# SOLUTION OF A LIPEAR REGULATOR PROBLEK WTH QUADRATIC PERFORMANCE INDEX AND STATE varlable constrants 

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D. MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY henry stanley mika

This is to certify that the
thesis entitled
SOLUTION OF A LINEAR REGULATOR PROBLEM WITH qUadRatic PERFORMANCE INDEX AND STATE VARIABLE CONSTRAINTS

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## ABSTRACT

# SOLUTION OF A LINEAR REGULATOR PROBLEM WITH QUADRATIC PERFORMANCE INDEX AND STATE VARIABLE CONSTRAINTS 

## By

Henry Stanley Mika

A direct method has been developed to obtain the optimal linear constant control law for the linear, time invariant regulator problem with quadratic performance index and state variable constraints. For a scalar control and a diagonal state weighting matrix $Q$, it is shown that the constant gain matrix $K$ can be obtained without solving the $n(n+1) / 2$ matrix Riccati equations. Instead, it is demonstrated that a simple algebraic algorithm defines all the elements of the $K$ matrix given the n elements forming the bottom row which are simply and linearly related to the $n$ coefficients of the closed loop characteristic equation.

A computational algorithm is developed which consists of two basic parts: a digital program that locates the minimum quadratic cost as a function of $n$ elements of the $K$ matrix; and an hybrid program which checks and, if necessary, adjusts these elements to meet the state variable constraints. This adjustment is implemented by transforming the problem into an $n$-parameter optimfzation problem and using sensitivity techniques.


#### Abstract

The minimum quadratic cost search yields a global minimum and, if the corresponding $K$ matrix yields a feedback control such that all state variable constraints are satisfied, then this is the desired solution. If adjustment of the $K$ matrix is required to meet state variable constraints, then the hybrid program determines an upper bound for the desired solution. Thus the desired solution is bounded by the global minimum and a known upper bound. Further search within this restricted region is continued until the desired solution is obtained. The final result yields the complete feedback loop engineering design information for the optimal control.

The method is illustrated with a solution of a third order system which represents the automatic control of longitudinal spacing between two moving vehicles with acceleration constraints.


# SOLUTION OF A LINEAR REGULATOR PROBLEM WITH QUADRATIC PERFORMANCE INDEX AND STATE VARIABLE CONSTRAINTS 

By<br>Henry Stanley Mika

## A THESIS

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## PLEASE NOTE：

Some pages have indistinct print．Filmed as received． UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS．

To my wife

Margaret

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## INTRODUCTION

The last ten or fifteen years have produced significant advances in the field of optimal control. However, despite the current advanced status of the theory, a very limited number of engineering applications have been made. For example, one of the simplest and most useful optimization criteria is the quadratic performance index which leads directly to determination of stable closed loop systems, eliminating much of the "cut and try" effort associated with conventional servomechanism design. In the case of the linear system with the control $u(t)$ unconstrained, the general solution is well known. However, in contrast to the general solution, if the engineering solution is defined as the solution which yields specific design values for a stable feedback control and satisfies all state variable constraints, then to the author's knowledge there exists no direct method to obtain such a solution. In the method described in this thesis, the general solution is used as a necessary condition to obtain the engineering solution for a linear time-invariant system.

In general mathematical form, known as the Problem of Bolza, the problem can be stated as follows:

Given the dynamic system

$$
\dot{x}=f[x(t), u(t), t]
$$

and some performance index

$$
J=\varphi\left(t_{f}\right)+\int_{t_{o}}^{t_{f}} L[x(t), u(t), t] d t
$$

find the control $u^{*}(t), t_{o} \leq t \leq t_{f}$, which minimizes (or maximizes) the functional $J$. When the terminal "cost" $\varphi\left(t_{f}\right)$ is not a consideration, i.e., when

$$
J=\int_{t_{o}}^{t_{f}} L[x(t), u(t), t] d t
$$

it is known as the Problem of Lagrange.
To obtain $u^{*}(t)$, in general, it is necessary to solve a two-point boundary value problem. In a few instances, it has been possible to obtain analytical solutions; but in most cases, particularily where constraints are imposed on the control $u(t)$ or on the state $x(t)$, the only practical method of solution is with the use of numerical techniques and a digital computer.

The choice of the form of the performance index $J$ affects the complexity of the solution to the two-point boundary value problem as well as the complexity of the physical implementation of the desired control $u^{*}(t)$. The choice may be obvious and leave no room for flexibility as, for example, the engineering specification that the system perform its function in minimum time. However, if some flexibility of choice is permitted, motivated perhaps by cost of physical implementation, then the form of $J$ is made on the basis of judgement, experience, physical insight and mathematical tractability.

The complicated and sophisticated hardware often needed for the implementation of an optimal controller may very well
be the reason why few actual applications of optimal controls currently exist. One has only to consider the complicated feedback elements required for a minimum-time optimal control for a third order system. The switching surface is represented by an extremely complex mathematical function so that the control or feedback elements may represent the major cost of implementing the entire system.

In the case of linear systems

$$
\dot{x}=A x+B u,
$$

the quadratic performance index

$$
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}}\left[x^{T_{Q x}}+u^{T_{R u}}\right] d t
$$

is an example of a functional which possesses many desirable engineering features. It is mathematically convenient and leads to a linear control law. In addition, it possesses the intuitively appealing feature of "least-square-error" minimization used in many areas of scientific and engineering analysis and application. Specifically, it penalizes the system for large excursions from some desired state trajectory while minimizing the control "energy". There are other, less obvious, advantages to the use of a quadratic performance index which mitigate against the use of other performance criteria. For example, a smooth control $u^{*}(t)$ is assured as contrasted to a "bang-bang" type, and the physical implementation of the control $u^{*}(t)$ can be relatively simple and inexpensive.

There is a large class of problems where a smooth control is of paramount importance. For example, in the field of transportation, including automobiles, aircraft, trains, etc., where human comfort and performance are important considerations, it is obvious that a 'bang-bang" control of vehicle acceleration would be highly undesirable.

The general solution for the optimal control of a linear system with quadratic performance index and $u(t)$ not constrained is well known and is given by

$$
u^{*}(t)=-R^{-1} T_{K} K(t) x(t)
$$

The matrix $K$ determines the feedback coefficients and is related to the $A, B, Q$ and $R$ matrices through the nonlinear matrix Riccati equation. Since the $K$ matrix contains the feedback gain information, it controls the behavior of the resulting closed loop system. However, since this matrix depends on the weighting matrices $Q$ and $R$, it follows that the system trajectories in state space are a function of $Q$ and $R$. Thus, when the designer chooses a specific performance index, he also determines the system behavior in state space.

The relationship between the $Q$ and $R$ matrices and the system trajectories is not readily apparent, and the following trial and error design procedure is typical:

1) assume initial $Q$ and $R$ matrices;
2) solve the matrix Riccati equation;
3) simulate the system;
4) if the system performance is not satisfactory, repeat the process.

This procedure is far from satisfactory because it requires repeated sołution of the matrix Riccati equation and there is no systematic scheme for correcting $Q$ and $R$.

The solution of the matrix Riccati equation may in itself be a very difficult computational problem. It requires the solution of $n(n+1) / 2$ simultaneous nonlinear equations, either in the algebraic or in the differential form. In general, the matrix Riccati is a first order differential equation which, when solved backward in time, yields a limiting value for $K$ which is a constant matrix equivalent to the solution obtained for the algebraic or steady state matrix Riccati equation. Satisfactory computational methods for systems of moderately high order do not appear to be available.

The recognition of the weighting matrices $Q$ and $R$ as "design parameters" has led to the postulation of the inverse problem: given $K$, what are $Q$ and $R$ ? On the surface, this seems to be a trivial engineering problem -- since knowing $K$ implies knowing the desired feedback gains which are the primary engineering design results. This has been a major shortcoming of the published results in this area: dependence on a-priori knowledge of either $K$ or closed loop eigenvalues. In addition, solution of the matrix Riccati equation is necessary, sometimes within an iterative loop. In summary, a practical engineering solution has not been available.

In the following chapters a solution is presented to the problem:

Given the linear, time-invariant system with scalar control

$$
\dot{x}=A x+B u
$$

and a quadratic performance index

$$
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left[\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Qx}+\mathrm{ru}^{2}\right] \mathrm{dt}
$$

find the constant matrix $K$ which minimizes $J$, defines an optimal control $u^{*}(t)$ such that no state variables $X_{i}(t)$ exceed their constraints, and does not depend on the solution of the matrix Riccati equation.

The result is in the form of a computational procedure utilizing both a digital and a hybrid configuration, and the discussion is divided as follows:

Chapter II reviews the existing theoretical background with specific emphasis on the inverse problem;

Chapter III develops the theoretical foundation for the algorithm used to obtain the solution;

Chapter IV describes in detail the computer implementation of the algorithm;

Chapter $V$ shows typical results for a third order system based on the problem of automatic longitudinal spacing between two vehicles;

Chapter VI summarizes the results and suggests future extensions to this work.

All of Chapters III and IV are devoted to a detailed discussion of the original contributions; and any material which is not original is explicitly referenced. Specifically, l) a Minimum Cost Algorithm is developed which locates the arbitrarily small
neighborhood of the global quadratic cost minimum under the constraints that the $Q$ and $K$ matrices be positive definite and the control is asymptotically stable; 2) a Constraint Function Algorithm is developed which establishes an upper bound on the minimum quadratic cost such that all state variable constraints are satisfied and significantly reduces the search region which contains the K matrix corresponding to this minimum; 3) a simple K matrix algorithm is developed, an integral part of the Minimum Cost and Constraint Function Algorithms, which eliminates the need to solve the $n(n+1) / 2$ Riccati equations.

## CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF EXISTING CONTRIBUTIONS BASIC TO SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM

The optimal control solution to the linear regulator problem with quadratic performance index has been known since 1960 when Kalman published his results. In the past seven or eight years recognition has been given the inverse problem, i.e., how to find the weighting matrices in the quadratic performance index given an optimal control law. This chapter reviews these results and other background material pertinent to the new results to be discussed in later chapters. Included in this chapter are brief discussions on topics of controllability and observability, state and control variable constraints and sensitivity analysis.

In general, a linear time-invariant dynamic system may be represented by the state equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=A x+B u \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and an output equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=C x+D u \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x$ is the $n \times 1$ state vector, $u$ is the $m \times 1, m \leq n$, control vector and $y$ is the $r \times 1$ output vector. $A, B, C$ and $D$ are constant and conformable matrices.

The optimal control $u^{*}(t), t_{o} \leq t \leq t_{1}$, is one that minimizes the quadratic performance index

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{1}}\left[x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u\right] d t \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q$ is a state-variable weighting matrix which is either positive definite or positive semidefinite; and $R$ is the control variable weighting matrix which is positive definite. The search for this minimum, if it exists, may be implemented in several ways, for example, by the Maximum Principle of Pontryagin [PON-1] which is an efficient generalization of the necessary conditions for a local minimum.

### 2.1 Constraints.

The solution of an optimal control problem inherently involves constraints. For example, the solution of equation (3) depends on the constraints imposed by equation (1). As in ordinary calculus, equality constraints of the form

$$
f[x(t), u(t), t]-\dot{x}=0
$$

are readily adjoined to $J$ by a Lagrange multiplier or co-state vector $\lambda$, so that the problem is one of minimizing

$$
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{t}^{t} 1 \quad\left\{x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u+\lambda^{T}[A x+B u-\dot{x}]\right\} d t .
$$

A more complex problem results when inequality constraints are imposed on the control vector

$$
U_{i}(\max ) \geq u_{i}(t) \geq U_{i}(\min ) ; i=1,2, \ldots \ldots, m .
$$

The usual procedure is to change the inequality constraint into an equality constraint as first suggested by Valentine [VAL-1] to form a function

$$
v_{i}\left(u_{i}\right)=\left[U_{i}(\max )-u_{i}(t)\right]\left[u_{i}(t)-u_{i}(\min )\right]-g_{i}^{2}(t)=0
$$

and again adjoining with the Lagrange multiplier $\Psi$ so that

$$
J=\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{2} \int_{t}^{t_{0}}\left\{x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u+\lambda^{T}[A x+B u-\dot{x}]-\sum_{i=1}^{m} \Psi_{i} v_{i}\left(u_{i}\right)\right\} d t .
$$

The minus sign precedes the last term because $\mathrm{v}_{\mathrm{i}}\left(\mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$ is negative when constraints are violated and this must reflect an added cost.

> In the case of state variable inequality constraints, augmentation of the state vector is implied. Several approaches [KEL-1], [BER-1] of which the following [McG-1] is representative have been successfully applied.
Define $\quad \dot{x}_{n+1}=f_{n+1}=\sum_{i=1}^{\ell}\left[h_{i}(x, t)\right]^{2} H\left(h_{i}\right)$
where

$$
\left[h_{i}(x, t)\right]^{2}=\left[x_{i}(\max )-x_{i}(t)\right]\left[x_{i}(t)-x_{i}(\min )\right]
$$

$$
H\left(h_{i}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
0 & \text { if } & h_{i}(x, t) \geq 0 \\
K_{i} & \text { if } & h_{i}(x, t)<0
\end{array}\right.
$$

$\ell \leq n$ is the set defining the constrained state variables

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{n+1}\left(t_{o}\right)=0 \\
& x_{n+1}\left(t_{1}\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using again the method of Lagrange multipliers results in

$$
\begin{align*}
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{t}\left\{x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u+\lambda^{T}(A x+B u-\dot{x})-\right. & \sum_{i=1}^{m} \Psi_{i} v_{i}\left(u_{i}\right) \\
& \left.+\lambda_{n+1}\left(f_{n+1}-\dot{x}_{n+1}\right)\right\} d t . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, it is possible to formulate a minimization problem with constraints, and computer techniques using the gradient method have been developed that converge to a solution [SAG-1], [WAN-1]. It will be shown in the development of this investigation that in the case of the quadratic performance index, an optimal solution with control and state variable constraints is obtained without the need to solve the complex two-point boundary value problem implied by equation (4).

### 2.2 Controllability and Observability.

The concepts of controllability and observability were first introduced by Kalman [KAL-1] who showed that they appear as necessary and sometimes sufficient conditions for existence of solutions in control problems, particularily those involving multiple inputs and multiple outputs. One of the best "state of the art" papers is that of Kreindler and Sarachik [KRE-1] and is the source for the following definitions. Discussion will be limited to linear time invariant systems defined by equations (1) and (2).

Definition 1: A plant is said to be completely state-controllable if for any $t_{o}$ each initial state $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ can be transferred to any final state $x\left(t_{f}\right)$ in a finite $t i m e t_{f} \geq t$.

It can be shown that a linear time-invariant plant is
completely state-controllable if and only if the $n \times m n$ matrix

$$
E=\left[B_{1}^{\prime} A B_{1}^{\prime} A^{2} B_{1}^{\prime} \cdots \cdots, A^{n-1} B\right]
$$

satisfies the relation

$$
\text { rank } E=n
$$

One important application of complete state-controlla-
bility is that it can be shown [WON-1] that if the system (1) is completely controllable, then there exists a nonsingular matrix $H$ such that

$$
x=H y
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{B}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
& y=\bar{A} y+\bar{B} u .
\end{aligned}
$$

That is, the system (1) can always be transferred into the phase variable canonical form.

Definition 2: An unforced plant is said to be completely observable on $\left[t_{o}, t_{f}\right]$ if for given $t_{o}$ and $t_{f}$, every state $x\left(t_{o}\right)$ in $X$ can be determined from the knowledge of $y(t)$ on $\left[t_{o}, t_{f}\right]$. If the above is true for every $t_{o}$ and some finite $t_{f}>t_{o}$ then the plant is said simply to be completely observable. If the above is true for every $t_{o}$ and every $t_{f} \geq t_{o}$, the plant is said
to be totally observable.
As in the case of controllability, there exists a necessary and sufficient condition for total observability. A linear time-invariant plant is totally observable if and only if the $n \times n m$ matrix

$$
F=\left[C^{T} A^{T} C^{T}: \cdots \cdots:\left(A^{T}\right)^{n-1} C^{T}\right]
$$

satisfies the relation

$$
\text { rank } F=n .
$$

In the specific problem to be discussed hereafter, it will be assumed that $C$ is the unit matrix, and, therefore (1) - (2) is a totally observable system.

### 2.3 Analytic Solution for Regulator Pioblem.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Let } \quad \dot{x}=\mathrm{Ax}+\mathrm{Bu} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

represent the state equation for a regulator, i.e., a control $u(t)$ is desired such that the state vector $x(t)$ is returned to zero.

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left[x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u\right] d t \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If all the matrices are constant, $Q$ and $R$ positive definite, $u(t)$ unconstrained, and the system completely controllable, then it is well known [ATH-1] that a unique optimal control $u^{*}(t)$ exists and is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{*}(t)=-R^{-1} B^{T} K x(t) . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The constant positive definite symmetric matrix $K$ satisfies
the algebraic matrix Riccati equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
K A+A^{T} K-K B R^{-1} B^{T} K+Q=0 . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since equation (7) is a system of quadratic algebraic equations, it does not, in general, have a unique solution. Kalman [KAL-2], however, has shown that if there exists a matrix H such that

$$
\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{H}
$$

then total observability of the pair $[A, H]$ assures the existence of a unique positive definite solution. In addition, this condition relaxes the requirement on $Q$ in that it need be only positive semidefinite.

The solution of the matrix Riccati equation may be a formidable task since it requires the solution of a system of $n(n+1) / 2$ simultaneous nonlinear equations. Computational stability and computer capacity [BLA-1] set an upper bound on the order of the system which can be handled. A recent technique [KLE-1] indicates that the algebraic matrix Riccati solution can be obtained for $n=10$. However, it may be more efficient computationally to solve the matrix Riccati equation in differential form by using established Runge-Kutta [ATH-2] procedures. This follows from the fact that the algebraic Riccati equation represents the steady state solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{K}(t)=-K(t) A-A^{T} K(t)+K(t) B R^{-1} B^{T} K(t)-Q \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\lim _{t_{o} \rightarrow-\infty} K\left(t_{o}\right)=K
$$

An algorithm developed in Chapter III for a scalar control $u(t)$ eliminates the need to solve the matrix Riccati equation (7) or (8) to obtain the $K$ matrix, and the computational limitation on the order of the system is relaxed.

### 2.4 The Inverse Problem.

It has been recognized for sometime that the $Q$ and $R$ weighting matrices in the quadratic performance index are really engineering design parameters. Since no generality is sacrificed by assuming $R$ as the unit matrix, the design problem is reduced to finding an acceptable $Q$ matrix. This is the so-called inverse problem.

The general inverse problem was first posed by Kalman [KAL-2] in the following fashion:

Let $\quad J=\lim _{t_{1} \rightarrow \infty} \int_{0}^{t} 1 L\left[x\left(t, t_{0}\right), u(t)\right] d t$
then, given a completely-controllable constant linear plant and constant control law, determine all loss functions $L$ of the quadratic form such that the control law minimizes J.

Kalman then proceeded to derive the necessary and sufficient conditions for the solution of this problem in terms of a frequency domain characterization. Let
$Q=H^{T} H$ be a non-negative definite matrix
$K$ be a symmetric positive definite matrix satisfying the steady state Riccati equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -K A-A^{T} K=H^{T} H-K B B^{T} K \\
& R=[1], \text { i.e, a scalar control } \\
& \varphi(s)=(s I-A)^{-1} \\
& \Psi(s)=|s I-A| \\
& G=A-B B^{T} K \\
& \Psi_{G}(s)=|s I-G| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem (Kalman):
Consider a completely controllable plant and the associated variational problem with a quadratic performance index such that the pair $[A, H]$ is totally observable. Let $K B$ be a fixed control law. Then a necessary and sufficient condition for $K B$ to be an optimal control law is that $K B$ be a stable control law and that the condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|1+B^{T} K_{\varphi}(i \omega) B\right|^{2}=1+\|H \varphi(i \omega) B\|^{2} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold for all real $w$.
This is an important fundamental result which establishes a relationship between the time domain of the state variable approach and the frequency domain of conventional feedback theory. In fact, the term $1+\mathrm{B}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{K} \varphi(\mathrm{i} \omega) \mathrm{B}$ represents the return difference in feedback theory.

Theorem (Kalman):
A control law $K B$ is optimal if and only if
a) $|s I-G|$ satisfies the Routh-Hurwitz conditions;
b) $\Psi\left(\omega^{2}\right)=\left|\Psi_{G}(i \omega)\right|^{2}-|\Psi(i \omega)|^{2}$.

This theorem implies that it is possible to characterize
optimality in terms of closed loop and open loop characteristic
equations. Unfortunately, the condition b) is not known in general form for application to any $n^{\text {th }}$ order system. These results are fundamental but are not easily applied. Equation (9) implies that an $H$ matrix, if it exists, can be found if $K$ is known. Kalman proposes a solution using spectral factorization, but this implies the non-uniqueness of $H$ and, therefore, non-uniqueness of $Q$. Furthermore, the actual engineering design solution is the $K$ matrix which determines the feedback coefficients for an optimal control system; and, thus, to obtain $H$ it is pre-supposed that the design information is already known. For these reasons there appears to be little or no evidence that these results have been applied to engineering problems.

Three years after the publication of these results, Athans, et. al. [ATH-3] were proposing a "cut and try" procedure based on the work of Bryson and Ho to obtain acceptable $Q$ and $R$ matrices. Initial values were chosen on the bas is of

$$
\begin{aligned}
& q_{i i}^{-1}=\max x_{i i}^{2}(t) \\
& r_{j j}^{-1}=\max u_{j j}^{2}(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

that is, the diagonal entries of the $Q$ and $R$ matrices were an inverse function of the maximum magnitude of the variable to be weighted. Again, an a-priori knowledge of system behavior is implied. If the initial "guess" was not satisfactory then adjustments were made in a "cut and try" fashion. Of course, each time $Q$ or $R$ is adjusted a new $K$ matrix must be determined from the matrix Riccati equation. An essentially
"cut and try" procedure similar to the above is still common practice in engineering work.

Rekasius and Hsia [REK-1] attempted a more formal approach which was motivated by the Problem of Letov [LET-1]. In this problem the control $u(t)$ is assumed a scalar with the constraint $|u(t)| \leq 1$ and

$$
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left(x^{T} Q x+r u^{2}\right) d t
$$

It was found that under the condition, $\alpha<0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha B^{T} K=B^{T} K\left[A-\left(B B^{T} K\right) / r\right] \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

the control

$$
u(x)= \begin{cases}u^{*}(x)=-\left(B^{T} K x\right) / r & ;|u| \leq 1 \\ \operatorname{Sgn}^{*}{ }^{*}(x) & ;|u| \geq 1\end{cases}
$$

is optimal.
Assuming a phase variable canonical form for the $A$ and $B$ matrices, they defined

$$
-(K B) / r=k_{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}
k_{1} / k_{n}  \tag{11}\\
k_{2} / k_{n} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Substituting $A, B$ and (11) into equation (10) results in ( $n-1$ ) equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{k_{1}}{k_{n}}\right)\left(\frac{k_{n-1}}{k_{n}}\right)-a_{n}\left(\frac{k_{1}}{k_{n}}\right)+a_{1}=0 \\
& \left(\frac{k_{2}}{k_{n}}\right)\left(\frac{k_{n-1}}{k_{n}}\right)-a_{n}\left(\frac{k_{n-1}}{k_{n}}\right)+a_{2}=0 \\
& \cdot \\
& \left(\frac{k_{n-1}}{k_{n}}\right)^{2}-a_{n}\left(\frac{k_{n-1}}{k_{n}}\right)-\left(\frac{k_{n-2}}{k_{n}}\right)+a_{n-1}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

For an optimal solution to exist, these equations must be independent and have at least one set of real solutions such that $u(x)$ is a stable control law. Once the ratios $k_{i} / k_{n}=\gamma_{i}$, $i=1,2, \ldots \ldots, n-1$, are known, substitution in equation (11) yields

$$
\mathrm{KB}=\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{nn}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
\gamma_{1} \\
\gamma_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $k_{n n}$ is the bottom-row, last column element of the $K$ matrix, and once known the optimal control law follows as well as the $k_{n i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$, elements of the $K$ matrix. As in Kalman's work, Rekasius and Hsia assumed a $k_{n n}$ as well as the rest of the elements that determine the entire $K$ matrix. They then solved for the control law as well as the $Q$ matrix by substitution in the steady state Riccati equation.

Tyler and Tuteur [TYL-1] approached the inverse problem by assuming $Q$ to be a diagonal matrix, $R$ the unit matrix and
obtaining a relationship in the frequency domain which was a function of $Q$. The procedure involves trial and error adjustments of the $Q$ elements until satisfactory response is achieved. Once $Q$ is established in this fashion, the $K$ matrix is obtained by solving the matrix Riccati equation.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Assuming } \\
\dot{x}=A x+B u \\
y=C x \\
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left(x^{T} C^{T} Q C x+u^{T} u\right) d t
\end{gathered}
$$

and using the canonical equations

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{x} \\
\cdots \cdots \\
\dot{\lambda}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A & -B B^{T} \\
\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \\
-C^{T} Q C & -A^{T}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
x \\
\cdots \\
\lambda
\end{array}\right]=F_{c}\left[\begin{array}{c}
x \\
\cdots
\end{array}\right]
$$

the characteristic equation of the optimal system is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|s I-A+B B^{T} K\right|=0=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(s-\alpha_{i}\right) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, it is well known that the 2 n eigenvalues of the $F_{c}$ matrix consist of the $n$ eigenvalues equivalent to the roots in equation (12) plus $n$ eigenvalues which are the mirror image about the imaginary axis of the s-plane. Therefore,

$$
\left|s I-F_{c}\right|=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(s-\alpha_{i}\right)\left(s+\alpha_{i}\right)
$$

Pre-multiplying $F_{c}$ yields the following

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{ll}
(s I-A)^{-1} & 0 \\
-\left(C^{T} Q C\right)(s I-A)^{-1} & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{lc}
(s I-A) & B B^{T} \\
C^{T} Q C & \left(s I+A^{T}\right)
\end{array}\right]} \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{ll}
I & (s I-A)^{-1} B^{T} \\
0 & -C^{T} Q C(s I-A)^{-1} B B C_{T}^{T}+\left(s I+A^{T}\right)
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\left|s I-F_{c}\right|=|s I-A|\left|\left(s I+A^{T}\right)-C^{T} Q C(s I-A)^{-1} B_{B}^{T}\right|=0 .
$$

By further manipulation

$$
|s I-A|\left|s I+A^{T}\right|+(-1)^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{2(n-1)} k_{i} N_{i}(s) N_{i}(-s)=0
$$

where $N_{i}(s)$ is a polynomial in $s$, each $k_{i}$ consists either of a $q_{i i}$ element or a product of $q_{i i}$ elements.

This rather formidable relationship of (2n) degree containing $2^{n}$ terms must be satisfied by adjusting the $q_{i i}$ elements via root locus techniques until the desired system response is obtained. This leads to a solution for the entire Q matrix which is then used in the matrix Riccati equation to obtain the $K$ matrix. The difficulty of using root locus techniques with a high order system is alone a challenging task.

A technique proposed by Chen and Shen [CHE-1] appears to overcome some of the difficulties associated with the Tyler and Tuteur method. Given a quadratic performance index and specified closed loop eigenvalues, a sensitivity relationship between the eigenvalues and the $Q$ matrix is used to solve iteratively for the desired $Q$ matrix.

$$
\text { Letting } \quad G=A-B B^{T} K
$$

it follows that

$$
\mathrm{Gu}_{i}=\lambda_{i} u_{i} ; i=1,2, \ldots, n
$$

where $\lambda_{i}$ and $u_{i}$ are the distinct eigenvalues and eigenvectors, respectively. This leads to the Jacobi sensitivity formula [Van-1]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{d} \lambda_{i}=\left\langle v_{i}, \mathrm{dGu}_{\mathrm{i}}\right\rangle \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $v_{i}$ is the reciprocal basis of $u_{i}$, i.e., [MOR-1] if
then

$$
\mathrm{U}=\left[u_{1}: u_{1}^{\prime}: \cdots:_{1}^{\prime} u_{n}\right]
$$

$$
v=\left[U^{T}\right]^{-1}=\left[v_{1}^{\prime} v_{2}^{\prime} \ldots \ldots \cdot v_{n}^{\prime} \cdot \cdots\right.
$$

Since
$K A+A^{T} K-K B B^{T} K=-C^{T} Q C$
then $\quad d K A+A^{T} d K-d K B B^{T} K-K B B^{T} d K=-C^{T} d Q C$
or $\quad d K G+G^{T} d K+C^{T} d Q C=0$
and $\quad d G=-B B^{T} d K$

By combining equations (13), (14) and (15) it can be shown that

$$
\begin{align*}
& d \lambda_{i}=-\operatorname{tr}\left(u_{i} v_{i} B^{T} d K\right) \\
& d K G+G^{T} d K=-C^{T} d Q C
\end{align*}
$$

Assuming $Q$ is diagonal and given a set of desired eigenvalues, equation (16) and the steady state matrix Riccati equation are used within an iterative loop to obtain a $Q$ matrix.

It is clear that this method suffers from two disadvantages:

1) a desired set of eigenvalues is not always available to the
designer; and 2) an iterative scheme that involves solving the matrix Riccati equation, particularily when the order of the system is moderately large, will be either extremely time-consuming or computationally unstable.

In summary, although the classic inverse problem can be solved, the engineering designer requires a much better tool to do his job.

### 2.5 Sensitivity Analysis.

In the proposed procedure to obtain a solution to the linear regulator problem with a quadratic performance index and constrained state variables, the problem is essentially reduced to optimizing a n-parameter system using partial derivatives of the form $\frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial p_{j}}$. It is common practice [TOM-1], [PER-1] to define this type of derivative as the sensitivity of state variable $x_{i}$ to the parameter $p_{j}$.

Following the usual method of development, let $V$ be the $n \times n$ matrix whose elements are

$$
v_{i j}(t)=\frac{\partial x_{i}(t)}{\partial p_{j}}
$$

Differentiating with respect to time

$$
\dot{v}_{i j}(t)=\frac{d}{d t} \frac{\partial x_{i}(t)}{\partial p_{j}}
$$

where $X_{i}=f_{i}(\tilde{p}, t)$.
Before further expansion it is first necessary to show that matters are considerably simplified if the following assumptions are made:

1) $\frac{\partial^{2} x_{i}(t)}{\partial t_{j} P_{j}}$ is continuous
2) the system is time invariant, i.e., $p$ is not an explicit function of time.
Then, $\quad \frac{d \tilde{p}}{d t}\left[\frac{\partial x_{i}(t)}{\partial p_{j}}\right]=\frac{\partial^{2} x_{i}(t)}{\partial t \partial p_{j}}+\frac{\partial^{2} x(t)}{\partial \tilde{p}_{\partial} p_{j}} \frac{d}{d t}=\frac{\partial^{2} x(t)}{\partial t \partial p_{j}}$

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial p_{j}}\left[\frac{d x_{i}(t)}{d t}\right]=\frac{\partial}{\partial p_{j}}\left[\frac{\partial x_{i}(t)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial^{x_{i}}(t)}{\partial \tilde{p}} \frac{d \tilde{p}}{d t}\right]=\frac{\partial^{2} x_{i}(t)}{\partial p_{j} \partial t}
$$

Since $\frac{\partial^{2} x_{i}(t)}{\partial t \partial p_{j}}$ is continuous, then

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} x_{i}(t)}{\partial t \partial P_{j}}=\frac{\partial^{2} x_{i}(t)}{\partial p_{j} \partial t}
$$

and

$$
\dot{v}_{i j}(t)=\frac{\partial}{\partial P_{j}}\left[\frac{d x_{i}(t)}{d t}\right]=\frac{\partial \dot{x}_{i}(t)}{\partial P_{j}}
$$

Since

$$
\dot{x}=G x
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
& \dot{x}_{i}(t)=g_{i}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{p}, t) \\
& \dot{v}_{i j}(t)=\frac{\partial}{\partial p_{j}}\left[g_{i}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{p}, t)\right] \\
& =\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial x_{1}(t)} \cdot \frac{\partial x_{1}(t)}{\partial p_{j}}+\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial x_{2}} \frac{\partial x_{2}}{\partial p_{j}}+\ldots \ldots \ldots+\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial x_{n}(t)} \frac{\partial x_{n}(t)}{\partial p_{j}}+\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial p_{j}} \\
& =\sum_{r=1}^{n}\left[\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial x_{r}(t)}\right] \frac{\partial x_{r}(t)}{\partial p_{j}}+\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial p_{j}} \\
& =\sum_{r=1}^{n}\left[\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial x_{r}(t)}\right] v_{r j}(t)+\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial p_{j}} \tag{17}
\end{align*}
$$

In matrix form for an $n^{\text {th }}$ order system

$$
\begin{align*}
& {\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\dot{v}_{11} & \dot{v}_{12} & \cdots & \dot{v}_{1 n} \\
\cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
\dot{v}_{n 1} & \dot{v}_{n 2} & \cdots & \dot{v}_{n n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial g_{1}}{\partial x_{1}(t)} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_{1}}{\partial x_{n}(t)} \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \frac{\partial g_{n}}{\partial x_{1}(t)} & \\
\frac{\partial g_{n}}{\partial x_{n}(t)}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{llll}
v_{11} & v_{12} & \cdots & v_{1 n} \\
\cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & & \\
v_{n 1} & v_{n 2} & \cdots & v_{n n}
\end{array}\right]} \\
& +\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial g_{1}}{\partial p_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_{1}}{\partial p_{n}} \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\frac{\partial g_{n}}{\partial p_{1}} & & \frac{\partial \dot{g}_{n}}{\partial p_{n}}
\end{array}\right] \tag{18}
\end{align*}
$$

Since the matrix $G$ can always be transformed into the phase variable form

$$
\begin{gather*}
g_{1}(t)=x_{2}(t) \\
g_{2}(t)=x_{3}(t) \\
\cdot \\
\cdot  \tag{19}\\
g_{n-1}(t)=x_{n}(t) \\
g_{n}(t)=-p_{1} x_{1}(t)-p_{2} x_{2}(t)-\cdots \cdots \cdots-p_{n} x_{n}(t)
\end{gather*}
$$

substituting into equation (18) and then decomposing into $j=1,2, \ldots, n$ first order differential equations yields

where $V_{j}$ is the $j^{\text {th }}$ column of the $n \times n$ matrix $V$, and

$$
\mathrm{B}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
- \\
-1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since $V_{j}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$ for normal physical systems, [KOE-1]

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{j}\left(t_{i}\right)=\epsilon^{G t} i \int_{t_{o}}^{t_{i}} \varepsilon^{-G T} B x_{j}(T) d \tau \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (22) will be basic to some of the development in Chapter III.

DEVELO PMENT OF A SOLUTION

In this chapter the new developments pertinent to the solution of the linear regulator problem with state variable constraints are presented. A simple algebraic algorithm is developed for a large class of problems to obtain the gain matrix $K$, associated with the matrix Riccati equation, from an $n$-parameter optimization solution. Thus it is not necessary to solve the usual $n(n+1) / 2$ simultaneous nonlinear equations. The parameter optimization solution is based on a quadratic cost minimization algorithm that follows from the $K$ matrix algorithm and a special constraint function developed for this purpose. Both of these algorithms are described in detail.

### 3.1 Canonical Trans formation.

Given the linear dynamic system

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\mathrm{x}}=\mathrm{Ax}+\mathrm{Bu} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x$ is the $n \times 1$ state vector, $u$ is the $m \times 1$ control vector, $m \leq n, A$ is a constant $n \times n$ matrix and $B$ is a constant n×m matrix, then for a physically meaningful problem an originally unstable system can always be stabilized by a properly chosen controller [KAL-2]. For the optimal control designed to minimize the quadratic performance index

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left[x^{T} Q_{x}+u^{T} R u\right] d t \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the constant $n \times n$ matrix $Q$ and the constant $m \times m$ matrix $R$ are positive definite, it has been shown [ATH-1] that the unique optimal control exists and is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{u}^{*}=-\mathrm{R}^{-1} \mathrm{~B}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Kx} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K$ is a unique positive definite symmetric $n \times n$ matrix satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
K A+A^{T} K-K B R^{-1} B^{T} K+Q=0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 1: If the symmetric matrix $K$ is unique then the $n \times n$ matrix $Q$ is unique.

Proof: $\quad Q=-K A-A^{T}{ }_{K}+K B R^{-1} B_{B} T_{K}$
Since for a given system and performance index $A, B, R$ are unique, it follows that $Q$ is unique.

It is known that [KAL-2] any completely controllable
system with a scalar control $u(t)$

$$
\dot{y}=F y+H u
$$

can always be transformed into the phase variable canonical form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
z_{1}  \tag{5}\\
z_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
z_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & & 0 \\
\cdot & \cdot & 0 & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
-a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} & \cdots & -a_{n-1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
z_{1} \\
z_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
z_{n}
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
1
\end{array}\right] u
$$

Quite often the phase variable form follows directly from the original differential equation for the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
\stackrel{(n)}{x}+a_{n-1}^{(n-1)}+\ldots \ldots . .+a_{1}^{(1)}+a_{0}^{(0)}=b u \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

By suitable scaling of the state vector $z, i . e .$,

$$
z_{i}=x_{i} / b
$$

the form in (5) can be transformed into the more convenient form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1}  \tag{7}\\
x_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
\cdot & 0 & 1 & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & 0 & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & & & 1 \\
-a_{0} & -a_{1} & \ldots & \cdots & -a_{n-}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
b
\end{array}\right] u
$$

which will be used throughout the sequel. In matrix form (7) becomes

$$
\dot{x}=A x+B u
$$

### 3.2 Gain Matrix.

One of the major objectives of this research was to eliminate the need for the usual iterative procedure [ATH-2], [KLE-1] to solve the $n(n+1) / 2$ equations represented by the algebraic matrix Riccati equation (4) in order to obtain the gain matrix K. It will be shown that this can be done for the system (7), assuming a quadratic performance index structure.

First, it will be assumed that $R$ is the unit matrix. This is commonly done and does not affect the generality of the
results. In effect, the matrix $Q$ is redefined to be the matrix Q1 such that it "absorbs" the difference between any other $R$ and $\quad R=I$. From (4)

$$
Q=-K A-A^{T} K+K B R^{-1} B_{K}
$$

and it follows [KAL-2] that, for a completely controllable system and $Q$ positive definite,

$$
\begin{equation*}
J\left(t_{o}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{\infty}\left[x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u\right] d t=\frac{1}{2} x^{T}\left(t_{o}\right) K x\left(t_{0}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K$ is a unique solution. Since $A, B$ and $K$ are unique, by Lemma 1 it is possible to generate a unique matrix $Q_{1}$ with $R=I$ such that

$$
\begin{gather*}
Q_{1}=-K A-A^{T} K+K B B^{T} K  \tag{9}\\
J\left(t_{o}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_{o}}^{\infty}\left[x^{T} Q_{1} x+u^{T} u\right] d t=\frac{1}{2} x^{T}\left(t_{o}\right) K x\left(t_{o}\right) \tag{8a}
\end{gather*}
$$

Since $K$ is the same in both cases, the quadratic performance index in (8a) is equivalent to the one in (8).

The second assumption is that the $Q$ matrix be diagonal.
In practice this represents the largest class of problems since it is quite often very difficult to ascribe weighting coefficients to state variable cross products.

K Matrix Algorithm:
Given the completely controllable system (7), $R$ the unit matrix and $Q$ a diagonal (with unknown entries) matrix, then the complete symmetric $K$ matrix may be obtained from the $n$ entries in the $n^{\text {th }}$ row of the $K$ matrix.

Proof is by expansion of

$$
\mathrm{Q}=-\mathrm{KA}-\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{~K}+\mathrm{KBB}{ }^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{~K}
$$

Taking advantage of the fact that $k_{i j}=k_{j i}$, it can be readily established that

$$
\begin{align*}
& q_{11}=2 a_{o} k_{n, 1}+b^{2} k_{n, 1}^{2}  \tag{10}\\
& q_{i i}=-2 k_{i-1, i}+2 a_{i-1} k_{n, i}+b^{2} k_{n, i}^{2} ; i=2,3, \ldots, n  \tag{11}\\
& q_{i j}=-k_{1, j-1}+a_{o} k_{n, j}+a_{j-1} k_{n, 1}+b^{2} k_{n, 1} k_{n, j} \\
& j=2,3, \ldots . . n  \tag{12}\\
& q_{i j}=-k_{i, j-1}-k_{i-1, j}+a_{i-1} k_{n, j}+a_{j-1} k_{n, i}+b^{2} k_{n, i} k_{n, j} \\
& i=2,3, \ldots \ldots, n \\
& \mathrm{j}=1,2, \ldots, \mathrm{n} \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $Q$ is diagonal, all $q_{i j}=0$ when $i \neq j$. Then, beginning with equation (12)

$$
\begin{align*}
k_{1, j-1}=a_{o} k_{n, j}+a_{j-1} k_{n, 1}+b^{2} k_{n, 1} k_{n, j} & \\
& j=2,3, \ldots \ldots, n \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

showing that all first row entries in the $K$ matrix can be obtained if the $k_{n, i}$ entries are known, $i=1,2, \ldots \ldots, n$.

Continuing with equation (13), since all the $\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{i}-1, \mathrm{j}}$ are known from the previous row computation, a relation for $k_{i, j-1}$ is obtained

$$
\begin{align*}
k_{i, j-1}=-k_{i-1, j}+a_{i-1} k_{n, j}+a_{j-1} k_{n, i} & +b^{2} k_{n, i} k_{n, j} \\
i & =2,3, \ldots, n \\
j & =1,2, \ldots, n \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

The originally unknown $q_{i i}$ elements are then computed directly from the knowledge of the $K$ matrix obtained via equations (10) and (11).

For example, with $n=3$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k_{11}=a_{o} k_{32}+a_{1} k_{31}+b^{2} k_{31} k_{32} \\
& k_{12}=a_{0} k_{33}+a_{2} k_{31}+b^{2} k_{31} k_{33} \\
& k_{22}=-k_{31}+a_{1} k_{33}+a_{2} k_{32}+b^{2} k_{32} k_{33}
\end{aligned}
$$

Together with the three elements of the $n^{\text {th }}$ row of the $K$ matrix, these define the complete matrix since $K$ is symmetric. And

$$
\begin{aligned}
& q_{11}=2 a_{o} k_{31}+b^{2} k_{31}^{2} \\
& q_{22}=-2 k_{12}+2 a_{1} k_{32}+b^{2} k_{32}^{2} \\
& q_{33}=-2 k_{32}+2 a_{2} k_{33}+b^{2} k_{33}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It is obvious that if $k_{n, i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$, are available, the entire $K$ matrix is readily determined with simple algebra; and solution of the $n(n+1) / 2$ simultaneous nonlinear equations becomes unnecessary. The method of obtaining the $k_{n, i}$ forms the bulk of this research effort.
3.3 Autonomous Form.

$$
\text { Since } \quad u^{*}=-R^{-1} B^{T} K x
$$

for $R=1$, i.e., a scalar control,

$$
u^{*}=-b\left(k_{n 1} x_{1}+k_{n 2} x_{2}+\ldots \ldots+k_{n n} x_{n}\right)
$$

Thus, it is clear that the optimal control $u^{*}$ is a function
of only the $n^{\text {th }}$ row $K$ matrix elements. Substituting in (1)

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=\left(A-B B^{T} K\right) x=G x \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where


Let

$$
p_{i}=a_{i-1}+b^{2} k_{n i}
$$

$$
G=\left[\begin{array}{llllll}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots \ldots \ldots & 0  \tag{18}\\
\cdot & 0 & 1 & 0 & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & 0 & 1 & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & 1 \\
-p_{1} & -p_{2} & -p_{3} & \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots & -p_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

The problem can now be posed as, given the autonomous system

$$
\dot{x}=G x
$$

find the parameters $P_{i}$ so that the quadratic performance index $\cos t$

$$
J\left(t_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{2} x^{T}\left(t_{0}\right) K x\left(t_{0}\right)
$$

is minimized. In this sense the problem becomes one of parameter optimization; and since the parameters are simply and linearly
related to the $k_{n i}$ elements, once the optimum parameters $p_{i}$ have been found, the entire $K$ matrix is known by use of the $K$ matrix algorithm.

Constraints on state variables often exist and preclude a simple choice of $K$ which minimizes the cost J. The following theorem is new proof that the cost $J$ is a Lyapunov function and leads to a general cost minimization criterion which can be used to minimize the cost in any subinterval of $\left[t_{0}, \infty\right]$.

Lemma 2: Given the completely controllable linear time invariant system

$$
\dot{x}=A x+B u
$$

and the cost functional

$$
J=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left[x^{T} Q x+u^{T} R u\right] d t
$$

where $u$ is not constrained and $K$ is a symmetric positive definite matrix satisfying

$$
-K A-A^{T} K+K B R{ }^{-1} B^{T} K-Q=0
$$

Q positive semi-definite and $R$ positive definite, then the matrix $K B\left(R^{-1}\right) T_{B} T_{K}$ is positive definite.

Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Ru} \text { is positive definite by hypothesis } \\
& \mathrm{u}^{*}=-\mathrm{R}^{-1} \mathrm{~B}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Kx} \text { is the optimal control }
\end{aligned}
$$

Substituting,

$$
\begin{aligned}
u^{* T} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{Ru}}^{*} & =-\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{~KB}\left(\mathrm{R}^{-1}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{R}-\mathrm{R}^{-1} \mathrm{~B}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Kx} \\
& =\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{~KB}\left(\mathrm{R}^{-1}\right)^{T_{B} \mathrm{~T}_{K} \mathrm{x}}
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies that the matrix $K B\left(R^{-1}\right) \mathrm{T}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{K}}$ is positive definite. Q.E.D.

Corollary: If $R=1$, and $K$ is the $n \times n$ matrix and

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
b
\end{array}\right]
$$

then the matrix

$$
\left[m_{i j}\right]=\left[k_{i n} k_{n j}\right]
$$

is positive definite.
Proof is by direct substitution of $R$ and $B$ into the result of Lemma 2.

Theorem I:
Given the completely controllable linear time invariant system
and

$$
\dot{x}=A x+B u
$$

$u=-R^{-1} T_{K x}$
$Q$ and $R$ positive definite and $K$ the symmetric positive definite matrix satisfying the steady state Riccati equation

$$
K A+A^{T} K-K B R^{-1} T_{K}+Q=0,
$$

then $x^{T} K x$ defines a Lyapunov function.
Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{T} K x \text { is positive definite by hypothesis } \\
& x^{T} K x=0 \text { if and only if } x=0 \\
& \dot{x}=A x-B R^{-1} B^{T} K x=A-B R^{-1} B^{T} K x x=G x
\end{aligned}
$$

$\frac{d}{d t} x^{T}{ }_{K x}=x^{T}{ }_{K x}+x^{T}{ }_{K x}=(G x)^{T} K x+x^{T} K G x=x^{T} B^{T} K+K G x$

Substituting in the Riccati equation, and since

$$
A=G+B R^{-1_{B} T_{K}}
$$

$$
\mathrm{K} G+\mathrm{BR}^{-1} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{B}} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{K}}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{BR}^{-1} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{B}} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{K}}-\mathrm{KBR}^{-1} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{B}} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{K}}+\mathrm{Q}=0
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K G+G^{T} K+K B\left(R^{-1}\right) T_{B} T^{T}+Q=0 \\
& K G+G^{T} K=-Q-K B\left(R^{-1}\right)^{T} B^{T} K
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $Q$ is positive definite by hypothesis and $K B\left(R^{-1}\right)^{T} B^{T} K$ is positive definite by Lemma 2 , then $K G+G^{T} K$ is negative definite. Since $\frac{d}{d t} x^{T} K x=x^{T} K G+G^{T} K x$ then it follows that $\frac{d}{d t} x^{T} K x$ is negative definite. Since the system is asymptotically stable by hypothesis, then $\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{Kx}$ is a Lyapunov function.
Q.E.D.

It follows that given the constant matrix $K$ and $t_{1}$, $t_{0} \leq t_{1} \leq \infty$, the cost $J_{1}$ for the time interval $\left[t_{0}, t_{1}\right]$ is

$$
J_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left[x^{T}\left(t_{0}\right) K x\left(t_{0}\right)-x^{T}\left(t_{1}\right) K x\left(t_{1}\right)\right]
$$

### 3.4 Minimum Cost Algorithm.

The objective is to find the minimum value of the performance index $J$ subject to the following restrictions:

1) the system $\dot{x}=G x$ is asymptotically stable
2) the weighting matrices $Q$ and $R$ are positive definite
3) the gain matrix $K$ is positive definite
4) the constraints on the state variables are satisfied.

It is convenient to let $t_{1}=\infty$, then

$$
J=\frac{1}{2} x^{T}\left(t_{0}\right) K x\left(t_{o}\right)
$$

For convenience of notation the argument of the state vector wi 11 be dropped, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\frac{1}{2} x^{T} K x \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

It can be readily shown that by expanding (19)

$$
\begin{gathered}
J=\frac{1}{2}\left[k_{11} x_{1}^{2}+k_{22} x_{2}^{2}+\ldots+k_{n n} x_{n}^{2}+2\left(k_{12} x_{1} x_{2}+\ldots+k_{1 n} x_{1} x_{n}+\right.\right. \\
\left.\left.k_{23} x_{2} x_{3}+\ldots .+k_{n-1, n} x_{n-1} x_{n}\right)\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

where the $k_{i j}$ are the elements of the $K$ matrix.
In more compact form

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}} \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{i j} x_{i} x_{j} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

It has been shown earlier that given the completely controllable system

$$
\dot{x}=A x+B u
$$

$u$ a scalar control, $J$ a quadratic cost functional with $Q$ diagonal and positive definite and $R=[1]$, then the positive definite gain matrix which defines the optimal control can be determined from equations (14) and (15). That is, all elements of the $K$ matrix are uniquely determined once the bottom row elements are known. Therefore, $J$ can be found if the vector

$$
\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{N}}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{n} 1}  \tag{21}\\
\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{n} 2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
k_{\mathrm{nn}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

is known.
Since

$$
p_{i}=a_{i-1}+b^{2} k_{n i} ; i=1,2, \ldots \ldots, n
$$

a region in $p$-space of the system $\dot{x}=G x$ can be readily established which assures asymptotic stability by the use of the Routh Criterion, i.e., forming the array from the characteristic equation

$\stackrel{P_{n}}{.}$

Since a zero entry in the first column is not permitted, there will be, in general, $n$ constraints that must be satisfied such that each element in the first column, starting with the second row, must be positive.

The Routh Criterion is used to set bounds on the minimum values of $k_{n i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$. For example, assuming a third order system

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda^{3}+p_{3} \lambda^{2}+p_{2} \lambda+p_{1}=0 \\
& 1 \quad \mathrm{P}_{2} \\
& \mathrm{P}_{3} \quad \mathrm{P}_{1} \\
& \frac{\mathrm{p}_{2} \mathrm{P}_{3}-\mathrm{p}_{1}}{\mathrm{P}_{3}} \quad 0 \\
& { }^{\mathrm{P}} \mathrm{I}_{1} \\
& \text { then } \\
& p_{3}=a_{2}+b^{2} k_{33}>0 \\
& k_{33}>-a_{2} / b^{2} \\
& \mathrm{p}_{1}=\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{b}^{2} \mathrm{k}_{31}>0 \\
& k_{31}>-a_{o} / b^{2} \\
& \mathrm{p}_{2} \mathrm{p}_{3}>\mathrm{p}_{1} \\
& \left(a_{1}+b^{2} k_{32}\right)\left(a_{2}+b^{2} k_{33}\right)>\left(a_{o}+b^{2} k_{31}\right) \\
& k_{32}>1 / b^{2}\left[\frac{a_{0}+b^{2} k_{31}}{a_{2}+b^{2} k_{33}}-a_{1}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

The strict inequalities define open sets so that one must in practice adjust the relationships by choosing $\epsilon_{i}>0$, arbitrarily close to zero, such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \min k_{31}=a_{o} / b^{2}+\epsilon_{1} \\
& \min k_{32}=1 / b^{2}\left[\frac{a_{o}+b^{2} k_{31}}{a_{2}+b^{2} k_{32}}\right]-\frac{a_{1}}{b^{2}}+\epsilon_{2} \\
& \min k_{33}=a_{2} / b^{2}+\varepsilon_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

This is defined as the $\epsilon$-minimal constraint set and may lead to an $\varepsilon$-optimal solution, i.e., there exists a neighborhood, however small, so that if $\tilde{\mathrm{p}}(\epsilon)$ is the $\varepsilon$-optimal parameter solution,
then there exists a $\delta=\|\tilde{p}-\tilde{p}(\epsilon)\|>0$ such that

$$
J(\tilde{p})<J(\tilde{p}(\epsilon)) .
$$

Quite often the designer must obtain the minimum cost optimal solution within a given range of eigenvalues as determined by the desired response of the closed loop system. In this case, the maximum and minimum values of the $k_{n i}$ can be found by the following procedure. Given the eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}$ for an asymptotically stable system then [TUR-1]

$$
\begin{gathered}
p_{n}=-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\ldots \ldots+\lambda_{n}\right) \\
p_{n-1}=\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2}+\ldots \lambda_{1} \lambda_{n}+\lambda_{2} \lambda_{3}+\ldots+\lambda_{2} \lambda_{n}+\ldots\right. \\
\left.+\lambda_{n-1} \lambda_{n}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
p_{1}=(-1)^{n}\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2} \cdots \cdots \lambda_{n}\right)
$$

and $\quad k_{n i}=\left(p_{i}-a_{i-1}\right) / b^{2}$

Criteria for the positive definiteness of the $Q$ matrix are readily established in terms of the $K_{N}$ vector, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{i i}>0 ; & i=1,2, \ldots \ldots, n \\
q_{i j}=0 ; & i, j \\
= & 1,2, \ldots \ldots, n \\
i & =j
\end{aligned}
$$

then equations (10), (11), (12) and (13) yield a set of equations (22) which is defined as the $Q_{i i}$ Criterion.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{q}_{11}=2 \mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{o}}+\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{n} 1}+\mathrm{b}^{2} \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{n} 1}^{2}>0 \\
& \mathrm{q}_{22}=-2 \mathrm{k}_{12}+2 \mathrm{a}_{1} \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{n} 2}+\mathrm{b}^{2} \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{n} 2}^{2}>0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& q_{n-1, n-1}=-2{ }_{n-2, n-1}+2 a_{n-2} k_{n, n-1}+b_{k_{n, n-1}^{2}}^{2}>0 \\
& q_{n n}=-2 k_{n-1, n}+2 a_{n-1} k_{n, n}+b^{2} k_{n, n}^{2}>0 \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

The $Q_{i i}$ Criterion has the effect of a filter which passes only the $K$ matrices that satisfy the constraint that the $Q$ matrix be positive definite. However, it is used in the Minimum Cost Algorithm as a means of generating a succession of $K_{N}$ vectors in a systematic fashion so that the arbitrarily small neighborhood of the absolute minimum of $J$ is located. Computationally, it is convenient to start with the last equation in (22), i.e., start with an initial $k_{n, n}$ and find a satisfactory $k_{n, n-1}$. Having obtained $k_{n, n-1}$, the relationship for $q_{n-1, n-1}$ is used to solve for a satisfactory $k_{n-2, n-1}$. But $k_{n-2, n-1}$ is in general a function of the vector $K_{N}$, therefore, $k_{n, n-2}$ is adjusted until $q_{n-1, n-1}>0$ is satisfied. The process is continued with $q_{n-2, n-2}$, etc. This procedure is flow-charted in Figure 3-1.

### 3.5 Search Procedure.

The solution for an absolute minimum or $\varepsilon$-minimum of $J$ is achieved by the adjustments on the $K_{N}$ vector, as shown in Figure 3-1, within the region defined by the restrictions and


## constraints.

One iterative scheme would be a gradient search using

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
k_{n 1}(i+1)  \tag{23}\\
k_{n 2}(i+1) \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
k_{n n}(i+1)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
k_{n 1}(i) \\
k_{n 2}(i) \\
\\
k_{n n}(i)
\end{array}\right] \begin{aligned}
& -\beta \frac{\nabla J}{\|\nabla J\|}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the constant $\beta$ determines the step size and

$$
\nabla \mathrm{J}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial J}{\partial k_{n 1}}  \tag{24}\\
\frac{\partial J}{\partial k_{n 2}} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{\partial J}{\partial k_{n n}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

For example, assuming $n=3$

$$
J=1 / 2\left[k_{11} x_{1}^{2}+k_{22} x_{2}^{2}-k_{33} x_{3}^{2}+2\left(k_{11} x_{1} x_{2}+k_{13} x_{1} x_{3}+k_{23} x_{2} x_{3}\right)\right]
$$

Using equations (14) and (15)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& J=1 / 2\left[\left(a_{0} k_{32}+a_{1} k_{31}+b^{2} k_{31} k_{32}\right) x_{1}^{2}+\left(-k_{31}+a_{1} k_{33}+a_{2} k_{32}+\right.\right. \\
& \left.\quad b^{2} k_{32} k_{33}\right) x_{2}^{2}+k_{33} x_{3}^{2}+2 k_{31} x_{1} x_{3}+2 k_{23} x_{2} x_{3}+2\left(a_{o} k_{33}+a_{2} k_{31}+\right. \\
& \left.\left.\quad b^{2} k_{31} k_{33}\right) x_{1} x_{2}\right] \\
& \frac{\partial J}{\partial k_{31}}=1 / 2\left[\left(a_{1}+b^{2} k_{32}\right) x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right]+x_{1} x_{3}+\left(a_{2}+b^{2} k_{33}\right) x_{1} x_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It is useful to know that there are initial conditions $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ such that if the gradient $\nabla J=0$ exists, it defines a unique vector $K_{N}$. Using equations (10) through (15) in equation (20)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla \mathrm{J}=\mathrm{b}^{2} \mathrm{MK}_{\mathrm{N}}-\mathrm{F} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

that is, $M$ is a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix with zero entries on the diagonal.

$$
F=\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{1}\left(a_{i}, \tilde{x}\right) \\
f_{2}\left(a_{i}, \tilde{x}\right) \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
f_{n}\left(a_{i}, \tilde{x}\right)
\end{array}\right] \quad ; \quad i=0,1,2, \ldots, n-1
$$

If $\nabla J=0$, then equation (25) becomes

$$
\mathrm{MK}_{\mathrm{N}}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{~b}^{2}} \mathrm{~F}
$$

and if $M$ is nonsingular then the vector $K_{N}$ can be uniquely obtained for a given system from the initial conditions. Under these conditions if $K_{N}$ is not in the region of interest then there exist no extrema in the region of search and the minimum of $J$ should be on the boundary of the search region.

Unfortunately, if $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{N}}$ lies within the region of interest nothing can be said in general about this extremal, if it exists, since sufficiency conditions for a minimum or a maximum cannot be satisfied. To show this

Since the $m_{11}$ element of the $M$ matrix is always zero, it is clear that $M$ can never be positive or negative definite; and, therefore, the sufficiency condition for a maximum or a minimum cannot be satisfied. In fact, it is possible for $K_{N}$ to be a saddle point.

One disadvantage with the gradient method is that the computer program becomes quite involved for the general case which includes the possibility of $M$ being singular. On the other hand, because of the simplicity of the function to be minimized and because the region of search is easily defined, it has been possible to prepare a simple digital computer program based on the exhaustive search technique that is extremely fast and very satisfactory. For example, the neighborhood of the absolute minimum of a third order system was obtained with sufficient accuracy in about one minute on an IBM 1800 computer, most of the time being consumed by the printer. Adequate resolution was obtained after four successive contractions of the search region.

The procedure is summarized as follows:

1. Determine the maximum and minimum $k_{n i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$, and use as input to the computer program;
2. Choose $\alpha_{i}, 0<\alpha_{i}<1$, to increment $k_{n i}$, i.e.,

$$
\Delta k_{n i}=\alpha_{i}\left[\max _{n i}-\min k_{n i}\right]
$$

It has been found that $\alpha_{i}=0.1$ gives satisfactory results and has been incorporated in the computer program;
3. Starting with the $n$-tuple $\left[\max k_{n 1}, \max k_{n 2}, \ldots, \max k_{n n}\right]$ use the scheme in Figure 3-1 until the whole region is scanned; 4. Determine the minimum $J$ obtained from Step 3 and form a neighborhood about the corresponding $K_{N}$ in $K_{N}$-space that includes the absolute minimum of $J$. This contracted region now defines new maxima and minima for the $k_{n i}$;
5. Repeat Steps 3 and 4 until the desired accuracy in locating
the minimum of $J$ is achieved;
6. If the value obtained in Step 5 is such that all state variable constraints are satisfied, then this is the desired solution to the minimization problem.

In general, the above procedure does not yield a solution where the state variable constraints are satisfied. To implement the search for this solution a special constraint function has been developed which forms the basis of a hybrid computer program that complements the Minimum Cost Algorithm program.

### 3.6 Constraint Function.

Any type of constraint function is acceptable providing it can be formulated in mathematical terms and at the same time reflects a measure of "goodness" with respect to a physically meaningful criterion. For example, Kalman [KAL-3] discusses the Lyapunov function of a stable system as useful in evaluating transient response. Thus, given a constraint in terms of "Lyapunov distance" from the origin in state space as a function of time, an upper bound can be found and invoked as criterion of goodness.

If $V(x, t)$ is some Lyapunov function, then

$$
\dot{V}(x, t)=\frac{\dot{V}(x, t)}{V(x, t)} V(x, t) \leq c V(x, t)
$$

where $c$ is a suitably chosen constant. Then by a well-known Lemma [BEL-1]

$$
V(x, t) \leq \exp \left[-c\left(t-t_{0}\right)\right] V\left(x_{0}, t_{0}\right)
$$

It has been shown that the matrices $P$ and $H$ exist for $a$
time invariant system such that $P$ and $H$ are symmetric and positive definite and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V(x)=x^{T} P x \\
& \dot{V}(x)=-x^{T} H x
\end{aligned}
$$

Kalman continues, showing that if $\lambda_{\min }$ is the minimumeigenvalue of the matrix $\mathrm{HP}^{-1}$, then

$$
\mathrm{c}=\lambda_{\min }
$$

Thus, the Lyapunov distance is bounded by a function of the longest time constant. Such a bound is not new in the field of differential equations [CES-1].

It is well known that the characteristic equation for the $G$ matrix in equation (16) is

$$
\lambda^{n}+p_{n} \lambda^{n-1}+\ldots \cdots \cdots+p_{2} \lambda+p_{1}=0
$$

As shown previously,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{n}=-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\ldots \ldots+\lambda_{n}\right)=0 \\
& p_{n-1}=\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2}+\lambda_{1} \lambda_{3}+\ldots+\lambda_{1} \lambda_{n}+\lambda_{2} \lambda_{3}+\ldots \ldots+\lambda_{n-1} \lambda_{n}\right) \\
& \cdot \\
& \cdot \\
& p_{1}=(-1)^{n}\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2} \cdots \cdots \lambda_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and, therefore, there exists a direct relationship between the eigenvalues of $G$ and the parameters $P_{i}$. However, it is quite possible for a reasonable change in $P_{i}$ to have a relatively small effect on the minimum eigenvalue; and there could be regions in p-space such that the criterion based on $\lambda_{\min }$ may be too
conservative, i.e., relatively insensitive.
In contrast to the minimum eigenvalue type of constraint, a constraint based on maximum allowable state variable excursion is usually a well-known value. The designer is well aware of the limitations such as maximum acceleration, stress, etc. It is this type of constraint that has been chosen:

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{i}(\max ) \geq x_{i}(t) \geq x_{i}(\min ) ; \text { all } t \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

The constraint region defined by equation (26) is still not in a completely satisfactory form since it only provides upper and lower bounds on the constrained state variables. While it reduces the region of search, it still represents an uncountable number of solutions. The search for the best solution within the constraint region is made possible by changing equation (26) from an inequality constraint to an equality constraint. To implement this need, a constraint function $C$ is defined which serves as a test function that senses the deviation and the direction of the deviation from the constraint bounds. In its structure the function is similar to the penalty functions used in adjoining to the performance index $J$ in conventional optimal control design involving constraints.

Define

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{i}= & {\left[x_{i}(\max )-x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)\right]\left[x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)-x_{i}(\min )\right] } \\
& t_{i} \ni\left|x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)\right| \geq x_{i}(t) ; t_{i}, t \in\left[t_{0}, T\right] \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

Then it is clear that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{i} \geq 0 \text { if } x_{i}(\max ) \geq x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right) \geq x_{i}(\min ) \\
& h_{i}<0 \text { if } x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)>x_{i}(\max ) \text { or } x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)<x_{i}(\min )
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $H$ be a function of $h_{i}$ such that

$$
H\left(h_{i}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
0 & \text { if } & h_{i} \geq 0  \tag{28}\\
1 & \text { if } & h_{i}<0
\end{array}\right.
$$

if at least one state variable exceeds its bounds .
Let $H$ be function of $h_{i}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H\left(h_{i}\right)=1 ; i \in l \leq n \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

if all the state variables lie at or inside their respective constraints and $\ell$ defines a subspace of $E^{n}$ which contains the constrained state variables.

A constraint function $C$ is formed such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
C=\sum_{i \in l}\left[x_{i}(\max )-x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)\right]\left[x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)-x_{i}(\min )\right] H\left(h_{i}\right) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is used to test the solution obtained with the Minimum Cost Algorithm for constraint violation; and if the constraints are violated, it is used to obtain a new estimate for the $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{N}}$ vector such that all constraints are satisfied.

### 3.6.1 Geometric Interpretation.

Assume that $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{i}}$ and $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{j}}$ are two constrained state variables. Expanding equation (27),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{i}=-x_{i}^{2}\left(t_{i}\right)+\left[x_{i}(\max )+x_{i}(\min )\right] x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)-x_{i}(\max ) x_{i}(\min ) \\
& h_{j}=-x_{j}^{2}\left(t_{j}\right)+\left[x_{j}(\max )+x_{j}(\min )\right] x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right)-x_{j}(\max ) x_{j}(\min )
\end{aligned}
$$

Each of the $h$-functions represents a parabola as shown in Figure 3-2 with its maximum value occurring at

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=\frac{x_{i}(\max )+x_{i}(\min )}{2} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the C-Function represents the sum of two parabolas in $x_{i} \times x_{j} \times R \quad$ space, it can be readily visualized as shown in Figure 3-3. The shaded region represents the surface of allowable solutions, $C \geq 0$. This surface meets the plane $C=0$ at exactly four points $a, b, c$ and $d$ which define the four minima. Below the plane $C=0$, the surface $C<0$ is a paraboloid truncated at the top by the circle $a, b, c, d$ in the plane $C=0$.


Figure 3-2
$h_{i}$ Function


Figure 3-3
C-Function in Two-Space

Theorem II:
Given the constraint function

$$
\begin{gathered}
C=\sum_{i \in l}\left[x_{i}(\max )-x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)\right]\left[x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)-x_{i}(\min )\right] H\left(h_{i}\right) \\
\quad x_{i}(\max ) \geq x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right) \geq x_{i}(\min )
\end{gathered}
$$

where $l$ is the number of constrained state variables, $l \leq n$,
$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}$ and $\frac{\partial{ }^{2} C}{\partial x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right) \partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}, i, j \in \ell$, exist and are continuous, then $C$ has at most $2^{\ell}$ minima, all of which occur at $C=0$. Proof:

Clearly, if $x_{i}(\max ) \geq x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right) \geq x_{i}(\min )$ then

$$
h_{i}=\left[x_{i}(\max )-x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)\right]\left[x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)-x_{i}(\min )\right] \geq 0
$$

but $h_{i}=0$ if and only if either $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=x_{i}(\max )$ or
$x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=x_{i}(\min )$. If $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)>x_{i}(\max )$ or $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)<x_{i}(\min )$
then $h_{i}<0$ and these $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)$ are not allowable.
Since all $H\left(h_{i}\right)=1, i \in \ell$,

$$
C=\sum_{i \in l} h_{i}
$$

then $C=0$ if either each $h_{i}=0$ or some $h_{i}<0$.
But $h_{i}<0$ implics $x_{i}(\max ) \geq x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right) \geq x_{i}(\min )$ does not hold.
Therefore, $C=0$ if and only if each $h_{i}=0$.
Then the number of ways that $C$ can be zero is the number of
ways that $\sum_{i \in l} h_{i}=0$ holds.
Since each $h_{i}$ can be zero in two ways, then $\sum_{i \in l} h_{i}$ can be zero in at most $2^{\ell}$ ways.

Since $C<0$ is not allowable, then the zeros of $C$ correspond
to the minima of $C$ when all $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right), i \in \ell$, attain one of their respective bounds. Therefore, $C$ can have at most $2^{\ell}$ minima when $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=x_{i}(\max )$ or $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=x_{i}($ min $)$.
To show no other minima of $C$ exist inside the constraint region: the necessary condition for an extremum is that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}=0, i \in l \\
\frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}=\frac{\partial h_{i}}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}=-2 x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)+\left[x_{i}(\max )+x_{i}(\min )\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

implies $\quad x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=\frac{x_{i}(\max )+x_{i}(\min )}{2}$ at extremum, i.e., each $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)$ corresponding to an extremum is unique since $x_{i}$ (max) and $x_{i}(\mathrm{~min})$ are unique. These extrema then correspond to a unique maximum for $C$ since

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\partial^{2} C}{\partial x_{i}^{2}\left(t_{i}\right)}=-2<0 \\
\frac{\partial^{2} C}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right) \partial x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right)}=\frac{\partial^{2} C}{\partial x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right) \lambda x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}=0, i \neq j
\end{gathered}
$$

i.e., the $\ell \times \ell$ matrix
is negative definite. Therefore, all the minima of $C$ occur at $C=0$ when constraints are invoked.
Q.E.D.

### 3.6.2 C-Function Iterative Procedure.

In the event that the parameter solution obtained by the Minimum Cost Algorithm is such that at least one of the state variable constraints is violated, then it is necessary to adjust the $\tilde{p}$ vector; and the C-Function provides a satisfactory means. Given $C<0$, the objective is to develop a convergent iterative procedure so that successive estimates of the parameter vector $\widetilde{p}$ yield a solution for $C=0$. Clearly, this solution yields a cost $J_{c}$ which is an upper bound for the desired solution.

Since the iteration is on $\tilde{p}$, it is necessary to transform the C-Function into p-space. The gradient of $C$ in $x$-space is defined by the $\ell \times 1$ vector

$$
\nabla_{x} C=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}  \tag{32}\\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right)}
\end{array}\right] \quad, i, j \in \ell
$$

while in $p$-space it is defined as the $n \times 1$ vector

$$
\nabla_{p} C=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial C}{\partial p_{1}}  \tag{33}\\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{\partial C}{\partial p_{n}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)=f_{i}\left[p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n}, x_{i}\left(t_{o}\right)\right]$ if the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial p_{j}}$ exist, then
$\nabla_{p} C=\left[\begin{array}{lll}\frac{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial p_{1}} & \ldots \ldots \ldots & \frac{\partial x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right)}{\partial P_{1}} \\ \cdot & \\ \cdot & \frac{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial p_{n}} & \\ \frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}\frac{\left.\partial t_{j}\right)}{} \\ \frac{\partial C}{\partial x_{j}\left(t_{j}\right)}\end{array}\right]$
$=S \nabla_{x} C$
In the computation scheme it was assumed that these partial derivatives exist and successive estimates of $\tilde{p}$ were obtained using equation (34). However, in the event that these derivatives do not exist -- and this can happen, it will be shown -- special measures have been incorporated in the program to allow the iteration to continue to a solution. A more detailed discussion is presented in the following section of this chapter.

It is common practice to define the partial derivative $\frac{\partial x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial P_{m}}$ as the sensitivity of state variable $x_{i}$ to the parameter
$P_{m}$ at $t=t_{i}$. Thus, the $S$ matrix in equation (34) may be defined as the sensitivity matrix of the system. Following the development on sensitivity analysis in Chapter II,

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial x_{1}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial P_{m}}  \tag{35}\\
\frac{\partial x_{2}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial P_{m}} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{\partial x_{3}\left(t_{i}\right)}{\partial p_{m}}
\end{array}\right]=-\epsilon^{G t} \int_{t_{o}}^{t_{i}} \epsilon^{-G T} B x_{m}(千) \mathrm{d} \tau
$$

In the hybrid computer implementation of the parameter search, equation (35) is solved repeatedly on the analog computer at the various times $t_{i}, t_{j}$, etc. until the entire $S$ matrix is determined.

An iterative algorithm for the C-Function search must in the least indicate the direction in which the $\tilde{\mathrm{p}}$ vector must be changed for a closer estimate to the solution. The gradient $\nabla_{\mathrm{P}} \mathrm{C}$ obviously has this characteristic. This leads to the steepest ascent or descent scheme [PER-1], [KEL-1], [BEK-1]

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\tilde{p}(i+1)=\tilde{p}(i)+\alpha \frac{\nabla_{p} C(i)}{\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|} & \text { (maximization) } \\
\tilde{p}(i+1)=\tilde{p}(i)-\alpha \frac{\nabla_{p} C(i)}{\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|} & \text { (minimization) } \tag{37}
\end{array}
$$

where $\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|$ is the Euclidean norm of the gradient vector
at the $i^{\text {th }}$ iteration and $\alpha$ is a constant that determines the step size and is usually obtained empirically. The determination of $\alpha$ is usually a part of a "cut and try" loop within the iterative procedure since it depends on the dynamics of the particular system, i.e., the rate at which the gradient may be changing. It is obvious that an iterative procedure that not only senses the direction but also provides an estimate of the required step size is highly desirable. This indeed is the basic appeal of the Newton-Raphson [PER-1], [BEK-1] method.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widetilde{p}(i+1)=\widetilde{p}(i)-\frac{C(i) \nabla_{p} C(i)}{\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|^{2}} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

It has further advantage of quadratic convergence. However, care must be exercised in case $\nabla_{p} C(i) \rightarrow 0$.

Both the gradient and a modified version of the NewtonRaphson methods are used in the C-Function algorithm to take advantage of both procedures. The Newton-Raphson method in equation (38) is modified to include a step size constant $\gamma$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{p}(i+1)=\tilde{p}(i)-\gamma \frac{C(i) \nabla_{p} C(i)}{\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|^{2}} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

which has been found to be very helpful in

1) stabilizing any effects due to discontinuities induced by $t_{i}$;
2) overcoming the inherent accuracy limitations, particularily near $C=0$, of an analog computer when measuring the $S$ matrix elements.

In summary, the entire computational procedure is outlined in Figure 3-4. The initial region defined by $\max K_{N}$ and $\min K_{N}$
is searched for the global quadratic cost minimum, $J_{G}$, by the Minimum Cost Algorithm. The $K$ matrix corresponding to an arbitrarily close estimate of $J_{G}$ is checked for state variable constraint violations. If all constraints are satisfied, then this is the desired solution and the search is ended. If one or more state variable constraints are violated then the C-Function Algorithm is used to obtain the $C=0$ solution, thus defining a $K$ matrix such that all constraints are satisfied and a corresponding quadratic cost $J_{C}$ which is clearly an upper bound for the desired solution. Using the same search region, increment $K_{N}$ in the fashion described in Section 3.5, comparing the cost $J(i)$ at each point with $J_{C}$. If $J(i)$ is greater than $J_{C}$ then continue search; but if $J(i)$ is less than $J_{C}$, check state variable constraints. If constraints are violated continue search; but if constraints are satisfied then $J(i)$ becomes the new (lower) upper bound. After the entire region is scanned, the entire process may be repeated for a closer estimate to the desired solution by choosing the smaller region obtained from the results of the previous search.

The detailed computational description of the Minimum Cost and C-Function Algorithms is covered in Chapter IV.

### 3.6.3 Discontinuity in p-Space.

The parameter search is based on measurements made at $t_{i}$, $i \in l, t_{o} \leq t_{i} \leq T$, when $x_{i}(t)$ attains its maximum magnitude as shown in Figure 3-5. If $x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)$ exceeds the constraint an adjustment is made in $\tilde{p}$. It is not uncommon that in
adjusting $\tilde{p}$ to decrease the amplitude of peak 1 , peak 2 may become the dominant one as shown in Figure 3-6, resulting in a sudden jump in the value of $t_{i}$ and a discontinuity in $\nabla_{p} C$. Safeguards are incorporated in the computer program so that in this case:

1) possible oscillation of the solution between peak 1 and peak 2 is quickly "damped" out by the step size constant $\gamma$ in equation (39). The programming details will be described in Chapter IV, and an example of an actual case will be shown in Chapter V.
2) the peak closest to its constraint is chosen automatically as the solution after a finite number of iterations.


Figure 3-4
Algorithm to Obtain the Minimum Cost $K$ Matrix


Figure 3-5
Peak 1 Dominant


Figure 3-6
Peak 2 Dominant

## CHAPTER IV

## COMPUTER IMPLEMENTATION

The application of the concepts presented in the previous chapter generated a digital computer program for the Minimum Cost Algorithm and an hybrid program for the C-Function Algorithm. The computational details as well as the various procedures are described in this chapter.

### 4.1 Minimum Cost Algorithm Program.

This digital computer program locates the arbitrarily small neighborhood of the absolute minimum of

$$
J=1 / 2 x^{T}\left(t_{0}\right) K x\left(t_{0}\right)
$$

by adjusting the $K_{N}$ vector within the constraints imposed by the Routh and the $Q_{i i}$ Criteria. Basically, an exhaustive search procedure is used, but the program has been written so that a gradient search can be readily implemented if desired. As mentioned in Chapter III, the exhaustive search approach is practicable because of the simplicity of the function to be minimized and because the region of search can usually be identified readily.

In respect to region identification, the initial search region is the hypercube in n-space, each "side" of which is equal to

$$
\left[\max k_{n i}-\min k_{n j}\right] ; i=1,2, \ldots, n
$$

This defines a vector

$$
\max k_{N}=\left[\max _{n 1} k_{n}, \max k_{n 2}, \ldots \ldots \ldots, \max k_{n n}\right]
$$

which is chosen such that if the vector

$$
\left[k_{n 1}^{*}, k_{n 2}^{*}, \ldots \ldots, k_{n n}^{*}\right]
$$

corresponds to the absolute minimum of J , then

$$
\mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{ni}}^{*} \leq \max \mathrm{k}_{\mathrm{ni}} ; i=1,2, \ldots \ldots, n
$$

A starting value for $\max \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{N}}$ can be readily obtained by either invoking the relationships between the eigenvalues and the $k_{n i}$ in the case a range of acceptable eigenvalues is available to the designer, or using the C-Function Algorithm and a "large enough" $K_{N}$ guess.

The method of choosing a $\min K_{N}$ vector

$$
\min K_{N}=\left[\min k_{n 1}, \min k_{n 2}, \ldots \ldots, \min k_{n n}\right]
$$

was discussed in Chapter III.
One of the advantages to the exhaustive search procedure is that successive contractions of the search region can be readily identified and easily implemented within the computer program.

In the interest of clarity, a computer program for a third order system will be described. Extension to any $n^{\text {th }}$ order system follows directly and presents no computational difficulties. The flow chart for this program is shown in Figures 4-1(a), (b), (c), (d), (e) and (f), and the listing is contained in Appendix A.


Figure 4-1 (a)
Minimum Cost Program



Figure 4-1 (c)
Minimum Cost Program (con't.)


Figure 4-1 (d)
Minimum Cost Program (con't.)



Figure 4-1(f)

### 4.1.1 Incrementation.

The exhaustive search procedure requires incrementing each element $k_{n i}$ of the $K_{N}$ vector. In this program incrementation proceeds on the basis of

$$
\Delta k_{n i}=\alpha_{i}\left[\max k_{n i}-\min k_{n i}\right]
$$

Although $\alpha_{i}$ may be any value such that $0<\alpha_{i}<1$, satisfactory results are obtained by setting $\alpha_{i}=0.1$. Since the $Q_{i i}$ Criterion defines an open set, not all the values in the hypercube defined by $\max K_{N}$ and $\min K_{N}$ will be attained; but it is of interest to note that a lower bound is automatically obtained from

$$
k_{n i}>k_{n i}\left(Q_{i i}\right)-\alpha_{i}\left[\max _{n i}-\min k_{n i}\right]
$$

where $k_{n i}\left(Q_{i i}\right)$ is the minimum value of $k_{n i}$ which satisfies the $Q_{i i}$ and Routh Criteria.

### 4.1.2 Computation.

The computation is initiated by starting with the $n$-tuple $\left[\max k_{n 1}, \max k_{n 2}, \ldots . ., \max k_{n n}\right.$ ] A slight modification has been incorporated in this program which expedites the search: the search is begun with the $(n-1)$-tuple $\left[\max k_{32}\right.$, max $k_{33}$ ] and an initial value for $\max k_{31}$ based on the Routh Criterion

$$
\max k_{31}=\frac{\left(a{ }_{1}+b^{2} k_{32}\right)\left(a{ }_{2}+b^{2} k_{33}\right)-a_{o}}{b^{2}}-0.0001
$$

where $\epsilon_{1}=0.0001$ is used to assure a strict inequality in the Routh Criterion.

An initial $K$ matrix is computed using the algorithm described in Chapter III and used to determine an initial cost J. The $Q_{i i}$ Criterion is then invoked

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{11} & =2 a_{0} k_{31}+b^{2} k_{31}^{2}>0 \\
q_{33} & =-2 k_{32}+2 a_{2} k_{33}+b^{2} k_{33}^{2}>0 \\
q_{22} & =-2 k_{12}+2 a_{1} k_{32}+b^{2} k_{32}^{2}>0 \\
& =-2\left(a_{0} k_{33}+a_{2} k_{31}+b^{2} k_{31} k_{33}\right)+2 a_{1} k_{32}+b^{2} k_{32}^{2}>0
\end{aligned}
$$

incrementing $k_{33}, k_{32}$, and $k_{31}$ in that order until the criterion is satisfied. Next, the Routh Criterion is used to check for stability and the $k_{n i}$ adjusted as necessary.

If both criteria are satisfied, $\nabla J$ and $\|\nabla J\|$ are computed. At this point the new estimate for $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{N}}$ may be computed using either the gradient or the exhaustive search methods. In this program the choice was made to use a modified exhaustive search procedure where $k_{32}$ and $k_{33}$ are incremented with $\Delta k_{32}$ and $\Delta k_{33}$, respectively, but $k_{31}$ is incremented using

$$
k_{31}(i+1)=k_{31}(i)-\beta \frac{\frac{\partial J}{\partial k_{31}}}{\|\nabla J\|}
$$

This procedure further expedites the search; and for the example used, $\|\nabla J\| \neq 0$ in the region of interest.

The new cost $J(i+1)$ is compared to $J(i)$, and if the former is smaller, $K_{N}(i+1)$ and $J(i+1)$ are stored, $k_{32}$ incremented and the process repeated until $k_{32}<\min k_{32}$. This is followed by incrementing $k_{33}$, etc., until the whole region is scanned.

If $J(i+1)$ is greater than or equal to $J(i)$, then the step size $\beta$ is decreased

$$
\beta(i+1)=1 / 2 \beta(i)
$$

until a lower cost is achieved or until a fixed number (20) of adjustments in $B$ are exceeded.

After the entire region is scanned, a new contracted region containing within it the minimum $J$ is identified, and the whole program repeated until the desired resolution in identifying minimum $J$ is obtained.

### 4.2 C-Function Algorithm Program.

The hybrid computer program configuration consists of an IBM 1800 digital computer and an Applied Dynamics AD 4 analog computer. The IBM 1800 is used primarily to control the logic and for algebraic computations while the AD 4 is used for analog signal sensing and solving the differential equations. It is clear that numerical techniques, such as the Runge-Kutta, could be substituted with a resulting all-digital configuration, sacrificing computation speed for accuracy. The Fortran program is written for a general $n^{\text {th }}$ order system with $\ell$ state variable constraints. The flow charts in Figures 4-2(a), (b) and (c) show the hybrid system and the program listing is contained in Appendix B.

### 4.2.1 Criteria Checks.

Every new estimate of the $\tilde{p}$ vector is checked to assure that the system $\dot{\mathrm{x}}=\mathrm{Gx}$ is asymptotically stable and the resulting


Figure 4-2(a)


Figure 4-2(b)
C-Function Program (con't.)


Figure 4-2 (c)
C-Function Program (con't.)
|
$K$ matrix is positive definite. The program determines the Routh array and checks each entry in the first column whether it is positive. The Hayes [HAY-1] algorithm is incorporated within the program to check the positive definiteness of the $K$ matrix. Since violations of either criterion will be due usually to some pathological condition, the program stops in case of a violation and prints the violation.

### 4.2.2 Analog Computation

The analog computation, shown by the dashed-line box in Figure 4-2 (a), has three basic operations requiring $2 n+1$ integrators: $n$ integrators for the solution of $\dot{x}=G x ; n$ integrators for the sensitivity analysis; and one integrator for signal timing. The analog connection diagram is shown for a third order system with a single state variable constraint in Figures 4-3(a), (b) and (c). It can, of course, be readily generalized to any $n^{\text {th }}$ order system with $l$ state variable constraints.

The system solution operation is shown in Figure 4-3(a). The primary function is to solve the differential equation

$$
\dot{x}=G x ; x\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0}
$$

The servo-set potentiometers $P_{1}, P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ are set with each successive iteration of the $\tilde{p}$ vector so that the final parameter solution is represented by these potentiometer settings. The analog signals representing $x_{1}, x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$ are transferred to the digital computer via analog trunk lines TA 16 , TA 15 and TA 10, respectively.


Figure 4-3(a)
Solution of $\dot{\mathrm{x}}=\mathrm{Gx}$


Figure 4-3(b)


Figure 4-3(c)
Analog Logic Control

The sensitivity analysis required to obtain the $S$ matrix, equation (34) in Chapter III, is performed by the three integrators in Figure 4-3(b). This configuration is essentially a duplicate of the system solution configuration with the exception that the system is forced, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial x_{1}}{\partial P_{j}} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{\partial x_{n}}{\partial P_{j}}
\end{array}\right]=-\epsilon^{G t}{ }_{i} \int_{t_{o}}^{t} \epsilon^{-G \tau} B x_{j}(千) d \tau} \\
& B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
1
\end{array}\right] \quad ; \quad\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial x_{1}\left(t_{0}\right)}{\partial p_{j}} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{\partial x_{n}\left(t_{o}\right)}{\partial p_{j}}
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\tilde{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

The analog signals corresponding to $\frac{\partial x_{1}}{\partial p_{j}}, \frac{\partial x_{2}}{\partial p_{j}}$ and $\frac{\partial x_{3}}{\partial p_{j}}$
are transferred to the digital computer via analog trunk lines TS 12, TA 13, and TA 14, respectively. An additional amplifier was found useful when small signal levels were encountered, particularily for the constrained variable $x_{3}$. Compensation for this "scaling" was made in the digital program.

The signal sensing and timing functions were performed by comparators C1, C2 and C3, an OR gate and an integrator shown in Figure 4-3(c). The basic function is to determine the maximum
amplitude of each constrained state variable in the time interval $\left[t_{0}, T\right]$ and the corresponding time $t_{i}$. The finaltime $T$ is preselected to be greater than the largest time constant in the system.

The first three peaks of each constrained state variable are observed by sensing the derivative of the variable as it goes through zero. In Figure 4-3(c), this function is performed by comparator C 1 for $\mathrm{x}_{3}$. The procedure is as follows: switch S is set so that with the given initial conditions the first peak of $x_{3}$ is sensed and its value transferred to the digital computer via analog trunk line TA 10 ; simultaneously, the time at which this occurs is observed by monitoring analog trunk line TA 11; these values are stored and switch $S$ is changed to the opposite polarity signal and the procedure repeated twice, each time storing $x_{3}$ and $t_{i}$. The digital computer program then evaluates these signals and chooses the pair $\left[x_{3}, t_{i}\right]$ corresponding to the largest magnitude of $x_{3}$ which is then used in computing the C-Function and in the sensitivity analysis. Ordinarily, switching of switch $S$ would be under the control of the digital program, but equipment limitations necessitated manual control.

Comparator C 2 controls the total integrator running time which is pre-selected by potentiometer T. Both C1 and C2 are enabled simultaneously by a logic signal transferred from the digital computer via digital trunk line TD 21.

Potentiometer $t_{i}$ is servo-set and comparator C3 then controls the integration interval of the sensitivity circuit. All three comparators and a logic signal from the digital computer via digital trunk line TD 27 feed into an $O R$ gate so that any one
of these signals places all integrators into the "Hold" mode. Simultancously, the digital program is signalled of a "Hold" condition by digital trunk line TD 10. Comparator C 3 is enabled by digital trunk line TD 20 from the digital computer. All three comparators have a common initialization, E-CMPK, controlled by digital trunk line TD 22.

Digital trunk lines TD 23, TD 24 , and TD 25 switch the forcing inputs required for the sensitivity analysis. Digital trunk line TD 26 controls the "operate" mode of all integrators, and a logic 'O" on both TD 26 and TD 27 is used for the "IC" mode.

Summarizing, for each iteration on $\tilde{p}$ the system $\dot{x}=G x$, Figure 4-3(a), is run once for each of the $\ell$ constrained variables to obtain the maximum amplitudes and the corresponding $t_{i}$ 's. Then for each $t_{i}$ the sensitivity computation, Figure 4-3(b), is run $n$ times. This corresponds to $\ell(1+n)$ total analog runs. In the case of the third order system with a single constrained state variable, a total of four analog runs are required for each iteration.
4.2.3 C Computation.

This digital computation is straightforward, using

$$
C=\sum_{i \not f l}\left[x_{i}(\max )-x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)\right]\left[x_{i}\left(t_{i}\right)-x_{i}(\min )\right] H\left(h_{i}\right) .
$$

### 4.2.4 $\tilde{\mathrm{p}}$ Estimation.

Both the Newton-Raphson and the gradient iteration schemes are incorporated in the digital program. Initially, the search for a parameter solution utilizes the modified Newton-Raphson
algorithm

$$
\tilde{p}(1+1)=\tilde{p}(i)-\gamma \frac{\nabla_{p} C(i)}{\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|^{2}}
$$

The step size coefficient $Y$ was found very useful in preventing oscillation, particularily near $C=0$ because of the accuracy limitations imposed by the analog computer. In the program, $C(i+1)$ is compared to $C(i)$ and if it is smaller, the NewtonRaphson scheme with $\gamma=1$ is continued; but if $C(i+1)$ is larger, the smaller $C(i)$ is stored while $Y$ is adjusted by successive halving until either $C(i+1)$ becomes smaller than $C$ (i) or $Y<0.004$. The latter limit was determined by experiment to be consistent with the accuracy limitations of the analog computer. At all times the smallest value of $C$ and the corresponding $\tilde{p}$ vector are stored.

To insure safeguards in the event $\nabla_{p} C \rightarrow 0$, the search automatically switches into the gradient procedure

$$
\tilde{p}(i+1)=\tilde{p}(i) \pm \alpha \frac{\nabla_{p} C(i)}{\left\|\nabla_{p} C(i)\right\|}
$$

every time $Y$ becomes less than 0.004 . The step size coefficient $\alpha$ is determined by successive halving as in the case of $\gamma$. When $\alpha$ becomes less than 0.004 , the $K$ matrix is computed for parameter vector $\tilde{p}$ corresponding to the solution closest to $C=0$. The vector $K_{N}$ obtained from the bottom row of the $K$ matrix yields the desired feedback coefficients.

In the event that $\nabla_{p} C \rightarrow 0$ faster than $C \rightarrow 0$, then it is possible that the procedure will not continue to the solution

$$
1
$$

at $C=0$. In this case, after a finite number of iterations, the program automatically switches to the gradient method; and the extremum is located in terms of the $\tilde{\mathrm{p}}_{\mathrm{e}}$ vector. The user can then choose a new starting $\tilde{p}$ vector sufficiently far away from $\tilde{\mathrm{P}}_{\mathrm{e}}$ and in the direction of $\mathrm{C}=0$ and continue with a new search using the C-Function Algorithm.

## EXAMPLES

A problem of current interest is that of automatic spacing of vehicles in a single lane, i.e., longitudinal control of a vehicle $[$ ATH-3], $[F E N-1],[M I K-1]$. Assuming a given desired spacing between two vehicles, the objective is to design an optimal control that would accelerate or decelerate the following vehicle to maintain the desired headway distance and velocity relative to the lead vehicle. The vehicles chosen for this example are assumed to be conventional automobiles.

B lackwe 11 [BLA-1] has shown that the longitudional dynamics of a typical automobile may be quite accurately approximated by a simple transfer function of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{V(s)}{e(s)}=\frac{\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{T}}{s+a} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $s$ is the usual Laplace complex variable
$V$ is the vehicle velocity
e is the throttle position
$\mathrm{k}=\frac{\mathrm{k}_{1}}{\mathrm{k}_{2}}-\frac{1}{+}-$
$k_{1}$ is the ratio of rear wheel traction force to throttle position
$k_{2}$ is the ratio of rear wheel traction force to vehicle speed
$k_{3}$ is the ratio of road load to vehicle speed
$T=t$ ime constant $=\frac{M_{e}}{k_{2}+k_{3}}$
$a=1 / T$
$M_{e}=$ effective mass of the vehicle
Actually, equation (1) represents the small-signal transfer function since $k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3}$ and $M_{e}$ are not constants over the whole operating range of the vehicle. For example, at $40 \mathrm{mph} k$ may have a value of $240 \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$ and at $60 \mathrm{mph} k$ may be reduced to $165 \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$. For this example nominal values were chosen
and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{k} & =200 \mathrm{sec}^{-1} \\
\mathrm{~T} & =20 \mathrm{sec}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(s)=--\frac{10}{s+0.05} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 5-1
Vehicle Longitudinol Spacing Problem

Figure 5-1 is a schematic representation of the problem where $y, \dot{y}$, and $\ddot{y}$ are the position, velocity and acceleration,
respectively, of each vehicle. The distance $H_{D}$ is the desired spacing between the two vehicles. There is justification based on traffic studies [TRE-1] that drivers tend to choose a headway corresponding to the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{D}=c_{0}+2 \tau \dot{y}_{1} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c_{o}$ is a constant and $T$ is the reaction time of the driver. The actual choice of $H_{D}$ for an automatic system would maximize traffic flow consistent with the driver "psychological" comfort.

Assuming that the lead vehicle is moving at a constant velocity, equation (2) is transformed into the regulator form in state space by defining the state variables

$$
\begin{gather*}
x_{1}=y_{1}-y_{2}-H_{D}-L \\
\dot{x}_{1}=y_{1}-y_{2}=x_{2} \\
\dot{x}_{2}=y_{1}-y_{2}=-y_{2}=x_{3} \\
\dot{x}_{3}=-y_{2}=-a x_{3}-b e \\
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{x}_{1} \\
\dot{x}_{2} \\
\dot{x}_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & -0.05
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{3}
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
-10
\end{array}\right] \dot{e}} \tag{4}
\end{gather*}
$$

Equation (4) is in the form compatible with the algorithms described in Chapters III and IV such that constraints on the vehicle acceleration can be invoked:

$$
10.0=x_{3}(\max ) \geq x_{3}\left(t_{3}\right) \geq x_{3}(\min )=-10.0
$$

The autonomous form of equation (4) becomes

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{x}_{1} \\
\dot{x}_{2} \\
\dot{x}_{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 \\
-p_{1} & -p_{2} & -p_{3}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{3}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $p_{1}=100 \mathrm{k}_{31}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{p}_{2}=100 \mathrm{k}_{32} \\
& \mathrm{p}_{3}=0.05+100 \mathrm{k}_{33}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 5.1 Example 1.

Assuming initial conditions

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1}\left(t_{0}\right) \\
x_{2}\left(t_{0}\right) \\
x_{3}\left(t_{0}\right)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{r}
450 \\
-60 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

minimum values of $k_{31}, k_{32}$, and $k_{33}$ determined by the Routh Criterion

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \min k_{31}=0.0001 \\
& \min k_{32}=0.0006 \\
& \min k_{33}=-0.0004
\end{aligned}
$$

and maximum values based on a preliminary exploration using the Minimum Cost Algorithm and the C-Function Algorithm

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \max k_{31}=0.0226 \\
& \max k_{32}=0.0715 \\
& \max k_{33}=0.0488
\end{aligned}
$$

Table $I$ summarizes the results of the search for an absolute minimum of $J$ using the Minimum Cost Algorithm. It is to be noted that after the fourth contraction of the search region, the neighborhood of the absolute minimum was located, with the following lower bounds:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{k}_{31} \geq 0.0001 \\
& \mathrm{k}_{32}>0.0029-0.1(0.0029-0.0006)=0.00267 \\
& \mathrm{k}_{33}>0.0083-0.1(0.0083+0.0004)=0.00743
\end{aligned}
$$

and parameter values

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{p}_{1}=0.01 \\
& \mathrm{p}_{2}=0.29 \\
& \mathrm{p}_{3}=0.88
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE I
Search for Absolute Minimum

| Step | $\mathrm{k}_{31}$ | $\mathrm{k}_{32}$ | $\mathrm{k}_{33}$ | J |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Initial | 0.0226 | 0.0715 | 0.0488 | $13,956.9$ |
| 1 | 0.0001 | 0.0170 | 0.0192 | 72.1 |
| 2 | 0.0001 | 0.0088 | 0.0133 | 26.9 |
| 3 | 0.0001 | 0.0046 | 0.0105 | 10.6 |
| 4 | 0.0001 | 0.0029 | 0.0083 | 5.2 |
| 5 | 0.0001 | 0.0029 | 0.0083 | 5.2 |

The parameter values were then used as the input to the C-Function program to check for constraint violations. Since

$$
\max \left|x_{3}\left(t_{3}\right)\right|=10.75
$$

as determined by the analog run, the constraint on acceleration was violated and the search with the C-Function Algorithm provided new parameter solutions as shown in Figure 5-2 and Table II. Accuracy limitations of the analog computer resulted in the closest solution

$$
\max \left|x_{3}\left(t_{3}\right)\right|=9.75
$$

$K$ Matrix
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}0.000039976 & 0.00012159 & 0.00013827 \\ 0.00012159 & 0.0037216 & 0.0028910 \\ 0.00013827 & 0.0028910 & 0.0082936\end{array}\right]$

$$
J=7.46
$$

Q Matrix
$\left[\begin{array}{ccc}0.0000019 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.00059 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.0019\end{array}\right]$


Figure 5-2

## TABLE II

## Results of C-Function Search

## Iteration

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{P}_{1}$ | 0.01 | 0.0136 | 0.0138 |
| $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ | 0.29 | 0.2891 | 0.2891 |
| $P_{3}$ | 0.88 | 0.8794 | 0.8794 |
| $x_{3}\left(t_{3}\right)$ | 10.75 | 10.25 | 9.75 |
| $t_{3}$ | 2.81 | 2.40 | 2.41 |
| C | -0.156 | -0.051 | 0.049 |
| $\frac{\lambda x_{3}}{\partial p_{1}}$ | -4.75 | -4.03 | -4.83 |
| $\frac{\partial x_{3}}{\partial p_{2}}$ | 1.08 | 0.78 | 0.23 |
| $\frac{\lambda x_{3}}{\partial P_{3}}$ | 8.03 | -0.08 | -0.08 |
| $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \mathrm{P}_{1}}$ | 9.84 | 8.25 | 9.41 |
| $\frac{C}{\partial p_{2}}$ | -2.31 | -1.59 | -0.44 |
| $\frac{\partial C}{\partial P_{3}}$ | -1.73 | 0.0154 | -0.0146 |

The actual steps required within the C-Function Algorithm to obtain the results in Figure 5-2 are graphed in Figure 5-3. The circled points represent the successive acceptable estimates while the rest of the points demonstrate adjustments required in the $\gamma$ and $\alpha$ step size coefficients to obtain rapid damping

$1$
of the oscillation as $C \rightarrow 0$.
Since a solution at $C=0$ does not necessarily imply the final solution, a neighborhood was chosen about the point

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k_{31}=0.00013827 \\
& k_{32}=0.0028910 \\
& k_{33}=0.0082936
\end{aligned}
$$

such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \max K_{N}=[0.00013827,0.0147,0.0192] \\
& \min K_{N}=[0.0001,0.0006,-0.004]
\end{aligned}
$$

With this input to the Minimum Cost Algorithm a new minimum was located at

$$
\begin{aligned}
k_{31} & =0.0001 \\
k_{32} & =0.0020 \\
k_{33} & =0.0133 \\
J & =2.5
\end{aligned}
$$

This $K_{N}$ vector yielded the following parameter values:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{p}_{1}=0.01 \\
& \mathrm{p}_{2}=0.20 \\
& \mathrm{p}_{3}=1.38
\end{aligned}
$$

where were used as input to the C-Function Algorithm to check constraints. The results were as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\max \left|x_{3}\left(t_{3}\right)\right| & =5.25 \mathrm{ft} / \mathrm{sec}^{2} \\
t_{3} & =3.38 \mathrm{sec}
\end{aligned}
$$

K Matrix
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}0.00002 & 0.000138 & 0.0001 \\ 0.000138 & 0.002622 & 0.0020 \\ 0.0001 & 0.0020 & 0.0133\end{array}\right]$
$\left[\begin{array}{c}0.000001 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right.$
Q Matrix
0
0.000124
0 $\left.\begin{array}{r}0 \\ 0 \\ 0.01512\end{array}\right]$

Since the constraints are satisfied, this is the desired solution within the limits of resolution in the search region.

### 5.2 Example 2.

The possibility of discontinuity in p-space was discussed in Chapter III. This example is typical of the results obtained when the largest amplitude of $x_{3}(t)$ shifted from the first peak to the second. Figure 5-4 demonstrates the behavior of the C -Function and $\mathrm{x}_{3}\left(\mathrm{t}_{3}\right)$ under the following conditions:

$$
\begin{gathered}
5.0 \geq x_{3}(t) \geq-5.0 \\
{\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1}\left(t_{0}\right) \\
x_{2}\left(t_{0}\right) \\
x_{3}\left(t_{0}\right)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
450 \\
-60 \\
0
\end{array}\right]} \\
{\left[\begin{array}{l}
p_{1}(0) \\
p_{2}(0) \\
p_{3}(0)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
9.996 \\
18.26 \\
12.68
\end{array}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$



Solution Stability under Peak Switching - Example 2
for the system shown in equation (4). The initial values and the first iteration values were extremely large and are not shown in the figure. There was no oscillation of the C-Function as the dominant peaks changed at the fifth iteration, and final convergence, within the limits of analog accuracy, was obtained on the sixth iteration. Table III summarizes the values at each step in the computation.

TABLE III

C-Function Behavior Under Peak Switching
Iteration

|  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{\mathrm{P}} 1$ | 3.577 | 2.997 | 2.713 | 2.5913 | 2.2616 |
| $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ | 17.60 | 17.663 | 17.694 | 17.708 | 17.805 |
| $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ | 12.18 | 12.218 | 12.23 | 12.229 | 12.235 |
| $x_{3}\left(t_{3}\right)$ | -35.75 | -18.25 | -9.75 | 6.75 | 5.75 |
| $t_{3}$ | 0.18 | 0.17 | 0.16 | 2.56 | 1.83 |
| C | -11.25 | -3.08 | -0.70 | -0.21 | -0.08 |
| $\frac{\dot{j} x_{3}}{\partial p_{1}}$ | -2.97 | -2.93 | -2.93 | 0.43 | 0.18 |
| $\frac{x_{3}}{P_{2}}$ | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | -0.13 | -0.13 |
| $\frac{i x_{3}}{\partial p_{3}}$ | 1.97 | 0.92 | 0.48 | -0.08 | -0.08 |
| $\frac{\mathrm{C}}{\mathrm{CP}_{1}}$ | -21.27 | -10.68 | -5.70 | -0.57 | -0.20 |
| $\frac{\dot{\partial} \mathrm{C}}{\partial \mathrm{P}_{2}}$ | 2.32 | 1.19 | 0.63 | 0.17 | 0.14 |
| $\frac{\partial \mathrm{C}}{\partial \mathrm{p}_{3}}$ | 1.41 | 0.34 | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.009 |


|  | $\underline{K}$ Matrix |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [0.051148 | 0.25153 | 0.022616 |
| 0.35153 | 2.82691 | 0.17805 |
| 0.022616 | 0.17805 | 0.12185 |
|  | $J=23,241.5$ |  |
|  | Q Matrix |  |
| $\bigcirc 0.051148$ | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 2.46712 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1.14083 |

## CHAPTER VI

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

An algorithm has been developed resulting in a computational procedure which determines the optimal scalar control for a linear, time-invariant regulator with state variable constraints and a quadratic performance index. The basic contribution which makes possible a practicable engineering solution to this problem is the development of a simple algebraic algorithm for the determination of the gain matrix $K$. It has been shown that the $K-$ matrix can be obtained from an $n$-parameter optimization of the closed loop system. The need to solve the matrix Riccati equation is eliminated, and, therefore, there are no computational stability difficulties which impose a practical limit on the order of the system.

The K -matrix algorithm also provides a criterion for the positive definiteness of a diagonal $Q$ weighting matrix which is used as part of the search procedure to obtain a minimum cost solution. An efficient digital computer program allows only the positive definite constant $K$ matrices which represent stable control laws and define positive definite $Q$ matrices to be considered in the minimization of the quadratic performance index

$$
J=1 / 2 x^{T}\left(t_{0}\right) K x\left(t_{0}\right) .
$$

The result of this minimization is then evaluated for state variable constraint violations with the aid of a constraint function specifically developed for this purpose. This constraint function is an integral part of an iterative procedure that locates the $K$ matrix nearest the minimum cost solution and which also satisfies the constraints. The new value of $K$ is then the basis for the next estimate in the cost minimization program. Successive iterations produce the desired $K$ matrix.

An example of the application of this algorithm to a third order system is presented, showing the results obtained in defining the optimal feedback coefficients for vehicle spacing control with acceleration constraints.

Since the $K$ matrix contains all the necessary engineering design information, the procedure described in this thesis should have greater application than any of the currently available methods.

There are obvious extensions to this work which should be considered. It would be desirable to investigate the possibility of developing a corresponding $K$ matrix algorithm for the general case of a vector control $u(t)$. Additional rescarch needs to be done on the sensitivity of the cost function $J$ to state variable initial conditions. For example, it would be desirable to obtain a solution for minimum $J$ such that $J$ has minimum sensitivity to the initial conditions. Another possible extension of these results is to the work of Kleinman, Fortmann, Athans [KIE-2] where a time varying matrix $K(t)$, representing a finite time cost interval, is approximated by a series of piecewise-constant $K$ matrices. Finally, it would be of practical interest to
investigate the computational limits imposed by the errors inherent in an analog computer. For example, in the course of this rescarch it was found that potentiometer setting tolerances imposed a limit on the accuracy with which the constraint function could be obtained in the vicinity of $C=0$. Results of such work would show the conditions under which it would be advisable to consider an all-digital configuration.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPIE MINIMUM COST ALGORITHM PROGRAM

```
// Ju!
// F|!! #INAK
    LIOT LLI
#FABHRNIORCS PFUGRAF:
#H1 THA: IGTEGFKS
#11:う (CN&|,1443 PRINTFR,NISK)
    &&AL K(3,Z)
    |HEENSIUN A(j), 价(3)
```



```
    ちゃい F|以MAT(12,5F10.3)
```



```
    \because1.a!;(Z,501)X0(1), X:(2),XU(3)
    5!1 F|!.,NT(3F10.4)
```



```
    5:|, F:%:AT(6F10.4)
        r:=1
        J=1
        C=1. (1)
        #N1=(,.1*(NK1mX-RK1HF)
        OK:?=0.1*(RK2t゙X-RK2NN)
        \KO=0.1:(KK3NX-KK3,N)
        \therefore(\because,\because)=RK3MX
        ,!: i, (z,c)=RKK2MX
```



```
            1::(\because( З, 1)-RK11X)71,71,:2
        \because\because : |, 1)=FK1NX
        (1 1.(1,1)=A(1)*K(3,2)+A(2)*KK(3,1)+(k**2)*K(3,2):N(3,1)
```





$V N=0 \cdot 5 * V N$

Ir（ H 1$) 73,73,7$
13 WRITE（3，508）
h（I）F！JFGAT（13H CHANGE RK1MX）
（G） 1080
$703=-2.0 * K(3,2)+2.0 * \Delta(3) * K(3,3)+(R * 2) * K(3,3) * * ?$
IF（t） 3$) 75,75$ ，6
$75 \mathrm{~K}(2,2)=K(3,2)-1) K 2$
IF（K， 3,2$)=$ RK2MN $153,7,7$
tj K（こ，う）$=K(3,3)-$ DK 3
If 1 K（3，3）－RK3NNT $80,40,40 \cdots$
b $112=-2 .(1) * K(1,2)+2.0 * A(2) * K(3,2)+(R * * 2) * K(3,2) * *$
$1:(12) 74,74,8$
74 K（シ，1）$=K(3,1)-10 K 1$
IF（：1：
$17:(1,2)=A(1) * K(3,3)+A(3) * K(3,1)+(R * * 2) * K(シ, 1) * K(う, 3)$
（1）Tut 6
10 $K(3,2)=K(3,2)-1) K 2$
Iに（K）3，2ナートK
（ $P \dot{j}=A(j)+(B * * 2) * K(シ$ ，三）
IF $(93)=76,76,9$
7 to kRITE $(3,509)$
buy fitmat（13H CHANGF KK 3 MRN）
（G）T0， 80
$\rightarrow+2=A(2)+(B \div * 2) * K(3,2)$
$18 \mathrm{~F} 1=\mathrm{A}(1)+(\mathrm{B} * * 2) * K(\overline{3}, 1)$
$-R 3=(\rho 2+\rho 3=\beta 1) \nmid P 3$
IF $=(\mathrm{K} 3) 54,54,10$
10 IF（P1）77．77，82
77 WRITE（3，510）
510 FOWHATY 13 CHCHANGE RKINN
CO TO 80
82 It（t－2）5，85，85


VN＝0． $\mathrm{b}: \mathrm{VN}$
 $1+2.0 * A(3) * X O(1) * X()(2)$



1K（シ，1））$\because \times 1$（1）$\because \times(2)$

30 Clirl $=\mathrm{C}+\mathrm{FAR1/SDEL}$
CHFス＝C＊PAR2／SHEL
Cl：PS＝C＊PAR3／SIEL

36 I：（Ans（CuR2）－ABS（k（シ，2）））3\％，こと，ふ？


1．！T1：38


is 1．（．，1i＝kK1\％

$(1,2)=A(1) * K(3, \xi)+A(3) * K(3,1)+(K * * 2) * K(3,1) * K(=, \therefore)$
$(\because,()=-K(3,1)+A(2) \div K(3,3)+A(3) \because K(3,2)+(3 \% \%) \because+(z, 7) \because K(j, 3)$


Viv＝0．b：VVN
1：（VN－VOが1，79，79…
$79 \because(シ, 1)=K(3,1)+C * P A R 1 / S[) E L$
－ $2 C=0.5 \div C$ ．
$J=J+1$
$\cdots \cdots i-(J-20) 3,3 ; 1 \pi(r$
\＆ $1 L=L+1$
（i）TU 1


$11 \mathrm{~J}=(\mathrm{A} \omega \mathrm{S}(\mathrm{VN}-\mathrm{VO})-1.0001) 12,12,14$
$14 J=1$
$\mathrm{N}=\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{l}$
（F（N－10）15，15，も1
t，i whife（3，507）

$1<K(\vdots, 2)=K(3,2)-1) K)$.
$C=1 .(1)$
$\therefore \because J=1$
$\because=1$
$1=1$
$1:(K(3,2)-R K 2 M N) \pm 3,54,54$
hj $K(\therefore, \nu)=K(3,3)-1 K K$

L！1．$\because i^{71}(3,503)$

$\therefore T_{1} 12$
$\because \therefore A L E X I T$
？－以！

APPENDIX B
C-FUNCTION ALGORITHM PROGRAM

TAS S lwor TSX V3M4． 4

```
// J!:
```



```
    GET :!!!
```



```
    *MN-\cdots|!* INTEGERS
#I(CSS にNON,1443 PRIHTFR,NISKT
```




```
            2T\therefore(%),PPH(5),PC|R(5), HSTP(5)
            CALL FYENT
            SAll HYl
            <&A! (2,100)N,TF,(A(1),I=1,\therefore.:),f
            #i:" (2,200)(P(I), I=1,N)
            *M(2,200t(xO(1),I=1,5),SCALF
```




```
    2いい F゙!?&に,|(6F10.4)
```



```
            1!: 1 I = 1,N
            1! (H(I)) 士, 2,1
```



```
            Aに:N
```



```
            ザ隐にハ
```



```
            C=1.0
            1:!:1.0
            \because\because'=1
            \therefore:% J=1(!(0).0
        ##J:=(N-NO!)3,4,3
            J=(+i)/2
```

（0）TU 10
$10 \mathrm{~K}(1,1)=1.0$
$\mathrm{nt} 20 \mathrm{I}=20,21$
201 CALL HYUO（1，0）
CALL FYUUt22，1t
CALL HYOU（26，0）
CALL HYUO（27；0）
CALL HYDLY（60）
CALL HYOUT22，0）
PAMSE
$K(?, I)=-p(N)$.
$k=1$
（3）5 $I=2, \mathrm{~J}$
Ki＝：- K
P（1， 1$)=-P(K K)$
b $k=\begin{gathered}n+?\end{gathered}$
$K=$ ？
If（iv－ivol 11，12，11
$12 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{J}-1$
11 「！ $61=2, \mathrm{~J}$
KK＝NーK
$13 \mathrm{R}(2, \mathrm{I})=-\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{KK})$
t．$K=k+2$
$\mathrm{HM=N-1}$

7 H3： $\mathrm{l}=3 \mathrm{~N}$
$110 \quad k \quad k=1, J$
$K(I, K)=(R(I-1,1) * K(1-2, K+1)-R(I-2,1) * K(1-1, K+1)) / K(I-1,1)$

© CiMTIMUE
$k\left(i^{+}+1,1\right)=R(\pi-1, C)$

$\because$ ！ $141=1, \mathrm{~N}$

$14 \because K(I, N)=R K(N, I)$
（H）l． $\mathrm{H} I=1$ ， NN
1：（1－1）18，17，18
1）1）：15 $K=2, N$
$4 K(I, K-1)=A(I) * R K(F, K)+A(K) * R K(I, N)+R K(I, N) \because K K(N, K) *(E * * 2)$
10．$\because(K-1, I)=R K(I, K-1)$
Ail T： 15
1：inity $k=3, N$

1（0．\％？）
1：KR（K－1，1）$=$ KK（1，K－1
12 Culatin！e
10． $34 \quad 1=1$ ， 0
（川） $24 \mathrm{~J}-1$,
$4 S(1, J)=r K(1, J)$
in $33 \mathrm{H}=1, \mathrm{~N}$
$5 \mathrm{~m}:=5(\mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{M})$

I：$=\operatorname{ABS}(S(1,1))-A H S(S H: A X)) 24,24,25$
2．Surx＝S（I，I）
$L=1$
24 COMinue
I：（L－：）26，26，27
$\because \because, j 12 \% 1=4,4$

```
    TC(I,L)=S(I,Mi)
    j(I,M)=S(I,L)
    zo S(I,L)=TC(I,L)
        |(1 准; l=M,N
        TN(L,I)=S(M,I)
        C(**,I)=S(L,I)
    ?`S(i.,I)=TK(L,I)
    2%)11: 3(% I=19%N+
    \Xi:S(n,I)=S(N,I)/ANS(S,AAX:
    MM-r+#1
    |!O =1 I=NM,N
    1:ti 三l J=M,I
    3&S(I,J)=S(I,J)-s(I,\ldots) :S S(M,I)*S(M,I)
        1H+ 三< I =M,ANN
        I|I= I + j.
        1H1%< J= IT1, it
    32: (1, J)= う(1, 1)
```



```
    j CliTTLNLiE
        \because* * 1 = 1, A
```



```
    2% \because:1|1:(3,500)1
W|% 1:1 IT(I4)
    PT(1)=0.1*(A%S(i)(1))-10.0)
    0,1 i| S%
    ひZ PG(I)=0. 1*ABS(F(I))
```



```
        \becausekI it(3,800) PT
        1": l Zi, K=1,N
```



```
        r.ill H(,TS(1,216,.jr(i))
        {:L votS(1,22%,JP(1))
        Si.i.l rijTj(l,<i)与,J+(i))
        CALL HU|S(1,217,JP(2))
        CiLL P(jTS(1,206,JF(三))
        (ALL MOFSt1;225,JH(3))
        1)| 4()I=20,21
    &U CAtL.FYUU(I,O)
        (Al.L mY1)O(27,0)
        CALI LIYOOT 22,1)
        inl.l. HYMO(26,0)
        (\therefore:1 | HYDLY(AT))
        CMLL HYDO(22,r)
        C!1L HiYIJOT21,11
        Ci! l HyUU(26,1)
    <l CílL HYUI(10,K)
        Ii:(1.)41,41,42
    4, !!! OO J=1,隹
        X(.1)=(:.0)
        IF(只AAX(J))202,203,202
    203 I!:(XMIN(J)) 202,t0,20?
    2H2 H!1THt%,500) J
        \therefore1Tr:(3,1004)
```



```
    OAl!St
    GAIL HYMK
    BALL HYAIR(1U,2,A,(1),TA(J))
    CA!L HYUmK
    I_(if-TA(1))<3,<3,i+]l
```

411 ［10 $412 \quad \mathrm{I}=2,3$
－－－CALT FYOU 27.17
CALL HYDO $(21,0)$
－WPITE（3，IDOOT
1000 FIRMAT（20H CHANGE ClO POLARITY）
PAUSE
CALL HYOU（27，0）
CALL FYOLYTOOT
CALL HYUO $(27,1)$
CALL HYOOT21， 1 ）
CALL HYDU（27，0）
413 CALt AryOTIO；K）
IF（K）413，413，414
$4 \mathrm{Ft}+\mathrm{EALL}-\mathrm{HYMK}$
CALL HYAIR（10，2，AN（I），TA（I））
CALL HYOMK
412 cint inve
（1f） $415 \cdots=2.7$
IF（ABS（AM（1））－AHS（AM（1）））41\％，416，416

$T(J)=T A(1)$
（G）TU 415
$\therefore 1.1 \times(J)=\operatorname{AM}(1)$
$A+1(1)=A N_{1}(1)$
$T()=.T A(I)$
TA（1）＝TA（I）
415 Giillive
$\because \because 1 T E(3,90 \pi) \times(J)$

（2r $\quad \because(1)=x_{1}(\mathrm{y})$
$\therefore$ © COIT TIVUE
$\because 4$ in $5 \mathrm{I} \quad \mathrm{J}=1 \mathrm{~N}$
iF（Xrax（J））46，47，46
47 IF（XTIN（J） $46,48,46$
$48 F(1)=0.0$
（3）TU－51－

1F（H（J））49，50，5t）
4y F（J）$=1.0$
（－1）Tll S1－
引（）$卜(\mathrm{~J})=0.0$
ha citatinue
S！小N＝0．0）
1915 5e J＝1，N

$J=1$

53 11：（1－（J））73，74，7：

it，$\quad=(.1)=10.0$
$\because+1 \cdots \cdots K K=1, N$
ST：$\because(J, K に)=0.0$
J：$: ~$ ：+1
I：（J－i゙）101，101，303


1114 1：（．1）＝1．0
$\because \cdots(\because, \cdot 900) T(J)$
$561 \quad 1=(1 K K-3) 715,714,112$

```
71% NK=100.0%T(J)
```



```
    ()!130 I = 20,21
130-CA1.L FWYOOtITOT
    CALL. HYOO(22,1)
    H) 与& M=23;25
5* CALL HYOO(M,0)
    II=3干1%
    MO 5, M M=23,25
    CALL HYOUTZ2;1%
    CALL HYDU(M,1)
    CNIt HYUU(26,0)
    CALL. HYINU(27,O)
    (AIL. HYIILY(60)
    CALL HYIJU(22,0)
    CALL HYUULT20;1)
    CALL rY|U(26,1)
    AE CALL HYUIFIO,KH
    IF(汭) O2.62.63
    *j JJ=r-2Z
    CAILL HYNK
    CALL FIYAIR(子I;1,S(J,JJ))
    CALL HYUNIK
    #kITE(3,90OOS(J,JJ)
    Fy CALI HYIUU (M,O)
    f=J+F-
    IF(J-N)lU1,101,103
103 Slmml=StmJ2
    S111.12= SUMJ
    S11%:1=0.0-\cdots........
    1:1 <4 J=1,N
    OCOST=H(J)%F(J)
    1'4 Silin)= SllmJ+COST
    UPII&(3,90ח)SUMJ
\because, [=(FKK-2)708,708,702
```



```
701 + STS=SUNJ2
    !Hi inj I =ION
7ris =ST:(1)=PPP(I)
    IF(にトKー2ナ711;707,!に3
7l1 1!K=0.b*いK
710 !! 70,4%I=1, N
704 H(I)=tSTP(I)+rjKットC!JR(I)
    KRH=Z
    Gi| Tll40b
7r7 IH(AMS(ESFS)-ARS(SUMJ))709,704,710
71:) k!!=1
    G! T!! ff)<
```



```
    i&:'M-0.UN4)732,71%,7上N
\because121:. 714 I=1,以
714:(1)=LSFP(I)
    员:=3
```



```
7!2 IF(KKK-2) 121,16い,1%2
```



```
Ĺ1 !`T!=SijorJ
    川10% I=I,N
1%2 +STP(I)=P(I)
```

```
    (i) T!1 1 <l
1\because& HF(A&S(SUNJ)-ANS(1STS))124,12ジ123
\:4 Ki!!== 
    1\thereforeT!={|!mJ
    |16j I=1,M
l`j 1.57r(1)=P(I)
    (,) 1U 71j
##C=1.与六C.
```



```
\\because ill ] Zi I = 1,N
    HC,':(I)=C%PC:BN(1)
    1:(%(%J) 12R,40%,1%;
    \therefore(1)= -STP(I)-HC(1).(i)
    (i) T(; 127
\vdots'F(I)=tSTP(I)+PC!H(I)
1%7 Cf!iTIMUE
    \therefore11 T114415
\because\because1 \becauseO:1=r:0
    !1:\ddotsこK=1,N
```



```
    Ni, (| J=1,H
```





```
    A E|O=SPAN+PAP.J
        |N"(K)=SPAF
```





```
    N| AZ\ddot{c}i=1,N
    \because(1)=人隹(I)
    PPP(I)=P(I)
```




```
    , || 胹
    \because!:(iK-1.0)21,802,?02
```



```
    \because:1:-4
    IF(5.01,J)60,4(12,0%7
    \hdashline%(I;=F(I)+PCOF(I)
    (,i) T: (1)S
    A\therefore\quad\because(I)=r(I)-P(:IF(I)
\therefore:3: \TTE(3,yOO)P(1,N(1)
4.% シr:OTITMF
+!口:以TT:(3,0OO)(P(I),I=1,N)
    CI=4% © O%P(1)-6.0 \thereforeP(2)
    I:(C,I) 1%1,1 \1, ] シ?
1.1 IC=-1
    i, Oi| 133
1\therefore\therefore10=1
i\because- 唯i!(ま,b(:0)(C
```



```
    -AlS:
    #! %: 7%
```



```
    H:1TH(Z,OOO)FSTS
        @il行 71
    71) H1, TL:(3,900)SUNT,
    71 !HJT!(\xi,600)(X(I),I=1,(N)
```

```
    *:(\therefore,OON)(1(I),I=1,f)
    #1TL(3,600)((RK(I,J),J=1,M),I=1,M)
    1,k=1.0
    k!"=1
    ※K (*)=().(;
    :の4そう I=1,N+
    ii| 4 C゙う, J=1,0
```



```
    L\because;
        <Y1=(1.h**KXt)
    1."IT,(:,1001)
```



```
    r!al!⿱㇒⿻丷木心
```



```
#
    (\becauseLI r`OU|(?), 1)
    UM BYM|J(Zh,O)
    Cill. HYOU(2%,い)
    CN.li : YíLY(o(!)
    CRI: HYけ@(2?,r)
    Ca!_! ;YUU(21,1)
    (all HYMU(2h,1)
```



```
    I.- (!)<<%,427,4訁%
426 CA!L HY.*K
    CMLL HYAIR(1O,l,*(z))
    i.All. :YAIK(1),2,\therefore(%),X(3))
    CAIE HYUFK
    KK\T=こ.0)
```



```
    |:4<' J=1,G
```









```
    1*il1(こ, 1(0%j
```



```
    US|:S上
    2 (ulTr:(ご,800)(U(1), 1=],H)
MOい F川N:AT(bE゙2O.《)
    G| T!: :30
```



```
gO(% FO!:+AT(*2O.4)
    Gil T: ro
    G2!\ITt(2,150)I,P(I,1)
15!) FUF,AT(j<゙, 1OK,Fつ(.4)
    C! TO 80
```



```
250 E^OFAT(I2,10x,r70.4)
    (i) T! \becauseO
```




```
    ## &ILL 1XIT
    F:
```

