### High-Performance Robust Decentralized Control of Interconnected Systems

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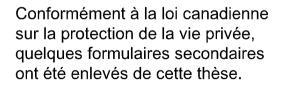
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#### ABSTRACT

### High-Performance Robust Decentralized Control of Interconnected Systems

#### Javad Lavaei Yanesi

This dissertation deals with the structurally constrained control of interconnected systems. A near-optimal decentralized control law is proposed for finite dimensional linear timeinvariant (LTI) systems, which under certain conditions leads to a quadratic performance index arbitrarily close to the LQR performance. A method is then proposed to implement any centralized controller in a decentralized fashion in order to reduce the communication requirements. The decentralized controller obtained performs identically to the original centralized controller if some a priori knowledge of the nominal model of the system and the expected values of the initial states are available. The immediate application of this decentralization scheme is in control of a formation of spacecraft in deep sapce, as it is an ongoing reasearch in JPL. Design of a high-performance decentralized generalized sampled-data hold functions (GSHF) is also studied, which relies on linear matrix inequality (LMI) techniques. Moreover, the problem of simultaneous stabilization of a set of LTI systems using a periodic control law is investigated. It is to be noted that prior to this work there were only sufficient conditions for simultaneous stabilizability of more than four systems, although this problem has been investigated in the literature for several decades. This thesis provides the first necessary and sufficient condition for simultaneous stabilizability of any arbitrary number of systems.

Stabilizability of an interconnected system with respect to *LTI decentralized control law* and also *general (nonlinear and time-varying) control law* is investigated in the literature, by introducing the notions of decentralized fixed mode (DFM) and quotient fixed mode (QFM). Since the existing methods aiming at identifying these fixed modes are ill-conditioned, two graph-theoretic approaches are proposed here to obtain the DFMs and QFMs of a system in a more efficient manner. In addition, it is asserted that the nonzero and distinct DFMs of a

system can be eliminated by means of a proper sampled-data controller. On the other hand, decentralized overlapping control as a more advanced form of structurally constrained control systems is investigated thoroughly. An onto mapping between the decentralized control and the decentralized overlapping control is introduced, which makes the decentralized control design techniques applicable to the decentralized overlapping problem. A systematic method is proposed to check stabilizability of general proper (as opposed to strictly proper) structurally constrained controllers with respect to LTI and non-LTI systems. It is to be noted that the extension of the existing techniques to this general problem not only is non-trivial, but not feasible indeed. Besides, robust stability of the closed-loop system in the presence of polynomial uncertainties is also investigated and a necessary and sufficient condition in the form of sum-of-squares (SOS) is presented. It is to be noted that this problem has been investigated in the literature for the past ten years but prior to this work, only sufficient conditions existed for robust stability of this type of systems. The results presented in this treatise are applied to several benchmark examples, including formation flying of three UAVs, to demonstrate the efficacy of this work.

To my spouse

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# **Chapter 1**

## Introduction

Control of interconnected systems has been of great interest in the literature in the past three decades, due to its enormous applications in important real-world problems. Such applications include for example power systems, communication networks, flexible space structures, to name only a few. Due to the distributed nature of the problems of this type, the conventional control techniques are often not capable of handling them efficiently. More specifically, it is desired in the distributed interconnected systems to impose some constraints on the structure of the controller to be designed. These constraints specify the outputs of which subsystems can contribute to the construction of the input of any certain subsystem. To formulate the control problem, these constraints are usually represented by a matrix, which is often referred to as the information flow matrix.

A special case of structurally constrained controllers is when the controller of each subsystem operates independently of the other subsystems; i.e. when there is no direct interaction between the control effort of each subsystem and the output signal of other subsystems. This case is of a particular interest in the control literature, and is usually referred to as decentralized control problem. Each control component in a decentralized control system observes only the output of its corresponding subsystem to construct the input of that subsystem. The notion of decentralized fixed mode (DFM) was introduced in the literature to characterize the modes of an interconnected system which are fixed with respect to any decentralized linear time-invariant (LTI) controller. Since a DFM may not be fixed with respect to a nonlinear and time-varying controller, the notion of quotient fixed mode (QFM) was introduced later on to identify those modes that are fixed with respect to any type of decentralized control law (i.e., nonlinear and time-varying). Various properties of decentralized controllers are investigated thoroughly in the literature.

More recently, the case when the local controllers of an interconnected system can communicate with each other has been studied intensively in the literature. This problem is referred to as decentralized overlapping control, and is motivated by the following practical issues:

- The subsystems of many interconnected systems (referred to as overlapping subsystems) share some states. In this case, it is often desired that the structure of the controller matches the overlapping structure of the system.
- 2. Sometimes in centralized control systems, there are limitations on the availability of the states. In this case, only a certain subset of outputs are available for constructing each control signal. However, the control structure is not necessarily localized.

This work aims to investigate different aspects of *decentralized* and *decentralized overlapping* control designs, such as stabilization, optimality, robustness. To this end, nine chapters are included here to investigate a number of incorporated problems step by step. The relevant subjects are spelled out below.

First, the problem of designing a near-optimal decentralized control law for acyclic interconnected systems is studied and compared to the existing methods. Robustness of the proposed control law is also investigated to verify its practical applicability, and its robust performance is evaluated accordingly. The proposed method is applied to a formation of three vehicles, which manifestly demonstrates its efficacy. Next, the technique exploited to design a near-optimal decentralized controller for acyclic systems is further developed for the case of general interconnected systems. It is shown that any given centralized controller can be equivalently transformed into a decentralized one at the cost of more computational effort. A simple procedure is presented to design a decentralized controller with the aim of achieving some desirable objectives, based on the available centralized techniques. The key features of the proposed control law are studied accordingly.

It is known that discrete-time decentralized controllers can potentially outperform their continuous-time counterparts in a broad class of interconnected systems. The problem of designing a decentralized generalized sampled-data hold function for interconnected systems is considered in Chapter 4. Some recent results in this area are utilized to solve the problem of global optimization of a rational function. The proposed design technique has proved to be quite efficient and superior to the existing works.

The method developed in the preceding chapter for designing a periodic controller is suitable for medium-sized systems. Thus, an LMI-based technique is introduced in Chapter 5 which can be applied to large scale systems and has significant advantages. More precisely, for a given set of LTI systems, a periodic controller along with a compensator is proposed to stabilize all the systems simultaneously, while it acts as an optimal controller for each individual system.

By virtue of the restrictions in decentralized control, a system might have some DFMs, which are not movable via LTI decentralized controllers (as pointed out earlier). These modes deteriorate the performance of the control system, and may lead to instability. The question arises: How can these modes be eliminated? It is shown in Chapter 6 that the distinct and nonzero DFMs of a system can be simply eliminated by means of sampling. This means that sampled-data decentralized controllers can be deployed to control the systems that may not be stabilizable by means of the conventional continuous-time LTI decentralized controllers.

As mentioned earlier, the fixed modes of any system play a crucial role in control design. Thus, characterization of fixed modes is intensively investigated in the literature. Since the existing analytical methods for finding fixed modes are generally ill-conditioned and computationally inefficient, a novel graph-theoretic approach is introduced in Chapter 7 to obtain DFMs in a more efficient manner. This technique immensely diminishes the computational cost, and is attractive from several standpoints, as discussed in this chapter. Moreover, the proposed approach is extended to identify the QFMs of the system, which are the fixed modes of the system with respect to any decentralized control law (i.e., nonlinear and time-varying).

The methods proposed in the preceding Chapters for high-performance continuous and discrete feedback designs are mainly for the case when the control structure is strictly decentralized (i.e., when the control configuration is localized). It is shown in Chapter 8 how these results can be extended to the case of decentralized overlapping control design. The notions of decentralized overlapping fixed mode (DOFM) and quotient overlapping fixed mode (QOFM) are introduced. The significance of these notions as well as their relevance to DFMs and QFMs are discussed thoroughly.

In practice, the controllers obtained in the preceding chapters (either strictly decentralized, or decentralized overlapping) are to be applied to the systems subject to parameter uncertainty and perturbation. Thus, it is assumed in Chapter 9 that the closed-loop system is polynomially uncertain. Some important results are obtained for robust stability verification of the system in this case. The result obtained presents the first necessary and sufficient condition in the literature for the corresponding robust stability problem. This condition is in the form of sum-of-squares (SOS).

Finally, the problem of global optimization of a rational function subject to some constraints in the form of rational inequalities is considered in Chapter 10. This problem is motivated by the robustness verification and optimal controller design in decentralized control systems. Some SOS techniques are employed here to treat the underlying problem. It is worth mentioning that the materials presented in this dissertation are published in the following journals and conferences:

- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Optimal Periodic Feedback Design for Continuous-Time LTI Systems with Constrained Control Structure," *International Journal of Control*, vol. 80, no. 2, pp. 220-230, February 2007.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Simultaneous LQ Control of a Set of LTI Systems using Constrained Generalized Sampled-Data Hold Functions," *Automatica*, vol. 43, no. 2, pp. 274-280, February 2007.
- Javad Lavaei, Ahmadreza Momeni and Amir Aghdam, "Spacecraft Formation Control in Deep Space with Reduced Communication Requirement," *accepted (with minor modifications) in IEEE Transactions on Control System Technology*, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Robust Stability of LTI Discrete-Time Systems using Sum-of-Squares Matrix Polynomials," *in Proc. 2006 American Control Conference*, Minneapolis, MN, pp. 3828-3830, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "High-Performance Simultaneous Stabilizing Periodic Feedback Control with a Constrained Structure," *in Proc. 2006 American Control Conference*, Minneapolis, MN, pp. 839-844, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Optimal Generalized Sampled-Data Hold Functions with a Constrained Structure," *in Proc. 2006 American Control Conference*, Minneapolis, MN, pp. 200-206, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Decentralized Control Design for Interconnected Systems Based on A Centralized Reference Controller," in Proc. 45th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control, San Diego, CA, pp. 1189-1195, 2006.

- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Elimination of Fixed Modes by Means of High-Performance Constrained Periodic Control," *in Proc. 45th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control*, San Diego, CA, pp. 4441-4447, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "A Necessary and Sufficient Condition for Robust Stability of LTI Discrete-Time Systems Using Sum-of-Squares Matrix Polynomials," *in Proc. 45th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control*, San Diego, CA, pp. 2924-2930, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "A Necessary and Sufficient Condition for the Existence of a LTI Stabilizing Decentralized Overlapping Controller," *in Proc. 45th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control*, San Diego, CA, pp. 6179-6186, 2006.
- Javad Lavaei, Ahmadreza Momeni and Amir Aghdam, "High-Performance Decentralized Control for Formation Flying with Leader-Follower Structure," *in Proc. 45th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control*, San Diego, CA, pp. 5947-5954, 2006.

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- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Robust Stability of LTI Systems over Semi-Algebraic Sets using Sum-of-Squares Matrix Polynomials," 2005.
- Javad Lavaei, Ahmadreza Momeni and Amir Aghdam, "A Decentralized Servomechanism Controller for an Acyclic Interconnected System," 2005.
- Somayeh Sojoudi, Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Robust Control of LTI Systems by Means of Decentralized Overlapping Controllers," 2006.
- Somayeh Sojoudi, Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Optimal Modification of the Information Flow Structure in Decentralized Control Systems," 2006.

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- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Control of Continuous-Time LTI Systems by Means of Structurally Constrained Controllers," 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "A Graph Theoretic Method to Find Decentralized Fixed Modes of LTI Systems," 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Stabilization of Linear Time-invariant Systems by Means of Periodic Feedback," 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "High-Performance Decentralized Control Design for General Interconnected Systems with Applications in Cooperative Control," 2006.
- Javad Lavaei, Somayeh Sojoudi and Amir Aghdam, "Constrained Optimization of Rational Functions using Sum-of-Squares," 2006.

Furthermore, the following papers are submitted for conference publication:

- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Characterization of Decentralized and Quotient Fixed Modes Via Graph Theory," 2006.
- Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "On Structurally Constrained Control Design with a Prespecified Form," 2006.
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- Javad Lavaei, Somayeh Sojoudi and Amir Aghdam, "Constrained Optimization using Sum-of-Squares Technique," 2006.
- Javad Lavaei, Ahmadreza Momeni and Amir Aghdam, "A Cooperative Model Predictive Control Technique for Spacecraft Formation Flying," 2006.

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- Javad Lavaei, Ahmadreza Momeni and Amir Aghdam, "A Near-Optimal Decentralized Servomechanism Controller for Hierarchical Interconnected Systems," 2006.
- Somayeh Sojoudi, Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "An Optimal Information Flow Structure for Control of Interconnected Systems," 2006.
- Somayeh Sojoudi, Javad Lavaei and Amir Aghdam, "Structurally Robust Control Design for Decentralized Overlapping Systems," 2006.

### Chapter 2

# A Near-Optimal Decentralized Control Law for Interconnected Systems

### 2.1 Abstract

In this chapter, an incrementally linear decentralized control law is proposed for the formation of cooperative vehicles with leader-follower topology. It is assumed that each vehicle knows the modeling parameters of other vehicles with uncertainty as well as the expected values of their initial states. A decentralized control law is proposed, which aims to perform as close as possible to a centralized LQR controller. It is shown that the decentralized controller behaves the same as its centralized counterpart, provided *a priori* information of each vehicle about others is accurate. Since this condition does not hold in practice, a method is presented to evaluate the deviation of the performance of the decentralized system from that of its centralized counterpart. Furthermore, the necessary and sufficient conditions for the stability of the overall closed-loop system in presence of parameter perturbations are given through a series of simple tests. It is shown that stability of the overall system is independent of the magnitude

of the expected value of the initial states. Moreover, it is shown that the decentralized control system is likely to be more robust than the centralized one. Optimal decentralized cheap control problem is then investigated for the leader-follower formation structure, and a closed form solution is given for the case when the system parameters meet a certain condition. Simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed controller in terms of feasibility and performance.

### 2.2 Introduction

In the past several years, a certain class of interconnected systems, namely acyclic systems, has found applications in different practical problems such as formation flight, underwater vehicles, automated highway, robotics, satellite constellation, etc., which have leader-follower structures or structures with virtual leaders [1-13]. The main feature of this class of systems is that their structural graphs are acyclic, i.e. they do not have any directed cycles.

In a leader-follower formation structure, each vehicle is provided with some information (e.g., acceleration or velocity) of certain set of vehicles. It is shown in the literature that the control problem of such formation can be formulated as the *decentralized* control problem of an acyclic interconnected system, where each local controller uses only the information of its corresponding subsystem (e.g., see [2]). The objective of this chapter is to design a decentralized controller which stabilizes any system with an acyclic structure, and performs sufficiently close to the optimal centralized controller. In other words, it is desired to reduce the degradation of the performance due to the information flow constraints in decentralized control structures.

During the past three decades, much effort has been made to formulate the optimal decentralized control problem, or solve it numerically. The main objective is to find a decentralized feedback law for an interconnected system in order to attain a sufficiently small

performance index. These works can mainly be categorized as follows:

- 1. The first approach is to eliminate all of the interconnections between the subsystems in order to obtain a set of decoupled subsystems, and then design a local optimal controller for each of the resultant isolated subsystems [14], [15], [16]. Since the effect of interconnections has been neglected in this design procedure, the resultant closed-loop system with these local controllers may be unstable. Even when the interconnected system under the above controllers is stable, the performance index may be poor. As a result, this decentralized control design technique is ineffective in presence of strong coupling between the subsystems.
- 2. Another approach is to obtain a decentralized static output feedback law by using iterative numerical algorithms in order to minimize the expected value of the quadratic performance index with respect to an initial state with a given probability distribution [17], [18], [19], [20]. This type of design techniques are, in fact, the extended versions of the algorithms for designing optimal centralized static output feedback gain, such as Levine-Athans and Anderson-Moore methods. Although these techniques result in a better performance compared to the preceding method, they have several shortcomings. First of all, they only present necessary conditions, which are mainly in the form of complicated coupled nonlinear matrix equations. Secondly, these iterative algorithms require an initial stabilizing static gain, which should satisfy some requirements. Finally, using a dynamic feedback law instead of a static, the overall performance of the system can be improved significantly.
- 3. In the third method, the optimal decentralized control problem is formulated by first imposing some assumptions to parameterize all decentralized stabilizing controllers, and then choosing the control parameters such that a desired performance is achieved [21], [22]. However, the resultant equations are either some sophisticated differential

matrix equations or some nonconvex relations, which makes them very difficult to solve, in general.

4. This approach deals with a system with a hierarchical structure. For this class of systems, a rather centralized controller is designed in [23]. The decentralized version of this work is discussed in [24] for a discrete-time system. However, this method can analogously be applied to a continuous-time system, which can be interpreted as follows. In the hierarchical structure, consider the subsystem with the highest-level. Design a centralized local controller for that subsystem assuming that the remaining subsystems are in the open loop, which is desired to account for the performance index. Next, identify the second subsystem with the highest-level, and similarly, design a centralized local controller for it assuming that the first controller designed is a part of the system. Continuing this procedure, one can design all local controllers one at a time. The advantage of this method compared to the Method 2, explained above, is that it reduces off-line computation. However, this approach is inferior to Method 2, explained above, all of the static gains are determined simultaneously. As a result, this approach is proper once the order of the system is so high that the computational complexity is a crucial factor.

(note that the first three approaches are for general interconnected systems, while the last one is only for hierarchical systems). There are some other design techniques which are, in fact, combinations of methods 2 and 3 discussed above. All of these approaches are generally incapable of designing a decentralized controller with a satisfactory performance for most systems, including the class of interconnected systems with acyclic structural graphs.

This chapter presents a novel design strategy to obtain a high-performance decentralized control law for interconnected systems with leader-follower structure. It will later be shown that the proposed control law outperforms the first, the second and the fourth methods discussed above, and also has a simpler formulation compared to the third method. It is assumed that the state of each subsystem is available in its local output (this is a realistic assumption in many vehicle formation problems, e.g. see [25]), and that a quadratic cost function is defined to evaluate the control performance. The local controller of each subsystem is constructed based on *a priori* information about the model and initial states of all other subsystems. It is shown that if a priori knowledge of each subsystem is accurate, the performance of the decentralized control system is equal to the minimum achievable performance (which corresponds to the LQR centralized state feedback). In addition, a procedure is proposed to evaluate the closeness of the performance index in the decentralized case to the best achievable performance index (corresponding to the centralized LQR controller) in terms of the amount of inaccuracy in *a priori* knowledge of any subsystem. This enables the designer to statistically assess the performance of the proposed controller. Moreover, a set of easy-to-check necessary and sufficient conditions for the stability of the decentralized closed-loop system is given for both cases of exact and perturbed models for the system. It is to be noted that providing some information about the model of other subsystems for each individual local controller is performed off-line, in the beginning of control operation, and does not require any communication link between different subsystems. In other words, the proposed control structure is truly decentralized. Optimal cheap control problem is also studied for the leader-follower formation flying. This may require new actuators to be implemented on the vehicles in order to meet a condition on the input structure, which is necessary for the development of the results. While cheap control strategy may not be for many formation flying applications, e.g., constellation of satellites, where it is more desired to apply a minimum fuel control strategy, it can be very useful in certain formation applications involving UAVs with fast tracking missions. Throughout this chapter, each vehicle in formation will be referred to as a subsystem and the whole formation consisting of the leader(s) and all followers will be referred to as the system.

#### 2.3 **Decentralized control law**

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Consider a stabilizable interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{S}_1, \mathscr{S}_2, ..., \mathscr{S}_v)$  with the following statespace equation:

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu \tag{2.1}$$

where

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{v1} & A_{v2} & \dots & A_{vv} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B := \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & B_v \end{bmatrix} \quad u := \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_v \end{bmatrix}, \quad x := \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_v \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.2)

and where  $x_i \in \Re^{n_i}$ ,  $u_i \in \Re^{m_i}$ ,  $i \in \bar{v} := \{1, 2, ..., v\}$ , are the state and the input of the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem  $\mathcal{S}_i$ , respectively. It is to be noted that the matrices A and B are block lower triangular and block diagonal, respectively. Assume that the state of each subsystem is available in the corresponding local output. This is a feasible assumption in most formation flying applications. For instance, the autonomous formation flying sensor (AFF) or the laser metrology [25] can be used to accurately measure the relative position and velocity in different formation flying missions.

**Remark 1** Consider an interconnected system whose structural graph is acyclic. It is known that the subsystems of this interconnected system can be renumbered in such a way that its corresponding matrix A is lower block diagonal [28]. In other words, any system with an acyclic structural graph can be converted to a system of the form  $\mathcal{S}$  given by (2.1) and (2.2), by simply reordering its inputs and outputs properly, if necessary.

Consider now the following quadratic performance index:

$$J = \int_0^\infty \left( x^T Q x + u^T R u \right) dt \tag{2.3}$$

where  $R \in \Re^{m \times m}$  and  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$   $(n := \sum_{i=1}^{v} n_i, m := \sum_{i=1}^{v} m_i)$  are positive definite and positive semi-definite matrices, respectively. For simplicity and without loss of generality, assume that Q and R are symmetric. It is known that if (A, B) is stabilizable, then the performance index (2.3) is minimized by using the centralized state feedback law:

$$u(t) = -Kx(t) \tag{2.4}$$

where the gain matrix

$$K := \begin{bmatrix} k_{11} & \dots & k_{1\nu} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k_{\nu 1} & \dots & k_{\nu \nu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad k_{ij} \in \Re^{m_i \times n_j}, \quad i, j \in \bar{\nu}$$
(2.5)

is derived from the solution of the Riccati equation [26].

Define the  $v \times v$  block matrix  $\Phi = sI - A + BK$  as

$$\Phi := \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{11} & \dots & \Phi_{1\nu} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Phi_{\nu 1} & \dots & \Phi_{\nu \nu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Phi_{ij} \in \Re^{n_i \times n_j}, \quad i, j \in \bar{\nu}$$
(2.6)

and for any  $i \in \bar{v}$ , define:

$$M_{1_{i}}(s) := \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{11} & \dots & \Phi_{1(i-1)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Phi_{(i-1)1} & \dots & \Phi_{(i-1)(i-1)} \end{bmatrix}, M_{2_{i}} := \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{1(i+1)} & \dots & \Phi_{1\nu} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Phi_{(i-1)(i+1)} & \dots & \Phi_{(i-1)\nu} \end{bmatrix}, M_{3_{i}} := \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{(i+1)1} & \dots & \Phi_{(i+1)(i-1)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Phi_{\nu 1} & \dots & \Phi_{\nu(i-1)} \end{bmatrix}, M_{4_{i}}(s) := \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{(i+1)(i+1)} & \dots & \Phi_{(i+1)\nu} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Phi_{\nu(i+1)} & \dots & \Phi_{\nu\nu} \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$(2.7)$$

It is to be noted that the entries of the matrices  $M_{1_i}(s)$  and  $M_{4_i}(s)$  are functions of s, but the entries of the two other matrices are constant and independent of s. Consider now the following v local controllers for the system (2.1):

$$U_{i}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} k_{i1} & \dots & k_{i(i-1)} & k_{i(i+1)} & \dots & k_{iv} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_{i}}(s) & M_{2_{i}} \\ M_{3_{i}} & M_{4_{i}}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \\ \times \begin{bmatrix} B_{1}k_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ B_{(i-1)}k_{(i-1)i} \\ -A_{(i+1)i} + B_{(i+1)}k_{(i+1)i} \\ \vdots \\ -A_{vi} + B_{v}k_{vi} \end{bmatrix} X_{i}(s) \\ - \begin{bmatrix} k_{i1} & \dots & k_{i(i-1)} & k_{i(i+1)} & \dots & k_{iv} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_{i}}(s) & M_{2_{i}} \\ M_{3_{i}} & M_{4_{i}}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \\ \times \begin{bmatrix} x_{0}^{1,i} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{i-1,i} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{v,i} \end{bmatrix} - k_{ii}X_{i}(s) , \quad i \in \bar{v} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{v,i} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(2.8)$$

**Theorem 1** By choosing  $x_0^{j,i} = x_j(0)$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$  in (2.8), the resultant decentralized control law will be equivalent to the optimal centralized controller (2.4).

**Proof** Substitute (2.2), (2.4), and (2.5) into (2.1), take the Laplace transform of the resultant matrix equation, and eliminate its  $i^{\text{th}}$  row. Rearrange the equation to obtain a relation between

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1(s)^T & X_2(s)^T & \cdots & X_{i-1}(s)^T & X_{i+1}(s)^T & \cdots & X_V(s)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(2.9)

and

$$\left[ x_1(0)^T \cdots x_{i-1}(0)^T x_{i+1}(0)^T \cdots x_V(0)^T \right]^T$$
(2.10)

The proof follows immediately by substituting the resultant relation into the  $i^{\text{th}}$  block row of the equation (2.4) in the Laplace domain.

Note that  $U_i(s)$  in (2.8) is expressed in terms of the corresponding local information  $X_i(s)$  and some constant values  $x_0^{j,i}$ , j = 1, ..., i - 1, i + 1, ..., v, but the parameters of the overall system  $A_{ji}, B_i$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \ge j$ , are assumed to be known by each subsystem. This assumption, however, is relaxed in Section 2.6. Note also that the control law given by (2.8) is time-invariant and incrementally linear due to the constants  $x_0^{i,j}$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \ne j$ .

Since the control law given by (2.8) depends on the constant values  $x_0^{j,i}$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $j \neq i$ , it is very important to check the stability of the system with the resultant decentralized controller.

### 2.4 Stability analysis via graph decomposition

It is desired now to find some conditions for the stability of the system (2.1) when the local controllers (2.8) are applied to the corresponding subsystems. The following definition will be used in Theorem 2.

**Definition 1** Consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  given by (2.1). The modified system  $\mathbf{S}^i$ ,  $i \in \{2, ..., v\}$ , is defined to be a system obtained by removing all interconnections going to the  $i^{th}$  subsystem in  $\mathscr{S}$ . The state equation of the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^i$  is as follows:

$$\dot{x} = \tilde{A}^i x + B u$$

where  $\tilde{A}^i$  is derived from A by replacing the first i - 1 block entries of its  $i^{th}$  block row with zeros.

**Theorem 2** Consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  given by (2.1). Assume that the v local controllers given by (2.8) are applied to the corresponding subsystems. A sufficient and almost always necessary condition for stability of the resultant decentralized closed-loop system, regardless of the constant values  $x_0^{j,i}$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , is that all modified systems  $\mathbf{S}^i$ , i = 2, ..., v, are stable under the centralized state feedback law (2.4).

**Remark 2** "Almost always necessary" in Theorem 2 means that for the given matrices A and B, the set of stabilizing gains K for which the stability of  $S^i$ , i = 2, ..., v under the centralized state feedback law (2.4) is violated but the proposed decentralized closed-loop system is still stable, is either an empty set or a hypersurface in the parameter space of K [27].

**Proof** *Proof of sufficiency:* Suppose that the centralized LTI control system obtained by applying the state feedback law u(t) = -Kx(t) to the modified system  $S^i$  is stable for all  $i \in \{2, ..., v\}$ . It will be proved by using strong induction that the states of the decentralized control system with the v local controllers (2.8) are bounded.

Basis of induction (i = 1): It is desired to show that the state of the first subsystem is bounded. However, the proof is omitted due to its similarity to the proof of the *induction step*, which will follow.

Induction hypothesis: Suppose that the state of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem is bounded for i = 1, 2, ..., m-1.

Induction step: It is required to prove that the state of the  $m^{th}$  subsystem is bounded. To

simplify the formulation, define the following matrices ( $m \in \bar{v}$ ):

$$Y_{1_{m}} := \begin{bmatrix} B_{m}k_{m1} & \dots & B_{m}k_{m(m-1)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad Y_{2_{m}} := \begin{bmatrix} B_{m}k_{m(m+1)} & \dots & B_{m}k_{mv} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Z_{1_{m}} := \begin{bmatrix} B_{1}k_{1_{m}} \\ \vdots \\ B_{(m-1)}k_{(m-1)m} \end{bmatrix}, \quad Z_{2_{m}} := \begin{bmatrix} -A_{(m+1)m} + B_{(m+1)}k_{(m+1)m} \\ \vdots \\ -A_{vm} + B_{v}k_{vm} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_{0}^{m} := \begin{bmatrix} x_{0}^{1,m} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{m-1,m} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{v,m} \end{bmatrix}, \quad H_{m}(s) := [sI - A_{mm} + B_{m}k_{mm}]$$

$$(2.11)$$

Now, by using equations (2.8) and (2.1) (with the matrices A and B given by (2.2)), the following can be concluded:

$$sX_{m}(s) = A_{m1}X_{1}(s) + A_{m2}X_{2}(s) + \dots + A_{mm}X_{m}(s) - B_{m}k_{mm}X_{m}(s) + \left[ \begin{array}{c} Y_{1_{m}} & Y_{2_{m}} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c} M_{1_{m}}(s) & M_{2_{m}} \\ M_{3_{m}} & M_{4_{m}}(s) \end{array} \right]^{-1} \left[ \begin{array}{c} Z_{1_{m}} \\ Z_{2_{m}} \end{array} \right] X_{m}(s) + x_{m}(0) + \left[ \begin{array}{c} Y_{1_{m}} & Y_{2_{m}} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c} M_{1_{m}}(s) & M_{2_{m}} \\ M_{3_{m}} & M_{4_{m}}(s) \end{array} \right]^{-1} x_{0}^{m}$$

$$(2.12)$$

Based on the induction assumption,  $x_j(t)$ 's are bounded for j = 1, 2, ..., m - 1, and consequently they can be considered as exponentially decaying disturbances for the  $m^{\text{th}}$  subsystem. Hence, they do not influence the stability of the  $m^{\text{th}}$  subsystem. Define the homogenous solution  $x_{hm}(t)$  to be the part of the solution for  $x_m(t)$  which corresponds to  $x_1(t) = \cdots = x_{m-1}(t) =$  0. This solution satisfies the following equation:

$$sX_{hm}(s) = A_{mm}X_{hm}(s) - B_{m}k_{mm}X_{hm}(s) - \begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_{m}} & Y_{2_{m}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_{m}}(s) & M_{2_{m}} \\ M_{3_{m}} & M_{4_{m}}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} x_{0}^{m} + \begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_{m}} & Y_{2_{m}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_{m}}(s) & M_{2_{m}} \\ M_{3_{m}} & M_{4_{m}}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} Z_{1_{m}} \\ Z_{2_{m}} \end{bmatrix} X_{hm}(s) + x_{m}(0)$$

$$(2.13)$$

or equivalently

$$\begin{pmatrix} (sI - A_{mm} + B_m k_{mm}) - \begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_m} & Y_{2_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} Z_{1_m} \\ Z_{2_m} \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} X_{hm}(s) = x_m(0) - \begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_m} & Y_{2_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} x_0^m$$

$$(2.14)$$

It can be concluded from (2.14) that  $x_{hm}(t)$  can be expressed as:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{l} (p_i(t)x_m(0) + q_i(t)x_0^m) e^{s_i t}$$
(2.15)

where  $s = s_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l, are the roots of the following equation

$$det \left( H_m(s) - \begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_m} & Y_{2_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} Z_{1_m} \\ Z_{2_m} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\times det \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
(2.16)

and also  $p_i(t)$  and  $q_i(t)$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l are matrices with polynomial entries of degree less than or equal to the multiplicity of  $s = s_i$  as the root of the above equation, minus one. On the other hand, it can be shown that:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} L_{1} & L_{2} & L_{3} \\ L_{4} & L_{5} & L_{6} \\ L_{7} & L_{8} & L_{9} \end{bmatrix} = det \begin{bmatrix} L_{1} & L_{3} \\ L_{7} & L_{9} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\times det \left( L_{5} - \begin{bmatrix} L_{4} & L_{6} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} L_{1} & L_{3} \\ L_{7} & L_{9} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} L_{2} \\ L_{8} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

where  $L_1, L_5$ , and  $L_9$  are square matrices and  $L_1, L_3, L_7$ , and  $L_9$  are matrices with the property that  $\begin{bmatrix} L_1 & L_3 \\ L_7 & L_9 \end{bmatrix}$  is nonsingular. Thus, the equation (2.16) can be simplified as follows:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & Z_{1_m} & M_{2_m} \\ Y_{1_m} & H_m(s) & Y_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & Z_{2_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
(2.17)

By substituting the entries of the above matrix from (2.7) and (2.11), it can be rewritten in the following simplified form:

$$det(sI - \tilde{A}^m + BK) = 0 \tag{2.18}$$

On the other hand, the modes of the closed-loop system  $S^m$  under the feedback law (2.4) can be obtained from (2.18). Since it has been assumed that this closed-loop system is stable, all complex numbers  $s_1, ..., s_l$  will be in the open left-half *s*-plane. As a result, the state of the  $m^{\text{th}}$ subsystem is bounded.

Proof of necessity for almost all K's: Suppose that some of the modified systems  $S^2, S^3, ..., S^{\nu}$  are not stabilized by the feedback law (2.4). It is desired to show that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the proposed local controllers (2.8) is almost always unstable. Let the first modified system which is unstable under the feedback law (2.4) be denoted by  $S^m$ , i.e. all of the systems  $S^2, S^3, ..., S^{m-1}$  are stabilized by (2.4). Using the first m-1 steps of the induction

introduced in the proof of sufficiency, it can be concluded that the states of the subsystems 1, 2, ..., m-1 of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the proposed local controllers (2.8) are bounded. Now, if the induction continues one more step, it can be concluded that since  $x_j(t)$  is bounded for j = 1, 2, ..., m-1, there exists a particular solution for  $x_m(t)$  which approaches zero as time goes to infinity, and the homogenous part of the solution for  $x_m(t)$  (denoted by  $x_{hm}(t)$ , which corresponds to  $x_1(t) = \cdots = x_{m-1}(t) = 0$ ) satisfies the equation (2.13), or equivalently (2.14). Choose any arbitrary unstable mode of the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^m$  under the feedback law (2.4), and denote it with  $s = \sigma^m$ . This mode must satisfy (2.17) or equivalently (2.16). As mentioned in the proof of sufficiency,  $x_{hm}(t)$  can be expressed as  $\sum_{i=1}^{l} (p_i(t)x_m(0) + q_i(t)x_0^m) e^{s_i t}$ , where  $s = s_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l, are the roots of the equation (2.16). However, it is required to determine whether or not  $s = \sigma^m$  satisfying (2.16) appears among  $s = s_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l. It can be easily verified that  $\sigma^m \neq s_i$ , for all i = 1, 2, ..., l iff both of the following conditions hold.

•  $s = \sigma^m$  is a root of the following equation:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
 (2.19)

Note that if the above equation is not satisfied for  $s = \sigma^m$ , then

$$det \left( H_m(s) - \left[ \begin{array}{cc} Y_{1_m} & Y_{2_m} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{cc} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{array} \right]^{-1} \left[ \begin{array}{cc} Z_{1_m} \\ Z_{2_m} \end{array} \right] \right) = 0$$

for  $s = \sigma^m$ . This will generate a term  $p_i(t)x_m(0)e^{\sigma^m t}$  in  $x_{hm}(t)$  that makes  $x_m(t)$  go to infinity as time increases. Since the matrix in the left side of (2.19) has been derived from sI - A + BK by eliminating its  $m^{\text{th}}$  block row and  $m^{\text{th}}$  block column, this requirement is equivalent to the following statement:

The modified system  $S^m$  has an unstable mode  $s = \sigma^m$  under the feedback law (2.4), and that mode is also the unstable mode of the system S under the feedback law (2.4) after isolating its  $m^{th}$  subsystem (eliminating all of the inputs, outputs, and interconnections of its  $m^{th}$  subsystem). • The mode  $s = \sigma^m$  is cancelled out in the following expression:

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_m} & Y_{2_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_{1_m}(s) & M_{2_m} \\ M_{3_m} & M_{4_m}(s) \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

This means that  $s = \sigma^m$  does not appear in any of the denominators of the entries of the above matrix. Let the matrix obtained from A - BK by eliminating its  $m^{\text{th}}$  block row and  $m^{\text{th}}$  block column be denoted by  $\Phi^m$ . It is easy to verify that this condition is equivalent to the following statement:

The mode 
$$s = \sigma^m$$
 is an unobservable mode of the pair  $\left( \begin{bmatrix} Y_{1_m} & Y_{2_m} \end{bmatrix}, \Phi^m \right)$ 

Apparently, for the given matrices A and B, the set of stabilizing gains K for which both of the above conditions hold is either an empty set or a hypersurface in the parameter space of K (for definition of a hypersurface and some similar examples see [27]). If the stabilizing gains K located on a hypersurface are neglected,  $s = \sigma^m$  appears among  $s = s_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l, which makes  $x_{hm}(t)$  go to infinity, as t increases. This yields the instability of the decentralized closed-loop control systems.

Theorem 2 states that the stability of the interconnected system given by (2.1) under the proposed decentralized control law is *almost always* equivalent to the stability of a set of v - 1 centralized LTI control systems, which can be easily verified from the location of the corresponding eigenvalues.

### **2.5** Robust stability analysis

Since the decentralized control law (2.8) has been obtained based on the nominal parameters of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , it may become unstable once the proposed control law is applied to the perturbed system. Thus, the robust stability of the controller with respect to uncertainties in the original system is an important issue which will be addressed in this section.

Suppose that the decentralized control law (2.8), which is computed in terms of the nominal parameters A and B of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , is applied to the system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$ , which is the perturbed version of  $\mathscr{S}$  described as follows:

$$\dot{x} = \bar{A}x + \bar{B}u \tag{2.20}$$

where

$$\bar{A} := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{A}_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \bar{A}_{21} & \bar{A}_{22} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \bar{A}_{v1} & \bar{A}_{v2} & \dots & \bar{A}_{vv} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{B} := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{B}_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \bar{B}_v \end{bmatrix}$$

It is to be noted that the perturbed matrices  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$  are also block lower triangular and block diagonal, respectively. In other words, it is assumed that parameter variations will not generate new interconnections, i.e. the structural graph of the perturbed system will also be acyclic.

**Definition 2** The perturbed modified system  $\bar{\mathbf{S}}^i, i \in \bar{\mathbf{v}}$ , is defined by:

$$\dot{x} = \bar{A}^i x + \bar{B}^i u$$

where the matrix  $\bar{A}^i$  is the same as A, except for its i - 1 block entries  $A_{i1}, ..., A_{i(i-1)}$ , which are replaced by zeros, and its  $A_{ii}$  block entry which is replaced by  $\bar{A}_{ii}$ . Also, the matrix  $\bar{B}^i$  is the same as B, except for its (i,i) block entry  $B_i$ , which is replaced by  $\bar{B}_i$ .  $\bar{S}^i$  is, in fact, obtained by modifying  $\mathscr{S}$  as follows:

- All interconnections going to the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem are removed.
- The nominal parameters  $(A_{ii}, B_i)$  of the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem are replaced by the perturbed parameters  $(\bar{A}_{ii}, \bar{B}_i)$ .

**Theorem 3** Consider the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}$  given by (2.20), and assume that the v local controllers given by (2.8) are applied to the corresponding subsystems. A sufficient and almost always

necessary condition for stability of the resultant decentralized closed-loop system, regardless of the constant values  $x_0^{j,i}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , is that all perturbed modified systems  $\bar{\mathbf{S}}^i$ , i = 1, ..., v, are stable under the centralized state feedback law (2.4).

**Proof** The proof is omitted due to its similarity to the proof of Theorem 2.

**Remark 3** Since none of the perturbed parameters  $\bar{A}_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , appear in the perturbed modified systems  $\bar{S}^1, \bar{S}^2, ..., \bar{S}^v$ , the robust stability of the proposed decentralized feedback law is independent of the perturbation of the interconnection parameters (note that this statement is valid for any decentralized control law designed by any arbitrary approach, which is applied to an acyclic interconnected system. In other words, the controller need not be optimal).

Define the perturbation matrix as the perturbed matrix minus the original matrix. The perturbed and perturbation matrices for a matrix M are denoted by  $\overline{M}$  and  $\Delta M$ , respectively. Suppose that the decentralized feedback law (2.8) is designed in terms of the nominal matrices A and B, and then applied to the perturbed system  $\overline{\mathscr{I}}$  with the state-space matrices  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$ . The objective is to find the allowable perturbation matrices  $\Delta A = \overline{A} - A$  and  $\Delta B = \overline{B} - B$ , for which the decentralized closed-loop system will still remain stable. In Theorem 3, a sufficient condition to achieve this objective is presented, which is *almost always* necessary. Robustness analysis with respect to the perturbation in the parameters of the system can then be summarized as follows:

- For decentralized case, the location of the eigenvalues of the v matrices  $\bar{A}^1 \bar{B}^1 K, \bar{A}^2 \bar{B}^2 K, ..., \bar{A}^v \bar{B}^v K$  should be checked.
- For centralized case, the location of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\overline{A} \overline{B}K$  should be checked.

Robustness analysis in both classes addresses the following problem, in general: Consider a Hurtiwz matrix M, and assume that its entries are subject to perturbations. It is desired to know how much sensitive the eigenvalues of M are to the variation of its entries. More specifically, it is desired to find out how much the matrix M can be perturbed so that the resultant matrix is still Hurtiwz.

This problem has been addressed in the literature using different mathematical approaches [29], [30], [31]. Sensitivity of the eigenvalues to the variation of its entries depends, in general, on several factors such as the norm of the perturbation matrix, structure of the matrix (represented by condition number or eigenvalue condition number [30]), and repetition or distinction of the eigenvalues.

**Theorem 4** The bound on the Frobenius norm of the perturbation matrix corresponding to each of the matrices  $\bar{A}^i - \bar{B}^i K$ , i = 1, 2, ..., v in the decentralized case is less than or equal to that of the perturbation matrix corresponding to  $\bar{A} - \bar{B}K$  in the centralized case.

**Proof** The following relation holds for the decentralized case:

$$\|\Delta(\bar{A}^{i}-\bar{B}^{i}K)\|_{F} = \|(\bar{A}^{i}-\bar{B}^{i}K) - (\tilde{A}^{i}-BK)\|_{F} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1, j\neq i}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_{i}k_{ij}\|_{F}^{2} + \|\Delta B_{i}k_{ii} + \Delta A_{ii}\|_{F}^{2}}$$

This results in:

$$\|\Delta(\bar{A}^i - \bar{B}^i K)\|_F \le \sqrt{\Gamma_{\text{dec}_i}} , \qquad i \in \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$
(2.21)

where

$$\Gamma_{\text{dec}_i} := \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_i k_{ij}\|_F^2 + \|\Delta A_{ii}\|_F^2 , \quad i \in \bar{\nu}$$
(2.22)

For the centralized case, on the other hand, one can write

$$\begin{split} \|\Delta(\bar{A} - \bar{B}K)\|_{F} &= \|(\bar{A} - \bar{B}K) - (A - BK)\|_{F} \\ &= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \sum_{j=1}^{i} \|\Delta B_{i}k_{ij} + \Delta A_{ij}\|_{F}^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \sum_{j=i+1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_{i}k_{ij}\|_{F}^{2}} \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$\|\Delta(\bar{A} - \bar{B}K)\|_F \le \sqrt{\Gamma_{\text{cen}}}$$
(2.23)

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where

$$\Gamma_{\text{cen}} := \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_i k_{ij}\|_F^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \sum_{j=1}^{i} \|\Delta A_{ij}\|_F^2$$
(2.24)

It is apparent from (2.22) and (2.24), that

$$\Gamma_{\text{dec}_1} + \Gamma_{\text{dec}_2} + \dots + \Gamma_{\text{dec}_{\nu}} \le \Gamma_{\text{cen}}$$
(2.25)

Therefore,

$$\sqrt{\Gamma_{\text{dec}_i}} \le \sqrt{\Gamma_{\text{cen}}}, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., v$$
 (2.26)

The proof follows immediately from (2.21), (2.23) and (2.26). It is to be noted that the inequality (2.26) obtained above, is more conservative than (2.25), obtained in the preceding step.

According to Theorem 4, there are v perturbed matrices in the decentralized case, and the bound on the Frobenius norm of the perturbation matrix for each of them is less than or equal to the bound on the Frobenius norm of the corresponding perturbation matrix in the centralized case. Therefore, it can be concluded from the above discussion and Remark 3, that the proposed decentralized controller is expected to perform better than the centralized counterpart in terms of robust stability with respect to the parameter variations of the system. This result can also be deduced intuitively, because for any subsystems *i* and *j* (*i* > *j*):

- In the centralized case, any perturbation in subsystem *i* will influence the state of subsystem *j* through the feedback and can cause the instability of the closed-loop system.
- In the decentralized case, no perturbation in subsystem *i* can influence the state of subsystem *j* through the feedback or through the interconnections, due to the particular structure of the system (i.e., lower-triangular structure of *A* and diagonal structure of *B*).

## 2.6 Non-identical local beliefs about the system model

In practice, different local controllers may assume different models for the overall system. It is desired now to find some results similar to the ones presented in Theorem 3, under the above condition.

Suppose that control agent *l* assumes the matrices  $\hat{A}^l$  and  $\hat{B}^l$  instead of the matrices *A* and *B* in the state-space representation (2.1) of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . Denote the (i, j) block entry of  $\hat{A}^l$  with  $\hat{A}_{ij}^l \in \Re^{n_i \times n_j}$ , for any  $i, j \in \bar{v}, i \ge j$ , and the (i, i) block entry of  $\hat{B}^l$  with  $\hat{B}_i^l \in \Re^{n_i \times m_i}$  for any  $i \in \bar{v}$ . Now, for any  $l \in \bar{v}$ , replace *A* and *B* in the equation (2.1) with  $\hat{A}^l$  and  $\hat{B}^l$ , respectively. Then solve the corresponding LQR problem for the above matrices, to obtain the optimal static gain  $\hat{K}^l$ , whose (i, j) block entry is denoted by  $\hat{k}_{ij}^l$ , for all  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ . Define the matrices  $\hat{M}_{1i}^l(s), \hat{M}_{2i}^l, \hat{M}_{3i}^l$  and  $\hat{M}_{4i}^l(s)$  similarly to the matrices in (2.7), by replacing  $\Phi = sI - A + BK$  in (2.6) with  $\hat{\Phi}^l := sI - \hat{A}^l + \hat{B}^l \hat{K}^l$ . Therefore, the *l*<sup>th</sup> local control law, in this case, is given by  $(l \in \bar{v})$ :

$$\begin{aligned} U_{l}(s) &= \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{k}_{l1}^{l} & \dots & \hat{k}_{l(l-1)}^{l} & \hat{k}_{l(l+1)}^{l} & \dots & \hat{k}_{l\nu} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{M}_{1l}^{l}(s) & \hat{M}_{2l}^{l} \\ \hat{M}_{3l}^{l} & \hat{M}_{4l}^{l}(s) \end{array} \right]^{-1} \\ &\times \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{B}_{1}^{l} \hat{k}_{1l}^{l} \\ \vdots \\ \hat{B}_{(l-1)}^{l} \hat{k}_{(l-1)l}^{l} \\ -\hat{A}_{(l+1)l}^{l} + \hat{B}_{l(l+1)}^{l} \hat{k}_{l(l+1)l}^{l} \\ \vdots \\ -\hat{A}_{\nu l}^{l} + \hat{B}_{\nu}^{l} \hat{k}_{\nu l}^{l} \end{array} \right] X_{l}(s) \\ &- \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{k}_{l1}^{l} & \dots & \hat{k}_{l(l-1)}^{l} & \hat{k}_{l(l+1)}^{l} \\ \vdots \\ -\hat{A}_{\nu l}^{l} + \hat{B}_{\nu}^{l} \hat{k}_{\nu l}^{l} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{M}_{1l}^{l}(s) & \hat{M}_{2l}^{l} \\ \hat{M}_{3l}^{l} & \hat{M}_{4l}^{l}(s) \end{array} \right]^{-1} \end{array}$$

$$(2.27) \\ &- \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{k}_{l1}^{l} & \dots & \hat{k}_{l(l+1)}^{l} & \hat{k}_{l(l+1)}^{l} & \dots & \hat{k}_{l\nu}^{l} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \hat{M}_{1l}^{l}(s) & \hat{M}_{2l}^{l} \\ \hat{M}_{3l}^{l} & \hat{M}_{4l}^{l}(s) \end{array} \right]^{-1} \\ &\times \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} x_{0}^{1,l} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{l-1,l} \\ \vdots \\ x_{0}^{\nu,l} \end{array} \right] - \hat{k}_{ll}^{l} X_{l}(s) \end{array} \right] \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 3** The uncertain model  $\hat{\mathbf{S}}^l$ ,  $l \in \bar{\mathbf{v}}$ , is defined by:

$$\dot{x}(t) = A^l x(t) + B^l u(t)$$

where the matrix  $A^l$  is the same as  $\hat{A}^l$ , except for its l-1 block entries  $\hat{A}^l_{l1}, ..., \hat{A}^l_{l(l-1)}$ , which are replaced by zeros, and its  $\hat{A}^l_{ll}$  block entry, which is replaced by  $\bar{A}_{ll}$ . Also, the matrix  $B^l$  is the same as  $\hat{B}^l$ , except for its (l, l) block entry  $\hat{B}^l_l$ , which is replaced by  $\bar{B}_l$ .

**Corollary 1** Consider the system  $\overline{\mathcal{I}}$  given by (2.20). Assume that the v local controllers given by (2.27) are applied to the corresponding subsystems. A sufficient and almost always

necessary condition for stability of the resultant decentralized closed-loop system, regardless of the constant values  $x_0^{j,i}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , is that the uncertain system  $\hat{\mathbf{S}}^i$  is stable under the centralized state feedback law  $u(t) = -\hat{K}^i x(t)$ , for all  $i \in \bar{v}$ .

**Proof** The proof is omitted due to its similarity to the proof of Theorem 2.

#### 2.7 Centralized and decentralized performance comparison

So far, a decentralized control law has been proposed for a class of stabilizable LTI systems with the property that if the modeling parameters and the initial state of each subsystem are available in all other subsystems, then the proposed controller will be equivalent to the optimal centralized controller. It is to be noted that the equalities  $\hat{A}^l = A$ ,  $\hat{B}^l = B$ ,  $l \in \bar{v}$ , will hereafter be assumed to simplify the presentation of the properties of the decentralized control proposed in this chapter. Note that the results presented under this assumption, can simply be extended to the general case. It has also been shown that if the conditions of Theorem 2 are satisfied, then by using any arbitrary constant values instead of the initial states of other subsystems form each subsystem's view, the resultant decentralized closed-loop system will remain stable, which implies that the deviation  $\Delta J$  of the resultant quadratic performance index (2.3) from the optimal performance index corresponding to the centralized LQR controller remains finite. The following definitions are used to find  $\Delta J$ .

**Definition 4** Define  $\Delta_i x_j(0)$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , as the difference between the initial state of the  $j^{th}$  subsystem  $x_j(0)$  and  $x_0^{j,i}$ . Throughout the remainder of the chapter, this difference will be referred to as the prediction error of the initial state.

Due to the prediction errors defined above, there will be a deviation in the state  $x_i(t)$  and control input  $u_i(t)$ ,  $i \in \overline{v}$ , of the resultant decentralized control system compared to those of the centralized counterpart. Denote the state and the control input deviations with  $\Delta x_i(t)$  and  $\Delta u_i(t)$ , respectively. **Definition 5** The matrices  $\Delta x_0$  and  $\Delta_m x(0)$ ,  $m \in \overline{v}$ , are defined as follows:

$$\Delta x_{0} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{1} x(0) \\ \Delta_{2} x(0) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta_{n} x(0) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Delta_{m} x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{m} x_{1}(0) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta_{m} x_{i-1}(0) \\ \Delta_{m} x_{i+1}(0) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta_{m} x_{\nu}(0) \end{bmatrix}, \quad m = 1, 2, ..., \nu \quad (2.28)$$

The following algorithm is presented to find  $\Delta J$  in terms of the prediction errors  $\Delta_i x_j(0)$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}, i \neq j$ .

#### Algorithm 1

:

:

- 1) Find  $\Delta X_1(s)$  in terms of  $\Delta_1 x(0)$  by using equation (2.12) (for m = 1), which can be expressed as  $\Delta X_1(s) = F_{11}(s)\Delta_1 x(0)$ . Substitute  $\Delta X_1(s)$  into equation (2.8) for i = 1 to obtain  $\Delta U_1(s)$  only in terms of  $\Delta_1 x(0)$ , i.e.  $\Delta U_1(s) = G_{11}(s)\Delta_1 x(0)$ .
- m) Assume that  $\Delta X_i(s)$  and  $\Delta U_i(s)$  have been computed for i = 1, 2, ..., m 1 in terms of prediction errors in the previous steps of the algorithm. Now, for i = m, substitute the expressions obtained for  $\Delta X_1(s), \Delta X_2(s), ..., \Delta X_{m-1}(s)$  into equation (2.12) to find an equation relating  $\Delta X_m(s)$  to the prediction errors. Let this equation be represented by  $\Delta X_m(s) = F_{m1}(s)\Delta_1 x(0) + F_{m2}(s)\Delta_2 x(0) + \dots + F_{mm}(s)\Delta_m x(0)$ . By substituting this expression into (2.8) for i = m,  $\Delta U_m(s)$  will be found in terms of the prediction errors, *i.e.*  $\Delta U_m(s) = G_{m1}(s)\Delta_1 x(0) + G_{m2}(s)\Delta_2 x(0) + \dots + G_{mm}(s)\Delta_m x(0)$ .

The algorithm continues up to step v. It is obvious from the expressions in step m of Algorithm 1, that the deviation in the state of each subsystem depends not only on its

own prediction errors, but also on the prediction errors of all previous subsystems due to the interconnections. The results obtained from the algorithm can be written in the matrix form as follows:

$$\Delta X(s) = F(s)\Delta x_0 \quad , \quad \Delta U(s) = G(s)\Delta x_0$$

where

\_

$$F(s) = \begin{bmatrix} F_{11}(s) & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ F_{21}(s) & F_{22}(s) & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ F_{v1}(s) & F_{v2}(s) & F_{v3}(s) & \dots & F_{vv}(s) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Delta X(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta X_1(s) \\ \vdots \\ \Delta X_v(s) \end{bmatrix},$$
$$G(s) = \begin{bmatrix} G_{11}(s) & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ G_{21}(s) & G_{22}(s) & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ G_{v1}(s) & G_{v2}(s) & G_{v3}(s) & \dots & G_{vv}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, the deviation of the performance index due to the prediction errors can be obtained as follows:

$$\Delta J = \int_0^\infty \left( [x + \Delta x]^T Q [x + \Delta x] + [u + \Delta u]^T R [u + \Delta u] \right) dt - \int_0^\infty \left( x^T Q x + u^T R u \right) dt$$
  
= 
$$\int_0^\infty \left( x^T Q \Delta x + \Delta x^T Q x + \Delta x^T Q \Delta x + u^T R \Delta u + \Delta u^T R u + \Delta u^T R \Delta u \right) dt$$
 (2.29)

It is to be noted that x and u are the state and the input of the centralized closed-loop system, and  $x + \Delta x$  and  $u + \Delta u$  are those of the decentralized closed-loop system. On the other hand, equations (2.1) and (2.4) yield:

$$X(s) = W(s)x(0) \quad , \quad U(s) = Z(s)x(0)$$

where

$$W(s) = (SI - A + BK)^{-1}, \quad Z(s) = -K(SI - A + BK)^{-1}$$

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Suppose that w(t), z(t), f(t) and g(t) represent the time domain functions corresponding to W(s), Z(s), F(s) and G(s), respectively. Substituting these time functions into (2.29) results in:

$$\Delta J = \int_0^\infty \left( x(0)^T w(t)^T Q f(t) \Delta x_0 + \Delta x_0^T f(t)^T Q w(t) x(0) + \Delta x_0^T f(t)^T Q f(t) \Delta x_0 \right) dt + \int_0^\infty \left( x(0)^T z(t)^T R g(t) \Delta x_0 + \Delta x_0^T g(t)^T R z(t) x(0) + \Delta x_0^T g(t)^T R g(t) \Delta x_0 \right) dt$$

Due to the causality of the system, the arguments of both integrals in the above equation are zero for negative time. As a result, the interval for both integrals can be changed from  $(0, +\infty)$  to  $(-\infty, +\infty)$ . Hence, one can use the Parseval's formula to obtain:

$$\Delta J = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( x(0)^T W(j\omega)^T QF(-j\omega) \Delta x_0 + \Delta x_0^T F(j\omega)^T QW(-j\omega) x(0) \right. \\ \left. + \Delta x_0^T F(j\omega)^T QF(-j\omega) \Delta x_0 \right) d\omega \\ \left. + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( x(0)^T Z(j\omega)^T RG(-j\omega) \Delta x_0 + \Delta x_0^T G(j\omega)^T RZ(-j\omega) x(0) \right. \\ \left. + \Delta x_0^T G(j\omega)^T RG(-j\omega) \Delta x_0 \right) d\omega$$

$$(2.30)$$

Define the following matrices:

$$V_{12} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( W(j\omega)^T QF(-j\omega) + Z(j\omega)^T RG(-j\omega) \right) d\omega$$
$$V_{21} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( F(j\omega)^T QW(-j\omega) + G(j\omega)^T RZ(-j\omega) \right) d\omega$$
$$V_{22} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( F(j\omega)^T QF(-j\omega) + G(j\omega)^T RG(-j\omega) \right) d\omega$$

It is to be noted that since *R* and *Q* are assumed to be symmetric matrices,  $V_{21}$  and  $V_{22}$  are equal to  $V_{12}^T$  and  $V_{22}^T$ , respectively. Thus, it can be concluded from (2.30) that:

$$\Delta J = x(0)^{T} V_{12} \Delta x_{0} + \Delta x_{0}^{T} V_{21} x(0) + \Delta x_{0}^{T} V_{22} \Delta x_{0}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x(0)^{T} & \Delta x_{0}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & V_{12} \\ V_{21} & V_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ \Delta x_{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x(0)^{T} & \Delta x_{0}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & V_{12} \\ V_{12}^{T} & V_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ \Delta x_{0} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.32)

**Proposition 1** *The performance deviation*  $\Delta J$  *can be written as:* 

$$\Delta J = \Delta x_0^T V_{22} \Delta x_0 \tag{2.33}$$

**Proof** Consider an arbitrary x(0), and assume that  $\Delta x_0$  is a variable vector. Note that the entries of  $\Delta x_0$  can take any values, because they represent prediction errors of the initial states.  $\Delta J$  given in (2.32) has the following properties:

- $\Delta J$  is always nonnegative, because the centralized optimal performance index has the smallest value among all performance indices resulted by using any type of centralized or decentralized controller.
- Substituting  $\Delta x_0 = 0$  in (2.32) yields  $\Delta J = 0$ .
- $\Delta J$  is continuous with respect to each of the entries of the variable  $\Delta x_0$ , because  $\Delta J$  is quadratic.

It can be concluded from the above properties that  $\Delta x_0 = 0$  is an extremum point for  $\Delta J$ . Thus, the partial derivative of  $\Delta J$  with respect to  $\Delta x_0$  is equal to zero at  $\Delta x_0 = 0$ . Hence:

$$\left[x(0)^{T}V_{12} + (V_{12}^{T}x(0))^{T} + \Delta x_{0}^{T}(V_{22}^{T} + V_{22})\right]\Big|_{\Delta x_{0}=0} = 0$$

which results in  $x(0)^T V_{12} = 0$ . This implies that any arbitrary vector x(0) is in the null space of  $V_{12}$ , or equivalently  $V_{12} = 0$ . The proof follows immediately from substituting  $V_{12} = 0$  into (2.32), and noting that  $V_{21} = V_{12}^T = 0$ .

**Remark 4** Equation (2.33) states that for finding the performance deviation  $\Delta J$ , there is no need to obtain the time functions w(t) and z(t). In other words, only the functions f(t) and g(t) are required for performance evaluation. Furthermore, one can directly use the Laplace transforms F(s) and G(s), and substitute  $s = \pm j\omega$  to obtain  $\Delta J$  through (2.31) and (2.33).

**Remark 5** It can be concluded from (2.33), that the performance deviation  $\Delta J$  depends only on the prediction error of the initial state, not the initial state itself.

**Theorem 5** To minimize the expected value of the performance index J, the constant value  $x_0^{j,i}$  should be chosen equal to the expected value of the  $j^{th}$  subsystem's initial state from the  $i^{th}$  subsystem's view for any  $i, j \in \overline{v}, i \neq j$ .

**Proof** Consider an arbitrary initial state x(0). It can be concluded from (2.28) and Definition 4 that  $\Delta x_0$  can be written as  $\hat{x}_0 - x_0$ , where  $\hat{x}_0$  is a vector whose entries are related to the constant values  $x_0^{j,m}$ . Also,  $x_0$  is a vector whose entries are related to the initial states  $x_m(0)$ ,  $m \in \bar{v}$ . Consequently,

$$E\{\Delta J\} = E\{\Delta x_0^T V_{22} \Delta x_0\} = E\{(\hat{x}_0^T - x_0^T) V_{22}(\hat{x}_0 - x_0)\}$$
$$= \hat{x}_0^T V_{22} \hat{x}_0 - E\{x_0\}^T V_{22} \hat{x}_0 - \hat{x}_0^T V_{22} E\{x_0\} + E\{x_0\}^T V_{22} E\{x_0\}$$

To minimize the above expression, take its partial derivative with respect to  $\hat{x}_0$  and equate it to zero as follows:

$$\hat{x}_0^T (V_{22} + V_{22}^T) - E\{x_0\}^T V_{22} - (V_{22}E\{x_0\})^T = 0$$

which results in:

$$(\hat{x}_0^T - E\{x_0\}^T)(V_{22} + V_{22}^T) = 0$$
(2.34)

Since the optimal control strategy is unique,  $\Delta J$  should be positive for any nonzero  $\Delta x_0$ . As a result, the matrix  $V_{22}$  in (2.33) is positive definite and consequently, the matrix  $V_{22} + V_{22}^T$  is positive definite as well. Thus, the determinant of the matrix  $V_{22} + V_{22}^T$  is nonzero, and so it can be concluded from (2.34) that  $\hat{x}_0^T - E\{x_0\}^T = 0$ , or equivalently  $E\{\Delta x_0\} = E\{\hat{x}_0 - x_0\} = 0$ . In other words, the expected value of any entry of  $\Delta x_0$  should be zero. Thus, it can be deduced from (2.28) and Definition 4 that

$$E\{x_0^{j,m} - x_j(0)\} = 0, \quad j,m \in \bar{v}, \ j \neq m$$

This relation states that the best choice for  $x_0^{j,m}$  is equal to  $E_m\{x_j(0)\}$ , the expected value of the initial state of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  subsystem from the  $m^{\text{th}}$  subsystem's view.

**Remark 6** One can use Proposition 1 and Theorem 5 to obtain statistical results for the performance deviation  $\Delta J$  in terms of the expected values of the initial states of the subsystems. This can be achieved by using Chebyshev's inequality. This enables the designer to determine the maximum allowable standard deviation for  $\Delta x_0$  to achieve a performance deviation within a prespecified region with a sufficiently high probability (e.g. 95%).

**Remark 7** Suppose that the initial state of an acyclic interconnected system is a random variable whose mean  $\bar{x}_0$  and covariance matrix are given. Consider a decentralized control law obtained by using the method in [17] (i.e., the second approach discussed in the introduction). For any given initial state x(0), compute the quadratic performance index (for any given O and R) of the resultant system and denote it with  $J_1(x(0))$ . Define now  $J_2(x(0))$  as the quadratic performance index (with the same parameters Q and R) for the closed-loop system with the controller proposed in this chapter. It is to be noted that to design this controller, the prediction values used in (2.8) are replaced by their corresponding mean values, as explained in Theorem 5. Moreover, define  $J_c(x(0))$  as the minimum achievable performance index for the centralized case. According to Theorem 1,  $J_2(\bar{x}_0) = J_c(\bar{x}_0)$ , which implies that  $J_2(\bar{x}_0) < J_1(\bar{x}_0)$ . This means that there is a region  $\mathcal{R}$  around the point  $x_0$  in the n dimensional space, such that for any x(0) in this region, the inequality  $J_2(x(0)) < J_1(x(0))$  holds. On the other hand, if the function  $J_2(x(0))$  is smooth around  $\bar{x}_0$ , the initial state of the system will have a greater likelihood inside the region  $\mathscr{R}$  rather than outside of it, in which case the controller proposed in this chapter will outperform the one obtained by the method proposed in [17]. It is to be noted that to evaluate the smoothness of the function  $J_2(x(0))$  one can use the formula (2.33) to obtain the function  $J_2(x(0))$ , in a quadratic form, while for the numerical method such as the one in [17], there is no closed-form formula for  $J_1(x(0))$  in terms of the initial state. Similar comparison can analogously be made between the method presented in this chapter and the method given in [14], [15] and [16] (first approach discussed in the introduction).

#### 2.8 Decentralized high-performance cheap control

Consider now the cheap control optimization problem, where it is desired to minimize a quadratic performance index of the following form:

$$J = \int_0^\infty \left( x^T Q x + \varepsilon u^T R u \right) dt \tag{2.35}$$

where  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$  and  $R \in \Re^{m \times m}$  are positive definite matrices, and  $\varepsilon$  is a positive number which is chosen sufficiently close to zero for this type of problem. For simplicity and without loss of generality, assume again that Q and R are symmetric. Consider the matrix  $K_{\varepsilon}$  such that the feedback law:

$$u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t) \tag{2.36}$$

minimizes the performance index (2.35). In the remainder of this section, assume that K given in (2.5) is equal to  $K_{\varepsilon}$ . According to Theorem 2, the local controllers given by (2.8) can stabilize the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , if all modified systems  $\mathbf{S}^{i}$ , i = 2, 3, ..., v, under the feedback law (2.36) are stable. These conditions are also *almost always* necessary. In sequel, it will be shown that if  $det(BR^{-1}B^{T}) \neq 0$ , and if  $\varepsilon$  is sufficiently close to zero, there is no need to check the stability of the v - 1 closed-loop modified systems.

**Theorem 6** Assume that  $s_1^{\varepsilon}, s_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., s_n^{\varepsilon}$  are the eigenvalues of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$ , and that the determinant of the matrix  $BR^{-1}B^T$  is nonzero. Then, as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero,  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}s_1^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_n^{\varepsilon}$  converge to n negative (nonzero) real numbers  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$ , which satisfy the following equation:

$$det\left(\hat{s}_{i}^{2}I - WQ\right) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n \tag{2.37}$$

where  $W = BR^{-1}B^T$ .

**Proof** It is known that the state and costate of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the optimal feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$  satisfy the following equation [26]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{\lambda} \end{bmatrix} = H \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \begin{bmatrix} A & -\frac{W}{\varepsilon} \\ -Q & -A^T \end{bmatrix}, \quad W = BR^{-1}B^T$$

The matrix H has 2n eigenvalues in mirror-image pairs with respect to the imaginary axis. Those eigenvalues which are in the left-half s-plane are the eigenvalues of the closed-loop system under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$ . The eigenvalues of the matrix H are obtained from the following equation:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} sI - A & \frac{W}{\varepsilon} \\ Q & sI + A^T \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
(2.38)

Let the roots of the above equation be denoted by  $s_1^{\varepsilon}, s_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., s_{2n}^{\varepsilon}$ , where  $s_{i+n}^{\varepsilon} = -s_i^{\varepsilon}$ ,  $Re\{s_i^{\varepsilon}\} \le 0$ , for i = 1, 2, ..., n. One can multiply the first *n* rows and the last *n* columns of the matrix in the left side of (2.38) by  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$  to obtain the following relation:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} sI - A & \frac{W}{\varepsilon} \\ Q & sI + A^T \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^n} det \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\varepsilon}sI - \sqrt{\varepsilon}A & W \\ Q & \sqrt{\varepsilon}sI + \sqrt{\varepsilon}A^T \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.39)

Hence, it can be concluded from (2.38) and (2.39), that  $s_1^{\varepsilon}, s_2^{\varepsilon}, \dots, s_n^{\varepsilon}$  are the roots of the following equation:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\varepsilon}sI - \sqrt{\varepsilon}A & W \\ Q & \sqrt{\varepsilon}sI + \sqrt{\varepsilon}A^T \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Define  $\hat{s}_i^{\varepsilon} = \sqrt{\varepsilon} s_i^{\varepsilon}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n. Consequently,  $\hat{s}_1^{\varepsilon}, \hat{s}_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., \hat{s}_n^{\varepsilon}$  satisfy the following equation:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} sI - \sqrt{\varepsilon}A & W \\ Q & sI + \sqrt{\varepsilon}A^T \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
(2.40)

It can be easily verified that the above equation is equivalent to

$$s^{2n} + p_{2n-1}(\sqrt{\varepsilon})s^{2n-1} + p_{2n-2}(\sqrt{\varepsilon})s^{2n-2} + \dots + p_1(\sqrt{\varepsilon})s + p_0(\sqrt{\varepsilon}) = 0$$
(2.41)

where  $p_i(\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ , i = 1, 2, ..., 2n - 1, is a polynomial in  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$ . Obviously, as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero,  $s_1^{\varepsilon}, s_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., s_n^{\varepsilon}$  (which satisfy the equation (2.40) or equivalently (2.41)), converge to *n* definite and finite complex numbers denoted by  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$  (note that the roots of a polynomial equation with finite coefficients are finite), and also they satisfy the equation (2.41) for  $\varepsilon = 0$ , i.e.

$$\hat{s}_i^{2n} + p_{2n-1}(0)\hat{s}_i^{2n-1} + p_{2n-2}(0)\hat{s}_i^{2n-2} + \dots + p_1(0)\hat{s}_i + p_0(0) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

To find  $\hat{s}_i$ , replace  $\varepsilon$  with zero and substitute  $s = \hat{s}_i$  in the equation (2.40). This results in:

$$det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{s}_i I & W \\ Q & \hat{s}_i I \end{bmatrix} = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

The above equation can be simplified as follows:

$$0 = det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{s}_i I & W \\ Q & \hat{s}_i I \end{bmatrix} = det(\hat{s}_i^2 I - WQ), \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

So far, it has been shown that as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero,  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}s_1^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_n^{\varepsilon}$  converge to the definite numbers  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$ , which satisfy equation (2.37). Since *R* is positive definite and symmetric, *W* is positive definite and symmetric as well (note that  $det(W) \neq 0$ ). Using Cholesky decomposition, one can easily conclude that all of the eigenvalues of the matrix WQ are positive real numbers. Therefore, the equation (2.37) implies that  $\hat{s}_1^2, \hat{s}_2^2, ..., \hat{s}_n^2$  are positive real numbers and consequently,  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$  are purely real. Since the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$  stabilizes the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , all of the eigenvalues of this closed-loop system are located in the left-half *s*-plane. As a result,  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$  are non-positive. Also, it is apparent that none of  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$  are zero, because in that case det(WQ) = 0, which is a contradiction to the assumption of positive definite Q (note that  $det(W) \neq 0$ ).

It is to be noted that the result of Theorem 6 is an extension of the existing results for the modes of optimal closed-loop SISO systems and the corresponding inverse root characteristic equation [32], to the MIMO case.

As an example, consider a system consisting of two 2-input 2-output subsystems and the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 30 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 6 & 1 & 2 \\ -5 & 5 & 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 60 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 10 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.42)

Solving the centralized optimal LQR problem for R = Q = I and multiplying the eigenvalues of the resultant closed-loop system (under the feedback law (2.36)) by  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$  as described in Theorem 6, will result in  $\{\sqrt{\varepsilon}s_1^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_2^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_3^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_4^{\varepsilon}\}$ . The following sets of eigenvalues are obtained for  $\varepsilon = 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-4}$  and  $10^{-5}$ , respectively:

$$\{-60.336, -10.609, -3.4573, -2.7356\}, \{-60.339, -10.608, -2.5601, -2.0257\}, \\ \{-60.339, -10.608, -2.5469, -1.8147\}, \{-60.339, -10.608, -2.5455, -1.7924\} \\ (2.43)$$

On the other hand, the roots of (2.37) are given by:

$$\{\pm 60.339, \pm 10.608, \pm 2.5453, \pm 1.7899\}$$
(2.44)

From (2.43) and (2.44), it is evident that as  $\varepsilon$  become smaller, the modes of the optimal closedloop system under the feedback law (2.36) approach the negative elements of the set (2.44), as expected from Theorem 6 (Note that  $BR^{-1}B^T$  is nonsingular in this example).

**Lemma 1** Consider two arbitrary symmetric positive-definite matrices G and H. There is a unique positive definite matrix X which satisfies the following relation:

$$XGX = H$$

**Proof** It is known that every symmetric positive-definite matrix can be uniquely written as the square of another symmetric positive definite matrix. Therefore, there is a unique positive definite matrix  $\hat{G}$  such that  $G = \hat{G}^2$ . Define  $Y = \hat{G}X\hat{G}$ , or equivalently  $X = \hat{G}^{-1}Y\hat{G}^{-1}$ . It is clear that since  $\hat{G}$  and X are positive definite and  $\hat{G}$  is symmetric, Y is also positive definite, and

$$H = X\hat{G}^2X = \hat{G}^{-1}Y\hat{G}^{-1}\hat{G}^2\hat{G}^{-1}Y\hat{G}^{-1} = \hat{G}^{-1}Y^2\hat{G}^{-1}$$

or equivalently:

$$Y^2 = \hat{G}H\hat{G} \tag{2.45}$$

Similarly, since H and G are positive definite,  $\hat{G}H\hat{G}$  is positive definite as well. Therefore, there is a unique positive definite matrix Y whose square is equal to  $\hat{G}H\hat{G}$ . The matrix Y satisfies the equation (2.45), and thus X is determined to be equal to  $\hat{G}^{-1}Y\hat{G}^{-1}$ , which is also unique.

**Theorem 7** Suppose that the matrix W corresponding to the system (2.1) and the performance index (2.35) is nonsingular. Consider the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^{j}$ ,  $j \in \{2,3,...,v\}$ . There exists a finite  $\varepsilon^* > 0$  such that for every positive real number  $\varepsilon$  less than  $\varepsilon^*$ , the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^{j}$  is stable under the feedback law (2.36).

**Proof** Assume that the modes of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the feedback law (2.36) are  $s_1^{\varepsilon}, s_2^{\varepsilon}, ..., s_n^{\varepsilon}$ . It is clear that these modes satisfy the following equation:

$$det(s_i^{\varepsilon}I - A + BK_{\varepsilon}) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
(2.46)

Suppose that  $P_{\varepsilon}$  is the solution of the Riccati equation for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  and the performance index (2.35). Thus,

$$-P_{\varepsilon}A - A^{T}P_{\varepsilon} - Q + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}P_{\varepsilon}BR^{-1}B^{T}P_{\varepsilon} = 0$$
(2.47)

Since  $K_{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} R^{-1} B^T P_{\varepsilon}$  and  $W = B R^{-1} B^T$ , the equation (2.46) can be rewritten as

$$det\left(s_{i}^{\varepsilon}I - A + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}WP_{\varepsilon}\right) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

$$(2.48)$$

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According to Theorem 6, as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero,  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}s_i^{\varepsilon}$  converges to the negative definite number  $\hat{s}_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n. Using this approximation and substituting it into (2.48) will result in (as  $\varepsilon \to 0$ ):

$$det\left(\frac{\hat{s}_i}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}I - A + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}WP_{\varepsilon}\right) \to 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

Define  $\hat{P}_{\varepsilon} := \frac{P_{\varepsilon}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}$ . It can then be concluded from the above equation that as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero,

$$det\left(\hat{s}_{i}I - \sqrt{\varepsilon}A + W\hat{P}_{\varepsilon}\right) \to 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
(2.49)

Substituting  $P_{\varepsilon} = \sqrt{\varepsilon} \hat{P}_{\varepsilon}$  in the Riccati equation (2.47) yields

$$-\sqrt{\varepsilon}\hat{P}_{\varepsilon}A - \sqrt{\varepsilon}A^{T}\hat{P}_{\varepsilon} - Q + \hat{P}_{\varepsilon}W\hat{P}_{\varepsilon} = 0$$

Since the solution of the Riccati equation as well as the matrices W and Q are all positive definite inite, according to Lemma 1, as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero,  $\hat{P}_{\varepsilon}$  converges to a unique positive definite matrix denoted by  $\hat{P}$ , which can be obtained by solving the equation  $Q = \hat{P}W\hat{P}$ , as discussed in Lemma 1. In other words, as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, the solution of the Riccati equation  $P_{\varepsilon}$  for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  and the performance index (2.35) can be estimated by  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}\hat{P}$ . Accordingly, since  $\hat{P}_{\varepsilon}$ converges to  $\hat{P}$  as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero, the equation (2.49) yields

$$det(\hat{s}_i I + W\hat{P}) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
(2.50)

Now, consider the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^{j}$  under the feedback law (2.36), and let the corresponding closed-loop modes be denoted by  $\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon}, \sigma_{2j}^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}$ . It is clear that these modes satisfy the following equation:

$$det\left(\sigma_{ij}^{\varepsilon}I - \tilde{A}^{j} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}WP_{\varepsilon}\right) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
(2.51)

The above discussion shows that as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero,  $P_{\varepsilon}$  converges to  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}\hat{P}$ . Therefore, it can be concluded from the equation (2.51) that (as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero):

$$det\left(\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{ij}^{\varepsilon}I - \sqrt{\varepsilon}\tilde{A}^{j} + W\hat{P}\right) \to 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

Since all entries of the matrix  $\tilde{A}^{j}$  are finite and independent of  $\varepsilon$ , the above expression is equivalent to the following:

$$det\left(\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{ij}^{\varepsilon}I + W\hat{P}\right) \to 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n \tag{2.52}$$

By comparing equations (2.50) and (2.52), it can be concluded that as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, the elements of the set  $\{\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon},...,\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}\}$  converge to the elements of the set  $\{\hat{s}_1,...,\hat{s}_n\}$ . According to Theorem 6,  $\hat{s}_1,...,\hat{s}_n$  are all negative numbers. Thus,  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon},...,\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}$  will go to *n* negative real numbers. As a result, as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero, all of these modes will move towards the left-half *s*-plane, and eventually all of them will be located in the open left-half *s*-plane. Thus, from continuity, one can conclude that there is a positive value  $\varepsilon^*$  such that for every  $\varepsilon$  less than  $\varepsilon^*$ , all complex numbers  $\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon},...,\sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}$  will have negative real parts, and hence, the resultant closed-loop system will be stable.

**Remark 8** As  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero,  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{2j}^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}$  converge to n finite negative real numbers. Thus,  $\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon}, \sigma_{2j}^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}$  all go to  $-\infty$ .

**Remark 9** Since the elements of both sets  $\{\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{1j}^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{nj}^{\varepsilon}\}\$  and  $\{\sqrt{\varepsilon}s_{1}^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sqrt{\varepsilon}s_{n}^{\varepsilon}\}\$  approach the elements of the set  $\{\hat{s}_{1}, ..., \hat{s}_{n}\}\$  as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, it can be deduced that the modes of the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^{j}$  under the feedback law (2.36) become closer to the modes of the original system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the feedback law (2.36), as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero.

Consider again the system represented by the state-space matrices (2.42). Solving the centralized optimal LQR problem for R = Q = I and multiplying the eigenvalues of the resultant closed-loop modified system  $S^2$  (under the feedback law (2.36)) by  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$  as described in Theorem 7, i.e.  $\{\sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{12}^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{22}^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{32}^{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma_{42}^{\varepsilon}\}$ , the following results are obtained for  $\varepsilon = 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-4}$  and  $10^{-5}$ , respectively:

$$\{-60.467, -10.607, -3.4948, -2.5690\}, \{-60.352, -10.607, -2.0194, -2.5533\}, \\ \{-60.340, -10.608, -2.5460, -1.8143\}, \{-60.339, -10.608, -2.5454, -1.7923\} \\ (2.53)$$

Comparing (2.53) and (2.44), it can be seen that as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, the eigenvalues of the modified system S<sup>2</sup> under the feedback law (2.36) multiplied by  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$  converge to the negative elements of the set given by (2.44), as expected.

**Corollary 2** Suppose that  $det(W) \neq 0$ . If  $\varepsilon$  is sufficiently close to zero, the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the proposed control law (2.36) is stable.

**Proof** It can be concluded from Theorem 7 that there is an  $\varepsilon^*$  such that for every positive real value  $\varepsilon < \varepsilon^*$ , all of the systems  $\mathbf{S}^2, \mathbf{S}^3, ..., \mathbf{S}^{\nu}$  are stable under the feedback law (2.36). Therefore, according to Theorem 2, the proposed decentralized feedback law stabilizes the system  $\mathscr{S}$  (for any  $0 < \varepsilon < \varepsilon^*$ ).

**Remark 10** To investigate robust stability of the proposed decentralized cheap control law, one can use the result of Theorem 3 to find the permissible range of parameter variations. As a particular case, assume that det(W)  $\neq 0$  and that  $\bar{B}_i = B_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., v, i.e. there is no perturbation in the entries of the matrix B. It was shown that as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero, the modes of the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^i$  under the feedback law (2.36) ( $\sigma_{1i}^{\varepsilon}, \sigma_{2i}^{\varepsilon}, ..., \sigma_{ni}^{\varepsilon}$ ) converge to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}$  times the numbers  $\hat{s}_1, \hat{s}_2, ..., \hat{s}_n$ , which are obtained for the given B,R and Q using (2.37). In other words, dependency of the eigenvalues of the modified system  $\mathbf{S}^i$  under the feedback law (2.36) on the entries of the matrix A is being reduced, as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero. Consider now the modified perturbed system  $\mathbf{\tilde{S}}^i$ . The only difference between  $\mathbf{S}^i$  and  $\mathbf{\tilde{S}}^i$  is in the matrices  $\tilde{A}^i$  and  $\tilde{A}^i$ , or more specifically, in  $A_{ii}$  and  $\bar{A}_{ii}$ . Hence, as discussed before, the discrepancy between the modes of  $\mathbf{\tilde{S}}^i$  and  $\mathbf{S}^i$  under the feedback law (2.36) is reduced, as  $\varepsilon$  approaches zero. This means that as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, the eigenvalues of the perturbed system  $\mathbf{\tilde{S}}$  under the proposed local controllers become insensitive to the entries of the matrix A.

**Remark 11** It is to be noted that the condition  $det(W) \neq 0$  is equivalent to  $det(BB^T) \neq 0$ , or equivalently  $det(B_iB_i^T) \neq 0$  for any  $i \in \overline{v}$ . Therefore, if the number of inputs of any subsystem

is less than the number of its outputs, then the matrix  $B_i B_i^T$  will be singular, and consequently the condition of Theorem 6 will be violated. Although this condition on the number of inputs of each subsystem can be very restrictive in general, in many practical problems it can be satisfied by adding certain actuators to some of the subsystems, if necessary.

#### 2.9 Numerical examples

In this section, two examples will be presented. The first one is a numerical example which aims to illustrate some of the procedures developed in the chapter. The second one applies the results obtained in this chapter, to the formation flying problem in [2], and involves simulations.

**Example 1** Consider a system  $\mathcal{S}_a$  consisting of two SISO subsystems and the following statespace matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ -20 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The modified system  $S_a^2$  is obtained by removing the interconnection going to the second subsystem (i.e. by setting the entry -20 of A to zero). Suppose that  $K_{\varepsilon}$  is the optimal feedback gain for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  and the performance index (2.35), with R = Q = I. According to Theorem 7, since  $det(BR^{-1}B^T) \neq 0$ , there exists a positive real  $\varepsilon^*$  such that for every positive  $\varepsilon < \varepsilon^*$ , the modified system  $S_a^2$  under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$  is stable. Computing  $K_{\varepsilon}$  for  $\varepsilon = 1$ , the eigenvalues of the modified system  $S_a^2$  under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$ are obtained to be 0.2169 and -7.1087. According to Theorem 2, since one of these eigenvalues is positive, the overall closed-loop system is unstable. Therefore,  $\varepsilon^*$  has to be less than one. It can be verified that for this example  $\varepsilon^* \simeq 0.668$ . Hence, for every  $\varepsilon < 0.668$ , the proposed local controllers can stabilize the system  $\mathscr{S}_a$ . Let  $\varepsilon$  be equal to 0.001. Computing  $K_{\varepsilon}$  for this value of  $\varepsilon$ , it can be shown that the eigenvalues of the system  $\mathscr{S}_a$  and the modified system  $\mathbf{S}_a^2$  under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$  are  $\{-62.1381, -33.7765\}$  and  $\{-64.3194, -31.5952\}$ , respectively. The eigenvalues of these two closed-loop systems are close to each other as pointed out in Remark 9.

In the next step, it is desired to inspect the robustness of the system  $\mathscr{S}_a$  under the proposed decentralized control law for  $\varepsilon = 0.001$ , and compare it to the robustness of the system  $\mathscr{S}_a$  under the centralized feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$ .

1. Decentralized case: According to Theorem 3, the perturbed system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}_a$  under the proposed decentralized controller is stable if the modified perturbed systems  $\bar{\mathbf{S}}_a^1$  and  $\bar{\mathbf{S}}_a^2$  under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$  are both stable. Therefore, any *s* which satisfies one of the following equations:

$$\det(sI - \bar{A}^{1} + \bar{B}^{1}K) = 0, \quad \det(sI - \bar{A}^{2} + \bar{B}^{2}K) = 0$$
(2.54)

should have a negative real part. It is desired now to find some relations which exhibit the maximum allowable deviations from the nominal parameters of the system. Define:

$$\Delta A_{ij} := \bar{A}_{ij} - A_{ij}, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2\}, \quad i \ge j$$
$$\Delta B_i := \bar{B}_i - B_i, \quad i = 1, 2$$

Since all of the roots of the equations given in (2.54) should be in the left-half *s*-plane, it is easy to verify that the allowable perturbations are given by the following inequalities:

$$32.366\Delta B_{1} - \Delta A_{11} > -33.366, \qquad 32.013\Delta B_{1} - \Delta A_{11} > -95.915,$$
  
$$31.951\Delta B_{2} - \Delta A_{22} > -95.915, \quad -31.278\Delta B_{2} - \Delta A_{22} > -61.557, \qquad (2.55)$$
  
$$\Delta A_{21} = arbitrary$$

2. Centralized case: Consider the perturbed system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}_a$  under the feedback law  $u(t) = -K_{\varepsilon}x(t)$ . The closed-loop system is stable, iff all of the roots of the equation det  $(sI - \bar{A} + \bar{B}K) =$ 

0 have negative real parts. Hence, the allowable ranges of perturbations in the centralized case satisfy the following inequalities:

$$-9.910\Delta A_{22} - 18.88\Delta A_{11} - \Delta A_{21} + 611.163\Delta B_1 + 309.997\Delta B_2 + 0.3\Delta A_{11}\Delta A_{22}$$
  
$$-9.591\Delta A_{11}\Delta B_2 - 9.610\Delta A_{22}\Delta B_1 - \Delta A_{21}\Delta B_1 + 300.386\Delta B_1\Delta B_2 > -630.045 ,$$
  
$$-\Delta A_{11} - \Delta A_{22} + 32.013\Delta B_1 + 31.951\Delta B_2 > -95.915$$

To compare robustness of the decentralized and centralized controllers, suppose that  $\Delta B_1 = \Delta B_2 = 0$ . According to the inequalities in (2.55), the admissible parameter variations in the decentralized case are as follows:

$$\Delta A_{11} < 33.366 , \ \Delta A_{22} < 61.557 , \ \Delta A_{21} < +\infty$$
(2.56)

The admissible parameter variations in the centralized case, on the other hand, are given by:

$$9.910\Delta A_{22} + 18.88\Delta A_{11} + \Delta A_{21} - 0.3\Delta A_{11}\Delta A_{22} < 630.045$$
 (2.57a)

$$\Delta A_{11} + \Delta A_{22} < 95.915 \tag{2.57b}$$

From (2.56) and (2.57), it is clear that the centralized controller is less robust to the parameter variations compared to its decentralized counterpart, because:

- Stability in the decentralized case is independent of  $\Delta A_{21}$  but in the centralized case it is not.
- Regardless of  $\Delta A_{21}$ , there is the term  $\Delta A_{11}\Delta A_{22}$  in the centralized case. This implies that when the two perturbations  $\Delta A_{11}$  and  $\Delta A_{22}$  have the same sign, (2.57a) can be easily violated, even if  $\Delta A_{21}$  is zero.

**Example 2** Consider a leader-follower formation control system consisting of three unmanned aerial vehicles. It is known that each vehicle, except the leader, can measure its relative position with respect to the preceding vehicle by using a GPS based architecture [2]. Therefore, it

is assumed in this example that each vehicle is equipped with this measuring device, and that the velocity and the acceleration of each vehicle are not available for the other vehicles due to the information exchange constraint between the vehicles. The objective is to design three local controllers for these vehicles, such that they all fly at the same desired speed, with the prespecified desired Euclidean distances between them. It is shown in [2] that using the exact linearization technique, the tracking system with the normalized parameters can be modeled as a regulation problem with the following state-space representation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_{1} \\ \dot{x}_{2} \\ \dot{x}_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \\ I_{2} & 0_{2} & -I_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \\ 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \\ 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & -I_{2} \\ 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ x_{3} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} I_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \\ 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \\ 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \\ 0_{2} & 0_{2} & 0_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{1} \\ u_{2} \\ u_{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.58)

where  $I_2$  and  $0_2$  represent a 2  $\times$  2 identity matrix and a 2  $\times$  2 zero matrix, respectively, and

$$x_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{12} \end{bmatrix}, x_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{21} \\ x_{22} \\ x_{23} \\ x_{24} \end{bmatrix}, x_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{31} \\ x_{32} \\ x_{33} \\ x_{34} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.59)

and where  $u_i = \begin{bmatrix} u_{i1} \\ u_{i2} \end{bmatrix}$ , i = 1, 2, 3. Here,  $x_1$  denotes the state of the leader, and  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  represent the state of vehicles 2 and 3 (i.e., the followers), respectively. More specifically:

- 1.  $x_{11}$  and  $x_{12}$  are the speed error of the leader (speed of the leader minus its desired speed) along x and y axes, respectively.
- 2.  $x_{i1}$  and  $x_{i2}$ , i = 2, 3, are the distance error (distance between vehicles *i* and *i* 1 minus their desired distance) along *x* and *y* axes, respectively.

- x<sub>i3</sub> and x<sub>i4</sub>, i = 2, 3, are the speed error (speed of vehicle i minus its desired speed) along x and y axes, respectively.
- 4.  $u_{i1}$  and  $u_{i2}$ , i = 1, 2, 3, are the acceleration of vehicle *i* along *x* and *y* axes, respectively.

It is desired now to design a decentralized controller for the system given by (2.58), such that the closed-loop system is stable. Moreover, the objective is that the state variables of the closed-loop system decay as sharply as possible, with a reasonably small control effort. To attain these specifications, consider the performance index given by (2.3) in the chapter, and assume that Q = R = I. Two different design techniques will be used and the results will be compared here: the iterative numerical procedure given in [17], and the method proposed in this chapter. Suppose that each initial state is uniformly distributed in the intervals [200, 400], and that any two distinct initial state variables are statistically independent. It is to be noted that the units used for distance and velocity in the state vectors are ft and ft/s, respectively. Assume that any two different subsystems consider the same expected value for the initial state of the remaining subsystem, and that the model of each subsystem is exactly known by the other subsystems. It can be concluded from Procedure 1 and Remark 7 that if the real initial state variables are close to their expected value 300, the controller obtained by using the proposed method performs better.

Assume that the real initial state variables are all equal to 400, which correspond, in fact, to the worst case scenario (maximum discrepancy between the real initial state variables, i.e. 400, and the corresponding expected values, i.e. 300, which are used by the proposed controller). The iterative numerical procedure of [17] gives a static decentralized state feedback law which results in a performance index equal to 2,257,085. The performance index obtained by applying the method proposed in this chapter, on the other hand, is equal to 2,090,939, while the best achievable performance index corresponding to the centralized LQR controller is equal to 2,068,513. This means that the relative errors of the performance indices obtained by using the methods given here and in [17], with respect to the optimal centralized

performance index are 1.08% and 9.12%, respectively. This shows clearly that the controller proposed in this chapter outperforms the one presented in [17], significantly.

Figures 2.1 and 2.2 depict the time responses of the system under the controller proposed in this chapter (dotted curve), the controller proposed in [17] (dashed curve), and the optimal centralized controller (solid curve) for three state variables  $x_{11}, x_{31}, x_{33}$ . Moreover, the control signals  $u_{11}, u_{21}, u_{31}$  obtained by using the three methods discussed above are depicted in Figures 2.2 and 2.3 in a similar way. It is to be noted that despite the relatively big differences between the real initial variables (400 ft for distance errors and 400 ft/sec for speed errors) and the corresponding expected values which are used to construct the proposed controller, the results obtained are reasonably close to the time response of the system under the LQR controller.

The results obtained show that the method introduced in present work is much better than the one in [17]. On the other hand, as stated in the introduction, the controller obtained by the method in [17] has a better performance compared to the ones proposed in [14], [15], and [16]. In addition, the control law given in [24] can potentially outperform the ones in [14], [15], and [16], but can never perform better than the one in [17]. This exhibits superiority of the proposed design technique over the existing ones.

### 2.10 Conclusions

In this chapter, an incrementally linear decentralized control law for the formation of vehicles with leader-follower structure is introduced. The fundamental idea in constructing this control law is that the local controller of each vehicle exploits *a priori* information about the models and the expected values of all other vehicles. It is shown that the decentralized closed-loop system can behave the same as the optimal centralized closed-loop system (with respect to a quadratic performance index) if the *a priori* knowledge of each subsystem is perfect. Since

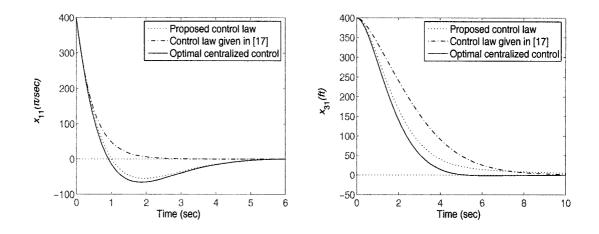


Figure 2.1: The state variables  $x_{11}$  and  $x_{31}$  using three different design techniques.

this knowledge can be inaccurate, the performance degradation of the resultant decentralized closed-loop system has been evaluated thoroughly, in presence of inexact information. The proposed decentralized control strategy is very easy to implement, and the corresponding stability verification steps are very easy to check as illustrated in the examples. Furthermore, it is shown that the decentralized control system is, in general, more robust than its centralized counterpart. Optimal decentralized cheap control problem is investigated for leader-follower formation structure, and a closed-form solution is provided for the case when the input structure meets a certain condition. This can be very useful for *UAV* missions with fast tracking objectives. Simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method compared to the existing ones.

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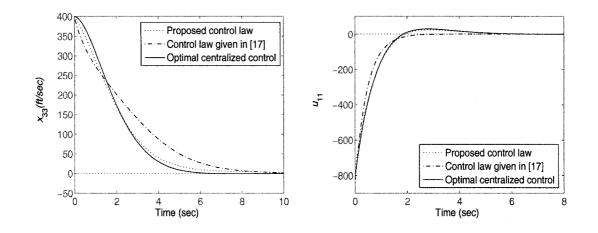


Figure 2.2: The state variable  $x_{33}$  and the control signal  $u_{11}$  using three different design techniques.

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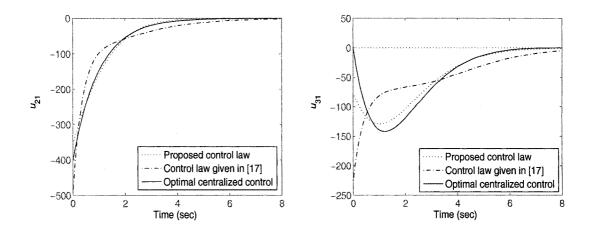


Figure 2.3: The control signals  $u_{21}$  and  $u_{31}$  using three different design techniques.

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# Chapter 3

# High-Performance Decentralized Control Law Based on a Centralized Reference Controller

#### 3.1 Abstract

This work deals with the decentralized control of interconnected systems, where each subsystem has models of all other subsystems (subject to uncertainty). A decentralized controller is constructed based on a reference centralized controller. It is shown that when *a priori* knowledge of each subsystem about the other subsystems' models is exact, then the decentralized closed-loop system can perform exactly the same as its centralized counterpart. An easy-to-check necessary and sufficient condition for the internal stability of the decentralized closed-loop system is obtained. Moreover, the stability of the closed-loop system in presence of the perturbation in the parameters of the system is investigated, and it is shown that the decentralized control system is likely more robust than its centralized counterpart. A proper cost function is then defined to measure the closeness of the decentralized closed-loop system to its centralized counterpart. This enables the designer to obtain the maximum allowable standard deviation for the modeling errors of the subsystems to achieve a satisfactorily small performance deviation with a sufficiently high probability. The effectiveness of the proposed method is demonstrated in one numerical example.

#### 3.2 Introduction

In control of large-scale interconnected systems, it is often desired to have some form of decentralization. Typical interconnected control systems have several local control stations, which observe only local outputs and control only local inputs, according to the prescribed restrictions in the information flow structure. All the controllers are involved, however, in controlling the overall system.

In the past several years, the problem of decentralized control design has been investigated extensively in the literature [1-9]. These works have studied decentralized control problem from two different viewpoints as follows:

- The local input and output information of any subsystem is private, and is not accessible by other subsystems [3, 5]. In this case, each local controller should attempt to attenuate the degrading effect of the incoming interconnections on its corresponding subsystem, in addition to contributing to the performance of the overall control system.
- 2. All output measurements cannot be transmitted to every local control station. Problems of this kind appear, for example, in electric power systems, communication networks, flight formation, robotic systems, to name only a few. In this case, each subsystem can have certain beliefs about other subsystems' models. A local controller is then designed for each subsystem, based on this *a priori* knowledge.

More recently, the problem of optimal decentralized control design has been studied to obtain a high-performance control law with some prescribed constraints for the system. The main objective in this problem is to find a decentralized feedback law for an interconnected system in order to attain a sufficiently small performance index. This problem has been investigated in the literature from the two different viewpoints discussed above [3, 6, 7, 8, 9]. However, there is no efficient approach currently to address the problem from the second viewpoint. The relevant works often attempt to present a near-optimal decentralized controller instead of an optimal one. Furthermore, it is often assumed that the decentralized controller to be designed is static [7]. This assumption can significantly degrade the performance of the overall system. In other words, the overall performance of the system can be improved considerably, if a dynamic feedback law is used instead of a static one.

This chapter deals with the decentralized control problem from the second viewpoint discussed above. Hence, it is assumed that each subsystem of the interconnected system has some beliefs about the parameters of the other subsystems as well as their initial states. A decentralized controller is then constructed based on a given reference centralized controller which satisfies the design specifications. This decentralized control law relies on the expected values of any subsystem's initial state from any other subsystem's view and the beliefs of each subsystem about the other subsystems' parameters.

Some important issues regarding the proposed decentralized control law are also studied in this work. First, an easy-to-check necessary and sufficient condition for the internal stability of the interconnected system under the proposed decentralized control law is presented. Note that although the expected values of the initial sates contribute to the structures of the local controllers, it is shown that they never affect the internal stability of the overall system. Second, it is shown that if the knowledge of any subsystem about the other subsystems' parameters is accurate, then the decentralized closed-loop system can perform exactly the same as the centralized closed-loop system. However, since the exact knowledge of the subsystem's parameters is very unlikely to be available in practice, a performance index is defined to evaluate the closeness of the proposed decentralized closed-loop system to its centralized counterpart. This performance index enables the designer to statistically analyze the closeness of the decentralized control system to its corresponding centralized counterpart. In addition, the stability of the decentralized closed-loop system in presence of perturbation in the parameters of the system is studied. Finally, a near-optimal decentralized control law is introduced, and its properties are investigated. The effectiveness of the proposed method is demonstrated in a numerical example, where it is shown that even in presence of large error in the beliefs of the subsystems, the performance of the proposed decentralized control law is very close to that of the reference centralized controller.

#### **3.3 Model-based decentralized control**

Consider a stabilizable LTI interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of v subsystems  $S_1, S_2, ..., S_v$ . Suppose that the state-space equation for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is as follows:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

$$y(t) = Cx(t)$$
(3.1)

where  $x \in \Re^n$ ,  $u \in \Re^m$ ,  $y \in \Re^r$  are the state, the input, and the output of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , respectively. Let

$$u(t) := \begin{bmatrix} u_1(t)^T & u_2(t)^T & \dots & u_{\nu}(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T,$$
(3.2a)

$$x(t) := \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t)^T & x_2(t)^T & \dots & x_V(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T,$$
 (3.2b)

$$y(t) := \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t)^T & y_2(t)^T & \dots & y_v(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
 (3.2c)

where  $x_i \in \Re^{n_i}$ ,  $u_i \in \Re^{m_i}$ ,  $y_i \in \Re^{r_i}$ ,  $i \in \bar{v} := \{1, 2, ..., v\}$ , are the state, the input, and the output of the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem  $S_i$ , respectively. Let for any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ , the (i, j) block entry of the matrix A be denoted by  $A_{ij} \in \Re^{n_i \times n_j}$ . Assume that the matrices B and C are block diagonal with the (i, i) block entries  $B_i \in \Re^{n_i \times m_i}$  and  $C_i \in \Re^{r_i \times n_i}$ , respectively, for any  $i \in \bar{v}$ . Assume also that a centralized LTI controller  $K_c$  is designed for the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , which satisfies the design specifications, and denote its state-space equation as follows:

$$\dot{z}(t) = A_k z(t) + B_k y(t)$$

$$u(t) = C_k z(t) + D_k y(t)$$
(3.3)

where  $z \in \Re^{\eta}$  is the state of the controller. It is desirable now to design a decentralized controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  so that it performs approximately (and under certain conditions, exactly) the same as the centralized controller  $K_c$ . The following definitions are used to obtain the desired decentralized control law.

**Definition 1** Define  $x_0^{i,j}$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , as the expected value of the initial state of the subsystem  $S_i$  from the viewpoint of the subsystem  $S_j$ .

**Definition 2** For any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , the modified subsystem  $S_i^j$  is defined to be a system obtained from the subsystem  $S_i$  by replacing the parameters  $A_{il}, B_i, C_i$  of its state equations with  $A_{il}^j, B_i^j, C_i^j$ , respectively, for any  $l \in \bar{v}$ . In addition, the initial state of  $S_i^j$  is  $x_0^{i,j}$  (instead of  $x_i(0)$ ). Denote the state, the input, and the output of the modified subsystem  $S_i^j$  with  $x_i^j, u_i^j$  and  $y_i^j$ , respectively.

Note that  $S_i^j$  denotes the belief of subsystem *j* about the model of subsystem *i*. In other words, ideally, it is desired to have  $S_i^j = S_i$ , for all  $j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $j \neq i$ .

**Definition 3** For any  $i \in \overline{v}$ ,  $\mathscr{S}^i$  is defined to be a system obtained from  $\mathscr{S}$ , after replacing each subsystem  $S_j$  with the corresponding modified subsystem  $S_j^i$ , j = 1, 2, ..., i - 1, i + 1, ..., v.

It is be noted that  $\mathscr{S}^i$  represents the belief of subsystem *i* about the model of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ .

**Definition 4** Consider the system  $\mathscr{S}^i$  under the centralized feedback law (3.3). Remove all interconnections going to the  $i^{th}$  subsystem  $S_i$  from the other subsystems to obtain a new closed-loop system. One can decompose this closed-loop system to two portions:

i) the system  $S_i$ ;

ii) all other interconnected components (consisting of  $S_j^i$ , j = 1, 2, ..., i - 1, i + 1, ..., v, and  $K_c$ , and the corresponding interconnections). Define this interconnected system as augmented local controller for the subsystem  $S_i$ , and denote it with  $K_{d_i}$ . Denote the state of the controller  $K_c$  (inside the controller  $K_{d_i}$ ) with  $z^i$ .

Define the controller consisting of all augmented local controllers  $K_{d_1}, K_{d_2}, ..., K_{d_v}$  as the augmented decentralized controller  $K_d$ . Let this decentralized controller be applied to the interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  ( $K_{d_i}$  to  $S_i$ , for all  $i \in \bar{v}$ ). Note that to obtain the augmented local controller  $K_{d_i}$ , in addition to the output  $y_i$ , all of the interconnections coming out of the subsystem  $S_i$  are also assumed to be available for the local controller  $K_{d_i}$ . However, since these interconnections contain, in fact, the information of the subsystem  $S_i$ , this is a feasible assumption in many practical problems, e.g. flight formation and power systems, and does not contradict the requirement of the decentralized information flow for the control law. The following theorem presents one of the main properties of the proposed decentralized controller.

**Theorem 1** Consider the interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  with the augmented decentralized controller  $K_d$ . If  $A_{il}^j = A_{il}$ ,  $B_i^j = B_i$ ,  $C_i^j = C_i$ , and  $x_0^{i,j} = x_i(0)$  for all  $i, j, l \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then the input, the output, and the state of the overall decentralized closed-loop system will be the same as those of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$ .

**Proof** Consider system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the decentralized controller  $K_d$ . One can easily write the following equations for the state of the subsystem  $S_i$  under its augmented local controller  $K_{d_i}$ :

$$\dot{x}^{i}(t) = \tilde{A}^{i}x^{i}(t) + B^{i}u^{i}(t) + \sum_{j \in \bar{v}, j \neq i} \tilde{A}^{ij}x^{j}(t)$$

$$y^{i}(t) = C^{i}x^{i}(t)$$

$$\dot{z}^{i}(t) = A_{k}z^{i}(t) + B_{k}y^{i}(t)$$

$$u^{i}(t) = C_{k}z^{i}(t) + D_{k}y^{i}(t)$$
(3.4)

where

$$\begin{aligned}
x^{i} &:= \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}^{i}{}^{T} & \dots & x_{i-1}^{i}{}^{T} & x_{i} & x_{i+1}^{i}{}^{T} & \dots & x_{v}^{i}{}^{T} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \\
y^{i} &:= \begin{bmatrix} y_{1}^{i}{}^{T} & \dots & y_{i-1}^{i}{}^{T} & y_{i} & y_{i+1}^{i}{}^{T} & \dots & y_{v}^{i}{}^{T} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \\
u^{i} &:= \begin{bmatrix} u_{1}^{i}{}^{T} & \dots & u_{i-1}^{i}{}^{T} & u_{i} & u_{i+1}^{i}{}^{T} & \dots & u_{v}^{i}{}^{T} \end{bmatrix}^{T}
\end{aligned}$$
(3.5)

and where

- 1.  $\tilde{A}^i$  is obtained from A by replacing all of the entries of its *i*<sup>th</sup> block row except  $A_{ii}$  (i.e.  $A_{ij}, j \in \bar{v}, i \neq j$ ) with zeros, and replacing its entry  $A_{lj}$  with  $A_{lj}^i$  for any  $l, j \in \bar{v}, l \neq i$ .
- 2.  $\tilde{A}^{ij}$   $(i \neq j)$  is obtained from A by setting all of its block entries except  $A_{ij}$ , to zero.
- 3.  $B^i$  and  $C^i$  are obtained from B and C, after replacing their entries  $B_l$  and  $C_l$  with  $B^i_l$  and  $C^i_l$ , respectively, for l = 1, 2, ..., i 1, i + 1, ..., v.

The equation (3.4) can be rewritten in a matrix form as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}^{i}(t) \\ \dot{z}^{i}(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}^{i} + B^{i}D_{k}C^{i} & B^{i}C_{k} \\ B_{k}C^{i} & A_{k} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^{i}(t) \\ z^{i}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \sum_{j\in\bar{v}, j\neq i} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}^{ij} & 0_{n\times\eta} \\ 0_{\eta\times n} & 0_{\eta\times\eta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^{j}(t) \\ z^{j}(t) \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.6)

So far, the states of the subsystem  $S_i$  and its corresponding augmented local controller  $K_{d_i}$  are obtained. In order to simplify (3.6), the following vector and matrices are defined:

$$x_{g}^{i}(t) := \begin{bmatrix} x^{i}(t) \\ z^{i}(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \tilde{A}_{g}^{i} := \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}^{i} + B^{i}D_{k}C^{i} & B^{i}C_{k} \\ B_{k}C^{i} & A_{k} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \tilde{A}_{g}^{ij} := \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}^{ij} & 0_{n \times \eta} \\ 0_{\eta \times n} & 0_{\eta \times \eta} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.7)

for any  $i, j \in \bar{v}, i \neq j$ . Note that the subscript "g" denotes the parameters and variables of the augmented equations. According to (3.6) and (3.7), the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the proposed decentralized controller  $K_d$  satisfies the following equation:

$$\dot{x}_g(t) = A_g^d x_g(t) \tag{3.8}$$

where

$$x_{g}(t) := \begin{bmatrix} x_{g}^{1}(t) \\ x_{g}^{2}(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_{g}^{v}(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{g}^{d} := \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}_{g}^{1} & \tilde{A}_{g}^{12} & \cdots & \tilde{A}_{g}^{1v} \\ \tilde{A}_{g}^{21} & \tilde{A}_{g}^{2} & \cdots & \tilde{A}_{g}^{2v} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{A}_{g}^{v1} & \tilde{A}_{g}^{v2} & \cdots & \tilde{A}_{g}^{v} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.9)

and where the subscript "d" represents the decentralized nature of the control system. On the other hand, one can easily verify that the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$  satisfies the following:

$$\dot{x}_g(t) = A_g^c x_g(t) \tag{3.10}$$

where

$$A_g^c := \begin{bmatrix} A + BD_k C & BC_k \\ B_k C & A_k \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.11)

Since it is assumed that  $A_{il}^j = A_{il}$ ,  $B_i^j = B_i$ , and  $C_i^j = C_i$  for all  $i, j, l \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , one can write:

$$\tilde{A}_g^i = A_g^c - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{\nu} \tilde{A}_g^{ij}$$
(3.12)

According to (3.9) and (3.12),  $A_g^d$  can be written as the summation of two components  $\Theta$  and  $\Gamma$ , where

$$\Theta := \begin{bmatrix} A_{g}^{c} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & A_{g}^{c} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & A_{g}^{c} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\Gamma := \begin{bmatrix} -\sum_{j=1, j\neq 1}^{v} \tilde{A}_{g}^{1j} & \tilde{A}_{g}^{12} & \cdots & \tilde{A}_{g}^{1v} \\ \tilde{A}_{g}^{21} & -\sum_{j=1, j\neq 2}^{v} \tilde{A}_{g}^{2j} & \cdots & \tilde{A}_{g}^{2v} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{A}_{g}^{v1} & \tilde{A}_{g}^{v2} & \cdots & -\sum_{j=1, j\neq v}^{v} \tilde{A}_{g}^{vj} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.13)

Note that the matrix  $\Theta$  consists of v block matrices  $A_g^c$  on its main diagonal and that each of the diagonal block entries of  $\Gamma$  is equal to minus the summation of the other block entries of

its own block row. Consider now the equation (3.8) in the Laplace domain:

$$X_g(s) = (sI - A_g^d)^{-1} x_g(0) = ((sI - \Theta) - \Gamma)^{-1} x_g(0)$$
(3.14)

It is known that for any arbitrary square matrices  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$ :

$$(\Omega_1 + \Omega_2)^{-1} = \Omega_1^{-1} - \Omega_1^{-1} \left( I + \Omega_2 \Omega_1^{-1} \right)^{-1} \Omega_2 \Omega_1^{-1}$$
(3.15)

provided  $\Omega_1$  and  $(I + \Omega_2 \Omega_1^{-1})$  are nonsingular. It can be concluded from (3.14) and (3.15) that:

$$X_{g}(s) = (sI - \Theta)^{-1} x_{g}(0) + (sI - \Theta)^{-1} \left( I - \Gamma(sI - \Theta)^{-1} \right)^{-1} \Gamma(sI - \Theta)^{-1} x_{g}(0)$$
(3.16)

Moreover, the assumption  $x_0^{i,j} = x_i(0), i, j \in \bar{v}, i \neq j$  yields that  $x^i(0) = x(0), i \in \bar{v}$ . Therefore,

$$x_{g}^{i}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} x(0)^{T} & z^{T}(0) \end{bmatrix}^{T}, \quad i \in \bar{v}$$
 (3.17)

Hence,  $x_g^i(0) = x_g^j(0)$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ . From the equation (3.17) and the definitions of  $\Theta$  and  $\Gamma$  given by (3.13), the *i*<sup>th</sup> entry of the vector  $\Gamma(sI - \Theta)^{-1}x_g(0)$  can be obtained as follows:

$$\tilde{A}_{g}^{i1} \left( sI - A_{g}^{c} \right)^{-1} x_{g}^{1}(0) + \dots + \tilde{A}_{g}^{i(i-1)} \left( sI - A_{g}^{c} \right)^{-1} x_{g}^{i-1}(0) - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{\nu} \tilde{A}_{g}^{ij} \left( sI - A_{g}^{c} \right)^{-1} x_{g}^{i}(0) + \tilde{A}_{g}^{i(i+1)} \left( sI - A_{g}^{c} \right)^{-1} x_{g}^{i+1}(0) + \dots + \tilde{A}_{g}^{i\nu} \left( sI - A_{g}^{c} \right)^{-1} x_{g}^{\nu}(0) = 0$$

$$(3.18)$$

It means that  $\Gamma(sI - \Theta)^{-1}x_g(0) = 0$ . Hence, it can be concluded from (3.16) that  $X_g(s) = (sI - \Theta)^{-1}x_g(0)$ . Consequently, from (3.17):

$$X_{g}^{i}(s) = \left(sI - A_{g}^{c}\right)^{-1} x_{g}^{i}(0) = \left(sI - A_{g}^{c}\right)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ z(0) \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.19)

On the other hand, it follows from (3.10) that the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$  satisfies the following equation in the Laplace domain:

$$X(s) = \left(sI - A_g^c\right)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ z(0) \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.20)

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¿From (3.5) and (3.7), one can observe that the state of the subsystem  $S_i$  of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the decentralized controller  $K_d$  is the *i*<sup>th</sup> block entry of  $x_g^i(t)$  which is, according to (3.19), the *i*<sup>th</sup> block entry of  $(sI - A_g^c)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ z(0) \end{bmatrix}$  in the Laplace domain. On the other hand, equation (3.20) expresses that the state of the subsystem  $S_i$  of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$  is also the *i*<sup>th</sup> block entry of the same matrix. This means that the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the decentralized and the centralized control configurations are equivalent. Using this result, it is straightforward now to show that the output and the input of these two closed-loop systems are the same.

Theorem 1 states that under certain conditions, the state, the input, and the output of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$  are equal to those of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the decentralized controller  $K_d$ . These conditions are met when the belief of each subsystem about the model and the initial state of any other subsystem is precise. Since these conditions are never met in practice, it is important to obtain stability conditions for the case when the corresponding beliefs are inaccurate. This issue is addressed in the following Corollary.

**Corollary 1** The interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the proposed decentralized controller  $K_d$  is internally stable, if and only if all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A_g^d$  given in (3.9) are located in the left-half s-plane.

**Proof** The proof follows immediately from the fact that the modes of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the controller  $K_d$  are the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A_g^d$ , according to the equation (3.8).

**Remark 1** Note that stability of the decentralized closed-loop system is verified by simply checking the location of the eigenvalues of  $A_g^d$ . This signifies that it is independent of the values  $x_0^{i,j}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ .

**Remark 2** The order of the local controller  $K_{d_i}$  for the  $i^{th}$  subsystem of  $\mathscr{S}$  is  $n + \mu$  minus the order of the subsystem  $S_i$ , for any  $i \in \overline{v}$ . Moreover, it can be concluded from Theorem

1, that the local controller  $K_{d_i}$  implicitly includes an observer to estimate the states of the other subsystems. In contrast, if an explicit decentralized observer for each subsystem of  $\mathscr{S}$  is desired to be designed by the existing methods, then the order of the observers 1, 2, ..., v (for subsystems 1, 2, ..., v) will be n, 2n, ..., nv, respectively. Note that in a practical setup with explicit observers, each local controller consists of a compensator and an observer. This means that the local controllers designed here include implicit observers, whose orders are much less than those of conventional decentralized observers.

#### **3.4 Robustness analysis**

In the previous section, a method was proposed for designing a decentralized controller based on a reference centralized controller and its stability condition was discussed in detail. Suppose that there are some uncertainties in the parameters of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  given by (3.1). Since the decentralized controller  $K_d$  is designed in terms of the nominal parameters of the system, the resultant decentralized closed-loop system may become unstable. One of the main objectives of this section is to find a necessary and sufficient condition for internal stability of the perturbed decentralized closed-loop system.

**Definition 5** For any arbitrary matrix M, denote its perturbed version with  $\overline{M}$ , and definite its perturbation matrix as  $\Delta M := \overline{M} - M$ .

Consider now the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}$  as the perturbed version of the system  $\mathscr{I}$  whose state-space representation is as follows:

$$\dot{x}(t) = \bar{A}x(t) + \bar{B}u(t)$$

$$y(t) = \bar{C}x(t)$$
(3.21)

Let for any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ , the (i, j) block entry of the matrix  $\bar{A}$  be denoted by  $\bar{A}_{ij}$ . Assume that the matrices  $\bar{B}$  and  $\bar{C}$  are block diagonal with the block entries  $\bar{B}_1, \bar{B}_2, ..., \bar{B}_v$  and  $\bar{C}_1, \bar{C}_2, ..., \bar{C}_v$ ,

respectively. As discussed earlier, to construct the decentralized controller  $K_d$ , it is assumed that in addition to the output of any subsystem  $\mathscr{S}_i$ , all of the interconnections going out of subsystem *i* are available as the inputs for the local controller  $K_{d_i}$ . Hence, it is required to make some assumptions on the interconnection signals. Consider again the unperturbed system  $\mathscr{S}$ . Denote the interconnection signal coming out of subsystem *i* and going into subsystem *j* with  $\zeta_{ji}(t)$ . Since  $\zeta_{ji}(t)$  can be considered as an output for subsystem *i*, there is a matrix  $\Pi_{ji}$  such that  $\zeta_{ji}(t) = \Pi_{ji}x_i(t)$ . Similarly, since  $\zeta_{ji}(t)$  can be considered as an input for subsystem *j*, there is a matrix  $\Gamma_{ji}$  such that  $A_{ji}x_j(t) = \Gamma_{ji}\zeta_{ji}(t)$ . As a result,  $A_{ji} = \Gamma_{ji}\Pi_{ji}$ . Denote now the perturbed matrices corresponding to  $\Pi_{ji}$  and  $\Gamma_{ji}$  with  $\bar{\Pi}_{ji}$  and  $\bar{\Gamma}_{ji}$ , respectively. Hence,  $\bar{A}_{ji} = \bar{\Gamma}_{ji}\bar{\Pi}_{ji}$ .

- **Definition 6** 1. Define  $\overline{B}^i$  and  $\overline{C}^i$ ,  $i \in \overline{v}$ , as the matrices obtained from  $B^i$  and  $C^i$  by replacing their block entries  $B_i$  and  $C_i$  with  $\overline{B}_i$  and  $\overline{C}_i$ , respectively.
  - 2. Define  $\bar{A}_{g}^{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , as the perturbed matrix of  $\tilde{A}_{g}^{ij}$ , derived by replacing the block entry  $A_{ij}$  of  $\tilde{A}_{g}^{ij}$  with  $\bar{A}_{ij}$ .
  - 3. Define  $\bar{A}^i$ ,  $i \in \bar{v}$ , as the matrix derived from  $\tilde{A}^i$  as follows:
    - Replace the entry  $A_{ii}$  with  $\bar{A}_{ii}$ .
    - For all  $j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $j \neq i$ , replace the block entry  $A^{i}_{ji}$  with  $\Gamma_{ji}\overline{\Pi}_{ji}$ .

**Theorem 2** Suppose that the decentralized controller  $K_d$  which is designed based on the nominal parameters of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  as well as the centralized controller  $K_c$ , is applied to the perturbed system  $\mathscr{\overline{S}}$ . The resultant decentralized closed-loop control system is internally stable iff all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\overline{A}_g^d$  are located in the open left-half of the complex plane, where

$$\bar{A}_{g}^{d} := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{A}_{g}^{1} & \bar{A}_{g}^{12} & \cdots & \bar{A}_{g}^{1\nu} \\ \bar{A}_{g}^{21} & \bar{A}_{g}^{2} & \cdots & \bar{A}_{g}^{2\nu} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \bar{A}_{g}^{\nu 1} & \bar{A}_{g}^{\nu 2} & \cdots & \bar{A}_{g}^{\nu} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.22)

and

$$\bar{A}_{g}^{i} := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{A}^{i} + \bar{B}^{i} D_{k} \bar{C}^{i} & \bar{B}^{i} C_{k} \\ B_{k} \bar{C}^{i} & A_{k} \end{bmatrix}, \quad i \in \bar{\nu}$$
(3.23)

**Proof** The proof of this theorem is omitted due to its similarity to Corollary 1.

Moreover, it can be easily verified that the modes of the perturbed system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$  are the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\bar{A}_g^c$ , where

$$\bar{A}_{g}^{c} := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{A} + \bar{B}D_{k}\bar{C} & \bar{B}C_{k} \\ B_{k}\bar{C} & A_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.24)

Therefore, robustness analysis with respect to the perturbation in the parameters of the system can be summarized as follows:

- For decentralized case, the locations of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\bar{A}_g^d$  should be checked.
- For centralized case, the locations of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\bar{A}_g^c$  should be checked.

The equalities  $A_{ij}^l = A_{ij}$ ,  $B_i^l = B_i$ ,  $C_i^l = C_i$ ,  $i, j, l \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq l$  will hereafter be assumed to simplify the presentation of the properties of the decentralized control proposed in this chapter. It is to be noted that most of the results obtained under the above assumption, can simply be extended to the general case.

**Theorem 3** The Frobenius norms of the perturbation matrices for the decentralized and the centralized cases satisfy the following inequalities:

$$\|\Delta(A_g^d)\| \le \mathcal{N}_1 \tag{3.25a}$$

$$\|\Delta(A_g^c)\| \le \mathscr{N}_2 \tag{3.25b}$$

where

$$(\mathcal{N}_{1})^{2} = 8 \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_{i}\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C_{i}\|^{2} + 8 \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta A_{ii}\|^{2} + 4 \sum_{\substack{i,j \in \bar{\nu} \\ i \neq j}} \|\Delta \Gamma_{ij}\|^{2} \|\Pi_{ij}\|^{2} + \|\Delta B\|^{2} \|C_{k}\|^{2} + 4 \sum_{\substack{i,j \in \bar{\nu} \\ i \neq j}} \|\Delta \Gamma_{ij}\|^{2} \|\Delta \Pi_{ij}\|^{2} + \|B_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C\|^{2} + 12 \sum_{\substack{i,j \in \bar{\nu} \\ i \neq j}} \|\Gamma_{ij}\|^{2} \|\Delta \Pi_{ij}\|^{2} + 8 \|B\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C\|^{2} + 8 \|\Delta B\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|C\|^{2}$$

$$(3.26)$$

and

$$(\mathcal{N}_{2})^{2} = 32 \sum_{\substack{i,j \in \bar{\nu} \\ i \neq j}} \|(\Delta \Gamma_{ij})\|^{2} \|\Pi_{ij}\|^{2} + \|\Delta B\|^{2} \|C_{k}\|^{2} + 32 \sum_{\substack{i,j \in \bar{\nu} \\ i \neq j}} \|(\Delta \Gamma_{ij})\|^{2} \|\Delta \Pi_{ij}\|^{2} + 8 \|\Delta B\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C\|^{2} + 8 \|B\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C\|^{2} + 8 \|\Delta B\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|C\|^{2}$$

$$+ 32 \sum_{\substack{i,j \in \bar{\nu} \\ i \neq j}} \|(\Gamma_{ij})\|^{2} \|\Delta \Pi_{ij}\|^{2} + \|B_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C\| + 8 \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta A_{ii}\|^{2}$$

$$(3.27)$$

and where  $\|\cdot\|$  represents the Frobenius norm.

**Proof** One can write:

$$\begin{split} \|\Delta(A_g^d)\|^2 &= \|\bar{A}_g^d - A_g^d\|^2 = \sum_{i,j\in\bar{\nu},\ i\neq j} \|\Delta A_{ij}\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|(\bar{B}^i - B)C_k\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|B_k(\bar{C}^i - C)\|^2 \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|(\bar{A}^i - \tilde{A}^i) + (\bar{B}^i D_k \bar{C}^i - B D_k C)\|^2 \end{split}$$
(3.28)

On the other hand,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \left( \|(\bar{B}^{i} - B)C_{k}\|^{2} + \|B_{k}(\bar{C}^{i} - C)\|^{2} \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \left( \|(\bar{B}^{i} - B)\|^{2} \|C_{k}\|^{2} + \|B_{k}\|^{2} \|(\bar{C}^{i} - C)\|^{2} \right)$$
$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_{i}\|^{2} \|C_{k}\|^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|B_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C_{i}\|^{2}$$
$$= \|\Delta B\|^{2} \|C_{k}\|^{2} + \|B_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C\|^{2}$$
(3.29)

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Furthermore,

$$\sum_{i,j\in\bar{\mathbf{v}},\ i\neq j} \|\Delta A_{ij}\|^2 = \sum_{i,j\in\bar{\mathbf{v}},\ i\neq j} \|\bar{\Gamma}_{ij}\bar{\Pi}_{ij} - \Gamma_{ij}\Pi_{ij}\|^2$$

$$= \sum_{i,j\in\bar{\mathbf{v}},\ i\neq j} \|\Delta\Gamma_{ij}\Pi_{ij} + \Gamma_{ij}\Delta\Pi_{ij} + \Delta\Gamma_{ij}\Delta\Pi_{ij}\|^2$$

$$\leq 4 \sum_{i,j\in\bar{\mathbf{v}},\ i\neq j} \|\Delta\Gamma_{ij}\|^2 \|\Pi_{ij}\|^2 + 4 \sum_{i,j\in\bar{\mathbf{v}},\ i\neq j} \|\Gamma_{ij}\|^2 \|\Delta\Pi_{ij}\|^2$$

$$+ 4 \sum_{i,j\in\bar{\mathbf{v}},\ i\neq j} \|\Delta\Gamma_{ij}\|^2 \|\Delta\Pi_{ij}\|^2$$
(3.30)

and also,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|(\bar{A}^{i} - \tilde{A}^{i}) + (\bar{B}^{i}D_{k}\bar{C}^{i} - BD_{k}C)\|^{2} \leq 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|(\bar{A}^{i} - \tilde{A}^{i})\|^{2} + 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|(\bar{B}^{i} - B)D_{k}(\bar{C}^{i} - C)\|^{2} \\ + 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|(\bar{B}^{i} - B)D_{k}C\|^{2} + 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|BD_{k}(\bar{C}^{i} - C)\|^{2} \\ \leq 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta A_{ii}\|^{2} + 8\sum_{i,j\in\bar{\nu},\ i\neq j} \|(\Gamma_{ij})\|^{2} \|\bar{\Pi}_{ij} - \Pi_{ij}\|^{2} \\ + 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_{i}\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C_{i}\|^{2} + 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|B\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|\Delta C_{i}\|^{2} \\ + 8\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \|\Delta B_{i}\|^{2} \|D_{k}\|^{2} \|C\|^{2}$$

$$(3.31)$$

The above inequality is obtained by noting that the square of the summation of any four numbers is less than or equal to the summation of the squares of those numbers times eight. The proof of the inequality (3.25a) follows by substituting (3.29), (3.31) and (3.30) into (3.28).

The stability robustness analysis for the decentralized case can be described as follows. Consider a Hurwitz matrix  $A_g^d$ , and assume that it is desired to find admissible variations for the independent perturbation matrices  $\Delta B_i$ ,  $\Delta C_i$ ,  $\Delta \Pi_{ij}$ ,  $\Delta \Gamma_{ij}$ ,  $\Delta A_{ii}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$  such that the perturbed matrix  $\bar{A}_g^d$  remains Hurwitz. Analogously, for the centralized case one should check if  $\bar{A}_g^c$ , the perturbed version of the Hurwitz matrix  $A_g^c$ , is also Hurwitz. This kind of problem has been addressed in the literature using different approaches [11], [12]. To obtain some admissible variations for the independent perturbation matrices  $\Delta B_i$ ,  $\Delta C_i$ ,  $\Delta \Pi_{ij}$ ,  $\Delta \Gamma_{ij}$ ,  $\Delta A_{ii}$ ,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , one can choose any existing result for the matrix perturbation problem, e.g. Bauer-Fike Theorem, and substitute the bound  $\mathcal{N}_1$  for the norm of the perturbation matrix to compute the admissible perturbations.

**Remark 3** Sensitivity of the eigenvalues of a matrix to the variation of its entries depends, in general, on several factors such as the structure of the matrix (represented by condition number or eigenvalue condition number [12]), repetition or distinction of the eigenvalues, and the most important of all, the norm of the perturbation matrix. On the other hand, it can be easily concluded from (3.26) and (3.27) that the bound  $\mathcal{N}_1$  for the decentralized case is less than or equal to the bound  $\mathcal{N}_2$  for the centralized case. Hence, it is expected that the decentralized closed-loop system be more robust to the parameter variation compared to the centralized closed-loop system.

## **3.5 Performance evaluation**

Since the perfect matching condition given in Theorem 1 does not hold in practice, it is desired now to evaluate the deviation in the performance of the decentralized closed-loop system with respect to its centralized counterpart. Define  $\Delta x_i(t)$  as the state of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem  $S_i$  of the closed-loop system  $\mathscr{S}$  under  $K_d$  minus the state of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem  $S_i$  of the closed-loop system  $\mathscr{S}$  under  $K_c$ , for any  $i \in \bar{v}$ . Note that  $\Delta x_i(t)$  is, in fact, the deviation in the state of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem due to the mismatch between the real initial states and their expected values in the proposed decentralized control law.

To evaluate the closeness of the decentralized closed-loop system to the centralized closed-loop system, the following performance index is defined:

$$J_{dev} = \int_0^\infty \left( \Delta x(t)^T Q \Delta x(t) \right) dt$$
(3.32)

where

$$\Delta x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1(t)^T & \Delta x_2(t)^T & \cdots & \Delta x_v(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(3.33)

and where  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$  is a positive definite matrix. Consider now the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the decentralized controller  $K_d$ . This closed-loop system has the state  $x_g(t)$ , which consists of the states of the subsystems as well as those of the local controllers. However, only the states of the subsystems contribute to the performance index (3.32). Thus, it is desirable to derive x(t) from  $x_g(t)$ . Define the following matrix:

$$\Phi_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{n_{i} \times n_{1}} & 0_{n_{i} \times n_{2}} & \dots & 0_{n_{i} \times n_{i-1}} & I_{n_{i} \times n_{i}} & 0_{n_{i} \times n_{i+1}} & \dots & 0_{n_{i} \times n_{v}} & 0_{n_{i} \times \eta} \end{bmatrix}, \quad i \in \bar{v}$$
(3.34)

¿From the definition of  $x_g^i(t)$  given in (3.7), one can write

$$x_i(t) = \Phi_i x_g^i(t), \quad i \in \bar{v} \tag{3.35}$$

Now, define the block diagonal matrix  $\Phi$  as follows:

$$\Phi = \operatorname{diag}\left(\left[\Phi_1 , \Phi_2 , \dots , \Phi_\nu\right]\right) \tag{3.36}$$

It can be concluded from (3.35) and the above matrix that  $\Phi x_g(t) = x(t)$ .

**Definition 7** *Define*  $\Delta x_0$  *as follows:* 

$$\Delta x_0 = \left[ (\Delta x_0^1)^T \ (\Delta x_0^2)^T \ \cdots \ (\Delta x_0^\nu)^T \right]^T$$
(3.37)

where

$$\Delta x_0^i = \begin{bmatrix} (\Delta x_0^{1,i})^T & \cdots & (\Delta x_0^{i-1,i})^T & (\mathbf{0}_{n_i \times 1})^T & (\Delta x_0^{i+1,i})^T & \cdots & (\Delta x_0^{\nu,i})^T & (\mathbf{0}_{\eta \times 1})^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(3.38)

*for any*  $i \in \overline{v}$ *, and where* 

$$\Delta x_0^{i,j} = x_0^{i,j} - x_i(0), \quad i, j \in \bar{\nu}, \quad i \neq j$$
(3.39)

It is to be noted that  $\Delta x_0$  can be considered as the prediction error of the initial states from different subsystems' view.

**Theorem 4** Suppose that the decentralized closed-loop system is internally stable. Then, the performance index  $J_{dev}$  given by (3.32) is equal to  $\Delta x_0^T P_d \Delta x_0$ , where the matrix  $P_d$  is the solution of the following Lyapunov equation:

$$\left(A_g^d\right)^T P_d + P_d A_g^d + \Phi^T Q \Phi = 0 \tag{3.40}$$

**Proof** According to (3.8), the state of the interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the proposed decentralized controller  $K_d$  satisfies the equation  $\dot{x}_g(t) = A_g^d x_g(t)$ . Also, Theorem 1 states that for the particular value of  $x_0^{i,j} = x_i(0)$ , the states of the subsystems of this decentralized closed-loop system are equal to the states of the subsystems of  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized controller  $K_c$ . For this particular value, denote the state of the decentralized closed-loop system with  $\bar{x}_g(t)$ , which satisfies the equation  $\dot{x}_g(t) = A_g^d \bar{x}_g(t)$  as well. Subtracting these two equations and using Definition 4, results in:

$$\Delta \dot{x}_g(t) = A_g^d \Delta x_g(t), \quad \Delta x_g(0) = \Delta x_0 \tag{3.41}$$

where  $\Delta x_g(t) = \bar{x}_g(t) - x_g(t)$ . Therefore:

$$J_{dev} = \int_0^\infty \Delta x(t)^T Q \Delta x(t) dt = \int_0^\infty (\Phi \Delta x_g(t))^T Q (\Phi \Delta x_g(t)) dt$$
  
= 
$$\int_0^\infty \Delta x_g(t)^T \Phi^T Q \Phi \Delta x_g(t) dt$$
(3.42)

Thus, it can be concluded from (3.40), (3.41) and (3.42) that:

$$J_{dev} = -\int_{0}^{\infty} \Delta x_{g}(t)^{T} \left( \left( A_{g}^{d} \right)^{T} P_{d} + P_{d} A_{g}^{d} \right) \Delta x_{g}(t) dt$$
  

$$= -\int_{0}^{\infty} \left( \left( A_{g}^{d} \Delta x_{g}(t) \right)^{T} P_{d} \Delta x_{g}(t) + \Delta x_{g}(t)^{T} P_{d} \left( A_{g}^{d} \Delta x_{g}(t) \right) \right) dt$$
  

$$= -\int_{0}^{\infty} \left( \Delta \dot{x}_{g}(t)^{T} P_{d} \Delta x_{g}(t) + \Delta x_{g}(t)^{T} P_{d} \Delta \dot{x}_{g}(t) \right) dt$$
  

$$= -\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{d \left( \Delta x_{g}(t)^{T} P_{d} \Delta x_{g}(t) \right)}{dt} dt$$
(3.43)

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On the other hand, stability of the decentralized closed-loop system implies that  $\Delta x_g(\infty) = 0$ . Furthermore, since  $\Delta x_g(0) = \Delta x_0$ , one can rewrite (3.43) as follows:

$$J_{dev} = -\Delta x_g(\infty)^T P_d \Delta x_g(\infty) + \Delta x_g(0)^T P_d \Delta x_g(0) = \Delta x_0^T P_d \Delta x_0$$
(3.44)

Consider now the interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the centralized control law  $K_c$ , and define the following performance index for it:

$$J_c = \int_0^\infty x(t)^T Q x(t) dt \tag{3.45}$$

It is straightforward to use a similar approach and apply it to (3.10) to show that  $J_c = x(0)^T P_c x(0)$ , where the matrix  $P_c$  is the solution of the following Lyapunov equation:

$$(A_g^c)^T P_c + P_d A_g^c + Q = 0 (3.46)$$

**Remark 4** One can use Theorem 4 and the equation (3.46) to obtain statistical results for the relative performance deviation  $\frac{J_{dev}}{J_c}$  in terms of the expected values of the initial states of the subsystems. This can be achieved by using Chebyshev's inequality. This enables the designer to determine the maximum allowable standard deviation for  $\Delta x_0$  to achieve a relative performance deviation within a prespecified region with a sufficiently high probability (e.g. 95%).

## 3.6 Near-optimal decentralized control law

Consider the interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  given by (3.1), and suppose that it is desired to find the controller  $K_c$  given by (3.3) in order to minimize the following performance index:

$$J = \int_0^\infty \left( x(t)^T Q x(t) + u(t)^T R u(t) \right) dt$$
 (3.47)

where  $R \in \Re^{m \times m}$  and  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$  are positive definite and positive semi-definite matrices, respectively. Without loss of generality, assume that Q and R are symmetric. If C is an identity matrix (i.e., if all states are available in the output), then the solution of this optimization problem is as follows:

$$u(t) = -K_{opt}y(t) = -K_{opt}x(t)$$
(3.48)

where the matrix  $K_{opt}$  is obtained from the Riccati equation. Assume now that it is desired to design a decentralized controller, instead of the centralized controller (3.48), such that the performance index (3.47) is minimized, under assumption that  $C = I_{n \times n}$ . Unlike the centralized case, computation of the optimal decentralized controller can be cumbersome. Therefore, many of the existing results, instead, present a near-optimal decentralized controller (instead of an optimal one) with a static (local output or local state) feedback structure. It is clear that this constraint can significantly affect the performance of the decentralized closed-loop system. In this section, the proposed method for designing a decentralized controller is exploited to present a near-optimal decentralized control law whose performance will later be evaluated.

Assume that the controller  $K_c$  given by (3.3) is the optimal centralized controller given by (3.48), i.e.

$$A_k = 0, \quad B_k = 0, \quad C_k = 0, \quad D_k = -K_{opt}$$
 (3.49)

Construct the proposed decentralized controller  $K_d$  based on this controller  $K_c$  as described in Section 3.3. It was shown that this decentralized controller relies on some constant values  $x_0^{i,j}$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , and in a particular case when  $x_0^{i,j} = x_i(0)$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , the system  $\mathscr{S}$ under  $K_d$  behaves exactly the same as the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under  $K_c$ . Denote the values of the performance index (3.47) for the centralized and decentralized cases with  $J_c$  and  $J_d$ , respectively. Let the performance deviation be defined as  $\Delta J := J_d - J_c$ . Also, suppose that x(t) and u(t)are the state and the input of the centralized control system excluding the state and the input of the controller, while  $x(t) + \Delta x(t)$  and  $u(t) + \Delta u(t)$  denote those of the decentralized case. **Theorem 5**  $\Delta J$  satisfies the following equation:

$$\Delta J = \int_0^\infty \left( \Delta x^T Q \Delta x + \Delta u^T R \Delta u \right) dt$$
(3.50)

**Proof** Using an approach similar to the proof of Theorem 4, one can rewrite  $J_d$  as:

$$J_d = \begin{bmatrix} x(0)^T & \Delta x_0^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_{11} & V_{12} \\ V_{12}^T & V_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ \Delta x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.51)

where the matrices  $V_{11} \in \Re^{n \times n}$ ,  $V_{12} \in \Re^{n \times (n+\eta)\nu}$  and  $V_{22} \in \Re^{(n+\eta)\nu \times (n+\eta)\nu}$  are functions of A, B and  $K_{opt}$ . The fact that the (2, 1) block entry of the above matrix is transpose of its (1, 2) block entry  $V_{12}$ , results from the symmetry of the Q and R matrices. According to Theorem 1, when  $\Delta x_0$  is zero, the centralized and decentralized closed-loop systems are identical. Therefore, by substituting  $\Delta x_0 = 0$  into the equation (3.51),  $J_c$  will be obtained as follows:

$$J_c = x(0)^T V_{11} x(0) (3.52)$$

It can be concluded from (3.51) and (3.52) that

$$\Delta J = \begin{bmatrix} x(0)^T & \Delta x_0^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & V_{12} \\ V_{12}^T & V_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ \Delta x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.53)

Suppose now that x(0) is any arbitrary vector. It is desired to find a simple closed from relationship between the performance deviation  $\Delta J$  and the initial state prediction error  $\Delta x_0$ .  $\Delta J$  given in (3.53) has the following properties:

- $\Delta J$  is always nonnegative, because the centralized optimal performance index has the smallest value among all the performance indices obtained by using any type of control.
- Substituting  $\Delta x_0 = 0$  in (3.53) yields  $\Delta J = 0$ .
- $\Delta J$  is continuous with respect to each of the entries of  $\Delta x_0$ , because  $\Delta J$  is quadratic.

It can be concluded from the above properties that  $\Delta x_0 = 0$  is an extremum point for  $\Delta J$ . Thus, the partial derivative of  $\Delta J$  with respect to  $\Delta x_0$  has to be zero at  $\Delta x_0 = 0$ . Hence:

$$\left[x(0)^{T}V_{12} + \left(V_{12}^{T}x(0)\right)^{T} + \Delta x_{0}^{T}\left(V_{22}^{T} + V_{22}\right)\right]\Big|_{\Delta x_{0}=0} = 0$$
(3.54)

Accordingly,  $x(0)^T V_{12} = 0$ . This implies that x(0) is in the null-space of the matrix  $V_{12}$ . Since x(0) is any arbitrary vector, thus  $V_{12} = 0$ . Substituting this result into (3.53), it can be concluded that  $\Delta J = \Delta x_0 V_{22} \Delta x_0$ . This means that  $\Delta J$  does not directly depend on x(0). Furthermore,

$$\Delta J = \int_0^\infty \left( [x + \Delta x]^T Q [x + \Delta x] + [u + \Delta u]^T R [u + \Delta u] \right) dt - \int_0^\infty \left( x^T Q x + u^T R u \right) dt$$
$$= \int_0^\infty \left( \Delta x^T Q \Delta x + \Delta u^T R \Delta u \right) dt + \int_0^\infty \left( x^T Q \Delta x + u^T R \Delta u \right) dt \qquad (3.55)$$
$$+ \int_0^\infty \left( \Delta x^T Q x + \Delta u^T R u \right) dt$$

Using the equation (3.48) and after some mathematical computations, one can easily conclude that the summation of the second and the third integrals in the right side of the last equation above is in the form of  $x(0)^T \bar{V} \Delta x_0 + \Delta x_0^T \bar{V}^T x(0)$ , respectively. Since it was shown that  $\Delta J$  is not directly dependent on x(0), the summation of these two integrals should be zero. This completes the proof.

**Definition 8** Define the block diagonal matrix  $\overline{\Phi}$  as follows:

$$\tilde{\Phi} = \operatorname{diag}\left(\left[K_{opt}, 0_{\eta \times \eta}, K_{opt}, 0_{\eta \times \eta}, \dots, K_{opt}, 0_{\eta \times \eta}\right]\right)$$
(3.56)

where the block entry  $K_{opt}$  appears v times in the above matrix.

Since  $u^{i}(t) = -K_{opt}x^{i}(t)$ , it is straightforward to verify that the vector  $\Phi \bar{\Phi} x_{g}^{d}(t)$  (the matrix  $\Phi$  is given by (3.36)) is equal to the input of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under  $K_{d}$ , which is denoted by  $u(t) + \Delta u(t)$ .

**Theorem 6**  $\Delta J$  can be written as  $\Delta x_0^T \bar{P} \Delta x_0$ , where  $\bar{P}$  is the solution of the following Lyapunov equation:

$$\left(A_g^d\right)^T \bar{P} + \bar{P}A_g^d + \left(\Phi^T Q \Phi + \bar{\Phi}^T \Phi^T R \Phi \bar{\Phi}\right) = 0$$
(3.57)

**Proof** The proof is omitted due to its similarity to the proof of Theorem 4.

## 3.7 Numerical example

Consider an interconnected system consisting of two SISO subsystems, with the following parameters:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = I_{2 \times 2}$$
(3.58)

Suppose that a centralized controller  $K_c$  is given for this system with the following parameters:

$$A_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C_{k} = I_{2 \times 2}, \quad D_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.59)

It is desired now to design a decentralized controller  $K_d$ , such that the system under  $K_d$  behaves as closely as possible to the system under  $K_c$ . Using the method proposed in this chapter,  $K_d$ can be designed in terms of two constant values  $x_0^{1,2}$  and  $x_0^{2,1}$ , which are the expected values of each subsystem's initial state from the other subsystem's view. For simplicity, suppose that  $x_1(0) = x_2(0) = 1$ ,  $x_k(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ . Consider now the following two mismatching cases:

i) Suppose that  $x_0^{2,1} = 0.5$  (-50% prediction error) and  $x_0^{1,2} = 1.5$  (50% prediction error). Note that the numbers within the above parentheses show the percentage of errors in predicting the initial states. The output of the first subsystem is sketched with both centralized and decentralized controllers, in Figure 3.1 (note that the output of the second subsystem is not depicted here due to space restrictions). It is evident that the output trajectory of the decentralized case is very close to that of the centralized case. ii) Assume that  $x_0^{2,1} = 0$  (-100% prediction error) and  $x_0^{1,2} = 2$  (100% prediction error). Figure 3.2 illustrates the output of the first subsystem, with both centralized and decentralized controllers. Despite the large prediction errors, the outputs are close to each other.

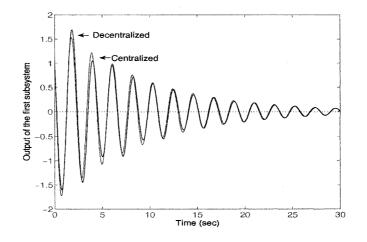


Figure 3.1: The output of the first subsystem with both centralized and decentralized controllers. The prediction errors of the initial states are  $\pm 50\%$ .

Now, to evaluate the performance of the proposed decentralized controller with respect to its centralized counterpart, consider the performance index defined in (3.32) and assume that Q = I. It can be concluded from Theorem 4 that:

$$J_{dev} = 1.128 \left( x_0^{2,1} \right)^2 + 1.107 \left( x_0^{1,2} \right)^2 - 0.259 x_0^{2,1} x_0^{1,2}$$
(3.60)

On the other hand, it can be easily verified that  $J_c = 18.147$  by using the equation (3.46). Now, one can find that the expected value and the standard deviation of  $\frac{J_{dev}}{J_c}$ , provided some probabilistic data regarding  $x_0^{1,2}$  and  $x_0^{2,1}$  are available.

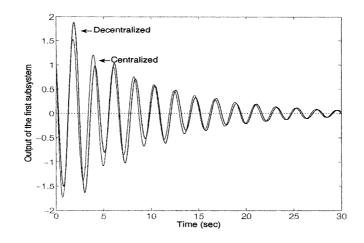


Figure 3.2: The output of the first subsystem with both centralized and decentralized controllers. The prediction errors of the initial states are  $\pm 100\%$ .

## 3.8 Conclusions

A decentralized controller is proposed for interconnected systems. The control law is constructed based on the parameters of a given centralized controller and *a priori* knowledge about each subsystem's model from any other subsystem's view. It is shown that the proposed controller behaves exactly the same as its centralized counterpart, provided the knowledge of each subsystem has no error. Furthermore, a set of conditions for the stability of the decentralized closed-loop system in presence of inexact knowledge of the subsystems' model as well as perturbation in the system's parameters is presented. Moreover, it is shown that the decentralized control system is likely more robust than the centralized control system. In addition, a quantitative measure is given to statistically assess the closeness of the resultant decentralized closed-loop performance to its centralized counterpart. The proposed method is also used to design a near-optimal decentralized control law. The deviation of the decentralized near-optimal performance index from the centralized optimal performance index is obtained in a closed form, which enables the designer to determine how small the standard deviation of the initial state predictions should be in order to achieve a prespecified performance index with a certain likelihood. Simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed decentralized control law.

## 3.9 Bibliography

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## Chapter 4

# Structurally Constrained Periodic Feedback Design

## 4.1 Abstract

This chapter aims to design a high-performance controller with any predefined structure for continuous-time LTI systems. The control law employed is generalized sampled-data hold fucntion (GSHF), which can have any special form, e.g. polynomial, exponential, piecewise constant, etc. The GSHF is first written as a linear combination of a set of basis functions obtained in accordance with its desired form and structure. The objective is to find the coefficients of this linear combination, such that a prespecified linear-quadratic performance index is minimized. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of such GSHF is first obtained in the form of matrix inequality, which can be solved by using the existing methods to obtain a set of stabilizing initial values for the coefficients or to conclude the non-existence of such structurally constrained GSHF. An efficient algorithm is then presented to compute the optimal coefficients from their initial values, so that the performance index is minimized. This chapter utilizes the latest developments in the area of sum-of-square polynomials. The

effectiveness of the proposed method is demonstrated in two numerical examples.

## 4.2 Introduction

There has been a considerable amount of interest in the past several years towards control of continuous-time systems by means of periodic feedback, or so-called generalized sampled-data hold functions (GSHF) [1, 2, 3, 4]. Periodic feedback control signal is constructed by sampling the output of the system at equidistant time instants, and multiplying the samples by a continuous-time hold function, which is defined over one sampling interval. Several advantages and disadvantages of GSHF and its application in practical problems have been thoroughly investigated in the literature and different design techniques are proposed [3, 4, 5].

It is known that if a system has an unstable fixed mode with respect to a given information flow structure, there is no LTI controller to stabilize the system [6]. In that case, under some conditions a time-varying control law, e.g. periodic feedback, can be used to stabilize the system [7, 8]. It is shown in [9] that using GSHF with exponential form may eliminate the unstable fixed modes. However, designing a controller which only takes stability into account is not beneficial in practice, as it may not provide a satisfactory performance. This issue is addressed to some extent in [10] by minimizing a performance index. Nevertheless, only a piecewise-constant GSHF is considered there.

In this chapter, the problem of structurally constrained optimal GSHF with respect to a quadratic continuous-time performance index is considered. The main objective is to design a GSHF which satisfies the following constraints:

- i) It stabilizes the plant.
- ii) It has the desired decentralized structure.
- iii) It has a prespecified form such as polynomial, piecewise constant, etc.

iv) It minimizes a predefined guaranteed cost function.

It is to be noted that condition (iii) given above is motivated by the following practical issues:

- In many problems involving robustness, noise rejection, simplicity of implementation, elimination of fixed modes, etc., it is desired to design GSHFs with a specific form, e.g. piecewise constant, exponential, etc. [11, 9, 3].
- Design of a high performance stabilizing *piecewise constant* GSHF is studied in [10], which can be classified as a special case of the most general form considered in the present chapter.
- Design of unconstrained optimal GSHF using a continuous-time quadratic performance index has been studied by several researchers [12, 13]. The optimal GSHF is derived from a two-boundary point partial differential equation, which is very difficult to solve analytically [12]. Different methods are proposed to solve the problem numerically [13, 14]. These methods are iterative and may not be computationally efficient in general.

In this chapter, conditions (ii) and (iii) are formulated by writing the GSHF as a linear combination of appropriate basis functions. The problem is then reduced to finding the coefficients of the linear combination, such that conditions (i) and (iv) are met. It is shown that the aforementioned problem is solvable (i.e., the desired GSHF exists), if and only if another system which is derived from the original one is stabilizable by means of a constrained *static* output feedback. A method is then proposed to solve the optimization problem for each coefficient analytically, by keeping all remaining coefficients unchanged. The coefficients are obtained one at a time and can be improved by solving the optimization problem with respect to each coefficient iteratively, using the new improved values for other coefficients at each iteration.

## 4.3 Existence of a stabilizing constrained GSHF

Consider a system  $\mathcal{S}$  with the following state-space representation:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \tag{4.1a}$$

$$y(t) = Cx(t) \tag{4.1b}$$

where  $x \in \Re^n$ ,  $u \in \Re^m$  and  $y \in \Re^r$  are the state, the input and the output, respectively, and the matrices A, B and C have proper dimensions. It is desired to design a GSHF f(t) which minimizes the following performance index:

$$J = \int_0^\infty \left( x(t)^T Q x(t) + u(t)^T R u(t) \right) dt$$
 (4.2)

where  $R \in \Re^{m \times m}$  and  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$  are positive definite and positive semidefinite matrices, respectively. It is to be noted that since (4.2) is a continuous-time performance index, it takes the intersample ripple effect into account. Consider now a set of basis functions for f(t), denoted by:

$$\mathbf{f} := \{f_1(t), f_2(t), \dots, f_k(t)\}$$
(4.3)

where:

$$f_i(t) = f_i(t+h), \quad i = 1, 2, ..., k, \ t \ge 0$$
(4.4)

and where  $f_i(t) \in \Re^{m \times r}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, are matrices with only one nonzero element each (this is clarified in Examples 1 and 2 of Section 4.5). It is to be noted that the equation (4.4) implies that the basis functions are periodic with the period *h*. Assume that f(t) is desired to be in the form of a linear combination of the basis functions in **f**, as follows:

$$f(t) = \alpha_1 f_1(t) + \alpha_2 f_2(t) + \dots + \alpha_k f_k(t)$$
(4.5)

It is to be noted that the set of basis functions (4.3) can be easily found, once the desired form (e.g. polynomial, piecewise constant, etc.) and structure (e.g. block diagonal, etc.) of the GSHF is specified. The desired structure is determined based on the information flow

matrix which represents the control constraint. The motivation for using a specific form for GSHF, on the other hand, was discussed in Section 4.2. For instance, one can use a GSHF of the polynomial form with any arbitrary order, as an approximation to the Taylor series of the optimal GSHF, which is very difficult to find in a closed form, in general.

The input u(t) is related to the samples of the output through the following equation:

$$u(t) = f(t)y[\kappa], \quad \kappa h \le t < (\kappa+1)h, \quad \kappa \ge 0$$
(4.6)

Note that the discrete argument corresponding to the samples of any signal is enclosed in brackets (e.g.,  $y[\kappa] := y(\kappa h)$ ). It is known that the state of the system (4.1) under the control law (4.6) is given by:

$$x(t) = e^{(t-\kappa h)A}x(\kappa h) + \int_{\kappa h}^{t} e^{(t-\tau)A}Bu(\tau)d\tau$$
(4.7)

for any  $\kappa h \leq t \leq (\kappa + 1)h$ ,  $\kappa \geq 0$ . Let the following matrices be defined:

$$M_0(t) := e^{tA}, \tag{4.8a}$$

$$M_{i}(t) := \int_{0}^{t} e^{(t-\tau)A} Bf_{i}(\tau) C d\tau, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., k$$
(4.8b)

$$M(t,\alpha) := M_0(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} \alpha_i M_i(t)$$
(4.8c)

where  $\alpha := [\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k]$ . One can easily conclude from (4.1b), (4.6), (4.7), and (1), that:

$$x(t) = M(t - \kappa h, \alpha) x[\kappa], \quad \kappa h \le t \le (\kappa + 1)h$$
(4.9)

Consequently:

$$x[\kappa] = (M(h,\alpha))^{\kappa} x[0], \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
(4.10)

Now, define:

$$N(\alpha) := \int_0^h M^T(t,\alpha) Q M(t,\alpha) dt + \int_0^h C^T f(t)^T R f(t) C dt$$
  
$$\tilde{M}(t) := \begin{bmatrix} M_1(t)^T & M_2(t)^T & \cdots & M_k(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(4.11)

**Lemma 1** There exists a GSHF f(t) with the desired structure (given by the equation (4.5)) such that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is stable under the periodic feedback law (4.6) if and only if there exist a symmetric positive definite matrix  $\Omega$ , and scalars  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$  such that the matrix  $\tilde{\alpha} := \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 I_n & \alpha_2 I_n & \cdots & \alpha_k I_n \end{bmatrix}$  satisfies the following inequality:

$$\left(M_{0}(h) + \tilde{\alpha}\tilde{M}(h)\right)^{T}\Omega\left(M_{0}(h) + \tilde{\alpha}\tilde{M}(h)\right) - \Omega + \left(\tilde{\alpha}\tilde{M}(h)\right)^{T}\left(\tilde{\alpha}\tilde{M}(h)\right) < 0$$
(4.12)

**Proof** It can be concluded from (4.9) that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is stable under the feedback law (4.6) if and only if  $x[k] \to 0$  as  $k \to \infty$ . On the other hand,  $x[k] \to 0$  as  $k \to \infty$  if and only if all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M(h, \alpha)$  are located inside the unit circle in the complex plane (according to (4.10)). As a result, the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is stable under the periodic feedback law (4.6) if and only if all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M(h, \alpha) = M_0(h) + \tilde{\alpha}\tilde{M}(h)$  are located inside the unit circle, or equivalently, the system with the representation:

$$\bar{x}[\kappa+1] = M_0(h)\bar{x}[\kappa] + I_n\bar{u}[\kappa]$$

$$\bar{y}[\kappa] = \tilde{M}(h)\bar{x}[\kappa]$$
(4.13)

is stabilizable by a static output feedback with the gain  $\tilde{\alpha}$ . This problem is usually referred to as "stabilization of a LTI system via structured static output feedback", which has been investigated intensively in the literature; e.g. see [10] and the references therein. The proof follows immediately by applying the necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a stabilizing static output feedback gain obtained in [10] to the system given by (4.13).

**Remark 1** It results from the proof of Lemma 1, that for any given  $\alpha$ , the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is stable under the feedback law (4.6) iff all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M(h, \alpha)$  are located inside the unit circle in the complex plane.

Lemma 1 presents a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a structurally constrained GSHF f(t) which stabilizes the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . One can exploit the LMI algorithm proposed in [10] to solve the matrix inequality (4.12) in order to obtain initial stabilizing values

for the matrices  $\alpha_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, denoted by  $\theta_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, or conclude the non-existence of such GSHF f(t).

**Lemma 2** Suppose that the unknown coefficients  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$  are such that the GSHF f(t) stabilizes the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . The performance index J can be written as:

$$J = x^{T}(0)K(\alpha)x(0)$$
 (4.14)

where  $K(\alpha)$  satisfies the following discrete Lyapunov equation:

$$M^{T}(h,\alpha)K(\alpha)M(h,\alpha) - K(\alpha) + N(\alpha) = 0$$
(4.15)

**Proof** Substituting (4.9) and (4.6) into (4.2) and using (4.10) and (4.11), the performance index can be rewritten as follows:

$$J = \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( \int_{\kappa h}^{(\kappa+1)h} \left( x^T(t) Q x(t) + u^T(t) R u(t) \right) dt \right) = \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( x^T[\kappa] N(\alpha) x[\kappa] \right)$$
  
=  $x^T(0) \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( M^T(h,\alpha) \right)^{\kappa} N(\alpha) \left( M(h,\alpha) \right)^{\kappa} x(0)$  (4.16)

Since the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is assumed to be stable under the feedback law (4.6), the infinite series given above is converging. The proof follows from the well-known property that the solution of this series satisfies the discrete Lyapunov equation given by (4.15), if the series is convergent.

As a result of Lemma 2 and Remark 1, the following steps should be taken in order to find the optimal values for  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$  which minimize the performance index (4.2):

1. Finding a region of convergence (ROC) for the infinite series in (4.16): As discussed earlier, convergence of the series in (4.16) follows from the condition that all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M(h, \alpha)$  lie inside the unit circle. Since there are k variables  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$ , the corresponding ROC is a region in the k-dimensional space. It is important to note that this ROC is not empty, because it contains at least the following point (and a sufficiently close neighborhood of it, due to continuity):

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k) = (\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_k)$$

It is to be noted that the non-emptiness of the ROC is required here because the optimization will later be carried out in this region. Finding this ROC, in general, can be cumbersome. However, using some inequalities, a conservative ROC can be obtained (for example by using Bauer-Fike theorem, which will be explained later).

- 2. Solving the discrete Lyapunov equation given in (4.15): Since this equation is parametric, it cannot be solved easily by any computer software.
- 3. Solving a constrained optimization problem: After finding the ROC (or a subset of it) and solving the Lyapunov equation and substituting its solution into (4.14), the performance index will be obtained in terms of  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$ , which is valid in the obtained ROC. Now, the performance index function should be minimized over this region. This is a constrained global optimization problem, which is not solvable in general, if the problem is not convex.

In the next section, a remedy for the drawbacks of the above steps will be presented.

## 4.4 Optimal performance index

To optimize a multivariate function numerically, when its derivative or gradient is unavailable, one can use the following procedure, which is usually used in direct search methods [15]: *Consider all except one of the variables in the optimization problem as constants. Then, try to find the optimal value for that particular variable. Similarly, select another variable, set all other variables to be fixed, and solve the optimization problem with respect to that variable. Continue this procedure for all variables one by one (it may require to repeat several times).*  It is to be noted that the above procedure may lead to a locally optimal point. This method will now be used to solve the optimization problem formulated in the previous section, and its effectiveness will later be discussed. Since only one variable is considered in each step of the procedure and all other variables are set to be fixed, the problem can be reformulated as follows:

Suppose that  $\overline{f}(t)$  is a stabilizing GSHF for the system (4.1) in a closed-loop set-up. Suppose also that it is desired to add a term proportional to a given function g(t) in the set of basis functions **f** given by (4.3) to generate a new GSHF  $\overline{f}(t)$ , i.e.:

$$f(t) = \bar{f}(t) + \alpha g(t) \tag{4.17}$$

where  $\alpha$  is a real constant number, which is desired to be found such that the continuous-time performance index (4.2) is minimized. Note that the GSHF f(t) stabilizes the system  $\mathscr{S}$  for  $\alpha = 0$ . Define the following matrices similar to (1):

$$M_0(t) := e^{tA} + \int_0^t e^{(t-\tau)A} B\bar{f}(\tau) C d\tau,$$
  
$$M_1(t) := \int_0^t e^{(t-\tau)A} Bg(\tau) C d\tau,$$
  
$$M(t,\alpha) := M_0(t) + \alpha M_1(t)$$

Consider now the matrix defined in (4.11). It can be written as follows:

$$N(\alpha) := P_0 + P_1 \alpha + P_2 \alpha^2$$

where:

$$P_{0} := \int_{0}^{h} \left( M_{0}(t)^{T} Q M_{0}(t) + C^{T} \bar{f}(t)^{T} R \bar{f}(t) C \right) dt$$

$$P_{1} := \int_{0}^{h} \left( M_{0}(t)^{T} Q M_{1}(t) + M_{1}(t)^{T} Q M_{0}(t) \right) dt$$

$$+ \int_{0}^{h} \left( C^{T} \bar{f}(t)^{T} R g(t) C + C^{T} g(t)^{T} R \bar{f}(t) C \right) dt$$

$$P_{2} := \int_{0}^{h} \left( M_{1}(t)^{T} Q M_{1}(t) + C^{T} g(t)^{T} R g(t) C \right) dt$$

Therefore:

$$J = x^{T}(0)K(\alpha)x(0)$$
 (4.20)

where:

$$(M_0(h)^T + \alpha M_1(h)^T) K(\alpha) (M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)) - K(\alpha) + (P_0 + P_1 \alpha + P_2 \alpha^2) = 0$$
(4.21)

Note that the equations (4.20) and (4.21) are obtained from (4.14) and (4.15). The problem is now reduced to solving the discrete Lyapunov equation given in (4.21). The following theorem will be used to simplify the problem formulation.

**Theorem 1** The matrix  $K(\alpha)$  satisfying (4.21) can be written in the following closed form:

$$K(\alpha) = \frac{T_0 + T_1 \alpha + T_2 \alpha^2 + \dots + T_{2n^2} \alpha^{2n^2}}{r_0 + r_1 \alpha + r_2 \alpha^2 + \dots + r_{2n^2} \alpha^{2n^2}}$$
(4.22)

where  $T_i \in \Re^{n \times n}$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , are constant matrices, and  $r_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , are real constant numbers.

**Proof** One of the approaches for solving a discrete Lyapunov equation is the expansion method, where the matrix equation is expanded into a set of linear algebraic equations. The conventional techniques are then used to solve the resultant equations. This approach is now used to prove Theorem 1. Denote the (i, j) entry of  $K(\alpha)$  as  $k_{ij}(\alpha)$ , for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Expanding the equation (4.21),  $n^2$  linear equations with  $n^2$  variables  $k_{ij}(\alpha)$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , will be obtained. It can be easily verified that each of these linear equations has the following structure:

$$\sum_{1 \le i,j \le n} z_{\nu}^{ij}(\alpha) k_{ij}(\alpha) = z_{\nu}(\alpha), \quad \nu = 1, 2, ..., n^2$$
(4.23)

where  $z_{v}^{ij}(\alpha)$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , and  $z_{v}(\alpha)$ ,  $v = 1, 2, ..., n^{2}$ , are polynomials with degrees of less than or equal to 2. Using Kramer's rule to solve this set of linear equations, one can express  $k_{ij}(\alpha)$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , as a fraction whose numerator and denominator orders do not exceed  $2n^2$ . Furthermore, all of these fractions have the same denominator (because it is, in fact, the determinant of the coefficients matrix). After substituting these expressions into the matrix  $K(\alpha)$ , the equation (4.22) will be obtained.

**Theorem 2** Suppose that  $r_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2, ..., 2n^2$ , in (4.22) are known. The unknown matrices  $T_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2, ..., 2n^2$ , can be computed recursively, such that in each recursion one numerical discrete Lyapunov equation is solved.

**Proof** Substituting (4.22) into (4.21), results in:

$$(M_0(h)^T + \alpha M_1(h)^T) (T_0 + T_1 \alpha + \dots + T_{2n^2} \alpha^{2n^2}) (M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)) - (T_0 + T_1 \alpha + \dots + T_{2n^2} \alpha^{2n^2}) + (r_0 + r_1 \alpha + \dots + r_{2n^2} \alpha^{2n^2}) (P_0 + P_1 \alpha + P_2 \alpha^2) = 0$$
(4.24)

One can rearrange the relation given by (4.24) to obtain a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $2n^2 + 2$  with respect to  $\alpha$ , where its coefficients are matrices. Since this polynomial is equal to zero for any value of  $\alpha$ , all of its coefficients should be zero matrices. This implies that:

$$M_0(h)^T T_0 M_0(h) - T_0 + P_0 r_0 = 0 (4.25a)$$

$$M_0(h)^T T_0 M_1(h) + M_1(h)^T T_0 M_0(h) + M_0(h)^T T_1 M_0(h) - T_1 + P_1 r_0 + P_0 r_1 = 0$$
(4.25b)

$$M_{1}(h)^{T}T_{i-2}M_{1}(h) + M_{0}(h)^{T}T_{i-1}M_{1}(h) + M_{1}(h)^{T}T_{i-1}M_{0}(h) + M_{0}(h)^{T}T_{i}M_{0}(h) - T_{i}$$
  
+  $P_{2}r_{i-2} + P_{1}r_{i-1} + P_{0}r_{i} = 0, \quad i = 2, 3, ..., 2n^{2}$  (4.25c)

Consider now the equation (4.25a). Since the matrices  $P_0$  and  $M_0(h)$  have already been computed and also it is assumed that  $r_0$  is known, this equation is a discrete Lyapunov equation with numeric coefficients, which can be easily solved for  $T_0$ . Substituting the computed matrix  $T_0$  into (4.25b) gives another discrete Lyapunov equation, from which  $T_1$  can be obtained. Continuing this procedure, all of the matrices  $T_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , will be obtained. As discussed earlier, the discrete closed-loop system is stable for  $\alpha = 0$ . Thus, all of the eigenvalues of  $M_0(h)$  are located inside the unit circle, and consequently, each of the foregoing discrete Lyapunov equations has a unique solution.

Theorem 2 gives a recursive method for computing the matrices  $T_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , provided the scalars  $r_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , are available. It is desired now to present a method for computing these scalars.

**Definition 1** Consider a row vector  $V_1 \in \Re^{n_1}$ , and a column vector  $V_2 \in \Re^{n_2}$ . Define the global multiplication of these two vectors as follows:

$$GM(V_1, V_2) := \begin{bmatrix} V_1^1 \cdot V_2^T & V_1^2 \cdot V_2^T & \cdots & V_1^{n_1} \cdot V_2^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$

where  $V_1^i$  represents the *i*<sup>th</sup> entry of  $V_1$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., n_1$ . As an example, the global multiplication of  $[1 \ 2 \ 3]$  and  $[0 \ 1 \ 2]^T$  is  $[0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 0 \ 2 \ 4 \ 0 \ 3 \ 6]^T$ .

**Theorem 3** The scalars  $r_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , in the denominator of the expression for  $K(\alpha)$  in (4.22), can be found by computing the matrix  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$  at  $2n^2 + 1$  arbitrary and distinct values of  $\alpha$ .

**Proof** Let the denominator of the expression given in (4.22) be denoted by den( $\alpha$ ). Using (4.23) and (4.21), one can easily verify that:

$$den(\alpha) = r_0 + r_1 \alpha + r_2 \alpha^2 + \dots + r_{2n^2} \alpha^{2n^2}$$
  
= 
$$det \left( \left[ GM(E_1(\alpha), F_1(\alpha)), \dots, GM(E_1(\alpha), F_n(\alpha)), GM(E_2(\alpha), F_1(\alpha)), \dots, GM(E_n(\alpha), F_n(\alpha)) \right] - I_{n^2 \times n^2} \right)$$
  
$$GM(E_2(\alpha), F_n(\alpha)), \dots, GM(E_n(\alpha), F_1(\alpha)), \dots, GM(E_n(\alpha), F_n(\alpha)) \right] - I_{n^2 \times n^2} \right)$$

(it is to be noted that den( $\alpha$ ) is, in fact, the determinant of the coefficients matrix for the set of linear equations given by (4.23)) where  $E_i(\alpha)$  and  $F_i(\alpha)$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n, are the *i*<sup>th</sup> row and the *i*<sup>th</sup> column of the matrix  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$ , respectively. Consider now  $2n^2 + 1$  arbitrary and distinct values for  $\alpha$  denoted by  $\bar{\alpha}_0, \bar{\alpha}_1, ..., \bar{\alpha}_{2n^2}$ . Compute  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$  for each of these values in order to obtain  $E_i(\alpha)$  and  $F_i(\alpha)$ , and then den $(\alpha)$  from (4.26). Eventually, the unknown values  $r_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , will be obtained as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} r_{0} \\ r_{1} \\ \vdots \\ r_{2n^{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \bar{\alpha}_{0} & \bar{\alpha}_{0}^{2} & \dots & \bar{\alpha}_{0}^{2n^{2}} \\ 1 & \bar{\alpha}_{1} & \bar{\alpha}_{2}^{1} & \dots & \bar{\alpha}_{1}^{2n^{2}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \bar{\alpha}_{2n^{2}} & \bar{\alpha}_{2n^{2}}^{2} & \dots & \bar{\alpha}_{2n^{2}}^{2n^{2}} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{den}(\bar{\alpha}_{0}) \\ \operatorname{den}(\bar{\alpha}_{1}) \\ \vdots \\ \operatorname{den}(\bar{\alpha}_{2n^{2}}) \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.27)

It is to be noted that since  $\bar{\alpha}_0, \bar{\alpha}_1, ..., \bar{\alpha}_{2n^2}$  correspond to  $2n^2 + 1$  distinct values of  $\alpha$ , the matrix given in (4.27) is invertible according to the Vandermond's formula.

As a result, in order to compute  $K(\alpha)$ , one should first find  $r_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , by using Theorem 3, and then compute  $T_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ , according to Theorem 2.

So far, despite the parametric structure of the discrete Lyapunov equation in (4.21), it is analytically solved by using numerical methods. Substituting the result into (4.20) gives the performance index (4.2) in terms of the unknown variable  $\alpha$  and the initial state x(0). Note that for any initial state, the performance index obtained is a rational function whose numerator and denominator are polynomials in  $\alpha$ . Note also that to obtain this result, it was assumed that the discrete-time equivalent system corresponding to  $\mathscr{S}$  is stable under the GSHF (4.17). Thus, a ROC for  $\alpha$  which guarantees the stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the GSHF (4.17) should be obtained. This one-dimensional ROC consists of those values of  $\alpha$  for which all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$  are located inside the unit circle. Since it is assumed that  $\overline{f}(t)$  stabilizes the system  $\mathscr{S}$  for  $\alpha = 0$ , the point  $\alpha = 0$  belongs to the ROC. Moreover, since finding the exact ROC can be cumbersome and very complicated, it is desired to obtain a subset of the exact ROC. This problem is addressed in the following theorem.

**Theorem 4** Let the eigenvalues of  $M_0(h)$  be denoted by  $\lambda_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n, where:

 $|\lambda_1| \leq |\lambda_2| \leq \cdots \leq |\lambda_n| < 1$ 

a) For any  $\alpha \in (-\gamma, \gamma)$ , where  $\gamma$  is the smallest positive real root of the following polynomial:

$$H(\alpha) = -\frac{(1-|\lambda_n|)^n}{2^{2n-1}} + \alpha \|M_0(h)\|_2 (2\|M_0(h)\|_2 + \alpha \|M_1(h)\|_2)^{n-1}$$

and where  $\|\cdot\|_2$  represents the 2-norm of the corresponding matrix, all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$  are located inside the unit circle.

b) If the matrix  $M_0(h)$  is diagonalizable, then  $\gamma$  can be obtained from the following equation:

$$\gamma = \frac{1 - |\lambda_n|}{cond_2(V) ||M_1(h)||_2}$$

where  $cond_2(V) := \|V\|_2 \|V^{-1}\|_2$  is the condition number of an eigenvector matrix V of  $M_0(h)$ .

**Proof** Let the eigenvalues of  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$  be denoted by  $\lambda_i^{\alpha}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n. The Elsner theorem [16] states that for any eigenvalue  $\lambda_i^{\alpha}$  of  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$ , there is an eigenvalue  $\lambda_j$  of  $M_0(h)$ , such that:

$$|\lambda_i^{\alpha} - \lambda_j| \le 2^{2 - \frac{1}{n}} \|\alpha M_1(h)\|_2^{\frac{1}{n}} (\|M_0(h)\|_2 + \|M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)\|_2)^{1 - \frac{1}{n}}$$

Consequently, if  $\alpha$  satisfies the following inequality:

$$2^{2-\frac{1}{n}} \|\alpha M_1(h)\|_2^{\frac{1}{n}} (2\|M_0(h)\|_2 + \|\alpha M_1(h)\|_2)^{1-\frac{1}{n}} < 1 - |\lambda_n|$$

then all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$  will be inside the unit circle. The proof of part (a) follows directly from (4.28), and by noting that this inequality holds for  $\alpha = 0$ , and does not hold for  $\alpha = +\infty$ .

On the other hand, if  $M_0(h)$  is diagonalizable, the Bauer-Fike theorem [17] states that for any eigenvalue  $\lambda_i^{\alpha}$  of  $M_0(h) + \alpha M_1(h)$ , there is an eigenvalue of  $M_0(h)$  denoted by  $\lambda_j$ , such that:

$$|\lambda_i^{\alpha} - \lambda_j| \le \operatorname{cond}_2(V) \|\alpha M_1(h)\|_2 \tag{4.28}$$

The proof of part (b) follows immediately from (4.28).

The bound for  $\alpha$  given in part (b) of Theorem 4 is less conservative than the one given in part (a). Hence, when the matrix  $M_0(h)$  is diagonalizable, it is better to use the bound given in part (b). It is to be noted that the interval obtained for  $\alpha$  in part (b) of Theorem 4 is typically large, because  $M_1(h)$  is the integral over the sampling period [0,h], which is typically small, and consequently its 2-norm is small too. It is to be noted that the bounds given in Theorem 4 are symmetric around the origin, due to the nature of the theorems utilized for attaining the bounds. This may lead to a conservative solution, in general. However, one can use the LMI approach proposed in [18, 19] to obtain the exact bound at the cost of more computational effort.

After finding  $K(\alpha)$  in terms of  $\alpha$  by using Theorems 2 and 3, and substituting them into the equation (4.20), a rational performance index will be obtained with respect to  $\alpha$ . Let this performance index be denoted by  $J = \frac{\Phi(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$ , where  $\Phi$  and  $\Gamma$  are polynomials of order less than or equal to  $2n^2$ . The last step of optimization is to minimize this rational function over the interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ . This problem is often referred to as "global optimization of a constrained rational function" which is, in general, difficult to solve. However, for univariate rational functions, it can be reformulated as a semidefinite programming (SDP) problem [20], which can be solved by several available softwares. It is to be noted that one can directly take the derivative of J with respect to  $\alpha$ , equate it to zero, and then find its roots. However, for large values of n, this rudimentary technique is not efficient. Therefore, reformulation of the problem as a SDP will be discussed next. The following lemma is borrowed from [21].

**Lemma 5** Consider the rational function  $w(t) = \frac{z(t)}{v(t)}$  over the interval (a,b), and suppose that z(t) and v(t) are relatively prime polynomials. If v(t) changes its sign over (a,b), then the minimum value of the function w(t) over this interval is  $-\infty$ .

Consider now the performance index  $J = \frac{\Phi(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$  over the interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ . There exist many simple algorithms to verify whether or not  $\Phi(\alpha)$  and  $\Gamma(\alpha)$  are relatively prime, and in the case they are not relatively prime, cancel out their greatest common divisor (GCD). Hence,

without loss of generality, assume that  $\Phi(\alpha)$  and  $\Gamma(\alpha)$  are relatively prime polynomials. On the other hand, since the closed-loop system is stable for any  $\alpha \in (-\gamma, \gamma)$ , the function Jshould be finite and positive in this interval. Consequently, according to Lemma 5, the sign of the function  $\Gamma(\alpha)$  does not change in the interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ , i.e., it is either always positive or always negative. Now, compute  $\Gamma(\alpha)$  for an arbitrary value of  $\alpha$  which belongs to the interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ . If the result is negative, change the signs of the coefficients of both  $\Phi(\alpha)$  and  $\Gamma(\alpha)$ . This conversion does not affect J, but makes the sign of  $\Gamma(\alpha)$  positive for all  $\alpha$  in  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ . As a result, without loss of generality, assume that  $\Gamma(\alpha) \ge 0$  for any  $\alpha \in (-\gamma, \gamma)$ . Let the minimum value of J in this interval be denoted by  $J_{opt}$ . One can write:

$$J_{opt} = \sup \left\{ \lambda : \ \Phi(\alpha) - \lambda \Gamma(\alpha) \ge 0, \ \forall \alpha \in (-\gamma, \gamma) \right\}$$
(4.29)

The above technique is the key to solve the problem of "global optimization of a constrained rational function", because it reduces the optimization of a rational function to the optimization of a polynomial [21].

It follows from the results of M. Fekete theorem [21] and the discussion in Section 3.1.1 of [22], that there exist two positive semidefinite matrices  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$ , such that:

$$\Phi(\alpha) - \lambda \Gamma(\alpha) = \tilde{X}_1^T \Omega_1 \tilde{X}_1 + (\gamma^2 - \alpha^2) \tilde{X}_2^T \Omega_2 \tilde{X}_2$$
(4.30)

where

$$ilde{X}_1 = \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & lpha & lpha^2 & \cdots & lpha^{2n^2} \end{array} 
ight]^T, \quad ilde{X}_2 = \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & lpha & lpha^2 & \cdots & lpha^{2n^2-1} \end{array} 
ight]^T$$

Let the polynomial  $\Phi(\alpha) - \lambda \Gamma(\alpha)$  be denoted by  $\sum_{i=0}^{2n^2} \zeta_i(\lambda) \alpha^i$ . In addition, define  $\Omega_1^{ij}$  and  $\Omega_2^{ij}$  as the (i, j) entries of the matrices  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$ , respectively. Equating the corresponding coefficients in the two sides of the equation (4.30) yields the following relation for  $v = 0, 1, ..., 2n^2$ :

$$\zeta_{\nu}(\lambda) = \sum_{i+j=\nu} \Omega_{1}^{ij} + \gamma^{2} \sum_{i+j=\nu} \Omega_{2}^{ij} - \sum_{i+j=\nu-2} \Omega_{2}^{ij}$$
(4.31)

The optimization problem (4.29) is now equivalent to finding the supremum of  $\lambda$  subject to (4.31), where  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are positive semidefinite matrix variables. This is a SDP problem, which can be solved numerically [21], [23].

#### **Algorithm 1**

Step 1) Set  $\alpha_i^0 = \theta_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, and j = l = 1.

Step 2) Set  $g(t) = f_j(t)$ .

Step 3) Compute  $K(\alpha)$  by using Theorems 3, 2 and 1, and substitute them into (4.20) in order to obtain J.

Step 4) Find a region of convergence, denoted by  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ , using Theorem 4.

Step 5) Cancel out the GCD of the numerator and the denominator of J, make the sign of its denominator positive in the interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$  as discussed ealier, and denote the resultant function with  $\frac{\Phi(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$ .

Step 6) Denote  $\Phi(\alpha) - \lambda \Gamma(\alpha)$  with  $\sum_{i=0}^{2n^2} \zeta_i(\lambda) \alpha^i$ . Now, solve the following optimization problem, which is, in fact, a SDP problem:

Find the value of  $\alpha$  which results in the supremum of  $\lambda$  for the variables  $\Omega_1$ ,  $\Omega_2$  and  $\alpha$  subject to (4.31), where  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are positive semidefinite variables.

Step 7) Denote the value obtained for  $\alpha$  in Step 6 with  $\alpha_{opt}$ . Set  $\alpha_j^l = \alpha_j^{l-1} + \alpha_{opt}$ , and let the new function f(t) be the old f(t) plus  $\alpha_{opt}g(t)$ . If j < k, increase j by one and go to Step 2.

Step 8) If  $\sum_{i=1}^{k} |\alpha_i^l - \alpha_i^{l-1}| > \delta$ , where  $\delta$  is a prescribed tolerance, then set j = 1, increase the value of l by one, and go to Step 2.

Step 9) The optimal coefficients of the GSHF f(t) defined in (4.5) are given by  $\alpha_i = \alpha_i^l$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k.

It is to be noted that Algorithm 1 should be ideally halted when  $\alpha_i^l = \alpha_i^{l-1}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k. However, Step 8 is added to the algorithm to assure that it will stop in a finite time.

**Remark 2** The problem of finding the optimal value of  $\alpha$  is, in fact, formulated as a constrained optimization problem by concentrating on only the values of  $\alpha$  in the open interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ . However, if the solution of this problem is  $-\gamma^+$  or  $\gamma^-$ , this implies that the global minimum of the performance index most likely corresponds to a value of  $\alpha$  outside the region given by Theorem 4. In other words, if the minimum value of the above constrained optimization problem occurs at  $\alpha = -\gamma^+$  or  $\alpha = \gamma^-$ , the global minimum of the unconstrained optimization problem (where the only implicit constraint is stability), occurs for a value of  $\alpha$ less than or equal to  $\gamma$ , or greater than or equal equal to  $-\gamma$ , respectively. To take these case into consideration, one can replace Step 7 of Algorithm 1 with the following:

Step 7) Denote the value obtained for  $\alpha$  in Step 6 with  $\alpha_{opt}$ . Set  $\alpha_i^l = \alpha_i^{l-1} + \alpha_{opt}$ , and the new function f(t) as the old f(t) plus  $\alpha_{opt}g(t)$ . If  $\alpha_{opt} = -\gamma^+$  or  $\alpha_{opt} = \gamma^-$ , go to Step 2. If i < k, increase the value of i by one and go to Step 2.

**Remark 3** As discussed earlier, the optimal value of  $\alpha$  depends on the initial state x(0). However, if the exact initial state is unknown or if it is desired to find a value of  $\alpha$  which is independent of the initial state, the optimization problem can be treated probabilistically. Assume that the expected value of  $x(0)x(0)^T$  is known and denoted by  $X_0$ . Suppose that it is desired to minimize the expected value of J over all initial values. One can write:

$$E\{J\} = E\{x^{T}(0)K(\alpha)x(0)\} = trace(K(\alpha)X_{0})$$
(4.32)

If  $K(\alpha)$  (which is obtained by using the method discussed earlier) is substituted into the above equation, a new rational function will be obtained. Now, the probabilistic optimization problem reduces to minimizing this rational function over the interval  $(-\gamma, \gamma)$ , which can be treated by using the SDP approach as discussed before. **Remark 4** After formulating the problem with the equations (4.20) and (4.21), one can choose any converging numerical algorithm to find the optimal value of  $\alpha$ . However, the problem is not convex, and also the step sizes required for convergence to a point with a desired accuracy is unknown. Hence, one of the novelties of the approach presented in this chapter is that it specifies the step sizes (except for Step 6 of Algorithm 1 regarding the optimization of a rational function that generally converges to its optimal point very fast compared to the algorithm presented in [13, 10]).

## 4.5 Numerical examples

**Example 1** (Harmonic Oscillator) Consider a continuous-time LTI system with the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \zeta \\ -\zeta & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.33)

and  $x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ . Two different values (1,2) and (-5,1) for the pair ( $\zeta$ , *h*) will be considered here, which correspond to the examples presented in [13] and [12], respectively.

i)  $\zeta = 1$ , h = 2sec: If a ZOH is used with a unity controller, it can be easily verified that the overall closed-loop system will be unstable. Note that for ZOH, f(t) is equal to 1. Suppose that it is desired to obtain a constant GSHF, which minimizes the performance index (4.2), with Q = R = I. To find the desired GSHF  $\bar{f}(t)$ , an initial constant stabilizing GSHF f(t) is required. One can verify that f(t) = 0.9 stabilizes the system. For this constant GSHF, the performance index is 28.199. Let the function g(t) given in (4.17) be equal to 1. Pursuing the proposed method, the optimal GSHF  $\bar{f}(t)$  is obtained to be 0.502, which yields J = 9.078. This means that the minimum achievable performance index is 9.078 under the constraint of constant GSHF. It is to be noted that a constant GSHF is equivalent to a ZOH and a constant gain controller. Suppose now that it is desired to use a piecewise constant GSHF to further improve the performance index. Consider the following three basis functions for the desired GSHF:

$$f_i(t) = u_1\left(t - \frac{(i-1)h}{3}\right) - u_1\left(t - \frac{ih}{3}\right), \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(4.34)

where  $u_1(\cdot)$  represents the unit-step function. One can commence the proposed procedure from the values  $\theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = 0.9$  in (4.5). Tuning these coefficients by using Algorithm 1 yields  $\alpha_1 = -0.399$ ,  $\alpha_2 = 0.690$  and  $\alpha_3 = 0.903$ . Hence, the optimal piecewise constant GSHF with the basis functions (4.34) is as follows:

$$\bar{f}(t) = -0.399f_1(t) + 0.690f_2(t) + 0.903f_3(t)$$
(4.35)

and the corresponding optimal performance index is 7.088.

The unconstrained optimal GSHF for this system is derived in [13]. However, since it is obtained through an iterative procedure, the optimal GSHF is a curve for which no judgement can be made (because the function does not have any closed-form expression). However, the performance index corresponding to the GSHF given in [13] is 6.8. In contrast, by using a very simple structure for GSHF as discussed above, the resultant performance index (7.088) is very close to the unconstrained optimal value (6.8).

ii)  $\zeta = -5$ , h = 1 sec: Suppose that it is desired to have a piecewise constant GSHF with the basis functions:

$$f_i(t) = u_1\left(t - \frac{(i-1)h}{2}\right) - u_1\left(t - \frac{ih}{2}\right), \quad i = 1,2$$
(4.36)

Starting from  $\theta_1 = \theta_2 = -4$ , the optimal GSHF is obtained to be:

$$\bar{f}(t) = -1.371f_1(t) + 0.960f_2(t)$$
 (4.37)

and the corresponding optimal performance index will be 3.474. On the other hand, using the optimal continuous-time LQR controller and assuming that both states are available in the output (i.e., without using an observer), the minimum performance index will be 2.651

(note that this is, in fact, the minimum achievable performance index for the system using any type of control). The output of the system under the optimal continuous-time LQR controller and under the optimal GSHF (4.37) are depicted in Figure 4.1. This figure demonstrates that the proposed GSHF performs very closely to the optimal LQR controller. This is due to the fact that by using GSHF, one can obtain much of the efficiency of state feedback, without the requirement of state estimation [3].

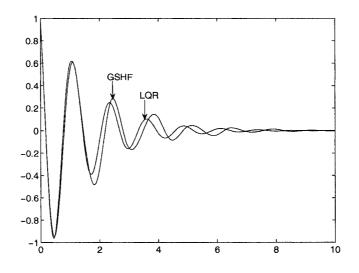


Figure 4.1: The output of the system in Example 1 under the continuous-time optimal LQR controller and under the optimal GSHF given in (4.37).

**Example 2** Consider a continuous-time LTI system with the following state-space matrices:

A =	-1	4	, B =	-3	0	, <i>C</i> =	1	0	
	5	3		0	1		0	1	

and the initial state  $x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ . Let the sampling period be h = 0.1 sec. It can be easily verified that the minimum achievable performance index (4.2) with Q = R = I for the system is 2.857. Assume now that it is desired to design a decentralized periodic controller for the system. In other words, it is required to obtain a 2 × 2 diagonal GSHF. Furthermore, assume that the basis functions for the GSHF are to be:

$$f_1(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f_2(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f_3(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(t) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let the algorithm start with the initial parameters  $\theta_1 = 1$ ,  $\theta_2 = 1$ ,  $\theta_3 = 0$ . Note that these parameters represent a simple ZOH for each input-output agent in the closed-loop configuration, and result in an initial performance index equal to 475.110. Now, let the coefficients of these three basis functions be tuned as proposed in the present chapter. This will result in:

$$\bar{f}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1.084 + 27.128\sin(t) & 0\\ 0 & -1.360 \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.38)

Consequently, the resultant performance index will be 5.396. This implies that the decentralized performance index is improved from 475.110 to 5.396, while the minimum achievable performance index (with no structural constraint) is 2.8566.

# 4.6 Conclusions and suggested future work

In this chapter, a novel approach is proposed to design a generalized sampled-data hold function (GSHF) with any prespecifed structure (e.g., decentralized with block diagonal information flow matrix) and any given form (e.g., polynomial) for a continuous-time finite-dimensional linear time-invariant system. The resultant GSHF is optimal with respect to a linear-quadratic cost function, subject to the constraints imposed on the structure and the form of the GSHF. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a stailizing GSHF with the desired constraints is obtained. Then, an algorithm is proposed to find the optimal GSHF. This chapter uses the recent results in semidefinite programming. Simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method.

There are several suggestions as the continuation of the work proposed in present chapter. First, it would be very useful to find an optimal choice of the set of basis functions with any given size (in terms of the number of functions in the set). Another direction for the future work, could be a systematic methodology to obtain a set of basis functions which can potentially stabilize a large-scale system by means of a decentralized controller, when there is no LTI decentralized controller to achieve stability. Furthermore, using  $H_{\infty}$  norm instead of  $H_2$  as the performance index can be interesting as far as robustness is concerned.

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# Chapter 5

# Simultaneous Stabilization using Decentralized Periodic Feedback Law

# 5.1 Abstract

In this chapter, controlling a set of continuous-time LTI systems is considered. It is assumed that a predefined guaranteed continuous-time quadratic cost function, which is, in fact, the summation of the performance indices for all systems, is given. The main objective here is to design a decentralized periodic output feedback controller with a prespecified form, e.g., polynomial, piecewise constant, exponential, etc., which minimizes the above mentioned guaranteed cost function. This problem is first formulated as a set of matrix inequalities, and then by using a well-known technique, it is reformulated as a LMI problem. The set of linear matrix inequalities obtained represent the necessary and sufficient conditions for existence of the desired structurally constrained controller. Moreover, an algorithm is presented to solve the resultant LMI problem. Finally, the efficiency of the proposed method is demonstrated in two numerical examples, which are investigated in several relevant papers.

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# 5.2 Introduction

The idea of using generalized sampled-data hold functions (GSHF) instead of a simple zeroorder hold (ZOH) in control systems was first introduced in [1]. Kabamba investigated several applications and properties of GSHF in control systems [2, 3, 4]. He showed that many of the advantages of state feedback controllers, without the requirement of using state estimation procedures can be obtained by using a GSHF. A comprehensive frequency-domain analysis was done by Feuer and Goodwin to examine robustness, sensitivity, and intersample effect of GSHF [5]. Several advantages and disadvantages of GSHF and its application in practical problems have been thoroughly investigated and different design techniques are proposed in the literature [6, 7].

Simultaneous stabilization of a set of systems, on the other hand, is of special interest in the control literature [8, 9], and has applications in the following problems:

- A system which is desired to be stabilized by a fixed controller in different modes of operations, e.g., failure mode.
- A nonlinear plant which is linearized at several equilibria.
- A system which is desired to be stabilized in presence of uncertainties in its parameters.

Despite numerous efforts made to solve the simultaneous stabilization problem, it still remains an open problem. In the special case, when there are only two plants to be simultaneously stabilized, the problem is completely solved in [10, 11], and for the case of three and four plants, some necessary and sufficient relations in the form of polynomial are presented in [12]. However, no necessary and sufficient condition has been obtained for simultaneous stabilization of more than four plants, so far. Moreover, it is proved in [13] that if the number of plants is more than two, then the problem is rationally undecidable. It is also shown in [14] that the problem is NP-hard. These results clearly demonstrate complexity level of the

problem. Since there does not exist any LTI simultaneous stabilizing controller in many cases, a time-varying controller is considered in [15]. It is shown that for any set of stabilizable and observable plants, there exists a time-varying controller consisting of a sampler, a ZOH, and a time-varying discrete-time compensator which not only stabilizes all of the plants, but also acts as a near-optimal controller for each plant. This result points to the usefulness of sampling in simultaneous stabilization problem. Nevertheless, fast sampling requirement and large control gain are the drawbacks of this approach.

Stabilizing a set of plants simultaneously by means of a periodic controller in order to achieve good behavior for the control systems is investigated in the literature [4, 16]. A method is proposed in [4] to not only minimize a guaranteed cost function corresponding to all of the systems, but also accomplish desired pole placement. The drawback, however, is that the problem is formulated as a two-boundary point differential equation whose analytical solution is cumbersome, in general. Some algorithms are proposed to solve the resultant differential equation numerically, in the particular case of only one LTI system, which is no longer a simultaneous stabilization problem [17, 18]. Design of a high-performance simultaneous stabilizer in the form of a piecewise constant GSHF is investigated in [19].

On the other hand, it is not realistic in many practical problems to assume that all of the outputs of a system are available to construct any particular input of the system. In other words, it is often desired to have some form of decentralization. Problems of this kind appear, for example, in electric power systems, communication networks, large space structures, robotic systems, economic systems and traffic networks, to name only a few. Note that throughout this chapter the term "decentralized control" refers to a controller which constructs any input of the system using certain outputs, determined by the given information flow structure [20, 21].

This chapter deals with the problem of simultaneous stabilization of a set of systems by means of a decentralized periodic controller. It is assumed that a discrete-time decentralized compensator is given for a set of detectable and stabilizable LTI systems. This compensator is employed to simplify the simultaneous stabilizer design problem. In certain cases, however, the problem may not be solvable without using a proper compensator (e.g., in presence of unstable fixed modes [21]). The objective is to design a GSHF which satisfies the following constraints:

- i) The GSHF along with the discrete-time compensator simultaneously stabilize the plants.
- ii) It has the desired decentralized structure.
- iii) It has a prespecified form such as polynomial, piecewise constant, etc.
- iv) It minimizes a predefined guaranteed cost function, which is the summation of the performance indices of all plants.

It is to be noted that condition (iii) given above is motivated by the following practical issues:

- In many problems involving robustness, noise rejection, simplicity of implementation, elimination of fixed modes, etc., it is desired to design GSHFs with a specific form, e.g. piecewise constant, exponential, etc. [2, 22, 23].
- Design of a high performance simultaneously stabilizing *piecewise constant* GSHF with no compensator is studied in [19]. Therefore, the present chapter solves the most general form of the problem.
- In the case of sufficiently small sampling period, the optimal simultaneous stabilizer (whose exact solution, as pointed out earlier, involves complicated computations), can be approximated by a polynomial (e.g., the truncated Taylor series).

Conditions (ii) and (iii) are formulated by writing the GSHF as a linear combination of appropriate basis functions. The problem is then reduced to finding the coefficients of the linear combination, such that conditions (i) and (iv) are met. It is shown that the aforementioned problem is solvable (i.e., the desired GSHF and compensator exist), if and only if a particular set of systems are simultaneously stabilizable by means of a decentralized *static* output feedback, which unlike the general simultaneous stabilization problem, is rationally decidable [14]. Furthermore, one of the substantial features of the present work is that in order to improve the performance of the system, one can simply extend the set of the basis functions and find the corresponding new coefficients, accordingly. On the contrary, in the case of continuous-time LTI controller, the order of the controller needs to be increased (which increases the complexity of the overall system) in order to achieve a higher performance. Moreover, it is shown in an example that there may exist no LTI controller to stabilize the system, while a simple GSHF can stabilize it and result in an excellent performance.

## 5.3 **Problem formulation**

Consider a set of  $\eta$  continuous-time detectable and stabilizable LTI systems  $\mathscr{S}_1, \mathscr{S}_2, ..., \mathscr{S}_\eta$ with the following state-space representations:

$$\dot{x}_i(t) = A_i x_i(t) + B_i u_i(t)$$
 (5.1a)

$$y_i(t) = C_i x_i(t) \tag{5.1b}$$

where  $x_i \in \Re^{n_i}$ ,  $u_i \in \Re^m$  and  $y_i \in \Re^l$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta} := \{1, 2, ..., \eta\}$ , are the state, the input and the output of  $\mathscr{S}_i$ , respectively. Assume that the discrete-time compensator  $K_c^i$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , with the following representation is given:

$$z_{i}[\kappa+1] = Ez_{i}[\kappa] + Fy_{i}[\kappa]$$

$$\phi_{i}[\kappa] = Gz_{i}[\kappa] + Hy_{i}[\kappa]$$
(5.2)

and assume also that  $z_i[0] = 0$ . It is to be noted that the discrete argument corresponding to the samples of any signal is enclosed in brackets (e.g.,  $y_i[\kappa] = y_i(\kappa h)$ ).  $K_c^i$  can be either decentralized with block-diagonal transfer function matrix or centralized. Suppose now that the system  $\mathscr{S}_i, i \in \overline{\eta}$  is desired to be controlled by the compensator  $K_c^i$  and the hold controller  $K_h^i$  represented by:

$$u_i(t) = f(t)\phi_i[\kappa], \quad \kappa h \le t < (\kappa+1)h, \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, ...$$

where h is the sampling period, and f(t) = f(t+h),  $t \ge 0$ . Note that f(t) is a sampled-data hold function, which is desired to be described by the following set of basis functions:

$$\mathbf{f} := \{f_1(t), f_2(t), \dots, f_k(t)\}$$

where  $f_i(t) \in \Re^{m \times l_i}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k. Thus, f(t) can be written as a linear combination of the basis functions in **f** as follows:

$$f(t) = f_1(t)\alpha_1 + f_2(t)\alpha_2 + \dots + f_k(t)\alpha_k$$
(5.3)

where some of the entries of the variable matrices  $\alpha_i \in \Re^{l_i \times l}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, are set equal to zero and the other entries are free variables so that the structure of f(t) complies with the desired control constraint, which is determined by a given information flow matrix [21]. This is illustrated later in Example 2. Furthermore, the set of basis functions **f** is obtained according to the desirable form of GSHF (e.g, exponential, polynomial, etc.). This will be demonstrated in Examples 1 and 2. Note that the motivation for considering a special form for f(t) is discussed in the introduction. Besides, some examples are presented in [24] to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed formulation for GSHF.

For any  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ , put all of the indices of the zeroed entries of  $\alpha_i$  in the set  $\mathbf{E}_i$ . Assume now the expected value of  $x_i(0)x_i(0)^T$ , which is referred to as the covariance matrix of the initial state  $x_i(0)$ , is known and denoted by  $X_0^i$  for any  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ . The objective is to obtain the constrained matrices  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k$  such that the following performance index is minimized:

$$J = E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{\eta} \int_{0}^{\infty} \left(x_{i}(t)^{T} Q_{i} x_{i}(t) + u_{i}(t)^{T} R_{i} u_{i}(t)\right) dt\right\}$$
(5.4)

where  $R_i \in \Re^{m \times m}$  and  $Q_i \in \Re^{n_i \times n_i}$  are symmetric positive definite and symmetric positive semi-definite matrices, respectively, and  $E\{\cdot\}$  denotes the expectation operator. Note that by minimizing the cost function given above, the stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}_i$  under the discretetime compensator  $K_c^i$  and the hold controller  $K_h^i$ , for any  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , is achieved because the cost function becomes infinity otherwise. Note also that since (5.4) is a continuous-time performance index, it takes the intersample ripple effect into account.

The equation (5.3) can be written as  $f(t) = g(t)\alpha$ , where:

$$g(t) := [f_1(t) \ f_2(t) \ \dots \ f_k(t)], \ \alpha := [\alpha_1^T \ \alpha_2^T \ \dots \ \alpha_k^T]^T$$
(5.5)

Define a new set **E** based on the sets  $E_1, ..., E_k$ , such that any of the entries of  $\alpha$  whose index belongs to **E** is equal to zero. On the other hand, it is known that:

$$x_i(t) = e^{(t-\kappa h)A_i}x_i(\kappa h) + \int_{\kappa h}^t e^{(t-\tau)A_i}B_iu_i(\tau)d\tau$$

for any  $\kappa h \le t \le (\kappa + 1)h$ ,  $\kappa \ge 0$ . Let the following matrices be defined for any  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ :

$$M_i(t):=e^{tA_i},\ ar{M_i}(t):=\int_0^t e^{(t- au)A_i}B_ig( au)d au$$

Therefore:

$$x_i(t) = M_i(t - \kappa h)x_i[\kappa] + \bar{M}_i(t - \kappa h)\alpha\phi_i[k]$$
(5.6)

for any  $\kappa h \le t \le (\kappa+1)h$ . It can be easily concluded from (5.1b), (5.2), and (5.6) by substituting  $t = (\kappa+1)h$ , that  $\mathbf{x}_i[\kappa+1] = \tilde{M}_i(h,\alpha)\mathbf{x}_i[\kappa]$  for any  $\kappa \ge 0$ , where  $\mathbf{x}_i[\kappa] = \begin{bmatrix} x_i[\kappa]^T & z_i[\kappa]^T \end{bmatrix}^T$ , and:

$$\tilde{M}_{i}(h,\alpha) := \begin{bmatrix} M_{i}(h) + \bar{M}_{i}(h)\alpha HC_{i} & \bar{M}_{i}(h)\alpha G \\ FC_{i} & E \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.7)

It is straightforward to show that:

$$\mathbf{x}_i[\kappa] = \left(\tilde{M}_i(h,\alpha)\right)^{\kappa} \mathbf{x}_i[0], \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

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# 5.4 Optimal Structurally Constrained GSHF

It is desired now to find out when the structurally constrained GSHF f(t) exists such that the system  $\mathscr{S}_i$  is stable under the compensator  $K_c^i$  and the hold controller  $K_h^i$ , for any  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ .

**Lemma 1** There exists a GSHF f(t) with the desired form (given by the equation (5.3)) such that the system  $S_i$  is stable under the compensator  $K_c^i$  and the hold controller  $K_h^i$  for any  $i \in \tilde{\eta}$ , if and only if there exists an output feedback with the constant gain  $\alpha$ , with the properties that:

- 1. Each entry of  $\alpha$  whose index belongs to the set **E** is equal to zero.
- 2. It simultaneously stabilizes all of the  $\eta$  systems  $\overline{\mathscr{I}}_1, \overline{\mathscr{I}}_2, ..., \overline{\mathscr{I}}_{\eta}$ , where the system  $\overline{\mathscr{I}}_i$ ,  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , is represented by:

$$egin{aligned} ar{x}_i[\kappa+1] &= \left[egin{aligned} M_i(h) & 0 \ FC_i & E \end{array}
ight]ar{x}_i[\kappa] + \left[egin{aligned} ar{M}_i(h) \ 0 \end{array}
ight]ar{u}_i[\kappa] \ ar{y}_i[\kappa] &= \left[egin{aligned} HC_i & G \end{array}
ight]ar{x}_i[\kappa] \end{aligned}$$

(note that each of the two 0's in the above equation represents a zero matrix with proper dimension).

**Proof** The proof follows from the fact that the system  $\mathscr{S}_i$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , is stable under  $K_c^i$  and  $K_h^i$  if and only if all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha)$  given in (5.7) are located inside the unit circle in the complex plane.

**Remark 1** Lemma 1 presents a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a structurally constrained GSHF f(t) with a desired form, which simultaneously stabilizes all of the systems  $\mathscr{S}_1, \mathscr{S}_2, ..., \mathscr{S}_n$  along with a given discrete-time compensator. The condition obtained is usually referred to as "simultaneous stabilization of a set of LTI systems via structured static output feedback", which has been investigated intensively in the literature. For instance, one can exploit the LMI algorithm proposed in [19] to solve the simultaneous stabilization problem given in Lemma 1 in order to obtain a stabilizing matrix  $\alpha$  denoted by  $\check{\alpha}$  (which is later used as the initial point in the main algorithm), or conclude the non-existence of such GSHF, otherwise.

Define now the following matrices for any  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ :

$$P_{0}^{i} := \int_{0}^{h} (M_{i}(t)^{T}Q_{i}M_{i}(t)) dt$$

$$P_{1}^{i} := \int_{0}^{h} (M_{i}(t)^{T}Q_{i}\bar{M}_{i}(t)) dt$$

$$P_{2}^{i} := \int_{0}^{h} (\bar{M}_{i}(t)^{T}Q_{i}\bar{M}_{i}(t) + g(t)^{T}R_{i}g(t)) dt$$

$$q_{0}^{i}(\alpha) := P_{0}^{i} + P_{1}^{i}\alpha HC_{i} + (P_{1}^{i}\alpha HC_{i})^{T} + (\alpha HC_{i})^{T}P_{2}^{i}(\alpha HC_{i})$$

$$q_{1}^{i}(\alpha) := P_{1}^{i}\alpha G + (\alpha HC)^{T}P_{2}^{i}\alpha G$$

$$N_{i}(\alpha) := \begin{bmatrix} q_{0}^{i}(\alpha) & q_{1}^{i}(\alpha) \\ q_{1}^{i}(\alpha)^{T} & G^{T}\alpha^{T}P_{2}^{i}\alpha G \end{bmatrix}$$

**Theorem 1** Suppose that the system  $\mathscr{S}_i$  is stable under  $K_c^i$  and  $K_h^i$ , for any  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ . The performance index J defined in (5.4) can be written as:

$$J = trace\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\eta} K_i \begin{bmatrix} X_0^i & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$
(5.8)

where  $K_i$ ,  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , satisfies the following discrete Lyapunov equation:

$$\tilde{M}_i^T(h,\alpha)K_i\tilde{M}_i(h,\alpha) - K_i + N_i(\alpha) = 0$$
(5.9)

**Proof** One can write the performance index as follows:

$$J = E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{\eta}\sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty}\int_{\kappa h}^{(\kappa+1)h} \left(x_{i}^{T}(t)Q_{i}x_{i}(t) + u_{i}^{T}(t)R_{i}u_{i}(t)\right)dt\right\}$$
$$= E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{\eta}\sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty}\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}[\kappa]N_{i}(\alpha)\mathbf{x}_{i}[\kappa]\right)\right\}$$
$$= E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{\eta}\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}(0)K_{i}\mathbf{x}_{i}(0)\right\}$$

where:

$$K_i = \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \tilde{M}_i^T(h,\alpha)^{\kappa} N_i(\alpha) \tilde{M}_i(h,\alpha)^{\kappa}$$
(5.10)

Since it is assumed that the system  $\mathscr{S}_i$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , is stable under  $K_c^i$  and  $K_h^i$ , it can be concluded from the discussion in the proof of Lemma 1 that all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha)$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , are located inside the unit circle in the complex plane. This implies the convergence of the infinite series given in (5.10), where its solution satisfies the discrete Lyapunov equation (5.9). This completes the proof.

The following lemma reformulates the problem of minimizing the performance index defined by (5.4) (or equivalently (5.8)).

**Lemma 2** Assume that all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha)$  lie inside the unit circle.

a) Consider an arbitrary matrix  $K_i^*$ , such that:

$$\tilde{M}_i^T(h,\alpha)K_i^*\tilde{M}_i(h,\alpha) - K_i^* + N_i(\alpha) < 0$$
(5.11)

Then  $\mathbf{x}_i(0)^T K_i \mathbf{x}_i(0) \leq \mathbf{x}_i(0)^T K_i^* \mathbf{x}_i(0)$ .

b) For any number  $\zeta$  greater than  $\mathbf{x}_i(0)^T K_i \mathbf{x}_i(0)$ , there exists a positive definite matrix  $K_i^*$  satisfying the inequality (5.11) such that  $\mathbf{x}_i(0)^T K_i^* \mathbf{x}_i(0) < \zeta$ .

**Proof** *Proof of (a):* Suppose that the matrix  $K_i^*$  satisfies the inequality (5.11). It can be concluded from (5.9) that:

$$\tilde{M}_i^T(h,\alpha)(K_i^*-K_i)\tilde{M}_i(h,\alpha) - (K_i^*-K_i) < 0$$
(5.12)

Since all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha)$  are inside the unit circle, it can be concluded from the above inequality that  $K_i^* - K_i$  is positive semidefinite. Hence:

$$\mathbf{x}_{i}(0)^{T} \left(K_{i}^{*} - K_{i}\right) \mathbf{x}_{i}(0) \ge 0$$
(5.13)

or equivalently:

$$\mathbf{x}_{i}(0)^{T} K_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}(0) \le \mathbf{x}_{i}(0)^{T} K_{i}^{*} \mathbf{x}_{i}(0)$$
(5.14)

*Proof of (b):* Consider the following discrete Lyapunov equation:

$$\tilde{M}_{i}^{T}(h,\alpha)\Omega_{\varepsilon}\tilde{M}_{i}(h,\alpha) - \Omega_{\varepsilon} + \varepsilon I = 0$$
(5.15)

Since all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha)$  are located inside the unit circle, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a unique matrix  $\Omega_{\varepsilon} > 0$  that satisfies the above equation. Define now the matrix  $K_i^* := \Omega_{\varepsilon} + K_i$ . It is clear that  $K_i^*$  satisfies (5.12) and also (5.11). The upper bound for the solution of a discrete Lyapunov equation presented in [25] yields the inequality  $\|\Omega_{\varepsilon}\| \le \varepsilon \times s(h, \alpha)$ , where  $\|\cdot\|$  represents the Frobenius norm, and the function  $s(h, \alpha)$  is related to  $\tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha)$ . Therefore, it can be concluded that as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, the matrix  $\Omega_{\varepsilon}$  approaches the zero matrix. As a result, when  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero, the matrix  $K_i^*$  converges to the matrix  $K_i$ . This means that the term  $\mathbf{x}_i(0)^T K_i^* \mathbf{x}_i(0)$  can be made sufficiently close to  $\mathbf{x}_i(0)^T K_i \mathbf{x}_i(0)$ .

According to Lemma 2, the problem of minimizing J given by (5.8) subject to the constraint (5.9) can be equivalently considered as the minimization of J subject to  $\tilde{M}_i^T(h, \alpha) K_i \tilde{M}(h, \alpha) - K_i + N_i(\alpha) < 0$ , for  $i = 1, 2, ..., \eta$ . According to [26], this matrix inequality is equivalent to:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -K_i + N_i(\alpha) & \tilde{M}_i^T(h, \alpha) K_i \\ K_i \tilde{M}_i(h, \alpha) & -K_i \end{bmatrix} < 0$$
(5.16)

**Lemma 3** The matrix  $P_2^i$  is positive definite if and only if there does not exist a constant nonzero vector x such that g(t)x = 0 for all  $t \in [0, h]$ .

**Proof** Consider an arbitrary nonzero vector  $x \in \Re^{l_1+l_2+...+l_k}$ . Since  $R_i$  is positive definite, the term  $x^T g(t)^T R_i g(t) x$  is always nonnegative. Hence, its integral over the interval [0,h] is zero if and only if g(t)x = 0 for all  $t \in [0,h]$ . In addition, the term  $\overline{M}_i(t)^T Q_i \overline{M}_i(t)$  is always nonnegative due to the positive semi-definiteness of the matrix  $Q_i$ . If there exists a nonzero vector x such that g(t)x = 0 for all  $t \in [0, h]$ , then it is straightforward to show that the matrix  $P_2^i$  is not positive definite, otherwise the term  $x^T g(t)^T R_i g(t) x$  is always positive, which implies the positive definiteness of the matrix  $P_2^i$ .

Lemma 3 presents a necessary and sufficient condition for the positive definiteness of the matrix  $P_2^i$ , which "almost always" holds in practice. It is assumed in the remainder of the chapter that the matrix  $P_2^i$  is positive definite, as this assumption is required for the development of the main result.

**Theorem 2** The matrix inequality (5.16) is equivalent to the following matrix inequality:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{1}^{i} & (\Phi_{2}^{i})^{T} & (\Phi_{4}^{i})^{T} \\ \Phi_{2}^{i} & \Phi_{3}^{i} & (\Phi_{5}^{i})^{T} \\ \Phi_{4}^{i} & \Phi_{5}^{i} & -I \end{bmatrix} < 0$$
(5.17)

,

where

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{1}^{i} &:= -K_{i} + \begin{bmatrix} P_{0}^{i} + P_{1}^{i} \alpha H C_{i} + (P_{1}^{i} \alpha H C_{i})^{T} & P_{1}^{i} \alpha G \\ (P_{1}^{i} \alpha G)^{T} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \Phi_{2}^{i} &:= K_{i} \begin{bmatrix} M_{i}(h) & 0 \\ FC_{i} & E \end{bmatrix}, \\ \Phi_{3}^{i} &:= -K_{i} - K_{i} \begin{bmatrix} \bar{M}_{i}(h)(P_{2}^{i})^{-1} \bar{M}_{i}(h)^{T} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} K_{i}, \\ \Phi_{4}^{i} &:= (P_{2}^{i})^{\frac{1}{2}} \alpha \begin{bmatrix} HC_{i} & G \end{bmatrix}, \\ \Phi_{5}^{i} &:= \begin{bmatrix} (P_{2}^{i})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \bar{M}_{i}(h)^{T} & 0 \end{bmatrix} K_{i} \end{split}$$

**Proof** One can write the inequality (5.16) as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi_1^i & (\Phi_2^i)^T \\ \Phi_2^i & \Phi_3^i \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} (\Phi_4^i)^T \\ (\Phi_5^i)^T \end{bmatrix} (-I) \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_4^i & \Phi_5^i \end{bmatrix} < 0$$
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The matrix inequality (5.17) yields by applying the Schur complement formula to the above inequality.

It can be easily verified that in the absence of the block entry  $\Phi_3^i$ , the matrix given in the left side of (5.17) is in the form of LMI. Moreover, this block entry cannot be converted to the LMI form due to the negative quadratic term inside it [27]. Thus, the technique introduced in [28] will now be used to remedy this drawback. Consider the arbitrary positive definite matrices  $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, ..., \Gamma_\eta$  with the same dimensions as  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$ , respectively. Since  $P_2^i$  is assumed to be positive definite, one can write  $(K_i - \Gamma_i)\Omega_i(K_i - \Gamma_i) \ge 0$ ,  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , where:

$$\Omega_i := \left[ egin{array}{cc} ar{M}_i(h)(P_2^i)^{-1}ar{M}_i(h)^T & 0 \ 0 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

Therefore:

$$-K_i\Omega_iK_i \le \Pi_i, \quad i \in \bar{\eta} \tag{5.18}$$

where  $\Pi_i := \Gamma_i \Omega_i \Gamma_i - K_i \Omega_i \Gamma_i - \Gamma_i \Omega_i K_i, \ i \in \overline{\eta}$ .

**Theorem 3** There exist positive definite matrices  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$  satisfying the matrix inequality (5.17) if and only if there exist positive definite matrices  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$  and  $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, ..., \Gamma_\eta$ satisfying the following matrix inequalities:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{1}^{i} & (\Phi_{2}^{i})^{T} & (\Phi_{4}^{i})^{T} \\ \Phi_{2}^{i} & -K_{i} + \Pi_{i} & (\Phi_{5}^{i})^{T} \\ \Phi_{4}^{i} & \Phi_{5}^{i} & -I \end{bmatrix} < 0, \quad i \in \bar{\eta}$$
(5.19)

**Proof** If there exist positive definite matrices  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$  and  $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, ..., \Gamma_\eta$  satisfying (5.19), then according to (5.18), the matrices  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$  satisfy (5.17) as well. On the other hand, suppose that there exist positive definite matrices  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$  satisfying the matrix inequality (5.17). Choosing  $\Gamma_i = K_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, ..., \eta$ , one can easily verify that  $\Phi_3^i = -K_i + \Pi_i$ . Hence, the inequality (5.17) is equivalent to the inequality (5.19) in this case. It is to be noted that the matrix inequality (5.19) is LMI for the variables  $K_i$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , and  $\alpha$ , if the matrices  $\Gamma_i$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , are set to be fixed. The following algorithm is proposed to compute the coefficients  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_\eta$  in order to obtain the desired GSHF f(t).

#### Algorithm 1

Step 1) Set  $\alpha = \check{\alpha}$  (where  $\check{\alpha}$  is defined in Remark 1) and solve the discrete Lyapunov equation (5.9) in order to obtain  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_n$ .

Step 2) Set  $\Gamma_i = K_i$  for all  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , where the matrices  $K_i$ ,  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , are obtained in Step 1.

Step 3) Minimize J given by (5.8) for  $K_1, K_2, ..., K_\eta$  and  $\alpha$  subject to

- The LMI constraint (5.19)
- $K_i > 0$  for all  $i \in \bar{\eta}$
- The constraint that each entry of  $\alpha$  whose index belongs to the set E must be zero.

Step 4) If  $\sum_{i=1}^{\eta} ||K_i - \Gamma_i|| < \delta$ , where  $\delta$  is a predetermined error margin, go to Step 6.

Step 5) Set  $\Gamma_i = K_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, ..., \eta$ , where the matrices  $K_i$ ,  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , are obtained by solving the optimization problem in Step 3. Go to Step 3.

Step 6) The value obtained for  $\alpha$  is sufficiently close to the optimal value, and substituting the resultant matrices  $K_i$ ,  $i \in \overline{\eta}$ , into (5.8) gives the minimum value of J. Note that the coefficients  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$  can be obtained from (5.5).

**Remark 2** The matrix  $\check{\alpha}$  defined in Remark 1 has the property that all of the eigenvalues of the matrices  $\tilde{M}_i(h,\check{\alpha})$ ,  $i \in \bar{\eta}$ , are located inside the unit circle. As a result, the discrete Lyapunov equation (5.9) is solvable for  $\alpha = \check{\alpha}$ , as it is required in Step 1 of the above algorithm.

**Remark 3** It can be easily verified that the value of J decreases each time that the optimization problem of Step 3 is solved, which indicates that the algorithm is monotone decreasing. On the other hand, since the inequality (5.18) will be converted to the equality if  $\Gamma_i = K_i$ , Algorithm 1 should ideally stop when  $\sum_{i=1}^{\eta} ||K_i - \Gamma_i|| = 0$  in order to obtain the exact result. However, since it is desirable that the algorithm be halted in a finite time, Step 4 is added. It is to be noted that  $\delta$  determines (indirectly) the closeness of the performance index obtained to its minimum value.

# 5.5 Numerical examples

**Example 1** This example can be found in [28, 29], and represents the ship-steering system with two distinct modes. Consider two systems with the following parameters:

$$A_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.298 & -0.279 & 0 \\ -4.370 & -0.773 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, B_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.116 \\ -0.773 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.428 & -0.339 & 0 \\ -2.939 & -1.011 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, B_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.150 \\ -1.011 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $C_1 = C_2 = I$ . Assume that the initial state of each of these systems is a random variable whose covariance matrix is equal to the identity matrix, and that h = 0.1 sec. Assume also that it is desired to find a GSHF which minimizes the performance index J given by (5.4) with  $R_i = Q_i = I$ , i = 1, 2, while it has the following structure:

$$f(t) = \left[ * + * \sin(t) * * + * e^{-t} \right]$$
(5.20)

where the symbol "\*" represents constant values which are to be found. Note that no compensator is considered in this example. The following basis functions and coefficient matrices can therefore be defined for (5.20):

$$f_1(t) = sin(t), \quad f_2(t) = 1, \quad f_3(t) = e^{-t}$$
$$\alpha_1 = \begin{bmatrix} * & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & * \end{bmatrix}$$

It is to be noted that the "\*" elements used above imply that these entries of the vectors  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ and  $\alpha_3$  are the ones that are not set equal to zero. Let Algorithm 1 start with the following initial stabilizing point:

$$\check{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -7 & 5 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Accordingly, the optimal value for  $\alpha$  will be:

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 2.805 & 0 & 0 \\ -3.925 & 2.117 & -0.188 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.480 \end{bmatrix}$$

which results in a GSHF equal to the following:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -3.925 + 2.805 \sin(t) & 2.117 & -0.188 + 1.480 e^{-t} \end{bmatrix}$$

The corresponding performance index is 31.581.

**Example 2** Consider a two-input two-output system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of two single-input single-output (SISO) agents with the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -5.5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 \\ -4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is desired to design a high-performance decentralized controller with the diagonal information flow structure for this system. It can be easily concluded from [21] that  $\lambda = 0.5$  is

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a decentralized fixed mode (DFM) of the system. Thus, there is no LTI controller to stabilize the system. As a result, the available methods to design a continuous-time LTI controller (e.g., see [27]) are incapable of handling this problem. On the other hand, it results from [30] that  $\lambda = 0.5$  is an unstructured DFM (as opposed to a structured one), which implies that this DFM can be eliminated by means of sampling. Choose h = 1sec, and denote the discretetime equivalent model of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  with  $\mathscr{S}_d$ . As expected from the result given in [30], the system  $\mathscr{S}_d$  does not have any DFM, and consequently, is decentrally stabilizable. If the algorithm presented in [19] is exploited to design a discrete-time *static* stabilizing controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}_d$ , it will fail. This signifies that in order to design a decentralized controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , two different types of controllers can be used: a dynamic discrete-time controller or a periodic controller. These two possibilities are explained in the following:

i) Let a deadbeat dynamic stabilizing controller  $K_c$  for the system  $\mathscr{S}_d$  be designed by using the method given in [21]. To evaluate the performance of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the discrete-time controller  $K_c$ , consider the performance index (5.4) and assume that Q = R = I, and that the initial state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is a random variable with the identity covariance matrix. In this case, the corresponding performance index will be equal to 83439.49, which is inadmissibly large. The resultant output of the second agent, for instance, is depicted in Figure 5.1 for  $x(0) = [0.5 \ 0.5 \ 0.5]^T$ . This illustrates the inferior intersample ripple, while the magnitude of the output is approximately zero at the sampling points. To improve this ripple effect, a hold controller  $K_h$  is desired to be added to the control system. Assume that the hold function f(t) is desirable to have the following form:

$$diag([*+*cos(850t) *+*cos(850t)])$$

Using Algorithm 1 with several iterations results in the hold function  $f(t) = \text{diag}([1.003 - 0.071\cos(850t), 0.958 + 0.754\cos(850t)])$ , and the corresponding performance index

turns out to be 81517.97. This indicates an improvement of about 2.36% by using the hold controller  $K_h$ . However, this enhancement is not noticeable.

ii) It is desired to find out whether there exists a hold controller  $K_h$  to stabilize the system  $\mathscr{S}$  by itself (i.e., without any compensator  $K_c$ ). Consider the following basis functions for the hold function f(t):

$$f_i(t) = u_e\left(t - \frac{i-1}{2}\right) - u_e\left(t - \frac{i}{2}\right), \ i = 1, 2$$

where  $u_e(\cdot)$  denotes the unit-step function. It is to be noted that this GSHF is equivalent to a piecewise constant function with two different levels. Applying the result of [19] to Lemma 1 leads to the controller  $K_h$  with the hold function:

$$\operatorname{diag}([-1.4f_1(t) - 0.185f_2(t) \quad 0.5f_1(t) + f_2(t)])$$
(5.21)

The resulting performance index is equal to 2121.18. Hence, Algorithm 1 can now be utilized to adjust the coefficients of this hold function properly. The optimal f(t) obtained will be equal to:

$$\operatorname{diag}([-2.71f_1(t) + 1.08f_2(t) \quad 0.97f_1(t) - 0.30f_2(t)])$$
(5.22)

and the performance index of the closed-loop system will be 301.73. This implies that a high-performance stabilizing controller is designed for the ill-controllable system  $\mathscr{S}$ . The outputs of the first and the second agents of  $\mathscr{S}$  under the hold functions (5.21) and (5.22) are illustrated in Figures 5.2(a) and 5.2(b) for  $x(0) = [0.5 \ 0.5 \ 0.5]^T$ . In addition, the inputs of the first and the second agents of  $\mathscr{S}$  are depicted in Figures 5.3(a) and 5.3(b). Note that the solid curves and the dotted curves correspond to the GSHFs given in (5.22) and (5.21), respectively. The value of the cost function J is plotted for the first 150 iterations in Figure 5.4, which demonstrates the fast convergence of the algorithm, specially in the beginning. It is to be noted that although the initial point in the optimization algorithm is chosen far from the optimal point, the convergence speed is very good.

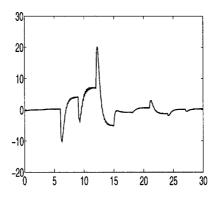


Figure 5.1: The output of the second agent of the system in Example 2 under the dead-beat controller.

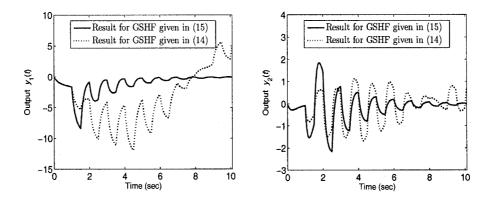


Figure 5.2: The outputs of the first agent and the second agent of the system in Example 2 are depicted in (a) and (b), respectively, under the GSHFs (5.21) (dotted curves), and (5.22) (solid curves).

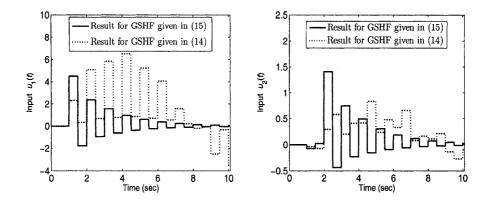


Figure 5.3: The inputs of the first agent and the second agent of the system in Example 2 are depicted in (a) and (b), respectively, under the GSHFs (5.21) (dotted curves), and (5.22) (solid curves).

# 5.6 Conclusions

In this chapter, a method is proposed to design a decentralized periodic output feedback with a prescribed form, e.g. polynomial, piecewise constant, sinusoidal, etc., to simultaneously stabilize a set of continuous-time LTI systems and minimize a predefined guaranteed continuoustime quadratic performance index, which is, in fact, the summation of the performance indices of all of the systems. The design procedure is accomplished in three phases: First, the problem is formulated as a set of matrix inequalities. Next, it is converted to a set of linear matrix inequalities, which represent necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of such a structurally constrained controller. An algorithm is then presented to solve the resultant LMI problem. Simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method.

### 5.7 **Bibliography**

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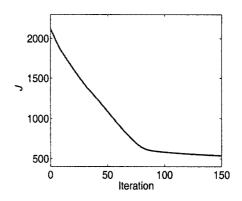


Figure 5.4: The value of the cost function J for the first 150 iterations.

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# Chapter 6

# Elimination of Fixed Modes by Means of Sampling

# 6.1 Abstract

This chapter deals with structurally constrained periodic control design for interconnected systems. It is assumed that the system is linear time-invariant (LTI), observable and controllable and that its modes are distinct and nonzero. It is shown that the notions of quotient fixed mode and structured decentralized fixed mode are equivalent for this class of systems. If the system is stabilizable under a general decentralized controller (e.g. nonlinear, time-varying), then it is proved that a decentralized LTI discrete-time compensator followed by a zero-order hold can stabilize the system. Moreover, the problem of designing a structurally constrained controller for an interconnected system is converted to the design of a decentralized compensator and a decentralized hold function for an expanded system. In addition, the problem when the structurally constrained hold function is desired to have a special form, e.g. piecewise constant, polynomial, etc., is formulated. A procedure is given in this case to design the optimal hold function with respect to a quadratic performance index.

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# 6.2 Introduction

The notion of decentralized fixed mode (DFM) is introduced in [1] to identify those modes of an interconnected system, which are fixed with respect to any linear time-invariant (LTI) decentralized control law. In addition, the notion of structurally fixed mode is introduced in [2], and it is shown that a mode is fixed due to either the structure of the system, or the perfect matching of the parameters. This idea is used in [3] to classify the modes of a decoupled decentralized system as being either structured or unstructured. It is also shown in [3] that the distinct and nonzero unstructured DFMs of a system can be eliminated by means of sampling. Furthermore, the notion of quotient fixed mode (QFM) is introduced in [4] to determine when an interconnected system is decentrally stabilizable under a general nonlinear and time-varying control law.

On the other hand, there has been a considerable amount of interest in the past several years towards control of continuous-time systems by means of periodic feedback, or so-called generalized sampled-data hold functions (GSHF) [5-11]. Periodic feedback control signal is constructed by sampling the output of the system at equidistant time instants, and multiplying the samples by a continuous-time hold function, which is defined over one sampling interval. Several advantages and disadvantages of GSHF and its application in practical problems have been thoroughly investigated and different design techniques are proposed in the literature [5, 6, 8, 9].

This chapter investigates the decentralized periodic control design problem for the observable and controllable finite dimensional LTI systems with distinct and nonzero modes. It is shown that for this broad class of systems, the notions of QFM and structured DFM are identical. Using this result, it is proved that if a system is decentrally stabilizable by means of a general control law, then there exists a decentralized LTI discrete-time controller with a simple zero-order hold (ZOH) to stabilize it. This is due to the elimination of the non-quotient DFMs, in the sampled system. Then, the problem of controlling the aforementioned class of LTI systems by means of a structurally constrained controller is studied. The design of a structurally constrained controller consisting of a discrete-time LTI compensator and a GSHF is converted to the design of a decentralized LTI discrete-time compensator and a decentralized GSHF for an expanded system.

In addition, a method is proposed to design an optimal structurally constrained controller with a certain configuration. This is accomplished by using the expanded system corresponding to the given structural constraint. A decentralized discrete-time compensator with a simple ZOH is designed to stabilize the expanded system. Then, the ZOH in the control system is replaced by a GSHF with a prespecified form, e.g. piecewise constant, polynomial, etc., to improve the performance of the overall system by minimizing a continuous-time quadratic cost function, which accounts for the intersample ripple effect. The significance of the results obtained in this chapter is demonstrated in two numerical examples.

### 6.3 Preliminaries

Consider a linear time-invariant (LTI) interconnected system S consisting of v subsystems  $S_1, S_2, ..., S_v$ , represented by:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} B_i u_i(t)$$

$$y_i(t) = C_i x(t), \qquad i \in \bar{\nu} := \{1, 2, ..., \nu\}$$
(6.1)

where  $x(t) \in \Re^n$  is the state, and  $u_i(t) \in \Re^{m_i}$  and  $y_i(t) \in \Re^{r_i}$ ,  $i \in \bar{v}$ , are the input and the output of the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem, respectively. Assume that the modes of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  are all distinct and nonzero, and that the state-space model is in the decoupled form, i.e.,

$$A = \operatorname{diag}([\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n]) \tag{6.2}$$

where  $\sigma_i \neq 0$ ,  $\sigma_i \neq \sigma_j$ ,  $\forall i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ ,  $i \neq j$ . Assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is controllable and observable. Define the following matrices:

$$B := \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 & \cdots & B_v \end{bmatrix}, \quad C := \begin{bmatrix} C_1^T & C_2^T & \cdots & C_v^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(6.3)

Define also,

$$m := \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} m_i, \quad r := \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} r_i,$$
$$u(t) := \begin{bmatrix} u_1(t)^T & u_2(t)^T & \cdots & u_{\nu}(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T, \quad y(t) := \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t)^T & y_2(t)^T & \cdots & y_{\nu}(t)^T \end{bmatrix}_{(6.4)}^T$$

The notion of decentralized fixed mode (DFM) is defined in [1] and [12] to identify those modes of an interconnected system which remain fixed with respect to any LTI controller with a block diagonal information flow structure. Throughout this chapter, the term "decentralized controller" is referred to the union of local controllers. In order to specify the local subsystems corresponding to the local controllers, the subsystems are enclosed within parentheses throughout the chapter, if necessary. For instance, a decentralized controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$  is the union of the local controllers  $u_i(t) = g_i(y_i(t), t), i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ , corresponding to the subsystems  $S_1, S_2, S_3$ , while a decentralized controller for  $\mathscr{S}(S_1 \cup S_2, S_3)$ is composed of two local controllers: one for the new subsystem consisting of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , and the other one for the subsystem  $S_3$ .

The following definitions are extracted from [3].

**Definition 1** Assume that  $\lambda \in sp(A)$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ .  $\lambda$  is defined to be a structured decentralized fixed mode (SDFM) of the system, if it remains a DFM after arbitrary perturbing the nonzero entries of the matrices B and C.

It is to be noted that in the definition of SDFM given in [3], the nonzero elements of A (the elements on the main diagonal) are also assumed to be perturbed. However, it can be easily verified that such assumption is not necessary, in general.

**Definition 2** Assume that  $\lambda$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ . Then,  $\lambda$  is called an unstructured decentralized fixed mode (UDFM) if it is not a SDFM of  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ , or equivalently, if it is resulted from the exact matching of the nonzero elements of the matrices A, B and C in the state-space model.

Define  $\mathscr{S}_d$  as the discrete-time equivalent model of  $\mathscr{S}$  with a constant sampling period h > 0 and a ZOH. Hence, the state-space representation of  $\mathscr{S}_d$  is as follows:

$$x[\kappa+1] = \bar{A}x[\kappa] + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \bar{B}_{i}u_{i}[\kappa]$$
  

$$y_{i}[\kappa] = C_{i}x[\kappa], \quad i \in \bar{\nu}$$
(6.5)

where the discrete argument corresponding to the samples of any signal is enclosed in brackets (e.g.,  $x[\kappa] = x(\kappa h)$ ). It can be easily shown that and  $\bar{A} = e^{AT}$ ,  $\bar{B}_i = A^{-1}(\bar{A} - I_n)B_i$ ,  $i \in \bar{\nu}$ , where  $I_n$  represents the  $n \times n$  identity matrix (note that the matrix A is assumed to have no eigenvalues in the origin, and thus, it is nonsingular). Denote the subsystems of  $\mathscr{S}_d$  corresponding to  $S_1, S_2, ..., S_{\nu}$  with  $\mathscr{S}_{d_1}, \mathscr{S}_{d_2}, ..., \mathscr{S}_{d_{\nu}}$ . The following Lemma is extracted from [3].

**Lemma 1** Assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  contains  $P_u \ge 0$  UDFMs and  $P_s \ge 0$ SDFMs  $\lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., P_s$ . The discrete-time system  $\mathscr{S}_d(\mathscr{S}_{d_1}, \mathscr{S}_{d_2}, ..., \mathscr{S}_{d_v})$  comprises  $P_s$  SDFMs  $e^{\lambda_i h}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., P_s$ , and no UDFMs for almost all values of h.

**Remark 1** The term "for almost all values of h" in Lemma 1 means that the values of h for which the discrete-time system  $\mathcal{S}_d(\mathcal{S}_{d_1}, \mathcal{S}_{d_2}, ..., \mathcal{S}_{d_v})$  has UDFMs, lie on a hypersurface in the one dimensional space [13] (i.e. among infinite possible values for h, only a finite number of them violate Lemma 1).

Lemma 1 states that the UDFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  are eliminated by sampling, while the structured ones cannot be removed. The questions arise as how to identify the type of DFMs, and how to design stabilizing controllers for the systems with SDFMs (if possible). A procedure is proposed in [3] to determine the type of the DFMs of the systems consisting of only two single-input single-output (SISO) subsystems (i.e. v = 2,  $m_1 = m_2 = r_1 = r_2 = 1$ ).

The notion of quotient fixed mode (QFM) is introduced in [4] to investigate the stabilizability of interconnected systems under a general decentralized control law (i.e. nonlinear and time-varying). Since the definition of QFM is essential in the development of the main result of this chapter, it is explained in the next two definitions.

**Definition 3** Define the structural graph of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  as a digraph with v vertices which has a directed edge from the  $i^{th}$  vertex to the  $j^{th}$  vertex if and only if  $C_j(sI - A)^{-1}B_i \neq 0$ , for any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ . The structural graph of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is denoted by  $\mathscr{G}$ .

Partition  $\mathscr{G}$  into the minimum number of strongly connected subgraphs denoted by  $G_1, G_2, ..., G_l$  (note that a digraph is called strongly connected iff there exists a directed path from any vertex to any other vertices of the graph [4, 14]). Define the subsystem  $\tilde{S}_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l, as the union of all subsystems of  $\mathscr{S}$  corresponding to the vertices in the subgraph  $G_i$  (note that vertex *i* in the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  represents the subsystem  $S_i$ , for any  $i \in \bar{v}$ ).

**Definition 4**  $\lambda$  is said to be a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ , if it is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l)$ .

**Lemma 2** The system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  is stabilizable under a general decentralized controller, if and only if it does not have any QFM in the closed right-half complex plane.

The above Lemma is given in [4], where it is also stated that a candidate stabilizing decentralized controller can be a time-varying control law, or a vibrational one. In the next section, it will be shown that the notions of SDFM and QFM are identical.

### 6.4 Effect of sampling on DFM

**Notation 1** *For any*  $i \in \bar{v}$ *:* 

- Denote the  $(j_1, j_2)$  entry of  $B_i$  with  $b_i^{j_1, j_2}$ , for any  $1 \le j_1 \le n, 1 \le j_2 \le m_i$ .
- Denote the  $(j_1, j_2)$  entry of  $C_i$  with  $c_i^{j_1, j_2}$ , for any  $1 \le j_1 \le r_i, 1 \le j_2 \le n$ .

**Theorem 1**  $\sigma_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , is a SDFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ ,  $v \ge 2$ , if and only if there exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer p between 1 and v - 1 such that  $b_{j_1}^{i,\alpha} = c_{j_2}^{\beta,i} = 0$  and  $b_{j_1}^{\mu,\alpha} c_{j_2}^{\beta,\mu} = 0$ , for all  $j_1, j_2, \alpha, \beta$  and  $\mu$ given by

$$j_{1} \in \{i_{1}, i_{2}, \dots, i_{p}\}, \quad j_{2} \in \{i_{p+1}, i_{p+2}, \dots, i_{\nu}\}, \quad 1 \le \alpha \le m_{j_{1}},$$

$$1 \le \beta \le r_{j_{2}}, \quad 1 \le \mu \le n, \quad \mu \ne i$$
(6.6)

**Proof** It is known that  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  if and only if there exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer p between 0 and v such that the rank of the following matrix is less than n [12]:

(note that 0 in the above matrix represents a zero block matrix with proper dimension). In addition, since it is assumed that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is controllable as well as observable, the rank of the matrix (6.7) is equal to n for p = 0 and p = v. Therefore, the condition  $0 \le p \le v$  given above can be replaced by  $1 \le p \le v - 1$ . It is clear that the rank of the matrix  $A - \sigma_i I_n$  is n - 1, and also, the *i*<sup>th</sup> column and the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of this matrix are both zeros. Hence, if there exists a nonzero entry either in the *i*<sup>th</sup> column or in the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of the matrix given in (6.7), its rank will be at least n. As a result, the rank of the matrix in (6.7) is less than n, if and only if both of the following conditions hold:

- i) All of the entries of the *i*<sup>th</sup> column and the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of the matrix given in (6.7) are zero, i.e.  $b_{j_1}^{i,\alpha} = c_{j_2}^{\beta,i} = 0$  for any  $\alpha, \beta, j_1$ , and  $j_2$  satisfying (6.6).
- ii) The rank of the following matrix (which is a sub-matrix of the one given by (6.7)) is less than n:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{1}^{i} & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & b_{j_{1}}^{1,\alpha} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_{i-1}^{i} & 0 & \dots & 0 & b_{j_{1}}^{i-1,\alpha} \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_{i+1}^{i} & \dots & 0 & b_{j_{1}}^{i+1,\alpha} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_{n}^{i} & b_{j_{1}}^{n,\alpha} \\ c_{j_{2}}^{\beta,1} & \dots & c_{j_{2}}^{\beta,i-1} & c_{j_{2}}^{\beta,i+1} & \dots & c_{j_{2}}^{\beta,n} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.8)

for any  $\alpha, \beta, j_1$ , and  $j_2$  satisfying (6.6), where  $\sigma_j^i := \sigma_j - \sigma_i, i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Partition the matrix given by (6.8) into four sub-matrices, and denote it with:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_i & \Phi_1 \\ \Phi_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.9)

where  $A_i \in \mathfrak{R}^{(n-1)\times(n-1)}, \Phi_1 \in \mathfrak{R}^{(n-1)\times 1}$ , and  $\Phi_2 \in \mathfrak{R}^{1\times(n-1)}$ . Since the matrix  $A_i$  is nonsingular (because it is assumed that  $\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_n$  are distinct), one can write:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} A_i & \Phi_1 \\ \Phi_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -\det(A_i) \times \det(\Phi_2 A_i^{-1} \Phi_1)$$
(6.10)

Thus, the rank of the matrix given in (6.8) is less than *n*, if and only if the scalar  $\Phi_2 A_i^{-1} \Phi_1$  is equal to 0.

It can be concluded from the above discussion, that  $\sigma_i$  is a SDFM, if and only if the condition (i) and the equality

$$\sum_{\mu=1, \ \mu\neq i}^{n} \frac{\bar{b}_{j_{1}}^{\mu,\alpha} \bar{c}_{j_{2}}^{\beta,\mu}}{\sigma_{\mu}^{i}} = 0$$
(6.11)

both hold, where  $\bar{b}_{j_1}^{\mu,\alpha}$  and  $\bar{c}_{j_2}^{\beta,\mu}$  represent any arbitrary nonzero multiples of  $b_{j_1}^{\mu,\alpha}$  and  $c_{j_2}^{\beta,\mu}$ , respectively, for  $\mu = 1, 2, ..., n$ . This condition is equivalent to the equality  $b_{j_1}^{\mu,\alpha} c_{j_2}^{\beta,\mu} = 0$  for  $\mu = 1, 2, ..., n, \ \mu \neq i$ .

**Corollary 1** Assume that  $\sigma_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , is a SDFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ . There exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer p between 1 and v - 1, such that

*i)* The following two matrices are not full-rank:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A - \sigma_i I_n & B_{i_1} & B_{i_2} & \dots & B_{i_p} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A - \sigma_i I_n & C_{i_{p+1}}^T & C_{i_{p+2}}^T & \dots & C_{i_v}^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(6.12)

*ii)* The following equality holds for any complex number  $s \neq \sigma_j$ , j = 1, 2, ..., n:

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{i_{p+1}}^T & C_{i_{p+2}}^T & \dots & C_{i_v}^T \end{bmatrix}^T (A - sI_n)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} B_{i_1} & B_{i_2} & \dots & B_{i_p} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
(6.13)

**Proof** The proof is straightforward and follows directly from Theorem 1.

**Theorem 2** The SDFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  are identical to its QFMs.

**Proof** Assume that  $\sigma_i$  is a SDFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ , and consider the integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  in Corollary 1. Define now two new composite subsystems  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , where  $S_1$  is composed of p subsystems  $S_1, S_2, ..., S_p$ , and  $S_2$  is composed of v - p subsystems  $S_{p+1}, S_{p+2}, ..., S_v$ . One can easily conclude from (6.7) and the characteristics of DFM given in [12], that  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2)$ .

On the other hand, condition (ii) of Corollary 1 implies that the transfer function matrix form  $S_1$  to  $S_2$  is zero, i.e., the system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of the two subsystems  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  is not strongly connected (note that a system consisting of two subsystems is strongly connected if and only if the transfer function from each of its subsystems to the other one is nonzero). Furthermore, since the system  $\mathscr{S}$  has already been broken down into the subsystems  $\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l$  (where *l* denotes the minimum number of strongly connected subgraphs of  $\mathscr{G}$ , as discussed earlier), which are not strongly connected to each other, it can be easily verified that there exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., l\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $j_1, j_2, ..., j_l$ , and a number  $\zeta$ such that  $\mathbf{S}_1 = \tilde{S}_{j_1} \cup \tilde{S}_{j_2} \cup \cdots \cup \tilde{S}_{j_{\zeta}}$  and  $\mathbf{S}_2 = \tilde{S}_{j_{\zeta+1}} \cup \tilde{S}_{j_{\zeta+2}} \cup \cdots \cup \tilde{S}_{j_l}$ . This implies that any DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathbf{S}_1, \mathbf{S}_2)$  is also a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l)$  (because the decentralized control structure for  $S(\mathbf{S}_1, \mathbf{S}_2)$  includes the decentralized control structure for  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l)$ ). Thus, since it is proved that  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathbf{S}_1, \mathbf{S}_2)$ , it is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l)$  as well. On the other hand, it is known from Definition 4, that the DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l)$  are equivalent to the QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ . Therefore,  $\sigma_i$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ .

Assume now that  $\lambda$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ . Hence,  $\lambda$  is either a SDFM or an UDFM. If it is an UDFM, then it follows from Lemma 1 that  $\lambda$  is not fixed with respect to a discrete-time controller and a ZOH. A well-known property of QFM [3], however, is that  $\lambda$  is fixed with respect to any type of control law [4], which contradicts the original assumption. This implies that  $\lambda$  is a SDFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ , and this completes the proof.

**Remark 2** It can be concluded from conditions (i) and (ii) in Corollary 1 and the discussion in the proof of Theorem 2, that if  $\sigma_i$  is a SDFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  (or equivalently a QFM), then the system can be partitioned into two subsystems  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , such that  $\sigma_i$  is an uncontrollable mode of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  from the input of the subsystem  $S_1$ , and an unobservable mode of  $\mathscr{S}$  from the output of the subsystem  $S_2$ . Furthermore, the transfer function matrix from the input of  $S_1$  to the output of  $S_2$  is zero.

**Remark 3** Assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  contains the DFMs  $\lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., P_s$ , which are also QFMs, and the DFMs  $\overline{\lambda}_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., P_u$ , which are not QFMs. It follows from Theorem 2 and Lemma 6.1, that the discrete-time equivalent model  $\mathscr{G}_d(\mathscr{G}_{d_1}, \mathscr{G}_{d_2}, ..., \mathscr{G}_{d_v})$  has only the DFMs  $e^{\lambda_i h}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., P_s$ , which corresponds to the QFMs of  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ , for almost all values of h. In other words, the DFMs  $\bar{\lambda}_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., P_u$ , of  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  will be eliminated by sampling.

This means that if the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  is decentrally stabilizable, then there exists a sampled-data decentralized controller to stabilize it. It is shown in [4] and [14], that a system with no unstable QFMs can be stabilized by an appropriate time-varying control law. However, the implementation of a sampled-data controller is simpler in general, and has its unique advantages. Structurally constrained control of systems with stable QFMs using sampled-data hold functions will be spelled out in the next section.

### 6.5 Constrained generalized sampled-data hold controller

In this section, a new compelling reason for the effectiveness of GSHF will be presented and some of its properties will be studied.

Assume that the structure of the overall controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  has some prespecified constraints [7]. These constraints determine which outputs  $y_i$   $(i \in \bar{v})$  are available to construct any specific input  $u_j$   $(j \in \bar{v})$  of the system. In order to simplify the problem formulation for the control constraint, a  $v \times v$  block matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  with binary entries is defined, where its (i, j) block entry,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ , is a  $m_i \times r_j$  matrix with all entries equal to 1 if the output of the  $j^{\text{th}}$ subsystem can contribute to the construction of the input of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem, and is a  $m_i \times r_j$ zero matrix otherwise. The matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  represents the control constraint, and will be referred to as the information flow matrix. In the special case, when the entries of the matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  are all equal to 1, the corresponding controller is centralized, and when  $\mathscr{K}$  is block diagonal, the corresponding controller is decentralized.

Consider the following discrete-time compensator  $K_c$  for the system  $\mathcal{S}$ :

$$z[\kappa+1] = Ez[\kappa] + Fy[\kappa]$$

$$\phi[\kappa] = Gz[\kappa] + Hy[\kappa]$$

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(6.14)

and also, the hold controller  $K_h$ :

$$u(t) = F(t)\phi[\kappa], \quad \kappa h \le t < (\kappa+1)h, \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, ...$$
 (6.15)

where F(t) = F(t+h),  $\forall t \ge 0$ . Note that the matrices E, F, G, H, and the function F(t) are desired to be designed such that the overall controller consisting of  $K_c$  and  $K_h$  meet the design specifications. Assume now that an information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$  is given for the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . In order to design the compensator  $K_c$  and the hold controller  $K_h$  such that the overall control structure complies with the information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ , a block-diagonal (decentralized) structure is assumed for the compensator  $K_c$  in [7], while the structure of the hold controller  $K_h$  is assumed to meet the control constraint inferred from  $\mathcal{K}$ . It is evident that this assumption is ill-posed, because the number of the parameters of  $K_h$  to be designed is often much less than that of  $K_c$ , and also  $K_c$  has a significant role in stabilizing the system  $\mathcal{S}$  (see the proof of Theorem 4). Hence, it is hereafter assumed that  $K_h$  is desired to be decentralized, while the structure of  $K_c$  complies with the constraint given by the information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ . The following procedure is used to form the transfer function matrix  $K_c(z) := G(zI_n - E)^{-1}F + H$ of the compensator  $K_c$  in order to comply with the information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ .

**Procedure 1** Replace the (i, j) block entry of  $\mathcal{K}$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ , with  $K_{ij}(z) \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i \times r_j}$  (whose parameters are yet to be designed) if it is not a zero matrix, i.e., if the output of the  $j^{th}$  subsystem can contribute to the construction of the input of the  $i^{th}$  subsystem. Denote the resultant matrix with  $K_c(z)$ . Note that the nonzero block entries of  $K_c(z)$  are unknown so far, and are desired to be found so that the closed-loop system satisfies the design specifications.

The following procedure is used to construct a decentralized LTI compensator  $K_c$  with the block-diagonal transfer function matrix  $\bar{K}_c(z)$ . It will be shown how the entries of the desired constrained compensator  $K_c$  can be mapped into  $\bar{K}_c$ .

**Procedure 2** Form  $\bar{K}_c(z) \in \Re^{m \times \bar{r}}$  as a block diagonal matrix, whose (i, i) block entry,  $i \in \bar{v}$ , is a  $m_i \times \bar{r}_i$  matrix which is obtained from the  $i^{th}$  block row of the matrix  $K_c(z)$  by contracting

it, i.e. by eliminating all of its zero block entries and placing the remaining block entries next to each other, and in the same order that they appear in the corresponding block row of  $K_c(z)$ .

As an example, assume that the matrix  $K_c(z)$  is as follows:

$$K_{c}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} K_{11}(z) & 0 & K_{13}(z) & 0 \\ 0 & K_{22}(z) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & K_{33}(z) & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.16)

The corresponding matrix  $\bar{K}_c(z)$  is obtained to be:

$$\bar{K}_{c}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} K_{11}(z) & K_{13}(z) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & K_{22}(z) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & K_{33}(z) \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.17)

Let the state-space representation of the decentralized compensator  $\bar{K}_c$ , whose transfer function matrix is formed in Procedure 2, be denoted by:

$$\bar{z}[\kappa+1] = \bar{E}\bar{z}[\kappa] + \bar{F}\bar{y}[\kappa] 
\bar{\phi}[\kappa] = \bar{G}\bar{z}[\kappa] + \bar{H}\bar{y}[\kappa]$$
(6.18)

Assume throughout the chapter, zero initial states for the compensators, i.e.,  $z[0] = \bar{z}[0] = 0$ . Note that since the parameters of the compensator  $K_c$  are still unknown at this point, and since  $\bar{K}_c$  is formed based on  $K_c$ , the parameters  $\bar{E}, \bar{F}, \bar{G}$  and  $\bar{H}$  are unknown too.

**Remark 4** It can be easily verified that there exists an onto mapping between the nonzero block entries of the matrix  $\bar{K}_c(z)$  obtained in Procedure 2, and those of the matrix  $K_c(z)$ .

**Lemma 3** For any given  $K_c(z)$ , there exists a constant matrix T such that  $K_c(z) = \bar{K}_c(z)T$ , where T is obtained from the matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ .

**Proof** The proof is omitted and may be found in [15]. A procedure is also given in [15] to obtain the transformation matrix T.

Define  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}$  as an interconnected system consisting of the subsystems  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2, ..., \bar{\mathscr{I}}_v$  with the following state-space representation:

$$\dot{\bar{x}}(t) = A\bar{x}(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} B_i \bar{u}_i(t)$$

$$\bar{y}_i(t) = \bar{C}_i \bar{x}(t), \quad i \in \bar{\nu}$$
(6.19)

where  $\bar{C}_i \in \Re^{\bar{r}_i \times n}$ ,  $i \in \bar{v}$ , and:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{C}_1^T & \bar{C}_2^T & \cdots & \bar{C}_v^T \end{bmatrix}^T = TC$$
(6.20)

and  $\bar{u}_i(t)$  and  $\bar{y}_i(t)$  are the input and the output of the subsystem  $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_i$ . Define now,

$$\bar{u}(t) := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{u}_1(t)^T & \bar{u}_2(t)^T & \cdots & \bar{u}_{\nu}(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\bar{y}(t) := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{y}_1(t)^T & \bar{y}_2(t)^T & \cdots & \bar{y}_{\nu}(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(6.21)

Define also the hold controller  $\bar{K}_h$  as:

$$\bar{u}(t) = F(t)\bar{\phi}[\kappa], \quad \kappa h \le t < (\kappa+1)h, \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, ...$$
 (6.22)

**Theorem 3** For any given compensator  $K_c(z)$  (or equivalently, any given matrices E, F, G, and H) corresponding to the information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ , and the hold function F(t), construct the matrix  $\bar{K}_c(z)$  by using Procedure 2. The state and the input of the system  $\mathcal{S}$  under the compensator  $K_c(z)$  and the hold controller  $K_h$  are equivalent to those of the system  $\bar{\mathcal{S}}$  under the compensator  $\bar{K}_c(z)$  and the hold controller  $\bar{K}_h$ , provided  $x(0) = \bar{x}(0)$ .

**Proof** It is desired first to show that  $x(t) = \bar{x}(t)$  and  $u(t) = \bar{u}(t)$  for any  $0 \le t < h$ . Since  $x(0) = \bar{x}(0)$ , one can easily conclude that  $\bar{y}[0] = Ty[0]$ . On the other hand, it follows from Lemma 3, that the transfer functions of the compensators  $K_c$  and  $\bar{K}_c$  satisfy the equation  $K(z) = \bar{K}(z)T$ . Note that the inputs of these compensators are y[k] and  $\bar{y}[k]$ , respectively. Hence, it can be easily concluded that the outputs of these compensators at time k = 0 are equal, i.e.  $\phi[0] = \bar{\phi}[0]$  (note that  $z[0] = \bar{z}[0] = 0$ ). Thus, the equations (6.15) and (6.22) result in the

equality  $u(t) = \bar{u}(t)$  for all  $t \in [0,h)$ . Consequently, one can conclude from the state-space equations of the systems  $\mathscr{S}$  and  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$ , and the equality  $x(0) = \bar{x}(0)$ , that  $x(t) = \bar{x}(t)$  for all  $t \in [0,h)$ . Since the states x(t) and  $\bar{x}(t)$  are continuous functions of time,  $x(h) = \bar{x}(h)$  or equivalently  $x[1] = \bar{x}[1]$ . Now, one can start from the equality  $x[1] = \bar{x}[1]$ , and use a similar argument to conclude that  $x(t) = \bar{x}(t)$  and  $u(t) = \bar{u}(t)$  for all  $t \in [h, 2h)$ . Continuing this argument will lead to the equalities  $x(t) = \bar{x}(t)$  and  $u(t) = \bar{u}(t)$ , for all  $t \in [ih, (i+1)h)$ ,  $\forall i \ge 0$ .

**Remark 5** Theorem 3 states that instead of designing a structurally constrained compensator  $K_c$  and a decentralized hold controller  $K_h$  for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  to achieve any desired objective (stability, pole placement, etc.), one can equivalently design a decentralized compensator  $\bar{K}_c$  and a decentralized hold controller  $\bar{K}_h$  for the system  $\mathscr{P}$ . Then, the original compensator  $K_c$  can be obtained by using the equation  $K_c(z) = \bar{K}_c(z)T$ . In addition, the hold function F(t) designed for  $\mathscr{P}$  can be equivalently considered for  $\mathscr{S}$  (because of the relations (6.15) and (6.22)). However, the advantage of this indirect design procedure is that the compensator  $\bar{K}_c$  is decentralized (i.e. it has a block diagonal information flow structure). It is to be noted that the decentralized control design problem has been investigated in the literature intensively, and a number of methods are available [7, 12, 10].

**Theorem 4** If there exist no decentralized compensator  $\bar{K}_c$  and decentralized hold controller  $\bar{K}_h$  to stabilize the system  $\bar{\mathcal{I}}(\bar{\mathcal{I}}_1, \bar{\mathcal{I}}_2, ..., \bar{\mathcal{I}}_v)$ , then  $\bar{\mathcal{I}}(\bar{\mathcal{I}}_1, \bar{\mathcal{I}}_2, ..., \bar{\mathcal{I}}_v)$  is not stabilizable under any type of decentralized control law (i.e. nonlinear, time-varying, etc.).

**Proof** If the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}(\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2, ..., \bar{\mathscr{I}}_v)$  has an unstable QFM, it is not decentrally stabilizable according to Lemma 2. If, however, it has no unstable QFM, one can conclude from Remark 3 that there exists a discrete-time decentralized controller to stabilize the discrete-time equivalent model of the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}(\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2, ..., \bar{\mathscr{I}}_v)$  for almost all sampling periods h > 0. Let this discrete-time controller be denoted by  $\bar{K}_c$  and the hold function be equal to  $\bar{I}$ , where  $\bar{I} \in \Re^{m \times m}$ 

is a block diagonal matrix whose (i, i) block entry is a  $m_i \times m_i$  matrix with the entries all equal to 1 for any  $i \in \overline{v}$ . In this case, the compensator  $\overline{K}_c$  is, in fact, the stabilizing discrete-time controller and the hold function F(t) is a simple ZOH.

It can be concluded from Theorem 4 that in the special case, when  $\mathscr{K}$  is block diagonal, or equivalently  $\mathscr{S} = \overline{\mathscr{S}}$ , then a stabilizing compensator  $K_c$  is guaranteed to exist for the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , if and only if the system is decentrally stabilizable. This discussion and the result of Theorem 4 demonstrate the significance of using a compensator in the system to be controlled. The question may arise as why a hold controller is added to the system when the compensator by itself can stabilize it. To answer this question, assume that the non-quotient DFMs of the system  $\overline{\mathscr{S}}$  are aimed to be placed at some arbitrary locations. It is pointed out in [7] that there exist infinite candidates for  $\overline{K}_h$  to achieve this (because  $\overline{K}_c$  by itself can carry out the pole placement). This implies that  $\overline{K}_h$  can be designed in such a way that it not only results in the desired pole placement (along with  $\overline{K}_c$ ), but also minimizes a continuous-time performance index to reduce the intersample effect, or even simultaneously stabilize a set of systems. In other words,  $\overline{K}_h$  introduces a new set of parameters to the design problem, which can be significantly beneficial to solve a multi-faceted problem.

**Remark 6** Assume that it is desired now to design a decentralized hold controller  $K_h$  and a structurally constrained compensator  $K_c$  for the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , such that the following LQR performance index is minimized:

$$J = \int_0^\infty \left( x(t)^T Q x(t) + u(t)^T R u(t) \right) dt$$
 (6.23)

where  $R \in \Re^{m \times m}$  and  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$  are positive definite and positive semi-definite matrices, respectively. For simplicity and without loss of generality, assume that Q and R are symmetric. It can be concluded from Theorem 3 and Remark 5 that this problem is equivalent to the problem of designing a decentralized compensator  $\overline{K}_c$  and a decentralized hold controller  $\overline{K}_h$  for the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}$ , such that the following LQR performance index is minimized:

$$J = \int_0^\infty \left( \bar{x}(t)^T Q \bar{x}(t) + \bar{u}(t)^T R \bar{u}(t) \right) dt$$
 (6.24)

### 6.5.1 High-performance structurally constrained controller

According to Theorem 4, if the system  $\overline{\mathscr{P}}(\overline{\mathscr{P}}_1, \overline{\mathscr{P}}_2, ..., \overline{\mathscr{P}}_V)$  is decentrally stabilizable, then there exists a decentralized discrete-time compensator  $\overline{K}_c$  to stabilize the system with the hold function  $F(t) = \overline{I}$ . Note that the stabilizing compensator  $\overline{K}_c$  can be obtained by using any existing method such as pole placement, to achieve any given design specifications. It is desired now to replace the ZOH (i.e.,  $F(t) = \overline{I}$ ) with a more advanced hold function, such that the performance of the composite system consisting of  $\overline{\mathscr{P}}$  and the stabilizing compensator  $\overline{K}_c$ is improved.

On the other hand, it is often advantageous to design a hold function which has a prespecified form, such as piecewise constant, polynomial, etc. [10, 11]. Therefore, assume that the following set of basis functions is considered for the hold function F(t):

$$\mathbf{f} := \{F_1(t), F_2(t), \dots F_k(t)\}$$
(6.25)

where  $F_i(t) \in \Re^{m \times v_i}$ , i = 2, ..., k, are arbitrary matrix functions and  $F_1(t) = \overline{I}$ . Thus, F(t) can be written as a linear combination of the basis functions in **f** in the following form:

$$F(t) = F_1(t)\alpha_1 + F_2(t)\alpha_2 + \dots + F_k(t)\alpha_k$$
(6.26)

where  $\alpha_i \in \Re^{\nu_i \times m}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, are matrices with certain zero elements, which reflect the structural constraint of F(t). The objective here is to obtain the matrices  $\alpha_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, to minimize the performance index (6.24) (this will be clarified in Example 2). Note that the first basis  $F_1(t)$  is assumed to be equal to  $\bar{I}$ , because in that case there exists at least one hold function of the form given in (6.26), which along with the compensator  $\bar{K}_c$  stabilize the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}$  (i.e., when  $\alpha_1 = I$ ,  $\alpha_i = 0$ , i = 2, 3, ..., k). It is to be noted that since (6.24) is a

continuous-time performance index, it takes the intersample ripple effect into account [11]. The equation (6.26) can be written as  $F(t) = W(t)\alpha$ , where:

$$\alpha := \left[\alpha_1^T, \alpha_2^T, ..., \alpha_k^T\right]^T, \ W(t) := \left[F_1(t), F_2(t), ..., F_k(t)\right]$$
(6.27)

Since some of the entries of the unknown matrices  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k$  are set to zero, the matrix  $\alpha$  has a spacial structure. To formulate the structure of  $\alpha$ , define a set **E** which contains all of the indices of the zero entries of  $\alpha_i$  for any  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ .

It is known that:

$$\bar{x}(t) = e^{(t-\kappa h)A}\bar{x}(\kappa h) + \int_{\kappa h}^{t} e^{(t-\tau)A}B\bar{u}(\tau)d\tau$$
(6.28)

for any  $\kappa h \leq t \leq (\kappa + 1)h$ ,  $\kappa \geq 0$ . Now, let the following matrices be defined:

$$M(t) = e^{tA}, \ \bar{M}(t) = \int_0^t e^{(t-\tau)A} BW(\tau) d\tau$$
(6.29)

Therefore,

$$\bar{x}(t) = M(t - \kappa h)\bar{x}[\kappa] + \bar{M}(t - \kappa h)\alpha\bar{\phi}[k]$$
(6.30)

for any  $\kappa h \le t \le (\kappa + 1)h$ . It can be easily concluded from (6.19), (6.20), (6.18), and (6.30) by substituting  $t = (\kappa + 1)h$ , that

$$\mathbf{x}[\kappa+1] = \tilde{M}(h,\alpha)\mathbf{x}[\kappa] \tag{6.31}$$

for any  $\kappa \ge 0$ , where  $\mathbf{x}[\kappa] = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}[\kappa]^T & \bar{z}[\kappa]^T \end{bmatrix}^T$ , and

$$\tilde{M}(h,\alpha) := \begin{bmatrix} M(h) + \bar{M}(h)\alpha\bar{H}TC & \bar{M}(h)\alpha\bar{G} \\ \bar{F}TC & \bar{E} \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.32)

It is straightforward to show that (by using the equation (6.31)):

$$\mathbf{x}[\kappa] = \left(\tilde{M}(h,\alpha)\right)^{\kappa} \mathbf{x}[0], \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
(6.33)

Define now the following matrices:

$$P_0 := \int_0^h (M(t)^T Q M(t)) dt$$
 (6.34a)

$$P_1 := \int_0^h \left( M(t)^T Q \overline{M}(t) \right) dt \tag{6.34b}$$

$$P_{2} := \int_{0}^{h} \left( \bar{M}(t)^{T} Q \bar{M}(t) + W(t)^{T} R W(t) \right) dt$$
(6.34c)

$$q_0(\alpha) := P_0 + P_1 \alpha \bar{H}TC + (P_1 \alpha \bar{H}TC)^T + (\alpha \bar{H}TC)^T P_2(\alpha \bar{H}TC)$$
(6.34d)

$$q_1(\alpha) := P_1 \alpha \bar{G} + (\alpha \bar{H}TC)^T P_2 \alpha \bar{G}$$
(6.34e)

$$P(\alpha) := \begin{bmatrix} q_0(\alpha) & q_1(\alpha) \\ q_1(\alpha)^T & \bar{G}^T \alpha^T P_2 \alpha \bar{G} \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.34f)

**Lemma 4** For a given  $\alpha$ , suppose that the system  $\bar{\mathscr{P}}$  is stable under the pair  $\bar{K}_c$  and  $\bar{K}_h$ . The performance index J defined in (6.24) can be written as  $J = \mathbf{x}^T(0)\mathbf{K}\mathbf{x}(0)$ , where **K** satisfies the following discrete Lyapunov equation:

$$\tilde{M}^{T}(h,\alpha)\mathbf{K}\tilde{M}(h,\alpha) - \mathbf{K} + P(\alpha) = 0$$
(6.35)

**Proof** Substituting (6.22) and (6.30) into (6.24) and using (6.31), the performance index can be written as follows:

$$J = \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( \int_{\kappa h}^{(\kappa+1)h} \left( \bar{x}^{T}(t) Q \bar{x}(t) + \bar{u}^{T}(t) R \bar{u}(t) \right) dt \right)$$
  

$$= \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( \bar{x}[\kappa]^{T} P_{0} \bar{x}[\kappa] + \bar{x}[\kappa]^{T} P_{1} \alpha \bar{\phi}[\kappa] + \bar{\phi}[\kappa]^{T} \alpha^{T} P_{1}^{T} \bar{x}[\kappa] + \bar{\phi}[\kappa]^{T} \alpha^{T} P_{2} \alpha \bar{\phi}[\kappa] \right)$$
  

$$= \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \bar{x}[\kappa]^{T} P(\alpha) \bar{x}[\kappa]$$
  

$$= \bar{x}(0)^{T} \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( \tilde{M}^{T}(h, \alpha)^{\kappa} P(\alpha) \tilde{M}(h, \alpha)^{\kappa} \right) \bar{x}(0)$$
  
(6.36)

As pointed out in the proof of Lemma 1 in [10], since the closed-loop system is stable, all of the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{M}(h, \alpha)$  are located inside the unit circle in the complex plane. Thus, the infinite series

$$\sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \left( \tilde{M}^T(h,\alpha)^{\kappa} P(\alpha) \tilde{M}(h,\alpha)^{\kappa} \right)$$
(6.37)

converges to **K**, the solution of the discrete Lyapunov equation (6.35).

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**Remark 7** The optimization problem is now converted to the problem of minimizing  $\mathbf{x}^{T}(0)\mathbf{K}\mathbf{x}(0)$  for the variable  $\alpha$ , subject to the following constraints:

- 1. Any entry of  $\alpha$  whose index belongs to the set E, must be equal to zero,
- 2. K satisfies the discrete Lyapunov equation (6.35).

Since the matrix function  $\tilde{M}(h, \alpha)$  is linear and the matrix function  $P(\alpha)$  is quadratic with respect to the variable  $\alpha$ , this optimization problem is the same as the ones solved in [10, 11]. Hence, one can exploit a slight variation of the approach given in [10] to reformulate the problem in the linear matrix inequality (LMI) framework. Note that both of the algorithms presented in [10, 11] require an initial point for  $\alpha$  such that the corresponding closed-loop system is stable. Therefore, as discussed earlier, one can consider the initial point [ I 0 ... 0 ] for  $\alpha$ .

### 6.6 Illustrative examples

**Example 1** consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of three SISO subsystems with the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} B_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, B_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, B_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, (6.38)$$
$$C_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, C_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, C_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

It can be easily concluded from Theorem 1 (by considering  $i_j = j$ , j = 1, 2, 3), that  $\lambda = 1$ is a SDFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$ . In other words, if the nonzero entries of the vectors  $B_i, C_i, i = 1, 2, 3$  are replaced by any arbitrary numbers, then  $\lambda = 1$  still remains a DFM of the resultant system. It is desired now to obtain the QFM of  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$ . One can easily verify that the structural graph of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is composed of two strongly connected subgraphs corresponding to vertex 1 (as the first subgraph), and vertices 2, 3 (as the second subgraph). Hence, the new subsystem  $\tilde{S}_1$  is defined to be the subsystem  $S_1$ , and  $\tilde{S}_2$  is defined to be the union of  $S_2$  and  $S_3$ . Moreover, it can be easily verified that the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2)$  has a DFM at  $\lambda = 1$ . Thus, Definition 4 yields that  $\lambda = 1$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$ . In other words,  $\lambda = 1$  is a SDFM as well as a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$ . This is in accordance with the result of Theorem 2. It is to be noted that -2 and -3 are not DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$ .

Now, let the vectors  $B_1, C_2$ , and  $C_3$  in (6.38) be replaced by the following:

$$B_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}^{T}, \quad C_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$
(6.39)

One can easily verify that, in this case,  $\lambda = 1$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$ , but it is not a QFM; hence, it can be eliminated by means of sampling according to Remark 3. For instance, assume that h = 1 sec. It is straightforward to show that the modes of the openloop discrete-time equivalent model are 0.0498, 0.1353, 2.7183, while those of the closed-loop discrete-time model corresponding to a decentralized feedback with unity gains are 2.0685 ± 0.7942*i*, -4.9743. Since these two sets of modes are disjoint, it can be concluded that the discrete-time equivalent model does not have any DFM, as expected from Remark 3.

**Example 2** Consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of two SISO subsystems with the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.40)

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It is desired to design a stabilizing controller with the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . To achieve this, a compensator  $K_c$  and a hold controller  $K_h$  will be employed with the sampling period equal to 0.1sec. The transfer functions  $K_c(z)$  and  $\bar{K}_c(z)$  have the following structures (by using Procedures 1 and 2):

$$K_{c}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & K_{12}(z) \\ K_{21}(z) & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{K}_{c}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} K_{12}(z) & 0 \\ 0 & K_{21}(z) \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.41)

In this simple case, the matrix *T* introduced in Lemma 3 is found to be  $T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Accordingly, the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}(\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2)$  can be obtained from the equation (6.19). It is straightforward to show that the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}(\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2)$  does not have any QFM. Thus, it follows from Theorem 4 that there exists a discrete-time decentralized compensator  $\bar{K}_c$  to stabilize the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}(\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2)$  along with a simple ZOH. It can be easily verified that the static controller  $\bar{K}_c(z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  will achieve this. Note that this translates to the following static gain for the original system:

$$K_c(z) = \bar{K}_c(z)T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (6.42)

Now, a decentralized hold controller  $\bar{K}_h$  is to be designed for the composite system consisting of the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}(\bar{\mathscr{I}}_1, \bar{\mathscr{I}}_2)$  and the decentralized compensator  $\bar{K}_c$  given above. Consider the performance index (6.24), and assume that  $Q = R = I_2$ . Assume also that  $x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ . If the hold controller  $\bar{K}_h$  is a simple ZOH, this performance index will be equal to 0.9390. Suppose now that instead of a simple ZOH, the following basis functions for the hold function F(t) are given:

$$F_1(t) = I_2, \quad F_2(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(t) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (6.43)

The decentralized constraint of the hold controller requires that the coefficients  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  in (6.26) have the following structures:

$$\alpha_1 = \begin{bmatrix} * & 0 \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} * & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.44)

where \* represents the nonzero entries to be determined. The problem of finding the constrained coefficients  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  such that the performance index (6.24) is minimized is discussed in Remark 7. As pointed out there, the optimization problem can be solved by using the LMI approach presented in [10] with the starting point  $\begin{bmatrix} I_2 & 0_{2\times 2} \end{bmatrix}$  for the variable  $\alpha$ (note that  $0_{2\times 2}$  represents a  $2\times 2$  zero matrix). This approach results in the following optimal hold function F(t):

$$F(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5594 - 1.7508\sin(t) & 0\\ 0 & 0.8297 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6.45)

The corresponding performance index will be equal to 0.8450. This implies that the hold function given above will improve the performance of the control system by about 12%. Note that for this example, the minimum achievable performance index resulted by using a centralized LQR controller (assuming that all state variables are available in the output) is equal to 0.7818.

## 6.7 Conclusions

This chapter deals with a broad class of interconnected systems with a constrained control structure. It is proved that the two notions of structured decentralized fixed mode and quotient fixed mode in the literature are identical for linear time-invariant, controllable and observable systems with distinct and nonzero eigenvalues. Furthermore, it is shown that if there exists a decentralized controller with a general structure (e.g. nonlinear, time-varying) to stabilize a system belonging to the aforementioned class, then there exists a decentralized LTI discrete-time compensator (with a zero-order hold), which stabilizes the system. Moreover, it is shown

that the problem of designing a structurally constrained controller for an interconnected system in order to achieve some design objectives, such as desired pole locations, is equivalent to the problem of designing a decentralized compensator and a decentralized hold controller for the expanded system, to attain the same objectives. In addition, the problem of designing a stabilizing high-performance controller consisting of a decentralized compensator and a decentralized hold controller, where the hold controller is desired to have a special form, e.g. piecewise constant, polynomial, etc., is investigated. The numerical results obtained, demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed work.

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# Chapter 7

# Characterization of Decentralized and Quotient Fixed Modes Via Graph Theory

### 7.1 Abstract

This chapter deals with the decentralized control of systems with distinct modes. A simple graph-theoretic approach is first proposed to identify those modes of the system which cannot be moved by means of a linear time-invariant decentralized controller. To this end, the system is transformed into its Jordan state-space representation. Then, a matrix is computed, which has the same order as the transfer function matrix of the system. A bipartite graph is constructed from the computed matrix. Now, the problem of characterizing the decentralized fixed modes of the system reduces to verifying if this graph has a complete bipartite subgraph with a certain property. Analogously, a graph-theoretic method is presented to compute the modes of the system which are fixed with respect to any general (nonlinear and time-varying) decentralized controller. The proposed approaches are quite simpler than the existing ones.

### 7.2 Introduction

Many real-world systems can be envisaged as the interconnected systems consisting of a number of subsystems. Normally, the desirable control structure for this class of systems is decentralized, which comprises a set of local controllers for the subsystems [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]. Decentralized control theory has found applications in large space structure, communication networks, power systems, etc. [7, 8, 9, 10]. More recently, simultaneous stabilization of a set of decentralized systems and decentralized periodic control design are investigated in [11, 12].

The notion of decentralized fixed mode (DFM) was introduced in [1], where it was shown that any mode of a system which is not a DFM can be placed freely in the complex plane by means of an appropriate linear time-invariant (LTI) controller. An algebraic characterization of DFMs was presented in [13]. A method was then proposed in [14] to characterize the DFMs of a system in terms of its transfer function. It was shown in [15] that the DFMs of any system can be attained by computing the transmission zeros of a set of systems derived from the original system. In [2], an algorithm was presented to identify the DFMs of the system by checking the rank of a set of matrices. It is worth noting that the number of the systems whose transmission zeros need to be checked in [15] and the number of matrices whose ranks are to be computed in [2] depend exponentially on the number of the subsystems of the original system. This means that while these methods are theoretically developed for any multi-input multi-output (MIMO) system, they are computationally ill-conditioned. The method introduced in [16] addresses this shortcoming by partitioning the system into a number of modified subsystems, obtained based on the strong connectivity of the system's graph. Then, instead of finding the DFMs of the original system, one can compute the DFMs of the modified subsystems to reduce the corresponding computational complexity. However, the computational burden can still be high when the system consists of several strongly connected subsystems. In general, the method given in [16] is more effective for medium-sized systems, while the one in [2] is only appropriate for small-sized systems. It is to be noted that the

method introduced in [2] is widely used in the literature for the characterization of the DFMs.

On the other hand, the notion of quotient fixed mode (QFM) is introduced in [17] to identify those modes of the system which are fixed with respect to general (nonlinear and time-varying) decentralized controllers. The properties of QFM is further investigated in [3], where it is asserted that the non-quotient DFMs of a broad class of systems can by eliminated by means of sampling.

This chapter aims to present simple approaches to find the DFMs and the QFMs of a system with distinct modes. To this end, a matrix is obtained first, which resembles the transfer function matrix of the system at one point. Then, a bipartite graph is constructed in terms of this matrix. It is shown that having a complete bipartite subgraph with a certain property is equivalent to having a DFM. A similar method is pursued to obtain the QFMs of the system. The combinatorial approaches proposed in the present chapter are substantially simpler than the conventional methods for finding the DFMs and QFMs. The efficacy of the proposed methods is demonstrated in two numerical examples.

### 7.3 Preliminaries

Consider a LTI interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of v subsystems  $S_1, S_2, ..., S_v$ , represented by:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} B_j u_j(t)$$

$$y_i(t) = C_i x(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} D_{ij} u_j(t), \quad i \in \bar{\nu} := \{1, 2, ..., \nu\}$$
(7.1)

where  $x(t) \in \Re^n$  is the state, and  $u_i(t) \in \Re^{m_i}$  and  $y_i(t) \in \Re^{r_i}$ ,  $i \in \overline{v}$ , are the input and the output of the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem, respectively. Suppose the eigenvalues of A are distinct. Write the matrix

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A as  $TAT^{-1}$ , where T is the eigenvector matrix of A. Denote the matrix A as follows:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \cdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(7.2)

where  $\sigma_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  denote the modes of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . Therefore, the system  $\mathscr{S}$  can be represented in the decoupled form as:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \mathbf{B}_j u_j(t)$$

$$y_i(t) = \mathbf{C}_i \mathbf{x}(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \mathbf{D}_{ij} u_j(t), \quad i \in \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$
(7.3)

where  $\mathbf{D}_{ij} = D_{ij}, i, j \in \bar{v}$  and

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{bmatrix} = T^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & \cdots & B_{\mathbf{v}} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & \cdots & C_{\mathbf{v}} \end{bmatrix} T$$
(7.4)

Throughout this chapter, the term "decentralized controller" is referred to the union of all local controllers. In order to specify the local subsystems associated with the local controllers, the subsystems are enclosed within parentheses throughout the chapter, if necessary. For instance, a decentralized controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$  is the union of the local controllers  $u_i(t) = g_i(y_i(t), t), i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ , corresponding to the subsystems  $S_1, S_2, S_3$ . Some of the important notions for different types of fixed modes will be given next, which are essential for the main results of the chapter.

**Definition 1** [1]  $\lambda \in sp(A)$  is said to be a decentralized fixed mode (DFM) of the system S, if it remains a mode of the closed-loop system under any arbitrary decentralized static feedback. In other words,  $\lambda \in sp(A)$  is a DFM of the system S if:

$$\lambda \in sp\left(A + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} B_i K_i C_i\right), \quad \forall K_i \in \Re^{m_i \times r_i}, \ i \in \bar{\nu}$$
(7.5)

It can be shown that a DFM is fixed with respect to any arbitrary dynamic LTI decentralized controller. However, it is interesting to note that a proper non-LTI controller can eliminate certain types of DFMs [3]. In other words, a DFM is not necessarily fixed with respect to a time-varying or nonlinear control structure.

**Definition 2** Define the structural graph of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  as a digraph with v vertices which has a directed edge from the  $i^{th}$  vertex to the  $j^{th}$  vertex if  $C_j(sI - A)^{-1}B_i \neq 0$ , for any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ . The structural graph of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is denoted by  $\mathscr{G}$ .

Partition  $\mathscr{G}$  into the minimum number of strongly connected subgraphs denoted by  $G_1, G_2, ..., G_l$  (note that a digraph is called strongly connected iff there exists a directed path from any vertex to any other vertices of the graph [16, 3]). Define the subsystem  $\tilde{S}_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., l, as the union of all subsystems of  $\mathscr{S}$  corresponding to the vertices in the subgraph  $G_i$  (note that vertex j in the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  represents the subsystem  $S_j$ , for any  $j \in \bar{v}$ ).

**Definition 3** [16] Assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is strictly proper, i.e. D = 0. The mode  $\lambda$  is said to be a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$ , if it is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2, ..., \tilde{S}_l)$ .

It can be shown in [16] that a QFM is fixed with respect to any arbitrary (nonlinear or time-varying) decentralized controller.

In order to clarify the notion of QFM, consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  with the parameters given below:

$$\mathbf{A} = \operatorname{diag}([1, -2, -3]),$$
  

$$\mathbf{B}_{1} = [0 \ 0 \ -1]^{T}, \ \mathbf{B}_{2} = [1 \ 1 \ 2]^{T}, \ \mathbf{B}_{3} = [2 \ 1 \ 5]^{T},$$
  

$$\mathbf{C}_{1} = [5 \ 3 \ 2], \ \mathbf{C}_{2} = [0 \ -1 \ 0], \ \mathbf{C}_{3} = [0 \ -2 \ 0]$$
(7.6)

The transfer function matrix of this system will be equal to:

$$\mathbf{C}(sI - \mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} -2s - 6 & 12s + 13 & 23s + 26 \\ 0 & -s - 2 & -s - 2 \\ 0 & -2s - 4 & -2s - 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
(7.7)

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Hence, the structural graph of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is composed of two strongly connected subgraphs corresponding to vertex 1 (as the first subgraph), and vertices 2, 3 (as the second subgraph). Therefore, the new subsystem  $\tilde{S}_1$  is defined to be the subsystem  $S_1$ , and  $\tilde{S}_2$  is defined to be the union of  $S_2$  and  $S_3$ . The union of the subsystems  $\tilde{S}_1$  and  $\tilde{S}_2$  is sometimes referred to as a quotient system [16]. It is important to note that:

- The DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$  are also the modes of the closed-loop system in Figure 7.1, for any arbitrary dynamic LTI controllers  $K_1, K_2$  and  $K_3$ . It can be easily verified that  $\lambda = 1$  is the only DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  given by (7.6).
- The QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, S_3)$  are defined to be the DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\tilde{S}_1, \tilde{S}_2)$ , i.e., the fixed modes of the closed-loop system shown in Figure 7.2, for any arbitrary LTI controllers  $\tilde{K}_1$  and  $\tilde{K}_2$ . For instance, it is easy to show that  $\lambda = 1$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  given by (7.6).

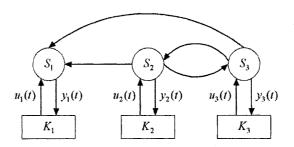


Figure 7.1: The schematic of the decentralized control system  $\mathscr{S}$  used for obtaining the DFMs.

### 7.4 Characterization of decentralized fixed modes

It is desired in this section to present a simple procedure to obtain the DFMs of the system  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Notation 1** For any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ :

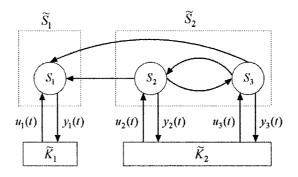


Figure 7.2: The schematic of the decentralized control system  $\mathcal{S}$  used for obtaining the QFMs.

- Denote the  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  entry of  $\mathbf{B}_i$  with  $\mathbf{b}_i^{\mu_1, \mu_2}$ , for any  $1 \le \mu_1 \le n, 1 \le \mu_2 \le m_i$ .
- Denote the  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  entry of  $\mathbf{C}_i$  with  $\mathbf{c}_i^{\mu_1, \mu_2}$ , for any  $1 \le \mu_1 \le r_i, 1 \le \mu_2 \le n$ .
- Denote the  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  entry of  $\mathbf{D}_{ij}$  with  $\mathbf{d}_{ij}^{\mu_1, \mu_2}$ , for any  $1 \leq \mu_1 \leq r_i, 1 \leq \mu_2 \leq m_j$ .

The following theorem formulates the DFMs of the system  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Theorem 1** Assume that the mode  $\sigma_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , is controllable as well as observable.  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ ,  $v \ge 2$ , if and only if there exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$ denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer  $p \in [1, v - 1]$  such that  $\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{i,\alpha} = \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,i} = 0$ , and:

$$\sum_{\mu=1,\ \mu\neq i}^{n} \frac{\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{\mu,\alpha} \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,\mu}}{\sigma_{\mu} - \sigma_{i}} = \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha}$$
(7.8)

for all  $\eta, \gamma, \alpha$  and  $\beta$  given by:

$$\eta \in \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p\}, \ \gamma \in \{i_{p+1}, i_{p+2}, \dots, i_{\nu}\}, \ 1 \le \alpha \le m_{\eta}, \ 1 \le \beta \le r_{\gamma}$$
(7.9)

**Proof** It is known that  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(S_1, S_2, ..., S_v)$  if and only if there exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer  $p \in [0, v]$  such that the rank of the following matrix is less than *n* [2]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} - \sigma_{i}I_{n} & \mathbf{B}_{i_{1}} & \mathbf{B}_{i_{2}} & \dots & \mathbf{B}_{i_{p}} \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_{p+1}} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{p+1}i_{1}} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{p+1}i_{2}} & \dots & \mathbf{D}_{i_{p+1}i_{p}} \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_{p+2}} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{p+2}i_{1}} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{p+2}i_{2}} & \dots & \mathbf{D}_{i_{p+2}i_{p}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_{\nu}} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{\nu}i_{1}} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{\nu}i_{2}} & \dots & \mathbf{D}_{i_{\nu}i_{p}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(7.10)

In addition, since it is assumed that the mode  $\sigma_i$  is controllable and observable, the rank of the matrix (7.10) is equal to *n* for p = 0 and p = v. Therefore, the condition  $0 \le p \le v$  given above can be reduced to  $1 \le p \le v - 1$ . It is clear that the rank of the matrix  $\mathbf{A} - \sigma_i I_n$  is n - 1, and also, the *i*<sup>th</sup> column and the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of this matrix are both zeros. Hence, if there exists a nonzero entry either in the *i*<sup>th</sup> column or in the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of the matrix given in (7.10), its rank will be at least *n*. As a result, the rank of the matrix in (7.10) is less than *n*, if and only if both of the following conditions hold:

- i) All of the entries of the *i*<sup>th</sup> column and the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of the matrix given in (7.10) are zero, i.e.,  $\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{i,\alpha} = \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,i} = 0$  for any  $\alpha, \beta, \eta$ , and  $\gamma$  satisfying (7.9).
- ii) The rank of the following matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{1}^{i} & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{1,\alpha} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_{i-1}^{i} & 0 & \dots & 0 & \mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{i-1,\alpha} \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_{i+1}^{i} & \dots & 0 & \mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{i+1,\alpha} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_{n}^{i} & \mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{n,\alpha} \\ \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,1} & \dots & \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,i-1} & \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,i+1} & \dots & \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,n} & \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (7.11)

(which is a sub-matrix of the one given by (7.10)) is less than *n* for any  $\alpha, \beta, \eta$ , and  $\gamma$  satisfying (7.9), where  $\sigma_j^i := \sigma_j - \sigma_i$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Partition the matrix given by (7.11)

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into four sub-matrices, and denote it with  $\begin{bmatrix} A_i & \Phi_1 \\ \Phi_2 & \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha} \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $A_i \in \Re^{(n-1)\times(n-1)}$ ,  $\Phi_1 \in \Re^{(n-1)\times 1}$ , and  $\Phi_2 \in \Re^{1\times(n-1)}$ . Since the matrix  $A_i$  is nonsingular (because it is

assumed that  $\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_n$  are distinct), one can write:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} A_i & \Phi_1 \\ \Phi_2 & \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \det(A_i) \times \det \left( \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha} - \Phi_2 A_i^{-1} \Phi_1 \right)$$
(7.12)

Thus, the rank of the matrix given in (7.11) is less than *n*, if and only if the scalar  $\Phi_2 A_i^{-1} \Phi_1$  is equal to  $\mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha}$ , i.e.:

$$\sum_{\mu=1,\ \mu\neq i}^{n} \frac{\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{\mu,\alpha} \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,\mu}}{\sigma_{\mu}^{i}} = \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha}$$
(7.13)

Define now the matrix  $M_i$  as:

$$M_i := \mathbf{C} \times \operatorname{diag}\left(\left[\frac{1}{\sigma_1 - \sigma_i}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sigma_{i-1} - \sigma_i}, 0, \frac{1}{\sigma_{i+1} - \sigma_i}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sigma_{\nu} - \sigma_i}\right]\right) \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{D} \quad (7.14)$$

and denote its  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  block entry with  $M_i^{\mu_1, \mu_2} \in \Re^{r_{\mu_1} \times m_{\mu_2}}$ , for any  $\mu_1, \mu_2 \in \bar{\nu}$ . Note that the expression of  $M_i$  resembles that of the transfer function matrix of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , while the sign of **D** is different in  $M_i$ .

**Theorem 2** The mode  $\sigma_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ ,  $v \ge 2$ , if and only if any of the following conditions holds:

- (i) The  $i^{th}$  row of the matrices  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2, \dots, \mathbf{B}_{\nu}$  are zero.
- ii) The  $i^{th}$  column of the matrices  $C_1, C_2, ..., C_v$  are zero.
- iii) There exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer  $p \in [1, v - 1]$  such that  $M_i^{\gamma, \eta}$  is a zero matrix for any  $\eta \in \{i_1, i_2, ..., i_p\}$  and  $\gamma \in \{i_{p+1}, i_{p+2}, ..., i_v\}$ , and moreover the  $i^{th}$  row of the matrices  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2, ..., \mathbf{B}_{i_p}$  and the  $i^{th}$  column of  $\mathbf{C}_{i_{p+1}}, \mathbf{C}_{i_{p+2}}, ..., \mathbf{C}_{i_v}$  are all zero.

**Proof** Criteria (i) and (ii) are equivalent to the uncontrollability and the unobservability, respectively. Furthermore, Criterion (iii) is resulted from Theorem 1, on noting that  $M_i^{\gamma,\eta}$  is a  $r_{\gamma} \times m_{\eta}$  matrix whose  $(\beta, \alpha)$  entry is equal to:

$$\sum_{\mu=1,\ \mu\neq i}^{n} \frac{\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{\mu,\alpha} \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,\mu}}{\sigma_{\mu} - \sigma_{i}} - \mathbf{d}_{\gamma\eta}^{\beta,\alpha}$$
(7.15)

for any  $\beta \in [1, r_{\gamma}], \alpha \in [1, m_{\eta}].$ 

It is desired now to construct a graph based on the matrix  $M_i$ . Consider a bipartite graph  $\mathscr{G}_i$  with v vertices 1, 2, ..., v in each of its vertex sets, namely set 1 and set 2. For any  $\mu_1, \mu_2 \in \bar{v}$ , connect vertex  $\mu_1$  of set 1 to vertex  $\mu_2$  of set 2 if the matrix  $M_i^{\mu_1,\mu_2}$  is a zero matrix. Then, mark vertex  $\mu_1$  of set 1 if the *i*<sup>th</sup> column of the matrix  $C_{\mu_1}$  is a zero vector, for any  $\mu_1 \in \bar{v}$ . Likewise, mark vertex  $\mu_2$  of set 2 if the *i*<sup>th</sup> row of the matrix  $B_{\mu_2}$  is a zero vector, for any  $\mu_2 \in \bar{v}$ .

The following algorithm results from Theorem 2 for verifying whether or not the mode  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ .

#### Algorithm 1

Step 1) Compute the matrix  $M_i$ , and construct the graph  $\mathcal{G}_i$  in terms of it, as pointed out earlier.

Step 2) Verify if all of the vertices in set 1 of the graph  $\mathcal{G}_i$  are marked. If yes, go to Step 6.

Step 3) Verify if all of the vertices in set 2 of the graph  $\mathcal{G}_i$  are marked. If yes, go to Step 6.

Step 4) Check whether the graph  $\mathscr{G}_i$  includes a complete bipartite subgraph such that all of its vertices are marked and moreover the set of the indices of its vertices is equal to the set  $\bar{v}$ . If yes, go to Step 6.

Step 5) The mode  $\sigma_i$  is not a DFM of the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . Stop the algorithm.

Step 6) The mode  $\sigma_i$  is a DFM of the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . Stop the algorithm.

Algorithm 1 proposes a simple graph-theoretic approach to find the DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . This method requires deriving a certain matrix, and then checking the existence of a complete subgraph in a graph, which can be accomplished using numerous efficient algorithms. In contrast, the existing methods require the rank of several matrices (say  $2^{\nu}$ ) to be checked, which can be cumbersome when the matrix is of high dimension. In fact, the above algorithm presents a simple combinatorial procedure as a more efficient alternative to find the DFMs of a system (with distinct modes).

**Corollary 1** Denote the number of matrices  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2, ..., \mathbf{B}_{\nu}$  whose  $i^{th}$  row are zero with  $\Gamma_i$ . Furthermore, denote the number of matrices  $\mathbf{C}_1, \mathbf{C}_2, ..., \mathbf{C}_{\nu}$  whose  $i^{th}$  column are zero with  $\bar{\Gamma}_i$ . If  $\Gamma_i + \bar{\Gamma}_i$  is less than  $\nu$ , then  $\sigma_i$  is not a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ .

**Proof** It is straightforward to show that if  $\Gamma_i + \overline{\Gamma}_i$  is less than v, none of Steps 1, 2 or 3 of Algorithm 1 is fulfilled.

Corollary 1 presents a quite simple test as a sufficient condition to verify whether  $\sigma_i$  can be a DFM of the system or not.

### 7.5 Characterization of quotient fixed modes

It is desired now to present a graph-theoretic approach to obtain the QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , similar to the one introduced for the DFMs in the preceding section. Since QFM is merely defined for the strictly proper systems, it will be assumed hereafter that  $D = \mathbf{D} = 0$ .

**Theorem 3** The mode  $\sigma_i$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ ,  $v \ge 2$  if and only if either condition (a) or condition (b) given below holds:

- a)  $\sigma_i$  is an uncontrollable or unobservable mode.
- b) There exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer  $p \in [1, v 1]$  such that for all  $\eta$  and  $\gamma$  given by:

$$\eta \in \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p\}, \ \gamma \in \{i_{p+1}, i_{p+2}, \dots, i_\nu\}$$
(7.16)

both of the conditions given below hold:

- i) The  $i^{th}$  column of the matrix  $C_{\gamma}$  and the  $i^{th}$  row of the matrix  $B_{\eta}$  are both zero vectors.
- *ii)* Consider the  $j^{th}$  column of the matrix  $\mathbb{C}_{\gamma}$  and the  $j^{th}$  row of the matrix  $\mathbb{B}_{\eta}$ ; at least one of these two vectors is zero, for any  $j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ .

**Proof** It is trivial to show that if condition (a) in Theorem 3 holds, the mode  $\sigma_i$  will be a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . If it does not hold, then it follows directly from Theorems 1 and 2 given in [3], that  $\sigma_i$  is a QFM if and only if there exist a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v\}$  denoted by distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_v$  and an integer  $p \in [1, v - 1]$  such that  $\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{i,\alpha} = \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,i} = 0$ , and  $\mathbf{b}_{\eta}^{\mu,\alpha} \mathbf{c}_{\gamma}^{\beta,\mu} = 0$  for all  $\eta, \gamma, \alpha$  and  $\beta$  given by (7.9) and  $\mu \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . It is straightforward to show that this requirement is identical to condition (b) in the theorem.

Consider a bipartite graph  $\overline{\mathscr{G}}_i$  with v vertices 1, 2, ..., v in each of its vertex sets, namely set 1 and set 2. For any  $\mu_1, \mu_2 \in \overline{v}$ , connect vertex  $\mu_1$  of set 1 to vertex  $\mu_2$  of set 2 if either the  $j^{\text{th}}$  column of  $\mathbf{C}_{\mu_1}$  or the  $j^{\text{th}}$  row of  $\mathbf{B}_{\mu_2}$  is a zero vector for all  $j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Then, mark vertex  $\mu_1$  of set 1 if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  column of the matrix  $\mathbf{C}_{\mu_1}$  is a zero vector, for any  $\mu_1 \in \overline{v}$ . Likewise, mark vertex  $\mu_2$  of set 2 if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of the matrix  $\mathbf{B}_{\mu_2}$  is a zero vector, for any  $\mu_2 \in \overline{v}$ . It is worth noting that the graphs  $\overline{\mathscr{G}}_1, \overline{\mathscr{G}}_2, ..., \overline{\mathscr{G}}_v$  have the same edges, although the marking of their vertices might be different.

The following algorithm results from Theorem 3 for verifying whether or not the mode  $\sigma_i$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ .

#### Algorithm 2

Step 1) Construct the graph  $\overline{\mathscr{G}}_i$ , as discussed above.

Step 2) Verify if all of the vertices in set 1 of the graph  $\mathcal{G}_i$  are marked. If yes, go to Step 6.

Step 3) Verify if all of the vertices in set 2 of the graph  $\mathcal{G}_i$  are marked. If yes, go to Step 6.

Step 4) Check whether the graph  $\bar{\mathscr{G}}_i$  includes a complete bipartite subgraph such that all of its vertices are marked and the set of the indices of its vertices is equal to the set  $\bar{v}$ . If yes, go to Step 6.

Step 5) The mode  $\sigma_i$  is not a QFM of the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . Stop the algorithm.

Step 6) The mode  $\sigma_i$  is a QFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . Stop the algorithm.

# 7.6 Illustrative examples

**Example 1** Consider a system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of five single-input single-output (SISO) subsystems with the following state-space matrices:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & 2 & -1 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & -3 & -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 & 14 & 3 & 2 \\ 6 & 7 & 19 & 4 & 2 \\ 8 & 7 & 16 & -2 & -4 \\ 4 & 5 & 13 & 0 & 1 \\ -4 & -5 & -14 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(7.17)$$

It is desired to verify which of the modes  $\sigma_i = i$ ,  $i \in \bar{v} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , are DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . First, let the test given in Corollary 1 be carried out. Since the first entries of  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2, \mathbf{B}_3, \mathbf{C}_1, \mathbf{C}_2, \mathbf{C}_4$  and  $\mathbf{C}_5$  are all zero,  $\Gamma_1 + \bar{\Gamma}_1$  is equal to 7. Similarly, one can conclude that:

$$\Gamma_2 + \bar{\Gamma}_2 = 0, \ \Gamma_3 + \bar{\Gamma}_3 = 1, \ \Gamma_4 + \bar{\Gamma}_4 = 3, \ \Gamma_5 + \bar{\Gamma}_5 = 3$$
 (7.18)

Due to the fact that  $\Gamma_i + \overline{\Gamma}_i < 5$  for i = 2, 3, 4, 5, it follows from Corollary 1 that none of the modes 2,3,4 and 5 is a DFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . Algorithm 1 will now be used to find out

whether  $\sigma_1 = 1$  is a DFM. The matrix  $M_1$  will be obtained as:

$$M_{1} = \mathbf{C} \times \operatorname{diag}\left(\left[0, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}\right]\right) \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 13 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3.75 & 18.25 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7.5 & 28.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2.75 & 12.75 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2.5 & -14.5 \end{bmatrix}$$
(7.19)

The graph  $\mathscr{G}_1$  corresponding to the matrix  $M_1$  is sketched in Figure 7.3. Since the first entries of  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2, \mathbf{B}_3, \mathbf{C}_1, \mathbf{C}_2, \mathbf{C}_4$  and  $\mathbf{C}_5$  are all zero, vertices 1, 2 and 3 from set 2, and vertices 1, 2, 4 and 5 from set 1 of the graph  $\mathscr{G}_1$  are marked by filled circles, as shown in the figure. It can be easily observed that vertices 4, 5 of set 1 and vertices 1, 2, 3 of set 2 fulfill the following criteria:

- All of them are marked.
- They constitute a complete bipartite graph.
- The set of their labels is equal to  $\bar{v}$ .

Therefore,  $\sigma_1 = 1$  is a DFM of the system (from Step 4 of Algorithm 2).

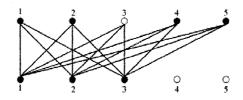


Figure 7.3: The graph  $\mathcal{G}_1$  corresponding to the matrix  $M_1$  given in (7.19).

Regarding the mode  $\sigma_3 = 3$ , let Algorithm 2 be pursued for this mode regardless of the observation that it failed the test given in Corollary 1. The matrix  $M_3$  is equal to:

$$M_{3} = \mathbf{C} \times \operatorname{diag}\left(\left[-1, 0, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}\right]\right) \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{D} = \begin{vmatrix} -12 & -8 & -20 & 0 & -19 \\ -12 & -10 & -22 & -8.5 & -19 \\ -16 & -11 & -34 & 1.5 & -13 \\ -8 & -7 & -16 & 2.5 & -13 \\ 8 & 7 & 14 & -3 & 14 \end{vmatrix}$$
(7.20)

The corresponding graph  $\mathscr{G}_3$  is depicted in Figure 7.4. Since there are not enough edges in the graph to create a complete bipartite subgraph which spans all the indices, thus  $\sigma_3 = 3$  is not a DFM of the system (which also confirms the result obtained from Corollary 1).

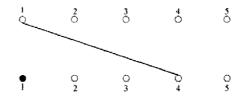


Figure 7.4: The graph  $\mathscr{G}_3$  corresponding to the matrix  $M_3$  given in (7.20).

Consequently, the system has only one DFM at 1. This result could also be obtained by using the method given in [2] or [15], which require the rank of  $5 \times 2^5$  matrices with the dimensions between 5 and 10 be checked. The sizable difference between the computational requirements of the method presented in this chapter and the ones given in [2, 15] demonstrates the efficacy of this work. It is worth mentioning that the results obtained here by using the proposed method are attained by hand, while the methods given in [2, 15] require a proper software (such as MATLAB).

Example 2 Consider a strictly proper system  $\mathscr S$  consisting of three two-input two-output

(SISO) subsystems with the following parameters:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{C}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{C}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{C}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$
(7.21)

The graphs  $\bar{\mathscr{G}}_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  and  $\bar{\mathscr{G}}_3$  are depicted in Figures 7.5, 7.6 and 7.7. Using Algorithm 2, it can be concluded that  $\lambda = 2$  is a QFM of the system, as step 4 will be satisfied by considering vertices 2 and 3 from set 1, and vertex 1 from set 2. Likewise, the mode  $\lambda = 3$  is a QFM by considering either vertices 2 and 3 from set 1, and vertex 1 from set 2 or vertex 3 from set 1, and vertices 1 and 2 from set 2. It can be easily verified that none of the remaining modes are QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ .

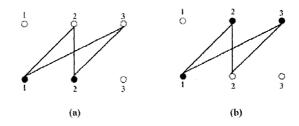


Figure 7.5: The graphs  $\bar{\mathscr{G}}_1$  and  $\bar{\mathscr{G}}_2$  are sketched in (a) and (b), respectively.

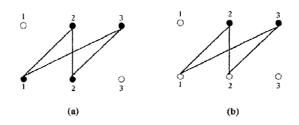


Figure 7.6: The graphs  $\overline{\mathscr{G}}_3$  and  $\overline{\mathscr{G}}_4$  are sketched in (a) and (b), respectively.

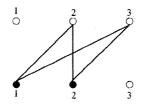


Figure 7.7: The graphs  $\overline{\mathscr{G}}_5$ .

# 7.7 Conclusions

This chapter aims to characterize the fixed modes of a decentralized system with distinct modes. First, decentralized fixed modes (DFM) are described using graph-theoretic techniques. Then, quotient fixed modes (QFM), which are immovable with respect to any type of decentralized control law, are characterized. Unlike the existing methods which require the computation of the rank of several matrices, the approaches proposed here transform the knowledge of the system into bipartite graphs. Then, it is asserted that finding a complete bipartite subgraph with a certain property is equivalent to the existence of a DFM. A similar result is attained for the QFMs. The efficacy of the proposed method is demonstrated through numerical examples.

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# Chapter 8

# **Decentralized Overlapping Control: Stabilizability and Pole-Placement**

# 8.1 Abstract

This chapter deals with the control of the large-scale interconnected systems with a constrained control structure. It is shown that ceratin modes of the system can be freely placed anywhere on the complex plane, by using a linear time-invariant (LTI) structurally constrained controller. These modes have been identified by introducing the notion of decentralized overlapping fixed mode (DOFM). This implies that the system is stabilizable by a LTI structurally constrained controller, if and only if it does not have any unstable DOFM. Furthermore, a design procedure is proposed for obtaining a stabilizing controller to achieve the desired pole placement for the systems with no DOFM. In addition, the problem of designing a structurally constrained optimal LTI controller with respect to a quadratic performance index is studied. Designing various types of structurally constrained controllers, such as periodic feedback, is then investigated. The notion of quotient overlapping fixed mode (QOFM) is also introduced, and it is shown that a system is stabilizable by mean of a general controller, i.e. nonlinear and time-varying, if and

only if it does not have any unstable QOFM. In the case of no unstable QOFM, it is proved that there exists a finite-dimensional linear time-varying structurally constrained controller to stabilize the system.

# 8.2 Introduction

In the past three decades, the problem of decentralized control has been thoroughly investigated in the literature, and a variety of its aspects are studied [1, 2, 3]. More recently, the problem of decentralized overlapping control has attracted several researchers [4, 5]. The decentralized overlapping control is fundamentally used in two cases:

- i) when the subsystems of a system (referred to as overlapping subsystems) share some states [6, 7, 8]. In this case, it is usually desired that the structure of the controller matches the overlapping structure of the system [8];
- ii) when there are some limitations on the availability of the states. In this case, only certain outputs of the system are available for constructing each control signal.

The control constraint in both cases discussed above can be represented by a binary information flow matrix. For instance, when this matrix is block diagonal with the entries of the main diagonal blocks all equal to 1, the control structure is decentralized, and when all of its entries are 1, the controller is centralized. One particular structural constraint for the controller, which is investigated intensively in the literature, corresponds to an information flow matrix whose entries on the main diagonal blocks, as well as the last block column and the last block row are all equal to 1. This is often referred to as bordered block-diagonal structure (BBD) or block array structure (BAS), and has found several practical applications [8, 9, 10]. In general, for an interconnected system with a given information flow matrix, the following open questions are of main interest in the literature:

- 1. Does there exist a stabilizing static output feedback controller for the system?
- 2. Does there exist a linear time-invariant (LTI) controller to stabilize the system, if there is no static one?
- 3. How can a static or dynamic LTI controller be found such that a predefined quadratic performance index is minimized?
- 4. Can the poles of the system be placed at any arbitrary locations, when there exists a LTI stabilizing controller for the system?
- 5. Can the system be stabilized by a non-LTI controller when a LTI stabilizing controller does not exist?

The first three questions have been addressed in the literature in the decentralized overlapping control framework. This is accomplished by using a transformation which expands the structure of the system such that the resultant control configuration is decentralized. Then, by using the existing design techniques, the desired decentralized controller is obtained for the expanded system. The last step of the design is to contract the controller obtained in order to make it suitable for the original system. This approach is substantially useful, when the structure of the system itself is overlapping as well because in that case, the subsystems of the expanded system are disjoint [11]. Nevertheless, one of the shortcomings of this method is that the expanded system is inherently uncontrollable, and thus, this design approach may not be useful in general. This problem has been addressed in several papers, e.g. see [8], [4]. Furthermore, the contraction of the designed controller can cause some problems in general. Although a large number of conditions for contraction are presented, finding a proper contraction is still an open problem [8]. In addition, it is often assumed that a static state feedback controller (as opposed to a general output feedback controller) is to be designed, which may not be suitable in practical applications. In the special case of a BAS control design, a number of methods have been proposed in the literature, including an optimal control design technique [9, 10]. The other existing methods for designing a BAS or an overlapping (or structurally constrained) controller often present some sufficient conditions in the form of LMI, and fail to address some of the important questions discussed above [8, 12, 13]. Furthermore, these methods assume that the system is strictly proper, while the generalization of the methods to general proper systems is not straightforward. The present work addresses the problem of designing a structurally constrained controller, and is aimed to answer the open questions discussed above, for any LTI system with any arbitrary information flow structure.

# 8.3 **Problem formulation**

Consider a LTI interconnected system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of v subsystems with the following statespace representation:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} B_i u_i(t)$$
  

$$y_i(t) = C_i x(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} D_{ij} u_j(t), \quad i \in \bar{\nu} := \{1, 2, ..., \nu\}$$
(8.1)

where  $x(t) \in \Re^n$  is the state, and  $u_i(t) \in \Re^{m_i}$  and  $y_i(t) \in \Re^{r_i}$ ,  $i \in \overline{v}$ , are the input and the output of the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsystem  $S_i$ , respectively. Define the following matrices:

$$B := \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 & \cdots & B_{\nu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad C := \begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \\ \vdots \\ C_{\nu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad D := \begin{bmatrix} D_{11} & \cdots & D_{1\nu} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ D_{\nu 1} & \cdots & D_{\nu \nu} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.2)

Define also:

$$m := \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} m_i, \quad r := \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} r_i$$
 (8.3)

It is desired to stabilize the system  $\mathscr{S}$  by using a structurally constrained controller. These constraints determine which outputs  $y_j$  ( $j \in \bar{v}$ ) are available to construct any specific input  $u_i$  ( $i \in \bar{v}$ ) of the system. In order to simplify the formulation of the control constraint, a matrix

 $\mathcal{K}$  with binary elements is defined, where its (i, j) block entry,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ , is a  $m_i \times r_j$  matrix whose elements are all equal to 1 if the output  $y_j$  can contribute to the construction of the input  $u_i$ , and is a  $m_i \times r_j$  zero matrix otherwise. The matrix  $\mathcal{K}$  represents the control constraint, and will be referred to as the information flow matrix.

To represent the structural constraint of the system, the corresponding information flow matrix is enclosed in parentheses throughout the chapter, if necessary. For instance,  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  indicates that the structure of the controller to be designed for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is to comply with the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ .

In the special case, when the entries of the matrix  $\mathcal{K}$  are all equal to 1, the corresponding controller is centralized, and when  $\mathcal{K}$  is block diagonal, the corresponding controller is decentralized. Throughout this chapter, the term "decentralized controller" is referred to the set of local controllers for an interconnected system with a block diagonal information flow matrix.

It is to be noted that in the case of a block diagonal matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ , one can use the existing methods, e.g. [2], to find the decentralized fixed modes (DFM) of the system, if any. Then, if the system does not have any DFM in the closed right-half plane (RHP), one can use a LTI decentralized controller to stabilize it and place those modes which are not fixed, in any arbitrary location in the complex plane. Furthermore, the system can still be stabilized in the presence of unstable DFMs, as long as they are not quotient fixed modes (QFM) [3]. A system with unstable QFMs cannot be stabilized by using any type of controller, i.e., nonlinear and time-varying. However, there is no necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a general stabilizing controller, when  $\mathscr{K}$  is not block diagonal. This problem will be addressed in the following sections. It is to be noted that to avoid trivial cases (i.e., standard decentralized and centralized systems), the matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  will hereafter be assumed not to be block diagonal, and to have at least one zero block.

# **8.4** Computing the transformation matrices

**Definition 1** Consider two arbitrary systems  $\mathscr{L}_{d_1}$  and  $\mathscr{L}_{d_2}$  associated with the information flow matrices  $\mathscr{K}_{d_1}$  and  $\mathscr{K}_{d_2}$ , where  $\mathscr{L}_{d_1}$  and  $\mathscr{L}_{d_2}$  are of the same order and have the same initial state. Let **M** denote a given set of controllers. The systems  $\mathscr{L}_{d_1}(\mathscr{K}_{d_1})$  and  $\mathscr{L}_{d_2}(\mathscr{K}_{d_2})$  are called analogous with respect to **M** if for any controller  $K_{d_1}$  in **M** complying with the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}_{d_1}$ , there also exists a controller  $K_{d_2}$  in **M** complying with the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}_{d_2}$  (and vice versa), such that the state of the system  $\mathscr{L}_{d_1}$  under the controller  $K_{d_1}$  is equivalent to the state of  $\mathscr{L}_{d_2}$  under  $K_{d_2}$ .

The motivation for introducing the notion of analogous systems is that given a system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  with any general information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}$ , it is desired to find an analogous system with a decentralized (i.e. block diagonal) information flow structure. It is to be noted there are several efficient methods for design of decentralized controllers. Thus, the problem reduces to designing a proper decentralized controller, and finding a transformation to change the block-diagonal structure of the controller to the desired structure for the original system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ . This is an indirect method of design, which unlike the existing indirect approaches aims to identify the fixed modes with respect to a structurally constrained controller. This section presents some transformation matrices which will later be used to construct systems *analogous* to the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ .

Define the control *interaction* structure **K** as a matrix whose (i, j) block entry,  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ , is a  $m_i \times r_j$  matrix denote by  $k_{ij}$  if the output of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  subsystem can contribute to the construction of the input of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem, and is a  $m_i \times r_j$  zero matrix otherwise. Note that  $k_{ij}$  represents a component of the controller, which transforms the output of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  subsystem to the input of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subsystem. Note also that the interaction structure matrix **K** not only conveys the information of the matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ , but also labels the control components.

**Procedure 1** Construct the graph *G* as follows:

- Define two sets of v vertices. Label the sets as set 1 and set 2, and the vertices in each set as vertex 1 to vertex v.
- 2. For any  $i, j \in \bar{v}$ , connect the  $i^{th}$  vertex of set 1 to the  $j^{th}$  vertex of set 2 with an edge, if the (i, j) block entry of  $\mathcal{K}$  is not a zero matrix, i.e., if the output of the  $j^{th}$  subsystem can contribute to the construction of the input of the  $i^{th}$  subsystem. Label this edge with  $k_{ij}$ .

As an example, consider a system consisting of four subsystems with the following control interaction structure matrix:

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ k_{21} & k_{22} & 0 & k_{24} \\ k_{31} & 0 & k_{33} & 0 \\ 0 & k_{42} & 0 & k_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.4)

The graph  $\mathscr{G}$  corresponding to the matrix **K** given above is depicted in Figure 8.1.

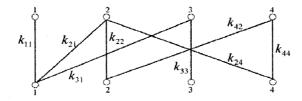


Figure 8.1: The graph  $\mathscr{G}$  corresponding to the matrix **K** given by (8.4).

**Procedure 2** Partition the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  into a set of complete bipartite subgraphs such that each <u>edge</u> of the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  appears in only one of the subgraphs. It is to be noted that this partition may require some of the <u>vertices</u> of the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  to appear in several subgraphs.

It can be easily verified that Procedure 2 does not necessarily lead to a unique graph. Denote all the graphs which can be obtained through this procedure, with  $\mathscr{G}_1, \mathscr{G}_2, ..., \mathscr{G}_l$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $\mathscr{G}_1$  and  $\mathscr{G}_l$  are the ones with the following properties:

- $\mathscr{G}_1$  is obtained by considering any vertex in set 1 of the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  along with all of the vertices in set 2 connected to that vertex as a complete bipartite graph.
- $\mathscr{G}_l$  is obtained by considering any edge in the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  as a complete bipartite graph.

As an example, consider again the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  sketched in Figure 8.1. The graph  $\mathscr{G}_2$  for this graph can be considered as the one depicted in Figure 8.2 (note that this graph is denoted by  $\mathscr{G}_2$  instead of  $\mathscr{G}_1$ , because it does not satisfy the property of  $\mathscr{G}_1$  described above). It is obvious from Figure 8.2 that, in this particular example, vertices 2 and 3 of the first set of vertices of  $\mathscr{G}$  are repeated twice in  $\mathscr{G}_2$ .

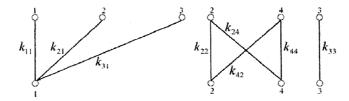


Figure 8.2: A decentralized graph  $\mathscr{G}_2$  obtained from the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  in Figure 8.1.

The following procedure can be used to construct the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  corresponding to the graph  $\mathscr{G}_{\mu}$  for any  $\mu \in \overline{l} := \{1, 2, ..., l\}$ .

**Procedure 3** Label the complete bipartite subgraphs of  $\mathscr{G}_{\mu}$  ( $\mu \in \overline{l}$ ) as subgraphs 1 to  $\nu_{\mu}$ . Consider subgraph number  $\sigma$  ( $\forall \sigma \in \{1, 2, ..., \nu_{\mu}\}$ ). Label those vertices of this subgraph which belong to set 1 as vertex  $1, ..., \eta_{\sigma}^{\mu}$ . This group of vertices will be referred to as subset 1 (corresponding to subgraph number  $\sigma$ ). Similarly, label those vertices which belong to set 2 of this subgraph as vertex  $1, ..., \overline{\eta}_{\sigma}^{\mu}$ , and define subset 2 accordingly. Define  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  as a block diagonal matrix, where its ( $\sigma, \sigma$ ) block entry,  $\sigma = 1, ..., \nu_{\mu}$ , is a matrix itself, whose (*i*, *j*) block entry is equal to the gain of the edge connecting vertex *i* of subset 1 to vertex *j* of subset 2 in subgraph number  $\sigma$  of  $\mathscr{G}_{\mu}$ , for any  $i \in \{1, ..., \eta_{\sigma}^{\mu}\}$ ,  $j \in \{1, ..., \overline{\eta}_{\sigma}^{\mu}\}$ . Denote the dimension of the ( $\sigma, \sigma$ ) block entry of  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  with  $m_{\sigma}^{\mu} \times r_{\sigma}^{\mu}$ , for  $\sigma = 1, 2, ..., \nu_{\mu}$ , and the dimension of  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$ with  $m^{\mu} \times r^{\mu}$ . Using Procedure 3 and for a particular numbering of vertices in each subgraph of  $\mathscr{G}_2$  in Figure 8.2, the following block diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{K}_2$  is obtained:

$$\mathbf{K}_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} k_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ k_{21} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ k_{31} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & k_{22} & k_{24} & 0 \\ 0 & k_{42} & k_{44} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & k_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$
(8.5)

**Remark 1** It can be easily concluded from Procedures 1, 2 and 3, that there exists an onto mapping between the nonzero block entries of the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  and those of the matrix  $\mathbf{K}$  for any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ .

**Theorem 1** There exist constant matrices  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  satisfying the following relation:

$$\mathbf{K} = \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \mathbf{K}_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \bar{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \tag{8.6}$$

for any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ .

**Proof** It is straightforward to show (by using Procedures 1, 2 and 3) that the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  can alternatively be constructed from **K** through a sequence of  $L_{\mu} - 1$  operations (where  $L_{\mu}$  is a finite number), such that the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{j+1}^{\mu}$  is formed in terms of  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  in the *j*<sup>th</sup> operation, for any  $j \in \{1, 2, ..., L_{\mu} - 1\}$ , where  $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{K}_{1}^{\mu}$  and  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu} = \mathbf{K}_{L_{\mu}}^{\mu}$ . Moreover,  $\mathbf{K}_{j+1}^{\mu}$  is obtained from  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  for any  $j \in \{1, 2, ..., L_{\mu} - 1\}$ , by one of the following two operations:

- 1. Swapping either two columns or two rows of the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$ .
- 2. Splitting one of the rows (or columns) of  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  denoted by v, into two row vectors  $v_{1}$  and  $v_{2}$ , i.e.,  $v = [v_{1} \ v_{2}]$  (or  $v = [v_{1} \ v_{2}]'$ ). Then, replacing that row (or column) with  $[v_{1} \ 0]$  (or  $[v_{1} \ 0]'$ ), where 0 represents a zero row vector, and inserting another row (or column) equal to  $v = [0 \ v_{2}]$  (or  $v = [0 \ v_{2}]'$ ) into the matrix.

It is desired now to prove for any  $j \in \{1, ..., L_{\mu} - 1\}$ , that there exist matrices  $\Phi_j^{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_j^{\mu}$  such that  $\mathbf{K}_j^{\mu} = \Phi_j^{\mu} \mathbf{K}_{j+1}^{\mu} \bar{\Phi}_j^{\mu}$ .

- 1. Assume that  $\mathbf{K}_{j+1}^{\mu}$  is derived from  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  by swapping its  $g^{\text{th}}$  and  $q^{\text{th}}$  columns. It is straightforward to show in this case, that the matrices  $\Phi_{j}^{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{j}^{\mu}$  will be as follows:
  - (a)  $\Phi_{i}^{\mu}$  is an identity matrix, whose dimension is equal to the number of rows of  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$ .
  - (b)  $\bar{\Phi}_{j}^{\mu}$  is derived from an identity matrix, whose dimension is equal to the number of columns of  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$ , by setting the (g,g) and (q,q) entries of this identity matrix to zero, and setting its (g,q) and (q,g) entries to one.

It is to be noted that if two rows of  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  instead of two columns are swapped, then the procedures to obtain the matrices  $\Phi_{j}^{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{j}^{\mu}$  should also be swapped.

2. Assume that one of the columns of the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  is split into two columns as described before (note that the case of row split can be carried out in a similar manner). For instance, suppose that  $\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu}$  is as follows:

$$\mathbf{K}_{j}^{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} M_{1} & m_{2} & M_{3} \\ M_{4} & m_{5} & M_{6} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.7)

where:

$$M_1 \in \mathfrak{R}^{g_1 \times q_1}, \ m_2 \in \mathfrak{R}^{g_1 \times 1}, \ M_3 \in \mathfrak{R}^{g_1 \times q_2},$$
  
$$M_4 \in \mathfrak{R}^{g_2 \times q_1}, \ m_5 \in \mathfrak{R}^{g_2 \times 1}, \ M_6 \in \mathfrak{R}^{g_2 \times q_2},$$
  
(8.8)

In addition, consider:

$$\mathbf{K}_{j+1}^{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} M_1 & m_2 & 0_{g_1 \times 1} & M_3 \\ M_4 & 0_{g_2 \times 1} & m_5 & M_6 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.9)

It can be easily verified that  $\Phi_i^{\mu} = I_{g_1+g_2}$ , and:

$$\bar{\Phi}_{j}^{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{q_{1}} & 0_{q_{1} \times 1} & 0_{q_{1} \times q_{2}} \\ 0_{1 \times q_{1}} & 1 & 0_{1 \times q_{2}} \\ 0_{1 \times q_{1}} & 1 & 0_{1 \times q_{2}} \\ 0_{q_{2} \times q_{1}} & 0_{q_{2} \times 1} & I_{q_{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(8.10)$$

Note that  $0_{q \times g}$  and  $I_g$  represent the  $q \times g$  zero matrix and the  $g \times g$  identity matrix, respectively, for any  $g, q \ge 1$ .

Hence, it is shown that for each of the two operations discussed earlier, there exist the matrices  $\Phi_j^{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_j^{\mu}$ , which satisfy the aforementioned property. The matrices  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  can now be obtained from the following equations:

$$\Phi_{\mu} = \Phi_{1}^{\mu} \Phi_{2}^{\mu} \cdots \Phi_{(L_{\mu}-1)}^{\mu}, \quad \bar{\Phi}_{\mu} = \bar{\Phi}_{(L_{\mu}-1)}^{\mu} \bar{\Phi}_{(L_{\mu}-2)}^{\mu} \cdots \bar{\Phi}_{1}^{\mu}$$
(8.11)

Theorem 1 states that there exist matrices  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  for the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  ( $\mu \in \bar{l}$ ) derived from **K** using Procedures 1, 2 and 3, such that they satisfy the equation (8.6). However, since the proof of Theorem 1 relies on a sequence of matrices, the proposed procedure may not be efficient to compute  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  for an information flow matrix with a large number of block entries. The following theorem presents a more efficient approach to obtain  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$ .

**Theorem 2** Choose at least one nonzero block entry from each block column and each block row of  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$ ,  $\mu \in \bar{l}$ , and let them be denoted by  $k_{i_1j_1}$ ,  $k_{i_2j_2}$ , ...,  $k_{i_pj_p}$ . Suppose that  $k_{i_qj_q}$ , q = 1, 2, ..., p, is the  $(i'_q, j'_q)$  block entry of the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$ . Denote the  $h_1^{th}$  block column of  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and the  $h_2^{th}$  block row of  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  with  $\Pi_{h_1}$  and  $\bar{\Pi}_{h_2}$ , respectively, for  $h_1 = 1, 2, ..., m^{\mu}$ ,  $h_2 = 1, 2, ..., r^{\mu}$  (note that  $m^{\mu}$  and  $r^{\mu}$  are defined in procedure 3). Then:

$$\Pi_{i_{q}^{\prime}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{m_{1} \times m_{i_{q}}} \\ 0_{m_{2} \times m_{i_{q}}} \\ \vdots \\ 0_{m_{(i_{q}-1)} \times m_{i_{q}}} \\ I_{m_{i_{q}}} \\ 0_{m_{(i_{q}+1)} \times m_{i_{q}}} \\ \vdots \\ 0_{m_{V} \times m_{i_{q}}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\Pi}_{j_{q}^{\prime}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{r_{j_{q}} \times r_{1}} \\ 0_{r_{j_{q}} \times r_{(j_{q}-1)}} \\ I_{r_{j_{q}}} \\ 0_{r_{j_{q}} \times r_{(j_{q}+1)}} \\ \vdots \\ 0_{r_{j_{q}} \times r_{V}} \end{bmatrix}^{I}$$
(8.12)

for any  $q \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$ .

**Proof** It is shown in Theorem 1 that the matrices  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  exist to satisfy the equation (8.6). As a result, this equation holds for any arbitrary values for the block entries  $k_{\sigma_1\sigma_2}$ ,  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \bar{v}$ . Replace all block entries  $k_{\sigma_1\sigma_2}$ 's in the equation (8.6), except  $k_{i_qj_q}$ , with zero matrices. It can be concluded from (8.6) that:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{i_q j_q} = \prod_{i_a'} k_{i_q j_q} \bar{\Pi}_{j_a'} \tag{8.13}$$

where  $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{i_q j_q}$  is obtained from **K** by replacing all of its block entries with zero matrices, except for its  $(i_q, j_q)$  block entry  $k_{i_q j_q}$ . The proof follows immediately from the equation (8.13).

It is to be noted that the matrices  $\Phi_{\mu}$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  are uniquely determined. To illustrate the method proposed in Theorem 2, consider again the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_2$  given by (8.5), which is obtained from  $\mathbf{K}$  in (8.4), and assume that the subsystems of the original system are all singleinput single-output (SISO). As the first step in computing  $\Phi_2$  and  $\bar{\Phi}_2$ , choose some of the nonzero entries of  $\mathbf{K}_2$ , such that at least one entry from each column and each row of  $\mathbf{K}$  is included. Let these entries be  $k_{11}, k_{21}, k_{31}, k_{22}, k_{44}$ , and  $k_{33}$ . The position of these entries in the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_2$  are (1, 1), (2, 1), (3, 1), (4, 2), (5, 3), (6, 4), respectively. Using Theorem 2, one can obtain the matrices  $\Phi_2$  and  $\overline{\Phi}_2$  for this example, as follows:

$$\Phi_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\Phi}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.14)

It is very easy to verify that these matrices satisfy the relation (8.6).

## 8.5 Linear time-invariant control law

In this section, it is desired to find conditions for the existence of a stabilizing LTI controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ . Furthermore, a procedure is given to achieve pole placement using a LTI control law. Design of a structurally constrained linear-quadratic optimal controller is then studied.

#### 8.5.1 Pole placement

**Definition 2** Define  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$ ,  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ , as an interconnected system with the following state-space representation:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\mu}(t) = A\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t) + \mathbf{B}^{\mu}\mathbf{u}_{\mu}(t)$$
  
$$\mathbf{y}_{\mu}(t) = \mathbf{C}^{\mu}\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t) + \mathbf{D}^{\mu}\mathbf{u}_{\mu}(t)$$
 (8.15)

where the system parameters are related to the state-space matrices of the system S given by (8.1), as shown below:

$$\mathbf{B}^{\mu} = B\Phi_{\mu}, \quad \mathbf{C}^{\mu} = \bar{\Phi}_{\mu}C, \quad \mathbf{D}^{\mu} = \bar{\Phi}_{\mu}D\Phi_{\mu} \tag{8.16}$$

 $\mathbf{u}_{\mu}(t) \in \Re^{m^{\mu}}$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{\mu}(t) \in \Re^{r^{\mu}}$  are the input and the output of  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$ , respectively, and  $\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(0) = x(0)$ . For any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ , define the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$  for the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  as a matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  by replacing its nonzero block entry  $k_{ij}$ , with a  $m_i \times r_j$  matrix whose entries are all equal to one, for any  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ .

**Theorem 3** For any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ , the systems  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$  and  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  are analogous with respect to the set of all LTI controllers.

**Proof** Denote the transfer function matrix of any nonzero control component  $k_{ij}$  with  $K_{ij}(s)$ ,  $i, j \in \overline{v}$  (the dimension of  $K_{ij}(s)$  is the same as  $k_{ij}$  but the function itself is yet to be designed). Replace the block  $k_{ij}$  with  $K_{ij}(s)$  in the matrices **K** and **K**<sub>µ</sub> for any  $i, j \in \overline{v}$ , and denote the resultant control transfer function matrices with K(s) and  $K_{µ}(s)$ , respectively. It can be easily concluded from Theorem 1 that:

$$K(s) = \Phi_{\mu} K_{\mu}(s) \bar{\Phi}_{\mu} \tag{8.17}$$

Assume the control transfer function matrix K(s) is such that the matrix  $I_r - DK(s)$  is nonsingular. It is known that the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the controller K(s) satisfies the following equation:

$$X(s) = \left(sI_n - A - BK(s)\left(I_r - DK(s)\right)^{-1}C\right)^{-1}x(0)$$
(8.18)

On the other hand, it can be easily verified that  $I_{r^{\mu}} - \bar{\Phi}_{\mu} D \Phi_{\mu} K_{\mu}(s)$  is nonsingular due to the assumption det $(I_r - DK(s)) \neq 0$ . Similarly, the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  under the controller  $K_{\mu}(s)$  can be obtained as follows:

$$\mathbf{X}_{\mu}(s) = \left(sI_n - A - \mathbf{B}^{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\left(I_{r^{\mu}} - \mathbf{D}^{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\right)^{-1}\mathbf{C}^{\mu}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(0)$$
(8.19)

Furthermore, using the equations (8.16) and (8.17), one can write:

$$BK(s)(I_{r} - DK(s))^{-1}C = B\Phi_{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}\left(I_{r} - D\Phi_{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}\right)^{-1}C$$
  
=  $B\Phi_{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\left(I_{r^{\mu}} - \bar{\Phi}_{\mu}D\Phi_{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\right)^{-1}\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}C$  (8.20)  
=  $B^{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\left(I_{r^{\mu}} - D^{\mu}K_{\mu}(s)\right)^{-1}C^{\mu}$ 

The proof follows from the relations (8.18), (8.19), and (8.20).

**Corollary 1** For any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ , the systems  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$  and  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  are analogous with respect to the set of all continuous-time static controllers.

**Remark 2** It can be easily concluded from Theorem 3 and Corollary 1 that all of the systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K}), \mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), \mathscr{S}_2(\mathscr{K}_2), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$  are analogous with respect to the set of continuoustime dynamic LTI controllers, as well as the set of continuous-time static controllers. As a result, in order to design a continuous-time dynamic (or static) LTI controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  with respect to the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}$  to achieve any design objective (such as pole placement), one can equivalently design a continuous-time LTI controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}, \mu \in \overline{l}$ , with respect to the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$ , to attain the same objective. The mapping between the components of  $\mathbf{K}$  and  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  (derived from the equation (8.6)) can then be used to find the corresponding controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ . The important advantage of this indirect design procedure is that the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$  is block diagonal, and hence the problem is converted to the conventional decentralized control design problem, which can be handled by the existing methods [2, 14].

The question arises now as which of the systems  $\mathscr{S}_1, \mathscr{S}_2, ..., \mathscr{S}_l$  is more appropriate to be employed for the aforementioned control design procedure. It is to be noted that all of these systems are *analogous*, and hence possess similar characteristics in terms of output performance. However, a smart choice of system here is of crucial importance in terms of simplifying the control design problem. This will be discussed in detail later.

Partition now the matrices  $\mathbf{B}^{\mu}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}^{\mu}$  and  $\mathbf{D}^{\mu}$ ,  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ , as follows:

$$\mathbf{B}^{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{1}^{\mu} & \mathbf{B}_{2}^{\mu} & \cdots & \mathbf{B}_{\nu\mu}^{\mu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{C}^{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{1}^{\mu} \\ \mathbf{C}_{2}^{\mu} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{\nu\mu}^{\mu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{D}^{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}_{1,1}^{\mu} & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_{1,\nu\mu}^{\mu} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{D}_{\nu\mu,1}^{\mu} & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_{\nu\mu,\nu\mu}^{\mu} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.21)

where:

$$\mathbf{B}_{i}^{\mu} \in \mathfrak{R}^{m_{i}^{\mu}}, \quad \mathbf{C}_{i}^{\mu} \in \mathfrak{R}^{r_{i}^{\mu}}, \quad \mathbf{D}_{ij}^{\mu} \in \mathfrak{R}^{r_{i}^{\mu} \times m_{j}^{\mu}}$$
(8.22)

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for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., v_{\mu}\}$ . It is to be noted that  $m_i^{\mu}$  and  $r_i^{\mu}$  are defined in Procedure 3.

**Theorem 4** Consider an arbitrary region  $\mathscr{R}$  in the complex plane. There exists a LTI controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  to place all modes of the resultant closed-loop system inside the region  $\mathscr{R}$ , except for those modes which are DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  with respect to  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$ ,  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ .

**Proof** As pointed out in Remark 2, the systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$  are equivalent in terms of pole placement capabilities. On the other hand, it results from the definition of DFM [1] that all of the modes of the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$  except for its DFMs can be placed arbitrarily by using a proper LTI controller. This completes the proof.

**Definition 3** Define decentralized overlapping fixed modes (DOFM) of  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  as those modes of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  which are fixed with respect to any dynamic LTI controller with the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}$ .

Theorem 4 states that the DOFMs of  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and the DFMs of  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu}), \forall \mu \in \overline{l}$ are the same. Hence, the DOFMs of  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  can be obtained from any of the systems  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$ . The following procedure is used to determines the DOFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  from the DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu}), \mu \in \overline{l}$ .

**Procedure 4** Consider any arbitrary g belonging to  $\overline{l}$ . Let sp(A) denote the set of eigenvalues of A.  $\lambda \in sp(A)$  is a DOFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  with respect to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ , if there exists a permutation of  $\{1, 2, ..., v_{\mu}\}$  denoted by the distinct integers  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_{\nu_{\mu}}$ , such that the rank of the matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A - \lambda I_n & \mathbf{B}_{i_1}^{\mu} & \mathbf{B}_{i_2}^{\mu} & \dots & \mathbf{B}_{i_q}^{\mu} \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_{q+1}}^{\mu} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{q+1},i_1}^{\mu} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{q+1},i_2}^{\mu} & \dots & \mathbf{D}_{i_{q+1},i_q}^{\mu} \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_{q+2}}^{\mu} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{q+2},i_1}^{\mu} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{q+2},i_2}^{\mu} & \dots & \mathbf{D}_{i_{q+2},i_q}^{\mu} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_{\nu\mu}}^{\mu} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{\nu\mu},i_1}^{\mu} & \mathbf{D}_{i_{\nu\mu},i_2}^{\mu} & \dots & \mathbf{D}_{i_{\nu\mu},i_q}^{\mu} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.23)

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is less than n for some  $\mu \in \{0, 1, ..., v_{\mu}\}$ .

**Remark 3** According to Procedure 4, the rank of a set of matrices given in (8.23) should be checked to find out if any of the eigenvalues of the matrix A is a DOFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ . It can be easily verified that the number of these matrices grows exponentially by  $v_{\mu}$  (the number of complete bipartite subgraphs of  $\mathscr{G}_{\mu}$ ). Therefore, in order to reduce the required computations, it is rather desirable to choose the graph  $\mathscr{G}_{\mu}$  from the set of graphs  $\{\mathscr{G}_1, ..., \mathscr{G}_l\}$ , such that it has the minimum number of complete bipartite subgraphs. Moreover, if there is more than one such candidate, the one with fewer number of vertices is more preferable.

**Corollary 2** The system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  is stabilizable by means of a dynamic LTI controller if and only if it does not have any DOFM in the closed right-half plane with respect to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ .

**Proof** The proof follows immediately from Theorem 4.

The following theorem presents a method to characterize the DOFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  in terms of the transmission zeros of a set of systems.

**Theorem 5**  $\lambda \in sp(A)$  is a DOFM of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  if and only if it is a transmission zero of the following system:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = A\mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{i_1}^l & \mathbf{B}_{i_2}^l & \cdots & \mathbf{B}_{i_q}^l \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{i_1}^l \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_2}^l \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{C}_{i_q}^l \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{D}_{i_1i_2}^l & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_{i_1i_q}^l \\ \mathbf{D}_{i_2i_1}^l & 0 & \cdots & \mathbf{D}_{i_2i_q}^l \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{D}_{i_qi_1}^l & \mathbf{D}_{i_qi_2}^l & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(t)$$
(8.24)

for any  $q \in \{1, ..., v_l\}$  and any arbitrary subset  $\{i_1, i_2, ..., i_q\}$  of  $\{1, 2, ..., v_l\}$ .

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**Proof** It was shown earlier that the DOFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  are the same as the DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$ . Furthermore, since the matrix  $\mathscr{K}_l$  is diagonal (because the graph  $\mathscr{G}_l$  is composed of some disjoint edges), it results from [2] that the DFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$  are the same as the common transmission zeros of the systems given by (8.24). This completes the proof.

**Remark 4** The results of Theorem 5 are obtained in [2] for the particular case when the information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$  is block diagonal. Furthermore, the system given by (8.24) is constructed by using Kronecker product in [2], while it is formed by means of graph theory in this chapter. Therefore, Theorem 5 presents the results for the most general information flow structure compared to the ones given in [2].

#### 8.5.2 Optimal LTI controller

Assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is stabilizable with respect to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  by means of a dynamic LTI controller. It is desired to find a LTI controller with the zero initial state and the transfer function matrix K(s) corresponding to the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}$ , such that it minimizes the following LQR performance index:

$$J := \int_0^\infty \left( x(t)^T Q x(t) + u(t)^T R u(t) \right) dt$$
 (8.25)

where  $R \in \Re^{m \times m}$  and  $Q \in \Re^{n \times n}$  are positive definite and positive semi-definite matrices, respectively, and where:

$$u(t) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1(t)^T & u_2(t)^T & \cdots & u_v(t)^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(8.26)

**Lemma 1** The matrix  $\Phi_1$  corresponding to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}_1$  is equal to  $I_m$ .

**Proof** : The proof follows directly from the procedure of constructing the graph  $\mathscr{G}_1$  and Theorem 2.

The transfer function matrix  $K_1(s)$  constructed in terms of K(s) in the proof of Theorem 3 (for  $\mu = 1$ ) will be used in the next Theorem.

**Theorem 6** Consider the systems  $\mathscr{S}$  and  $\mathscr{S}_1$  under the controllers K(s) and  $K_1(s)$ , respectively. Assume that the matrix  $I_r - DK(s)$  is nonsingular. Then  $J = J_1$ , where:

$$J_{1} := \int_{0}^{\infty} \left( \mathbf{x}_{1}(t)^{T} Q \mathbf{x}_{1}(t) + \mathbf{u}_{1}(t)^{T} R \mathbf{u}_{1}(t) \right) dt$$
(8.27)

**Proof** It follows from the proof of Theorem 3 (with  $\mu = 1$ ) that  $x(t) = \mathbf{x}_1(t)$  for all  $t \ge 0$ . Besides, it results from this equality and  $\Phi_1 = I_m$  (Lemma 1), that  $u(t) = \mathbf{u}_1(t)$  for all  $t \ge 0$ . This completes the proof.

Theorem 6 states that in order to find a controller K(s) which minimizes the performance index (8.25) for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  while it meets the information flow constraint given by  $\mathscr{K}$ , one can equivalently pursue the following two steps:

- 1. Design the decentralized LTI controller  $K_1(s)$  in such a way that it minimizes the performance index (8.27) for the system  $\mathcal{S}_1(\mathcal{K}_1)$ .
- 2. Find the controller K(s) from the relation  $K(s) = \Phi_1 K_1(s) \overline{\Phi}_1$ .

It is to be noted that the decentralized optimal control design problem has been studied intensively in the literature, and a number of approaches for obtaining an optimal or a near-optimal decentralized controller are given accordingly, e.g., see [15, 16, 17].

### 8.6 Non-LTI control law

In this section, the procedure of designing different types of controllers, such as periodic or sampled-data control laws, for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  is investigated. Moreover, a necessary and sufficient condition for the stabilizability of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  is given. To develop the remaining results of this work, it is hereafter assumed that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is strictly proper, i.e. D = 0.

#### **8.6.1** Generalized sampled-data hold function

Periodic control design using generalized sampled-data hold function (GSHF) and its advantages have been studied intensively in the literature [18, 19, 20]. Assume that it is desired to design a GSHF for the system  $\mathcal{S}$ , which complies with the information flow structure  $\mathcal{K}$ . Let this GSHF be denoted by F(t). Hence, the hold controller will be as follows:

$$u(t) = F(t)y[\kappa], \quad \kappa h \le t < (\kappa+1)h, \quad \kappa \ge 0$$
(8.28)

where *h* represents the sampling periodic. Note that the discrete argument corresponding to the samples of any signal is enclosed in brackets (e.g.,  $y[\kappa] := y(\kappa h)$ ).

**Theorem 7** The systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K}), \mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$  are all analogous with respect to the set of all hold controllers (GSHFs).

**Proof** To prove the theorem, it suffices to show that  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$  are *analogous* with respect to all hold controllers, for any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ . Consider a GSHF F(t) which complies with the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}$ . Utilize the proper transformation on F(t) to obtain the equivalent hold function  $F_{\mu}(t)$  for the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$ . Note that  $F_{\mu}(t)$  can be attained using the mapping between the components of **K** and  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$  (see Remark 1). Since F(t) and  $F_{\mu}(t)$  comply with the information flow matrices  $\mathscr{K}$  and  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$ , respectively, it is straightforward to show that  $F(t) = \Phi_{\mu}F_{\mu}(t)\overline{\Phi}_{\mu}$ . On the other hand, it follows from (8.28) that:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + BF(t)Cx[\kappa]$$
(8.29)

and consequently:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\mu}(t) = A\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t) + \mathbf{B}^{\mu}F_{\mu}(t)\mathbf{C}^{\mu}\mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa]$$

$$= A\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t) + B\Phi_{\mu}F_{\mu}(t)\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}C\mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa]$$

$$= A\mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t) + BF(t)C\mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa]$$
(8.30)

for all  $t \in [\kappa h, (\kappa+1)h)$ ,  $\kappa \ge 0$ . The equations (8.29) and (8.30), and the equality  $x(0) = \mathbf{x}_{\mu}(0)$ result in the relation  $x(t) = \mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t)$  for all  $t \ge 0$ . Conversely, for any GSHF  $F_{\mu}(t)$  complying with the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$ , it is straightforward to show that the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the GSHF  $F(t) = \Phi_{\mu}F_{\mu}(t)\overline{\Phi}_{\mu}$  is identical to that of the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  under  $F_{\mu}(t)$ .

Theorem 7 states that the problem of designing a GSHF for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  can be formulated as the problem of designing a GSHF for the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$  for any  $\mu \in \overline{l}$ . However, due to the decentralized structure of the control for  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu}), \mu \in \overline{l}$ , the corresponding GSHF design can be accomplished by using the existing methods [21, 22].

#### 8.6.2 Sampled-data controller

A typical sampled-data controller consists of a sampler, a zero-order hold (ZOH) and a discretetime controller. It is to be noted that a sampled-data controller acts as a time-varying control law for the continuous-time system. It is desired in this subsection to present a method for designing a sampled-data controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}$ , whose structure complies with a given information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ . Throughout the remainder of this chapter, the term *linear shiftinvariant* (LSI) will be used instead of LTI, for discrete-time systems.

**Theorem 8** The systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K}), \mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$  are all analogous with respect to the set of all LSI sampled-data controllers.

**Proof** Denote the sampling period with h, and the discrete-time equivalent models of the systems  $\mathscr{S}, \mathscr{S}_1, ..., \mathscr{S}_l$  with  $\bar{\mathscr{F}}, \bar{\mathscr{F}}_1, ..., \bar{\mathscr{F}}_l$ , respectively. Assume that the system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$  is represented by:

$$x[\kappa+1] = \bar{A}x[\kappa] + \bar{B}u[\kappa]$$

$$y[\kappa] = Cx[\kappa]$$
(8.31)

Similarly, let the system  $\bar{\mathscr{I}}_{\mu}$  be represented by:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa+1] = \bar{A}\mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa] + \bar{\mathbf{B}}^{\mu}\mathbf{u}_{\mu}[\kappa]$$
  
$$\mathbf{y}_{\mu}[\kappa] = \mathbf{C}^{\mu}\mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa], \qquad \mu \in \bar{l}$$
  
(8.32)

It can be easily verified that:

$$\bar{\mathbf{B}}^{\mu} = \int_{0}^{h} e^{\tau A} \mathbf{B}^{\mu} d\tau = \int_{0}^{h} e^{\tau A} B d\tau \times \Phi_{\mu} = \bar{B} \Phi_{\mu}$$
(8.33)

It results from (8.31), (8.32), and (8.33) that the state-space matrices of  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$  are related to those of  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}_{\mu}$ , exactly the same way the state-space matrices of  $\mathscr{S}$  and  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  are related. Hence, the systems  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$  and  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}_{\mu}$  are *analogous* with respect to the LSI controllers. Consider now a discrete-time LSI controller with the transfer function matrix  $\bar{K}(z)$  for the system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}(\mathscr{K})$ . Construct a discrete-time LSI controller with the transfer function matrix  $\bar{K}_{\mu}(z)$  for the system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$ , such that it corresponds to the controller  $\bar{K}(z)$  for  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}(\mathscr{K})$ . This controller can be obtained from the mapping between the components of **K** and  $\mathbf{K}_{\mu}$ . It is straightforward to show that  $\bar{K}(z) = \Phi_{\mu}\bar{K}_{\mu}(z)\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$ . Applying the controller  $\bar{K}(z)$  to the system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}$  and the controller  $\bar{K}_{\mu}(z)$  to  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}_{\mu}$ , one can conclude (using an approach similar to the one given in the proof of Theorem 3) that  $x[\kappa] = \mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa]$  and  $u[\kappa] = \Phi_{\mu}\mathbf{u}_{\mu}[\kappa]$  for any  $\kappa \ge 0$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= e^{(t-\kappa h)A} x[\kappa] + \int_{\kappa h}^{t} e^{(\tau-\kappa h)A} Bu[\kappa] d\tau \\ &= e^{(t-\kappa h)A} \mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa] + \int_{\kappa h}^{t} e^{(\tau-\kappa h)A} B\Phi_{\mu} \mathbf{u}_{\mu}[\kappa] d\tau \\ &= e^{(t-\kappa h)A} \mathbf{x}_{\mu}[\kappa] + \int_{\kappa h}^{t} e^{(\tau-\kappa h)A} \mathbf{B}^{\mu} \mathbf{u}_{\mu}[\kappa] d\tau \\ &= \mathbf{x}_{\mu}(t) \end{aligned}$$
(8.34)

for any  $t \in [\kappa h, (\kappa + 1)h), k \ge 0$ . Similarly, it can be easily verified that given any controller  $\bar{K}_{\mu}(z)$  for the system  $\bar{\mathscr{S}}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K})$ , the controller  $\bar{K}(z) := \Phi_{\mu}\bar{K}_{\mu}(z)\bar{\Phi}_{\mu}$  corresponds to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ . Moreover, the state of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  under the controller  $\bar{K}(z)$  is the same as that of  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  under  $\bar{K}_{\mu}(z)$ .

It is assumed in the proof of Theorem 8 that D = 0. However, its results can be easily extended to the case when  $D \neq 0$ . Note that finding a sampled-data decentralized control law to achieve certain design objectives has been investigated in the literature, e.g, see [23].

#### 8.6.3 Finite-dimensional linear time-varying controller

It is well-known that finite-dimensional linear time-varying (LTV) controllers are superior to their LTI counterparts in many control applications [21]. It is desired in this subsection to present a procedure for designing a finite-dimensional LTV controller complying with the information flow matrix  $\mathcal{K}$ , for the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . Note that throughout this work, the term "finite-dimensional LTV controller" refers to a control law which can be represented by the following state-space model:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\tilde{x}}(t) &= \tilde{A}(t)\tilde{x}(t) + \tilde{B}(t)\tilde{u}(t) \\ \tilde{y}(t) &= \tilde{C}(t)\tilde{x}(t) + \tilde{D}(t)\tilde{u}(t) \end{aligned} \tag{8.35}$$

**Theorem 9** The systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K}), \mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$  are all analogous with respect to the set of all finite-dimensional LTV controllers.

The foregoing theorem extends the results of Theorem 3 to the case when the controllers are finite-dimensional LTV (as opposed to LTI). The proof of Theorem 9 is similar to that of Theorem 3 (but should be carried out in the time-domain). The details of the proof are omitted here. However, the statement that  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu})$ ,  $\mu \in \overline{I}$ , are *analogous* with respect to all finite-dimensional LTV controllers can be intuitively justified as follows:

One can easily verify by using the comments given in the proofs of Theorems 1 and 2, that  $\mathbf{B}^{\mu}$  is derived from B by rearranging its columns and repeating some of them (repetition results from the fact that some of the vertices in set 1 of the graph  $\mathscr{G}$  have recurred to construct the graph  $\mathscr{G}_{\mu}$ ). Analogously,  $\mathbf{C}^{\mu}$  is derived from C by rearranging its rows and repeating some of them. These repetitions and rearrangements and their interpretations are described below:

 Repetition of the rows of C indicates that some of the outputs of S are duplicated to construct the system S<sub>μ</sub>. To justify the necessity of this recurrence, assume that one output of the system S contributes to two different control inputs. This means that the corresponding control agent is not localized, and hence the corresponding information flow structure is not decentralized. However, by duplicating this output of the system to create a redundant output, and by applying the two resulting outputs to the two abovementioned control inputs, the resultant control structure will be decentralized, while its functionality is essentially equivalent to the original control system.

- 2. Regarding the repetition in the columns of  $\mathbf{B}^{\mu}$ , assume that two outputs of the system contribute to one control agent. Since the controller is linear, one can split the control agent to two sub-agents such that each of the two outputs of the system goes to one of these sub-agents. The control signal of the original control agent is, in fact, equal to the summation of the control signals of these two sub-agents (this results from the principle of superposition). Again, the functionality of the resultant control system is equivalent to the original one, while its structure is decentralized.
- 3. The rearrangement of the rows and the columns of C and B is equivalent to the reordering of the inputs and the outputs of  $\mathcal{S}$ , and has no impact on the operation of the overall control system.

Taking the aforementioned interpretations into consideration, the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}$  is indeed constructed from  $\mathscr{S}$  in such a way that the control structure  $\mathscr{K}$  is converted to a decentralized structure  $\mathscr{K}_{\mu}$ , while essentially both control systems perform identically.

Theorem 9 implies that to design a finite-dimensional LTV controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ , one can first design a LTV controller for one of the systems  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$ . This result will be exploited in the following section to present one of the main contributions of the present work.

#### 8.6.4 General controller

The objective of this subsection is to find out under what conditions the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  is stabilizable by means of a general control law (i.e. nonlinear and time-varying), when there exists no stabilizing LTI controller.

**Theorem 10** The systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1)$  are analogous with respect to any type of controller (i.e. nonlinear or time-varying).

**Proof** As pointed out in the discussion following Theorem 9, the configurations of the systems  $\mathscr{S}$  and  $\mathscr{S}_1$  are essentially equivalent. In other words, the system  $\mathscr{S}_1$  is obtained from  $\mathscr{S}$  by introducing some redundant outputs or control agents and reordering them, in such a way that the information flow structure  $\mathscr{K}$  is converted to  $\mathscr{K}_1$ . Note that according to Lemma 1,  $B = \mathbf{B}^1$ . Hence, the state of the closed-loop system corresponding to the pair  $(\mathscr{S}, \mathscr{K})$  is identical to that of the pair  $(\mathscr{S}_1, \mathscr{K}_1)$ , regardless of the type of the control law.

It is to be noted that unlike  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1)$ , the systems  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  and  $\mathscr{S}_\mu(\mathscr{K}_\mu)$ ,  $\mu \in \{2,3,...,l\}$ , are not *analogous* with respect to any type of controller, in general. This results from the fact that the superposition principle presented in item 2 of the discussion following Theorem 9 does not apply here, as the controllers are nonlinear.

**Remark 5** It follows immediately from Theorem 10 that the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  is stabilizable if and only if the system  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1)$  is stabilizable.

It is shown in [3] that a system is stabilizable with respect to a block-diagonal information flow matrix (i.e. decentralized control structure) if and only if the system does not any unstable quotient fixed mode (QFM). However, QFM is only defined for decentralized control structures. In the following, this notion is extended to the general information flow structure and its property is investigated accordingly.

**Definition 4**  $\lambda \in sp(A)$  is a quotient overlapping fixed mode (QOFM) of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  with respect to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ , if  $\lambda$  cannot be eliminated by using any type of controller complying with the structure of  $\mathscr{K}$ .

**Theorem 11** The QOFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  are the same as the QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_{\mu}(\mathscr{K}_{\mu}), \forall \mu \in \overline{l}.$ 

**Proof** It follows from Theorem 10 that the QOFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  are the same as the QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1)$ . To complete the proof, it suffices to show that the QFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1)$  are the same as those of the system  $\mathscr{S}_\mu(\mathscr{K}_\mu)$ , for  $\mu = 2, 3, ..., l$ . This can be deduced from the following argument:

- The systems  $\mathscr{S}_1(\mathscr{K}_1), ..., \mathscr{S}_l(\mathscr{K}_l)$  all have the same A-matrix, and hence the same modes.
- It is shown in [3, 24] that all of the non-QFMs of any system can be eliminated by using a proper finite-dimensional LTV controller.
- Theorem 9 states that the systems \$\mathcal{S}\_1(\mathcal{K}\_1), ..., \$\mathcal{S}\_l(\mathcal{K}\_l)\$ are all analogous to each other with respect to finite-dimensional LTV controllers.

**Corollary 3** The system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$  is stabilizable if and only if it does not have any unstable QOFM.

**Proof** The proof follows immediately from Remark 5 and Theorem 11.

# 8.7 Comparison with existing methods

#### 8.7.1 Comparison with the work presented in [8]

Consider the system  $\mathcal{S}$  with the following state-space representation:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax + B_1 u_1(t) + B_2 u_2(t) \tag{8.36}$$

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where  $A \in \Re^{3\zeta \times 3\zeta}$ , and

$$B_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} \\ 0_{\zeta \times \zeta_{1}} \\ 0_{\zeta \times \zeta_{1}} \end{bmatrix}, B_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{\zeta \times \zeta_{2}} \\ 0_{\zeta \times \zeta_{2}} \\ B_{32} \end{bmatrix}, x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}(t) \\ x_{2}(t) \\ x_{3}(t) \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.37)

and  $x_i(t) \in \Re^{\zeta}$ , i = 1, 2, 3. The outputs of this system are assumed to be the same as its state variables. It is desired now to design a stabilizing structurally constrained static controller for  $\mathscr{S}$  with the information flow matrix :

$$\mathscr{K} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.38)

This decentralized overlapping problem is investigated in [8], where the expansion approach is used to solve the problem (see [4] for a numerical version of this example). In this method, the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is converted to another system, which is referred to as the expanded system. Subsequently, it is stated that if the expanded system can be stabilized, then the system  $\mathscr{S}$ is stabilizable as well. However, since the expanded system is inherently uncontrollable, this approach might be inefficient. It is desired now to demonstrate the effectiveness of the method proposed in this chapter for this example. Using the proposed method, one can easily conclude that the DOFMs of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  consist of unobservable modes, uncontrollable modes, and any mode  $\lambda$  for which at least one of the following two matrices:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A - \lambda I_n & B_1 \\ H_1 & o_{2\zeta \times \zeta_1} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A - \lambda I_n & B_2 \\ H_2 & o_{2\zeta \times \zeta_2} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.39)

loses rank, where  $H_1 = \begin{bmatrix} I_{2\zeta} & o_{2\zeta \times \zeta} \end{bmatrix}$  and  $H_2 = \begin{bmatrix} o_{2\zeta \times \zeta} & I_{2\zeta} \end{bmatrix}$ . Assume now that the system does not have any unstable DOFM. One can use Procedures 1, 2 and 3 to obtain the

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matrix  $\mathbf{K}_2$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{K}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{11} & 0_{\zeta_{1} \times \zeta} & 0_{\zeta_{1} \times \zeta} \\ 0_{\zeta_{1} \times \zeta} & k_{12} & 0_{\zeta_{1} \times \zeta} \\ 0_{\zeta_{2} \times \zeta} & k_{22} & 0_{\zeta_{2} \times \zeta} \\ 0_{\zeta_{2} \times \zeta} & 0_{\zeta_{2} \times \zeta} & k_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.40)

which corresponds to the system  $\mathscr{S}_2$  with the following state-space representation:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{2}(t) = A\mathbf{x}_{2}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{1}^{2}\mathbf{u}_{1}^{2}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{2}^{2}\mathbf{u}_{2}^{2}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{3}^{2}\mathbf{u}_{3}^{2}(t)$$
(8.41)

where:

$$\mathbf{x}_{2}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1}^{2}(t) \\ \mathbf{x}_{2}^{2}(t) \\ \mathbf{x}_{3}^{2}(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{1}^{2} = B_{1}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{2}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} B_{1} & B_{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_{3}^{2} = B_{2}$$
(8.42)

and  $\mathbf{x}_i^2(t) \in \Re^{\zeta}$ , i = 1, 2, 3. It can be concluded from Corollary 1 that designing a *static* structurally constrained controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is identical to designing a *static* decentralized controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}_2$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{u}_i^2(t)$  is constructed in terms of  $\mathbf{x}_i^2(t)$  for i = 1, 2, 3). The latter problem can be solved by using either the LMI method proposed in [8] (where this example is presented), or other existing methods, e.g. [15].

#### 8.7.2 Comparison with the work presented in [25]

A method is proposed in [25] for strictly proper systems to determine whether the system is stabilizable with respect to a given information flow matrix by means of LTI controllers. However, this method has the following deficiencies compared to the present work:

- 1. It cannot be extended to the general proper systems.
- 2. It translates the stabilizability of a system by means of LTI controllers to that of another system which is, in fact,  $\mathscr{S}_1$ . However, this may require that the ranks of a huge number of matrices to be checked in order to find out whether the system is stabilizable. For

instance, assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is composed of 100 SISO subsystems, and that the corresponding information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  is a 100 × 100 matrix, with the first entries of the odd rows and the last entries of the even rows all equal to zero, and the remaining entries all equal to 1. It is straightforward to show that the number of matrices whose ranks need to be checked by using the method given in [25] is equal to  $2^{100}$ , while the system  $\mathscr{S}_2$  can be constructed in such a way that the number of matrices whose ranks need to be checked is equal to  $2^2$ . This sizable difference demonstrates the efficiency of the present work.

### 8.8 Numerical examples

**Example 1** Consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of three SISO subsystems with the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = 0_{3 \times 3}$$
(8.43)  
Consider the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , which corresponds to the following control structure:  
$$\begin{bmatrix} k_{11} & 0 & k_{13} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{11} & 0 & k_{13} \\ 0 & k_{22} & k_{23} \\ k_{31} & k_{32} & k_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.44)

This is, in fact, a BAS (or BBD) controller [8, 9]. The following matrix  $K_2$  can be obtained using Procedures 1, 2 and 3:

$$\mathbf{K}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{22} & k_{23} & 0 & 0 \\ k_{32} & k_{33} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & k_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & k_{31} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & k_{13} \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.45)

Note that for this particular example,  $\mathscr{G}_2$  is the best candidate in terms of the subsequent computational complexity. The matrices  $\Phi_2$  and  $\overline{\Phi}_2$  can be obtained from Theorem 2 as follows:

$$\Phi_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Phi_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.46)

Now, the system  $\mathscr{S}_2$  can be easily constructed by using the equations (8.15), (8.16) and (8.46). It is desired now to design a structurally constrained controller K(s) for the system  $\mathscr{S}$  to achieve a settling time of 4 seconds. and an overshoot of less than 4.5%. It can be easily verified that these design specifications will be met by placing the dominant poles of the closed-loop system at  $-1\pm 1i$ . From Procedure 4, it is known that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  does not have any DOFMs with respect to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$ . Now, using any decentralized pole placement method, e.g., the one proposed in [2] or [14], one can place the dominant poles of the closed-loop system  $\mathscr{S}_2$  at  $-1\pm 1i$ , as discussed in Remark 2. For instance, using the

method given in [2], the following control transfer functions are obtained:

$$K_{11}(s) = K_{13}(s) = K_{31}(s) = 1$$

$$K_{22}(s) = (-89900 - 96100s - 34100s^2 - 5480s^3 - 409s^4 - 11.5s^5) / \text{Den}(s)$$

$$K_{23}(s) = (-15700 - 20500s - 8810s^2 - 1730s^3 - 160s^4 - 5.69s^5) / \text{Den}(s)$$

$$K_{32}(s) = (-64500 - 52500s - 16900s^2 - 2740s^3 - 220s^4 - 7.05s^5) / \text{Den}(s)$$

$$K_{33}(s) = (-88000 - 64500s - 19200s^2 - 2880s^3 - 219s^4 - 6.7s^5) / \text{Den}(s)$$

where:

$$Den(s) = 0.18s^{6} + 9.95s^{5} + 210.44s^{4} + 2269.3s^{3} + 13396s^{2} + 41488s^{1} + 53000$$
(8.48)

(the transfer function of the control component  $k_{ij}$  is represented by  $K_{ij}(s)$ ). It is to be noted that using the above control law, the other poles of the closed-loop system will be located at -4, -6, -7 and -8.

**Example 2** Consider the system  $\mathscr{S}$  consisting of four SISO subsystems with the following state-space matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

$$(8.49)$$

and  $D = 0_{4 \times 4}$ . Assume that the information flow matrix for this system is given as follows:

$$\mathscr{K} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8.50)  
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One can find the matrices  $\Phi_1$  and  $\overline{\Phi}_1$  (using Procedures 1, 2 and 3, and Theorem 2), from which one yields that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  has two identical DOFMs at  $\lambda = +1$  with respect to the information flow matrix  $\mathscr{K}$  given by (8.50). Therefore, this system cannot be stabilized by means of a structurally constrained LTI controller. On the other hand, it can be easily verified by using the system  $\mathscr{S}_1$  that  $\mathscr{S}$  does not have any QOFMs. Hence, this system can be stabilized by means of a constrained LTV controller. Using the method given in [23], one can design a constrained stabilizing sampled-data controller for the system  $\mathscr{S}(\mathscr{K})$ . Consider a sampling period *h* equal to 1. The components of the controller will be as follows:

$$\bar{K}_{22}(z) = \bar{K}_{34}(z) = 0, \quad \bar{K}_{13}(z) = \bar{K}_{24}(z) = 1,$$

$$\bar{K}_{41}(z) = (3945z^5 - 8674z^4 + 1388z^3 + 116.2z^2 - 12.8z - 1.139) \times (z^6 + 2.758z^5 + 877.1z^4 - 1822z^3 + 87.78z^2 + 24.71z + 0.1927)^{-1}$$
(8.51)

where  $\bar{K}_{ij}(z)$  represents the transfer function of the discrete-time LSI controller corresponding to  $k_{ij}$ .

#### 8.9 Conclusions

This work tackles the control design problem for systems with constrained control structure. It is shown that certain modes of the system can be placed freely by means of a linear timeinvariant (LTI) structurally constrained controller. The notion of decentralized overlapping fixed mode (DOFM) is introduced to classify such modes, and an analytical method is given to identify them. In addition, it is shown that the system is stabilizable by means of a LTI structurally constrained controller, if and only if it does not have any unstable DOFM. Furthermore, a graph-theoretic algorithm is proposed to convert the structurally constrained control design problem (e.g. pole placement, optimal feedback, etc.) to the conventional decentralized control design problem. Design procedures for different types of controllers, such as periodic and sampled-data control laws, are also investigated. The notion of quotient overlapping fixed mode (QOFM) is then introduced to determine whether the system can be stabilized by means of general (nonlinear and time-varying) structurally constrained controllers. It is shown that a system with no unstable QOFM can be stabilized by utilizing a finite-dimensional linear time-varying control law.

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## **Chapter 9**

# **Robust Stability Verification using Sum-of-Squares**

#### 9.1 Abstract

This chapter deals with the robust stability of discrete-time LTI systems with uncertainties belonging to a compact semi-algebraic set, particularly a polytope. A bound on the degree of the Lyapunov function, which can be considered as a homogeneous polynomial, is computed. It is then shown that the robust stability of any system over the polytope is equivalent to the existence of two matrix polynomials with some bounds on their degrees which satisfy a specific relation along with the Lyapunov function. This relation is translated into a set of linear matrix inequalities and equalities, which is referred to as Semidefinite Programming (SDP). One of the capabilities of the proposed method is that the bounds on the degrees of the related polynomials can be replaced by any smaller numbers in order to simplify the computations, at the cost of a more conservative result. Moreover, in order to solve the robust stability problem accurately when the degrees of the related polynomials are large, a computationally efficient method is proposed to convert the problem to the SDP with a reduced number of variables.

Furthermore, for the case when uncertainties belong to a specific semi-algebraic set which satisfies a mild restriction, a necessary and sufficient condition, also in the form of nonparametric SDP, is presented. A comprehensive comparison with the existing methods is also given to further clarify the superiority of the present work. It is to be noted that this chapter presents the first necessary and sufficient condition for robust stability in the form of nonparametric SDP or LMI. The results obtained can be extended to the robust stability of continuous-time systems.

#### 9.2 Introduction

Robust stability verification of a system subject to the parametric uncertainty has attracted many researchers in recent years [1-14]. The uncertainty is often assumed to belong to a polytope. So far, the most efficient technique in the literature to tackle this problem has been to check the existence of a proper Lyapunov function. The early works have sought a constant Lyapunov function, which are appealing as far as computation is concerned, while they may arrive at very conservative solutions in general. The corresponding method is referred to as quadratic stability. It is shown in [15] that among numerous sorts of relations which can be considered for the Lyapunov function, it suffices to only consider polynomials. Most of the recent works implicitly or explicitly assume that the Lyapunov function is a first-order polynomial with respect to the uncertain parameters [3-8]. These works then make additional assumptions in order to simplify the problem, which may result in a very conservative solution, e.g. see [4]. Furthermore, they usually present a linear matrix inequality (LMI) problem defined at the vertices of the polytope with several inequalities whose structures are complicated, in general [16]. One of the recent works which leads to a simple condition is [4], where the Lyapunov function is implicitly assumed to be a polynomial of degree one. Moreover, an inequality is used in [4] to obtain the LMI conditions, which turns to an equality only when

a parameter-dependent function is constant over the polytope. Therefore, this method proves to be very conservative in general, due to its restrictive formulation. Another approach is presented in [3], which yields approximately  $n^3$  inequalities obtained through a conservative procedure as discussed earlier. A thorough literature survey is also given in [3], comparing the advantages and drawbacks of the existing methods.

In [14], a number of LMI conditions are attained which assure the robust stability of a system over an affine space. The Lyapunov function is assumed to belong to a class of matrix polynomials with any arbitrary degrees and it is shown that by increasing the degree of the Lyapunov function, the conditions obtained become less conservative. However, no bound on the degree of the corresponding Lyapunov function is attained. This implies that the degree of the Lyapunov function is required to be incremented iteratively, each time the LMI problem is infeasible, until the exact solution is attained. This involves a huge computational effort as pointed out in [1], and there is no guarantee at any point that the solution is precise.

It is shown in [2] that a continuous-time system is robustly stable over a polytope, if and only if there exists a Lyapunov function in the form of a homogeneous polynomial with a specific bound on its degree, such that it is positive definite over the polytope. It is also stated that this result can be extended to discrete-time systems. The positive definiteness of the Lyapunov polynomial over the polytope is then converted to the positive definiteness of another matrix polynomial over the whole space by using a scaling technique. In other words, the constraint of the polytope is eliminated by applying this technique. A sufficient condition is obtained subsequently, by writing a nonnegative homogeneous matrix polynomial as a summation of some square matrix polynomials. It is claimed that if such polynomial can always be representable in this form, then the condition obtained turns to be both necessary and sufficient. Nevertheless, it is known from Hilbert's 17th problem [17], that this representation is not possible in general, even in the case of scalar polynomials. Note that the homogeneousness of the matrix polynomial is not a main concern, as any polynomial can become homogeneous by introducing a redundant variable. As a result, the method proposed in [2] may arrive at a very conservative solution. It is to be noted that for the special case of scalar polynomials, the unconstrained positiveness of a polynomial is often converted to the constrained positiveness of the polynomial in order to take advantage of Putinar's theorem [18]. A similar technique (in the reverse direction) is developed in [2].

In [1], the problem of robust stability of a system over the polytope is addressed for both continuous-time and discrete-time systems. Basically, the method seeks a Lyapunov function in the form of a homogeneous polynomial as pointed out earlier. It is shown that as the degree of the Lyapunov function increases, the conservativeness of the resultant LMI conditions reduces. However, no convergence proof is provided, and it is only shown by simulation that the method works for a number of systems generated, and requires less computational effort compared to some of the previous works.

In general, any approach that considers a Lyapunov function of the polynomial form, suffers from lack of a procedure (theoretical or numerical) to convert the constrained positive definiteness of a matrix polynomial to an equivalent set of LMI conditions.

The present work deals with the robust stability of discrete-time systems over a compact semi-algebraic domain, particularly a polytope, which can simply be extended to continuoustime systems in the same line with [2]. This chapter aims to complement the previous works by using the latest developments in sum-of-squares matrix polynomials. First, a bound on the degree of the Lyapunov function, which can be considered as a homogeneous polynomial, is obtained. By using the matrix version of Putinar's Theorem, it is then shown that the system is robustly stable over the polytope if and only if there exist two matrix polynomials with certain bounds on their degrees, such that they satisfy a specific relation along with the Lyapunov function. This relation is converted to a semidefinite programming (SDP) problem [19], which presents the first necessary and sufficient condition for robust stability in the form of nonparametric SDP or LMI. Assuming small values for the degrees of the two polynomials and the Lyapunov function, one can obtain a conservative solution, while the exact one can be attained by considering sufficiently large degrees for the polynomials (or more precisely, by setting the degrees of the polynomials to be equal to the bounds obtained for them), which undesirably increases the number of variables and the computational effort. Hence, an alternative approach is given to convert the relation into a SDP, when the bounds on the degrees are large. This technique reduces the number of LMI variables considerably. Moreover, it is proved that the robust stability of a system can analogously be checked over any compact semi-algebraic domain satisfying a mild condition, instead of a simple polytope. It turns out that this method addresses a much more general problem, while the previous approaches do not solve the problem completely even in the special case of a polytope. It is to be noted that by making proper assumptions on the degrees of the relevant polynomials, the conditions obtained comprise the conditions given in some of the existing works. Simulation results and comparison with existing methods demonstrate the effectiveness and superiority of the present work.

#### 9.3 Problem formulation

Consider a discrete-time system  $\mathscr{S}$  of order v subject to time-invariant uncertainties, and assume that it can be represented by the following state equation:

$$x(\kappa+1) = A(\alpha)x(\kappa), \quad \kappa = 0, 1, 2, ...$$
 (9.1)

where the vector  $\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \cdots & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$  is used to denote the perturbation of the system matrix  $A(\alpha) \in \Re^{v \times v}$ . Suppose that  $A(\alpha)$  can be represented as a linear combination of the known matrices  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  as follows:

$$A(\alpha) = \alpha_1 A_1 + \alpha_2 A_2 + \dots + \alpha_n A_n \tag{9.2}$$

It is desired first to find out whether the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable for any  $\alpha$  belonging to the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  defined below:

$$\mathscr{P} := \left\{ \alpha \mid 0 \le \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \le 1, \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = 1 \right\}$$
(9.3)

In other words, the objective is to determine whether or not the matrix  $A(\alpha)$  is Schur over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ . The following definitions and notations will be used to develop the main results of the chapter.

**Definition 1** A matrix polynomial  $E(\omega)$ , where  $\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_l \end{bmatrix}$ , is defined to be a polynomial with matrix coefficients (as opposed to scalar coefficients). It is to be noted that the variables of any matrix polynomial are scalar. The term "scalar polynomial" is used hereafter for a polynomial with scalar coefficients.

**Notation 1** Bold symbols are used throughout this chapter to denote vectors of scalar variables corresponding to the matrix polynomials.

**Definition 2** Each product term of a scalar polynomial (or a matrix polynomial)  $c(\omega)$ , where  $\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_l \end{bmatrix}$ , is defined to be a monomial of  $c(\omega)$ . In general, a monomial has the form  $\omega_1^{i_1} \omega_2^{i_2} \dots \omega_l^{i_l}$ , where  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_l$  are nonnegative integers, whose sum  $i_1 + i_2 + \dots + i_l$  determines the degree of the corresponding monomial. For instance, the monomials of  $3\omega_1 - \omega_1\omega_2^2 + 5$  are  $\omega_1, \omega_1\omega_2^2$ , and 1, with degrees 1, 3 and 0, respectively.

**Notation 2** Consider two scalar polynomials  $c_1(\omega)$  and  $c_2(\omega)$ . The notation  $c_2(\omega)|c_1(\omega)$  indicates that  $c_1(\omega)$  is divisible by  $c_2(\omega)$ . Note that  $c_1(\omega)$  can be a matrix polynomial.

**Notation 3** For any vector 
$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_l \end{bmatrix}$$
, define  $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\omega}}$ ,  $\overline{\boldsymbol{\omega}}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\omega}^2$  as follows:

$$\widetilde{\omega} := \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_{l-1} & 1 - \omega_1 - \omega_2 - \cdots - \omega_{l-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.4a)

$$\overline{\omega} := \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_{l-1} \end{array} \right] \tag{9.4b}$$

$$\omega^2 := \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \omega_1^2 & \omega_2^2 & \cdots & \omega_l^2 \end{array} \right]$$
(9.4c)

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Note that  $\omega^2$  is, in fact, the Hadamard product of  $\omega$  by itself.

**Definition 3** A matrix polynomial  $C(\omega)$  with the scalar variables  $\omega_1, ..., \omega_l$  is defined to be a sum-of-squares (SOS) if there exists a matrix polynomial  $E(\omega)$  such that:

$$C(\omega) = E^{T}(\omega)E(\omega)$$
(9.5)

Note that  $E(\omega)$  can be expressed as  $R \times \Omega(\omega)$ , where R is a constant matrix and  $\Omega(\omega)$ is a block vector whose block entries are the monomials of  $E(\omega)$  times an identity matrix with a proper dimension. As a result,  $C(\omega)$  in (9.5) can be expressed as  $\Omega(\omega)^T R^T R \Omega(\omega)$  [20]. Hence, the function  $C(\omega)$  can be written in the quadratic form and is positive semidefinite due to the constant matrix  $R^T R$ .

**Definition 4** A matrix polynomial is said to be homogeneous if the degrees of its monomials are all the same.

#### 9.4 A necessary and sufficient condition in the form of SDP

The following lemma parameterizes the Lyapunov function to be sought.

**Lemma 1** The system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the domain  $\mathscr{P}$  if and only if there exists a symmetric homogeneous matrix polynomial  $P(\alpha)$  with a maximum degree of  $2v^2 - 2$ , such that:

$$\Phi(\alpha) := \begin{bmatrix} P(\alpha) & A^{T}(\alpha)P(\alpha) \\ P(\alpha)A(\alpha) & P(\alpha) \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.6)

is positive definite for any  $\alpha$  belonging to the polytope  $\mathcal{P}$ .

A lemma similar to Lemma 1 is presented in [2] for continuous-time systems. Hence, its proof follows by employing an approach similar to the one given in [2], and is omitted here. The following lemma is borrowed from [20].

**Lemma 2** (Theorem 2 in [20]) Consider a symmetric matrix polynomial  $H(\omega)$  and scalar polynomials  $g_1(\omega), g_2(\omega), ..., g_k(\omega)$ , where  $\omega \in \Re^l$ , and assume that there exist a scalar r and scalar SOS polynomials  $h_0(\omega), h_1(\omega), ..., h_k(\omega)$ , such that:

$$r^{2} - \omega \omega^{T} = h_{0}(\omega) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{i}(\omega)g_{i}(\omega)$$
(9.7)

The matrix polynomial  $H(\omega)$  is positive definite for any value of  $\omega$  belonging to the set:

$$\{\omega \in \mathfrak{R}^l | g_1(\omega) \ge 0, g_2(\omega) \ge 0, \dots, g_k(\omega) \ge 0\}$$
(9.8)

if and only if there exist SOS matrix polynomials  $Y_0(\omega), Y_1(\omega), ..., Y_k(\omega)$  and a positive scalar  $\varepsilon$ , such that:

$$H(\omega) = Y_0(\omega) + \sum_{i=1}^k g_i(\omega) Y_i(\omega) + \varepsilon I$$
(9.9)

**Theorem 1** The system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the domain  $\mathscr{P}$ , if and only if there exist a scalar  $\varepsilon > 0$ , a homogeneous matrix polynomial  $P(\alpha)$ , a matrix polynomial  $Q_1(\omega)$ , and a SOS matrix polynomial  $Q_2(\omega)$ , where  $\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_n \end{bmatrix}$ , such that:

$$\Phi(\omega^2) = (1 - \omega\omega^T) Q_1(\omega) + Q_2(\omega) + \varepsilon I_{2\nu}$$
(9.10)

for all  $\omega_i \in \Re$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n ( $I_{2\nu}$  denotes the  $2\nu \times 2\nu$  identity matrix).

**Proof** *Proof of necessity:* Assume that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the domain  $\mathscr{P}$ . It results from Lemma 1 that there exists a matrix polynomial  $P(\alpha)$  such that  $\Phi(\alpha)$  given in (9.6) is positive definite over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ . Denote the (i, j) entry of  $\Phi(\alpha)$  with  $\phi_{ij}(\alpha)$  for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., 2v\}$ . Note that  $\phi_{ij}(\alpha)$  is a scalar polynomial. It is obvious that:

$$1 - (\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n) \left| \phi_{ij}(\alpha) - \phi_{ij}(\widetilde{\alpha}) \right|$$
(9.11)

for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., 2\nu\}$  (the notation  $\tilde{\alpha}$  is introduced in (9.4a)). Therefore:

$$1 - (\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n) \Phi(\alpha) - \Phi(\widetilde{\alpha})$$
(9.12)

Consider now the arbitrary scalars  $\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_n$ . Substituting  $\alpha_i = \omega_i^2$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n into (9.12) yields:

$$1 - (\omega_1^2 + \dots + \omega_{n-1}^2 + \omega_n^2) \left| \Phi(\omega^2) - \Phi(\widetilde{\omega^2}) \right|$$
(9.13)

Note that:

$$\widetilde{\omega^2} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \omega_1^2 & \cdots & \omega_{n-1}^2 & 1 - (\omega_1^2 + \cdots + \omega_{n-1}^2) \end{array} \right]$$
(9.14)

as defined in (9.4a) and (9.4c). It results from (9.13) that there exists a matrix polynomial  $G_1(\omega)$  such that:

$$\Phi(\omega^2) = (1 - \omega\omega^T) G_1(\omega) + \Phi(\widetilde{\omega^2})$$
(9.15)

It is to be noted that since  $\Phi(\alpha)$  is symmetric, so is  $G_1(\omega)$ . On the other hand, since  $\Phi(\alpha)$  is positive definite for any  $\alpha$  belonging to  $\mathscr{P}$ ,  $\Phi(\widetilde{\omega^2})$  is positive definite for any  $\omega_1, ..., \omega_{n-1}$  satisfying the inequality  $0 \le 1 - (\omega_1^2 + \dots + \omega_{n-1}^2)$  (note that the summation of the entries of  $\widetilde{\omega^2}$  is equal to 1). Thus, by considering  $g_1(\overline{\omega}) = 1 - \omega_1^2 - \dots - \omega_{n-1}^2$ ,  $h_0(\overline{\omega}) = 0$ ,  $h_1(\overline{\omega}) = 1$ , and r = 1, it can be concluded from Lemma 2 that there exist a scalar  $\varepsilon > 0$  and two SOS matrix polynomials  $G_2(\overline{\omega})$  and  $G_3(\overline{\omega})$  such that:

$$\Phi\left(\widetilde{\omega^2}\right) = \left(1 - \left(\omega_1^2 + \dots + \omega_{n-1}^2\right)\right) G_2(\overline{\omega}) + G_3(\overline{\omega}) + \varepsilon I_{2\nu}$$
(9.16)

Substituting (9.16) into (9.15) yields:

$$\Phi(\omega^{2}) = (1 - \omega\omega^{T}) G_{1}(\omega) + (1 - (\omega_{1}^{2} + \dots + \omega_{n-1}^{2})) G_{2}(\overline{\omega}) + G_{3}(\overline{\omega}) + \varepsilon I_{2\nu}$$

$$= (1 - \omega\omega^{T}) \left[ G_{1}(\omega) + G_{2}(\overline{\omega}) \right] + \left[ \omega_{n}^{2} G_{2}(\overline{\omega}) + G_{3}(\overline{\omega}) \right] + \varepsilon I_{2\nu}$$
(9.17)

Define now:

$$Q_1(\omega) := G_1(\omega) + G_2(\overline{\omega}), \quad Q_2(\omega) := \omega_n^2 G_2(\overline{\omega}) + G_3(\overline{\omega})$$
(9.18)

It is evident that  $Q_1(\omega)$  and  $Q_2(\omega)$  satisfy (9.10) (according to (9.17)). However, it is required to show that  $Q_2(\omega)$  defined above is SOS. Since  $G_2(\overline{\omega})$  and  $G_3(\overline{\omega})$  are SOS, as discussed earlier there exist two constant positive semidefinite matrices  $\Lambda_1$  and  $\Lambda_2$  such that:

$$G_2(\overline{\omega}) = \Omega(\overline{\omega})^T \Lambda_1 \Omega(\overline{\omega}), \quad G_3(\overline{\omega}) = \Omega(\overline{\omega})^T \Lambda_2 \Omega(\overline{\omega})$$
(9.19)

where  $\Omega(\omega)$  is a block vector whose block entries are all monomials of  $G_2(\overline{\omega})$  and  $G_3(\overline{\omega})$  times an identity matrix with a proper dimension. Therefore:

$$Q_{2}(\omega) = \begin{bmatrix} \Omega(\overline{\omega})^{T} & \omega_{n}\Omega(\overline{\omega})^{T} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \Lambda_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Omega(\overline{\omega}) \\ \omega_{n}\Omega(\overline{\omega}) \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.20)

Since  $\Lambda_1$  and  $\Lambda_2$  are positive semidefinite, it can be concluded from the above relation (by writing the semidefinite matrix in the above expression as the square of another matrix), that  $Q_2(\omega)$  is SOS. It is to be noted that since  $G_2(\overline{\omega})$  and  $G_3(\overline{\omega})$  are SOS, they are symmetric as well. On the other hand, it is shown that  $G_1(\omega)$  is also symmetric. As a result,  $Q_1(\omega)$  and  $Q_2(\omega)$  are both symmetric.

Proof of sufficiency: Suppose that there exist a scalar  $\varepsilon > 0$ , two symmetric matrix polynomials  $P(\alpha)$  and  $Q_1(\omega)$ , and a SOS matrix polynomial  $Q_2(\omega)$  such that the equality (9.10) holds for any real values  $\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_n$ . Consider now an arbitrary  $\alpha$  belonging to  $\mathscr{P}$ . It is obvious that there exists a vector  $\omega$  such that  $\alpha = \omega^2$ . Thus,  $\omega \omega^T = 1$ , and consequently (using the equation (9.10)):

$$\Phi(\alpha) = \Phi(\omega^2) = Q_2(\omega) + \varepsilon I_{2\nu}$$
(9.21)

Since  $\varepsilon$  is positive and  $Q_2(\omega)$  is assumed to be SOS and hence positive semidefinite, it can be concluded from the above equation that  $\Phi(\alpha)$  is positive definite. The proof follows directly from Lemma 1.

Theorem 1 presents a necessary and sufficient condition for the robust stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ . However, the obtained condition can be further simplified by eliminating the variable  $\varepsilon$ . This is carried out in the next Corollary.

**Corollary 1** The system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ , if and only if there exist a homogenous matrix polynomial  $\hat{P}(\omega)$  and matrix polynomials  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ , where

$$\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_n \end{bmatrix}, \text{ such that } \hat{Q}_2(\omega) \text{ is SOS, and:}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{P}(\omega^2) & A^T(\omega^2) \hat{P}(\omega^2) \\ \hat{P}(\omega^2) A(\omega^2) & \hat{P}(\omega^2) \end{bmatrix} = (1 - \omega \omega^T) \hat{Q}_1(\omega) + \hat{Q}_2(\omega) + I_{2\nu} \qquad (9.22)$$

for all  $\omega_i \in \mathfrak{R}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n.

**Proof** *Proof of necessity:* Consider the matrix polynomials  $P(\alpha)$ ,  $Q_1(\omega)$  and  $Q_2(\omega)$ , and the positive scalar  $\varepsilon$  in Theorem 1. Define the following matrix polynomials:

$$\hat{P}(\alpha) := \frac{P(\alpha)}{\varepsilon}, \ \hat{Q}_1(\omega) := \frac{Q_1(\omega)}{\varepsilon}, \ \hat{Q}_2(\omega) := \frac{Q_2(\omega)}{\varepsilon}$$
(9.23)

It is straightforward to verify (by using the result of Theorem 1) that  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  is SOS, and that the matrix polynomials  $\hat{P}(\omega)$ ,  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  satisfy the relation (9.22).

The proof of sufficiency is omitted due to its similarity to that of Theorem 1.

**Remark 1** The bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $Y_i(\omega)$ , i = 0, 1, ..., k, introduced in Lemma 2, are presented in [20] in terms of the structure of the matrix polynomial  $H(\omega)$ . On the other hand, a bound for the degree of the polynomial  $P(\alpha)$  is obtained in Lemma 1. Putting these bounds together in the proof of Theorem 1, one can easily obtain bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  in (9.22) along with the bound on the degree of  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$ .

Assuming arbitrary degrees and structures for the polynomials  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$ ,  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ , one can consider the unknown coefficients of these polynomials as some variables, expand both sides of the equation (9.22), and equate the corresponding terms in order to obtain a set of equality constraints in terms of the relevant variables (the coefficients). These constraints along with the property  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega) \ge 0$  establish a SDP problem [19]. Note that SDP problems can be solved by using a number of available softwares [21, 22]. This methodology will be clarified in the following corollary. **Corollary 2** The system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ , if there exist symmetric matrices  $P_1, P_2, ..., P_n$  and symmetric positive definite matrices  $Z_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j, such that the symmetric matrix U given by the following diagonal block entries:

$$U_{ii} = \begin{bmatrix} P_i & A'_i P_i \\ P_i A_i & P_i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$
(9.24)

and off-diagonal block entries:

$$U_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} P_i + P_j & A'_i P_j + A_j P_i \\ P_i A_j + P_j A_i & P_i + P_j \end{bmatrix} - Z_{ij}, \quad \forall i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, \quad i < j$$
(9.25)

is positive definite.

**Proof** Let the solvability of the equation (9.22) be verified under the following constraints for the polynomials  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$ ,  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ :

$$\hat{P}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i \alpha_i, \quad \hat{Q}_1(\omega) = -I_{2\nu} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} F_i \omega_i^2, \quad \hat{Q}_2(\omega) = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} F_{ij} \omega_i^2 \omega_j^2$$
(9.26)

Substituting (9.26) into (9.22), and equating the corresponding coefficients in both sides of the resulting equation yield:

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_{i} & 0\\ 0 & P_{i} \end{bmatrix} = F_{i} + I_{2\nu}, \quad i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$$

$$F_{i} + F_{j} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A_{i}^{T}P_{j} + A_{j}^{T}P_{i}\\ P_{i}A_{j} + p_{j}A_{i} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = F_{ij} + F_{ji}, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, \quad i \neq j$$
(9.27)

Therefore,

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_i + P_j & A_i^T P_j + A_j^T P_i \\ P_i A_j + p_j A_i & P_i + P_j \end{bmatrix} - 2I_{2\nu} = F_{ij} + F_{ji}, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, \quad i \neq j$$
(9.28)

On the other hand, it is straightforward to show that  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  given in (9.26) is SOS if there exist symmetric positive definite matrices  $Z_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j, such that the symmetric

matrix  $\overline{U}$  given by the following diagonal and off-diagonal block entries:

$$\bar{U}_{ii} = F_{ii}, \quad \forall \ i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, 
\bar{U}_{ij} = F_{ij} - Z_{ij}, \quad \forall \ i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, \quad i < j$$
(9.29)

is positive semidefinite. It can be concluded from (9.28) and (9.29) that:

$$\bar{U}_{ii} = \begin{bmatrix} P_i & A'_i P_i \\ P_i A_i & P_i \end{bmatrix} - I_{2\nu}, \quad \bar{U}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} P_i + P_j & A'_i P_j + A_j P_i \\ P_i A_j + P_i A_j & P_i + P_j \end{bmatrix} - Z_{ij} - I_{2\nu} \quad (9.30)$$

for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j. Now, one can easily verify that if there exist symmetric matrices  $P_1, P_2, ..., P_n$  and symmetric positive definite matrices  $Z_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j, such that the matrix U (with block entries given in (9.24) and (9.25)) is positive definite, then there exist symmetric matrices  $P_1, P_2, ..., P_n$  and symmetric positive definite matrices  $Z_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in$  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j, such that the symmetric matrix  $\overline{U}$  is positive semi-definite (note that if U is positive definite for a special set of  $P_1, P_2, ..., P_n$  and symmetric positive definite matrices  $Z_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , then by replacing the variables with a fixed multiple of them, the new matrix U will also be positive definite). This completes the proof.

It is to be noted that the LMI problem presented in Corollary 2 has been obtained by making very simple assumptions on the degrees and the structures of the corresponding polynomials, which lead to the form  $P_1\alpha_1 + P_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + P_n\alpha_n$  for  $P(\alpha)$ . Nevertheless, one can consider some degrees larger than the ones assumed in Corollary 2 for the polynomials, and follow a similar approach in order to attain a less conservative SDP (or LMI) problem.

It can be easily concluded from Remark 1 that in order to solve the robust stability problem accurately, the degrees of the polynomials  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$ ,  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  and  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$  should be considered equal to their bounds, which are typically large. This can result in a high-order SDP problem which is difficult to solve, in general. This introduces a trade-off between the conservativeness of the solution and the computational complexity.

#### 9.5 Simplification of the robust stability condition

It is shown in the previous section that the problem of robust stability can be formulated as a SDP problem, by assuming some values for the degrees of the polynomials  $\hat{P}(\alpha), \hat{Q}_1(\omega)$ and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ . However, as discussed earlier, by choosing large values for the degrees of these polynomials, the procedure proposed to obtain the corresponding SDP problem can be sophisticated. An alternative method will be presented in this section, which aims to convert the problem of robust stability to a SDP problem in a more efficient manner. The advantages of this alternative method will be discussed later.

It is important to note that from the two matrix polynomials in (9.22), only  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ is required to be SOS, and there is no constraint on  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$ . This implies that the matrix polynomial  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  does not have any significant role in the SDP, and it undesirably increases the number of the SDP variables. It is desired now to eliminate this redundant matrix variable from the SDP formulation.

**Definition 5** A subset V of  $\Re^m$  is called a hypersurface [23] if there exists a scalar polynomial  $f(\omega)$ , where  $\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_m \end{bmatrix}$ , such that the set of its roots is the same as V.

Consider a hypersurface V in the *m*-dimensional space. Since the dimension of V is less than *m*, if a point is chosen in the *m*-dimensional space, it *almost always* does not lie on V. Moreover, any point in the *m*-dimensional space, which is not located on the hypersurface V, is referred to as a generic point. Note that generic points can be provided by using a random number generator.

**Theorem 2** Consider a scalar polynomial  $f(\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_m)$ , where:

$$\omega_i = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{i_1} & \omega_{i_2} & \cdots & \omega_{i_k} \end{bmatrix}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad k \ge 2$$
(9.31)

Assume that there exist vectors  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, ..., \gamma_m \in \Re^k$  on the unit sphere, such that  $f(\gamma_1, \gamma_2, ..., \gamma_m) \neq 0$ . Choose m arbitrary points in the closed unit ball in the k-1 dimensional space and

denote their coordinates with  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} & \cdots & \lambda_{i_{k-1}} \end{bmatrix}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m. Define:  $\lambda_{i_k} = \sqrt{1 - \lambda_{i_1}^2 - \lambda_{i_2}^2 - \cdots - \lambda_{i_{k-1}}^2}$ (9.32)

and also  $\lambda_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} & \cdots & \lambda_{i_k} \end{bmatrix}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m. Then  $f(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_m) \neq 0$ , unless the vector  $\begin{bmatrix} \overline{\lambda}_1 & \overline{\lambda}_2 & \cdots & \overline{\lambda}_m \end{bmatrix} \in \Re^{1 \times (k-1).m}$  lies on a hypersurface in the (k-1).m dimensional space.

**Proof** Suppose that  $f(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_m) = 0$ . It is to be proved that  $\begin{bmatrix} \overline{\lambda}_1 & \overline{\lambda}_2 & \cdots & \overline{\lambda}_m \end{bmatrix}$  is located on a hypersurface. Fix all of the variables of  $f(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m)$ , except  $\omega_{m_k}$ , and divide the polynomial by  $\omega_{m_1}^2 + \cdots + \omega_{m_k}^2 - 1$ . It is obvious that the remainder of this division is of degree at most 1 with respect to  $\omega_{m_k}$ . Moreover, since the polynomial  $\omega_{m_1}^2 + \cdots + \omega_{m_k}^2 - 1$  is monic with respect to  $\omega_{m_k}$ , the remainder and the quotient of the division can both be expressed polynomially in terms of the other variables which have been set to be fixed so far. Denote the quotient of this division with the polynomial  $f_1(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m)$ , and its remainder with  $f_2(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m) + \omega_{m_k} f_3(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$ . It is to be noted that the polynomials  $f_2(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$  and  $f_3(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$  do not include the variable  $\omega_{m_k}$ , and as long as all of the variables except  $\omega_{m_k}$  are fixed, they act as two constant numbers.

$$f(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m) = (\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1) f_1(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m) + f_2(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$$

$$+ \omega_{m_k} f_3(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$$
(9.33)

It results from (9.33) that:

$$f_2(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{m-1}, \overline{\gamma}_m) + \gamma_{m_k} f_3(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{m-1}, \overline{\gamma}_m) \neq 0$$
(9.34)

and:

$$f_2(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{m-1}, \overline{\lambda}_m) + \lambda_{m_k} f_3(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{m-1}, \overline{\lambda}_m) = 0$$
(9.35)

(note that  $\lambda_m \lambda_m^T = \gamma_m \gamma_m^T = 1$ ). It can be concluded from (9.34) that the following polynomial:

$$f_2(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m) + \omega_{m_k} f_3(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$$
(9.36)

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is not divisible by  $\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1$ . Therefore, changing the variable  $\omega_{m_k}$  to  $-\omega_{m_k}$  in (9.36), the resultant polynomial:

$$f_2(\omega_1,...,\omega_{m-1},\overline{\omega}_m) - \omega_{m_k}f_3(\omega_1,...,\omega_{m-1},\overline{\omega}_m)$$
(9.37)

will not be divisible by  $\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1$  either. On the other hand,  $\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1 = \omega_{m_1}^2 + \omega_{m_2}^2 + \dots + \omega_{m_k}^2 - 1$  is irreducible due to the assumption  $k \ge 2$ . Since the polynomials (9.36) and (9.37) are not divisible by the irreducible polynomial  $\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1$ , neither is their product given by:

$$f_4(\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_m) := f_2(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)^2 - \omega_{m_k}^2 f_3(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)^2$$
(9.38)

As a result, there exists a vector  $\gamma'_m$  on the unit sphere in the k dimensional space, such that  $f_4(\gamma_1, \gamma_2, ..., \gamma_{m-1}, \gamma'_m) \neq 0$ . Since the polynomial  $f_4(\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_m)$  is of degree 2 with respect to the variable  $\omega_{m_k}$ , and also it does not contain any odd-order term (or more specifically, any first-order term) in  $\omega_{m_k}$ , its division by the polynomial  $\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1$  results in a remainder of degree zero with respect to  $\omega_{m_k}$ . Consequently, there exist two polynomials  $f_5(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m)$  and  $f_6(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$  with the property that:

$$f_4(\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_m) = (\omega_m \omega_m^T - 1) f_5(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m) + f_6(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$$
(9.39)

Note that  $\omega_{m_k}$  does not appear in  $f_6(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$ . It is now straightforward to show that:

$$f_6(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{m-1}, \overline{\gamma'}_m) \neq 0, \quad f_6(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{m-1}, \overline{\lambda}_m) = 0$$
(9.40)

It is important to note that the polynomial  $f_6(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$  is also equal to zero at m points on the unit sphere and at the same time is nonzero at m other points on the unit sphere, just like the polynomial  $f(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m)$ . Thus, one can eliminate the dependent variable  $\omega_{(m-1)_k}$  in the polynomial  $f_6(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \overline{\omega}_m)$ , using the same procedure used to eliminate  $\omega_{m_k}$  in the polynomial  $f(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1}, \omega_m)$ . Continuing this procedure and eliminating the variables  $\omega_{m_k}, \omega_{(m-1)_k}, ..., \omega_{1_k}$  one by one, will lead to the following result:

There exist a polynomial  $f_l(\overline{\omega}_1,...,\overline{\omega}_{m-1},\overline{\omega}_m)$  and vectors  $\gamma'_1,\gamma'_2,...,\gamma'_m$  on the unit sphere in the k dimensional space, such that:

$$f_l(\overline{\gamma}_1, ..., \overline{\gamma}_{m-1}, \overline{\gamma}_m) \neq 0,$$
 (9.41a)

$$f_l(\overline{\lambda}_1, ..., \overline{\lambda}_{m-1}, \overline{\lambda}_m) = 0$$
 (9.41b)

According to (9.41a),  $f_l(\overline{\omega}_1,...,\overline{\omega}_{m-1},\overline{\omega}_m)$  is a nonzero polynomial (i.e., it is not identical to zero) satisfying the equation (9.41b) for  $\overline{\lambda}_1,...,\overline{\lambda}_{m-1},\overline{\lambda}_m$ . This completes the proof.

The result of Theorem 2 will be used in the following theorem.

**Theorem 3** Consider a scalar polynomial  $z(\omega)$ , where  $\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \cdots & \omega_q \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $q \ge 2$ . Assume that the coefficients of  $z(\omega)$  are unknown, while its structure is known in terms of monomials. In other words,  $z(\omega) = MN(\omega)$ , where M is the nonzero row vector of the unknown coefficients and  $N(\omega)$  is the column vector of the given monomials of  $z(\omega)$  with m entries. Choose m points in the closed unit ball in the q-1 dimensional space, and denote their coordinates with  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} & \cdots & \lambda_{i_{q-1}} \end{bmatrix}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m. Define  $\lambda_{i_q} = \sqrt{1 - \lambda_{i_1}^2 - \lambda_{i_2}^2 - \cdots - \lambda_{i_{q-1}}^2}$  and also  $\lambda_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} & \cdots & \lambda_{i_q} \end{bmatrix}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m. There exists a nonzero row vector M such that the polynomial  $z(\omega) = MN(\omega)$  has the following property:

$$1 - \omega_1^2 - \omega_2^2 - \dots - \omega_q^2 \left| z(\omega) \right|$$
(9.42)

"almost always if" and only if the matrix  $T = \begin{bmatrix} N(\lambda_1) & N(\lambda_2) & \cdots & N(\lambda_m) \end{bmatrix}$  is singular.

**Proof** *Proof of sufficiency:* Suppose that the matrix *T* is singular, and that there exists no *M* such that the relation (9.42) holds. It is desired to prove that  $\begin{bmatrix} \overline{\lambda}_1 & \overline{\lambda}_2 & \cdots & \overline{\lambda}_m \end{bmatrix}$  lies on a hypersurface in the (q-1).m dimensional space. Among the vectors  $N(\lambda_1), \dots, N(\lambda_m)$ , identify the ones which can be written as linear combinations of the others and ignore them. Hence, without loss of generality, assume that  $N(\lambda_1), \dots, N(\lambda_k)$  are linearly independent and each of the remaining vectors can be expressed as a linear combination of them, where  $1 \leq N(\lambda_1) \leq N(\lambda_1)$ 

 $k \le m - 1$  (note that the assumption of *T* being singular implies that  $k \ne m$ ). Consider now the following matrix:

$$\Pi(\omega_1,...,\omega_{k+1}) = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} N(\omega_1) & N(\omega_2) & \cdots & N(\omega_{k+1}) \end{array} \right]$$
(9.43)

It is evident that there exists a vector  $\gamma$  on the unit sphere in the *q*-dimensional space, such that the columns of the matrix  $\Pi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_k, \gamma)$  are linearly independent, because otherwise for any vector  $\omega$  on the unit sphere,  $N(\omega)$  can be written as a linear combination of  $N(\lambda_1), N(\lambda_2), ..., N(\lambda_k)$  (this results from the fact that  $N(\lambda_1), ..., N(\lambda_k)$  are linearly independent). On the other hand, there exists a vector M such that:

$$M\left[\begin{array}{ccc}N(\lambda_1) & \cdots & N(\lambda_k)\end{array}\right] = 0 \tag{9.44}$$

due to the inequality k < m. Hence,  $MN(\omega) = 0$ , which means that the relation (9.42) holds. This contradicts the initial assumption, which in turn proves the existence of such vector  $\gamma$ .

Select any arbitrary k + 1 different rows of  $\Pi(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})$ , put them together to create a matrix, and denote the determinant of the resultant matrix with  $z_1(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})$ . Repeat this procedure  $s = \binom{m}{k+1}$  times (each time use different combination of k + 1 rows) to obtain the determinants  $z_i(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})$ , i = 1, 2, ..., s. Since the columns of  $\Pi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_k, \gamma)$  are linearly independent, the polynomials  $z_i(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})$ , i = 1, 2, ..., s, are not all zero (i.e., at least one of the set of k + 1 rows is linearly independent). On the other hand, since the columns of  $\Pi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_k, \lambda_i)$  are linearly dependent for any  $i \in \{k + 1, ..., m\}$ , the polynomials  $z_1(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k, \lambda_i), z_2(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k, \lambda_i), ..., z_s(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k, \lambda_i)$  are all zero for any  $i \in \{k + 1, ..., m\}$ . Define now  $f(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})$  as the polynomial  $z_1(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})^2 + \dots + z_s(\omega_1, ..., \omega_{k+1})^2$ . Therefore:

$$f(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k, \gamma) \neq 0 \tag{9.45}$$

and:

$$f(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k, \lambda_i) = 0, \quad i = k+1, k+2, ..., m$$
 (9.46)

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It follows from (9.45), (9.46) and Theorem 2 that  $\begin{bmatrix} \overline{\lambda}_1 & \overline{\lambda}_2 & \cdots & \overline{\lambda}_m \end{bmatrix}$  lies on a hypersurface in the (q-1).m dimensional space.

Proof of necessity: Assume that the relation (9.42) holds for a specific vector M. It can be concluded from the equality  $\lambda_i \lambda_i^T = 1$  that  $z(\lambda_i) = 0$  for any  $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ . As a result, MT = 0, which implies that the matrix T is singular.

To further clarify the results of Theorems 2 and 3 (which will be utilized to obtain an alternative SDP problem), consider the following simple example. Suppose that  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  are two real variables. It is desired to find out if there exist two constants *a* and *b* such that

$$1 - \omega_1^2 - \omega_2^2 \left| a\omega_1^4 + b\omega_2^2 \right|$$
(9.47)

Define  $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \end{bmatrix}$  and  $N(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1^4 \\ \omega_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$ , as stated in Theorem 3. Choose two numbers  $\lambda_{1_1}$  and  $\lambda_{2_1}$  in the interval [0, 1], and define  $\lambda_{1_2} = \sqrt{1 - \lambda_{1_1}^2}$  and  $\lambda_{2_2} = \sqrt{1 - \lambda_{2_1}^2}$ . Then, check the rank of the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} N(\lambda_{1_1}, \lambda_{1_2}) & N(\lambda_{2_1}, \lambda_{2_2}) \end{bmatrix}$ . If it is not full rank, then the desired vector *M* does not exist. Otherwise, for any vector *M* satisfying:

$$M\left[\begin{array}{cc}N(\lambda_{1_1},\lambda_{1_2}) & N(\lambda_{2_1},\lambda_{2_2})\end{array}\right] = 0$$
(9.48)

the relation (9.47) holds, unless  $[\lambda_{1_1} \ \lambda_{2_1}]$  lies on a hypersurface. For instance, consider  $\lambda_{1_1}$  and  $\lambda_{2_1}$  as 1 and 0, respectively. Then,

$$\begin{bmatrix} N(\lambda_{11},\lambda_{12}) & N(\lambda_{21},\lambda_{22}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.49)

which is full-rank. Therefore, there are no scalars *a* and *b* such that the relation (9.47) holds. However, pursuing the procedure presented in the proof of Theorem 3, one can conclude that if  $\lambda_{1_1}$  and  $\lambda_{2_1}$  are chosen in such a way that:

$$\lambda_{1_1}^2 + \lambda_{2_1}^2 - \lambda_{1_1}^2 \lambda_{2_1}^2 = 0 (9.50)$$

then  $\begin{bmatrix} N(\lambda_{1_1}, \lambda_{1_2}) & N(\lambda_{2_1}, \lambda_{2_2}) \end{bmatrix}$  may not be full-rank. Note that by choosing  $\lambda_{1_1}$  and  $\lambda_{2_1}$  randomly in the interval [0, 1], the relation (9.50) will never hold.

**Remark 2** The result of Theorem 3 can be easily extended to the case when  $z(\omega)$  is a matrix polynomial as opposed to a scalar one.

**Remark 3** The statement "T is singular" in Theorem 3 can be replaced by "the set of the linear equations  $z(\lambda_i) = 0$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m is solvable for the coefficients of  $z(\omega)$ ", as both statements are equivalent in general.

Represent now the matrices  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  in terms of their monomials as follows:

$$\hat{P}(\alpha) = \hat{P}\mathscr{E}_1(\alpha), \quad \hat{Q}_2(\omega) = \mathscr{E}_2(\omega)^T \hat{Q}\mathscr{E}_2(\omega)$$
(9.51)

where the block vectors of monomials  $\mathscr{E}_1(\alpha) \in \Re^{r_1 \cdot v \times v}$  and  $\mathscr{E}_2(\omega) \in \Re^{r_2 \cdot 2v \times 2v}$  have  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  block entries, respectively, and each of their block entries is equal to the product of a monomial and either  $I_v$  or  $I_{2v}$  (this will be illustrated in Example 1). Define now:

$$A := \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_n \end{array} \right], \tag{9.52a}$$

$$\mathscr{E}_{3}(\alpha) := \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \alpha_{1}I_{\nu} & \alpha_{2}I_{\nu} & \cdots & \alpha_{n}I_{\nu} \end{array} \right]^{T}, \qquad (9.52b)$$

$$\zeta := r_1 + nr_1 + r_2^2 + 1 \tag{9.52c}$$

**Proposition 1** Choose  $\zeta$  generic points in the closed unit ball in the n-1 dimensional space, and denote their coordinates with  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} & \cdots & \lambda_{i_{n-1}} \end{bmatrix}$ , for  $i = 1, 2, ..., \zeta$ . Define  $\lambda_{i_n} = \sqrt{\lambda_{i_1}^2 + \cdots + \lambda_{i_{n-1}}^2}$  and  $\lambda_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} & \cdots & \lambda_{i_n} \end{bmatrix}$ , for  $i = 1, 2, ..., \zeta$ . The system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the domain  $\mathscr{P}$ , if and only if there exist matrices  $\hat{Q} \ge 0$  and  $\hat{P}$ , and two block vectors  $\mathscr{E}_1(\alpha)$  and  $\mathscr{E}_2(\omega)$  of monomials, such that:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{P}\mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) & \mathscr{E}_{3}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{T}A^{T}\hat{P}\mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) \\ \mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{T}\hat{P}^{T}A\mathscr{E}_{3}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) & \hat{P}\mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) \end{bmatrix} - \mathscr{E}_{2}(\lambda_{i})^{T}\hat{Q}\mathscr{E}_{2}(\lambda_{i}) - I_{2\nu} = 0$$

$$(9.53)$$

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for any  $i = 1, 2, ..., \zeta$ , where  $\hat{P} = \begin{bmatrix} P_1 & P_2 & \cdots & P_{r_1} \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $P_i \in \Re^{v \times v}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., r_1$ , is symmetric.

**Proof** Consider the equation (9.22). Since there is not any explicit constraint on  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$ , one can eliminate this term from (9.22) to deduce that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ , if and only if there exist a symmetric matrix polynomial  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$  and a SOS matrix polynomial  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ , such that the polynomial:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{P}(\omega^2) & A^T(\omega^2) \hat{P}(\omega^2) \\ \hat{P}(\omega^2) A(\omega^2) & \hat{P}(\omega^2) \end{bmatrix} - \hat{Q}_2(\omega) - I_{2\nu}$$
(9.54)

is divisible by  $1 - \omega \omega^T$ . The proof follows from Remark 2.

 $\zeta$  defined in (9.52c) is a number which is desired to be equal to (or greater than) the number of monomials of the matrix given in (9.54), and can be obtained by counting the distinct monomials of the polynomials  $\mathscr{E}_1\left(\lambda_i^2\right)$ ,  $\mathscr{E}_1\left(\lambda_i^2\right)^T \mathscr{E}_3\left(\lambda_i^2\right)$ ,  $\mathscr{E}_2\left(\lambda_i^2\right)^T \mathscr{E}_2\left(\lambda_i^2\right)$ , and  $I_{2v}$ . However, it can be easily verified that the number of these monomials is at most equal to  $r_1 + n.r_1 + r_2^2 + 1$ .

**Remark 4** As discussed earlier, the approach presented in Section 9.4 for formulating the problem of robust stability as a SDP (or LMI) problem is based on choosing arbitrary degrees for the polynomials  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$ ,  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ , expanding both sides of the equation (9.22), and equating the corresponding coefficients in both sides of the equality in order to obtain a set of constraints in the form of linear equalities. However, if the degrees chosen are large, this approach will not be efficient. Another alternative which is presented in this section, is to consider two vectors of monomials for  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$ , and then to choose some generic points in the closed unit ball, which lead to a set of linear equality constraints as given in Proposition 1. The fundamental issue concerning this method is that no manipulations, such as expanding the equation or equating the coefficients, are required to be performed. Furthermore, the variable  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  is cancelled out in this approach, which simplifies the procedure. In

addition, instead of defining several matrix variables for the corresponding unknown coefficients, only two matrix variables are needed to be defined.

**Remark 5** Since there exist bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $\hat{P}(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  in (9.22) as pointed out earlier, one can choose the block vectors  $\mathscr{E}_1(\alpha)$  and  $\mathscr{E}_2(\omega)$  of monomials in such a way that the result obtained for robust stability in Proposition 1 is not conservative.

#### 9.6 Robust stability over semi-algebraic sets

Given the scalar polynomials  $g_1(\alpha), ..., g_\eta(\alpha)$ , define the semi-algebraic set  $\mathcal{M}$  as follows:

$$\mathscr{M} := \left\{ \alpha \mid g_1(\alpha) \ge 0, ..., g_\eta(\alpha) \ge 0 \right\}$$
(9.55)

Assume that the following mild assumption is satisfied for the semi-algebraic set  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Assumption 1**  $\mathcal{M}$  is compact, and there exists SOS scalar polynomials  $y_0(\alpha), y_1(\alpha), ..., y_{\eta}(\alpha)$  such that the set of all vectors  $\alpha$  satisfying the inequality:

$$y_0(\alpha) + y_1(\alpha)g_1(\alpha) + \dots + y_\eta(\alpha)g_\eta(\alpha) \ge 0$$
(9.56)

is compact.

It is to be noted that Assumption 1 is required here in order to use Putinar's theorem. The objective is now to find out whether or not the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable (or equivalently, the matrix  $A(\alpha)$  is Schur) over the semi-algebraic set  $\mathscr{M}$ .

**Theorem 4** The system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the domain  $\mathscr{M}$ , if and only if there exist a matrix polynomial  $P(\alpha)$  and SOS matrix polynomials  $Q_0(\alpha), Q_1(\alpha), ..., Q_\eta(\alpha)$  such that:

$$\begin{vmatrix} P(\alpha) & A^{T}(\alpha)P(\alpha) \\ P(\alpha)A(\alpha) & P(\alpha) \end{vmatrix} = Q_{0}(\alpha) + Q_{1}(\alpha)g_{1}(\alpha) + \dots + Q_{\eta}(\alpha)g_{\eta}(\alpha) + I_{2\nu}$$

$$(9.57)$$

for all  $\alpha_i \in \mathfrak{R}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n.

**Proof** Since  $\mathscr{M}$  is compact, there exists a ball which contains  $\mathscr{M}$ . Let the radius of this ball be denoted by r. It is obvious that for any  $\alpha$  belonging to the semi-algebraic set  $\mathscr{M}$ , the function  $r^2 - \alpha \alpha^T$  is positive. Therefore, it can be concluded from Assumption 1 and Putinar's theorem that there exist SOS scalar polynomials  $h_0(\alpha), h_1(\alpha), ..., h_\eta(\alpha)$  such that:

$$r^{2} - \alpha \alpha^{T} = h_{0}(\alpha) + h_{1}(\alpha)g_{1}(\alpha) + \dots + h_{\eta}(\alpha)h_{\eta}(\alpha)$$
(9.58)

The above relation implies that the condition of Lemma 2 holds. The proof follows by using the results of Lemmas 1 and 2 and employing the technique exploited in the proof of Corollary 1 for eliminating the scalar  $\varepsilon$ .

4 presents a necessary and sufficient condition for the robust stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  over the semi-algebraic set  $\mathscr{M}$  satisfying Assumption 1. This condition can simply be converted to a SDP problem, as discussed earlier. It is to be noted that the bound on the degree of the polynomial  $P(\alpha)$  is given in Lemma 1. Moreover, the bound on the degree of the polynomial  $Q_i(\alpha), i = 0, 1, ..., \eta$  can be computed using the method proposed in [20], provided the bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $h_0(\alpha), h_1(\alpha), ..., h_\eta(\alpha)$  are known as *a priori*.

It is worth noting that  $\hat{P}(\alpha)$  in Corollary 1 is a homogeneous polynomial, whereas  $P(\alpha)$  in Theorem 4 is not necessarily homogeneous.

**Remark 6** The semi-algebraic set  $\mathscr{M}$  has a more general definition compared to the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ . Thus, as a special case,  $\mathscr{M}$  can be assumed to be the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ . This means that Theorem 4 presents a necessary and sufficient condition for the robust stability of  $\mathscr{S}$  over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ , which has n+2 matrix variables. However, it is not surprising that the number of matrix variables is reduced to 3 in Corollary 1, because a polytope is a special semi-algebraic set with certain properties which are used to obtain this simplified result.

**Remark 7** It is shown in [20] that when the polynomials  $g_i(\alpha)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., \eta$  are affine, there exist polynomials  $h_0(\alpha), h_1(\alpha), ..., h_\eta(\alpha)$  of degrees at most 2 to satisfy the equation (9.58).

This can be used to find bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $Q_0(\alpha), Q_1(\alpha), ..., Q_\eta(\alpha)$ . It is interesting to note that a similar problem (affine uncertainty) is studied in [14], but no bound on the degree of the corresponding polynomial is obtained. Instead, it is shown in [14] that as the degree of the polynomial increases, the obtained conditions become closer to being necessary and sufficient.

#### 9.7 Comparison with existing works

#### 9.7.1 Comparison with [2]

Assume that the matrix polynomials  $\hat{P}(\omega), \hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  in the equation (9.22) are of degrees 0, 0 and 2, respectively. Let these polynomials be represented as follows:

$$\hat{P}(\omega) = P, \quad \hat{Q}_1(\omega) = F, \quad \hat{Q}_2(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^n F_i \omega_i^2$$
(9.59)

By substituting these polynomials in (9.22) and noting that  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  is SOS if and only if  $F_1, ..., F_n \ge 0$ , one can conclude that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  with a common Lyapunov function, if there exists a matrix P such that the following inequalities hold:

$$\begin{bmatrix} P & A_i^T P \\ PA_i & P \end{bmatrix} - I_{2\nu} \ge 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$(9.60)$$

It is straightforward to show that the above SDP problem is feasible if and only if the following LMI problem is feasible:

$$\begin{bmatrix} P & A_i^T P \\ PA_i & P \end{bmatrix} > 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
(9.61)

(note that if the inequality (9.61) has a solution, a multiple of it which causes the matrix given in (9.61) to have eigenvalues with real parts greater than 1, is a solution of (9.60)). The LMI given in (9.61) is the same as the condition of quadratic stability. In other words, a system is robustly quadratically stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  if and only if the LMI given above is feasible. It is desired now to find out whether the method given in [2] is able to provide the quadratic stability condition or not. According to [2], the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  with a common Lyapunov function if there exist a positive definite matrix P, symmetric matrices  $G_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j and a matrix Z, satisfying the following constraints:

$$\begin{bmatrix} U & Z \\ Z^T & F \end{bmatrix} > 0, \quad Z + Z^T = 0, \quad U = U^T, \quad U_{ii} = P - A_i^T P A_i, \quad i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$$

$$U_{ij} = P - \frac{A_i^T P A_j + A_j^T P A_i - G_{ij}}{2}, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, \quad i < j$$
(9.62)

where *F* is a block diagonal matrix with block diagonal entries  $G_{ij}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , i < j, and  $U_{ij}$  denotes the (i, j) block entry of *U* for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . It is obvious that this LMI problem has numerous free variables, and is much more sophisticated than the LMI problem obtained above. Moreover, it is not easily deducible how much more conservative the LMI condition of [2] (which leads to (9.62)) is, compared to the condition obtained in the present work which is necessary and sufficient for quadratic stability over the polytope.

By pursuing a procedure similar to the one carried out above for a common Lyapunov function, it can be easily shown that the method proposed in this chapter is superior to [2] for any arbitrary degree of Lyapunov function in terms of complexity as well as feasibility of the LMI problem. Furthermore, as pointed out earlier, if the degrees of the polynomials  $\hat{P}(\omega), \hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  and  $\hat{Q}_2(\omega)$  are chosen sufficiently large, i.e. equal to their bounds obtained from Lemma 1 and [20], the feasibility of the resultant LMI (or SDP) problem obtained by the method proposed in this chapter turns out to be equivalent to a necessary and sufficient condition for the robust stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}$ . On the contrary, no matter how large the degree of the Lyapunov function in [2] is chosen, the corresponding LMI problem might only give a sufficient condition. This is a consequence of representing a positive definite homogeneous matrix polynomial as SOS, which is not possible in general, even for the case of scalar polynomials as explained in the introduction (see [17] for a more detailed discussion).

#### 9.7.2 Comparison with [1]

The method given in [1] (like the one in [2]) seeks Lyapunov functions in the form of homogeneous polynomials with any arbitrary degree. However, since it imposes the constraint of positivity on all the coefficients of a polynomial which is positive for nonnegative values, its solution can potentially be very conservative. This constraint is, in fact, even more restrictive than the one in [2], i.e., representing a positive polynomial as a sum of squares of some other polynomials. Therefore, as shown in several simulations in [1], this work cannot outperform [2] in general, when the degrees of the Lyapunov functions are set to be the same in both works. However, the method proposed in [1] introduces a simpler LMI problem (compared to the one in [2]) at the cost of imposing the aforementioned strong constraint. It can be easily deduced from the description above and the comparison made in the previous subsection, that the present work far outperforms the results obtained in [1], while the problem formulation in [1] is slightly simpler than the one provided in this chapter. It is to be noted that no convergence proof is given in [1] (i.e., there is no guarantee that the solution converges to the exact value, by unboundedly increasing the degree of the Lyapunov function). Some of these issues are illustrated in Example 2.

#### **9.7.3** Comparison with [4, 3]

There are several works which consider first-order polynomial Lyapunov functions, whose results cannot be extended to the case with higher-order Lyapunov polynomials. Moreover, none of these methods provides a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a first-order polynomial Lyapunov function. In other words, they cannot guarantee that once their LMI conditions are infeasible for a given system, then by using any first-order polynomial Lyapunov function it is known that the system is not robustly stable. Nevertheless the present

work leads to a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a Lyapunov function with any fixed order (including first order). It is to be noted that the robust stability of systems, in general case, cannot be detected by means of first-order polynomial Lyapunov functions. However, the methods which seek only first-order polynomial Lyapunov functions, require less computational effort compared to the methods which use higher-order ones. For instance, the work [4] presents a very simple condition, at the price of a very conservative result. For instance, a system is given in Example 3 whose robust stability can be determined by using a first-order polynomial Lyapunov function (using the method proposed in this chapter), while the method in [4] fails to detect this property, even when the parameters of the system are scaled down to improve the detectability of the robust stability. Moreover, the method proposed in [3] which has proved to be more powerful than the previous works with first-order polynomial Lyapunov functions, presents a SDP problem with several free variables and LMI conditions. It is straightforward to verify that the present work (when constrained to first-order polynomial Lyapunov functions) performs as good as the method in [3] but with fewer number of variables, and thus a simpler LMI problem, as illustrated in Example 4.

#### 9.8 Numerical examples

Example 1 illustrates the effectiveness of the present work, while Examples 2, 3 and 4 aim to compare the results of this work with the existing methods.

**Example 1** Suppose that n = 2, and that  $\mathscr{E}_2(\omega)$  has the monomials  $\omega_1^2$ ,  $\omega_2^2$  and  $\omega_1 \omega_2$ . It is desired to check the robust stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  by choosing Lyapunov functions of the

form  $*\alpha_1 + *\alpha_2$ , where the symbols \* represent two arbitrary matrices. Choose:

$$\mathscr{E}_{1}(\alpha) = \mathscr{E}_{3}(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{1}I_{\nu} \\ \alpha_{2}I_{\nu} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathscr{E}_{2}(\omega) = \begin{bmatrix} I_{2\nu} \\ \omega_{1}^{2}I_{2\nu} \\ \omega_{2}^{2}I_{2\nu} \\ \omega_{1}\omega_{2}I_{2\nu} \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.63)

One can consider  $\zeta = 2 + 2 \times 3 + 3 \times 3 + 1 = 18$  or find the monomials of the relation (9.54) as follows:

$$\omega_1^2, \ \omega_2^2, \ \omega_1^4, \ \omega_2^4, \ \omega_1^2 \omega_2^2, \ \omega_1 \omega_2, \ \omega_1^3 \omega_2, \ \omega_1 \omega_2^3, \ 1$$
 (9.64)

and set  $\zeta$  to be equal to 9 (the exact number of monomials in (9.64)). Choose 9 generic points  $\lambda_{i_1}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., 9 in the interval [0 1] (e.g., by using a random number generator). Define  $\lambda_{i_2} := \sqrt{1 - \lambda_{i_1}^2}$  and  $\lambda_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i_1} & \lambda_{i_2} \end{bmatrix}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., 9. It can be concluded from Proposition1 that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable in the domain  $\mathscr{P}$ , if and only if there exist a matrix  $\hat{P} \in \Re^{\nu \times 2\nu}$  and a positive semidefinite matrix  $\hat{Q} \in \Re^{8\nu \times 8\nu}$  such that:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{P}\mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) & \mathscr{E}_{3}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{T}A^{T}\hat{P}\mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) \\ \mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{T}\hat{P}^{T}A\mathscr{E}_{3}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) & \hat{P}\mathscr{E}_{1}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right) \end{bmatrix} - \mathscr{E}_{2}(\lambda_{i})^{T}\hat{Q}\mathscr{E}_{2}(\lambda_{i}) - I_{2\nu} = 0$$

$$(9.65)$$

for  $i = 1, 2, ..., \zeta$ , where  $A := \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\hat{P} = \begin{bmatrix} P_1 & P_2 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $P_i \in \Re^{v \times v}$  is symmetric for i = 1, 2. This SDP problem is quite systematic, because there is only one relation given by (9.65) which is required to hold for several vectors. Furthermore, the relation (9.65) can be obtained by using any relevant software. Note that there are  $v(v+1) + \frac{8v(8v+1)}{2} = 33v^2 + 5v$  free scalar variables in this case. Now, it is desired to formulate this problem by using Corollar1 directly. The assumption (9.63) and the equation (9.22) result in the following monomials for the matrix polynomial  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$ :

1, 
$$\omega_1 \omega_2$$
,  $\omega_1^2$ ,  $\omega_2^2$  (9.66)

Therefore, one can write  $\hat{Q}_1(\omega)$  in terms of these monomials as follows:

$$\hat{Q}_1(\omega) = F_0 + F_1 \omega_1 \omega_2 + F_2 \omega_1^2 + F_3 \omega_2^2$$
(9.67)

where  $F_i \in \Re^{2\nu \times 2\nu}$ , i = 0, 1, 2, 3. Using the equations (9.51), (9.63), (9.67) and (9.22), along with the methodology presented in Corollary 1, one will obtain 9 matrix equations with the order of  $2\nu$ , in terms of the variables  $F_0, ..., F_3$  and the block entries of  $\hat{P}$  and  $\hat{Q}$ . Furthermore, there are  $33\nu^2 + 5\nu + 4\frac{2\nu(2\nu+1)}{2} = 41\nu^2 + 9\nu$  free scalar variables in this case, which is about 1.25 times greater than the number of variables obtained by using Proposition1. To compare the methods given in Corollary 1 and Proposition 1 for this particular example, it should be pointed out that:

- 1. Both approaches have 9 matrix equations, any of which is of order 2v.
- 2. The nine equations resulted by using Proposition1 have the same form, and can be obtained by using many simple softwares, while the equations resulted by using Corollary 1 are obtained through manipulation.
- 3. There are much fewer variables in Proposition 1 compared to Corollary 1. This is of great importance when v is large.

**Example 2** Assume that n = 2, and that  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are given by:

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 \\ 1.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.68)

It is desirable to determine the maximum value of  $\mu$ , for which the matrix  $\mu(\alpha_1A_1 + \alpha_2A_2)$ ,  $\forall \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathscr{P}$  is Schur. Three different methods are employed in the following to solve this problem.

1. The work given in [2] states that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  with a first-order Lyapunov polynomial  $P_1\alpha_1 + P_2\alpha_2$ , if there exist three symmetric positive definite matrices  $P_1, P_2$  and U, and two symmetric matrices  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$ , satisfying

the following constraints:

$$U_{11} = P_1 - A_1 P_1 A_1, \quad U_{22} = P_2 - A_2 P_2 A_2, \quad U_{33} = Z_1, \quad U_{44} = Z_2,$$

$$U_{13} = \frac{2P_1 - A_1' P_1 A_2 - A_2' P_1 A_1 - A_1' P_2 A_1 - Z_2}{2},$$

$$U_{24} = \frac{2P_2 - A_2' P_2 A_1 - A_2' P_1 A_2 - A_1' P_2 A_2 - Z_1}{2}$$

$$U_{12} + U_{12}^T + U_{34} + U_{34}^T = 0, \quad U_{14} + U_{14}^T = 0, \quad U_{23} + U_{23}^T = 0$$
(9.69)

where  $U_{ij}$  denotes the (i, j) block entry of the matrix U for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . Solving this LMI problem results in  $\mu = 1.07$ .

2. The work presented in [1] states that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  with a first-order Lyapunov polynomial  $P_1\alpha_1 + P_2\alpha_2$ , if there exist two symmetric matrices  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  such that the following inequalities hold:

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_{1} & A_{1}'P_{1} \\ P_{1}A_{1} & P_{1} \end{bmatrix} > 0, \begin{bmatrix} P_{1}+P_{2} & A_{1}'P_{2}+A_{2}P_{1} \\ P_{1}A_{2}+P_{2}A_{1} & P_{1}+P_{2} \end{bmatrix} > 0,$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_{2} & A_{2}'P_{2} \\ P_{2}A_{2} & P_{2} \end{bmatrix} > 0$$
(9.70)

The value of  $\mu$  obtained by solving the above LMI problem is 1.11.

3. It can be concluded from Corollary2 of the present chapter that the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  with a first-order Lyapunov polynomial  $P_1\alpha_1 + P_2\alpha_2$ , if there exist two symmetric matrices  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , and a symmetric positive definite matrix Z, such that the matrix U is positive definite, where

$$U_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} P_1 & A'_1 P_1 \\ P_1 A_1 & P_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad U_{12} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} P_1 + P_2 & A'_1 P_2 + A_2 P_1 \\ P_1 A_2 + P_2 A_1 & P_1 + P_2 \end{bmatrix} - Z,$$

$$U_{22} = \begin{bmatrix} P_2 & A'_2 P_2 \\ P_2 A_2 & P_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.71)

and where  $U_{ij}$  denotes the (i, j) block entry of the matrix U for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2\}$ . The solution of this LMI problem is  $\mu = 1.19$ .

It can be easily verified in this simple example that the exact value of  $\mu$  is equal to 1.20. It is worth noticing that while the above three LMI problems are obtained by making the same assumption, i.e. considering Lyapunov functions in the form of first-order polynomials, the LMI given by the present work leads to an almost exact solution and outperforms the results obtained by the LMIs given in [1] and [2]. Note also that the LMI presented in [2] is more complicated than the one provided in this chapter. Moreover, although the LMI obtained in [1] is slightly simpler than the one in this work, its solution is far from the exact value. On the other hand, in order to obtain a result closer to the exact value using the approach given in [1], the degree of the corresponding Lyapunov function should be at least 2, which leads to a much more complex LMI problem compared to the one obtained in this chapter.

**Example 3** Assume that n = 2, and consider the system  $\mathcal{S}$  with the following matrices:

$$A_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1.44 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.44 \\ -0.044 & -0.43 & -1.18 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1.44 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.44 \\ 0.044 & -0.43 & 1.18 \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.72)

Using the result of Corollary2, one can conclude the robust stability of the system  $\mathscr{S}$  over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ , by employing a first-order Lyapunov function. However, this observation cannot be made by using the method presented in [4], which examines a certain class of firstorder Lyapunov functions only, and the corresponding LMI problem is infeasible. Using the method given in [4], one can easily verify that the maximum value of  $\mu$  such that the matrix  $\mu(\alpha_1A_1 + \alpha_2A_2)$  is Schur for any  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  belonging to the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$  is equal to 0.84 (note that the value of  $\mu$  obtained by using the method proposed in this chapter is greater than or equal to 1). This inferior result is due to the fact that the condition given in [4] is obtained by imposing some additional constraints on the Lyapunov function. **Example 4** Assume that n = 2, and consider the system  $\mathcal{S}$  with the following matrices:

$$A_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.3 & 0.45 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.3 \\ -0.03 & -0.15 & -0.18 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.3 & -0.45 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.3 \\ 0.03 & -0.15 & 0.18 \end{bmatrix}$$
(9.73)

The objective is to determine the maximum value of  $\mu$ , such that the matrix  $\mu(\alpha_1A_1 + \alpha_2A_2)$ is Schur over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ . The method given in [4] results in  $\mu = 4.30$ . The LMI given in Corollary 2 of the present chapter arrives at  $\mu = 4.39$ . On the other hand, according to [3] (which considers first-order Lyapunov functions only) the system  $\mathscr{S}$  is robustly stable over the polytope  $\mathscr{P}$ , if there exist six symmetric matrices  $P_1, P_2, Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, Z_4$  and two matrices  $Z_5$ and  $Z_6$  such that:

$$A_{1}^{T}P_{1}A_{1} - P_{1} < Z_{1}, \quad A_{2}^{T}P_{2}A_{2} - P_{2} < Z_{4},$$

$$A_{1}^{T}P_{1}A_{2} + A_{2}^{T}P_{1}A_{1} + A_{1}^{T}P_{2}A_{1} - 2P_{1} - P_{2} \le Z_{3} + Z_{5} + Z_{5}^{T}$$

$$A_{2}^{T}P_{2}A_{1} + A_{1}^{T}P_{2}A_{2} + A_{2}^{T}P_{1}A_{2} - 2P_{2} - P_{1} \le Z_{2} + Z_{6} + Z_{6}^{T}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z_{1} & Z_{5} \\ Z_{5}^{T} & Z_{2} \end{bmatrix} \le 0, \quad \begin{bmatrix} Z_{3} & Z_{6} \\ Z_{6}^{T} & Z_{4} \end{bmatrix} \le 0$$

$$(9.74)$$

Solving the above LMI leads to  $\mu = 4.39$ . As a result, the present work and [3] both arrive at the same value for  $\mu$ . However, the LMI of this chapter has fewer variables and fewer LMI constraints compared to that of [3], and thus the proposed LMI is simpler than the one given in [3]. It is to be noted that the exact value of  $\mu$  for this example is indeed 4.39.

# 9.9 Conclusions

In this chapter, the robust stability of discrete-time LTI systems with uncertainties belonging to a compact semi-algebraic set is investigated. It is shown that the robust stability of a system over a polytope is equivalent to the existence of three matrix polynomials with some bounds on their degrees, which satisfy a specific relation. A method is also presented to convert the problem to a semidefinite programming (SDP) framework. Furthermore, using the proposed method, one can choose smaller bounds for the degrees of the three matrix polynomials (instead of the exact bounds which may be very large), to simplify the SDP problem. This introduces a trade-off between the simplicity of the resultant equations, and their conservativeness. In addition, if the bounds on the degrees are large, another method is presented to obtain a SDP problem with fewer number of variables, which reduces the computational complexity. The case when uncertainties belong to a semi-algebraic set satisfying a mild condition is then studied, and a necessary and sufficient condition in the form of nonparametric SDP is presented accordingly. It is to be noted that the results obtained in this chapter, unlike earlier works, present a necessary and sufficient condition in the form of nonparametric LMI or SDP. The examples given demonstrate the efficacy of the present work, compared to the existing methods.

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# Chapter 10

# **Global Optimization of a Rational Function Subject to Rational Inequalities**

# 10.1 Abstract

Motivated by many control applications, this chapter deals with the optimization of a rational function subject to a number of rational inequalities. First, the problem of finding the infimum of a given polynomial function is formulated as a sum-of-squares (SOS) problem, which can be handled efficiently by existing software tools. The results obtained are then extended to the rational functions. The problem of finding the infimum of a rational function subject to some inequalities in the form of some other rational functions is then investigated. To this end, the infimum of the rational objective function is presented in a way similar to the polynomial case. In the case when the infimum is not finite but some mild *a priori* knowledge is available about either the constraints or the solution, the problem is formulated completely as SOS. The efficacy of the proposed methods are demonstrated in three numerical examples.

# **10.2** Introduction

Optimization often appears in many practical problems, and has attracted many researchers in the area of control systems. Optimization problems can be categorized as constrained and unconstrained, where the constraints can be in the forms of equalities and inequalities. An important class of optimization problems involves minimization of a rational function, and in some cases subject to certain rational inequalities. Problems of this kind arise in several practical applications, some of which are listed below:

- The high-performance decentralized control design problem, where a set of local controllers is desired to be obtained for the minimum achievable performance index, can be formulated as the computation of the global optimum of a polynomially constrained optimization problem [1].
- The problem of identifying the state-space model of a structural dynamic system satisfying some constraints can be translated to the minimization of a rational function subject to some rational constraints [2]. The main concern in this problem is how to find the global solution as opposed to a local one.
- In constrained model predictive control, where it is desired to predict the controlled variables over a future horizon, the minimization of a polynomial subject to some polynomial constraints is to be carried out in order to treat the problem [3, 4].
- Certain robust control problems such as parametric stability margin computation, can be formulated as checking the positiveness of a polynomial on a hyperrectangle, as pointed out in [5].
- The minimum norm problem which is investigated in the literature intensively, turns out to be equivalent to finding the global optimum of a polynomially constrained optimization problem [6].

• Minimization of a rational function is inevitably required in the problem of optimal model reduction [7].

The above practical applications point to the viable role of the aforementioned optimization problem in the real-world systems. This chapter deals with the optimization of a rational function subject to a number of constraints by means of sum-of-squares (SOS) techniques [8, 9, 10]. The problem of finding the infimum of a polynomial is first considered, and SOS formulations are presented accordingly. The obtained SOS problems can be solved by using a number of softwares quite efficiently. The proposed approach is then extended to the case of finding the infimum of a rational function. Finally, the problem of obtaining the infimum of a rational function over a region defined by some other rational functions is investigated. As the first step, it is checked whether the objective function has a lower bound or not, and in the case of boundedness, a simple SOS formulation is presented. For the case when the objective function is unbounded from below, it is shown that if some *a priori* knowledge is available, the problem can be solved efficiently. This *a priori* knowledge can be the radius of a ball which contains the region defined by the rational functions, if exists. However, the knowledge on the lower bound of the infimum to be found suffices to solve the aforementioned problem, in general.

#### **10.3** Preliminaries

Consider a polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , where  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix}$ , and denote its infimum with  $\alpha_*$ . In the recent years, the problem of finding  $\alpha_*$  has been investigated in the literature intensively from the viewpoint of semidefinite programming (SDP). These works will be surveyed below, and their drawbacks will be highlighted.

The work [11] states that  $\alpha_*$  is equal to the maximum value of  $\alpha$ , such that the polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha$  is nonnegative. Then, in order to alleviate the complexity of the problem,

it relaxes the condition of nonnegativity of  $f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha$  to being SOS. This relaxation is made based on the obvious fact that any SOS polynomial is nonnegative, however its converse is not necessarily true. Hence, the work [11] proposes the new problem of maximization of  $\alpha$  such that  $f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha$  is SOS, which can be handled by the relevant softwares. Note that the obtained solution is a lower bound for  $\alpha_*$ . Although this approach works satisfactorily to some degree, it can be very conservative in general, due to the aforementioned relaxation. As an example, the infimum obtained for the polynomial:

$$x_1^4 x_1^2 + x_1^2 x_2^4 + 1 - 3x_1^2 x_2^2 \tag{10.1}$$

by utilizing this method is equal to  $-\infty$ , while the exact infimum is 0. It is shown in [12] that for any integer  $d \ge 2$ , the ratio of the volume of the nonnegative non-SOS homogeneous polynomials of degree 2d and that of the SOS homogeneous polynomials with the same degree rapidly grows towards infinity, as n goes to infinity. This implies that the relaxation used in [11] and some other relevant papers is not always well-established.

As a remedy for the drawback associated with [11], the technique of using some *a priori* knowledge of the minimizer of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is exploited in [13]. Assume that  $x_*$  is known to be inside a ball of radius *r* centered at the origin. It is a direct consequence of Putinar's theorem [14] that  $\alpha_*$  is equal to the maximum value of  $\alpha$ , for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x})$  with the following property:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha = \left(r^2 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T\right)\phi_1(\mathbf{x}) + \phi_2(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.2)

Note that the coefficients of the polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x})$  are in terms of  $\alpha$ . The advantage of this formulation is that it is a SOS problem. Nevertheless, this method cannot address the following questions systematically:

- Does  $f(\mathbf{x})$  have a infimum?
- can f(x) attain its infimum, if it exists (i.e. does there exist a finite point corresponding to that infimum)?

• If the infimum is attainable, how can the radius *r* be determined?

The open questions given above (specially the last one) make this approach ad-hoc in general. This technique is also utilized in [15].

The method proposed in [16] attempts to eliminate the gap between SOS polynomials and nonnegative polynomials, which is useful in resolving the deficiency of the work [11]. Consider a nonnegative polynomial  $p(\mathbf{x})$ . It is shown in [16] that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a number  $r(p, \varepsilon)$  such that the polynomial:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{r(p,\varepsilon)} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{x_j^{2i}}{i!}$$
(10.3)

is SOS. Note that  $r(p,\varepsilon)$  depends on p(x) and  $\varepsilon$ . This nice result incorporates the nonnegative polynomials into the SOS ones.

The work [17] considers the problem of minimizing a polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . It perturbs  $f(\mathbf{x})$  by a penalty function as:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{2\sigma+2}$$
(10.4)

where  $2\sigma$  denotes the degree of  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . The method proposed in [17] asserts the following advantages of the perturbed  $f(\mathbf{x})$  given by (10.4):

- The infimum of the perturbed  $f(\mathbf{x})$  approaches that of  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , as  $\varepsilon$  goes to zero.
- Although  $f(\mathbf{x})$  may not attain its infimum, the perturbed  $f(\mathbf{x})$  always attains the corresponding infimum.

An algorithm is then proposed in [17] to obtain the infimum of the perturbed  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . However, as pointed out in [18], the required computational cost is huge, which restricts its applications to small-sized problems. Besides, it may have the problem of ill-conditioning like many other penalty-based approaches.

The results of [17] have further been developed in [18]. It is shown that the infimum of the perturbed  $f(\mathbf{x})$  given by (10.4) is inside a ball. The radius of this ball is also obtained

in [18]. Next, the ball technique mentioned earlier is employed to find the infimum of the perturbed  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . Nonetheless, there are some shortcomings with regard to this approach. First of all, the radius of that ball is proportional to  $\frac{n^{\sigma}}{\varepsilon}$ , which is usually very large. Moreover, some of the values used in the formulation are in terms of  $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . These result in an ill-conditioned optimization problem, for which  $\varepsilon$  should be considered neither small (due to the mentioned difficulties) nor large (due to the required accuracy). However, unlike the other existing methods which seek a lower bound for  $\alpha_*$ , the work in [18] presents an upper bound for it.

It is shown in [10] that if the infimum of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is attainable, then it is equal to the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist a SOS polynomial  $\phi_0(\mathbf{x})$  and polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., \phi_n(\mathbf{x})$  such that:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha = \phi_0(\mathbf{x}) + \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} + \dots + \phi_n(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n}$$
(10.5)

It is stated in [10] that if a certain condition does not hold, the degrees of the polynomials  $\phi_0(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \phi_n(\mathbf{x})$  should ideally be assumed infinity. In other words, in that case the infimum will be obtained asymptotically (in infinite iterations).

The work [19] deals with the global optimization of a polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . One of the requirements of the approach in [19] is that  $f(\mathbf{x})$  should be bounded from below. This has tried to improve the approach in [10] which is unable to deal with the polynomials whose infimums are unattainable. Indeed, it has introduced the notion of principal gradient tentacle, as opposed to the gradient variety used in [10]. For the polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , its gradient tentacle is defined to be:

$$S(\nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = \{ \mathbf{x} : \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \| \mathbf{x} \| \le 1 \}$$

$$(10.6)$$

where

$$\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|^2 = \left(\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n}\right)^2 \tag{10.7}$$

It is then stated that if  $f(\mathbf{x})$  has isolated singularities only at infinity, or alternatively if  $S(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}))$ 

is compact, then  $\alpha_*$  is equal to the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x})$  such that:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha = \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) + \left(1 - \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|^2 \|\mathbf{x}\|^2\right) \phi_2(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.8)

However, the degrees of the polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x})$  are sometimes infinity, i.e.,  $\alpha_*$  will be obtained through an asymptotical convergence. Some other drawbacks are pointed out in [19]. First of all, if the infimum does not exist, this method will not detect it, and will lead to a wrong solution. Furthermore, in the case when the infimum is not attainable, this method can be very time-consuming. In comparison with other existing methods, one can easily infer that the term  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|^2 \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$  will increase the numerical complexity of the problem noticeably (because of its degree).

Consider now the problem of computing the infimum of a given rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over the region  $\mathcal{D}$  defined by:

$$\mathscr{D} = \{ \mathbf{x} : g_1(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0, \dots, g_k(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0 \}$$
(10.9)

One of the most important results presented in the literature concerning this problem is Putinar's theorem. This theorem requires that the following qualification be satisfied:

**Qualification 1** There exist SOS polynomials  $z_0(\mathbf{x}), z_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., z_k(\mathbf{x})$ , such that the set of all vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  satisfying the inequality:

$$z_0(\mathbf{x}) + z_1(\mathbf{x})g_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + z_k(\mathbf{x})g_k(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0$$
(10.10)

is compact.

Since Putinar's theorem will essentially be required in this chapter, it is given below.

**Theorem 1** [14] Assume that Qualification 1 holds for the polynomials  $g_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., g_k(\mathbf{x})$ . If a function  $p(\mathbf{x})$  is strictly positive over the region  $\mathcal{D}$ , then there exist SOS polynomials  $\bar{z}_0(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $\bar{z}_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., \bar{z}_k(\mathbf{x})$  with the following property:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{z}_0(\mathbf{x}) + \bar{z}_1(\mathbf{x})g_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + \bar{z}_k(\mathbf{x})g_k(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.11)

The problem of finding the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over  $\mathcal{D}$  is tackled in [15], by assuming that:

- i)  $\mathcal{D}$  is the closure of some compact open connected set.
- ii) Qualification 1 holds.
- iii)  $f(\mathbf{x})$  and  $h(\mathbf{x})$  have no common real roots in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

It then exploits Putinar's theorem to conclude that the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over the region  $\mathcal{D}$  is equal to the supremum of  $\alpha$  for which there exist SOS polynomials  $\phi_0(\mathbf{x}), \phi_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., \phi_k(\mathbf{x})$  such that:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha h(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_0(\mathbf{x}) + \phi_1(\mathbf{x})g_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + \phi_k(\mathbf{x})g_k(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.12)

The above assumptions confine the application of this approach. In fact, they can be very restrictive, and their verification (specially the requirement (iii)) is not straightforward in the case of a rational function (as opposed to a polynomial). For the unconstrained optimization (i.e., when  $\mathscr{D}$  spans the whole space), this method utilizes the technique of the big ball. As pointed out earlier, this method is problematic, as it is unknown whether the infimum is attainable, or how to find its radius, if exists. Similar techniques are used in [20], but the problem is converted to a dual SDP in order to compute the minimizers, in addition to the infimum.

The work [21] considers the problem of minimizing a polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x})$  over the region  $\mathcal{D}$ . While the works [15, 20] require the compactness of  $\mathcal{D}$ , the method proposed in [21] eliminates this restrictive assumption. It is shown that if the minimum occurs at a Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) point, then  $\alpha_*$  is equal to the maximum of  $\alpha$  for which there exist SOS polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), \phi_2(\mathbf{x}), ..., \phi_{2^k}(\mathbf{x})$  and polynomials  $\psi_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., \psi_k(\mathbf{x}), \chi_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., \chi_k(\mathbf{x})$  such that:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha = \sum_{i=1,(j_1...j_k)=(i-1)_2}^{2^k} \phi_i(\mathbf{x}) g_1(\mathbf{x})^{j_1} \dots g_k(\mathbf{x})^{j_k} + \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_i(\mathbf{x}) \left( \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} - \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \frac{\partial g_j(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} \right)$$
$$+ \sum_{i=1}^k \chi_i(\mathbf{x}) \lambda_i g_i(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.13)

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Note that the term  $(j_1...j_k) = (i-1)_2$  in the above relation implies that  $j_1,...,j_k$  are the digits of the number i-1 in the base 2. Furthermore,  $\lambda_i$ 's play the role of Lagrangian multipliers. Aside from the complexity of the above formulation, as indicated in [21], the assumption that the minimum occurs at a KKT point is not trivial and cannot be relaxed, in general. For instance, this method is not able to find the minimum of  $x_1^2$  subject to the constraint  $x_1^3 \ge 0$ .

It is evident that the above-mentioned methods require to make certain assumptions, which can be very restrictive, in general. Furthermore, they either present complicated formulas or lead to very conservative results. In this chapter, novel approaches will be presented to find the infimum of a rational function, and also the infimum of a rational function over a region. The proposed approaches are SOS-based and far simpler than the existing methods.

# **10.4** The global solution of an unconstrained optimization problem

In this section, it is desired first to present a simple methodology for finding the infimum of a polynomial, without making any assumption. Then, the procedure will be extended to the case of finding the infimum of a rational function.

#### **10.4.1** The infimum of a polynomial

Consider a polynomial  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . It is obvious that the infimum of this polynomial, denoted by  $\alpha_*$ , can be obtained from the following relation:

$$\alpha_* = \{ \sup(\alpha) : f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha \ge 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n \}$$
(10.14)

When  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is of odd degree,  $\alpha_*$  is equal to  $-\infty$ . Thus, assume that its degree is  $2\sigma$ , where  $\sigma$  is a positive integer. Let  $\mu$  represent a slack variable. Rewrite the function  $f\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\mu}\right)$  as

 $\mu^{-2\sigma} \bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$ , where  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  is a polynomial. A tight lower bound for  $\alpha_*$  will be given in the next theorem.

**Theorem 2** Let  $\alpha_o$  denote the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist a polynomial  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ and a SOS polynomial  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  such that:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha \mu^{2\sigma} = (1 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{T} - \mu^{2}) \phi_{1}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_{2}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.15)

Then,  $\alpha_o$  is a lower bound for  $\alpha_*$ .

**Proof** It is straightforward to show that:

$$\alpha_* = \left\{ \sup(\alpha) : \ \bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha \mu^{2\sigma} \ge 0, \ \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n, \ \mu \in \mathfrak{R} \right\}$$
(10.16)

On the other hand, one can easily conclude that  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha_o \mu^{2\sigma}$  is a homogeneous polynomial of degree  $2\sigma$ . Therefore, the relation:

$$\bar{f}(\lambda \mathbf{x}, \lambda \mu) - \alpha_o(\lambda \mu)^{2\sigma} = \lambda^{2\sigma}(\bar{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mu) - \alpha_o \mu^{2\sigma})$$
(10.17)

holds for any real number  $\lambda$ . It results from the equation (10.15) that  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha_o \mu^{2\sigma}$  is nonnegative for any x and  $\mu$  satisfying the equality  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T + \mu^2 = 1$ . Using the scaling property (10.17), one can deduce that  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha_o \mu^{2\sigma}$  is nonnegative for x and  $\mu$ , as long as the inequality  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T + \mu^2 \neq 0$  holds. As a consequence of this result and by noting that the homogeneous polynomial  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha_o \mu^{2\sigma}$  is equal to zero at the origin, it can be concluded that  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha_o \mu^{2\sigma}$  is always nonnegative. The proof follows now from the relation (10.16).

Theorem 2 presents a simple SOS formulation for calculating the infimum of a polynomial, and can be easily solved by using a number of softwares, e.g. YALMIP or SOSTOOLS [22, 23]. Note that the discrepancy between  $\alpha_o$  and  $\alpha_*$  depends on the possibility of representing the polynomial  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha \mu^{2\sigma}$  (which is nonnegative inside the closed unit ball) as the one given in (10.15). In fact, Putinar's theorem states that if  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha \mu^{2\sigma}$  is positive, such

representation is possible. However, in the case when it is nonnegative, Putinar's theorem cannot be used (see the counterexamples in [24]). It is worth mentioning that the proposed method has been applied to several problematic examples, and it could solve all of them accurately (i.e.,  $\alpha_* = \alpha_o$ ), as shown in Section 10.6.

**Remark 1** One can follow the procedures proposed in [25] and [26] to find bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  given in Theorem 2 (for obtaining  $\alpha_o$ ). Note that if the degrees of  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  are not chosen sufficiently large, the solution of the SOS problem presented in Theorem 2 may be visibly different from the exact value of  $\alpha_0$ . However, any value obtained, no matter how far from the exact value is, can be considered as a lower bound for  $\alpha_o$ , and consequently,  $\alpha_*$ .

The result of Theorem 2 presents a lower bound for the infimum, rather that an exact value for it. The following theorem presents an efficient method to find the infimum  $\alpha_*$  precisely.

**Theorem 3** For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  denote the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $\phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  such that:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left(\mu^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^2\right) = \left(1 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu^2\right)\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.18)

Then  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  either equals  $\alpha_*$ , or converges to  $\alpha_*$  as  $\varepsilon \to 0$ .

**Proof** Denote the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)+\varepsilon}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$  in the unit ball with  $\hat{\alpha}_{o}^{\varepsilon}$ . It can be easily verified that  $\hat{\alpha}_{o}^{\varepsilon}$  satisfies the following relation:

$$\hat{\alpha}_{o}^{\varepsilon} = \left\{ \sup(\alpha) : \bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left(\mu^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^{2}\right) \ge 0, \, \forall \, (\mathbf{x},\mu) \in \mathscr{B} \right\}$$
(10.19)

where  $\mathscr{B}$  denotes the unit ball. Since  $\mu^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^2$  is always positive, Lemma 1 in [15] along with the above equation yield that:

$$\hat{\alpha}_{o}^{\varepsilon} = \left\{ \sup(\alpha) : \bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left(\mu^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^{2}\right) > 0, \ \forall \ (\mathbf{x},\mu) \in \mathscr{B} \right\}$$
(10.20)

(note that the difference between (10.19) and (10.20) is the inclusion of zero in the inequality in (10.19)). Thus, it follows from Putinar's theorem that  $\hat{\alpha}_o^{\varepsilon}$  is the same as the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  and  $\phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  such that:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left(\mu^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^2\right) = \left(1 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu^2\right)\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.21)

It can be concluded from (10.18) and (10.21) that  $\hat{\alpha}_{o}^{\varepsilon}$  is equal to  $\alpha_{o}^{\varepsilon}$ , i.e., the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)+\varepsilon}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$  in the unit ball. On the other hand, it can be shown that  $\alpha_{*}$  is the same as the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}{\mu^{2\sigma}}$ . Since the numerator and denominator of this rational function are homogeneous of the same degree, the infimum corresponds to infinitely many points which can lie anywhere in the n + 1 dimensional space, unless it is exactly the origin. Therefore, the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}{\mu^{2\sigma}}$  in the unit ball is  $\alpha_{*}$ . Let  $(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{*}, \hat{\mu}_{*})$  denote one of the minimizers corresponding to the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)+\varepsilon}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$  in the unit ball. One can write:

$$\alpha_o^{\varepsilon} = \frac{\bar{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_*, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_*) + \varepsilon}{\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_*^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^2} \le \frac{\bar{f}(0, 0) + \varepsilon}{0 + \varepsilon^2} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$
(10.22)

Therefore  $\frac{\bar{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_*,\hat{\mu}_*)}{\hat{\mu}_*^{2\sigma}} \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . Consequently:

$$\alpha_o^{\varepsilon} = \frac{\bar{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_*, \hat{\mu}_*) + \varepsilon}{\hat{\mu}_*^{2\sigma} + \varepsilon^2} \ge \frac{\bar{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_*, \hat{\mu}_*)}{\hat{\mu}_*^{2\sigma}} \ge \alpha_*$$
(10.23)

On the other hand, it can be easily shown that the value of  $\frac{\overline{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}{\mu^{2\sigma}}$  at any arbitrary point can be attained asymptotically by the function  $\frac{\overline{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)+\varepsilon}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$  (by virtue of  $\varepsilon \to 0$ ). This completes the proof.

It is to be noted that part of the proof of Theorem 3 relies on the fact that the infimums of  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}{\mu^{2\sigma}}$  and  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)+\varepsilon}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$  can become arbitrarily close to each other by choosing a sufficiently small  $\varepsilon$ . However, a question may arise why the function  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$  (which has a simpler form) was not considered instead of  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)+\varepsilon}{\mu^{2\sigma}+\varepsilon^{2}}$ . It is interesting to note that the statement is not valid for the above-mentioned function. For instance, consider the rational function  $\frac{(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2})^{2}}{(x_{1}x_{2})^{2}}$ . The infimum

of this rational function is equal to 4. In contrast, the (attainable) infimum of  $\frac{(x_1^2+x_2^2)^2}{(x_1x_2)^2+\epsilon^2}$  is equal to 0, no matter how small  $\epsilon$  is.

Theorem 3 presents a SOS problem, which leads to finding  $\alpha_*$ . It is to be noted that there are bounds on the degrees of the polynomials  $\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  and  $\phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  (see Remark 1). In addition, one can obtain some bounds on the relative error between  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  and  $\alpha_*$ . For instance, it is straightforward to show that in the case when the infimum  $\alpha_*$  is attainable, there exists a positive number  $\varepsilon_0$  such that  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  is always between  $\alpha_*$  and  $\alpha_* + \sqrt{\varepsilon}$ , for any  $\varepsilon \in (0, \varepsilon_0)$ .

#### **10.4.2** The infimum of a rational function

It is desired now to find the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$ . Without loss of generality, suppose that  $f(\mathbf{x})$  and  $h(\mathbf{x})$  are coprime, otherwise one can pursue the existing methods to eliminate their greatest common divisor (GCD). The following lemma is borrowed from [15].

**Lemma 1** If the value of the function  $h(\mathbf{x})$  is negative at one point and positive at another point, then the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is  $-\infty$ .

At this point, it is required to check whether or not  $h(\mathbf{x})$  changes sign. This can sometimes be inferred from the nature of the polynomial  $h(\mathbf{x})$ . For example, when  $h(\mathbf{x})$  is the square of another function, it is always nonnegative. However, the negativeness or nonnegativeness of  $h(\mathbf{x})$  can be verified, in general, by using the method proposed in the previous subsection. More precisely, Theorems 2 and 3 can be employed to find the infimum of  $h(\mathbf{x})$ , leading to one of the following possibilities:

- The infimum of  $h(\mathbf{x})$  is nonnegative.
- The infimum of  $h(\mathbf{x})$  is negative and finite. In this case, the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is  $-\infty$ .
- The infimum of h(x) is -∞. Compute now the infimum of -h(x). If it is negative (finite or infinite), it means that h(x) takes both negative and positive values, which implies

that the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is  $-\infty$ . Otherwise, the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is finite. In this case, negate both the numerator and the denominator of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  in order to make the infimum of its denominator nonnegative.

Without loss of generality, assume that  $h(\mathbf{x})$  is always nonnegative. It is evident that the infimum of the function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$ , denoted by  $\alpha_*$ , can alternatively be obtained from the following relation (e.g., see [20]):

$$\alpha_* = \{ \sup(\alpha) : f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha h(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n \}$$
(10.24)

Now, pursuing approaches similar to the previous subsection, the following two theorems will be obtained, which represent extension of the results of Theorems 2 and 3 to the case of rational functions.

**Theorem 4** Consider a slack variable  $\mu$ . Rewrite the rational function  $\frac{f\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\mu}\right)}{h\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\mu}\right)}$  as  $\frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}{\bar{h}(\mathbf{x},\mu)}$ , where  $\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  and  $\bar{h}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  are two polynomials. Let  $\alpha_o$  denote the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist a polynomial  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  and a SOS polynomial  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  such that:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha \bar{h}(\mathbf{x},\mu) = \left(1 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu^2\right)\phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.25)

Then  $\alpha_o$  is a lower bound for  $\alpha_*$ .

**Theorem 5** For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  denote the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $\phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  such that:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left(\bar{h}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon^2\right) = \left(1 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu^2\right)\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.26)

Then  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  equals  $\alpha_*$ , or converges to  $\alpha_*$  as  $\varepsilon \to 0$ .

**Remark 2** In the case when  $f(\mathbf{x})$  and  $h(\mathbf{x})$  are homogeneous of the same degree, one can consider the following equation, instead of the one given in (10.25):

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha h(\mathbf{x}) = (1 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T) \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) + \phi_2(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.27)

and the one given below, instead of (10.26):

$$f(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left( h(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon^2 \right) = \left( 1 - \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \right) \phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}) + \phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.28)

In other words, introducing a redundant variable  $\mu$  is unnecessary in this case.

# **10.5** The global solution of a constrained optimization prob-

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Consider a rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  and assume that it is desired to find the infimum of this function over the region  $\mathscr{D}$  described by a given set of rational functions  $\frac{g_1(\mathbf{x})}{u_1(\mathbf{x})}, \frac{g_2(\mathbf{x})}{u_2(\mathbf{x})}, \dots, \frac{g_k(\mathbf{x})}{u_k(\mathbf{x})}$  as follows:

$$\mathscr{D} = \left\{ \mathbf{x} : \frac{g_1(\mathbf{x})}{u_1(\mathbf{x})} \ge 0, \dots, \frac{g_k(\mathbf{x})}{u_k(\mathbf{x})} \ge 0 \right\}$$
(10.29)

This problem will be investigated next.

#### **10.5.1** An objective function bounded from below

As the first step to find  $\alpha_*$ , one should verify whether  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is bounded from below or not. This can sometimes be inferred from the nature of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$ . However, in general one should compute the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  by exploiting the method proposed in the previous section. Assume that  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is bounded from below, and denote a lower bound on it with  $L_1$  ( $L_1$  can be considered as the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  obtained using the approach given in Section 10.4). Note that it is not important how tight the lower bound  $L_1$  is. Find an arbitrary point  $\tilde{x}_0$  belonging to the region  $\mathscr{D}$ . Define  $L_2$  as  $\frac{f(\tilde{x}_0)}{h(\tilde{x}_0)}$ . Consider now the following objective function:

$$\Phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} + \frac{L_2 - L_1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^k \left(\mu_i^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x})}{g_i(\mathbf{x})}\right)^2$$
(10.30)

where  $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & \mu_2 & \cdots & \mu_k \end{bmatrix}$ . The following theorem presents one of the important properties of  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ .

**Theorem 6** Assume that  $(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)$  is a local minimum point of the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  given in (10.30). If  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o) \leq L_2$ , then  $\mathbf{x}_o$  is a local minimizer of the function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over the region  $\mathcal{D}$ , and moreover  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)$  is equal to  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x}_o)}{h(\mathbf{x}_o)}$ .

**Proof** It is obvious that  $\frac{u_i(\mathbf{x})}{g_i(\mathbf{x})}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, is nonnegative, because otherwise:

$$\Phi_{1}(\mathbf{x}_{o},\mu_{o}) \geq \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_{o})}{h(\mathbf{x}_{o})} + \frac{L_{2} - L_{1}}{4} \left(\mu_{o_{i}}^{2} - \frac{g_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{o})}{u_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{o})} - \frac{u_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{o})}{g_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{o})}\right)^{2} > L_{1} + \frac{L_{2} - L_{1}}{4} \times (0 + 2)^{2} = L_{2}$$
(10.31)

where  $\mu_{o_i}$  represents the *i*<sup>th</sup> element of  $\mu_o$ . This contradicts the assumption of  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o) \leq L_2$ . Note that the above inequality is attained based on the fact that the summation of any positive number and its inverse is at least equal to 2. Hence,  $\frac{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}$  is nonnegative for any  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ . Assume for now that the first-order and the second-order necessary conditions hold at  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_o$ . One can write:

$$0 = \frac{\partial \Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = \mu_{o_i} (L_2 - L_1) \left( \mu_{o_i}^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} \right)$$
(10.32)

The above relation is met for either  $\mu_{o_i} = 0$  or  $\mu_{o_i}^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} = 0$ . Nevertheless,  $\mu_{o_i} = 0$  is infeasible, because otherwise:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i^2} \Big|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = (L_2 - L_1) \left( \mu_{o_i}^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} \right) + 2\mu_{o_i}^2 (L_2 - L_1) \le 0 \quad (10.33)$$

This contradicts the assumption that  $(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)$  is a local minimizer of the function  $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ . As a result:

$$\mu_{o_i}^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x}_o)}{g_i(\mathbf{x}_o)} = 0, \quad i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$$
(10.34)

On using the equation (10.34) and the first-order necessary condition  $\nabla \Phi(\mathbf{x}, \mu) \big|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = 0$ , it is straightforward to show that  $\nabla \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} \big|_{\mathbf{x}_o} = 0$ . Therefore, the first-order necessary condition is satisfied for the point  $\mathbf{x}_o$  to be a minimizer of the function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over the domain  $\mathcal{D}$ . Regarding the second-order necessary condition, the Hessian of the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  is required to be

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obtained. One can write:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}\Big|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = \frac{\partial^2 \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}\Big|_{\mathbf{x}_o} + \frac{L_2 - L_1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial \frac{g_l(\mathbf{x})}{u_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial \frac{u_l(\mathbf{x})}{g_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i}\right) \left(\frac{\partial \frac{g_l(\mathbf{x})}{u_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \frac{u_l(\mathbf{x})}{g_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_j}\right)\Big|_{\mathbf{x}_o}$$
(10.35)

for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Moreover:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{\partial x_i \partial \mu_l} \Big|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = -\mu_{o_l} (L_2 - L_1) \left( \frac{\partial \frac{g_l(\mathbf{x})}{u_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial \frac{u_l(\mathbf{x})}{g_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i} \right) \Big|_{\mathbf{x}_o}$$
(10.36)

for any  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ ,  $l \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ , and it can be concluded from the equation (10.34) that:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i^2}\Big|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = 2\mu_{o_i}^2 (L_2 - L_1), \quad i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$$
(10.37)

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{\partial \mu_i \partial \mu_j} \Big|_{(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)} = 0, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}, \quad i \neq j$$
(10.38)

Hence, using the equations (10.35), (10.36), (10.37) and (10.38), and noting that the secondorder condition holds for the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  at the point  $(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)$ , one can deduce that:

$$\nabla^{2} \Phi_{1}(\mathbf{x},\mu) \big|_{(\mathbf{x}_{o},\mu_{o})} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla^{2} \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} \big|_{\mathbf{x}_{o}} + \frac{L_{2} - L_{1}}{2} T(\mathbf{x}_{o}) T(\mathbf{x}_{o})^{T} & -(L_{2} - L_{1}) T(\mathbf{x}_{o}) \bar{T}(\mu_{o}) \\ -(L_{2} - L_{1}) \bar{T}(\mu_{o}) T(\mathbf{x}_{o})^{T} & 2 \bar{T}(\mu_{o})^{2} (L_{2} - L_{1}) \end{bmatrix} > 0$$
(10.39)

where  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is a  $n \times k$  matrix, whose (i, l) element is equal to:

$$\frac{\partial \frac{g_l(\mathbf{x})}{u_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial \frac{u_l(\mathbf{x})}{g_l(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_i}$$
(10.40)

and  $\bar{T}(\mu)$  is a  $k \times k$  block diagonal matrix with the (i, i) entry equal to  $\mu_{o_i}$ . The Schur complement formula can be applied to the matrix given in (10.39) to arrive at the following inequality:

$$0 < \nabla^2 \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} \Big|_{\mathbf{x}_o}$$
(10.41)

So far, the theorem is proved for the case when  $(\mathbf{x}_o, \mu_o)$  satisfies the optimality conditions for the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ . Using a similar approach, it can be proved in general.

The application of Theorem 6 is twofold. Firstly, the terms  $\left(\mu_i^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x})}{g_i(\mathbf{x})}\right)^2$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k, act as barrier functions. In other words, as soon as  $\frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})}$  becomes negative, this barrier term increases the value of the objective function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  at least by 4. Thus, one can start from the interior point  $\mathbf{x} = \tilde{x}_0$  and an arbitrary  $\mu$ , and employ a proper numerical algorithm for minimizing the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ , in order to find a local minimum of the function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over the region  $\mathcal{D}$ . This method can be envisaged as an exact penalty approach, as it is not a sequential optimization [28, 29]. This penalty function approach can be superior to many of the existing methods, such as the improved versions of the inverse barrier method [28]. Secondly, one can determine the global solution of the problem using SOS. This will be explained below.

**Corollary 1** The infimum of the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  is identical to that of the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over the region defined by  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Proof** The proof follows from Theorem 6 and on noting that Theorem 6 can be similarly applied to the case when the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is unattainable.

**Remark 3** Using the SOS-based method proposed in the previous section for finding the infimum of an unconstrained rational function, one can determine the infimum of the function  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ , which is, in fact, the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over  $\mathscr{D}$  (according to Corollary 1).

#### 10.5.2 An unbounded objective function over a compact region $\mathscr{D}$

 $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is regarded here as a function unbounded from below, for which the method explained in the previous subsection is inapplicable. Nevertheless, a few assumptions are required to be made in order to develop the relevant results. First, the region  $\mathcal{D}$  is required to be compact. Next, it is assumed that there exist two nonidentical balls of the known radiuses  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  such that  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  is bounded from below inside these two balls, and also both of the balls contain the region  $\mathscr{D}$ . Without loss of generality, assume that the center of both balls is the origin, and that  $r_1 > r_2$ . At this point, a lower bound for the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  inside the ball of radius  $r_1$  should be provided. Denote this lower bound to be found with  $\overline{L}_1$ . Note that  $\overline{L}_1$  can sometimes be inferred from the structure of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$ . However, one can find the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  in the ball, and consider it as  $\overline{L}_1$ . In order to compute infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  in the ball (or a lower bound on it), one can combine Putinar's theorem and the technique used in the proof of Theorem 5 to conclude that a lower bound on this infimum is equal to the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $\phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  such that:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left(\bar{h}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon^2\right) = \left(r_1^2 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu^2\right)\phi_1^\varepsilon(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2^\varepsilon(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.42)

where  $\varepsilon$  is chosen sufficiently small (it is assumed that  $f(\mathbf{x})$  and  $h(\mathbf{x})$  are coprime). Define now the following objective function:

$$\Phi_2(\mathbf{x},\mu) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} + \frac{L_2 - \bar{L}_1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^k \left( \left( \frac{c^2 - \mu_i^2}{\mu_i} \right)^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x})}{g_i(\mathbf{x})} \right)^2$$
(10.43)

where  $c = \sqrt{\frac{r_1^2 - r_2^2}{k}}$ , and  $L_2$  was defined earlier.

**Theorem 7** The infimum of the function  $\Phi_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  inside the ball of radius  $r_1$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T + \mu\mu^T \leq r_1$ ) is the same as the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Proof** The proof for the case when the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over  $\mathcal{D}$  is attainable will be given here, and can be simply extended to the general case. Denote the global minimizer of the function  $\Phi_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  inside the ball of radius  $r_1$  with  $(\mathbf{x}_*, \mu_*)$ . It suffices to show that  $\mathbf{x}_*$  is the infimum of the rational function  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over  $\mathcal{D}$ . This will be carried out by pursuing the proof of of Corollary 1 and taking the following facts into consideration:

1) The conditions given below are fulfilled:

$$\frac{g_i(\mathbf{x}_*)}{u_i(\mathbf{x}_*)} \ge 0, \quad \left(\frac{c^2 - \mu_{*_i}^2}{\mu_{*_i}}\right)^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x}_*)}{u_i(\mathbf{x}_*)} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x}_*)}{g_i(\mathbf{x}_*)} = 0, \quad i \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$$
(10.44)

where  $\mu_{*_i}$  represents the *i*<sup>th</sup> entry of  $\mu$ . Thus,  $x_*$  lies inside the region  $\mathcal{D}$ .

- 2) Since the ball of radius  $r_2$  contains the region  $\mathscr{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_*$  is located inside this ball, i.e.,  $\mathbf{x}_* \mathbf{x}_*^T < r_2^2$ .
- 3) For any arbitrary **x**, if  $\frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})}$  is nonnegative, the equation:

$$\left(\frac{c^2 - \mu_i^2}{\mu_i}\right)^2 - \frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})} - \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x})}{g_i(\mathbf{x})} = 0, \quad i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$$
(10.45)

has a solution between 0 and c for  $\mu_i$ . This is a consequence of the fact that the function  $\frac{c^2 - \mu_i^2}{\mu_i}$  can take any nonnegative value, when  $\mu_i$  changes from 0 to c.

Since x<sub>\*</sub> is inside a ball with the radius r<sub>2</sub>, and all of the entries of μ<sub>\*</sub> are between 0 and c, thus x<sub>\*</sub>x<sup>T</sup><sub>\*</sub> + μ<sub>\*</sub>μ<sup>T</sup><sub>\*</sub> is at most equal to r<sup>2</sup><sub>1</sub>.

Write the function  $\Phi_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  introduced in (10.43) as  $\frac{p_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}{p_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)}$ , where  $p_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $p_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  are two coprime polynomials, and also  $p_2(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  is always nonnegative. Note that if such representation is not possible, it implies that the infimum is found to be  $-\infty$ , as pointed out earlier in Section 10.4. The following theorems can be concluded from the results of Theorem 7 and Putinar's theorem by employing an approach similar to the proofs of Theorems 4 and 5.

**Theorem 8** Let the infimum of  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$  over  $\mathcal{D}$  be denoted by  $\alpha_*$ . A lower bound for  $\alpha_*$  is the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist a polynomial  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  and a SOS polynomial  $\phi_2(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  such that:

$$p_1(\mathbf{x},\mu) - \alpha p_2(\mathbf{x},\mu) = (r_1^2 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu\mu^T) \phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.46)

**Theorem 9** For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  denote the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exist two SOS polynomials  $\phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  and  $\phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  such that:

$$p_1(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon - \alpha \left( p_2(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \varepsilon^2 \right) = \left( r_1^2 - \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T - \mu\mu^T \right) \phi_1^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu) + \phi_2^{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\mu)$$
(10.47)

Then  $\alpha_o^{\varepsilon}$  either equals  $\alpha_*$  or converges to  $\alpha_*$  as  $\varepsilon \to 0$ .

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It is observed in many examples that the SOS problem given in Theorem 8 works very well, with no necessity of using Theorem 9.

#### 10.5.3 An unbounded objective function over a non-compact region $\mathscr{D}$

Assume that a lower bound on the infimum  $\alpha_*$  is available. Denote this lower bound with  $\tilde{L}_1$ . It is to be noted that various simple approaches can be used to find a value for  $\tilde{L}_1$ . For instance, there are several algorithms which find  $\alpha_*$  from below by infinite iterations. One can pursue these algorithms in order to obtain a lower bound on  $\tilde{L}_1$  using a finite number of iterations. As an alternative,  $\tilde{L}_1$  can manually be obtained by using some well-known inequalities in small-sized problems. Note that the value of  $\tilde{L}_1$  is not of great importance, as long as it is a lower bound for  $\alpha_*$  (i.e., it may be much smaller than  $\alpha_*$ ). Denote the infimum of  $\left(\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} - \tilde{L}_1\right)^2$  over the region  $\mathscr{D}$  with  $\beta$ . It can be easily verified that  $\alpha_* = \sqrt{\beta} + \tilde{L}_1$  (note that  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} - \tilde{L}_1 \ge 0$  over  $\mathscr{D}$ ). Define now the following objective function:

$$\Phi_{3}(\mathbf{x},\mu) = \left(\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} - \tilde{L}_{1}\right)^{2} + \frac{\bar{L}_{2} + 1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left(\mu_{i}^{2} - \frac{g_{i}(\mathbf{x})}{u_{i}(\mathbf{x})} - \frac{u_{i}(\mathbf{x})}{g_{i}(\mathbf{x})}\right)^{2}$$
(10.48)

where  $\bar{L}_2 = \left(\frac{f(\tilde{x}_0)}{h(\tilde{x}_0)} - \tilde{L}_1\right)^2$ . It is to be noted that  $\Phi_3(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  is constructed for the function  $\left(\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} - \tilde{L}_1\right)^2$  in the same way that  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  is formed for  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})}$ . Note also that the term  $\frac{\bar{L}_2+1}{4}$  in the above expression for  $\Phi_3(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  is due to the fact that  $\left(\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{h(\mathbf{x})} - \tilde{L}_1\right)^2$  is always greater than -1. Similar to the previous case, the infimum of  $\Phi_3(\mathbf{x},\mu)$  is the same as  $\beta$ . Therefore, one can pursue the methods given in Section 10.4 (for finding the infimum of a rational function) to obtain the infimum of  $\Phi_3(\mathbf{x},\mu)$ , and accordingly, use the equation  $\alpha_* = \sqrt{\beta} + \tilde{L}_1$  to find  $\alpha_*$ .

**Remark 4** In this chapter, some simple SOS formulations are presented to find the infimum of both constrained and unconstrained rational functions. However, they are only able to determine the infimum as opposed to the minimizer(s), like many other approaches. Nevertheless,

the dual of any SOS problem given here can simply be attained, by using the Lagrangian technique and following the existing methodologies such as the one introduced in [20, 16]. The dual problem, which also has a SOS formulation, is capable of computing the minimizers. The corresponding computations are systematic, and the formulas are skipped here.

**Remark 5** The problem of minimization of a rational function subject to some rational inequalities is investigated in this section. However, the existing SOS-based works consider only polynomial inequalities. As a simple remedy for this restriction, one may consider the following set instead of  $\mathcal{D}$  given in (10.29):

$$\bar{\mathscr{D}} = \{ \mathbf{x} : g_1(\mathbf{x}) u_1(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0, ..., g_k(\mathbf{x}) u_k(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0 \}$$
(10.49)

It is to be noted that no matter if  $\overline{\mathcal{D}}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  are equivalent or not, the expression for  $\mathcal{D}$  is more suitable for the proposed formulations. More precisely, the degree of the rational function  $\frac{g_i(\mathbf{x})}{u_i(\mathbf{x})} + \frac{u_i(\mathbf{x})}{g_i(\mathbf{x})}$  corresponding to  $\mathcal{D}$  can be much smaller than that of  $g_i(\mathbf{x})u_i(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{1}{u_i(\mathbf{x})g_i(\mathbf{x})}$ corresponding to  $\overline{\mathcal{D}}$ .

## **10.6** Numerical examples

**Example 1** Consider the polynomial  $x_1^8 + x_2^8 + x_3^8 + x_1^4x_2^2 + x_1^2x_2^4 + x_3^6 - 3x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2$ . The infimum of this polynomial is equal to 0, which cannot be attained in a finite number of iterations by using the method given in [10], as pointed out there. Now, it is desired to apply the method proposed in this chapter to this example. According to Theorem 2, a lower bound for the infimum of this polynomial can be considered as the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exists a polynomial  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ , where  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}$ , such that the polynomial:  $x_1^8 + x_2^8 + x_3^8 + x_1^4x_2^2\mu^2 + x_1^2x_2^4\mu^2 + x_3^6\mu^2 - 3x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2\mu^2 - (1 - x_1^2 - x_2^2 - x_3^2 - \mu^2)\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu) - \alpha\mu^8$ 

(10.50)

is SOS. Using a 9<sup>th</sup>-order polynomial  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$ , one can then solve the above SDP problem by using an appropriate software such as YALMIP or SOSTOOLS, to obtain  $\alpha_o = 0$ . On the other hand, the exact value of  $\alpha_*$ , as pointed out before, is equal to 0 as well. Thus, the proposed relaxation let to the exact solution in a finite number of iterations (indeed, in a few seconds).

**Example 2** It is desired to find the infimum of the following rational function:

$$\frac{x_1^4 x_2^2 + x_1^2 x_2^4 + x_3^6}{x_1^2 x_2^2 x_3^2} \tag{10.51}$$

It can be observed that the denominator of this rational function is nonnegative, and that its numerator and denominator are both homogeneous of the same degree. Therefore, it can be concluded from Theorem 5 and Remark 2 that a lower bound on the infimum of this rational function is equal to the maximum value of  $\alpha$  for which there exists a polynomial  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$ , where  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}$ , such that the following polynomial is SOS:

$$x_1^4 x_2^2 + x_1^2 x_2^4 + x_3^6 - \alpha x_1^2 x_2^2 x_3^2 - (1 - x_1^2 - x_2^2 - x_3^2)\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$$
(10.52)

The value  $\alpha_o = 3$  is obtained by using YALMIP with a 9<sup>th</sup>-order  $\phi_1(\mathbf{x})$ . According to Motzkin polynomial [20, 27], the exact solution is also  $\alpha_* = 3$ . However, using the technique given in [11], the lower bound 0 will be obtained.

**Example 3** Consider the problem of minimizing the polynomial  $x_1^2 + (x_1x_2 - 1)^2$  under the constraint  $x_1x_2 \ge 2$ . It is straightforward to show that the infimum of this constrained optimization problem is equal to 1, which is unattainable because it occurs as  $x_1$  approaches zero, with  $x_2 = \frac{2}{x_1}$ . Since the infimum is not attainable, the method []ch7gradient, which is a combination of the SOS and gradient techniques, cannot treat this optimization problem. For the same reason, most of the rudimentary optimization algorithms fail to solve this problem. On the other hand, since the region defined by the constraint  $x_1x_2 \ge 2$  is not compact, the approach given in [20, 15] is ineffective. Besides, the technique of presuming a large ball for the solution is not applicable, as there is no ball to include the minimum point. In addition, the

penalty-based methods cannot efficiently handle this constrained optimization problem due to the aforementioned difficulties, and more importantly, due to the fact that the infimum occurs on the boundary of the feasible region (i.e.,  $x_1x_2 = 2$ ), which results in an ill-conditioned Hessian matrix [29].

Now, let the method proposed in the present chapter be applied to this example. It is obvious that  $x_1^2 + (x_1x_2 - 1)^2$  is nonnegative. Hence, one can choose any negative value for  $L_1$ , say  $L_1 = -3$ . Moreover, it is known that the point  $(x_1, x_2) = (2, 2)$  satisfies the constraint and results in the value 13 for the objective function. Consider now the following objective function:

$$\Phi_1(\mathbf{x},\mu) = x_1^2 + (x_1x_2 - 1)^2 + 4\left(\mu^2 - (x_1x_2 - 2) - \frac{1}{x_1x_2 - 2}\right)^2$$
(10.53)

where  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ . As pointed out earlier, the infimum of  $\Phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mu)$  in the whole space is the same as that of  $x_1^2 + (x_1x_2 - 1)^2$  over the noncompact region defined by the inequality  $x_1x_2 \ge 2$ . Using the SOS method proposed in Theorem 3 with  $\varepsilon = 10^{-10}$ , and employing YALMIP software, one will arrive at the infimum  $\alpha_* = 1$  very rapidly.

# **10.7** Conclusions

In this chapter, the problem of computing the infimum of a rational function subject to some rational inequalities is investigated. This problem plays a key role in control design and performance analysis for many real-world systems. It is first shown that the infimum of a polynomial function can be obtained by solving a simple SOS problem. The result is then extended to the case of a rational function. Finally, the problem of finding the infimum of a rational function over a region defined by some other rational functions (in the form of inequalities) is considered, and in the case when the objective function is bounded from below, a simple SOS formulation is presented similar to the one obtained for polynomial functions. In the case of an objective function unbounded from below, the problem is treated by assuming that certain

*a priori* knowledge is available. Three illustrative examples are given to clarify the proposed approaches and demonstrate their effectiveness.

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