

# B

## *MATLAB<sup>®</sup> Command Summaries*

MATLAB is a software package that is nearly a de facto standard for linear systems analysis. It was written *by* linear systems researchers and practitioners *for* linear systems researchers and practitioners. It therefore has included in it many specialized commands that general-purpose mathematical packages do not contain.

Throughout this book, certain terms have been marked with an  $M$  superscript (such as  $rank^M$ ). These are terms that describe linear algebraic or control systems operations and procedures that are easily performed with the aid of MATLAB. Given in this appendix are the “help” texts for the commands that are indexed in the book. These descriptions are the responses that a user will receive upon typing `help <command>` at the command prompt.

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There are also a great many textbooks and other references on the use of MATLAB in linear systems analysis and control system design (as well as in other specialties in science and engineering). Some of these references are included at the end of this appendix.

## Command Reference

### **ACKER Pole placement gain selection using Ackermann's formula.**

`K = ACKER(A,B,P)` calculates the feedback gain matrix `K` such that the single input system

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

with a feedback law of  $u = -Kx$  has closed loop poles at the values specified in vector `P`, i.e.,  $P = \text{eig}(A-B*K)$ .

Note: This algorithm uses Ackermann's formula. This method is NOT numerically reliable and starts to break down rapidly for problems of order greater than 10, or for weakly controllable systems. A warning message is printed if the nonzero closed-loop poles are greater than 10 from the desired locations specified in `P`.

See also `PLACE`.

Algorithm is from page 201 of:  
Kailath, T. "Linear Systems", Prentice-Hall, 1980.

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### **BALREAL Gramian-based balancing of state-space realizations.**

`SYSb = BALREAL(SYS)` returns a balanced state-space realization of the reachable, observable, stable system `SYS`.

`[SYSb,G,T,Ti] = BALREAL(SYS)` also returns a vector `G` containing the diagonal of the Gramian of the balanced realization. The matrices `T` is the state transformation  $x_b = Tx$  used to convert `SYS` to `SYSb`, and `Ti` is its inverse.

If the system is normalized properly, small elements in the balanced Gramian `G` indicate states that can be removed to reduce the model to lower order.

See also `MODRED`, `GRAM`, `SSBAL`.

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Alan J. Laub 10-30-94

P. Gahinet 6-27-96

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Reference:

- [1] Laub, A.J., M.T. Heath, C.C. Paige, and R.C. Ward,  
"Computation of System Balancing Transformations and Other  
Applications of Simultaneous Diagonalization Algorithms,"  
IEEE Trans. Automatic Control, AC-32(1987), 115--122.

**C2D Conversion of continuous-time systems to discrete time.**

`SYSD = C2D(SYSC,TS,METHOD)` converts the continuous system `SYSC` to a discrete-time system `SYSD` with sample time `TS`. The string `METHOD` selects the discretization method among the following:

'zoh' Zero-order hold on the inputs.  
 'foh' Linear interpolation of inputs (triangle appx.)  
 'tustin' Bilinear (Tustin) approximation.  
 'prewarp' Tustin approximation with frequency prewarping.  
 The critical frequency `Wc` is specified last as in `C2D(SysC, Ts, 'prewarp', Wc)`  
 'matched' Matched pole-zero method (for SISO systems only).  
 The default is 'zoh' when `METHOD` is omitted.

If `SYS` is a delay-free state-space model with initial state `x0`, the matching initial state for its FOH discretization is `x0-G*u(1,:)` where the matrix `G` is given by `[SYSD,G] = C2D(SYSC,TS,'foh')`.

See also `D2C`, `D2D`.

Other syntax

`C2D` Conversion of state space models from continuous to discrete time.  
`[Phi, Gamma] = C2D(A,B,T)` converts the continuous-time system:

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

to the discrete-time state-space system:

$$x[n+1] = \text{Phi} * x[n] + \text{Gamma} * u[n]$$

assuming a zero-order hold on the inputs and sample time `T`.

See also `D2C`.

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**CANON Canonical state-space realizations.**

`CSYS = CANON(SYS,TYPE)` computes a canonical state-space realization `CSYS` of the LTI model `SYS`. The string `TYPE` selects the type of canonical form:

'modal' : Modal canonical form where the system eigenvalues appear on the diagonal.  
 The state matrix `A` must be diagonalizable.  
 'companion': Companion canonical form where the characteristic polynomial appears in the right column.

`[CSYS,T] = CANON(SYS,TYPE)` also returns the state transformation matrix `T` such that `z = Tx` where `z` is the new state. This syntax is only meaningful when `SYS` is a state-space model.

The modal form is useful for determining the relative controllability of the system modes. Note: the companion form is ill-conditioned and should be avoided if possible.

See also SS2SS, CTRE, and CTREF.

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**CARE Solve continuous-time algebraic Riccati equations.**

`[X,L,G,RR] = CARE(A,B,Q,R,S,E)` computes the unique symmetric stabilizing solution  $X$  of the continuous-time algebraic Riccati equation

$$A'XE + E'XA - (E'XB + S)R^{-1} (B'XE + S') + Q = 0$$

or, equivalently,

$$F'XE + E'XF - E'XBR^{-1} B'XE + Q - SR^{-1} S' = 0 \quad \text{with } F := A - BR^{-1} S'$$

When omitted,  $R,S$  and  $E$  are set to the default values  $R=I$ ,  $S=0$ , and  $E=I$ . Additional optional outputs include the gain matrix

$$G = R^{-1} (B'XE + S')$$

the vector  $L$  of closed-loop eigenvalues (i.e.,  $\text{EIG}(A-B*G,E)$ ), and the Frobenius norm  $RR$  of the relative residual matrix.

`[X,L,G,REPORT] = CARE(A,B,Q,...,'report')` turns off error messages and returns a success/failure diagnosis  $REPORT$  instead. The value of  $REPORT$  is

- \* -1 if Hamiltonian matrix has eigenvalues too close to  $j\omega$  axis
- \* -2 if  $X=X2/X1$  with  $X1$  singular
- \* the relative residual  $RR$  when CARE succeeds.

`[X1,X2,L,REPORT] = CARE(A,B,Q,...,'implicit')` also turns off error messages, but now returns matrices  $X1,X2$  such that  $X=X2/X1$  and  $[X1;X2]$  has orthonormal columns.  $REPORT=0$  indicates success.

See also DARE.

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 with key contributions by Pascal Gahinet, Cleve Moler,  
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Assumptions:  $E$  is nonsingular,  $Q=Q'$ ,  $R=R'$  with  $R$  nonsingular, and the associated Hamiltonian pencil has no eigenvalues on the imaginary axis.

Sufficient conditions to guarantee the above are stabilizability, detectability, and  $[Q \ S; S' \ R] \succeq 0$ , with  $R > 0$ .

Reference: W.F. Arnold, III and A.J. Laub, ``Generalized Eigenproblem Algorithms and Software for Algebraic Riccati Equations,``  
 Proc. IEEE, 72(1984), 1746--1754.

**CDF2RDF Complex diagonal form to real block diagonal form.**

[V,D] = CDF2RDF(V,D) transforms the outputs of EIG(X) (where X is real) from complex diagonal form to a real diagonal form. In complex diagonal form, D has complex eigenvalues down the diagonal. In real diagonal form, the complex eigenvalues are in 2-by-2 blocks on the diagonal. Complex conjugate eigenvalue pairs are assumed to be next to one another.

See also EIG, RSF2CSF.

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Based upon M-file from M. Steinbuch, N.V.KEMA & Delft Univ. of Tech.

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**CHOL Cholesky factorization.**

CHOL(X) uses only the diagonal and upper triangle of X. The lower triangular is assumed to be the (complex conjugate) transpose of the upper. If X is positive definite, then  $R = \text{CHOL}(X)$  produces an upper triangular R so that  $R'R = X$ . If X is not positive definite, an error message is printed.

[R,p] = CHOL(X), with two output arguments, never produces an error message. If X is positive definite, then p is 0 and R is the same as above. But if X is not positive definite, then p is a positive integer.

When X is full, R is an upper triangular matrix of order  $q = p-1$  so that  $R'R = X(1:q,1:q)$ .

When X is sparse, R is an upper triangular matrix of size  $q$ -by- $n$  so that the L-shaped region of the first  $q$  rows and first  $q$  columns of  $R'R$  agree with those of X.

See also CHOLINC.

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Built-in function.

**COMPAN Companion matrix.**

COMPAN(P) is a companion matrix of the polynomial with coefficients P.

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**COND Condition number with respect to inversion.**

COND(X) returns the 2-norm condition number (the ratio of the largest singular value of X to the smallest). Large condition numbers indicate a nearly singular matrix.

COND(X,P) returns the condition number of X in P-norm:

$\text{NORM}(X,P) * \text{NORM}(\text{INV}(X),P)$ .



where P = 1, 2, inf, or 'fro.'

See also CONDEST, CONDEIG, NORM, NORMEST.

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**CONV Convolution and polynomial multiplication.**

C = CONV(A, B) convolves vectors A and B. The resulting vector is length LENGTH(A)+LENGTH(B)-1. If A and B are vectors of polynomial coefficients, convolving them is equivalent to multiplying the two polynomials.

See also XCORR, DECONV, CONV2, FILTER, and CONVMTX in the Signal Processing Toolbox.

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**CROSS Vector cross product.**

C = CROSS(A,B) returns the cross product of the vectors A and B. That is,  $C = A \times B$ . A and B must be 3 element vectors.

C = CROSS(A,B) returns the cross product of A and B along the first dimension of length 3.

C = CROSS(A,B,DIM), where A and B are N-D arrays, returns the cross product of vectors in the dimension DIM of A and B. A and B must have the same size, and both SIZE(A,DIM) and SIZE(B,DIM) must be 3.

Note: Use sum(A.\*B) to compute the dot product.

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**CTRB Form the controllability matrix.**

CO = CTRB(A,B) returns the controllability matrix [B AB A^2B ...].

CO = CTRB(SYS) returns the controllability matrix of the state-space system SYS with realization (A,B,C,D). This is equivalent to CTRB(sys.a,sys.b)

See also CTRBF.

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**CTRF** Controllability staircase form.

[ABAR,BBAR,CBAR,T,K] = CTRBF(A,B,C) returns a decomposition into the controllable/uncontrollable subspaces.

[ABAR,BBAR,CBAR,T,K] = CTRBF(A,B,C,TOL) uses tolerance TOL.

If  $C_0 = \text{CTRB}(A,B)$  has rank  $r \leq n$ , then there is a similarity transformation  $T$  such that

$A_{\text{bar}} = T * A * T'$  ,  $B_{\text{bar}} = T * B$  ,  $C_{\text{bar}} = C * T'$   
and the transformed system has the form

$$A_{\text{bar}} = \begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{cc} \text{Anc} & 0 \\ \hline \text{A21} & \text{Ac} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \hline \text{Bc} \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array} , \quad B_{\text{bar}} = \begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ \hline \text{Bc} \end{array} , \quad C_{\text{bar}} = [\text{Cnc} \mid \text{Cc}].$$

where  $(\text{Ac}, \text{Bc})$  is controllable, and  $\text{Cc}(sI - \text{Ac})\text{Bc} = \text{C}(sI - A)\text{B}$ .

See also CTRB, OBSVF.

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This M-file implements the Staircase Algorithm of Rosenbrock, 1968.

**DARE** Solve discrete-time algebraic Riccati equations.

[X,L,G,RR] = DARE(A,B,Q,R,S,E) computes the unique symmetric stabilizing solution  $X$  of the discrete-time algebraic Riccati equation

$$E'XE = A'XA - (A'XB + S) \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} (B'XB + R) \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} (A'XB + S)' + Q$$

or, equivalently (if  $R$  is nonsingular)

$$E'XE = F'XF - F'XB \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} (B'XB + R) \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} B'XF + Q - \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} SR \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} S' \quad \text{with } F := A - BR \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} S'.$$

When omitted,  $R, S$  and  $E$  are set to the default values  $R=I$ ,  $S=0$ , and  $E=I$ . Additional optional outputs include the gain matrix

$$G = \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} (B'XB + R) \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline \end{array} (B'XA + S'),$$

the vector  $L$  of closed-loop eigenvalues (i.e.,  $\text{EIG}(A - B * G, E)$ ), and the Frobenius norm  $RR$  of the relative residual matrix.

[X,L,G,REPORT] = DARE(A,B,Q,...,'report') turns off error messages and returns a success/failure diagnosis REPORT instead.

The value of REPORT is

- \* -1 if symplectic pencil has eigenvalues too close to unit circle,
- \* -2 if  $X = X2/X1$  with  $X1$  singular
- \* the relative residual  $RR$  when DARE succeeds.

[X1,X2,L,REPORT] = DARE(A,B,Q,...,'implicit') also turns off error messages, but now returns matrices  $X1, X2$  such that  $X = X2/X1$  and  $[X1; X2]$  has orthonormal columns. REPORT=0 indicates success.



See also CARE.

Author(s): Alan J. Laub (1993) (laub@ece.ucsb.edu)  
 with key contributions by Pascal Gahinet, Cleve Moler,  
 and Andy Potvin  
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Assumptions: E is nonsingular,  $Q=Q'$ ,  $R=R'$ , and the associated  
 symplectic pencil has no eigenvalues on the unit circle.  
 Sufficient conditions to guarantee the above are stabilizability,  
 detectability, and  $[Q \ S; S' \ R] \succeq 0$ .

Reference: W.F. Arnold, III and A.J. Laub, ``Generalized Eigenproblem  
 Algorithms and Software for Algebraic Riccati Equations,''  
 Proc. IEEE, 72(1984), 1746--1754.

**DECONV Deconvolution and polynomial division.**

$[Q,R] = \text{DECONV}(B,A)$  deconvolves vector A out of vector B. The result  
 is returned in vector Q and the remainder in vector R such that  
 $B = \text{conv}(A,Q) + R$ .

If A and B are vectors of polynomial coefficients, deconvolution  
 is equivalent to polynomial division. The result of dividing B by  
 A is quotient Q and remainder R.

See also CONV.

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**DET Determinant.**

DET(X) is the determinant of the square matrix X.

Use COND instead of DET to test for matrix singularity.

See also COND.

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 Built-in function.

**DIAG Diagonal matrices and diagonals of a matrix.**

DIAG(V,K) when V is a vector with N components is a square matrix  
 of order  $N+\text{ABS}(K)$  with the elements of V on the K-th diagonal.  $K = 0$   
 is the main diagonal,  $K > 0$  is above the main diagonal and  $K < 0$   
 is below the main diagonal.

DIAG(V) is the same as DIAG(V,0) and puts V on the main diagonal.

DIAG(X,K) when X is a matrix is a column vector formed from the elements of the K-th diagonal of X.

DIAG(X) is the main diagonal of X. DIAG(DIAG(X)) is a diagonal matrix.

Example

```
m = 5;
diag(-m:m) + diag(ones(2*m,1),1) + diag(ones(2*m,1),-1)
produces a tridiagonal matrix of order 2*m+1.
```

See also SPDIAGS, TRIU, TRIL.

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 Built-in function.

**DLQR Linear-quadratic regulator design for discrete-time systems.**

[K,S,E] = DLQR(A,B,Q,R,N) calculates the optimal gain matrix K such that the state-feedback law  $u[n] = -Kx[n]$  minimizes the cost function

$$J = \text{Sum} \{x'Qx + u'Ru + 2*x'Nu\}$$

subject to the state dynamics  $x[n+1] = Ax[n] + Bu[n]$ .

The matrix N is set to zero when omitted. Also returned are the Riccati equation solution S and the closed-loop eigenvalues E:

$$A'SA - S - (A'SB+N)(R+B'SB)^{-1}(B'SA+N') + Q = 0, \quad E = \text{EIG}(A-B*K).$$

See also DLQRY, LQRD, LQGREG, and DARE.

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**DLYAP Discrete Lyapunov equation solver.**

X = DLYAP(A,Q) solves the discrete Lyapunov equation:

$$A*X*A' - X = Q$$

See also LYAP.

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How to prove the following conversion is true. Re: show that if

- |                                       |                       |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) $Ad X Ad' + Cd = X$               | Discrete Lyapunov eqn |
| (2) $Ac = \text{inv}(Ad + I)(Ad - I)$ | From dlyap            |
| (3) $Cc = (I - Ac)Cd(I - Ac')/2$      | From dlyap            |

Then

$$(4) \quad A_c X + X A_c' + C_c = 0$$

Continuous lyapunov

Step 1) Substitute (2) into (3)  
 Use identity  $2*\text{inv}(M+I) = I - \text{inv}(M+I)*(M-I)$   
 $= I - (M-I)*\text{inv}(M-I)$  to show  
 (5)  $Cc = 4*\text{inv}(Ad + I)*Cd*\text{inv}(Ad' + I)$

Step 2) Substitute (2) and (5) into (4)

Step 3) Replace  $(Ad - I)$  with  $(Ad + I - 2I)$   
 Replace  $(Ad' - I)$  with  $(Ad' + I - 2I)$

Step 4) Multiply through and simplify to get  
 $X - \text{inv}(Ad+I)*X - X*\text{inv}(Ad'+I) + \text{inv}(Ad+I)*Cd*\text{inv}(Ad'+I) = 0$

Step 5) Left multiply by  $(Ad + I)$  and right multiply by  $(Ad' + I)$

Step 6) Simplify to (1)

**DOT Vector dot product.**

$C = \text{DOT}(A,B)$  returns the scalar product of the vectors A and B. A and B must be vectors of the same length. When A and B are both column vectors,  $\text{DOT}(A,B)$  is the same as  $A'*B$ .

$\text{DOT}(A,B)$ , for N-D arrays A and B, returns the scalar product along the first non-singleton dimension of A and B. A and B must have the same size.

$\text{DOT}(A,B,DIM)$  returns the scalar product of A and B in the dimension DIM.

See also CROSS.

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**EIG Eigenvalues and eigenvectors.**

$E = \text{EIG}(X)$  is a vector containing the eigenvalues of a square matrix X.

$[V,D] = \text{EIG}(X)$  produces a diagonal matrix D of eigenvalues and a full matrix V whose columns are the corresponding eigenvectors so that  $X*V = V*D$ .

$[V,D] = \text{EIG}(X,'nobalance')$  performs the computation with balancing disabled, which sometimes gives more accurate results for certain problems with unusual scaling.

$E = \text{EIG}(A,B)$  is a vector containing the generalized eigenvalues of square matrices A and B.

$[V,D] = \text{EIG}(A,B)$  produces a diagonal matrix D of generalized eigenvalues and a full matrix V whose columns are the corresponding eigenvectors so that  $A*V = B*V*D$ .

See also CONDEIG.

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 Built-in function.



**ESTIM Form estimator given estimator gain.**

EST = ESTIM(SYS,L) produces an estimator EST with gain L for the outputs and states of the state-space model SYS, assuming all inputs of SYS are stochastic and all outputs are measured. For a continuous system

$$\text{SYS: } \dot{x} = Ax + Bw, \quad y = Cx + Dw \quad (\text{with } w \text{ stochastic}),$$

the resulting estimator

$$\dot{x}_e = [A-LC] x_e + Ly$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_e \\ x_e \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ I \end{bmatrix} x_e$$

generates estimates  $x_e$  and  $y_e$  of  $x$  and  $y$ . ESTIM behaves similarly when applied to discrete-time systems.

EST = ESTIM(SYS,L,SENSORS,KNOWN) handles more general plants SYS with both deterministic and stochastic inputs, and both measured and non-measured outputs. The index vectors SENSORS and KNOWN specify which outputs  $y$  are measured and which inputs  $u$  are known, respectively. The resulting estimator EST uses  $[u;y]$  as input to produce the estimates  $[y_e;x_e]$ .

You can use pole placement techniques (see PLACE) to design the estimator (observer) gain L, or use the Kalman filter gain returned by KALMAN or KALMD.

See also REG, PLACE, KALMAN, KALMD, LQGREG.

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**EXPM Matrix exponential.**

EXPM(X) is the matrix exponential of X. EXPM is computed using a scaling and squaring algorithm with a Pade approximation.

Although it is not computed this way, if X has a full set of eigenvectors V with corresponding eigenvalues D, then  $[V,D] = \text{EIG}(X)$  and  $\text{EXPM}(X) = V \cdot \text{diag}(\exp(\text{diag}(D))) / V$ .

EXPM1, EXPM2 and EXPM3 are alternative methods.

EXP(X) (that's without the M) does it element-by-element.

See also EXPM1, EXPM2, EXPM3, LOGM, SQRTM, FUNM.

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 Built-in function.



**EYE Identity matrix.**

EYE(N) is the N-by-N identity matrix.

EYE(M,N) or EYE([M,N]) is an M-by-N matrix with 1's on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere.

EYE(SIZE(A)) is the same size as A.

See also ONES, ZEROS, RAND, RANDN.

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Built-in function.

**FUNM Evaluate general matrix function.**

F = FUNM(A,'fun') for a square matrix argument A, evaluates the matrix version of the function specified by 'fun'. For example, FUNM(A,'sin') is the matrix sine. For matrix exponentials, logarithms and square roots, use EXPM(A), LOGM(A) and SQRTM(A) instead.

FUNM uses a potentially unstable algorithm. If A is close to a matrix with multiple eigenvalues and poorly conditioned eigenvectors, FUNM may produce inaccurate results. An attempt is made to detect this situation and print a warning message. The error detector is sometimes too sensitive and a message is printed even though the the computed result is accurate.

[F,ESTERR] = FUNM(A,'fun') does not print any message, but returns a very rough estimate of the relative error in the computed result.

If A is symmetric or Hermitian, then its Schur form is diagonal and FUNM is able to produce an accurate result.

S = SQRTM(A) and L = LOGM(A) use FUNM to do their computations, but they can get more reliable error estimates by comparing S\*S and EXPM(L) with A. E = EXPM(A) uses a completely different algorithm.

See also EXPM, SQRTM, LOGM.

C.B. Moler 12-2-85, 7-21-86, 7-11-92, 5-2-95.  
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Parlett's method. See Golub and VanLoan (1983), p. 384.

**GRAM Controllability and observability gramians.**

Wc = GRAM(SYS,'c') returns the controllability gramian of the state-space system SYS.

Wo = GRAM(SYS,'o') returns its observability gramian.

In both cases, the state-space model SYS should be stable. The gramians are computed by solving the Lyapunov equations:



- \*  $A*Wc + Wc*A' + BB' = 0$  and  $A'*Wo + Wo*A + C'C = 0$   
 for continuous-time systems  
 $dx/dt = A x + B u$  ,  $y = C x + D u$
- \*  $A*Wc*A' - Wc + BB' = 0$  and  $A'*Wo*A - Wo + C'C = 0$   
 for discrete-time systems  
 $x[n+1] = A x[n] + B u[n]$  ,  $y[n] = C x[n] + D u[n]$ .

See also BALREAL, CTB, OBSV.

J.N. Little 3-6-86  
 P. Gahinet 6-27-96  
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Laub, A., "Computation of Balancing Transformations", Proc. JACC  
 Vol.1, paper FA8-E, 1980.

#### **HANKEL Hankel matrix.**

HANKEL(C) is a square Hankel matrix whose first column is C and whose elements are zero below the first anti-diagonal.

HANKEL(C,R) is a Hankel matrix whose first column is C and whose last row is R.

Hankel matrices are symmetric, constant across the anti-diagonals, and have elements  $H(i,j) = P(i+j-1)$  where  $P = [C R(2:END)]$  completely determines the Hankel matrix.

See also TOEPLITZ.

J.N. Little 4-22-87  
 Revised 1-28-88 JNL  
 Revised 2-25-95 Jim McClellan  
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#### **INITIAL Initial condition response of state-space models.**

INITIAL(SYS,X0) plots the undriven response of the state-space system SYS with initial condition X0 on the states. This response is characterized by the equations

$$\text{Continuous time: } \dot{x} = A x , \quad y = C x , \quad x(0) = x_0$$

$$\text{Discrete time: } x[k+1] = A x[k] , \quad y[k] = C x[k] , \quad x[0] = x_0 .$$

The time range and number of points are chosen automatically.

INITIAL(SYS,X0,TFINAL) simulates the time response from  $t = 0$  to the final time  $t = \text{TFINAL}$ . For discrete-time systems with unspecified sample time, TFINAL should be the number of samples.

INITIAL(SYS,X0,T) specifies a time vector T to be used for simulation. For discrete systems, T should be of the form 0:Ts:Tf where Ts is the sample time of the system. For continuous systems, T should be of the form 0:dt:Tf where dt will become the sample time of a discrete approximation of the continuous system.

INITIAL(SYS1,SYS2,...,X0,T) plots the response of multiple LTI systems SYS1,SYS2,... on a single plot. The time vector T is optional. You can also specify a color, line style, and marker for each system, as in initial(sys1,'r',sys2,'y--',sys3,'gx',x0).

When invoked with left hand arguments,  
 [Y,T,X] = INITIAL(SYS,X0,...)  
 returns the output response Y, the time vector T used for simulation, and the state trajectories X. No plot is drawn on the screen. The matrix Y has LENGTH(T) rows and as many columns as outputs in SYS. Similarly, X has LENGTH(T) rows and as many columns as states.

See also IMPULSE, STEP, LSIM.

Clay M. Thompson 7-6-90  
 Revised ACWG 6-21-92  
 Revised AFP 9-21-94, PG 4-25-96  
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#### INV Matrix inverse.

INV(X) is the inverse of the square matrix X.  
 A warning message is printed if X is badly scaled or nearly singular.

See also SLASH, PINV, COND, CONDEST, NNLS, LSCOV.

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 Built-in function.

#### KALMAN Continuous or discrete Kalman estimator

[KEST,L,P] = KALMAN(SYS,Qn,Rn,Nn) designs a Kalman estimator KEST for the continuous or discrete LTI plant SYS. For a continuous plant

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu + Gw && \text{(State equation)} \\ y &= Cx + Du + Hw + v && \text{(Measurements)} \end{aligned}$$

with known inputs u, process noise w, measurement noise v, and noise covariances

$$E\{ww'\} = Qn, \quad E\{vv'\} = Rn, \quad E\{wv'\} = Nn,$$

the estimator KEST has input [u;y] and generates optimal estimates  $y_e, x_e$  of y,x by:

$$\dot{x}_e = Ax_e + Bu + L(y - Cx_e - Du)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_e \\ \mathbf{x}_e \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_e \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix}$$

Type `HELP DKALMAN` for details on the discrete-time counterpart.

The LTI system `SYS` contains the plant data  $(A, [B \ G], C, [D \ H])$ , and `Nn` is set to zero when omitted. The Kalman estimator `KEST` is continuous when `SYS` is continuous, discrete otherwise. Also returned are the estimator gain `L` and the steady-state error covariance `P`. In continuous time with  $H=0$ , `P` solves the Riccati equation

$$AP + PA' - (PC' + G^*N)R^{-1}(CP + N'^*G') + G^*Q^*G' = 0 .$$

`[KEST, L, P] = KALMAN(SYS, Qn, Rn, Nn, SENSORS, KNOWN)` handles more general plants `SYS` where the known and stochastic inputs `u, w` are mixed together, and not all outputs are measured. The index vectors `SENSORS` and `KNOWN` then specify which outputs `y` of `SYS` are measured and which inputs `u` are known. All other inputs are assumed stochastic.

See also `KALMD`, `ESTIM`, `LQGREG`, `CARE`, `DARE`.

Author(s): P. Gahinet 8-1-96  
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#### **KRON Kronecker tensor product.**

`KRON(X, Y)` is the Kronecker tensor product of `X` and `Y`. The result is a large matrix formed by taking all possible products between the elements of `X` and those of `Y`. For example, if `X` is 2 by 3, then `KRON(X, Y)` is

$$\begin{bmatrix} X(1,1)*Y & X(1,2)*Y & X(1,3)*Y \\ X(2,1)*Y & X(2,2)*Y & X(2,3)*Y \end{bmatrix}$$

If either `X` or `Y` is sparse, only nonzero elements are multiplied in the computation, and the result is sparse.

Paul L. Fackler, North Carolina State, 9-23-96  
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#### **LQE Linear quadratic estimator design.**

For the continuous-time system:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu + Gw && \{\text{State equation}\} \\ z &= Cx + Du + v && \{\text{Measurements}\} \end{aligned}$$

with process noise and measurement noise covariances:

$$E\{w\} = E\{v\} = 0, \quad E\{ww'\} = Q, \quad E\{vv'\} = R, \quad E\{wv'\} = 0$$

`L = LQE(A, G, C, Q, R)` returns the gain matrix `L` such that the stationary Kalman filter:

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu + L(z - Cx - Du)$$

produces an LQG optimal estimate of  $x$ . The estimator can be formed with ESTIM.

[L,P,E] = LQE(A,G,C,Q,R) returns the gain matrix L, the Riccati equation solution P which is the estimate error covariance, and the closed loop eigenvalues of the estimator: E = EIG(A-L\*C).

[L,P,E] = LQE(A,G,C,Q,R,N) solves the estimator problem when the process and sensor noise is correlated: E{wv'} = N.

J.N. Little 4-21-85  
 Revised Clay M. Thompson 7-16-90  
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#### **LQR Linear-quadratic regulator design for continuous-time systems.**

[K,S,E] = LQR(A,B,Q,R,N) calculates the optimal gain matrix K such that the state-feedback law  $u = -Kx$  minimizes the cost function

$$J = \text{Integral} \{x'Qx + u'Ru + 2*x'Nu\} dt$$

subject to the state dynamics  $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ .

The matrix N is set to zero when omitted. Also returned are the Riccati equation solution S and the closed-loop eigenvalues E:

$$SA + A'S - (SB+N)R^{-1} (B'S+N') + Q = 0, \quad E = \text{EIG}(A-B*K).$$

See also LQRY, DLQR, LQGREG, CARE, and REG.

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 Revised P. Gahinet 7-24-96  
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#### **LSIM Simulation of the time response of LTI systems to arbitrary inputs.**

LSIM(SYS,U,T) plots the time response of the LTI system SYS to the input signal described by U and T. The time vector T consists of regularly spaced time samples and U is a matrix with as many columns as inputs and whose i-th row specifies the input value at time T(i). For instance,

$$t = 0:0.01:5; \quad u = \sin(t); \quad \text{lsim}(\text{sys},u,t)$$

simulates the response of SYS to  $u(t) = \sin(t)$  during 5 seconds.

In discrete time, U should be sampled at the same rate as the system (T is then redundant and can be omitted or set to the empty matrix). In continuous time, the sampling period T(2)-T(1) should be chosen small enough to capture the details of the input signal. The time vector T is resampled when intersample oscillations may occur.

LSIM(SYS,U,T,X0) specifies an additional nonzero initial state X0

(for state-space systems only).

LSIM(SYS1, SYS2, ..., U, T, X0) simulates the response of multiple LTI systems SYS1, SYS2, ... on a single plot. The initial condition X0 is optional. You can also specify a color, line style, and marker for each system, as in `lsim(sys1, 'r', sys2, 'y--', sys3, 'gx', u, t)`.

When invoked with left hand arguments,  
`[Y, T] = LSIM(SYS, U, ...)`  
 returns the output history Y and time vector T used for simulation. No plot is drawn on the screen. The matrix Y has LENGTH(T) rows and as many columns as outputs in SYS.

For state-space systems,  
`[Y, T, X] = LSIM(SYS, U, ...)`  
 also returns the state trajectory X, a matrix with LENGTH(T) rows and as many columns as states.

See also GENSIG, STEP, IMPULSE, INITIAL.

LSIM normally linearly interpolates the input (using a first order hold) which is more accurate for continuous inputs. For discrete inputs such as square waves LSIM tries to detect these and uses a more accurate zero-order hold method. LSIM can be confused and for accurate results a small time interval should be used.

J.N. Little 4-21-85  
 Revised 7-31-90 Clay M. Thompson  
     Revised A.C.W.Grace 8-27-89 (added first order hold)  
                     1-21-91 (test to see whether to use foh or zoh)  
 Revised 12-5-95 Andy Potvin  
 Revised 5-8-96 P. Gahinet  
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#### **LYAP Solve continuous-time Lyapunov equations.**

`X = LYAP(A, C)` solves the special form of the Lyapunov matrix equation:

$$A*X + X*A' = -C$$

`X = LYAP(A, B, C)` solves the general form of the Lyapunov matrix equation (also called Sylvester equation):

$$A*X + X*B = -C$$

See also DLYAP.

S.N. Bangert 1-10-86  
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 Last revised JNL 3-24-88, AFP 9-3-95



**NORM** Matrix or vector norm.

For matrices...

NORM(X) is the largest singular value of X,  $\max(\text{svd}(X))$ .

NORM(X,2) is the same as NORM(X).  
 NORM(X,1) is the 1-norm of X, the largest column sum,  
     = max(sum(abs((X))))).  
 NORM(X,inf) is the infinity norm of X, the largest row sum,  
     = max(sum(abs((X')))).  
 NORM(X,'fro') is the Frobenius norm, sqrt(sum(diag(X'\*X))).  
 NORM(X,P) is available for matrix X only if P is 1, 2, inf or 'fro'.

For vectors...

NORM(V,P) = sum(abs(V).^P)^(1/P).  
 NORM(V) = norm(V,2).  
 NORM(V,inf) = max(abs(V)).  
 NORM(V,-inf) = min(abs(V)).

See also COND, CONDEST, NORMEST.

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 Built-in function.

#### **NULL Null space.**

Z = NULL(A) is an orthonormal basis for the null space of A obtained from the singular value decomposition. That is, A\*Z has negligible elements, size(Z,2) is the nullity of A, and Z'\*Z = I.

Z = NULL(A,'r') is a "rational" basis for the null space obtained from the reduced row echelon form. A\*Z is zero, size(Z,2) is an estimate for the nullity of A, and, if A is a small matrix with integer elements, the elements of R are ratios of small integers.

The orthonormal basis is preferable numerically, while the rational basis may be preferable pedagogically.

Example:

```
A =
    1     2     3
    1     2     3
    1     2     3

null(A) =

   -0.1690   -0.9487
    0.8452    0.0000
   -0.5071    0.3162

null(A,'r') =

   -2    -3
    1     0
    0     1
```

See also SVD, ORTH, RANK, RREF.

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**OBSV Form the observability matrix.**

OB = OBSV(A,C) returns the observability matrix [C; CA; CA^2 ...]

CO = OBSV(SYS) returns the observability matrix of the state-space system SYS with realization (A,B,C,D). This is equivalent to OBSV(sys.a,sys.c)

See also OBSVF.

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**OBSVF Observability staircase form.**

[ABAR,BBAR,CBAR,T,K] = OBSVF(A,B,C) returns a decomposition into the observable/unobservable subspaces.

[ABAR,BBAR,CBAR,T,K] = OBSVF(A,B,C,TOL) uses tolerance TOL.

If Ob=OBSV(A,C) has rank  $r \leq n$ , then there is a similarity transformation T such that

$$\bar{A} = T * A * T' , \quad \bar{B} = T * B , \quad \bar{C} = C * T' .$$

and the transformed system has the form

$$\bar{A} = \begin{array}{c|cc} | & A_{11} & A_{12} \\ \hline & 0 & A_o \end{array} , \quad \bar{B} = \begin{array}{c} |B_{11}| \\ |B_o| \end{array} , \quad \bar{C} = [ 0 \quad | \quad C_o ] .$$

where  $(A_o, B_o)$  is controllable, and  $C_o(sI - A_o) B_o = C(sI - A) B$ .

See also OBSV, CTBFB.

Author : R.Y. Chiang 3-21-86  
Revised 5-27-86 JNL  
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**ODE23 Solve non-stiff differential equations, low order method.**

[T,Y] = ODE23('F',TSPAN,Y0) with TSPAN = [T0 TFINAL] integrates the system of differential equations  $y' = F(t,y)$  from time T0 to TFINAL with initial conditions Y0. 'F' is a string containing the name of an ODE file. Function F(T,Y) must return a column vector. Each row in solution array Y corresponds to a time returned in column vector T. To obtain solutions at specific times T0, T1, ..., TFINAL (all increasing or all decreasing), use TSPAN = [T0 T1 ... TFINAL].

[T,Y] = ODE23('F',TSPAN,Y0,OPTIONS) solves as above with default integration parameters replaced by values in OPTIONS, an argument created with the ODESET function. See ODESET for details. Commonly used options are scalar relative error tolerance 'RelTol' (1e-3 by default) and vector of absolute error tolerances 'AbsTol' (all components 1e-6 by default).

`[T,Y] = ODE23('F',TSPAN,Y0,OPTIONS,P1,P2,...)` passes the additional parameters `P1,P2,...` to the ODE file as `F(T,Y,FLAG,P1,P2,...)` (see ODEFILE). Use `OPTIONS = []` as a place holder if no options are set.

It is possible to specify `TSPAN`, `Y0` and `OPTIONS` in the ODE file (see ODEFILE). If `TSPAN` or `Y0` is empty, then ODE23 calls the ODE file `[TSPAN,Y0,OPTIONS] = F([],[],'init')` to obtain any values not supplied in the ODE23 argument list. Empty arguments at the end of the call list may be omitted, e.g. `ODE23('F')`.

As an example, the commands

```
options = odeset('RelTol',1e-4,'AbsTol',[1e-4 1e-4 1e-5]);
ode23('rigidode',[0 12],[0 1 1],options);
```

solve the system `y' = rigidode(t,y)` with relative error tolerance `1e-4` and absolute tolerances of `1e-4` for the first two components and `1e-5` for the third. When called with no output arguments, as in this example, ODE23 calls the default output function ODEPLOT to plot the solution as it is computed.

`[T,Y,TE,YE,IE] = ODE23('F',TSPAN,Y0,OPTIONS)` with the Events property in `OPTIONS` set to 'on', solves as above while also locating zero crossings of an event function defined in the ODE file. The ODE file must be coded so that `F(T,Y,'events')` returns appropriate information. See ODEFILE for details. Output `TE` is a column vector of times at which events occur, rows of `YE` are the corresponding solutions, and indices in vector `IE` specify which event occurred.

`[T,X,Y] = ODE23('MODEL',TSPAN,Y0,OPTIONS,UT,P1,P2,...)` simulates a SIMULINK model using the 'ODE23' integrator. The `OPTIONS` argument is created with the ODESET function. See also SIM.

See also ODEFILE and

```
other ODE solvers:  ODE45, ODE113, ODE15S, ODE23S
options handling:  ODESET, ODEGET
output functions:  ODEPLOT, ODEPHAS2, ODEPHAS3, ODEPRINT
odefile examples:  ORBITODE, ORBT2ODE, RIGIDODE, VDPODE
```

ODE23 is an implementation of the explicit Runge-Kutta (2,3) pair of Bogacki and Shampine called BS23. It uses a "free" interpolant of order 3. Local extrapolation is done.

Details are to be found in *The MATLAB ODE Suite*, L. F. Shampine and M. W. Reichelt, SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing, 18-1, 1997.

```
Mark W. Reichelt and Lawrence F. Shampine, 6-14-94
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$Revision: 5.43 $ $Date: 1996/11/10 17:46:29 $
```

#### **ORTH Orthogonalization.**

`Q = ORTH(A)` is an orthonormal basis for the range of `A`. That is, `Q'*Q = I`, the columns of `Q` span the same space as the columns of `A`, and the number of columns of `Q` is the rank of `A`.



See also SVD, RANK, NULL.

Major revision, 4-13-93, C. Moler.  
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Beginning with MATLAB 4.1, the algorithms for NULL and ORTH use singular value decomposition, SVD, instead of orthogonal factorization, QR. This doubles the computation time, but provides more reliable and consistent rank determination.

**PINV Pseudoinverse.**

$X = \text{PINV}(A)$  produces a matrix  $X$  of the same dimensions as  $A'$  so that  $A*X*A = A$ ,  $X*A*X = X$  and  $A*X$  and  $X*A$  are Hermitian. The computation is based on  $\text{SVD}(A)$  and any singular values less than a tolerance are treated as zero. The default tolerance is  $\text{MAX}(\text{SIZE}(A)) * \text{NORM}(A) * \text{EPS}$ .

$\text{PINV}(A, \text{TOL})$  uses the tolerance  $\text{TOL}$  instead of the default.

See also RANK.

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**PLACE Pole placement technique**

$K = \text{PLACE}(A, B, P)$  computes a state-feedback matrix  $K$  such that the eigenvalues of  $A - B*K$  are those specified in vector  $P$ . No eigenvalue should have a multiplicity greater than the number of inputs.

$[K, \text{PREC}, \text{MESSAGE}] = \text{PLACE}(A, B, P)$  returns  $\text{PREC}$ , an estimate of how closely the eigenvalues of  $A - B*K$  match the specified locations  $P$  ( $\text{PREC}$  measures the number of accurate decimal digits in the actual closed-loop poles). If some nonzero closed-loop pole is more than 10 off from the desired location,  $\text{MESSAGE}$  contains a warning message.

See also ACKER.

M. Wette 10-1-86  
Revised 9-25-87 JNL  
Revised 8-4-92 Wes Wang  
Revised 10-5-93, 6-1-94 Andy Potvin

Ref: Kautsky, Nichols, Van Dooren, "Robust Pole Assignment in Linear State Feedback," Intl. J. Control, 41(1985)5, pp 1129-1155

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**POLYVALM Evaluate polynomial with matrix argument.**

POLYVALM(V,X) where V is a vector whose elements are the coefficients of a polynomial, is the value of the polynomial evaluated with matrix argument X. X must be a square matrix.

See also POLYVAL, POLYFIT.

J.N.Little 4-20-86

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\$Revision: 5.4 \$ \$Date: 1996/10/27 14:01:11 \$

Polynomial evaluation c(x) using Horner's method

**QR Orthogonal-triangular decomposition.**

[Q,R] = QR(A) produces an upper triangular matrix R of the same dimension as A and a unitary matrix Q so that  $A = Q^*R$ .

[Q,R,E] = QR(A) produces a permutation matrix E, an upper triangular R and a unitary Q so that  $A^*E = Q^*R$ . The column permutation E is chosen so that  $\text{abs}(\text{diag}(R))$  is decreasing.

[Q,R] = QR(A,0) produces the "economy size" decomposition. If A is m-by-n with  $m > n$ , then only the first n columns of Q are computed.

[Q,R,E] = QR(A,0) produces an "economy size" decomposition in which E is a permutation vector, so that  $Q^*R = A(:,E)$ . The column permutation E is chosen so that  $\text{abs}(\text{diag}(R))$  is decreasing.

By itself, QR(A) returns the output of LINPACK'S ZQRDC routine. TRIU(QR(A)) is R.

For sparse matrices, QR can compute a "Q-less QR decomposition", which has the following slightly different behavior.

$R = \text{QR}(A)$  returns only R. Note that  $R = \text{chol}(A^*A)$ .

$[Q,R] = \text{QR}(A)$  returns both Q and R, but Q is often nearly full.

$[C,R] = \text{QR}(A,B)$ , where B has as many rows as A, returns  $C = Q^*B$ .

$R = \text{QR}(A,0)$  and  $[C,R] = \text{QR}(A,B,0)$  produce economy size results.

The sparse version of QR does not do column permutations.

The full version of QR does not return C.

The least squares approximate solution to  $A^*x = b$  can be found with the Q-less QR decomposition and one step of iterative refinement:

```
x = R \ (R' \ (A' * b))
r = b - A * x
e = R \ (R' \ (A' * r))
x = x + e;
```

See also LU, NULL, ORTH, QRDELETE, QRINSERT.

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Built-in function.





**RANDN Normally distributed random numbers.**

RANDN(N) is an N-by-N matrix with random entries, chosen from a normal distribution with mean zero and variance one.  
 RANDN(M,N) and RANDN([M,N]) are M-by-N matrices with random entries.  
 RANDN(M,N,P,...) or RANDN([M,N,P...]) generate random arrays.  
 RANDN with no arguments is a scalar whose value changes each time it is referenced. RANDN(SIZE(A)) is the same size as A.

S = RANDN('state') is a 2-element vector containing the current state of the normal generator. RANDN('state',S) resets the state to S.  
 RANDN('state',0) resets the generator to its initial state.  
 RANDN('state',J), for integer J, resets the generator to its J-th state.  
 RANDN('state',sum(100\*clock)) resets it to a different state each time.

MATLAB Version 4.x used random number generators with a single seed.  
 RANDN('seed',0) and RANDN('seed',J) cause the MATLAB 4 generator to be used.  
 RANDN('seed') returns the current seed of the MATLAB 4 normal generator.  
 RANDN('state',J) and RANDN('state',S) cause the MATLAB 5 generator to be used.

See also RAND, SPRAND, SPRANDN, RANDPERM.

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 Built-in function.

**RANK Matrix rank.**

RANK(A) provides an estimate of the number of linearly independent rows or columns of a matrix A.  
 RANK(A,tol) is the number of singular values of A that are larger than tol.  
 RANK(A) uses the default tol = max(size(A)) \* norm(A) \* eps.

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**REG Form regulator given state-feedback and estimator gains.**

RSYS = REG(SYS,K,L) produces an observer-based regulator RSYS for the state-space system SYS, assuming all inputs of SYS are controls and all outputs are measured. The matrices K and L specify the state-feedback and observer gains. For

$$\text{SYS: } \dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \quad y = Cx + Du$$

the resulting regulator is

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_e &= [A-BK-LC+LDK] x_e + Ly \\ u &= -K x_e \end{aligned}$$

This regulator should be connected to the plant using positive feedback. REG behaves similarly when applied to discrete-time systems.

RSYS = REG(SYS,K,L,SENSORS,KNOWN,CONTROLS) handles more general regulation problems where

- \* the plant inputs consist of controls u, known inputs Ud, and stochastic inputs w,
- \* only a subset y of the plant outputs are measured.

The I/O subsets y, Ud, and u are specified by the index vectors SENSORS, KNOWN, and CONTROLS. The resulting regulator RSYS uses [Ud;y] as input to generate the commands u.

You can use pole placement techniques (see PLACE) to design the gains K and L, or alternatively use the LQ and Kalman gains produced by LQR/DLQR and KALMAN.

See also ESTIM, PLACE, LQR, DLQR, LQGREG, KALMAN.

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#### RESIDUE Partial-fraction expansion (residues).

[R,P,K] = RESIDUE(B,A) finds the residues, poles and direct term of a partial fraction expansion of the ratio of two polynomials B(s)/A(s). If there are no multiple roots,

$$\frac{B(s)}{A(s)} = \frac{R(1)}{s - P(1)} + \frac{R(2)}{s - P(2)} + \dots + \frac{R(n)}{s - P(n)} + K(s)$$

Vectors B and A specify the coefficients of the numerator and denominator polynomials in descending powers of s. The residues are returned in the column vector R, the pole locations in column vector P, and the direct terms in row vector K. The number of poles is n = length(A)-1 = length(R) = length(P). The direct term coefficient vector is empty if length(B) < length(A), otherwise length(K) = length(B)-length(A)+1.

If P(j) = ... = P(j+m-1) is a pole of multiplicity m, then the expansion includes terms of the form

$$\frac{R(j)}{s - P(j)} + \frac{R(j+1)}{(s - P(j))^2} + \dots + \frac{R(j+m-1)}{(s - P(j))^m}$$

[B,A] = RESIDUE(R,P,K), with 3 input arguments and 2 output arguments, converts the partial fraction expansion back to the polynomials with coefficients in B and A.

Warning: Numerically, the partial fraction expansion of a ratio of polynomials represents an ill-posed problem. If the denominator polynomial, A(s), is near a polynomial with multiple roots, then small changes in the data, including roundoff errors, can make arbitrarily large changes in the resulting poles and residues. Problem formulations making use of state-space or zero-pole representations are preferable.

See also POLY, ROOTS, DECONV.

Reference: A.V. Oppenheim and R.W. Schaffer, Digital Signal Processing, Prentice-Hall, 1975, p. 56-58.

C.R. Denham and J.N. Little, MathWorks, 1986, 1989.  
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**ROOTS Find polynomial roots.**

ROOTS(C) computes the roots of the polynomial whose coefficients are the elements of the vector C. If C has N+1 components, the polynomial is  $C(1)*X^N + \dots + C(N)*X + C(N+1)$ .

See also POLY, RESIDUE, FZERO.

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ROOTS finds the eigenvalues of the associated companion matrix.

**RREF Reduced row echelon form.**

R = RREF(A) produces the reduced row echelon form of A.

[R,jb] = RREF(A) also returns a vector, jb, so that:  
 r = length(jb) is this algorithm's idea of the rank of A,  
 x(jb) are the bound variables in a linear system, Ax = b,  
 A(:,jb) is a basis for the range of A,  
 R(1:r,jb) is the r-by-r identity matrix.

[R,jb] = RREF(A,TOL) uses the given tolerance in the rank tests.

Roundoff errors may cause this algorithm to compute a different value for the rank than RANK, ORTH and NULL.

See also RREFMOVIE, RANK, ORTH, NULL, QR, SVD.

CBM, 11/24/85, 1/29/90, 7/12/92.  
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**Slash**

Matrix division.

\ Backslash or left division.  
 A\B is the matrix division of A into B, which is roughly the same as  $INV(A)*B$ , except it is computed in a different way. If A is an N-by-N matrix and B is a column vector with N components, or a matrix with several such columns, then  $X = A\B$  is the solution to the equation  $A*X = B$  computed by Gaussian elimination. A warning message is printed if A is badly scaled or nearly singular.  $A\EYE(SIZE(A))$  produces the

inverse of A.

If A is an M-by-N matrix with  $M < \text{or} > N$  and B is a column vector with M components, or a matrix with several such columns, then  $X = A \setminus B$  is the solution in the least squares sense to the under- or overdetermined system of equations  $A * X = B$ . The effective rank, K, of A is determined from the QR decomposition with pivoting. A solution X is computed which has at most K nonzero components per column. If  $K < N$  this will usually not be the same solution as  $\text{PINV}(A) * B$ .  $A \setminus \text{EYE}(\text{SIZE}(A))$  produces a generalized inverse of A.

/ Slash or right division.

B/A is the matrix division of A into B, which is roughly the same as  $B * \text{INV}(A)$ , except it is computed in a different way. More precisely,  $B/A = (A' \setminus B)'$ . See \.

./ Array right division.

B./A denotes element-by-element division. A and B must have the same dimensions unless one is a scalar. A scalar can be divided with anything.

.\ Array left division.

A.\B denotes element-by-element division. A and B must have the same dimensions unless one is a scalar. A scalar can be divided with anything.

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### **SS Create state-space models or convert LTI model to state space.**

You can create a state-space model by:

<code>SYS = SS(A,B,C,D)</code>	Continuous-time model
<code>SYS = SS(A,B,C,D,T)</code>	Discrete-time model with sampling time T (Set T=-1 if undetermined)
<code>SYS = SS</code>	Default empty SS object
<code>SYS = SS(D)</code>	Static gain matrix
<code>SYS = SS(A,B,C,D,LTI)</code>	State-space model with LTI properties inherited from the system LTI (can be SS, TF, or ZPK)

All the above syntaxes may be followed by Property/Value pairs. (Type "help ltiprops" for details on assignable properties). Setting D=0 is interpreted as the zero matrix of adequate dimensions. The output SYS is an SS object.

`SYS_SS = SS(SYS)` converts an arbitrary LTI model SYS to state space, i.e., computes a state-space realization `SYS_SS` of SYS.

See also SET, SSDATA, DSS, TF, ZPK.

Author(s): A. Potvin, 3-1-94

Revised: P. Gahinet, 4-1-96

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### **SSDATA Quick access to state-space data.**

[A,B,C,D] = SSDATA(SYS) returns the values of the A,B,C,D matrices. If SYS is not a state-space model, it is first converted to state space.

[A,B,C,D,TS,TD] = SSDATA(SYS) also returns the sample time TS and input delays TD. For continuous systems, TD is a vector with one entry per input channel. For discrete systems, TD is the empty matrix [].

Other properties of SYS can be accessed with GET or by direct structure-like referencing (e.g., SYS.Ts)

See also GET, DSSDATA.

Author(s): P. Gahinet, 4-1-96  
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**SS2SS Change of state coordinates for state-space systems.**

SYS = SS2SS(SYS,T) performs the similarity transformation  $z = Tx$  on the state vector  $x$  of the system SYS. The resulting state-space system is described by:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z} &= [TAT^{-1}] z + [TB] u \\ y &= [CT^{-1}] z + D u \end{aligned}$$

(Respectively,

$$\begin{aligned} [TET^{-1}] z &= [TAT^{-1}] z + [TB] u \\ y &= [CT^{-1}] z + D u \end{aligned}$$

in the descriptor case).

See also CANON, AUGSTATE, SSBAL, BALREAL.

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**SS2TF State-space to transfer function conversion.**

[NUM,DEN] = SS2TF(A,B,C,D,iu) calculates the transfer function:

$$H(s) = \frac{\text{NUM}(s)}{\text{DEN}(s)} = C(sI-A)^{-1} B + D$$

of the system:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du \end{aligned}$$

from the iu'th input. Vector DEN contains the coefficients of the denominator in descending powers of  $s$ . The numerator coefficients are returned in matrix NUM with as many rows as there are outputs  $y$ .





See also TF2SS.

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 Revised 7-25-90 Clay M. Thompson, 10-11-90 A.Grace  
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**STEP Step response of LTI systems.**

STEP(SYS) plots the step response of each input channel of the LTI system SYS. The time range and number of points are chosen automatically.

STEP(SYS,TFINAL) simulates the step response from  $t = 0$  to the final time  $t = \text{TFINAL}$ . For discrete-time systems with unspecified sampling time, TFINAL is interpreted as the number of samples.

STEP(SYS,T) uses the user-supplied time vector T for simulation. For discrete-time systems, T should be of the form  $T_i:T_s:T_f$  where  $T_s$  is the sample time of the system. For continuous systems, T should be of the form  $T_i:dt:T_f$  where  $dt$  will become the sample time of a discrete approximation to the continuous system.

STEP(SYS1,SYS2,...,T) plots the step response of multiple LTI systems SYS1,SYS2,... on a single plot. The time vector T is optional. You can also specify a color, line style, and marker for each system, as in `step(sys1,'r',sys2,'y--',sys3,'gx')`.

When invoked with left-hand arguments,

`[Y,T] = STEP(SYS,...)`

returns the output response Y and the time vector T used for simulation. No plot is drawn on the screen. If SYS has NU inputs and NY outputs, and  $LT = \text{length}(T)$ , the array Y is  $LT$ -by- $NY$ -by- $NU$  and `Y(:,j)` gives the step response of the  $j$ -th input channel.

For state-space systems,

`[Y,T,X] = STEP(SYS,...)`

also returns the state trajectory X which is an  $LT$ -by- $NX$ -by- $NU$  array if SYS has  $NX$  states.

See also INITIAL, IMPULSE, LSIM.

Extra notes on user-supplied T: For continuous-time systems, the system is converted to discrete time with a sample time of  $dt = t(2) - t(1)$ . The time vector plotted is then  $t = t(1):dt:t(\text{end})$ .

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 Revised A.C.W.Grace 9-7-89, 5-21-92  
 Revised A. Potvin 12-1-95  
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**SUBSPACE Angle between subspaces.**

SUBSPACE(A,B) finds the angle between two subspaces specified

by the columns of A and B. If A and B are vectors of unit length, this is the same as  $\text{ACOS}(A'*B)$ .

If the angle is small, the two spaces are nearly linearly dependent. In a physical experiment described by some observations A, and a second realization of the experiment described by B,  $\text{SUBSPACE}(A,B)$  gives a measure of the amount of new information afforded by the second experiment not associated with statistical errors of fluctuations.

L. Shure 11-03-88, CBM 5-3-93, 4-18-94.  
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#### **SVD Singular value decomposition.**

$[U,S,V] = \text{SVD}(X)$  produces a diagonal matrix S, of the same dimension as X and with nonnegative diagonal elements in decreasing order, and unitary matrices U and V so that  $X = U*S*V'$ .

$S = \text{SVD}(X)$  returns a vector containing the singular values.

$[U,S,V] = \text{SVD}(X,0)$  produces the "economy size" decomposition. If X is m-by-n with  $m > n$ , then only the first n columns of U are computed and S is n-by-n.

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 Built-in function.

#### **TF2SS Transfer function to state-space conversion.**

$[A,B,C,D] = \text{TF2SS}(\text{NUM},\text{DEN})$  calculates the state-space representation:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du \end{aligned}$$

of the system:

$$H(s) = \frac{\text{NUM}(s)}{\text{DEN}(s)}$$

from a single input. Vector DEN must contain the coefficients of the denominator in descending powers of s. Matrix NUM must contain the numerator coefficients with as many rows as there are outputs y. The A,B,C,D matrices are returned in controller canonical form. This calculation also works for discrete systems. To avoid confusion when using this function with discrete systems, always use a numerator polynomial that has been padded with zeros to make it the same length as the denominator. See the User's guide for more details.

See also SS2TF.

J.N. Little 3-24-85

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 Latest revision 4-29-89 JNL, 7-29-96 PG

**TOEPLITZ Toeplitz matrix.**

TOEPLITZ(C,R) is a non-symmetric Toeplitz matrix having C as its first column and R as its first row.

TOEPLITZ(C) is a symmetric (or Hermitian) Toeplitz matrix.

See also HANKEL.

Revised 10-8-92, LS - code from A.K. Booer.  
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**TRACE Sum of diagonal elements.**

TRACE(A) is the sum of the diagonal elements of A, which is also the sum of the eigenvalues of A.

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