Efficient Computation of Closed-loop Frequency Response for Large Order Flexible Systems

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Abstract

An efficient and robust computational scheme is given for the calculation of the frequency response function of a large order, flexible system implemented with a linear, time invariant control system. Advantage is taken of the highly structured sparsity of the system matrix of the plant based on a model of the structure using normal mode coordinates. The computational time per frequency point of the new computational scheme is a linear function of system size, a significant improvement over traditional, full-matrix techniques whose computational times per frequency point range from quadratic to cubic functions of system size. This permits the practical frequency domain analysis of systems of much larger order than by traditional, full-matrix techniques. Formulations are given for both open and closed

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loop systems. Numerical examples are presented showing the advantages of the present formulation over traditional approaches, both in speed and in accuracy. Using a model with 703 structural modes, a speed-up of almost two orders of magnitude was observed while accuracy improved by up to 5 decimal places.

Introduction

Control of flexible systems has received significant attention in the literature. To date, numerous techniques, algorithms and procedures have been developed for design of controllers for such systems ranging from spacecraft and satellites to aircraft, ships, machines, etc. These flexible systems which are generally infinite-dimensional are typically modeled using a finite number of generalized coordinates or modes. Control of flexible systems may become difficult depending on the number, location, relative proximity, and inherent damping of these modes. The response of the system to a given disturbance/excitation generally depends on modal properties (amplitude, frequency, and damping) and the amplitude and phase content of the disturbance/excitation. In general, two techniques, time domain analysis and frequency domain analysis, have been developed and extensively used to analyze and characterize the input/output behavior of linear time-invariant systems including flexible systems. In frequency domain analysis, frequency response functions (defined as transfer function matrices from inputs to outputs of the system) have typically been used (usually in the form of magnitude and phase
or Bode plots) in the analysis of linear systems as well as in designing controllers for such systems. In general, frequency response functions of the open-loop system are used to evaluate the performance of the open-loop system, and to identify and quantify needed performance and/or stability improvements at various frequency bands. The closed-loop frequency response functions are typically needed to insure that desired performance and stability have been achieved by the control system. Moreover, frequency-domain specifications such as peak magnitude, bandwidth, roll-off rate, and etc. are often used in characterizing the desired behavior of the system in the frequency domain (this is known as loop shaping).

In general, the order of the flexible system (as defined by the number of modes retained in the model) for which open-loop and/or closed-loop analysis is performed depends on the application considered. For example, if the closed-loop response of a spacecraft with a low-bandwidth attitude control system is of interest, then a small set of modes would be sufficient to capture the low frequency closed-loop behavior of the system. On the other hand, if the response of the flexible system is desired over a large frequency range or if the control system considered has a high bandwidth, then a large set of modes (in the hundreds or thousands) may be necessary to capture the true response of the system.

However, the current techniques for obtaining frequency response functions, although able to deal with small or medium size systems, have problems in handling large order systems. A straightforward calculation of the frequency response
function matrix at a single frequency point which is based on the definition of
the transfer function has a computational cost which is a cubic function of the
system size. If this calculation must be repeated for many frequency points, Laub
([1] and [2]) presents a technique which has a better average cost. This technique
performs an initial orthogonal transformation of the system which reduces the
system response matrix to Hessenberg form. This initial transformation has a
computational cost which is a cubic function of the system size. This technique
can then calculate the frequency response function matrix at each frequency point
at a cost which is a quadratic function of the system size. However, for very large
systems (many hundreds of modes or more), even this is too slow, and a better
method is needed.

To this end, this paper describes a novel and efficient technique for the
computation of closed-loop frequency response functions of large order flexible
systems. The proposed technique is computationally robust and accurate. It
takes advantage of the sparsity of the flexible systems in normal mode coordinates
and reduces the computational cost from a quadratic function of the order of the
system to a linear function. Formulations are given for both open and closed loop
systems. Numerical examples are presented showing the advantages of the present
formulation over traditional approaches, both in speed and in accuracy.
Mathematical Formulation

Second-Order Modal Equations

The dynamics of a typical linear, time-invariant flexible system may be written in a second-order form as

$$M \ddot{x} + D \dot{x} + Kx = Hu + H_d w$$

$$y = C_p x + C_r \dot{x}$$

$$y^{pr} = C_p^{pr} x + C_r^{pr} \dot{x} + C_d^{pr} \ddot{x}$$

where $M$, $D$, and $K$ are the $n \times n$ mass, damping and stiffness matrices, respectively; $x$ is the $n \times 1$ position/attitude vector; $u$ is the $m \times 1$ control input vector; $w$ is the $r \times 1$ disturbance vector; $H$ is the $n \times m$ control input influence matrix; and $H_d$ is the $n \times r$ disturbance influence matrix. The vectors $y$ and $y^{pr}$ are, respectively, the $q \times 1$ measurements output vector and the $l \times 1$ vector of performance outputs; $C_p$ and $C_r$ are $q \times n$ measurement output influence matrices; and $C_p^{pr}$, $C_r^{pr}$, and $C_d^{pr}$ are $l \times n$ performance output influence matrices.

If the second-order system is transformed into normal mode coordinates, and $p$ of the normal modes are retained to capture the relevant dynamics of the structure, then the system equations may be written in a modal form as

$$\ddot{M} \ddot{q} + \ddot{D} \dot{q} + \ddot{K} q = \ddot{H} u + \ddot{H}_d w$$
\[ y = \tilde{C}_p q + \tilde{C}_r \dot{q} \]
\[ y^{pr} = \tilde{C}_p^{pr} q + \tilde{C}_r^{pr} \dot{q} + \tilde{C}_a^{pr} \ddot{q} \]

where $\tilde{M}$, $\tilde{D}$, and $\tilde{K}$ are the $p \times p$ modal mass, damping, and stiffness matrices, respectively; $q$ is the $p \times 1$ vector of modal coordinates; and $\tilde{H}$ and $\tilde{H}_d$ are the $p \times m$ control input and the $p \times r$ disturbance influence matrices in modal coordinates, respectively. The matrices $\tilde{C}_p$ and $\tilde{C}_r$ are $q \times p$ measurement output influence matrices in modal coordinates; and $\tilde{C}_p^{pr}$, $\tilde{C}_r^{pr}$, and $\tilde{C}_a^{pr}$ are $l \times p$ performance output influence matrices in modal coordinates.

It is assumed that the mode shapes are normalized with respect to the mass matrix, and modal damping is assumed. This means that $\tilde{M} = I_p$, $\tilde{D} = \text{diag}\{2\zeta_1\omega_1, 2\zeta_2\omega_2, \ldots, 2\zeta_p\omega_p\}$, and $\tilde{K} = \text{diag}\{\omega_1^2, \omega_2^2, \ldots, \omega_p^2\}$ where $I_p$ is the identity matrix of order $p$ and $\omega_i$ and $\zeta_i$ are the open-loop frequencies and damping ratios.

The control input and disturbance influence matrices are given by:
\[ \tilde{H} = \Phi^T H \]
\[ \tilde{H}_d = \Phi^T H_d \]

The measurement and performance output influence matrices are given by:
\[ \tilde{C}_p = C_p \Phi \quad ; \quad \tilde{C}_r = C_r \Phi \]
\[
\bar{C}_p^{pr} = C_p^{pr} \Phi ; \quad \bar{C}_r^{pr} = C_r^{pr} \Phi ; \quad \bar{C}_a^{pr} = C_a^{pr} \Phi 
\]

The columns of matrix \( \Phi \) are the \( p \) retained mode shapes:

\[
\Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1 & \phi_2 & \ldots & \phi_p \end{bmatrix}
\]

The second-order modal equations may be rewritten in a first-order form as

\[
\dot{x}_s = A_s x_s + B_s u + B_d w
\]

\[
y = C x_s
\]

\[
y^{pr} = C_1^{pr} x_s + C_2^{pr} \dot{x}_s.
\]

The vector \( x_s \) is the plant state vector whose components are

\[
x_s = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ \dot{q}_1 \\ q_2 \\ \dot{q}_2 \\ \vdots \\ q_p \\ \dot{q}_p \end{bmatrix},
\]

and the vectors \( y \) and \( y^{pr} \) are the same plant measurement and performance outputs, respectively. The matrix \( A_s \) is the plant state matrix and has the form

\[
A_s = \begin{bmatrix}
A_1^s & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & A_2^s & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & A_p^s
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where

\[
A_i^s = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
-\omega_i^2 & -2\zeta_i\omega_i
\end{bmatrix}.
\]
The matrix $B_s$ is the control input influence matrix, formed by setting its odd-numbered rows to zeros and using the rows of $\tilde{H}$ for its even-numbered rows:

$$B_s = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ \tilde{H}_{11} & \tilde{H}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{H}_{1m} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ \tilde{H}_{p1} & \tilde{H}_{p2} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{H}_{pm} \end{bmatrix}$$

(4)

in which $\tilde{H}_{ij}$, for example, represents the $(i, j)$ element of matrix $\tilde{H}$. The matrix $B_d$ is formed from $\tilde{H}_d$ in the same manner.

The measurement output influence matrix, $C$ is defined by setting the odd-numbered columns of $C$ to the columns of $\tilde{C}_p$ and the even numbered columns of $C$ to the columns of $\tilde{C}_r$:

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{C}_p(1,1) & \tilde{C}_r(1,1) & \tilde{C}_p(1,2) & \tilde{C}_r(1,2) & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{C}_p(1,p) & \tilde{C}_r(1,p) \\ \tilde{C}_p(2,1) & \tilde{C}_r(2,1) & \tilde{C}_p(2,2) & \tilde{C}_r(2,2) & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{C}_p(2,p) & \tilde{C}_r(2,p) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \tilde{C}_p(q,1) & \tilde{C}_r(q,1) & \tilde{C}_p(q,2) & \tilde{C}_r(q,2) & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{C}_p(q,p) & \tilde{C}_r(q,p) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\tilde{C}_p(i,j)$ and $\tilde{C}_r(i,j)$ denote the $(i, j)$ element of matrix $\tilde{C}_p$ and $\tilde{C}_r$, respectively. $C^{pr}_1$ is defined from $\tilde{C}^{pr}_p$ and $\tilde{C}^{pr}_r$ in the same fashion. $C^{pr}_2$ is defined by setting the odd numbered columns of $C^{pr}_2$ to zeros and the even numbered columns of $C^{pr}_2$ to the columns of $\tilde{C}^{pr}_d$.

By substituting the first equation of (1) into the third, the acceleration term can
be replaced by feedthrough:

\[
\dot{x}_s = A_s x_s + B_s u + B_d w
\]

\[
y = C x_s
\]

\[
y^{pr} = C^{pr} x_s + D_u^{pr} u + D_w^{pr} w
\]

The performance output influence matrix is given by

\[
C^{pr} = C_1^{pr} + C_2^{pr} A_s
\]

while the performance feedthrough matrices are

\[
D_u^{pr} = C_2^{pr} B_s \quad ; \quad D_w^{pr} = C_2^{pr} B_d.
\]

Notice that if there is no performance acceleration output \(C_{\dot{a}}^{pr} = 0\), then \(\dot{C}_{\dot{a}}^{pr} = 0\) and \(C_2^{pr} = 0\), so both feedthrough matrices, \(D_u^{pr}\) and \(D_w^{pr}\), are zero.

**Control System Equations**

In this paper, it is assumed that the structure is controlled by a linear time-invariant control system. The model of a linear time-invariant control system for a typical flexible structure may be written as

\[
\dot{x}_c = A_c x_c + B_c y
\]

\[
u = -C_c x_c
\]

where \(x_c\) denotes the \(k \times 1\) vector of control system states; \(A_c, B_c,\) and \(C_c\) represent the \(k \times k\) control system state matrix, the \(k \times q\) input influence matrix, and the \(m \times k\) output influence matrix, respectively; and \(y\) is the measurement output vector which was defined in the previous section.
Frequency Domain Equations

For the open-loop plant, \( y \) and \( u \) of equation (5) are nonexistent, so the equations reduce to

\[
\dot{x}_s = A_s x_s + B_d w
\]
\[
y^{pr} = C^{pr} x_s + D^{pr}_w w.
\]

The open-loop transfer function from the disturbances, \( w \), to the performance output, \( y^{pr} \), is defined for all complex \( s \) not in the spectrum of \( A_s \) and is given by

\[
T(s) = C^{pr}(sI - A_s)^{-1}B_d + D^{pr}_w.
\]

The closed loop system is more complicated. Using equations (5) and (6), the closed-loop dynamics of the controlled structure may be written as

\[
\dot{x} = \tilde{A} x + \tilde{B}_d w
\]
\[
y^{pr} = \tilde{C}^{pr} x + D^{pr}_w w
\]

where \( x \) represents the closed-loop state vector defined as

\[
x = \begin{bmatrix} x_s \\ x_c \end{bmatrix};
\]

\( \tilde{A} \), \( \tilde{B}_d \), and \( \tilde{C}^{pr} \) are, respectively, the closed-loop state matrix, disturbance influence matrix, and output influence matrix. These matrices are given by:

\[
\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_s & -B_s C_c \\ B_c C & A_c \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \tilde{B}_d = \begin{bmatrix} B_d \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \tilde{C}^{pr} = \begin{bmatrix} C^{pr} & -D^{pr}_u C_c \end{bmatrix}
\]
The closed-loop transfer function from the disturbances, $w$, to the performance output, $y^{pr}$, is defined for all complex $s$ not in the spectrum of $\tilde{A}$ and is given by

$$
\tilde{T}(s) = \tilde{C}^{pr} \left( sI - \tilde{A} \right)^{-1} \tilde{B}_d + D_w^{pr}.
$$

(11)

**Open-Loop Calculation**

The algorithm presented here for calculation of the frequency response function of an open-loop structural system seems to be a part of engineering folklore. It is presented here for completeness and because it is a building block for the closed-loop algorithm to follow.

Assume $s$ is not in the spectrum of $A_s$. From equations (2) and (3), it follows that $(sI - A_s)^{-1}$ is block diagonal with the $i$-th block being

$$
\left( sI_2 - A_s^i \right)^{-1} = \left\{ 1 / \left( s^2 + 2\zeta_i \omega_i s + \omega_i^2 \right) \right\} \begin{bmatrix}
    s + 2\zeta_i \omega_i & 1 \\
    -\omega_i^2 & s
\end{bmatrix}; \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, p;
$$

where $I_2$ denotes the 2 by 2 identity matrix. Furthermore (see the discussion following equation (4)) the odd-numbered rows of $B_d$ are zero. If the row $i$ of $B_d$ is denoted by $b_d^{(i)}$, if $Q(s)$ is used to represent $(sI - A_s)^{-1}B_d$, and if $Q(s)$ is partitioned as

$$
Q(s) = \begin{bmatrix}
    Q_1(s) \\
    Q_2(s) \\
    \vdots \\
    Q_p(s)
\end{bmatrix}
$$

(12)
where each partition matrix $Q_i(s)$ is a 2 by $r$ matrix, then $Q$ is calculated using the formula

$$Q_i(s) = \left\{ \frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta_i \omega_i s + \omega_i^2} \right\} \begin{bmatrix} b_d^{(2i)} \\ s b_d^{(2i)} \end{bmatrix}; \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, p. \quad (13)$$

The open-loop transfer function calculation is completed in a straightforward manner:

$$T(s) = C^{pr} Q(s) + D_w^{pr}$$

If desired, the gain and phase angle data (Bode plot data) may then be computed directly from the frequency response function matrix. If there are no acceleration performance measurements, then the feed-forward term is zero and the software may bypass the step where $D_w^{pr}$ is added in.

The standard, full matrix way to calculate $Q(s)$ would involve first performing an LU decomposition of $sI - A_s$ followed by a backward and then forward solve of the triangular systems of equations using the columns of $B_d$ as right-hand sides. The FLOP (FLoating point OPerations) count for this is $O(p^3) + O(p^2r)$, so $T(s)$ is computed in $O(p^3) + O(p^2r) + O(pr)$ FLOPS. Thus, in the typical case where system size is much larger than the number of disturbances, the calculation time per frequency point is a cubic function of system size.

If this calculation must be repeated for many values of $s$ (a typical scenario), the technique of [1] and [2] has a better average FLOP count. An initial $O(p^3)$ orthogonal transformation must be done once; then for each $s$, $Q(s)$ is calculated
in $O(p^2 r)$ FLOPs, so $T(s)$ is computed in $O(p^2 r) + O(plr)$ FLOPS. Thus, if the number of frequencies for which this calculation must be repeated is on the order of the system size, or larger, the calculation time per frequency point is a quadratic function of system size.

When the calculation is done as in equations (12) and (13), the flop count is $O(pr)$, so $T(s)$ is computed in $O(plr)$ FLOPS. Thus, the calculation time per frequency point is a linear function of system size. This represents a substantial savings, particularly when a large number of modes is necessary to capture the dynamics of the system.

**Closed-loop Calculation**

The closed-loop dynamics of the controlled system are given in equations (8), (9), and (10).

Observing the closed-loop state matrix $\tilde{A}$, it is obvious the block diagonal form of the open-loop plant has been destroyed by the coupling generated by the feedback connection of plant and the control system. However, the initial sparsity of the open-loop state matrix $A_s$ is still intact. Now, the sparsity of the open-loop state matrix is exploited to develop an efficient method for the computation of closed-loop frequency response function matrix of the controlled flexible structure. If sparsity is not exploited and many structural modes are modeled, it follows from equation (11) that a large computational effort would be required to calculate
the closed-loop frequency response function matrix, since this would involve the computation of the matrix term \( (sI - \tilde{A})^{-1} \tilde{B}_d \) with \( s = j\omega \) for all desired frequency values \( \omega \).

In the following it is assumed that \( s \) is not in the spectrum of \( \tilde{A} \) (necessary for the transfer function even to be defined) and it is further assumed that \( s \) is not in the spectrum of \( A_s \). This further assumption is needed to enable some algebraic manipulation, and should not adversely affect the applicability of the following results. On the one hand, since \( A_s \) is the plant state matrix for a linear model of a flexible structure, its eigenvalues occur either at 0 (corresponding to rigid body modes) or in the left half plane (corresponding to damped flexible modes). On the other hand, it is anticipated that these results will be used to compute \( \tilde{T}(s) \) for \( s = j\omega \) with \( \omega > 0 \). Thus, excluding the eigenvalues of \( A_s \) from the domain of applicability of these results does not impact the anticipated usage.

The matrix term \( (sI - \tilde{A}) \) in equation (11) may be written as

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
sI - A_s \\
-B_c C \\
sI_c - A_c 
\end{pmatrix}
\equiv
\begin{bmatrix}
E_{11}(s) & E_{12} \\
E_{21} & E_{22}(s)
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(14)

where \( I_s \), and \( I_c \) are identity matrices of orders equal to the size of plant state vector and controller state vector, respectively. Introduce the notation:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
X_{11}(s) & X_{12}(s) \\
X_{21}(s) & X_{22}(s)
\end{bmatrix}
\equiv
\begin{pmatrix}
(sI - \tilde{A})^{-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\equiv
\begin{bmatrix}
E_{11}(s) & E_{12} \\
E_{21} & E_{22}(s)
\end{bmatrix}^{-1}
\]  

(15)
The assumptions which have been made about \( s \) insure that the inverses in (15) exist, as does \( E_{11}^{-1} \). Rewrite (15) as:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
X_{11} & X_{12} \\
X_{21} & X_{22}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
E_{11} & E_{12} \\
E_{21} & E_{22}
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
I_s & 0 \\
0 & I_e
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Expanding the lower left block of (16) and solving for \( X_{21} \) gives:

\[
X_{21} = -X_{22}E_{21}E_{11}^{-1}
\]

Expanding the lower right block of (16), substituting the previous expression for \( X_{21} \), and factoring gives:

\[
X_{22} = \Delta^{-1}
\]

This demonstrates that \( \Delta \) is invertible, and justifies the application of the block matrix inversion formula given in [3, page 898] to find the inverse of the block matrix in Equation (15):

\[
\Delta = E_{22} - E_{21}E_{11}^{-1}E_{12}
\]

\[
X_{11} = E_{11}^{-1} + E_{11}^{-1}E_{12}\Delta^{-1}E_{21}E_{11}^{-1}
\]

\[
X_{12} = -E_{11}^{-1}E_{12}\Delta^{-1}
\]

\[
X_{21} = -\Delta^{-1}E_{21}E_{11}^{-1}
\]

\[
X_{22} = \Delta^{-1}
\]

Using equations (10) and (15) in equation (11), the closed-loop transfer function from the disturbances to the performance outputs is reduced to:

\[
\tilde{T}(s) = [C_{pr} - D_{upr}C_e] \begin{bmatrix}
X_{11} & X_{12} \\
X_{21} & X_{22}
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
B_d \\
0
\end{bmatrix} + D_{wpr}
\]

\[
= C_{pr}X_{11}B_d - D_{upr}C_eX_{21}B_d + D_{wpr}
\]

Using equation (17) this becomes:

\[
\tilde{T} = C_{pr}E_{11}^{-1}B_d + C_{pr}E_{11}^{-1}E_{12}\Delta^{-1}E_{21}E_{11}^{-1}B_d
\]

\[
+ D_{upr}C_e\Delta^{-1}E_{21}E_{11}^{-1}B_d + D_{wpr}
\]
Using equation (14), replace $E_{12}$ and $E_{21}$ in:

1. the expression for $\Delta$ in equation (17)
2. the previous equation

This produces:

$$\Delta = E_{22} + B_c C E^{-1}_{11} B_s C_c$$

$$\tilde{T} = C^{pr} E^{-1}_{11} B_d - C^{pr} E^{-1}_{11} B_s \left\{ C_c \Delta^{-1} B_c C E^{-1}_{11} B_d \right\}$$

$$- D^{pr} \left\{ C_c \Delta^{-1} B_c C E^{-1}_{11} B_d \right\} + D^{pr}$$

(18)

In this form, the following computational efficiencies are observed:

- Since $E_{11} = (sI - A_s)$ and $B_s$ shares the property of having zeros in the odd numbered rows, the terms $E^{-1}_{11} B_s$ and $E^{-1}_{11} B_d$ can be computed using the techniques presented for efficient computation of the open-loop transfer function (see equation (13)).

- The computation of $\Delta^{-1} B_c$ must be done as a full matrix computation, but since $\Delta$ is of the same order as the control system, which is usually small compared to the order of the analysis model of the plant, it should not be very costly to compute.

- Common sub-expressions, such as those mentioned in the previous items and those enclosed in braces in equation (18) are computed once per frequency, saved, and reused.

- The expected shapes of the matrices and the exploitation of common sub-expressions make it advisable not to precompute some of the matrix products.
in equation (18) which are independent of the frequency parameter \( s \) (if \( X \) is a tall, skinny matrix, and \( Y \) is a short, wide matrix, so that \( W = XY \) is both tall and wide; and if \( z \) is a vector, then calculating \( X(Yz) \) is cheaper than calculating \( Wz \)).

If there are no acceleration sensors in the performance outputs, so that the feed-forward matrices are zero, the software may bypass the second line of the \( \tilde{T} \) calculation in equation (18).

Now, using equation (18) to calculate \( \tilde{T}(s) \), the frequency response function matrix of the closed-loop system is evaluated for various values of \( s = j\omega \), with \( \omega \) taking on the user-specified frequency values. The closed-loop gain and phase plots (Bode plots) may then be computed directly from the frequency response function matrix, if desired.

The closed loop system matrix \( \tilde{A} \) (equation (10)) has order \( 2p + k \). As in the discussion of the open loop calculation, if \( \tilde{T}(s) \) is calculated as in equation (11) using standard full matrix techniques, the computation takes \( O((2p + k)^3) + O((2p + k)^2r) + O((2p + k)lr) \) FLOPs per frequency point. Using the technique of [1] and [2], if the number of frequency points for which the calculation is to be repeated is on the order of \( 2p + k \) or more, then \( \tilde{T}(s) \) can be calculated in \( O((2p + k)^2r) + O((2p + k)lr) \) FLOPs per frequency point. Again, these are cubic and quadratic functions, respectively, of the system size. By counting
FLOPs resulting from subroutine calls and DO loops in the FORTRAN software used to implement the calculation of equation (18), it is determined that $\tilde{T}(s)$ can be calculated in

$$O(p(lr + rq + gm + rm)) + O(k^3 + k^2r + k(qr + qm + rm)) + O(lrm)$$

FLOPs per frequency point. Again, this is a linear function of system size.

In future work, it is expected that the $O(k^3)$ in this last expression, which comes from performing a LU decomposition on the matrix $\Delta$, will be reduced to $O(k^2)$. This will be based on applying the technique of [1] and [2] to $E_{22}$ and making use of the observation that the other term in the definition of $\Delta$ is, in the expected applications, of low rank.

**Software Implementation**

The evaluation of the open- and closed-loop transfer function has been implemented using MATLAB function M-file (MATLAB, a product of The MathWorks, Inc., is “a technical computing environment for high-performance numeric computation and visualization” [4, page i]), and as FORTRAN 77 code which is then accessed through MATLAB using the MEX-file external interface facility. The M-files contain straightforward implementations of the calculations presented in the preceding two subsections.

The FORTRAN source code for the MEX-files uses the Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms (BLAS, [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10], and [11]) to perform vector-
vector, vector-matrix, and matrix-matrix operations. In addition, LAPACK ([12]) subroutine ZGESV, a complex double precision linear equation solver, is used to calculate $\Delta^{-1}B_c$.

**Numerical Examples**

A number of numerical examples are presented to demonstrate the efficiency and accuracy of the algorithm presented in this paper compared to two standard full matrix methods of calculating the frequency response function of a closed-loop system.

**The EOS-AM-1 Spacecraft Model**

The data comes from a model for the EOS-AM-1 spacecraft used in a jitter reduction study ([13]). The structural model contains 703 modes for a potential 1406 plant states. There are 6 rigid body modes and flexible modes ranging from 1.24 to 1564 radians per second. The 6 measurement outputs are the spacecraft’s roll, roll rate, pitch, pitch rate, yaw, and yaw rate measurements at the spacecraft navigational unit. Actuators consist of x-, y-, and z-axis torquers. The control system has 39 states. Up to 10 channels of disturbance input and 27 channels of performance measurement output were used. Each case was run using position measurements at each output, resulting in no feedforward term, and using acceleration measurements at each output, resulting in a feedforward term being present.
All algorithms used in this timing study are intended to be used to calculate the frequency response matrix at multiple frequency points, so that the frequency response may be plotted (as, e.g., Bode plots). They all have some calculations which are done once per entry into the algorithm and other calculations which are done once for every frequency point. To take account of this, all cases were run over a range of 200 frequency points and most of them were rerun using 2000 points (the exceptions were the cases which would have required 5+ days of cpu time to complete). In all cases, the points were logarithmically distributed between frequencies of .01 and 10000 radians per second.

Software Used in Timing Studies

In this study, two software realizations of the closed-loop frequency response function calculations are compared to two software realizations of previously available algorithms.

The present algorithm is programmed both as a MATLAB function M-file and as FORTRAN 77 code which is then accessed through MATLAB using the MEX-file external interface facility. These will be called, respectively, the new M-code and the new Mex-code.

One of the programs used for comparison makes use of the algorithm in [1] and [2]. The FORTRAN code in [2] is in single precision; Laub’s own double precision FORTRAN code is imbedded in the software package FREQ ([14]) and
was used here. This test code is purely in FORTRAN 77. This will be called the old FORTRAN code.

Preliminary testing indicated that, in order to get a reasonably well-conditioned matrix for the \( sI - \tilde{A} \) expression in the Laub code, it was necessary to exercise the built-in option of balancing the \( \tilde{A} \) matrix. The unbalanced matrix was particularly ill-conditioned at low frequencies. This can be attributed to the presence of the rigid body (0 frequency) modes. In the Laub code, balancing was coupled with the extraction of the eigenvalues of \( \tilde{A} \). As Laub wrote this code, the same value of the input flag which signaled the code to balance the \( \tilde{A} \) matrix also signaled the code to extract its eigenvalues. For purposes of timing tests here, the Laub code was modified so that the portion which extracts eigenvalues was bypassed.

The other program used for comparison is the MathWorks M-file \texttt{freqrc.m}, an undocumented utility routine in the \textit{Robust Control Toolbox}, [15], which calculates (to quote the program preamble comments) “Continuous complex frequency response (MIMO)”. This will be called the old M-code. Once again, to achieve reasonable accuracy, it was necessary to balance \( \tilde{A} \). This was done using MATLAB built-in routine \texttt{balance}.

**Timing Comparisons**

The executions times of the four test codes are compared on 12 representative problems. Three different plant sizes were used: a small plant with 1 input, 1
output, and 61 states (24 structural and 39 controller states); a medium plant with
3 inputs, 5 outputs, and 221 states (184 structural and 39 controller states); and
a large plant with 10 inputs, 27 outputs, and 1445 states (1406 structural and
39 controller states). For each plant size, two plants were used: one with no
feedforward term (i.e., no acceleration outputs were used as performance outputs)
and one with feedforward. The frequency response function of each of these 6
plants was calculated at a short (200 values) vector of frequency values and at a
long (2000 values) vector of frequency values.

Particularly on the larger plants, the new algorithm performs dramatically faster
than the older programs. This should not be taken as an indictment of the older
technology. The older technology was designed to apply to an arbitrary plant while
the new takes full advantage of the particular pattern of sparsity which results from
using the modal model of a flexible structure. On the other hand, when the new
technology is applicable, it enables analysis of structures of much larger order than
would be practical or even possible with the older technology.

Table 1 gives the time in seconds to calculate the frequency response function
using each of the 4 test routines for each of these 12 cases (except that the old
M-code does not attempt the two largest cases).

One conclusion to be drawn from this table is that the timing values returned
by the system timing software are not totally consistent with each other. The first
three software packages in that table all check up front to see if feedforward is present. The bulk of the code is executed whether feedforward is present or not. If feedforward is present, additional code is executed which should take additional time. But in 9 of 18 cases, the table shows the feedforward case taking less time than the one without.

That said, there are still significant trends to be observed in this timing data. The new Mex-code is significantly faster than the M-code; in the more important larger cases, about 3 times as fast. This justifies the effort of rendering the algorithm in FORTRAN and writing the interface necessary to access it through MATLAB.

Comparing the new Mex-code, which is FORTRAN based, with the old FORTRAN code shows that for the small system, the old code more than holds its own. This is not unexpected, since in the small system, the controller dominates the count of states. Thus, there is relatively little of the sparsity from the structural part of the plant of which the new Mex-code may take advantage. But even in the medium size case, the new code is 4 to 7 times as fast as the old. This is getting near the size at which conventional numerical analytic wisdom would place the limits of applicability of the old, full matrix based, technique. Since the time for the old FORTRAN code is expected to grow quadratically with the number of system states while that of the new technique is expected to grow only linearly, it is not surprising that the difference between them in the largest example is so great.
In what is called here the old M-code, MathWorks actually used M-files for outer loop logic control to drive a built in function, \texttt{ltifr}. This function calculates the matrix \( G \) whose columns are \( (s(i)I - A)^{-1}b \) where \( s \) is a vector of complex numbers (set in the present application to \( j \omega \), where \( j^2 = -1 \) and \( \omega \) is a vector of frequencies) and \( b \) is a column vector (set in this application to a column of the \( B \) matrix). The on-line help for \texttt{ltifr} states that it “implements, in high speed” what the user could calculate by looping through the elements of \( s \) and building \( G \) one column at a time. Despite this, it is only competitive on the smallest system, and then only against the new M-code which utilizes MATLAB built-in functions only at the more primitive level of basic matrix operations.

All of the algorithms tested do have some “once per entry” calculations in addition to the calculations which occur once per frequency value. Thus, the time for the 2000 point calculations should never be more than 10 times that for the 200 point calculations. In Table 1, there are several exceptions to this. This reinforces the previous remark that the numbers returned by the computer system timing routines are, at best, approximate. However, from looking at the largest case, it can be reasonably concluded that the “once per entry” overhead is fairly small in both realizations of the new algorithm while being substantial in the old FORTRAN code, at least for large systems. This is expected, since for a system of order \( n \) (all other parameters being held fixed), the “once per entry” overhead in the old FORTRAN code includes the initial reduction which takes \( O(n^3) \) FLOPs,
while the “per frequency point” calculation takes $O(n^2)$ FLOPs.

**Accuracy**

No formal error analysis has been performed on the new algorithm. There is, however, numerical evidence to support the thesis that the new algorithm is more accurate than the older techniques, particularly when applied to larger systems.

Outputs from the four algorithm realizations were compared. For each frequency value, individual entries in the frequency response matrices computed by the four codes were compared using a symmetric relative error: The discrepancy between complex numbers $z$ and $w$ (not both 0) was measured by

$$\delta(z, w) = \frac{|z - w|}{.5(|z| + |w|)}.$$

This error measure ranges from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 2. A value of $\delta(z, w)$ near $10^{-n}$ indicates that $z$ and $w$ agree to about $n$ decimal places while $\delta(z, w) > .1$ indicates anything from rough approximation (near .1) to no correlation (bigger than, say, 1). For each fixed frequency, the worst discrepancy over all possible input-output pairs was observed.

The size of the discrepancy between the frequency response function matrices computed by these codes was observed to depend not only on which two of the codes were being compared but also on the size of the system, the frequency, and whether or not feedforward was present. It would take too much space to present details of these comparisons. However, some general statements can be made.
For each of the test problems (corresponding to one row of Table 1), the results produced by the four codes were compared two by two. The overall best agreement between any pair of calculations came from comparing the outputs of the new Mex-code and the new M-code. At worst, these agree to about 7 decimal places. This generally improves with reduction of system size or increase in frequency so that best agreement is within machine accuracy. No other pairing, either between one of the new codes and one of the old or between the two old, ever showed noticeably better agreement, and in general the agreement was much worse. It frequently occurred that the results from comparing the two new codes showed that the agreement of their computations was better than that of any other pairing by at least 2 decimal places. In the largest system, this advantage could increase to 5 decimal places, particularly for small frequencies or when no feedforward was present.

Thus, two dissimilar implementations of the new algorithm produce results in good agreement. When a parallel process is applied to the older algorithm, the two dissimilar implementations produce results which are not in such good agreement, either with each other or with those of the new algorithm.

To provide further evidence that the results of the new algorithm are the more accurate, the old FORTRAN code was translated to quadruple precision from its native double precision and was run (at a time penalty of about 32×) on the medium sized problem using no feedforward and 200 frequency points. The output from
this showed the same degree of agreement with the output from the new codes as
they showed with each other.

These results combine to indicate strongly that the new algorithm provides
more accurate results than those previously available. There are theoretical grounds
for expecting this. The old way requires the solution of linear systems with the
coefficient matrix $sI - \tilde{A}$ which is usually of large order. It also had conditioning
problems which balancing ameliorated, but did not totally eliminate.

In the new algorithm, the coefficient matrices involved in the solution of linear
systems are $\Delta$, which has the same order as the controller, and, for $i = 1, \cdots, p$,
$sI_2 - A^i_s$, which is of order 2. Particularly when dealing with a large order structural
model, the coefficient matrices used by the new algorithm are much smaller than
the matrix $sI - \tilde{A}$ used by the old, so there is much less opportunity for round-off
error. Any conditioning problems coming from the interaction of the frequency
represented by $s = j\omega$ and the $i$–th structural mode in the old method is isolated
in the new method to calculating the denominator term $\omega_i^2 - \omega^2 + 2j\zeta_i\omega_i\omega$ in
equation (13); and this only gives numerical problems if $\omega$ is so close to $\omega_i$ that
truncation occurs in forming the difference, and $\zeta_i$ is so small that the (small) real
part $\omega_i^2 - \omega^2$ is a significant part of the whole term.

**Summary**

An efficient and novel procedure has been developed for the calculation of
the frequency response function of a large order, flexible system implemented with a linear, time invariant control system. The procedure takes advantage of the highly structured sparsity of the system matrices of the plant in normal mode coordinates. This reduces the computational cost from a quadratic function of the order of the system to a linear function, thereby permitting the practical frequency analysis of systems of much larger order than by traditional, full-matrix means. Formulations have been given for both open and closed loop systems. Numerical examples were presented wherein the advantages of the present formulation over traditional approaches, both in speed and in accuracy have been demonstrated. When exercised on the largest systems, the new Mex-code was about 40 times as fast as the old FORTRAN code when many frequency points were used while the advantage increased to a factor of about 80 or better when the calculation involved few frequency points. In this latter case, the new M-code was over 200 times as fast as the old M-code.
<table>
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<th>System Size&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Freq. vector length</th>
<th>Feed-forward present</th>
<th>New Mex-code</th>
<th>New M-code</th>
<th>Old FORTRAN code</th>
<th>Old M-code</th>
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<sup>a</sup> In "m/n" in the first line, "m" is the number of inputs and "n" is the number of outputs.
In "m+n" in the second line, "m" is the number of structural states and "n" is the number of controller states.
Bibliography


