on the set of linear independent eigenvectors for A,

#### Chapter 3 System Modeling

as discussed in Appendix A. The general structure is, however, "block diagonal", meaning that the Jordan form for A, say J, has r blocks along the diagonal, where r is the number of linearly independent eigenvectors. Thus, if P is the modal matrix, i.e. the transformation matrix relating the similar matrices A and J, then

$$\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J}_1 & 0 & - & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{J}_2 & - & 0 \\ & \ddots & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & - & \mathbf{J}_r \end{bmatrix}$$

where the "Jordan blocks,"  $J_0$ ,  $1 \le i \le r$ , are associated with a single eigenvalue and may have dimension up to the multiplicity of the eigenvalue. The "block" associated with a non-repeated eigenvalue is simply the scalar eigenvalue itself. All of the nontrivial blocks have the following form:

$$\mathbf{J}_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & - & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & - & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & - & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & - & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

where the same eigenvalue is repeated along the main diagonal with ones along the super diagonal.

Appendix B contains a description of a realiable algorithm for calculating the modal matrix of a general non-diagonalizable square matrix.

# 3.2 Equivalent State Space Models

Since we are familiar from the previous sections with the fact that the choice of state variables for a system is not unique, let us consider the conditions under which two state models represent the same system. Repeating the generic state space representation from Eqs.(1.7),

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A} \, \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B} \, \mathbf{u}(t), \quad \mathbf{x}(t_0)$$
  
 $\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C} \, \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D} \, \mathbf{u}(t)$ 
(3.25)

Although Eqs.(3.25) is a C-T model, we could just as easily work with the D-T model of Eqs.(1.30) as a starting point.

Let us refer to Eqs.(3.25) as system representation S. Then any other representation must be associated with an invertible transformation of state vectors

#### Section 3.2 Equivalent State Space Models

in order to uniquely relate one representation to another. We formalize with the following definition.

Definition 3.1 The C-T state model S given by

 $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t), \quad \mathbf{x}(t_0)$  $\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{u}(t)$ 

where x is an  $(n \times 1)$  vector, u is an  $(m \times 1)$  vector, y is a  $(p \times 1)$  vector and the matrices A, B, C, and D are constant with compatible dimensions is said to be *equivalent* to the C-T state model  $\Sigma$  given by

$$\xi(t) = F\xi(t) + Gu(t), \quad \xi(t_0)$$
  
 $y(t) = H\xi(t) + Du(t)$ 

if and only if

$$\xi(t_0) = \mathbf{P}^{-1} \mathbf{x}(t_0) ,$$

 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}$ ,  $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ , and  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{P}$  (3.26)

It should be clear that Def. 3.1 is derived from the transformation

 $x(t) = P \xi(t)$  (3.27)

where P is required to be an  $(n \times n)$  nonsingular (invertible) constant matrix.

It is easy to show that the transfer matrices of the two representations S and  $\Sigma$  are equal, as we would expect since they represent the same system. From Eq.(1.38), Def. 1.9, the transfer matrix of S is given by

$$G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$$
 (3.28)

Similarly, the transfer matrix of  $\Sigma$ , using the results of Def. 3.1 above is

$$G(s) = (\mathbf{CP})[s\mathbf{I} - (\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{AP})]^{-1}(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{D}$$
(3.29)

By introducing P<sup>4</sup>IP for the identity matrix I in Eq.(3.29), and factoring a P<sup>4</sup> to the left and a P to the right from the bracketed expression,

$$G(s) = (CP)[P^{-1}(sI - A)P]^{-1}(P^{-1}B) + D$$
(3.30)

Simplifying the expression in brackets,

$$G(s) = (CP) P^{-1}(sI - A)^{-1} P (P^{-1}B) + D$$
(3.31)

which reduces to Eq.(3.28) upon cancelation of the P<sup>1</sup>P factors.

### 3.2.1 Transformations between State Models

In Def. 3.1 the representation  $S_1 = \{A_1, B_1, C_1, D_1\}$  is equivalent to representation  $S_2 = \{P^1A_1P, P^1B_1, C_1P, D_1\} = \{A_2, B_2, C_2, D_2\}$ . Reversing the transformation, i.e. if  $T = P^1$ , then the representations  $S_2 = \{A_2, B_2, C_2, D_2\}$  and  $\{TA_2T^1, TB_2, C_2T^{-1}, D_2\}$  are equivalent. It is easy to show that this last representation is back to  $S_1$ . Since the *similarity*, or *equivalence*, transformation leaves the D matrix unchanged, it will be convenient in the sequel to represent the algorithm used for this procedure as

$$A_1$$
,  $B_1$ ,  $C_1$ ,  $P$  (STR) -  $A_2$ ,  $B_2$ ,  $C_2$  (3.32)

It is interesting to investigate the particular structure of T<sup>3</sup>AT for some specific transformation matrices T or P. Consider the case for T satisfying

$$t_{i+1} = A t_i$$
, for  $1 \le i \le n-1$  (3.33)

where  $t_i$  is the  $i^{th}$  column of T. Therefore, with  $t = t_i$  we may write

$$T = [t At - A^{s-1}t]$$
 (3.34)

Assuming that the column t assures the non-singularity of T, it may be easily shown that the structure of the transformed (similar) matrix  $A_r = T^{-1}AT$  is given by

$$\mathbf{A}_{s} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & - & 0 & -a_{0} \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & - & 0 & -a_{1} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & - & 0 & -a_{2} \\ & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & - & 1 & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.35)

Eq.(3.35) should be verified by considering the equation  $T A_s = A T$ . In the dual sense, if  $A_t = TAT^{-1}$  where now the rows  $t_t$  satisfy

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_1 \\ \mathbf{t}_2 \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{t}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{t} \mathbf{A} \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{t} \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.36)

then A, becomes

$$\mathbf{A}_{s} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ -a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} & -a_{3} & \cdots & -a_{s-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.37)

Again, it is assumed that the row t assures that T is nonsingular.

The similarity transformation matrices T in Eqs.(3.34) and (3.36) may be calculated using algorithms Qc and Qo from Chapter 1, i.e.

$$A, t(Qc) \rightarrow T$$
 and  
 $A, t(Qo) \rightarrow T$ 

respectively.

### 3.2.2 Controllability and Observability Forms

It may be deduced that given the SISO system  $R = \{A, b, c, d\}$ , the similarity transformations

$$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{Q}, (STR) \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{c}, \mathbf{b}_{c}, \mathbf{c}_{c}$$
 (3.38)

and

$$A, b, c, Q_o^{-1}(STR) = A_o, b_o, c_o$$
 (3.39)

where the (full rank) similarity transformation matrices  $Q_c$  and  $Q_o$  are calculated by

$$\mathbf{A}$$
,  $\mathbf{b}$  ( $Qc$ )  $-\mathbf{Q}_{c}$  and  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}$  ( $Qo$ )  $-\mathbf{Q}_{c}$  (3.40)

will produce the general "controllable" and "observable" models  $R_r$  and  $R_p$  described in Eqs.(3.41) and (3.42), respectively, for third order systems (and illustrated in Figs. 3.5 and 3.6). For convenience the feedthrough term is assumed to be zero, i.e. d = 0.

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{e}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -a_{0} \\ 1 & 0 & -a_{1} \\ 0 & 1 & -a_{2} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{e}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} b_{0} & b_{1} & b_{2} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{e}(t)$$
(3.41)



FIGURE 3.5 Controllability (Controllable) Canonical Form

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{o}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{o}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} b_{0} \\ b_{1} \\ b_{2} \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{o}(t)$$
(3.42)

Canonical forms of Eqs.(3.41) and (3.42) are called the *controllability* (*controllable*) and the *observability* (*observable*) forms, respectively. They have the important property that their controllability or observability matrix is an  $n \times n$  identity matrix. As will be shown later, the *observability form*, because of its useful properties in the MIMO case, is widely used in input/output identification of D-T MIMO state space models.

Any SISO system that is controllable may be put into the forms of Eqs.(3.11), (3.15) or (3.41) since these are all *controllable forms*. Every controllable form is guaranteed to be controllable, i.e. the controllability matrix Q<sub>e</sub> is full rank independent of the system parameters. For example, the controllability matrix of the form (3.41) is the identity matrix as a result of manner in which it was constructed.

Similarly, any observable system may be put into the forms of Eqs.(3.16), (3.20) or (3.42), the observable forms. As with the controllable forms, each observable form is observable, i.e. the observability matrix  $Q_o$  is full rank. As previously mentioned, the form given in Eqs.(3.42) has an observability matrix equal to an identity matrix.

If we compare Figs. 3.1 and 3.2, or Figs. 3.5 and 3.6, we notice a certain similarity of structure. In particular, they are *dual systems*. In Chapter 1, Def. 1.8, we briefly touched on the concept of duality. The equivalent block diagram



FIGURE 3.6 Observability (Observable) Canonical Form

changes necessary to construct a dual system are: to exchange input and output, reverse the order of labeling the state variables, reverse the signal flow directions and replace tap-off points and summation junctions with summations and tap-offs, respectively. Thus, for instance, Figs. 3.1 and 3.2 are dual diagrams. In the sequel three computational procedures for calculating the representations in Eqs.(3.41) and (3.42) will be presented. However, using the concept of duality, only the transformation to controllable form will be given, with the understanding that transformation of the dual system to controllable form results in the transformation of the original system to observable form. Also at this point in the text, since readers will have obtained some experience using algorithms, we will begin to present the procedures in a slightly more abreviated manner. The reason that more than one procedure is presented is that some ideas of these procedures will be used in the subsequent discussions of canonical forms for MIMO systems.

### 3.2.3 Transformation to Feedback Controllable Form

#### Procedure 1:

The problem is to determine the similarity transformation matrix T which will transform a given controllable representation  $R = \{A, b, c\}$  into the type of representation shown in Eqs.(3.11), i.e.,

$$A, b, c, T^{-1}(STR) = A_{c}, b_{c}, c_{c}$$
 (3.43)

where, according to Eq.(3.32),  $A_c = TAT^{-1}$ ,  $b_c = Tb$ , and  $c_c = cT^{-1}$ .

It is desired that T should be of the form given by Eq.(3.36), with the first row of T selected to satisfy

$$b_{e} = Tb$$
 (3.44)

where b, is specified as in Eq.(3.11). In scalar form Eq.(3.44) becomes

$$0 = t \mathbf{b} 
0 = t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{b} 
0 = t \mathbf{A}^2 \mathbf{b} 
0 = t \mathbf{A}^{n-2} \mathbf{b} 
1 = t \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{b}$$
(3.45)

In turn, the Eqs.(3.45) may be collected into the following vector form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} b & Ab & A^2b & \cdots & A^{n-1}b \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.46)

Note that the right hand side is simply  $tQ_e$ , where  $Q_e$  is the controllability matrix of the given pair  $\{A, b\}$ . Thus, t can be calculated from Eq.(3.46) using the inverse of  $Q_e$  since the system is assumed to be controllable.

The following steps summarize Procedure 1:

1. Define a state representation {A, b, c}  
2. Set A, b (Qc) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 Q<sub>c</sub>  
3. Partition Q<sub>c</sub><sup>-1</sup>  $\Rightarrow$   $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{t} \end{bmatrix}$ , where t is the last row  
4. Set A, t (Qo)  $\Rightarrow$  T  
5. Set A, b, c, T<sup>-1</sup> (STR)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>ct</sub> b<sub>c</sub>, c<sub>t</sub>

#### **Procedure 2:**

Again considering Eqs.(3.45), note that the first (n-1) equations can be written in the vector form

$$t[b Ab A^2b - A^{a-2}b] = 0$$
 (3.47)

The interpretation of Eq. (3.47) is that t is a multiple of the transpose of the null space matrix of  $(Q_{cl})^{T}$ , where  $Q_{cl}$  contains the first (n-1) columns of  $Q_{cl}$ , i.e.

$$\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{N}^T$$
, where  $\mathbf{Q}_{c1}^T \mathbf{N} = \mathbf{0}$  (3.48)

The factor a in Eq.(3.48) can be determined from the last row of Eqs.(3.45) to satisfy

Section 3.2 Equivalent State Space Models

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{b} = 1$$
 (3.49)

This calculation leads to

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{N}^{T}\mathbf{q}_{cs}}$$

where q<sub>a</sub> is the last column from Q<sub>c</sub>. The following is a summary of this procedure:

1. Define a state representation {A, b, c} 2. Set A, b (Qc)  $\Rightarrow$  Q<sub>r</sub> 3. Partition Q<sub>r</sub>  $\Rightarrow$  [Q<sub>c1</sub> q<sub>cx</sub>, where q<sub>cx</sub> is the last column 4. Set Q<sub>c1</sub><sup>T</sup> (Null)  $\Rightarrow$  N, so that Q<sub>c1</sub><sup>T</sup> N = 0 5. Set 1/(N<sup>T</sup> q<sub>cx</sub>)  $\Rightarrow$  a 6. Set N<sup>T</sup> a  $\Rightarrow$  t 7. Set A, t (Qo)  $\Rightarrow$  T 8. Set A, b, c, T<sup>1</sup> (STR)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>r</sub>, b<sub>r</sub>, c<sub>r</sub>

**Procedure 3:** 

Consider the transfer function matrix G(s) of a strictly proper single input, multi-output (SIMO) system {A, b, C}, where {A, b} is equal to {A<sub>c</sub>, b<sub>c</sub>} given by the structure of Eqs.(3.11), while C = I<sub>c</sub>, i.e.

$$G(s) = (s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{c})^{-1}\mathbf{b}_{c} = \frac{W_{c}(s)}{p(s)}$$
(3.50)

In this case m = 1 and p = n, so that  $W_{c}(s)$  is  $(n \times 1)$ , i.e. an *n*-dimensional column:

$$W_{c}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} w_{c1}(s) \\ w_{c2}(s) \\ \vdots \\ w_{cn}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.51)

Due to the special form of  $A_e$  and  $b_e$ , it may be easily verified that the polynomials  $w_a(s)$  are given by

$$w_{ci}(s) = s^{i-1}$$
, for  $1 \le i \le n$  (3.52)

leading to the matrix We = Ia, see Algorithm SSTF in Section 1.3.9. The in row of W, contains all n coefficients of the n-1<sup>n</sup> order polynomial  $w_n(s)$ .

Recall that a similarity transformation P does not change the transfer function. Therefore, for an arbitrary state realization and nonsingular P, the following equation holds

$$c(sI - A)^{-1}b = cP(sP^{-1}P - P^{-1}AP)^{-1}P^{-1}b$$
 (3.53)

If P = T<sup>-1</sup> is selected to satisfy Eq. (3.43), then from Eqs. (3.50), (3.51) and (3.52), Eq.(3.53) can be written as

$$c W(s) = c P W_{c}(s)$$
 (3.54)

where  $W_{s}(s)$  is defined in Eq.(3.50) and W(s) is given by

$$W(s) = \operatorname{adj}(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{b} \tag{3.55}$$

Using the definition of the matrix W in the PMF introduced in Chapter 1, Eq.(3.54) may be formally written as

$$\mathbf{c} \mathbf{W} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\s\\1\\s^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{c} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{c}} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\s\\1\\s^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.56)

which, because  $W_c = I_{sc}$  finally leads to P = W. The following steps summarize the previous development:

- 1. Define a state representation {A, b, c}

- 1. Define a state representation  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c})$ 2. Set the number of columns of  $\mathbf{A} \rightarrow n$ 3. Set  $\mathbf{0}_{n,1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{d}$ 4. Set  $\mathbf{I}_{n,n} \Rightarrow \mathbf{I}$ 5. Set  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{d}$  (SSTF)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{W}$ 6. Partition  $\mathbf{W} \Rightarrow [\mathbf{P} \ \mathbf{z}]$ , where  $\mathbf{P}$  is  $(n \times n)$ 7. Set  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{P}$  (STR)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{c}, \mathbf{b}_{c}, \mathbf{c}_{c}$

Note that in Step 5, where the SSTF algorithm is executed, the characteristic polynomial a is not used. Only the second output argument in polynomial matrix form (PMF) is required. Since d in Step 3 is defined as a zero vector, the last (n+1)" column in W contains zeros, and the first n columns contained in P, Step 6, are used as the required similarity transformation matrix.

In conclusion, the following comments are worth mentioning. The feedback form of Eqs.(3.11) and observability form of Eqs.(3.42) have the same system matrix of the structure Eq.(3.37). In other words, in Eqs.(3.11) A. = TAT<sup>-1</sup>, where T is the observability matrix of the pair {A,t}, given by Eq.(3.36). In spite of the fact that an observability matrix is used, the form Eqs.(3.11) is considered to be a controllable form, since according to Eq. (3.46) the row t exists only if the

#### Section 3.2 Equivalent State Space Models

pair  $\{A,b\}$  is controllable. Similarly, in Eqs.(3.42)  $A_o$  exists only if  $\{A,c\}$  is observable. In the next section we will consider the calculation of SISO canonical forms when the system transfer function is given.

### 3.2.4 Transformations: $g(s) \Rightarrow$ SISO Canonical Forms

The above procedures, as well as Eqs.(3.38) to (3.40), are applicable in the case when, given an arbitrary SISO representation  $R = \{A, b, c, d\}$ , it is required to obtain a controllable or observable form. Note that in this case it is much simpler to obtain the controllability or observability form, Eqs.(3.38) to (3.40), than the feedback or observer form. It frequently occurs, however, that given a transfer function g(s) = b(s)/a(s) of a SISO system, a controllable or observable form is sought. In the sequel four algorithms for calculating:

- Feedback and observer forms, and
- Controllability and observability forms

are given, assuming that a transfer function g(s) = b(s)/a(s) of a SISO system is given. These algorithms will be compared with the previously given algorithms. It will be shown that when g(s) is given, the algorithms for calculating feedback and observer forms are simpler than the procedures for calculating controllability and observability forms. This discussion should also be considered as an "introduction" to the MIMO case, which is more challenging than the SISO case.

### Algorithms: Algorithms $g(s) = b(s)/a(s) \Rightarrow$ Four SISO Canonical Forms

The numerator b(s) and the denominator a(s) are defined by:

$$b(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i s^i \text{ and } a(s) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i s^i, \text{ with } a_n = 1$$
$$w = \begin{bmatrix} b & b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

let: where

 $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 & b_1 & \cdots & b_{s-1} \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & \cdots & a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

while

$$s_1 = [1 \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0 \ 0]$$
 and  $s_n = [0 \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0 \ 1]$ 

are the first and the  $n^6$  row of an  $(n \times n)$  Identity matrix I<sub>n</sub>. Note that

d,

$$\mathbf{I}_{n} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{n-1} & | & \mathbf{z}^{T} \\ \cdots & + & \cdots \\ \mathbf{z} & | & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where z is an appropriate row of zeros. Also, for  $a_0 \neq 0$ , let  $d_1 = b_0/a_0$ . If  $a_0 \neq 0$ , then  $d_1 = b(s)/a(s)$  for an arbitrary s different from a root of a(s), i.e. pole of g(s).

The following algorithms may be used for calculating desired state space canonical forms:

### 1. $g(s) \Rightarrow$ Feedback form, $R_e = \{A_e, b_e, c_e, d_e\}$

Symbolic form: **a**, **w** (*Rc1*) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 **A**<sub>e</sub>, **b**<sub>e</sub>, **c**<sub>e</sub>,  
1. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}^T & | & \mathbf{I}_{n-1} \\ ----+ & ---- \\ -\mathbf{a} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>e</sub>  
2. Set  $\mathbf{s}_n^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{b}_e$   
3. Set **b** - **a**  $b_n \Rightarrow \mathbf{c}_e$   
4. Set  $b_n \Rightarrow d_e$ 

2. 
$$g(s) \Rightarrow \text{Observer form}, R_s = \{A_s, b_s, c_s, d_s\}$$

Symbolic form: **a**, **w** (*Rol*)  $\Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>s</sub>, **b**<sub>s</sub>, **c**<sub>s</sub>, **d**<sub>s</sub> 1. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z} & | \\ ---- + -\mathbf{a}^T \\ \mathbf{I}_{n-1} & | \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>s</sub> 2. Set  $\mathbf{b}^T \cdot \mathbf{a}^T b_n \Rightarrow \mathbf{b}_s$ 3. Set  $\mathbf{s}_n \Rightarrow \mathbf{c}_n$ 4. Set  $b_n \Rightarrow d_s$ 

Obviously, due to duality:  $\mathbf{A}_{o} = \mathbf{A}_{c}^{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}_{o} = \mathbf{c}_{c}^{T}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}_{s} = \mathbf{b}_{c}^{T}$ . Note that when  $b_{o}=0$ , i.e. when g(s) is "strictly" proper, then:

• in 
$$R_c$$
:  $\mathbf{c}_c = \mathbf{b}$  and  $d_c = 0$ , while

• in 
$$R_{\rho}$$
:  $\mathbf{b}_{\rho} = \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}}$  and  $d_{\rho} = 0$ .

106

#### Section 3.2 Equivalent State Space Models

3. 
$$g(s) \Rightarrow$$
 Controllability form,  $R_c = \{A_c, b_c, c_c, d_i\}$ 

Symbolic form: **a**, **w** (*Rc2*) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 **A**<sub>*s*</sub>, **b**<sub>*c*</sub>, **c**<sub>*c*</sub>, *d*<sub>*c*</sub>  
1. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z} & | \\ ----+ & -\mathbf{a}^T \\ \mathbf{I}_{n-1} & | \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>*c*</sub>  
2. Set  $\mathbf{s}_1^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{b}_c$   
3. Set  $\mathbf{A}_c$ ,  $\mathbf{s}_a (Qo) \Rightarrow \mathbf{Q}_a$  ( $\mathbf{Q}_a$  has  $n+1$  rows)  
4. Set **w**  $\mathbf{Q}_a \Rightarrow \mathbf{c}_c$   
5. Set  $\mathbf{c}_c \mathbf{A}_a^{-3} \mathbf{b}_c + d_1 \Rightarrow d_c$ 

4.  $g(s) \rightarrow \text{Observability form}, R_o = \{A_o, b_o, c_o, d_o\}$ 

Symbolic form: **a**, w (Ro2) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 **A**<sub>o</sub>, **b**<sub>o</sub>, **c**<sub>o</sub>, *d*<sub>o</sub>  
1. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}^T & | & \mathbf{I}_{n-1} \\ ---+ & ---- \\ -\mathbf{a} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>o</sub>  
2. Set **A**<sub>o</sub>,  $\mathbf{s}_o^T (Qc) \Rightarrow \mathbf{Q}_c$  (**Q**<sub>c</sub> has  $n+1$  columns)  
3. Set **Q**<sub>c</sub> w<sup>T</sup>  $\Rightarrow$  **b**<sub>o</sub>  
4. Set  $\mathbf{s}_1 \Rightarrow \mathbf{c}_o$   
5. Set  $\mathbf{c}_o \mathbf{A}_o^{-1} \mathbf{b}_s + d_1 \Rightarrow d_o$ 

Again by duality:  $\{\mathbf{A}_o, \mathbf{b}_o, \mathbf{c}_o\} = \{\mathbf{A}_c^T, \mathbf{c}_o^T, \mathbf{b}_c^T\}.$ 

Since  $A_e$  and  $A_o$  in Algorithms Rc2 and Ro2 are of a simple structure, it is relatively easy to verify these algorithms. It is interesting to note that  $A_e$  in the feedback form is equal to  $A_e$  in the observability form, and also  $A_o$  in the observer form is equal to  $A_e$  in the controllability form.

Comparing these algorithms, it may be concluded that when g(s) is given, it is easier to calculate feedback and observer forms than controllability and observability forms. However, recall that when an arbitrary  $R = \{A, b, c, d\}$  is given, then it is much easier to obtain controllability and observability forms than feedback and observer forms, since the controllability and observability forms are simply derived by a similarity transformation where the controllability or observability matrix, respectively, is used as a transformation matrix.

This situation might suggest the following "alternate" procedures:

Instead of a, w (Rc2) ⇒ A<sub>e</sub>, b<sub>e</sub>, c<sub>e</sub>, d<sub>e</sub>, one may use the sequence:

And according to the principle of duality, instead of  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{w}$  (Ro2)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{o}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}_{o}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}_{o}$ ,  $d_{o}$ , the sequence of Algorithms Ro1, Qo and STR may be used. This is left as an exercise for the reader.

On the other hand, if an arbitrary controllable realization  $R = \{A, b, c, d\}$  is given, and the feedback form  $R_c = \{A_c, b_c, c_c, d_c\}$  is sought, then, instead of procedures discussed in Section 3.2.3, one may use the following sequence:

1. A, b, c, d (SSTF)  $\Rightarrow$  a, W 2. a, W (Rcl)  $\Rightarrow$  A, b, c, d,

Again, duality may be applied if the observer form is required. As will be seen in next sections, in the case of MIMO models the things are not as simple.

**Examples** Consider the 5<sup>th</sup> order, non-strictly proper transfer function g(z) = b(z)/a(z) where:

-numerator b(z) coefficients b<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,n], n=5, are:

.85 1.62 -4.43 -5.67 1.06 2.14

—denominator a(z) coefficients a<sub>0</sub>, i=[0,n] are:

.12 .22 -.69 -.70 -1.34 1.00

Feedback Form [Algorithm Rc1]

.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
+00	.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00
+00	+00	.00	1.00	.00	.00
.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00
12	22	. 69	.70	1.34	1.00
			10.14 mm mm mm mm mm mm		
.59	1.15	-2.95	-4.17	3.93	2.14

#### Observer Form [Algorithm Rol]

4	.00	.00	.00	.00	12	.59 1
4	1,00	.00	.00	.00	22	1.15
1	.00	1.00	.00	.00	.69	-2.95
	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.70	-4.17
1	.00	.00	.00	1.00	1.34	3.93
						+
4	+00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	2.14

108

		Contro	nabuny	roun ly	ugottum	nicej	
ŧ	.00	.00	.00	.00	12 !	1.00 1	
ł	1.00	.00	.00	.00	22	.00	
ł	,00	1.00	.00	.00	.69	.00	
ţ	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.70	.00	
ł	.00	.00	.00	1.00	1.34	.00	
ł					+		
ţ	3.93	1.09	1.26	6.31	9.82	2.14	

Controllability Form [Algorithm Rc2]

	Observ	ability	Form [A	Igorithm	Ro2]
.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00	3.93
.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00	1.09
.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	1.26
+00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	6.31
-,12	-,22	.69	.70	1.34	9.82
1 00	00	0.0	00	00 1	2 24

In the next section we will begin to extend our modeling techniques to include multiple input, multiple output (MIMO) systems.

## 3.3 Canonical Forms for MIMO Systems

In order to discuss canonical forms for MIMO systems, it is first necessary to define the concept of *controllability and observability indices*. Assume a given  $(n \times n)$  state matrix A, full column rank  $(n \times m)$  input matrix B and full row rank  $(p \times n)$  output matrix C describing a controllable and observable system. Then, the controllability matrix Q, has dimensions  $(n \times nm)$  and the observability matrix Q, has dimensions  $(np \times n)$ . Since, by assumption the system is controllable as well as observable, there must be n linearly independent columns in Q, and n linearly independent rows in Q<sub>n</sub>. In each case a nonsingular  $n \times n$  transformation matrix may be formed and used to derive the corresponding controllable or observable canonical forms.

Controllable and observable forms to be discussed in this section are MIMO versions (generalizations) of the SISO controllability and SISO observability forms calculated by Eqs.(3.38) to (3.40) and represented by Eqs.(3.41) to (3.42) and Figs. 3.5 and 3.6. Note that in the SISO case all *n* columns (rows) from  $Q_c$  ( $Q_a$ ) are used in the similarity matrices, while in the MIMO case, as we know, there are more than *n* columns (rows) in  $Q_c$  ( $Q_a$ ). Consequently, an appropriate selection of linearly independent vectors is required. In the following general discussions, the controllability and observability forms are treated separately, although there is much similarity due to the principle of duality.

### 3.3.1 Controllability Forms - General Discussion

A natural way to search for linearly independent columns of Q, is to begin from the left, as follows:

$$Q_c = [b_1 \ b_2 \ \dots \ b_m \ | \ Ab_1 \ \dots \ Ab_m \ | \ \dots \ | \ A^{n-1}b_1 \ \dots \ A^{n-1}b_m]$$
 (3.57)

Suppose that in the first q groupings of m columns each we find  $r_i$  dependent columns,  $0 \le i \le q-1$ . In particular,  $r_0$  dependent columns are found in **B**;  $r_1$ , in **AB**; etc.. For a full rank **B**,  $r_0 = 0$ . As a result of this choice of searching for independent columns, it is easily seen that

$$0 \leq r_0 \leq r_1 \leq \ldots \leq r_{n-1} \leq m$$

and

$$r_k = m$$
, for  $k \ge \mu$ 

where µ is the smallest integer such that

$$\operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{B} \ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \ \dots \ \mathbf{A}^{\mu}\mathbf{B}] = \operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{B} \ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \ \dots \ \mathbf{A}^{\mu+1}\mathbf{B}]$$
(3.58)

Thus, at some point there are *n* linearly independent columns, and all subsequent columns to the right are dependent. Notice that the controllability of the pair {A, B} can be checked from [B AB  $A^2B \dots A^{\mu-1}B$ ], where  $\mu$  is less than *n*. The parameter  $\mu$  is defined to be the *controllability index* for the system with state matrix A and input matrix B.

Searching by Columns: Since there are many ways, in general, that n linearly independent columns may be chosen from Q., let us introduce a convenient graphical device, called a crate diagram for "visualizing" the different possibilities. The crate is a table consisting of m columns, one for each column of the B matrix; and up to n rows, one for each power of A in Q. In this manner the  $(j,i)^{6}$  cell represents uniquely the column of Q, given by A<sup>i-1</sup>b<sub>i</sub>. Selecting n independent columns of Q, corresponds to selecting n cells in the crate. Such a diagram is illustrated in Fig. 3.7 for an m=3 input, n=7 state system. Once the basic representation is understood, we will discuss two fairly natural ways to search the crate for the required linearly independent columns. Remember that each cell represents a vector; thus, e.g. the first "row" of the crate diagram in Fig. 3.7 corresponds to the three columns of the B matrix (of the assumed 3-input system). First b, is selected and a 1 is marked in cell (1,1). Next, continuing with the first column, Ab, and A<sup>2</sup>b, are considered and found to be independent, so a 1 is marked in cells (2,1) and (3,1), while A<sup>3</sup>b<sub>1</sub> is found to be dependent and a 0 is marked in cell (4,1). Moving to the next column, b<sub>2</sub> is added to the collection of independent vectors. Also Ab2, A2b2 and A3b2 are added, but not A4b2, since it is found to be dependent on the previously selected columns. At this juncture the required n=7 linearly independent vectors have been selected, and the process is

#### Section 3.3 Canonical Forms for MIMO Systems

complete. Note that in this selection plan the last column of **B** is not represented, although **B** is assumed to be full rank. This is an example of selecting the independent columns of the transformation matrix **T** for a MIMO system, which is a possible generalization of Eq.(3.38) to the MIMO case. We will refer to this method as *searching by columns*. The reader should note that the results can be widely different with a simple re-ordering of the inputs. There is a tendency to generate a few long "chains" with this method.

b	b <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	5
1	1	0	A
1	1		A
1	1		A
0	1		A
	0		A

FIGURE 3.7 Search-by-Column Example of a Crate Diagram

The resulting state space model obtained by performing a similarity transformation using the collection of independent vectors found is a generalization of the SISO system of Eqs. (3.41). In particular, the crate diagram of Fig. 3.7 indicates that using the similarity transformation

$$T = [b_1 A b_1 A^2 b_1 b_2 A b_2 A^2 b_2 A^3 b_2]$$
 (3.59)

the calculations

$$\mathbf{A}_{1} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}$$
 and  $\mathbf{B}_{2} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ 

implemented by

$$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{T} (STR) - \mathbf{A}_{c}, \mathbf{B}_{c}, \mathbf{C}$$

result in the following state space structure:

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & x & | & 0 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 1 & 0 & x & | & 0 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & x & | & 0 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & | & 0 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & | & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & | & 1 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & | & 0 & 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & | & 0 & 0 & 1 & x \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{B}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} (3.60)$$

(3.61)

where the x's denote possibly non-zero/non-unity values. The C matrix has no particular form.

Search by Rows: Let us now consider a similar example (of order 7 with 3inputs) and search the crate by rows. Referring to Fig. 3.8, we again begin with a 1 in the (1,1) cell. Since the rank of **B** is *m*, both **b**<sub>2</sub> and **b**<sub>3</sub> are linearly independent. In the second row Ab<sub>1</sub> and Ab<sub>2</sub> are found to add to the collection in independent columns, but Ab<sub>3</sub> is not. From the next rows only  $A^3b_2$  and  $A^3b_2$  are found to be linearly independent to complete the set. Once a vector  $A^3b_1$  has been found to be linearly dependent, it is not necessary to check other vectors within the same crate column,  $A^4b_1$ , k > j, since they are always dependent on previously selected columns, as will be verified later. With this selection plan there is a tendency to generate shorter chains, and when **B** is full rank, all columns of **B** are represented in the selected set.

Ordering by Columns of the Crate Diagram: To obtain a controllable form, the vectors of the selected set must be arranged to form a similarity transformation matrix T. Two specific orderings have been used. The first is by "chains" associated with a particular column of B, i.e. by *columns* of the crate diagram (although the *selection* is done by rows). In this case T becomes

 $T = [b, Ab, b, Ab, A^2b, A^3b, b, ]$ 

$$b_1$$
  $b_2$   $b_3$ 

			-
1	1	1	
1	1	0	
0	1		1
	I		
	0		

FIGURE 3.8 Search-by-Row Example of a Crate Diagram

Using  $A_c = T^4AT$  and  $B_c = T^4B$  results in a state space model of the following form:



where the x's are again possibly nonzero values. And as in previous case, the C matrix has no particular form. The A and B given in Eq. (3.62) represent another generalization of the SISO system of Eqs. (3.41); the differences lie in the selection of the particular n columns of Q, to be used in the similarity transformation.

Ordering by Rows of the Crate Diagram: Another formulation of T is more natural since it follows the process of selecting columns. In this case the linearly independent columns are arranged according to the unit elements in the rows of the crate diagram, and T is obtained as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & Ab_1 & Ab_2 & A^2b_2 & A^3b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (3.63)

which results in a state space model given by:

$$\mathbf{A}_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & x & x & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & x & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & x & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & 0 & 0 & x \\ 1 & 0 & x & x & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & x & x & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & x \end{bmatrix} , \quad \mathbf{B}_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.64)

The pair { $A_e$ ,  $B_e$ } given in Eq.(3.62) is called a controllable Luenberger canonical form, while the pair { $A_e$ ,  $B_e$ } in Eq.(3.64) might be called a modified Luenberger form, or simply a controllability form. The interesting property of Luenberger forms, illustrated by Eqs.(3.60) and (3.62), is that the matrix  $A_e$  is of "block diagonal" structure, having in the main diagonal blocks corresponding to  $\mu^{\text{th}}$  order SISO systems, *i*=[1,*m*]. Because of this property, at its introduction this form gained instant popularity within the systems/controls community. However, as will be mentioned later, the Luenberger form does not prove to be particularly useful in specific applications.

Since the transformation matrices T in Eqs.(3.61) and (3.63) contain the same columns, only arranged differently, the controllable forms of Eqs.(3.62) and (3.64) are rather similar. In fact, they have the *same* elements, only arranged differently. Note that, for instance, in Eq.(3.64) the zeros at the end of columns 3 and 4 appear in Eq.(3.62) at locations 5 and 6 in columns 2 and 7. Considering the structure of Eq.(3.64) as being a *more natural* generalization of the SISO case, and, as will be shown later, more convenient for use in various applications, only the structure type of Eq.(3.64) will be used in the sequel. A perhaps stronger justification of the use of the modified form is that it is more natural (and convenient) to form the columns of T in the order that they are checked for linear dependence (by rows of the crate diagram) than to "rearrange" them into chains, i.e. by columns of the crate diagram.

Controllability Indices: We previously defined the controllability index for the pair  $\{A,B\}$  as the smallest integer,  $\mu$ , such that

rank  $[\mathbf{B} \ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \ \dots \ \mathbf{A}^{\mu-1}\mathbf{B}] = n$ 

In the previous discussion the word *chain* was used to describe the string of linearly independent vectors generated from a single column of **B** by continued multiplication by **A**. Another way to view the *controllability index* is as the number of vectors in the longest chain. In this context we define the *controllability indices* (plural) as the set of integers  $\{\mu_i\}$ ,  $1 \le i \le m$ , identifying the lengths of the chains of each column of **B**. In terms of the crate diagram the controllability indices are the number of 1's in the columns. For instance, in the example of Fig. 3.8 the controllability indices are  $\{2, 4, 1\}$ . With these definitions one can see that

$$\mu = \max\{\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3, \cdots, \mu_m\}$$
(3.65)

and that

$$\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \dots + \mu_n \le n$$
 (3.66)

The equality holds if the system is controllable. Note that for a given pair  $\{A,B\}$  the set  $\{\mu_i\}, 1 \le i \le m$  is unique. It is noted that once a dependent column is found in a search-from-the-left process on  $Q_c$ , then any subsequent column corresponding to that column of **B**, i.e. any element in that column of the crate diagram, is also dependent on the columns of  $Q_c$  to its left. For example, suppose that

$$Ab_2 = a_1b_1 + \dots + a_mb_m + a_{m+1}Ab_1$$
 (3.67)

then,

$$A^{2}b_{2} = a_{1}Ab_{1} + - + a_{m}Ab_{m} + a_{m+1}A^{2}b_{1}$$
 (3.68)

Likewise, A' b<sub>2</sub>,  $3 \le j \le n-1$  are linearly dependent on their left-hand-side columns.

It may be shown that the set of controllability indices  $\mu$  of a pair {A,B} is invariant under any similarity transformation. However, under the permutation of columns b, of the input matrix B, the set  $\mu$  is not "completely" invariant. To be precise, it may be stated that under an arbitrary permutation of columns b, the set of controllability indices is invariant "modulo permutation." The conditions under which the values  $\mu_i$  of the set  $\mu$  remain invariant are presented in detail in the references at the end of the chapter and will not be pursued here.

To summarize this subsection, any n linearly independent columns of Q, can be used to generate a "controllability form" state space model. The subsequent discussion, corresponding to "observability form" models, will be brief, calling upon duality for many developments.

### 3.3.2 Observability Forms - General Discussion

In a manner similar to the previous discussion, we will discuss possible variations in constructing state space models which are generalizations of of the *observability* SISO observable form Eqs.(3.42). Beginning with the observability matrix  $\mathbf{Q}_o$ , we consider the problem of searching for linearly independent rows. Recall that the dimensions of  $\mathbf{Q}_o$  are  $(np \times n)$ . Assuming that the system is observable,  $\mathbf{Q}_o$  must have rank n and, therefore, n linearly independent rows. Following Eq.(3.57), let us display  $\mathbf{Q}_o$ :

$$\mathbf{Q}_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{c}_{1})^{T} - (\mathbf{c}_{p})^{T} \mid (\mathbf{c}_{1}\mathbf{A})^{T} \cdots (\mathbf{c}_{p}\mathbf{A})^{T} \mid - \mid (\mathbf{c}_{1}\mathbf{A}^{n-1})^{T} \cdots (\mathbf{c}_{p}\mathbf{A}^{n-1})^{T} \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

It is easily seen that the comments made regarding the columns of  $Q_r$  can be made for the rows of  $Q_{ar}$ , i.e. using the concept of duality. To summarize, the *observability index* for the pair {A,C} is the smallest integer,  $\nu$ , such that

$$\operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{C}^{T} \ \mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{C}^{T} \ \dots \ (\mathbf{A}^{T})^{v-1}\mathbf{C}^{T}] = n$$
 (3.69)

Observability indices (plural) are defined as the set of integers  $\{v_i\}$ ,  $1 \le i \le p$ , identifying the lengths of the chains of each row of C. For instance, the rows generated by row *i* are linearly independent up to (and including)  $\mathbf{c}_i \mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{i}}$ . With these definitions one can see that

$$v = \max\{v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_p\}$$
  
and  $v_2 + v_3 + \dots + v_n \le n$ 

The equality above holds if the system is observable. To summarize, any n linearly

independent rows of Q, can be used to generate an "observability form" state space model. And, as was stated earlier, only the version which is dual to the structure given in Eqs.(3.64) will be used in the following developments.

### 3.3.3 Pseudo-Controllability Indices (PCI)

In generating controllable forms with complete flexibility, it is necessary to investigate all possibilities of obtaining *n* linearly independent columns from Q<sub>c</sub>. To achieve this flexibility, it has been realized that it is *not* necessary in a searchfrom-the-left process of Q<sub>c</sub> to check *each* column A'b<sub>i</sub>, J=[0,n-1], i=[1,m]. A particular column may be skipped intentionally, even if it has been found to be linearly independent with respect to the previously selected columns. However, in order to obtain a useful set of *n*-linearly independent columns from Q<sub>c</sub>, if a column A'b<sub>i</sub> is skipped, then, in the spirit of Eqs.(3.67) and (3.68), all other columns A'<sup>\*h</sup>b<sub>i</sub>, for h=[1,2,...], should be skipped, regardless of whether they are linearly dependent, or not. It has been verified that under this "selection method," the total number of combinations to check is k, given by

$$k = \binom{n-1}{m-1} = \frac{(n-1)!}{(m-1)!(n-m)!}$$
(3.70)

We say that a particular selection of n columns is admissible if they are linearly independent.

Since, for a given pair {A,B}, there are now more sets of linearly independent columns, there are consequently more sets of integers { $\mu_i$ } indicating the lengths of chains A'b<sub>i</sub>,  $j = [0, \mu_i^{-1}]$ , for each b<sub>i</sub>. These sets are referred to as *admissible sets of pseudo-controllability indices (PCI)*. This same concept of PCI is also called, by some authors, *nice indices*. To formalize the ideas, let us define the following:

Definition 3.1 The set of individual controllability indices,  $\{\alpha_i\}$ ,  $1 \le i \le m$ , is defined by

$$\alpha_i = \operatorname{rank} \left[ \mathbf{b}_i \ \mathbf{A} \mathbf{b}_i \ \cdots \ \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{b}_i \right]$$
(3.71)

where b, is the in column of the matrix B.

For convenience we will use a notation similar to the controllability indices of Eq.(3.65), since the concept of pseudo-controllability indices is a generalization of the notion of "standard" unique controllability indices discussed in the previous section. Definition 3.2 The set of pseudo-controllability indices,  $\{\mu_i\}$ ,  $1 \le i \le m$ , is any set of numbers satisfying

$$1 \le \mu_i \le n - m + 1$$
, and  $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i = n$  (3.72)

Definition 3.3 The set of pseudo-controllability indices,  $\{\mu_i\}$ ,  $1 \le i \le m$ , is admissible if

(3.73)

It has been shown that an element µ, of an admissible set satisfies:

$$\mu_{i} \le \alpha_{i}$$
 (3.74)

If we make the reasonable assumption that **B** is full rank, i.e. that the columns of **B** are linearly independent, then the *individual controllability indices* are each constrained to be between 1 and n; while each *pseudo-controllability index* of an admissible set  $\{\mu_i\}$  is a number between 1 and (n-m+1). If **B** is not full rank, an input transformation may be performed to eliminate the "redundant" input(s).

### 3.3.4 Pseudo-Observability Indices (POI)

Pseudo-observability indices are used to establish observability form state space models. We will use the notation of the set  $\{v_i\}$  in referring to either the unique set of observability indices or a set of admissible pseudo-observability indices. This is justified by the fact that the unique set of observability indices is always one of the sets of POI. The same is true of the unique set of controllability indices being a member of the PCI. Since this section provides an important background for subsequent chapters, a detailed description is presented. A specific example will help to illustrate the concept.

Consider a system with order n=7, m=2 inputs and p=3 outputs. We are not interested specifically in the unique set of observability indices, but suppose that the set of unique observability indices is given by

$$v = \{v_i\} = \{3, 2, 2\}$$
As we will show soon, the use of this unique set of observability indices does not necessarily lead to the most convenient system representation. Taking into account that the use of admissible sets of pseudo-observability indices offers more flexibility in choosing the appropriate model, in the sequel we will pursue the selection of the most convenient set of (pseudo) observability indices.

Knowing that the system order is 7 and that the number of outputs is 3, there are several possible observable form structures that may be considered. According to Eq.(3.70), the total number of sets of pseudo-observable indices  $\{v_i\}$  is 15. Specifically, the following combinations are possible:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

However, according to Eq.(3.70), the number of admissible sets is less than, or equal to 15. To simplify the discussion, we will only consider the following sets of possible POI with the assumption that they are admissible.

Case	1	2	3
Pseudo- Observability Indices	{3,3,1}	{3,1,3}	{1,3,3}

Note that in each case the "observability indices" sum to n=7. We can use a crate diagram to represent each of these three cases. The crate's column entries correspond to rows of  $Q_o$  associated with a particular output. Both here and in subsequent chapters the (reasonable) assumption is made that the outputs, i.e. rows of C, are linearly independent. Consequently, the first row of the crate is always selected.

{	3,3,1	}
1	1	1
1	1	0
1	1	
0	0	

{	3,1,3	}
1	1	1
1	0	1
1		1
0		0

1	{1,3,3}								
1	1	1							
0	1	1							
	1	1							
	0	0							

#### Section 3.3 Canonical Forms for MIMO Systems

Crate diagrams are simply a graphical method of visualizing the selection of linearly independent rows from the given observability matrix. For example, with the columns of the crate being associated with a particular row  $c_i$  of C, the center crate above indicates that, among the possible choices of n linearly independent rows from  $Q_{in}$  the independent elements selected are the rows:

From the crate diagrams several related "selector vectors" are generated:

 By omitting the first row of, say the center diagram, corresponding to the indices {3,1,3}, the vector v<sub>1</sub> is created by selecting the non-blank elements row-wise:

$$\mathbf{v}_i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$
 (3.75)

From v, the binary complement is formed, and denoted as v.:

$$\mathbf{v}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$
 (3.76)

 By considering the blank elements to be zeros, v<sub>i</sub> is formed in like manner, but with row 1 included:

 Finally, v<sub>td</sub> is formed by again including the first row, but now taking the blank elements of the diagram to be unit valued, and finally taking the binary complement, leading to:

$$\mathbf{v}_{td} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{T} (3.78)$$

The above selector vectors are uniquely determined by the particular set of pseudoobservability indices, or equivalently, the location of the unity elements in the corresponding crate diagram. As will be shown later, these selector vectors greatly facilitate calculation of the observable forms based on the chosen set of observability indices. In particular, the \*selector matrices\* given in Eqs.(3.79) below, derived from the associated selector vectors by a corresponding selection of columns from an appropriately dimensioned identity matrix, are actually used in obtaining the observable form.

The selection of rows (or columns) of a matrix may be accomplished by a pre- (or post-) multiplication by a corresponding "selector" matrix. Thus, for instance, since S<sub>i</sub> in Eq.(3.79) is a (7×4) selector matrix, the product  $S_i^TM$ , where M is a (7×7) matrix, results in the "selection" of rows 1, 3, 4 and 5 from M into the (4×7) product. It will be clear in a later development how useful the selector matrices are in the formulation of various algorithms to be discussed.

To facilitate further discussion, the dependence of the above selector matrices on the set of indices v will be formally represented by the following algorithm:

$$v (SMat) \rightarrow v_{\mu}, S_{\mu}, S_{\mu}, S_{\mu}, S_{\mu}$$
 where  $v_{\mu} = \max\{v_{\mu}\}$ 

In the subsequent discussion we will relate the crate diagram, selector vectors and selector matrices to the structural properties of a state space observable form  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$ . It will be shown that for the  $\{3,1,3\}$  example from above matrices  $C_o$  and  $A_o$  have the following structure:

	0	0	0	1	0	0	0									
	x	x	x	x	x	x	x									
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0		[1	0	0	0	0	0	0]	
٨. =	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	C. =	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	(3.80)
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	107010	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	
	x	x	x	x	л	x	x									
	x	x	x	x	x	x	x									

The structure of the pair {A,, C,} is characterized by the following points:

## Section 3.3 Canonical Forms for MIMO Systems

- C<sub>n</sub> consists of the first p=3 rows of the (n×n) identity matrix I<sub>n</sub>.
- At locations specified by the unities in the selector vector v<sub>i</sub>, the matrix A<sub>o</sub> contains the last n-p = 4 rows of I<sub>a</sub>.
- At locations specified by the p=3 unities in the selector vector v<sub>a</sub>, the matrix A<sub>e</sub> contains rows of elements which are not necessarily of zero or unit value.
- · The "observability matrix" Q of the pair {A C.}, i.e.

$$\mathbf{Q}_{ss} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{s}^{T} & (\mathbf{C}_{s}\mathbf{A}_{s})^{T} & \cdots & (\mathbf{C}_{s}\mathbf{A}_{s}^{\nu})^{T} \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$
 (3.81)

contains all n rows of  $I_n$  at locations specified by the n=7 unities in the selector vector  $v_n$ .

 The p=3 rows of A<sub>a</sub> containing not necessarily zero or unit elements appear in Q<sub>os</sub> at locations specified by the unities in the selector vector v<sub>u</sub>.

The results of Eqs.(3.80) derive from the basic similarity transformation, or change of state,

$$A_{o} = TAT^{-1}$$
,  $B_{o} = TB$   
 $C_{o} = CT^{-1}$ ,  $D_{o} = D$ 
(3.82)

where  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  is an arbitrary  $n^{th}$  order observable state space representation. In order to obtain  $A_o$  and  $C_o$  given by Eqs.(3.80), the transformation matrix T in Eq.(3.82), corresponding to the pseudo-observability indices  $\{3,1,3\}$ , is given by

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1^T & \mathbf{c}_2^T & \mathbf{c}_3^T & (\mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{A})^T & (\mathbf{c}_3 \mathbf{A})^T & (\mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{A}^2)^T & (\mathbf{c}_3 \mathbf{A}^2)^T \end{bmatrix}^T \quad (3.83)$$

It may be verified that all n=7 rows of T are located in the observability matrix  $Q_n$  of the pair  $\{A, C\}$ , i.e.

$$\mathbf{Q}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}^{T} & (\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A})^{T} & \cdots & (\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{v})^{T} \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

at locations specified by n=7 unities in the selector vector  $v_{\mu}$ , where  $\nu = 3$  is the maximum length chain. The algorithmic representation of Eqs.(3.82) and (3.83) is

$$v (SMat) \rightarrow v_{m}, S_{a}, S_{i}, S_{ii}, S_{id}$$
  
A, C (Qo)  $\rightarrow Q_{v}$   
 $S_{ii}^{T}Q_{v} \rightarrow T$   
A, B, C,  $T^{-1} (STR) - A_{v}, B_{v}, C_{v}$ 

Note that the structure of Eqs.(3.80) is dual to the controllable form given in

Eq.(3.64), with the understanding that the sets of indices used in building these forms are different. To emphasize the fact that MIMO controllability and observability forms are not unique, and that they are based on sets of admissible PCI and POI, these forms sometimes will be referred to as pseudo-controllability (PCF) and pseudo-observability forms (POF).

# 3.3.5 MIMO Feedback and Observer Forms

In discussing feedback and observer forms for SISO systems (Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2) it has been mentioned that these forms provide an extremely useful method of obtaining state space equations from a given transfer function. Due to this property, SISO feedback and observer forms gained great popularity. In the case of MIMO systems, however, these forms are not particularly popular. The following discussion will give more insight into this lack of popularity.

These forms are applicable only for solving state feedback pole placement and full and reduced-order observer design problems. However, efficient algorithms have been recently developed which solve these problems directly, using the given state space representation, without the necessity of calculating canonical forms explicitly.

Also, for a given pair {A,B} with unique set of controllability indices  $\mu = \{\mu_i\}$ , the feedback form has a unique structure. In other words, there is no flexibility even with the use of pseudo-controllability indices, as compared with the case of controllability and observability forms discussed in Sections 3.3.1 - 3.3.4. Specifically, as will be shown by examples, the structure of the matrix A<sub>c</sub> in the feedback form {A<sub>c</sub>,B<sub>c</sub>} is based on the set  $\hat{\mu}$  obtained by ordering the set  $\mu$  of controllability indices of {A,B} in ascending order. Thus, A<sub>c</sub> is of the same structure for pairs {A,B} with different controllability indices provided that the sets of controllability indices of these pairs have the same "ordered" set  $\hat{\mu}$ . The structure of the matrix B<sub>c</sub>, however, reflects actual controllability indices  $\mu$  of the given pair {A,B}.

For these reasons the discussion of these forms will be relatively brief. Also, only the feedback form will be discussed, since the observer form could be obtained by invoking the principle of duality. The main properties of MIMO feedback forms  $\{A_r, B_r\}$  are as follows:

The matrix  $\mathbf{A}_c$  has *m* rows with possibly non-zero elements. Locations of these rows are determined by unities in the selector vector  $\mathbf{\hat{v}}_a$  generated by the set of controllability indices  $\mathbf{\hat{\mu}}$  obtained by ordering the set of controllability indices  $\mathbf{\mu}$  of the given pair {A,B} in ascending order. Similar to  $\mathbf{A}_c$  in Eqs.(3.80), the remaining *n*-*m* rows contain the last *n*-*m* rows of an  $(n \times n)$  identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}_n$ . Unlike the matrix  $\mathbf{C}_c$  in Eqs.(3.80), which is always of the same structure, the  $(n \times m)$  matrix  $\mathbf{B}_c$  has non-zero elements in the same *m* rows determined by the *m* unities in the selector vector  $\mathbf{\hat{v}}_a$ . Moreover, as will be shown by examples, these

*m* rows are given by a particular permutation of the rows of the following  $(m \times m)$  upper triangular, nonsingular matrix:

$$\tilde{B}_{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & -x \\ 1 & x & -x \\ 1 & x & -x \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & x \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.84)

where x represents a possible non-zero quantity. Specifically, if the actual controllability indices are already ordered in ascending order, then the  $i^{th}$  non-zero row of **B**<sub>e</sub> is equal to the  $i^{th}$  row of  $\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{m}$ . In the general case, however, the  $i^{th}$  non-zero row of **B**, is equal to the  $i^{th}$  row of the product:

$$\mathbf{B}_{\mu} = \mathbf{T} \, \mathbf{\tilde{B}}_{\mu}$$
, where  $\hat{\mu} = \mu \mathbf{T}$  (3.85)

where  $\mu$  and  $\tilde{\mu}$  are rows containing actual and ordered controllability indices, respectively. For example, if  $\mu = [2 | 2 ]$  and  $\tilde{\mu} = [1 | 2 | 2 ]$ , then T and B<sub>m</sub> are:

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{m} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & x \\ 1 & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.86)

It might be of some interest to mention that in  $\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_m$ , Eq.(3.84), the value of x at locations (i,j), i < j, is zero if in the ordered set  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ ,  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i < \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_j$ . To be specific in the cases of  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  given by:

 $\{2\ 1\ 2\}$  and  $\{2\ 2\ 1\}$ , both leading to the set  $\vec{\mu} = \{1\ 2\ 2\}$ ,

matrices 
$$\tilde{\mathbf{B}}_{m}$$
 are  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x \\ 1 & x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  yielding for matrices  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{m}$ :  
$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{m} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{m} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & x \end{bmatrix}$$

respectively.

The reason for insisting on the structure of  $\mathbf{B}_{m}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{m}$  for different sets  $\mu$ which are equal modulo permutation, is to stress that the structure of  $\mathbf{A}_{e}$  is the same and that a particular "distribution" of values  $\mu_{e}$  in the set  $\mu$  is reflected in the nonzero rows of matrix  $\mathbf{B}_{e}$ , i.e. *m* rows of  $\mathbf{B}_{m}$ .

In the sequel two algorithms for calculating the pair  $\{A_c, B_c\}$  in the feedback form will be given. It is easy to verify that these two algorithms are MIMO generalizations of SISO algorithms given in Sec. 3.2. We will refer to them as Procedures 1 and 2. The dual version of the Procedure 1, calculating the observer form  $\{A_o, B_o\}$  for multi-output systems is also given. It is worth mentioning that there is no MIMO generalization of Procedure 3, Eqs.(3.50) - (3.56), based on using the  $(n \times n)$  matrix P containing coefficients  $w_{a}$  of the  $(n-1)^{\pm}$  order polynomials w(s) in the transfer function matrix (column) W(s) of the following single-input *n*-output system:

$$W(s) = C \operatorname{adj}(sI - A) b$$
, where  $C = I_{*}$ 

Procedure 1: Feedback controllable form for multi-input system

- 1. Define state space representation {A,B,C,D}
- 2. Set A, B(Qc)  $\Rightarrow$  Q.; Set number of columns in B  $\Rightarrow$  m
- 3. Set  $Q_e$  (IND)  $\Rightarrow \mu_e$ , unique controllability indices
- 4. Set  $\mu_e$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $S_a, S_b, S_b, S_b$
- 5. Set  $Q_e S_{\mu} \Rightarrow Q_{er}$
- 6. Set Q<sub>cr</sub><sup>-1</sup> ⇒ Q<sub>crt</sub>
- 7. Set S, TQ at = C.
- 8. Set  $A, C_a(Qo) \Rightarrow Q_{aa}$
- Set the first linearly independent rows from Q<sub>at</sub> ⇒ T<sub>c</sub>
- 10. Set  $A,B,C,T_c^{-1}(STR) \Rightarrow A_c,B_c,C_c$

Procedure 1: Observer observable form for multi-output system

- 1. Define state space representation {A,B,C,D}
- 2. Set  $A, C(Q_0) \Rightarrow Q_{a}$ ; Set number of columns in  $C \Rightarrow p$
- 3. Set  $Q_{\rho}$  (IND)  $\Rightarrow \nu_{\rho}$ , unique observability indices
- 4. Set  $P_a$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $S_a, S_b, S_s, S_{st}$
- 5. Set  $S_x^T Q_x \Rightarrow Q_y$
- 6. Set  $Q_{art}^{-1} \Rightarrow Q_{art}$

7. Set  $Q_{ad} S_a \Rightarrow B_a$ 8. Set A, B,  $(Qc) \Rightarrow Q_{m}$ 9. Set the first linearly independent columns from  $Q_{\alpha} \Rightarrow T_{\alpha}$ 10. Set A, B, C, T,  $(STR) \rightarrow A_n, B_n, C_n$ Procedure 2: Feedback controllable form for multi-input system (obtained by calculating null spaces of some columns of Q.) 1. Define state space representation {A,B,C,D} Set A,B(Qc) ⇒ Q.; Set number of columns in B ⇒ m Set Q<sub>e</sub> (IND) ⇒ μ<sub>e</sub>, unique controllability indices 4. Set  $\mu_e$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $S_e, S_b, S_F, S_M$ 5. Set Q. S, = Q. 6. Set number of columns in  $A \Rightarrow n$ 7. Set  $O_{0,s} \Rightarrow C_s$ 8. Set  $[1 \dots 1] \Rightarrow I_i$ ;  $I_i = n$  unities 9. Set S,7 = S 10. Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$ 11. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$ 12. Set I, -  $l^{k}$  row of  $S \Rightarrow v$ 13. Set v (DSM)  $\Rightarrow$  S<sub>st</sub> 14. Set Q<sub>er</sub> S<sub>ai</sub> → M<sub>i</sub> 15. Set  $Q_{rr} r^{T} \Rightarrow q_{r}$ 16. Set null space of  $M_i^T = t_i$ , row  $t_i^T M_i = 0$ 17. Set  $\mathbf{t}_i^T \mathbf{q}_i \Rightarrow \alpha_i$ 18. Set  $\mathbf{t}_i^T/\alpha_i \Rightarrow \mathbf{c}_{\alpha_i}$ 19. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_a \\ \mathbf{c}_a \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{C}_a$ 20. If i < m, go to 11; else, go to 21 21. Set A,C, (Qo) = Q\_ 22. Set the first linearly independent rows from Q<sub>m</sub> ⇒ T<sub>c</sub> 23. Set A, B, C, T,  $(STR) \Rightarrow A_{c}, B_{c}, C_{c}$ 

The algorithm for the observer form based on calculating null spaces of some rows from Q, is left as an exercise for reader.

In the first 5 steps of the algorithm: Procedure 1, feedback form, the first *n* linearly independent columns from  $Q_c$  are selected in  $Q_{cr}$  and the selector matrix  $S_a$  has been generated. Then the "auxiliary" ( $m \times n$ ) output matrix  $C_a$  is calculated by:

$$C_a = S_a^T Q_{er}^{-1}$$

i.e. the *m* rows of  $C_a$  are contained in  $C_{cr}^{-1}$  at locations determined by *m* unities in the selector vector  $v_a$ , which generates the selector matrix  $S_a$ . Finally, the similarity transformation matrix  $T_c$  used in Step 10 to calculate  $R_c = \{A_c, B_c, C_c\}$ , obtained by selecting the first *n* linearly independent rows from the auxiliary observability matrix  $Q_{\infty}$  of the pair  $\{A, C_a\}$ . It may be shown by inspection that the observability indices of the "auxiliary" pair  $\{A, C_a\}$  are equal to the controllability indices of  $\{A, B\}$  ordered in ascending order, i.e. to  $\bar{\mu}$ .

In the algorithm of Procedure 2, feedback controllable form, the first 5 steps are exactly the same as the first 5 steps of Procedure 1. By Steps 6 through 20, the auxiliary  $(m \times n)$  output matrix  $C_e$  is calculated without explicitly calculating the inverse of  $Q_{cr}$ . To visualize how this is done, consider a pair  $\{A,B\}$  with controllability indices  $\mu = \{2 \ 1 \ 2\}$  leading to the selector vector  $v_a$  and selector matrix  $S_e$  given by:

$$\mathbf{v}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{S}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

In our example the first n = 5 linearly independent columns from Q, are

 $\mathbf{Q}_{er} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \mathbf{b}_3 & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \begin{bmatrix} x & \mathbf{q}_1 & x & \mathbf{q}_2 & \mathbf{q}_3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

For convenience, by  $\mathbf{q}_i$ , i=[1,m], m=3, are denoted columns in  $\mathbf{Q}_{ir}$  whose locations correspond to unities in the selector vector  $\mathbf{v}_{a}$ . Recall that these columns correspond to the "end-of-chain" columns, i.e. to  $\mathbf{b}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_1$  and  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_3$ . Note that these columns are "associated" with the *m* columns  $\mathbf{b}_i$  of the matrix **B** in the order determined by the *ordered* controllability indices  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \{1 \ 2 \ 2\}$ , corresponding to actual indices:  $\mu_2 = 1$  and  $\mu_1 = \mu_3 = 2$ . Then,  $i^{\text{th}}$  row  $\mathbf{c}_{ai}$ , i=[1,m], of  $\mathbf{C}_a$  is calculated by:

$$\mathbf{c}_{ai} = \frac{N(\mathbf{M}_i^T)^T}{N(\mathbf{M}_i^T)^T \mathbf{q}_i}$$
(3.87)

where N(X) = N represents the null space of X, satisfying X N = 0.

In Eq.(3.87) the  $(n \times n-1)$  matrix  $\mathbf{M}_i$  is obtained from  $\mathbf{Q}_{ir}$  by eliminating column  $\mathbf{q}_{ir}$ , i=[1,m]. Finally, having calculated rows  $\mathbf{c}_{air}$ , i.e. the auxiliary matrix  $\mathbf{C}_{a}$ , the last 3 steps of this algorithm are equal to the last 3 steps of the algorithm implementing Procedure 1. It is relatively easy to verify that in the SISO case these two algorithms (Procedures 1 and 2) reduce to the algorithms (Procedure 1 and 2) given in Section 3.2.3.

# 3.3.6 Modeling Example

To illustrate usefulness and advantages of controllability and observability forms over the feedback and observer forms the following example of 5<sup>th</sup> order system with m=2 inputs and p=3 outputs is considered

#### Given System Representation

T	.05	.00	+00	+00	.00	1.00	1.00				
1	.00	.10	+00	+00	.00	.01	1.00				
t	.00	.00	+15	.00	.00	.02	1.00				
t	.00	.00	+00	.20	.20	.00	1.00				
t	.00	.00	+00	20	.20	.00	1.00		A	B	
Ŧ	- an and a late of a							- 1			
ŧ	1.00	.01	.00	.00	.00				C		
Ŧ	.00	.00	1.00	.01	.00						
1	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	t					(a)

The unique controllability and observability indices are

$$\mu = \{32\}$$
 and  $\nu = \{221\}$  (b)

According to Eq.(3.70) the possible sets of pseudo-controllability and pseudoobservability indices are

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\nu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\nu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\nu}_2 \\ \boldsymbol{\nu}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
(c)

It has been verified that the first set of controllability indices {4 1} and the first set of observability indices {3 1 1} are not admissible.

Comparing Eqs.(b) and (c), it may be concluded that the second set of PCI is equal to the unique controllability indices. Similarly, the second set of POI is equal to the unique observability indices. The unique feedback and observer forms of Eq.(a) are given in Eqs.(c). As was mentioned previously, the structures of matrices  $A_e$  and  $A_e$  are based on selector vectors  $\vec{v}_e$  corresponding to the sets

$$\tilde{\mu} = \{2,3\}$$
 and  $\tilde{\nu} = \{1,2,2\}$  (d)

obtained by ordering the sets µ and v in (b), respectively.

## Feedback (unique controllable) Form

[Unique controllability indices {3 2}; admissibility degree =.12E-07]

					Gnap	iter 3	•	Asrau	wodenng
.0	.0	1.0	.0	.0	1 .	0	.0	1	
.0	.0	.0	1.0	.0	1 .1	0	.0	1	
08	.0	.4	.0	.0	1 .4	0	1.0	1	
.0	.0	.0	.0	1.0	1	0	.0	1	
2.3	.0	-291.9	.02	.3	1 1.4	0 -1563	2.5	4	
		e te na se as as as			-+				
5.4	.015	1563.7	25	1.0	1				
2.2	+0	32.3	.0	,02	1				12.20
0.0	.015	1614.4	25	1.0	1				(e1)
	.0 08 .0 2.3 5.4 2.2 0.0	.0 .0 -08 .0 .0 .0 2.3 .0 5.4 .015 2.2 .0 0.0 .015	.0 .0 1.0 .0 .0 .0 08 .0 .4 .0 .0 .0 2.3 .0 -291.9 5.4 .015 1563.7 2.2 .0 32.3 0.0 .015 1614.4	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

#### Observer (observable) Form

[Unique observability indices {2 2 1}; admissibility degree =.53E-06]

í.	13	0	.0	-82.9	-76.8	-475.0	-741.6	E
ľ	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	=.1	1	
ľ	.001	.0	.0	3	2	-1.1	-1.7	St
ľ	.0	1.0	.0	.2	.0	1.0	1.0	3
ŀ	.0	.0	1.0	1.1	.7	.0	1.0	
r		-						÷
Ŀ	.0	.0	.0	1.0	.0	1		
İ.	.0	.0	.0	.0	1.0	1		
ŀ	1.0	.0	.0	470.6	268.6			(e2)

In Eqs.(e), in addition to the indices from Eq.(b), the admissibility degree of the indices are given. The admissibility degree of a full rank matrix is defined as the inverse of the condition number of that matrix, i.e. as the ratio of the smallest to the largest singular value of the matrix. The reason for using the inverse of the condition number is to avoid dealing with infinite numbers when the matrix is not full rank.

Controllability and observability forms obtained using all admissible sets of pseudo-controllability and observability indices are given in Eqs.(f) together with the sets of indices used, as well the admissibility degree of the corresponding similarity transformation matrices used in obtaining these forms.

#### Controllability (pseudo-controllable) Forms

[Pseudo-controllability indices {1,4}; admissibility degree = .66E-03]

.051	.0 .0 1.0 1.0	.0 .0 .0	.0 .0 .0	.003 .002 .024 194	1.0 .0 .0	.0 1.0 .0
1.001	1 1.01 1 1.01 2 1.01 3 5.00	.051 .154 .700	.002 .023 .035	.001 .003 .027	1 .0	.0 [

(f1)

128

# Section 3.3 Canonical Forms for MIMO Systems

[Pseudo-controllability indices {2 3}; admissibility degree =.53E-03]

.0 1.0 .0	.0 .0 1.0	.008	0. 0. 0.	071 .006 1.366 114	1.0	1.0 1.0 .0
.0 1.00 .02	.0 1.01 1.01	.006	.051 .154	.486	.0	.0

[Pseudo-controllability indices {3 2}; admissibility degree =.91E-05]

S - 52		1.000	1 A A A A A			1211
.0	.0	.0	-12.7	.007	1 1.0	.0 1
.0	.0	.0	08	.0	.0	1.0
1,0	.0	.0	333.1	027	.0	.0 :
.0	1.0	.0	.40	.0	.0	.0 ;
.0	.0	1.0-	1562.5	.300	1 .0	.0 1
					+	
1.0	1.0	.1	.05	.002	POINT COLUMN	
.0	1.0	.0	.15	.0	1	
1.0	5.0	.1	.70	.003	1	

# Observability (pseudo-observable) Forms

[Pseudo-observability indices {1 1 3}; admissibility degree = .16E-01]

.049 .000 .0 .0 003	.000 .150 .0 .0	.001 001 .0 .0 .0DB	004 .011 1.0 .0 120	.010 018 .0 1.0 .501	1.000 .020 1.030 .054 .003	1.010 1.010 5.000 .700 .035
1.0 .0 .0	.0 1.0 .0	.0 .0 1.0	.0 .0	.0 .0 .0		

[Pseudo-observability indices {1 2 2}; admissibility degree = .30E-03]

.000 .017 .00 .038 .002 .003 .154	.023 8.49105 -56.723 .612   .054 .700	1.0 .0 .0 .0 .0 .0	.050 .0 .00.000	.085 .0 .0 .017	.00	571 1.0 .038	.002 .0 1.0 .002	1.000 .020 1.030 .003	1.010 1.010 5.000 .154
-----------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--------------------	-----------------------	--------------------------	-----	--------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------------------

129

(f2)

(f3)

(f4)

(f5)

(16)

.0 .087 .0 005 -4.906	.0 .149 .0 .000 .043	.001 .001 .000 080	1.0 -1.752 .0 .150 99.384	.0 .004 1.0 .000 .401	1.000 .020 1.030 .050 .054	1.010 1.010 5.000 .051 .700	
					****		
1.0	.0	.0	.0	.0			
.0	1.0	.0	.0	.0			
.0	.0	1.0	.0	.0	1		

[Pseudo-observability ilndices {2 1 2}; admissibility degree = .17E-03]

[Pseudo-observability indices {1 3 1}; admissibility degree = .14E-03]

	.049 .0 051 .0	.070 -6.894 .0	.001 .0 .101 .0	-,60 1,0 -15,78 ,0	.879 .0 413.821 1.0	1.000 .020 1.030 .003	1.010   1.010   5.000   .154	
1	.000	.012	.000	-+14	.550	1 .000	.023 [	
1						****	the set of the set of the loss	
1	1.0	.0	.0	+0	-0	1		
1	.0	1.0	.0	.0	.0	1		50255
1	.0	.0	1.0	.0	.0	1		(f7)

[Pseudo-observability indices {2 2 1}; admissibility degree = .12E-03]

1	.0	.0	.0	1.0	.0	1 1.000	1.010	13
1	.0	.0	.0	.0	1.0	.020	1.010	
÷	-23.342	-40.000	-,137	470.581	268,581	1.030	5,000	1
1	005	.0	+ 0	.150	.0	.050	.051	8
i	056	080	001	1.137	.687	.003	.154	1
3						+		-
1	1.0	.0	+ 0	.0	.0	1		
1	.0	1.0	.0	.0	.0	1		1.000
1	.0	.0	1.0	.0	.0	1		(f8)

Comparing the forms in Eqs.(e) and (f), it may be concluded that among all controllable forms, the forms corresponding to the sets of PCI

 $\mu = \{14\}$  and  $\mu = \{23\}$ 

are more "convenient" than the controllability form corresponding to the set of PCI  $\mu = \{3 \ 2\}$  which is the "unique" set of controllability indices of the pair  $\{A, B\}$ , as well as the unique feedback form. The advantages of these forms are judged on the basis of absolute values of elements of matrices in these forms, which is a direct consequence of the admissibility degree of the transformation matrix used for the similarity transformation. Similarly, among all observable forms, it may be concluded that the observability form based on  $\nu = \{1 \ 1 \ 3\}$  has the largest admissibility degree and, consequently, the smallest absolute values of its elements.

#### Section 3.4 Matrix Fraction Description (MFD)

The main point of this example is to stress the necessity of checking the admissibility degree of the similarity transformation matrix corresponding to each admissible set of pseudo-controllability or pseudo-observability indices and to use the set leading to the largest admissibility degree. Then, the absolute values of the elements in a state space representation become relatively small, which is computationally desirable. As was the case in this example, the most convenient set of indices is not necessarily equal to the unique set of controllability or observability indices.

# 3.4 Matrix Fraction Description (MFD)

As introduced in Chapter 1, an alternative representation to either the state space description or the transfer matrix description is the *matrix fraction description* (MFD). For a C-T MIMO system the MFD model is of the form

$$D(s) y(s) = N(s) u(s)$$
 (3.88)

where y(s) is the  $(p \times 1)$  system output and u(s) is the  $(m \times 1)$  system input. The matrices  $D(s) = \{ d_y(s) \}$  and  $N(s) = \{ n_y(s) \}$  are left coprime  $(p \times p)$  and  $(p \times m)$  polynomial matrices. The orders of polynomials  $d_y(s)$  and  $n_y(s)$  satisfy:

$$0 \le \deg[d_{ij}(s)] \le k$$
  
 $0 \le \deg[n_i(s)] \le k$ 
(3.89)

where  $k \leq n$ , *n* being the order of the system.

In accordance with the discussion in Chapter 1, polynomials  $d_y(s)$  and  $n_y(s)$ will be represented by:

$$d_{ij}(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{k} d_{ijk} s^{k}$$
 and  $n_{ij}(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{k} n_{ijk} s^{k}$  (3.90)

Similarly, polynomial matrices D(s) and N(s) may be written as

$$D(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{k} D_{k} s^{k}$$
 and  $N(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{k} N_{k} s^{k}$  (3.91)

where

$$\mathbf{D}_{h} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11h} & \cdots & d_{1ph} \\ \vdots & - & \vdots \\ d_{p1h} & - & d_{pph} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{N}_{h} = \begin{bmatrix} n_{11h} & \cdots & n_{1mh} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ n_{p1h} & \cdots & n_{pmh} \end{bmatrix}$$

Two polynomial matrices are *left coprime* if they do not have common terms, or if

$$rank[D(s) | N(s)] = p$$
 for all s

In other words, it is assumed that all existing common terms in D(s) and N(s) have been cancelled. In some relevant literature the MFD model is referred to as an *auto-regressive-moving-average (ARMA)* model. As is the case with state space models, the MFD representation is not unique, i.e. there is more than one pair of polynomial matrices {D(s), N(s)} that will represent a given system.

One variation of an MFD model is the following model:

$$y(s) = \tilde{N}(s) \tilde{D}^{-1}(s) u(s)$$
 (3.92)

which is sometimes expressed as

$$y(s) = \bar{N}(s) v(s)$$
 (3.93)  
 $\bar{D}(s) v(s) = u(s)$ 

where v(s) is an auxiliary *m* dimensional vector.

It is quickly concluded that the MFD model is related to the system transfer matrix, G(s) by

$$G(s) = D^{-1}(s) N(s) = \tilde{N}(s) D^{-1}(s)$$
 (3.94)

Similarly, the  $(p \times m)$  and  $(m \times m)$  matrices  $\tilde{N}(s)$  and  $\tilde{D}(s)$  are right coprime if:

$$rank[\tilde{N}^{T}(s) \mid \tilde{D}^{T}(s)] = m$$
 for all  $s$  (3.95)

It is worth mentioning that in the case of SISO models, i.e. for p = m = 1, matrices D(s) and N(s) become scalar polynomials d(s) and n(s), respectively, and the coprime condition reduces to:

$$rank[d(s) | n(s)] = 1$$
 for all s (3.96)

The condition of Eq.(3.96), in fact, implies that polynomials d(s) and n(s) have no common factors, i.e. there is no value  $s = s_0$  for which both  $d(s_0)$  and  $n(s_0)$  are equal to zero. In other words, for  $s = p_0$ , i = [1,n], i.e. system poles,  $d(p_0) = 0$ , but  $n(p_1) \neq 0$ ; i.e. the transfer function g(s) = n(s)/d(s) does not have any pole-zero cancellations. Similarly, if there are no common factors, then for  $s = z_0$ , i.e. system zeros for which  $n(z_0) = 0$ ,  $d(z_0) \neq 0$ .

Recall that in the case of SISO systems, it is typically assumed that d(s) is a monic polynomial, i.e.

$$d(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i s^i$$
 where  $d_n = 1$  (3.97)

#### Section 3.4 Matrix Fraction Description (MFD)

This type of "normalization," when applied to polynomial matrices requires some additional consideration.

Definition 3.4 The degree of a polynomial vector (row or column), a(s):

$$a(s) = \left[ a_1(s) - a_p(s) \right]$$

is equal to the highest degree of all (polynomial) entries,  $a_i(s)$ , in the vector. The polynomial vector a(s) is *monic* if its polynomial with highest degree is monic in the sense of Eq. (3.97) and there is only one polynomial with that degree.

**Definition 3.5** A column-reduced polynomial matrix is defined as follows: For a  $p \times p$  polynomial matrix  $D(s) = \{ d_q(s) \}$ , let the degree of the  $l^{\pm}$  column be  $n_i$ . In general,

$$\deg \det \{ D(s) \} = n \le \sum_{i=1}^{p} n_i$$
(3.98)

If equality holds in Eq. (3.98), D(s) is considered to be column reduced.

**Definition 3.6** A  $p \times p$  column-reduced polynomial matrix D(s) is said to be *monic* if in each column the polynomial with the highest degree is monic.

Row-reduced and row-reduced monic polynomial matrices are defined in a similar manner. Unless stated differently, the  $p \times p$  matrix D(s) of the left coprime pair  $\{D(s), N(s)\}$  is taken to be both column-reduced and monic. In the corresponding case of the right coprime pair  $\{\tilde{N}(s), \tilde{D}(s)\}$  the  $m \times m$  matrix  $\tilde{D}(s)$  is considered to be both row-reduced and monic.

Since the concept row-(or column-) reduced polynomial matrices is important for our developments, some simple examples will be presented: Consider the  $3 \times 3$ column-reduced polynomial matrix D(s) with column degrees {  $n_i$  } given by:

$$\{n_1, n_2, n_3\} = \{2, 2, 2\}$$
 (3.99)

D(s) has the general form

$$D(s) = \begin{bmatrix} x + xs + s^2 & x + xs & x + xs \\ x + xs & x + xs + s^2 & x + xs \\ x + xs & x + xs & x + xs + s^2 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.100)

where x represents a possible non-zero value. The matrices in Eqs.(3.91) are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_0 \mid \mathbf{D}_1 \mid \mathbf{D}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \ x \ x \mid x \ x \ x \mid x \ x \ x \mid 1 \ 0 \ 0 \\ x \ x \ x \mid x \ x \ x \mid 0 \ 1 \ 0 \\ x \ x \ x \mid x \ x \ x \mid 0 \ 0 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.101)

In the case for which the column degrees  $\{n_i\}$  are not equal, e.g. if

$$\{n_1, n_2, n_3\} = \{2, 1, 3\}$$
 (3.102)

then the corresponding description of Eq.(3.100) becomes:

$$D(s) = \begin{bmatrix} x + xs & x + s & x + xs + xs^{2} \\ x + xs + s^{2} & x & x + xs + xs^{2} \\ x + xs & x & x + xs + xs^{2} + s^{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.103)

and the 3×3 matrices in Eqs.(3.91) become:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{6} \mid \mathbf{D}_{1} \mid \mathbf{D}_{2} \mid \mathbf{D}_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \ x \ x \mid x \ 1 \ x \mid 0 \ 0 \ x \mid 0 \ 0 \ 0 \end{bmatrix} (3.104)$$
$$(3.104)$$

Note that in both cases  $d(s) = \det \{ D(s) \}$  is an  $n=6^n$  order polynomial with the coefficient associated with  $s^6$  equal to  $\pm 1$ . Also the  $[p \times (k+1)p]$  matrix **D**, defined by:

$$D_r = [D_0 | D_1 | \cdots | D_k]$$
 (3.105)

contains:

- n=6 columns with non-zero/non-unity elements,
- p=3 columns of the p×p identity matrix, and
- kp-n columns of zeros.

It may be verified that the locations of the non-zero/non-unity columns and the columns of the identity matrix mentioned above are defined by the unity elements of the selector vectors  $\mathbf{v}_s$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{us}$ , respectively, generated by a set of POI { $\mathbf{v}_i$ } equal to the column degrees { $n_i$ } of D(s). It is worth mentioning that matrices D(s) given above are completely general, since it is always possible to premultiply both D(s) and N(s) by a  $p \times p$  "permutation" matrix to bring D(s) to the above form. The transfer matrix  $G(s) = D^{-1}(s)N(s)$  is not altered by this multiplication.

Alternatively, with argument z replacing s, Eqs. (3.88) to (3.92) represent D-T MFD or ARMA models. In particular, using the z-domain description, Eq. (3.88) may be rewritten as

$$(\mathbf{D}_{k}z^{k} + \dots + \mathbf{D}_{1}z + \mathbf{D}_{0})y(z) = (\mathbf{N}_{k}z^{k} + \dots + \mathbf{N}_{1}z + \mathbf{N}_{0})u(z) \quad (3.106)$$

where the matrices  $\{\mathbf{D}_i\}$ ,  $0 \le i \le k$ , and  $\{\mathbf{N}_i\}$ ,  $0 \le i \le k$  in Eq.(3.106) have the dimensions  $(p \times p)$  and  $(p \times m)$ , respectively. The time domain equivalent of Eq.(3.106) is

$$\mathbf{D}_{k}\mathbf{y}(t+k) + \dots + \mathbf{D}_{1}\mathbf{y}(t+1) + \mathbf{D}_{0}\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{N}_{k}\mathbf{u}(t+k) + \dots + \mathbf{N}_{1}\mathbf{u}(t+1) + \mathbf{N}_{0}\mathbf{u}(t)$$

(3.107)

where t has been used as the discrete time index, taking on only integer values. More specifically, for the example above, the difference equation corresponding to Eq.(3.101) is

$$y(t+2) + D_1 y(t+1) + D_0 y(t) - N_2 u(t+2) + N_1 u(t+1) + N_0 u(t)$$
  
(3.108)

since D<sub>2</sub> is an identity matrix. The vector y(t) has, of course, three components. The special case for which all column degrees of D(s) are equal is sometimes

The special case for which all column degrees of D(s) are equal is sometimes called the *equi-observable* case, and D(s) is then considered to be a *regular polynomial matrix*. The time domain equivalent in the general case when the column degrees are not necessarily equal is not as simple as for the regular case. For instance, corresponding to the example of Eq.(3.102), we may write

$$\begin{vmatrix} y_2(t+1) \\ y_1(t+2) \\ y_3(t+3) \end{vmatrix} = - \mathbf{d}_{23} \, y_3(t+2) - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{d}_{11} & \mathbf{d}_{13} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t+1) \\ y_3(t+1) \end{bmatrix} - \mathbf{D}_0 \, \mathbf{y}(t)$$
(3.109)  
+  $\mathbf{N}_3 \, \mathbf{u}(t+3) + \mathbf{N}_2 \, \mathbf{u}(t+2) + \mathbf{N}_1 \, \mathbf{u}(t+1) + \mathbf{N}_0 \, \mathbf{u}(t)$ 

where  $d_y$  is the  $j^{th}$  column of the matrix  $D_i$ . In general, the left side of such a description is a p dimensional vector containing samples  $y_j(t+n_j)$ , j=[1,p], but arranged in ascending order of column degrees  $n_j$ . In fact, the left-hand side of (3.109) is

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_2(t+n_2) & y_1(t+n_1) & y_3(t+n_3) \end{bmatrix}^T$$

since in the example,  $n_2 \le n_1 \le n_3$ .

When a left coprime pair of polynomial matrices { D(s), N(s) }, ( or with z instead of s for a D-T system), as described previoulsy is available, it is relatively easy to transform a left coprime MFD into an observable representation  $R_o$  based on a set of admissible POI corresponding to the column degrees of D(s). And, conversely, given an observable representation  $R_o$ , based on a set of POI, it is possible to obtain a corresponding left coprime MFD. Similar statements can be

made for the relationships between a right coprime row-reduced MFD and a controllable state space representation. This is the subject of the next chapter where the conversion between the various system models is considered.

# 3.5 Summary

In this chapter the important concepts of system structure and canonical forms were presented. In Section 3.1 the systems under consideration were restricted to be SISO systems. Controllable, observable and Jordan forms were discussed, particularly with respect to their relation with the corresponding transfer functions. In Section 3.2 the SISO controllable and observable forms were extended to MIMO systems through the use of specific similarity transformations of the system state. In Section 3.3 the discussion of MIMO canonical forms was continued. A very flexible method is given for describing the structure of a MIMO system, using pseudo-controllability and pseudo-observability indices (PCI and POI). The pseudocontrollable and pseudo-observable forms provide a selection of possible system structures from which the "best" one can be chosen. This "best" structure is not always the "unique" controllable or observable canonical form commonly used in the control system community. With this chapter's thorough discussion and exercises on MIMO system structure, the reader will be prepared to study Chapter 4, which presents an entire collection of algorithms for conversion between the various system types. Finally, in Section 3.4 the matrix fraction description (MFD) was presented in detail, tving the concepts of POFs and PCFs to left and right coprime MFD forms.

# 3.6

# References

The topic of system modeling covers a broad area, but we again refer to the basic advanced texts of Kailath (1980), Chen (1984) and Brogan (1991) for well written background reading. Luenberger (1967) is a classical paper on canonical forms for MIMO systems. Ackermann (1985) discusses the various "Frobenius" canonical forms used in this chapter in his Appendix A. For details on the "modified" forms used here, i.e. the use of *pseudo-controllable or observability indices*, see Bingulac and Krtolica (1987), or Gevers and Wertz (1982); also called *nice indices* in Antoulas (1985). A related discussion on the invariance of controllability indices is given in Bingulac and VanLandingham (1992). Kailath (1980) relates state space and matrix fraction descriptions in his Chapter 6.

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# 3.7 Exercises

3.1 Given below is a state space representation of a strictly proper SISO system

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{c} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & | & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 & | & 2 \\ ---- & --- & --- & -|- & --- \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determine:

- (a) —the controllability (controllable) form,
- (b) -- the observability (observable) form,
- (c) —the feedback (controllable) forms using Procedures 1, 2 and 3 described in Section 3.2.3, and
- (4) -- the observer (observable) form using the principle of duality.

#### Hints:

- Define the representation R = {A,b,c} using the operator DMA, or INPM.
- Calculate the controllability and observability matrices using the operators Qc and Qo.
- Calculate the required canonical forms using the operator STR.
- Find the null space by using the operator NRS.
- Determine the transfer function, in Procedure 3, using the operator SSTF.
- Matrix partitioning could be done using the operator CTC.

A version of L-A-S program performing this exercise is available in the subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER31.DPF. 3.2 The coefficients  $w_i$  and  $a_i$ , i=[0,n], n=4, of a non-strictly proper SISO transfer fuction g(s) = w(s)/a(s) are given below:

{ w1 }	=	[5	6	-3	-4	-2 ]
{a,}		[2	6	7	4	1]

Determine:

- (a) —the feedback (controllable) form R<sub>c</sub> = {A<sub>c</sub>, b<sub>c</sub>, c<sub>c</sub>, d<sub>c</sub>} using Algorithm Rc1, Section 3.4.2.
- (b) —the observer (observable) form R<sub>o</sub> = {A<sub>o</sub>, b<sub>o</sub>, c<sub>o</sub>, d<sub>o</sub>} using Algorithm Ro1, Section 3.4.2.
- (c) —the controllability (controllable) form R<sub>c</sub> = {A<sub>c</sub>, b<sub>c</sub>, c<sub>c</sub>, d<sub>c</sub>} using Algorithm Rc2, Section 3.4.2.
- (d) —the observability (observable) form R<sub>p</sub> = {A<sub>s</sub>, b<sub>p</sub>, c<sub>p</sub>, d<sub>p</sub>} using Algorithm Ro2 Section 3.4.2.
- (e) -- the transfer functions of all the obtained state space representations.

# Hints:

- Define the coefficients w<sub>i</sub> and a<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,n], n=4, using either operator DMA, or INPM.
- Row partitioning can be performed using operator CTC.
- Extraction of the dimensions of a row/column/matrix can be done using the operators RDI and CDI of the subroutine GETD.SUB.
- Row/column/matrix transposition can be done using the operator T.
- The controllability and observability matrices can be calculated using the operators Qc and Qo, respectively.
- Rows s, and s, could be defined by partitioning an identity matrix I, where the identity matrix is generated by the operator DIM.
- "Shifting" rowa/columns/matrices up/down/left/right can be done using the operators SHU, SHD, SHL and SHR.
- The transfer function can be calculated using the operator SSTF.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER32.DPF.

3.3 A 6<sup>6</sup> order C-T system with m=3 inputs and p=2 outputs is given below:

				1	1	0	0	0	0	1	.01	1	0
				-1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
				0	0	1	0	0	-4	1	1	0	0
A	T	B		2	2	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	1
	٠		=	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	0
C	1	D		0	0	0	0	-2	1	1	0	1	.01
										- -			
				1	.04	.01	.02	.02	0	1	0	0	0
				0	3	1	1	3	0	1	0	1	0

Determine:

- (a) —the unique sets of controllability and observability indices.
- (b) Using Eq.(3.70) and Definition 3.2, determine all sets of PCI and POI.
- (c) Determine which sets are admissible.
- (d) For all admissible sets of PCI and POI determine the corresponding PCF and POF.
- (e) Calculate the degrees of admissibility for all admissibile sets.
- (f) Determine the particular PCI and POI which correspond to the "best selection," i.e. having the largest admissibility degree.
- (g) Are these "best" sets equal to the unique sets of controllability and observability indices?

Hints:

- To define the required arrays, use operator DMA.
- To calculate Q, and Q, use operators Qc and Qo.
- To calculate the unique controllability/observability indices, use either operator RKC/RKR and then subroutine CIND.SUB, or subroutine IND.SUB.

The calling sequence for IND is:

Q, mp, cut, eps(IND, SUB)=Ind.

- The calling sequence for CIND is: v(CIND, SUB)=Ind.
- To calculate selector matrices, use either the operators POI and DSM or the subroutine SMAT.SUB.

The calling sequence for SMAT is: Pind(SMAT, SUB) = Innx, Sa, Si, Sli, Sld.

## Section 3.7 Exercises

- To calculate the admissibility degree of a particular realization, use either the operator SVD, or the subroutine C#.SUB. The calling sequence for C# is: T(C#.SUB)=C#.
- For additional hints see those following Exercises 3.1 and 3.2.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER33.DPF.

3.4 A (5  $\times$  5) matrix A and three input matrices B<sub>i</sub>, i=1,2,3, are given below:

	0	1	1	1		Ĩ	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
	0	0	1	E .			0	0	1			0	0	1
<b>B</b> <sub>1</sub> =	2	1	1	ļ.,	<b>B</b> <sub>2</sub>	-	2	1	1		B3 =	2	1	1
0.8.000	0	0	1				0	.01	1	1		0	.01	1
	.01	0	1				0	0	1			.01	0	1

For the pairs {A, B<sub>i</sub>}, *i*=1,2,3, determine:

- (a) -- the three sets of unique controllability indices.
- (b) -the three pairs, {A, B, B, of Feedback controllable forms.
- (c) —the three pairs, {A<sub>a</sub>, B<sub>a</sub>}, of Controllability forms which correspond to the set μ = {113} of admissible PCI.

Hints:

- To calculate a feedback controllable form, use procedure 1 or 2, Section 3.3.5.
- To calculate a controllability form, use the dual of the procedure given in Section 3.3.4, or use Algorithm SSRc discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.1.2.
- Since the same calculations, but using different input matrices (B<sub>i</sub>), should be performed, it is advisable to use an "incompletely" specified operator statement. (See Appendix C, the subsection: "Omitting Input, Output and Operator Fields").
- For other hints see those following Exercises 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER34.DPF. **Remark:** Note that even though the matrices  $B_i$  are rather similar, the feedback controllable forms are quite different, while the controllability forms based on the selected set  $\mu$  are nearly equal.

3.5 A 7<sup>th</sup> order non-diagonalizable matrix A is given below:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -2 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determine:

- (a) —the eigenvalues of A. Verify that the eigenvalues are 2 ± j1 and 2 with multiplicities 2 and 3 respectively,
- (b) —the modal matrix P which transforms A into a block diagonal "real number" Jordan form A, satisfying A, = P<sup>1</sup> A P, and
- (c) -- the Jordan form Ag-

Hints:

- See Appendix B for more details on Jordan forms.
- Define the matrix A using either the operator DMA or INPM.
- To calculate the modal matrix P, use the subroutine MODM.SBR. Note that MODM.SBR calls either CHAR.SBR, or CHAC.SBR, for each distinct eigenvalue of A.
- Calculate the distinct eigenvalues of A using the operators EGV, DMA and DSM.
- To calculate A<sub>j</sub>, use the operators -1 and \* (inversion and multiplication).

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER35.DPF.

# Chapter 4 Intermodel Conversion

In the previous chapters several methods of system representation have been discussed. The purpose of this chapter is to present the various algorithms that can be used to convert between the different system models. As illustrated in Fig. 4.1, we consider a *pentagon* of five basic representations. The arrows refer to available algorithms that may be invoked to perform the indicated conversion.

Our approach to presenting this material will be to focus on a particular block of the "pentagon" in Fig. 4.1, e.g. the state space representation, and discuss the algorithms used for converting this model to each of the other four.

# 4.1 Conversions from a State Space Model

Since we are most familiar with the state space representation, having used this model as our fundamental system description in previous chapters, we will begin by considering the different methods of converting this model to other forms. Even though most of the techniques apply equally well to C-T models, our concentration will be on the conversions of D-T models, as indicated in Fig. 4.1. As is well known, state space representation for a specific system is not unique.



FIGURE 4.1 Algorithms for Intermodel Conversion

In this section several options are discussed. Initially, we assume a general state space representation. And anticipating the need to transform the general state space form into one of the canonical forms, two algorithms are provided: one to convert to an observable form, and a second, to controllable form. We will consider exclusively the controllability and observability forms since they take advantage of flexibility offered by pseudo-controllability and pseudo- observability indices (PCI) and (POI). As was mentioned in Chapter 3, these forms will be sometimes referred to as pseudo-controllable (PCF) and pseudo-observable forms (POF). Another reason is that we found that controllability and observability forms of the structure in Eqs.(3.66) and (3.80) are best suited for all intermodel conversions to be discussed. These forms are better than the feedback and observer forms as well as forms of the Luenberger structure. This is in fact the reason why we in Chapter 3 insisted on these forms and stated that they are more "natural" than other possible canonical forms. The remaining algorithms in this section provide for conversion to transfer function form, ARMA (or MFD) forms, as well as for calculating the Markov parameters, and system responses.

## 4.1.1 General State Space to Observable Form

This algorithm transforms a general form  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  to an observability (POF) form  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$ , bases on an admissible set r of POI as discussed in Chapter 3. To recall the basic steps of the procedure,

 $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{v}, \epsilon(SSRo) = \mathbf{A}_{o}, \mathbf{B}_{o}, \mathbf{C}_{o}, \mathbf{D}_{o}, \mathbf{C} \#$ 1. Set  $\mathbf{v}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow v_{av} \mathbf{S}_{av} \mathbf{S}_{v} \mathbf{S}_{bv} \mathbf{S}_{bv}$ 2. Set  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}$  (Qo)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{Q}_{v}$  (Qo has  $v_{m} + 1$  blocks of  $\mathbf{CA}^{i}$  of p tows.) 3. Set  $\mathbf{S}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{Q}_{o} \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{o}$ 4. Set  $\mathbf{T}_{o}$  (C#)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{C} \#$ 5. Set  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{T}_{o}^{-1}$  (STR)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{av} \mathbf{B}_{o}, \mathbf{C}_{o}$ 6. Set  $\mathbf{D} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}_{o}$ 

The quantity  $\epsilon$  is a sufficiently small positive number used as "machine zero." The algorithm C#, Step 4, determines the "degree of admissibility of the set r by calculating C#, the ratio of the smallest to the largest singular value of  $T_{e^*}$  (C# is the inverse of the "condition number" of  $T_{e^*}$ ). For more details on MIMO observability forms see Section 3.3.4.

## 4.1.2 General State Space to Controllable Form

This algorithm transforms a general form  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  to a controllabil-

ity (PCF) form  $R_c = \{A_c, B_c, C_c, D_c\}$  based on an admissible set  $\mu$  of PCI.

$$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(SSRc) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{e}, \mathbf{B}_{e}, \mathbf{C}_{e}, \mathbf{D}_{e}, \mathbf{C} \boldsymbol{\theta}$$
1. Set  $\boldsymbol{\mu} (SMat) \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\mu}_{m}, \mathbf{S}_{a}, \mathbf{S}_{n}, \mathbf{S}_{a}, \mathbf{S}_{a}$ 
2. Set  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} (Qc) \Rightarrow \mathbf{Q}_{e}$  ( $\mathbf{Q}_{e}$  has  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{m} + 1$  blocks  $\mathbf{A}^{t}\mathbf{B}$  of  $m$  columns.)  
3. Set  $\mathbf{Q}_{e}, \mathbf{S}_{a} \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{e}$ 
4. Set  $\mathbf{T}_{e} (C\boldsymbol{\theta}) \Rightarrow C\boldsymbol{\tilde{\pi}}$ 
5. Set  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{T}_{e} (STR) \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{e}, \mathbf{B}_{e}, \mathbf{C}_{e}$ 
6. Set  $\mathbf{D} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}$ .

Note that SSRc is the dual algorithm to SSRo. However, due to different sets  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  used, representations  $R_c$  and  $R_o$  obtained by these algorithms are not dual to each other in the sense of the definition given in Section 3.2.2. For more details on MIMO controllability forms see Section 3.3.

# 4.1.3 State Space to Transfer Function

This algorithm transforms a general form  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  to a transfer function matrix  $G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$  using Leverrier's algorithm. The two versions of this conversion are explained in Section 1.3.9. Recall the symbolic notations

A, B, C, D(LALG) - d, W,, W

and

A, B, C, D(SSTF) = d, W

where W is a  $[pm \times (n+1)]$  matrix in a PMF, see Eq.(G6) in the Glossary.

#### 4.1.4 State Space to Markov Parameters

This algorithm transforms a general form  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  to a set of Markov parameters. The Markov parameters for a D-T system may be described as the matrix response sequence of the system, initially at rest, to a collection of unit pulses of excitation. Thus, given a state space model

$$\mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{A} \, \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{B} \, \mathbf{u}(k)$$
,  $\mathbf{x}(0)$   
 $\mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{C} \, \mathbf{x}(k) + \mathbf{D} \, \mathbf{u}(k)$ 
(4.1)

with  $\mathbf{x}(0) = 0$ , and  $\mathbf{u}(k) \Rightarrow \delta(k)\mathbf{I}_{n}$ ,  $(\delta(k) = 1 \text{ if } k = 0$ , otherwise  $\delta(k) = 0$ ):

Chapter 4 Intermodel Conversion

$$\mathbf{H}(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{A}^{k-i-1} \mathbf{B} \,\delta(i) + \mathbf{D} \,\delta(k) \tag{4.2}$$

The first few terms of this characteristic sequence are easily calculated to be

$$H(k) = \{D, CB, CAB, CA^2B, CA^3B, \dots\}$$
 (4.3)

These matrix elements are the Markov parameters of the system in Eq.(4.1). For convenience we will express the Markov parameters  $H_4$  by a polynomial matrix in  $z^4$ , i.e.

$$H(z^{-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathbf{H}_{i} z^{-1}$$
(4.4)

where  $H_0 = D$  and  $H_i = C A^{i1} B$ , for  $i = [1, \infty]$ .

The reason for using Eq.(4.4) is that it may be shown that the transfer function matrix G(z) may be expressed by:

$$G(z) = H(z^{-1})$$
 (4.5)

It may be verified that if all eigenvalues of A are within unit circle, i.e. if

$$|\lambda(A)| < 1$$
 (4.6)

then  $\|\mathbf{H}_{M,1}\| << 1$  for a sufficiently large finite  $M < \infty$ .

If Eq.(4.6) holds, the polynomial matrix  $H(z^3)$  could formally be represented by:

$$H(z^{-1}) \triangleq \{h_{ij}(z^{-1})\} = I_p(z^{-1}) \mathbf{H}_p = \mathbf{H}_p I_m^T(z^{-1})$$
(4.7)

where

$$I_{p}(z^{-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{p} & \mathbf{I}_{p}z^{-1} & -\mathbf{I}_{p}z^{-M+1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$I_{m}(z^{-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} & \mathbf{I}_{m}z^{-1} & -\mathbf{I}_{m}z^{-M+1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{H}_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{0} & \mathbf{H}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{H}_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{0} \\ \mathbf{H}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{H}_{M-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

For more details on this notation, see the Glossary of Symbols.

If Eq. (4.6) does not hold, then instead of using the original representations R, a "time scaling" could be performed, which amounts to dividing **A** and **B** by a scalar f satisfying:

146

 $f > \max |\lambda(A)|$ 

In other words, a "time scaled" system representation R, should be used where:

$$R_{f} = \{ A|f, B|f, C, D \}$$
 (4.8)

After performing a desired model conversion, the obtained model should, of course, be "time scaled" back by the same used scalar f.

Using Eq.(4.4) the following algorithm is suggested:

Syntax: A, B, C, D, M (SSH)  $\Rightarrow$  H,  $h_{H}$ 1. Set A,B (Qc)  $\Rightarrow$  Q<sub>c</sub> (Q<sub>c</sub> has M-1 blocks A<sup>i</sup>B of m columns.) 2. Set [D | C Q<sub>c</sub>]  $\Rightarrow$  H<sub>c</sub> 3. Set  $||H_{H-1}|| \Rightarrow h_{H}$ 4. Set H<sub>c</sub>, m (PMFr)  $\Rightarrow$  H

The matrix H is a  $[pm \times M]$  matrix in a PMF whose rows contain the first M coefficients of the (M-1)st order polynomials  $h_a(z^1)$  in  $z^{-1}$  defined by:

$$H(z^{-1}) = \{h_i(z^{-1})\}$$

For more details on the PMF see the Glossary of Symbols. Algorithm PMFr is a polynomial "service" algorithm which transforms a  $[p \times Mm]$  matrix H, Eq.(4.7), into the PMF, i.e. into the  $[pm \times M]$  matrix H whose rows contain the coefficients of the polynomials  $h_a(z^1)$  of  $H(z^1)$ .

Using the duality principle, Algorithm SSH could also be implemented by:

1. Set A, C (Qo) = Q<sub>a</sub> (Q<sub>a</sub> has M-1 blocks CA<sup>i</sup> of p rows.) 2. Set  $[D^{T} | (Q_{a}B)^{T}]^{T} \Rightarrow H_{c}$ 3. Set  $||H_{M_{1}}|| \Rightarrow h_{M}$ 4. Set  $H_{c,p}(PMFc) \Rightarrow H$ 

Again, PMFc is a "service" algorithm that transforms H<sub>c</sub> into H in the PMF. The reason for using Markov parameters as a "system model" is that Markov parameters are a convenient vehicle for intermodel conversions between different system models.

# 4.1.5 Continuous-Time State Space Response

This algorithm calculates the output response of a general C-T state space model  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$ , given the initial state vector and samples of the input signals. The calculations are based on the assumption that the input signals are linearly interpolated between samples.

A general algorithm for simulating C-T systems is given in Section 1.3.5.

Syntax:  $A,B,C,D,x(0),u,T(CDSR) \Rightarrow y$ 

# 4.1.6 Discrete-Time State Space Response

This algorithm calculates the output response of a general D-T state space model  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$ , given the initial state vector and the sequence values of the input signals. The general algorithm capable of simulating D-T systems is given in Section 1.3.5.

Syntax: A,B,C,D,x(0),u,0 (CDSR)  $\Rightarrow$  y

Note that in order to specify that the response of a D-T model is sought, the 7<sup>th</sup> input argument should be set to zero or any negative number.

# 4.1.7 Observable State Space to MFD Model

This algorithm converts an observable form  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$  to a left coprime column-reduced MFD,  $D(z)^{-1}N(z)$ . Of course, this algorithm can equally well be applied to a C-T state model to obtain the corresponding MFD representation. The algorithm furnishes a monic D(z) in the sense of Definition 3.6, given in Chapter 3. Several of the intermodel conversions discussed in this chapter are based on the relationship between the state space model in a POF and a corresponding left coprime MFD. For this reason we will establish this relationship here and then discuss individual algorithms as they arise.

To this end, consider the order-n system with m-inputs and p-outputs:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}(t+1) &= \mathbf{A}_{a}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{a}\mathbf{u}(t) \\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{C}_{a}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D}_{a}\mathbf{u}(t) \end{aligned} \tag{4.9}$$

where t is used as an integer time index and  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$  is in a POF corresponding to a set of admissible POI,  $v = \{v_i\}$ . From Eq.(4.9) we may write

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}(t) \\ \mathbf{y}(t+1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}(t+r) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{s} \\ \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{A}_{s} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{A}_{s}^{r} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{o} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{B}_{s} & \mathbf{D}_{o} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{A}_{o}^{r-1}\mathbf{B}_{o} & \cdots & \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{A}_{o}\mathbf{B}_{o} & \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{B}_{s} & \mathbf{D}_{o} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(t) \\ \mathbf{u}(t+1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}(t+r) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(4.10)$$

148

Now we let  $r = v_{\infty} = \max\{v_i\}$ . Clearly, Eq.(4.10) holds for any t = [0, N-r] and can be rewritten as

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{Q}_{ab} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{u}_t \tag{4.11}$$

where  $y_i$  and  $u_i$  are  $(v_m+1)p$  and  $(v_m+1)m$  dimensional columns containing the output and input vectors y(t+j) and u(t+j),  $j = [0, v_m]$ . The matrix  $\mathbf{Q}_{oo}$  is the observability matrix of the pair  $\{\mathbf{A}_o, \mathbf{C}_o\}$ , while **H** is the  $(r+1)p \times (r+1)m$  lower block triangular matrix containing along the main diagonal the  $(p \times m)$  blocks  $\mathbf{D}_a$ . The other nonzero blocks of **H** are the  $p \times m$  dimensional Markov parameters:

$$C_{\rho}A_{\rho}^{j}B_{\rho}$$
, for  $j = [0, v_{m}-1]$  (4.12)

Our goal is to eliminate from Eq. (4.10) the x(t) terms, thereby obtaining an expression which relates the sampled data to the elements in  $R_{er}$ 

Equation (4.10) can be considered to represent  $(\nu_m+1)p$  scalar equations in the samples

$$y_{ij} = y_i(t+j)$$
 (4.13)

i.e. the  $i^{a}$  component of the output vector  $\mathbf{y}(t+j)$ , i=[1, p],  $j=[0, v_{n}]$ . In Section 3.4.3 it was shown that  $\mathbf{Q}_{\infty}$  has *n* rows of the identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}_{n}$  and *p* rows that correspond to the rows of  $\mathbf{A}_{\mu}$  with non-zero/non-unity elements. Furthermore, the location of these rows are determined by the selector vectors  $\mathbf{v}_{b}$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{bb}$ , respectively.

Premultiplying Eq.(4.11) by the selector matrices  $S_k^T$  and  $S_k^T$  defined by Eq.(3.79), we obtain, respectively,

$$y_{1t} = x(t) + H_1 u_t$$
, and  $y_{2t} = A_r x(t) + H_2 u_t$  (4.14)

where

$$\mathbf{y}_{1t} = \mathbf{S}_{ti}^T \mathbf{y}_t , \ \mathbf{y}_{2t} = \mathbf{S}_{td}^T \mathbf{y}_t \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{H}_1 = \mathbf{S}_{ti}^T \mathbf{H} \ , \ \mathbf{H}_2 = \mathbf{S}_{td}^T \mathbf{H}$$

Eliminating x(t) from Eq.(4.14),

$$\mathbf{y}_{2t} = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{H}_2 - \mathbf{A}_t, \mathbf{H}_1) & \mathbf{A}_t \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_t \\ \mathbf{y}_{1t} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.15)

The matrix  $A_r$  in Eqs.(4.14) and (4.15) is a  $(p \times n)$  matrix containing the rows of  $A_o$  with non-zero non-unity elements, whose locations in  $A_o$  are specified by the selector vector  $v_a$ . Equation (4.15) may be expressed in a more concise form by

Chapter 4 Intermodel Conversion

$$\mathbf{y}_{2k} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{r} & \mathbf{A}_{r} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_{k} \tag{4.16}$$

where  $N_r = H_2 - A_r H_1$  is a  $p \times (\nu_m + 1)m$  matrix and  $z_t$  is an h-dimensional vector containing  $\mathbf{u}_i$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{1i}$ , where  $h = (\nu_m + 1)m + n$ . Equation (4.16) is referred to as the *identification identity* since it relates input-output data samples arranged into columns  $\mathbf{y}_{2i}$  and  $\mathbf{z}_i$  to parameters of the state space representation  $R_s$ , i.e. in the matrices  $\mathbf{A}_o$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_o$  and  $\mathbf{D}_o$ . The *identification identity* is the basis for conversions between input/output data and either state space or MFD models.

For the purpose of Algorithm RoDN, to be introduced here, Eq.(4.16) may be rewritten as

$$y_{22} - A_{1}y_{12} = N_{1}u_{2}$$
 (4.17)

Note that Eq.(4.17) is a time-domain input/output expression. Applying the ztransform and taking into account the arrangements of the samples  $u_i(t+j)$  and  $y_i(t+j)$  in the vectors  $\mathbf{u}_i$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_{1i}$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{2i}$ , we obtain:

$$D(z) y(z) = N(z) u(z)$$
 (4.18)

which is a left coprime MFD. Since in Eq.(4.17) the *p* dimensional vector  $y_{2i}$  is multiplied by the identity matrix  $I_{pi}$ , it may be concluded that D(z) in Eq.(4.18) is monic. For further details see Section 3.4 and Eq.(3.104). Thus, in order to obtain the  $[p \times (\nu_m + 1)p]$  matrix  $D_{pi}$ , which leads directly to D(z), it is first necessary to obtain the matrix  $A_p$ . From the discussion in Section 3.3.4 it is clear that  $A_p$  may be obtained from  $A_p$  in a POF by:

$$S_a^T \Lambda_a \rightarrow \Lambda_c$$
 (4.19)

where S<sub>e</sub> is one of the selector matrices uniquely defined by the particular set of admissible POI v and generated by Algorithm SMat:

$$\mathfrak{p}(SMat) \Rightarrow \mathfrak{p}_{\mu}, S_{\mu}, S_{\mu}, S_{\mu}, S_{\mu}$$

Then the matrix D, becomes

$$\mathbf{S}_{ld}^{T} - \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{S}_{li}^{T} = \mathbf{D}_{r} \tag{4.20}$$

For more details see Section 3.3.4.

In order to obtain the corresponding N(z) in the left coprime pair  $\{D(z), N(z)\}$ , recall that:

$$G(z) = D^{-1}(z) N(z)$$

Thus, using G(z) = W(z)/d(z) and  $D^{-1}(z) = T(z)/d(z)$ , where  $T(z) = \operatorname{adj} D(z)$ ,  $d(z) = \operatorname{det}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_o) = \operatorname{det}\{D(z)\}$  and  $W(z) = \operatorname{C} \operatorname{adj}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_o)\mathbf{B} + d(z)\mathbf{D}$ , the above equation may be expressed by:

$$W(z) = T(z) N(z)$$
 (4.21)

150

Section 4.1 Conversions from a State Space Model

leading to: 
$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{T}_{i-j} \mathbf{N}_{j} = \mathbf{W}_{i}, \text{ for } i = [1,n]$$

(with  $N_j = 0$  for j > k, where  $k = \nu_m$ ) which may be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_{0} & & \\ & \mathbf{T}_{0} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{T}_{n} & \cdots & \mathbf{T}_{n-k} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{W}_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.22)

where  $T_i$ ,  $N_i$  and  $W_i$  are corresponding real number submatrices in the polynomial matrices T(z), N(z) and W(z).

From the above discussion it is not difficult to conclude that given  $R_o$  and the associated set  $\nu$ , the following algorithm will calculate the corresponding left coprime MFD  $\{D(z), N(z)\}$ .

Syntax: 
$$A_{\nu}, B_{\nu}, C_{\nu}, D_{\nu}, \nu (RaDN) \Rightarrow D, N$$
  
1. Set  $\nu$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \nu_{n}, S_{\nu}, S_{\nu}, S_{\nu}, S_{\nu}$   
2. Set  $S_{\nu}^{T}, A_{\nu} \Rightarrow A_{\nu}$   
3. Set  $S_{\nu}^{T} - A_{\nu}, S_{\nu}^{T} \Rightarrow D_{\nu}$   
4. Set  $D_{r,\nu}p \ (PMFr) \Rightarrow D$   
5. Set adj  $D(z) \Rightarrow T(z)$   
6. Set  $A_{\nu}, B_{\nu}, C_{\nu}, D_{\nu} (SSTF) \Rightarrow d_{\nu} W$   
7. From  $T(z)$  and W, ( $T_{\nu}$  and  $W_{\nu}$ ) build Eq.(4.22) and solve for N,  
8. Set  $N_{\nu,\nu}p \ (PMFc) \Rightarrow N$ 

As was mentioned earlier, the Algorithm *PMFr* used in Step 4 is a polynomial matrix "service" algorithm which simply transforms **D**, into the PMF, i.e. into the  $[p^2 \times (\nu_n+1)]$  matrix **D** whose rows contain coefficients of the polynomials  $d_q(z)$  of D(z). From Eq.(4.22) it is clear that the submatrices **N**<sub>i</sub> are in the form of **N**<sub>i</sub>, i.e.

$$\mathbf{N}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$

This is why the service algorithm PMFc must be used in Step 8.

From the discussion in Section 3.4, as well as from the above algorithm, it may be concluded that the column degrees  $\{n_i\}$  of the monic D(z) of the left coprime MFD  $\{D(z), N(z)\}$  are equal to the POI used, i.e.  $\{n_i\} = \{v_i\} = v$ .

#### Example:

The purpose of this example is to emphasize the relationships between a given  $A_o$  in a POF and  $D_i(z)$  of the corresponding left coprime MFD  $\{D_i(z), N_i(z)\}$ , where  $D_i(z)$  is monic and column-reduced with column degrees  $\{n_i\}$  equal to the set of POI  $r = \{r_i\}$  used in building  $A_r$  (in a POF):

$$A_{a}$$
 (POI = {1,3}):

$$\mathbf{A}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} -2.000 & .002 & .003 & .001 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1.000 & -5.001 & -9.001 & -5.000 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^{T} = \mathbf{v}_{a}$$
$$\mathbf{A}_{ar} = \begin{bmatrix} -2.000 & .002 & .003 & .001 \\ 1.000 & -5.001 & -9.001 & -5.000 \end{bmatrix}$$

where at the right of  $A_o$  is a selector vector  $v_o$  specifying the non-zero/non-unity rows of  $A_o$  which are used to form the matrix  $A_{or}$ .

D<sub>b</sub> (column degrees {1,3}):

	2.000	002	1	003	0	001	0	0]
D <sub>le</sub> =	-1.000	5.001	0	9.001	0	5.000	0	1
<b>v</b> <sub>II</sub> =	1 ]	1	0	1	0	1	0	0]

where the selector vector  $v_{\mu}$  marks the non-zero/non-unity columns of  $D_{\mu}$ . When only these columns are selected,  $D_{\mu}$  is formed:

$$\mathbf{D}_{le} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.000 & -.002 & -.003 & -.001 \\ -1.000 & 5.001 & 9.001 & 5.000 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that  $\mathbf{A}_{sr} = -\mathbf{D}_{s}$ . The corresponding polynomial matrix  $D_i(z)$  can be constructed from  $\mathbf{D}_{ir} = [\mathbf{D}_{0} \ \mathbf{D}_{1} \ \mathbf{D}_{2} \ \mathbf{D}_{3}]$  where  $\{\mathbf{D}_{i}\}$  are 2×2 partitions associated with the coefficients of  $s^{i}$ . Thus,

#### Section 4.1 Conversions from a State Space Model

$$D_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 2.000 + 1s & -.002 - .003s - .001s^{2} \\ -1.000 & 5.001 + 9.001s + 5.000s^{2} + 1s^{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

The selector vectors corresponding to  $\{v_i\} = \{n_i\} = \{1,3\}$  are:

v_ = [1	0	0	1]				
v, - [ 0	1	1	0]				
v <sub>ii</sub> = [1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0]
v <sub>id</sub> = [0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1]

To formalize these ideas, we define the following:

**Remark 4.1** For a given system the total number of *equivalent left* coprime MFDs with column reduced and monic D(z), having column degrees  $\{n_i\}$ , is equal to the total number of POFs based on admissible sets of POI  $\{v_i\}$ . Thus, it may be said that there is a one-to-one correspondence between a POF and associated left coprime MFD satisfying:

$$\{v_i\} = \{n_i\}$$

## 4.1.8 Controllable State Space to MFD Model

This algorithm converts a controllable form  $R_c = \{A_c, B_c, C_c, D_c\}$  to a right coprime row-reduced MFD,  $N(z)D^{-1}(z)$ . As with the previous case, this algorithm can be applied to a C-T state model to obtain the corresponding MFD representation. This algorithm is dual to Algorithm *RoDN*. Thus, it may be easily verified that given  $R_c$  in a PCF, based on an admissible set of PCI  $\mu$ , the following algorithm calculates a corresponding right coprime  $\{N(z), D(z)\}$  where D(z) is row-reduced and monic, satisfying:

$$G(z) = C_{c} (zI - A_{c})^{-1} B_{c} + D_{c} = N(z) D^{-1}(z)$$
(4.23)

Syntax: 
$$A_{i}, B_{i}, C_{i}, D_{i}, \mu (RcND) \Rightarrow N, D$$

with the basic steps:

1. Set  $\mu$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \mu_{\alpha}, S_{\alpha}, S_{\lambda}, S_{\lambda}, S_{\lambda}$ 2. Set  $A_{\alpha}S_{\alpha} \Rightarrow A_{\alpha}$ 

3. Set  $S_{ii} \cdot S_b A_{cr} \Rightarrow D_{rr}$
- 4. Set  $D_{rc}$ ,  $m (PMFc) \Rightarrow D$
- 5. Set adj  $D(z) \Rightarrow T(z)$
- 6. Set  $A_c$ ,  $B_c$ ,  $C_c$ ,  $D_r$  (SSTF)  $\Rightarrow$  d, W 7. From T(z) and W, ( $T_i$  and  $N_c$ ) build Eq.(4.25) and solve for N,
- 8. Set N<sub>.</sub>,  $m (PMFr) \Rightarrow N$

Now,  $A_{ee}$  in Step 2 is an  $(n \times m)$  matrix containing m columns from  $A_e$  with nonzero and non-unity elements, see Eq. (3.66), while  $D_m$  is a  $[(\mu_m + 1)m \times m]$  matrix containing  $(m \times m)$  submatrices D<sub>i</sub> of D(z). The structure of D<sub>m</sub> is dual to that of D, shown in Eq.(3.104).

Similarly, by duality, instead of Eq.(4.21) we have now

$$W(z) = N(z) T(z)$$
 (4.24)

leading to:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{N}_{j} \mathbf{T}_{i=j} = \mathbf{W}_{i} , \text{ for } i = [1,n]$$

(with  $N_i = 0$  for j > k) which may be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_0 & \cdots & \mathbf{N}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_0 & \cdots & \mathbf{T}_n \\ \ddots & \vdots \\ & \mathbf{T}_0 & \cdots & \mathbf{T}_{n-k} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_0 & \cdots & \mathbf{W}_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.25)$$

where  $k = \mu_{w}$  while T<sub>i</sub>, N<sub>i</sub> and W<sub>i</sub> are corresponding real number submatrices in the polynomial matrices T(z), N(z) and W(z).

From Eq.(4.25) it is clear that submatrices N, are in the form of N, i.e.

$$\mathbf{N}_{r} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$

This is why the service algorithm PMFr has to be used in Step 8. It is important to again note that the row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  of D(z) equal the PCI, i.e.  $\{n_i\} = \{\mu_i\} =$ a. As in the previous section an example will be used to illustrate these results.

#### Example:

Consider the relationships between a given A, in a PCF and  $D_{1}(z)$  of the corresponding right coprime transfer function  $\{N_i(z), D_i(z)\}$ , where  $D_i(z)$  is monic and row-reduced with row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  equal to the set of PCI  $\mu = \{\mu_i\}$  used in building A, (in a PCF):

A, (PCI =  $\{1,2,1\}$ );

154

$$\mathbf{A}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} -.999 & 0 & .000 & 1.000 \\ -.003 & 0 & 1.000 & -5.002 \\ .000 & 0 & -2.000 & .000 \\ -.001 & 1 & .000 & -4.001 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{v}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The selector vector  $v_e$  specifies the non-zero/non-unity columns of  $A_e$ . These are collected to form  $A_{e}$ :

$$\mathbf{A}_{ee} = \begin{bmatrix} -.999 & .000 & 1.000 \\ -.003 & 1.000 & -5.002 \\ .000 & 2.000 & .000 \\ -.001 & .000 & -4.001 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix  $D_{ii}$  containing the submatrices  $D_{ii}$ , i=[0,k], of D(z) is:

			.999	.000	-1.000		[1]	T
			.003	-1.000	5.002		1	
			.000	2.000	.000		1	
8	e 1				2222			
ì	Do		1	0	0		0	
Dre =	D,	=	.001	.000	4.001	13	1	= <b>v</b> <sub>17</sub>
	D <sub>2</sub>		0	1	0		0	
<u> </u>	100	۰.,						
			0	0	0		0	
			0	0	1		0	
			0	0	0		0	

Note that the selector vector  $\mathbf{v}_n$  marks the non-zero/non-unity rows of  $\mathbf{D}_n$ . When these rows are collected into a matrix  $\mathbf{D}_n$ , it is clear that  $\mathbf{D}_n = -\mathbf{A}_n$ . As in the previous section  $D_n(s)$  can be formed, this time from the coefficients in  $\mathbf{D}_n$ . Thus,

$$\boldsymbol{D}_{j}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} .999 + 1s & .000 & -1.000 \\ .003 + .001s & -1.000 & 5.002 + 4.001s + 1s^{2} \\ .000 & 2.000 + 1s & .000 \end{bmatrix}$$

The selector vectors corresponding to  $\{\mu_i\} = \{n_i\} = \{1, 2, 1\}$  are:

As in Remark 4.1 we would like to formalize the ideas for this dual case:

**Remark 4.2** For a given system the total number of equivalent right coprime MFDs with row reduced and monic D(z), having row degrees  $\{n_i\}$ , is equal to the total number of PCFs based on admissible sets of PCI  $\{\mu_i\}$ . Thus, it may be said that there is a one-to-one correspondence between a PCF and associated right coprime MFD satisfying:

$$\{\mu_i\} = \{\pi_i\}$$

# 4.2 Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix

Beginning with a transfer function matrix model, we may want to convert it to a state space form; three useful versions of this conversion will be discussed in this section. In addition, calculations of the system response as well as the Markov parameters are presented. At the end of this section a novel approach to minimal realization will be given.

# 4.2.1 Transfer Function to State Space Model

This algorithm transforms a transfer function matrix  $G(s) = C(sI - A)^{4}B + D$  to a specific state space form  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$ . The conversion into state space is a minimal realization, i.e. the state space model is of minimum order. The options include conversion into a Hessenberg form, a Kalman decomposition or a Jordan form, which will be explained in detail. The above mentioned minimal realization procedures require as input arguments a non-minimal (uncontrollable or unobservable or both uncontrollable and unobservable) state space representation  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$ . Therefore, the model conversion:

156

### Section 4.2 Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix

will be performed in the following two steps.

 Conversion from transfer function matrix G(z) = W(z)/d(z) into a nonminimal representation R = {A, B, C, D}, i.e.

 $TF \Rightarrow R$ 

 Minimal realization procedure, i.e. conversion from R into a minimal representation R<sub>n</sub> = {A<sub>n</sub>, B<sub>n</sub>, C<sub>n</sub>, D}, i.e.

 $R \Rightarrow R_{a}$ 

Note that in  $R_m$  the direct through matrix **D** is unchanged. Therefore, in our minimal realization procedures we will consider only the strictly proper part of the system, i.e. only matrices **A**, **B** and **C**. Also, we will assume that the given transfer function  $\tilde{G}(z)$  is "strictly" proper, i.e. that polynomial matrix  $\tilde{W}(z)$  and polynomial d(z) satisfy:

$$\frac{\tilde{W}(z)}{d(z)} = C_m (z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_m)^{-1} \mathbf{B}_m, \text{ or } \tilde{W}(z) = C_m \operatorname{adj}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_m) \mathbf{B}_m \quad (4.26)$$

Of course, the non-strictly proper transfer function matrix G(z) is related to  $\hat{G}(z)$ by:  $G(z) = \hat{G}(z) + \mathbf{D}$ . It is worth mentioning at this point that the "extraction" of the strictly proper part  $\hat{G}(z)$ , or  $\hat{W}(z)$  from a given non-strictly proper transfer function matrix G(z) = W(z)/d(z) may be performed by a simple procedure symbolically represented by:

$$d, W(ExD) \Rightarrow W, D$$

The implementation of this procedure is based on the following equations:

$$W(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} W_i z^i$$
,  $D = W_n$ ,  $\tilde{W}(z) = W(z) - \sum_{i=0}^{n} d_i z^i D$ 

Obviously, since  $d_n = 1$ , all polynomials in  $\tilde{W}(z)$  are of up to  $(n-1)^n$  order. Thus, the transfer function matrix  $\tilde{G}(z) = \tilde{W}(z)/d(z)$  is strictly proper.

The easiest way of performing the conversion  $TF \Rightarrow R$  is to build either:

- (1) -a controllable, but not necessarily observable, representation R<sub>1</sub> = {A<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>}, or
- (2) -an observable, but not necessarily controllable, representation R<sub>2</sub> = {A<sub>2</sub>, B<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>}

It may be shown that the following two representations  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  with *m* inputs and *p* outputs of orders *nm* and *np*, respectively, where *n* is the order of the characteristic polynomial d(z), each have a transfer function matrix equal to the given strictly

proper matrix  $\tilde{G}(z) = \tilde{W}(z)/d(z)$ . To facilitate the understanding of the process of building these representations, a generic example of a system with m = 2 and p = 3 is considered. Generalization to different values of m and p is straightforward.

### Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix to a (Non-Minimal) State Space Representation: $TF \Rightarrow R$

Here we will consider building non-minimal state space representations from a given strictly proper transfer function matrix G(z) = W(z)/d(z) of a MIMO system. In the case of an  $n^{th}$  order MIMO system with m=2 and p=3, the  $(pm \times n)$ matrix W in the PMF has a structure

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{11} \\ \mathbf{w}_{21} \\ \mathbf{w}_{31} \\ ---- \\ \mathbf{w}_{12} \\ \mathbf{w}_{22} \\ \mathbf{w}_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $w_{ij}$  is an *n*-dimensional row containing *n* coefficients defining the  $(n-1)^{*}$  order polynomial  $w_{ij}(z)$  in  $W(z) = \{w_{ij}(z)\}$ . The first *n* coefficients  $d_{ij}$ , i=[0,n-1], from d(z) are arranged in the *n* dimensional row *n*.

A controllable, but not necessarily observable, representation  $R_1 = \{A_1, B_1, C_1\}$  is:

$$A_1 = \text{diag}\{A_1\}, B_1 = \text{diag}\{b_1\} \text{ m times:}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{c} \\ \mathbf{A}_{c} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_{c} \\ \mathbf{b}_{c} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{C}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} \\ w_{31} & w_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.27)

where  $A_1$  is  $nm \times nm$ ,  $B_1$  is  $nm \times m$  and  $C_1$  is  $p \times nm$ .  $\{A_c, b_c\}$  in Eq.(4.27) is

#### Section 4.2 Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix

a controllable pair from the SISO feedback canonical form, Eq. (3.13). Recall that  $A_c$  contains in its last row the row -a consisting of the coefficients  $d_i$  of d(z). All n roots of d(z), or the n eigenvalues of  $A_c$ , appear in  $A_1$  as multiple eigenvalues with multiplicity m. The  $nm^{a}$  order representation  $R_1$  is controllable, but if m > 1, it is unobservable. The number of unobservable modes is equal to (m-1)n.

Similarly, an observable, but not necessarily controllable, representation  $R_2 = \{A_2, B_2, C_2\}$  has the dual structure:

$$A_2 = \text{diag}\{A_o\}$$
,  $C_2 = \text{diag}\{c_o\}$  p times:

$$\mathbf{A}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{o} \\ \mathbf{A}_{o} \\ \mathbf{A}_{o} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{11}^{T} & \mathbf{w}_{12}^{T} \\ \mathbf{w}_{21}^{T} & \mathbf{w}_{22}^{T} \\ \mathbf{w}_{31}^{T} & \mathbf{w}_{32}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{C}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_{o} \\ \mathbf{c}_{o} \\ \mathbf{c}_{o} \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.28)$$

where  $A_2$  is  $np \times np$ ,  $B_2$  is  $np \times m$  and  $C_2$  is  $p \times np$ .  $\{A_e, c_e\}$  in Eq.(4.28) is an observable pair from the SISO observable canonical form, Eq.(3.18). All *n* roots of d(z), or the *n* eigenvalues of  $A_e$ , appear in  $A_2$  as multiple eigenvalues with multiplicity *p*. The  $np^{\text{th}}$  order representation  $R_2$  is observable, but if p > 1, it is uncontrollable. The number of uncontrollable modes is equal to (p-1)n.

The construction of these representations will be represented by the algorithms:

and

 $d_* W (TRcn) \Rightarrow A_1, B_1, C_1$  $d_* W (TRon) \Rightarrow A_2, B_2, C_2$ 

where  $R_1 = \{A_1, B_1, C_1\}$  corresponds to  $R_1$ , while  $R_2 = \{A_2, B_2, C_2\}$  is equal to  $R_2$  given above. Note that when m < p, it is more convenient to use Algorithm *TRcn*, since then the order of matrix  $A_1$  in  $R_1$  is smaller than that of  $A_2$  in  $R_2$ .

### Conversions from a Non-Minimal State Space Representation to a Minimal State Space Representation: $TF \Rightarrow R$

As far as the minimal realization procedures are concerned, it will suffice to mention here that the following algorithms are available:

159

A, B, C, 
$$\epsilon$$
 (MIN)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>n</sub>, B<sub>n</sub>, C<sub>n</sub>  
A, B, C,  $\epsilon$  (KALD)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>n</sub>, B<sub>n</sub>, C<sub>n</sub>  
A, B, C,  $\epsilon$  (JFOR)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>n</sub>, B<sub>n</sub>, C<sub>n</sub>

i.e., performing the conversion  $R \Rightarrow R_n$  using a Hessenberg, Kalman decomposition or a Jordan form approach, respectively. Detailed descriptions of these approaches are given in Appendix B. Minimal representations obtained by these approaches are not necessarily in a canonical form. So, if a specific procedure requires a model in POF or PCF, then, of course, either *SSRc* or *SSRo* should subsequently be used.

# Examples

As an illustration of using the above mentioned minimal realization algorithms, consider the following SISO, strictly proper, uncontrollable and unobservable model  $R = \{A, B, C\}$ .

75	1.00	.21	01	.38	03	.07	.37	1	.99
-1.08	-1.24	09	.03	.10	.00	.28	.04	1	.81
.03	07	98	.06	.32	.23	.38	.30	1	.82
18	10	08	-2.06	.07	.06	04	51	1	.79
.16	.11	.01	.19	-1.89	.92	.40	10	1	04
15	28	20	23	-1.34	-2.11	41	65	1	49
05	.09	.52	.54	.23	.02	-1.12	2.59	1	09
.06	14	14	46	44	38	-2.05	-2.82	1	27
								-1-	
1.59	1.05	.28	1.54	1.57	1.32	.58	,42	1	0

The representation R has been obtained from the "auxiliary"  $\hat{R} = {\{\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}\}}$  where:

-1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
-1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	-2	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	-2	1	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	-1	-2	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	-2	2	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	-2	-2	T	0
								- -	- 27
1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0

by the similarity tansformation

 $\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}, \tilde{C}, T (STR) \Rightarrow A, B, C$ 

where T was a "random"  $(n \times n)$  similarity transformation matrix.

The Jordan form minimal representation  $R_{\infty}$  has been obtained by first transforming R into the Jordan form  $R_r = \{A_r, B_r, C_r\}$ . This was done by a similarity transformation: **A**, **B**, **C**, **M** (STR)  $\Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>1</sub>, **B**<sub>2</sub>, **C**<sub>2</sub> (4.29) where the  $(n \times n)$  similarity transformation matrix **M**, sometimes referred to as the modal matrix, contains eigenvectors associated with all n eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  of **A**, i.e. the columns of **M** = [**m**<sub>1</sub> ... **m**<sub>n</sub>] satisfy

$$(\lambda_i \mathbf{I}_i - \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{m}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

i.e.  $\mathbf{m}_i$  is in the null space of  $\mathbf{B}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_i$ 

Using Eq.(4.29), the representation  $R_j$  becomes:

-2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
-2	-2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	-2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	-1	-2	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	-2	0	0	0	1	.54
0	0	0	0	0	-1	1	0	1	95
0	0	0	0	0	-1	-1	0	1	-1.20
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	1	.86
								- -	
0	0	33	-1.35	-1.82	~.80	-1.02	0	1	0

Obviously, the first four modes in  $R_j$  are uncontrollable, since the corresponding elements in the vector  $\mathbf{B}_j$  are equal to zero. Similarly (dually) the modes with indices 1, 2 and 8 are unobservable. In order to extract from  $R_j$  the minimal part, i.e. the modes which are both controllable and observable, the following selector vector  $\mathbf{v} = \{v_i\}$  has been generated:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

The elements v, are calculated by:

$$v_i = 1$$
 if  $b_i c_i > \epsilon$ , otherwise  $v_i = 0$ .

Finally, the minimal representation  $R_{lm}$  obtained using the Jordan form approach is:

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{J}\mathbf{W}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2.0 & .0 & .0 \\ .0 & -1.0 & 1.0 \\ .0 & -1.0 & -1.0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{J}\mathbf{m}} = \begin{bmatrix} .547 \\ -.953 \\ -1.205 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{J}\mathbf{m}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.829 & -.807 & -1.021 \end{bmatrix}$$

The sequence of algorithms is:

$$v (DSM) \Rightarrow S$$
  
 $S^T A_j S \Rightarrow A_{jn}$   
 $S^T B_j \Rightarrow B_{jn}$   
 $C_j S \Rightarrow C_{jn}$ 

The selector matrix S has dimension (8  $\times$  3) containing the 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> columns of I<sub>8</sub>. A service algorithm, *DSM*, (Define Selector Matrix), is used to generate the matrix S.

The Kalman decomposition procedure generates the minimal representation  $R_{En} = \{A_{En}, B_{En}, C_{En}\}$ :

	-2.01	.10	11		-1.03	
A	22	92	1.28	B <sub>Km</sub> =	.09	
	.09	77	-1.06	3	1.29	
C =	-1.23	.24	1.33 ]			

This was obtained by the following algorithm:

A, B, C, 
$$\epsilon$$
 (KalD)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>En</sub>, B<sub>Kn</sub>, C<sub>En</sub>

As is explained in Appendix B, the Kalman decomposition procedure decomposes the state space into four subspaces, namely;

#### Section 4.2 Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix

- Controllable and unobservable C-00 Controllable and observable
- C-0 10-00
- Uncontrollable and unobservable and Uncontrollable and observable
- nc-o

The dimensions of these subspaces in our example are given below:

nc-no c-no C-0 nc-o 1 3 2 2

The dimensions as well as the modes belonging to these subspaces may be checked by considering the obtained Jordan form.

The Hessenberg minimal realization  $R_{Ha} = \{A_{Ha}, B_{Ha}, C_{Ha}\}$  for our example is:

	-1.30	44	.73	1	1.60
A <sub>#m</sub> -	1.20	-1.03	.37	B <sub>Em</sub> =	.0
	.00	64	-1.67	CREAN	.0
C <sub>Ha</sub> =	1.88	05	24 ]		

This was obtained by the following algorithm:

A, B, C, 
$$\epsilon$$
 (MIN)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>the</sub>, B<sub>the</sub>, C<sub>the</sub>

Of course, all of the above three representationas are controllable and observable and have the same transfer function matrix.

#### Transfer Function to Markov Parameters 4.2.2

This algorithm calculates the Markov parameters from a transfer function matrix  $G(z) = C(zI - A)^{4}B + D$ . It is based on the obvious equation:

$$G(z) = \frac{W(z)}{d(z)} = H(z^{-1})$$

which using

$$W(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} W_i z^i$$
,  $d(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} d_i z^i$ ,  $H(z^{-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} H_i z^{-1}$ 

may be reduced to:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} d_{n \sim j} H_{i \sim j} = W_{n-i} \text{ for } i = [0, n] \text{ and }$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} d_{n-j} H_{i-j} = 0 \text{ for } i = [n+1,\infty]$$
(4.30)

Since, by definition,  $d_n = 1$ , Eq.(4.30) leads to the following recursive expressions permitting calculation of  $\mathbf{H}_j$ , j = [0, M-1], for an arbitrary finite M, given  $d_i$  and  $\mathbf{W}_j$ , l = [0, n]:

1. Set 
$$W_n \Rightarrow H_0$$

2. Set 
$$W_{n-i} - \sum_{j=0}^{i} d_{n-j} H_{i-j} \to H_i$$
 for  $i = [1, n]$ 

3. Set 
$$-\sum_{j=0}^{n} d_{n-j} H_{i-j} \rightarrow H_i$$
 for  $i = [n+1, M-1]$ 

These recursive expressions are implemented by Algorithm TFH having the syntax:

d, W, M (TFH) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 H,  $h_{\mu}$ 

#### Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients d<sub>i</sub>.
- W is a [(pm × (n+1)] matrix in PMF. Rows of W contain coefficients of the polynomials w<sub>0</sub>(z) in W(z).
- M is scalar specifying the number of Markov parameters H<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,M-1], to be calculated.
- H is a [pm × M] matrix in PMF. Rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>0</sub>(z<sup>-1</sup>) in H(z<sup>-1</sup>).
- h<sub>M</sub> is a scalar equal to || H<sub>M-1</sub> ||, where H<sub>M-1</sub> is the last Markov parameter calculated.

The reason for calcuating the quantity  $h_M$  will be explained later. See the Glossary for the particular matrix norm used. As was mentioned earlier, if all the roots of d(z) are within the unit circle and if the scalar M is sufficiently large so that

$$h_{\mu} << 1$$
 (4.31)

then, coefficients in the matrix  $\tilde{H}(z^{-1})$ , representing the truncated polynomial matrix:

$$\tilde{H}(z^{-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} H_i z^{-1} = \{h(z^{-1})\}$$

with sufficient accuracy satisfy:

$$\hat{H}(z^{-1}) = H(z^{-1}) = G(z)$$

164

It is worth mentioning that if Eq. (4.31) holds, Eqs.(4.30) may be represented either by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} D_{0} \\ D_{0} \\ \vdots \\ D_{0} \\ \vdots \\ D_{n} \\ \vdots \\ D_{n} \\ \vdots \\ D_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ W_{0} \\ W_{1} \\ \vdots \\ W_{n} \end{bmatrix}, \quad D_{i} = I_{p}d_{i}$$
(4.32)

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} H_0 & \cdots & \tilde{D}_n \\ & \tilde{D}_0 & \cdots & \tilde{D}_n \\ & & \tilde{D}_0 & \cdots & \tilde{D}_n \\ & & & & & \\ \tilde{D}_0 & \cdots & \tilde{D}_n & & \\ & & & & & \\ \tilde{D}_0 & \cdots & \tilde{D}_n & & \\ & & & & & \\ \end{array} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & W_0 & \cdots & W_n \end{bmatrix}$$
where  $\tilde{D}_n = L \cdot d_n$ 

The forms of Eqs. (4.32) could also be used for calculating  $H_i$ , given  $d_i$  and  $W_i$ .

# 4.2.3 Continuous-Time Transfer Function Response

This algorithm calculates the zero-state response of a general C-T transfer function matrix  $G(s) = W(s)/d(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$ , given the samples of the input signals. The calculations are based on the assumption that the input signals are linearly interpolated between samples. The syntax of the algorithm is:

d, W, u, T (CDTR) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 y

Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients d<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,n] of d(s).
- W is a [pm × (n+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>it</sub> of polynomials w<sub>0</sub>(s) in W(s).
- u is an (m × N) matrix containing N samples of the m-dimensional input vector u(t).
- T is total simulation time in seconds.

 y is a (p × N) matrix containing N samples of the C-T system response.

The calculation is performed using a 4<sup>th</sup> order Runge-Kutta method. Since no prediction or correction is made, for sufficient accuracy the number of samples N should satisfy:

$$N > 5T |\lambda_{max}|$$

where  $\lambda_{max}$  is the maximum root of the denominator d(s). The multi-input case is treated by summing the responses of *m* single-input multi-output subsystems. It is fair to say that better accuracy in simulating C-T systems is offered by *CDSR* discussed in 4.1.5, which calculates the response of systems defined in state space.

# 4.2.4 Discrete-Time Transfer Function Response

This algorithm calculates the zero-state response of a general D-T transfer function matrix  $G(z) = W(z)/d(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D$ , given the samples of the input signals. The syntax of the algorithm is:

$$d, W, u, 0 (CDTR) \Rightarrow y$$

Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients d<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,n] of d(z).
- W is a [pm × (n+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>a</sub> of polynomials w<sub>a</sub>(z) in W(z).
- u is an (m × N) matrix containing N samples of the m-dimensional input vector u(t).
- y is a (p × N) matrix containing N samples of the D-T system response.

The multi-imput case is treated by summing the responses of *m* single-input multi-output subsystems. The execution time for the calculation of D-T system responses using this algorithm is slightly longer than that of the Algorithm *CDSR*, Section 4.1.6, although the accuracy in the case of D-T systems is the same.

Note that, formally, the same algorithm is used in simulating C-T and D-T systems. The only difference is in the fourth input argument. If the fourth argument is zero or negative, then the arrays d and W are interpreted by the algorithm to describe a D-T system transfer function matrix. Otherwise, as is the case in simulating C-T systems, the fourth argument contains the total simulation time interval.

# 4.2.5 Transfer Function to Left Coprime MFD

This algorithm calculates a left coprime MFD  $\{D(z), N(z)\}$  from a transfer function G(z) = W(z)/d(z). It is based on:

$$G(z) = \frac{W(z)}{d(z)} = D^{-1}(z)N(z)$$

which may be rewritten as

$$N(z)\tilde{D}(z) - D(z)W(z) = 0$$
, where  $\tilde{D}(z) = I_{m}d(z)$  (4.33)

Using

$$D(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} D_{i} z^{i} , \quad N(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} N_{i} z^{i} , \quad d(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} d_{i} z^{i} , \quad W(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} W_{i} z^{i}$$

Eq.(4.33) may be represented by

which, for short, will be expressed by:

$$[N_{r} | D_{r}]T_{k} = 0$$
 (4.34)

N<sub>r</sub> and D<sub>r</sub> in Eq.(4.34) are  $p \times (k+1)m$  and  $p \times (k+1)p$  matrices, respectively, containing N<sub>i</sub> and D<sub>i</sub>, while T<sub>k</sub> is a  $[(k+1)(p+m) \times m(n+k+1)]$  matrix consisting of known submatrices  $\tilde{D}_i$  and W<sub>i</sub>.

Since in this algorithm the matrix  $T_t$  is given, the unknown matrices N<sub>r</sub> and D<sub>r</sub>, defining D(z) and N(z) are to be determined from the Null space of  $T_t^T$ . Also, the integer k must be determined. Recall that we are looking for a monic D(z) whose matrix D<sub>r</sub> has the properties discussed in Section 3.4, i.e. it has:

- n columns with non-zero, non-unity elements
- p columns of the identity matrix Ip
- kp-n columns of zeros

Similarly, as is the case in some other algorithms to be discussed later, it may be shown that for a sufficiently large k the row rank of  $T_k$  is given by:

rank 
$$[T_k] = (k+1)m + n$$
  
 $n = \operatorname{rank} [T_k] - (k+1)m$  (4.35)

leading to

The integer *n* in Eq.(4.35) is the order of the polynomial given by det{ D(z) }, where, of course, D(z) is a monic column-reduced polynomial matrix to be determined. It is worth mentioning that if the given W(z) and d(z) are obtained from  $C(zI-A)^{-1}B + D = W(z)/d(z)$ , where  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  is a minimal state space representation of order *n*, then:

$$d(z) = \det(zI - A) = \det\{D(z)\}$$

Thus, in this algorithm it is first necessary to build the matrix T<sub>t</sub> and then to determine the smallest integer k satisfying Eq.(4.35). Note that the integer k defines the maximum value of the column degrees  $\{n_i\}, k = \max\{n_i\}, by$  which D(z) is to be represented. From the structure of the matrix T<sub>s</sub> it may be concluded that since  $D_{k} = I_{k}d_{k}$ , with  $d_{k} = 1$ , the first (k+1)m rows in  $T_{k}$  are linearly independent and that among the remaining (k+1)p rows of T<sub>i</sub> there are only n additional linearly independent rows. Recall that in discussing Algorithm RoDN, Section 4.1.7, it was established that a set of column degrees of D(z) is equal to a corresponding set of admissible POI. Thus, it may be concluded here that the total number of sets of n linearly independent rows from the "lower" part of T<sub>k</sub> is equal to the total number of admissible sets of POI, i.e. to the total number of "admissible" sets of column degrees by which a monic column reduced D(z) may be represented. Thus, from the structure of the matrix D,, Eq.(3.104), it follows that any selection of n rows from the above mentioned (k+1)p rows of T<sub>k</sub>, made in accordance with the selector vector v<sub>s</sub>, generated by an admissible set of POI, would yield n rows which are linearly independent with respect to the first (k+1)m rows in T<sub>i</sub>. Let this selection be represented by:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_{ij}^T \mathbf{T}_{k} = \mathbf{H}_{i} \qquad (4.36)$$

where the selector matrix  $\tilde{S}_{ll}$  selects into  $H_l$  all (k+1)m+n linearly independent rows. The matrix  $\tilde{S}_{ll}$  may be interpreted as the selector matrix generated by an auxiliary selector vector  $\tilde{v}_{ll}$  given by:

$$\widehat{\mathbf{v}}_{ll} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ (k+1)m \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\mathbf{v}_{ll}}_{(k+1)p}$$
(4.37)

i.e. obtained by concatenating a row vector containing (k+1)m unities and the

168

### Section 4.2 Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix

vector  $\mathbf{v}_{i}$  generated by an admissible set of POI, i. e. a corresponding set {  $n_i$  }. In order to determine the matrix  $\mathbf{N}_r$  and the non-zero non-unity columns in  $\mathbf{D}_r$ , Eq.(4.34), denoted in Section 4.1.7, Eq.(4.17), by  $-\mathbf{A}_r$ , a selector matrix  $\mathbf{\tilde{S}}_{id}$  should be generated using another auxiliary vector  $\mathbf{\tilde{v}}_{id}$  defined by:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{id} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & | & \mathbf{v}_{id} \\ (k+1)m & & (k+1)p \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.38)

Recall that the vectors  $v_{\mu}$  and  $v_{\mu}$  used in Eqs.(4.37) and (4.38) have *n* and *p* unities, respectively, while all their other elements are equal to zero. These vectors are generated by the set {  $n_i$  }. Then, using:

the desired matrices N, and -A, may be calculated by solving the following system of linear algebraic equations:

$$[\mathbf{N}_r \mid -\mathbf{A}_r]\mathbf{H}_1 = -\mathbf{H}_2 \tag{4.39}$$

Having determined matrices N, and  $-A_r$ , the desired polynomial matrices D(z)and N(z) may be obtained using Eq.(4.20) given in Algorithm RoDN, i.e.

$$\mathbf{S}_{ld}^T - \mathbf{A}_r \mathbf{S}_{ll}^T \rightarrow \mathbf{D}_r$$

and, finally, N<sub>e</sub>, m (PMFr)  $\Rightarrow$  N(z) and D<sub>e</sub>, p (PMFr)  $\Rightarrow$  D(z).

The algorithm may be considerably simplified if we know in advance the system order n, i.e. an "admissible" set of column degrees  $\{n_i\}$ . Then, it is sufficient to determine k, build the matrix  $T_k$  and proceed with Eq.(4.36). Details are given in the algorithm formulation.

Thus, the following algorithm, permitting calculation of a left coprime MFD  $\{ D(z), N(z) \}$  with D(z) monic and column-reduced, given a transfer function matrix G(z), i.e. a  $(p \times m)$  polynomial matrix W(z) and a characteristic polynomial d(z), may be suggested.

### Syntax: $d, W, \epsilon, n_d (TFDN) \Rightarrow D, N, n, C#$

#### Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients of d(z).
- W is a [pm × n+1] matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>in</sub> of the polynomials w<sub>i</sub>(z) in H(z).
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations.
- n<sub>d</sub> = { n<sub>i</sub> } is the set of "desired" column degrees by which D(z)

169

is to be represented. If  $n_a$  is not known, any scalar, e.g.  $\epsilon$ , may be used as the fourth argument.

- D is a [p<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>sh</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>d</sub>(z) in D(z).
- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>bb</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>0</sub>(z) in N(z).
- n is the set of column degrees of D(z).
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set of column degrees of D(z).

### Algorithm:

- 1. Set W (Alt)  $\Rightarrow$  W<sub>c</sub>, W<sub>c</sub>, I<sub>a</sub>d<sub>i</sub>  $\Rightarrow$   $\tilde{D}_i$
- If n<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build T<sub>k</sub>, set n<sub>d</sub> ⇒ { n<sub>l</sub> }, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_a$
- 4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- 5. Build  $T_{i}$ , in Eq.(4.34), and set rank $(T_{i}) km \Rightarrow n$
- If n = n<sub>o</sub> go to 7; else, set n ⇒ n<sub>o</sub> and go to 4
- From T<sub>k</sub> determine the unique column degrees, i.e. T<sub>k</sub> (IND) ⇒ {n<sub>i</sub>}
- Define an appropriate set of column degrees {n,}
- 9. Set  $\{n_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $n_{in}$ ,  $S_{in}$ ,  $S_{il}$ ,  $S_{il}$ ,  $S_{il}$ ,  $S_{il}$
- Using S<sub>k</sub>, S<sub>M</sub> and k, define Š<sub>B</sub> and Š<sub>M</sub>, Eqs. (4.37)-(4.38)

11. Set 
$$\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{li}^{T}\mathbf{T}_{l} \Rightarrow \mathbf{H}_{1}$$
 and  $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{lid}^{T}\mathbf{T}_{l} \Rightarrow \mathbf{H}_{2}$ 

- Calculate the admissibility degree of H<sub>1</sub>, i.e. H<sub>1</sub> (C#) ⇒ C#
- 13. If C# is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 14
- 14. Solve  $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{H}_1 = -\mathbf{H}_2$  for  $\mathbf{X}$ , where  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{N}_r \mid -\mathbf{A}_r]$
- 15. Set  $S_{\mu}^{T} \cdot A_{\mu}S_{\mu}^{T} \Rightarrow D_{\mu}$
- 16. Set  $D_{r,p}(PMFr) \Rightarrow D$  and  $N_{r,m}(PMFr) \Rightarrow N$

The polynomial matrix "service" algorithm Alt used in Step 1 rearranges elements in the PMF W into the "alternate" forms  $W_c$  and  $W_r$ , given by Eq.(4.7). The Algorithm *IND*, in Step 7, determines the unique observability indices, i.e. column degrees of D(z), by detecting the first linearly independent rows in  $T_1$ . Note that in this case by detecting the first (k+1)m + n linearly independent rows in  $T_k$ , Algorithm *IND* first determines the auxiliary selector vector  $\tilde{v}_{tt}$ , Eq.(4.37), which is later partitioned into (k+1)m unities and the selector vector  $v_k$  which leads directly to the unique column degrees (or observability indices  $\nu_k$ ). The admissibility degree algorithm (*C#*) in Step 12 defines *C#* as the ratio of the smallest to the largest singular value of  $H_1^T$ .

# 4.2.6 Transfer Function to Right Coprime MFD

Although this algorithm is dual to TFDN, it will be briefly stated here. The algorithm is based on:

$$G(z) = \frac{W(z)}{d(z)} = N(z) D^{-1}(z)$$

which may be expressed as

$$\tilde{D}(z)N(z) - W(z)D(z) = 0$$
, where  $\tilde{D}(z) = I_p d(z)$  (4.40)

Eq.(4.40) may also be represented by:

which, for short, will be expressed by:

$$\mathbf{T}_{k}\begin{bmatrix}\mathbf{N}_{c}\\---\\\mathbf{D}_{c}\end{bmatrix}=\mathbf{0}$$
(4.42)

The relationships between the symbols in Eqs.(4.41) and (4.42) should be clear.

Therefore, according to the duality principle, the first linearly independent columns of  $T_k$  give information about the set of row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  which are equal to the unique controllability indices  $\mu_v$  of the corresponding state space representation. Consequently, by postmultiplying  $T_k$  by a selector matrix  $\tilde{S}_{ii}$ , corresponding to an auxiliary selector vector  $\hat{v}_{ii}$ , defined in the dual sense by Eq.(4.37), a full column rank matrix is obtained, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{T}_k \mathbf{S}_{ll} = \mathbf{H}_1$$

Similarly, by postmultiplying  $T_i$  by the selector matrix  $\tilde{S}_{id}$ , dual to Eq.(4.38), *m* columns are selected from  $T_i$  which are linearly dependent on the columns of  $H_i$ . In other words:

$$\mathbf{H}_{1}\begin{bmatrix}\mathbf{N}_{c}\\----\\-\mathbf{A}_{cc}\end{bmatrix} = -\mathbf{H}_{2}, \text{ where } \mathbf{H}_{2} = \mathbf{T}_{k}\mathbf{\tilde{S}}_{ld}$$
(4.43)

From Section 4.1.8 it may be concluded that all *n* rows of the matrix  $-A_{nv}$  in Eq.(4.43) correspond to *n* non-zero non-unity rows in  $D_{c}$ , and also that the *m* columns of  $A_{cv}$  correspond to the *m* non-zero non-unity columns in the system matrix  $A_v$  in a PCF  $R_c$ , based on the admissible set of PCI  $\mu = \{\mu_i\}$  which are, in turn, equal to the row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  of the matrix D(z) that we are looking for in this algorithm.

Therefore, having -A<sub>ac</sub> from Eq.(4.43), the matrix D<sub>c</sub> may be calculated by:

$$S_{id} - S_{ii}A_{ee} \rightarrow D_{ei}$$

Finally, the desired polynomial matrices D(z) and N(z) may be obtained from  $D_e$ and  $N_e$  using the service algorithm *PMFc*.

Thus, the following algorithm, permitting calculation of a right coprime MFD { N(z), D(z) } with D(z) monic and row-reduced, given a transfer function matrix G(z), i.e. a  $(p \times m)$  polynomial matrix W(z) and a characteristic polynomial d(z), may be suggested.

Syntax:  $d, W, \epsilon, n_d (TFND) \Rightarrow N, D, n, C#$ 

#### Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients of d(z).
- W is a [pm × n+1] matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>a</sub> of the polynomials w<sub>a</sub>(z) in H(z).
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations
- n<sub>e</sub> = { n<sub>i</sub> } is the set of "desired" column degrees by which D(z) is to be represented. If n<sub>e</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. ε, may be used as the fourth argument.
- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>av</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>q</sub>(z) in N(z).
- D is a [m<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>ak</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>a</sub>(z) in D(z).
- n is the set of row degrees of D(z).
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set of row degrees of D(z).

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $W(Alt) \Rightarrow W_c, W_r, I_r d_i \Rightarrow \tilde{D}_i$
- If n<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build T<sub>k</sub>, set n<sub>d</sub> ⇒ { n<sub>i</sub> }, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_{o}$

4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$ 

5. Build T<sub>2</sub>, Eq.(4.42), and set rank( T<sub>2</sub>) -  $kp \Rightarrow n$ 

6. If  $n = n_o$  go to 7; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_o$  and go to 4

7. From  $T_k$  determine the unique row degrees, i.e.  $T_k$  (IND)  $\Rightarrow \{n_i\}$ 

8. Define an appropriate set of row degrees {n;}

9. Set  $\{n_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow n_m$ ,  $S_a$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_k$ ,  $S_k$ 

10. Using S<sub>k</sub>, S<sub>k</sub> and k, define S<sub>11</sub> and S<sub>14</sub>, Eqs. (4.37)-(4.38)

11. Set  $T_k \tilde{S}_{li} \Rightarrow H_1$  and  $T_k \tilde{S}_{ld} \Rightarrow H_2$ 

12. Calculate the degree of admissibility of  $H_1$ , i.e.  $H_1(C#) \Rightarrow C#$ 

13. If C# is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 14

14. Solve  $\mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{H}_2$  for  $\mathbf{X}$ , where  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{N}_c^T | -\mathbf{A}_{cc}^T]^T$ 

15. Set  $S_{\mu} - S_{\mu}A_{\alpha} \Rightarrow D_{c}$ 

16. Set  $D_{cr}m (PMFc) \Rightarrow D$  and  $N_{cr}p (PMFc) \Rightarrow N$ 

The service algorithms Alt, IND and C# were explained in the previous section.

# 4.2.7 Transfer Function to State Space Forms

In this section the Algorithms TFRo and TFRc will be formulated. Since they are obtained by slight modifications of Algorithms TFDN and TFND, respectively, the algorithms will be given directly. The necessary modifications will be discussed following the formal algorithm presentation.

It is worthwhile to compare these algorithms with the "classical" minimal realization procedures, discussed in Section 4.2.1. The main advantage of the *TFRo* and *TFRc* algorithms is that they do not require a non-minimal state space representation; but, instead, directly use the given W(z) and d(z), which considerably simplifies the computational aspect. Taking into account the sizes of the matrices involved, it may be concluded that *TFRo* should be used when m < p. In this sense, Algorithms *TFRo* and *TFRc* may be considered as "novel" approaches to minimal realization of MIMO systems.

Syntax:  $d, W, \epsilon, \nu_d (TFRo) \Rightarrow R_\nu = A_\mu, B_\rho, C_\rho, D_\rho, \nu, C#$ 

Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients of d(z)
- W is a [pm × n+1] matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>in</sub> of the polynomials w<sub>i</sub>(z) in H(z)
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations
- \$\nu\_d\$ = {\$\nu\_i\$} is an admissible set of POI. If \$\nu\_d\$ is not known, any scalar, e.g. \$\nu\$, may be used as the fourth argument
- R<sub>a</sub> = {A<sub>a</sub>, B<sub>a</sub>, C<sub>a</sub>, D<sub>a</sub>}, state space model in a POF

v is an admissible set of POI corresponding to R<sub>o</sub>

C# is the degree of admissibility of the set #

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Set W (Alt) = W<sub>e</sub>, W<sub>e</sub>,  $I_{s}d_{i} \Rightarrow \tilde{D}_{i}$
- If n<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build T<sub>k</sub>, set n<sub>d</sub> ⇒ { n<sub>i</sub> }, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_{e}$
- 4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- 5. Build  $T_k$ , Eq.(4.34), and set rank( $T_k$ )  $km \Rightarrow n$
- 6. If  $n = n_s$  go to 7; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_s$  and go to 4
- From T<sub>k</sub> find the unique column degrees, i.e. T<sub>k</sub> (IND) → {v<sub>k</sub>}
- Define an appropriate set of row degrees {v<sub>i</sub>}
- 9. Set  $\{v_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow v_n$ ,  $S_n$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_n$ ,  $S_{it}$
- Using S<sub>a</sub>, S<sub>u</sub> and k, define Š<sub>11</sub> and Š<sub>14</sub>, Eqs. (4.37)-(4.38)

11. Set 
$$\tilde{S}_{ii}^T T_i \Rightarrow H_1$$
 and  $\tilde{S}_{id}^T T_i \Rightarrow H_2$ 

- Calculate the degree of admissibility of H<sub>1</sub>, i.e. H<sub>1</sub> (C#) ⇒ C#
- If C# is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 14
- Solve X H<sub>1</sub> = -H<sub>2</sub> for X, where X = [N, | -A, ]

15. Partition 
$$\mathbf{I}_{s} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{s} \\ \mathbf{A} \end{bmatrix}$$
 ( $\mathbf{C}_{s}$  has p rows.)

16. Set 
$$SA_{+} + SA \Rightarrow A$$

- 17. Set N<sub>o</sub>  $m(R2C) \Rightarrow N_{o}$
- 18. Set  $A_a$ ,  $S_a(Qc) \Rightarrow Q_c$ ,  $Q_c$  has k+1 blocks  $\{A_a \mid S_a\}$  of p columns
- 19. Set  $Q_i N_i \Rightarrow B_i$
- 20. Partition W, → [Y | D, ], D, contains the last m columns of W,

The service algorithm R2C in Step 17 rearranges alternate form N, into N<sub>e</sub>. For details see Eq.(4.7). Matrices  $A_{re}$  and  $N_{re}$  used in Step 20 contain the first p and the first m columns from A, and N<sub>e</sub>, respectively.

Comparing Algorithms *TFDN* and *TFRo*, it may be concluded that the first 14 steps are exactly the same. Only the last 6 steps in *TFRo* differ from the last 2 steps in *TFDN*. This is a consequence of Remark 4.1 given in Section 4.1.7. As may be noted, these 6 last steps in *TFRo* actually calculate the matrices in  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$ . In the sequel a brief explanation of these steps will be given. Some of these steps may be obvious, while others may be verified by direct (straightforward) matrix calculation. It should be noted that these expressions will be used in several algorithms to be discussed later.

Step 15 defines the matrix  $C_e = [I_p \mid 0]$ , consisting of the first p rows of an  $(n \times n)$  identity matrix  $I_n$ , as well as the auxiliary  $[(n-p) \times n]$  matrix  $A_2$ containing the last n-p rows from  $I_n$ . Obviously: Section 4.3 Conversions from a Transfer Function Matrix

175

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{o} \\ \mathbf{A}_{2} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}_{a}$$
(4.44)

Step 16 defines A, as:

$$\mathbf{A}_{a} = \mathbf{S}_{i} \mathbf{A}_{2} + \mathbf{S}_{a} \mathbf{A}_{i}, \text{ where } \mathbf{A}_{i} = -\mathbf{D}_{i} \mathbf{S}_{ii}$$
(4.45)

which may be verified by considering the structure of the auxiliary matrix A<sub>2</sub> and selector matrices S<sub>2</sub>, S<sub>4</sub> and S<sub>2</sub> discussed in Section 3.3.4, Eq.(3.79).

Steps 17, 18 and 19 define the matrix B, by:

$$\mathbf{B}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{a} \mid \mathbf{A}_{a}\mathbf{S}_{a} \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{A}_{a}^{k}\mathbf{S}_{a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{0} \\ \mathbf{N}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ with } k = \max\{v_{i}\}$$

which is, in fact, a straightforward MIMO generalization of the procedure used in calculating the observability state space form of a SISO system given a transfer function g(s) = b(s)/a(s), described in Procedure 4 in Section 3.2.4.

Finally, the matrix D, in Step 20 is calculated by:

$$\mathbf{D}_{a} = \mathbf{C}_{a} \mathbf{A}_{a}^{-1} \mathbf{B}_{a} - \mathbf{A}_{ra}^{-1} \mathbf{N}_{a}$$
(4.46)

which is a direct consequence of:

$$\mathbf{D}_{s} = D^{-1}(z) N(z) - \mathbf{C}_{s} (z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{s})^{-1} \mathbf{B}_{s}$$
(4.47)

and the assumption that the matrices A<sub>p</sub> and A<sub>pp</sub> the first p columns from A<sub>p</sub>, are nonsingular, which is almost always the case in the case of discrete systems.

If it happens that  $A_{\nu}$  is singular, i.e. that the system has at least one pole at the origin, leading to a singular  $A_{\nu}$  as well, then  $D_{\nu}$  may be calculated by evaluating  $D_{\nu}$  using Eq.(4.47) for an arbitrary z not equal to a system pole. This calculation, for matrices  $D_{\nu}$  (and  $D_{\nu}$ ), is performed by Algorithms GeDo (and GeDc); both algorithms have L-A-S implementations listed in Appendix C.

Algorithm TFRc: Syntax:  $d, W, \epsilon, \mu_d (TFRc) \Rightarrow A_{c_1} B_{c_2} C_{c_2} D_{c_3} \mu, C_{t_3}^{#}$ 

# Input/Output Arguments:

- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients of d(z)
- W is a  $[pm \times n+1]$  matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients  $w_{in}$  of the polynomials  $w_i(z)$  in H(z)
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations
- $\mu_d = \{ \mu_i \}$  is an admissible set of PCI. If  $\mu_d$  is not known, any scalar, e.g. e, may be used as the fourth argument
- $R_e = \{A_e, B_e, C_e, D_e\}$ , state space model in a PCF
- $\mu$  is an admissible set of PCI corresponding to  $R_{e}$
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set µ

### Algorithm:

- Set  $W(Alt) \Rightarrow W_{e_1} W_{e_2} , I_{a}d_{a} \Rightarrow \tilde{D}_{a}$ 1.
- If  $\mu_d$  is specified, determine k, build  $T_i$ , set  $\mu_d \Rightarrow \{\mu_i\}$ , and go to 2. 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_a$
- 4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- Build  $T_k$ , Eq.(4.42), and set rank( $T_k$ )  $kp \Rightarrow n$ 5.
- If  $n = n_0$  go to 7; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_0$  and go to 4 6.
- From  $T_k$  determine the unique set of CI, i.e.  $T_k$  (IND)  $\Rightarrow$  { $\mu_i$ } 7.
- 8. Define an admissible set of PCI {µ<sub>d</sub>}
- Set  $\{\mu_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \mu_{av}$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_{ir}$ 9.
- Using Sa, Su and k, define Su and Sid, Eqs. (4.37)-(4.38) 10.
- 11. Set  $T_{k}S_{ii} \Rightarrow H_{1}$  and  $T_{k}S_{ii} \Rightarrow H_{2}$
- Calculate the degree of admissibility of  $H_1$ , i.e.  $H_1(C#) \Rightarrow C#$ 12.
- 13. If C# is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 14
- Solve  $\mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{H}_2$  for  $\mathbf{X}$ , where  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{N}_c^T | -\mathbf{A}_{cc}^T]^T$ 14.
- Partition  $I_a \Rightarrow [B_c | A_2]$  (B, has m columns.) 15.
- Set  $A_2S_1^T + A_2S_2^T \Rightarrow A_2$ 16.
- Set N<sub>e</sub>,  $p(C2R) \Rightarrow N_e$ 17.
- Set  $A_{a}$ ,  $S_{a}^{T}(Qo) \Rightarrow Q_{a}$  ( $Q_{a}$  has k+1 blocks { $S_{a}^{T}A_{a}^{T}$ } of m rows.) 18. 19.

Set 
$$N_r Q_a \Rightarrow C_e$$
 [ Y

20. Partition  $W_e \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \cdots \\ D_e \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $D_e$  contains the last p rows of  $W_e$ 

Again, the first 14 steps in Algorithms TFND and TFRc are exactly the same. Using the principle of duality, the last 6 steps of TFRc may be easily verified. For convenience and reference the equations defining the matrices in  $R_c = \{A_c, B_c, C_c, \}$ D.] will be given in the sequel:

$$\mathbf{I}_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{c} \mid \mathbf{A}_{2} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ or } \mathbf{B}_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{A}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{I}_{n-m} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{A}_{c} = \mathbf{A}_{2} \mathbf{S}_{t}^{T} + \mathbf{A}_{cc} \mathbf{S}_{a}^{T}, \text{ where } \mathbf{A}_{cc} = -\mathbf{S}_{tt}^{T} \mathbf{D}_{c}$$
$$\mathbf{C}_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{0} \mid \mathbf{N}_{1} \mid \cdots \mid \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{a}^{T} \\ \mathbf{S}_{a}^{T} \mathbf{A}_{c} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{S}_{a}^{T} \mathbf{A}_{c}^{k} \end{bmatrix}, k = \max{\{\mu_{t}\}}$$
(4.48)
$$\mathbf{D}_{c} = \mathbf{C}_{c} \mathbf{A}_{c}^{-1} \mathbf{B}_{c} - \mathbf{N}_{a} \mathbf{A}_{cca}^{-1}$$

where now  $A_{cno}$  consists of the first *m* rows from the  $(n \times m)$  matrix  $A_{cc}$ . Equations (4.48) are dual to Eqs.(4.44) - (4.47). For more details see Algorithm *RcND*, Remark 4.2 and the included example in Section 4.1.8.

# 4.3 Conversions from Markov Parameters

Given a set of Markov parameters, there are algorithms for calculating equivalent state space models (observable or controllable forms) as well as equivalent ARMA (MFD) models (left or right coprime forms). If it is desired to convert to a transfer function, it is recommended to use the state space representation or either left or right MFD as an intermediate stage, although there is an algorithm for direct conversion to a transfer function matrix.

There are several procedures for calculating state space models from a given set of Markov parameters. Some of them, known variations of the *Ho-Kalman* algorithm, eigensystem realization algorithm (ERA), etc. are mentioned in the endof-chapter references. Here, we will describe alternate procedures which take advantage of the flexibility offered by PCI and POI and, consequently, give state space representations in either PCF or POF. In addition, the procedures to be discussed here are less computationally "intensive" and more compatible with other intermodel conversions discussed in this chapter.

# 4.3.1 Markov Parameters to Observable State Form

This algorithm calculates an observable form state space model  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, \dots, B_o\}$ 

C<sub>a</sub>, D<sub>a</sub>} in a POF, based on an admissible set of POI from a corresponding set of Markov parameters.

To derive the algorithm *HRo*, consider a state space model  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$  in a POF, based on an admissible set of POI  $\nu = \{\nu_i\}$ . Then it is relatively easy to verify that the following relation holds:

$$\mathbf{Q}_{a}\mathbf{Q}_{c} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{1} & \mathbf{H}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k} \\ \mathbf{H}_{2} & \mathbf{H}_{3} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{H}_{k} & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{2k+1} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{H}[k]$$
(4.49)

where  $Q_o$  and  $Q_c$  are the observability and controllability matrices of the pairs  $\{A_o, C_o\}$  and  $\{A_a, B_a\}$ , respectivly, while  $H_i$ , i=[1,2k+1] are Markov parameters given by (4.3). The matrix H[k], Eq.(4.49) is referred to as the *Hankel matrix*. For simplicity of notation, let  $k = \nu_{max} = \max\{\nu_i\} = \mu_{max} = \max\{\mu_i\}$ . Since Markov parameters do not depend on the particular similarity transformation matrix used, they may also be expressed by:

$$\mathbf{H}_{i} = \mathbf{C}_{i} \mathbf{A}_{i}^{i-1} \mathbf{B}_{i}$$

Assuming that  $R_a$  is minimal, i.e. both controllable and observable, then

$$rank(Q_x) = rank(Q_x) = n \tag{4.50}$$

leading to:

$$rank(\mathbf{H}[k]) = n \tag{4.51}$$

From the definition of the unique observability indices  $r_a$ , Sec. 3.3.2, it may be concluded that the first linearly independent rows of H[k] in Eq.(4.49) determine these indices in exactly the same manner as these indices are determined from the rows of the observability matrix  $Q_a$ .

From Eq.(4.49) it may be concluded that:

$$\mathbf{Q}_{e} \mathbf{A}_{e} \mathbf{Q}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{2} & \mathbf{H}_{3} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{3} & \mathbf{H}_{4} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k+2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{H}_{k+1} & \mathbf{H}_{k+2} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{2k+2} \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \tilde{\mathbf{H}}[k]$$
(4.52)

Now, recall that in Chapter 3 for R<sub>o</sub> in a POF, it was stated that:

 Q<sub>n</sub> has n rows equal to all n rows of the identity matrix I<sub>n</sub>. The locations of these rows correspond to the locations of unities in the selector vector v<sub>h</sub>.

Thus, using the selector matrix, Sa, defined in Eq.(3.79), it may be concluded that:

$$S_{ij}^{T}Q_{a} = I_{a}$$
 (4.53)

Thus, premultipying H[k] and  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}[k]$  in Eqs.(4.49) and (4.52), respectively, with  $S_{k}^{T}$ , and using Eq.(4.53) yields:

$$\mathbf{A}_{o} \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{1} = \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{2}$$
 and  $\mathbf{Q}_{e} = \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{1}$   
where  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{1} = \mathbf{S}_{1i}^{T} \mathbf{H}[k]$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{2} = \mathbf{S}_{1i}^{T} \tilde{\mathbf{H}}[k]$  (4.54)

which, since  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_1$  is a full row rank matrix, may be used for calculating  $\mathbf{A}_{\sigma}$ . Also,  $\mathbf{B}_{\epsilon}$  may be obtained by taking the first *m* columns from  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_1$ . Finally, it is known that:

$$C_o = [I_p \quad 0]$$
 and  $D_o = H_0$ 

Thus, from Eqs.(4.49) - (4.54) the following algorithm may be formulated:

Syntax: H, 
$$\epsilon$$
,  $\nu_d$  (HRo)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>p</sub>, B<sub>o</sub>, C<sub>o</sub>, D<sub>p</sub>,  $\nu$ , C#

Input/Output Arguments:

- H is a (pm × M) matrix in PMF. The rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>a</sub>(z<sup>4</sup>) in H(z<sup>4</sup>).
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations.
- ν<sub>d</sub> = { ν<sub>i</sub> } is an admissible set of POI. If ν<sub>d</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. ε, may be used as the third argument.
- R<sub>o</sub> = {A<sub>o</sub>, B<sub>o</sub>, C<sub>o</sub>, D<sub>o</sub>}, a state space representation in a POF.
- r = { v<sub>1</sub> }, a set of admissible POI corresponding to R<sub>s</sub>.
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set p.

## Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $H(Alt) \Rightarrow H_{c}, H_{c}$
- If v<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build H[k], Eq.(4.49), set v<sub>d</sub> = {v<sub>d</sub>}, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_0$
- 4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- 5. Build H[k], Eq.(4.49), and set rank( H[k])  $\Rightarrow n$
- 6. If  $n = n_0$  go to 6; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_0$  and go to 4
- From H[k] determine the unique observability indices ν<sub>u</sub>, i.e. H[k] (IND) ⇒ ν<sub>u</sub>
- 8. Define an appropriate admissible set of POI »
- 9. Set  $\nu$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \nu_{a}$ ,  $S_{a}$ ,  $S_{b}$ ,  $S_{b}$ ,  $S_{b}$ ,  $S_{b}$
- 10. Partition H[k] ⇒ [ H[k] | X ], X has m columns

11. Parition  $\mathbf{H}[k] \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{\tilde{H}}[k] \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{H}[k] \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}[k] \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{bmatrix}$ ; **X** and **Y** have *p* rows 12. Set  $\mathbf{S}_n^T \mathbf{H}[k] \Rightarrow \mathbf{\tilde{H}}_1$  and  $\mathbf{S}_n^T \mathbf{\tilde{H}}[k] \Rightarrow \mathbf{\tilde{H}}_2$ 13. Calculate the degree of admissibility of  $\mathbf{\tilde{H}}_1$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{\tilde{H}}_1$  (*C#*)  $\Rightarrow$  *C#* 14. If *C#* is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 15 15. Solve  $\mathbf{A}_o \mathbf{\tilde{H}}_1 = \mathbf{\tilde{H}}_2$  for  $\mathbf{A}_o$ 16. Partition  $\mathbf{\tilde{H}}_1 \Rightarrow [\mathbf{B}_o \mid \mathbf{X}]$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_o$  has *m* columns 17. Set  $[\mathbf{I}_p \mid \mathbf{0}] \Rightarrow \mathbf{C}_o$ 18. Set  $\mathbf{H}_0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}_o$ 

Note that in Step 7 the loop "counter" k corresponds to  $\nu_m + 1$ . That is why it was

necessary in Steps 10 and 11 to extract H[k] and  $\hat{H}[k]$  as defined by Eqs.(4.49) and (4.52) for  $k = \nu_m$ . As was mentioned earlier, the "service" algorithm *Alt* used in Step 1 rearranges elements in H into the "alternate" forms  $H_e$  and  $H_e$ , given by Eq.(4.7). The algorithm *IND*, in Step 7, determines the unique observability indices  $\nu_n$  of  $R_o$  by detecting the first *n* linearly independent rows in H[k]. The algorithm *C#*, in Step 13 defines *C#* as the ratio of the smallest to the largest singular value of  $\hat{H}_e$ .

## 4.3.2 Markov Parameters to Controllable State Form

This algorithm calculates a controllable form  $R_e = \{A_e, B_e, C_e, D_e\}$  from a corresponding set of Markov parameters. To derive the algorithm *HRc*, consider a state space model  $R_e = \{A_e, B_e, C_e, D_e\}$  in a PCF, based on an admissible set of PCI  $\mu = \{\mu_e\}$ . Then, considering Eqs.(4.49) - (4.52), and applying the principle of duality, it may be stated for the controllability matrix  $Q_e$  of the pair  $\{A_e, B_e\}$  in a PCF that:

- Q<sub>c</sub> has n columns equal to all n columns of the identity matrix I<sub>n</sub>. The locations of these columns correspond to the locations of unities in the selector vector v<sub>n</sub> based on μ.
- Q<sub>c</sub> has m columns equal to all m columns of A<sub>c</sub> containing non-zero non-unity elements. Locations of these columns are determined by the selector vector v<sub>bb</sub>. The corresponding locations of these "parameter" columns in A<sub>c</sub> are specified by the selector vector v<sub>a</sub>.

See Section 3.3.4 for more details in the dual sense. Thus, using the selector matrix, S<sub>p</sub>, defined in Eq.(3.79), it may be concluded that:

$$Q_e S_{ii} = I_a$$
 (4.55)

Thus, postmultipying H[k] and  $\tilde{H}[k]$  in Eqs.(4.49) and (4.52), respectively, with  $S_k$ , and using Eq.(4.55), we obtain:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{1} \mathbf{A}_{e} = \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{2}$$
 and  $\mathbf{Q}_{s} = \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{1}$   
where  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{1} = \mathbf{H}[k] \mathbf{S}_{\mu}$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_{2} = \tilde{\mathbf{H}}[k] \mathbf{S}_{\mu}$ 

$$(4.56)$$

which, since  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}_{1}$  is a full column rank matrix, may be used for calculating  $\mathbf{A}_{e}$ . Also,  $\mathbf{C}_{e}$  may be obtained by taking the first *p* rows from  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}_{i}$ . Finally, it is known that:

$$\mathbf{B}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{n} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{D}_{e} = \mathbf{H}_{0}$$

Thus, the following algorithm may be formulated:

Syntax: H, e,  $\mu_d$  (HRc)  $\Rightarrow$  A, B, C, D,  $\mu$ , C#

Input/Output Arguments:

- H is a (pm × M) matrix in PMF. The rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>0</sub>(z<sup>-1</sup>) in H(z<sup>-1</sup>).
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations.
- μ<sub>d</sub> = { μ<sub>i</sub> } is an admissible set of PCI. If μ<sub>d</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. ε, may be used as the third argument.
- R<sub>c</sub> = {A<sub>c</sub>, B<sub>c</sub>, C<sub>c</sub>, D<sub>c</sub>}, a state space representation in a PCF.
- µ = { µ<sub>i</sub> }, a set of admissible PCI corresponding to R<sub>e</sub>.
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set μ.

Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $H(Alt) \Rightarrow H_c, H_c$
- If μ<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build H[k], Eq.(4.49), set μ<sub>d</sub> = {μ<sub>i</sub>}, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_0$
- 4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- 5. Build H[k], Eq.(4.49), and set rank( H[k])  $\Rightarrow n$
- 6. If  $n = n_0$  go to 6; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_0$  and go to 4
- From H[k] determine the unique controllability indices μ<sub>s</sub>, i.e. H[k] (IND) ⇒ μ<sub>u</sub>
- 8. Define an appropriate admissible set of PCI µ
- 9. Set  $\mu$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $\mu_{w}$ ,  $S_{a}$ ,  $S_{p}$ ,  $S_{b}$ ,  $S_{bt}$
- Partition H[k] ⇒ [H[k] | X], X has m columns

11. Partition 
$$\mathbf{H}[k] \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \hat{\mathbf{H}}[k] \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{H}[k] \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}[k] \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{bmatrix}$ ; **X** and **Y** have *p*  
rows  
12. Set  $\mathbf{H}[k]\mathbf{S}_{k} \Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{H}}_{1}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}[k]\mathbf{S}_{k} \Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{H}}_{2}$   
13. Calculate the degree of admissibility of  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}_{1}$ , i.e.  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}_{1}$  (*C#*)  $\Rightarrow$  *C#*  
14. If *C#* is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 15  
15. Solve  $\hat{\mathbf{H}}_{1}\mathbf{A}_{e} = \hat{\mathbf{H}}_{2}$  for  $\mathbf{A}_{e}$   
16. Partition  $\mathbf{H}_{1} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{e} \\ \mathbf{X} \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_{e}$  has *p* rows  
17. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{e}$   
18. Set  $\mathbf{H}_{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}_{e}$ 

For more details see Algorithm HRo in Section 4.3.1.

# 4.3.3 Markov Parameters to Left Coprime MFD

This algorithm calculates a left coprime column-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $D(z)^{-1}N(z)$ , from a corresponding set of Markov parameters. Of course, this algorithm can equally well be applied to a C-T state model to obtain the corresponding MFD representation. As in some previously discussed algorithms, this algorithm is based on:

$$G(z) = H(z^{-1}) = D^{-1}(z)N(z)$$

which using

$$D(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbf{D}_{i} z^{i} , \quad N(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbf{N}_{i} z^{i} , \quad H(z^{-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathbf{H}_{i} z^{-i}$$
(4.57)

may be reduced to:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} = \mathbf{N}_{k-i} \text{ for } i = [0,k] \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} = \mathbf{0} \text{ for } i = [k+1,\infty]$$
(4.58)

#### Section 4.3 Conversions from Markov Parameters

The important differences between Eqs.(4.58) and (4.30), see Section 4.2.2, are:

- D<sub>\*</sub> in Eq.(4.58) is not necessarily a full rank matrix, while I<sub>p</sub>d<sub>s</sub> in Eq.(4.32) is.
- The integer k in Eq.(4.58) is less than the system order n used in Eq.(4.32).

To be specific, the value of  $k = \max \{n_i\}, n_i$  being the column degrees of D(z), satisfies:

$$k \le n \cdot p + 1 \tag{4.59}$$

Equation (4.58) may also be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{0} \ \mathbf{D}_{1} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{D}_{k} \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{k+1} & \mathbf{H}_{k} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{k+2} & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{H}_{2k} & \mathbf{H}_{2k-1} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k} \\ \mathbf{H}_{2k+1} & \mathbf{H}_{2k} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$(4.60)$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_0 & \mathbf{D}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_0 & & & \\ \mathbf{H}_1 & \mathbf{H}_0 & & \\ & \cdots & \ddots & \\ \mathbf{H}_k & - & \mathbf{H}_1 & \mathbf{H}_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_0 & \mathbf{N}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{N}_k \end{bmatrix}$$

which, for short, will be expressed by:

$$D_{1}T_{2} = 0$$
 and  $D_{2}R_{2} = N_{2}$  (4.61)

respectively. The relationships between symbols in Eqs.(4.60) and (4.61) should be clear.

It is interesting to note that the matrix  $\mathbf{T}_{i}$  in Eqs.(4.60) and (4.61) contains the same Markov parameters  $\mathbf{H}_{i}$ , i = [1,2k+1], as the matrix  $\mathbf{H}[k]$  in Eq.(4.49), only arranged differently. Note that postmultiplying  $\mathbf{T}_{k}$  by the  $[(k+1)m \times (k+1)m]$ permutation matrix  $\mathbf{P}_{m}$ , given by:

$$\mathbf{P}_{m} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{I}_{m} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.62)

gives  $T_k P_m = H[k]$ . Therefore, as was stated in Section 4.3.1, the first linearly independent rows of  $T_k$  give the information about the unique observability indices  $r_n$  of the corresponding state space representation. Consequently, by premultiplying  $T_k$  by a selector matrix  $S_k^T$ , corresponding to a set of admissible POI, a full row rank matrix is obtained, i. e.:

$$S_n^T T_s = T_s$$

Similarly, by premultiplying  $T_k$  by the selector matrix  $S_{kl}^T$ , p rows are selected from  $T_k$  which are linearly dependent on the rows of  $T_1$ . In other words, Eq.(4.61) yields:

$$-A_{1}T_{1} + T_{2} = 0$$

leading to:

$$A_{1}T_{1} = T_{2}$$
, where  $T_{2} = S_{ld}^{T}T_{k}$  (4.63)

The  $[p \times n]$  matrix A, defines the above mentioned linear dependence.

On the other hand, note that we are looking for a monic column-reduced matrix D(z), whose structure was exemplified in Section 3.4, Eqs.(3.100) - (3.105). In discussing this generic example it was stated that the matrix  $D_r$ , appearing in Eqs.(4.60) and (4.61), contains:

- n columns with non-zero and non-unity elements
- p columns of the identity matrix I,
- kp-n columns of zeros

Combining all what was stated above and with the help of Remark 4.1 and Eqs.(4.17) - (4.20), Section 4.1.7, derived discussing Algorithm *RoDN*, it is not difficult to conclude that all *n* columns of the matrix **A**<sub>r</sub> in Eq.(4.17) correspond to *n* non-zero non-unity columns in **D**<sub>r</sub> multiplied by -1, and also that the *p* rows of **A**<sub>r</sub> correspond to *p* non-zero non-unity rows in the matrix **A**<sub>o</sub> in a POF, based on the admissible set of POI  $\nu = \{\nu_i\}$  which is equal to the set of column degrees  $\{n_i\}$  of the desired matrix D(z).

Having A, from Eq.(4.63), matrices D, and N, may be calculated by:

$$S_{ld}^{T} - \mathbf{A}, S_{ll}^{T} = \mathbf{D}, \\ \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{R}_{k} = \mathbf{N},$$

Finally, desired polynomial matrices D(z) and N(z) may be obtained from D, and N, using the service algorithm *PMFr*.

Thus, the following algorithm, permitting calculation of a left coprime MFD { D(z), N(z) } with D(z) monic and column reduced, given the Markov parameters  $H_{0}$ , i = [0, 2k+1], is suggested.

#### Section 4.3 Conversions from Markov Parameters

The total number of Markov parameters required is equal to 2k+2, with:

$$k = \max\{n_i\}$$

where  $\{n_i\}$  is a selected set of column degrees with which a desired D(z) is to be represented.

H, 
$$\epsilon$$
, n<sub>d</sub> (HDN)  $\Rightarrow$  D, N, n, C#

### Input/Output Arguments:

- H is a (pm × M) matrix in PMF. The rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>0</sub>(z<sup>1</sup>) in H(z<sup>1</sup>).
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations.
- n<sub>e</sub> = { n<sub>i</sub> } is an admissible set of column degrees. If n<sub>e</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. e, may be used as the third argument.
- D is a [p<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>yb</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>g</sub>(z) in D(z).
- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>in</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>s</sub>(z) in N(z).
- n is the set of column degrees of D(z).
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set of column degrees.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $H(Ait) \Rightarrow H_c, H_c$
- If n<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build T<sub>k</sub>, Eq.(4.61), set n<sub>d</sub> = {n<sub>i</sub>}, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_o$
- 4. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- 5. Build  $T_k$ , Eq.(4.61), and set rank( $T_k$ )  $\Rightarrow n$
- 6. If  $n = n_o$  go to 7; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_o$  and go to 4
- 7. From  $T_i$  determine the unique column degrees, i.e.  $T_i$  (IND)  $\Rightarrow \{n_i\}$
- 8. Define a desired set of column degrees  $\{n_i\}$
- 9. Set  $\{n_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $n_m$ ,  $S_e$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_k$
- 10. Set  $S_{\mu}^{p}T_{\mu} \Rightarrow T_{1}$  and  $S_{\mu}^{p}T_{\mu} \Rightarrow T_{2}$
- Calculate the degree of admissibility of T<sub>1</sub>, i.e. T<sub>1</sub> (C#) ⇒ C#
- 12. If C# is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 13
- 13. Solve  $A_rT_1 = T_2$  for  $A_r$
- 14. Set  $S_{\mu}^{T} A_{\mu}S_{\mu}^{T} \Rightarrow D_{\mu}$
- 15. Set  $D,R_1 \Rightarrow N_2$
- 16. Set D, (PMFr) ⇒ D and N, (PMFr) ⇒ N

The service algorithms Alt, IND and C# are explained under Algorithm TFDN, Section 4.2.5.

## 4.3.4 Markov Parameters to Right Coprime MFD

This algorithm calculates a right coprime row-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $N(z)D^{-1}(z)$ , from a corresponding set of Markov parameters. As with the previous case, this algorithm can be applied to a C-T state model to obtain the corresponding MFD representation. Although this algorithm is dual to HDN, it will be briefly stated here. The algorithm is based on:

$$G(z) = H(z^{-1}) = N(z)D^{-1}(z)$$
 (4.64)

which using Eq.(4.57) may be reduces to

$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} = \mathbf{N}_{k-i} \text{ for } i = [0,k] \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} = \mathbf{0} \text{ for } i = [k+1,\infty]$$
(4.65)

The comments stated after Eq.(4.58) apply here in the dual sense. Equation (4.65) may also be represented by:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{k+1} & \mathbf{H}_{k+2} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{2k+1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{k} & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{2k} \\ \cdots & \ddots & & & \\ \mathbf{H}_{2} & \mathbf{H}_{3} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k+2} \\ \mathbf{H}_{1} & \mathbf{H}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \end{vmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_0 & \mathbf{H}_1 & - & \mathbf{H}_k \\ & \mathbf{H}_0 & \vdots \\ & & & \mathbf{H}_1 \\ & & & & \mathbf{H}_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_0 \\ \mathbf{D}_1 \\ \vdots \\ & & & \mathbf{D}_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_0 \\ \mathbf{N}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{N}_k \end{bmatrix}$$

which, for short, will be expressed by:

$$\mathbf{T}_k \mathbf{D}_c = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{R}_k \mathbf{D}_c = \mathbf{N}_c \tag{4.67}$$

(4.66)

respectively. The relationships between symbols in Eqs.(4.66) and (4.67) should be clear.

#### Section 4.3 Conversions from Markov Parameters

It is interesting to note that the matrix  $T_k$  in Eqs.(4.66) and (4.67) contains the same Markov parameters  $H_i$ , i = [1,2k+1], as the matrix H[k] in Eq.(4.49), only arranged differently. Note that premultiplying  $T_k$  by the  $[(k+1)p \times (k+1)p]$ permutation matrix  $P_a$ , given by:

$$\mathbf{P}_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{p} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{I}_{p} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.68)

gives  $P_{\mu}T_{k} = H[k]$ . Therefore, according to duality, the first linearly independent columns of  $T_{k}$  give the information about the unique controllability indices  $\mu_{u}$  of the corresponding state space representation. Consequently, by postmultiplying  $T_{k}$  by a selector matrix  $S_{k}$ , corresponding to a set of admissible PCI, a full column rank matrix is obtained, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{y}}$$

Similarly, by postmultiplying  $T_k$  by the selector matrix  $S_{ki}$ , *m* rows are selected from  $T_k$  which are linearly dependent on the columns of  $T_i$ . In other words:

$$T_1 A_{ce} = T_2$$
, where  $T_2 = T_1 S_{id}$  (4.69)

The  $[n \times m]$  matrix A<sub>w</sub> defines the above mentioned linear dependence.

On the other hand, note that we are looking for a monic row-reduced matrix D(z), whose structure in the dual sense was exemplified in Section 3.4, Eqs.(3.100) to (3.105). Thus, the  $[(k+1)m \times m]$  matrix  $D_c$ , appearing in Eqs.(4.66) and (4.67), contains:

- n rows with non-zero and non-unity elements
- m rows of the identity matrix I<sub>m</sub>
- km-n rows of zeros

Thus, it may be concluded that all *n* rows of the matrix  $A_{cc}$  in Eq.(4.69) correspond to *n* non-zero non-unity rows in  $D_c$  multiplied by -1, and also that the *m* columns of  $A_{cc}$  correspond to *m* non-zero non-unity rows in the matrix  $A_c$  in a PCF, based on the admissible set of PCI  $\mu = \{\mu_i\}$  which is equal to the set of row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  of the desired matrix D(z).

Having Aer from Eq.(4.69), matrices D, and N, may be calculated by:

$$S_{id} - S_{ii} A_{ee} \rightarrow D_e$$
$$R_s D_e - N_e$$

Finally, desired polynomial matrices D(z) and N(z) may be obtained from  $D_c$  and

 $N_e$  using the service algorithm *PMFc*. Thus, the following algorithm, permitting calculation of a right coprime MFD { N(z), D(z) } with D(z) monic and row reduced, given the Markov parameters  $H_i$ , i = [0, 2k+1],  $k = \max\{n_i\}$ , is suggested.

Syntax:

H,  $\epsilon$ , n<sub>e</sub> (HND)  $\Rightarrow$  N, D, n, C#

Input/Output Arguments:

- H is a (pm × M) matrix in PMF. The rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>0</sub>(z<sup>1</sup>) in H(z<sup>1</sup>).
- n<sub>d</sub> = { n<sub>l</sub> } is an admissible set of row degrees. If n<sub>d</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. e, may be used as the third argument.
- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>ab</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>a</sub>(z) in N(z).
- D is a [m<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>ab</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>a</sub>(z) in D(z).
- n is the set of row degrees of D(z).
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set of row degrees.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Set H (Alt) = H, H,
- If n<sub>d</sub> is specified, determine k, build T<sub>k</sub>, Eq.(4.67), set n<sub>d</sub> = {n<sub>i</sub>}, and go to 9; else, go to 3
- 3. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_e$
- Set k+1 ⇒ k
- 5. Build  $T_{is}$  Eq.(4.67), and set rank( $T_{is}$ )  $\Rightarrow n$
- 6. If  $n = n_0$  go to 7; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_0$  and go to 4
- 7. From T<sub>k</sub> determine the unique row degrees, i.e. T<sub>k</sub> (IND)  $\Rightarrow$  {n<sub>k</sub>}
- 8. Define a desired set of row degrees {n<sub>i</sub>}
- 9. Set  $\{n_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow n_m$ ,  $S_a$ ,  $S_b$ ,  $S_b$ ,  $S_{bl}$
- 10. Set  $T_k S_a \Rightarrow T_1$  and  $T_k S_{kk} \Rightarrow T_2$
- Calculate the degree of admissibility of T<sub>1</sub>, i.e. T<sub>1</sub> (C#) ⇒ C#
- 12. If C# is "too small," go to 8; else, go to 13
- 13. Solve  $T_1A_c = T_2$  for  $A_c$
- 14. Set  $S_{kr} S_k A_r \Rightarrow D_r$
- 15. Set  $R_{\mu}D_{\mu} \Rightarrow N_{\mu}$
- 16. Set  $D_c$ , m (PMFc)  $\Rightarrow$  D and  $N_c$ , p (PMFc)  $\Rightarrow$  N

The service algorithms Alt, IND and C# were explained earlier under Algorithm TFDN in Section 4.2.5.

# 4.3.5 Markov Parameters to Transfer Function

In this section we present a method for calculating the transfer function matrix G(z) = W(z)/d(z) from given Markov parameters  $H_i$ . Since this algorithm is the "inverse" of *TFH*, Section 4.2.2, it is based on the same expressions Eq.(4.30), i.e.:

$$G(z) = \frac{W(z)}{d(z)} = H(z^{-1})$$

which using

$$W(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} W_i z^i$$
,  $d(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} d_i z^i$ ,  $H(z^{-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} H_i z^{-i}$ 

may be reduced to:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{j} d_{n-j} H_{i-j} = W_{n-i} \text{ for } i = [0, n]$$
(4.70)

and

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} d_{n-j} H_{i-j} = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad i = [n+1,\infty]$$

Since in this algorithm the Markov parameters  $H_i$ , j = [0, M-1], are assumed known, while  $W_i$  and  $d_i$ , i = [1, n], are to be determined, Eq.(4.70), i.e. Eq.(4.30), will now be represented differently, either by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_0 \ \mathbf{D}_1 \ - \ \mathbf{D}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{n+1} & \mathbf{H}_n \ - \ \mathbf{H}_1 \\ \mathbf{H}_{n+2} & \mathbf{H}_{n+1} \ - \ \mathbf{H}_2 \\ \dots & \ddots & \\ \mathbf{H}_{2n} & \mathbf{H}_{2n-1} \ - \ \mathbf{H}_n \\ \mathbf{H}_{2n+1} & \mathbf{H}_{2n} \ - \ \mathbf{H}_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_0 & \mathbf{D}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_0 & & & \\ \mathbf{H}_1 & \mathbf{H}_0 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \mathbf{H}_n & - & \mathbf{H}_1 & \mathbf{H}_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_0 & \mathbf{W}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{W}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $D_i = I$ ,  $d_i$ , or

(4.71a)
(4.71b)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{n+1} & \mathbf{H}_{n+2} & - & \mathbf{H}_{2n+1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{n} & \mathbf{H}_{n+1} & - & \mathbf{H}_{2n} \\ \dots & \ddots & & & \\ \mathbf{H}_{1} & \mathbf{H}_{3} & - & \mathbf{H}_{n+2} \\ \mathbf{H}_{1} & \mathbf{H}_{2} & - & \mathbf{H}_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{0} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

and

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{H}_{0} & \mathbf{H}_{1} & - & \mathbf{H}_{n} \\ & \mathbf{H}_{0} & & \mathbf{i} \\ & & & \mathbf{H}_{1} \\ & & & & \mathbf{H}_{1} \\ & & & & \mathbf{H}_{0} \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{0} \\ & \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{1} \\ & & & \\ &$$

where, now,  $\mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{i} = \mathbf{I}_{a} d_{i}$ . Eqs.(4.71), for short, will be expressed by:

$$D, T = 0$$
 and  $D, R = W$ , (4.72a)

$$TD_c = 0$$
 and  $RD_c = W_c$  (4.72b)

respectively, where the notation should be clear.

It is worthwhile to compare Eqs.(4.71b) and (4.66) in Algorithm HND, as well as Eqs.(4.71a) with Eq.(4.60) in HDN. Recall that in Eq.(4.71) n is used instead of k, where k < n, and that  $D_n$  or  $\tilde{D}_n$ , in Eq.(4.71) is, by definition, a full rank matrix, while  $D_k$  in both HDN and HND might be non-singular. Also, the non-zero, non-unity rows in  $D_c$ , or the non-zero, non-unity columns in  $D_r$  in HND or HDN, respectively, are determined by treating full column (or row) rank matrices, while here, as will be seen, this is not the case. Thus, the present problem requires a different approach in calculating d(z) and W(z) satisfying Eq.(4.70).

It may be recognized that Eqs.(4.71) and (4.72) are based on

$$D(z) H(z^{-1}) = W(z)$$
 where  $D(z) = I_p d(z)$  (4.73a)

$$H(z^{-1})\tilde{D}(z) = W(z)$$
 where  $\tilde{D}(z) = I_{a} d(z)$  (4.73b)

respectively, and that the first version is more convenient if p < m, and vice versa. Because of that fact, we should have both versions available. In fact, Algorithm *HTF* executes either *HTFp* (first version) or *HTFm* (second version), depending on whether p < m or m < p, respectively. Since there is complete duality between these two versions, only *HTFm* will be discussed in the sequel.

#### Section 4.3 Conversions from Markov Parameters

The basic steps of this algorithm are:

- Determination of the system order n
- Building the [p(n+1) × m(n+1)] matrices T and R, Eq.(4.72b)
- Calculation of the [m(n+1) × m] matrix D, as a null space of T, where D, should have the structure:

$$\mathbf{D}_{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} d_0 \mathbf{I}_m & d_1 \mathbf{I}_m & \cdots & d_n \mathbf{I}_m \end{bmatrix}^T, \quad d_n = 1 \quad (4.74)$$

Calculation of W, using W, = R D,

To take into account Eq.(4.74), specifically  $d_a = 1$ , Eq.(4.72b) will be rewritten as

$$T_1 D_{c1} = -T_2$$
 (4.75)

where  $[p(n+1) \times mn]$  and  $[p(n+1) \times m]$  matrices T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> satisfy:

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_1 & \mathbf{T}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

while  $D_{ct}$  contains the first *n* blocks  $d_i I_{m}$ , i = [0, n-1] from  $D_{ct}$ .

Equation (4.75) represents a system of algebraic equations, where  $T_1$  is not a full column rank matrix, leading to a non-unique solution for  $D_{cl}$ . A procedure of calculating  $D_{cl}$  of the structure in Eq.(4.74) satisfying Eq.(4.75) is given in Appendix B. Algorithmic implementation of this procedure is included in Algorithm *HTFm*, given in the following.

Algorithm HTFm:

Syntax:

H, 
$$\epsilon$$
 (HTFm) = d, W

Input/Output Arguments:

- H is a (pm × M) matrix in PMF. The rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>a</sub>(z<sup>4</sup>) in H(z<sup>4</sup>).
- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients d<sub>i</sub>.
- W is a [pm × (n+1)] matrix in PMF. Its rows contain the coefficients of the polynomials w<sub>0</sub>(z) in W(z).

Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $H(Alt) \Rightarrow H_c, H_c$
- 2. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_a$

3. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$ 

- 4. Build T, using in Eq.(4.72b) k instead of n, and set rank(T)  $\Rightarrow$  n
- 5. If  $n = n_o$ , go to 6; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_o$  and go to 3
- Set n ⇒ k and build T and R, Eq.(4.72b)
- Partition T ⇒ [T<sub>1</sub> | T<sub>2</sub>], T<sub>2</sub> has m columns
- 8. Set  $T_1 (Null) \Rightarrow N$ , N satisfies  $T_1 N = 0$
- 9. Solve  $T_1Y = -T_2$  for Y
- 10. Set [1 0 0 ... 0] (m-1 zeros)  $\Rightarrow$  v and [v | v |... | v]  $\Rightarrow$  v<sub>n</sub>
- 11. Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$  and  $[1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1] \Rightarrow \mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{v}_i$  has mn unity elements
- 12. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$
- 13. Set  $\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_n \Rightarrow \mathbf{v}_p$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_i$  (DSM)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{S}_i$  and  $\mathbf{S}_i^T \mathbf{N} \Rightarrow \mathbf{n}_i$
- 14. If rank  $(N_i) = n(m-1)$ , go to 16; else, go to 15
- 15. Shift  $v_a$  by one column right, i.e.  $v_a$  (SHR)  $\Rightarrow v_a$  and go to 12
- 16. Extract the  $i^{\pm}$  column from  $Y \Rightarrow y_i$  and set  $S_i^T y_i \Rightarrow y_g$
- 17. Set  $N_i^{-1}y_a \Rightarrow t_i$  and  $N_i t_i \Rightarrow d$
- 18. Set  $\mathbf{v}_*$  (DSM)  $\Rightarrow$  S, S<sup>r</sup> d  $\Rightarrow$  d
- 19. Set  $[d^r \mid 1] \rightarrow d$
- 20. Using d, build  $D_e$  and set  $R D_c \Rightarrow W_e$
- 21. Set  $W_{e}$ ,  $p(PMFc) \Rightarrow W$

It may be verified (see Appendix B) that Steps 7 to 19 of the above algorithm calculate coefficients  $d_i$ , l = [0,n] defining D, satisfying Eqs.(4.72b) and (4.74). In Step 10, the *m* dimensional row v has one unity and *m*-1 zeros, while the *mn* dimensional row v<sub>n</sub> is obtained by concatenating the vector v *n* times. Algorithm *DSM* used in Steps 13 and 18 generates a "selector" matrix corresponding to the row used as the input argument. The relationship between the input and output arguments in the "define selector matrix" (DSM) algorithm is explained in Section 3.3.4. and Eq.(3.79). The "shift right" (SHR) algorithm used in step 15 simply shifts input argument (or zero column) is added as the first element (column).

Using the principle of duality, it is relatively straightforward to develop Algorithm HTFp which, considering the first of the two versions of Eqs. (4.71) to (4.73) calculates d(z) and W(z) satisfying Eq. (4.70). As was mentioned previously, within Algorithm HTF, having the same input/output arguments as HTFm, both algorithms are available, and only one is called depending on the relationship between m and p. It is left as an exercise for the reader to develop HTFp. Interested readers may check the L-A-S implementations of these algorithms.

# 4.3.6 Discrete-Time Response from Markov Parameters

This algorithm calculates the zero-state response of a D-T system given the Markov parameters and the samples of the input signals using D-T convolution, derived from  $y(z) = H(z^{-1}) u(z)$  i.e.

123

$$y_i = \sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} \mathbf{u}_j$$
 (4.76)

122 62

where  $\mathbf{u}_i$  and  $\mathbf{y}_j$  are  $i^{th}$  and  $j^{th}$  samples of the input and output vectors, respectively, while  $\mathbf{H}_k$  is the  $k^{th}$  Markov parameter. Equation (4.76) may be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_{0} \\ \mathbf{y}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}_{L-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{0} \\ \mathbf{H}_{1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{H}_{L+1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{L+1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{1} \\ \mathbf{H}_{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{0} \\ \mathbf{u}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_{L-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.77)

where  $L = \min \{M, N\}$ , or for short by:

$$y_c = H u_c$$
 (4.78)

where  $y_e$  and  $u_e$  are Lp and Lm dimensional columns containing samples  $y_i$  and  $u_i$ , i=[0,L-1], respectively, while H is an  $(Lp \times Lm)$  matrix containing the Markov parameters  $H_i$ , j=[0,L-1] arranged according to Eq.(4.77).

Syntax: 
$$u, H(uHy) \Rightarrow y$$

### Input/Output Arguments:

- u is an (m × N) matrix containing samples of the m-dimensional input vector.
- H is a (pm × M) matrix in PMF. The rows of H contain the coefficients h<sub>ak</sub> of polynomials h<sub>a</sub>(z<sup>4</sup>) in H(z<sup>4</sup>).
- y is the (p × L) matrix containing the samples of the system response.
   L = min{M,N}.

# 4.4 Conversions from MFD Models

Given either a left or right coprime ARMA (MFD) model, this section discusses the conversion to either state space or transfer function models as well as the calculation of a set of Markov parameters. If it is desired to calculate the system response, it is recommended that the ARMA model first be converted to state space form, then to use the state space representation to calculate the response.

# 4.4.1 MFD to Observable State Model

This algorithm calculates an observable form state space model  $R_o = \{A_o, B_o, C_o, D_o\}$  from a corresponding left coprime column-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $D(z)^{-1}N(z)$ . One may view this algorithm as an "inverse" of Algorithm *RoDN*, described in Section 4.1.7. It is based on Eqs.(4.17) to (4.20), as well as Eqs.(4.44) to (4.47). For completeness of the algorithm presentation, some of these expressions will be repeated here.

From Section 3.4, where MFD system description was introduced, it is clear that the locations of the *p* columns of the identity matrix **I**, in the matrix **D**<sub>r</sub>, Eq.(3.104), uniquely determine the column degrees of D(z). Also, as has been already stated several times (Sections 4.2.7), the set of column degrees  $\{n_i\}$  of D(z) corresponds to a set of admissible POI  $\nu = \{\nu_i\}$  used in building a state space representation  $R_e$  in a POF.

Thus, from a given left coprime MFD, where D(z) is column-reduced and monic, it is first necessary to determine the set of column degrees. This is done by another polynomial matrix "service" algorithm refered to as D2nv:

Syntax:

$$\mathbf{D}_{e1} \in (D2nv) \Rightarrow v$$
 (4.79)

### Input/Output Arguments:

- D, is a [p × (k+1)p] matrix of the structure in Eq.(3.104).
- e is a sufficiently small positive scalar used as "machine" zero.
- v is a p-diminsional row containing the column degrees of D(z), or, as was mentioned earlier, a set of POI v to be used in building the representation R<sub>a</sub>.

Having determined the set  $\nu$ , it is then necessary to extract the *n* columns from D<sub>r</sub> containing non-zero non-unity elements. From the expression

$$\mathbf{y}_1 - \mathbf{A}_r \, \mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{N}_r \, \mathbf{u}_t$$

derived in Section 4.1.7, Eq.(4.17), it is clear that these *n p*-dimensional columns constitute the matrix  $-A_r$ . At the same time *p* rows in this  $A_r$  represent the non-zero non-unity "parametric" rows of the matrix  $A_o$  in the representation  $R_o$ . Thus, the matrix  $A_r$  can be obtained from Eq.(4.45), i.e.:

$$-\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{S}_{ii} \rightarrow \mathbf{A},$$

where  $S_s$  is a selector matrix, Eq.(3.79), corresponding to the set  $\nu$ . The complete Algorithm *DNRo* is as follows.

Syntax: D, N,  $\epsilon$  (DNRo)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>o</sub>, B<sub>o</sub>, C<sub>o</sub>, D<sub>o</sub>, r

### Input/Output Arguments:

- **D** is a  $[p^3 \times (k+1)]$  matrix in the PMF. The rows of **D** contain the coefficients  $d_{ab}$  of the polynomials  $d_a(z)$  in D(z).
- N is a  $[pm \times (k+1)]$  matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients  $n_{ab}$  of the polynomials  $n_a(z)$  in N(z).
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in evaluating the set # using Eq.(4.79).
- $R_a = \{A_a, B_a, C_a, D_a\}$ , state space model in a POF.
- $\mathbf{r} = \{\mathbf{v}_i\}$  is an admissible set of POI corresponding to  $R_e$ .

### Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $D(Alt) \Rightarrow D_e, D_r, N(Alt) \Rightarrow N_e, N_r$
- 2. Set  $\mathbf{D}_n \in (D2n\nu) \Rightarrow \nu$
- Set  $\{\nu_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \nu_m$ ,  $S_a$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_a$ ,  $S_a$ 3.
- 4. Set  $-D_s S_k \Rightarrow A_s$
- Partition  $\mathbf{I}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_n \\ \mathbf{A}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_o$  has p rows 5.
- 6. Set  $S_iA_3 + S_iA_i \Rightarrow A_i$
- Set  $A_o$ ,  $S_e(Qc) \Rightarrow Q_e$ ,  $Q_e$  has  $\nu_m + 1$  blocks  $\{A_o \cdot S_a\}$  of p columns 7.
- 8. Set  $Q_N \Rightarrow B_p$
- Set  $D_a^{-1}(s_a)N_a(s_a) C_a(s_aI-A_a)^{-1}B_a \Rightarrow D_a$  for any  $s_a \neq a$  system pole 9.

Note that Steps 5 to 8 in DNRo are the same as the corresponding steps at the end of TFRo, Section 4.2.7, which is to be expected since both algorithms determine the state space model Ro in a POF. For more details, and particularly for the case when A, and A, are singular, see Eqs.(4.44) to (4.47).

# 4.4.2 MFD to Controllable State Model

This algorithm calculates a controllable form state space model  $R_c = \{A_c, B_c\}$ C., D.} from a corresponding right coprime row-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $N(z)D^{1}(z)$ . Since this algorithm is dual to the previously given DNRo, as well as rather similar to Algorithm TFRc given in Section 4.2.7, it will only be listed here for reference without discussion.

N, D,  $\epsilon$  (NDRc)  $\Rightarrow$  A, B, C, D,  $\mu$ Syntax:

Input/Output Arguments:

N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain

the coefficients  $n_{gh}$  of the polynomials  $n_g(z)$  in N(z).

- D is a [m<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>ay</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>a</sub>(z) in D(z).
- *ϵ* is a sufficiently small positive number used in evaluating the set
   *μ* using Eq.(4.79).
- R<sub>e</sub> = {A<sub>e</sub>, B<sub>e</sub>, C<sub>e</sub>, D<sub>e</sub>}, state space model in a PCF.
- μ = { μ<sub>i</sub> } is an admissible set of PCI corresponding to R<sub>c</sub>.

Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $\mathbf{D}(Alt) \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}_{c}, \mathbf{D}_{r}, \mathbf{N}(Alt) \Rightarrow \mathbf{N}_{c}, \mathbf{N}_{r}$
- 2. Set  $D_{\ell}^{T}$ ,  $\epsilon$  (D2nV)  $\Rightarrow \mu$
- 3. Set  $\{\mu_i\}$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \mu_m$ ,  $S_s$ ,  $S_i$ ,  $S_k$ ,  $S_k$
- 4. Set  $-S_k^T D_e \Rightarrow A_{ee}$
- 5. Partition  $\mathbf{I}_n \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_e & \mathbf{A}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_e$  has m columns
- 6. Set  $A_1 S_i^T + A_n S_n^T \Rightarrow A_n$
- 7. Set  $A_c$ ,  $S_a^T(Qo) \Rightarrow Q_s$ ,  $Q_s$  has  $\mu_m + 1$  blocks  $\{S_a^T A_s^h\}$  of m rows
- 8. Set  $N_r Q_p \Rightarrow C_p$
- 9. Set  $N(s_o)D_o^{-1}(s_o) C_c(s_oI-A_c)^{-1}B_c \Rightarrow D_c$  for any  $s_o \neq a$  system pole.

Note that Steps 5 to 8 in *NDRc* are the same as the corresponding steps at the end of *TFRc*, Section 4.2.7, which is to be expected since both algorithms determine the state space model  $R_c$  in a PCF. For more details, and particularly for the case when  $A_c$  and  $A_{corr}$  are singular, see Eqs.(4.44) to (4.47).

It is worth mentioning that the duality between Algorithms DNRo and NDRc is quite apparent. In other words, instead of:

**D**, **N**,  $\epsilon$  (*NDRc*)  $\Rightarrow$  **A**<sub>a</sub>, **B**<sub>c</sub>, **C**<sub>c</sub>, **D**<sub>a</sub>,  $\mu$ 

the following sequence of algorithms may be used:

$$N^T \Rightarrow N_d$$
,  $D^T \Rightarrow D_d$   
 $D_d$ ,  $N_d$ ,  $\epsilon$  (DNRo)  $\Rightarrow A_d$ ,  $B_d$ ,  $C_d$ ,  $D_d$ ,  $\mu$   
 $A_d^T \Rightarrow A_c$ ,  $B_d^T \Rightarrow C_c$ ,  $C_d^T \Rightarrow B_c$ ,  $D_d^T \Rightarrow D_c$ 

# 4.4.3 Left Coprime MFD to Markov Parameters

This algorithm calculates the set of Markov parameters from a left coprime column-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $D(z)^{-1}N(z)$ . This algorithm is, in a way, the "inverse" of Algorithm HDN, given in Section 4.3.3. Thus, it is based on the same expressions given in Eqs.(4.57) to (4.58), i.e.:

$$G(z) = H(z^{-1}) = D^{-1}(z)N(z)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} = \mathbf{N}_{k-i} \text{ for } i = [0,k] \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} = \mathbf{0} \text{ for } i = [k+1,\infty]$$

OF

However, since here the submatrices  $D_i$  and  $N_i$ , i=[0,k] are given, and the first MMarkov parameters  $H_j$ , j=[0,M-1], are sought, the above equations will now be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \mathbf{D}_{0} \\ & \mathbf{D}_{0} & \mathbf{D}_{1} \\ & & \mathbf{D}_{1} & \vdots \\ & & & \mathbf{D}_{1} & \vdots \\ & & & & \mathbf{D}_{k} \\ & \mathbf{D}_{0} & \mathbf{D}_{k} \\ & & & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{0} & \mathbf{D}_{1} & \ddots \\ & & & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{1} & 1 & \ddots \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} & & & \\ & & & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} & & & \\ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{0} \\ & & \\ \mathbf{H}_{0} \\ & & \\ \mathbf{H}_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ & \\ \mathbf{N}_{0} \\ & \\ \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.80)

which could readily be used for calculating H<sub>j</sub>, given D<sub>i</sub> and N<sub>i</sub>. However, as was mentioned in Section 4.2.2, Algorithm *TFH*, see Eqs.(4.31) and (4.32), Eq.(4.80) assumes that H<sub>M-1</sub> satisfies:

# |H<sub>M-1</sub>| << 1

Thus, the criterion for selecting the scalar M is that the norm of the last calculated Markov parameter  $\mathbf{H}_{M-1}$ , with  $h_M = \| \mathbf{H}_{M-1} \|$ , should be sufficiently small. In other words, the algorithm based on Eq.(4.80) is applicable only to MFDs whose characteristic polynomials  $d(z) = \det\{ D(z) \}$  have all roots within unit circle. If this is not the case, then either:

- "time scaling" of D(z) and N(z) should be performed, or
- one of the following sequences of algorithms could be used

D, N, 
$$\epsilon$$
 (DNRo)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>o</sub>, B<sub>o</sub>, C<sub>o</sub>, D<sub>o</sub>,  $\nu$   
A<sub>o</sub>, B<sub>o</sub>, C<sub>o</sub>, D<sub>o</sub>, M (SSH)  $\Rightarrow$  H, h<sub>H</sub>

D, N,  $\epsilon$  (DNTF)  $\Rightarrow$  d, W d, W, M (TFH)  $\Rightarrow$  H,  $h_{g}$ 

or

The "time scaling" of D(z), N(z) is explained in the Example 2, given at the end of this chapter. Algorithm DNH is as follows:

Syntax: D, N, M (DNH)  $\Rightarrow$  H,  $h_{H}$ 

Input/Output Arguments:

- D is a [p<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>ab</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>a</sub>(z) in D(z).
- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>ak</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>s</sub>(z) in N(z).
- M is scalar specifying the number of Markov parameters H<sub>0</sub> i = [0, M-1], to be calculated.
- H is a [pm × M] matrix in PMF. Rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>g</sub>(ε<sup>1</sup>) in H(ε<sup>1</sup>).
- h<sub>H</sub> is a scalar equal to ||H<sub>H-1</sub>||, where H<sub>H-1</sub> is the last Markov parameter calculated.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Set  $D(Alt) \Rightarrow D_e$ ,  $D_r$ ,  $N(Alt) \Rightarrow N_e$ ,  $N_r$
- 2. Build the matrices in Eq.(4.80) consisting of D<sub>i</sub> and N<sub>i</sub>
- Solve Eq.(4.80) for H<sub>e</sub> containing H<sub>p</sub>, j=[0,M-1]
- 4. Set  $\| \mathbf{H}_{\mu,1} \| \Rightarrow h_{\mu}$
- 5. Set  $H_c$ , p (PMFc)  $\Rightarrow$  H

### 4.4.4 Right Coprime MFD to Markov Parameters

This algorithm calculates the set of Markov parameters from a right coprime row-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $N(z)D^{-1}(z)$ . As was mentioned in the previous algorithm, this algorithm is like an "inverse" to Algorithm HND, given in Section 4.3.4. Thus, it is based on the same expressions given in Eqs.(4.64) to (4.65), i.e.:

$$G(z) = H(z^{-1}) = N(z)D^{-1}(z)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{i} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} = \mathbf{N}_{k-i} \text{ for } i = [0,k] \text{ and}$$
$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} \mathbf{D}_{k-j} = \mathbf{0} \text{ for } i = [k+1,\infty]$$

or

However, since here the submatrices N<sub>i</sub> and D<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,k] are given, and the first M

Markov parameters  $H_j$ , j=[0,M-1], are sought, the above equations will now be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{0} \ \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{i} \ \mathbf{H}_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{0} \ \mathbf{D}_{1} & - \ \mathbf{D}_{k} \\ \mathbf{D}_{0} \ \mathbf{D}_{1} & - \ \mathbf{D}_{k} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \mathbf{D}_{0} \ \mathbf{D}_{1} & - \ \mathbf{D}_{k} \\ \mathbf{D}_{0} \ \mathbf{D}_{1} & - \ \mathbf{D}_{k} \end{bmatrix} = (4.81)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \ \mathbf{0} & - \ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{N}_{0} \ \mathbf{N}_{1} - \mathbf{N}_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$

Since this algorithm is dual to the previous algorithm, the comments about the applicability of Algorithm DNH, given above, hold also here in the dual sense.

The algorithm is described as follows:

Syntax: N, D, M (NDH)  $\Rightarrow$  H,  $h_{y}$ 

#### Input/Output Arguments:

- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>ab</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>a</sub>(z) in N(z).
- D is a [m<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>in</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>i</sub>(z) in D(z).
- M is scalar specifying the number of Markov parameters H<sub>i</sub>, i = [0, M-1], to be calculated.
- H is a [pm × M] matrix in PMF. Rows of H contain the first M coefficients of the polynomials h<sub>0</sub>(z<sup>4</sup>) in H(z<sup>4</sup>).
- h<sub>H</sub> is a scalar equal to ||H<sub>H-1</sub>||, where H<sub>M-1</sub> is the last Markov parameter calculated.

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Set N (Alt)  $\Rightarrow$  N<sub>c</sub>, N<sub>r</sub>, D (Alt)  $\Rightarrow$  D<sub>c</sub>, D<sub>r</sub>
- 2. Build the matrices in Eq.(4.81) consisting of N, and D,
- Solve Eq.(4.81) for H, containing H<sub>j</sub>, j=[0,M-1]
- 4. Set  $|\mathbf{H}_{H-1}| \Rightarrow h_H$
- 5. Set  $H_{\mu}$ ,  $m (PMFr) \Rightarrow H$

To stress the duality between Algorithms DNH and NDH, let us mention that instead of

N, D, M (NDH) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 H,  $h_{M}$ 

the following sequence of algorithms could be used:

$$N^T \Rightarrow N_d$$
,  $D^T \Rightarrow D_d$   
 $D_d$ ,  $N_d$ ,  $M$  (DNH)  $\Rightarrow H_d$ ,  $h_{M}$   
 $H_d^T \Rightarrow H$ 

### 4.4.5 Left Coprime MFD to Transfer Function

This algorithm converts a left coprime column-reduced C-T or D-T ARMA (MFD) model,  $D^{1}(z)N(z)$ , to a matrix transfer function  $G(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D$ . This algorithm is based on

$$D^{-1}(z) N(z) = W(z)/d(z)$$

which, as has been shown in Section 4.1.7, Eq.(4.21), may be rewritten as:

$$T(z) N(z) = W(z)$$
 (4.82)

where  $T(z) = adj\{D(z)\}$  and  $d(z) = det\{D(z)\}$ . Using Eq. (4.82), the calculation of W(z) reduces to a simple multiplication of polynomial matrices T(z) and N(z).

It should be mentioned that the adjoint of a square polynomial matrix, i.e.  $adj\{D(z)\}$ , is calculated by applying the Laplace expansion and direct evaluation of minors and cofactors involving polynomial manipulation, which has proven to give satisfactory accuracy for polynomial matrices of orders up to 10.

Syntax: D, N,  $\in$  (DNTF)  $\Rightarrow$  d, W

Input/Output Arguments:

- D is a [p<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>ab</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>a</sub>(z) in D(z).
- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>a</sub>, of the polynomials n<sub>a</sub>(z) in N(z).
- e is a small positive number used as machine zero.
- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients of d(z).
- W is a [pm × n+1] matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>a</sub> of the polynomials w<sub>a</sub>(z) of W(z).

200

The basic steps of the algorithm are:

Set det{ D(z) }  $\Rightarrow$  d(z)1.

- Set adj{ D(z) }  $\Rightarrow$  T(z)2.
- If the highest order coefficient in d(z),  $d_x=1$ , go to 5; 3.
  - else, go to 4
- Set  $-d(z) \Rightarrow d(z)$  and  $-T(z) \Rightarrow T(z)$ 4.
- Set T(z)  $N(z) \rightarrow W(z)$ 5.

## 4.4.6 Right Coprime MFD to Transfer Function

This algorithm converts a right coprime row-reduced C-T or D-T ARMA (MFD) model,  $N(z)D^{+}(z)$ , to a matrix transfer function  $G(z) = C(zI - A)^{+}B + D$ . This algorithm is based on

$$N(z) D^{1}(z) = W(z)/d(z)$$

which, as has been shown in Section 4.1.8, Eq.(4.24), may be rewritten as:

$$N(z) T(z) = W(z)$$
 (4.83)

where  $T(z) = \operatorname{adj} \{ D(z) \}$  and  $d(z) = \operatorname{det} \{ D(z) \}$ . Using Eq.(4.83), the calculation of W(z) reduces to a simple multiplication of polynomial matrices N(z) and T(z).

The syntax of the algorithm is:

N, D, 
$$\epsilon$$
 (NDTF)  $\Rightarrow$  d, W

### Input/Output Arguments:

- N is a  $[pm \times (k+1)]$  matrix in the PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients  $n_{ye}$  of the polynomials  $n_0(z)$  in N(z). D is a  $[m^2 \times (k+1)]$  matrix in the PMF. The rows of D contain the
- coefficients  $d_{un}$  of the polynomials  $d_o(z)$  in D(z).
- e is a small positive number used as machine zero.
- d is an (n+1) dimensional row containing the coefficients of d(z).
- W is a  $[pm \times n+1]$  matrix in the PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients  $w_{ab}$  of the polynomials  $w_{a}(z)$  of W(z).

For more details see Section 4.4.5, Algorithm DNTF.

## 4.4.7 Other MFD Conversion Algorithms

For completeness in algorithm availability, the following four algorithms are also available:

- (1) DNRc: Left MFD {D(z), N(z)} into a state space model R in a PCF
- (2) DNND: Left MFD {D(z), N(z)} into a right coprime MFD {N(z), D(z)}
- (3) NDRo: Right MFD { $\hat{N}(z)$ ,  $\hat{D}(z)$ } into a state space model R<sub>o</sub> in a POF
- (4) NDDN: Right MFD {N(z), D(z)} into a left coprime MFD {D(z), N(z)}

The syntax of these algorithms are as follows:

D, N, 
$$\epsilon$$
,  $\mu_d$  (DNRc)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_c$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_c$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_c$ ,  $\mathbf{D}_c$ ,  $\mu$ , C#  
D, N,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\mathbf{n}_d$  (DNND)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{\hat{N}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\hat{D}}$ , C#  
 $\mathbf{\hat{N}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\hat{D}}$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\nu_d$  (NDRo)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_v$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_v$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_v$ ,  $\mathbf{D}_o$ ,  $\nu$ , C#  
 $\mathbf{\hat{N}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\hat{D}}$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\mathbf{n}_d$  (NDRN)  $\Rightarrow$  D, N, C#  
(4.84)

For input/output arguments see Algorithms:

respectively, as well as some other previously discussed algorithms.

It is worth mentioning that these model conversions may, for instance, be performed by the following sequences of algorithms already described:

	Instead of (1):
	<b>D</b> , <b>N</b> , $\epsilon$ (DNRo) $\Rightarrow$ <b>A</b> <sub>o</sub> , <b>B</b> <sub>o</sub> , <b>C</b> <sub>o</sub> , <b>D</b> <sub>o</sub> , $\nu$
(5)	$\mathbf{A}_{\varrho \circ} \ \mathbf{B}_{\varrho \circ} \ \mathbf{C}_{\varrho \circ} \ \mathbf{D}_{\varrho \circ} \ \mu_{d} \ (SSRc) \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{e \circ} \ \mathbf{B}_{e \circ} \ \mathbf{C}_{e \circ} \ \mathbf{D}_{e \circ} \ C \#$

• Instead of (2): the sequence (5) and  $\mathbf{n}_d \Rightarrow \{ \mu_i \}$  $\mathbf{A}_c, \mathbf{B}_c, \mathbf{C}_c, \mathbf{D}_c, \mu (RcND) \Rightarrow \mathbf{\tilde{N}}, \mathbf{\tilde{D}}$  (4.86)

Instead of (3):
 Ñ, Ď, ε (NDRC) ⇒ A<sub>α</sub> B<sub>α</sub> C<sub>α</sub> D<sub>α</sub> μ

(6) 
$$A_{\alpha} B_{\alpha} C_{\alpha} D_{\alpha} \nu_{\alpha} (SSRo) \Rightarrow A_{\alpha} B_{\alpha} C_{\alpha} D_{\alpha} C \#$$

• Instead of (4): the sequence (6) and  $\mathbf{n}_{d} \Rightarrow \{\nu_{i}\}$  $\mathbf{A}_{ai}, \mathbf{B}_{ai}, \mathbf{C}_{ai}, \mathbf{D}_{ai}, \mathbf{r} (RoDN) \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{N}$  Of course, the algorithms to be described in this section are computationally more convenient than the sequences suggested above. All four algorithms are based on:

$$D^{-1}(z) N(z) = \tilde{N}(z) \tilde{D}^{-1}(z)$$
 (4.87)

which may be rewritten as:

$$D(z) \tilde{N}(z) - N(z) \tilde{D}(z) = 0$$
 (4.88)

where:

$$D(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbf{D}_{i} z^{i}, \quad N(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbf{N}_{i} z^{i}, \quad \tilde{D}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \tilde{\mathbf{D}}_{i} z^{i}, \quad \tilde{N}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \tilde{\mathbf{N}}_{i} z^{i}$$
(4.89)

Note that for a given system, the integers k and h, defining the numbers of terms in the left and right MFDs, are not necessarily equal. Recall that in the case of Algorithms (1) and (2), i.e. DNRc and DNND, the given left MFD  $\{D(z), N(z)\}$  is not necessarily left coprime nor is D(z) required to be monic and column-reduced. Similarly, i.e. dually, in the case of Algorithms (3) and (4), i.e. NDRo and NDDN,

the given right MFD  $\{\tilde{N}(z), \tilde{D}(z)\}$  is not necessarily right coprime, nor is  $\tilde{D}(z)$  required to be monic and row-reduced.

For the purpose of Algorithms (1) and (2), i.e. DNRc and DNND, Eq.(4.88), should be represented by:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{0} & | & -\mathbf{N}_{0} & \\ \mathbf{D}_{1} & \mathbf{D}_{0} & | & -\mathbf{N}_{1} & -\mathbf{N}_{0} & \\ | & & & | & | & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} & \mathbf{D}_{0} & | & -\mathbf{N}_{k} & & -\mathbf{N}_{0} \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} & \mathbf{D}_{1} & | & & -\mathbf{N}_{k} & -\mathbf{N}_{1} \\ & & & | & | & & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} & | & | & & -\mathbf{N}_{k} & -\mathbf{N}_{1} \\ & & & | & | & & & \\ \mathbf{D}_{k} & | & & & -\mathbf{N}_{k} \\ \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$
(4.90)

while for Algorithms (3) and (4), i.e. NDRo and NDDN, Eq.(4.89), becomes:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{0} - \mathbf{N}_{k} + \mathbf{D}_{0} - \mathbf{D}_{k} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{0} & \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{1} & - & \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{k} \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{0} & \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{\tilde{D}}_{k} \\ \hline & - & - & - & - & - \\ - & \mathbf{\tilde{N}}_{0} & - & \mathbf{\tilde{N}}_{1} & \cdots & - & \mathbf{\tilde{N}}_{k} \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \ddots \\ & & - & \mathbf{\tilde{N}}_{0} & - & \mathbf{\tilde{N}}_{1} & \cdots & - & \mathbf{\tilde{N}}_{k} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0} \quad (4.91)$$

Using the previously introduced notation, Eqs. (4.90) and (4.91) may be represented by:

$$\mathbf{T}_{k}\begin{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{N}}_{c} \\ ---\\ \bar{\mathbf{D}}_{c} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{c} \mid \mathbf{D}_{c} \end{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{T}}_{k} = \mathbf{0}$$
 (4.92)

respectively, where in both cases matrices  $\mathbf{T}_k$  and  $\mathbf{\hat{T}}_k$  are build out of known submatrices, while matrices  $\mathbf{\hat{N}}_i$  and  $\mathbf{\hat{D}}_i$ , i=[0,h], entering in  $\mathbf{\hat{N}}_c$  and  $\mathbf{\hat{D}}_c$  in the case of Eq.(4.90), and  $\mathbf{N}_j$  and  $\mathbf{D}_j$ , j=[0,k], entering in  $\mathbf{N}_r$  and  $\mathbf{D}_r$  in the case of Eq.(4.91), are unknown. Recall that, not only are the matrices unknown, but the integers h and k should also be determined.

The reason for denoting the matrices in Eq.(4.92) by subscripts h and k is that in the  $[p(k+h+1) \times (h+1)(p+m)]$  matrix  $\mathbf{T}_h$  and the  $[(p+m)(k+1) \times m(k+h+1)]$ matrix  $\mathbf{\tilde{T}}_k$  the integers h and k, respectively, are unknown. As will be shown later, the values of these integers are determined by building  $\mathbf{T}_h$  and  $\mathbf{\tilde{T}}_k$  sequentially starting with h = 1 and k = 1, and ending with:

- h = max{ n<sub>i</sub>}, the row degrees of D
  (z), or max { μ<sub>i</sub>} of a corresponding PCF R<sub>i</sub>, and
- k = max{n<sub>i</sub>}, the column degrees of D(z), or max {v<sub>i</sub>} of a corresponding POF R<sub>s</sub>, respectively.

Note that Eqs.(4.90) and (4.91) are, respectively, similar to Eqs.(4.41) and (4.34), which are used for the transfer function conversion algorithms listed in Eq.(4.85). Comparing the expression of Eq.(4.90) with that of Eq.(4.41) and Eq.(4.91) with Eq.(4.34), the similarities and differences are easily determined.

### Section 4.5 Summary of Conversion Options

It should be mentioned that the implementation of the four algorithms in Eq.(4.84) is similar to the algorithms listed in Eq.(4.85). For example, the second equation in Eqs.(4.92) is formally equal to Eq.(4.34) in *TFDN*. Thus here, it is also necessary to build  $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_k$  and to determine the smallest integer k satisfying the previously given Eq.(4.35), i.e.:

$$\operatorname{rank}\left[\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{k}\right] = (k+1)m + n$$

leading to

$$n = \operatorname{rank} [\mathbf{T}_{k}] - (k+1)m$$
 (4.93)

which permits determination of the system order n and the value of the integer k. After having the values of n and k, an "admissible" set of row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  satisfying:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} n_i = n \text{ and } \max\{n_i\} = k$$
 (4.94)

should be determined. Similarly, as in Eqs.(4.36) to (4.38), this could be done by checking the "auxiliary" selector vector  $\bar{v}_{\mu}$ , indicating linear independent rows in  $T_k$ , which, of course, leads to the unique set,  $\mu$ , of controllability indices of the corresponding controllability form  $R_c$ . If the admissibility degree, C, corresponding to this set is too small, which happens sometimes, then, it is advisable to select an appropriate set {  $n_i$  }, satisfying Eq.(4.94) and check its degree C.

Similar arguments hold for the first equation in Eqs.(4.92), i.e. for Algorithms DNND and DNRc. For additional details see the steps of the algorithms listed in Eq.(4.85). The reader is urged to examine the L-A-S implementation of these algorithms as well as the listings of all other algorithms discussed in this chapter.

# 4.5 Summary of Conversion Options

This chapter has presented the reader with a wide variety of numerically stable algorithms with which to convert from one model form to another. Since so many variations were covered, a brief summary is thought to be necessary. Table 4.1 below illustrates the large number of options that are accessible. All of the algorithms indicated in Table 4.1, except for those associated with system identification, i.e. conversion from input/output data to some model form, to be discussed in Chapter 5, have been presented in this chapter.

	To:		1		2	3	4		5 7
From:		SS R	R,	R,	TF	н	DN	ND	
1 R. R,	SS	•	SSRo	SSRo	SSTF	SSH			CDSR
	R,	STR.	•	SSRo	SSTF	SSH	RoDN		CDSR
	R,	STR.	SSRo		SSTF	SSH		ReND	CDSR
2	TF	(1)*	TFRo	TFRe	•	TFH	TFDN	TFND	CDTR
3	H	(2)*	HRo	HRc	HTF		HDN	HND	wHy
	DN		DNRo	DNRc	DNTF	DNH*	•	DNND	
4 NE	ND		NDRo	NDRe	NDTF	NDH*	NDDN		
5	y		uyRo		wyTF	uyH*	uyDN		

### Comments:

 In addition to TFRo and TFRc, other available algorithms are "classical" minimal realization procedures such as Hessenberg's, Kalman decomposition and a Jordan form procedure.

Possible sequences of algorithms are given in the table below which represent conversions from a transfer function matrix to one of the state space minimal realizations. Of course, all of the resulting state space forms, SS<sub>i</sub>, have the same transfer function matrix, i.e. SS<sub>in</sub> (SSTF)  $\Rightarrow$  TF<sub>i</sub>, where TF<sub>i</sub> = TF for all *l*=[1,6].



The problems with these procedures are that they require a non-minimal state space representations which are in the case of MIMO system either of the order nm or np where n = order of characteristic polynomial d(z), and m and p are the dimensions of the input and output vectors, respectively. Moreover, in the TF  $\Rightarrow$ SS procedure we often "know" that the order of the minimal state space representation is equal to n. Our TFRo and TFRc procedures are less computationally "intensive" and are well "suited" for this intermodel conversion.

(2) In addition to *HRo* and *HRc* there are other "partial" realization algorithms which, using "several" Markov parameters H<sub>i</sub>, *i*=0,1,2,..., determine SS, for example, the Ho-Kalman, or ERA, procedure. The problem with these procedures are that they determine just a state space (SS) representation, without investigating whether there is another equivalent, computationally more convenient representation. Under the heading "computational convenience," we consider condition numbers of the similarity transformation matrices, i.e. admissibility degrees of those sets of POI and PCI used.

(3) The algorithms DNH and NDH are directly applicable only if the system is "D-T" stable, i.e. if all roots of  $d(z) = det\{D(z)\}$  are within the unit circle. If not, then a "time scaling" of D(z) and N(z) should be performed first, and then the obtained time scaled Markov parameters  $H_i$  should be multiplied with  $f^i$ , where fis the "time scaling" factor.

The suggested sequence of algorithms is:

 $D(z) \Rightarrow d(z) \Rightarrow$  maximum root of  $(d(z) = 0) \Rightarrow$  time scaling factor f  $D(z), N(z), f \Rightarrow$  (time scaling)  $\Rightarrow D_i(z), N_i(z)$   $D_i(z), N_i(z)$  (DNH)  $\Rightarrow$  truncated and time scaled  $H_i(z^{-1})$  $H_{ab}, f_i \Rightarrow$  (time scaling "up")  $\Rightarrow$   $H_i, i = [0, M-1]$ 

Algorithms for time scaling of MFD's and Markov parameters are also available.

This is equally applicable to a left or right coprime MFD, as has been illustrated in the Example Section, see Section 4.6.

(4) The algorithm uyH is applicable only to stable D-T systems, i.e. to systems where ||H<sub>M-1</sub>|| << 1, for a sufficiently large finite M. Also all of these M Markov parameters H<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,M-1], should be determined.

# 4.6

# Examples

In this section two comprehensive examples will be presented to illustrate the power and flexibility of the conversion process. The first example begins with a state space model of a 4<sup>th</sup> order, 3-input, 2-output C-T system and generates six different equivalent models. These six models are developed redundantly and cross-checked by 22 distinct conversions to show that the various models are compatible. These conversions are represented in Fig. 4.2 by arrows. In Example 2 additional conversions are presented which illustrate going from MFD models to Markov parameters when the system is not D-T stable, i.e. requiring scaling. Figures are presented with the examples to provide a graphical picture of the conversions.

## 4.6.1 Example 1 (Model Conversions)

We will first look at the system given in state space form and the admissible pseudo-controllability (PCI) and pseudo-observability (POI) indices:

	[ -1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
	0	-2	I	0	1	.001	0	0
	0	-1	-2	1	1	0	1	0
R =	0	0	0	-2	1	0	0	1
					-1-	***		
	0	.001	0	1	1	0	1	0
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

Assuming independent inputs and outputs, the system has three possible sets of controllability (PCI) indices and three possible sets of observability (POI) indices given in Tables 4.2 and 4.3:

TABLE 4.2 PCI							
$\{n_{e}\}$	nar	ы}	rank	degree			
{1	2	1}	4	.17E+00			
{2	1	1}	4	.50E-03			
{1	1	2}	3	.00E+00			

	TABLE 4.3 POI						
$\{n_{pi}$	$n_{a2}$	rank	degree				
{1	3}	4	.70E-01				
(2	2}	4	.20E-03				
{3	1}	4	.35E-04				



FIGURE 4.2 Conversions for Example 1

In Tables 4.2 and 4.3 "degree" refers to the *degree of admissibility*, the inverse of the condition number of the similarity transformation matrix T used in obtaining the corresponding PCF or POF. Note that the last set of PCI is *not* admissible since the rank of T is less than n = 4. The best selection is associated with the highest degree of admissibility, which is the first set in each case. Note that the best selections in both cases are different from the unique controllability and observability indices, which are  $\{2,1,1\}$  and  $\{2,2\}$ , respectively.

In the following development, which illustrates intermodel conversions between SS, TF, H and MFD models, the same model may be repeatedly generated by different methods. In all instances the models agree closely.

#### Sequence of algorithm executions:

$R(SSRo) \Rightarrow Ro$	$H(HDN) \Rightarrow DN1$
$R(SSRc) \Rightarrow Rc$	$H(HND) \Rightarrow ND1$
$R (SSTF) \Rightarrow TF$	$DN (DNRo) \Rightarrow Ro2$
$R(SSH) \Rightarrow H$	ND $(NDRc) \Rightarrow Rc2$
TF $(TFH) \Rightarrow H1$	$DN (DNND) \Rightarrow ND2$
$H(HRo) \Rightarrow Ro1$	ND (NDDN) $\Rightarrow$ DN2
$H(HRc) \Rightarrow Rc1$	TF $(TFND) \Rightarrow ND3$
Ro $(RoDN) \Rightarrow DN$	TF (TFDN) $\Rightarrow$ DN3
$Rc (RcND) \Rightarrow ND$	TF $(TRRo) \Rightarrow Ro3$
DN (DNTF) $\Rightarrow$ TF1	TF $(TFRc) \Rightarrow Rc3$
ND (NDTF) $\Rightarrow$ TF2	$H(HTF) \Rightarrow TF3$

#### Multiply-Generated Models:

Transfer function matrices: TF, TF1, TF2, TF3 State Space representations in POF: Ro, Ro1, Ro2, Ro3 State Space Representations in PCF: Rc, Rc1, Rc2, Rc3 Markov Parameters in: H, H1 Left coprime MFD in: DN, DN1, DN2, DN3 Right coprime MFD in: ND, ND1, ND2, ND3

Since the eigenvalues of A in R are not within unit circle, the algorithms DNH and NDH were not used. The use of these two algorithms will be illustrated in Example 2.

### Results:

Using the "best" sets of structural indices from Tables 4.2 and 4.3, the following observable and controllable state space models were calculated:

					- 1. <b>Z</b>	0.21.70.02		
	-2.0	.002	.003	.001	1	0.0	0.0	1.0]
	0	0	1	0	1	1.0	0.0	0.0
	0	0	0	1	1	999	0.0	0.0
R <sub>0</sub> =	1.0	-5.001	-9.001	-5.0	1	.997	1.0	0.0
					- -			
	1	0	0	0	1	0.0	1.0	0.0
	0	1	0	0	1	0.0	0.0	0.0

### Observable Form $(\nu = \{1,3\})$

Controllable Form  $(\mu = \{1,2,1\})$ 

	999	0	0.0	1.0	1	1	0	0
	003	0	1.0	-5.002	1	0	1	0
	0.0	0	-2.0	0.0	1	0	0	1
$R_c =$	001	1	0.0	-4.001	1	0	0	0
					- -			
	0.0	0.0	1.0	.001	1	0.0	1.0	0.0
	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1	0.0	0.0	0.0

	Tr	ansfer F	unction l	Matrix (	$G(s) = \frac{W}{dt}$	<u>(s)</u> (s)
where		W(s) =	$\begin{bmatrix} w_{11}(s) \\ w_{21}(s) \end{bmatrix}$	w <sub>12</sub> (s) w <sub>22</sub> (s)	w <sub>13</sub> (s) w <sub>23</sub> (s)	]
		<i>s</i> <sup>0</sup>	s <sup>1</sup>	s <sup>2</sup>	s <sup>3</sup>	54
	w <sub>11</sub>	0	0	0	0	0 ]
	w <sub>21</sub>	10.004	13.004	6.001	1	0
	w <sub>12</sub>	10.002	23.003	19.001	7.0	1.0
	w22	2.0	1.0	0	0	0
	w13	5.001	9.001	5.0	1.0	0
	w <sub>23</sub>	1.0	0	0	0	0

For example,  $w_{12}(s) = 10 + 23s + 19s^2 + 7s^3 + s^4$ which happens to be equal to the characteristic polynomial d(s).

### Markov Parameters H,

The first few terms of the 3-column polynomial matrix  $H(s^{1}) = \{h_{i}(s^{1})\}$  are:

					100					
	50	s -1	5-2	8-3	8-4	8-5	5-6	s <sup>-7</sup>	5-8	5-9
h <sub>11</sub>	[ 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 ]
h <sub>21</sub>	0	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1.2	1.4
						-				***
$h_{12}$	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.3
h <sub>22</sub>	0	0	0	1	-5	16	-40	81	-125	96
			$\sim \sim \sim \sim$							
h13	0	1	-2	4	-8	16	-32.1	64.2	-128.4	257.8
h <sub>23</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	-7	30	-100	281	-687

# Left Coprime MFD

This form is given by  $D^{1}(s)N(s)$  where D(s) is monic and column-reduced, i.e.:

$$D_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11}(s) & d_{12}(s) \\ d_{21}(s) & d_{22}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$N_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} n_{11}(s) & n_{12}(s) & n_{13}(s) \\ n_{21}(s) & n_{22}(s) & n_{23}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

denoted by

٤

	s <sup>0</sup>	s 1	s <sup>2</sup>	s <sup>3</sup>
í,1	2.0	1.0	0	0
121	-1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4,13	002	003	001	0.0
ł.,	5.001	9.001	5.0	1.0

s<sup>0</sup> s<sup>1</sup> s<sup>2</sup>

n <sub>11</sub>	002	001	0 ]
n <sub>21</sub>	5.003	4.001	1
n <sub>12</sub>	2.0	1.0	0.0
n <sub>22</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0
		*****	
n <sub>13</sub>	1.0	0.0	0.0
n.,	0.0	0.0	0.0

**Right Coprime MFD** 

This form is given by  $N(s)D^{1}(s)$  where D(s) is monic and row-reduced, i.e.:

and

# Section 4.6

Examples

	$d_{11}(s)$	$d_{12}(s)$	d13(s)
$D_r(s) =$	$d_{21}(s)$	$d_{22}(s)$	$d_{23}(s)$
	d31(s)	$d_{32}(s)$	d <sub>33</sub> (s)
	n <sub>11</sub> (s)	$n_{12}(s)$	n <sub>13</sub> (s)
$N_{p}(s) =$	$n_{21}(s)$	$n_{22}(s)$	n <sub>23</sub> (s)

	3	8	3
d <sub>11</sub>	999	1.0	0
d21	.003	.001	0.0
d <sub>31</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0
d12	0.0	0.0	0.0
d21	-1.0	0.0	0.0
d32	2.0	1.0	0.0
		****	
d13	-1.0	0.0	0.0
d.,,	5.002	4.001	1.0
d	0.0	0.0	0.0

denoted by

s<sup>0</sup> s<sup>1</sup> s<sup>2</sup>

n <sub>11</sub>	[ .003	.001	0 ]
n <sub>21</sub>	1.0	0.0	0.0
n <sub>12</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0
n <sub>22</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0
n <sub>13</sub>	5.003	4.001	1.0
n23	0.0	0.0	0.0

and

To compare  $D_i(s)$  and  $D_r(s)$ , we can write out the polynomial matrices in their common form from the information above, rounding to integer values for convenience:

$$D_{t}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 2+s & 0\\ -1 & 5+9s+5s^{2}+s^{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$D_{r}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 1+s & 0 & -1\\ 0 & -1 & 5+4s+s^{2}\\ 0 & 2+s & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that the column degrees of  $D_i(s)$  are {1, 3} corresponding to the set  $\nu$ , and that the row degrees of  $D_i(s)$  are {1, 2, 1} corresponding to the set  $\mu$ .

Figure 4.2 indicates the following (22) conversions:

 $R \Rightarrow Ro, Rc, TF, H$   $TF \Rightarrow Ro, Rc, DN, ND, H$   $H \Rightarrow Ro, Rc, TF, DN, ND$   $DN \Rightarrow Ro, TF, ND$   $ND \Rightarrow Rc, TF, DN$   $Ro \Rightarrow DN$  $Rc \Rightarrow ND$ 

The repeated models are essentially the same and serve as checks on the others.

# 4.6.2 Example 2 (Time Scaling)

This example illustrates the conversion between MFD and the Markov parameters when the system is not D-T stable. The given system is the same one used in Example 1. Only additional results are presented for brevity. Figure 4.3 illustrates the 13 distinct conversions made.

### Sequence of algorithm executions:

$R(SSRo) \Rightarrow Ro$	$DNs(DNH) \Rightarrow Hs1$
$R(SSRc) \Rightarrow Rc$	NDs $(NDH) \Rightarrow$ Hs2
$R(SSH) \Rightarrow H$	$Hs1 (Hts) \Rightarrow H1$
Ro $(RoDN) \Rightarrow DN$	$Hs2 (Hts) \Rightarrow H2$
$Rc (RcND) \Rightarrow ND$	H2 (HRo) → Ro1
$DN(DNts) \Rightarrow DNs$	H1 (HRc) $\Rightarrow$ Rc1
ND $(NDts) \Rightarrow NDs$	10-00-00 - 10-0 - 10-0 - 10-



FIGURE 4.3 Conversions for Example 2

This example presents the following generated models:

State space representations in POF: Ro, Ro1 State space representations in PCF: Rc, Rc1 Left and right coprime MFD: DN, ND Time-scaled left and right coprime MFD: DNs, NDs Markov parameters in: H, H1, H2 "Time scaled" Markov parameters in: Hs1, Hs2

The original model R, as well as the derived models  $R_{\sigma}$ ,  $R_{\sigma}$ , G(s) and  $H(s^{1})$  are identical to those given in Example 1. Therefore, only an extension of  $H(s^{1})$  will be given here, since the number of "useful" terms is larger than presented in the results of Example 1:

	50	\$-1		5 -9	\$ -10	s <sup>-13</sup>	\$*12	2 -13	s <sup>-14</sup>
h <sub>11</sub>	[ 0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0 ]
h <sub>21</sub>	0	1		1.4	-2.0	2.7	-2.9	0.2	11.4
					-		07.0		
$h_{12}$	1	0		0.3	~1.2	3.1	-6.5	10.2	-8.8
h <sub>22</sub>	0	0	***	96.0	240	-1439	4555	-11024	21320
h13	0	1	100	257.8	-513.2	1025	-2047	4088	-8166
h23	0	0	-	-687.0	1470	-2700	3961	-3367	-4290

In order to illustrate scaling in MFD, we will repeat some of the results from Example 1. First, let us compare the unscaled and scaled left coprime MFD;

### Left Coprime MFD (unscaled)

This form is given by  $D^{1}(s)N(s)$  where D(s) is monic and column-reduced. These results are taken from Example 1:

$$D_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11}(s) & d_{12}(s) \\ d_{21}(s) & d_{22}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$N_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} n_{11}(s) & n_{12}(s) & n_{13}(s) \\ n_{21}(s) & n_{22}(s) & n_{23}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

denoted by

50	s*	S*	5	
2.0	1.0	0	0 ]	
-1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	= D (s)
002	003	001	0.0	
5.001	9.001	5.0	1.0	
	3° 2.0 -1.0 002 5.001	s <sup>v</sup> s <sup>1</sup> 2.0 1.0 -1.0 0.0 002003 5.001 9.001	s <sup>o</sup> s <sup>1</sup> s <sup>2</sup> 2.0 1.0 0 -1.0 0.0 0.0 002003001 5.001 9.001 5.0	s <sup>v</sup> s <sup>1</sup> s <sup>2</sup> s <sup>2</sup> 2.0 1.0 0 0 -1.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 002003001 0.0 5.001 9.001 5.0 1.0

n11 -.002 -.0010 R21 5.003 4.001 1  $= N_i(s)$ R12 2.0 1.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 n 22 n13 1.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 n23

The scaling factor f is set at a value of 0.1. This "time scaling" is reflected into the s-domain as a scaling factor on the s variable. A well known fact from Fourier theory is that a contraction of the time axis corresponds to an expansion of the frequency axis and vice versa. Here, because the system response becomes large too quickly in normal time, we expand the time axis by a factor f=10. Thus, if p

and

### Section 4.6 Examples

represents the scaled Laplace variable, then s = 10p, and e.g., a polynomial

$$d(s) = 1 + 5s^{-1} + 9s^{-2}$$

becomes

$$d(p) = 1 + 0.5p^{-1} + 0.09p^{-2}$$

The reader should compare the following scaled version with the above left coprime MFD:

### Left Coprime MFD (scaled)

	s	s <sup>1</sup>	s <sup>2</sup>	53	
d <sub>11</sub>	0.2	1.0	0.0	0.0	
<i>d</i> <sub>21</sub>	001	0.0	0.0	0.0	$= D_{is}(s)$
$d_{11}$	0.0	003	01	0.0	
d22	.005	.090	0.5	1.0	

n <sub>11</sub>	0.0	001	0.0 ]	
n <sub>21</sub>	.005	.040	0.1	
n <sub>12</sub>	0.2	1.0	0.0	$= N_{ls}(s)$
n <sub>22</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	
n <sub>13</sub>	0.1	0.0	0.0	
n <sub>23</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	

and

# Right Coprime MFD (unscaled)

This form is given by  $N(s)D^{-1}(s)$  where D(s) is monic and row-reduced. This is the same scaling that was previously applied to the left coprime MFD above. The unscaled results are repeated from Example 1:

$$D_{r}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11}(s) & d_{12}(s) & d_{13}(s) \\ d_{21}(s) & d_{22}(s) & d_{23}(s) \\ d_{31}(s) & d_{32}(s) & d_{33}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$N_{r}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} n_{11}(s) & n_{12}(s) & n_{13}(s) \\ n_{21}(s) & n_{22}(s) & n_{23}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

			a	
<i>d</i> <sub>11</sub>	.999	1.0	0	i i
d21	.003	.001	0.0	
d31	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<i>d</i> <sub>12</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	$= D_s(s)$
d222	-1.0	0.0	0.0	1.1883
d 32	2.0	1.0	0.0	
d 13	-1.0	0.0	0.0	
d	5.002	4.001	1.0	
d	0.0	0.0	0.0	8
33				

51

52

s0

n\_11 .003 .001 0 n21 1.0 0.0 0.0 --------= N,(s) #12 0.0 0.0 0.0 n22 0.0 0.0 0.0 -------5.003 4.001 R13 1.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 n23

denoted by

and

Right Coprime MFD (scaled)

	50	s1	s <sup>2</sup>	
d11	0.1	1.0	0.0	3
d21	0.0	.001	0.0	
d31	0.0	0.0	0.0	
d12	0.0	0.0	0.0	= D(s)
d	-0.1	0.0	0.0	- 134-1
d	0.2	1.0	0.0	
d	01	0.0	0.0	
d.,	.05	0.4	1.0	
d <sub>33</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	1
	s <sup>0</sup>	$s^1$	s <sup>2</sup>	
n <sub>11</sub>	[ 0.0	.001	0.0	1
n <sub>21</sub>	0.1	0.0	0.0	
				N (a)
n <sub>12</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	$= N_{r_3}(3)$
n <sub>22</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	
				-
n13	.05	0.4	1.0	
n <sub>23</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	1

and

## Markov Parameters (scaled)

The first few terms of the 3-column polynomial matrix  $H(s^{-1}) = \{h_g(s^{-1})\}$  were given in Example 1. That result illustrated the increasing values of the parameters. A further extension was given earlier in this example. Now consider the scaled

Markov parameters (again with f = 0.1), and note the dramatic change:

	\$0	\$-1	\$-2	\$-3	8-4	5-5	5-6	\$-7	5-6
h <sub>11</sub>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 ]
h21	0	.1	01	.001	0001	10-5	0.0	0.0	0.0
$h_{12}$	1.0	0.0	10-5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
h22	0.0	0.0	0.0	.001	0005	.00016	00004	10-5	0.0
-									
h13	0.0	0.1	002	.004	0008	.00016	00003	10-5	0.0
h <sub>23</sub>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	.0001	00007	.00003	-10-5	0.0

These Markov parameters are obtained by Algorithms DNH and NDH which require D-T stable MFDs.

Explanation of time scaling of MFDs, time scaling with the factor f = 0.1:

Original left and right coprime MFDs (without scaling):

$$D_{f}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 2+1s & -.002 & -.003s & -.001s^{2} \\ -1 & 5.001 & +9.001s & +5s^{2} + 1s^{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$D_{r}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} .999 + 1s & 0 & -1 \\ .003 & +.001s & -1 & 5.002 & +4.001s + 1s^{2} \\ 0 & 2 + 1s & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Left and right coprime MFDs with scaling:

$$D_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} .2 + 1s & -.0002 - .003s - .01s^{2} \\ -.001 & .005001 + .09001s + .5s^{2} + 1s^{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1 \qquad 3 \qquad \text{column degrees}$$

$$s) = \begin{bmatrix} .0999 + 1s & 0 & -.01 \\ .0003 + .001s & -0.1 & .05002 + .4001s + 1s^{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
row

 $D_{r}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} .0003 + .001s & -0.1 & .05002 + .4001s + 1s^{*} \\ 0 & 0.2 + 1s & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ degrees}$ 

#### Section 4.7 Summary

The coefficients  $d_{ijk}$  of  $D_i(s)$  in an  $i^{ik}$  row where the polynomial with the column degree  $n_j$  is located are multiplied with  $f^{n_j-h}$ ,  $h=[0,n_m]$ ,  $n_m = \max \{n_j\}$ . Thus, the highest degree coefficients in all polynomials defining the column degrees are unchanged and the time scaled polynomial matrix  $D_i(s)$  remains monic.

Similarly, the coefficients  $d_{ik}$  of  $D_i(s)$  in a j<sup>th</sup> column where the polynomial

with the row degree  $n_i$  is located are multiplied with  $f^{n_i-h}$ ,  $h=[0,n_m]$ ,  $n_m = \max \{n_j\}$ . Thus, the highest degree coefficients in all polynomials defining the row degrees are unchanged and the time scaled polynomial matrix  $D_{\alpha}(s)$  remains monic. Note the verification of these statements in the example above.

# 4.7

# Summary

To summarize the developments in this chapter, a large collection of algorithms was presented. These algorithms provide conversions between any two types of system models: state space canonical forms, transfer function matrices and matrix fraction descriptions (ARMA models), as well as the Markov parameter (Hankel matrix) description. Appropriate application of this group of algorithms will allow the designer to view the system from every "perspective," and to work with the most convenient model.

In conclusion of this chapter it should be pointed out that the pseudocontrollable and pseudo-observable forms, PCF and POF, used in the majority of intermodel conversions, have not so far been widely used in the systems/controls literature. The reason for that is, no doubt, due to the great popularity of Luenberger canonical forms and the fact that PCFs and POFs used here are just "permutations" of Luenberger forms. Recall that in Chapter 3 it was stated that our versions of PCFs and POFs, based on admissible sets of pseudo-controllability and pseudo-observability indices, POI and POI, are more "natural" than other approaches in representing MIMO systems. This "naturalness" stems from the extremely simple relationship between the state space and input/output, i.e. MFD, models and the conclusion that there is a one-to-one correspondence between state space and MFD models, which has been established by Remarks 4.1 and 4.2 and illustrated by Examples 4.1 and 4.2.

To emphasize these simple, important and straightforward relationships let us review them once more in a slightly different way. Consider a state space representation:

 $R_o = \{\mathbf{A}_o, \mathbf{B}_o, \mathbf{C}_o, \mathbf{D}_o\}$  in a POF

based on an admissible set of POI:

 $v = (v_i), i = [1, p], k = \max\{v_i\}$ 

and its one-to-one "counterpart," i.e. a left coprime MFD:

$$\{D(z), N(z)\}$$

where D(z) is monic and column-reduced having column degrees {  $n_i$  } equal to POI, i.e.:

$$\{n_i\} = \{v_i\}$$

Of course, these two models are related to each other by:

$$\mathbf{C}_{a}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{a})^{d}\mathbf{B}_{a} + \mathbf{D}_{a} = D^{d}(z) N(z)$$

In Section 4.1.7 it was established that the non-zero, non-unity elements in  $A_a$  and the negatives of the corresponding non-zero, non-unity coefficients  $d_{gh}$  of the polynomials in D(z) are equal to each other. Also, having these elements, it is extremely easy to build either  $A_a$  or D(z), since the locations of those elements in both  $A_a$  and D(z) are uniquely determined by the selector vectors  $\mathbf{v}_a$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_b$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_g$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{gr}$  (and associated selector matrices) generated by the underlying set  $\{n_c\}$  or  $\{v_t\}$ . In Section 3.3.4 it was shown that the selector vectors are a simple consequence of (or easily obtainable from) the crate diagram based on the set POI.

It has been shown that the total number of above mentioned non-zero, nonunity elements is np, and that they appear in  $A_o$  in some p rows, while in D(z) they appear in some n columns in the  $[p \times (k+1)p]$  matrix  $D_r$ , where  $D_r$  is related to D(z) by:

$$\mathbf{D}_r = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_0 & | & \mathbf{D}_1 & | & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_k \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } D(z) = \sum_{i=0}^k \mathbf{D}_i z^i$$

If the p rows from  $A_n$ , containing non-zero, non-unity elements, are arranged in the  $(p \times n)$  matrix  $A_n$ , and if the n columns from the matrix  $D_n$  are arranged into another  $(p \times n)$  matrix, say  $D_n$ , then it has been shown that:

It has also been established that the locations of the non-zero, non-unity rows in  $A_o$  are determined by the locations of unities in the selector vector  $v_a$ , i.e. the selector matrix  $S_a$ , and that the locations of the non-zero, non-unity columns in  $D_r$  are determined by the location of unities in the selector vector  $v_a$ , i.e. the selector matrix  $S_v$ .

Thus, as has been shown previously, and used effectively in a number of algorithms in this chapter, the relationship between A, and D, may be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{A}_{r} = \mathbf{S}_{a}^{T} \mathbf{A}_{a} = -\mathbf{D}_{r} \mathbf{S}_{ii} \qquad (4.95)$$

which, in fact, may be considered as the basis of almost all of the previously described algorithms.

#### Section 4.7 Summary

With the help of two other selector vectors, namely, v, and v<sub>M</sub> (and selector matrices S, and Su) we may:

Given A<sub>a</sub>, calculate D, by:

$$\mathbf{D}_{r} = \mathbf{S}_{ld}^{T} - \mathbf{S}_{a}^{T} \mathbf{A}_{a} \mathbf{S}_{ll}^{T}$$

or conversely,

Given D(z), i.e. D, then A, may be obtained simply by:

$$\mathbf{A}_{o} = \mathbf{S}_{i}\mathbf{A}_{2} - \mathbf{S}_{a}\mathbf{D}_{r}\mathbf{S}_{ii}$$

where  $A_2 = [0 | I_{a_2}]$ , while the selector vectors and selector matrices used are defined in Section 3.3.4.

Applying the principle of duality, it may be shown that the relationship between A, in a PCF:

$$R_c = \{\mathbf{A}_c, \mathbf{B}_c, \mathbf{C}_c, \mathbf{D}_c\}$$

based on a set of PCI

$$\{\mu_i\}, k = \max\{\mu_i\}, i = [1,m]$$

and its one-to-one counterpart, monic and row-reduced D(z) in a right coprime MFD

$$\{N(z), D(z)\}$$

having row degrees  $\{n_i\}$  equal to the PCI, i.e.:

4

where, now:

or

$$\mathbf{A}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ ---- \\ \mathbf{I}_{n-m} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{D}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbf{D}_{i} z^{i}, \quad \mathbf{D}_{ee} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{0} \\ \mathbf{D}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{D}_{e} \end{bmatrix}$$

and of course:

$$\mathbf{C}_{c}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_{c})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{c} + \mathbf{D}_{c} = N(z) D^{-1}(z)$$

$$\{n_i\} = \{\mu_i\}$$
$$\mathbf{D}_{cc} = \mathbf{S}_{bl} \cdot \mathbf{S}_{b} \mathbf{A}_{c} \mathbf{S}_{a}$$
$$\mathbf{A}_{c} = \mathbf{A}_{2} \mathbf{S}_{i}^{T} \cdot \mathbf{S}_{b}^{T} \mathbf{D}_{cc} \mathbf{S}_{b}$$

# 4.8

# References

In addition to the standard linear system books of Brogan (1991), Chen (1984) and Kailath (1980), a classical paper concerning system identification is Ho and Kalman (1965). A useful modification of Ho and Kalman's work is reported in Bingulac et al (1990). Both Rosenbrock (1970) and Wolovich (1974) provide alternative discussions on the relationships between the MFD and state space models. See Ackermann (1985), Appendix A, for background on Hessenberg forms. Bingulac and Djorovic (1975) and Bingulac and Sinha (1990) are recommended reading for specific discussions on Jordan forms and C-T system identification, respectively.

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Section 4.9 Exercises

# 4.9 Exercises

4.1 The first 8 Markov parameters, H,, i=[0,7], of a system are given below:

$$\{\mathbf{H}_i\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 12 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

These Markov parameters arranged in the PMF,  $H(s^{1})$ , are:

1	0	-1	0	1	1	1	2	4	
	0	0	0	-1	0	1	1	1	
	0	1	1	1	2	4	7	12	
	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	4	

Determine:

- (a) —all admissible POFs and the corresponding sets of POI; use Algorithm HRo,
- (b) -which set(s) of POI are not admissible,
- (c) -all admissible PCFs and the corresponding sets of PCI; use Algorithm HRc,
- (d) -which set(s) of PCI are not admissible,
- (e) —all admissible left coprime MFDs and the corresponding sets of column degrees; use Algorithm HDN,
- (f) -all admissible right coprime MFDs and the corresponding sets of row degrees; use Algorithm HND.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER41.DPF.

4.2 Given below is a right coprime MFD; D(s) is not row-reduced:

$$N(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -s^2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $D(s) = \begin{bmatrix} -1+s & 1-s^2+s^3 \\ -2+s & 2-s^2 \end{bmatrix}$ 

The matrices above can be written in PMF as follows:
Determine:

- (a) —all admissible left coprime MFDs, {D<sub>i</sub>(s), N<sub>i</sub>(s)}, with D<sub>i</sub>(s) columnreduced; use Algorithm NDDN,
- (b) —all admissible POFs, R<sub>e</sub>, and corresponding sets of POI; use Algorithm NDRo.
- (c) Using one of the obtained admissible left coprime MFDs in (a), calculate all admissible right coprime MFDs, {N<sub>r</sub>(s), D<sub>r</sub>(s)}, with D<sub>r</sub>(s) row-reduced; use Algorithm DNND.
- (d) Using one of the obtained admissible left coprime MFDs in (a), calculate all admissible PCFs, R<sub>c</sub>, and corresponding sets of PCI; use Algorithm DNRc.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER42.DPF,

4.3 Given the transfer function matrix G(s) = W(s)/d(s) where:

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

and

$$d(s) = (1+s)^2 (2+s)^2$$

W in PMF and the coefficients of d(s) are:

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 12 & 13 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculater

- (a) —the order, n, of a minimal realization;
- (b) —all admissible POFs and corresponding sets of POI, (Use TFRo.);
- (c) -all admissible PCFs and corresponding sets of PCI, (Use TFRc.);

#### Section 4.9 Exercises

- (d) —all admissible left coprime MFDs, (Use either TFDN or RoDN, with all POFs from (b) as input.);
- (c) —all admissible right coprime MFDs; (Use either TFND or RcND, with all PCFs from (c) as input.);
- (f) —the first 9 Markov parameters; Use either RoH or RcH; (As input arguments, use any of the previously obtained admissible realizations, R, or R,.).

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER43.DPF.

4.4 The purpose of these exercises is to provide a hands-on experience on almost all algorithms discussed in Chapter 4, as well as on various details about the L-A-S implementation of these algorithms. Various parts may be assigned, depending on the particular topics desired.

- Define an arbitrary (random) 5<sup>th</sup> order state space representation R<sub>x</sub> = {A<sub>x</sub>, B, C, D} with m=2 inputs and p=3 outputs.
- (2) Calculate the eigenvalues λ<sub>i</sub> = σ<sub>i</sub> + j ω<sub>i</sub> of Λ<sub>a</sub>.
- (3) Divide  $A_a$  with  $3|\lambda_{max}|$ ; i.e.  $A_a/(3|\lambda_{max}|) = A$ .

Using R, calculate:

- (4) —the transfer function G(z) = W(z)/d(z),
- (5) -- the first 15 Markov parameters H, in H(z1),
- (6) —the PCF  $R_c = \{A_c, B_c, C_c, D_c\}$  corresponding to  $\mu = \{4, 1\},\$
- (7) —the POF R<sub>o</sub> = {A<sub>o</sub>, B<sub>o</sub>, C<sub>o</sub>, D<sub>o</sub>} corresponding to v = {1,3,1},
- (8) —the right coprime MFD  $\{N_i(z), D_i(z)\}$  with  $\{n_i\} = \{\mu_i\},$
- (9) —the left coprime MFD  $\{D_i(z), N_i(z)\}$  with  $\{n_i\} = \{v_i\}$ .

Using the models (one at a time):

- $\{d(z), W(z)\}, H(z^{-1})$  and  $\{N_{z}(z), D_{z}(z)\}$ , determine:
- (10) —the POF R<sub>al</sub> corresponding to the given { v<sub>i</sub> },
- (11) -the POF R<sub>02</sub> corresponding to the given { v<sub>i</sub> },
- (12) —the POF R<sub>ad</sub> corresponding to the given { v<sub>i</sub> }.

Using the models (one at a time):

{ d(z), W(z) },  $H(z^{-1})$  and {  $N_r(z), D_r(z)$  }, determine: (13) —the left coprime MFD { $D_n(z), N_n(z)$ } corresponding to {  $n_r$  } = {  $\nu_r$  },

### Chapter 4 Intermodel Conversion

- (14) —the left coprime MFD {D<sub>a</sub>(z), N<sub>a</sub>(z)} corresponding to { n<sub>i</sub> } = { v<sub>i</sub> }.
- (15) —the left coprime MFD {D<sub>0</sub>(z), N<sub>0</sub>(z)} corresponding to { n<sub>i</sub> } = { v<sub>i</sub> }.
- (16) Check that all the Rest i=[1,3] obtained are equal to Re.
- (17) Check that all the {D<sub>g</sub>(z), N<sub>h</sub>(z)}, i=[1,3] obtained are equal to {D<sub>f</sub>(z), N<sub>h</sub>(z)}.

#### Using the models (one at a time):

- $\{ d(z), W(z) \}$ ,  $H(z^{-1})$  and  $\{ D_i(z), N_i(z) \}$ , determine:
- (18) -the PCF Re1 corresponding to the given { µi },
- (19) -the PCF Re corresponding to the given { µ1 },
- (20) —the PCF R<sub>a</sub> corresponding to the given { µ<sub>i</sub> }.

Using the models (one at a time):

 $\{ d(z), W(z) \}$ ,  $H(z^{-1})$  and  $\{ D_i(z), N_i(z) \}$ , determine:

- (21) —the right coprime MFD  $\{N_{i}(z), D_{i}(z)\}$  corresponding to  $\{n_{i}\} = \{\mu_{i}\},\$
- (22) —the right coprime MFD {N<sub>a</sub>(z), D<sub>a</sub>(z)} corresponding to { n<sub>i</sub> } = { µ<sub>i</sub> }.
- (23) —the right coprime MFD {N<sub>d</sub>(z), D<sub>d</sub>(z)} corresponding to { n<sub>t</sub> } = { µ<sub>t</sub> }.
- (24) Check that all the R<sub>ap</sub>, i=[1,3] obtained are equal to R<sub>c</sub>.
- (25) Check that all the {N<sub>n</sub>(z), D<sub>n</sub>(z)}, i=[1,3] obtained are equal to {N<sub>i</sub>(z), D<sub>i</sub>(z)}.
- (26) Using {D(z),N(z)} calculate the first 15 Markov parameters in H1(z1).
- (27) Using {N,(z), D,(z)} calculate the first 15 Markov parameters in H2(z1).
- (28) Using {d(z), W(z)} calculate the first 15 Markov parameters in H<sub>3</sub>(z<sup>-1</sup>).
- (29) Check that all the H<sub>i</sub>(z<sup>1</sup>), i=[1,3] obtained are equal to H(z<sup>1</sup>).
- (30) Using H(z<sup>-1</sup>) calculate the transfer function {d<sub>1</sub>(z), W<sub>1</sub>(z)}.
- (31) Using  $\{D(z), N(z)\}$  calculate the transfer function  $\{d_2(z), W_2(z)\}$ .
- (32) Using {N,(z), D,(z)} calculate the transfer function {d3(z), W3(z)}.
- (33) Check that all the {d<sub>i</sub>(z), W<sub>i</sub>(z)}, i=[1,3] obtained are equal to {d(z), W(z)}.

### Hints:

- (1) Use either the L-A-S subroutine ABCD.SUB or the operator DPM four times.
- (2) Use the operator EGV.
- (3) Use the operators RPT , S\* and S/ .
- (4) Use the operator SSTF.
- (5) Use the subroutine SSH.SUB.
- (6) Use the subroutine SSRc.SUB.
- (7) Use the subroutine SSRo.SUB.
- (8) Use the subroutine RcND.SUB.
- (9) Use the subroutine RoDN.SUB.
- (10) Use the subroutine TFRo.SBR.

### Section 4.9 Exercises

- (11) Use the subroutine HRo.SBR.
- (12) Use the subroutine NDRo.SBR.
- (13) Use the subroutine TFDN.SBR.
- (14) Use the subroutine HDN.SBR.
- (15) Use the subroutine NDDN.SBR.
- (16) Use the operators and OUT in the MOS Roi,Ro(-)(out) = ; with i=[1,3].
- (17) Use the operators and OUT in the MOS Dli, Dl(-), Nli, Nl(-)(out) = .
- (18) Use the subroutine TFRc.SBR.
- (19) Use the subroutine HRc.SBR.
- (20) Use the subroutine DNRc.SBR.
- (21) Use the subroutine TFND.SBR.
- (22) Use the subroutine HND.SBR.
- (23) Use the subroutine DNND.SBR.
- (24) Use the operators and OUT in the MOS Rci,Rc(-)(out) = ; with i=[1,3].
- (25) Use the operators and OUT in the MOS Nri,Nr(-),Dri,Dr(-)(out)= .
- (26) Use the subroutine DNH.SBR.
- (27) Use the subroutine NDH.SBR.
- (28) Use the subroutine TFH.SBR.
- (29) Use the operators and OUT in the MOS Hi,H(-)(out) = ; with i=[1,3].
- (30) Use the subroutine HTF.SBR.
- (31) Use the subroutine DNTF.SUB.
- (32) Use the subroutine NDTF.SUB.
- (33) Use the operators and OUT in the MOS di,d(-),Wi,W(-)(out) = .

Additional "general" hints:

- (1) From time to time enter the interpreter commands (IC) STATUS and NAMES to check the number of arrays defined and the total number of elements used by these arrays. If necessary, by the IC ELM, or the operator (ELM) = eliminate some of arrays. This can be done by either:
  - ELM ,x1,x2,x3, ... ,xn (IC version) or
     (ELM)=x1,x2,x3, ... ,xn (OS version)
- (2) By using the IC HELP (H), syntactical descriptions of any operator statement (OS) or interpreter command (IC), as well as any subroutine of the type SUB or SBR can be obtained by:
  - h,xyz for any IC or OS
     h,sub,xyz for any subroutine of type SUB or SBR
- (3) At any time during the L-A-S session by using:

Chapter 4 Intermodel Conversion

\* x,y,z(out)= or \* x,y,z(out,e)= or \* x,y,z(out,t,<n>)= ; <n>:= 0 | 1 | 2

the desired arrays may be displayed on the screen. Similarly, by using:

\* x,y,z(out,L)= or \* x,y,z(out,L,e)= or \* x,y,z(out,L,<n>)= ; <n>:= 0 | 1 | 2

the arrays may be written to the LASR "print" file.

(4) Before ending the session, the use of:

\* w, Prg or wpf, Prg

stores the sequence of L-A-S operators, i.e. the L-A-S program, on the Disk Program File. This program may later be retrieved from "DPF" and executed without retyping all statements. This can be done by:

\* r, Prg or rpf, Prg

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER44.DPF.

4.5 A 5<sup>th</sup> order uncontrollable and unobservable strictly proper system with m=2 inputs and p=2 outputs is given below in the system matrix form:

$$R_{g} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix}$$

namely,

$$R_{s} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & -.5 & -3.0 & .0 & -1.5 & | & 1.0 & -1.0 \\ .0 & 2.5 & -1.0 & .0 & -1.5 & | & .0 & .0 \\ .0 & .5 & 4.0 & .0 & 1.5 & | & .0 & 1.0 \\ 3.0 & .5 & 3.0 & 4.0 & 1.5 & | & .0 & 1.0 \\ .0 & -.5 & 1.0 & .0 & 3.5 & | & .0 & .0 \\ --- & --- & --- & --- & -|- & --- \\ 1.0 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 1.0 & | & .0 & .0 \\ 1.0 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 2.0 & | & .0 & .0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determine minimal state space representations using:

- (a) -a Hessenberg transformation,
- (b) —a Kalman decomposition. Calculate also the dimensions of the subspaces co, co and co, and
- (c) -- the Jordan form decomposition.

Hints:

- See Appendix B for a discussion on these methods of obtaining a minimal realization.
- Define the representation R, using the operator DMA, or INPM.
- For the Hessenberg transformation use either the operator MIN, subroutine MIN.SUB (twice), or subroutine MIN.SBR. For extra effort use each option. To check if all procedures give the same minimal representation, use the operator SSTF.
- For the Kalman decomposition use the subroutine KALD.SBR.
- For the Jordan Form minimal representation use the operators JFR and STR and eliminate the uncontrollable and/or unobservable modes. This can be done, for instance, using the operator DSM.
- Minimal representations R<sub>m</sub> = {A<sub>m</sub>, B<sub>m</sub>, C<sub>m</sub>, D<sub>m</sub>} can be built using the subroutine SYSM.SUB.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER45.DPF.

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In the previous chapter several methods of conversion between system representations were presented. The purpose of this chapter is to present the important conversions between input/output data to various system models. This special catagory of conversions is called *identification*. In the first section the structural relationship, called the *identification identity*, which was discussed in Chapter 4, is reviewed.

# 5.1 The Identification Identity

Several of the intermodel conversions discussed in Chapter 4 were based on the relationship between the state space model in a POF and a corresponding left coprime MFD. Since this fundamental relation is also useful in system identification, it will be, in large part, repeated here.

As was done in Section 4.1.7, consider the order-n D-T system with m-inputs and p-outputs:

$$\mathbf{x}(t+1) = \mathbf{A}_{o}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{o}\mathbf{u}(t)$$
  

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C}_{o}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D}_{o}\mathbf{u}(t)$$
(5.1)

where  $R_o = \{\mathbf{A}_o, \mathbf{B}_o, \mathbf{C}_o, \mathbf{D}_o\}$  is in a POF corresponding to a set of admissible POI,  $\mathbf{v} = \{v_i\}$ . From Eq.(5.1) we may write

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}(t) \\ \mathbf{y}(t+1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}(t+r) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{o} \\ \mathbf{C}_{o} \mathbf{A}_{o} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{o} \mathbf{A}_{o}' \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{o} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{C}_{o} \mathbf{B}_{o} & \mathbf{D}_{o} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{o} \mathbf{A}_{o}^{r-1} \mathbf{B}_{o} & \cdots & \mathbf{C}_{o} \mathbf{A}_{o} \mathbf{B}_{o} & \mathbf{C}_{o} \mathbf{B}_{o} & \mathbf{D}_{o} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(t) \\ \mathbf{u}(t+1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}(t+r) \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.2)

Now we let  $r = \nu_n = \max\{\nu_i\}$ . Clearly, Eq.(5.2) holds for any integer t = [0, N-r] and can be rewritten as

$$\mathbf{y}_{t} = \mathbf{Q}_{so}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{u}_{t} \tag{5.3}$$

where y, and u, are  $(\nu_m + 1)p$  and  $(\nu_m + 1)m$  dimensional columns containing output and input vectors y(t+j) and u(t+j),  $j = \{0, \nu_m\}$ . The matrix  $\mathbf{Q}_{ov}$  is the observability matrix of the pair  $\{\mathbf{A}_o, \mathbf{C}_o\}$ , while **H** is the  $(r+1)p \times (r+1)m$  lower block triangular matrix containing along the main diagonal the  $(p \times m)$  blocks  $D_o$ . The other nonzero blocks of H are the  $p \times m$  dimensional Markov parameters:

$$C_a A_a^{j} B_a$$
, for  $j = [0, v_a - 1]$  (5.4)

Note that H in Eq.(5.3) equals  $\mathbf{R}_k$  in Eq.(4.61), used in Algorithm HDN. Our goal is to eliminate from Eq.(5.2) the  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  terms, thereby obtaining an expression which relates the sampled data to the elements in  $R_a$ .

Equation (5.2) can be considered to represent  $(\nu_m+1)p$  scalar equations in the samples

$$y_{ij} = y_j(t+j)$$
 (5.5)

i.e. the  $i^{th}$  component of the output vector  $\mathbf{y}(t+j)$ , i=[1, p],  $j=[0, v_m]$ . In Section 3.3 it was shown that  $\mathbf{Q}_{ov}$  has *n* rows of an identity matrix and *p* rows that correspond to the rows of  $\mathbf{A}_{o}$  with non-zero/non-unity elements. Furthermore, the location of these rows are determined by the selector vectors  $\mathbf{v}_{ij}$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{ki}$ , respectively.

Premultiplying Eq.(5.3) by the selector matrices  $S_{a}^{T}$  and  $S_{b}^{T}$  defined by Eq.(3.79), we obtain, respectively,

$$\mathbf{y}_{1t} = \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{u}_t$$
, and  $\mathbf{y}_{2t} = \mathbf{A}_t \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{H}_2 \mathbf{u}_t$  (5.6)

where

$$\mathbf{y}_{1t} = \mathbf{S}_{ll}^T \mathbf{y}_t$$
,  $\mathbf{y}_{2t} = \mathbf{S}_{ld}^T \mathbf{y}_t$  with  $\mathbf{H}_1 = \mathbf{S}_{ll}^T \mathbf{H}$ ,  $\mathbf{H}_2 = \mathbf{S}_{ld}^T \mathbf{H}$ 

Eliminating x(t) from Eq.(5.6),

$$\mathbf{y}_{2r} = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{H}_2 - \mathbf{A}_r \mathbf{H}_1) & \mathbf{A}_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_r \\ \mathbf{y}_{1r} \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.7)

The matrix  $A_r$  in Eqs.(5.6) and (5.7) is a  $(p \times n)$  matrix containing the rows of  $A_o$  with non-zero non-unity elements, whose locations in  $A_o$  are specified by the selector vector  $v_o$ . Equation (5.7) may be expressed in a more concise form by

$$\mathbf{y}_{2r} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_r & \mathbf{A}_r \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_r \tag{5.8}$$

where  $N_r = H_2 - A_r H_1$  is a  $p \times (\nu_m + 1)m$  matrix and  $z_k$  is an h-dimensional vector containing  $u_i$  and  $y_{10}$ , where  $h = (\nu_m + 1)m + n$ . Equation (5.8) is referred to as the *identification identity* since it relates input/output data samples arranged into columns  $y_{20}$  and  $z_i$  to parameters of the state space representation  $R_{oi}$  i.e. in the matrices  $A_0$ ,  $B_0$  and  $D_0$ . The *identification identity* is the basis for conversions between input/output data and either state space or MFD models.

Equation (5.8) may now be rewritten as

$$y_{2i} - A_i y_{1i} = N_i u_i$$
 (5.9)

Note that Eq.(5.9) is a time-domain input/output expression. Applying the z-

#### Section 5.2 Conversions from Input/Output Samples

transform and taking into account the arrangements of the samples  $u_i(t+j)$  and  $y_i(t+j)$ , i=[1,m], k=[1,p],  $j=[0,\nu_m]$  in the vectors  $u_i$ ,  $y_{1i}$  and  $y_{2i}$ , we obtain:

$$D(z) y(z) = N(z) u(z)$$
 (5.10)

which is a left coprime MFD. Since in Eq.(5.9) the *p* dimensional vector  $y_2$  is multiplied by the identity matrix  $I_p$ , it may be concluded that D(z) in Eq.(5.10) is monic. For further details see Section 3.4 and Eq.(3.104). Thus, in order to obtain the  $[p \times (\nu_n + 1)p]$  matrix  $D_p$ , which leads directly to D(z), it is first necessary to obtain the matrix  $A_p$ . From the discussion in Section 3.3.4 it is clear that  $A_p$  may be obtained from  $A_p$  in a POF by:

$$\mathbf{S}_{a}^{T}\mathbf{A}_{a}=\mathbf{A}, \quad (5.11)$$

where S<sub>#</sub> is one of the selector matrices uniquely defined by the particular set of admissible POI # and generated by Algorithm SMat:

$$\nu$$
 (SMat) =  $\nu_{\alpha}$ ,  $S_{\alpha}$ ,  $S_{\beta}$ ,  $S_{\beta}$ ,  $S_{\beta}$ 

Then the matrix D, becomes

$$\mathbf{S}_{id}^{T} - \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{S}_{il}^{T} = \mathbf{D}_{r}$$
(5.12)

For more details see Section 3.3.4.

# 5.2 Conversions from Input/Output Samples

Many times only input/output data is available, without a given system model. The process of creating a system model from the data is called system identification. The algorithms of this section can "identify" a system in either state space form or as an ARMA (MFD) model. In addition, the Markov parameters may be calculated from the input/output data. To obtain a matrix transfer function, it is recommended that one of the above mentioned forms be calculated first, i.e. state space or ARMA, although there is a procedure for the identification of the corresponding transfer matrix directly.

## 5.2.1 Input/Output Data to Observable State Form

This algorithm performs a deterministic D-T system identification by calculating an observable form state space model  $R_o = \{A_o, B_a, C_o, D_o\}$  from a set of input and corresponding output data. Certain restrictions are placed on the input signals to ensure that the system excitation is "sufficiently rich." This will be explained subsequently. The algorithm is based on the identification identity,

235

### Chapter 5 System Identification

Eq.(5.8). The reader is urged to review Section 5.1 since we will assume familiarity here with the identification identity.

Thus, Eq.(5.8), i.e.

$$\mathbf{y}_{2t} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_r & | & \mathbf{A}_r \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_t, \text{ where } \mathbf{z}_t = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_t \\ --- \\ \mathbf{y}_{1t} \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.13)

establishes the linear dependance between the p dimensional vector  $y_{2e}$ , containing samples  $y_i(t+\nu_i)$ , i=[1,p], of the output vector y(t) and:

- (v<sub>n</sub>+1)m dimensional vector u<sub>i</sub> containing samples of the input vectors u(t+j), j=[0,v<sub>n</sub>] and
- n dimensional vector y<sub>ii</sub> containing the samples y<sub>i</sub>(t+j), j=[0,v<sub>i</sub>-1] of the output vector y(t).

where  $\mathbf{v}$  is a set of admissible POI used in representing the system to be identified, while  $k = v_m = \max \{v_i\}$ . With  $h = (v_m + 1)m + n$  recall that  $(p \times h)$  and  $(p \times n)$  matrices N, and A, defining linear dependence in Eq.(5.8) contain:

- matrices N<sub>i</sub> in the polynomial matrix N(z) of the left coprime MFD relating y(z) to u(z), Eq.(5.10), and
  - p rows with non-zero non-unity elements in the matrix  $A_{a}$ , Eq.(5.11), of the state space representation  $R_{a}$  in a POF.

In order to determine N, and A<sub>n</sub> as well as to select an appropriate set  $\nu$  of POI, the following is suggested. Concatenate the vectors  $y_{2i}$  and  $z_i$  corresponding to samples t=0,1,2,...,q-1 into  $(p \times q)$  and  $(h \times q)$  matrices  $Y_2$  and  $Z_1$ , respectively, (where it is assumed that h < q and  $q+\nu_m < N$ ), yielding:

$$\mathbf{Y}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{r} \mid \mathbf{A}_{r} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{Z} , \text{ where } \mathbf{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U} \\ --- \\ \mathbf{Y}_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (\mathbf{v}_{m} + 1)m \\ --- \\ \mathbf{Y}_{1} \end{bmatrix} n$$
 (5.14)

Note that the structure of the matrix U is given by:

$$\mathbf{U}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(0) & \mathbf{u}(1) & - & \mathbf{u}(q-1) \\ \mathbf{u}(1) & \mathbf{u}(2) & - & \mathbf{u}(q) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}(k) & \mathbf{u}(k+1) & - & \mathbf{u}(q+k-1) \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.15)

where  $k = \nu_{a}$ , while the matrices  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  appearing in Eq.(5.14) may be obtained by premultiplying the following  $[(k+1)p \times q]$  matrix  $Y_k$ .

Section 5.2 Conversions from Input/Output Samples

$$\mathbf{Y}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}(0) & \mathbf{y}(1) & \cdots & \mathbf{y}(q-1) \\ \mathbf{y}(1) & \mathbf{y}(2) & \cdots & \mathbf{y}(q) \\ 1 & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}(k) & \mathbf{y}(k+1) & - & \mathbf{y}(q+k-1) \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.16)

by selector matrices  $S_{\mu}^{T}$  and  $S_{\mu}^{T}$ , respectively, i.e.

$$\mathbf{Y}_1 = \mathbf{S}_{ll}^T \mathbf{Y}_k \text{ and } \mathbf{Y}_2 = \mathbf{S}_{ld}^T \mathbf{Y}_k$$
 (5.17)

Of course, the selector matrices used in Eq.(5.17) are generated by the set p.

To emphasize similarities between this algorithm and the algorithms TFDN (TFRo) and NDDN (NDRo) discussed in Sections 4.2.5, 4.2.7, 4.4.7, and to facilitate understanding of the algorithm steps let:

$$\mathbf{Z}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{k} \\ --- \\ \mathbf{Y}_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.18)

where  $Z_k$  is a  $[(k+1)(m+p) \times q]$  matrix obtained by concatenating  $U_k$  and  $Y_k$  of the form in Eqs. (5.16) and (5.17), but now with the integer  $k = 1, 2, ..., v_n$ .

It is worth mentioning that Eq.(5.14) is similar to Eq.(4.34) used in Algorithm *TFDN* as well as *TFRo*, (and likewise Eq.(4.91) in *NDDN* and *NDRo*), which is to be expected since all these algorithms determine a left coprime MFD, i.e. a model which corresponds to a state space model in POF. Therefore, these algorithms are also rather similar. The following facts will also be seen from the algorithm, but they do not make much of a difference:

- —in the TFDN algorithm the transfer function matrix is given,
- —in the NDDN algorithm the right MFD is given,
- —while here only input/output samples are available.

Only one difference in the case of Eq.(5.14) is worth mentioning. Recall that, for instance, in Eq.(4.34) the first m(k+1) rows in  $T_k$  are, by definition, linearly independent, and that in the last p(k+1) rows of  $T_k$  there are *n* additional linearly independent rows. Since here, i.e. in Eq.(5.18), the same situation must occur, all m(k+1) rows in the matrix  $U_k$  must be linearly independent, i.e.  $U_k$ , containing only samples of the input vector u(t), must be a full row rank matrix, leading to:

$$rank[U_k] = m(k+1)$$
, for all  $k = [1, v_m]$  (5.19)

An input signal u(t) satisfying the condition of Eq.(5.19) will be referred to as a "sufficiently rich" input, i.e. a *persistent excitation* capable of exciting all system modes. Note that for a given u(t) the condition of Eq.(5.19) might be satisfied for some value of k, but it might fail for a higher value of k.

237

As an example, consider a periodic input signal u(t), with m=1, given by:

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = [10 \dots 010 \dots 010 \dots 01 \dots 01 \dots ]$$

having in a period one unity and h zeros. Building the matrix  $U_k$ , Eq.(5.15), for various values of k, it may be concluded that  $U_k$  would be of full row rank only for  $k \le h$ . Thus, this input signal may be used for identifying a D-T system of any order n, provided that the system may be represented by a POF having an admissible set of POI satisfying:

$$\max\{v_i\} = v_m \le h$$

Therefore, before using this algorithm it is advisable to check the available input and to determine the maximum value of k leading to a full row rank  $U_k$ .

Syntax: 
$$\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}, \epsilon, \mathbf{v}_{\epsilon} (uyRo) \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{\mu\nu} \mathbf{B}_{\mu\nu} \mathbf{C}_{\mu\nu} \mathbf{D}_{\mu\nu} \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x}(0), C$$

Input/Output Arguments:

- u is an (m × N) matrix containing samples of m dimensional input vector.
- y is an (p × N) matrix containing samples of the system response.
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations.
- ν<sub>d</sub> = { ν<sub>i</sub> }, the set of "desired" POI. If ν<sub>d</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. ε, may be used as the fourth argument.
  - $R_a = \{A_a, B_a, C_a, D_b\}$ , a state space representation in a POF.
- p = { v<sub>i</sub> }, a set of admissible POI corresponding to R<sub>o</sub>.
- x(0) is the initial condition of the state vector x(t) corresponding to R<sub>o</sub>.
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set v.

Algorithm:

- If p<sub>d</sub> is specified, set p<sub>d</sub> ⇒ p, set p<sub>m</sub> ⇒ k, build Z<sub>k</sub> Eq.(5.18) and go to 8; else, go to 2
- 2. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_a$
- 3. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- Using the current k, build Z<sub>2</sub>, Eq.(5.18), and set rank(Z<sub>k</sub>) mk → n
  - 5. If  $n = n_0$  go to 6; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_0$  and go to 3
  - From Z<sub>k</sub> determine the unique observability indices ν<sub>μ</sub>, i.e. Z<sub>k</sub> (IND) ⇒ ν<sub>μ</sub>
  - 7. Define an appropriate admissible set of POI »
  - 8. Set  $\nu$  (SMat)  $\Rightarrow \nu_{s}$ ,  $S_{a}$ ,  $S_{b}$ ,  $S_{b}$ ,  $S_{a}$

### Section 5.2 Conversions from Input/Output Samples

- Using  $S_0$ ,  $S_M$  and k, define the auxiliary matrices  $\tilde{S}_B$  and  $\tilde{S}_{Id}$ ,
- Eqs.(4.37) to (4.38)

9.

- 10. Set  $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_{ll}^T \mathbf{Z}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_{ld}^T \mathbf{Z}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}_2$
- 11. Calculate the degree of admissibility of Z, i.e. Z (C#)  $\Rightarrow$  C#
- 12. If C# is "too small," go to 7; else, go to 13
- 13. Solve  $XZ = Y_2$  for X, where  $X = [N, |A_r]$

14. Parition 
$$I_a \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} C_o \\ A_a \end{bmatrix} p$$
.  $C_o$  has p rows

- 15. Set  $S_2A_2 + S_aA_r \Rightarrow A_a$
- 16. Set N., m (R2C) ⇒ N.
- 17. Set  $A_{a}$ ,  $S_{a}$  (Qc)  $\Rightarrow$   $Q_{c}$ ,  $Q_{c}$  has (k+1) blocks { $A_{a}$ 'S<sub>a</sub>} of p columns
- 18. Set  $Q_N \Rightarrow B_e$
- 19. Set  $\mathbf{D}_{s}^{-1}(s_{s})\mathbf{N}_{s}(s_{s}) \mathbf{C}_{s}(s_{s}\mathbf{I}\cdot\mathbf{A}_{s})^{-1}\mathbf{B}_{s} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}_{s}$  for any  $s_{s} \neq a$  system pole
- 20. Using  $R_o$  calculate the matrix H in Eq.(5.3), set  $S_y^T H \Rightarrow H_1$
- 21. Extract the first column from  $Z \Rightarrow z_o$
- 22. Partition  $\mathbf{z}_o \Rightarrow [\mathbf{u}_o^T | \mathbf{y}_{1o}^T]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_{1o}$  has *n* elements
- 23. Set  $y_{1a} H_1 u_a \Rightarrow x(0)$

Since this algorithm is, formally, rather similar to the previously mentioned algorithms, *TFDN* and *NDDN*, it suffices to mention that Step 10 implements Eq.(5.17) and that the matrix  $Z_t$  used there corresponds to the matrix  $Z_t$  given by Eq.(5.18).

The last four steps of the above algorithm calculate the initial condition vector x(0). The calculation is based on Eq.(5.6), i.e.:

$$\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{y}_{1p} - \mathbf{S}_{li}^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{u}_{p}$$

where  $y_{1\nu}$  and  $u_o$  are the first columns of  $Y_1$  and  $U_k$ , Eqs.(5.17) and (5.15), respectively, while H containing the first  $\nu_m + 1$  Markov parameters of  $R_o$  is defined by Eq.(5.2).

The role of the fourth input argument, i.e.  $\nu_d$ , is very crucial in Algorithm uyRo. It should be realized that for the case when the input/output sequences u(t) and y(t) are corrupted by measurement noise (or computational round-off errors for that matter) then the determination of linearly dependent rows in  $Z_k$ , done in Steps 4 and 6, leading to the unique set of  $\nu$  might be rather unreliable. Computational experience has revealed that in the case of significant noise, the algorithm tends to "suggest" a system order higher than the true order. This is why Algorithm uyRo has an option of using  $\nu_d$ . If  $\nu_d$  is specified, then, as may be seen from the algorithm, the process of checking for linear dependent rows in  $Z_k$  is bypassed, and the algorithm operates in the "mode" of model reduction, where, of course, the

order of the reduced-order model is equal to the sum of the elements in  $v_{d}$ . In this case it is advisable to use several sets of indices  $v_d$  having the same (or even a different order *n*) and to select the one which gives the largest degree of admissibility  $C^{\#}$ . (Note that all algorithms calculate  $C^{\#}$  = the reciprocal of the "standard" condition number to avoid infinite numbers when a set  $v_d$  is not admissible, or when Z is not a full row rank matrix.)

In fact, all other previously discussed algorithms having as the last input argument the set of "desired" indices such as:

{--the set of POI  $\mu_{ch}$  or the set of PCI  $\mu_{ch}$  or the set of column or row degrees  $n_d$ }

have an option of operating in the "model reduction mode" which should somehow aleviate problems resulting from accumulated round-off error leading to erroneous rank determination and detection of linearly independent rows or columns.

The quantity  $\epsilon$  used in these algorithms has a similar role. Computational experience reveals that a good value for  $\epsilon$  is on the order of magnitude of 10<sup>4</sup> in the case of double precision calculations and "moderately well conditioned" problems and procedures leading to relatively small computational errors.

## 5.2.2 Input/Output Data to Left Coprime MFD

This algorithm calculates a left coprime column-reduced ARMA (MFD) model,  $D(z)^{-1}N(z)$ , from a corresponding set of input/output data. It is expected that the reader has so far realized significant (even striking) similarities between algorithms calculating a POF  $R_o$  and a left coprime MFD { D(z), N(z) } as well as between algorithms calculating a PCF  $R_o$  and a right coprime MFD { N(z), D(z) }. Checking previously given algorithms, it may be concluded that these algorithms differ only in several last steps where the specific matrices in  $R_o$  or in {D(z), N(z)} are calculated. Thus, in this section we will, for completness, present an algorithm and emphasize that everything that was stated in Section 5.2.1 holds here as well.

Syntax:  $u, y, \epsilon, n_d (uyDN) \Rightarrow D, N, Cl$ 

Input/Output Arguments:

- u is an (m × N) matrix containing samples of the m dimensional input vector.
- y is an (p × N) matrix containing samples of the system response.
- n<sub>d</sub> = { n<sub>i</sub> } is the set of "desired" column degrees. If n<sub>d</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. ε, may be used as the fourth argument.
- D is a [p<sup>2</sup> × (k+1)] matrix in PMF. The rows of D contain the

#### Section 5.2 Conversions from Input/Output Samples

coefficients  $d_{in}$  of the polynomials  $d_{a}(z)$  in D(z).

- N is a [pm × (k+1)] matrix in PMF. The rows of N contain the coefficients n<sub>m</sub> of the polynomials n<sub>s</sub>(z) in N(z).
- C# is the degree of admissibility of the set n<sub>d</sub>.

### Algorithm:

- If n<sub>d</sub> is specified, set n<sub>d</sub> = {n<sub>i</sub>}, set n<sub>m</sub> ⇒ k, build Z<sub>k</sub>, Eq.(5.18), and go to 8; else, go to 2
- 2. Set  $0 \Rightarrow k$  and  $0 \Rightarrow n_s$
- 3. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- Using the current k, build Z<sub>k</sub>, Eq.(5.18), and set rank(Z<sub>k</sub>) -mk ⇒ n
- 5. If  $n = n_o$  go to 6; else, set  $n \Rightarrow n_o$  and go to 3
- From Z<sub>k</sub> determine the unique observability indices n<sub>k</sub>, i.e. Z<sub>k</sub> (IND) ⇒ n<sub>k</sub>
- Define an appropriate admissible set of column degrees n
- 8. Set n (SMat)  $\Rightarrow$   $n_{a}$ ,  $S_{a}$ ,  $S_{i}$ ,  $S_{i}$ ,  $S_{i}$ ,  $S_{i}$
- Using S<sub>k</sub>, S<sub>k</sub> and k, define the auxiliary matrices S<sub>k</sub> and S<sub>k</sub>, Eqs.(4.37) - (4.38)
- 10. Set  $\tilde{S}_{ij}^T Z_k \Rightarrow Z$  and  $\tilde{S}_{ij}^T Z_k \Rightarrow Y_2$
- 11. Calculate the degree of admissibility of Z, i.e. Z (C#) = C#
- 12. If C# is "too small," go to 7; else, go to 13
- Solve XZ = Y<sub>2</sub> for X, where X = [N<sub>r</sub> | A<sub>r</sub>]
- 14. Set  $S_M^T A_s S_8^T \Rightarrow D_s$
- 15. Set  $D_{r,p}(PMFr) \Rightarrow D$  and  $N_{r,m}(PMFr) \Rightarrow N$

## 5.2.3 Input/Output Data to Markov Parameters

This algorithm calculates the Markov parameters of a system from its input/output data. It is based on Eq. (4.76) in Algorithm uHy, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \sum_{j=0}^{1} \mathbf{H}_{i-j} \mathbf{u}_j$$

but now, since the Markov parameters are unknown, this equation will be represented by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H}_{0} & \mathbf{H}_{1} & -\mathbf{H}_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{0} & \mathbf{u}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_{N-1} \\ \mathbf{u}_{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_{N-2} \\ & \ddots & & i \\ & & \mathbf{u}_{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_{n-M} \end{bmatrix} = (5.20)$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_{0} & \mathbf{y}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{y}_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

or, for short by:

H, U = y

where **H**, is a  $(p \times Mm)$  matrix containing the Markov parameters **H**<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,M-1], to be determined, **U** is an  $(Mm \times N)$  matrix containing the samples **u**<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,N-1], of the input vector **u** arranged according to Eq.(5.20), while **y** is a  $(p \times N-1)$  matrix containing N samples of the output vector **y**.

In order to obtain the unique solution for the Markov parameters H, satisfying Eqs.(4.76) and (5.20), the matrix U must be a full row rank matrix, i.e.:

rank [ U ] = Mm (5.21)

leading to the following constraint:

$$Mm \le N$$
 (5.22)

Note that Eq.(5.20), as do some other equations, e.g. Eqs.(4.6), (4.32), (4.80) and (4.81), assumes that:

$$h_M = \|\mathbf{H}_{M-1}\| < 1$$
 (5.23)

Thus, this algorithm is applicable only to stable D-T systems, under the condition that the input/output sequences are sufficiently long to satisfy Eqs.(5.21) - (5.23). Note that Eq.(5.21) requires that the rows of the input signal u(t) be linearly independent, which is another condition specifying a "sufficiently rich" input. For more details see Section 5.2.1.

Syntax:  $u, y, M(uyH) \Rightarrow H, h_M$ 

Input/Output Arguments:

- u is an (m × N) matrix containing samples of m dimensional input vector.
- y is an (p × N) matrix containing samples of the system response.
- M is an integer specifying the number of Markov parameters to be calculated.
- H is a [pm × M] matrix in the PMF. The rows of H contain the first M coefficients h<sub>ph</sub> of the polynomials h<sub>p</sub>(z<sup>1</sup>) in H(z<sup>1</sup>).
- h<sub>W</sub> is the norm of the last Markov parameter calculated, Eq.(5.23).

## 5.2.4 Input/Output Data to Transfer Function

This algorithm calculates transfer function matrix G(z) of a D-T system from its input/output data. It is based on:

$$y(z) = G(z) u(z)$$
 (5.24)

where G(z) can be expressed as:

$$G(z) = \{g_{ij}(z)\}$$
 (5.25)

with individual transfer functions  $g_i(z)$ , relating the contribution of the  $j^{k}$  input  $u_j(z)$  to the  $i^{k}$  output  $y_i(z)$ , j=[1,m], i=[1,p], by:

$$y_{ij}(z) = g_{ij}(z) u_j(z)$$
, where  $g_{ij}(z) = \frac{w_{ij}(z)}{d_j(z)}$  (5.26)

In other words, in this algorithm a given MIMO system is decomposed into a set of p MISO (multi-input, single-output) subsystems, and each subsystem is identified one at a time. This is why the denominators  $d_i(z)$  in Eq.(5.26) are different for different values of i, i = [1,p]. Of course, the common denominator d(z) for all  $d_i(z)$ used and calculated in previous algorithms satisfies:

$$G(z) = \frac{W(z)}{d(z)}$$
 and  $d(z) = f_i(z) d_i(z)$  (5.27)

It is worth mentioning that the orders  $n_i$  of polynomials  $d_i(z)$  are equal to the "individual observability indices" which are dual to the "individual controllability indices" {  $\alpha_i$  } introduced by Definition 3.1 in Section 3.3.3. The roots of the monic polynomials  $f_i(z)$ , appearing in Eq.(5.27), correspond to modes (poles) of the given MIMO system "not seen" by the  $t^{th}$  MISO subsystem individually.

From the relationship between polynomials d(z) and  $d_i(z)$  in Eq. (5.27), it may be concluded that the numerator polynomial matrix W(z) in Eq.(5.27) is related to the  $(p \times m)$  matrix  $\hat{W}(z)$  containing  $\hat{w}_i(z)$  from Eq.(5.26), i.e.:

$$\tilde{W}(z) = \{ \tilde{w}_{ij}(z) \}$$
 by  
 $W(z) = F(z) \tilde{W}(z)$ , where  $F(z) = \text{diag} \{ f_i(z) \}$ 
(5.28)

The algorithm is as follows:

Syntax: 
$$u, y, \epsilon, n_d (uyTF) \Rightarrow D, W, n_d, C#$$

Input/Output Arguments:

 u is an (m × N) matrix containing samples of the m dimensional input vector.

- y is an  $(p \times N)$  matrix containing samples of the system response.
- e is a sufficiently small positive number used in rank calculations.
- n<sub>d</sub> = { n<sub>i</sub> } is the set of "desired" individual observability indices of p MISO subsystems. If n<sub>d</sub> is not known, any scalar, e.g. e, may be used as the fourth argument.
- D is a [p × (n<sub>n</sub>+1)] matrix in PMF. The rows of D contain the coefficients d<sub>n</sub> of the polynomials d<sub>l</sub>(z), n<sub>n</sub> = max{n<sub>l</sub>}.
- W is a [pm × (n<sub>n</sub>+1)] matrix in PMF. The rows of W contain the coefficients w<sub>ith</sub> of the polynomials w<sub>it</sub>(z) in W(z), Eq.(5.26).
- n<sub>o</sub> is a set of individual observability indices {n<sub>i</sub>} containing the orders of the polynomials d<sub>i</sub>(z). If n<sub>d</sub> is used, then n<sub>o</sub> = n<sub>d</sub>.
- C# is the p-dimensional row vector containing the admissibility degrees of the matrices used in identifying the individual MISO subsystems.

### Remarks:

In order to obtain the transfer function matrix G(z), i.e. W(z) and d(z), Eq.(5.27), of the overall MIMO system, G(z) = W(z)/d(z), a service algorithm "Common Denominator" (*ComD*) may be used. Its syntax is:

D, 
$$e(ComD) \Rightarrow d, F$$

The algorithm ComD uses the column  $D(z) = \{ d_i(z) \}$  and calculates a common denominator d(z) and the diagonal polynomial matrix F(z), Eq.(5.28). Then, the matrix W(z) of the overall MIMO system may be obtained using

Eq.(5.28), i.e. by premultiplying W(z) with F(z).

In spite of the availability of this algorithm, as was mentioned in the beginning of this subsection, due to the relatively involved procedure used, its use is recommended only, if for some reasons, it is required to have the individual transfer functions  $g_q(z)$  and denominators  $d_i(z)$ , Eq.(5.26), defining the single output subsystems.

More details about the procedure used in the uyTF algorithm will be given later.

Basic steps of the algorithm are:

- 1. Set  $\mathbf{0}_{1,0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{0}_{1,0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{n}_{a}$ ,  $\max\{n_{a}\} + 1 = k$ ,  $\mathbf{0}_{0,k} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{0}_{0,k} \Rightarrow \mathbf{W}$
- Set 0 ⇒ 1
- Set i+1 ⇒ i
- 4. If  $n_d$  is specified, set  $n_d(i) \Rightarrow n_d$ , and go to 6; else, go to 5
- 5. Set  $\epsilon \Rightarrow n_{ab}$

#### Section 5.2 Conversions from Input/Output Samples

6. Extract the *i*<sup>th</sup> row from 
$$\mathbf{y} \Rightarrow \mathbf{y}_i$$
  
7. Set  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_i$ ,  $\epsilon_i$ ,  $n_{ii}$   $(uyDN) \Rightarrow \mathbf{d}_i$ ,  $\tilde{W}_i$ ,  $n_{ii}$ ,  $C\tilde{\pi}_i$   
8. Set  $[C\# \mid C\#_i] \Rightarrow C\#$  and  $[\mathbf{n}_v \mid n_i] \Rightarrow \mathbf{n}_o$   
9. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D} \\ \mathbf{d}_i \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{D}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{W}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{\mathbf{W}}$   
10. If  $i < p$ , go to 3; else, go to 11  
11. Set  $\tilde{W}^T(z) = \tilde{W}(z)$ 

It is seen from the algorithm steps that Algorithm uyTF executes the previously explained Algorithm uyDN, Step 7, p times. Since y, contains just one row, the obtained d<sub>i</sub> is a single row containing an  $(n_i + 1)$  dimensional row with the coefficients of  $d_i(z)$ , and  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i$  contains the coefficients  $\tilde{w}_{ijk}$ , j=[1,m],  $h=[0,n_i]$ , of all the polynomials  $\tilde{w}_{ij}(z)$  in the  $i^{\pm}$  row of  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}(z)$ . This is the reason why in Step 9 the concatenation of **D** with d<sub>i</sub> and  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}$  with  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i$  is done. In order to have the matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}} \cdot in$  the PMF "structure," it is necessary in Step 11 to perform a polynomial matrix transposition, which is done by a service algorithm called *PMT*.

At this point it of some interest to compare the computational aspects of Algorithms uyDN and uyTF. Recall that in treating MIMO systems, i.e. in treating all p outputs simultaneously, Algorithm uyDN, the number of rows in the matrix Z, Eq.(5.14), which greatly influences the computational aspect, is given by:

$$n + (\nu_n + 1)m$$

where it may be shown that:  $[(n-1)/p] + 1 \le \nu_n \le n-p+1$  with [x] being the integer part of x.

In the case of treating MISO subsystems one at a time, Algorithm uyTF, the numbers of rows in the matrices Z are given by:

$$n_i + (n_i + 1)m$$
 for  $i = [1, p]$ 

where, of course, the individual observability index  $n_i$  satisfies:  $n_i \le n$ . However, when at least one MISO subsystem "sees" all n MIMO system modes, then we have  $n_i = n$ .

From the above analysis it may be concluded that in Algorithm uyTF:

 The algorithm requires the building and manipulation of the matrix Z, Eq.(5.14), p times.  In addition, it frequently occurs that the dimensions of the matrix Z are considerably larger than the dimensions of the single Z required in Algorithm uyDN.

Recall that when the number of rows in Z is smaller, a smaller number of samples is needed, which considerably reduces the computational effort of Algorithm uyDN and, consequently, also of uyRo, since they are similar.

For example, in the case of an MIMO system with n=6 and m=p=3, Algorithm uyTF may require building and manipulating the matrix Z three times with:

$$6 + 7 \times 3 = 27$$
 rows

and at least 27 columns, while in the case of identifying the same MIMO system using either uyDN or uyRo, it suffices to build only one Z having the number of rows as low as

$$6 + 3 \times 3 = 15$$

and at least 15 columns, which illustrates the computational advantage of Algorithms uyDN and uyRo over uyTF.

The reason for insisting on Algorithm uyTF is that quite a number of papers and books on system identification advocate treating individual outputs separately, i.e. decomposing a particular MIMO system into a set of p MISO subsystems, which clearly is not a good policy, particularly with the advent of algorithms such as uyRo and uyDN, which utilize to the fullest extent the structural properties of MIMO systems. Another reason is to draw attention to Algorithms uyDN and uyRo and to show how a judicious choice of a MIMO system "canonical" form can reduce the computational effort of identification algorithms.

# 5.3 Conversions between D-T and C-T

We have already mentioned that many of the conversions presented for D-T systems are useable for C-T systems as well. It is also important to recall the algorithms presented in Chapter 2 for converting between C-T and D-T domains. For completeness these algorithms, which offer the user some flexibility in converting between continuous and discrete domains, are listed below. The possible conversions are listed in Table 5.1.

	Table 5.1 Conversions between D-T and C-T Domains								
	Available Conversions								
1.	C-T state space model -> D-T (step invariant model)	1							
2.	C-T state space model $\Rightarrow$ D-T (ramp invariant model)	2							
3.	C-T state space model $\Rightarrow$ D-T (bilinear transformation)	3							
4.	D-T state space model => C-T (step invariant model)	-1							
5.	D-T state space model = C-T (ramp invariant model)	-2							
6.	D-T state space model = C-T (bilinear transformation)	-3							

To perform all these conversions, a single algorithm referred to as CTDT has been developed. The general syntax is:

Algorithm CTDT:

A, B, C, D, T,  $\epsilon$ , Isrb (CTDT)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>1</sub>

Input/Output Arguments:

- R = {A, B, C, D} is a state space representation in either the C-T or D-T domain to be converted by one of the procedures discussed in Chapter 2; see Table 5.1 above.
- T is the sampling interval.
- Isrb is the algorithm flag, Isrb = [1, 2, 3, -1, -2, -3], specifying a desired conversion.
- R<sub>i</sub> = {A<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>i</sub>} is the representation obtained after the conversion of R according to the specified value of the algorithm flag lsrb.

To specify a desired conversion, the value of the algorithm flag *lsrb* (for step, ramp, or bilinear transformation) should be selected in accordance with a value given in Table 5.1.

For instance, if a conversion from C-T into D-T domain using the ramp invariant model is desired, then the value of *Isrb* should be equal to 2. In the case of converting a given D-T model into the C-T domain using the bilinear transformation, the value of *Isrb* should be set to -3.

According to the expressions and examples given in Chapter 2, it may be concluded that the following sequence of algorithms:

> A, B, C, D, T,  $\epsilon$ , k (CTDT)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>1</sub> A<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>1</sub>, T,  $\epsilon$ , -k (CTDT)  $\Rightarrow$  A<sub>2</sub>, B<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>2</sub>

for any value of k = [1, 2, 3], produces a representation  $R_2$  which is very close, if not equal, to the given representation R.

For more specific details about the structure of Algorithm CTDT, see Chapter 2 and particularly Section 2.5.

Finally, Section 5.4 illustrates the conversion process between C-T and D-T representations as well as within the same domain. A primary emphasis in this example is system identification, i.e. "conversion" from input/output data to state space, or other forms. Figure 5.1 is presented with the section to provide a graphical picture of the conversions of that example.

# 5.4 Identification Examples

In this example we will begin with the C-T state space that was used in the two examples of Section 4.6. The purpose here is to illustrate the process of conversion between the continuous-time and the discrete-time domain, as well as conversion among the different model forms within a given domain. Figure 5.1 shows the particular operations, which are also listed below.

The differently derived responses: y, yt, yd, yd1, ydh and yc are basically identical. The models developed are the continuous-time transfer function matrices: TF and TFc, and the discrete-time state space representations in POF: Rdo, Ro1 and Roh, the discrete-time system Markov parameters in Hd and H and the discrete-time left coprime MFD's: {D,N} and {D1,N1}.

The given C-T state space model and corresponding transfer function were already presented in Example 1 and will not be repeated here. Conversion from a C-T state space model to a D-T state space model, using a sampling interval of 1 second, is first developed. Then, using a set of admissible POI, the D-T models corresponding to the C-T models of Example 4.1 are obtained, including those models obtained by applying the identification procedures of this chapter.





#### Sequence of algorithm executions:

R  $(SSTF) \Rightarrow TF$ R  $(CDSR) \Rightarrow y$ TF  $(CDTR) \Rightarrow yt$ R  $(CTDT) \Rightarrow Rd$ Rd  $(CDSR) \Rightarrow yd$ Rd  $(SSRo) \Rightarrow Rdo$ Rd  $(SSH) \Rightarrow Hd$ Rdo  $(RoDN) \Rightarrow D,N$   $u, y (uyRo) \Rightarrow Ro1$   $u, y (uyDN) \Rightarrow D1,N1$   $u, y, M (uyH) \Rightarrow H$   $u, H (uHy) \Rightarrow yd1$   $H (HRo) \Rightarrow Roh$   $Roh (CDSR) \Rightarrow ydh$   $Ro1 (CTDT) \Rightarrow Rc$   $Rc (CDSR) \Rightarrow yc$  $Rc (SSTF) \Rightarrow TFc$ 

### Results:

**D**-**T** conversion to  $R_d = \{\mathbf{A}_d, \mathbf{B}_d, \mathbf{C}_d, \mathbf{D}_d\}$ :

1	.368	.204	.090	.028	1	0.4	.077	.026	
	0.0	.073	.114	.062	1	0.0	.110	.052	
	0.0	114	.073	.114	1	0.0	.135	.110	
$R_d =$	0.0	0.0	0.0	.135	1	0.0	0.0	.187	
					-1-				
	0.0	.001	0.0	1.0	1	0.0	1.0	.284	
8	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1	.368	.016	.003	

As in Example 1 of Section 4.6 the following tables give the structural information regarding the D-T model. The "best" controllable and observable structures are specified by PCI =  $\{1,2,1\}$  and POI =  $\{1,3\}$ , respectively, which are again different from the corresponding unique controllability and observability indices,  $\{2,1,1\}$  and  $\{2,2\}$ .

TABLE 5.1 PCI								
$\{n_{cl}$	nar	<b>a</b> }	rank	degree				
{1	2	1}	4	.46E-01				
{1	1	2}	4	.25E-01				
{2	1	1}	4	.11E-03				

	TABLE 5.2 POI								
$\{n_{el}$	$n_{o2}$	rank	degree						
{1	3}	4	.22E-01						
{2	2}	4	.12E-03						
{3	1}	4	,14E-04						

Transfer Function Matrix 
$$G_d(z) = \frac{W_d(z)}{d_d(z)}$$

where 
$$W_d(z) = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11}(z) & w_{12}(z) & w_{13}(z) \\ w_{21}(z) & w_{22}(z) & w_{23}(z) \end{bmatrix}$$

	z <sup>0</sup>	zi	z <sup>2</sup>	z <sup>3</sup>	z*	
w <sub>11</sub>	0 ]	0	0	0	0 ]	
w21	001	.004	060	.161	.368	
						- W (-)
W12	.001	016	.142	649	1.0	- " (0
w22	0.0	003	.015	.067	.016	
w13	001	.009	056	.003	.284	
Wax	0.0	.002	.019	.024	.003	

The characteristic polynomial  $d_s(z)$  is given by:

$$d_{d}(z) = 0.001 - 0.016 z + 0.142 z^{2} - .649 z^{3} + 1 z^{4}$$

### Left Coprime MFD

This form is given by  $D_i^{-1}(z)N_i(z)$  where  $D_i(z)$  is monic and column-reduced, i.e.:

$$D_{I}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11}(z) & d_{12}(z) \\ d_{21}(z) & d_{22}(z) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$N_{I}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} n_{11}(z) & n_{12}(z) & n_{13}(z) \\ n_{21}(z) & n_{22}(z) & n_{23}(z) \end{bmatrix}$$

specifically, the D-T left coprime MFD form is presented, with column degrees {1,3} corresponding to the selected POI above. Compare with the C-T left coprime MFD in Example 1, Section 4.6.

	z°	z1	<b>z</b> <sup>2</sup>	z <sup>3</sup>	
$d_{11}$	135	1.0	0.0	0.0	
d21	004	0.0	0.0	0.0	$= D_i(z)$
d <sub>13</sub>	0.0	.002	005	0.0	
d22	007	.072	512	1.0	

	ző	z *	z <sup>2</sup>	z <sup>3</sup>	
n <sub>11</sub>	0.0	001	002	0.0 ]	
n <sub>21</sub>	.005	032	.211	.368	
n <sub>12</sub>	135	1.0	0.0	0.0	$= N_1(z)$
n <sub>22</sub>	003	.025	.069	.016	
n <sub>13</sub>	.148	.284	0.0	0.0	
n23	.004	.022	.024	.003	

and

### Markov Parameters H<sub>1</sub>

The first few terms of the 3-column polynomial matrix  $H(z^1) = \{h_g(z^1)\}\$ are given below. Because the terms decrease so fast, it is not necessary to extend the series.

	z <sup>0</sup>	z-1	z -2	z -3	z-4	z-5	z-6
h <sub>11</sub>	[ 0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0 ]
h21	.3680	.3998	.1471	.0541	.0199	.0073	.0027
				-			
h <sub>12</sub>	1.0000	.0001	.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
h22	.0160	.0771	.0631	.0278	.0102	.0037	.0014
h13	.2838	.1870	.0253	.0034	.0005	.0000	.0000
h23	.0027	.0255	.0352	.0215	.0094	.0036	.0013

By the 12<sup>th</sup> element in the above series all terms are zero to 4 decimal places.

### System Identification

One of the most useful "conversions" is that from input/output data to a system model, system identification. An important aspect is determining and using the most appropriate structural information, e.g. the most numerically stable POF. This part of the example presents the results of such an identification process, using the sampled data from the given C-T system model to obtain an observable form D-T model, which is subsequently *continualized* using the methods established in Chapter 2. The following C-T model is the result of this series of conversions:

### Section 5.4 Identification Examples

	-2.001	0.0	012	.030	1	0.0	0.0	1.0 ]
	.281	-2.934	11.130	-15.963	1	1.0	.001	001
	025	107	-1.789	2.934	1	.368	.090	.028
R =	.008	.020	318	282	1	.135	.063	.037
					- -			
	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1	0.0	1.0	0.0
	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	1	0.0	0.0	0.0

The input/output data from the C-T system that was used in the identification of the D-T models, Ro1, {D1,N1} and H (see Fig.5.1), are presented in Figs. 5.2 and 5.3.



Figure 5.2 Pseudo-Random System Excitation



It is interesting to compare the eigenvalues (poles) of the C-T state space model that was given initially with the identified C-T model, i.e. with the model obtained by *continualizing* the identified D-T model:

Poles of the original C-T system: -2  $\pm j1$ , -2, -1

Poles of the identified C-T system: -2.003 ± j1.001, -2.0, -1.0

As derived from the identified D-T system with poles: 0.073 ± j0.114, 0.135, 0.368

which confirms that a series of conversions that "loops" back on itself is numerically stable. By the procedure described in Appendix B, degrees of observability of the modes in the C-T model can be checked. It has been shown that the mode  $-2 \pm j1$  has a considerably smaller "degree of observability" than do the other two modes.

# 5.5

# Summary

In this chapter the process of conversion from system input/output data to various representations was stressed. This process is referred to as system identification. If we consider the input/output data to be a system "representation," then the algorithms in this chapter fit with the many algorithms of Chapter 4 in the sense of Table 4.1. On the other hand, system identification plays an eminent role in that it is this process that is generally required first, to obtain a more standard model with which to work. Because of this importance, this chapter was presented to emphasize this conversion type.

# 5.6 References

There are many good references written for system identification. To mention and recommend for further reading just a few of these: Sinha and Kuszta (1983) and Ljung (1987) for a general survey of identification methods. For more specific background and information, particularly on identification of MIMO systems using pseudo-observable forms, several other articles and chapters are listed below.

Bingulac, S. and D.L. Cooper (1991), "Identification of first-order hold continuous-time systems," *Proceedings of the 9<sup>th</sup> IFAC Symposium on Identification*, Budapest, Hungary, August 20-25, 1991, pp. 1185-1190.

Bingulac, S. and D.L. Cooper (1991), "Use of pseudo-observability indices in identification of continuous-time multivariable models," *Identification of Continuous-Time Systems* (N.K. Sinha and G.P. Rao, editors), Kluwer Academic Publishers, Amsterdam.

Bingulac, S. and R. Krtolica (1988), "An algorithm for simultaneous order and parameter identification in multivariable systems," *Proceedings of the 8<sup>th</sup> IFAC* Symposium on Identification and System Parameter Estimation, Beijing, August 27-31, 1988, pp. 1020-1025.

Bingulac, S. and R. Krtolica (1985), "Generalized ARMA model for MIMO system identification," *Proceedings of the American Control Conference*, Boston MA, June 11-14, 1985, pp. 1336-1341. Bingulac, S. and N.K. Sinha (1990), "Identification of continuous MIMO systems from input/output data," *Journal of Mathematical and Computer Modelling*, 5, 3, pp. 203-208.

Bingulac, S. and H.F. VanLandingham (1992), "Multivariable system identification with noisy data," *Proceedings of the IEEE International Symposium on Systems, Man and Cybernetics*, October 5-8, 1992, Chicago IL.

Gorti, B., S. Bingulac and H.F. VanLandingham (1990), "Deterministic identification of linear MIMO systems," Proceedings of the 22<sup>rd</sup> Southeastern Symposuim on System Theory, Cookeville TN, April 19-22, 1990, pp. 126-131.

Ljung, L. (1987), System Identification: Theory for the User, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Sinha, N.K. and B. Kuszta (1983), Modeling and Identification of Dynamic Systems, Van Nostrand Reinhold, Inc., New York.

VanLandingham, H.F., S. Bingulac and M. Tran (1992), "A comparison of conventional and neural network approaches to system identification," *Journal* of Control Theory and Advanced Technology, 8, 4, MITA Press, Kyoto, Japan. Section 5.7 Exercises

## 5.7

# Exercises

5.1 Given the state space representation  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  of a stable D-T system, where:

			[15	1	.1	05	1	1	-5]
			.05	3	.1	05	1	1	.5
			.05	.1	2	.05	1	0	.5
	A	B	05	1	1	35	1	0	.5
R =	C	D					- -		
			-1	2	0	1	1	0	0
			-1	2	1	2	1	1	0
			0	1	2	1	1	0	0

Calculate:

- (a) —the state space representation R<sub>o</sub> in a POF using v = {1,2,1},
- (b) -- the left coprime MFD {D(z), N(z)} corresponding to Ro,
- (c) —the transfer function matrix G(z) = W(z)/d(z), and
- (d) —the first 14 Markov parameters H<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,13], in H(z<sup>3</sup>).

### Define:

(e) —an (m × N) pseudo-random matrix u containing samples u<sub>k</sub>, k=[0,N-1], of the input vector u(k). For u(0) use an m-dimensional zero vector. For N use N=31.

Calculate:

(f) —the response y(k) of R to u(k) with zero initial conditions.

Using the input/output pairs { u(k), y(k) }, identify:

- (g) —a corresponding D-T model R<sub>o</sub> in POF using v = {1,2,1}.
- (h) —a left coprime MFD having column degrees n = v,
- (i) --the first 14 Markov parameters H<sub>i</sub>, i=[0,13] in H(z<sup>1</sup>),
- (j) -the individual observability indices and transfer functions of G(z) = {g<sub>0</sub>(z)}, where g<sub>0</sub>(z) = w<sub>0</sub>(z)/d(z).
- (k) From the individual transfer functions  $g_a(z)$  determine G(z) as: W(z)/d(z).
- Check that the results obtained in parts (b), (c), (d) and (e) correspond to the identified models obtained in parts (g), (h), (i) and (k), respectively.

Hints:

For part (a):	To define $R$ and $\nu$ , use the DMA operator.
For part (b):	Use subroutine SSRo.SUB.
For part (c):	Use operator SSTF.
For part (d):	Use subroutine SSH.SUB.
For part (e):	Use operators DPM and SHR.
For part (f):	Use subroutine CDSR.
For part (g):	Use subroutine uyRo.SBR.
For part (h):	Use subroutine uyDN.SBR.
For part (i):	Use subroutine uyH.SUB.
For part (j):	Use subroutine uyTF.SBR,
For part (k):	Use subroutine ComD.SBR.
For part (I):	Use operators - and OUT in the MOS, as:
	A,Ai(-),B,Bi(-)(out)=

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER51.DPF.

5.2 Given the state space representation R = {A, B, C, D} of a stable C-T system, where:

				-1.5	-1	1	5	1	1	5
				.5	-3	1	5	1	1	.5
				.5	1	-2	.5	1	0	.5
	A	в	1	5	-1	-1	-3.5	1	0	.5
K =	C	D	] =				***	- -		
				-1	2	0	1	1	0	0
				-1	2	1	2	1	1	0
				0	1	2	1	1	0	0

Note that the matrix A in this exercise is equal to 10 times A of Exercise 5.1.

Calculate:

(a) —the transfer function matrix G(z) = W(z)/d(z).

Define:

(b) —an (m × N) pseudo-random matrix u containing values u(t<sub>k</sub>), k=[0,N-1], of the input vector u(t). For u(0) use an m-dimensional zero vector. For N use N=31.

Calculate:

### Section 5.7 Exercises

- (c) —the response y(l) of R to u(l) with zero initial conditions. For the "total" (simulation) time T, use T = 10 sec. The sampling interval is, of course, dT = T/(N-1), and
- (d) -- the eigenvalues of A.

Using the input/output pairs {  $u(t_k)$ ,  $y(t_k)$  }, identify:

- (e) -a corresponding D-T model  $R_0$  in POF using  $\nu = \{1, 2, 1\}$ .
- (f) From the "four" matrix D-T model R<sub>e</sub>, determine a corresponding four matrix C-T model R<sub>e</sub> = {A<sub>c</sub>, B<sub>c</sub>, C<sub>c</sub>, D<sub>c</sub>} using the ramp invariant (RI) approximation.
- (g) Calculate the transfer function matrix G<sub>c</sub>(s) of R<sub>c</sub>.
- (h) Calculate the response y(t) of R, to u(t) with zero initial conditions.
- (i) Find the eigenvalues of A...
- (j) Check that the results in parts (a), (c) and (d) correspond to the identified models in parts (g), (h) and (i), respectively.

### Hints:

- To define R and r, use operator DMA.
- The scalars N and T could be defined using DMA or "interactively" with DSC.
- For part (a): Use operator SSTF.
- For part (b): Use operators DPM and SHR.
- For part (c): Use subroutine CDSR.SUB.
- For part (d): Use operator EGV,
- For part (e): Use subroutine uyRo.SBR.
- For part (f): Use either subroutine CTDT.SBR, with Isrb=-2, or a corresponding sequence of operators: LNM, EATF, ... and the subroutine R5R4. Also, subroutine SRDC.SBR could be used.

A version of an L-A-S program which solves this exercise is available in the L-A-S subdirectory C:\LAS\DPF\EXER52.DPF.

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# Appendix A Matrix Algebra

In this appendix we will review a few basic ideas in dealing with vectors and matrices. It is assumed that the reader is already familiar with the concepts and needs only a brief review of the topics.

# A.1 Linear Equations

Consider a common problem in analysis, namely that of solving a set of simultaneous linear algebraic equations:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1s} = b_1$$
  

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$
  

$$\dots$$
  

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$
  
(A.1)

We may represent the set of equations in Eq.(A.1) in "matrix-vector" form:

$$Ax = b$$
 (A.2)

where A is the array (matrix) of coefficients:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ & & &$$

and both x and b are vectors:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$
(A.4)

The matrix A is said to have dimensions  $m \times n$ , the number of rows by the number of columns. Similarly, x is an  $n \times 1$  matrix, or an n-dimensional (column) vector; and, b is an m-vector (for short).

Typically, the problem is to find, or solve for, x which satisfies Eq.(A.1)
when both A and b are known arrays. An elementary case to begin with is n = m. In this case A is a "square" matrix, say  $n \times n$ , and the "solution" is:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \tag{A.5}$$

Equation (A.5) assumes that the matrix A is "invertible," or "non-singular," which is true if the determinant of A is not equal to zero.

A useful interpretation of Eq.(A.2) is to think of the matrix A as an "operator" that transfers, or maps, the vector x to the vector b. As such, then, for a solution x to exist, b must be in the *range* of A, the set of vectors that are images of some vector under the mapping A. Any vector y in the range of A can be written as a *linear combination* of the columns of A; that is,

$$y = c_1 a_1 + c_2 a_2 + \dots + c_n a_n$$
 (A.6)

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The  $a_i$  are columns of A, i.e. *m*-vectors; and, the  $c_i$  are appropriate (constant) coefficients, for i = 1, 2, ..., n. The concept of "linear combination," as in Eq.(A.6), is used to formulate the following definition.

Definition A.1: A set of vectors is *linearly independent* if no vector in the set can be written as a linear combination of the others.

### Example A.1: Linear Independence

Consider the matrix A given by

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is straightforward to show that there are no constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  such that any one column of A is a linear combination of the other two. Consequently, the column vectors of A are linearly independent.

Returning to Eq.(A.2), we can say that a solution x exists if and only if **b** is linearly *dependent* on the columns of **A**. In fact, we already know that for a square matrix **A**, Eq.(A.5) holds when the columns of **A** are linearly independent. This is due to the equivalence between (linearly) independent columns of a square matrix and the fact that the det(**A**)  $\neq$  0. More generally, we present the following definition:

Definition A.2: The rank of a matrix A equals the number of linearly independent columns of A.

A recommended technique for determining the rank of a matrix is to use "row

#### Section A.1 Linear Equations

reduction" on the array to "zero out" the elements below the diagonal. It is then easy to determine the number of linearly independent columns (or rows) by inspection.

Finally, we can summarize with the following statement:

Remark: In the set of equations represented by Eqs.(A.1), or (A.2), a solution x exists if and only if:

$$rank[A | b] = rank[A]$$
(A.7)

i.e. the rank of A is not changed by adding the extra column b.

Let us now return to the original problem. There are two important cases to consider; namely, when the number of equations in Eq.(A.1) is greater than, or less than, the number of unknowns (components of x):

- Overdetermined equations: m > n, or
- (2) Underdetermined equations: m < n.

# Case 1: Overdetermined Equations

For this case, m > n, there are more equations than unknowns. This is often true when, e.g. multiple measurements are taken to overcome measurement inaccuracies. Typically, this set of equations may even be inconsistent in that **b** is nor in the range of **A**, as "required" by Eq.(A.7). Because Eq.(A.7) is not satisfied, there is, strictly speaking, no solution; however, even in this situation a "best," or "closest," solution can be calculated.

The so-called *least squares solution* can be derived by premultiplying Eq.(A.2) on the left by the transpose of A, and then inverting  $(A^{T}A)$  to obtain:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = [(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T] \mathbf{b} \qquad \blacksquare (\mathbf{A}.\mathbf{8})$$

Eq.(A.8) assume that A is full column rank. Since there is normally no exact solution, **x** is the "least squared error solution" in the sense that

$$\begin{array}{l} \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\| = \|\mathbf{A}\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{b}\| \tag{A.9}$$

where the "error," e = Ax - b, is the equation error. The norm is the Euclidian norm, i.e.

$$\|\mathbf{e}\| = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2\right]^{1/2}$$
 (A.10)

Thus, **x** is the "solution" that most nearly reduces Eq.(A.2) to an equality, even though no x will do it exactly. For this reason the solution is known as a "least

squares<sup>\*</sup> solution because  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  minimizes Eq.(A.9), which is equivalent to minimizing the sum of the squares of the components of the error vector  $\mathbf{e}$ . Notice that the factor in the brackets in Eq.(A.8) serves as  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  and, for this reason, is called a *pseudo-inverse* of  $\mathbf{A}$ . See the Glossary of Symbols for pseudo-inverse matrices.

#### Example A.2: Least Squares Solution of Overdetermined Equations

Consider the set of equations given by

 $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 2$  $-\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = -2$  $\alpha_2 = 3$ 

In matrix form we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Applying Eq.(A.8), we first find that

$$\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

confirming that it is invertible. Completing the solution,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{a}_1 \\ \hat{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



FIGURE A.1 Graphical Solution to Example A.2

This solution may be interpreted

graphically if we think of the original equations as measurements relating an x variable with a y variable as follows:

$$y(x) = \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2$$

Having solved for  $\alpha$ , we now have the "best" straight line fit. The solution is illustrated graphically in Fig. A.1, showing the "fit" as a line with slope=2 and intercept=1. It may be verified that this solution is identical with the solution to minimizing

$$J = d_1^2 + d_2^2 + d_3^2$$

where the distances  $d_i$ , i=[1,3] are shown in Fig A.I, e.g.  $d_1 = -2 - y(-1) = -2 + \alpha_1 - \alpha_2$ , which can be done by setting the partial derivatives with respect to  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  to zero and solving simultaneously the two resulting equations.

# Case 2: Underdetermined Equations

For this case, m < n, there are more unknowns than equations. Again we will assume that the matrix A of Eq.(A.2) is full rank, that is, rank(A) = m, the smaller dimension. This means that all dependent equations have been eliminated. We now assume an arbitrary vector

$$x = x_1 + x_2$$
 (A.11)

where  $\mathbf{x}_1$  is in the range of  $\mathbf{A}^T$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2$  is in the null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , that is,  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{0}$ . In particular, if  $\mathbf{r}_j$  is a  $1 \times n$  array representing the  $j^{th}$  row of  $\mathbf{A}$ , then  $\mathbf{r}_j\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{0}$  for j=[1,m]; and,  $\mathbf{x}_1$  is some linear combination of the rows taken as vectors ( $\mathbf{x}_1$  being in the range of  $\mathbf{A}$ ):

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{m} v_j \mathbf{x}_j^T = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{v}$$
(A.12)

 $Ax_1 = b$ 

then

 $AA^T v = b$  or  $v = (AA^T)^{-1}b$ 

and, finally,

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_1 = [\mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}] \mathbf{b} \qquad \blacksquare (A.13)$$

Equation (A.13) is the second form of solution we desired. In this case  $x_i$  is the (unique) orthogonal projection of x onto the range space of A, and thereby represents the *minimum-norm* vector that satisfies Eq.(A.2). In other words, there are *many* exact solutions, and we are selecting that one that has minimum length.

# Example A.3: Minimum Norm Solution for Underdetermined Equations

Given the set of two equations in four unknowns

$$\begin{array}{r} x_1 - x_2 + x_3 - 2x_4 = 1 \\ 2x_2 + x_3 - x_4 = 2 \end{array}$$

we will first solve for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in terms of  $x_2$  and  $x_4$  and, second, determine the solution according to Eq.(A.13). The results of the first step are:

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{2}(4 - 3x_3 + 5x_4)$$
$$x_2 = \frac{1}{2}(2 - x_3 + x_4)$$

For the second part we rewrite the original equations in vector form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

In applying Eq.(A.13), we first calculate

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 1 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Completing the indicated operations, the minimum-norm solution is

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{41} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 22 & 17 & -21 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

The norm, or length, of this vector is

and any other of the many solutions will be longer. For example, setting both  $x_3$ and  $x_4$  to zero, we obtain the solution

$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

whose norm is  $|\mathbf{x}'| = 2.236$ .

# A.2

# Eigensystems

The eigenvalues  $\lambda$  and eigenvectors e of a (square) matrix A must satisfy that

$$Ae = \lambda e$$
 (A.14)

Eq.(A.14) may be rewritten as

$$(A - \lambda I)e = 0$$
 (A.15)

In order that a nontrivial solution ( $e \neq 0$ ) exist, ( $A - \lambda I$ ) must be singular; that is, det( $A - \lambda I$ ) = 0. However, if A is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then there are n (possibly some repeated) roots of this  $n^{*}$  order polynomial equation. These roots are called the *eigenvalues* of A. Corresponding to each distinct eigenvalue, there is at least a one dimensional solution e to Eq.(A.14), called an *eigenvector*. The collection of eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors is called the *eigensystem* of A.

Whenever there are n distinct eigenvalues for an  $n \times n$  matrix, there will be n linearly independent eigenvectors. By collecting these eigenvectors to form an  $n \times n$  matrix E, we can write from Eq.(A.14) that

$$AE = EA$$
 or  $E^{-1}AE = A$  (A.16)

where  $E = [e_1 \ e_2 \dots e_n]$  is called the modal matrix of A and  $A = diag\{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n\}$ 

266

#### Section A.2 Eigensystems

is the diagonal (or Jordan) form of A. The relation between A and A through the matrix E, Eq.(A.16), is known as a similarity transformation.

#### Special Cases:

- If A is a symmetric matrix, i.e. a<sub>k</sub> = a<sub>k</sub>, then there will always exist n linearly independent eigenvectors.
- The eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix A are mutually orthogonal:

$$\mathbf{e}_i^T \mathbf{e}_j = 0$$
 for  $i \neq j$  (A.17)

 Generally, when A has repeated eigenvalues, there will not be n linearly independent eigenvectors, and A cannot be "diagonalized." A generalization is the Jordan form, which is block diagonal; see Section 3.1.3 and Appendix B.

### Example A.4: A Modal Matrix

Determine the modal matrix P for the matrix A given below and show that:

$$P^{1} A P = J$$

where J is a diagonal matrix.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 0 & -.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -.5 & 0 & 1.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues (roots of det[λI - Λ] = 0):

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 1.5 & 0 & .5 \\ 0 & \lambda - 1 & 0 \\ .5 & 0 & \lambda - 1.5 \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda - 1)^2 (\lambda - 2)$$

Therefore, the set of eigenvalues are  $\{1, 1, 2\} = \{\lambda_i\}$ .

Eigenvectors (nontrivial solutions v, of [λ, I - A]v<sub>i</sub> = 0):

For  $\lambda_1 = 1$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} -.5 & 0 & .5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ .5 & 0 & -.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We find that the rank of the coefficient matrix (dimension of the largest nonzero determinant) is 1, therefore, n-1=2 linearly independent vector solutions. The constraints on the components  $v_i$  are:  $v_1 = v_3$  and  $v_2$  is arbitrary. We choose two linearly independent solutions, say

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$

For  $\lambda_1 = 2$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} .5 & 0 & .5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ .5 & 0 & .5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We find that the rank of the coefficient matrix is 2, (therefore n-2=1 independent vector solution). The constraints on the components  $v_r$  are:

$$v_1 = -v_3$$
 and  $v_2 = 0$ .

We choose

$$\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(3) Modal matrix:  $P = [v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3]$ :

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{P}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ .5 & -1 & .5 \\ .5 & 0 & -.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

(4) From (3) it is easy to show that

$$\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3\}$$

# A.3 Rank and Null Space

Two important concepts in dealing with matrices are: (1) the range space of the matrix, and (2) the null space of the matrix. We think of an  $m \times n$  matrix as a transformation of vectors in an n-dimensional domain space into vectors in an mdimensional range space, just as a mathematical function can map, or transform, values in x-space into values in y-space. Consider the following definitions: **Definition A.3:** The range space of the  $m \times n$  matrix A is the collection of *m*-dimensional vectors y, such that A x = y for some *n*-dimensional vector x.

**Definition A.4:** The null space of the  $m \times n$  matrix A is the collection of ndimensional vectors x, such that A = 0.

The first of the previous two definitions is directly related to the columns of A in that a vector y in the range space must be a linear combination of the columns of A, with the components of x as coefficients. In the second of the two definitions, we see that the null space contains the vectors x that are mapped to 0. It may be shown that both the range and the null space are "subspaces," i.e. their vectors are closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication. It is useful to have special terms for the dimensions of these two spaces associated with the matrix A. Thus, we have:

**Definition A.5:** The rank of the  $m \times n$  matrix A is the dimension of its range space.

**Definition A.6:** The *nullity* of the  $m \times n$  matrix A is the dimension of its null space.

Although complicated operations for matrices are implemented easily in L-A-S, it is instructive to apply the concepts "manually" to an example.

### Example A.5: Range and Null Space Calculations

Determine the rank and nullity of the  $3 \times 5$  matrix A given by

	1	2	3	4	5	ŀ
A =	2	3	4	1	2	
	3	4	5	0	0	

and calculate a set of basis vectors (a linearly independent set of vectors which span the space, i.e. any vector in the space can be written as a linear combination of the basis vectors) for both the range and the null spaces.

(1) Using elementary row operations, it can be shown that A can be reduced to

	1	2	3	4	5
A =	0	1	2	7	8
	0	0	0	2	1

Therefore, the rank is 3, the number of independent columns, say columns 1, 2 and 4. The nullity is the number of columns less the rank, 5 - 3 = 2.

(2) As mentioned in (1), columns 1, 2 and 4 are linearly independent; therefore, they could serve as a basis of the 3-dimensional range space. As a check on their linearly independence, let us calculate the non-zero determinant of these three columns:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -2 \neq 0$$

(3) To calculate a set of 2 linearly independent vectors which can serve as a basis set for the null space, the row reduced version of A given above will be used:

essions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 7 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the constraints on the components  $x_i$ , taken from these three scalar equations can be rewritten in terms of, say,  $x_3$  and  $x_4$  as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x_3 - 3x_4 \\ -2x_3 + 9x_4 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ -2x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Choosing  $[1 \ 0]$  and  $[0 \ 1]$  for  $[x_3 \ x_4]$  respectively, we obtain the following basis set for the null space:

$$\mathbf{x}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 9 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### 270

# A.4 Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Singular value decomposition can be thought of as a generalization of the eigensystem calculation for matrices which are rectangular. Consider a matrix A which is  $(m \times n)$  and has rank r. We will assume that  $m \ge n$ , although the development applies equally well if the reverse is true. The objective is to represent A as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{V}^{T} \tag{A.18}$$

where W is an  $(m \times n)$  diagonal matrix, i.e. the elements  $w_q$ ,  $i \neq j$ , are zero; and U and V are  $(m \times m)$  and  $(n \times n)$  orthogonal matrices, respectively.

We first note that  $AA^{T}$  is an  $(m \times m)$  positive semi-definite (symmetric) matrix, and that  $A^{T}A$  is likewise an  $(n \times n)$  positive semi-definite (symmetric) matrix. Consequently, we can find a set of orthonormal "left singular vectors"  $\mathbf{u}_{i}$ , i=[1, m] and a set of orthonormal "right singular vectors"  $\mathbf{v}_{i}$ , i=[1, n] from these two symmetric matrices. Thus,

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{u}_{i} = \sigma_{i}^{2} \mathbf{u}_{i}$$
 and  $\mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_{j} = \lambda_{j}^{2} \mathbf{v}_{j}$  (A.19)

for i=[1, m] and j=[1, n]. The use of "squares" of the singular values is justified since both products are positive semi-definite, i.e. they have only non-negative eigenvalues. It can be shown (See Section A.5) that the non-zero eigenvalues of **AB** and **BA** are equal, so that the (non-zero) { $\sigma_i$ } equal the (non-zero) { $\lambda_i$ }. In addition, since  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{z}_i$  can be shown to be an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ , we have from Eq.(A.19)

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{z}_{i} = \sigma_{i}^{2} \mathbf{u}_{i} \qquad (A.20)$$

But, unlike  $u_i$ , the vector  $z_i$  is not necessarily a unit vector. In fact, for a non-zero  $\sigma_i$ , using a symbolic scalar product notation, we find the length of  $z_i$  to be  $\sigma_i$ , i.e.

$$\|\mathbf{z}_i\|^2 = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{u}_i) = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_i) = \sigma_i^2(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_i) = \sigma_i^2$$

Since from Eq.(A.19)  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_i = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v}_i$ ,  $(\lambda_i = \sigma_i)$ , and  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{z}_i = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{z}_i$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{z}_i = \sigma_i \mathbf{v}_i$ . Thus, dividing Eq.(A.20) by  $\sigma_i$ , and concatenating all the resulting equations,

$$\mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_{1} \ \mathbf{v}_{2} \ - \ \mathbf{v}_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{1} \ \mathbf{u}_{2} \ - \ \mathbf{u}_{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{1} & 0 & - & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{2} & \cdots & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{n} \\ \hline & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(A.21)

Finally, since  $V^{-1} = V^{T}$ , because its columns  $\{v_d\}$  form an orthonormal set, the objective of Eq.(A.18) is attained. The last columns of U, and the corresponding zeros of W can be deleted, in this case U, W and  $V^{T}$  become  $(m \times n)$ ,  $(n \times n)$  and  $(n \times n)$ , matrices, respectively. Also, when A is less than full rank, the final rows of  $V^{T}$  and the corresponding zero columns of W can be omitted leaving U, W and  $V^{T}$  as  $(m \times r)$ ,  $(r \times r)$  and  $(r \times n)$ , matrices, respectively.

We will now present two related algorithms. The first, NRS, calculates the range and null spaces of a rectangular matrix. The second, INOU, provides a decomposition of a matrix Q into two subspaces: Qr, the projection of Q into the range space of R; and Qou, the projection of Q to the subspace outside of the range space of R.

# Algorithm: NRS

Syntax: A,  $eps (NRS) \Rightarrow N, R, r$ 

**Purpose:** The calculation of the rank and the range and null space matrices of an  $(m \times n)$  matrix A.

Input/Output Arguments:

- $A = (m \times n)$  matrix.
- eps = small positive scalar, suggested value; eps = 10<sup>5</sup>.
- N = (n × n-r) null space matrix of A, where AN = 0<sub>m(n-r)</sub>.
- R = (m × r) range space matrix of A, where ρ(R) = ρ(A).
- r = rank of the matrix A, r = ρ(A), where r ≤ min(m,n).

Description:

The rank of an  $(m \times n)$  matrix A is defined as:

- the size of the largest non-vanishing determinant that can be formed from A, or
- (ii) the maximum number of linearly independent columns, or rows, in A.

The range and null space matrices, R and N satisfy:

$$r = \rho(\mathbf{R}) = \rho(\mathbf{A})$$
,  $\mathbf{AN} = \mathbf{0}_{\mathbf{n},(n-r)}$  (A.22)

The easiest and computationally most reliable way of calculating r, R and N consists of performing the singular-value decomposition (SVD) of the matrix A, i.e. decomposing A into:

Section A.4 Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

where  $(m \times n)$ ,  $(n \times n)$  and  $(n \times n)$  matrices U, W and V are given by:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_r & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_r & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix}$$
and
$$W = \operatorname{diag} \{ \sigma_1, \cdots, \sigma_r, \cdots, \sigma_n \}$$
(A.24)

Matrices U and V are "unitary," i.e. columns u, and  $v_i$ , i=[1,n], are orthonormal, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{U}^{T}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V}^{T}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}, \qquad (A.25)$$

The positive scalars  $\sigma_i$ , i=[1,n] are referred to as the singular values of A.

All SVD calculation procedures arrange the scalars  $\sigma_i$  in decreasing order, i.e.:

$$\sigma_i \ge \sigma_{i+1}$$
,  $i = [1, n-1]$  (A.26)

If the positive scalar *eps* satisfies: eps < < 1, then for all practical purposes the rank of A may be defined as the index r of the singular value  $\sigma_{r+1}$ satisfying:

$$\sigma_{r+1} \le eps$$
 (A.27)

or, the total number of  $\sigma_i$  satisfying  $\sigma_i > eps$ , i=[1,r].

Thus, the range and null space matrices R and N could be defined by partitioning U and V as follows:

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{R} \mid \mathbf{X}] \text{ and } \mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{N}]$$
(A.28)

where:

R contains the first r columns u, from U, i = [1,r], while

N contains the last n-r columns v, from V, i=[r+1,n-r].

The integer  $v = n \cdot r$ , representing the dimension of the null space of A, is referred to as the nullity of A. The SVD of A is performed by the algorithm SVD:

Syntax: A  $(SVD) \rightarrow w$ , U, V where the  $(1 \times n)$  row w contains the singular values  $\sigma_i$ , i=[1,n].

### Algorithm:

- 1. Define the  $(m \times n)$  matrix A and the scalar eps
- 2. Set A (SVD)  $\Rightarrow$  w, U, V
- 3. If  $\sigma_i > eps$ , set  $\sigma_i/\sigma_i = 1 \Rightarrow x_i$ ; else, set  $0 \Rightarrow x_i$
- 4. Set  $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \Rightarrow r$
- 5. Set U ⇒ [ R | X ]
- 6. Set  $V \Rightarrow [Y | N]$
- 7. Stop

### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of Algorithm NRS, implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Algorithm SVD is performed using the L-A-S operator SVD. The m-dimensional row x containing r unities and m-r zeros is calculated by the operator F/. The rank of A is then obviously given by  $r = x x^{T}$ . The partitioning of U and V in Steps 5 and 6 is done using the L-A-S operator CTC.

# Algorithm: INOU

Syntax: R, Q, eps (INOU) ⇒ Qr, Qou

Purpose: To decompose the matrix Q into two subspaces Qr (the projection of Q into R) and Qou (the subspace outside the range space of R).

### Input/Output Arguments:

- R = (n × m) matrix
- Q = (n × k) full column rank matrix, i.e. ρ(Q) = k
- eps = small positive scalar, suggested value: eps = 10<sup>5</sup>
- Qr = (n × r) matrix; projection of Q into R
- Qou = (n × s) matrix; part of Q outside the range space of R

### Description:

Matrices Qr and Qou satisfy:

 $\rho[\mathbf{R} | \mathbf{Qr}] = \rho[\mathbf{R}], \ \rho[\mathbf{Q} | \mathbf{Qr}] = \rho[\mathbf{Q}], \ \rho[\mathbf{Qr}] = r$ and (A.29)

 $\rho[\mathbf{R} \mid \mathbf{Qou}] = \rho[\mathbf{R}] + s, \ \rho[\mathbf{Q} \mid \mathbf{Qou}] = \rho[\mathbf{Q}], \ \rho[\mathbf{Qou}] = s$ 

Since  $\rho(\mathbf{Q}) = k$ , then r + s = k.

The matrices Qr and Qou are obtained by postmultipying Q with  $(k \times r)$  and  $(k \times s)$  matrices N<sub>e</sub> and N<sub>e</sub>, i.e.:

$$Qr = QN_a$$
 and  $Qou = QN_{as}$  (A.30)

where N<sub>a</sub> and N<sub>a</sub> are calculated from null space matrices:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q} & \mid \mathbf{R} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{q} \\ \mathbf{N}_{r} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{N}_{q}^{T} \mathbf{N}_{qn} = \mathbf{0} \tag{A.31}$$

From Eq.(A.31) it is evident that Qr = Q Ne is in the range space of R since:

 $QN_{a} = -RN_{a}$ 

Similarly, since [  $N_q$  |  $N_q$ , ] is a  $(k \times k)$  nonsingular matrix, it follows that Qou = Q  $N_q$  is outside the range space of R.

The null space matrices required in Eq.(A.31) are calculated by the algorithm NRS discussed above.

Algorithm:

Define (n × m) and (n × k) matrices R and Q and the scalar eps.

2. Set number of columns in  $\mathbf{Q} \Rightarrow k$ 

3. Set  $[Q | R] \Rightarrow QR$ 

4. Set QR, eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$  N<sub>er</sub>, Y, x

5. Set the first k rows from  $N_{ar} \Rightarrow N_{g}$ 

6. Set  $N_s^T$ , eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$   $N_{ox}$ , Y, x

7. Set Q  $N_r \Rightarrow Qr$ 

8. Set Q N. = Qou

9. Stop

Algorithm Implementation

The listing of Algorithm INOU, implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Algorithm NRS is performed using the L-A-S operator NRS. The subroutine version is given in Appendix C. Matrix transposition is performed by the L-A-S operator T.

# A.5 Useful Results with Matrices

Consider the two matrices

C = I + AB and D = I + BA (A.32)

where C has dimensions  $n \times n$  and D,  $m \times m$ . It follows from Eq.(A.15) that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the eigenvalues of C and those of AB. Thus, if  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of AB, then  $(1+\lambda)$  is an eigenvalue of C, and similarly for D and BA.

If we assume that n > m, then a non-zero eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of BA satisfies that

$$BAx = \lambda x$$
 (A.33)

for some corresponding (non-zero) eigenvector x. Premultiplying by A,

$$AB(Ax) = \lambda(Ax)$$
 (A.34)

which shows that  $\lambda$  is automatically an eigenvalue of AB (with corresponding eigenvector Ax). Consequently, the *m* eigenvalues of BA are also eigenvalues of AB and vice versa, so that the remaining (*n* - *m*) eigenvalues of AB must be zero.

Applying this result to C and D of Eq.(A.32), the *m* eigenvalues of D are also eigenvalues of C, and the remaining eigenvalues of C are unity. Therefore, the product of the eigenvalues of C equals the product of the eigenvalues of D; or, in other words, the determinants are equal:

$$det(I + AB) = det(I + BA) \qquad \blacksquare (A.35)$$

Partitioned Matrices: Using the Laplace expansion of a determinant, it is readily shown that:

$$det(AB) = (det A)(det B)$$
  $\blacksquare$  (A.36)

$$det(\mathbf{A}) = det(\mathbf{A}^7)$$
 (A.37)

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{C} \end{bmatrix} = \det(\mathbf{A})\det(\mathbf{C}) \qquad \qquad \blacksquare (\mathbf{A}.38)$$

The fact that partitioned matrices obey the same rules as ordinary matrices with respect to multiplication and addition permits us to generate some interesting expressions for inverse matrices. Suppose that  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ , then, assuming compatible partitions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_1 & \mathbf{A}_2 \\ \mathbf{A}_3 & \mathbf{A}_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_1 & \mathbf{B}_2 \\ \mathbf{B}_3 & \mathbf{B}_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$
(A.39)

and

$$\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{B}_1 + \mathbf{A}_2\mathbf{B}_3 = \mathbf{I}$$

(A.40)

 $A_3B_1 + A_4B_3 = 0$ are the (1,1) and (2,1) elements of the product. Solving for B<sub>1</sub> and B<sub>1</sub>, we obtain:

$$\mathbf{B}_{1} = (\mathbf{A}_{1} - \mathbf{A}_{2}\mathbf{A}_{4}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{3})^{-1}$$
(A.41)

and

$$\mathbf{B}_{3} = -\mathbf{A}_{4}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{3}(\mathbf{A}_{1} - \mathbf{A}_{2}\mathbf{A}_{4}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{3})^{-1}$$
(A.42)

Similarly, the remaining equations permit solving for B2 and B4:

and

$$\mathbf{B}_{2} = -\mathbf{A}_{1}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{2}(\mathbf{A}_{4} - \mathbf{A}_{3}\mathbf{A}_{1}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{2})^{-1}$$
(A.43)

and

$$\mathbf{B}_{4} = (\mathbf{A}_{4} - \mathbf{A}_{3}\mathbf{A}_{1}^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{2})^{-1}$$
(A.44)

completing  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .

Many matrix identities can be developed by repeating the above process with a reversed product order, BA = I, and equating the two expressions for **B**, since  $A^{-1}$  is unique for any non-singular matrix **A**. In particular, the *matrix inversion lemma* is

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1} * \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H})^{-1} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^T (\mathbf{C} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^T + \mathbf{B}^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{A}$$
  $\blacksquare (\mathbf{A}.45)$ 

A final result can be realized using the fact that for any matrix M

$$det\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{M} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} = 1 \tag{A.46}$$

Therefore, using the property of Eq.(A.36), and assuming that A is nonsingular,

$$det \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \approx det \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ -\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
(A.47)

Multiplying out the previous expression,

$$det \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = det \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$
(A.48)

Finally, using properties from Eqs.(A.37) and (A.38),

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} = \det(\mathbf{A})\det(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}) \qquad \blacksquare (\mathbf{A}.49)$$

# A.6 The Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

We know from Section A.2 that a matrix A with distinct eigenvalues is similar to a diagonal matrix. Recall that

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \operatorname{diag} \{ \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \} = \mathbf{E}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{E}$$
(A.50)

where  $\{\lambda_i\}$ , i = [1, n], are the (assumed distinct) eigenvalues of the  $n \times n$  matrix A, and E is the modal matrix of A whose columns are the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues in A.

Note that an integer power of A takes the form

$$\Lambda^{m} = (\mathbf{E}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{E})_{1}(\mathbf{E}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{E})_{2} - (\mathbf{E}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{E})_{m} = \mathbf{E}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{m}\mathbf{E}$$
(A.51)

It follow that for any polynomial  $p(\lambda)$ , the corresponding matrix polynomial is

$$p(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{E} p(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{E}^{-1} \tag{A.52}$$

And since A is a diagonal matrix,

$$p(\Lambda) = \operatorname{diag}\left\{p(\lambda_1), p(\lambda_2), \dots, p(\lambda_n)\right\}$$
(A.53)

For the particular polynomial which is the characteristic polynomial of A, we have that

$$a(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{E} a(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{E}^{-1} = \mathbf{0}$$
 (A.54)

since  $a(\lambda_i) = 0$  for i = [1,n] by the definition of eigenvalues. This result may be summarized in the statement that "the matrix A satisfies its own characteristic equation."

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem: If  $a(\lambda) = det[\lambda I - A]$  is the characteristic polynomial of the (square) matrix A, then a(A) is the zero matrix.

Our development assumed distinct eigenvalues for A, but it can be shown that the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem is valid for any square matrix. See also Algorithm POLR, which is discussed at the end of the examples in Section 2.4.

# A.7

# References

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# Appendix B Special Topics

In this appendix we discuss several items of theoretical, as well as practical, interest. Some of the topics continue to build on the review material of Appendix A. For example, the first section in this appendix concerns the problem of linear algebraic equations. Other topics include the three minimal realization techniques, Hessenberg, Kalman and Jordan. One section discusses a useful, relatively simple method of measuring the relative controllability and observability of MIMO system poles.

# B.1 Linear Algebraic Equations

Consider the following system of linear algebraic equations:

$$AX = B$$
 (B.1)

where the  $[n(m+1) \times nm]$  matrix A has rank = n, and B is a given  $[n(m+1) \times m]$  matrix. It is known that one among many solutions for the  $[nm \times m]$  matrix X of Eq.(B.1) has the form:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{b} \mathbf{I}_{m} \\ d_{1} \mathbf{I}_{m} \\ \vdots \\ d_{n-1} \mathbf{I}_{m} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.2)

Recall that this problem was encountered in Algorithm HTF, Section 4.3.5, Eq.(4.74). We are interested in obtaining the scalars  $d_i$ , i=[0,n-1], satisfying Eqs.(B.1) and (B.2).

#### Procedure:

The general solution X of Eq.(B.1) may be written as:

$$X = Y + NT$$
(B.3)

where Y is any nontrivial solution of Eq.(B.1), N is the [nm  $\times$  n(n-1)] null space matrix of A satisfying:

$$AN = 0$$
 (B.4)

while T is an arbitrary  $[n(n-1) \times m]$  matrix.

For additional notation let:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{I}_{m} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{e}_{m} \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{Y} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{y}_{m} \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{T} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{t}_{m} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} (B.5)$$

then, taking into account Eq.(B.2) the  $l^{\pm}$  column  $x_i$  of the general solution X in Eq.(B.3) may be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{x}_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{0}\mathbf{e}_{i} \\ d_{1}\mathbf{e}_{i} \\ \vdots \\ d_{n-1}\mathbf{e}_{i} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{y}_{i} + \mathbf{N}\mathbf{t}_{i}$$
(B.6)

Eliminating from Eq.(B.6) elements with the indices:

Eq.(B.6) yields a system of (m-1)m equations of the form:

$$N_i t_i = -y_a \tag{B.8}$$

where  $N_i$  and  $y_{ii}$  represent an  $[(m-1)m \times (m-1)m]$  matrix and (m-1)m columns obtained from N and  $y_i$  in Eq.(B.6) by eliminating the rows with indices given by Eq.(B.7). By definition, N is a full column rank matrix. However, the square matrices  $N_i$  obtained from N by eliminating n rows are not necessarily of full rank for each *i*. But, according to the assumption of Eq.(B.2), it may be concluded that there is some index *i*, i=[1,m], for which the matrix  $N_i$  is nonsingular. Using this  $N_i$ , a column  $t_i$  of the unknown matrix T may be calculated from Eq.(B.8) as:

$$\mathbf{t}_i = -\mathbf{N}_i^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{ii} \tag{B.9}$$

Having t, from Eq.(B.9), the scalars  $d_j$ , j=[0,n-1], may be readily obtained from Eq.(B.6).

# B.2 Hessenberg Transformations

The basic idea of the Hessenberg transformation is to apply a sequence of n-p similarity transformations by which a given unobservable pair {A,C} with a full rank C is transformed into the form:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{o} & | & \mathbf{0} \\ --- & + & --- \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & | & \mathbf{A}_{so} \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{n}_{o} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{o} \\ --- \\ \mathbf{B}_{so} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.10)  
$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{o} & | & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

In other words, after this sequence of similarity transformations, the matrix C is "column" reduced, i.e. only the first *p* columns have elements different from zero. The matrix A has an  $(n_o \times n \cdot n_o)$  block of zeros in the "upper right" corner, while B has no special structure. Obviously the modes, i.e. eigenvalues of the block  $A_{no}$  are not observable since, due to the structure of  $\{A, C\}$ , they do not contribute to the output y(t) = C x(t).

Thus, the observable part of a given {A,B,C} becomes an n,\* order representation given by:

$$R_a = \{\mathbf{A}_a, \mathbf{B}_o, \mathbf{C}_o\}$$

To check the controllability of {A,, B,, C,}, i.e. to eliminate possible uncontrollable modes, it is recommended that one consider the dual system

$$R_D = \{\mathbf{A}_D, \mathbf{B}_D, \mathbf{C}_D\} = \{\mathbf{A}_a^T, \mathbf{C}_a^T, \mathbf{B}_a^T\}$$

of the obtained  $R_a$ , and eliminate its unobservable modes, which are, of course, the uncotrollable modes of  $R_a$ , to obtain:

$$R_{De} = \{\mathbf{A}_{De}, \mathbf{B}_{De}, \mathbf{C}_{De}\}$$

Finally, a desired minimal realization corresponding to the given {A,B,C} is equal to the dual of R<sub>Det</sub> i.e.

$$R_{\rm m} = \{\mathbf{A}_{Do}^{T}, \mathbf{C}_{Do}^{T}, \mathbf{B}_{Do}^{T}\}$$

The algorithm MIN given below performs only the elimination of the unobservable part, i.e. the transformation:

$$R \Rightarrow R_o$$

Algorithm MIN: 1. Set  $C \Rightarrow R, n \Rightarrow k$ 2. Set R (SVD)  $\Rightarrow$  s,U,V; where R = USV<sup>T</sup>, S = diag{ s<sub>1</sub>,..., s<sub>k</sub> } 3. Set  $V \Rightarrow T_k$ ,  $k - p \Rightarrow k$ ,  $1 \Rightarrow i$ ,  $p+1 \Rightarrow j$ 4. Set A, B, C, V(STR) ⇒ A', B', C' 5. Partition  $\mathbf{A}' \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} | \mathbf{Y} | \\ \mathbf{X} | \\ | \mathbf{R} \\ | \mathbf{Z} \end{bmatrix}$ ; *i*-1 **X** | **R** is  $(p \times k)$  such that  $r_{ii} = a'_{ij}$ 6. Set R (SVD)  $\Rightarrow$  s,U,V 7. Set diag{  $I_{\mu 1}$ , V }  $\Rightarrow$  T,  $T_{\mu}T \Rightarrow T_{\mu}$  Set A', B', C', T(STR) ⇒ A', B', C' 9. Set  $k-1 \Rightarrow k, j+1 \Rightarrow j, l+1 \Rightarrow l$  If j ≤ n, go to 5; else, go to 11 11. Set  $A, B, C, T_{A}(STR) \Rightarrow A_{B}, B_{A}, C_{A}$ 12. Set  $n \Rightarrow n_n$ ,  $0 \Rightarrow i$ 13. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i, n-i \Rightarrow k$ 14. Partition  $\mathbf{A}_{k} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} & | & \mathbf{Z} \\ --- & + & --- \\ \mathbf{Y} & | & \mathbf{W} \end{bmatrix}$ ;  $\mathbf{Z}$  is the  $(k \times i)$  upper right block of  $\mathbf{A}_{k}$ 15. If | Z | > eps. go to 17; else, go to 16 16. Set  $k \Rightarrow n_{a}$  If i < n-p, go to 13; else, go to 18</li> 18. Paritition  $A_k \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} A_s & | & 0 \\ --- & + & --- \\ \mathbf{y} & | & \mathbf{z} \end{bmatrix}; B_h \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} B_0 \\ --- \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}; C_h \Rightarrow [C_s | 0]$ 

 $R_a = \{A_a, B_a, C_a\}$  is an  $n_a^{th}$  order observable representation.

Note that  $R' = \{A', B', C'\}$ , obtained in the last passage through Step 8, is the same as  $R_{\lambda} = \{A_{\lambda}, B_{\lambda}, C_{\lambda}\}$ , obtained in Step 11, since the transformation matrix  $T_{\lambda}$  accumulates all transformations performed in the loop, Steps 5 to 10.

Singular Value Decomoposition: For a given  $(p \times k)$  matrix R, Algorithm SVD, singular value decomposition, in Steps 2 and 6, calculates arrays s, U and V where:

- s is a k-dimensional row array containing the singular values s<sub>i</sub>, i=[1,k], s<sub>i</sub> ≥ 0.
- U is a (p × k) matrix containing the "left" singular vectors.
- V is a (k × k) matrix containing the "right" singular vectors.

#### Section B.3 The Kalman Decomposition

The arrays s, U and V satisfy:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{V}^T$$
, where  $\mathbf{S} = \text{diag}\{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$ 

and  $s_1 \ge s_2 \ge ... \ge s_k \ge 0$ . Matrices U and V are "unitary" i.e.  $V^{P}V = I_k$  and  $UU^{T} = I_{s_1}$  if  $p \le k$ , or in other words, the columns of U and V are orthonormal.

The main property of the Hessenberg similarity transformation matrix  $T_h$  is that in the transformed triple  $R_k = \{A_n, B_h, C_h\}$  the  $(n_o \times n \cdot n_o)$  upper right submatrix of  $A_h$  and the last  $n \cdot n_o$  columns in  $C_h$  contain zero elements. This is a consequence of the fact that the last  $k \cdot r$  columns of V, where  $r = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{R})$ , are in the null space of R, i.e. in the product  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{RV}$  all non-zero elements are "concentrated" in the first r columns of X. Thus, it is clear that the last  $n \cdot n_o$  modes of  $R_h$  are unobservable, and in order to obtain an observable part, these modes should be eliminated from  $R_k$ . Similarly, to eliminate possible uncontrollable modes, the same Hessenberg transformation should be applied to the representation which is dual to the above obtained  $R_o$ .

For more details on the Hessenberg trasnformation readers are referred to the reference section in Chapter 4.

# B.3 The Kalman Decomposition

Consider a not necessarily minimal state space representation  $\{A, B, C\}$ , with order  $n, m \le n$  inputs and  $p \le n$  outputs. The Kalman Canonical decomposition is defined as the procedure of decomposing a given state space representation  $\{A, B, C\}$  into the following four coupled subsystems referred to as the:

- 1. Controllable and unobservable subsystem, denoted by co,
- 2. Controllable and observable, denoted by co,
- 3. Uncontrollable and unobservable, denoted by co, and
- 4. Uncontrollable and observable, denoted by co.

The problem is to find a similarity transformation matrix T which will transform the given  $\{A,B,C\}$  into a form  $\{A_a,B_a,C_a\}$  where:

The structure of the matrices in Eq.(B.11) is as follows:



FIGURE B.1 Kalman Canonical Decomposition

$$\mathbf{A}_{d} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{c\bar{o}} & \mathbf{A}_{12} & \mathbf{A}_{13} & \mathbf{A}_{14} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{c\bar{o}} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{24} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{\bar{c}\bar{o}} & \mathbf{A}_{34} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{\bar{c}\bar{o}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{d} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{\bar{o}} \\ \mathbf{B}_{o} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.12)  
$$\mathbf{C}_{d} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_{e} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_{\bar{e}} \end{bmatrix}$$

The structures given by Eq.(B.12) can be represented by the block diagram given in Fig. B.1. In Fig.B.1, as well as in Eq.(B.12), c and  $\overline{c}$  stand for controllable and uncontrollable subsystems, while o and  $\overline{o}$  stand for observable and unobservable subsystems, respectively. However, Fig. B.1 does not show all internal connections between the four subsystems. A more detailed block diagram is given in Fig. B.2.



FIGURE B.2 Detailed Kalman Decomposition

#### Section B.3 The Kalman Decomposition

Normally, only procedures for the determination of the *co* subsystem are considered; however, our purpose here is to suggest a possible algorithm for performing a Kalman canonical decomposition, i.e. a constructive procedure for calculating a similarity transformation matrix T performing the decomposition in Eq.(B.12).

#### **Decomposition Procedure**

The transformation matrix T should be given by the concatenation of the following submatrices:

 $\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_{e\bar{s}} & \mathbf{T}_{e\sigma} & \mathbf{T}_{\bar{c}\bar{\sigma}} & \mathbf{T}_{\bar{c}\sigma} \end{bmatrix}$ (B.13)

where:

$$\mathbf{T}_{e} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_{co} & \mathbf{T}_{c\bar{o}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.14)

should span the controllable subspace of the pair {A,B}, while:

$$\mathbf{T}_{\vec{o}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_{c\vec{o}} & \mathbf{T}_{\vec{c}\vec{o}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.15)

should span the unobservable subspace of the pair {A,C}.

Thus, the matrix  $T_c$  could be obtained by calculating the range space of the controllability matrix of the pair  $\{A,B\}$ :

$$Q_{r} = [B AB A^{2}B \dots A^{n-m}B]$$
 (B.16)

i.e.

$$\mathbf{T}_e = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{Q}_e)$$
 (B.17)

Similarly, the matrix  $T_{\overline{a}}$  could be calculated from the observability matrix of the pair  $\{A,C\}$ :

$$Q_{z} = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ CA \\ CA^{2} \\ \vdots \\ CA^{n-p} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.18)

using

$$C_{\overline{a}} = N(R_{Oa}^{T})$$
(B.19)

where Ro, is the range space of Q., i.e.

$$\mathbf{R}_{O_{\theta}} = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{Q}_{\theta}) \tag{B.20}$$

The matrices Q, and Q, could be calculated by Algorithms Qc and Qo given in

Chapter 1 and Appendix C. In Eqs.(B.17), (B.19) and (B.20) the symbols  $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X})$ and  $\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{X})$  denote the range and null spaces of  $\mathbf{X}$ , respectively, while  $\mathbf{X}^{T}$  denotes matrix transposition. The range and null spaces of a given matrix can be calculated by Algorithm NRS given in Appendix C.

Having matrices  $T_e$  and  $T_{\overline{s}}$ , defined by Eqs.(B.14) and (B.15), the submatrices of  $T_e$  entering into the similarity transformation matrix T, Eq.(B.13), can be obtained by decomposing  $T_e$  into a part spanned by the columns in  $T_{\overline{s}}$  and a part which is not. Similarly, the sub-matrices in Eq.(B.15) can be obtained by decomposing  $T_{\overline{s}}$  into a part spanned by the columns in  $T_e$  and a part which is not.

The above decompositions into the desired sub-matrices can be obtained by Algorithm InOu given in Appendix C, i.e.:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{T}_{\bar{s}} \ , \ \mathbf{T}_{c} \ , \ \epsilon \ (InOu) \ - \ \mathbf{T}_{c\bar{s}} \ , \ \mathbf{T}_{cs} \end{split}$$
$$\mathbf{T}_{c} \ , \ \mathbf{T}_{\bar{s}} \ , \ \epsilon \ (InOu) \ - \ \mathbf{\tilde{T}}_{c\bar{s}} \ , \ \mathbf{T}_{\bar{c}\bar{s}} \ , \ \mathbf{T}_{\bar{c}\bar{s}} \end{split}$$

(Note:  $T_{e\bar{e}}$  and  $\tilde{T}_{e\bar{e}}$  are not unique, but both versions span the same sub-space.)

Finally, the sub-matrix  $T_{\overline{r}\sigma}$ , which has not yet been determined, can be obtained as the null space of  $T_1^{T}$ , i.e.

$$T_{z_a} = N(T_1^7)$$
 (B.21)

where

$$\mathbf{T}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_{c\bar{o}} & \mathbf{T}_{co} & \mathbf{T}_{\bar{c}\bar{o}} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (B.22)

Using the above mentioned algorithms, we are now ready to formulate the algorithm for Kalman canonical decomposition.

### Kalman Canonical Decomposition Algorithm

- Define a state space representation {A,B,C} and the scalar eps satisfying: 0 < eps << 1.</li>
- 2. Set A,  $B(Qc) \Rightarrow Q_c$ , Eq.(B.16)
- 3. Set A,  $C(Qo) \Rightarrow Q_a$ , Eq.(B.18)
- Set Q<sub>e</sub>, eps (NRS) ⇒ X, T<sub>e</sub>, r<sub>e</sub>; T<sub>e</sub> is the controllability subspace
- 5. Set  $\mathbf{Q}_o^T$ , eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$  X, Rqot, x; Eq.(B.20)
- 6. Set Rqot<sup>7</sup>, eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$  T<sub>3</sub>, X, r<sub>0</sub>; T<sub>3</sub> is the unobservability subspace
- 7. Set  $\mathbf{T}_{\overline{e}}$ ,  $\mathbf{T}_{e}$ , eps (InOu)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{e\overline{e}}$ ,  $\mathbf{T}_{e\overline{e}}$ ; Eq.(B.14)
- 8. Set  $T_c$ ,  $T_{\overline{o}}$ , eps (InOu)  $\Rightarrow T_{c\overline{o}}$ ,  $T_{\overline{c}\overline{o}}$ ; Eq.(B.15)
- 9. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_{c\bar{o}} & \mathbf{T}_{c\bar{o}} & \mathbf{T}_{\bar{c}\bar{\sigma}} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{i}$ ; Eq.(B.24)
- 10. Set  $T_1^T$ , eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$   $T_{z_0}$ , X, x

11. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}_1 & \mathbf{T}_{\overline{c}\sigma} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}$ , Eq.(B.13) 12. Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \dim(\mathbf{T}_{c\overline{\sigma}}) & \dim(\mathbf{T}_{c\sigma}) & \dim(\mathbf{T}_{\overline{c}\overline{\sigma}}) & \dim(\mathbf{T}_{\overline{c}\sigma}) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{d}$ 13. Set  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ , T (STR)  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{d}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_{d}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_{d}$ ; Eq.(B.11) 14. Stop

### Algorithm Implementation

The listing of Algorithm KALD implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Algorithms Qc, Qo and NRS are implemented using corresponding L-A-S operators, while InOu is implemented by the subroutine InOu. The matrix denoted by Rqot, determined in Step 5 and used in Step 6, is the range space of  $Q_a^T$ . Algorithm STR, used in Step 13 is performed using the L-A-S operator STR. The four dimensional row d calculated in Step 12, containing subspace dimensions, is calculated using the L-A-S operators CDI and CTI.

# **B.4** Computation of Generalized Eigenvectors

In this section a method is suggested for computing the eigenvectors and generalized eigenvectors of a matrix, given that the eigenvalues are already known. The algorithm is straightforward, and an *L-A-S* implementation is provided. The following algorithms are associated with the general problem. Each algorithm is described in detail.

### Algorithm: MODM

Syntax: A, Egv,  $eps (MODM) \Rightarrow P$ 

Purpose: Calculation of the eigenvector (modal) matrix of a matrix with multiple real or complex eigenvalues.

Input/Output arguments:

- A = (n × n) real matrix with multiple real or complex-conjugate eigenvalues.
- Egv = (m × 2) matrix, m ≤ n, containing distinct eigenvalues, λ<sub>j</sub> = σ<sub>j</sub> + jω<sub>j</sub>, j=[1,m], of A; first column contains real parts, second column contains imaginary parts. In the case of a complexconjugate pair of eigenvalues, Egv contains only one eigenvalue of the pair.
- eps, a sufficiently small positive scalar; suggested value: eps=10<sup>5</sup>.

 $P = (n \times n)$  eigenvector matrix transforming A into the "real number" Jordan form,

#### Description:

The  $(n \times n)$  modal matrix:

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_1 & - & \mathbf{P}_j & - & \mathbf{P}_m \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.23)

is related to a given A by;

$$AP = PA_j$$
 or  $A_j = P^{-1}AP$  (B.24)

where A, is an  $(n \times n)$  block diagonal Jordan form matrix given by:

$$A_{j} = \text{diag} \{ A_{j_{1}}, -, A_{j_{j}}, \cdots, A_{j_{m}} \}$$
 (B.25)

The  $(n \times n_j)$  and  $(n_j \times n_j)$ , j = [1,m], matrices  $P_j$  and  $A_{ij}$  in Eqs.(B.23) and (B.25) satisfy:

$$\mathbf{AP}_{j} = \mathbf{P}_{j}\mathbf{A}_{jj}$$
 where  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} n_{j} = n$  (B.26)

Integers n<sub>j</sub> are the algebraic multiplicities of the eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$ , j = [1,m], of the matrix A.

Matrices P, and A, could be partitioned as:

$$\mathbf{P}_{j} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_{j1} & \cdots & \mathbf{P}_{jk} & \cdots & \mathbf{P}_{jv_{j}} \end{bmatrix}$$
  
$$\mathbf{A}_{jj} = \operatorname{diag} \{ \mathbf{A}_{jjl}, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_{jjk}, \cdots, \mathbf{A}_{jv_{j}} \}$$
(B.27)

Integer  $v_j$ , referred to as the geometric multiplicity of (multiple) eigenvalue  $\lambda_j$ , is given by the nullity of the matrix  $\mathbf{B}_j = \mathbf{A} - \lambda_j \mathbf{I}$ , i.e.  $v_j$  is the dimension of the null space of  $\mathbf{B}_j$ .

The  $(n \times n_{\mu})$  matrices  $P_{\mu}$ ,  $k = [1, v_j]$ , contain  $n_{\mu}$  eigenvectors belonging to the  $k^{\mu}$  eigenvector chain of length  $n_{\mu}$  associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda_{\mu}$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}_{jk} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_{jkl} & \cdots & \mathbf{p}_{jkr} & \cdots & \mathbf{p}_{jkn} \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } n_j = \sum_{k=1}^{\gamma_j} n_{jk} \quad (B.28)$$

The  $(n_{jk} \times n_{jk})$  matrix  $A_{ijk}$ , referred to as the  $k^{ik}$  Jordan block associated with  $\lambda_j$ , satisfies:

In the case of a real eigenvalue  $\lambda_j = \sigma_j$ , the Jordan block  $A_{ijk}$  is an upper triangular matrix consisting of  $\sigma_j$  on the diagonal and a super diagonal of unities of the form

$$\mathbf{A}_{ijk} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_j & 1 & & \\ & \sigma_j & 1 & \\ & & \sigma_j & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & \sigma_j & 1 \\ & & & & \sigma_j \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.30)

In the case of a complex-conjugate pair of eigenvalues  $\lambda_j = \sigma_j \pm j\omega_j$ , the  $(2n_{jk} \times 2n_{jk})$  Jordan block  $A_{ijk}$  is associated with both eigenvalues of the pair and is in "real number" form given by:

$$\mathbf{A}_{Jjk} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{j} & \omega_{j} & 1 & & & \\ -\omega_{j} & \sigma_{j} & 1 & & & \\ & \sigma_{j} & \omega_{j} & 1 & & \\ & -\omega_{j} & \sigma_{j} & 1 & & \\ & & \sigma_{j} & \omega_{j} & 1 & \\ & & & -\omega_{j} & \sigma_{j} & 1 & \\ & & & & \sigma_{j} & \omega_{j} & \\ & & & & -\omega_{j} & \sigma_{j} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.31)

In order to satisfy Eq.(B.29) with  $A_{ijk}$  in the real number form given by Eq.(B.31), the  $(n \times 2n_{jk})$  eigenvector matrix  $P_{jk}$  is associated with both eigenvalues in the complex-conjugate pair  $\sigma_j \pm j\omega_j$ . The first two columns of  $P_{jk}$  are given by the real and imaginary parts of the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\sigma_j + j\omega_j$ . Similarly, the next two columns are the real and imaginary parts of the first generalized eigenvector corresponding to  $\sigma_j + j\omega_j$ .

The eigenvector chains  $P_{jk}$  in the  $(n \times n_j)$  matrix  $P_j$  corresponding to a

real eigenvalue  $\lambda_j = \sigma_j$  with a multiplicity  $n_j$  are calculated by Algorithm CHAR. The eigenvector chains  $\mathbf{P}_{jk}$  in the  $(n \times 2n_j)$  matrix  $\mathbf{P}_j$  corresponding to both eigenvalues of the complex conjugate pair  $\sigma_j \pm j\omega_j$  with multiplicity  $n_j$  are calculated by Algorithm CHAC.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Define (n × n) matrix A, distinct eigenvalues Egv and the scalar eps.
- 2. Set number of columns in  $A \Rightarrow n$
- 3. Set number of rows in Egv  $\Rightarrow m$
- 4. Set  $0_{*0} \Rightarrow P$
- 5. Set  $0 \Rightarrow j$
- 6. Set  $j+1 \Rightarrow j$
- 7. Extract  $j^{\alpha}$  row of Egv  $\Rightarrow \lambda j$
- 8. Partition  $\lambda \mathbf{j} \Rightarrow [\sigma_j \mid \omega_j]$
- If ω<sub>j</sub> = 0, go to 12; else, go to 10
- 10. Set A,  $\sigma_j$ ,  $\omega_j$ , eps (CHAC)  $\Rightarrow$  P<sub>j</sub>
- 11. Go to 13
- Set A, a, eps (CHAR) = P,
- 13. Set [ P | P, ] ⇒ P
- If J < m, go to 6; else, stop.</li>

### Algorithm Implementation

The listing of Algorithm MODM implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Algorithms CHAR and CHAC are implemented using the L-A-S subroutines CHAR and CHAC, respectively. These two algorithms are presented next.

# Algorithm: CHAR

Syntax: A,  $\sigma_j$ , eps (CHAR)  $\Rightarrow$  P<sub>j</sub>

### Purpose:

The calculation of the eigenvector chains corresponding to a real eigenvalue  $\sigma_j$ with multiplicity  $n_j$ ,  $n_j \ge 1$ .

### Input/Output Arguments:

- A = (n × n) matrix.
- σ<sub>i</sub> = scalar corresponding to a real eigenvalue of A with

### Section B.4 Computation of Generalized Eigenvectors

multiplicity  $n_j, n_j \ge 1$ .

- eps = sufficiently small positive scalar; suggested value: eps=10<sup>3</sup>.
- P<sub>j</sub> = (n × n<sub>j</sub>) matrix containing all eigenvector chains corresponding to o<sub>j</sub>.

Description:

Let  $\sigma_j$  be a real eigenvalue of A with multiplicity  $n_j$ . Then  $v_j$ , the nullity of  $\mathbf{B}_j = \mathbf{A} - \sigma_j \mathbf{I}$ , i.e. the dimension of the null space of the matrix  $\mathbf{B}_j$ , satisfies:

$$1 \le v_i \le n_i$$
 (B.32)

In the matrix  $P_j$  there are  $v_j$  proper and  $(n_j - v_j)$  generalized eigenvectors corresponding to  $\sigma_j$ . According to Eqs.(B.27) and (B.28), these vectors are arranged in  $P_j$  as  $v_j$  eigenvector chains  $P_{jk}$  of lengths  $n_{jk}$ . Without loss of generality it may be assumed that:

$$n_{j1} \le n_{j2} \le \dots \le n_{j\nu_j}$$
 (B.33)

The vectors  $\mathbf{p}_{ab}$ ,  $r = [1, v_j]$ , in the chains  $\mathbf{P}_A$  satisfy:

$$B_j p_{jkl} = 0$$
 and  $B_j p_{jkr} = p_{jklr-1}$  for  $r = [2, v_j]$  (B.34)

or

$$(\mathbf{B}_{i})'\mathbf{p}_{itr} = 0$$
 for  $r = [1, v_{i}]$  (B.35)

From Eq.(B.34) it follows that the vectors  $\mathbf{p}_{\mu\nu}$  for  $r=[1,\nu_j-1]$  are in the range space of  $\mathbf{B}_{\mu}$ , while the vectors  $\mathbf{p}_{jkn_{\mu}}$ , which are last in the chains are outside the range space of  $\mathbf{B}_{\mu}$ , i.e.:

$$\operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{B}_{j} \mid \mathbf{p}_{jkr}] = \operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{B}_{j}] \text{ for } k = [1, n_{jk}-1] \text{ and} \\ \operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{B}_{j} \mid \mathbf{p}_{jkn_{jk}}] = \operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{B}_{j}] + 1$$
(B.36)

From Eq.(B.35) it follows that all of the vectors p<sub>je</sub> are in null space of (B<sub>j</sub>)<sup>4</sup>.

In Algorithm CHAR first the matrix  $\mathbf{B}_j$  is built and its nullity  $v_j$  and range space  $\mathbf{R}$  are calculated. Then the vector  $\mathbf{p}_{j,1\mathbf{s}_1}$ , i.e. the last vector in the shortest eigenvector chain, is determined. This is done by determining the smallest integer k such that the null space  $\mathbf{N}_k$  of the matrix  $(\mathbf{B}_j)^k$  contains vectors  $\mathbf{m}_i$ , i=[1,q], which are outside  $\mathbf{R}$ . If q > 1, i.e. if there is more than one vector satisfying this condition, then there are q chains with length  $k = n_{q_1}$ . These vectors are then used as the last vector in their respective chains, and the other vectors in those chains are calculated using Eq.(B.34) by a simple premultiplication of  $\mathbf{m}_i$  with  $\mathbf{B}_j$ .

These eigenvector chains are of the form:

$$\left[ \left( \mathbf{B}_{j} \right)^{\mathbf{n}_{ji}-1} \mathbf{m}_{i} \mid \cdots \mid \mathbf{B}_{j} \mathbf{m}_{i} \mid \mathbf{m}_{i} \right], \ j = [1,q]$$
(B.37)

If  $q < v_j$ , more chains, longer than  $n_{j1}$ , are needed. Again, the last vectors in these chains are obtained by detecting the next smallest integer k such that the null space of the matrix  $(\mathbf{B}_j)^k$  contains vectors outside the range space of the matrix obtained by concatenating **R** and the matrix **M** consisting of the q vectors  $\mathbf{m}_i$ , i = [1,q], used in Eq.(B.37) for building the q eigenvector chains of length  $n_{j1}$ .

Calculation of the range and null spaces is done using Algorithm NRS. Calculation of the vectors which are outside the range space of a given matrix is done using Algorithm INOU.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Define  $(n \times n)$  matrix A, real eigenvalue  $\sigma_j$  and the scalar eps.
- 2. Set number of columns in  $A \Rightarrow n$
- 3. Set I., ⇒ I
- 4. Set  $0_{n,0} \Rightarrow P_j$
- 5. Set  $\mathbf{A} \sigma_i \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_i$
- 6. Set B<sub>i</sub>, eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$  N, R, x
- Set number of columns in N ⇒ v<sub>i</sub>
- 8. Set  $I \Rightarrow B_i$ ,  $0 \Rightarrow k$ ,  $0 \Rightarrow r$
- 9. Set  $k+1 \Rightarrow k$
- 10. Set  $\mathbf{B}_{k} = \mathbf{B}_{k}$
- 11. Set  $B_{\mu}$ , eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$   $N_{\mu}$ , Y, x
- 12. Set R, N<sub>k</sub>, eps (INOU)  $\Rightarrow$  Y, M
- Set number of columns in M → q
- 14. Set  $M \Rightarrow M_r$
- If q > 0, go to 16; else, go to 9
- 16. Set  $M_r \Rightarrow [m \mid M_r]$
- 17. Set  $0_{ab} \Rightarrow P_{b}$  Set  $0 \Rightarrow 1$
- 18. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$
- 19. Set  $[m | P_i] \Rightarrow P_i$
- 20. Set  $B_m \Rightarrow m$
- If i < k, go to 18; else, go to 22.</li>
- 22. Set  $[P_i | P_i] \Rightarrow P_i$
- 23. If number of columns in M, > 0, go to 16; else, go to 24
- 24. Set  $[\mathbf{R} \mid \mathbf{M}] \Rightarrow \mathbf{R}$
- 25. Set  $r+q \Rightarrow r$
- 26. If  $r < v_{i}$ , go to 9; else, stop

#### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of Algorithm CHAR, implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. Algorithms NRS and INOU are performed using the L-A-S operator NRS and subroutine INOU.SUB. The matrix partitioning in Step 16 is done by the L-A-S operator CTC. Matrix concatenation in Steps 19 and 22 is uses the operator CTI.

# Algorithm: CHAC

Syntax: A,  $\sigma_i$ ,  $\omega_j$ , eps (CHAC)  $\Rightarrow$  P<sub>i</sub>

Purpose:

Calculation of the eigenvector chains corresponding to a pair of complexconjugate eigenvalues  $\sigma_i \pm j\omega_i$ , with multiplicity  $n_i$ ,  $n_i \ge 1$ .

# Input/Output Arguments:

- A = (n × n) matrix.
- σ<sub>j</sub> and ω<sub>j</sub> = scalars representing real and imaginary parts of a complex-conjugate pair of eigenvalues, σ<sub>j</sub> ± jω<sub>j</sub>, of A with multiplicity n<sub>j</sub>, n<sub>j</sub> ≥ 1.
- eps = sufficiently small positive scalar; suggested value: eps=10<sup>5</sup>.
- P<sub>j</sub> = (n × 2n<sub>j</sub>) matrix containing all of the eigenvector chains corresponding to the pair of eigenvalues σ<sub>j</sub> ± jω<sub>j</sub>.

#### Description:

Let a matrix A have a complex-conjugate pair of eigenvalues  $\lambda_j = \sigma_j + j\omega_j$  and  $\lambda_{j+1} = \sigma_j - j\omega_j$  with multiplicity  $n_j$ . Then  $v_j$ , given by the nullity of either  $\mathbf{B}_j = \mathbf{A} - \lambda_j \mathbf{I}$  or  $\mathbf{B}_{j+1} = \mathbf{A} - \lambda_{j+1} \mathbf{I}$ , satisfies:

$$1 \le v_j \le n_j$$
 (B.38)

Proper complex-conjugate eigenvectors  $\mathbf{p}_j = \mathbf{u}_j + j\mathbf{v}_j$  and  $\mathbf{p}_{j+1} = \mathbf{u}_j - j\mathbf{v}_j$ associated with eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  and  $\lambda_{j+1}$ , respectively, satisfy:

 $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{j} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{B}_{j+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_{j} \\ \mathbf{p}_{j+1} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$ (B.39)

It may be verified by inspection that real vectors  $\mathbf{u}_j$  and  $\mathbf{v}_j$  defining the complex-conjugate eigenvectors  $\mathbf{p}_j$  and  $\mathbf{p}_{j+1}$  can be calculated from:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{jr} & \mathbf{B}_{ji} \\ -\mathbf{B}_{ji} & \mathbf{B}_{jr} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{j} \\ \mathbf{v}_{j} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$
(B.40)

where  $\mathbf{B}_{jr} = \mathbf{A} - \sigma_j \mathbf{I}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{j} = \omega_j \mathbf{I}$ . By definition, the complex-conjugate eigenvectors  $\mathbf{p}_j$  and  $\mathbf{p}_{j+1}$  satisfy:

$$\mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_{j} & \mathbf{p}_{j+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_{j} & \mathbf{p}_{j+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{j} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \lambda_{j+1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.41)

Again, it may be verified that the vectors u, and v, satisfy:

$$\mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_j & \mathbf{v}_j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_j & \mathbf{v}_j \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_j & \omega_j \\ -\omega_j & \sigma_j \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.42)

Note that in Eq.(B.41) the  $(2 \times 2)$  diagonal block contains in the main diagonal the complex-conjugate pair of eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  and  $\lambda_{j+1}$ , while in Eq.(B.42) the  $(2 \times 2)$  block consists of the real numbers  $\sigma_j$  and  $\omega_j$ , i.e. the real and imaginary parts of both  $\lambda_j$  and  $\lambda_{j+1}$ . Similarly, in Eq.(B.41)  $\mathbf{p}_j$  and  $\mathbf{p}_{j+1}$  are complex vectors, while in Eq.(B.42) only the real vectors  $\mathbf{u}_j$  and  $\mathbf{v}_j$  are used.

The algorithm CHAC determines all eigenvector chains associated with both  $\lambda_j$  and  $\lambda_{j+1}$  in a similar manner as is done in CHAR. The only differences are:

(i) Instead of the (n × n) matrix B<sub>j</sub>, given by Eq.(B.32), the following (2n × 2n) matrix B<sub>j</sub> is built:

$$\mathbf{B}_{j} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{jr} & \mathbf{B}_{ji} \\ -\mathbf{B}_{ji} & \mathbf{B}_{jr} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.43)

where  $\mathbf{B}_{j\nu} = \mathbf{A} - \sigma_j \mathbf{I}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{j\ell} = \omega_j \mathbf{I}$ .

(ii) The nullity of B<sub>j</sub> is 2v<sub>j</sub>, and its null space consists of 2n-dimensional vectors m<sub>j</sub> which can be represented by:

$$\mathbf{m}_{j} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{j} \\ \mathbf{v}_{j} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ n \end{pmatrix}$$
(B.44)

where the n-dimensional vectors u<sub>j</sub> and v<sub>j</sub> are defined by Eqs.(B.41) and (B.42).

(iii) In the eigenvector chains, instead of complex-conjugate eigenvectors p<sub>j</sub> and p<sub>j+1</sub>, only the real number vectors u<sub>j</sub> and v<sub>j</sub> are used.

294

Calculation of range and null spaces is done using Algorithm NRS. Calculation of vectors which are outside the range space of a given matrix is done using Algorithm INOU.

### Algorithm:

- 1. Define  $(n \times n)$  matrix A, real and imaginary parts  $\sigma_i + j\omega_i$  of a complex-conjugate pair of eigenvalues of A and the scalar eps.
- Set number of columns in A ⇒ n.
- 3. Set  $n+n \Rightarrow n_2$
- 4. Set I., = 1
- Set  $I_{n_1,n_2} \Rightarrow I_1$ 5.
- 6. Set  $0_{a,0} \Rightarrow P_i$
- 7. Set  $\mathbf{A} \sigma_i \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{ir}$ , Set  $\omega_i \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{ir}$
- Set  $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{jr} & \mathbf{B}_{jl} \\ -\mathbf{B}_{jl} & \mathbf{B}_{jr} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{j}$
- 9. Set B<sub>2</sub>, eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$  N, R, x
- 10. Set number of columns in  $N \Rightarrow v_i$
- 11. Set  $I_2 \Rightarrow B_k$ ,  $0 \Rightarrow k$ ,  $0 \Rightarrow r$
- Set k+1 ⇒ k
- 13. Set B, B, = B,
- 14. Set  $B_t$ , eps (NRS)  $\Rightarrow$   $N_t$ , Y, x
- Set R, N<sub>i</sub>, eps (INOU) ⇒ Y, M
- Set number of columns in M ⇒ q
- Set the first q/2 columns from M ⇒ M,
- If q > 0, go to 19; else, go to 12
- 19. Set M, = [ m | M, ]
- Set  $\mathbf{m} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{m}_{i} \\ \mathbf{m}_{i} \end{bmatrix}$ 20.
- 21. Set  $0_{a0} \Rightarrow P_0$  Set  $0 \Rightarrow i$
- 22. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$
- 23. Set  $[m, |m| P_i] \Rightarrow P_i$
- 24. Set B,  $m \Rightarrow m$
- 25. If i < k, go to 22; else, go to 26
- 26. Set  $[P_i | P_i] \rightarrow P_i$
- 27. If number of columns in M, > 0, go to 19; else, go to 28
- 28. Set  $[R | M] \Rightarrow R$
- 25. Set  $r+q \Rightarrow r$
- If  $r < v_0$ , go to 12; else, stop 26.

### Algorithm Implementation:

The listing of Algorithm CHAC, implemented using the L-A-S language is given in Appendix C. The algorithms NRS and INOU are performed using the L-A-S operator NRS and subroutine INOU. Matrix partitioning in Steps 19 and 20 is done by the L-A-S operators CTC and CTR. Matrix concatenation in Steps 23, 26 and 28 is done using the operator CTI.

In Example 1 of Section 2.4 the real-number Jordan form,  $A_j$ , and the corresponding modal matrix, Q, was calculated for a (5 × 5) matrix A having both repeated roots and complex-conjugate roots. These two matrices can be obtained using the subroutine MODM as follows:

A, Egv,  $\varepsilon$ , (MODM)  $\rightarrow$  Q Q(-1), A, Q(+)(+)  $\rightarrow$  A,

# B.5 Modal Controllability/Observability Tests

This section differs from the tests presented in Chapter 1 in that the method provides a "degree of controllability and observability" that goes beyond the "yes" or "no" tests studied there.

### Introduction

It is well known that there are numerous procedures for checking the controllability and observability of state space representations of linear MIMO dynamic systems. Among the most popular are:

- (1) Calculation of the ranks of controllability and observability matrices,
- (2) Similarity transformation into the Jordan form state space representation,
- (3) Kalman canonical decomposition,
- (4) Transformation into the Hessenberg form, and the
- (5) Popov-Belevitch-Hautus (PBH) test.

These procedures, being of different natures, have their own properties, advantages and disadvantages. Some are computationally ill-conditioned, some require extensive computation. And some procedures are not well suited in the case of multiple eigenvalues since they then require additional extensive computation. On the other hand, some procedures do not give information about the "degree" of

### Section B.5 Modal Controllability/Observability Tests

controllability and/or observability, which is important in practical applications for numerical reasons.

In this section a simplified controllability/observability test is suggested. It is based on the PBH test, mentioned above, but it does not require calculation of the rank of  $n^n$  order matrices, n being the system order. Instead, it reduces to the calculation of the eigenvalues of a single matrix having an order less than the system order n. The calculation of this matrix is computationally straightforward. In addition to the information about controllability and observability, the present test also gives information about the *degree of controllability and observability*. The purpose of this section is to suggest a simplification of the PBH test.

### A Simplified Observability/Controllability Test

Consider a sequence of equivalent  $n^{th}$  order state space representations {A,B,C,D}, corresponding to a given linear MIMO dynamic system with *m* inputs and *p* outputs defined by a not necessarily minimal state space representation  $R_o =$ {A<sub>n</sub>, B<sub>n</sub>, C<sub>n</sub>, D<sub>o</sub>} where:

$$\{A, B, C\} = \{T^{-1}A, T, T^{-1}B, C, T\}$$
 (B.45)

In Eq.(B.45) T is an arbitrary, random  $(n \times n)$  non-singular matrix.

Without loss of generality, it may be assumed that there are no redundant inputs and outputs, i.e. that the rank of B is m and that the rank of C is p. The eigenvalues of A, which are, of course, equal to those of A<sub>av</sub> will be denoted by the set:

$$\lambda(\mathbf{A}_{n}) = \lambda(\mathbf{A}) = \Lambda = \{\lambda_{i}\}, \quad i = [1, n]$$
(B.46)

Let N<sub>p</sub> and N<sub>p</sub> be orthonormal  $(n \times n-m)$  and  $(n \times n-p)$  matrices satisfying:

$$\mathbf{N}_{b}^{T}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$$
,  $\mathbf{N}_{b}^{T}\mathbf{N}_{b} = \mathbf{I}_{k}$ ,  $k = n - m$  and  
 $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{N}_{c} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{N}_{c}^{T}\mathbf{N}_{c} = \mathbf{I}_{c}$ ,  $r = n - p$ 
(B.47)

The easiest way of calculating the orthonormal null space matrices N<sub>p</sub> and N<sub>p</sub> in Eq.(B.47) consists of performing the SVD of B<sup>7</sup> and C, respectively, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{B}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{b} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{b} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{b} \\ \mathbf{N}_{b}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \frac{m}{k = n - m}$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{c} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{c} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{c} \\ \mathbf{N}_{c}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \frac{p}{r = n - p}$$
(B.48)
It should be pointed out that all matrices in Eqs.(B.47) and (B.48) depend on a similarity transformation T, i.e.:

$$B = B(T)$$
,  $C = C(T)$ ,  $N_{\mu} = N_{\mu}(T)$ ,  $N_{e} = N_{e}(T)$ , etc. (B.49)

For simplicity of notation, however, the explicit dependence on T will be dropped. Before stating the main result we need the following definition:

**Definition:** Let P = P(T) be a  $(k \times k)$  matrix-valued function of the  $(n \times n)$  matrix T defined for almost every matrix T. A set of fixed eigenvalues  $p_j$ ,  $j = [1, k^*]$ ,  $k^* \le k$ , of P(T) is a set of eigenvalues of P(T) that is invariant with respect to arbitrary variations of the matrix T.

We can now prove the following results.

**Theorem 1:** The pair  $\{A_n, B_n\}$  is controllable if the following  $(k \times k)$ , k = n-m matrix:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{N}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{N}_{k} \qquad (B.50)$$

depending on the similarity transformation T, has no fixed eigenvalues with respect to arbitrary variations of matrix T.

**Theorem 2 (dual to Theorem 1):** The pair  $\{A_a, C_a\}$  is observable if the following matrix which has dimensions  $(r \times r)$ , r=n-p:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{N}_{\mathbf{A}}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{N}_{\mathbf{A}} \tag{B.51}$$

has no fixed eigenvalues with respect to arbitrary variations of matrix T.

# Proof of Theorem 1:

The PBH controllability test requires that the following  $[n \times (n+m)]$  matrices  $Q_{in}$ i=[1,n], are of full rank, where

$$\mathbf{Q}_{ci} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} - \lambda_i \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.52)

Premultiplying  $Q_a$  with the  $(k \times n)$ , k=n-m, orthonormal null space matrix  $N_b^T$ , defined in Eq.(B.47), yields:

$$\mathbf{N}_{b}^{T}\mathbf{Q}_{ei} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_{b}^{T}\mathbf{A} - \lambda_{i}\mathbf{N}_{b}^{T} \mid \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$
(B.53)

From Sylvester's inequality, and for a controllable eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ , it follows that:

$$\operatorname{rank}\left[ \mathbf{N}_{k}^{T}\mathbf{Q}_{ci} \right] = k \tag{B.54}$$

298

leading to:

$$rank[W] = k$$
, where  $W = N_b^T A - \lambda_i N_b^T$  (B.55)

Now, postmultipying the  $(n \times k)$  matrix W in Eq.(B.55) with N<sub>6</sub> and taking into account Eqs.(B.47) and (B.50), one obtains:

$$WN_{i} = P - I_{i}\lambda_{i}$$
 (B.56)

Using the Sylvester inequality again, since k < n, it follows that in the general case:

$$\operatorname{rank}[\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{I}_{k}\lambda_{i}] \leq k$$
 (B.57)

Of course, the equality in Eq.(B.57) guarantees that no eigenvalue of the  $(k \times k)$ matrix P is equal to  $\lambda_i$ , while in the case of strict inequality at least one eigenvalue of P is equal to  $\lambda_i$ .

Considering Eq.(B.56), it may be concluded that in Eq.(B.57), in the case of a controllable eigenvalue  $\lambda_{\mu}$ , the inequality will hold only when some column of N<sub>p</sub> is in the null space of W. However, since the similarity transformation matrix T influences matrices W and N<sub>p</sub> in different ways, for an arbitrary matrix T we have:

$$rank [P - I_{i}\lambda_{i}] = k$$
,  $i = [1, n]$  (B.58)

almost always, which proves Theorem 1, since from Eq.(B.58) it follows that no eigenvalue of P = P(T) is equal to  $\lambda_{\mu}$ .

Equation (B.57) also indicates that, for a special selection of the matrix T, it might happen that some of the eigenvalues of P are equal to some  $\lambda_i$ , even when this  $\lambda_i$  is a controllable mode of the pair {A,B}. However, as was pointed out earlier, in the case of an arbitrary T, it may be concluded that the condition:

$$\operatorname{rank}\left[\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{T}) - \mathbf{I}_{k}\lambda_{j}\right] \le k \tag{B.59}$$

will hold only for fixed eigenvalues of P(T), which are exactly the uncontrollable eigenvalues in the pair {A,B}. This proves Theorem 1 as well as the following corollary. The proof of Theorem 2 is the dual of this proof.

Corollary: All fixed eigenvalues of matrices P or R are equal to some eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  of A, and they represent uncontrollable or unobservable eigenvalues of the pairs  $\{A_a, B_a\}$  or  $\{A_a, C_a\}$ , respectively.

### Degree of Controllability/Observability:

In the case that an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  is "almost" uncontrollable, it is natural to expect that some eigenvalue  $p_i$  of P(T) will be "almost" fixed, i.e. for various matrices **T** the eigenvalue  $p_j$  will be located in the *s*-plane within a small circle around  $\lambda_i$ . Therefore, as the degree  $r_i$  of controllability of  $\lambda_i$ , one may define the radius of the smallest circle in the *s*-plane, centered at the eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ , encompassing all locations where, for various arbitrary matrices **T**, the corresponding almost-fixed eigenvalue  $p_j$  falls. Thus, the degree  $r_i$  of controllability of  $\lambda_i$  can be written as:

$$r_i = \max \{ \min_{j \in [1,k]} \{ |\lambda_i - p_j(\mathbf{T})| \} \}$$
(B.60)

In other words, the "maximum" operation is taken for that  $p_j$  that is closest to  $\lambda_i$ , i.e. only those  $p_i$  which correspond to the mode  $\lambda_i$ .

Since the concepts of controllability and observability were introduced in Chapter 1, an example is included with the end-of-chapter exercises there to illustrate the application of this method.

### Algorithm Implementation

The L-A-S listing of Algorithm COTS, which performs the calculations for this method, can be found in Appendix C.

# B.6 References

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# Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

In this appendix a detailed introduction to the L-A-S language is given, followed by the L-A-S code listings for the algorithms discussed in the text. This is a good place to begin for a serious study of this text. To help locate a particular algorithm once you are familiar with its application, a list of the algorithms generally in the order of their presentation is provided after the following Table of Contents.

# Table of Contents for Appendix C

C.1	Introduction
	L-A-S Language
	Organization of L-A-S
	Multiple Operator Statements
	Post-Fix Notation
	Output Operator Options
	Getting Started
	Program Creation
	Data Types
	Simple Example
C.2	A List of L-A-S Operators
C.3	L-A-S Subroutines
1942	Omitting Input, Output and Operator Fields
	Using Integers in Input Fields
	Interactive Data Definition
	Default Values for L-A-S Operators 329
	Number of Output Arguments 330
	Defining Matrices in the PMF 331
	Building "SUB" and "SBB" Subroutines 124
	Hints for SRR Subroutine Execution 317
	Function-KEV Mode
	Creation and Execution Modes of Operation 330
	Recovery from Execution Errors 340
	Recovery from Errors in Subroutines 340
	Changing Elements in Defined Arrays 340
	Platting Canabilities 242
	Interface with Other CAD Package 344
	Recovering from a "Crach"
	According from a Crash

Appendix C Introduction	1 10	L-A-S
-------------------------	------	-------

C.4	A List of L-A-S Interpreter Commands
C.5	On-Line Help File
	Authors' Remarks
C.6	L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms
	Chapter 1 Algorithms
	Chapter 2 Algorithms
	Chapter 3 Algorithms
	Section 4.1 Algorithms
	Section 4.2 Algorithms
	Section 4.3 Algorithms
	Section 4.4 Algorithms
	Chapter 5 Algorithms
	Appendix B Algorithms
C.7	References

### List of Algorithms

### CHAPTER 1

par,zo,dz(Lin,sbr)=A,B,diff par,z(gz,sub)=g A,B(qc,sub)=Qc A,C(qo,sub)=Qo A,eps(nrs,sub)=N,R,r A,B,C,D,xo,u,T(cdsr,sub)=y A(Reso,sub)=p,Rr,R A,B,C,D(Laig,sub)=p,Rr,R A,B,C,D(sstf,sub)=p,W

### **CHAPTER 2**

A,B,C,D,T,Eps,Isrb(CTDT,sbr)=A1,B1,C1,D1 Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,T,Eps(SRcd,sbr)=Ad,Bds,Bdr,Cd,Dds,Ddr Ad,Bd,Cd,Dd,T,Eps(SRcd,sbr)=Ac,Bcs,Bcr,Cc,Dcs,Dcr Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,T,Eps(BLdc,sbr)=Ad,Bd,Cd,Dd Ad,Bd,Cd,Dd,T,Eps(BLdc,sbr)=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc T,Ac,Nrm,N(Eat,sbr)=Ad T,Ac,Eps(Eatj,sub)=Ad T,Ac,B,Nrm,N(SIcd,sbr)=Ad,Bd T,Ac,B,Nrm,N(Ricd,sbr)=Ad,Bd0 T,Ac,R,Nrm,N(RATF,sbr)=Ad,Bd,Bd1 T,Ac,Egm,N,eps(Lnm,sbr)=Ac T,Ad,Egm,N,eps(Lnm,sbr)=Ac r,A(pom,sub)=R p,A(polr,sub)=r n(fact,sub)=f N(fln,sub)=f A4,B4,T,icdc(Bcdc,sub)=A5,B50,B51,P A,B0,P,C,D,Eps(r5r4,sub)=Be,De A,Be,P,C,De,Eps(r4r5,sub)=Bon,Dn A,Eps(sqm,sub)=X

# CHAPTER 3

A,B,C,T(str,sub)=At,Bt,Ct Ind(SMat,sub)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld Q,mp,cut,Eps(Ind,sub)=Ind A(C#,sub)=Adeg vli,m(cind,sub)=Ind A,B,Eps(cfpp,sbr)=Tc,Ind A,B,Eps(cfns,sbr)=Tc,Ind

# CHAPTER 4

Section 4.1 A,B,C,D,no,Eps(SSRo,sub)=Ao,Bo,Co,Do,Deg A,B,C,D,nc,Eps(SSRc,sub)=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,Deg A,B,C,D,M(SSH,sub)=H,hM Ao,Bo,Co,Do,no(RoDN,sub)=D,N Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,nc(RcND,sub)=N,D

# Section 4.2

d,W,Eps,nos(TFRo,sbr) = Ao,Bo,Co,Do,no,Cond d,W,Eps,ncs(TfRc,sbr) = Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,nc,Cond d,W(TRon,sbr) = Ao,Bo,Co d,W(TRon,sbr) = Ac,Bc,Cc d,W,Eps,nos(TFDN,sbr) = D,N,no,Cond d,W,Eps,ncs(TFND,sbr) = N,D,nc,Cond d,W,u,T(cdtr,sbr) = y d,W,M(TFH,sbr) = H,hM A,B,C(getd,sub) = n,m,p p,m(dpm,sub) = P m,L(ImL,sub) = ImL den,num(ccf,sub) = A,b,c,d d,GD(exD,sbr) = G,D d,GD(exD,sbr) = GD Section 4.3 H,Eps,nos(HRo,sbr)=Ao,Bo,Co,Do,no,Cond H,Eps,nos(HRc,sbr)=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,nc,Cond H,Eps(HTF,sbr)=d,W H,Eps(HTFp,sbr)=d,W H,Eps(HTFm,sbr)=d,W H,Eps,nos(HDN,sbr)=D,N,no,Cond H,Eps,ncs(HND,sbr)=N,D,nc,Cond u,H(uhy,sub)=y H,f(Hf,sub)=Hf

### Section 4.4

D,N,Eps(DNRo,sub)=Ao,Bo,Co,Do,no N,D,Eps(NDRc,sub)=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,nc D,N,M(DNH,sub)=H,hM N,D,M(NDH,sub)=H,hM D,N,Eps(DNTf,sbr)=d,W N,D,Eps(NDTf,sbr)=d,W no,n,f(Tscl,sub)=S D,N,Eps,ncs(DNRc,sbr)=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,nc,Cond N,D,Eps,nos(NDRo,sbr)=Ao,Bo,Co,Do,no,Cond DI,NI,Eps,ncs(DNND,sbr)=Nr,Dr,nc,Cond Nr,Dr,Eps,nos(NDDN,sbr)=DI,NI,no,Cond

# CHAPTER 5

u,y,Eps,nos(uyRo,sbr)=Ao,Bo,Co,Do,no,xo,Cond u,y,Eps,nos(uyDN,sbr)=D,N,no,Cond u,y,Eps,nos(uyTF,sbr)=dtt,Wt,no,C# N(pmt,sub)=Nt G,Eps(Elzc,sub)=Gr u,y,M(uyh,sub)=H,hM Do,Eps(ComD,sbr)=comd,F

### APPENDIX B

A,B,C,Eps(Min,sub)=Ao,Bo,Co,Tt A,B,C,Eps(Min,sbr)=Am,Bm,Cm A,B,C,Eps(Kald,sbr)=Ad,Bd,Cd,T,dim R,Q,Eps(InOu,sub)=Qr,Qou A,Egv,Eps(ModM,sbr)=P A,sj,oj,Eps(ChaC,sbr)=Pj A,sig,Eps(ChaR,sbr)=Pj A,B,C,im,Eps(COts,sbr)=Resc,Reso,xxc,xxo

# C.1 Introduction

The Linear Algebra and Systems (L-A-S) language is a high level interactive conversational language useful for the analysis and design of linear control systems. L-A-S is intended to be a handy, easy-to-use tool for verifying an analysis technique or a control design. Some of its unique features are:

 As the user types and executes L-A-S commands, they are stored in the L-A-S interpreter memory, allowing them to be reexecuted within the same session using the same or different input.

- 2. Within the same session, the stored sequence of commands can be:
  - a. -saved to disk for future execution,
  - b. -reexecuted sequentially from the first command to the last,
  - c. -reexecuted starting from any command in the sequence,
  - d. The user can enter the TRACE mode where commands are executed one at a time.
  - During the reexecution, it is possible to stop the sequential execution at any point in the sequence.
- 3. When the execution of an L-A-S program is stopped, it is possible to:
  - a. -display and/or change any variable previously defined,
  - b. —type and execute any additional command using previously defined variables,
  - c. -define new variables,
  - d. -modify any existing command,
  - e. -delete any existing command,
  - f. -include new commands,
  - g. -reexecute existing commands individually,
  - h. —resume normal sequential execution of the modified sequence of commands,
  - i. -save the modified sequence to disk,
  - j. —declare the sequence as an L-A-S subroutine, which allows the sequence to be invoked in a later session simply by specifying the name of the subroutine as well as the names of input/output variables to be used/defined by the subroutine, and
  - k. --obtain on-line help on any aspect of L-A-S usage.

These features make the L-A-S software/language a unique computational environment for quick and user-friendly development and testing of a wide variety of algorithms in control, systems and signals areas. Once the algorithm has been tested and developed using L-A-S, it could later be easily implemented and reprogrammed using any programming language or CAD package. Also noteworthy is the availability of interface programs to exchange data between L-A-S and other engineering design/analysis packages. This is discussed later in this appendix.

All of the more than 200 existing L-A-S commands and subroutines are based on reliable public domain software packages, such as Eispack and Linpack, or on numerically proven algorithms published in technical journals. These. commands and subroutines include:

- standard matrix manipulation
- array definition and plotting (including 3-dimensional plotting)
- classical SISO system analysis and design procedures (Bode, Nyquist, Root-Locus)
- solution of differential and difference equations
- calculation of system responses in frequency domain
- Fast Fourier transforms
- digital filter design
- optimal control ٠
- solution of Riccati and Lyapunov matrix equations
- controllability and observability tests
- state and output feedback pole-placement in MIMO systems
- singular value decomposition
- similarity transformation
- eigenvalue and eigenvector calculation
- full or reduced order observer design
- LQR, LQG, and LQG/LTR design
- . . . . . . . . . minimal realization
- system identification
- system linearization ٠
- transformation from continuous-time system representation to an • equivalent discrete-time representation and vice versa
- polynomial matrix manipulation
- operations with linear spaces and subspaces

L-A-S lends itself to simple modification of existing subroutines or developement and inclusion of user written subroutines. The on-line help facility contains quick information about the syntax and semantics of all L-A-S commands. and subroutines. This appendix contains more in-depth descriptions of the L-A-S commands as well as helpful examples of their use.

L-A-S Language: The L-A-S language is similar to reverse Polish notation in that inputs to a function are entered first, then the operator or function followed by an equals sign and, then, the output variables. As each statement is entered, the operation defined by that statement is performed prior to allowing the user to input the next statement.

#### Section C.1 Introduction

Consider the following simple example program consisting of one comment line and 7 L-A-S statements:

1	ExampC1
2	,1/,,1/2,,-3(dma)=A
3	/,1/2,3,,(dma,t)=B
4	A, B(+)=C
5	C(-1,t)=Ci,det
6	Ci,C(*)=D
7	Ci,B(-),A(+,t)=Res
8	C,Ci,D,Res(out)=

The first line, Statement 1, is a comment. It usually contains a program name, which, in turn, corresponds to the file name with the extension ".DPF" containing this program. The next two statements, 2 and 3, define matrices A and B given by:

	0	1	0 1			1	0	0	0	÷
¥ =	0	0	1	;	B	- 1	0	1	0	1
	2	0	-3	180			2	3	0	ł

The above matrices A and B could also be defined by the following more obvious, but more involved statements:

> 0,1,0/0,0,1/2,0,-3(dma)=A 0,0,0/0,1,0/2,3,0(dma)=B

It is our feeling that the versions which avoid entering of both leading and trailing zeros are more convenient, particularly for more experienced users. We believe that the readers will soon become proficient in L-A-S and that they will prefer to use a more concise version of the DMA (define matrix) operator. Note that in the suggested version of the DMA operator, instead of entering zeros explicitly, it suffice to enter a comma "," as an element delimiter and the slash "/" as a row delimiter.

In Statement 4 the matrices A and B are added to form matrix C. Statement 5 calculates the inverse of matrix C and its determinant. The results are assigned to Ci and det, respectively. Multiplying Ci with C, Statement 6 places the result, the identity matrix, in D. Statement 7 subtracts matrix B from Ci and then adds matrix A to the difference. The result is placed in matrix Res. Finally, Statement 8 types matrices C, Ci, D and Res to the screen.

The results obtained on the screen are as follows:

	6	
.000	1.000	.000
.000	1.000	1.000
4.000	3.000	-3.000

	Ci	
-1.500	.750	.250
1.000	.000	.000
-1.000	1.000	.000
	D	
1.000	.000	.000
.000	1.000	.000
.000	.000	1.000
	Res	
-1.500	1.750	.250
1.000	-1.000	1.000
-1.000	-2.000	-3.000

**Organization of L-A-S:** L-A-S consists of two different types of functions. The first, called *interpreter commands* (IC) are usually initiated by typing the three, or four, letter command, or its abbreviated version consisting of one, or two, characters. L-A-S then performs some task which allows the user to view, change or otherwise manipulate the current L-A-S program and data. The second type of statement is called an *operator statement* (OS). Operator statements have the following structure:

<label>:<inp-field>( <op-field> )=<out-field>

The terminal symbols ":", "(", ")" and "=" are used as field delimiters.

The label, ( <label> ) which is optional, is used in conjunction with program control operators for iterative and recursive calculations.

The input-field, ( <inp-field> ), contains variable names to be used by the operator.

The operator-field, ( <op-field> ), contains the mnemonic name of the function to be performed. An operator field is always enclosed in parentheses.

The output-field, ( <out-field> ), contains the variable names to which the outputs of the operator are assigned.

Statements 2 through 6 and 8 in the previous example program are examples of single operator statements (SOS), i.e. each statement contains only one operator. Statement 7 shows the use of multiple operator statements (MOS) since it contains more than one operator.

Note that the operator fields in Statements 3, 5 and 7, in addition to the operator name, contain the operator flag "t", separated by comma. If used, the flag

"t" instructs the L-A-S interpreter to display on screen the results of this operator. In addition to the flag "t", it is also possible to use either:

"E", "L" or "L,E" (or "e", "l" or "l,e")

The functions of these operator flags are, respectively:

- —to display results on screen in "E" scientific format with 5 —significant digits
- —to print results on the specified print file
- —to print results on the specified print file in "E" format

Other options are described in the on-line Help file.

Multiple Operator Statements: To emphasize the usefulness of the multiple operator statement, (MOS), and to illustrate the use of some other L-A-S operators, consider the task of building the  $(n \times n)$  matrix  $A_{ee}$  Eq.(3.13) defined by:

8	0	0	1	0
				+
Ac =				
1	1.0			
	0	0	0	1
3	-a <sub>0</sub>	-a,		-a,1

given an (n+1)-dimensional row  $\mathbf{a} = |a_0 a_1 \dots a_{n-1} a_n|$  containing the coefficients  $a_i$  of the characteristic polynomial a(s),  $a(s) = \det(s\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c})$ , of Ac.

Thus, given the row a, the matrix Ac may be built by the following two L-A-S multiple operator statements, see the L-A-S subroutine CCF.SUB:

```
1 a(cdi)(dec)=n
```

```
2 n(dec), n(din)(shr), a, n(ctc), -1(s*)(rti, t)=Ac
```

Instead of these two MOS, the matrix Ac may also be built by the following sequence of single operator statements (SOS):

1	a(cdi)=T1	Extract column dimension of a ⇒ T1	
2	T1(dec)=n	Decrement T1 => n	
3	n(dec)=T1	Decrement n ⇒ T1	
4	T1, n (dim) =T2	Define Identity matrix In. = T2	
5	T2(shr)=T3	Shift T2 by one column to right ⇒ T3	
6	a,n(ctc)=T4	Cut (partition) by column a → T4; T4 has n columns	
7	T4,-1(s*)=T5	Multiply T4 by the scalar $-1 \Rightarrow T5$	
8	T3, T5 (rti, t) = Ac	Concatenate T3 and T5 (row tie) by	Ē
		rows ⇒ Ac and display result on screen	i.

Each MOS defines a number of temporary variables Ti, i=[1,k-1], k being equal to the number of operators in a MOS. After completion of a MOS, these variables are deleted and they are not available for further use. Up to ten operators may be combined in a MOS. Only variables appearing in the operator fields may be used in input fields of subsequent statements.

To better understand the implementation and use of MOS, consider once more the MOS 2 discussed above. In accordance with the algorithm representation given in the Preface, each operator may be represented by a block which performs a specific calculation. In other words, the MOS 2 from before may be interpreted by the sequence of calculations represented in Fig. C.1. The variables T<sub>i</sub>, i=[1,5], appearing in Fig. C.1, are referred to as *generalized variables* <gen-var>. The syntax of a generalized variable may be represented by the following recursive definition:



Figure C.1. Calculation Sequence for MOS AC

In other words, an input field "through" an operator, i.e.

( <op-field>)

### Section C.1 Introduction

defines a generalized variable <gen-var>, consisting of a "list" of both

<inp-arg> and <gen-var>

separated by commas.

Note that in building a MOS the user should know the required "length" of the input field for each operator used in defining a generalized variable. This information may be obtained by the IC:

### \* ope, <operator-name>

Also, recall that some of operators used in defining a generalized variable may have more than one output argument, as is the case in our example with the CTC operator. By the very definition of the MOS and the concept of a generalized variable, it should be realized that a generalized variable always corresponds to the first output argument of the operator used.

**Post-Fix Notation:** To get full benefit from the *L-A-S* software, users are urged to master the reverse Polish (post-fix) notation and the structure and operation of the MOS.

To assist readers in this task, let us review briefly the basic characteristics of the conventional "in-fix" notation.

If it is desired to add (or multiply) two numbers (or matrices), say A and B, and to place the result in C, the conventional in-fix notation is:

$$C = A + B$$

where the opertor "+", addition, is placed in between the input arguments A and B. The result of the opertion, variable C, is on the left, separated from the structure "A + B" by the delimiter "=", the equal sign.

This in-fix notation works fine for "binary" operators, i.e. for operators requiring two input arguments. The operator can easily be placed between these two input arguments. In the case of "unary" operators, operators requiring only one input argument, say matrix transposition or inversion, it is customary to use superscripts as "T" and "-1", i.e.

leading, for instance, to:

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{B}^{\mathrm{H}} \tag{C.1}$$

The real problem occurs in scientific calculations where one is faced with "ternary" and, more generally, "n-nary" operators (algorithms) requiring three or more input arguments. As an example of a ternary operator consider building of the controllability matrix Q<sub>c</sub>, Definition 1.4, Section 1.3.4, which, in general, depends on three input arguments {A,B,k}, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{r}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B} & | & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} & | & \cdots & | & \mathbf{A}^{k-1}\mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}$$
(C.2)

where the integer k satisfies  $1 \le k \le n$ .

A good example of an "n-nary" operator, for n=4, is the algorithm LNM, natural log of a square matrix A, Eq.(2.63), Section 2.3.1, which, as is explained there, depends on the following four input arguments: {A, T, N,  $\lambda_{m}$ } and is given by:

$$\ln(\mathbf{A}) = -\frac{r}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{ijr})^{i}}{i}$$
(C.3)

where r is related to A and  $\lambda_n$  by Eq.(2.64).

The in-fix notation "followers" attempted to resolve these notational problems by resorting to the concept of the "subroutine" or "macro" widely used by various computer languages. Thus, the extensions of the in-fix notation to n-ary operators is:

$$Q_c = Qc(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, k)$$
 and  $\ln \mathbf{A} = LNM(\mathbf{A}, T, N, \lambda_n)$ 

in the cases of Eqs.(C.2) and (C.3), respectively.

Consider now the unlikely situation for which it is required to calculate either:

- —the product of Qe and In A, or even
- —just In A where A contains the first n columns of Qc in Eq.(C.2).

Then, the in-fix approach, provided that all input arguments are already defined, would be, for example:

> $Qc = Qc(\lambda, B, k)$   $ln A = LNM(\lambda, T, N, \lambda_{\alpha})$ Res1 = Qc \* ln A

in the first case, and

Qc = Qc(A, B, k) Qc1 = first n columns from Qc $Res2 = LNM(Qc1, T, N, \lambda_n)$ 

in the second case. However, the post-fix, or reverse Polish, notation offers the following unified notation:

or  $A, B, k(qc), A, T, N, \lambda_n(LNM) (*)=Res1$ A, B, k(qc), n(ctc), T, N,  $\lambda_n(LNM)=Res2$ 

312

#### Section C.1 Introduction

in the above two considered cases, provided, of course, that:

ternary operator	A,B,k(Qc)=T1	or $A,B,k(Qc) \Rightarrow Qc$
binary operator	T1,n(ctc)=T2	or X,n(ctc) ⇒ Xn and
n-nary, for n=4, operator	T2,N,T,A,(LNM)=Res	or A, N, T, $\lambda$ (LNM) $\Rightarrow$ Ac

are defined and available. Similarly, a version of the in-fix expression for D, given by Eq.(C.1), is:

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A}^T + inv(\mathbf{A})$$

while the post-fix notation becomes:

A(t), B(-1)(+) = D

where symbols (t), (-1) and (+) denote:

-ипагу	operator	of	matrix	transposition:	(1)
-unary	operator	of	matrix	inversion	(-1)
-binary	operator	0	matrix	addition	(+)

It is worth mentioning at this point that the way the algorithms are described in this book (see the Glossary) "mimics" the post-fix notation discussed here. This is the same notation adopted by Hewlett-Packard for their calculators.

Output Operator Options: Some of the useful options of the operator (out) = will be briefly reviewed here. The versions of the operator (out) = given below:

> Res(out) = Res(out,t,0) = Res(out,t,1) = Res(out,t,2) = Res(out,e) =

display the previously mentioned matrix Res on the screen in the following forms:

	Res	
1.500	1.750	.250
1.000	-1.000	1.000
1.000	-2.000	-3.000
	Res	
-2.	2.	0.
1.	-1.	1.
-1.	-2.	-3.

	Res	
-1.5	1.8	.3
1.0	-1.0	1.0
-1.0	-2.0	-3.0
	Res	
-1.50	1.75	.25
1.00	-1.00	1.00
the second se	-2 00	-3.00

508.54		
15000E+01	.17500E+01	.25000E+00
.10000E+01	10000E+01	.10000E+01
10000E+01	20000E+01	30000E+01

On the other hand, the versions:

 $\begin{array}{l} A(out,L) = \\ A(out,L,0) = \\ A(out,L,1) = \\ A(out,L,2) = \\ A(out,L,e) = \end{array}$ 

print the matrix Res on the specified print file in the same forms as given above.

The versions:

Res(out,t,3) = and Res(out) =

as well as

Res(out,L,3) = and Res(out,L) =

are equivalent. More details on these and other options are available in the Help file.

Getting Started: L-A-S software may be accessed in any subdirectory provided that in this subdirectory the file DEFDSK has been copied from the master subdirectory, e.g. C:\LAS\. To begin an L-A-S session, simply type LAS, then, after two screens, the L-A-S interpreter issues a prompt: \*\*\*, informing the user that it is ready to accept L-A-S commands. Both interpreter commands and operator statements may be typed either by upper or lower case letters. However, the L-A-S interpreter makes the distinction between upper and lower cases in variable names and statement labels.

During an L-A-S session, DOS commands, such as changing directories,

### Section C.1 Introduction

etc., may be sent to the command processor by first typing an exclaimation mark "1" and then the system command. This allows file manipulation without exiting L-A-S.

On-line help is available on every aspect of L-A-S by typing:

HELP (for help subjects) HELP,ALL (for general help on the L-A-S interpreter) HELP,OPE (for a brief description of all operators) HELP,IC (for a brief description of all interpreter commands) HELP,SUB (for a brief description of available subroutines) HELP,EXA (for example programs) HELP,LIM (for a description of the limitations of L-A-S)

To wipe out all existing variables and program statements and reset the program controls to their default values during an L-A-S session, simply type **BEG** (B) (for BEGIN).

To end the current session of L-A-S type either END or QUIT (Q).

**Program Creation:** An *L-A-S* program may be either read in from disk or typed in interactively on the keyboard by typing a sequence of operator statements. All operator statements which are typed are memorized and will remain in the interpreter memory until they are manually removed or the session is ended. Therefore, the user may type in a sequence of statements to solve a problem with particular input data, recieve the output, change or modify the sequence of statements if desired, and reexecute the same sequence of operator statements with the same input data or different input data. Note that statements which evoke error messages are not saved in the current program.

Another aspect of program creation is the echo feature in L-A-S. During the current L-A-S session, all user input is written to a file named ECHO.DAT. This file is erased at the beginning of each new L-A-S session. The content of the ECHO.DAT file can be extremely useful by allowing the user to review the entire L-A-S session after the session has ended. Also, the content of this file may be used in conjunction with the interpreter command FILE to repeat the previously executed L-A-S session exactly.

Also note that all printer output from L-A-S goes to a specified "print file" rather than directly to the printer. The default print file name is LASR but can be changed. The user can access the print file after the current L-A-S session to modify or view the contents using any ASCII text editor. This feature also enables the user to write some output to the print file, rename the default print file, and then view the previously specified print file from within the current L-A-S session. Be forewarned that the current default print file may not be viewed while it is the default. This is inherently obvious since a file cannot be opened if it is already opened.

Data Types: Scalars, vectors, matrices, polynomials, polynomial matrices and character variables may be defined in L-A-S. All variable names however are required to be four characters long or less.

Simple Example: A simple example is included next to illustrate the use of L-A-S. Each OS and IC is reviewed. The following L-A-S program, named Sim-Ex (Simple Example), illustrates some basic L-A-S features.

1	Sim Ex	
2	0,1,0/0,0,1/-4,-6,-4(dma)=Ao	
3	Matrix definition Inversion	
4	Eigenvalues & Display	
5	a:,1/,,1/-4,-6,-4(dma,t)=A	
6	$\lambda o, A(-,t) = difA$	
7	A(-1)=Ai	
8	A(egv,t) = eg	
9	eq(out, t, 1) =	
10	Enter nli & nty	
11	and j,a	
12	(sto)=	
13	A(t), A(*, e) = A t A	
14	AtA(out, L, 2) =	
15	A, eg, {Data} (wbf) =	

- Statements 1, 3, 4, 10 and 11 are comments containing various information and suggestions.
- Statements 2 and 5 define equal (3 x 3) matrices Ao and A.
- Statement 5 has the label "a".
- Statement 6 calculates  $Ao \cdot A \Rightarrow difA$ ; which is a zero matrix.
- Statement 7 calculates the inverse of A;  $A^{-1} \Rightarrow Ai$ .
- Statement 8 calculates and displays eigenvalues of A;  $A(Egv) \Rightarrow eg$ .
- Statement 9 displays eg with only one decimal digit.
- Statement 12 is a "dummy," but a very useful, "STOP" statement.
- ..... Statement 13 calculates  $A^TA \Rightarrow AtA$ , and displays result in the E format.
- Statement 14 writes the array AtA on the print file LASR with two decimal digits.
- Statement 15 stores arrays A and eg on the "Disk Binary File:" Data.DBF. These arrays could be used as input data in any subsequent L-A-S session.

After initiating an L-A-S session and typing the above statements one at a time, the following should be obtained on the screen:

Sin Ex

### Section C.1 Introduction

- \* 0,1,0/0,0,1/-4,-6,-4(dma)=Ao
- Matrix definition Inversion
- \* Eigenvalues & Display
- \* a:,1/,,1/-4,-6,-4(dma,t)=A

A .000 1.000 .000 .000 .000 1.000 -4.000 -6.000 -4.000

# \* Ao, A(-,t)=difA

<ao< th=""><th>&gt;-</th><th><a< th=""><th>&gt;</th><th>=<difa></difa></th></a<></th></ao<>	>-	<a< th=""><th>&gt;</th><th>=<difa></difa></th></a<>	>	= <difa></difa>
.00	0	.000		.000
.00	0	.000		.000
.00	0	.000		.000

\* A(-1)=Ai

\* A(egv,t)=eg Real & Imag. parts of eigenvalues of <A >

	eg
-2.000	.000
-1.000	1.000
-1.000	-1.000

- \* \_Enter\_nli\_&\_nty
- \* and j,a
- \* (sto)=
- \* A(t), A(\*, e) = AtA

<.T1 > \* <A > = <AtA >
.16000E+02 .24000E+02 .16000E+02
.24000E+02 .37000E+02 .24000E+02
.16000E+02 .17000E+02 .17000E+02

\* AtA(out, L, 2) =

### \* A, eg, {Data} (wbf) =

At this point it is suggested that the reader enter the following interpreter commands and monitor their effects on the program execution, although it may seem boring and time consuming. After that you will grasp the basic features which will enable you to effectively use the software in solving more complicated problems, even without the necessity of the rest of this appendix!

```
(or: pro,2,10; or: program,2,10)
                                                           1
   p,2,10
*
                                                           2
   n
              (or: names)
*
                                                           3
   8
              (or: status)
******
              (or: prlisting)
                                                           4
   pr
              (or:m jump,a; or: jump,5)
                                                           5
   j,a
                                                           6
   nl
             (or: nlist)
                                                           7
   j,a
   ĩ
                                                           8
             (or: list)
                                                           9
   nt
             (or: ntype)
   s
                                                         10
*
   j,a
                                                          11
   nl
                                                         12
*
   j,a
                                                          13
   t
              (or: type)
                                                         14
*
   1
                                                          15
*
              (or: con; or: continue)
                                                         16
   C.
   tra
                                                          17
             (or: trace)
*
                                                          18
   j,a
             <three times>
   C
                                                          19
٠
   8
                                                          20
×
   ntr
              (or: ntrace)
                                                          21
٠
                                                          22
              (or: wpf, prg1)
   W, prg1
*
   ъ
              (or: begin)
                                                          23
*
                                                          24
   3
٠
                                                          25
   n
*
   r, prg1
             (or: rpf, prg1)
                                                          26
*
                                                          27
   e,10,12
*
   e,3,4
                                                          28
۰
                                                          29
   p
*
   inc,2, New version (or: include,2, xxx)
                                                          30
٠
   cha, 1, Ex\Example (or: change, 1, Ex\New_Vers.)
                                                          31
*
                                                          32
   pr
٠
             (or: wpf,pgr2)
                                                          33
   w,prg2
*
                                                          34
   P
٠
   q.
              (or: quit; or: end)
                                                          35
```

These interpreter commands perform the following:

-display on screen listing of Statements 2 to 10 of current L-A-S program,
 -display names and dimensions of currently defined arrays (matrices), i.e.:

### Section C.1 Introduction

Ao				A	difA				Ai					eg				AtA			
< 3,	3 :	> <	з,	3	>	< 3	, 3	>	<	3,	3	>	<	3,	2	>	<	з,	3	>	
(3)	d	ispla	ıy ir	form	natio	n al	out	the	L-A	-S i	nter	pret	ter '	stat	us,'	' i.c	<b>.</b> :				
Inst	P	rgC	, Ch	ar,	Меп	1, L.	st	, Ty	pe,	Tr	ace	,F	-ke	y,1	res	st,	¢Da	ita,			
15		15	24	6	0	#1	at:	0			0		0		0	)		51			
This in	for	natio	i nc	iclu	les:		0.200														
Instr	=	15;	Pro	gran	n in	L-A	S in	terp	rete	r w	orki	ing	men	погу	ha	s 1:	5 sta	atema	ent	s	
PrgC	=	15:	Pro	gran	n con	unte	r is :	at St	aten	nen	1 15	, i.e	c. at	t the	en:	d					
Char	= 1	246;	Pro	gran	n ha	\$ 24	6 ch	arac	ters	i											
Mem	-	0;	Inte any	rprei new	ter is ly ty	s in ped	the ope	"ME rato	MC r sta	RI	ZE*	me wil	ide, Il be	i.e. add	ded	to t	the	progr	an	t.	
List	=	0;	Inte	rpre	ter is	s in	the	"LIS	T*	mo	de										
Type	=	0;	Inte	rpre	ter is	s in	the	TY	PE*	m	ode										
Trace	=	0;	Inte	rpre	ter is	s in	the	"NC	TR	AC	'E"	mo	de								
F-key	=	0;	Inte	rpre	ter is	s in	the	"NC	Fu	nct	ion-	KE	Y* 1	nod	e						
-		12.5		10.00																	

Test = 0; Interpreter is in the "NO TEST" mode

#Data = 51; Total number of elements in defined arrays is = 51

#Matr = 6; Total number of defined arrays is = 6

The above interpreter "modes" are the "default" modes. More details about the modes will be given later. To continue with the above listing of ICs, number:

- (4) —writes all program statements on the print file LASR,
- (5) —jumps back to the statement with the label "a", and reexecute sequentially all statements up to the first encountered (sto) = statement (At that point interpreter is ready to accept any operator statement or interpreter command.),
- (6) —sets interpreter status to the "NO LIST" mode, i.e. during subsequent program reexecution the statements will not be displayed on screen,
- (7) -\*jumps\* to the statement with the label \*a\* and reexecutes down to the (sto) = statement, but no statement will be displayed,
- (8) -sets interpreter status back to the default "LIST" mode,
- (9) -sets interpreter status to the "NO TYPE" mode, i.e. during reexecution the operator field flags "t", "e" or "L" will be ignored,
- (10) Interpreter "status" has been changed: PrgC = 12, Mem = 1, Type = 1, i.e. it is in "NO MEMORIZE" and "NO TYPE" modes. (Any typed statement will only be executed, but it will not be added to the program.)
- (11) -same as (5), but now during the reexecution, only the statements will be displayed (All operator field flags are suppressed.),
- (12) -sets interpreter to the "NO LIST" mode,

- (13) —same as (7), but now neither of the operator flags are in effect, nor the will any statements be displayed during reexection (Note that in this case only the responses to (out) = operators are shown on the screen.),
- (14) --sets the interpreter back to the default TYPE mode,
- (15) —sets the interpreter back to the default LIST mode,
- (16) —reexecutes that part of the program after the (sto)= statement until eiither the last statement, or the next (sto)= statement,
- (17) -sets the interpreter status to the "TRACE" mode,
- (18) —jumps back to the statement with the label "a", but now since the status is "TRACE", only that statement will be reexecuted. (After that the interpreter "halts" in the same manner as if it encountered the (sto) = statement.) At this point the user may type any operator statement or interpreter command. It is suggested, as a response to prompt "\*", to type, for instance:

*	eg(out)=
*	Ao(-1,t)=x,y
+	(rbf)=x,y, {Data}
*	x,y(out)=
٠	8
*	n

and to observe changes in the interpreter status as well as number of arrays defined,

- (19) —the three "c" (or: continue) interpreter commands permit execution of the three statements located below the statement labeled "a",
- (20) The program counter is now at 5+3 = 8, since Statement 5 has label "a".
- (21) —sets the interpreter back to the default "NO TRACE" mode (As a result, all statements up to the first (sto) = statement will be reexecuted sequentially.),
- (22) The current L-A-S program is stored in the program file under the name Prg1.

The file name is Prg1.DPF. "DPF\* (Disk Program File) is the standard file extension. The programs stored on DPF can be retrieved and reexecuted with the same or different input data. Also, if desired, as will be seen below, some of the statements may be changed, deleted, or new ones may be included.

- (23) —deletes all existing arrays and statements, and all interpreter flags are reset to their default values (This is equivalent to ending the L-A-S session and initiating another one.),
- (24) -- the message:

```
The L-A-S symbol table is empty
Insrt, Prg.C, Char, Mem, List, Type, Trace, F-key, Test, #.Data,
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
#.Matr
0
```

indicates that system table is empty; neither program nor arrays have yet been defined,

(25) -the message:

The L-A-S symbol table is empty

indicates that no arrays have yet been defined,

- (26) —reads the program previously stored on the DPF and prepares for reexecution and/or modifications,
- (27) —erases that part of the program between Statements 10 to 12 (Statement numbers are automatically resequenced.),
- (28) -erases that part of the program between Statements 3 to 4,
- (29) -displays the modified program on the screen,
- (30) --adds a new comment after Statement 2 (This new statement has the statement number 3.),
- (31) --- changes the string of characters "Ex" in statement 1 to "Example",
- (32) --prints the listing of the modified program on print file LASR,
- (33) -stores the current program on DPF under the name Prg2,
- (34) -- displays the current program on screen, and
- (35) -quits (ends) the current L-A-S session.

To get more insight into the L-A-S interpreter functioning, it is suggested that the reader use any text editor to examine the contents of:

print file: LASR and "ECHO" file: ECHO.DAT

More details about the used operator statement and interpreter commands may be found in the Help file.

# C.2 A List of L-A-S Operators

# MNEMONIC NAME

# DESCRIPTION

- Matrix (array) multiplication -
- + Matrix (array) addition
- Matrix (array) subtraction
- -1 Matrix (array) inversion (and determinant calculation)
- ABS Absolute value of an  $(n \times m)$  array or integer
- ALT Alternate polynomial matrix forms (PMF-c & PMF-r)
- ATG ArcTanGent of an  $(n \times m)$  array or integer
- BEL Activates computer bell

BOD	Calculation of the frequency (Bode) diagram
C*	Complex function multiplication
C/	Complex function division
C2R	Alternate PMF-c $\Rightarrow$ PMF-r
CCON	Cascade connection of two subsystems
CDI	Define column dimension of matrix
CE3	Response of a linear continuous system in state space
CHD	Continuous roots of a discrete characteristic polynomial
CHE	Polynomial roots. (Char. poly. ⇒ Eigenvalues)
CLS	Closed loop SISO system
CMP	Copy matrix into the polynomial matrix form (PMF)
COIN	Copy integer into a scalar variable
COS	COS(x) of an array or integer
COT	Controllability and observability test
CPM	Copy polynomial matrix into a general matrix
CTC	Matrix (array) cut by columns (partition)
CTI	Matrix (array) column concatenation (columns tie)
CTR	Matrix (array) cut by row (partition)
CUR	Cube root of an array or integer
D2NV	$D(s)$ in PMF-r (monic) $\Rightarrow$ PCI/POI
DCH	Define character string (variable)
DCV	Define column vector with integer entries
DDM	Define diagonal matrix
DE1-DE9	Simulation of nonlinear discrete systems
DEC	Decrement $(n \times m)$ array elements by one
DFI	Define file with ASCII characters
DFT	Direct fast Fourier transform
DIIM	Definition of "inverted" identity matrix
DIM	Definition of an identity matrix
DIS	Time response plotting
DISD	Time response plot-only points are displayed
DISL	Plot with log (logarithmic) scale
DLD	Plot with log scale-only points are displayed
DMA	Define matrix with real number entries
DPM	Define pseudo-random matrix
DSC	Define scalars (input from terminal keyboard)
DSM	Define selector (permutation) matrix
DVC	Define vector (joins scalars into a row vector)
DZM	Definition of a zero matrix
EATF	Matrices; exp(A7), E and F; discretization
EFJF	Diag matrix of f(egi); $f(x) = x  exp(x)  \ln(x)  sq(x) $
EGC	Eigenvalues ⇒ characteristic polynomial
EGV	Eigenvalues of a square matrix
ELM	Eliminate matrices from L-A-S working memory

# Section C.2 A List of L-A-S Operators

ELZ	Eliminate last zeros in a row
EMD	Extract main diagonal from a matrix
EXM	Extract matrix (or scalar) from a matrix
EXP	The exponential function element-by-element of an array
F*	Function multiplication
F/	Function division
FCON	Feedback connection of two subsystems
GS	Evaluation of $G(s)$ ; $G =$ polynomial matrix; $s = a+jb$ , a complex number
GTS	Generate time scale
IFJ	If jump (conditional jump)
IFT	Inverse fast Fourier transform
INC	Increment $(n \times m)$ array elements by one
INP	Matrix/array input from terminal keyboard
INPM	Matrix/array input with specified dimensions
INT	Integer parts of $(n \times m)$ array elements
INV	Pseudo matrix-inversion using singular value decomposition
JFR	Modal matrix and Jordan form of a square matrix without generalized eigenvectors
JMP	Unconditional jump
KRPR	Kronecker product of two matrices
LAP	Solution of the linear matrix Lyapunov equation
LIS	Enter list mode
LNM	$Ln(A)$ of an $(n \times n)$ array (square matrix)
LOG	$Ln(x)$ , element-by-element, of an $(n \times m)$ array
LYP	Solution of the matrix eq. $AX + XB = C$
MAX	Maximum element of an array
MCP	Matrix copy
MIN	Determination of the minimal realization (Hessenberg)
MTF	Calculation of the matrix transfer function
MTV	Matrix to vector transformation
NBE	Deactivates computer bell
NIK	Frequency (Nyquist) response plotting (x-y plot)
NINP	Define column dimension of a polynomial matrix in PMF, i.e. # of inputs
NLI	No list-exit list node
NOP	No operation
NRC	Matrix norm and norms of each column
NRR	Matrix norm and norms of each row
NRS	Null- ,range-space and rank
NTE	Exit test mode
NTR	Exit trace mode
NTY	No type-exit type mode
NYQ	Calculation of the frequency (Nyquist) diagram

ORD	Ordering of vector elements
OUT	Display the results on the terminal screen
OUT,L	Print the results to the print file
P*	Polynomial multiplication
P+	Polynomial addition
P-1	Inversion of polynomial matrix
P3D	Three dimensional (3-D) plot
PCH	Print character variables
PCON	Parallel connection of two subsystems
PF1	Print file (write a file to the print file)
PLL	Printer plot to print file
PLT	Printer plot on terminal
PMA	Polynomial matrix addition
PMFC	Alternate PMF-c = polynomial matrix form (PMF)
PMFR	Alternate PMF-r ⇒ polynomial matrix form (PMF)
PMI	Polynomial matrix input from terminal keyboard
PMM	Polynomial matrix multiplication
PNR	Polynomial normalization (reduction to monic form)
POI	Pseudo-observability/controllability indices
POLR	Polynomial reduction using C-H Theorem
POM	Polynomial of a square matrix $A$ ; $c(A) \Rightarrow R$
PRD	Polynomial reduction to the coprime form
PRT	Polar to rectangular transformation
QC	Controllability matrix of the pair {A,B}
Q0	Observability matrix of the pair {A,C}
R2C	Alternate PMF-r $\Rightarrow$ PMF-c
RBF	Read binary file; read data from a binary data file
RCS	Response of a continuous system in state space
RCT	Response of a continuous system given by a transfer function matrix
RDF	Read data file: reading from an ASCII data file
RDI	Define row dimension of matrix
RDS	Response of a discrete system in state space
RDT	Response of a discrete system given by a transfer function matrix
RIC	Solution of the algebraic matrix Riccati equation using eigenvector Hamiltonian approach
RKC	Rank calculation and separation of linearly independent and dependent columns
RKR	Rank calculation and separation of linearly independent and dependent rows
RLC	Root-locus calculation
RMP	Replace matrix part
RPT	Rectangular to polar transformation

# Section C.2 A List of L-A-S Operators

RTI	Matrix (array) row concatenation (tie by rows)
S*	Matrix (array) multiplication by a scalar
S/	Matrix (array) division by a scalar
S/X	(sinx)/x of an array or integer
SHD	Matrix (array) shift down one row
SHL	Matrix (array) shift left one column
SHR	Matrix (array) shift right one column
SHU	Matrix (array) shift up one row
SIN	sin(x) of an array or integer
SLE	Solution of linear equations
SOM	Square root of a square matrix
SOR	Square root of an array or integer
SSTF	Calculation of the matrix transfer function
STEP	Define an array with all entries equal to one
STO	Stop program execution
STR	State space transfomation
SVC	Singular-value decomposition of complex matrix
SVD	Singular-value decomposition
т	Matrix (array) transposition
TCH	Type character variables
TES	Enter test mode-not to be used by L-A-S users
TFI	Type file with ASCII characters
TFSS	Transfer function matrix ⇒ state space (Hessenberg)
TIME	Get time in seconds since beginning of L-A-S session
TOEP	Building a Toeplitz matrix
TR	Trace of a matrix (array)
TRA	Enter trace mode
TVC	Transforms (partitions) row vector into scalars
TXT,L,text	Writes arbitrary text to the print file
TXT,T,text	Displays arbitrary text on the terminal screen
TYP	Type-enter type mode
TZS	Transmission zeros (generalized eigenvalue problem)
VTM	Vector to matrix transformation
WBF	Write binary file; write data to a binary data file
WDF	Write data file; write to an ASCII data file
XLAB	Label x-axis of the plot
XYP	x-y Plotting (Nyquist and root-locus)
YLAB	Label y-axis of the plot
YXSC	Set scales for y- and x-axes of a plot

Detailed syntactical description of each operator statement may be obtained by typing HELP,xyz; where xyz stands for the mnemonic name of an operator statement.

# L-A-S Subroutines

In addition to the L-A-S operators listed above, the L-A-S software contains large number of "macros," referred to as L-A-S subroutines. In the software there are two type of subroutine, namely:

- · --subroutines of the type "SUB" and
- —subroutines of the type "SBR"

Both subroutine types have a syntax similar to the syntax of L-A-S operators. They consist of a sequence of L-A-S statements, but can be executed by referring to the subroutine name only, i.e.

### <label>:<inp-field>( <sub-n>,SUB )=<out-field> or <label>:<inp-field>( (sbr-n>,SBR )=<out-field>

for "SUB" and "SBR" subroutine, respectively, where < sub-n> and <sbr-n> are subroutine names assigned during the subroutine definition.

Note that the only difference with respect to an L-A-S operator statement is that the "operator field," in addition to the name, contains also a specifier:

, SUB	for	a	"SUB"	subroutine	and
, SBR	for	a	"SBR"	subroutine,	

separated by a comma ",".

All current L-A-S subroutines reside in L-A-S master subdirectories:

C:\LAS\SUB and C:\LAS\SBR

respectively.

Once in an L-A-S session, a subroutine may be checked by:

٠	r, <sub-n>.SUB</sub-n>		or
٠	r, (sbr=n>.SBR		and
*	P	or	program, n1, n2

By checking listings of available subroutines, it is relatively easy to figure out how it is possible to define other subroutine solving a specific analysis/design problem.

The information about names and input/output arguments of currently available subroutines may be obtained by the IC:

### \* h, sub

It is worth mentioning that subroutines of the "SUB" type can not call another subroutine. Also operators (STO) = and (DMA) = are not permitted. On the other hand, subroutines of the type "SBR" may contain calls to other defined subroutines of either type. A subroutine of type "SBR" can even call itself, thus is capable performing recursive calculations very effectively. In return, execution of subroutines of the type "SUB" is slightly shorter than that of "SBR" subroutines.

326

C.3

**Omitting Input, Output and Operator Fields:** The number of elements in the input and output fields is determined by the operator statement syntax, see the Help file for more details. If the input or output fields contain an insufficient number of array names, the L-A-S Interpreter issues an appropriate error message. However, if the *entire* field is omitted, then the L-A-S interpreter prompts the user to enter the desired array names. This is convenient for performing calculations with different input data and/or to define different data using the single statement. As an example, consider that an  $(n \times n)$  matrix A and three  $(n \times m)$  matrices B1, B2 and B3 are already defined. Then, for instance, the operator statement:

### A, B1 (Qc) =Qc1

calculates the controllability matrix Q<sub>ct</sub> of the pair {A,B1}. However, if the following "incomplete" statement is typed:

### (Qc) =

then, at execution time, the user has an opportunity to specify the arrays to be used by the operator, as well as the names of the arrays containing the results. In the above case, if:

A, B3	is	typed	for	the	inpu	ut	field,	and
Q3	is	typed	for	outp	put 1	fie	ld	

then, of course, the operator QC calculates the controllability matrix  $Q_{a}$  of the pair {A,B3}. This idea has been extended to the operator field as well. Thus, the following "completely incomplete" statement:

### ()=

may be considered as a "general" operator statement by which any operator using any input arrays and defining any output array may be executed. It may be said that in this case L-A-S enters into a "question and answer" mode, which experienced users tend to avoid. Note that whenever in the current L-A-S program an "incompletely" specified operator statement is to be executed, the user has to specify the missing field (input, operator or output).

Using Integers in Input Fields: Operators, as well as subroutines of the type "SUB" requiring scalars as input arguments, may, if the scalar is equal to an integer, be executed by specifying the integer directly in the input field. For example, if n=2 and m=3, then the statement:

$$n,n(Din) = I$$

defines the identity matrix 
$$\mathbf{I}_{n,w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

In the cases of 2,3(Dim)=11, or n,3(Dim)=12, etc., the same results are obtained. Similarly, the "SUB" subroutine:

# n,m,p(Abcd, sub)=A,B,C,D

defines an arbitrary, random n<sup>th</sup> order MIMO state space representation  $R = \{A, B, C, D\}$  with m inputs and p outputs. Thus, if the following statement is typed:

# 5,3,2 (Abcd, sub) = A1, B1, C1, D1

then R1={A1,B1,C1,D1} corresponds to a 5th order MIMO system with 3 inputs and 2 outputs. Note that this is not applicable to subroutines of the type "SBR."

Interactive Data Definition: So far, as operators for defining data, only the operators DMA and RBF have been mentioned. In order to allow more flexibility in the L-A-S software, there are several interactive data definition operators. At execution time these operators prompt user to enter desired data, which is very useful for checking algorithms with different input data. An example illustrating the two most commonly used input operators is given below:

The operator DSC (Define Scalar) types the name "k" on the screen and prompts user to specify the scalar k, while the INPM (Input Matrix) operator, in the above statement types the name "A" on the screen and prompts user to type elements of the  $(k \times 3)$  matrix A. Assuming that k = 3, then, if the following matrix A is to be defined:

	1.0	0.0	2.5	
A =	1.2×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.0	0.0	
	0.0	-5.5	0.0	
the user has	to type:			
		1,,2.5	<return></return>	
		1.20-5	<return></return>	
		,-5.5	<return></return>	
or:				
	1	1,0,2.5	<return></return>	
		0.000012,0,0	<return></return>	<u>, a</u>
		0,-5.5,0	<return></return>	

As was mentioned earlier, see Example C.1, Section C.1, the first version which avoids entering of both leading and trailing zeros is considered more convenient. For better readability arbitrary number of blank characters may be added, if desired.

328

Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

Default Values for L-A-S Operators: Some L-A-S operators may be executed using a lesser number of input arguments than the maximum number defined in the Help file. In this case for unspecified input arguments the *default* values are used. The information about the default values is contained in the Help file. To clarify this feature consider some examples:

The statements:

calculate:

respectively. In other words, the default value of the third argument in the Qc operator is k = n-m+1.

The statements:

\* A(sstf) = d
\* A,B,C(sstf)=d,Wsp
\* A,B,C,D(sstf)=d,W

calculate row d, and matrices Wsp and W in PMF representing d(z) = det(zI-A), Wsp(z) = C adj(zI-A) B and W(z) = C adj(zI-A) B + d(z) D.

In other words, the default value for the fourth argument in operator SSTF is a zero matrix. Also, if only one input argument is specified, then SSTF calculates only the row d.

The statement:

# \* T,Ac,Nrm,N(Eatf)=Ad,E,F

calculates matrices Ad, E and F, see Chapter 2, using the specified values for Nrm and N, while the statement

\* T,Ac(Eatf) = Ad1,E1,F1

uses for the third and fourth arguments the default values given by: Nm = 0.5 and N = 16. Let us mention that the statement:

# \* T,Ac(Eatf)=Ad

defines only the matrix Ad.

The statement:

# T, Ad, Egm, N, Eps (Lnm) =Ac

calculates Ac = Ln(Ad)/T, see Chapter 2, using for Egm, N and Eps the specified values. The statement:

# \* T, Ad (Lnn) =Ac1

calculates Ac1 using for Egm and N the default values given by: Egm=0.25 and N=36, while Eps is either equal to  $10^{-16}$  or to a value set previously by the IC Eps.

The statement:

\* x0,N,T,A,B,u(CSR)=x,tv

calculates a continuous system response to both initial condition x0 and input u(t), i.e. a solution x(t) of the linear differential equation:

 $\hat{x}(t) = A x(t) + B u(t), x(0) = x0$ 

for  $0 \le t \le T$ , in N points, with the N dimensional column tv equal to:

 $tv = [0 \ dt \ 2dt - (N-1)dt]^T$ ,  $dt = \frac{T}{(N-1)}$ 

On the other hand:

\* x0, N, T, A, B (CSR) =xs

defines xs(t) as the system response to a step input and x0, while

\* x0, N, T, A (CSR) =xi

calculates xi(t) as the response to initial conditions only, i.e. assumes that both **B** and **u** are zero. Specific details about default values are given in Help file.

Number of Output Arguments: If an operator statement has more than one output argument, then it not always necessary to specify all outputs arguments. The operator defines only the specified output variables.

Consider, for example:

\* A(Jfr)=M,Aj
\* A(Jfr)=M

In the first version both the modal matrix M and the corresponding diagonal Jordan form Aj of the *diagonalizable* square matrix A are defined, while the second version defines only the modal matrix M.

Similarly, given matrices A and B, the following statements:

partition (cut by columns/rows) the matrices A and B into

 $\mathbf{\lambda} \Rightarrow | \mathbf{\lambda}\mathbf{1} | \mathbf{\lambda}\mathbf{2} |$  and  $\mathbf{B} \Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{B}\mathbf{1} \\ -- \\ \mathbf{B}\mathbf{2} \end{vmatrix}$ 

where A1 and B1 have k columns and rows, respectively, while the statements:

\* A, k(ctc) = A1

\* B,k(ctr)=B1

### Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

define only A1 and B1. Note that if k = 0, then A1 has zero columns and B1 has zero rows. Also, if only one input argument is specified, both operators prompt the user to specify the value of k.

Defining Matrices in the PMF: Since this text deals extensively with polynomial matrices, possible ways of defining and manipulating matrices in the PMF are important.

Consider two polynomial matrices W and V given by:

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} s & 1+s & -1+s \\ s^2 & 2+3s & s+4s^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} s & 2+3s \\ s^2 & -1+s \\ 1+s & s+4s^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Obviously W is  $(2 \times 3)$ , while V is  $(3 \times 2)$ . Some polynomial elements  $w_q(s)$  in W(s) have been selected to be equal to some elements in V(s). The non-standard, but nevertheless convenient way of defining matrices W and V in PMF, which allows their manipulation in L-A-S is as follows:

Define a general (6  $\times$  3) matrix X:

	0	1	0	ŀ
	0	0	1	l
	1 1	0	1	l
X =	2	3	0	ł
	-1	1	0	l
	0	1	4	ł

which, of course, can be done by:

Then, using the CMP operator (Copy Matrix into PMF), i.e.

defines W and V to be in PMF. To realize what the operator CMP actually does, note that the following OUT statement:

displays on the screen:

	x					
.00	1.00	.00				
+00	.00	1.00				
1.00	.00	1.00				
2.00	3.00	.00				
-1.00	1.00	.00				
.00	1.00	4.00				
	w					
.00	1.00	.00				
.00	.00	1.00				
1.00	.00	1.00				
2.00	3.00	.00				
-1.00	1.00	.00				
.00	1.00	4.00				
Polynomi	al matr:	ix <₩	>	has	3	columns
	v					
.00	1.00	.00				
.00	.00	1.00				
1.00	.00	1.00				
2.00	3.00	.00				
-1.00	1.00	.00				
.00	1.00	4.00				
Polynomi	al matr:	ix <v< td=""><td>&gt;</td><td>has</td><td>2</td><td>columns</td></v<>	>	has	2	columns

In other words, the operator CMP "copies" X into W and V but, at the same time, declares them as matrices in PMF, i.e. matrices whose rows contain the coefficients of the polynomials wij(s) and vij(s) in  $(2 \times 3)$  and  $(3 \times 2)$  polynomial matrices W(s) and V(s), respectively. This allows matrices in PMF to be used as input arguments in the "polynomial matrix" manipulation operators and subroutines, such as:

PMA, PMM, P-1, ALT, TFSS, CCON, FCON, PCON, RCT, RDT, PMT.SUB, DNRO.SUB, NDRO.SBR, etc. For instance, the sequence:

> \* W,V(pmm)=WV \* W(pmt,sub)=Wt \* WV(p-1)=WVad,det \* Wt,V(pma)=WtV \* WV,Wt,WVad,det,WtV(out,t,1)=

calculates polynomials matrices, all in the PMF, corresponding to:

and displays on the screen:

### Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

	W	/						
-1.	0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0			
	0	1.0	6.0	5.0	4.0			
-1.	0	2.0	-1.0	5.0	.0			
-2.	0 .	-1.0	6.0	11.0	16.0			
Polyno	mial	matrix	<wv< td=""><td>&gt; has</td><td>2 colur</td><td>nns</td><td></td><td></td></wv<>	> has	2 colur	nns		
	W							
1.1	0	1.0	.0					
1.	0	.0	1.0					
-1.	0	1.0	.0					
	0	.0	1.0					
2.	0	3.0	.0					
	0	1.0	4.0					
Polync	omial	natrix	<wt< td=""><td>&gt; has</td><td>2 colu</td><td>ins</td><td></td><td></td></wt<>	> has	2 colu	ins		
	W	Vad						
-2.	.0	-1.0	6.0	11.0	16.0			
1000	0	-1.0	-6.0	-5.0	-4.0			
1.	.0	-2.0	1.0	-5.0	.0			
-1.	.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0			
Polync	onial	matrix	<wvac< td=""><td>i&gt; has</td><td>2 colu</td><td>nns</td><td></td><td></td></wvac<>	i> has	2 colu	nns		
	d	et						
2.0	.0	-5.0	-14.0	-7.0	-1.0	12.0	7.0	16.0
	W	tV						
	. 0	2.0	.0					
1.	. 0	.0	2.0					
	. 0	1.0	1.0					
2.	. 0	3.0	1.0					
1.	.0	4.0	.0					
man	.0	2.0	8.0					
Polyna	omial	matrix	<wtv< td=""><td>&gt; has</td><td>2 colu</td><td>nns</td><td></td><td></td></wtv<>	> has	2 colu	nns		

The L-A-S operator CPM (copy PMF into a matrix) may be considered as an "inverse" to the operator CMP, in the sense that the statement:

### \* W(cpm)=XX as well as \* V(cpm)=XXX

would produce (6 × 3) "general" matrices XX and XXX exactly equal to the matrix X mentioned above.

The so-called "standard way" of defining polynomial matrices, i.e. matrices in PMF, consists of using the PMI (polynomial matrix input) operator. To define W and V by the PMI operator, the following should be done. In an L-A-S session type:

# \* (pmi,m)=W,V

The PMI operator prompts the user to enter the dimensions and maximum orders
of the polynomials, i.e. to enter values for:

p, m, n {for both W(s) and V(s)}

If for W the values 2,3,2 are typed, and for V the values 3,2,2, see the example below, then the PMI operator expects (for both W and V in PMF):

pm = 6 rows and n+1 = 3 columns.

If it is desired to define W and V as before, then it is necessary to type exactly the same numbers as were used in defining the (6 x 3) matrix X above. The complete man-machine conversation is, after typing the OS: (pmi,m) = W, V

```
Enter dimensions <p,m> and max order <n> of polynomials
for [p*m x (n+1)] PMF <W > : 2,3,2
Enter dimensions <p,m> and max order <n> of polynomials
for (p*n x (n+1)) PMF <V > :
                                3.2.2
PMF Matrix <W > has < 6> rows and < 3> columns
                        6> rows and < 3> columns
PMF Matrix <V
              > has <
        10
 ,1
 , ,1
 1,,1
 2,3
 -1,1
 ,1,4
        v.
 ,1
 .,1
 1,,1
 2,3
 -1.1
```

,1,4

Building "SUB" and "SBR" Subroutines: In order to encourage users to build their own subroutines, consider the following two examples:

(a) Subroutine SMat.SUB

(b) Subroutine Exd.SBR

mentioned in Section 3.3.4. and 4.2.1., respectively.

The listing of these subroutines is given below:

```
1 no(SMat,sub)=nx,Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
2 (nli)=
3 no(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
4 va(dsm),vi(dsm)(mcp)=Sa,Si
5 vli(dsm),vld(dsm)(mcp)=Sli,Sld
6 (lis)=
```

```
f,GD(exD,sbr)=G,D
1
2
       nli
3
       nty
4
       1,2(dzn)(tvc)=G,D
5
       GD(ninp,t)=m
6
       f(cdi)(dec,t)=n1
       GD, n1(ctc, t)=G, D
7
       f,nl(ctc),m(dpm,sub)=flp
8
       D,m(cmp),flp(pmn),-1(s*),G,m(cmp)(pma,t)=G
ğ
       D(t), m(vtm, t) = D
10
11
       typ
       lis
12
1
      p,n(dpn,sub)=P
 2
       (nli) =
     ' p(t), m, m(dim) (ntv) (*, t)=P
 3
       P(t),m(cmp)=P
 4
 5
       (lis) =
```

Consulting the Help file, it may be concluded that in SMAT.SUB:

—that for the operator POI:
 Given set of POI, or PCI, no = { no<sub>i</sub> } POI generates:
 n = the sum of { no<sub>i</sub> }
 nx = the max of { no<sub>i</sub> }
 va, vi, vli, vld = the selector vectors defined in Section 3.3.4, Eqs.(3.75)-(3.78)

 —while for the operator DSM: Using the previously obtained selector vectors, DSM generates the selector matrices Sa, Si, Sli and Sld, Eq. (3.79)

 —similarly, for the subroutine EXD.SBR: Given the (n+1) dimensional row d containing the coefficients d, of d(z), and the [pm × (n+1)] matrix in PMF corresponding to a nonstrictly proper polynomial matrix W(z) EXD calculates: —the strictly proper act Wsp in PME and the corresponding

—the strictly proper part Wsp in PMF and the corresponding  $(p \times m)$  matrix D.

In doing this, another "SUB" subroutine, namely DPM.SUB (diagonal polynomial matrix) is executed within the EXD.SBR. This is, in fact, the only reason why it was necessary to define the subroutine EXD as a "SBR" type. The listing of the DPM.SUB is given above. By incorporating the code of DPM.SUB into subroutine EXD, it would be possible to define EXD as a subroutine of the "SUB" type, and in this way to speed up considerably its execution. The listing of the modified subroutine EXD, now of the "SUB" type, follows:

1	f,GD(exD,sub)=G,D
2	(nli)=
3	GD(ninp,t)≃m
4	f(cdi)(dec,t)=n1
5	GD, nl (ctc, t)=G, D
6	f(t),n1(ctr),m,m(dim)(mtv)(*,t)=f1p
7	flp(t),m(cmp)=flp
8	D,n(cnp),flp(pnm),-l(s*),G,m(cnp)(pma,t)=G
9	D(t), n(vtn, t) = D
10	(lis)=

In the above subroutines the statements:

# (NLI)=, NLI and NTY

are included at the beginning to transfer the L-A-S interpreter into NO LIST and NO TYPE modes. Similarly, the statements:

(LIS)=, TYP and LIS

are added at the end to return the interpreter to the default LIST and TYPE modes. The purpose of Statement 4 in EXD.SBR will be explained later.

To assess the faster execution of subroutines of the "SUB" type, a simple, self-explanatory program BUILDSB is given below.

1	BuildSB
2	Building SUB & SBR subroutines
3	and checking execution time
4	5,3,2(abcd, sub)=A,B,C,D
5	A, B, C, D(sstf)=d, W
6	A, B, C(sstf)=d, Wsp
7	(time)=t1
8	d,W(EXD,SBR)=Wsp1,D1
9	(time)=t2
10	d,W(exd,sub)=Wsp2,D2
11	(time)=t3
12	t3,t2(-),t2,t1(-)(mcp,t)=tsub,tsbr
13	Wsp, Wsp1(-), Wsp, Wsp2(-)(out) =
14	D,D1(-),D,D2(-)(out)=
15	tsub, tsbr(out, 1, 1) =

The program BUILDSB:

- —defines an arbitrary state space representation R={A,B,C,D} with n=5, m=3 and p=2,
- —calculates arrays d and W, where C(zI-A)<sup>-i</sup>B + D = W(z)/d(z),
- —calculates arrays d and Wsp where C(zI-A)<sup>-1</sup>B = Wsp(z)/d(z),
- —assigns current time in seconds to the scalar t1,
- —calls EXD.SBR, i.e. generates Wsp1 and D1,
- —assigns current time to scalar /2,
- —calls EXD.SUB, i.e. generates Wsp2 and D2,
- —assigns current time to the scalar /3, and
- -defines scalars tsub = r3-r2 and tsbr = r2-r1 and displays their values on the screen, etc.

#### Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

In the above case tsub = 8 seconds, while tsbr = 26 seconds.

The purpose of giving this simple example is to show that names of "SUB" and "SBR" subroutine may be equal. Also, a subroutine name may be equal to the name of an existing operator statement. Another purpose is to illustrate the use of the operator TIME.

Hints for SBR Subroutine Execution: During the execution of an SBR subroutine, the interpreter commands INCLUDE, ELIMINATE or CHANGE should not be used, i.e. the total number of characters of the subroutine should not be altered during its execution. This is a consequence of the way the L-A-S Interpreter executes an SBR subroutine. In particular, when a call to an SBR subroutine is encountered in a calling program, the calling statement is replaced by all statements of the subroutine, and the execution of the subroutine begins. At that moment the total number of statements (as well as the number of characters) in the current program is increased. At completion of the subroutine execution, all subroutine statements are removed, the initial calling statement is replaced and execution is resumed. Although this process is usually transparent to the user, it may be observed when the SBR subroutine is executed in TRACE mode.

Function-KEY Mode: It is well known that the DOS operating system allows the user to type "in advance" several characters before they are actually processed. Similarly, in an L-A-S session it is possible to type in advance answers to anticipated L-A-S prompts "\*". In fact, this is possible only in the default NO Function-KEY mode. To explain the reasons why the Function-KEY mode has been implemented consider a simple recursive scheme intended to sum positive integers l for  $1 \le l \le Imax$ , i.e.

> 1. Set  $0 \Rightarrow$  Summ,  $0 \Rightarrow i$ , Define Inax 2. Set  $i+1 \Rightarrow i$ , Set Summ+ $i \Rightarrow$  Summ 3. If i < Imax, go to 2; Else, go to 4 4. Display Summ

The correct, and two incorrect L-A-S implementations of the above recursive scheme for Imax = 15, are as follows:

```
1
       SummI
2
       Incorrect version
3
      0(coin),0(coin),15(coin)(mcp)=Summ,i,Imax
4
    iti(inc)=i
5
      Summ, i(+,t)=Summ
6
      i,Imax(ifj)=i,i,i
7
    k:Summ(out,t,0)=
1
       SummIS
2
       Incorrect version; with (STO) = statement
3
      D(coin), D(coin), 15(coin) (mcp)=Summ, i, Imax
4
    i:i(inc)=i
5
      Summ, i(+,t)=Summ
6
      (sto)=
7
      i,Imax(ifj)=i,i,i
8
    k:Summ(out,t,0)=
```

Obviously, the version SummC is correct, since for l < Imax, the operator IFJ transfers control to the statement with the label "l", i.e. Statement 4, while for  $i \ge Imax$ , execution goes to the statement with the label "k". However, if, by accident, in Statement 6, the output field reads: i, i, i instead of: i, k, k then we have an "infinite" loop; see version SummI above. The only possibility to "exit" is to end the L-A-S session by "force," i.e. to type either:

#### <Ctrl>=<Break> or <Ctrl>=<Alt>=<Del>

A "conservative" (good) programming practice is to include a STO statement in all loops which may lead to infinite loops; see the version SummIS above. Note that, as was explained earlier, whenever in sequential execution, the statement STO is encountered, the execution "HALTS," and then by typing, for instance, jump, k (or j, k), it is possible to exit the loop. After that, of course, it is necessary to correct the output field in the IFJ statement. Once we are sure that loop works correctly, it is possible to eliminate the (STO) = statement.

Another way to avoid ending a L-A-S session by "force," once in an infinite loop, is to use the Function-KEY mode. This can be done by the interpreter command:

FKE (or fk)

Then, during any sequential execution, by simply pressing the function key <F1> the L-A-S interpreter will enter into the TRACE mode, causing the sequential execution to "halt" immediately. Then, again, by typing any IC or OS the user may either exit a loop or verify what is happening in the program. However, unfortunately, when the interpreter is in the Function-KEY mode, it is not possible to type "in advance" characters as responses to anticipated future interpreter prompts, but it is necessary to wait until the prompt is actually issued. This is due to the implementation of this mode and its interaction with other parts of the L-A-S

#### Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

interpreter. Once in FKE mode, it is possible by pressing other function keys, F2 to F7, to enter/exit other L-A-S modes, such as LIST, TYPE, etc. More details are available in the HELP file under "Help,Fke."

Creation and Execution Modes of Operation: The above example program SUMMC, involving recursive calculation, i.e. the L-A-S statement IFJ (conditional jump) will be used to introduce the important concepts of the Creation and Execution modes of operation. The mode of operation of the L-A-S software corresponding to the interpreter being in the MEM mode, i.e. when all correctly typed and executed statements are stored in the interpreter working memory is referred to as the Creation mode of operation. The mode of operation in which the program residing in interpreter memory is reexecuted is referred to as the Execution mode.

Consider now that the interpreter is in the Creation mode and that the user types (one at a time) the statements of the above program SUMMC. If Statement 6 is typed as

i,Imax(ifj)=i,k,k

the L-A-S interpreter will issue a warning:

SELAB - Label = k does not exist

indicating that it expects that in the sequel, a statement with the label "k" will be entered. Also, note that although, for i < lmax, the above IFJ statement is supposed to transfer control to the statement with label "l", the interpreter, being currently in the Creation mode, will simply issue the prompt """, expecting the next statetement to be typed. After typing all the statements of program SUMMC, including, of course, the statement with label "k", and once the user enters the IC:

> \* jump,1 or \* j,i or even j,4

since Statement 4 has the label "i", the interpreter will automatically enter into the Execution mode, i.e. sequential execution of existing statements. Then, when the IFJ statement is encountered, the control will be transferred either to:

—the statement with label " $i^*$  for i < Imax or to —the statement with label " $k^*$  for  $i \ge Imax$ .

This distinction between the Creation and Execution modes has been introduced solely to allow typing of IFJ and JMP operator statements, which in their output fields may refer to statement labels not currently existing in a program being typed. Note that as far as other "calculation oriented operator statements" are concerned, there is no distinction between the Creation mode and the Execution mode. Recovery from Execution Errors: Assume that during a sequential reexecution of an L-A-S program an error occurs. This error might be due to an incompatibility of dimensions of arguments in the input field, or an insufficient number of arguments in the input/output fields. In this case an appropriate error message is issued and sequential execution halts immediately. The program counter corresponds to the number of the statement where the error occurred. To find out what caused the error, it is suggested to enter some interpreter commands such as:

#### Status , Pro, n, n, or Names

to display the part of the program containing the statement where the error occurred, and to check the dimensions of the arrays used. Also OUT operator statements might help. Note that at that moment any operator statement may be typed, including a statement which will change some of the previously defined arrays or define new ones. Since the interpreter is in NO-MEM mode, operator statements will only perform required operations, but will not be stored in the interpreter memory. Of course, by using the IC:

#### ELI , CHA or INC

it is possible to eliminate and/or change an existing statement, or to include new ones. Once the user is sure that the cause of error is eliminated, by using the IC:

where <st-#-er> stands for the number of the statement which caused the error, sequential execution will be resumed starting from that statement. However, if the user is not completely sure that all causes of error have been removed, it is advisable first to enter in the TRACE mode and then to type j,-1. Then, of course, only one statement will be executed, and the user should enter:

after each executed statement. Once the user is convinced that the program works correctly, it is possible by using the IC NTRA to exit from TRACE mode and resume normal default sequential execution of all remaining statements.

Recovery from Errors in Subroutines: Note that the first four statements in all SBR type subroutines are as follows:

 The first statement defining the subroutine name and type, as well as input/output arguments, has the general form:

A1,..., An (XYZ, SBR) = B1,..., Bm

340

- The next two statements are the interpreter commands: NLI and NTY, mentioned under Building "SUB" and "SBR" subroutines, (see exD.sbr).
- The fourth statement is a MOS of the form:

1,m(dzm)(tvc)=B1,,,Bm

whose purpose is to define all output arguments "temporarily." It may be concluded that this MOS sets zeros in all output arguments, Bi's, i=[1,m]. It should be mentioned that in the case that during the subroutine execution there are no syntax or execution errors, this statement does not have an active role, since some other statements in the subroutine "body" again define all these output arguments. On the other hand, if an execution or syntax error occurs, then, in the case of a SBR subroutine, (which also happens in the case of a "main" program), the sequential executions "halts" immediately. Then, the user may follow a procedure explained under the subtitle Recovery from Execution Errors. However, if it is preferred to exit from the subroutine, the user may type the IC:

where <st-#-first-q> is the statement number of the *first* statement having the label "q". Then, since the last-but-one statement in the subroutine body usually has the label "q" (for quit), i.e.:

\* q:typ

the control will be transfered to the subroutine end. In order to exit from the subroutine "normally," all output arguments should be defined, which would not be the case if the above mentioned MOS, temporarily defining all output arguments, is not included in the begining of the subroutine body.

Since the label "q" is reserved for that purpose, a "qood programming practice" is not to use the label "q" in main programs. If, in spite of that, the user "insists" on using the label "q" in a main program calling a SBR subroutine, then, when an error occurs within a SBR subroutine, instead of the above mentioned IC j, q, the user has to determine the <st-#-first-q>, which could be done by the IC:

f,q: or \* find,q:

In the case of an error within SUB type subroutine;

- an appropriate error message is issued,
- sequential execution halts, and
- control is transferred to the program calling this subroutine,
- the program counter indicates the statement containing the call to the SUB subroutine where the error occurred.

If it is desired to "override" the (NLI) = operator statement which is, as has been mentioned previously, usually used as the second statement in the subroutine body, the IC:

1,sub or list,sub

may be typed before the SUB subroutine execution. If in the FKE mode, instead of the IC 1, sub, the function key F3 may be pressed.

Changing Elements in Defined Arrays: Recall that the L-A-S software is well suited for reexecuting a sequence of operator statements residing in the Interpreter working memory with the same, or different, input data. Therefore, it is our feeling that at this point it is worthwhile to illustrate the possibilities of changing elements in arrays already defined. There are, of course, a number of ways that this can be accomplished, but here only two ways will be mentioned.

Assume that in a current L-A-S session matrix A with dimension (6  $\times$  7) and matrix B with dimension (2  $\times$  4) have been defined and used, and that the user has decided to modify some of their elements.

 If single elements in A and B are to be replaced "interactively," say it is desired to substitute:

 $-2.5 \Rightarrow a_{45}$ ;  $101.2 \Rightarrow a_{76}$  and  $1.2 \approx 10^{5} \Rightarrow b_{2.1}$ 

then, the incompletely specified INP operator statement may be used, i.e.

\* (inp,e)=

In this case the user-machine conversation is as follows:

```
Type matrix names you want to change via keyboard
or type either <N.> , <NAM.> or <ALL.> : A,B
Enter indices (I,J) and value A(I,J) of matrix element
I,J, A(I,J) : 4,5,-2.5 <return>
I,J, A(I,J) : 2,6,101.2 <return>
I,J, A(I,J) : creturn>
Enter indices (I,J) and value B(I,J) of matrix element
I,J, B(I,J) : 2,3,1.2e5 <return>
I,J, B(I,J) : <return>
A,B(out)=
```

The last statement, i.e. A,B(out) = , was used to verify if the desired substitutions were made.

2. The second way is "less" interactive, but it allows a complete block (submatrix)

#### Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

in a defined matrix to be substituted into another matrix. Assume now that in the above mentioned (6  $\times$  7) matrix A it is desired to replace the sub-array elements:

with an already defined  $(2 \times 4)$  matrix **B**. This can be done by typing the following operator statement:

which places the whole matrix B into A starting at location (2,3), keeping other elements unchanged.

Using the operator RMP (Replace Matrix Part), the task of the previously mentioned incompletely specified operator statement (INP,e) = may be "noninteractively" performed by the sequence:

\* A,-2.5(dna),4,5(rmp)=A
\* A,101.2(dna),2,6(rmp)=A
\* 1.2e5(dma),2,3(rmp)=B

If desired, the first two statements may be combined into the following single MOS:

\* A,-2.5(dma),4,5(rmp),101.2(dma),2,6(rmp)=A

Plotting Capabilities: To illustrate plotting capabilities of L-A-S software consider the L-A-S program given below:

1	Exerc	
2	Plotting	
3	1,1/-1,1(dma,t)=A	
4	2,1(dim)=xo	
5	Use N=201 & T=40	
6	n: (dsc)=N,T	
7	xo,N,T,A(rcs)=x	
8	Time Response(ylab)=	
9	Time[sec](xlab)=	
10	-1,1,,T(dma)=sc	
11	sc(yxsc)=	
12	x,T(dis)=	
13	-1,1,-2,2(dma)=sc2	
14	sc2 (yxsc)=	
15	Phase plane x2[t](ylab)=	
16	x1[t] (xlab) =	

17	x(nik) =
18	N,T(out)=
19	A, xo(out, t, 1) =
20	N,T(out,1,0)=

Its name is EXERC and it can be found in the directory C:\LAS\DPF\. The program defines a  $(2 \times 2)$  matrix A and initial condition vector x(0) given by:

 $A = \begin{vmatrix} -0.1 & 1.0 \\ -1.0 & -0.1 \end{vmatrix} ; x(0) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{vmatrix}$ 

By Statement 6, with the label "n", the quantities N and T should be defined interactively. Suggested values are N=201 and T=40. The differential equation:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) \quad , \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$$

for  $0 \le t \le T$ , given by the N data points is solved by Statement 6, operator RCS. Note that operator RCS is executed within the algorithm CDSR, i.e. L-A-S subroutine CDSR.SUB.

The two elements  $x_i(t)$ , i=[1,2], of the state vector x(t) are displayed versus time by Statement 12, operator DIS, while Statement 17, operator NIK (Nyqist diagram), i.e. X-Y Plotting, displays  $x_2(t)$  versus  $x_1(t)$  in the "Phase-Plane" plot of Fig.C.3. Operators YLAB, XLAB and YXSC, executed before the "plotting" operators DIS and NIK, allow the user to label the y- and x-axes, as well as to set axis scales. For more details see the Help file. The plots obtained are shown in Figs.C.2 and C.3. For an illustration of three dimensional plotting capabilities the reader is referred to the *L-A-S* program PLTALL.DPF in the subdirectory C:\LAS\PLT\.

Interface with Other CAD Packages: This section pertains to using data generated by other programs or packages. In the master subdirecory C:\LAS\ there is the independent main program

#### INDAT.EXE

which may be used for reading data files containing arbitrary ASCII data and preparing them for inclusion in the L-A-S package. The use of INDAT will be Time\_Response

L-A-S



Figure C.2. L-A-S Time-Response Plots

L-A-S



Figure C.3. L-A-S Phase-Plane Plot

illustrated by an example. Consider that we have a file INP.DAT of the form given below:

A -1.000 1.000 .000 .000 .000 -2.000 1.000 .000 .000 -1.000 -2.000 1.000 .000 .000 .000 -2.000 Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

в 1.000 .000 .000 .001 .000 .000 .000 1.000 .000 .000 1.000 .000 C .00000E+00 .10000E-04 .00000E+00 .10000E+01 .10000E+01 .00000E+00 .10000E+07 .00000E+00 D .000 1.000 .000 .000 .000 .000

and we want to use this data in the L-A-S software. To this end, the following is suggested. Using any text editor, delete all blank lines and eliminate all non numeric characters. After this intervention, the file INP.DAT should have the following form:

-1.000	1.000	.000	.000	Mo	dified	file	INP.DAT
.000	-2.000	1.000	.000				
.000	-1.000	-2.000	1.000				
.000	.000	,000	-2.000				
1.000	.000	.000					
.001	.000	.000					
.000	1.000	.000					
.000	.000	1.000					
.00000	0E+00	.10000E-	-04 .04	0000E+00	.1000	0E+01	22
.10000	0E+01	.00000E	+00 .10	0000E+07	.0000	0E+00	1
.000	1.000	.000					
.000	.000	.000					

Then, run the program INDAT, i.e. type: INDAT

The program INDAT prompts user for:

- file name containing data to be read, in our case the answer should be: INP.DAT
- file name were the modified data will be written, in our case answer might be: Temp
- the L-A-S variable name to which data to be read will be assigned, a possible name is: Abcd

The complete user - machine conversation is given below:

Please enter File name containing ASCII characters corresponding to the array to be transferred into the L-A-S package. To exit, Enter: STOP/stop or s

Inp.Dat

File <Inp.Dat > has <nr> = 12 non-blank rows

Please enter the file name where the modified array to be read by the L-A-S package will be written. You may use any string of up to 8 characters. Suggested names are: t1, t2, tmp1, ...

#### Temp

Please enter any string of up to 4 characters to be used as the L-A-S variable name. Suggested names are: t1, t2, tmp1, A, ... If you have used a string of up to four characters for the file name above, you may use the same string for the L-A-S variable name

#### Abcd

The array <Abcd> has 12 rows and 4 columns

File <Temp > created

Please enter file name containing ASCII characters corresponding to the array to be transferred into the L- $\lambda$ -S package. To exit, enter: STOP/stop or s

3

Stop - Program terminated.

The file TEMP, created by the program INDAT, is given below:

```
(Inp,m)=Abcd
        4
  12,
-1.000,1.000,.000,.000,
.000,-2.000,1.000,.000,
.000,-1.000,-2.000,1.000,
.000,.000,.000,-2.000,
1.000,.000,.000,
.001,.000,.000,
.000,1.000,.000,
.000,.000,1.000,
.00000E+00,.10000E-04,.00000E+00,.10000E+01,
.10000E+01,.00000E+00,.10000E+07,.00000E+00,
.000,1.000,.000,
.000,.000,.000,
Abcd(Out) =
```

After having the file TEMP created, enter L-A-S and as an answer to the L-A-S

prompt "\*", type:

```
file, Temp
```

According to the function of the interpreter command FILE, on the screen the following will appear:

Temp

Read statement = (Inp, m)=Abcd

\*

Read statem	ent = Abcd (Ou	at)=	
10000E+01	.10000E+01	.00000E+00	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	20000E+01	.10000E+01	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	10000E+01	20000E+01	.10000E+01
.00000E+00	+00000E+00	.00000E+00	20000E+01
.10000E+01	.00000E+00	.00000E+00	.00000E+00
.10000E-02	.00000E+00	.00000E+00	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	.10000E+01	.00000E+00	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	.00000E+00	.10000E+01	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	.10000E-04	.00000E+00	.10000E+01
.10000E+01	.00000E+00	.10000E+07	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	.10000E+01	.00000E+00	.00000E+00
.00000E+00	+00000E+00	.00000E+00	.00000E+00

×

Since in this way within the L-A-S, a  $(12 \times 4)$  array Abcd has been created, it is now easy to extract matrices A,B,C and D from the obtained Abcd. This can be done, for instance, by the following sequence of L-A-S operators:

*	Abcd, 8 (ctr) = AB, CD
*	AB,4(ctr)=A,B
	B,3(ctc)=B
*	CD,2(ctr)=C,D
*	D,3(oto)=D

After that, of course, arrays A,B,C and D of appropriate dimensions are available and can subsequently be used as input arguments in any L-A-S operator or subroutine.

Recovering from a "Crash:" It will occasionally happen that an inadvertent command will cause an L-A-S program to "crash" and send the user back to DOS. Fortunately, the L-A-S interpreter stores all data from the terminal keyboard to the file ECHO.DAT. In the case of a fatal execution error, for example a floating point overflow, the current L-A-S session "crashes" and the user is back at the DOS

348

#### Section C.3 L-A-S Subroutines

prompt. In order to recover the lost session, without retyping all the statements again, the following should be done:

- Rename the file ECHO.DAT to an arbitrary name, e.g. ECHO.DDD
- Edit this file and delete (or comment out) the last L-A-S statement which caused the "crash." Also, all other statements which caused the execution and/or syntax error should be deleted (or commented out).
- Save that modified file.
- Enter the L-A-S interpreter, and following the first interpreter prompt: " \* ", enter the following Interpreter command:
  - \* file, ECHO.DDD
- In the case that in the edited file ECHO.DDD there are no L-A-S statements which cause an execution and/or syntax error, all statements from that file will be sequentially executed. After the execution of the last statement, the L-A-S Interpreter will issue the standard prompt " \* ", and will be ready to accept any statement from the terminal keyboard. All executed statements will again be stored on the newly created ECHO.DAT file.

In order to gain experience in using the ECHO feature, three examples of ECHO files are presented. The first one is the non-edited version obtained after the program due to the last statement:

\* ff,f(\*,t)=ff

has returned to DOS. Note that in this example the following statements:

are incorrect. Therefore, these three statements, together with the last one should be either deleted, or commented out, as has been done in the second version, which was renamed to ECHO.DDD. The third version of the ECHO.DAT file was created during the reading of the edited and renamed ECHO file.

_ L - A - S	ECHO.DAT	fi	le	Version 1
created Echo Example 1,3,2(dma)=v 1,2,4,3(dan,t) Syntax error	7/31/1992 	at	11:20	ECHO.DAT file created by L-A-S Interpreter when overflow occurred Operator DAM does not exist I.C. SS does not exist

Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

I.C. Syntax Error above \* 1 v(out, t, 2)= V, V(\*, e)=VV Syntax error above " v,v(t)(\*,t)=vv le100(dma,t)=f f,f(\*,t)=ff ff,f(\*,t)=ff ff,f(\*,t)=ff

\_Comm 1, 2, 4, 3(dam, t)=verr

I.C. Syntax Error above ^ 1

Syntax error above \*

Syntax error above "

Echo Example 1,3,2(dma)=v

Conn\_88

v(out,t,2)=

Comm\_v,v(\*,e)=vv

v,v(t)(\*,t)=vv 1e100(dma,t)=f f,f(\*,t)=ff ff,f(\*,t)=ff Comm\_ff,f(\*,t)=ff

L = A - S ECHO.DAT file

created 7/31/1992 at 11:20

v is (1 × 3) row, multiplication v\*v is not permitted

-here f = 10100

-here ff = 10<sup>ND</sup> This statement has created "overflow" and consequently this L-A-S session is ended "in a crash."

Version 2

File ECHO.DAT modified and renamed ECNO.DDD

Lines creating syntax or execution errors are commented out by adding a leading "\_Comm ".

L - A - S ECHO.DAT file created 7/31/1992 at 11:30 file, echo.ddd

L - A - S ECHO.DAT file

created 7/31/1992 at 11:20 Echo Example 1,3,2[dna]=v \_Comm\_1,2,4,3{dam,t}=verr Syntax error above " Com as I.C. Syntax Error above \* 1 • v(out,t,2)= Comm v,v(\*,e)=vv Syntax error above " V, V(t) (\*, t)=vv le100(dma,t)=f f,f(\*,t)=ff ff,f(\*,t)=ff Conn ff, f(\*, t)=ff Now L-A-S\_interpreter\_is\_back in terminal Keyboard mode Some additional statements are typed

Version 3 New ECHO.DAT file created during the L-A-S session in which the I.C FILE was used and the file ECHO.DDD was read.

Note that this ECHO file was created 10 minutes after the first version.

350

```
ff(out)=
    P
v(out,t,0)=
    Now,_to_quit_"q"_should_be_typed
    q
```

# C.4 A List of L-A-S Interpreter Commands

#### MNEMONIC NAME DESCRIPTION Execution of any DOS operating system command 1<Sys. Com. > Begin; the current L-A-S program and variables are deleted BEG (B) BEL Activates the computer bell CHA Change any string of characters in an operator statement CLE Clear the terminal screen CON (C) Continue COP (CO) Copy part of the L-A-S program DSP Display status of the L-A-S interpreter ELI (E) Eliminate operator statements ELM Eliminate matrices END End: ends the L-A-S session EPS Definition of the default "machine zero" FIL All inputs to the L-A-S interpreter are from a specified file FIN (F) Find string of characters in L-A-S program FKE (FK) Enter Function-KEY mode GRA CGA high resolution graphics mode HELP (H) Syntactical description of L-A-S statements INC Include an operator statement or interpreter command INF Include a program file into the current L-A-S program JUM (J) Jump; jump to any statement in the current L-A-S program LIS (L) List operator statements - enter List mode LOA (LO) Loads arrays into the L-A-S Interpreter memory Memorize entered operator statements - enter Memorize mode MEM (M) MOV (MO) Move part of the L-A-S program Names; display of names and dimensions of all arrays NAM (N) Deactivates the computer bell NBE NFK (NF) Exit Function-KEY mode (default) NLI (NL) No listing of operator statements - exit List mode NME No memorizing of operator statements - exit Mem. mode NTE No test; exit test mode NTR No tracing of L-A-S program execution - exit Trace mode NTY (NT) No typing of operator statement results - exit Type mode OPE (O) Display of compatibility conditions for dimension of input arrays PFI (PF) Print file specification

PRL (PR)	Print L-A-S program listing
PRO (P)	Display L-A-S program on terminal screen
QUI (Q)	Quit; ends L-A-S session
REF	Read external file; read L-A-S program created by any text editor
RPF (R)	Read program file; L-A-S program from the DPF (Disk Program File) is read and added to the current L-A-S program
RSV	Restore all variables
SAV	All variables are stored (saved) on a file.
STA (S)	Status; displays status of L-A-S program
STV	Store all variables
TCH	Total change; global substitute of an old name by a new one in an L-A-S program
TES	Test; display of additional intermediate information during execution, (used only in L-A-S software implementation)
TIM	Time in [sec] for plots to stay on the screen
TRA	Trace; trace L-A-S program execution - enter Trace mode
TYP (T)	Type; cancels NTY - enter Type mode
WPF (W)	Write program file; the current L-A-S program is saved
XLAB	Label the X-axis of the plot
YLAB	Label the Y-axis of the plot

Detailed syntactical description of each interpreter command may be obtained by typing HELP,xyz ; where xyz stands for the mnemonic name of an interpreter command.

# On-Line Help File

This section reviews "help" descriptions of some L-A-S operators. This type of information is available in the on-line Help file. Initially, three examples which indicate the type of help that is available are presented. Following these examples, a selection of actual Help file responses is given. Although not exhaustive, the few examples of this section should convey that the L-A-S Help file provides adequate information to make good use of the corresponding operators.

C.5

#### Example 1:

PURPOSE: Matrix inversion with optional determinant calculation.

USAGE: A (-1 [f]) = AI [, D], The fl (flag) option is used to specify the output format: t corresponds to xxx.xxx and e, to an exponential form for a wider range of values.

**DESCRIPTION:** AI is the inverse of the  $(n \times n)$  matrix A. D is the determinant of the matrix A.

See also: INV, P-1

#### EXAMPLE:

Given the matrix (previously defined in L-A-S):

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The L-A-S statement: A(-1, 1) = AI, D will yield

	-0.5	-0.25	-0.25	-0.083
	0	-0.5	-0.5	-0.167
AI =	0	0.5	-0.5	-0.167
	0	0	0	-0.333

with the determinant D = 12.000

#### Example 2:

PURPOSE: Complex function multiplication

USAGE: X, Y ( $C^*[, fl]$ ) = Z

**DESCRIPTION:** The matrix X of dimension  $(n \times 2)$  has the complex form  $x_k = real(x_i) + j imag(x_i)$ , where  $k = 1, \dots, n$  and  $j = (-1)^{1/2}$ . The matrices Y and Z have the same form. The operation represents a term by term complex multiplication.

See also: \*, C/, F\*, P\*, PMM, S\*

EXAMPLE: Given the arrays (previously defined in L-A-S):

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} , \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The L-A-S statement X, Y (C\*) = Z will yield:

1

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Example 3:

PURPOSE: To calculate the eigenvalues of a square matrix.

USAGE: A (EGV [, fl]) = EG

**DESCRIPTION:** Given the  $(n \times n)$  matrix **A**, the two columns of the  $(n \times 2)$  matrix EG contain the real and imaginary parts of the eigenvalues of the matrix **A**.

See also: EGC, CHE, CHD

EXAMPLE: Given the matrix (previously defined in L-A-S):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -4 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The L-A-S statement A (EGV) = EG will yield:

$$EG = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The following is a list of several examples taken directly from the L-A-S Help file:

```
T.Ad(, Bom, N, Eps)(Lnm(,fl))=Ac Natural log of (n x n) matrix Ad
.
               Ln(Ad)/T ==> Ac
 T(1 x 1) scalar or integer
 Ad(n x n) given matrix
 Egm(1 x 1) scaling factor < 1, default value = 0.25, leade to:
       w[ I-Ad^(1/r) ) | < Egm; r = 2^j ; j & r scaling coefficients
 N(1 x 1) truncation coefficient, default values N=36.
 Eps(1 x 1) << 1, sufficiently small positive scalar
    Preset default value: Eps = 10*(-16)
    Default value of Eps could be changed by the I.C. EPS
                           Algorithm, see Chapter 2:
        Given T, Ad, Egn ==> j,r; then
        Ac = -r/T^* sum ( [ I - Ad^(1/r) ]^i * (1/I ) ; i=[1, N]
See also: EATP

    c,A(POLR(,f1)=r Polynomial reduction using the C-H-Theorem

c(1 x N); A(n x n); r(1 x n); N > n
 r(s) and c(s) satisfy:
                         c(A) = c(A)
      Algorithm, see Chapter 2:
                     c ==> r, N ==> k; det(Is-A) ==> f(s)
                  1.
                  2.
                     k-1 ==> k
                  3. r(k-n+j)-r(k)*f(j) => r(k-n+j), for j=[0,n-1]

 For k > n go to 2; Slse, Stop.

 See also: POM
 * A,B[,k](QC[,fl])=Qc Controllability matrix
 A(n x n); B(n x m)
 k(1 x 1) specifies # of blocks in Qc; default value: k = n-m+1
            If k = 0, Operator uses k = n-m+1
 Qc(n x h) = Controllability matrix = [B]A*B[..]A*(k-1)*B], h=m*k
 See also: QO, RKC, RKR, NRS
    xo,N,Tt,A[,B,u](RCS[,f1])=x[,T] ; Continuous system response
   xo(n x 1) = intial condition vector
    N(1 x 1) = # of points, scalar or integer
   Tt(1 x 1) = total time, scalar or integer
   A (n x n) = system matrix
   B (n x m) = input matrix
   u (N R M) = input vector
   x (N x n) = state vector - solution
   The operator calculates the solution of the following diff. eq.
   dx(t)/dt = h * x(t) + B * u(t) ; x(0) = x0
             t = [0,Tt] in N points.
   for:
   T(N \ge 1) = values of independent variable t - obtained
   from values N and Tt ; initial value = 0.
   If u omitted, calculates step response; assumes: u = step
   If both B and u onitted, calculates response to xo; assumes: B = 0
 See also: CE1, CE2, CE3, CE4, CE5
```

v(DSH(,fl))=S ; Define Selector Matrix S = Oper, stmt. v(1 x n); S(n x m); where m = # of non-zero elements in selector vector v. v = (vi);S = (sij)000 Non-zero elements 100 in the row v are Example: for v = [01302]; 5 = 030 typically unity. 0 0 0 0 0 2 \* Al, Eps](NRS[,fl))=N(,R,r) - Null- , Range-space and Rank A(n x m) given matrix Eps - sufficiently small postive scalar. Preset default value: Eps = 10^(-16) Default value of Eps could be changed by the I.C. EPS  $N(m \times v)$  Null space of A, satisfies: A \* N = 0, v = m - r = Nullity of A R(n x r) Range space of A, satisfies: r = rank[A] = rank[A]R] r(1 x 1) Rank of A, matisfies: n = v + r See also: RKC, RKR, QC, QO Q[,eps](REC[,fl])=[Qli][,Qld][,sv] Rank of Q and separation of linear independent Columns. Q(n x m], Qli[n x r] contains L.I. columns, Qld[n x (m-r)] contains L.D. columns, ; sv[1 x m] ; selector vector; elements are equal either to one or zero The i-th element of sy equal to one signifies that the i-th column of Q is linearly independent on previous j columns of Q ; j = [1, i-1]. and that column gi is in Qli eps = suff. small positive scalar. Preset default value: eps= 10^(-16) The default value could be changed using the I.C. EPS See also: RKR A(NRR[,fl])=an[,Av] NoRm & Row norms; Frobenious norm A(n x m) = {aij} ; an = sqrt{ sum of aij^2 } ; Avi = sqrt{ sum of a11-2 )

an[1 x 1] = norm of A ; Av[1 x n] = norms of rows of A

See also: NRC

It is our hope that with this brief introduction the reader will be able to strike out on his or her own, making ample use of the on-line help and the lists in the next section.

### Authors' Remarks:

Although L-A-S might seem "complicated" to a new user, it does, in fact, follow the book's motto:

"Everything should be made as simple as possible, but not simpler."

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

L-A-S has more features than most existing CAD packages, some not found in any other CAD software. Some paticularly useful features are the "modes:"

MEM , TRACE , LIST , TYPE , Function-KEY as well as the flexible multiple-operator statements (MOS) and subroutines.

To get full benefit from the software, it is necessary to invest time to get acquainted with all L-A-S features. On the other hand, the features required to use the software as a simple matrix "calculator," which is what the majority of other existing CAD packages basically offer, see examples ExampC1, Section C.1, and ExerC, Section C.3, may be learned in virtually no time.

# C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

#### CHAPTER 1

#### GZ.SUB

OC.SUB

12

3

4

5

6

7

8

### LIN.SBR

1	par, zo, dz(Lin, sbr)=A, B, diff
2	nli
-	ney
4	_(A,B)_linearized_model_or
5	_dx(t)/dteg(x,u,p);_t=ix(u)
6	in the vicinity of zo
7	1,3(dzm)(tvc)=A,B,diff
8	Message_LIN_displayed
	on screen
9	lin(tfi)=
10	(sto)=
11	zo(rdi)=h
12	h,l(dzm)=zerv
13	zerv(inc)=onv
14	onv(t),-1(s*),h,h(dim)
	(rti,t)=T
15	par, zo(gz, sub)=go
16	go,go(rdi)(mcp)=H,n
17	O(coin)=i
18	i:i(inc)=i
19	dz,i,l(exm)=dzi
20	zo, zo, i, 1, 1, 1 (exm), dzi
	(+), i, 1(rmp, t)=zi
21	par,zi(gz,sub)=gi
22	H,gi(cti,t)=H
23	1,h(ifj)=1,j,j
24	1:(nop)=
25	dz(t)(ddn)=D
26	H.T(*,t)=H
27	H,D(-1)(*,t)=H
28	H.n(ctc)=A.B
29	go, H, dz(*)(+,t)=gla
30	par, zo, dz(+) (gz, sub)=g1
31	gl.gla(-,e)=diff
32	gityp
33	110

1	par,z(gz,sub)=g
2	(nli)=
3	Generates nonlinear
4	z= x u  defining
5	for 2 Deg of Freedom
6	Called by LIN.SBR
7	par(tvc,t)=a,b,c,d,e
8	z(t)(tvc,t) =
	£1, £2, £3, £4, 25, £6
9	z4,2(s*)(sin)=s2z4
10	22,2(s*)(sin)=s2z2
11	24(cos)=cz4
12	z4(sin)=sz4
13	b,c,cz4(*),cz4(*)(+),d,
	sz4(*),sz4(*)(+,t)=den
14	a, 21(*), 23(*), 8222(*),
	z5(+),z6(-,t)=g1
15	g1,den(s/,t)=g1
16	z1,z1(*),s2z4(*),e(*),
	-1(s*,t)=g3
17	g3,z6,a(s/)(+,t)=g3
18	g1, z1, g3, z3(rti, t)=g
19	(lis)=

A,B(gc,sub)=Qc

QC\_operator

Implemented also as

\_Qc= Controllability

A(cdi),B(cdl)(mcp)=n,m

Qc\_is\_(n\_x\_h);\_h=(n-n+1)m

matrix of (A, B)

n,m(-)(inc)=im

B(mcp)=X

(nli) =

#### 357

```
9
     n.O(dzm)=Oc
10
   O(coin)=i
11 1:1(inc)=1
     Qc,X(cti,t)=Qc
12
     A,X(*)=X
13
14
     i, in(ifj)=1, j, j
15 1:(lis)=
```

#### QO.SUB

```
A,C(qo,sub)=Qo
1
     (nli)=
 2
       Implemented also as
3
     _QO_operator
     Qo= Observability
4
     matrix of {A,C}

_Qo is (h x n); h=(n-p+1)p

Ā(cdi),C(rdl)(mcp)=n,k
 5
 6
 7
     n,k(-)(inc)=in
8
     C(ncp)=X
9
     0,n(dzm)=Qo
10
     n,n(-)=1
11 1:1(inc)=i
     Qo,X(rti,t)=Qo
12
     X,A(*)=X
13
14
      1, im(ifj)=1, j, j
15 j:(lis)=
```

#### NRS.SUB

```
A, eps(nrs, sub)=N, R, r
1
2
      (n11)=
       Implemented also as
3
    MRS_operator
N, R = Null and Range_space
of A; r=rank(A)
4
5
```

- 6 A(svd)=w,U,V
- 7 w,w,eps(f/)=x
- 8 x,x(t)(\*,t)=r
- 9 U,r(ctc)=R
- 10 V,r(ctc)=x,N
- (lis)= 11

#### CDSR.SUB

```
1
     A, B, C, D, xo, u, T(cdsr, sub)=y
 2
     (nli)=
     _General_SS (C-T) or
а
     _(D-T)==>
 4
      Response to u & xo
     u(t)=ut
 5
     For D-T case use T-
 6
     neg. integer
T(ifj)=d,d,c
7
 8 d: (nop)=
     D-T system response
 a
     A, B, C, ut, xo(rds)=yo
10
11
     yo,ut,D(t)(*)(+)=y
12
     (jmp)=f
13 c: (nop)=
14
     C-T system response
15
     ut(rdi)=N
```

#### xo, N, T, A, B, ut(rcs)=x 16 17 x,C(t)(\*),ut,D(t)(\*)(+)=y 18 f:y(t)=y 19 (11s)=

#### RESO, SUB

```
1
     A(Reso, sub)=p, Rr, R
2
     (nli)=
3
   Implemented by SSTF and ALT
     operators. Use:
4
     A,I,I(SSTF)=p,R
    "R(alt)=Rc,Rr
 5
    "I=Identity_matrix
 6
7
     A(cdi)=n
8
     n,n(dim)=I
9
     n,O(dzm)=Br
10
     n,n(dim)=Ri
11
     n,n(*),0(dzm)=R
12
     l(coin)=p
13
     O(coin)=i
14 isi(inc)=i
     Ri,A(*)=E
E(tr),i(s/),-1(s*)=pl
15
16
17
     pi,p(cti,t)=p
18
     Ri, Rr(cti,t)=Rr
19
     Ri(mtv)(t).R(ct1,t)=R
20
     E, I, pi(s*)(+)=Ri
    1,n(ifj)=1,1,1
21
22 j:(nop)=
23
     R,n(cmp)=R
```

```
24
     (110)=
```

#### LALG.SUB

```
1
     A, B, C, D(Lalg, sub)=p, Rr, R
     (nli)=
 2
 3
      Implemented by SSTF and
     ALT operators
 4
     Use A, B, C, D(sstf)=p, R
     R(alt)=Rc,Rr
 6
 6
     A(cdi)=n
 7
     n,n(dim)=I
 8
     D,I(mcp)=Rr,RL
 .
     D(mtv)(t)=R
10
     1(coin)=p
11
     O(coin)=i
12 i:i(inc)=i
13
     Ri,A(*)=E
     E(tr),1(s/),-1(s*)=pi
14
     C,Ri,B(*)(*),D,pi(s*)(+)=Ri
15
16
     pi,p(cti,t)=p
17
     Ri, Rr(cti,t)=Rr
18
     Ri(mtv)(t),R(oti,t)=R
19
     E,I,pi(s*)(+)=Ri
20 i,n(ifj)=i,j,j
21 j:(nop)=
22
     R,B(cdi)(cmp)=R
23
     (lis)=
```

#### 358

#### SSTF.SUB

1	A,B,C,D(sstf,sub)=P,W
2	(nli)=
3	Implemented by the
4	Calculates Transfer
12	function matrix
э.	_W(e)/P(e)=C(1e-A)(~-1)B+D
6	W 18 in the PMF
7	A(cd1), B(cd1), C(rd1)
	(mcp)=n,m,p
8	n,1(dzm)=zv
9	p,m(*),1(dzm)=zpm
10	n,n(dim)=I
11	O(coin)=z
12	z(mcp)=1
13	n,O(dzm)=WC
14	0,n(dzm)=BWC
15	k:j(inc)=j
16	C, j, 1, 1, n(exm)=ci
17	0,n(dzm)=Wc
18	s(mcp)=i
19	1:1(inc)=1
20	A,-1(s*),ci,i,1(rmp)=Aci
21	Aci(mtv)=Aciv
22	I,zv(t),i,l(rmp)=Iei
23	Iei(mtv)=Ieiv
24	Aciv, Ieiv(rti)(t), n(cmp)
-	=Hcpl
25	Wopl(p=1)=Adj,det
26	_det(out)=
27	Wc,det,n(ctc)(rti,t)=Wc
28	1,n(ifj)=1,j,j
29	j:(nop)=
30	WC, Wc(cti,t)=WC
31	j,p(ifj)=k,l,l
32	1:(nop)=
33	z(mcp)=1
34	L:l(inc)=l
35	B,1,1,n,1(exm)(t,t)=blt
36	blt,WC(*,t)=btWC
37	btWC,p(vtm)(t)=b1WC
38	BMC, blWC(rti,t)=BMC
39	1,n(ifj)=L,K,K
40	Kr(nop)=
41	D(mtv)=Dv
42	A(mtf)=P
43	BWC, spm(cti), Dv(t), P(*)
	(+,t)=W
44	w,m(cmp)=W
45	(118)=

#### CHAPTER 2

#### CTDT.SBR

- 1 A,B,C,D,T,eps,Isrb
- (CTDT, abr)=A1, B1, C1, D1
- 2 nli
- 3 nty
- 4 \_General\_(CT)\_<==>\_(DT)

```
for (SI) (RI) and (BL Tr.)
I,4(dsm)(Evc)=A1,B1,C1,D1
5
6
     Isrb(ifj)=c,q,d
7 di(nop)=
       C-T==>D-T
в
     Isrb,2(ifj)=s,r,b
 9
10 s:(nop)=
11
       (SI)
     A, B, C, D, T, eps(SRcd, SBR) =
12
     A1, B1, x, C1, D1, y
13
     nli
14
     nty
15
      (imp)=q
16 r:(nop)=
17
       (RI)
18
      A, B, C, D, T, eps(SRcd, SBR)
      =A1,x,B1,C1,y,D1
19
      nli
20
      nty
21
      (jmp)=q
22 b: (nop)=
23
       (B1.Tr.)
      A, B, C, D, T, eps(BLcd, SBR)
24
      =A1, B1, C1, D1
25
      nli
26
      nty
27
      p=(qnt)
28 c: (nop)=
29
       D-T==>C-T
      Terb,-2(ifj)=B,R,S
30
31 St(nop)=
       ($1)
32
33
       A, B, C, D, T, eps(SRdc, SBR)
      =A1, B1, x, C1, D1, y
34
      nli
35
      nty
36
      (imp)=q
37 R1(nop)=
38
       (RI)
      A, B, C, D, T, eps (SRdc, SBR)
39
      =A1,x,B1,C1,y,D1
40
      nli
41
      nty
42
      (jmp)=q
43 B: (nop)=
44
        (B1.7r.)
45
       A, B, C, D, T, eps(BLdc, SBR)
      =A1, B1, C1, D1
46
      nli
      nty
47
48 g:typ
```

49

1

2

з

4

5

lis

nli

nty

Ac, Bc, Cc, Dc, T, eps(SRed, sbr)

(CT)==>(DT) Transformation

=Ad, Bds, Bdr, Cd, Dds, Ddr

into (SI) and (RI)

\_{Ad,Bds,Cd,Dds}=(SI)

SRCD.SBR

	(DT)_model
6	(Ad, Bdr, Cd, Ddr)=(RI)
	(DT) model
7	1,6(dzn)(tvc)=
	Ad, Bds, Bdr, Cd, Dds, Ddr
8	T,Ac(eatf,t)=Ad,E,F
9	F,E,F(-)(-1)(*,t)=P
10	E,Bc(*),T(s*)=Bds
11	Bds, F, Bc(*), T(a*)(-, t)=Bdo
12	Ad, Bdo, P, Cc, Dc, eps
	(R5R4, sub)=Bdr, Ddr

Cc,Dc(mcp)=Cd,Dds

14 gityp

13

15 110

#### SRDC.SBR

1	Ad, Bd, Cd, Dd, T, eps(SRdc, sbr)
	=Ac,Bcs,Bcr,Cc,Dcs,Dcr
2	nli
3	nty
4	_(DT)==>(CT)_Transformation
	into (SI) and (RI)
5	(Ac, Bcs, Cc, Dcs)=(SI)
	(DT) model
6	(Ac, Bcr, Cc, Dcr)=(RI)
	(DT) model
7	1,6(dzn)(tvc)=
	Ac, Bcs, Bcr, Cc, Des, Dcr
8	T,Ad(lnm,t)=Ac
	1 234 5 6 7 8

- 9 T,Ac(eatf,t)=x,E,F
- 10 F,E,F(-)(-1)(\*,t)=P
- 11 Ad, Bd, P, Cd, Dd, eps
- (R4R5, sub)=Bdo, Dcr
- 12 E, F(-)(-1), Bdo(\*), T(s/, t) =Ber
- 13 E(=1), Bd(\*), T(s/,t)=Bcs
- 14 Cd, Dd(mcp)=Cc, Dcs
- 15 g:typ 16 lis

# BLCD.SBR

1	Ac, Bc, Cc, Dc, T, eps(BLcd, sbr)	
	=Ad, Bd, Cd, Dd	

- 2 nli
- з nty
- 4 (CT)==>(DT) Bilinear Transform into 4 matrix 5
- State space models
- 6 1,4(dzm)(tvc)=Ad,Bd,Cd,Dd
- 7 Ac, Bc, T, 1(Bcdc, sub)= Ad, Bo, B1, P
- 8 Ad, Bo, P, Cc, Dc, eps (R5R4, sub)=Bd, Dd
- 9 Cc(mcp)=Cd
- 10 gityp
- 11 118

### BLDC.SBR

- 1 Ad, Bd, Cd, Dd, T, eps
  - (BLdc, sbr)=Ac, Bc, Cc, bc
- 2 nli з
- nty
- 4 (DT)==>(CT) Bilinear Transformation:
- 5
- 4 term State Space models
- 6 1,4(dan)(tvc)=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc
- 7 Ad, Bd, T, 2(Bcdc, sub)=
- Ac, Bo, B1, P 8
- Ac, Bo, P, Cd, Dd, eps (RSR4, sub)=Bc, Dc
- 9 Cd(mcp)=Cc
- 10 gityp
- 11 110

### EAT.SBR

- ĩ T, Ac, Nrm, N(Eat, sbr)=Ad
- 2 nli
- з nty
- 4 Implemented also by EATP
- operator
- 5 Ad=exp(Ac\*T)
- 6 Nrn satisfies
- ||ACT||/Nrm < r]\_r=2^())
- 7 O(coin)=Ad
- 8 Ac(nrr), T(\*), Nrm(s/)(log), 2
- (log)(s/)(int)(inc,t)=j
- 9 j,2(log)(\*)(exp,t)=r
- 10 T,r(s/,t)=T1
- 11 j,71(out)=
- 12 N(fact, sub)=f
- 13 O(coin), 1(coin), N(inc)
- =(cti)=vc
- 14 f, vc(gts)(t), T1(log)(s\*)
- (exp)(f\*)=C 15
- C,Ac(polr)=Cr 16
- Cr,Ac(pom)=Ad j(ifj)=g,g,C 17
- 18 C: (nop)=
- 19 O(coin)=i
- 20 esi(inc)=i
- Ad, Ad(\*)=Ad 21
- 22 i,j(ifj)=a,q,q
- 23 gr(nop)=
- 24 typ
- 110 26

# EATLSUB

- 1 T, Ac, eps(Eatj, sub)=Ad
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 Implemented by EATF
- operator
- Ad=exp(Ac\*T) only for 4

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

5	_Diagonalizable_Ac
6	Ac(jfr,t)=Hc,Ac)
7	Ac(egv),T(s*)=egcT
8	egcT, 2, eps(efjf)=ExJf
9	Mc, ExJf, Mc(-1)(*)(*,t)=Ad
10	(lis)=
SIC	D.SBR
1	T, Ac, B, Nrm, N(SIcd, abr)=Ad, Bd
2	nli
3	nty
4	Step Invariant
	Discretization
5	exp(Ac,T)==>Ad;
	[Ad, Bd] DT pair
6	I,2(dzm)(tvc)=Ad,8d
7	Ac(cdi)=n
8	n,n(dim)=I
9	Ac(nrr), T(*), Nrm(s/)(log), 2
10	4 2/logitti/evo.tiar
11	7 -10/ -1073
12	4.Tl (out in
13	N(fact, sub)=f
14	O(coin), 1(coin), N(inc)
	(cti)=vc
15	f,vc(gts)(t),Tl(log)
	(s*)(exp)(f*)=C
16	C,T1(s/)=C
17	C(shl),Ac(polr)=Cr
18	Cr, Ac (pom) =E
19	j(1fj)=F,F,C
20	C: (nop)=
21	0(coin)=1
22	e:i(inc)=1
23	Ac,E(*),T1(s*),2(s/),I
24	T1.2(a*)=T1
25	1.4/1/11=0.8.8
26	F: (nop)=
27	Ac.E(*),T1(8*),I(+)=Ad
28	E,B(*),T1(s*)=Bd
29	gityp
30	110

#### RICD.SBR

	T, AC, D, MER, N [MICG, BDT]=
	Ad, Bdo, Bdl
2	nli
3	nty
4	Ramp Invariant
	Discretization
5	exp(Ac*T)==>Ad;
	(Ad, Bdo, Bd1) DT
6	triple in five matrix model
7	1,3(dzm)(tvc)=Ad,Bdo,Bd1
8	Ac(cdi)=n
.9	n,n(dim)=I

10 Ac(nrr), T(\*), Nrm(s/)(log), 2 (log)(s/)(int)(inc,t)=j

```
j,2(log)(*)(exp,t)=r
11
12
     T,r(s/,t)=T1
13
     j,T1(out)=
1.4
     N(fact, sub)=f
     O(coin), 1(coin), N(inc)
15
     (cti)=vc
16
      f, vc(gts)(t),T1(log)(s*)
     (exp)(f*)=C
17
     C, T1(s/)=C
18
      C(shl)(shl),Tl(s/),Ac
     (polr)=Crf
19
     Crf, Ac(pom)=F
20
     j(ifj)=F,F,C
21 C: (nop)=
22
     O(coin)=i
23 e:i(inc)=i
     Ac,F(*),T1(s*),I(+)=AFI
24
     AFI,2(s/)=AFI
25
26
     AFI, AFI(*), F, 2(s/)(+)=F
27
     T1,2(s*)=T1
      1, j(ifj)=0, F, F
28
29 Ft (nop)=
30
     Ac, F(*), T1(s*), I(*)=E
     Ac,E(*),T1(8*),I(+)=Ad
31
      E,B(*),Tl(s*)=Bd
32
33
      F,B(*),Tl(s*)=Bd1
      Bd, Bdl(-)=Bdo
34
35 g:typ
36
     118
```

```
EATF.SBR
```

```
1
    T, Ac, Nrm, N(EATF, sbr)=Ad, E, F
```

```
2
     nli
```

```
3
     nty
```

```
4
     Implemented also by EATF
     operator
```

5 Discretization Ad=exp(Ac\*T)

E and F satisfy: 6

7 AC\*F\*T=E & AC\*E\*T=Ad

1,3(dzm)(tvc)=Ad,E,F 8

9 Ac(cdi)=n

10 n,n(dim)=I

Ac(nrr), T(\*), Nrm(s/)(log),2 11 (log)(s/)(int)(inc,t)=)

j,2(log)(\*)(exp,t)=r T,r(s/,t)=T1 12

13

j, T1(out)= 14

```
15
     N(fact, sub)=f
```

```
16
     O(coin), 1(coin), N(inc)
     (cti)=vc
```

```
17
      f, vc(gts)(t), T1(log)(s*)
     (exp)(f*)=C
```

```
18
     C, T1(s/)=C
```

```
C(shl)(shl),Tl(s/),Ac
19
     (polr)=Crf
```

```
20
     Crf,Ac(pom)=F
```

```
21
     j(ifj)=F,F,C
```

```
22 C: (nop)=
23
```

```
O(coin)=i
24 e:i(inc)=i
```

```
25
     Ac,F(*),T1(s*),I(+)=AFI
```

```
26
     AFI,2(e/)=AFI
27
     AFI, AFI(*), F, 2(#/)(+)=F
     T1,2(s*)=T1
28
29
     1,j(1fj)=e,F,F
30 F: (nop)=
     Ac,F(*),T1(s*),I(+)=8
31
32
     Ac,E(*),T1(s*),I(+)=Ad
33 gityp
34
     110
```

# LNM.SBR

```
1
     T, Ad, Egm, N, eps(Lnm, sbr)=Ac
2
     nli
з
     nty
4
       Implemented also by LNM
      operator
     4
5
      Ac=Ln(Ad)/T
 6
      Eqn satisfies:
      eg[I-Ad*(1/r)] < Egm
 7
     D(coin)=Ac
8
     Ad(cdi)=n
 9
     n,n(dim)=I
     T,Ad(mop)=Tr,Aj
10
11 j:I,Aj(-)=L
12
     L(egv)(rpt),1,1,1,1
     (exm)=enax
13
     enax,Egn(ifj)=z,z,p
14 p:Tr,2(8/)=Tr
15
     Aj,eps(sgm,t)=Aj
16
     (jmp)=j
17 gr(nop)=
18
     T, Tr(s/)=r
19
     r{out}=
20
     N(fln, sub)=f
21
     f,L(polr)=vr
22
     vr,L(pom)=Ac
     Ac, Tr(s/), -1[s*,t)=Ac
23
24 g:typ
25
     lis
```

# LNMJ.SUB

```
1
    T, Ad, eps(Lnmj, sub)=Ac
2
    (nli)=
   Implemented by LNM operator
а
    Ac=Ln(Ad) /T only for
4
5
    Diagonalizable Ad
6
    Ad(jfr,t)=H
7
    Ad(egv,t)=egd
8
    egd, 3, eps(efjf, t)=LnJf
9
    M,LnJf,H(-1)(*)(*),T
```

```
(s/,t)=Ac
```

```
10 (lis)=
```

# POM.SUB

- 1 r,A(pom,sub)=R
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 \_Implemented\_by\_POM\_operator

```
4 _R=r(λ)_polynomial_of
_(n_x_n)_λ
```

5 r(mcp)=p 6 p(cdi)=k A(cdi)=n 7 8 n,n(dim)=I 9 n,n(dzs)=R 10 1:k(dec)=k p,k(ctc)=p,pk 11 12 R,A(\*),I,pk(s\*)(+)=R k(ifj)=j,j,1 13 14 j:(nop)= 15 (lis)=

POLR.SUB 1 p,A(polr,sub)=r 2 (nli)= з Implemented by POLR operator 4 (n-1)-order pol. r(x) and 5 N-order pol. p(x) satisfy 6  $r(\lambda) = p(\lambda)$ Algorithm uses C-N-Theorem 7 8 A(sstf)=f 9 p(mcp)=r A(cdi)=n 10 11 f,n(ctc,t)=f,fn 12 r(cdi)=N 13 1:N(dec)=N 14 r,N(ctc,t)=r,rN 15 N,n(-)=n 16 1,n(dzm),f,rN(#\*)(cti,t)=x 17 r,x(-,t)=r m(ifj)=j,j,i 18 19 j: (nop)= 20 (118)=

# FACT.SUB

```
n(fact, sub)=f
1
     (nli)=
2
      Generates f={fi}, i=[o,n]
з
    -fi=1/11
4
 5
    I(coin)=one
 6
     n(coin)=N
     one, one, N(cti)=v
 7
 ß
     v(gts)(t)=v
 9
     v(mcp)=fa
10
     1,n(step)=st
11
     O(coin)=i
12 I:i(inc)=i
     v,N,i(-)(ctc,t)=vl,x
13
14
     st, i(ctc, t)=onev, x
     fa,onev,vl(cti)(f*,t)=fa
15
     i,n(ifj)=I,j,j
16
17 j:(nop)=
     st, fa(f/,t)=os
18
19
     one, ss(cti,e)=f
20
     (lis)=
```

# FLN.SUB

```
1 N(fln,sub)=f
```

2	(nli	):	٤.
_			

- 3 O(coin)=s 4
- z,z(inc),N(inc)(cti)=v 5
- 1,N(inc)(step),v(gts)(t) (f/,t)=f
- 6
- (lis)=

#### BCDC.SUB

- A4, B4, T, icdc (Bodc, sub)= 1 A5,850,851,P
- 2 (nli) =
- з Bilinear Transformation:
- 4 For\_icdc=1; 4 term (CT) (A4,B4) ==> 5 term (DT) \_{AS, BSO, B51, P} 5
- For icdc=2; 4 term (DT) (A4,B4) ==> 5 term (CT) (A5, B50, B51, P)
- 6 A4(cdi)=n 7
- n,n(dim)=I 8
- 2(coin),T(s/,t)=a ö icdc,1(ifj)=c,c,d
- 10 c: (nop)=
- 11 I,a(8\*)=Ia
- 12 Is, A4(-)(-1)=IAin
- 13 IAin, Ia, A4(+) (\*), IAin, B4 (\*)(mcp,t)=A5,B50
- 14 B50, I (ncp)=B51, P
- 15 (jmp)=f
- 16 d: (nop)=
- 17 A4, I(+)(-1)=AIin
- 18 Alin,a(s\*),A4,I(-)(\*),Alin, B4(\*),-1(s\*)(mcp,t)=A5,B51

. .

- 19 B51,a(s\*),-1(s\*),I,a (s/),-1(s\*)(mcp,t)=B5o,P
- 20 f;(lis)=

#### R5R4.SUB

```
1
      A, Bo, P, C, D, eps(r5r4, sub)
      =Be,De
```

```
2
     (nli)=
3
```

- 5 matrix model ==> 4 matrix model
- 4 A(cdi),Bo(cdi),C(rdi)(mcp) =n, m, k
- 5 n,n(dim)=I
- б A, I, C(mtf, t)=f, V
- 7 V(alt)=Vm,x
- 8 Vm,eps(nrs)=N,R,r 9
- I(mcp)=InN

```
10
     r,n(ifj)=s,n,n
```

- 11 s:(nop)= 12
- I,N,N(t),N(\*)(-1),N(t) (\*)(\*)(-)=InN

```
13 n: (nop) =
```

14 InN, I, A, P(\*)(+), Bo(\*)(\*)=Be

- 15 C,P,Bo(\*)(\*),D(+)=De
- 16 (lis)=

#### R4R5.SUB

- 1 A, Be, P, C, De, eps(r4r5, sub) =Bon, Dn
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 4 matrix model ==> 5 matrix model
- 4 A(cdi),Be(cdi),C(rdi)(mcp) =n, m, k
- 5 n,n(dim)=I
- A, I, C(mtf, t)=f, V 6
- 7 V(alt)=Vm,x
- Ĥ Vn,eps(nrs)=N,R,r
- 9 I(mcp)=InN
- 10 r,n(ifj)=0,n,n
- 11 s:(nop)=
- 12 I,N,N(t),N(\*)(-1),N(t) (\*)(\*)(-)=InN
- 13 n: (nop)=
- 14 InN, I, A, P(\*) (+) (-1) (\*), Be (\*)=Bon
- 15 De,C,P,Bon(\*)(\*)(-)=Dn
- 16 (lis)=

#### SOM.SUB

- 1 A, eps(sqm, sub)=X
- 2 (nli) =
- \_Implemented by SQN operator â
- à X satisfies X\*X=A
- 5 A(cdi)=n
- Ē, n,n(dim)=I
- 7 I(mcp)=X
- B 20(coin)=im
- 9 O(coin)=i
- 10 i:L(inc)=i 11 1, im(ifj)=c, j, j
- 12 c:(nop)=
- 13 X,A,X(-1)(\*)(+),2(s/,t)=Xn
- 14 X, Xn(-)(nrr)=del
- 15 Xn(mcp)=X
- 16 del,eps(ifj)=j,j,i
- 17 j:(lis)=

# CHAPTER 3

#### STR.SUB

- 1 A, B, C, T(str, sub)=At, Bt, Ct
- ž (nli)=
- з
- Similarity Transformation Implemented by operator STR T(-1), A, T(\*)(\*) = At 4
- 5 6
- T(-1),B(\*)=Bt 7 C, T(\*)=Ct
- 良
  - (116)=

### Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

#### SMAT.SUB

- 1 Ind(SMat, sub)= nx, Sa, Si, Sli, Sld
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 PCI or POI ==> Selector Ratrices
- 4 Ind(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
- 5 va(dsm), vi(dsm)(ncp)=Sa, Si
- 6 vli(dam), vld(dam)(mcp)
- =\$11,81d 7 (110)=

## IND.SUB

1	Q,m,cut,eps(Ind,sub)=Ind
- G	Dank Contra Tadiana Tad
1	gans contr, Indicas Ind
2	m g of inputs
- 2	_cut_usually_= 0
6	Dets indices of Ind. cols
7	in 0 ==> vlit
8	Eliminates the first
÷.	"cut" unition and vii
9	Then Vli ==> Ind
10	Q,eps[rkc]=x, v, vlit
11	vit aux, sel, vector
12	vii sel, vector
13	vlit.cut(ctc)=x.vli
14	vli(cdi).m(s/.t)=k
15	1 bishant all bishetitt
+-	ATRIBCOPT, VII, K(VCH)(E)
	( C)-And

# C#.SUB

[ \*\*\*).

- A(Cf, sub)=Adeg 1 2 (nli)= Adeg=Min(sing. val.) / Hax(sing. val.) of A Adeg = Admissibility degree = 1/Cond.# з 4
- A(rdi), A(cdi) (mcp)=n,m 5 6
- n,m(ifj)=s,f,f 7 s:A(t)(svd)=w
- 8 (jmp)=F
- 9 f:A(svd)=w
- 10 F:w(cdi)=nc
- 11 w,1,nc,1,1(exm),w,1(ctc) (s/,e)=Adeg
- 12 Adeg(out,e)=
- 13 (lis)=

# CIND.SUB

- vli,m(cind,sub)=Ind 1
- 2 (nli)=
- à
- Sel. vector vli ==> Ind Ind = PCI or POI 4
- 5 m = # of inputs/outputs

- 6 vli(cdi),m(s/,t)=n
- 7 1,n(step),vli,n(vtm)(t)
- (\*,t)=Ind 8
- (lis)=

#### CFPP.SBR

- 1 A, B, eps(CFpp, sbr)=Tc, Ind
- 2 nli з
- nty 4 Te = Sim. Tr. into
- Feedback C Form
- 5 Ind = Unique CI
- I,2(dam)(tvc)=Tc,Ind 6
- 7 A(cdi),B(cdi)(mcp)=n,m
- 8 A,B(gc)=Qc
- 9 Qc,eps(rkc)=Qc1,x,vli
- 10 By substituting CIND.SUB
- With its code, CFPP may be converted into SUB 11
- vli,m(cind, sub)=Ind 12
- 13 Ind(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
- 14 A, B, nx(inc)(qc)=Qc 15 vli(dam), vld(dam)(mcp)=
- \$11,81d 16 Qc, S11(\*)=gc1
- 17 Qc1(-1)=Qcr1
- 18 Qcri,n,m(-)(ctr)=x,Pco
- 19 va(dam)(t),Qcri(\*,t)=Pc
- 20 A, Pc(Qo)=Tt
- 21 Tt, eps(rkr, t) =Tc, x, ro
- 22 gityp 23 118

#### CFNS.SBR

- 1 A, B, eps (CFns, sbr)=Tc, Ind
- 2 nli
- 3 nty
- 4 To = Sim. Tr. into Feedback C Form
- 5 Ind = Unique CI
- 6 Using Null space approach
- 7 1,2(dan)(tvc)=Tc,Ind
- 8 A(cdi),B(cdi)(mcp)=n,m
- 9 A, B(qc)=Qc
- 10 Qc,eps(rkc)=Qcl,y,vli
- 11 vli,m(cind, sub)=Ind
- 12 Ind(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld 13 0,n(dzm),l,n(step),va(dsn) (t),0(coin) (mcp) =rows, onv, Sat, 1
- 14 i:i(inc)=i
- 15 Sat,1(ctr)=si,Sat
- 16 Qcl,onv,si(-)(dsm)(\*,t)=Hi
- 17 Qcl,si(t)(\*,t)=qi
- 18 Ni(t), eps(nrs)(t), gi(\*,t) -ali
- 19 Mi(t),eps(nrs)(t,t)=ti
- 20 ti,ti,qi(\*)(s/,t)=t1
- 21 rows,ti(rti,t)=rows

# 364

22 1,m(1fj)=1,j,j 23 j:(nop)= 24 A, rows (go)=Qo 25 Qo,eps(rkr)=Tc 26 gityp 27 115

### SECTION 4.1

#### SSRO.SUB

1	A, B, C, D, no, eps(SSRo, sub)
	=Ao, Bo, Co, Do, Deg
2	(HIL)=
3	Geni ss ==> Por babed on no
2	D(mop)=D0
	no(pol,c)
	=nn,nx,va,v1,v11,v10
	eps, eps, eps, eps(mcp)
	-A0, 80, C0, Deg
	no(mcp)==
	A(cdi)=n
. 9	n,nn(11)=n,e,n
10	n:n,=(out)=
11	_POI_no_not_compatible with A
12	(jmp)=0
13	e: (nop)=
14	o:A,B,C(mcp)=Ao,Bo,Co
15	Ao, Co, nx(inc)(go)=Qo
16	vli(dsm)(t),Qo(*,t)=T
17	T(avd)=w
18	w,n(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
19	wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Deg
20	Deg(out,e)=
21	Deg.eps(ifj)=x,x,w
22	x:Deg(out,e)=
23	-(out)=
24	POI not admissible
25	O=Tanti
26	w: (nop)=
27	Ao, Bo, Co, T(=1) (str.t)
	=Ao, Bo, Co
28	O: (nop)=
29	(lim)=
	and march
SS	RC SUB

1	A, B, C, D, no, eps(SSRc, sub)
	=Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,Deg
2	(nli)=
3	Gen1 SS ==> PCF based on nc
4	D(nop)=Dc
5	nc(poi,t)
	=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
6	eps, eps, eps, eps(mcp)
	=Ac, Bc, Cc, Deg
7	nc(ncp)=-

- A(cdi)=n я
- 9 n,nn(ifj)=n,e,n

- 10 n:n,-(out)=
- 11 PCI no not compatible
- with A 12 (imp)=0
- 13 er(nop)=
- 14 c:A,B,C(t)=Ac,Cc,Bc 15
- Ac,Cc,nx(inc)(go)=Qo 16 vli(dsm)(t),Qo(\*,t)=T
- 17 T(svd)=w
- 18 w,n(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
- 19 wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Deg
- 20 Deg(out,e)=
- 21 Deg,eps(ifj)=x,x,w
- 22 x:Deg(out,e)=
- -(out)= 23
- PCI not admissible 24
- (jmp)=0 25
- 26 w: (nop)=
- 27 Ac, Bc, Cc, T(-1) (str, t) =Ac, Bc, Cc
- 28 C:Ac,Bc,Cc(t)=Ac,Cc,Bc
- 29 O: (nop)=
- 30 (118)=

#### SSH.SUB

- 1 A, B, C, D, M(SSH, sub)=H, hM
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 General SS ==> Markov -
- parameters H in PMF 4
- 5 B(cdi)=m
- 6 D,C,A,B,H(dec)(qc)(\*)(cti)=H
- H,m,H(dec)(\*)(ctc)=x,hM 7
- 務 hM(nrr,e)=hM
- 9 H,m(pmfr)=H
- 10 (115)=

#### RODN.SUB

- 1 Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no (RoDN, sub) =D1,N1
- (nli)= 2
- 3 POF --> Left coprime MFD (D1,N1)
- 4 Ac(cdi), Bo(cdi), Co(rdi) (mcp) \*n, n, p
- 5 Ao, Bo, Co, Do(mtf)=do, Wo
- 6 Wo(alt)=Nc,Wr
- 7 no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld 8 va(dem),vi(dem),vli(den),
  - vld(dsm)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
- Sa(t), Ao(\*,t)=Ar 9 10
  - Sld(t), Ar, Sll(t)(\*)(-,t)=Dr
- 11 Dr,p(pmfr)=D1
- 12 D1(p-1)=D11,det
- 13 det(elz)(pnr,t)=x,dnn
- 14 det(elz)=det
- 15 det(pnr)=x,dnn
- 16 Dli,dnn(s/)=Dli
- 17 Dli(alt)=Dic,x 18
  - Dic, p, nx(inc), 1(Toep), n
    - (inc),p(\*)(ctr,t)=Dmt

### 366

19	Dat, We (	ale,t	-Ncc

```
20 Nec,p(pmfc)=N1
```

21 (lis)=

#### RCND.SUB

```
3 _PCP ==> Right_coprime_MFD
_(Nr,Dr)
```

```
4 Bc(cdl),Cc(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
```

```
5 Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc(mtf,t)=dc,Wc
```

```
6 We(alt)=Wel,Wr
7 ne(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
```

```
8 va(dsm),vi(dsm),vli(dsm),
vld(dsm)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
```

```
9 Ac,Sa(*,t)=Acl
10 Sld,Sli,Acl(*)(-,t)=Drc
```

```
11 Drc,m(pmfc,t)=Dr
```

```
12 Dr(p-1)=Dri,det
```

```
13 det(elz)(pnr,t)=x,dnn
```

```
14 det(elz)=det
```

```
15 det(pnr)=x,dnn
```

```
16 Dri,dnn(s/)=Dri
```

```
17 Dri(alt)=x,Dri
18 Dri(t).m.ns(in
```

```
18 Dri(t), m, nx(inc), 1(Toep)
(t), n(inc), m(*)(ctc, t)=Dnt
```

```
19 Dmt(t), Wr(t) (sle) (t,t)=Nr
```

```
20 Nr,m(pnfr,t)=Nr
```

```
21 (lis)=
```

# SECTION 4.2

# TFRO.SBR

```
1
     d, W, eps, nos(TFRo, abr)
     =Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no, Cond
 2
     nli
 3
     nty
 4
      TF (d,W) ==> POF Ro
      based on no
 5
     1,6(dzm)(tvc)
     =ho,Bo,Co,Do,no,Cond
 6
      nos,1(coin),0(coin)(mcp)
     =no,k,giv
 7
     giv(mcp)=nx
 8
     W(alt)=x,Nrr
 9
     Nrr(rdi),x(cdi)(mcp)=p,m
10
     d,m(dpm,sub)=Dr
11
     Dr(alt)=x,Drr
12
    O(coin),O(coin)(mcp)=Ind,nol
     no(cdi),1(ifj)=N,N,G
13
14 G:1(dma)=giv
15
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16
     ns(inc)=k
17
      Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
     m,k,1(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DNrt
18
      (jmp)=x
```

```
19 N: (nop)=
```

# Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

```
20 k:k(inc)=k
21
     k,n(*)=km
22
      Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
     m,k,1(Toap),-1(s*)(cti)=DNrt
23
     DNrt,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
24
     n, km(-,t)=n
25
     k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
26
     n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
27
     inno(out,t,0)=
28
     del(ifj)=X,K,k
29
   K: (nop)=
30
     k,nx(inc)(if))=k,w,w
31
   w: (nop)=
32
     n,p(cti)=np
33
      Ind,1(ifj)=a,d,x
34
   a:(nop)=
35
      DNrt,p,k,m(*),epe(Ind,sub)
      =no
36
      1(coin)=Ind
37
      (jmp)=C
38
   d:(nop)=
39
      np,no(out,t,0)=
40
      1,p(inpm)=no
41
   C:(nop)=
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
42
43
      nn,n(ifj)=d,o,d
44
   o:(nop)=
45
      Ind(inc)=Ind
46
      k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
47
   x:(nop)=
      1,k,p(*)(dzm)=zv
48
49
       zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+)(mcp)
      =vli,vld
50
      k,n(*)=kn
      1,km(step),vli(cti)=vli
51
52
      1, km(dsm), vld(cti)=vld
53
      vli(dsm), vld(dsm)(mcp)
      =Sli,Sld
54
    DNrt,Sll(*),DNrt,Sld(*)(mcp)
      =H1,H2
55
      H1(svd)=w
56
      w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
57
      wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
58
      no(out,t,0)=
50
      Cond(out,e)=
60
      giv(ifj)=t,t,J
61
   t:(nop)=
       For_different_POI;
62
       Enter_j,d(dch)=ch1
63
      Otherwise_Enter;_c(dch)=ch2
64
      ch1(tch)=
65
      ch2(tch) =
66
      (sto)=
67
   J: (nop)=
68
      H1, H2(sle)(t), -1(s*,t)=ND1
69
      ND1, km(ctc,t)=Nlr,Dlr
70
      no(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
71
       va(dam), vi(dam), vli(dam),
      vld(dem)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
72
      n,n(dim),p(ctr)=Co,A2
73
      $1,A2(*),Sa,D1r(*)(-,t)=Ao
 74
      Nlr, m(r2c)=Nc
```

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

```
75 Ao,Sa,nx{inc}{Qc},Nc(*,t)=Bc
76 d,p(dpm,sub)=Dr
77 Nrr,m,d{cdi}(dec){*}{ctc}
=x,Do
78 g:typ
79 lia
```

#### TFRC.SBR

1	d, W, eps, ncs (TFRc, abr) =Ac, Bc, Cc, Dc, nc, Cond
2	nli
ā	nty
4	TF (d.W) ==> PCF RC
10	based on no
	J. 6(drat(Fyc)
÷.	The Ba Co Do no Cond
-	nes l(coin) D(coin)(mon)
	nea, r(corn), o(corn) (mep)
-	-nc, k, giv
1	div(mcb)=ux
8	W(alt)=NC,X
	wc(cdi),x(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
10	d,p(dpm,sub)=D1
11	D1(alt)=Dc
12	giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
13	nc(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
14	G:1(dma)=giv
15	nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16	nx(inc)=k
17	Dc.p.k.1(Toep),Nc.p.k.1
50.	(Toep),-l(s*)(cti)=DN1
18	(fmp)=x
19	ktk/inclek
20	k.n/siekn
21	Do n k liftoeni No n k l
**	(map) - T(at) (at ) p[0]
22	(IGep),-I(s-)(cci)-bai
6.6	bar, eps(nrs)-w, x, n
63	n, Kp(-, c)=n
29	K(dec), n, nol(ctl)=1nno
25	n,nol(-),n(ncp)=del,nol
26	inno(out,t,0)=
27	del(ifj)=K,K,k
28	K1 (nop) =
29	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
30	w: (nop)=
31	n,m(cti)=nm
32	Ind,1(ifj)=a,d,x
33	a: (nop)=
34	DN1,m,k,p(*),eps(Ind,sub)=nc
35	1(coin)=Ind
36	(100)=C
37	d: (non)=
38	on nc(out.t.0)=
19	1.m/inmbrog
40	Tig(Tubu)-uc
40	ci(nop)=
11	ne(por)=nn,nx,va,v1,v11,v10
92	nn,n(11))=d,0,d
43	ol (nop)=
44	ind(inc)=ind
45	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
46	xt(nop)=
47	k,p(*)=kp

```
48
     1.k.m(*)(dzm)=zv
49
      zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+) (mcp)
     =vli,vld
50
     1, kp(step), vli(cti)=vli
51
     1, kp(dzm), vld(cti)=vld
52
     vli(dsm), vld(dsm)(mcp)
     =$11,$1d
53
      DN1,Sli(*),DN1,Sld(*)(mcp)
     -H1.H2
54
     H1(svd)=w
     w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
55
56
     wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
57
     nc(out,t,0)=
58
     Cond(out,e)=
59
     giv(ifj)=t,t,J
60 t: (nop)=
61
       For different PCI
      Enter_j,d(dch)=ch1
62
     Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
63
     chl(tch)=
64
     ch2(tch)=
     (sto)=
65
66 J: (nop)=
67
     H1,H2(sle),-1(s*,t)=NDr
     NDr, kp(ctr)=Ncc, Dcc
68
69
     nc(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
70
      va(dom), vi(dom), vli(dom),
     vld(dsn)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
71
     n,n(dim),m(ctc)=Bc,A2
72
      A2,S1(t)(*),Dcc,Sa(t)(*)
      (-,t)=Ac
73
     Nec.p(c2r)=Nr
      Nr, Ac, Sa(t), nx(inc) (Qo)
74
      (*,t)=Cc
     d,m(dpm,sub)=D1
75
76
      Nc,p,d(cdi)(dec)(*)(ctr)
     =x,Dc
77 gityp
78
     lis
TRON.SBR
 1
     d, W(Tron, sbr)=Ao, Bo, Co
 2
     nli
 з
     nty
 4
      Strictly proper MIMO
 Transfer function W(z)/d(z) ==>
        Observable uncontr. Ro
 6
 7
      1,3(dzn)(tvc)=Ao,Bo,Co
 B
       d(cdi)(dec),W(ninp),W(rdi)
      (mcp)=n,m,pm
 ø
      pm,m(s/)=p
10
      1,p(step),m(dec),p(dzm)
      (rti)(ntv,t)=s
11
      m,p(*),O(dzm)=St
 12
      O(coin)=1
 13
   i:i(inc)=i
 14
      St,s(dsm)(cti,t)=St
```

```
15 s(shr)=s
```

```
16 1,m(ifj)=1,j,j
```

```
17 j:(nop)=
```

```
18
     st,W(*,t)=SW
19
     SW, m(c2r)(t,t)=Bo
20
     d,d(ccf,sub)=ac,bc,x,y
21
     n,m(*),n,p(*)(mcp)=nm,np
22
      nm, nm(dzm), np, np(dzm) (mcp)
     =Ac, Ac
23
      nm,m(dzm),p,np(dzm)(ncp)
     =Bc,Co
24
     1(coin)=io
25
     O(coin)=1
26 ati(inc)=i
27
     Ao, ac(t), io, io(rmp, t)=Ao
28
     Co,bc(t),i,io(rsp,t)=Co
29
     io, n(+)=io
30
     i,p(ifj)=a,b,b
31 b: (nop)=
32 gityp
33
     115
```

```
TRCN.SBR
```

```
d,W(TRen, sbr)=Ac,Bc,Co
 1
 2
     n11
 3
     nty
     Strictly proper MINO
 4
         ĸ
Transfer_function_W(z)/d(z)_==>
6 __Controllable_Unobs._Rc
     1,3(dam)(tvc)=Ac,Bc,Cc
 7
 8
      d(cdi)(dec),W(ninp),W
      (rdi) (mop)=n, m, pm
 9
     pm,m(s/)=p
10
     d,d(ccf,sub)=ac,bc,x,y
11
     W,p(c2r,t)=Cc
12
     n,m(*),n,p(*)(mcp)=nm,np
13
      nm, nm(dzm), np, np(dzm)(ncp)
      =Ac, No
14
      nm, m(dzm), p, np(dzm) (mcp)
     =Bc,Co
15
     l(coin)=ic
16
     O(coin)=i
17 I:i(inc)=1
     Ac, ac, ic, ic(rmp, t)=Ac
18
19
      Bc,bc,ic,i(rmp,t)=Bc
20
      ic,n(+)=ic
21
      1,n(1fj)=1,J,J
22 J:(nop)=
23 gityp
24
      110
```

#### TFDN.SBR

```
1 d,W,eps,nos(TFDN,sbr)
=D1,N1,no,Cond
2 nli
3 nty
4 TF (d,W) ==> Left coprime
HFD (D1,N1) based on no
5 I,4(dzm)(tvc]=D1,NI,no,Cond
6 nos,1(coin),0(coin)(mcp)
```

```
=no,k,giv
```

```
7 W(alt)=x,Nrr
```

```
8
     giv(mcp)=nx
q
     Nrr(rdi),x(cdi)(ncp)=p,m
10
     d,m(dpm,sub)=Dr
11
     Dr(alt)=x,Drr
12
     giv, giv(ncp)=Ind, nol
13
     no(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
14
  G:1(dma)=giv
15
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16
     nx(inc)=k
17
      Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
     m,k,1(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DNrt
18
     (1np)=x
19
   krk(inc)=k
20
     k,m(*)=kn
21
      Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
     m,k,1(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DNrt
22
     DNrt, eps(nrs)=w, x, n
23
     n, km(-,t)=n
     k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
24
25
     n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
26
     inno(out,t,0)=
27
     del(ifj)=K,K,k
28 K: (nop)=
29
     k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
30
   w: (nop)=
31
     n,p(cti)=np
32
     Ind, l(ifj)=a, d, x
33
  a: (nop)=
34
      DNrt,p,k,m(*),eps(Ind,sub)
     =0.0
35
     l(coin)=Ind
36
      (jmp)=C
37
   d:(nop)=
38
     np,no(out,t,0)=
39
     l,p(inpm)=no
40
  C: (nop)=
41
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
42
     nn,n(ifi)=d,o,d
43
   o: (nop)=
44
     Ind(inc)=Ind
45
     k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
46
   x: (nop)=
     k, m(*)=km
47
48
     1, k, p(*) (dzm)=zv
49
      zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+) (mop)
     =vli,vld
50
      l, km(step), vli(cti)=vli
     1, km(dzm), vld(cti)=vld
51
52
      vli(dsm), vld(dsm) (mcp)
     =Sli,Sld
53
    DNrt,Sli(*),DNrt,Sld(*)(mcp)
     -H1,H2
54
     H1(avd)=w
     w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
55
56
     wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
57
     no(out,t,0)=
58
     Cond(out,e)=
59
     giv(ifj)=t,t,J
60 t: (nop)=
       For different POI
61
       Enter j,d(dch)=ch1
     Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
62
```

63	ch1(tch1=	
0.5	curteen!-	
64	ch2(tch)=	
65	(sto)=	
66	J: (nop)=	
67	H1,H2(sle)(t),-1(s*,t)=ND1	
68	ND1, km(ctc,t)=N1r,D1r	
69	vli, km(ctc)=x, vlii	
70	vld, km(ctc)=x, vldd	
71	Dlr,vlii(dsm)(t)(*),vldd	
	(dsm)(t)(+,t)=D1r	
72	Dlr,p(pmfr)=D1	
73	Nlr,m(pmfr)=N1	

- 74 gityp
- 115 75

#### TEND.SBR

1	d, H, eps, ncs (TFND, sbr)
2	nli
3	nty
4	TF (d,W) ==> Right coprime MFD (Nr,Dr) based on nC
5	1.4(dam) (tvc)=Nr.Dr.nc, Cond
6	ncs,l(coin),O(coin)(mcp)
100	*nc,k,giv
7	giv(ncp)=nx
8	W(alt)=Nc.x
9	Nc(cdi),x(rdi)(ncp)=n,p
10	d.p(dpm,sub)=D1
11	D1(alt)=Dc
12	giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
13	nc(cdi),l(ifi)=k,k,G
14	G:1(dma)=giv
15	nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16	nx(inc)=k
17	Dc,p,k,1(Toep),Nc,p,k,1
	(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DN1
18	(jmp)=x
19	k:k(inc)=k
20	k,p(*)=kp
21	Dc,p,k,1(Toep),Nc,p,k,1
	(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DN1
22	DN1,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
23	n, kp(-,t)=n
24	k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
25	n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
26	inno(out,t,0)=
27	del(ifj)=K,K,k
28	K: (nop)=
29	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
30	w: (nop)=
31	n,n(cti)=nm
32	Ind,l(ifj)=a,d,x
33	a:(nop)=
34	DN1, m, k, p(*), eps[Ind, sub]=nc
35	1(coin)=Ind
36	(jmp)=C
37	d: (nop)=
30	nn,nc(out,t,0)=
39	1,m(inpm)=nc
40	C: (nop)=

41	nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
42	nn,n(ifj)=d,o,d
43	o: (nop)=
44	Ind(inc)=Ind
45	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
46	x: (nop) =
47	k,p(*)=kp
48	1,k,m(*) (dzm)=zv
49	zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+) (mop)
= 0	1 kp(star) wij(stilew]i
50	1, xp(step), vii(cti)=vii
21	1, Kp(dim), Vid(CC1)=Vid
34	vii(dum), vid(dum) (nep)
	-DILIDIG DEL DEL ELd(a) (mon)
	-mi mo
= 4	H1 ( and ) and
54	Hardi (dec) (stoles, up
22	w/w(cdi)(dwc)(ctc)-k/an
50	wit,w/1(000)(e/)-cond
50	Cond(out a)=
50	cond(outre)-
60	grv(rr))=c,c,d
61	For different BCT
	Fater & dideblachT
5.2	Otherwise Enter: c/dch)=ch2
63	
6.4	ch2/tohta
65	(atola
66	Tulacola
67	HI H2(min) -1(mt t)=Mhr
60	Whe bolete tieNes has
60	wid bo(staley widd
20	vid knisteine widd
71	whitedant Beers) widdidant
	viii(use), pool-), viu(use)
70	Dec m/mfc)=Dr
73	Noc pingentej-br
7.4	attun
12	4.478

#### CDTR.SBR

```
1
    d,W,u,T{cdtr,sbr}=y
2
    nli
```

```
3
     nty
```

```
_(CD)_or_(DT)_TF_response
=>>y
For_D-T_response;_T=0
4
```

```
5
```

```
6
    O(coin)=y
7
```

```
d,W(EXD, sub)=Wsp,D
```

```
8
    T(ifj)=d,d,c
```

```
9 d: (nop)=
10
```

```
D-T_response
d,Wsp,u(t)(rdt)(t)=y
11
```

```
y,D,u(*)(+,t)=y
(jmp)=q
12
```

```
13
```

```
14 c:(nop)=
```

```
15
```

```
C-T response
N= 7 of points in u
should satisfy N >
16
17
```

```
T_*_pole-max
```
## 370

```
18
     d, Wsp, u(t), T(rct)=y
19
     y(t),D,u(*)(+)=y
20 q:(nop)=
21
     typ
22
     110
```

#### TFH.SBR

1	d,W,L(TFH,sbr)=H,hL
2	nli
3	nty
4	TF (d,W) ==> Markov
	parameters N
5	1,2(dzm)(tvc)=H,hL
6	W(alt)=n,Wr
7	d(cdi)(dec),m(cdi),Wr(rdi)
	(mcp)=n,m,p
8	m,n(inc)(ImL,sub)=InL
9	Wr, InL(*,t)=Wr
10	d,n(ctc),-1(s*),1(coin)
	(cti,t)=dn
11	dn,m(dpm,sub)=D
12	D(alt),m,L,l(Toep)=D
13	D,n,n(*)(ctr)=x,D
14	p,L,m(*)(dzm),Wr,1,1
	(rmp,t)=H
15	1(coin)=id
16	O(coin)=i
17	isi(inc)=1
18	D,1,id,L,m(*),m(exm)=Di
19	H,Di(*,t)=Hni
20	H,Hni,1,id(rmp,t)=H
21	id,m(+)=id
22	i,L(ifj)=1,j,j
23	j:(nop)=
24	H,L(dec),m(*)(ctc)=x,hL
25	hL(nrr)=hL
26	H,m(pmfr,t)=H
27	g:typ
28	lis

#### GETD.SUB

1	A, B, C(getd, sub)=n, m, p	
	(elile	

```
3
      {A, B, C} ==> {n, m, p}
```

```
Dimensions
4
```

```
5
    A(cdi),B(cdi),C(rdi)(mcp)
```

```
=n,m,p
6
    (lis)=
```

#### DPM.SUB

```
1
    p,m(dpm,sub)=P
```

```
2
     (nli)=
```

```
P(z)=diag(p(z))
3
```

```
4
```

```
_Pis in PMP

P(t),m,m(dim)(mtv)(*,t)=P
5
```

```
6
    P(t),m(cmp)=P
```

```
7
     (lis)=
```

#### Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

#### IML.SUB

- 1 m,L(ImL, sub)=ImL
- 2 (nli)= InL="Inverted" diag{ In } 3
- L-times A m(coin),L(coin)(ncp)=N,d
- 5 M,d(\*),M(dim),M,d,-2
- (Toep), H, d(\*)(ctr,t)=InL 6 (lis)=

# CCF.SUB

- 1 den, num(ccf, sub)=A, b, c, d
- 2 (nli) =
- SISO Transfer Function з num(z)/den(z)
- ==> State space model (A,b,c,d) 4 -
- 5 den(cdi)(dec)=n
- 6 num(cdi)=nn
- 7 1(dec)=d
- 8 den.n(ctc)=d1
- 9 num(mop)=n1
- 10 n,nn(ifj)=d,a,a
- 11 dinum, n(ctc,t)=n1,d
- nl,dl,d(s\*),-l(s\*)(p+,t)=nl 12
- 13 a:n(dec),n(dim)(shr),d1,-1 (8\*)(rti,t)=A
- 14 n,1(dzm),0(inc),n,1(rmp)=b
- 15 l,n(dzm),nl(rmp)=c
- 16 (113)=

### EXD.SUB

- 1 d,GD(exD,sub)=G,D
- 2 (nli)=
- \_GD(z)/d(z) ==> 3
- [G(z)/d(z)+D)
- Extracts\_strictly\_proper 4
- and matrix D 5
- 6 GD(rdi)=pm
  - 7 pm,1(ifj)=a,a,c
- 8 a:GD,1(cmp)=GD
- 9 c: (nop)=
- 10 OD(ninp,t)=m
- 11 d(cdi)(dec,t)=n1
- 12 GD(rdi),nl(inc)(dzm),m
- (cmp),GD(pma),n1(ctc,t)=G,D d(t), n1(ctr), m, m(dim) (mtv) 13
- (\*,t)=d1p
- dlp(t),m(cmp)=dlp 14
- 15 D,m(cmp),d1p(pmn),=1(s\*),G,
- n(cmp)(pma,t)=G
- 16 D(t),m(vtm,t)=D
- 17 (lis)=

#### EXD.SBR

- 1 d,GD(exD,sbr)=G,D
  - 2 nli
  - 3 nty

4	GD(z)/d(z) ==>
	[G(z)/d(z)+D]
5	Extracts strictly proper
	part of G(z)
6	and matrix D
7	I,2(dzm)(tvc)=G,D
8	GD(rdi)=pm
9	pm,1(ifj)=a,a,c
10	a:GD, 1(cmp)=GD
11	c: (nop)=
12	GD(ninp,t)=m
13	d(cdi)(dec,t)=n1
14	GD(rdi), nl(inc)(dzm),m
	(cmp),GD(pma),nl(ctc,t)=G,D
15	d,nl(ctc),m(dpm,sub)=dlp
16	D,m(cmp),dlp(pmm),-1
	(s*),G,m(cmp)(pma,t)=G
17	D(t),m(vtm,t)=D
18	gityp
19	115

#### FGD.SBR

1	d,G,D(fgd,sbr)=GD
2	nli
3	nty
4	G(z)/d(z)+D ==> GD(z)/d(z)
5	G(z) and D
6	0(coin)=GD
7	G(ninp,t)=m
8	d,m(dpm,sub)=dp
.9	G,D(mtv)(t),m(cmp),dp
	(pmm) (pma,t)=GD

10 qityp lis 11

#### GEDO.SUB

1	Ao, Bo, Co, D, N, eps
	(GeDo, sub)=Do
2	(nli)=
3	Generate Do=D(s)*(-1)*N(s)-
4	-Co*(Is-Ao)*(-1)*Bo
	for s=either
5	s=0 or s=/= system pole
6	Ao(rdi), Co(rdi), N(alt) (mcp)
	=n,p,Nc
7	D(alt)=x,Dr
8	Ao(egv)=eg
9	eg,n,1,1,1(exm)(abs)=em
10	en,eps(ifj)=s,s,q
11	s:eq(rpt), 1, 1, 1, 1 (exm)
	(inc,t)=s
12	s,s,s(-)(cti)=sc
13	D, sc(gs)=Ds
14	N, sc(ge)=Ns
15	Ao,n,n(dim),s(s*)(-)(-1)=Aoi
16	Co, Aoi, Bo(*)(*), Ds(-1), Ns
	(*)(+,t)=Do
17	(jmp)=f
18	g: (nop)=

```
19 Co, Ao(-1), Bo(*)(*), Dr, p(ctc)
    (-1), Nc, p(ctr)(*)(*,t)=Do
```

```
20 f:(nop)=
```

```
(110)=
21
```

#### GEDC.SUB

```
1
     Ac, Bc, Cc, N, D, eps
```

```
(GeDc, sub)=Dc
```

```
2
     (nli)=
```

```
з
   Generate Dc=N(s)*D(s)^(-1)-
```

```
-Cc*(Is-Ac)^(-1)*Bc
4
```

```
for s=either
```

```
5
     s=0 or s=/= system pole
```

```
Ac(cdi), Bc(cdi), D(alt)
6
```

```
(mcp)=n,m,Dc
```

```
7
    N(alt)=x,Nr
```

```
8
    Ac(egv)=eg
```

```
9
    og, n, 1, 1, 1(exm) (abs) =em
    en,eps(ifj)=s,s,g
```

```
10
11
   sieg(rpt),1,1,1,1(exm)
```

```
(inc,t)=8
12
```

```
s,s,s(-)(cti)=sc
13
     D, sc(gs)=Ds
```

```
14
     N, sc(gs)=Ns
```

```
Ac, n, n(dim), s(s*)(-)(-1)=Aci
15
```

```
16
      Cc, Aci, Bc(*)(*), Ns, Ds(-1)
```

```
(*)(+,t)=Dc
17
```

```
(jmp)=f
18 g:(nop)=
```

```
Cc, Ac(-1), Bc(*)(*), Nr,m
19
     (ctc), Dc, m(ctr)(-1)(*)
```

```
(+,t)=Dc
```

```
20 f:(nop)=
```

```
21
     (lis)=
```

# SECTION 4.3

#### HRO.SBR

```
Hp, eps, nos (HRo, sbr)
1
```

```
=Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no, Cond
```

```
2
     nli
```

```
з
     nty
```

```
Markov_parameters_=>>
POF Ro based on no
Hp Is In PMF
4
```

```
5
```

```
1,6(dzm)(tvc)
6
```

```
=Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no, Cand
```

```
7
    nos,1(coin),0(coin)(mcp)
```

```
=no,k,giv
```

```
8
    giv(ncp)=nx
```

```
9
    Hp(alt)=Hc,p
```

```
10
     Hc(cdi),p(rdi)(ncp)=n,p
```

```
giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
11
```

```
no(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
12
```

```
13 G:1(dma)=giv
```

```
14
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
```

```
15
     nn(mcp)=n
```

```
16
     nx(inc)=k
```

Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

17	k,p(*)=kp
18	Hc, kp, 2(s*)(ctr), p,k,=2
	(Togo), kp(ctr.t)=x.B
19	(imp)av
20	kikinglak
21	k n/stekn
55	No kn 3/stijskaj n k -3
**	(Topp) bolets the N
2.2	(rosp), sp(cer,c)=x, a
2.3	n,epsinrs;=w,x,n
29	*(dec), n, nol(ccl)=lnno
25	n,nol(~),n(mcp)=del,nol
26	inno(out,t,u)=
27	del(11)=K,K,K
28	K: (nop)=
29	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
30	wi(nop)=
31	n,p(cti)=np
32	Ind,l(ifj)=a,d,x
33	a: (nop)=
34	H(t),p,0,eps(Ind,sub)=no
35	1(coin)=Ind
36	(jmp)=C
37	d: (nop) =
38	np, no(out, t, 0) =
39	1,p(inpm)=no
40	C1 (nop) =
41	no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
42	nn,n(ifi)=d,o,d
43	ot(nop)=
44	Ind(inc)=Ind
45	k.nx(inc)(ifi)=k.x.x
46	xt(nop)=
47	H.nx.p(*)/ctr)=R1
48	vli.px.p(*)(ctc)(den)=S
49	S(t),H1/#)=H1
50	H1/t1/audies
51	www.ddil/decl/ctclar.un
80	w/w(cdi)(dbc)(ccc)-a/wa
22	whywyit(ccc)(b))-cond
53	no(buc,c,o)=
24	cond(out,e)=
35	giv(ii)=c,c,J
20	ti(nop)=
57	For different POL
	_Enter_j,d(dch)=chl
58	_Otherwise_Enter;_c(dch)=ch2
59	ch1(tch)=
60	ch2(tch) =
61	(eto) -
62	J: (nop)=
63	H,p(ctr)=x,H2
64	H2, nx, p(*)(ctr)=H2
65	H1(t),S(t),H2(*)(t)(c)e)
	(t,t)=Ao
66	H1.m(stc).n.n(dim).Hc.n(str)
00	(men t)=Ro Co Do
62	(hep/c)=b0/c0/b0
68	1.10
0.0	110

# HRC.SBR

Hp,eps,ncs(HRc,sbr) =Ac,Bc,Cc,Dc,nc,Cond 1

2	nli
3	nty
-4	Narkov_parameters_=>
	PCP RC based on nc
5	T 67 dam) (Function
	Ac.Bc.Cc.Dc.nc.Cond
7	ncs,1(coin),0(coin)(ncp)
	=nc,k,giv
8	giv(mcp)=nx
9	Hp(alt)=Hc,p
10	Hc(cdi),p(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
11	giv, giv(mop)=Ind, nol
12	nc(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
13	Gil(dma)=giv
14	nc(por)=nn,nx,va,v1,v11,v10
16	ny(inc)=k
17	k, p(t) = kp
18	Hc, kp, 2(s*)(ctr), p, k, -2
	(Toep), kp(ctr,t)=x,H
19	(jmp)=x
20	k:k(inc)=k
21	k,p(*)=kp
22	Hc, kp, 2(s*)(ctr), p, k, -2
	(Toep), kp(ctr,t)=x,H
23	H,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
24	k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
25	n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
27	del/ifil=F F k
28	Kilpop)=
29	k.nx(inc)(ifil=k.w.w
30	wi (nop) =
31	n,m(cti)=nm
32	Ind, 1(ifj)=a, d, x
33	a: (nop)=
34	H(t),m,0,eps(Ind,sub)=no
35	1(coin)=Ind
36	(jmp)=C
37	d: (nop) =
38	hm, nc(out, t, 0)=
37	1,m(inpa)=nc
41	nc/noitenn.nv.va.vi.vii.vid
42	nn.n(ifi)=d.o.d
43	o:(nop)=
44	Ind(inc)=Ind
45	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
46	x: (nop) =
47	H,nx,m(*)(ctc)=H1
48	vli,nx,m(*)(ctc)(dem)~S
49	H1,S{*)=H1
50	H1(svd)=w
51	w,w(cd1)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
52	wn,w,1(ccc)(s/)=cond
50	Cond (out a)=
55	div(ifilat.t.7
56	$t_1(pop) =$
57	For different PCI
	Enter j,d(doh)=ch1

# 372

```
5.8
     Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
59
     ch1(tch)=
50
     oh2(tch)=
61
     (sto)=
52 J: (nop)=
     H,n(ctc)=x,H2
63
64
     H2, nx, m(*) (ctc)=H2
     H1, H2, S(*)(sle,t)=Ac
65
      n,m(dim),H1,p(ctr),Hc,p
66
      (ctr)(mcp)=Bc,Cc,Dc
67 gityp
68
     110
```

#### HTF.SBR

```
1
     H, eps(HTF, obr)=d,W
     n11
2
з
     ntv
4
      Markov parameters_=>>
      W(z)/d(z)
5
      Hp is in PHF
6
      Calls either HTFp.SBR
      or HTFn.SBR
7
     1,2(dzm)(tvc)=d,W
8
     H(rdi),H(ninp)(mcp,t)=pn,m
9
     pm, m(s/,t)=p
10
     p,m(ifj)-p,p,m
11 p:(nop)=
12
     H, eps(HTFp, sbr)=d, W
13
     nli
14
     nty
15
      (jmp)=g
16 m: (nop)=
     H, eps(HTFm, sbr)=d, W
17
18
     nli
19
     nty
20
  g: (nop)=
21
     typ
22
     lis
```

#### HTFP.SBR

1	Hp,eps(HTFp,sbr)=d,W
2	nli
3	nty
4	Harkov parameters ==>
	W(z)/d(z)
5	Hp is in PMF
6	Called by HTF.SBR
7	1,2(dzm)(tvo)=d,W
8	Hp(alt)=Hc,p
9	Hc(cdi),p(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
10	1(coin)=k
11	k:k(inc)=k
12	k,p(*)=kp
13	He,kp,2(s*)(ctr),p,k,2
	(Toep), kp(ctr, t)=T1, T2
14	T2,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
15	k(dec),n(cti)=in
16	in(out,t,0)=
17	k(dec),n(ifj)=k,K,K
18	K: (nop)=

```
19
     T2, p, n(*) (ctr)=H1, H2
20
     H1.H2(t)=H1.H2
21
     H1, eps(nrs)=Ns
22
     H1, H2 (sle)=Ac
23
      1,n(step),p(dec),n(dzm)
     (rti) (mtv,t)=#
24
     O(coin)=i
25 1:1(inc)=1
26
     s,-1(s*)(inc,t)=sin
27
     s,s(shr)(ncp)=so,s
28
     sin(dem)(t),Ns(*,t)=Nsi
29
     Nsi,eps(nrs)=x,y,r
     i,r,n,p(dec)(*)(cti)=irn
30
31
     irn(out,t,0)=
32
     r,n,p(dec)(*)(ifj)=s,e,e
33
   er (nop)=
34
     Ac, 1, i, n, p(*), 1(exm, t)=Aci
35
     sin(dsm)(t),Aci(*,t)=Acii
36
     Nai(-1), Acii(*), -1(s*,t)=ti
37
     Ns,ti(*),Aci(+,t)=d
     so(dsm)(t),d(*),-1(s*)(t),1
38
      (coin)(cti,t)=d
39
      (jmp)=j
40 s: (nop)=
41
     i,p(ifj)=1,j,j
42 j:(nop)=
43
     d,p(dpm,aub)=D
44
     D(alt)=x,Dr
45
     Dr,Tl(*),m(pmfr,t)=W
46
  gityp
47
     lis
```

```
HTFM.SBR
```

```
1 Hp,eps(HTFm,sbr)=d,W
```

```
2 nli
```

```
3 nty
```

```
4 Hp(alt)=n,Hr
```

```
5 Markov parameters ==>
W(z)/d(z)
```

```
6 Hp is in PMF
```

```
7 Called by HTF.SBR
```

```
8 1,2(dzm)(tvc)=d,W
```

```
9 m(cdi),Hr(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
```

```
10 1(coin)=k
```

```
11 k:k(inc)=k
```

```
12 k,m(*)=km
```

```
13 Hr(t), km, 2(s*)(ctr), m, k, 2
(Toep)(t), km(ctc, t)=T1, T2
```

```
14 T2,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
```

```
15 k(dec),n(cti)=in
```

```
16 in(out,t,0)=
```

```
17 k(dec),n(ifj)=k,K,K
```

```
18 K: (nop)=
```

```
19 T2,m,n(*)(ctc)=H1,H2
```

```
20 H1, eps(nrs)=Ns
```

```
21 H1, H2(sle)=Ac
```

```
22 1,n(step),m(dec),n(dzm)
    (rti)(ntv,t)=s
```

```
23 O(coin)=1
```

```
24 i:i(inc)=i
```

```
25 s,-1(s*)(inc,t)=sin
```

34 automates

```
26
      s,s(shr)(mcp)=so,s
27
      sin(dsn)(t),Na(*,t)=Nsi
28
      Nsi,eps(nrs)=x,y,r
29
      i,r,n,n(dec)(*)(cti)=irn
30
      irn(out,t,0)=
31
      r,n,m(dec)(*)(ifj)=s,e,e
32 e: (nop)=
      Ac,l,i,n,m{*),l{exm,t}=Aci
sin(dsm)(t),Aci{*,t}=Acii
Nsi(-1),Acii(*,-1(s*,t)=ti
33
34
35
      Ns,ti(*),Aci(+,t)=d
so(dsm)(t),d(*),-1(s*)
36
37
      (t),1(coin)(cti,t)=d
38
      (jmp)=j
39 s:(nop)=
      1,m(ifj)=1,j,j
40
41 j:(nop)=
      d,m(dpm,sub)=D
42
43
      T1,D(alt)(*),p(pmfc,t)=W
44 gityp
45
     110
```

#### HDN.SBR

1	Hp, eps, nos(HDN, sbr)
2	nli
5	ntx
- 4	Narkov parameters ==>
- 73	Left coprime (D(s), N(s))
5	with column degrees no
6	Ho . D and N are in PMF
- 7	1.4(dgm)(twc)=D.N.no.Cond
8	nos,1(coin),0(coin)(mcp)
- 33	=no,k,giv
9	giv(ncp)=nx
10	Hp(alt)=Hc,p
11	Bc(cdi),p(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
12	giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
13	no(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
14	G:1(dma)=giv
15	no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16	nn(mcp)=n
17	nx(inc)=k
18	k,p(*)=kp
19	Mc, kp, 2(8*)(ctr), p, k, 2
	(Toep), kp(ctr,t)=T1,T2
20	(jmp)=x
21	k:k(inc)=k
22	k,p(*)=kp
23	Hc, kp, 2(s*)(ctr), p, k, 2
	(Toep), kp{ctr,t}=T1,T2
24	T2,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
25	k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
26	n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
27	inno(out,t,0)=
28	del(ifj)=K,K,k
29	K: (nop)=
30	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
31	w: (nop)=
33	n,p(cti)=np
33	Ind, 1(11)=a, d, x

34	w: (uob)-
35	T2(t),p,0,eps(Ind,sub)=no
36	1(coin)=Ind
37	(jmp)=C
38	d:(nop)=
39	np,no(out,t,0)=
40	1,p(inpm)=no
41	Ci(nop)=
42	no{poi}=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
43	nn,n(ifj)=d,o,d
44	01 (nop) =
45	Ind(inc)=Ind
46	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
47	x: (nop)=
48	1,kp(dzm)=zv
49	zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+)
	(ncp)=vli,vld
50	vli(dam), vld(dam) (ncp)
	=S11,S1d
51	Sli(t),T2(*),Sld(t),T2
	(*) (mcp,t)=H1,H2
52	H1(t)(svd)=w
53	w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
54	wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
55	no(out,t,0)=
56	Cond(out,e)=
57	giv(ifj)=t,t,J
58	t:(nop)=
59	_For_different_POI_
	Enter j,d(dch)=ch1
60	Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
61	ch1(tch)=
62	ch2(tch)=
63	(sto)=
64	J:(nop)=
65	H1(t),H2(t)(sle)(t),-1
	(s*,t)=Ar
66	Ar,Sli(t)(*),Sld(t)(+,t)=Dr
67	Dr,p(pafr)=D
68	Dr, T1(*), m(pafr, t)=N
69	q:typ
70	110

#### HND.SBR

1	Hp, eps, ncs (HND, sbr)
- 53	=N, D, nc, Cond
2	nli
3	nty
4	Markov parameters ==> Right coprime (N(z),D(z))
-5	with row degrees no
6	He . N . and D are in PMP
7	I,4(dzm)(tvc)=N,D,nc,Cond
8	<pre>ncs,1(coin),0(coin)(mcp) =nc,k,giv</pre>
9	giv(ncp)=nx
10	Hp(alt)=m.Hr
11	m(cdi),Hr(rdi)(mop)=m,p
12	giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
13	nc(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
14	G:1(dma)=giv

# 374

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

```
nc(poi)=nn, nx, va, vi, vli, vld
15
     nn(ncp)=n
16
17
     nx(inc)=k
18
     k.m(*)=km
19
      Hr(t), km, 2(s*)(ctr), m, k, 2
     (Toep)(t), kn(ctc.t)=71.72
20
     (imp)=x
21 k:k(inc)=k
22
     k.n(*)=kn
23
      Hr(t), km, 2(s*)(ctr), m, k, 2
     (Toep)(t), km(ctc,t)=T1, T2
24
     T2.eps(nrs) w,x,n
25
     k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
26
     n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
27
     inno(out,t,0)=
28
     del(ifi)=K,K,k
29 K: (nop)=
30
     k, nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
31 w: (nop)=
32
     n.m(cti)=nm
33
     Ind, 1(ifi)=a,d,x
34 a: (nop)=
35
     T2, n, 0, eps(Ind, sub)=nc
     1(coin)=Ind
36
37
      (jmp)=C
38 d: (nop)=
39
     nm, nc(out, t, 0)=
40
      1, m(inpm)=nc
41 C: (nop)=
     nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
42
43
      nn,n(ifj)=d,o,d
44 or (nop) =
45
      Ind(inc)=Ind
46
      k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
47
   x:(nop)=
48
      1, km(dzm)=zv
49
       zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+)(ncp)
      =vli,vld
50
      vli(dam), vld(dam)(mcp)
      -Sli, Sld
51
       72, S11(*), 72, S1d(*)(mcp,t)
      =H1,H2
52
      H1(svd)=w
53
      w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
54
      wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
55
      nc(out,t,0)=
      Cond(out,e)=
56
57
      giv(ifj)=t,t,J
58 t: (nop)=
       For different PCI
59
       Enter_j,d(dch)=ch1
60
      Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
61
      ch1(tch)=
62
      ch2(tch)=
      (sto)=
63
64 J: (nop)=
65
      H1,H2(sle),-1(s*,t)=Ac
      Sli,Ac(*),Sld(+,t)=Dc
6.6
67
      Dc,m(pmfc)=D
68
      T1,Dc(*),p(pmfc,t)=N
69 gityp
70
      lis
```

#### UHY.SUB

- 1 u, H(uhy, sub)=y
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 D-T System Response to u
- ã u(m x N) y (p x L)
- L=nIn(N.N) 5
- 6 H is in FMF
- 7 M=# of Markov param.
- ġ. u(rdi),u(cdi),H(cdi)(ncp) =m, N, M
- q B(alt)=Hc.p
- 10 p(rdi)=p
- 11 H,N(ifj)=1,g,g
- 12 1:H(mcp)=N
- 13 g: (nop)=
- 14 u,N(oto)=uc 15
- uc,1(r2c)=uc 16
- Hc, p, N, 2(toep)=Hc 17 Hc,uc(\*),p(c2r)=y
- 18 y,N(ctc)=y
- 19 (list=

#### HF.SUB

- 1 H,f(Hf,sub)=Hf
- 2 (nli)=
- Time\_scaling\_"up"\_of\_H with\_f < 1 ä -
- 4
- 5 O(coin), I(coin), H(cdi)
- (cti,t)=v
- 6 v(gts)(t),-1(s\*)=v
- 7 v,f(log)(s\*)(exp)(dem,t)=SS
- 8 H. SS(\*)=Hf
- 9 Hf,H(ninp)(cmp)=Hf
- 10 (lis)=

#### SECTION 4.4

#### DNRO.SUB

- 1 D, N, eps(DNRo, sub)
  - =Ac,Bo,Co,Do,no
- 2 (nli) =
- Left coprime {D(z),N(z)} 3 ==> POF Ro based on no
- 4 no is equal to column degrees of D(z)
- 5 D(alt)=x,Dr
- 6 N(alt), N(rdi), N(ninp) (mop) =Nc,mp,n
- 7 mp,m(8/,t)=p
- 8 Dr, eps(D2nv, t)=no
- 9 no(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
- 10 va(dam), vi(dam), vli(dam),
- vld(dem)(mcp)=Sa, Si, Sli, Sld
- 11 n,n(dim),p(ctr)=Co,A2 12
- \$1,A2(\*),Sa,Dr,Sli(\*)(\*) (-,t)=Ao
- 13 Ao, Sa, nx(inc)(Qc),Nc(\*,t)=Bo
- 14 Ao(egv)=eg 15
  - eg,n,1,1,1(exm)(abs)=en

```
16
     es,eps(ifj)=s,s,g
17 s:eg(rpt),1,1,1,1(exm)
     (inc,t)=s
18
     s,s,s(-)(cti)=sc
19
     D,sc(gs)=Ds
20
     N, sc(qs)=Ns
21
    Ao,n,n(dim),s(s*)(-)(-1)=Aoi
22
      Co, Aoi, Bo(*)(*), Ds(-1),
     Na(*)(+,t)=Do
23
     (jsp)=f
24 g: (nop)=
25
      Co,Ao(-1),Bo(*)(*),Dr,p
     (ctc)(-1),Nc,p(ctr)(*)
     (+, t)=Do
26 f:(nop)=
27
     (lis)=
```

#### NDRC.SUB

```
1
     N, D, eps(NDRc, sub)
     =Ac, Bc, Cc, Dc, nc
 2
     (n11)=
 3
      Right coprime (N(z),D(z))
 4
     nc is equal to row
     degrees of D(z)
 5
     N(alt)=x,Nr
 6
     D(alt),N(rdi),N(ninp)
     (mcp)=Drc,mp,m
 7
     mp,m(s/,t)=1
 8
     Drc(t), eps(D2nv,t)=nc
 9
     nc(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
10
      va(dem), vi(dem), vli(dem),
     vld(dan) (ncp)=Sa, Si, Sli, Sld
11
     n,n(dim),m(ctc)=Bc,A2
12
      A2,S1(t)(*),S11(t),Drc,
     Sa(t)(*)(*)(-,t)=Ac
13
      Nr, Ac, Sa(t), nx(inc)(Qc)
     (*,t)=Cc
14
     Ac(egv)=eg
15
     eg, n, 1, 1, 1 (exn) (abe) - en
16
     em, eps(ifj)=s, s, g
17
   s:eg(rpt),1,1,1,1(exm)
     (inc,t)=s
18
     8,8,8(-)(cti)=sc
19
     D,sc(gs)=Ds
20
     N,sc(gs)=Ns
21
    Ac,n,n(dim),s(s*)(-)(-1)=Aci
22
      Cc, Aci, Bc(*)(*), Ns, Ds(-1)
     (*)(+,t)=Do
      (jmp)=f
23
24 gi (nop)=
25
      Cc,Ac(-1),Bc(*)(*),Nr,m
      (ctc),Drc,m(ctr)(-1)(*)
      (+,t)=Do
26 f:(nop)=
27
     (lis)=
```

#### DNH.SUB

1 D, N, L (DNH, sub)=H, nrm

```
2
    (n11)=
```

- Left coprime (D(z),N(z)) з in a b 4
  - Pirst L Markov parameters
- 5 Applicable only for
- 6
- DT stable systems D, N and H are in PMF D(alt), N(alt) (mcp)-Dc, Nc 7
- 8 De(cdi), Ne(cdi), De(rdi) (mcp)=p,m,kp
- 9 Dc,p,L,-1(Toep,t)=Dm
- 10 p,L(dec)(\*),m(dzm),Nc (rti)=Nm
- 11 Dn,Nm(sle)=H
- 12 H,L(dec),p(\*)(ctr)=x,y
- 13 H,p(pmfc)=H
- y(nrr)=nrm 14
- 15 (118)=

#### NDH.SUB

- 1 N, D, L(NDH, sub)=H, nrm 2
  - (nli)=
- з Right coprime {N(z),D(z)} iii)>
- 4 First L Markov parameters
- Applicable only for 5
- DT stable systems "N, D, and H are in PMP D(alt)=x,Dr 6
- 7
- 8 N(alt)=x,Nr
- Dr(rdi), Nr(rdi), Dr(cdi) 9 (mcp)=m,p,km
- 10 Dr(t), m, L, -1(Toep)(t)=Dm
- p,L(dec),m(\*)(dzm),Nr 11 (cti)=bin
- 12 Dm(t),Nm(t)(sle)(t)=H
- 13 H,L(dec),m(\*)(ctc)=x,y
- 14 H,m(pmfr)=H
- 15 y(nrr)=nrm
- 16 (lis)=

#### DNTF.SBR

- 1 D,N,eps(DNTf,sbr)=d,W
- 2 nli
- 3 nty
- 4 Left\_coprime\_{D(z),N(z)} Tan>
- 5 Transfer function
- W(z)/d(z)
- 6 I,2(dsm)(tvc)=d,W
- 7 D(p-1,t)=Dlad,d
- 8 Dlad,N(pmm,t)=W
- 9 W, eps(elsc, sub)=W
- 10 d(elz)=d
- 11 d(pnr)=x,dn
- 12 d, dn(s/), W, dn(s/) (mcp)=d, W

```
13 gityp
```

14 lis

#### NDTF.SBR

- N,D,eps(NDTf,sbr)=d,W 1
- 2 nli
- З nty 4 Right coprime (N(s),D(s))
- in>
- Transfer function 5
- W(z)/d(z)
- 6 1,2(dzm)(tvc)=d,W 7
- D(p-1,t)=Drad,d 8 N, Drad(pmm, t)=W
- 9 W,eps(elzc,sub)=W
- 10 d(elz)=d
- 11 d(pnr)=x,dn
- d, dn(s/), W, dn(s/) (mcp)=d, W 12
- 13 gityp 14 lis

#### DNTS.SBR

- 1 D1,N1,f(DNts,sbr)=Dlf,N1f 2 nli nty 3 Time scaling of Left 4 coprime -{D1(z),N1(z)} "down" f < 1 5 -6 ,2(dzm)(tvc)=Dlf,Nlf 1 7 Dl(ninp)=p 8 Dl(alt)=x,Dr 9 le-5(dna)=eps 10 Dr,eps(d2nv)=no 11 no,Dl(cdi),f(tscl,sub)=So 12 So,Dl(alt)(\*),p(pmfc)=Dlf So,N1(alt)(\*),p(pmfc)=Nlf 13 14 g:typ
- 15 118

#### NDTS.SBR

- 1 Nr, Dr, f(NDts, sbr)=Nrf, Drf 2 nli 3 nty 4 Time scaling of Right coprime 5 (Nr(z), Dr(z)) "down" f < 1 1,2(dzm)(tvc)=Nrf,Drf 6 7 Dr(ninp)=m 8 Nr(alt)=x,Nrr 9 Dr(alt)=x,Drr 10 1e-5(dma)=eps
- 11 x(t),eps(d2nv)=nc
- 12 nc, Dr(cdi), f(tecl, sub)=Sc
- 13 Nrr,Sc(\*),m(pmfr)=Nrf
- Drr,Sc(\*),m(pmfr)=Drf 14
- 15 gityp 16 110

#### TSCL\_SUB

- 1 no, n, f (tecl, sub)=S
- ż (nli)=
- 3 S = "Time scaling" diag

- natrix
- 4 f < 1
- Called by DNTS.SBR 4 5 NDTS.SBR
- 6 0,n(dzm)=s
- 7 no(cdi)=p
- 8 no(ord),p,p(diim)(\*)=nco
- 9 O(coin)=i
- 10 I:i(inc)=1
- noo,1,1(exm,t)=noi 11
- 12 noi,-1(coin),n(cti)=x
- 13 x(gts)(t),f(log)(\*\*) (exp,t)=vec
- 14 s,vec(rti,t)=s
- 15 i,p(ifj)=I,J,J
- 16 J: (nop)=
- s(mtv) (ddm, t)=S 17
- 18 (lis)=

#### DNRC.SBR

1 D,N,eps,ncs(DNRc,sbr) =Ac, Bc, Cc, Dc, nc, Cond 2 nli з nty \_Left\_coprime\_{D(z),N(z)} 4 100.0 5 PCF Re based on no 6 1,6(dam)(tvc)= Ac, Bc, Cc, Dc, nc, Cond 7 ncs, 1(coin), 0(coin) (ncp) =nc,k,giv 8 giv(mcp)=nx D(alt),N(alt)(mcp)=Dc,Nc 9 10 Dc(odi),Nc(cdi)(mcp,t)=p,m 11 giv, giv(ncp)=Ind, nol 12 nc(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G 13 G:1(dma)=giv 14 nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld 15 nx(inc)=k 16 k,p(\*)=kp 17 Dc,p,k,1(Toep),Nc,p,k,1 (Toep),-1(s\*)(cti)+DN 18 (jmp)=x 19 kik(inc)=k 20 k,p(\*)=kp 21 Dc,p,k,1(Toep),Nc,p,k,1 (Tcep),-1(8\*)(cti)=DN 22 DN, eps(nrs)=w, x, n 23 n, kp(-,t)=n 24 k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno 25 n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol 26 inno(out,t,0)= 27 del(ifj)=K,K,k 28 K: (nop)= 29 k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w 30 w: (nop)= 31 n,m(cti)=nm 32 Ind, 1(ifj)=a,d,x 33 a: (nop)= 34 DN,m,k,p(\*),eps(Ind,sub)=nc 35 1(coin)=Ind

36	(1mp)=C
37	d:(nop)=
38	nm, nc(out, t, 0)=
39	1.m(inpm)=nc
40	C: (nop)=
41	nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vli
42	nn,n(ifj)=d,o,d
43	0:(000)=
44	Ind(ing)=Ind
45	k.nx(inc)(ifi)=k.x.x
46	x1 (nop) =
47	k.p(*)=kp
48	1.k.m(*)(dzm)=zv
49	zy, yli(0+), zy, yld(p+)
	(mcm)=vli,vld
50	1.kp(step),vli(cti)=vli
51	1,kp(dzm),vld(cti)=vld
52	vli(dam), vld(dam)(mco)
	=\$11.51d
53	DN. Sli(*), DN. Sld(*)(mcn)
	=81.82
54	H1(sud)au
55	w.w/cdi)/dec)/ctc)ax.wn
56	wn.w.l(ctc)(s()=Cond
57	ne/out t Ola
5.8	Cond/out.els
50	similfing + T
60	great and a second
61	For different PCT
	Potor i didebiach
6.9	Otherulas Esters sidehlach2
63	ch1/tch1=
64	ch2(tch)=
65	(ato)=
66	Trippola
47	W1 W2(ele) -1(et tieNDr
20	Marketerieles Das
60	abi, apicer j-acc, bec
20	nc(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vii,vii
70	va(dam),v1(dem),v11(dem),
	vid(dem)(mcp)=84,31,311,314
71	n,n(dim),n(ccc)=bc,Az
72	A2, 51(E)(-), DCC, 84(E)(-)
	(=,t)=ac
14	Ncc, p(czr)=Nr
74	Nr,Ac,Sa(E),Nx(Inc)(QO)
	(*,t)=Cc
75	vli(dan),Dcc(*),Vid(dan)
	{+,t}=Dcc
76	Dcc,m(pmfc)=D1
77	Ncc,p(pmfc)=N1
78	Ac,Bc,Cc,N1,D1,eps
	(GeDc, sub)=Dc
79	d: tyb
80	lis
NI	DRO.SBR
1	N.D.eps.pos(NDRo.sbr)
_	the state of the s

# >, b, eps, nos(NDRo, sbr) >Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no, Cond nli 234

- nty
  \_\_Right\_coprime\_{N(z),D(z))

	***>
5	POF Ro based on no
6	1,6(dam)(tvc)=
	Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no, Cond
7	nos,1(coin),0(coin)(scp)
	=no,k,giv
8	giv(mcp)=nx
9	N(alt)=x, Nrr
10	D(alt)=x,Drr
11	Mrr(rdi), Drr(rdi) (mcp)=p,m
12	giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
13	no(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
14	G:1(dma)=giv
15	no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16	nx(inc)=k
17	k,m(*)= cm
18	Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
	m,k,1(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DN
19	(jmp)=x
20	k:k(inc)=k
21	k,m(*)=km
22	Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
	m,k,1(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DN
23	DN,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
24	n, km(-,t)=n
25	k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
26	n,nol(=),n(ncp)=del,nol
27	inno(out,t,0)=
28	del(ifj)=K,K,k
29	K: (nop)=
30	k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
31	w: (nop)=
32	n,p(cti)=np
33	Ind,l(ifj)=a,d,x
34	ai(nop)=
35	DN, p, k, m(*), eps(Ind, sub)=no
36	1(coin)=Ind
37	()mp)=C
38	d:(nop)=
39	np,no(out,t,0)=
40	1,p(inpm)=no
41	C: {nop}=
42	no(poi)=nn, nx, va, vi, vii, vid
43	nn,n(10)=d,o,d
44	o: (nop)=
45	Ind(inc)=Ind
46	k,nx(inc)(if))=k,x,x
47	x: (nop)=
48	k,m(*)=km
49	1,k,p(*)(dzn)=zv
50	=vli,vld
51	1, km(step), vli(cti)=vli
52	1,km(dzm),vld(cti)=vld
53	vli(dam), vld(dam)(ncp)
	=Sli,Sld
54	DN,Sli(*),DN,Sld(*)(mcp)
	=H1,H2
55	H1(svd)=w
56	w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
57	wn,w,1(ctc)(s/)=Cond
58	no(out,t,0)=

```
Cond(out,e)=
59
     giv(ifj)=t,t,J
60
61 t:(nop)=
      For different POI
62
      Enter j,d(dch)=ch1
     Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
63
64
     ch1(tch)=
65
     ch2(tch)=
66
     (sto)=
67 J1(nop)=
     H1, H2(sle)(t), -1(s*,t)=ND
68
     ND, km(ctc, t)=Nlr, Dlr
69
     no(poi)=n,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
70
71
      va(dsm), vi(dsm), vli(dam),
     vid(dan)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
     n,n(dim),p{ctr}=Co,A2
72
73
     S1,A2(*),S8,D1r(*)(-,t)=Ao
74
     Nlr,m(r2c)=Nc
    Ao,Sa,nx(inc)(Qc),Nc(*,t)=Bo
75
     Dlr, vli(dam)(t)(*), vld(dam)
76
      (t)(+,t)=D1r
77
     Dlr,p(pnfr)=D1
78
     Nlr,m(pnfr)=N1
79
      Ao, Bo, Co, D1, N1, eps
      (GeDo, sub)=Do
80 gityp
```

B1 11s

#### DNND.SBR

1	D1,N1,epe,ncs(DNND,sbr)
	=Nr, Dr, nc, Cond
- 51	ntu
1	Loft HED (D)(a) W1(a)) ==>
21	Blaht coprime
ੈ	(Nr/=) Dr/=))
-	T Aldam / Fuchake Dr. no. Cond
	1,4(dim)(tvt)/ac,ot,mo,com
•	nes, 1(corn), o(corn)(mop)
	=hc, k, giv
10	giv(mcp)=nx
10	Di(alt), Ni(alt) (mep)=be, ne
11	De(cdi), we(cdi)(mep,t)=p,m
12	giv, giv(mcp)=ind, noi
13	nc(cd1),1(11))=k,k,G
14	G:1(dna)=gLv
15	nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16	nx(inc)=k
17	k,p(*)=kp
18	Dc,p,k,1(Toep),Nc,p,k,1
22	(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DN1
19	(jmp)=x
20	kik(inc)=k
21	k,p(*)=kp
22	Dc,p,k,1(Toep),Nc,p,k,1
83	{Toep},-1(s*)(cti)=D01
23	DN1,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
24	n, kp(-,t)=n
25	k(dec),n,nol(cti)=inno
26	n,nol(-),n(mcp)=del,nol
27	inno(out,t,0)=

```
del(ifj)=K,K,k
28
29 K: (nop)=
30
     k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
31 w: (nop)=
32
     n,m(cti)=nm
33
     Ind, 1(ifj)=a, d, x
34 ai (nop)=
    DN1, m, k, p(*), eps(Ind, sub)=nc
35
36
      1(coin)=Ind
37
      (jmp)=□
38 d: (nop)=
39
      nm, nc(out, t, D)=
40
      1,m(inpm)=nc
41 C: (nop)=
42
      nc(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
      nn,n(ifj)=d,o,d
43
44
   o:(nop)=
48
      Ind(inc)=Ind
      k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
46
47 x:(nop)=
      k,p(*)=kp
48
      1,k,m(*)(dzm)=zv
49
       zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+) (mop)
50
      =vli,vld
51
      1,kp(step),vli(cti)=vli
52
      l,kp(dmm),vld(cti)=vld
53
      vli(dsm), vld(dsm) (mcp)
      =$11, $1d
54
       DN1,S11(*),DN1,S1d(*)(mcp)
      -H1, H2
55
      H1(svd)=w
56
      w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
57
      wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
58
      nc(out,t,0)=
59
      Cond(out,e)=
60
      giv(ifj)=t,t,J
61 t: (nop)=
62
        For different PCI
      Enter_j,d(dch)=ch1
OtherwIse_Enter;_c(dch)=ch2
63
 64
      chl(tch)=
 65
      ch2(tch)=
 66
      (sto)=
 67 J: (nop)=
 6.8
      H1,H2(sle),-1(s*,t)=NDr
 69
      NDr, kp(ctr, t)=Ncc, Dcc
 70
      vli,kp(ctc)=x,vlii
 71
      vld, kp(ctc)=x, vldd
 72
       vlii(dsm),Dcc(*),vldd
       (dsm)(+,t)=Dcc
 73
      Dec,m(pmfc)=Dr
 74
      Nec, p(pmfc)=Nr
 75 gityp
 76
      110
```

#### NDDN.SBR

1 Nr, Dr, eps, nos(NDDN)	, abr)
--------------------------	--------

- =D1,N1,no,Cond
- 2 nli
- 3 nty
- 4 Right MFD\_{Nr(z),Dr(z)} ==>

#### Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

discussion and a

```
5
      Left coprime (D1(z),N1(z))
 6
      with column degrees no
 7
     1,4(dzm)(tvc)=D1,N1,no,Cond
 8
     nos,1(coin),0(coin)(mcp)
     =no,k,giv
 9
     Nr(alt)=x,Nrr
10
     giv(mcp)=nx
     Dr(alt)=x,Drr
11
12
     Ner(rdi), Drr(rdi)(mop)=p,m
     giv, giv(mcp)=Ind, nol
13
14
     no(cdi),1(ifj)=k,k,G
15 Grl(dma)=giv
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16
17
     nx(inc)=k
18
     k,m(*)=km
19
      Drr(t), m, k, 1(Toep), Nrr(t),
     m,k,1{Toep),-1(8*)(cti)=DNrt
20
     (jmp)=x
21 kik(inc)=k
22
     k, n(*)=km
23
      Drr(t),m,k,1(Toep),Nrr(t),
     m,k,1(Toep),-1(s*)(cti)=DNrt
24
     DNrt,eps(nrs)=w,x,n
25
     n, kn(-,t)=n
26
     k(dec), n, nol(cti)=inno
27
     n, nol(-), n(mcp)=del, nol
28
     inno(out,t,0)=
29
     del(ifj)=K,K,k
30 K: (nop)=
31
     k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,w,w
32 w: (nop)=
33
     n,p(cti)=np
34
     Ind,1(ifj)=a,d,x
35 a: (nop)=
36
     DNrt, p, k, m(*), eps
      (Ind, sub)=no
37
     1(coin)=Ind
38
      (jmp)=C
39 d: (nop)=
40
     np,no(out,t,0)=
41
     1,p(inpm)=no
42 C: (nop)=
43
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
44
     nn,n(ifj]=d,o,d
45 o: (nop)=
46
     Ind(inc)=Ind
47
     k,nx(inc)(ifj)=k,x,x
48 x: (nop)=
49
     k,m(*)=km
50
     1,k,p(*)(dzm)=zv
51
       zv, vli(p+), zv, vld(p+) (mcp)
      =vli,vld
52
     1,km(step),vli(cti)=vli
     1,kn(dzm),vld(cti)=vld
53
54
      vli(dsm), vld(dsm)(mcp)
     =Sli,Sld
55
    DNrt, Sli(*), DNrt, Sld(*) (mop)
      =H1,H2
56
     H1(svd)=w
57
      w,w(cdi)(dec)(otc)=x,wn
58
     wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
59
     no(out,t,0)=
```

-00	cond(ourie)-
61	giv(ifj)=t,t,J
62	t:(nop)=
63	For different POI Enter j,d(dch)=ch1
64	Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
65	ch1(tch)=
66	ch2(tch)=
67	(sto)=
68	J: (nop) =
69	H1,H2(sle)(t),-1(s*,t)=ND1
70	ND1, km(ctc,t)=Nlr,Dlr
71	vli, km(ctc)=x, vlii
72	vld, km(ctc)=x, vldd
73	Dlr, vlii(dan)(t)(*), vldd
	(dam)(t)(+,t)=Dlr
74	Dlr,p(psfr)=D1
75	Nlr,m(pmfr)=N1

76 q:typ

77 lis

#### CHAPTER 5

#### UYRO.SBR

1	u, y, eps, nos (uyRo, sbr)
2	nli
3	nty
4	Input/Output Data =>> POF Ro based on no
5	DeterministIc_RIMO_system Identification
6	1,7(dzm)(tvc)=
	Ao, Bo, Co, Do, no, xo, Cond
7	u,y(t)=u,y
8	nos,0(coin),0(coin)(mcp)
q	aig/menteng
10	div(mon)=Ind
11	O(coin) D(coin) u(rdi) u
**	(cdi), y(cdi) (mcp)=
	nol, i, N, m, p
12	u,y(mcp)=U,Y
13	no(cdi),1(ifj)=1,1,G
14	G:1(dma)=giv
15	no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16	<pre>nx(inc),nn(mcp)=i,n</pre>
17	N,1(dec)(-)=N1
18	u,1,1,-2(toep),y,1,1,-2
	(toep)(mcp)=U,X
19	U,1(dec)(ctr)=x,U
20	Y,1(dec)(ctr)=x,Y
21	(jmp)=x
22	i:i(inc)=i
23	u(shu),y(shu) {mcp}=u,y
24	U,u(cti),Y,y(cti)(mcp)=U,Y
25	U,Y(cti),N,i(-)(ctr),eps
	(nrs)=xx,yy,r
26	r.i(inc).m(*)(t)=n

#### 380

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

```
1, n, nol(cti)=inno
27
28
     n, nol(=), n(mcp, t) = del, nol
29
     inno(out,t,0)=
30
     del(ifj)=c,c,i
31 c:(nop)=
32
     i,nx(ifj)=i,w,w
33 w: (nop)=
34
     n,p(cti)=np
35
     N, 1(-)=N1
36
     Ind, 1(ifj)=a, d, x
37
  a: (nop)=
38
     U,Y(cti),Ni(ctr)=2
39
      2,p,i(inc),m(*),eps
     (Ind, sub)=no
40
     1(coin)=Ind
41
      (jmp)=C
42 d1 (nop)=
43
     no, np(out, t, 0)=
44
     1,p(inpm)=no
45 C: (nop)=
46
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
47
     n,nn(ifj)=d,o,d
48 o: (nop)=
49
     Ind(inc)=Ind
50
      i,nx(ifj)=i,x,x
51
   x:(nop)=
52
      va(dem),vi(dem),vli(dem),
     vld(dsm)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
53
      U, Ni(etr), Y, Ni(etr) (mop)
     =Uc,Yc
54
      Uc,nx(inc),m(*)(otc),Yc,nx
     (inc),p(*)(ctc)(mcp)=Uc,Yc
55
      Yc,Sl1(*),Yc,Sld(*)(mcp)
     =¥1,¥2
56
     Uc, Y1(cti)=2
57
     Z(svd)=w
58
     w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
59
     wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
60
     no(out,t,0)=
61
     Cond(out,e)=
62
     giv(ifj)=t,t,J
63 t: (nop)=
64
       For different POI
      Enter j,d(dch)=ch1
65
     Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
66
     ch1(tch)=
67
     ch2(tch)=
68
      (sto)=
69 J: (nop)=
70
      Z, Y2(sle)(t), nx(inc), m(*)
      (ctc,t)=Bt,At
71
     n,n(dim),p(ctr)=Co,A2
72
     Sa, At (*), S1, A2 (*) (+, t)=Ao
73
     Ao, Sa, nx(inc) (qc)=Qc
74
     Bt,m{r2c}=Btt
75
     Qc,Btt(*,t)=Bo
76
     Bt,m(ctc)=Bt1
77
     Bt,m(pmfr)=Np
78
      $1d(t),At,S1i(t)(*)(-),p
      (pmfr)=Dp
79
      Ac, Bo, Co, Dp, Np, eps
      (GeDo, sub)=Do
```

```
80
      Y1(t),1(ctc),Uc(t),1(ctc)
     (mcp)=Y11,U1
81
      Do, Ao, Co, nx(Qo), Bo(*)
      (rt1), p, nx, 2(Toep)=SS
82
      Y11,S1i(t),SS(*),U1,nx,m
      (*)(ctr)(*)(-,t)=xo
B3 q:(nop)=
84
     typ
85
     lis
UYDN.SBR
 1
      u,y,eps,nos(uyDN,sbr)
     -Dp, Np, no, Cond
 2
     nli
     nty
 з
 4
       Input/Output_pair_==>
      Left_Coprime {D(z),N(z)}
       Deterministic MIHD_system
 5
      Identification
     I,4(dzm)(tvc)=Dp,Np,no,Cond
 6
 7
     u,y(t)=u,y
 8
      nos, O(coin), O(coin) (mcp)
     =no,i,giv
 9
     giv(mcp)=nx
10
     giv(mcp)=Ind
11
      O(coin),O(coin),u(rdi),u
      (cdi),y(cdi)(mcp)
     =nol,i,N,m,p
12
     u,y(mcp)=U,Y
13
     no(cdi),1(ifj)=i,i,G
14 G:1(dma)=giv
15
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
16
     nx(inc),nn(ncp)=i,n
17
     N,1(dec)(-)=Ni
18
      u,1,1,-2(toep),y,1,1,-2
      (toep) (ncp)=U,Y
19
     U, 1(dec)(ctr)=x,U
20
     Y, i(dec)(ctr)=x,Y
21
      (jmp)=x
22
   i:(nop)=
     here_no(cdi)=1
23
24
      for_p=1_go_to_N
for_no = or > 1_go_to_C
25
     P,1(ifj)=N,N,I
26
27 N:no,1(ifj)=I,G,G
28 I:i(inc)=i
29
     u(shu),y(shu)(mcp)=u,y
30
     U,u(cti),Y,y(cti)(mcp)=U,Y
31
      U,Y(cti),N,i(-)(ctr),eps
      (nrs)=xx, yy, r
32
     r,1(inc),m(*)(-,t)=n
33
      i,n,nol(cti)=inno
34
     n, nol(-), n(mcp, t)=del, nol
35
      inno(out,t,0)=
36
     del(ifj)=c,c,i
37
   c: (nop)=
38
      i,nx(ifj)=I,w,w
39 w: (nop)=
40
     n,p(cti)=np
41
     N, ±(-)=B±
```

```
42 Ind, 1(ifj)=a, d, x
```

```
43 a: (nop)=
44
     U,Y(cti),Ni(ctr)=2
48.
     2,p,i(inc),m(*),eps
     (Ind, sub)=no
46
     1(coin)=Ind
47
     (jmp)=C
48 d1 (nop)=
49
     no,np(out,t,0)=
50
     1,p(inpm)=no
   C: (nop)=
51
     no(poi)=nn,nx,va,vi,vli,vld
52
53
     n,nn(ifj)=d,o,d
54 o: (nop)=
55
     Ind(inc)=Ind
56
     i,nx(ifj)=i,x,x
57 x1 (nop)=
58
      va(dsn),vi(dsm),vli(dsm),
     vld(dsm)(mcp)=Sa,Si,Sli,Sld
59
      U, Ni(ctr), Y, Ni(ctr) (ncp)
     =Uc,Yc
60
      Uc,nx(inc),m(*)(ctc),Yc,
     nx(inc),p(*)(ctc)(mcp)=Uc,Yc
61
      Yc, Sli(*), Yc, Sld(*) (mcp)
      =Y1,Y2
62
     Uc, Y1(cti)=2
63
      Z(svd)=w
64
      w,w(cdi)(dec)(ctc)=x,wn
65
      wn,w,l(ctc)(s/)=Cond
66
      no(out,t,0)=
67
      Cond(out,e)=
68
      giv(ifj)=t,t,J
69 t: (nop)=
       For different POI
70
       Enter_j,d(dch)=ch1
     Otherwise Enter; c(dch)=ch2
71
72
     chl(tch)=
73
      ch2(tch) =
74
      (ato)=
75 J:(nop)=
76
      2, Y2(sle)(t), nx(inc),
      m(*)(ctc,t)=Bt,At
77
      St,m(pmfr,t)=Np
78
      sld(t), At, sli(t)(*)(-),p
      (pnfr,t)=Dp
79 g:(nop)=
80
      typ
81
      118
```

### UYTF.SBR

1	U,Y,epsl,nos(uyTF,sbr)
	=dtt,Wt,no,C#
2	nli
3	nty
4	Input/Output pair ==>
	Transfer Function

- 5 DeterminIstic MINO Identification
- 6 \_using\_one\_output\_at\_a\_time
- 7 1,4(dzm)(tvc)=dtt,Wt,no,C#
- 8 1,0(dzm),1.0(dzm)(mcp)=C#,no
- 9 nos(cdi)=dim

- 10 Y(mcp)=YY
  - 11 0(rdi),Y(rdi)(mop)=m,p
- 12 0,10(dzm)=Wt
- 13 Wt(mop)=dt
- 14 0(coin)=i
- 15 i:i(inc)=i 16 YY,1(ctr)
- 16 YY,1(ctr)=y1,YY
- 17 eps1(mcp)=nosi
  18 dim,1(ifj)=0,0,g
- 19 ginos,1(ctc)=nosi,nos
- 20 o: (nop)=
- 21 U,y1,eps1,nosi(uydn,sbr) =d1,W1,noi,C#1
- 22 nli
- 23 nty
- 24 dt,1,10(dzm),d1,1,1(rmp)
   (rti,t)=dt
- 25 Wt,n,10(dzm),W1,1,1(rmp)
   (rti,t)=Wt
- 26 C#,C#1(cti),no,no1(cti)
   (mcp)=C#,no
- 27 i,p(ifj)=i,j,j
- 28 j:(nop)=
- 29 Wt,p(cmp),eps1(elzc,sub)=Ntt
- 30 Wtt,p(cmp)(pmt,eub)=Wt
- 31 dt,1(cmp),eps1(elzc,sub)=dtt
- 32 gityp 33 lis

- PMT.SUB
  - 1 N(pat, sub)=Nt
  - 2 (nli)=
  - 3 Polynomial matrix
  - Transposition
  - 4 N(alt)(t),N(rdi),N(ninp)
  - (s/)(pmfr,t)=Ht
  - 5 (lis)=

### CTCP.SUB

- 1 G,m1(CTCp,sub)=G1,G2
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 \_\_Out\_by\_columns\_Polynomial \_\_matrix
- 4 \_G(s)==>|G1(s)|G2)s)|
- 5 G1\_has\_m1\_columns
- 6 m1(coin)=mm1
- 7 G(rdi),G(ninp)(mcp)=pm,m
- 8 pm, m(s/)=p
- 9 G,mml,p(\*)(ctr)=G1,G2
- 10 G1,mml(cmp),G2,m,mml(-)
  - (cmp) (mcp, t)=G1,G2
- 11 (lis)-

### CTRP.SUB

- 1 G,p1(CTRp,sub)=G1,G2
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 Cut by rows Polynomial matrix
- 4 [01(s)]

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

5	G(s)==>
6	[G2(8)]
7	G1 has p1 rows
8	G(rdi),G(ninp)(mcp)=pm,m
9	pm, m(s/), G(cdi), pl(coin)
	(mcp)=p,n,pp1
10	p,pp1(-),0,n(dzm),G(mcp)
	=p2,G1,X
11	G1,0(coin)(mcp)=G2,1
12	isi(inc)=i
13	X,ppl(ctr)=x,X
14	x(cpm)=x
15	G1,x(rti)=G1
16	X,p2(ctr)=x,X
17	x(cpm)=x
18	G2,x(rti)=G2
19	i,m(ifj)=1,j,j
20	j:(nop)=
21	G1,m(cmp),G2,m(cmp)(mcp,t)
	-G1,G2
22	(lis)=

#### RTPM.SUB

1	A,B(RTpn,sub)=C
2	(nli)=
3	Row tie Polynomial matrices
- 4	[A(s)]
5	=>C(s)
6	[B(s)]
7	A(rdi), A(cdi), A(ninp)(mcp)
	=pml,nl,ml
8	B(rdi), B(cdi), B(ninp)(mcp)
	=pm2, m2, m2
9	pm1,m1(s/),pm2,m2(s/),m1
	(mcp)=p1,p2,n12
10	m1,m2(ifj)=e,a,e
11	e: (nop)=
12	A & B should have same #
	of columns
13	m1,m2(cti)=-
14	-(out)=
15	D(coin)=C
16	p=(qm)
17	a:n2,n12(ifj)=s,s,q
18	g:n2(mcp)=n12
19	s:pml,pm2(+),n12(dzm)=C
20	A(cpm), B(cpm), O(coin), 1
	(coin) (mcp)=Ax, Bx, 1, 1
21	1:i(inc)=i
22	Ax,pl(ctr,t)=x,Ax
23	C, x, 1, 1(rmp, t) = C
24	1, p1, p2(+)(+)=1
25	1,m1(1fj)=1,j,j
26	j:0(coin),pl(inc)(mcp)=1,1
27	I:i(inc)=i
28	Bx, p2(ctr,t)=x, Bx
29	C,x,1,1(rmp,t)=C
30	1, p1, p2(+)(+)=1
31	i,m2(ifj)=1,J,J
32	J:C,ml(cap,t)=C
33	q:(lis)=

#### CTPM.SUB

- A,B(CTpm,sub)=C 1
- 2 (n1i)=
- Column tie Polynomial 3 matrices
- A(a) |B(a) |==>C(a) 4
- A(rdi), A(cdi), A(ninp) (mcp) 5 =pml,nl,ml
- 6 B(rdi), B(cdi), B(ninp) (mcp) =pm2, n2, m2
- 7 pm1,m1(s/),pm2,m2(s/),n1 (mcp)=p1,p2,n12
- p1,p2(ifj)=e,a,e 8
- 9 e: (nop)=
- A & B should have same # 10
- p1,p2(cti)=-11
- 12 -(out)=
- 13 O(coin)=C
- 14 (jmp)=q
- 15 a:n2,n12(ifj)=s,s,g
- 16 g:n2(mcp)=n12
- 17 s:pm1,pm2(+),n12(dzm)=C 18 C, A(cpm), 1, 1(rmp), B(cpm),
- pml(inc),l(rmp,t)=C 19 C,m1,m2(+)(cmp,t)=C
- 20 q:(lis)=

#### ELZC.SUB

- G,eps(Elzc,sub)=Gr ĩ
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 G(mcp)=Gi
- 4 O(coin)=Gr
- 5 Elimination of last zero columns
- 6 from G(z) in PMF
- 7 Gi(cdi)(inc),Gi(rdi) (mcp)=i,pm
- 8 i:i(dec)=i
- 9 Gi, 1, i, pm, 1(exm)(t) \*x
- 10 x,x(t)(\*)(eqr),eps(ifj) =c,c,f
- 11 c:i,1(ifj)=f,f,i
- 12 f:Gi,i(ctc,t)=Gr
- Gr,Gi(ninp)(cmp)=Gr 13
- 14 g:(lis)=

#### UYH.SUB

- 1 u,y,L(uyh, sub)=H, nrm
- 2 (nli)=
- 3 Input/Output data =>> Markov
- parameters H(z) in PMF Applicable only to 4
- 5
- DT stable systems 6 u(rdi)=m
- 7
- m,m(mcp)=H,nrm 8 u(t),1,L,2(Toep)=U
- U(rdi), U(cdi)(cti)=-9
- 10 -(out)=

#### Appendix C Introduction to L-A-S

8

```
11
     U(rdi),U(cdi)(ifj)=e,e,o
12 o: (nop)=
     U,y(t)(sle)(t)=H
13
14
     H,m,L(dec)(*)(ctc)=x,U
15
     U(nrr)=nrm
16 e: (nop)=
17
     H,m(pafr)=H
18
     (118)=
```

#### COMD.SBR

```
1
     Do, eps (ConD, sbr)=cond, F
     n11
2
з
     nty
4
      Column Do(z) ==>
     Comm. Den d(z)=comd
 5
     1,2(dam) (tvc)=cond,F
 6
     Do(rdi)=p
7
     Do,l(coin)(mcp)=D,i
8
     D,1(ctr)=di,D
 9
     di(els)=cond
10 i:i(inc)=i
11
     D,1(ctr)=di,D
12
     di(elz)=di
13
     cond, di, eps(prd, t)
     =cdr, dir, com
     edr, dir, com(p*)(p*,t)=cond
14
15
     i,p(ifj)=1,j,j
16 j:(nop)=
17
     cond(cdi)=dim
     0, cond(cdi)(dam)=fpol
18
19
     Do(mcp)=D
20
     O(coin)=i
21 I:i(inc)=i
     D,1(ctr)=di,D
22
23
     di(elz)=di
     comd, di, eps(prd, t)=f1, x, y
24
25
      fpol, p(inc), dim(dzm),
     fi,1,1(rmp)(rti,t)=fpol
26
     i,p(ifj)=I,J,J
27 J:(nop)=
28
     fpol, p, p(*) (ctr, t)=F
29
     F,p(cmp),eps(elsc,sub)=F
30 g:typ
31
     lis
```

#### APPENDIX B

#### MIN.SUB

- 1 A, B, C, eps (Min, sub) =Ao, Bo, Co, Tt
- 2 (nli)=
- з Elimination of unobservable modes
- using Hessenberg 4
- Transformation
- 5 Called twice by MIN.SBR
- A(rdi), C(rdi) (mcp)=n, p 6
- 7 n,n(dim)=I

```
C(avd)=w,u,v
 9
     A, B, C, V(str)=A1, B1, C1
10
     v(mcp)=Tt
11
     n,O(inc),p(inc)(mcp)=np,i,j
12
     np,p(-)=np
13 i:(nop)=
14
     Al, i, j, p, np(exm, t)=Aij
15
     Aij(svd)=w,u,v
     I,v,j,j(rmp,t)=T
16
17
     Tt, T(*)=7t
     A1, B1, C1, T(str)=A1, B1, C1
18
19
      i(inc), j(inc), np(dec)(ncp)
     =1, j, np
20
     j,n(ifj)=i,i,G
21 Gi (nop)=
22
     A, B, C, Tt(str)=At, Bt, Ct
     n(mcp)=deg
23
24
     1(dec)=i
25 I:i(inc)=i
26
     n,1(-)=n1
     ni(inc)=nil
27
     At, 1, nil, ni, i(exm)=z
28
29
      z{nrr,t}=z
30
      s,eps(ifj)=a,a,g
31
   a:i(mcp,t)=deg
32
     ni(mcp)=deg
33 g: (nop)=
      i,n,p(-)(ifj)=I,K,K
34
35 K: (nop)=
36
     At, 1, 1, deg, deg(exm)=Ao
37
      B(cdi)=m
      Ct,1,1,p,deg(exm)=Co
38
39
      St,1,1,deg,m(exm)=Bo
40
      (lis)=
```

#### MIN.SBR

- 1 A, B, C, eps(min, sbr)=Am, Bm, Cm
- 2 nli з
  - nty
- Minimal Realization using 4 5
- Heesenberg transformation Calls\_twice\_MIN.SUB
- 6 7 A, B, C, eps(nin, sub)
- =Ao, Bo, Co, Tl
- 8 Ao(t), Co(t), Bo(t), eps
- (min, sub) = Amd, Bmd, Cnd, T2
- 9 And, Cnd, Bnd(t,t)=An, Bm, Cn
- 10 typ
- 110 11

#### KALD.SBR

- 1 A, B, C, eps(Kald, sbr)
- =Ad, Bd, Cd, T, dim
- 2 nli
- з nty 4
  - Kalman decomposition
  - [A,B,C] is nC & nO
- 5 w=> Min {Ad, Bd, Cd}
- 6 T = similarity transform 7
  - dim (1 x 4)= Subepace

#### Section C.6 L-A-S Code for Specific Algorithms

```
dimensions
    1,5(dzm)(tvc)=Ad,Bd,Cd,T,dim
8
9
     B(cdi),C(rdi)(mcp)=m,p
10
     A,B(gc)=Qc
11
     A, C(qo)=Qo
12
     Qc,eps(nrs)=x,Tc,X
13
     Qo(t),eps(nrs)=x,Rqot,X
14
     Rgot(t),eps(nrs)=Tob
15
     Tc, Tob, eps (INOU, sub)
     -COb, ChOb
16
     Tob, Tc, eps(INOU, sub)=COb, CO
17
     COb, CO, CbOb(cti,t)=T1
     T1(t),eps(nrs)=Cb0
18
19
     COb(cdi), CO(cdi), CbOb
     (cdi),CbO(cdi)(cti)=dim
20
     T1,CbO(cti)=T
21
     dim(tvc)=cbo,co,bcbo,bco
22
     cbo(inc.t)=i
     A, B, C, T(str)=Ad, Bd, Cd
23
24
     Ad, i, i, co, co(exm)=Ad
25
     Bd, 1, 1, co, n(exn, t)=Bd
26
     Cd, 1, 1, p, co(exm, t)=Cd
27 gityp
28
     118
```

#### INOU.SUB

- 1 R,Q,eps(InOu,sub)=Qr,Qou (nli)= 2
- з Q is decomposed into Qr & Qou
- OF is in range of R Qou is out of range\_of\_R Q(cdI)=k 4 5
- 6
- 7 Q,R(cti),eps(nrs)=Ngr
- 8 Ngr, k(ctr)=Ng
- 9 Ng(t), eps(nrs)=Ngn
- 10 Q,Nq(\*)=Qr
- 11 Q, Ngn(\*)=Qou
- 12 (lis)=

#### MODM.SBR

```
1
     A, Egv, eps (ModM, sbr)=P
2
     nli
 з
     nty
      Calculates Modal matrix of
 4
 5
      non-diagonalizable A
 6
      Satisfies A*P=P*Aj
 7
      Aj = Block diagonal Jordan
      Form
 8
     eps(mcp)=P
 9
     A(rdi)=n
10
     Eqv(rdi)=m
11
     0(dma)=2
12
     n,0(dzn)=In
13
     Zm(mcp)=P
14
     z(mcp)=1
15
   j:j(inc)=j
16
     Egv, j, 1, 1, 2(exm)=egj
17
     j(out)=
     egj,1(ctc)=#j.0j
18
```

- 19 oj(ifj)=C,R,C 20 C:oj(abs)=oj 21 A, sj, oj, eps(ChaC, sbr)=Pj 22 n1i23 nty 24 (jmp)=y 25 R: (nop)= A, sj, eps(ChaR, abr)=Pj 26 nli 27 28 ntv 29 y: (nop)= 30 P,Pj(cti,t)=P 31 P(out)= 32 j,m(ifj)=j,f,f 33 f:(nop)=
- 34 g:typ
- 35 110
- CHAC.SBR 1 A,sj,oj,eps(ChaC,sbr)=Pj 2 n11 nty 3 4 Calculates eigenvectors In Pj 5 associated with complex conj. pair 6 wimej+/-j\*oj.Satisfies A\*Pj=Pj\*Aj Aj-Jordan\_block\_associated 7 with wj 8 eps(scp)=Pj A(rdi)=n 9 10 n,n(+)=n2 11 0(dma)=z 12 n,n(din)=I 13 n2, n2(dim)=12 14 n,0(dzn)=2m 15 Zn(mcp)=Pj 16 A,I,sj(s\*)(-)=Bjr 17 I,oj(s\*)=Bji 18 Bjr, Bji(cti), Bji,-1(s\*), Bjr(cti)(rti)=Bj 19 Bj,eps(nrs)=N,R,r 20 N(cdi)=vj 21 12, z, z(ncp)=Bk, k, r 22 k:k(inc)=k 23 Bk,Bj(\*)=Bk 24 Bk,eps(nrs)=Nk R,Nk,eps(InOu,sub)=Y,M 25 26 H(cdi)=q 27 H,q,2(s/)(ctc)=Ht 28 q(ifj)=k,k,a 29 a:(nop)= 30 Mt,1(ctc)=m,Mt
  - 31 z, Zm{mop}=i, Pi
  - 32 i:i(inc)=1
  - 33 m, n(ctr)=mr, ni
  - 34 mr, mi, Pi(cti, t)=Pi
  - 35 Bj,n(\*)=n
  - i,k(ifj)=1,z,z 36

```
37 z:(nop)=
```

```
38
     Pj,Pi(cti,t)=Pj
90
     Mt(cdi)(ifj)=x,x,a
40 x: (nop)=
41
     R,M(cti,t)=R
42
     r,q{+,t}=r
43
     r,vj(ifj,t)=k,q,q
44 q: (nop)=
45
     typ
46
     110
```

#### CHAR.SBR

```
A, sig, eps(ChaR, sbr)=Pj
1
     nli
2
3
     nty
4
       Calculates Elgenvectors
      In Pj
     -
5
      associated with real
      eigenvalue sig
      Satisfies A*Pj=Pj*Aj
6
 7
      Aj = Jordan block
     .
      associated with real sig
8
     eps(mcp)=Pj
9
     A(rdi)=n
10
     0(dma)=z
     n,n(dim)=I
11
12
     n, 0(dzm)=Zm
13
     Zm(mcp)=Pj
14
     A, I, sig(s*)(-)=B
     Bj,eps(nrs)=N,R,x
15
16
     N(cdi)=vj
     I,z,z(mcp)=Bk,k,r
17
19 k:k(inc)=k
19
     Bk, Bj(*)=Bk
     Bk, eps(nrs)=Nk
20
21
     R, Nk, eps (InOu, sub)=Y, H
22
     M(cdi)=q
     M(ncp)=Ht
23
24
     q(ifj)=k,k,a
25 a: (nop)=
26
     Mt, 1(ctc)=m, Nt
27
     z, Em(mcp)=i, Pi
28 1:1(inc)=i
29
     m, Pi(cti,t)=Pi
30
     Bj,n(*)=m
31
     1,k(ifj)=1,z,z
32 z:(nop)=
33
     Pj, Pi(cti,t)=Pj
34
     Ht(cdi)(ifj)=x,x,a
35 x:(nop)=
36
     R,M(cti,t)=R
37
     r,q(+,t)=r
38
     r,vj(ifj,t)=k,q,q
39 q:(nop)=
40
     typ
41
     lis
```

#### COTS.SBR

```
1
     A, B, C, is, eps(COts, sbr)
     "Resc, Reso, xxc, xxo
```

ż nli

```
ä
     nty
```

- Degrees of Controllability 4
- or Observability 5
  - Resc & Reso contain n
  - eigenvalues of A
- 6 and im\*(n-m)/im\*(n-p)
- eigenvalues of
- auxiliary matrices Acc/Acc 7
- â Arrays xxc/xxo are to be
- used for plotting Q, with xx<c/o>(NIK)=
- outside subroutine 10
- lf desired:
- 1,4(dzm)(tvc)=Resc,Resc, 11 XXC, XXO
- 12 A, B, C(getd, sub)=n, m, p
- 13 n,m(-),n,p(-)(+),O(dzm)=Res
- 14 A, B, C(ncp)=Ao, Bo, Co
- 15 D(coin)=1
- 16 b: (nop)= 17
- i(inc)=1 18
  - B(t), eps(nrs,t)=Nr
- 19 C,eps(nrs,t)=Nc 20
- Nc(t), A, Nc(\*)(\*,t)+Aco
- 21 Nr(t), A, Nr(\*)(\*,t)=Acc
- 22 Acc(egv,t)=egc
- 23 Acc(eqv,t)=eqc
- 24 egc, ego(rti)=egco
- 25 n, n, 1, 1(dpm)=7
- 26 Ao,Bo,Co,T(str)=A,B,C
- 27 Res, egco(cti, t)=Res
- 28 i,im(ifj)=b,f,f 29 f1(nop)=
- 30
- A(egv)=egg 31
- egg(out)= 32
  - Res, n, m(-) (ctr)=Resc, Reso
- Reso, 2(r2c,t)=Reso 33
- 34 egg, Reso(rti)=Reso
- Reso(polp, sub)=xxo 35

```
36
     Resc,2(r2c,t)=Resc
37
     egg,Resc(rti)=Resc
```

```
Resc(polp, sub)=xxc
38
```

```
39
   q:typ
```

```
40
      lis
```

# References

The reference list for this appendix includes several articles which present the research which contributed toward the development of the L-A-S software. Interested readers are directed to the proceedings of the IFAC CAD Symposia, particularly those of 1982, 1985, 1988 and 1991, representing the 2<sup>ed</sup>, 3<sup>ed</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> IFAC Symposia held in Lafayette, Indiana; Lyngby, Denmark; Beijing, People's Republic of China; and Swansea, United Kingdom, respectively. Also included as useful references are M. Jamshidi's texts on computer-aided design (CAD) and a manual for L-A-S which has been in use for some time.

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11

# Index

# A

Adjoint matrix, 25 Admissibility degree, 128 Algorithms, 357 BCDC, 54, 64 BLCD, 360 BLDC, 360 C#, 364 CCF, 370 CDSR, 148, 358 CDTR, 165, 369 CFNS, 364 CFPP, 364 CHAC, 293, 385 CHAR, 290, 386 CIND, 364 COMD, 384 COTS, 300, 386 CTCP, 382 CTDT, 80, 247, 359 CTPM, 383 CTRP, 382 DNH, 198, 376 DNND, 202, 379 DNRC, 202, 377

DNRO, 194, 375 DNTF, 200, 376 DNTS, 377 DPM, 370 EAT, 12, 360 EATF, 53, 361 EATJ, 13, 360 ELZC, 383 EXD, 370 FACT, 50, 362 FGD, 371 FLN, 362 GEDC, 371 GEDO, 371 GETD, 370 GZ, 5, 357 HDN, 185, 374 HND, 188, 374 HRC, 181, 372 HRO, 179, 371 HTF, 190, 373 HTFM, 191, 373 HTFP, 190,373 HF, 375 IML, 370 INOU, 274, 385

## 390

IND, 364 KALD, 160, 384 LALG, 30, 358 LIN, 3, 357 LNM, 60, 362 LNMJ, 61, 362 MIN, 160, 282, 384 MODM, 287, 385 NDDN, 202, 379 NDH, 199, 376 NDRC, 195, 376 NDRO, 202, 378 NDTF, 201, 377 NDTS, 377 NRS, 272, 358 PMT, 382 POLR, 76, 362 POM, 50, 362 QC, 18, 357 00, 21, 358 R4R5, 57, 363 R5R4, 54, 363 RCND, 153, 366 RESO, 27, 358 RICD, 51, 361 RODN, 151, 365 RTPM, 383 SICD, 49, 361 SMAT, 364 SQM, 62, 363 SRCD, 359 SRDC, 360 SSH, 147, 365 SSRC, 145, 365 SSRO, 144, 365 SSTF, 33, 359 STR, 363 TFDN, 169, 368 TFH, 164, 370 TFND, 172, 369 TFRC, 175, 367 TFRO, 173, 366 TRCN, 368 TRON, 367

TSCL, 377 UYDN, 240, 381 UYRO, 238, 380 UYTF, 243, 382 UYH, 242, 383 Auto-regressive moving-average (ARMA) model, 39

# в

Basis vectors, 262 Bilinear transformation, 53 Block diagonal matrix, 288

# С

Canonical forms, 87-131 controllability, 99 feedback, 88-90 Jordan, 93-96 Luenberger, 113 MIMO system, 109-131 observability, 99 observer, 91-93 Cayley-Hamilton theorem, 25, 75, 277 Characteristic polynomial, 24 Condition number, 128 Continualization (See also Algorithm CTDT), 59-64, 247 bilinear, 63 ramp-invariant (RI), 62 step-invariant (SI), 59 Controllability (See also Observability and Kalman decomposition), 17 index, 114 indices (See also Pseudocontrollability indices (PCI)), 114 individual, 116 matrix, 18 test, 18, 297 Conversions (See Transformations)

Crate diagram, 112

# D

Diagonal matrix (See Jordan form) Discrete-time systems, 10, 14 Discretization (See also Algorithm CTDT), 46-59, 247 bilinear, 53 ramp invariant (RI), 50 step-invariant (SI), 47 Duality, 22, 37

# Е

Eigensystems, 266 eigenvector chains (See generalized eigenvectors) eigenvalues, 266 eigenvectors, 266 generalized eigenvectors, 287 similarity transformation, 267 Equivalent state models, 97 Exponential matrix, 8

# F

Frobenius norm, 66

# G

Generalized eigenvectors, 287

# н

Hankel matrix, 178 Hessenberg transformation, 281 Ho-Kalman algorithm (ERA), 177

# I

Identification, 71 Identification identity, 150, 233-235

# J

Jordan form (See also Generalized eigenvectors and Modal matrix), 65, 93, 289 real-number form, 66, 289

# к

Kalman decomposition, 283

# L

L-A-S language (See also Algorithms), 301, 314 algorithms, 357 interpreter commands, 351 operators, 321 subroutines, 326 Least-squares solution, 263 Leverrier's algorithm, 25 Linear combination, 262 Linear equations, 261, 279 overdetermined, 263 underdetermined, 265 Linearization, 2-7 Linearly independent vectors, 262 Linearly interpolated model, 14 Log of a matrix, 59

# м

Markov parameters, 145 Matrices, 261 partitioned, 276 pseudo-inverse, 264 trace, 26 Matrix fraction description (MFD), 38, 131 equi-observable, 135 Matrix norm, 66 Minimum norm solution, 56, 265 Models (See also State space models System representation and Transformations) conversions, 143-221 from Markov parameters, 177-193 from matrix fraction descriptions, 193-205 from state space, 143-156 from transfer functions, 156-177 Modal matrix, 266

# N

Nonlinear model, 2 Null space, 268 Nullity, 269

# 0

Observability (See also Controllability and Kalman decomposition), 19 index, 115 indices (See also Pseudoobservability indices (POI)), 115 matrix, 20 test, 20, 297

# P

Persistent excitation, 237 Polynomial characteristic, 24 coprime left, 131 right, 132 monic, 39, 133 reduction, 75 Polynomial matrix, 29 column-reduced, 133 regular, 135 row-reduced, 133 Polynomial matrix form (PMF), 28, 34 Post-fix notation, 311 Pseudo-controllability indices (POI), 116 admissible, 117 Pseudo-inverse (*See also* Matrix), 56

# R

Ramp-invariant (RI) model, 14, 50, 62 Range space, 269 Rank of a matrix, 269 Representation (See Model) Resolvent matrix, 25, 27 Response (See System response) Robot arm, 5

# s

s-domain transfer function, 24 Sampled-data system, 11 Scaling, 48, 59, 65-68 time scaling, 146, 214-221 Selector matrices, 120 Selector vectors, 119 Singular value decomposition (SVD), 271, 282 Square-root of a matrix, 62 State space models continuous-time systems, 7 discrete-time systems, 10, 15 equivalent, 97 general solution, 10 response, 23 Step-invariant (SI) model, 47, 59 System representation Markov model matrix fraction description state space System response (See also Algorithm CDSR), 23, 147

#### Index

continuous-time, 147 discrete-time, 148

# т

Transfer function matrix calculation, 29-38 continuous-time system, 23 discrete-time system, 25 proper, 24 strictly proper, 24 Transformation (See also Discretization and Continualization) bilinear (BT), 53, 63 of state (See similarity) ramp invariant (RI), 50, 62 similarity (See also Algorithm STR), 98, 267 step invariant (SI), 47, 59 Transition matrix, 8

Trapezoidal rule, 45 Tustin's approximation, 53

# U

Uncontrollable (See Controllability) Underdetermined equations, 265 Upper triangular matrix, 289

# V

Vector expansion (See Linear combination) Vectors, 261

# z

z-domain transfer function, 25 Zero-order hold (ZOH) equivalent model (See also Discretization), 10