

Outline



- Overlook
- Controllability measures
- Observability measures
- Infinite Gramians
- MOR: Balanced truncation based on infinite Gramians

Overlook

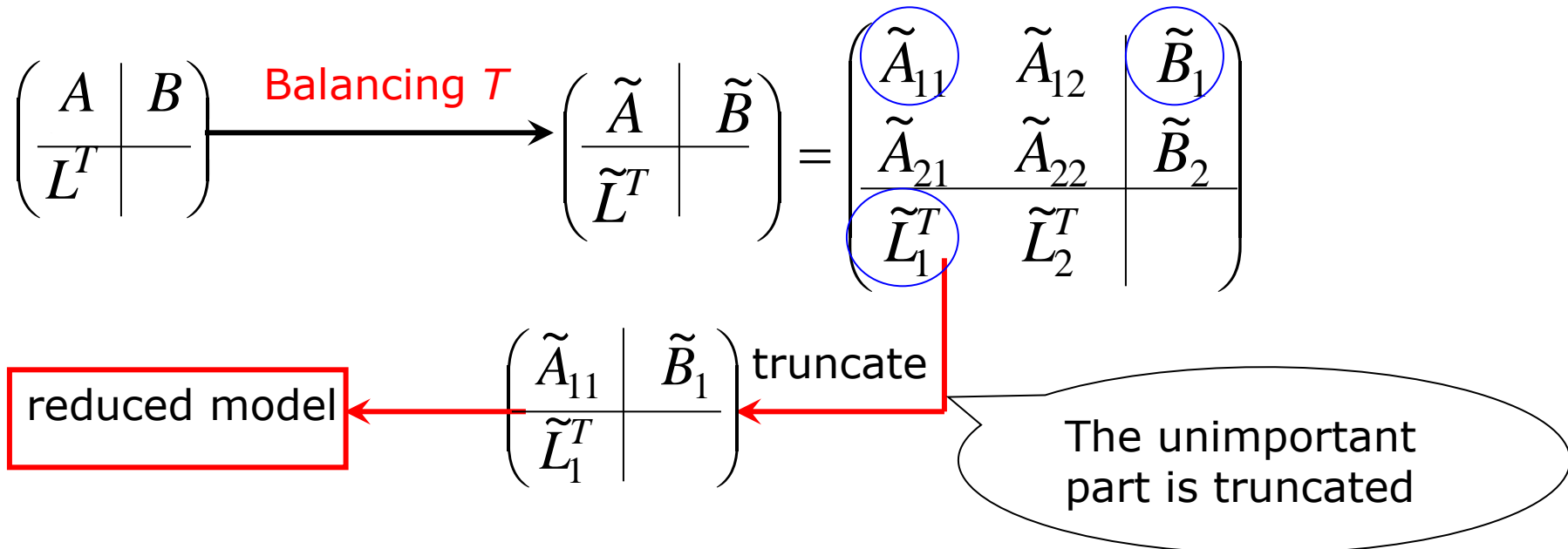


Balanced truncation: first balancing, then truncate.

Given a LTI system: $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$

$$y(t) = L^T x(t)$$

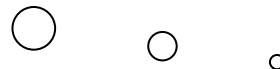
For convenience of discussion, we denote the system as a block form:



Overlook

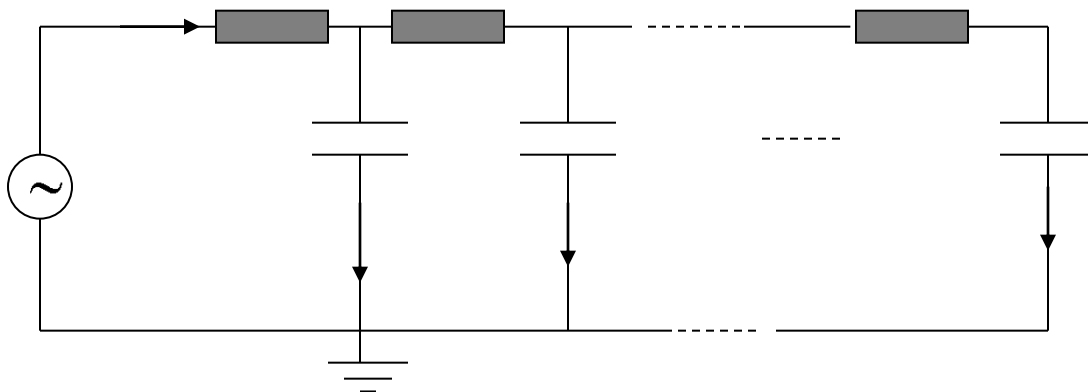


What's the unimportant part?



The **states** which are difficult to **control** and difficult to **observe** correspond to the unimportant part.

In system theory, the unknown vector x is called the **state of the system**. Actually, the entries in x depict the system variables, such as branch currents, node voltages in the interconnect model, and therefore describe the state of the system.



Balanced Truncation

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Analytical solution of the LTI System



When discuss balanced truncation method, we limit the LTI system to the following form:

$$dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

$$y(t) = L^T x(t)$$

In order to analyze controllability, observability, we need to **use the analytical solution of the system**, though we always solve the system numerically (i.e. by numerical methods and using computers).

The analytical solution of the system: the analytical representation of $x(t)$.

Analytical solution of the LTI System



What is the analytical solution excited by the input $u(t)$ and starting with the initial state $x(0) = x_0$?

(see also Chapter 4, section 4.2 in [Chi-Tsong Chen, Linear System Theory and Design, 3rd edition, 1999])

Multiplying e^{-At} on both sides of $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$ yields

$$e^{-At} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} - e^{-At} Ax(t) = e^{-At} Bu(t)$$

which implies,

$$\frac{d}{dt} (e^{-At} x(t)) = e^{-At} Bu(t)$$

Its integration from 0 to t yields,

$$e^{-At} x(t) \Big|_{\tau=0}^t = \int_0^t e^{-A\tau} Bu(\tau) d\tau$$



Analytical solution of the LTI System

Thus we have

$$e^{-At}x(t) - e^0x_0 = \int_0^t e^{-A\tau}Bu(\tau)d\tau \quad (1)$$

Because the inverse of e^{-At} is e^{At} and $e^0 = I$, (1) implies

$$x(t) = e^{At}x_0 + \int_0^t e^{A(t-\tau)}Bu(\tau)d\tau \quad (2)$$

This is the analytical solution of $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$.

- It is **impossible** to plot the waveform of $x(t)$ by hand, we need **computers** to compute $x(t)$ numerically and plot $x(t)$ at many samples of time.
- It is **difficult to compute $x(t)$ by following the analytical formulation** in (2) if A is very large. We need to solve the LTI system numerically with some numerical methods, like backward Euler, ...etc.



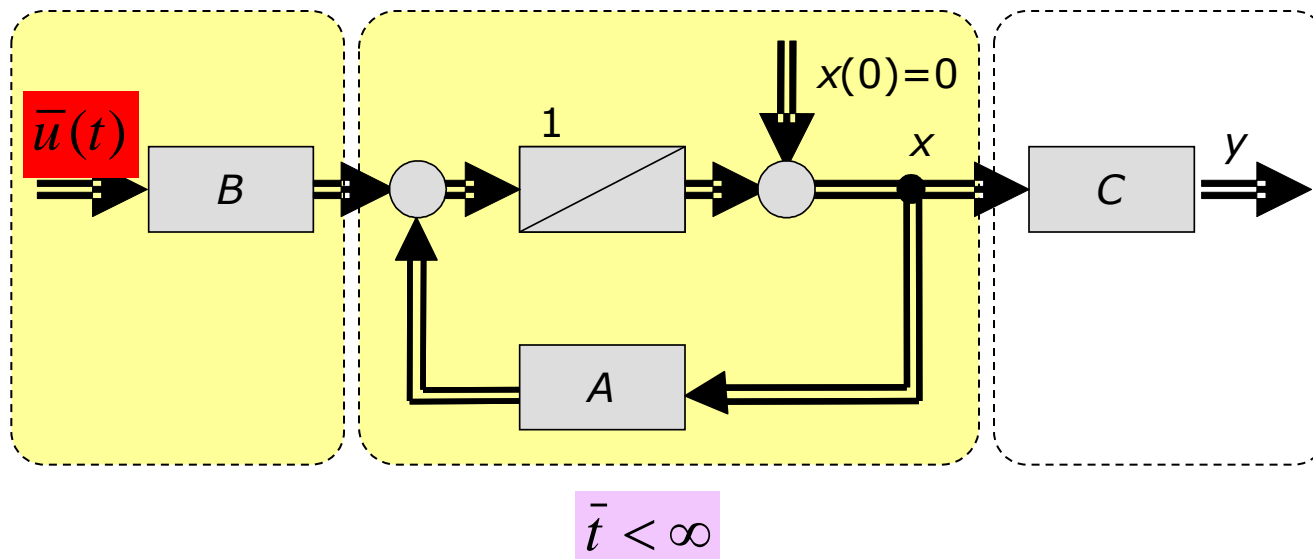
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- Controllability measures
- Observability measures
- Infinite Gramians
- MOR: Balanced truncation based on infinite Gramians

Controllability measure



Reachability

Definition: Given a system $\left(\begin{array}{c|c} A & B \\ \hline L^T & \end{array} \right)$, a state x is **reachable** from the zero state if there exist an input function $\bar{u}(t)$ of finite energy such that x can be obtained from the zero state and within a finite period of time $\bar{t} < \infty$.



Controllability measure



Denote X^{reach} the subspace spanned by the reachable states, then

$$X^{reach} \subseteq X$$

X is the whole state space, e.g.

$$X = \{x(t) : R_+ \rightarrow C^n\}$$

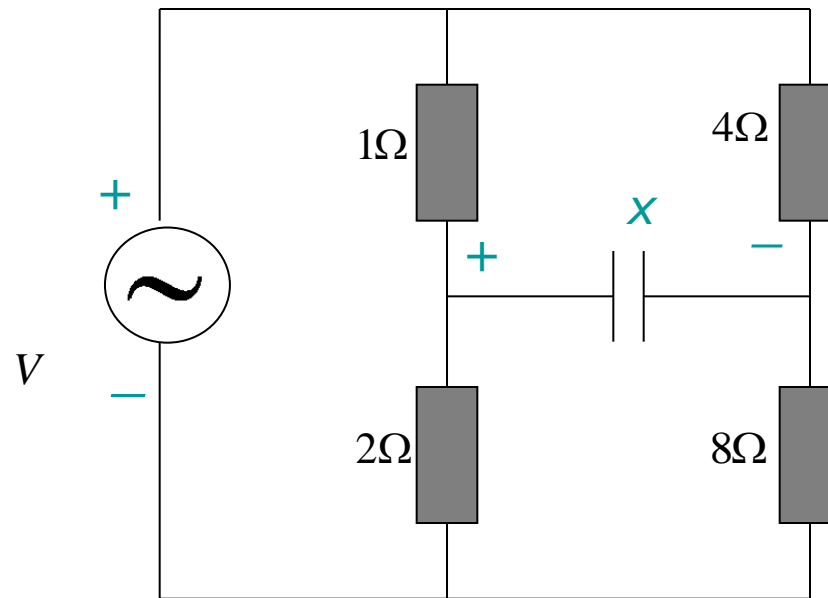
The system is reachable $\iff X^{reach} = X$: every state in the state space is reachable.

Controllability measure



Example 1

Picture referred to [Chi-Tsong Chen, Linear system Theory and Design, 3rd edition, New York Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1999]



x denotes the voltage drop along the capacitor, and is the state of the system. In this circuit, $x=0$ at any time.

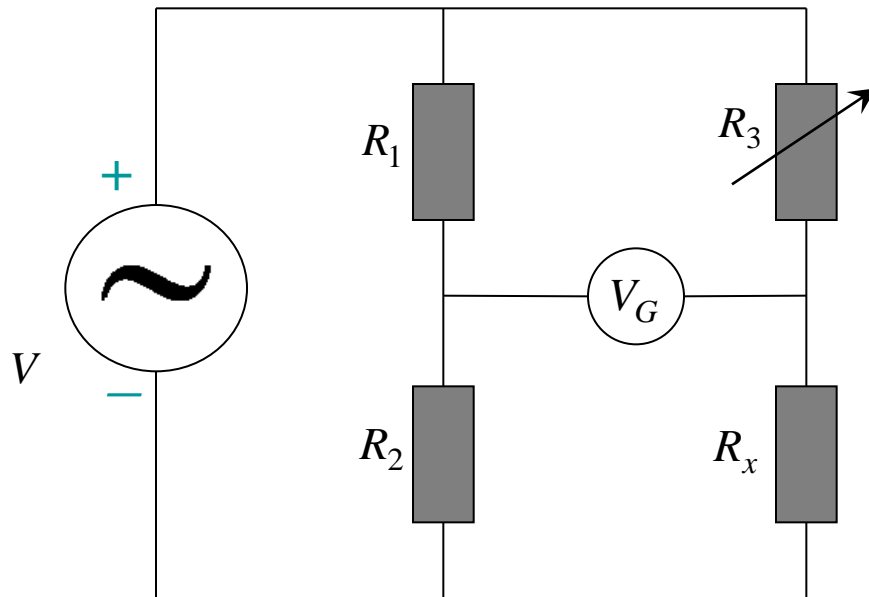
Conclusion:

In this circuit, 0 state is a reachable state, but **any nonzero** state is a unreachable state! Therefore the whole system is unreachable.



Controllability measure

Example 1 is actually the Wheatstone bridge.



Wheatstone bridge

R_3 is adjustable, it is adjusted till V_G becomes zero. It means there is no voltage drop through V_G .

Therefore, we have

$$\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \frac{R_x}{R_3}$$

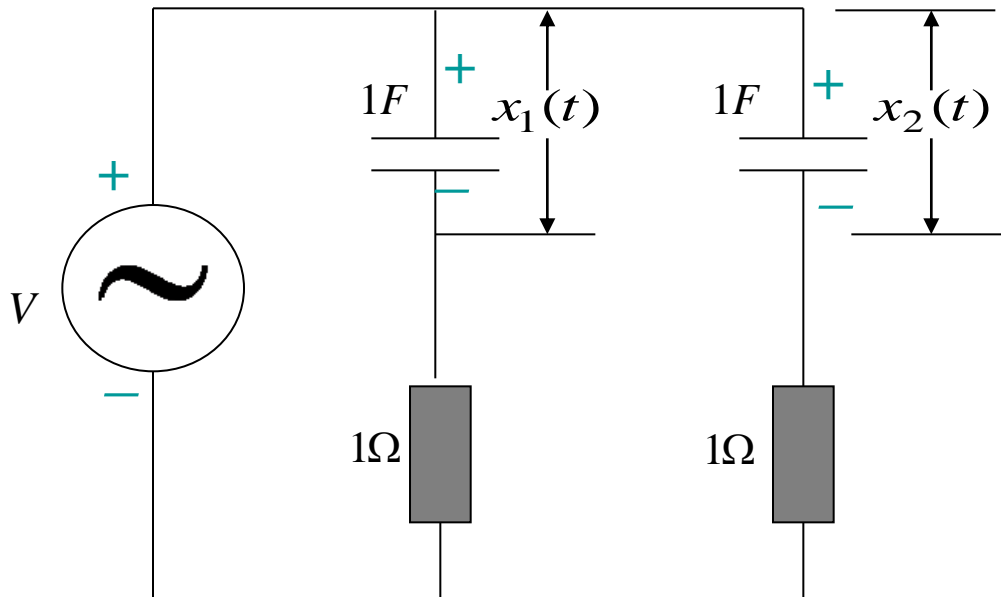
R_x can be easily measured by the above equation.

A **Wheatstone bridge** is a measuring instrument invented by Samuel Hunter Christie in 1833 and improved and popularized by Sir Charles Wheatstone in 1843. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wheatstone_bridge)

Controllability measure



Example 2



$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

$$y(t) = L^T x(t)$$

$$x(t) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

voltage drops through the two capacitors.

Those states $x(t)$ with $x_1(t) = x_2(t)$ are reachable, but those states with $x_1(t) \neq x_2(t)$ are not reachable. Because whatever the input is, the voltage drops through the two capacitors are always identical.

Therefore the whole system is unreachable.



Controllability measure

Reachability matrix of the system:

$$R(A, B) = [B, AB, A^2B \cdots A^{n-1}B \cdots]$$

By the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, the rank of the reachability matrix and the span of its columns are determined (at most) by the first n terms (not the first n columns), i.e. $A^t B, t = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$.

Thus for computational purpose the following (finite) reachability matrix is of importance:

$$R_n(A, B) = [B, AB, A^2B \cdots A^{n-1}B]$$

Sometimes $R_n(A, B)$ is directly defined as the reachability matrix.

- Why it is called reachability matrix?
- Any connection between $R_n(A, B)$ and reachability?

Controllability measure



Notice the **analytical solution** of system state equation $dx/dt = Ax + Bu$ is

$$x(u, x_0, t) = e^{At} x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-\tau)} Bu(\tau) d\tau, t \geq t_0,$$

The reachability of a state x of the system is tested by the **zero initial state**, $x_0 = 0$, we look at the above analytical solution with $x_0 = 0$,

$$x(u, 0, t) = \int_0^t e^{A(t-\tau)} Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

Notice:

$$e^{At} = I_n + \frac{t}{1!} A + \frac{t^2}{2!} A^2 + \dots + \frac{t^k}{k!} A^k + \dots$$

Controllability measure



$$\begin{aligned}x(u,0,t) &= \int_0^t e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d\tau = \int_0^t (B + (t-\tau)AB + \frac{(t-\tau)^2}{2!} A^2 B + \dots) u(\tau) d\tau \\ &= B \int_0^t u(\tau) d\tau + AB \int_0^t (t-\tau) u(\tau) d\tau + A^2 B \int_0^t \frac{(t-\tau)^2}{2!} u(\tau) d\tau \\ &= B\alpha_0 + AB\alpha_1 + A^2 B\alpha_2 + \dots + A^k B\alpha_k + \dots,\end{aligned}$$

which means **a reachable state** x is the linear combination of the terms:

$$B, AB, A^2 B, \dots, A^k B, \dots$$

Therefore $R(A, B) = (B, AB, A^2 B \dots A^{n-1} B \dots)$ is defined as the reachability Matrix.

Controllability measure



Actually there is a Theorem (Theorem 4.5 in Chapter 4 in [Antoulas05]):

Theorem 1 If X^{reach} is the subspace spanned by the reachable states, then

$$X^{reach} = \text{im } R(A, B) : \text{space spanned by the columns.}$$

The theorem tells us the subspace spanned by all reachable states is exactly the subspace spanned by the columns of the reachability matrix $R(A, B)$.

The finite **reachability gramian at time** $t < \infty$ is defined as :

$$P(t) = \int_0^t e^{A\tau} B B^T e^{A^T \tau} d\tau, \quad \text{for } 0 < t < \infty$$



Controllability measure

Connection between reachability matrix and reachability gramians

Proposition 1 The finite reachability gramians have the following properties: (a) $P(t) = P^T(t) \geq 0$, and (b) their columns span the reachability subspace, i.e., $\text{im } P(t) = \text{im } R(A, B)$. (Proposition 4.8 in [Antulous 05])

Proof An easier way is to prove $\text{im } P^\oplus(t) = \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B)$, where

$$\text{im } P^\oplus(t) \oplus \text{im } P(t) = C^n \quad \text{and} \quad \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B) \oplus \text{im } R(A, B) = C^n$$

We first prove $\forall x \in \text{im } P^\oplus(t) \Rightarrow x \in \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B)$

$\forall x \in \text{im } P^\oplus$ we have

$$x^T P(t) x = \int_0^t \| B^T e^{A^T \tau} x \|^2 d\tau = 0,$$

$$\Leftrightarrow B^T e^{A^T t} x = 0, \text{ for all } t \geq 0$$

Controllability measure



$$e^{A^T t} = I_n + \frac{t}{1!} A^T + \frac{t^2}{2!} (A^T)^2 + \dots + \frac{t^k}{k!} (A^T)^k + \dots$$

Therefore, $B^T e^{A^T t} x = 0 \Leftrightarrow B^T (A^T)^{i-1} x = 0$, for all $i > 0$.



$$x \perp A^{i-1} B$$



$$x \perp \text{im } R(A, B)$$



$$x \in \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B)$$

We have proved: $\forall x \in \text{im } P^\oplus(t) \Rightarrow x \in \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B)$

Controllability measure



Next we prove: $\forall x \in \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B) \Rightarrow x \in \text{im } P^\oplus$

$$x \in \text{im } R^\oplus(A, B) \implies x \perp \text{im } R(A, B) \implies x \perp A^{i-1}B, \text{ for all } i > 0$$



$$B^T (A^T)^{i-1} x = 0, \text{ for all } i > 0.$$



$$B^T e^{A^T t} x = 0, \text{ for all } t \geq 0$$

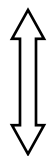


$$e^{At} B B^T e^{A^T t} x = 0$$

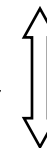


$$P(t)x = \int_0^t e^{A\tau} B B^T e^{A^T \tau} x d\tau = 0,$$

$$x \in \text{im } P^\oplus$$

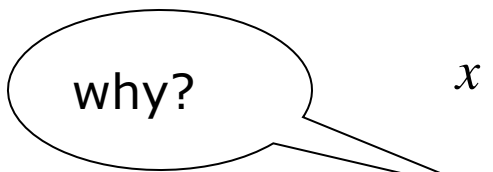
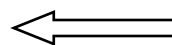


$$x \perp \text{im } (P)$$



P symmetric

$$x \in \text{null}(P)$$



Controllability measure



$$\forall x \in \text{null}(P) \iff Px = 0 \iff \begin{pmatrix} p_1^T x \\ p_2^T x \\ \vdots \\ p_n^T x \end{pmatrix} = 0 \text{ and } P = \begin{pmatrix} p_1^T \\ p_2^T \\ \vdots \\ p_n^T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\iff p_i \perp \text{null}(P) \iff \text{im}(P^T) \perp \text{null}(P)$$

$$\text{im}(P^T) = \text{span}\{\text{columns of } P^T\} = \text{span}\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$$

↓ P symmetric

$$\text{im}(P) = \text{im}(P^T)$$

↓

$$\text{im}(P) \perp \text{null}(P)$$

Controllability measure



The relation $\text{im } P(t) = \text{im } R(A, B)$ provides a way to derive the minimal energy which are needed to reach a state x .

The states using **large** minimal energy are **difficult to reach** and **will be truncated** during MOR based on balanced truncation.

Therefore, the minimal energy for reaching a reachable state x is a key concept for model order reduction based on balanced truncation.

Next, we will derive the minimal energy for reaching a state x .

Controllability measure



From the analytical solution, if a state x is reached at time \bar{T} , then $\exists u(t)$ with finite energy, such that

$$x = \int_0^{\bar{T}} e^{A(\bar{T}-\tau)} B u(\tau) d\tau$$

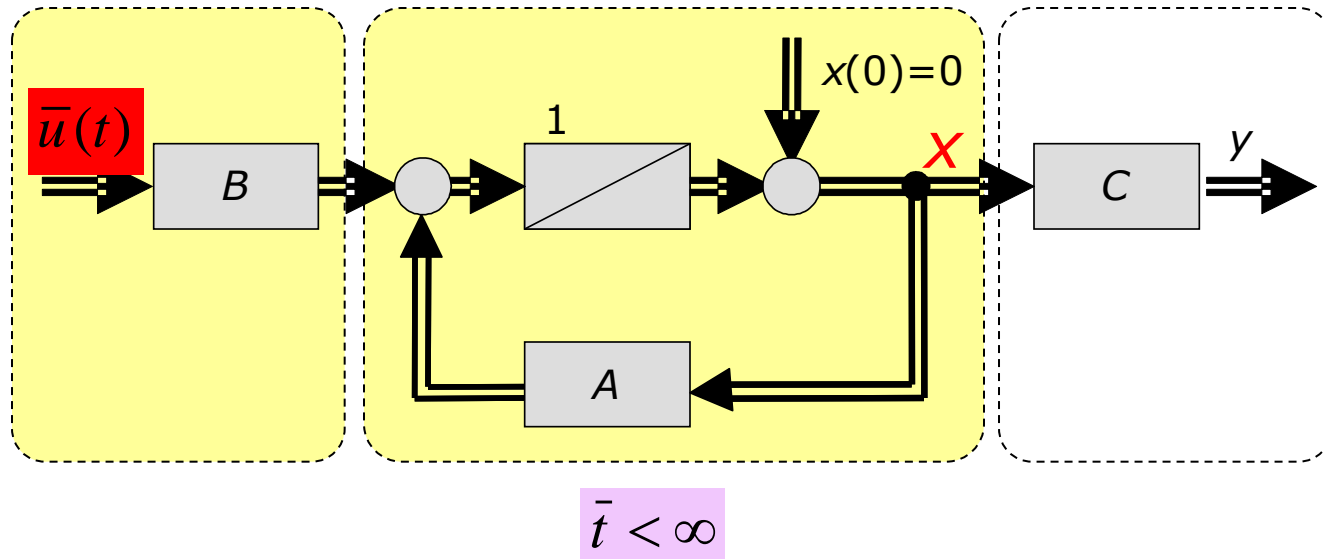
How much must the input $u(t)$ be?

We have proved if x is reachable, then $x \in \text{im}(P(t))$, i.e. $\exists \xi, \bar{T}$,

$$\begin{aligned} x = P(\bar{T})\xi &\Rightarrow x = \int_0^{\bar{T}} e^{A t} B B^T e^{A^T t} \xi dt = \int_0^{\bar{T}} e^{A(\bar{T}-\tau)} B B^T e^{A^T(\bar{T}-\tau)} \xi d(-\tau) \\ &= \int_0^{\bar{T}} e^{A(\bar{T}-\tau)} B \bar{u} d\tau \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{u}(\tau) = -B^T e^{A^T(\bar{T}-\tau)} \xi \end{aligned}$$

This means x can be reached at time \bar{T} with input \bar{u}

Controllability measure



The input $u(t)$ is the excitation of the system, its energy is the energy required to reach the state x .

Energy of a function is defined as: $\|u\|^2 = \int_0^{\bar{T}} u^*(t)u(t)dt$



Controllability measure

We see from above analysis, if x is reachable at time \bar{t} , x can be represented as:

$$x = \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{A(\bar{t}-\tau)} B \bar{u} d\tau \quad (\bar{u} = -B^T e^{A^T(\bar{t}-\tau)} \xi)$$

Any other input $\|u(t)\|^2 > \|\bar{u}(t)\|^2$ can also reach x . However if $\|u(t)\|^2 < \|\bar{u}(t)\|^2$, it cannot reach x at time \bar{t} , may need longer time.

Actually the energy of \bar{u} is the **minimal** energy to reach the state x at the given time period \bar{t} . (Proposition 4.10 in [Antulous 05])

Energy of \bar{u} :

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = \int_0^{\bar{t}} \bar{u}^*(t) \bar{u}(t) dt = \int_0^{\bar{t}} \xi^* e^{A(\bar{t}-t)} B B^T e^{A^T(\bar{t}-t)} \xi dt = \xi^* P(\bar{t}) \xi$$

relation to x ?



x



Controllability measure

A system is reachable means every state x in the whole state space is reachable.

From theorem 1: $X^{reach} = \text{im } R(A, B) = \text{im } R_n(A, B)$

Therefore the system is reachable $\iff \text{rank}(R_n(A, B)) = n$

From Proposition 1: $\text{im } P(t) = \text{im } R(A, B)$

Therefore the system is reachable $\iff \text{rank}(P(t)) = n, \forall t > 0$

Therefore, $P(t)$ is nonsingular for any t , if the system is reachable.



Controllability measure

Energy of $\bar{u} = B^T e^{A^T(\bar{t}-\tau)} \xi$ (notice $x = P(\bar{t})\xi$) :

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = \xi^* P(\bar{t})\xi = (P^{-1}(\bar{t})x)^* P(\bar{t})(P^{-1}(\bar{t})x) = x^* P^{-1}(\bar{t})x$$

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = x^* P^{-1}(\bar{t})x$$

Controllability
measure!

Only for reachable
systems.



Controllability measure

Remark 1:

Reachability is a generic property for LTI systems with the form:

$$dx/dt = Ax + Bu$$

This means, intuitively, that **almost** every LTI system with the form above is reachable. If there are any unreachable systems, they are very rare. The unreachable LTI systems like examples 1,2 are rare.

Remark 2:

The reachability of the system can be more easily checked by the criteria:

$$\text{The system is reachable} \iff \text{rank}(R_n(A, B)) = n$$

Controllability measure



A concept which is closely related to reachability is that of **controllability**.

Here, instead of driving the zero state to a desired state, **a given non-zero state is steered to the zero state**. More precisely we have:

Definition of controllability: Given a LTI system as above, a non-zero state x is controllable if there exist an input $u(t)$ with finite energy such that the state of the system goes to zero from x within a finite time: $\bar{t} < \infty$.

Controllability measure



It has been proved that **for time continuous LTI systems** (as discussed in this lecture), the concepts of **reachability and controllability are equivalent**.

Theorem 2 For time continuous systems $X^{reach} = X^{contr}$. (Theorem 4.16 in Antoulous 05)

Similarly, X^{contr} is the subspace spanned by the controllable states.

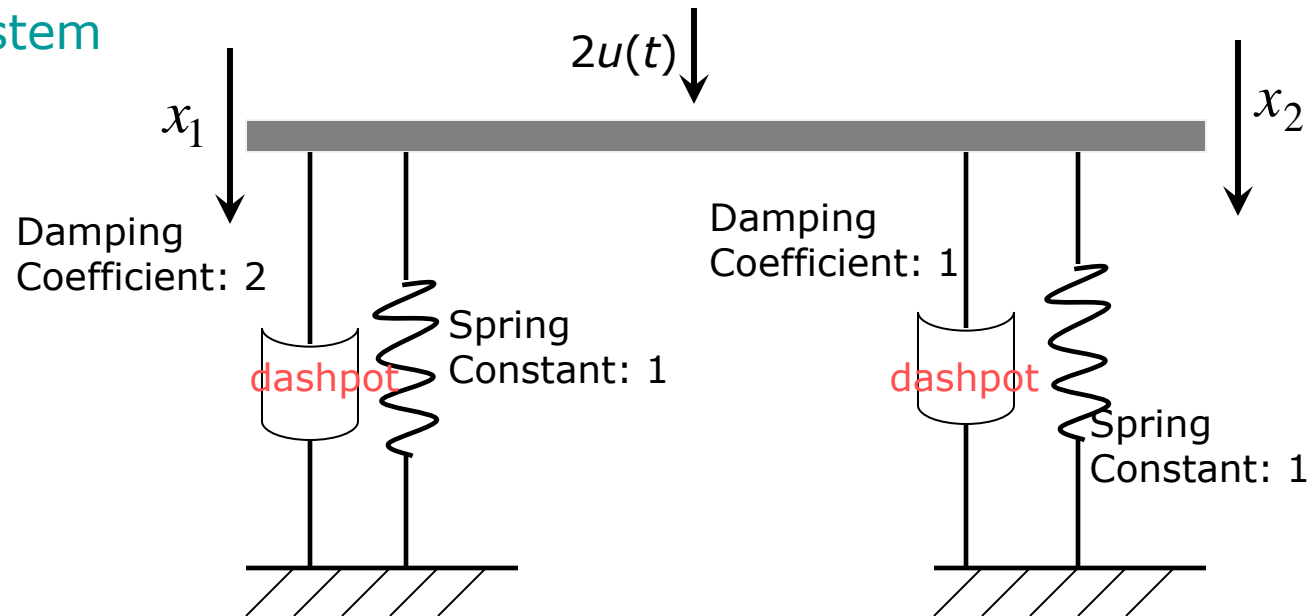
From the property of reachable system, we have

The system is controllable $\iff \text{rank}(R_n(A, B)) = n$

Controllability measure



Example: Platform system

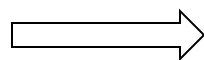


The system is described by the following linear time invariant (LTI) system: assume mass of the platform is zero, and from Newton's law:

$$F - \eta v - kx = ma$$

$$u - 2\dot{x}_1 - x_1 = 0$$

$$u - \dot{x}_2 - x_2 = 0$$



$$dx(t)/dt = \begin{pmatrix} -0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} x(t) + \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} u(t)$$

A

B

Controllability measure



Is the platform system controllable?

The system is controllable $\iff \text{rank}(R_n(A, B)) = n$

$$R_n(A, B) = [B, AB,]$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad AB = \begin{pmatrix} -0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.25 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

B, AB are linearly independent!

$$\text{rank}(R_n(A, B)) = 2 = n$$

Therefore, the platform system is controllable.

Controllability measure



Associated with controllability, there is the concept of observability.

Controllability: input $u(t)$ \longrightarrow state $x(t)$.

Possibility of steering the state from the input.

Observability: output $y(t)$ \longrightarrow state $x(t)$.

Possibility of estimating the state from the output.



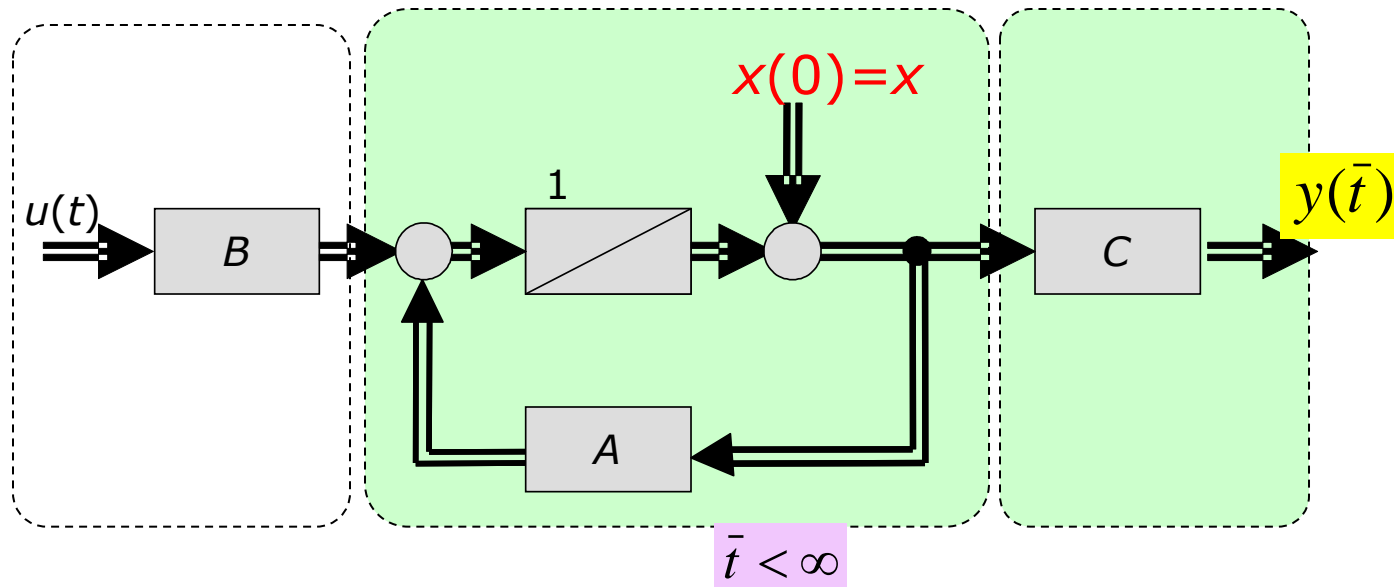
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Observability measure

Observability is a **measure** for how well internal states of a system can be estimated by knowledge of its external outputs.

Definition of Observability: Given **any** input $u(t)$, a state x of the system is observable, if starting with the state x ($x(0)=x$), and after a finite period of time $\bar{t} < \infty$, x can be **uniquely** determined by the **output** $y(\bar{t})$.



Observability measure



Observability matrix?

Observability Gramian?

Output energy?

$$O(L, A) = \begin{pmatrix} L^T \\ L^T A \\ L^T A^2 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

Observability measure



Derivation of Observability matrix

From the analytical solution of $dx/dt = Ax + Bu$, we see that after time $\bar{t} < \infty$:

$$\tilde{x}(\bar{t}) = e^{A\bar{t}} x_0 + \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{A(\bar{t}-\tau)} Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

The system starting with $x(0)=x$, therefore

$$\tilde{x}(\bar{t}) = e^{A\bar{t}} x + \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{A(\bar{t}-\tau)} Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

And the output corresponding to $\tilde{x}(\bar{t})$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} y(\bar{t}) &= L^T \tilde{x}(\bar{t}) = L^T e^{A\bar{t}} x + L^T \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{A(\bar{t}-\tau)} Bu(\tau) d\tau \\ &= L^T e^{A\bar{t}} x + L^T e^{A\bar{t}} \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{-A\tau} Bu(\tau) d\tau \\ &= L^T e^{A\bar{t}} \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{x} = x + \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{-A\tau} Bu(\tau) d\tau \end{aligned}$$

Observability measure



Derivation of Observability matrix

If x is observable, then for any $u(t)$, x can be uniquely determined by the corresponding y :

$$y(\bar{t}) = L^T e^{A\bar{t}} \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{x} = x + \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{-A\tau} Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

Since x can be uniquely determined by \bar{x} , it is sufficient to prove that \bar{x} can be uniquely determined by $y(\bar{t})$.

Let us see **under what condition** can \bar{x} be uniquely determined by $y(\bar{t})$?

Observability measure



Derivation of Observability matrix

$$y(\bar{t}) = L^T e^{A\bar{t}} \bar{x}$$

Differentiate the above equation on both sides and get the derivatives at $t=0$:

$$y(0) = L^T \bar{x}$$

$$y'(0) = L^T A \bar{x}$$

$$y''(0) = L^T A^2 \bar{x}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$y^{(k)}(0) = L^T A^k \bar{x}$$

$$\iff \begin{pmatrix} L^T \\ L^T A \\ \vdots \\ L^T A^k \end{pmatrix} \bar{x} = \begin{pmatrix} y(0) \\ y'(0) \\ \vdots \\ y^{(k)}(0) \end{pmatrix} \quad (\#)$$

(#) has a unique solution \bar{x} if $\begin{pmatrix} L^T \\ L^T A \\ \vdots \\ L^T A^k \end{pmatrix}$ has full row rank n .

Observability measure



Derivation of Observability matrix

Denote:

$$Q_k = \begin{pmatrix} L^T \\ L^T A \\ \vdots \\ L^T A^k \end{pmatrix} \quad \bar{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y(0) \\ y'(0) \\ \vdots \\ y^{(k)}(0) \end{pmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \bar{x} = Q_k^{-1} \bar{y}$$

\bar{x} can be uniquely determined, with k being at most n .

$L^T \in R^{m \times n}$ if $m > 1$, then $k < n$, if $m = 1$, $k = n$.

Observability measure



Derivation of Observability matrix

Therefore we define

Observability matrix:

$$O(L, A) = \begin{pmatrix} L^T \\ L^T A \\ L^T A^2 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

From above analysis, actually the finite Observability matrix is enough to determine observability:

$$O_n(L, A) = \begin{pmatrix} L^T \\ L^T A \\ \vdots \\ L^T A^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore:

The system is observable $\iff \text{rank}(O_n(L, A)) = n$



The output energy associated with the initial state x is:

$$\begin{aligned}\|y(\bar{t})\|^2 &= \int_0^{\bar{t}} y(t)^* y(t) dt = \int_0^{\bar{t}} \bar{x}^* e^{A^T t} LL^T e^{At} \bar{x} dt \\ &= \bar{x}^* \int_0^{\bar{t}} e^{A^T t} LL^T e^{At} dt \bar{x} \\ &= \bar{x}^* Q(\bar{t}) \bar{x}\end{aligned}$$

1. Energy of observation produced by an observable state x .
2. Observability measure!

Finite Observability Gramian at time $t < \infty$ is defined as:

$$Q(t) = \int_0^t e^{A^T \tau} LL^T e^{A\tau} d\tau, \quad 0 < t < \infty$$



Recall the minimal energy to reach a state x at time \bar{t} is

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = x^* P^{-1}(\bar{t})x$$

Notice both energies are related to time.

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = x^* P^{-1}(\bar{t})x \quad \|y(\bar{t})\|^2 = \bar{x}^* Q(\bar{t})\bar{x}$$

$$P(t) = \int_0^t e^{A\tau} B B^T e^{A^T \tau} d\tau, \quad 0 < t < \infty \quad Q(t) = \int_0^t e^{A^T \tau} L L^T e^{A\tau} d\tau, \quad 0 < t < \infty$$

Finite (reachability) controllability Gramian and observability Gramian will be used to derive the **infinite Gramians which**

- 1. Make the two measures computable.**
- 2. will be directly used for truncation in MOR.**



- Overlook
- Controllability measures
- Observability measures
- Infinite Gramians
- MOR: Balanced truncation based on infinite Gramians

Infinite Gramians



———make the two measures computable

Under which condition, $Q(t)$ and $P(t)$ **are bounded** when time goes to infinity: $t \rightarrow \infty$?

$$P(t) = \int_0^t e^{A\tau} B B^T e^{A^T \tau} d\tau, \quad 0 < t < \infty$$

$$Q(t) = \int_0^t e^{A^T \tau} L L^T e^{A\tau} d\tau, \quad 0 < t < \infty$$

Roughly speaking, $Q(t)$ and $P(t)$ can be bounded when $t \rightarrow \infty$, if e^{At} is bounded when $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Infinite Gramians



———make the two measures computable

e^{At} is bounded if the real parts of all the eigenvalues of A are negative.

Why? Let $A = S^{-1} \Lambda S$ be the eigen-decomposition of A ,

$$e^{At} = e^{S^{-1} \Lambda S t} = S^{-1} e^{\Lambda t} S = S^{-1} e^{\Lambda_{re} t + \Lambda_{im} t} S = S^{-1} e^{\Lambda_{re} t} e^{\Lambda_{im} t} S$$

$$\Lambda_{re} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^{re} & & & \\ & \lambda_2^{re} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n^{re} \end{pmatrix} \quad \Lambda_{im} = \begin{pmatrix} j\lambda_1^{im} & & & \\ & j\lambda_2^{im} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & j\lambda_n^{im} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\lambda_i = \lambda_i^{re} + j\lambda_i^{im}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are eigenvalues of A .

Infinite Gramians



———— make the two measures computable

$$e^{At} = e^{S^{-1}\Lambda St} = S^{-1}e^{\Lambda t}S = S^{-1}e^{t\Lambda_{re}}e^{t\Lambda_{im}}S$$

$$e^{t\Lambda_{re}} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{t\lambda_1^{re}} & & & \\ & e^{t\lambda_2^{re}} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & e^{t\lambda_n^{re}} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[\lambda_i^{re} < 0]{t \rightarrow \infty} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e^{t\Lambda_{im}} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{tj\lambda_1^{im}} & & & \\ & e^{tj\lambda_2^{im}} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & e^{tj\lambda_n^{im}} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[\substack{e^{tj\lambda_i^{im}} = \cos(t\lambda_i^{im}) + j\sin(\lambda_i^{im})}]{t \rightarrow \infty} \text{bounded}$$

Infinite Gramians



———— make the two measures computable

Therefore, $e^{At} = e^{S^{-1}\Lambda S} = S^{-1}e^{\Lambda}S = S^{-1}e^{t\Lambda_{re}}e^{t\Lambda_{im}}S \rightarrow 0$

if the real parts of all the eigenvalues of A are **negative**.

Therefore the follow limits exists if **all the eigenvalues of A are negative**,
i.e. **if the system is stable**:

$$P = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{A\tau} BB^T e^{A^T\tau} d\tau = \int_0^{\infty} e^{A\tau} BB^T e^{A^T\tau} d\tau$$

$$Q = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} Q(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{A^T\tau} LL^T e^{A\tau} d\tau = \int_0^{\infty} e^{A^T\tau} LL^T e^{A\tau} d\tau$$

where P and Q are the **infinite Gramians** (only for stable systems).

Infinite Gramians



———— make the two measures computable

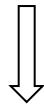
The infinite Gramians:

$$P = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{A\tau} B B^T e^{A^T \tau} d\tau = \int_0^\infty e^{A\tau} B B^T e^{A^T \tau} d\tau$$

$$Q = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} Q(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{A^T \tau} L L^T e^{A\tau} d\tau = \int_0^\infty e^{A^T \tau} L L^T e^{A\tau} d\tau$$

From the property of integral, we have

$$P \geq P(t), \quad \forall t \quad Q \geq Q(t), \quad \forall t$$



In the meaning of inner product: $P \geq P(t) \Leftrightarrow (Px, x) \geq (P(t)x, x)$

Infinite Gramians



—— make the two measures computable

The minimal energy necessary for reaching a reachable state x at time t is:

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = x^* P^{-1}(t) x$$

For stable systems, lower bound of the minimal energy necessary for reaching a reachable state x is:

$$\|\bar{u}\|^2 = x^* P(t)^{-1} x \geq x^* P^{-1} x \quad \text{because } P \geq P(t), \quad \forall t$$

For stable systems, the upper bound of the energy produced by the observable state x is:

$$\|y(t)\|^2 = \bar{x}^* Q(t) \bar{x} \leq \bar{x}^* Q \bar{x} \quad \text{because } Q \geq Q(t), \quad \forall t$$

Computable measures!

Only suitable for stable systems!

Infinite Gramians



—— make the two measures computable

For stable systems, the minimal energy necessary for reaching a state is:

$$\min \| \bar{u} \|^2 = x^* P^{-1} x$$

For stable systems, the maximum energy produced by a state x is:

$$\max \| y(t) \|^2 = \bar{x}^* Q \bar{x}$$

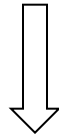
Infinite Gramians



——make the two measures computable

Because the MOR method we will introduce uses P and Q to derive the reduced-order model, and therefore is only **suitable for stable** systems.

$$\min \| \bar{u} \|^2 = x^* P^{-1} x \quad \max \| y(t) \|^2 = \bar{x}^* Q \bar{x}$$



The eigenspaces of P and Q make the two measurements **practically computable!**

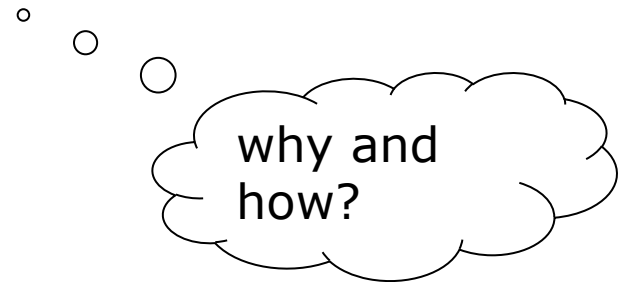
Eigenspaces of P and Q

— make the two measures practically computable



The states which are difficult to reach are included in the subspace spanned by those eigenvectors of P that corresponds to small eigenvalues.

The states which are difficult to observe are included in the subspace spanned by those eigenvectors of Q that corresponds to small eigenvalues.



Eigenspaces of P and Q



— make the two measures practically computable

Denote $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n$ as the n eigenvectors of P , the corresponding eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$. (P is symmetric, it has real eigenvalues.)

$\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n$ are linearly independent, therefore they constitute a basis of the whole space C^n .

The state x can therefore be represented by $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n$:

$$x = \alpha_1 \xi_1 + \alpha_2 \xi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \xi_n$$

$$\min \| \bar{u} \|^2 = x^* P^{-1} x$$

If a matrix is nonsingular, then its inverse has the same eigenvectors, but the eigenvalues are the reciprocals:

$$P\xi = \lambda\xi \Rightarrow P^{-1}P\xi = \lambda P^{-1}\xi \Rightarrow \xi / \lambda = P^{-1}\xi$$

Eigenspaces of P and Q

—— make the two measures practically computable



$$\min \| \bar{u} \|^2 = x^* P^{-1} x$$

$$x = \alpha_1 \xi_1 + \alpha_2 \xi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \xi_n$$



$$P^{-1} x = \alpha_1 \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \xi_1 + \alpha_2 \frac{1}{\lambda_2} \xi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \xi_n$$



$$x^* P^{-1} x = \alpha_1^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \xi_1^* \xi_1 + \alpha_2^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_2} \xi_2^* \xi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \xi_n^* \xi_n$$

P is symmetric,  therefore $\tilde{Q} = [\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n]$ is orthogonal.

$$\min \| \bar{u} \|^2 = \alpha_1^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_1} + \alpha_2^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_2} + \dots + \alpha_n^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_n}$$

$\min \| \bar{u} \|^2$ indicates the minimal energy needed to reach the state x , therefore the larger $\min \| \bar{u} \|^2$ is, the more difficult the state x to reach.

Eigenspaces of P and Q

— make the two measures practically computable



$$\begin{cases} \min \|\bar{u}\| = \alpha_1^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_1} + \alpha_2^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_2} + \dots + \alpha_n^2 \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \\ \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_2} \leq \dots \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \end{cases}$$

$\min \|\bar{u}\|^2$ is larger if $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \gg \lambda_k \geq \lambda_{k+1} \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$ and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots \ll \alpha_k, \alpha_{k+1}, \dots, \alpha_n$ than if

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \gg \lambda_k \geq \lambda_{k+1} \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n \text{ and}$$

$$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots \gg \alpha_k, \alpha_{k+1}, \dots, \alpha_n$$

$$x = \alpha_1 \xi_1 + \alpha_2 \xi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \xi_n$$

This means if x is **difficult to reach** ($\|\bar{u}\|^2$ is large), x should have large components in the subspace spanned by the eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues of P . Or x should **almost** locates in the subspace spanned by the eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues.

Eigenspaces of P and Q



— make the two measures practically computable

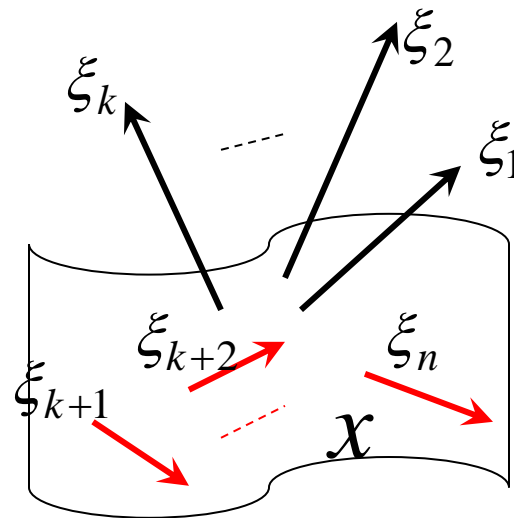
Similarly, if x is **difficult to observe** ($\|y(t)\|^2 = \bar{x}^* Q \bar{x}$ **is small**) x should have large components in the subspace spanned by the eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues of Q . Or x should **almost** locates in the subspace spanned by the eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues.

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \gg \lambda_k \geq \lambda_{k+1} \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$$

$$P \xi_i = \lambda_i \xi_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\tilde{\lambda}_1 \geq \tilde{\lambda}_2 \geq \dots \gg \tilde{\lambda}_k \geq \tilde{\lambda}_{k+1} \geq \dots \geq \tilde{\lambda}_n$$

$$Q \tilde{\xi}_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i \tilde{\xi}_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$



Eigenspaces of P and Q

—— make the two measures practically computable



Till now it seems we could do the truncation by finding subspace spanned by the eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues of P or Q .

However, **it could happen** that states which are difficult to reach produce the maximal energy of observation; states which produce the smallest energy of observation are nevertheless the easiest to reach!

For such system, we do not know which states to truncate!

Eigenspaces of P and Q

— make the two measures practically computable



Example: Consider the following LTI system

$$\begin{aligned} dx(t)/dt &= Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) &= L^T x(t) \end{aligned} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The two Gramians are: $P = \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 & -1 \\ -1 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}, Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Their eigenvalues and eigenvectors are:

$$\xi_1^P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.92388 \\ -0.38268 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_1^P = 2.91421$$

$$\xi_1^Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0.52573 \\ 0.85865 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_1^Q = 1.30901$$

$$\xi_2^P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.38268 \\ 0.92388 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_2^P = 0.08578$$

$$\xi_2^Q = \begin{pmatrix} -0.85865 \\ 0.52573 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_2^Q = 0.19098$$

Eigenspaces of P and Q

—— make the two measures practically computable



$$\xi_2^P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.38268 \\ 0.92388 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_2^P = 0.08578$$

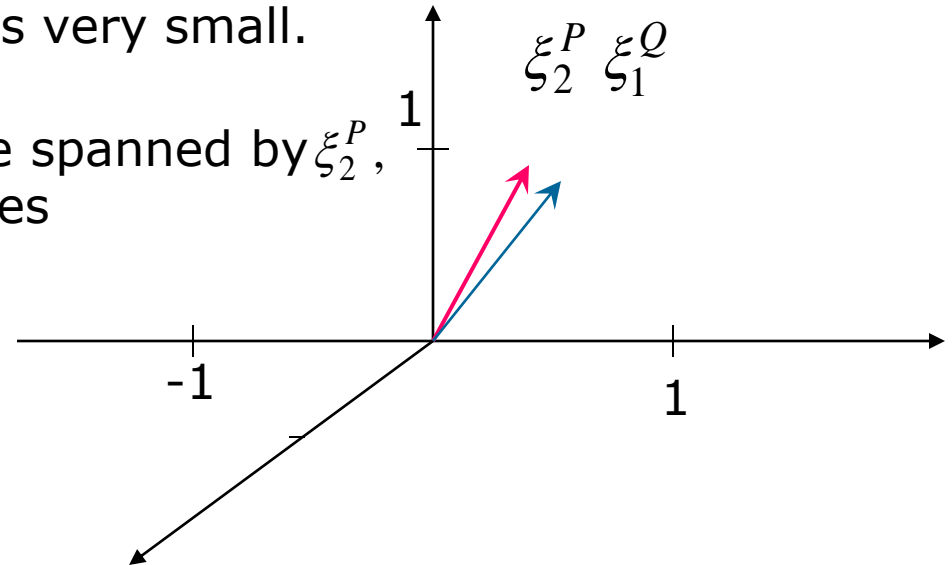
$$\xi_1^Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0.52573 \\ 0.85865 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_1^Q = 1.30901$$

The angle between ξ_2^P , and ξ_1^Q is very small.

This means if S is the subspace spanned by ξ_2^P , then the easily observable states

$$x = \alpha_1 \xi_1^Q + \alpha_2 \xi_2^Q, \alpha_1 \gg \alpha_2$$

may also in S.



It tells us if we truncate the states which are difficult to reach (the states locate in S), we **risk truncating** the states which are easy to observe (produce the maximal energy of observation) , because they are also in S).

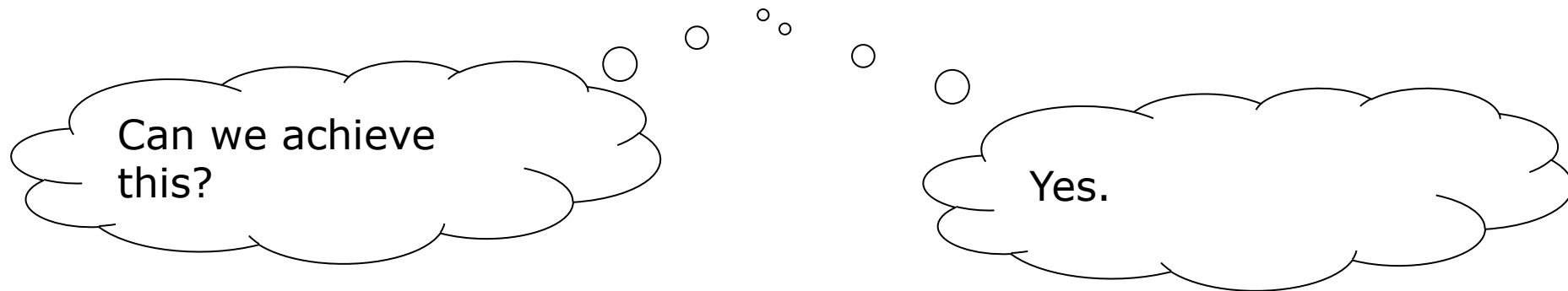
Eigenspaces of P and Q

—make the two measures practically computable



However, if P and Q have the same eigenvalues and eigenvectors, then the problem is solved.

The states in the subspace spanned by the eigenvectors of P corresponding to the small eigenvalues always lie in the subspace spanned by the eigenvectors of Q corresponding to the small eigenvalues, **because the eigenvalues are the same and eigenvectors are the same, therefore the subspaces are the same.**



We can achieve it by balancing.



- Overlook
- Controllability measures
- Observability measures
- Infinite Gramians
- MOR: Balanced truncation based on infinite Gramians

MOR: Balanced truncation



Balancing

Recall the Balanced truncation method:

Given a LTI system: $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$

$$y(t) = L^T x(t)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} A & B \\ \hline L^T & \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{balancing}} \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \tilde{A} & \tilde{b} \\ \hline \tilde{L}^T & \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c|c} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{A}_{12} & \tilde{B}_1 \\ \tilde{A}_{21} & \tilde{A}_{22} & \tilde{B}_2 \\ \hline \tilde{L}_1^T & \tilde{L}_2^T & \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{b}_1 \\ \hline \tilde{L}_1^T & \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{truncate}} \boxed{\text{reduced mode}}$$

The unimportant part is truncated



Basic idea of balancing transformation:

Use state space transformation $\tilde{x} = Tx$ to get **another realization** of the **same** system, so that the transformed Gramians are diagonal matrices.

Definition of Balancing transformation:

Finding a nonsingular matrix T , such that $\tilde{P} = TPT^T$, $\tilde{Q} = T^{-T}QT^{-1}$ and $\tilde{P} = \tilde{Q}$.

Definition of Balanced system:

The reachable, observable and stable LTI system is balanced, if its two Gramians are equal $P = Q$, it is principal-axis balanced if

$$P = Q = \Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n).$$



Basic idea of balancing transformation:

Use state space transformation $\tilde{x} = Tx$ to get **another realization** of the **same** system, so that the transformed Gramians are equal and are diagonal matrices. I.e.

$$\tilde{P} = TP T^T = \Sigma, \quad \tilde{Q} = T^{-T} Q T^{-1} = \Sigma$$

How to construct T?

Recall that $\tilde{P}\tilde{Q} = TPQT^{-1}$.

Since $\tilde{P}\tilde{Q} = \Sigma^2$, we have $TPQT^{-1} = \Sigma^2$, which means $PQ = T^{-1}\Sigma^2T$.

T should be the inverse of the matrix of eigenvectors of PQ.



Check : $\tilde{P} = TPT^T = ?$ How to make $TPT^T = \Sigma$?

If $P = UU^T$, then $TPT^T = TUU^T T^T = \tilde{T}U^{-1}UU^T U^{-T} \tilde{T}^T = I$ if $\tilde{T}\tilde{T}^T = I$.

Here we must have the relation $T = \tilde{T}U^{-1}$.

If further $T = \Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T}U^{-1}$, then $TPT^T = \Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T}U^{-1}UU^T U^{-T} \tilde{T}^T \Sigma^{1/2} = \Sigma$.

It looks that we can compute \tilde{T} as $\tilde{T} = \Sigma^{-1/2} TU$

However, we know that T is the inverse of the eigenvectors of PQ . Since PQ is not a p.s.d. matrix, we have to compute the inverse of the matrix of eigenvectors to get T .

To avoid computing the inverse of the matrix of eigenvectors, we compute \tilde{T} in a different way.

MOR: Balanced truncation



—Balancing

Substitute $T = \Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T} U^{-1}$ into $TPQT^{-1} = \Sigma^2$, we get

$$\Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T} U^{-1} P Q U \tilde{T}^{-1} \Sigma^{-1/2} = \Sigma^2$$

The left hand side = $\Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T} U^{-1} U U^T Q U \tilde{T}^{-1} \Sigma^{-1/2} = \Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T} U^T Q U \tilde{T}^{-1} \Sigma^{-1/2}$.

Look at the right hand side, we get

$$\Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{T} U^T Q U \tilde{T}^{-1} \Sigma^{-1/2} = \Sigma^2,$$

i.e. $\tilde{T} U^T Q U \tilde{T}^{-1} = \Sigma^2$. Therefore \tilde{T} is the inverse of the matrix of eigenvectors of $U^T Q U$.

Furtunately, $U^T Q U$ is a p. s. d. matrix. therefore the inverse of the matrix of eigenvectors is exactly the transpose of the matrix itself. So that we do not have to compute the inverse.



The above analysis clearly shows that:

Existence of balancing transformation: $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$

$$y(t) = L^T x(t)$$

Given a reachable, observable and stable LTI system and the corresponding Gramians P and Q , a (principal axis) balancing transformation is given as follows:

$$T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^T U^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad T^{-1} = U K^{-T} \Sigma^{-1/2}$$

Here, $P = UU^T$ is the Cholesky factorization of P . $U^T Q U = K \Sigma^2 K^T$ is the eigen-decomposition of $U^T Q U$. (Symmetric positive semi-definite matrix has real non-negative eigenvalues and orthogonal eigenvectors. Here, the Eigenvectors in K are taken as orthonormal)



What is the corresponding balanced system?

Apply the state space transformation: $\tilde{x} = Tx$ to the original realization:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t) & \xrightarrow{\tilde{x} = Tx} & d\tilde{x}(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) + TBu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T x(t) & & y(t) = L^T T^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) \end{array}$$



Balancing :

- Given $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$
 $y(t) = L^T x(t)$
- Compute P, Q .
- Compute $P = UU^T \quad U^T QU = K\Sigma^2 K^T$ The eigenvalues are ordered from the largest to the smallest
- $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$ $T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^T U^{-1}$ $d\tilde{x}(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) + TBu(t)$
 $y(t) = L^T x(t)$ $T^{-1} = UK\Sigma^{-1/2}$ $y(t) = L^T T^{-1}\tilde{x}(t)$

MOR: Balanced truncation



—— Truncate

balanced system: $d\tilde{x}(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) + TBu(t)$

$$y(t) = L^T T^{-1} \tilde{x}(t)$$

$\tilde{P} = \tilde{Q} = \Sigma \Rightarrow$ the unit vectors e_i are the eigenvectors of $\Sigma : \Sigma e_i = \sigma_i e_i, i = 1, \dots, n$.

Assume that the elements on the diagonal of Σ is already ordered as : $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n$.

Therefore e_1, \dots, e_r span the subspace containing easily controllable and easily observable states.

Truncate the difficult - to - observe and difficult - to - control states means :

$$\tilde{x} = e_1 \tilde{x}_1 + \dots e_n \tilde{x}_n \approx e_1 \tilde{x}_1 + \dots e_r \tilde{x}_r = (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_r, 0, \dots, 0)^T.$$

I.e. $\tilde{x} \approx (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_r, 0, \dots, 0)^T =: x_T$. Replace \tilde{x} with x_T in the balanced system :

$$\begin{array}{l} dx_T(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}x_T(t) + TBu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T T^{-1}x_T(t) \end{array} \quad \xrightarrow{z := (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_r)} \quad \begin{array}{l} d \begin{pmatrix} z(t) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11} z(t) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B}_1 u(t) \\ \tilde{B}_2 u(t) \end{pmatrix} \\ y(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{L}_1^T z(t) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

MOR: Balanced truncation



— Truncate

$$\tilde{A} = TAT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{A}_{12} \\ \tilde{A}_{21} & \tilde{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{B} = TB = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B}_1 \\ \tilde{B}_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{L}^T = LT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{L}_1^T & \tilde{L}_2^T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$d \begin{pmatrix} z(t) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11}z(t) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B}_1u(t) \\ \tilde{B}_2u(t) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$y(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{L}_1z(t) & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

is a non-minimal realization of a system.

A minimal realization of the same system is:

$$dz(t) = \tilde{A}_{11}z(t) + \tilde{B}_1u(t)$$
$$\hat{y}(t) = \tilde{L}_1z(t)$$

The reduced-order
model (ROM)

Therefore we have the following simple steps for truncation:

MOR: Balanced truncation



— Truncate

Balancing:

$$\begin{array}{l} dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T x(t) \end{array} \xrightarrow[\begin{array}{l} T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^* U^{-1} \\ T^{-1} = UK \Sigma^{-1/2} \end{array}]{\hspace{10em}} \begin{array}{l} d\tilde{x}(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) + TBu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T T^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) \end{array}$$

Truncate:

$$TPT^T = \Sigma \quad \text{and} \quad T^{-T}QT^{-1} = \Sigma$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_1 \\ \Sigma_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Small part

$$\tilde{A} = TAT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{A}_{12} \\ \tilde{A}_{21} & \tilde{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{B} = TB = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B}_1 \\ \tilde{B}_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{L}^T = LT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{L}_1^T & \tilde{L}_2^T \end{pmatrix}$$

Separated according to the separation of Σ .



$$dz(t)/dt = \tilde{A}_{11}z(t) + \tilde{B}_1u(t)$$

$$\hat{y}(t) = \tilde{L}_1^T z(t)$$



Reduced model!

MOR: Balanced truncation



Balancing:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t) & T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^T U^{-1} & d\tilde{x}(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) + TBu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T x(t) & \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} & y(t) = L^T T^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) \\ & T^{-1} = UK\Sigma^{-1/2} & \end{array}$$

- Does it make sense if we do model reduction on the balanced system rather than the original system?

Yes. As a state transformation, balancing does not change the transfer Function, and the HSVs The balanced system is only a different realization of the system.

MOR: Balanced truncation



Observe:

$$\begin{array}{l} dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T x(t) \end{array} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} d\tilde{x}(t)/dt = TAT^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) + TBu(t) \\ y(t) = L^T T^{-1}\tilde{x}(t) \end{array} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} dz(t)/dt = \tilde{A}_{11}z(t) + \tilde{B}_1u(t) \\ \hat{y}(t) = \tilde{L}_1^T z(t) \end{array}$$

$x = T^{-1}\tilde{x} = Y\tilde{x}$. Here the columns in $Y := T^{-1}$ are the eigenvectors of the matrix product PQ . $Y = T^{-1} \Rightarrow T = Y^{-1} =: (W_1 \ W_2)^T$

If separate Y as $Y = (Y_1, Y_2)$, and \tilde{x} as $\tilde{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{x}_1 \\ \tilde{x}_2 \end{pmatrix}$, then $x = Y\tilde{x} = Y_1\tilde{x}_1 + Y_2\tilde{x}_2$.

$$\tilde{A} = TAT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} W_1^T \\ W_2^T \end{pmatrix} A (Y_1 \ Y_2) = \begin{pmatrix} W_1^T AY_1 & W_1^T AY_2 \\ W_2^T AY_1 & W_2^T AY_2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \tilde{A}_{11} = W_1^T AY_1$$

$$\tilde{B} = TB = \begin{pmatrix} W_1^T \\ W_2^T \end{pmatrix} B = \begin{pmatrix} W_1^T B \\ W_2^T B \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \tilde{B}_1 = W_1^T B \quad \tilde{L}^T = L^T T^{-1} = L^T (Y_1 \ Y_2) = \begin{pmatrix} L^T Y_1 & L^T Y_2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \tilde{L}_1 = L^T Y_1$$

MOR: Balanced truncation



Therefore the two ROMs are the same:

$$dz(t)/dt = \tilde{A}_1 z(t) + \tilde{B}_1 u(t)$$

$$\hat{y}(t) = \tilde{L}_1^T z(t)$$

$$d\tilde{x}_1(t)/dt = W_1^T A Y_1 \tilde{x}_1(t) + W_1^T B u(t)$$

$$y(t) = L^T Y_1 \tilde{x}_1(t)$$

Conclusion: balanced truncation is Petrov-Galerkin projection as below:

Let $x \approx Y_1 \tilde{x}_1$

$$dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

$$y(t) = L^T x(t)$$

$$x \approx Y_1 \tilde{x}_1$$

Petrov - Galerkin using W_1^T

$$d\tilde{x}_1(t)/dt = W_1^T A Y_1 \tilde{x}_1(t) + W_1^T B u(t)$$

$$y(t) = L^T Y_1 \tilde{x}_1(t)$$

Therefore, balanced truncation is equivalent to: finding the invariant subspace of PQ, and remaining only the part (Y_1) which corresponds to the largest HSVs (square root of the eigenvalues of PQ).

MOR: Balanced truncation



Algorithm 1

Given $dx(t)/dt = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$
 $y(t) = L^T x(t)$

- Balancing:

1. Compute P, Q .

2. Compute $P = UU^T \quad U^T QU = K\Sigma^2 K^T$

3. $T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^T U^{-1}, \quad T^{-1} = UK\Sigma^{-1/2} \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_1 \\ \Sigma_2 \end{pmatrix}$

4. Balancing and separating A, B, L according to the separation of Σ :

$$\tilde{A} = TAT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{A}_{12} \\ \tilde{A}_{21} & \tilde{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{B} = TB = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B}_1 \\ \tilde{B}_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{L}^T = L^T T^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{L}_1^T & \tilde{L}_2^T \end{pmatrix}$$

- Truncate:

5. Form the reduced model: $d\hat{x}(t)/dt = \tilde{A}_{11}\hat{x}(t) + \tilde{B}_1 u(t)$

$$\hat{y}(t) = \tilde{L}_1^T \hat{x}(t)$$

MOR: Balanced truncation

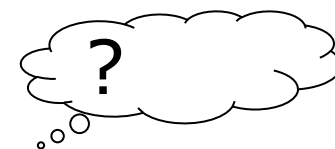
—computational details



Are we ready to get the reduced model from the above Algorithm 1?

Not yet, because we do not know yet how to compute P and Q numerically!

Recall:
$$P = \int_0^{\infty} e^{At} BB^T e^{A^T t} dt \quad Q = \int_0^{\infty} e^{A^T t} LL^T e^{At} dt$$



Fortunately we have:

Proposition (proposition 4.25 in [Antoulas 05])

P and Q are the solution of the following two **Lyapunov** equations:

$$AP + PA^T = -BB^T$$

$$A^T Q + QA = -LL^T$$

These two matrix equations can be solved numerically (by computer)!
Of course by using some algorithms.

MOR: Balanced truncation

——computational details



In MATLAB, use command:

$$P = \text{lyap}(A, B * B')$$

$$Q = \text{lyap}(A^T, L * L')$$

MOR: Balanced truncation



— Numerical issues

The balancing matrix is: $T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^T U^{-1}$, $P = U U^T$.

Computation of U^{-1} may cause numerical instability, because U is usually near singular.

U is usually near singular, because the matrix P has *numerically* low-rank, i.e. near singular.

P is near singular because in many cases, its eigenvalues decay rapidly to zero, some eigenvalues are very close to zero, e.g. $\lambda_i = 10^{-20}$.

Q and Σ behaves similarly as P .

However in algorithm 1, we need to compute:

$$T = \Sigma^{1/2} K^T U^{-1}, \quad T^{-1} = U K \Sigma^{-1/2} \circ \quad \circ \quad \circ$$

Can we avoid computing U^{-1} , Σ^{-1} ?

MOR: Balanced truncation

—computational details



If using Cholesky factorization of both

$$P = Z_P Z_P^T, Q = Z_Q Z_Q^T$$

Observe

$$Z_P^T Q Z_P = \underbrace{Z_P^T Z_Q}_{\text{green circle}} \underbrace{Z_Q^T Z_P}_{\text{green circle}}$$

Use SVD instead of eigen-decomposition

$$Z_P^T Z_Q = \tilde{U} \Sigma \tilde{V}^T$$

Comparing with P defined in Algorithm 1, we immediately get

$$T = \Sigma^{1/2} \tilde{U}^T Z_P^{-1}$$

To avoid computing the inverse of Z_P , we have:

$$Z_P^T Z_Q = \tilde{U} \Sigma \tilde{V}^T \Rightarrow Z_P^{-1} = \tilde{U} \Sigma^{-1} \tilde{V}^T Z_Q^T \implies T = \Sigma^{-1/2} \tilde{V}^T Z_Q^T$$



Algorithm 2 SR method (Getting the reduced model without computing Σ^{-1}, U^{-1}):

1. Do Cholesky factorization of the two Gramians: $P = Z_P Z_P^T, Q = Z_Q Z_Q^T$
 Z_P, Z_Q are lower triangular matrices.
2. Do Singular value decomposition (SVD) of matrix $Z_P^T Z_Q$, i.e., there are two **orthonormal** matrices \tilde{U}, \tilde{V} , $\tilde{U}^T \tilde{U} = I$, $\tilde{V}^T \tilde{V} = I$, such that

$$Z_P^T Z_Q = \tilde{U} \Sigma \tilde{V}^T = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{U}_1 & \tilde{U}_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_1 & \\ & \Sigma_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{V}_1^T \\ \tilde{V}_2^T \end{pmatrix}.$$

3. Let $W = Z_Q \tilde{V}_1 \Sigma_1^{-1/2}$, $V = Z_P \tilde{U}_1 \Sigma_1^{-1/2}$.

4. Let $\hat{A} = W^T A V$, $\hat{B} = W^T B$, $\hat{L}^T = L^T V$.

5. The reduced model is $d\hat{x}(t)/dt = \hat{A}\hat{x}(t) + \hat{B}u(t)$

$$\hat{y}(t) = \hat{L}^T \hat{x}(t)$$

Do we have done balancing?

MOR: Balanced truncation

Numerical issues



We will prove that the reduced model we got, comes from the above balanced system (balanced by $T = \Sigma^{-1/2} \tilde{V}^T Z_Q^T$)!

The balanced system which is balanced by $T = \Sigma^{-1/2} \tilde{V}^T Z_Q^T$ and $T^{-1} = Z_p \tilde{U} \Sigma^{-1/2}$ is:

$$\tilde{A} = TAT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{A}_{12} \\ \tilde{A}_{21} & \tilde{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{B} = TB = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{B}_1 \\ \tilde{B}_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{L}^T = LT^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{L}_1^T & \tilde{L}_2^T \end{pmatrix}$$

MOR: Balanced truncation

Numerical issues



The reduced model we obtained just now is:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \hat{A} = W^T A V, \hat{B} = W^T B, \hat{L}^T = L^T V \\ W = \underline{Z_Q \tilde{V}_1 \Sigma_1^{-1/2}} \quad \underline{V = Z_P \tilde{U}_1 \tilde{\Sigma}_1^{-1/2}} \\ Z_P^T Z_Q = \tilde{U} \Sigma \tilde{V}^T = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{U}_1 & \tilde{U}_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_1 & \\ & \Sigma_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{V}_1^T \\ \tilde{V}_2^T \end{pmatrix} \end{array} \right.$$

Yes, they are equal! The reduced model is really from a balanced system.

$$T = \Sigma^{-1/2} \tilde{V}^T Z_Q^T = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_1^{-1/2} \tilde{V}_1^T Z_Q^T \\ \Sigma_2^{-1/2} \tilde{V}_2^T Z_Q^T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T^{-1} &= Z_P \tilde{U} \Sigma^{-1/2} \\ &= \left(\underline{Z_P \tilde{U}_1 \Sigma_1^{-1/2}} \quad Z_P \tilde{U}_2 \Sigma_2^{-1/2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Use the block forms above to check if

$$\hat{A} = \tilde{A}_{11}, \hat{B} = \tilde{B}_1, \hat{L}^T = \tilde{L}_1^T$$

MOR: Balanced truncation

— Numerical issues



Algorithm 2 sometimes cannot continue either, because the Cholesky factorization of P , Q cannot be done. This is because that in some cases P and Q include too small eigenvalues like: $\lambda = 10^{-20}$, which is considered by the algorithm as a singular matrix, therefore Cholesky factorization cannot be continued.

Paper [BennerQ '05] provides an algorithm computing the numerically full rank factors of P and Q , which are in the forms $\tilde{Z}_P \in R^{n \times \hat{n}}$, $\tilde{Z}_Q \in R^{n \times \hat{n}}$ $\hat{n} \ll n$

The full rank factors numerically satisfy: $P = \tilde{Z}_P \tilde{Z}_P^T$, $Q = \tilde{Z}_Q \tilde{Z}_Q^T$

[BennerQ '05] P. Benner, E.S. Quitana-Orti, Model reduction based on spectral projection methods. In: P. Benner, V.L. Mehrmann, D.C. Sorensen (eds.), "Dimension Redution of Large-Scale Systems", vol. 45 of Lecture Notes in Computational Science and Engineering, pp. 5-48, Springer-Verlag, Berlin/Heidelberg, 2005. (**Algorithm 4 in the paper**)



Algorithm 3 Getting the reduced model using full-rank factors [BennerQ'05]:

1. Compute full-rank factors of the Gramians: $P = \tilde{Z}_P \tilde{Z}_P^T, Q = \tilde{Z}_Q \tilde{Z}_Q^T$
 $\tilde{Z}_P \in R^{n \times \hat{n}}, \tilde{Z}_Q \in R^{n \times \hat{n}}, \hat{n} \ll n.$

2. Compute SVD

$$\tilde{Z}_P^T \tilde{Z}_Q = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & U_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_1 & \\ & \Sigma_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_1^T \\ V_2^T \end{pmatrix}.$$

3. Let $W = \tilde{Z}_Q V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1/2}, V = \tilde{Z}_P U_1 \Sigma_1^{-1/2}.$

4. Let $\hat{A} = W^T A V, \hat{B} = W^T B, \hat{L}^T = L^T V.$

5. The reduced model is $d\hat{x}(t)/dt = \hat{A}\hat{x}(t) + \hat{B}u(t)$

$$\hat{y}(t) = \hat{L}^T \hat{x}(t)$$



Theorem [BennerQ'05]

If the original LTI system is stable, then the reduced model obtained by Algorithm 1, Algorithm 2, Algorithm 3 satisfies:

- 1) The reduced model is balanced, minimal and stable. Its Gramians are equal to the same diagonal matrix.
- 2) The absolute error bound (proof in [Antoulas '05] Chapter 7)

$$\|H(s) - \hat{H}(s)\|_{H_\infty} \leq 2 \sum_{k=r+1}^n \sigma_k$$

holds.



- [1] A.C. Antoulas, "Approximation of large-scale Systems", SIAM Book Series: Advances in Design and Control, 2005.
- [2] Chi-Tsong Chen, Linear system Theory and Design, 3rd edition, New York Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1999.