

# An algorithm for computing the distance to uncontrollability

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*Abstract:* In this paper, we present an algorithm to compute the distance to uncontrollability. The problem of computing the distance is an optimization problem of minimizing  $\sigma(x, y)$  over the complete plane. This new approach is based on finding zero points of  $\text{grad } \sigma(x, y)$ . We obtain the explicit expression of the derivative matrix of  $\text{grad } \sigma(x, y)$ . The Newton's method and the bisection method are applied to approach these zero points. Numerical results show that these methods work well.

*Keywords:* Controllability; distance to uncontrollability; singular value decomposition; Newton's method.

## 1. Introduction

One of the fundamental concepts in linear control theory is that of controllability. A pair  $(A, B)$  of matrices  $A \in R^{n \times n}$ ,  $B \in R^{n \times m}$  is controllable if in the system

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \quad (1.1)$$

for any initial state  $x_0$ , final state  $x_1$  and any  $t_1 > 0$ , there is a continuous function  $u(t)$  such that the solution of (1.1) with  $x(0) = x_0$  satisfies  $x(t_1) = x_1$ . It is well known that  $(A, B)$  is controllable iff

$$\text{rank}([A - sI, B]) = n, \quad \forall s \in C. \quad (1.2)$$

In [9], Paige defined the 'distance to uncontrollability' as the spectral norm distance of the pair  $(A, B)$  from the set of all uncontrollable pairs:

$$d(A, B) = \min\{\| [E, F] \| : (A + E, B + F) \text{ uncontrollable}\}, \quad (1.3)$$

where  $\| \cdot \|$  denotes the spectral norm, and  $[E, F]$  is the  $n \times (n + m)$  matrix formed by the columns of  $E$  followed by those of  $F$ . It was pointed out by Eising [5,6] that  $d(A, B)$  admits the following description

$$d(A, B) = \min_{s \in C} \sigma_n([A - sI, B]) = \min_{s \in C} \sigma(s), \quad (1.4)$$

where  $\sigma_n(G)$  denotes the  $n$ -th singular value of a  $n \times (n + m)$  matrix  $G$ . It is clear that the problem of finding the distance to uncontrollability is the problem of minimizing  $\sigma(s)$  over the complex plane.

Another characterization of  $d(A, B)$  is given by

$$d(A, B) = \min\{\| q^H [A - q^H A q I, B] \| : \| q \| = 1\}, \quad (1.5)$$

where  $\| \cdot \|$  is the Euclidean vector norm [5,12]. There are several algorithms in the literature for calculating  $d(A, B)$ . They are based on the minimization of  $\sigma(s)$ . Their main drawback is that they need a good starting point to converge [2,4,5,12]. Here we propose to use Newton's method with damping.

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This method is known to show convergence also for not so good starting values, a behaviour observed in our examples too.

We are able to use this method, because we can explicitly calculate the first and the second partial derivatives of  $\sigma(x, y) = \sigma(x + iy) = \sigma(s)$  using the singular value decomposition (SVD) of  $[A - sI, B]$ . Let

$$[A - sI, B] = U\Sigma V^H \quad (1.6)$$

be the SVD, where  $\Sigma$  is the  $n \times (m + n)$  diagonal matrix with diagonal elements  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ , and  $U$  and  $V$  are the  $n \times n$  resp.  $(m + n) \times (m + n)$  unitary matrices, the columns of which are the left resp. right normalized singular vectors of  $[A - sI, B]$ . If  $\sigma_n$  is a simple singular value then the normalized left singular vector  $u_n(s)$  (the  $n$ -th column of  $U$ ), and the normalized right vector  $v_n(s)$  (the  $n$ -th column of  $V$ ) are uniquely determined by (1.6) up to a common factor and so

$$f(s) = v_n^H(s) \begin{pmatrix} u_n(s) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.7)$$

is well defined. This function plays an important role, it is shown that

$$\frac{\partial \sigma(x + iy)}{\partial x} = -\operatorname{Re} f(x + iy), \quad \frac{\partial \sigma(x + iy)}{\partial y} = -\operatorname{Im} f(x + iy), \quad (1.8)$$

and hence the zero points of  $f(s)$  are the critical points of the function  $\sigma(s)$ . In addition, we have

$$\sigma(s)f(s) = u_n^H(s)(A - sI)u_n(s),$$

as  $[A - sI, B]^H u_n(s) = \sigma(s)v_n(s)$ . This shows that the critical points satisfy  $s = u_n^H(s)Au_n(s)$ , and hence lie in the field of values of  $A$ .

The paper is organised as follows. In Section 2 we study the function  $\sigma(x, y) = \sigma(x + iy)$ . It is analytic as a function of the real parameters  $x$  and  $y$  for all but a finite number of points. We calculate the first and second derivatives of  $\sigma(x, y)$  using an SVD. Here we treat a slightly more general case. In Section 3, the connection between zeros of  $f(s)$  and local minima of  $\sigma(x, y)$  is studied. Two criteria, one analytic and one in matrix terms, are given which guarantee a critical point of  $\sigma(x, y)$  to be a local minimum. In Section 4 several possibilities of using Newton's method are outlined. They are the cases of real or complex parameters  $s$ . Numerical results and some discussions concerning the case of multiple singular values are given in Section 5 and 6 respectively.

## 2. The explicit expressions of the first and second derivatives of $\sigma(x, y)$

In this section, the main results are the explicit expressions of the first and second derivatives of  $\sigma(x, y)$  given in (2.10) and (2.11). Let us consider a more general case of a complex matrix  $G(s) = G_1 + sG_2$  with a real parameter  $s$ . It is well known that a singular value of  $G(s)$  is analytic if it is simple [13]. In the following theorem, we give explicit expressions of its first and second derivatives. More general results can be found in [10,11].

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $G(s) = G_1 + sG_2$  be an  $n \times p$  complex matrix ( $n \leq p$ ) with a real parameter  $s$ , and  $G(s) = U(s)\Sigma(s)V(s)^H$  be the SVD of  $G(s)$  with the last singular value  $\sigma_n(s) = \sigma(s)$  being simple, then*

$$\dot{\sigma} = \frac{d\sigma}{ds} = \operatorname{Re}(v_n^H(s)G_2^H u_n(s)) \quad (2.1)$$

and

$$\ddot{\sigma} = \frac{d^2\sigma}{(ds)^2} = \operatorname{Re}(v_{ds}^H G_2^H u_n(s) + v_n^H(s) G_2^H u_{ds}) + \operatorname{Re}\left(-\frac{i}{\sigma_n(s)} \operatorname{Im}(v_n^H(s) G_2^H u_n(s)) v_n^H(s) G_2^H u_n(s)\right), \tag{2.2}$$

where  $u_{ds}$  and  $v_{ds}$  are given in (2.3) and (2.4).

Before proving Theorem 1, we will prove Lemma 2, which gives formulas for  $\dot{u}_n(s)$  and  $\dot{v}_n(s)$  in terms of the  $u_j(s)$ ,  $v_j(s)$  and  $h_u(s) = u_n^H(s)\dot{u}_n(s)$ ,  $h_v(s) = v_n^H(s)\dot{v}_n(s)$ .

**Lemma 2.** Under the assumptions of Theorem 1, the derivatives of  $u_n(s)$  and  $v_n(s)$  satisfy

$$\dot{u}_n(s) = u_{ds} + h_u(s)u_n(s), \tag{2.3}$$

$$\dot{v}_n(s) = v_{ds} + h_v(s)v_n(s), \tag{2.4}$$

where  $u_{ds} = -\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \alpha_j(s)u_j(s)$  and

$$v_{ds} = -\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \beta_j(s)v_j(s) + \frac{1}{\sigma_n(s)} \sum_{j=n+1}^p (v_j^H(s)\dot{G}^H(s)u_n(s))v_j(s)$$

with

$$\alpha_j(s) = \frac{\sigma_n(s)u_j^H(s)\dot{G}(s)v_n(s) + \sigma_j(s)v_j^H(s)\dot{G}^H(s)u_n(s)}{\sigma_j^2(s) - \sigma_n^2(s)},$$

$$\beta_j(s) = \frac{\sigma_j(s)u_j^H(s)\dot{G}(s)v_n(s) + \sigma_n(s)v_j^H(s)\dot{G}^H(s)u_n(s)}{\sigma_j^2(s) - \sigma_n^2(s)},$$

and  $h_u(s) = u_n^H(s)\dot{u}_n(s)$ ,  $h_v(s) = v_n^H(s)\dot{v}_n(s)$ . The last two functions satisfy

$$\operatorname{Re} h_u(s) = 0, \quad \operatorname{Re} h_v(s) = 0, \tag{2.5}$$

$$h_u(s) + \bar{h}_v(s) = -\frac{i}{\sigma_n(s)} \operatorname{Im}(v_n^H(s)\dot{G}^H(s)u_n(s)).$$

**Remark.** Observe that  $h_u$  and  $h_v$  contain the derivatives too.

**Proof and Lemma 2.** In the following proof, we omit the parameter  $s$ . So keep in mind that all the mentioned vectors and matrices are functions of  $s$ . According to the SVD of  $G$ , we have

$$GG^H u_n = \sigma_n^2 u_n.$$

It is well-known that the eigenvalues and the eigenvectors of  $GG^H$  are analytic with respect to the real parameter  $s$  if the eigenvalues are simple [13]. So the derivative of  $u_n$  satisfies

$$(GG^H - \sigma_n^2 I)\dot{u}_n = -\dot{G}G^H u_n - G\dot{G}^H u_n + 2\sigma_n \dot{\sigma}_n u_n.$$

Thus from  $G = U\Sigma V^H$ ,

$$(\Sigma\Sigma^H - \sigma_n^2 I)U^H \dot{u}_n = -\sigma_n U^H \dot{G} v_n - \Sigma V^H \dot{G}^H u_n + 2\sigma_n \dot{\sigma}_n e_n,$$

i.e. the first  $n - 1$  equations in

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 - \sigma_n^2 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_{n-1}^2 - \sigma_n^2 & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} U^H \dot{u}_n = \begin{pmatrix} -\sigma_n u_1^H \dot{G} v_n - \sigma_1 v_1^H \dot{G}^H u_n \\ \vdots \\ -\sigma_n u_{n-1}^H \dot{G} v_n - \sigma_{n-1} v_{n-1}^H \dot{G}^H u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The last equation is just  $u_n^H \dot{u}_n = h_u$ . Solving for  $U^H \dot{u}_n$  gives (2.3) and similarly (2.4) is obtained by applying the same kind of analysis of  $G^H \dot{G} v_n = \sigma_n^2 \dot{v}_n$ . Now we consider the properties of  $h_u$  and  $h_v$ . Note that  $u_n^H u_n = 1$ , so  $u_n^H \dot{u}_n + \dot{u}_n^H u_n = 0$ , i.e.  $\text{Re } h_u = 0$  and  $\text{Re } h_v = 0$ . Formula (2.5) follows from the observation that  $\sigma_n = v_n^H G^H u_n$  and

$$\dot{\sigma}_n = v_n^H \dot{G}^H u_n + \sigma_n (h_u + \bar{h}_v). \quad (2.6)$$

As  $\dot{\sigma}_n$  is real, and  $h_u + \bar{h}_v$  is purely imaginary, we have

$$h_u + \bar{h}_v = -\frac{i}{\sigma_n} \text{Im}(v_n^H \dot{G}^H u_n). \quad \square \quad (2.7)$$

**Proof of Theorem 1.** From Lemma 2, it is easy to prove the conclusions of Theorem 1. As a direct consequence of (2.6), we obtain (2.1) as  $\dot{G} = G_2$ . Now we differentiate (2.1). Replacing  $\dot{u}_n$  and  $\dot{v}_n$  by (2.3) (2.4), we see that the unknown terms  $h_u$  and  $h_v$  appear only in the form  $h_u + \bar{h}_v$  and can be replaced by (2.7). Thus we get (2.2).  $\square$

Let us come back to our original problem. We consider first the real case  $G(x) = [A - xI, B]$  and  $\sigma_n(x)$ ,  $u_n(x)$  and  $v_n(x)$  are all real. It is easy to see from Lemma 2 that both  $h_u(x)$  and  $h_v(x)$  vanish. In view of  $\dot{G}(x) = -[I, 0]$ , Theorem 1 gives now Corollary 3.

**Corollary 3.** *Let  $x$  be a real parameter and  $[A - xI, B] = U(x)\Sigma(x)V^T(x)$  be the SVD of  $[A - xI, B]$  with  $\sigma_n(x) = \sigma(x)$  being simple and  $f(x) = v_n^T(x) \begin{pmatrix} u_n(x) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , then the first and second derivatives of  $\sigma(x)$  are given by*

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dx} = -f(x) \quad (2.8)$$

and

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{dx^2} = -f'(x) = -\left( \dot{v}_n^T(x) \begin{pmatrix} u_n(x) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + v_n^T(x) \begin{pmatrix} \dot{u}_n^T(x) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right). \quad (2.9)$$

Here

$$\dot{u}_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \alpha_j(x) u_j(x), \quad \dot{v}_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \beta_j(x) v_j(x) - \frac{1}{\sigma_n(x)} \sum_{j=n+1}^{n+m} \left( v_j^T(x) \begin{pmatrix} u_n(s) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) v_j(x),$$

where

$$\alpha_j(x) = \frac{\sigma_n(x) [u_j^T(x), 0] v_n(x) + \sigma_j(x) v_j^T(x) \begin{pmatrix} u_n(x) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\sigma_j^2(x) - \sigma_n^2(x)},$$

$$\beta_j(x) = \frac{\sigma_j(x) [u_j^T(x), 0] v_n(x) + \sigma_n(x) v_j^T(x) \begin{pmatrix} u_n(x) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\sigma_j^2(x) - \sigma_n^2(x)}.$$

Now we consider the case of the complex parameter  $s = x + iy$ . Note that  $G(x, y) = [A - (x + iy)I, B]$ ,  $\partial G(x, y)/\partial x = -[I, 0]$  and  $\partial G(x, y)/\partial y = -i[I, 0]$ . Substituting these two partial derivatives to  $G_2$  in (2.1) and (2.2), Theorem 1 gives the formulas of the partial derivatives of  $\sigma(x, y)$ .

**Corollary 4.** *Let  $[A - (x + iy)I, B] = U(x, y)\Sigma(x, y)V(x, y)^H$  be the SVD of  $[A - (x + iy)I, B]$  with  $\sigma_n(x, y) = \sigma(x, y)$  being simple and  $f(x, y) = f(s)$  is defined in (1.7), then we have*

$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} = -\operatorname{Re} f, \quad \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial y} = -\operatorname{Im} f, \quad (2.10)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \sigma}{\partial x^2} = -\operatorname{Re} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \sigma}{\partial x \partial y} = -\operatorname{Re} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \sigma}{\partial y^2} = -\operatorname{Im} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}. \quad (2.11)$$

Here

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = v_{dx}^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + v_n^H \begin{pmatrix} u_{dx} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{i}{\sigma_n} (\operatorname{Im} f) f, \quad (2.12)$$

where  $u_{dx}$  and  $v_{dx}$  are given in (2.14) and (2.15).

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = v_{dy}^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + v_n^H \begin{pmatrix} u_{dy} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{i}{\sigma_n} (\operatorname{Re} f) f, \quad (2.13)$$

where  $u_{dy}$  and  $v_{dy}$  are given in (2.16) and (2.17).

$$u_{dx} = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \alpha_{xj} u_j, \quad (2.14)$$

$$v_{dx} = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \beta_{xj} v_j - \frac{1}{\sigma_n} \sum_{j=n+1}^{n+m} \left( v_j^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) v_j, \quad (2.15)$$

where

$$\alpha_{xj} = \frac{\sigma_n [u_j^H, 0] v_n + \sigma_j v_j^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\sigma_j^2 - \sigma_n^2}, \quad \beta_{xj} = \frac{\sigma_j [u_j^H, 0] v_n + \sigma_n v_j^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\sigma_j^2 - \sigma_n^2}.$$

$$u_{dy} = i \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \alpha_{yj} u_j, \quad (2.16)$$

$$v_{dy} = i \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \beta_{yj} v_j + \frac{i}{\sigma_n} \sum_{j=n+1}^{n+m} \left( v_j^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) v_j, \quad (2.17)$$

where

$$\alpha_{yj} = \frac{\sigma_n [u_j^H, 0] v_n - \sigma_j v_j^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\sigma_j^2 - \sigma_n^2}, \quad \beta_{yj} = \frac{\sigma_j [u_j^H, 0] v_n - \sigma_n v_j^H \begin{pmatrix} u_n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}{\sigma_j^2 - \sigma_n^2}.$$

### 3. The local minimum of $\sigma(x, y)$

From the nice relation between  $\operatorname{grad} \sigma(x, y)$  and  $f(x, y)$  (2.10), we conclude the following result.

**Theorem 5.**  $s^* = x^* + iy^*$  is a zero point of  $f(s)$  defined in (1.7) iff  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a critical point of  $\sigma(x, y) = \sigma_n[A - (x + iy)I, B]$ .

From this theorem, the computation of  $d(A, B)$  is equivalent to find the zero points of  $f(x, y)$ , in which  $-(\operatorname{Re} f(x, y), \operatorname{Im} f(x, y))^T$  will be the gradient of  $\sigma(x, y)$ . The critical points of  $\sigma(x, y)$  are divided into three groups, local minima, local maxima and saddle points.

Let  $f(s^*) = 0$ ,  $s^* = x^* + iy^*$ . The following is well known.

(a) If  $(\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x^2)(\partial^2 \sigma / \partial y^2) - (\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x \partial y)^2 > 0$  and  $\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x^2 < 0$ , then  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a local maximum of  $\sigma(x, y)$ .

(b) If  $(\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x^2)(\partial^2 \sigma / \partial y^2) - (\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x \partial y)^2 > 0$  and  $\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x^2 > 0$ , then  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a local minimum of  $\sigma(x, y)$ .

(c) If  $(\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x^2)(\partial^2 \sigma / \partial y^2) - (\partial^2 \sigma / \partial x \partial y)^2 < 0$ , then  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a saddle point of  $\sigma(x, y)$ .

Using the results of Corollary 4, we can now decide to which group the critical points  $s^*$  belongs. We can also give a sufficient condition of  $(x^*, y^*)$  being a local minimum of  $\sigma(x, y)$  in matrix theoretic terms.

**Theorem 6.** If  $s^* = x^* + iy^*$  is a zero point of  $f(s)$ ,  $u_n^* = u_n(x^*, y^*)$  and

$$\sigma_{n-1}^2[A - s^*I, B] - \sigma_n^2[A - s^*I, B] > 4\|u_n^{*H}(A - s^*I)\|^2, \quad (3.1)$$

then  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a local minimum of  $\sigma(x, y)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $s = x + iy = s^* + \delta$  be a point near to  $s^*$  and  $q = u_n(x, y)$  be the  $n$ -th left singular vector of  $[A - sI, B]$  corresponding to  $\sigma_n(x, y)$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \|q^H[A - q^H A q I, B]\|^2 \\ &= q^H[A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H q \\ &\quad + q^H([A - q^H A q I, B][A - q^H A q I, B] - [A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H)q \\ &= q^H[A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H q - |q^H(A - s^*I)q|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Write  $q = au_n^* + bh$  with  $h^H u_n^* = 0$ ,  $\|h\| = 1$ ,  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ . Thus according to perturbation theory for eigenvectors using the simplicity of  $\sigma_n$ , one has  $|b| = O(\delta)$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} q^H[A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H q &= |a|^2 \sigma_n^2 + |b|^2 h^H[A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H h \\ &= \sigma_n^2 + |b|^2 (h^H[A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H h - \sigma_n^2) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} |q^H(A - s^*I)q|^2 &= |\bar{b} a h^H(A - s^*I)u_n^* + \bar{a} b u_n^{*H}(A - s^*I)h|^2 + O(\delta^3) \\ &= |2 \operatorname{Re} \bar{a} b u_n^{*H}(A - s^*I)h|^2 + O(\delta^3). \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \|q^H[A - q^H A q I, B]\|^2 - \sigma_n^2(x^*, y^*) \\ &= |b|^2 (h^H[A - s^*I, B][A - s^*I, B]^H h - \sigma_n^2) - |2 \operatorname{Re} \bar{a} b u_n^{*H}(A - s^*I)h|^2 + O(\delta^3) \\ &\geq |b|^2 (\sigma_{n-1}^2 - \sigma_n^2) - 4|a|^2 |b|^2 \|u_n^{*H}(A - s^*I)\|^2 + O(\delta^3) \\ &= |b|^2 (\sigma_{n-1}^2 - \sigma_n^2 - 4\|u_n^{*H}(A - s^*I)\|^2) + O(\delta^3). \end{aligned}$$

According to the condition of (3.1),  $\|q^H[A - q^H A q I, B]\|^2 \geq \sigma_n^2(x^*, y^*)$  is always true. Since

$$\sigma_n[A - (x + iy)I, B] = \|q^H[A - (x + iy)I, B]\| \geq \|q^H[A - q^H A q I, B]\|,$$

$\sigma_n(x, y) \geq \sigma_n(x^*, y^*)$ . Thus  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a local minimum of  $\sigma_n(x, y)$ .  $\square$

Since

$$\|u_n^H(A - s^*I)\| = \left\| u_n^H[A - s^*I, B] \begin{pmatrix} I \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\| \leq \sigma_n(x^*, y^*),$$

we get at once the following sufficient condition.

**Corollary 7.** *If  $s^* = x^* + iy^*$  satisfies  $f(s^*) = 0$  and*

$$\sigma_{n-1}[A - s^*I, B] > \sqrt{5} \sigma_n[A - s^*I, B], \quad (3.2)$$

*then  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a local minimum point of  $\sigma(x, y)$ .*

#### 4. Newton's algorithm

Because we have obtained the first and second partial derivatives of  $\sigma(x, y)$  in terms of the SVD of  $[A - sI, B]$  when  $\sigma(x, y)$  is simple, Newton's method can be applied to compute the minimum points of  $\sigma(x, y)$ . Generally speaking, the local minima of  $\sigma(x, y)$  happen when they are simple. More details are discussed in Section 6. As  $u_n^{*H} A u_n^* = s^*$ , all minimum points  $s^* = x^* + iy^*$  lie in the field of values of  $A$ , and hence

$$\lambda_{\min}\left(\frac{A + A^T}{2}\right) \leq x^* \leq \lambda_{\max}\left(\frac{A + A^T}{2}\right), \quad \lambda_{\min}\left(\frac{A - A^T}{2i}\right) \leq y^* \leq \lambda_{\max}\left(\frac{A - A^T}{2i}\right). \quad (4.1)$$

Here  $\lambda_{\min}(A)$  and  $\lambda_{\max}(A)$  denote the minimal and the maximal eigenvalue of  $A$ . Since  $\sigma_n[A - s^*I, B] = \sigma_n[A - \bar{s}^*I, B]$ , the search for minimum points can be restricted to

$$0 \leq y^* \leq \lambda_{\max}\left(\frac{A - A^T}{2i}\right).$$

Theorem 5 also suggests a method to compute  $d(A, B)$ . We need only to find all zeros of  $f(s)$ , which are the critical points of  $\sigma(s)$ . Especially in the case of  $f(s)$  being a real function of a real parameter  $s$  in order to compute the following  $d_r(A, B)$ , the bisection method can be used to find all zeros of  $f(x)$ . We ought to say that Theorem 6 and Corollary 7 and the criterions of the second partial derivatives give only sufficient conditions to determine which zeros of  $f(s)$  are local minima of  $\sigma(s)$ .

##### 4.1. Real case

We first consider the problem of computing

$$d_r(A, B) = \min_{s \in \mathbb{R}} \sigma_n[A - sI, B].$$

So  $f(s)$  will be real. Since  $s^* = u_n^T(s^*) A u_n(s^*)$ ,  $s^*$  is in the interval

$$I_r = \left[ \lambda_{\min}\left(\frac{A + A^T}{2}\right), \lambda_{\max}\left(\frac{A + A^T}{2}\right) \right]. \quad (4.2)$$

Also since  $u_n^T(s)Au_n(s) - s = \sigma_n(s)f(s)$ , we have

$$f(s) > 0 \quad \text{for } s < \lambda_{\min}\left(\frac{A + A^T}{2}\right), \quad f(s) < 0 \quad \text{for } s > \lambda_{\max}\left(\frac{A + A^T}{2}\right). \quad (4.3)$$

The following Newton method is suggested to compute the minimum points of  $\sigma(s) = \sigma_n(s)$ .

**Newton's algorithm** (real case). Choose  $s_0 \in I_*$ . For  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ ,

$$s_{k+1} = s_k - \theta_k \frac{f(s_k)}{f'(s_k)}$$

where  $\theta_k$  is such that  $\sigma(s_{k+1}) < \sigma(s_k)$ .

In our examples a choice  $\theta_k \neq 1$  is only necessary at the beginning steps of the Newton algorithm. After having a good approximation of a local minimum point, we can take  $\theta_k = 1$  and hence have the usual Newton algorithm. Also the following bisection method can be used to find the zeros of  $f(s)$ .

**Bisection method.** (a) Find an interval  $[a, b]$  such that  $f(a) * f(b) < 0$ .

(b) Let  $c = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$ , if  $f(c) * f(b) < 0$  then  $a = c$  and go back (b) and if  $f(a) * f(c) < 0$  then  $b = c$  and go back (b). The step (b) is repeated until  $c$  is an acceptable zero point of  $f(s)$ .

#### 4.2. Complex case

In order to compute  $d(A, B) = \min_{s \in \mathbb{C}} \sigma_n([A - sI, B])$ , we have the following Newton algorithm for complex  $s$ .

**Newton's algorithm** (complex case). Choose  $\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix}$ . For  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ ,

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{k+1} \\ y_{k+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_k \\ y_k \end{pmatrix} - \theta_k \begin{pmatrix} p_{k1} \\ p_{k2} \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_{k1} \\ p_{k2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Re} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \operatorname{Re} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \operatorname{Im} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \operatorname{Im} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Re} f(x, y) \\ \operatorname{Im} f(x, y) \end{pmatrix},$$

and  $\theta_k$  such that

$$\sigma(x_k - \theta_k p_{k1}, y_k - \theta_k p_{k2}) = \min_{-1 \leq \theta \leq 1} \sigma(x_k - \theta p_{k1}, y_k - \theta p_{k2}).$$

Computing the minimum of  $\sigma(x_k - \theta p_{k1}, y_k - \theta p_{k2})$  in  $[-1, 1]$  is as easy as that of  $\sigma(x)$  for real  $x$ . Let  $u_n(\theta), v_n(\theta)$  be the left, right singular vectors of  $[A - (x_k - \theta p_{k1} + y_k i - \theta p_{k2} i)I, B]$  corresponding to  $\sigma(x_k - \theta p_{k1}, y_k - \theta p_{k2})$ , then  $f(\theta) = v_n^H(\theta)u_n(\theta)$  is well defined. We introduce

$$g(\theta) = \frac{d\sigma}{d\theta}(x_k - \theta p_{k1}, y_k - \theta p_{k2}),$$

then  $g(\theta)$  has the following expression by (2.10),

$$g(\theta) = p_{k1} \operatorname{Re} f(\theta) + p_{k2} \operatorname{Im} f(\theta).$$



As a direct consequence of Theorem 1,  $\dot{g}(\theta)$  is given by

$$\dot{g}(\theta) = p_{k1} \operatorname{Re} \dot{f}(\theta) + p_{k2} \operatorname{Im} \dot{f}(\theta).$$

All together we have the following algorithm to calculate  $\theta_k$ :

**Newton Algorithm to compute  $\theta_k$ .** (a) Initial value  $\theta_0 = 1$ .

(b) Run the following Newton method for  $j = 1, 2, \dots$ :

$$\theta_{j+1} = \theta_j - \eta_j \frac{g(\theta_j)}{\dot{g}(\theta_j)},$$

where  $\eta_j$  is chosen such that  $\sigma(x_k - \theta_{j+1} p_{k1}, y_k - \theta_{j+1} p_{k2}) < \sigma(x_k - \theta_j p_{k1}, y_k - \theta_j p_{k2})$ .

Also the bisection method can be used to find the zeros of  $g(\theta)$ . Numerical results suggest that this Newton's method with the parameter  $\theta_k$  enjoys the property of global convergence. Moreover one needs only to compute two or three  $\theta_k$ 's to get a good initial point for the Newton method. It means that after two or three steps  $\theta_k$  will be near to 1. Thus Newton's method with  $\theta_k = 1$  will converge quadratically. Hence  $\theta_k$  is only calculated in the first three steps, it is automatically taken to be 1 since then. Computing the minimum  $\theta_k$  takes much work. One needs generally seven or eight SVDs to find a good approximate value to  $\theta_k$ . However it seems that this step cannot be neglected. It is worthwhile to say that there exists only one zero point of  $g(\theta)$  in our examples.

Another way of selecting  $\theta_k$  is from the following inequality:

$$\|u_n^H(0)[A - (x_k + iy_k)I, B]\| \geq \|u_n^H(0)[A - (x_k - \theta_k p_{k1} + y_k i - \theta_k p_{k2} i)I, B]\|,$$

where  $\theta_k = -\{\sigma(x_k, y_k)(p_{k1} \operatorname{Re} f(0) + p_{k2} \operatorname{Im} f(0))\} / (p_{k1}^2 + p_{k2}^2)$ . From this inequality, we have

$$\sigma(x_k, y_k) \geq \sigma(x_k - \theta_k p_{k1}, y_k - \theta_k p_{k2}).$$

But Newton's method with  $\theta_k$  selected in this way converges to  $s^*$  very slowly.

Before we finish this section, we shall discuss how to select a good initial point for the Newton method. In [3], it has been proven that  $s^*$  is located within one of the disks in the complex plane whose centers are the eigenvalues of  $F$ , where

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.4)$$

with  $[C, D]$  a random matrix or having orthogonal rows such that  $F$  is square. Our numerical examples show that those disks are small and almost located in the region (4.1). So the eigenvalues of  $F$  and  $A$  are generally a good choice of the initial points. For our examples, Newton's algorithm with the initial points being the eigenvalues of  $F$  without selecting the parameters  $\theta_k$  (i.e.  $\theta_k = 1$ ), converges to the local minima of  $\sigma_n(s)$  within 5 steps.

## 5. Numerical examples

Two examples presented in [12] are implemented under MATLAB. Using Newton's method and the bisection method, all minimum points of  $\sigma(s)$  with  $s$  being real are found. So there exists no difficulty to get  $d_r(A, B)$ . But for  $d(A, B)$ , though we have known the exact region containing all zero points of  $f(s)$ , the number of zero points is still a problem. Generally speaking, the Newton's method converges very quickly if a good initial point is selected.

**Example 1.** Consider

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3.28 & -2.44 & -1.54 & -3.20 & -3.34 \\ -1.58 & -1.02 & 3.86 & 4.15 & 3.94 \\ -4.06 & 3.54 & 1.65 & 1.79 & 2.15 \\ -4.15 & 3.96 & 0.84 & -2.70 & -2.70 \\ -1.76 & 0.29 & -1.14 & -1.64 & -2.21 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} -2.80 \\ 2.79 \\ 1.88 \\ -0.48 \\ -1.89 \end{pmatrix}.$$

For this example, we compute  $d_r(A, B)$ , so  $f(s)$  will be real. All minimal points of  $\sigma(s)$  are according to (4.2) in the region

$$(-8.5123, 9.7310).$$

The graphs of  $f(s)$  and  $\sigma(s)$  are shown in Figure 1. One can see that the minima and maxima of  $\sigma(s)$  are interlacing.  $f(s)$  has seven zero points including four minima. When  $s^* = 0.431388$ ,  $\sigma = 0.231910$  is the minimum value. So  $s^*$  will minimize  $d_r(A, B) = \min_{s \in \mathbb{R}} \sigma(s)$  and  $d_r(A, B) = 0.231910$ . In [12], only two zero points of  $f(s)$  are found. Neither of them reaches the value of  $d_r(A, B)$ . When taking any point in the interval  $(-8.5123, 9.7310)$  as an initial point, the Newton algorithm (real case) converges to a minimum point of  $\sigma(s)$  within 5 steps.  $|s_k - s^*| \leq 10^{-6}$ , where  $s_k$  is the acceptable iterative value of the Newton's method. When the initial values are taken as the eigenvalues of  $F$  defined in (4.4), the Newton method converges to the local minimum points within 5 steps without selecting  $\theta_k$  ( $\theta_k = 1$ ).

**Example 2.** Consider

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0.1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0.1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

All zero points  $s^* = x^* + iy^*$  are in the rectangular region given by

$$-1.851295 \leq x \leq 3.992519, \quad -3.074491 \leq y \leq 3.074491.$$

$f(s)$  has only one real zero point  $s_r^* = 1.027337$  and  $d_r(A, B) = 0.172460$ . The minimum point  $s^* = 0.937084 + 0.998571i$  minimizes  $\min_{s \in \mathbb{C}} \sigma(s)$  and  $d(A, B) = 0.039238$ . We tried several initial points, the

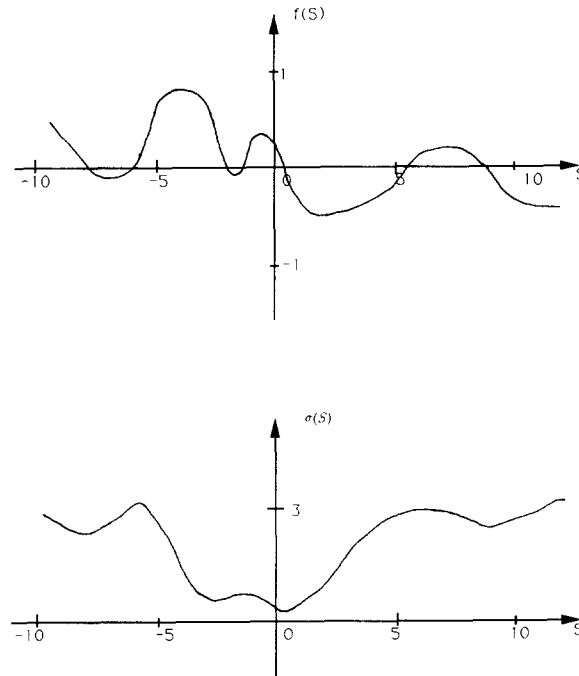


Fig. 1.

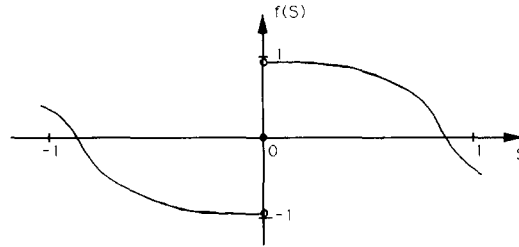


Fig. 2.

Newton method with each of them converges to  $s^*$  in 5 steps. Say  $s_0 = 1.5 + i$ , we found  $\theta_0 = 0.09935$ ,  $\theta_1 = 0.564158$  and  $\theta_2 = 1.00126$ . So from step 3 on,  $\theta_k = 1$  is selected. However if the initial point is taken as one of the eigenvalues of  $F$  in (4.4), say  $0.8625 + 0.9749i$ , then the Newton's algorithm with  $\theta_k = 1$  converges to  $s^*$  in 5 steps.

**Example 3.** Consider

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In this example,  $A$  is a  $10 \times 10$  matrix,  $B$  a  $10 \times 1$  matrix. Let  $f(s)$  be the real function of the real parameter  $s$ , then  $f(s)$  has three zero points in real axis. They are 0 and  $-0.959492, +0.959492$ . It is interesting to know that  $f(s)$  is no longer a continuous function. It has a big jump at zero point (see Figure 2).

The reason is that  $[A - sI, B]$  has a multiple least singular value 1 at  $s = 0$ , so its singular vector  $u_n(s)$  may not be continuous at zero. In such case, one can change the initial point to run the Newton algorithm again. Fortunately this extreme case never happens at  $s^*$ .

### 6. Multiple singular values and conclusions

Our theorems about the differentiability of the least singular value  $\sigma_n(s)$  of  $G(s)$ , a matrix with  $\text{Re}(G(s))$  and  $\text{Im}(G(s))$  being real analytic matrix-valued function of a real parameter  $s$ , are based on the assumption of  $\sigma_n(s)$  being simple. In this section, we discuss the case of  $\sigma_n(s)$  being a multiple singular value of  $G(s)$ . The problem of minimizing the least singular value of  $G(s)$  is very different from that of minimizing the largest one of  $G(s)$ . The solution of the latter is usually at a point where singular values coalesce, i.e. at a nondifferentiable point, since the minimization will drive several singular values to the same minimum value [8]. But for the former problem, its local minimum does not happen at the cross singular values in general. So at its local minimum point,  $\sigma_n(s)$  is generally simple and differentiable.

When the minimum of  $\sigma_n(s)$  happens at the point  $s^*$  (this is extremely unusual), where  $\sigma_{n-r+1}(s^*) = \dots = \sigma_n(s^*)$ ,  $\sigma_n(s)$  is also differentiable at  $s^*$ , and its derivative is zero. This comes from the fact that the left and right limits of  $\dot{\sigma}_n(s)$  at  $s^*$  always exist [11], and they are equal to zero when  $s^*$  is a local minimum point (see the graph below). What about the second derivative of  $\sigma_n(s)$  at  $s^*$ ? We claim that the second derivative of  $\sigma_n(s)$  at  $s^*$  always exists too. Considering  $\sigma_j(s)$  and  $\sigma_n(s)$ , where  $j$  is one number of  $\{n - r + 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ , we define two new functions  $p_1(s)$  and  $p_2(s)$  near  $s^*$  as the original singular value functions without ordering them, so  $p_1(s)$  and  $p_2(s)$  are analytic near  $s^*$ . The relations of  $p_1(s)$ ,  $p_2(s)$  and  $\sigma_j(s)$  and  $\sigma_n(s)$  are  $\sigma_j(s) = \max\{p_1(s), p_2(s)\}$  and  $\sigma_n(s) = \min\{p_1(s), p_2(s)\}$ . Moreover  $p_1(s^*) = p_2(s^*)$  and  $\dot{p}_1(s^*) = \dot{p}_2(s^*) = 0$ , since  $\sigma_j(s^*) = \sigma_n(s^*)$  and  $\dot{\sigma}_j(s^*) = \dot{\sigma}_n(s^*) = 0$ . Let us assume

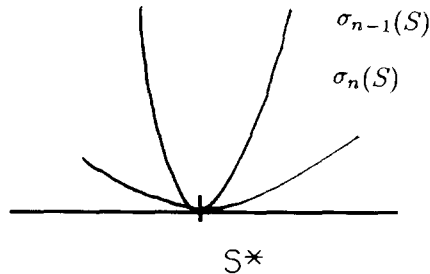


Fig. 3.

that  $(d^2p_1/ds^2)(s^*) \geq (d^2p_2/ds^2)(s^*)$ . When  $(d^2p_1/ds^2)(s^*) > (d^2p_2/ds^2)(s^*)$ , we have  $p_1(s) - p_2(s) \geq 0$  near to  $s^*$ . By the definitions of  $p_1(s)$  and  $p_2(s)$ , we know that  $p_1(s) = \sigma_j(s)$  and  $p_2(s) = \sigma_n(s)$ , so  $\sigma_n(s)$  is analytic. When  $(d^2p_1/ds^2)(s^*) = (d^2p_2/ds^2)(s^*)$ , we know that the second derivative of  $\sigma_n(s)$  exists near  $s^*$ . Hence the Newton method can be used at the minimum points of  $\sigma_n(s^*)$ . See Figure 3.

We have presented a new method to compute the distance to uncontrollability  $d(A, B)$ , which is based on the explicit expressions of the first and second derivatives of  $\sigma(x, y)$ . Numerical examples show that this method works well.

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