

AN ALGORITHM TO COMPUTE THE STRUCTURED
SINGULAR VALUE

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Abstract

The concept of *structured singular value* was recently introduced by Doyle as a tool for analysis and synthesis of feedback systems with structured uncertainties. It is a key to the design of control systems under joint robustness and performance specifications and it nicely complements the H^∞ approach to control system design. This report proposes an algorithm to compute the structured singular value.

1. Introduction and preliminaries

The concept of *structured singular value* was recently introduced by Doyle [1] as a tool for analysis and synthesis of feedback systems with structured uncertainties. It is a key to the design of control systems under joint robustness and performance specifications and it nicely complements the H^∞ approach to control system design. [2]

Throughout the note, given any square complex matrix M , we denote by $\rho(M)$ its spectrum radius, by $\bar{\sigma}(M)$ its largest singular value and by M^H its complex conjugate transpose. Given any complex vector x , x^H indicates its complex conjugate transpose and $\|x\|$ its Euclidean norm. We also make use of the following notation and nomenclature, largely inspired from that used in [1] We will call *block-structure* of size m any m -tuple $k = (k_1, \dots, k_m)$ of positive integers. Given a block-structure k of size m , we will make use of the family of diagonal matrices

$$d = \{\text{block diag}(d_1 I_{k_1}, \dots, d_m I_{k_m}) \mid d_i \in \mathbb{R}\} ; \quad (1.1)$$

and, for any positive scalar δ (possibly ∞), of the family of block diagonal matrices

$$X_\delta = \{\text{block diag}(\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_m) \mid \Delta_i \text{ is a } k_i \times k_i \text{ complex matrix satisfying } \bar{\sigma}(\Delta_i) \leq \delta\} \quad (1.2)$$

All of the above have dimension $n \times n$, where

$$n = \sum_{j=1}^m k_j . \quad (1.3)$$

The following definition corresponds to the case of “no repeated blocks” in [1]

Definition 1.1

The *structured singular value* $\mu(M)$ of a complex $n \times n$ matrix M with respect to block-structure \mathcal{k} is the positive number μ having the property that

$$\det(I + M \Delta) \neq 0 \text{ for all } \Delta \in X_\delta \quad (1.4)$$

if, and only if,

$$\delta\mu < 1. \quad (1.5)$$

In other words, $\mu(M)$ is 0 if there is no Δ in X_∞ such that $\det(I + M \Delta) = 0$, and $(\min_{\Delta \in X_\infty} \{ \bar{\sigma}(\Delta) \mid \det(I + M \Delta) = 0 \})^{-1}$ otherwise.

□

It should be noted that \mathcal{d} , X_δ , and $\mu(M)$ all depend on the underlying block-structure. In most instances, we will not explicitly specify this block-structure.

We will make repeated use of the following easily derived fact. [1]

Fact 1.0 For all $D \in \mathcal{d}$,

$$\mu(M) = \mu(e^D M e^{-D}) \quad (1.6)$$

In order to evaluate the structured singular value, more manageable expressions than those provided in Definition 1.1 are desirable. Such expressions are provided by the following fact. [1]

Fact 1.1 For block-structures of size less than 4,

$$\mu(M) = \inf_{D \in \mathcal{d}} \bar{\sigma}(e^D M e^{-D}). \quad (1.7)$$

□

In fact, in many (but not all) cases, (1.7) is correct with block-structures of larger size. A counterexample, due to Doyle, [3] which shows that (1.7) is violated, is given in Appendix A.

In, [1] Doyle proposed an algorithm, which is essentially based upon first derivatives, to solve problem (1.7). Since when the largest singular value of $e^D M e^{-D}$ is simple, the square of $\bar{\sigma}(e^D M e^{-D})$ is continuously differentiable in D . Hence it is possible to express the first and second derivatives analytically such that, locally, Newton's method could be applied to solve problem (1.7). This report proposes a modified algorithm to compute the structured singular value based upon the first and second derivatives. In section 2, we will discuss a first order algorithm which mostly follows the line in. [1] In section 3, we will discuss the continuity properties of hermitian matrices. Finally, in section 4, a second order algorithm is presented.

2. A first order algorithm

In this section, we will discuss algorithms to solve the right hand side of (1.7) or, equivalently,

$$\inf_{D \in \mathcal{d}} \|e^D M e^{-D}\|^2 \quad (2.1)$$

by means of (generalized) gradient search method. Since $\|e^D M e^{-D}\|^2$ is convex [4] in D , it results that all stationary points are global minima. Since for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $e^D M e^{-D} = e^{\alpha I + D} M e^{-\alpha I - D}$, without loss of generality, we assume that $d_m = 0$. Recall that $D = \text{blockdiag}\{d_1 I_{k_1}, \dots, d_m I_{k_m}\}$. Define $\underline{d} = [d_1 \dots d_{m-1}]^T$, $g(\underline{d}) = \|e^D M e^{-D}\|^2$ and $H(\underline{d}) = (e^D M e^{-D})$. Note that $g(\underline{d})$ is continuous but not always differentiable. However the following property holds

Proposition 2.1 For any \underline{h} , the following expression exists

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{g(t\underline{h}) - g(0)}{t} .$$

□

Definition 2.1 \underline{h} is said to be a *descent direction* for $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d} = 0$ if there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for every $t \in (0, \delta)$

$$g(t\underline{h}) < g(0) .$$

□

Definition 2.2 A unit norm vector \underline{h} is said to be a *steepest descent direction* for $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d} = 0$ if \underline{h} is a descent direction and a solution of

$$\min_{\underline{h}} \left\{ \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{g(t\underline{h}) - g(0)}{t} \mid \|\underline{h}\| = 1 \right\} .$$

□

Suppose that $H(0)$ has a simple largest eigenvalue λ_1 , we denote v_1 the unit norm eigenvector corresponding to λ_1 . Thus gradient of $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d} = 0$ can be computed component-wise as follows. For $j=1, \dots, m-1$,

$$\nabla g_j(0) = v_1^H H_j v_1 \quad (2.2)$$

where $H_j = 2\text{Re}(H(0)^H \frac{\partial H(0)}{\partial d_j})$. So $-\nabla g(0)/\|\nabla g(0)\|$ is a (steepest) descent direction for $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d}=0$.

Proposition 2.2 If λ_1 is simple and $\nabla g(0) = 0$, then $\mu(M) = \bar{\sigma}(M)$.

Proof. See. [1, 4]

□

Corollary 2.1 If (2.1) is achievable and the corresponding largest singular value is simple, then (1.7) holds (m needs not to be less than four).

□

In the case that the largest eigenvalue of $H(0)$ has multiplicity q , $q > 1$, $g(\underline{d})$ is then not continuously differentiable at $\underline{d}=0$. Therefore the gradient is not well defined. In order to find a descent direction for $g(\underline{d})$, a generalized gradient is introduced. Let P_1 denote the set containing all the unit norm eigenvectors corresponding to λ_1 . Define

$$\nabla_2 = \{\underline{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_{m-1}) \mid y_j = \underline{x}^H H_j \underline{x}, \underline{x} \in P_1\} . \quad (2.3)$$

Clearly, if λ_1 is simple, ∇_2 reduces to $\{\nabla g(0)\}$.

Proposition 2.3 When $m \leq 3$, ∇_2 is convex.

Proof. See. [1]

□

Proposition 2.4 $\mu(M) = \bar{\sigma}(M)$ if and only if $0 \in \nabla_2$.

Proof. See. [1]

□

Proposition 2.5 Suppose $0 \notin \text{co}\nabla_2$ and vector \underline{h} has the property that

$$\langle \underline{h}, \underline{y} \rangle < 0 \quad \text{for all } \underline{y} \in \nabla_2, \quad (2.4)$$

then \underline{h} is a descent direction of $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d}=0$, where $\text{co}\nabla_2$ denotes the convex hull of ∇_2 .

Proof. See. [1]

□

Corollary 2.2 Assume that (2.1) is achievable and $m \leq 3$, then (1.7) holds.

Proof. Assume that D^* solves (2.1). By Proposition 2.5, we have $0 \in \text{co}\nabla_2$ where ∇_2 is defined in terms of $e^{D^*} M e^{-D^*}$. By Proposition 2.3, since ∇_2 is convex, $0 \in \nabla_2$. Finally, by Proposition 2.4, since $0 \in \nabla_2$, we conclude that

$$\mu(M) = \mu(e^{D^*} M e^{-D^*}) = \bar{\sigma}(e^{D^*} M e^{-D^*}) = \inf_{D \in d} \bar{\sigma}(e^D M e^{-D}). \quad (2.5)$$

□

Proposition 2.6 Let $\underline{h} = -Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$, then $\underline{h}/\|\underline{h}\|$ is a steepest descent direction of $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d}=0$, where $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$ denotes the nearest point to the origin in $\text{co}\nabla_2$.

□

We now are ready to state a first order algorithm for computing (2.1).

Algorithm 2.1

Step 1.

Data $M_0 = M$, $D_0 = 0$ ($\underline{d}_0 = 0$).

$k = 0$.

Step 2.

Set $M_{k+1} = e^{D_k} M_k e^{-D_k}$.

Define search direction \underline{h} to be $-Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$ where ∇_2 is defined in terms of M_{k+1} .

Step 3.

Perform line search to find the step size α .

Step 4.

$\underline{d}_{k+1} = \underline{d}_k + \alpha \underline{h}$ (D_{k+1} is therefore updated).

Set $k = k+1$, go to step 2.

□

Proposition 2.7 Let $D^* = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} D_k$ where $\{D_k\}$ is the sequence generated by Algorithm 2.1. Then

$$\bar{\sigma}(e^{D^*} M e^{-D^*}) = \inf_{D \in \mathcal{d}} \bar{\sigma}(e^D M e^{-D}) .$$

□

Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_q\}$ be a basis for P_1 . (recall that P_1 denotes the set containing all the unite norm eigenvector corresponding to λ_0) Define $V = [v_1, \dots, v_q]$, $\bar{H}_j = V^H H_j V$ and $P_2 = \{\underline{x} \in C^q \mid \underline{x}^H \underline{x} = 1\}$. Note that \bar{H}_j is of size $q \times q$. By using these notation, ∇_2 could be expressed in a more manageable way as follows

$$\nabla_2 = \{f(\underline{x}) \mid f^j(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}^H \bar{H}_j \underline{x}, j=1, \dots, m-1, \underline{x} \in P_2\} \quad (2.6)$$

The following algorithm, [1] which is based upon (2.6), is to find $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$.

Algorithm 2.2

Step 1.

Pick any $\underline{v}_0 \in P_2$ and let $\underline{x}_0 = f(\underline{v}_0)$. Set $k = 0$.

Step 2.

Set $\underline{x}_{k+1} = Nr(\text{co}\{\underline{x}_k, f(\underline{v}_k)\})$.

Step 3.

Let \underline{v}_{k+1} be any unit vector for $\lambda_{\min}(\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \underline{x}_{k+1}^j \bar{H}_j)$, where λ_{\min} denotes the smallest eigenvalue.

Step 4.

Set $k = k+1$, go to step 2.

□

Proposition 2.8 Let $\{\underline{x}_k\}$ be the sequence generated by Algorithm 2.2, then $\{\underline{x}_k\}$ converges to $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$. Furthermore, let \underline{x}^* denote the limit and suppose that $\underline{x}^* \neq 0$, then $\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \underline{x}^{*j} \bar{H}_j$ is a strictly positive definite matrix.

Proof. It is shown in [1] that any convergent subsequence of $\{\underline{x}_k\}$ converges to $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$. Since the sequence $\{\|\underline{x}_k\|\}$ is bounded and $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$ has a unique solution, it is true that $\{\underline{x}_k\}$ itself converges and the limit is $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$. Furthermore, let \underline{v}^* be any accumulation point of the sequence $\{\underline{v}_k\}$. By the algorithm and the definition of limit, we have $\langle \underline{x}^*, f(\underline{v}^*) \rangle = \lambda_{\min}(\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \underline{x}^{*j} \bar{H}_j)$. If $\lambda_{\min}(\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \underline{x}^{*j} \bar{H}_j)$ is not greater than

zero, we have $\underline{x}^* \notin Nr(\text{co}[\underline{x}^*, f(\underline{v}^*)])$ which leads to a contradiction.

□

As mentioned above, when λ_1 , the largest eigenvalue of $H(0)$, is simple, i.e. $q=1$, ∇_2 reduces to $\{\nabla g(0)\}$ and, therefore, $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2) = \nabla g(0)$. In the case that $q=2$, it can be shown that the boundary of $\text{co}\nabla_2$ is a second order curve (or surface), possibly degenerate, in \mathbb{R}^{m-1} . Hence, $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$ could also be solved analytically. Based on this observation, for any q , we will propose another algorithm to compute $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$. Now we proceed this by giving more details about the case $q=2$. For $j=1, \dots, m-1$, let

$$\bar{H}_j = \begin{bmatrix} a_j & b_j \\ b_j^H & c_j \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.7)$$

where $a_j, c_j \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b_j \in \mathbb{C}$. Define ∇_2 accordingly. Also define \underline{l} to be the vector in \mathbb{R}^{m-1} such that the j th component of \underline{l} is $(a_j + c_j)/2$, and, define A to be the matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{(m-1) \times 3}$ with the j th row being $[(a_j - c_j)/2 \text{ Re}(b_j) \text{ Im}(b_j)]$. Recall that, for $q=2$, $P_2 = \{\underline{x} \in \mathbb{C}^2 \mid \underline{x}^H \underline{x} = 1\}$. Let $S = \{\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \underline{x}^T \underline{x} = 1\}$. We define $g(\underline{x})$ to be an affine function such that $g(\underline{x}) = A\underline{x} + \underline{l}$.

Proposition 2.9 $\nabla_2 = g(S)$.

Proof. See. [1]

By the Proposition 2.9, it becomes possible to image how the set ∇_2 looks like for the case $q=2$ and, fortunately, in this case the boundary of $\text{co}\nabla_2$ is either a point, an interval, an ellipse in \mathbb{R}^2 or an ellipsoid in \mathbb{R}^3 . Therefore, finding the nearest point to the origin in $\text{co}\nabla_2$ is straightforward. Perform the singular value decomposition of A such that

then $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2) = U_A Nr(Q_2 + U_A^T L)$.

□

We now state another algorithm to compute $Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$.

Algorithm 2.3

Step 1.

Pick any $\underline{v}_0 \in P_2$ and let $\underline{x}_0 = f(\underline{v}_0)$. Set $k = 0$.

Step 2.

Let \underline{u}_k be any unit vector for $\lambda_{\min}(\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \underline{x}_k^j \bar{H}_j)$.

Step 3.

Define

$$\bar{\bar{H}}_j = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{v}_k^H \\ \underline{u}_k^H \end{bmatrix} \bar{H}_j \begin{bmatrix} \underline{v}_k & \underline{u}_k \end{bmatrix} \quad j=1, \dots, m-1 .$$

Define \bar{f} in terms of $\bar{\bar{H}}_j$. Analytically find the solution \underline{w} such that $\bar{f}(\underline{w})$ is

the nearest point to the origin in set P_2 . Set $\underline{v}_{k+1} = [\underline{v}_k \ \underline{u}_k] \underline{w}$ and

$\underline{x}_{k+1} = f(\underline{v}_{k+1})$.

Step 4.

Set $k = k + 1$, go to step 2.

□

Proposition 2.11 Proposition 2.8 also holds for Algorithm 2.3.

□

Let

$$A = U_A \Sigma_A V_A^T \quad (2.8)$$

where U_A and V_A are orthogonal matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{(m-1) \times (m-1)}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ respectively, and

$$\Sigma_A = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ \cdot & 0 & \sigma_3 \\ \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.9)$$

provided that Σ_A has appropriate dimension. The following Proposition gives the solutions for all cases in terms of the rank of A .

Proposition 2.10

case 1. $\text{rank}(A) = 0$

$$Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2) = \underline{1}.$$

case 2. $\text{rank}(A) = 1$

$$Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2) = U_A \text{Nr}(\text{co}[(\sigma_1, 0, \dots, 0)^T + U_A^T \underline{1}, (-\sigma_1, 0, \dots, 0)^T + U_A^T \underline{1}]).$$

case 3. $\text{rank}(A) = 2$

Let Q_1 denote the set

$$\{\underline{x} = (x_1, x_2, 0, \dots, 0) \mid \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{m-1}, \frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{\sigma_2^2} \leq 1\},$$

$$\text{then } Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2) = U_A \text{Nr}(Q_1 + U_A^T \underline{1}).$$

case 4. $\text{rank}(A) = 3$

Let Q_2 denote the set

$$\{\underline{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, 0, \dots, 0) \mid \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{m-1}, \frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{\sigma_2^2} + \frac{x_3^2}{\sigma_3^2} \leq 1\},$$

$$g_1(\underline{d}) = \lambda_{\max}([u_1, \dots, u_q]^H D [u_1, \dots, u_q] - [v_1, \dots, v_q]^H D [v_1, \dots, v_q]) \quad (2.10)$$

where $\lambda_{\max}(A)$ denotes the largest eigenvalue of A , and q is the multiplicity of $H(0)$.

Proposition 2.12 If $g_1(\underline{h}) < 0$, then \underline{h} is a descent direction. If $g_1(\underline{h}) > 0$, then \underline{h} is not a descent direction.

□

Proposition 2.13 The following three statements are equivalent.

1. \underline{h} is a steepest descent direction of $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d} = 0$.
2. $\underline{h} = \frac{\underline{h}_1}{\|\underline{h}_1\|}$ where $\underline{h}_1 = -Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$.
3. \underline{h} is a unit norm descent direction and \underline{h} solves

$$\min_{\underline{d}} \{g_1(\underline{d}) \mid \|\underline{d}\| = 1\} . \quad (2.11)$$

□

3. Continuity properties of hermitian matrix

Suppose $H(t)$ is hermitian and real analytic in t , it is well-known that by appropriate ordering of eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}$ and selection of eigenvectors $\{v_i\}$, it is possible to pair eigenvalues and eigenvectors $\{\lambda_i(t), v_i(t)\}$, such that both $\lambda_i(t)$ and $v_i(t)$ are analytic in t and $H(t)v_i(t) = \lambda_i(t)v_i(t)$ for all t and i . At values of t , where $H(t)$ has simple eigenvalues this is trivial. At degenerate points, it requires selection of the λ_i and v_i such that analyticity is retained through (isolated) points where eigenvalues coalesce. Note that with this ordering, the $\{\lambda_i\}$ are not necessarily linearly ordered. In this section, we will explore the continuity properties of hermitian matrix such that by using these properties, we could derive a second order algorithm in the next section for computing (2.1).

Let $H(t)$ be an $n \times n$ hermitian matrix and suppose that it is real analytic in t . We denote $\lambda_1(t)$ the eigenvalue corresponding to the spectral radius of $H(t)$ and $\underline{v}_1(t)$ the corresponding eigenvector such that,

$$H(t)\underline{v}_1(t) = \lambda_1(t)\underline{v}_1(t) \quad (3.1)$$

We assume that $\lambda_1 = \lambda_1(0)$ is simple. Since $H(t)$, $\lambda_1(t)$ and $\underline{v}_1(t)$ are analytic, we could express them in the form of Taylor series of t at $t=0$ as follows

$$H(t) = H_0 + t\dot{H} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\ddot{H} + o(t^2) \quad , \quad (3.2)$$

$$\lambda_1(t) = \lambda_1 + t\dot{\lambda}_1 + \frac{1}{2}t^2\ddot{\lambda}_1 + o(t^2) \quad (3.3)$$

and

$$\underline{v}_1(t) = \underline{v}_1 + tV\underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\underline{y} + o(t^2) \quad . \quad (3.4)$$

where $\underline{x} \in C^{n-1}$, $\underline{y} \in C^n$ and $[\underline{v}_1 \mid V]$ is a unitary matrix such that

$$H_0 V_{\perp} = V_{\perp} \Lambda_{\perp} . \quad (3.5)$$

where Λ_{\perp} is a diagonal matrix with all eigenvalues of H_0 except λ_1 in the diagonal.

Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned} & (H_0 + t\dot{H} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\ddot{H} + o(t^2)) (\underline{v}_1 + tV_{\perp}\underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\underline{y} + o(t^2)) \\ &= (\lambda_1 + t\dot{\lambda}_1 + \frac{1}{2}t^2\ddot{\lambda}_1 + o(t^2)) (\underline{v}_1 + tV_{\perp}\underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\underline{y} + o(t^2)) . \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

Since (3.6) is true for all t , we could expand it and have equalities for its constant, t and t^2 terms individually. Thus for constant term, we have

$$H_0 \underline{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1 ; \quad (3.7)$$

for t term, we have

$$\dot{H}\underline{v}_1 + H_0 V_{\perp}\underline{x} = \dot{\lambda}\underline{v}_1 + \lambda_1 V_{\perp}\underline{x} \quad (3.8)$$

and for t^2 term, we have

$$\dot{H}V_{\perp}\underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{H}\underline{v}_1 + \frac{1}{2}H_0\underline{y} = \dot{\lambda}V_{\perp}\underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{\lambda}\underline{v}_1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1\underline{y} . \quad (3.9)$$

Now we could express $\dot{\lambda}$ and $\ddot{\lambda}$ in terms of known quantities by performing some simple manipulations. Multiply t term on left by \underline{v}_1^H and yield

$$\underline{v}_1^H (\dot{H}\underline{v}_1 + H_0 V_{\perp}\underline{x}) = \underline{v}_1^H (\dot{\lambda}\underline{v}_1 + \lambda_1 V_{\perp}\underline{x}) \quad (3.10)$$

and

$$\underline{v}_1^H \dot{H}\underline{v}_1 + \underline{v}_1^H H_0 V_{\perp}\underline{x} = \underline{v}_1^H \dot{\lambda}\underline{v}_1 + \underline{v}_1^H \lambda_1 V_{\perp}\underline{x} . \quad (3.11)$$

Since

$$\underline{v}_1^H H_0 V_{\perp} \underline{x} = \underline{v}_1^H \lambda_1 V_{\perp} \underline{x} = 0 \quad (3.12)$$

We then have

$$\dot{\lambda} = \underline{v}_1^H \dot{H} \underline{v}_1 \quad (3.13)$$

Multiply t term on left by V_{\perp}^H and yield

$$V_{\perp}^H \dot{H} \underline{v}_1 + \Lambda_{\perp} \underline{x} = \lambda_1 \underline{x} \quad (3.14)$$

Hence

$$\underline{x} = (\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})^{-1} V_{\perp}^H \dot{H} \underline{v}_1 \quad (3.15)$$

Multiply t^2 term on left by \underline{v}_1^H and yield

$$\underline{v}_1^H \dot{H} V_{\perp} \underline{x} + \frac{1}{2} \underline{v}_1^H \ddot{H} \underline{v}_1 + \frac{1}{2} \underline{v}_1^H H_0 \underline{y} = \dot{\lambda} \underline{v}_1^H V_{\perp} \underline{x} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\lambda} \underline{v}_1^H \underline{v}_1 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1^H \underline{y} \quad (3.16)$$

Since for any \underline{y}

$$\underline{v}_1^H H_0 \underline{y} = \lambda_1 \underline{v}_1^H \underline{y} \quad , \quad (3.17)$$

thus we have

$$\ddot{\lambda} = \underline{v}_1^H \ddot{H} \underline{v}_1 + 2 \underline{v}_1^H \dot{H} V_{\perp} \underline{x} = \underline{v}_1^H \ddot{H} \underline{v}_1 + 2 \underline{v}_1^H \dot{H} V_{\perp} (\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})^{-1} V_{\perp} \dot{H} \underline{v}_1 \quad (3.18)$$

Note that, as long as that $[\underline{v}_1 \mid V_{\perp}]$ is unitary and (3.5) holds, $\ddot{\lambda}$ is independent of the choices of V_{\perp} and Λ_{\perp} . By the assumption that λ_1 is simple, (3.13) and (3.18) give the explicit expressions for $\dot{\lambda}$ and $\ddot{\lambda}$ respectively. Since the matrix $(\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})$ in (3.18) is not invertible when λ_1 is not simple. As mentioned in the beginning of this section, it amounts to the choices of eigenvectors for the case when eigenvalues coalesce, such that, $V_{\perp}^H \dot{H} \underline{v}_1$ is in the range space of $(\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})$. Thus a solution of \underline{x} could be

$$\underline{x} = (\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})^+ V_{\perp}^H \dot{H} \underline{v}_1 \quad (3.19)$$

where the superscript ‘+’ denotes pseudo-inverse. Therefore, (3.18) becomes valid after $(\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})^{-1}$ is replaced by $(\lambda_1 I - \Lambda_{\perp})^+$. For simplicity of discussion, we assume that

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \cdots = \lambda_q \quad (3.20)$$

and $\underline{\phi}_i, i=1, \cdots, q$, are q mutually perpendicular unit norm eigenvectors associated with eigenvalue λ_1 .

Proposition 3.1 There exists a choices of mutually perpendicular unit norm eigenvectors $\underline{v}_i, i=1, \cdots, q$, in the space spanned by $\{\underline{\phi}_1 \underline{\phi}_2 \cdots \underline{\phi}_q\}$ such that for all $i=1, \cdots, q$, $V_{\perp,i}^H \dot{H} \underline{v}_i$ lies in the range space of $(\lambda_i I - \Lambda_{\perp,i})$ where $V_{\perp,i}$ and $\Lambda_{\perp,i}$ are defined similarly to V_{\perp} and Λ_{\perp} .

Proof. It is easy to show that it suffices to prove that there exists a unitary matrix $W, W \in C^{q \times q}$, such that

$$W^H [\underline{\phi}_1 \underline{\phi}_2 \cdots \underline{\phi}_q]^H \dot{H} [\underline{\phi}_1 \underline{\phi}_2 \cdots \underline{\phi}_q] W \quad (3.21)$$

is diagonal. Since matrix $[\underline{\phi}_1 \underline{\phi}_2 \cdots \underline{\phi}_q]^H \dot{H} [\underline{\phi}_1 \underline{\phi}_2 \cdots \underline{\phi}_q]$ is hermitian, it is always possible to change (3.21) to diagonal form by performing a unitary transformation. It should be noted that the choice of matrix W is dependent of matrix \dot{H} .

□

4. A second order algorithm.

In this section, we will make use of the properties discussed in the previous section to derive a second order algorithm to solve (2.1). Define

$$H(t) = (e^{Dt} M e^{-Dt})^H (e^{Dt} M e^{-Dt}) \quad (4.1)$$

and let the singular value decomposition of M be

$$M = U \Sigma V^H \quad (4.2)$$

where

$$U = [u_1 \cdots u_n] \quad (4.3)$$

$$V = [v_1 \cdots v_n] \quad (4.4)$$

$$\Sigma = \text{diag} \{ \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \}. \quad (4.5)$$

Then it is easy to get the following equalities

$$H_0 = M^H M \quad (4.6)$$

$$\dot{H} = -DM^H M + 2M^H DM - M^H MD \quad (4.7)$$

$$\ddot{H} = D^2 M^H M - 4DM^H DM + 4M^H D^2 M + 2DM^H MD - 4M^H DMD + M^H MD^2 \quad (4.8)$$

If λ_1 is simple, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\lambda}_1 &= 2\sigma_1^2(u_1^H D u_1 - v_1^H D v_1) \\ &= 2[d_1 \cdots d_m] \begin{bmatrix} \|P_1 M v_1\|^2 - \|M v_1\|^2 \|P_1 v_1\|^2 \\ \vdots \\ \|P_m M v_1\|^2 - \|M v_1\|^2 \|P_m v_1\|^2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 2\sigma_1^2 [d_1 \cdots d_m] \begin{bmatrix} \|P_1 u_1\|^2 - \|P_1 v_1\|^2 \\ \vdots \\ \|P_m u_1\|^2 - \|P_m v_1\|^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.9)$$

and

$$\ddot{\lambda}_1 = [u_1^H D \quad v_1^H D] E \begin{bmatrix} D u_1 \\ D v_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.10)$$

where

$$P_i = \text{block diag} (O_{k_1}, \cdots, O_{k_{i-1}}, I_{k_i}, O_{k_{i+1}}, \cdots, O_{k_m}), \quad (4.11)$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 4\sigma_1^2 I & -4\sigma_1 M \\ -4\sigma_1 M^H & 2\sigma_1^2 I + 2M^H M \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 2\sigma_1 U_\perp \Sigma_\perp \\ -V_\perp (\sigma_1^2 I + \Sigma_\perp^2) \end{bmatrix} (\sigma_1^2 I - \Sigma_\perp^2)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2\sigma_1 U_\perp \Sigma_\perp \\ -V_\perp (\sigma_1^2 I + \Sigma_\perp^2) \end{bmatrix}^T, \quad (4.12)$$

$$U_\perp = [u_2 \cdots u_n], \quad (4.13)$$

$$V_\perp = [v_2 \cdots v_n], \quad (4.14)$$

and

$$\Sigma_\perp = \text{diag} \{ \sigma_2, \cdots, \sigma_n \}.$$

Proposition 4.1

$$\lambda_1(t) = \lambda_1 + t \langle \nabla g(0), \underline{d} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} t^2 \underline{d}^T B \underline{d} + o(t^2 \|\underline{d}\|^2) \quad (4.15)$$

where $\underline{d} = [d_1 \cdots d_{m-1}]^T$, $\nabla g(0)$ is defined in Section 2 and

$$B = \text{real part of} \begin{bmatrix} P_1 u_1 & \cdots & P_{m-1} u_1 \\ P_1 v_1 & \cdots & P_{m-1} v_1 \end{bmatrix}^H E \begin{bmatrix} P_1 u_1 & \cdots & P_{m-1} u_1 \\ P_1 v_1 & \cdots & P_{m-1} v_1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (4.16)$$

Furthermore, B is non-negative definite.

□

The first three terms in the right hand side of (4.15) gives a second order model of $\lambda_1(t)$ when λ_1 is simple and $t \|\underline{d}\|$ is small. Since B is non-negative definite, the solu-

tion with minimum norm for the model is

$$t \|d\| = -B^+ \nabla g(0) \quad (4.17)$$

and also $-B^+ \nabla g(0)$ is a descent direction of $g(\underline{d})$ at $\underline{d}=0$, where B^+ denotes the pseudo-inverse of B . We now state the algorithm to solve (2.1).

Algorithm 4.1

Step 1.

Data $M_0 = M$, $D_0 = 0$ ($\underline{d}_0 = 0$).

$k = 0$.

Step 2.

Set $M_{k+1} = e^{D_k} M_k e^{-D_k}$.

If the largest singular value of M_{k+1} is simple, define search direction \underline{h} to be $-B^+ \nabla g(0)$, otherwise define search direction \underline{h} to be $-Nr(\text{co}\nabla_2)$ where ∇_2 , B and $\nabla g(0)$ are defined in terms of M_{k+1} .

Step 3.

Perform line search to find the step size α .

Step 4.

$\underline{d}_{k+1} = \underline{d}_k + \alpha \underline{h}$ (D_{k+1} is therefore updated).

Set $k = k + 1$, go to step 2.

□

Appendix A. Counterexample of $\mu(M) \neq \inf_{D \in \mathcal{d}} (e^D M e^{-D})$

Let $a = (1 - (\frac{1}{3})^{1/2})^{1/2}$, $b = \frac{1}{2^{1/2}}$ and

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ ab & ab \\ ab & abi \\ (1-2a^2)^{1/2} & -\frac{a^2(1+i)}{2(1-2a^2)^{1/2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a \\ ab & -ab \\ ab & -abi \\ \frac{a^2(1-i)}{2(1-2a^2)^{1/2}} & (1-2a^2)^{1/2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Define $M = M_1 M_2^H$ and structure $\mathcal{k} = (1,1,1,1)$, then $\bar{\sigma}(M) = 1$ and

$$\bar{H}_1 = a^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{H}_2 = a^2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{H}_3 = a^2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is easy to check that ∇_2 is a circle with radius a^2 centered at origin. Thus

$\nabla_2 \neq \text{co}\nabla_2$, $0 \in \text{co}\nabla_2$ and $0 \notin \nabla_2$. Therefore $\mu(M) < 1$ but

$$\inf_{D \in \mathcal{d}} (e^D M e^{-D}) = 1$$

For this example, by using the formula in, [5] we can show that $\mu(M) > 0.87$.

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