II.1 Introduction to Model Order Reduction via Krylov Subspace Projection

# Linear dynamical systems

Continuous, time-invariant, MIMO

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \mathbf{G}\mathbf{x}(t) &= \mathbf{B}\,\mathbf{u}(t),\\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{x}(t), \end{aligned}$$

with  $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$ , where

$\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{N  imes 1}$ :	state variables $N$
	state-space dimension
$\mathbf{C},\mathbf{G}\in\mathbf{R}^{N imes N}$	system matrices
$\mathbf{B} \in \mathbf{R}^{N  imes m}$ :	input influence arrays
$\mathbf{L} \in \mathbf{R}^{N  imes p}$ :	output influence arrays
$\mathbf{u}(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{m  imes 1}$ :	inputs
$\mathbf{y}(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{p  imes 1}$ :	outputs

### Remarks

Assume that the pencil  $\lambda C + G$  is regular, i.e.,

 $\det(\lambda \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{G}) \not\equiv 0.$ 

Important special cases:

• 
$$\mathbf{C}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{C}$$
 and  $\mathbf{G}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{G}$ , indefinite.

e.g., RLC systems,

linearization of symmetric quadratic systems

• 
$$\mathbf{C}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{C} \ge 0$$
 and  $\mathbf{G}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{G} \ge 0$ .

e.g., RC systems, Mass-stiffness systems

- Semi-discretization of PDEs
- Small-signal analysis of nonlinear systems
- Nonlinear systems with large linear subsystems

### Linear dynamical systems in frequency domain

• By taking Laplace transform

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = \int_{0+}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt,$$

we have

$$s\mathbf{C}\mathbf{X}(s) = -\mathbf{G}\mathbf{X}(s) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{U}(s)$$
  
 $\mathbf{Y}(s) = \mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{X}(s)$ 

where

$$\{\mathbf{X}(s), \mathbf{Y}(s), \mathbf{U}(s)\} = \mathcal{L}\{\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{y}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)\}$$

and assume  $\mathbf{x}(0+) = \mathbf{x}_0 = 0$ .

• The ratio of the output  $\mathbf{Y}(s)$  to the input  $\mathbf{U}(s)$  is given by the *transfer (matrix) function* 

$$\mathbf{H}(s) = \mathbf{L}^T (\mathbf{G} + s\mathbf{C})^{-1}\mathbf{B}$$

### Computational tasks

## • Steady-state analysis

the steady-state response of a system to a sinusoidal input signal (or periodic excitation).

## • Transient analysis

the response of a system as a function of time

# • Sensitivity analysis

the proportional change of a system to a proportional change in the system parameters.

- Large state-space dimension  $N \sim \mathcal{O}(10^6)$
- Stiffness (multi-energy domain, multi-scaling, ...) Time integration step  $\delta t$  may be required as small as  $O(10^{-6})$  sec.

#### **Eigensystem analysis of transfer function**

For simplicity, let us only consider the SISO system; p = m = 1.

• To compute H(s) around an expansion point  $s_0$ , let  $s = s_0 + \sigma$ . Then

$$H(s) = H(s_0 + \sigma) = \mathbf{l}^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{r}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = -(\mathbf{G} + s_0 \mathbf{C})^{-1} \mathbf{C}, \qquad \mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{G} + s_0 \mathbf{C})^{-1} \mathbf{b}.$$

• Eigendecomposition of A:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S} \Lambda \mathbf{S}^{-1} = \mathbf{S} \cdot \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N) \cdot \mathbf{S}^{-1}$$

• Pole-residue representation

$$H(s_0 + \sigma) = \mathbf{f}^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \Lambda)^{-1} \mathbf{g} = \rho_\infty + \sum_{\lambda_j \neq 0} \frac{\kappa_j}{\sigma - p_j}.$$

where  $p_j = s_0 + \frac{1}{\lambda_j}$  are **poles**,  $\kappa_j = -\frac{f_j g_j}{\lambda_j}$  are **residues**, and  $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{S}^T \mathbf{l} = (f_j)$  and  $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{r} = (g_j)$ .

• In practice, A is either too ill-conditioned or too large to compute its full eigendecomposition!

## **Eigensystem analysis of transfer function**

Alternative "direct" methods (for example):

• Let  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Q}^T$  be the Schur decomposition. Then

$$H(s) = \mathbf{l}^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{l})^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{T})^{-1} (\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{r})$$

 $\Rightarrow$  only suitable for small systems

Approximation (for example):

• Use partial eigen-decomposition

With harmonic excitation  $\mathbf{Bu}(t) = \mathbf{P}(\omega)e^{i\omega t}$ , one may assume a harmonic solution of the form  $\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{Q}_k \mathbf{v}(\omega)e^{i\omega t}$ . Then solve

$$\begin{bmatrix} i\omega \mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{Q}_k + \mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{Q}_k \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}(\omega) = \mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{P}(\omega) \quad \text{for} \quad \mathbf{v}(\omega).$$

 $\mathbf{Q}_k$  are selected mode shapes (eigenvectors), lie within the range of forcing frequencies (*dominant poles/modes*)

 $\Rightarrow$  *Modal superposition method (AMLS, AS, ...)* 

# **Reudced-order modeling (ROM)**

Goals:

- Replace the original system by a system of the same type but with *much smaller* state-space dimension
- Represent *a meaningful approximation* of the original system
- Preserve *essential properties* of the original system.

Applications:

• Efficient *analysis* and *synthesis* of a large scale dynamical system.

Reudced-order modeling (ROM), cont'

Specifically, given a linear system, we want to Find a new linear system of the same form  $\mathbf{C}_n \dot{\mathbf{z}}(t) + \mathbf{G}_n \mathbf{z}(t) = \mathbf{B}_n \mathbf{u}(t),$  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) = \mathbf{L}_n^T \mathbf{z}(t),$ 

where

$$\mathbf{C}_{n}, \mathbf{G}_{n} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$$
  
 $\mathbf{z}(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times 1}$   
 $\mathbf{B}_{n} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times m}, \mathbf{L}_{n} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times p},$   
 $\mathbf{u}(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times 1}$ : inputs (m)  
 $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times 1}$ : outputs (p)  
such that

•  $n \ll N$ 

•  $\|\mathbf{y}(t) - \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| \le \epsilon \text{ for } \mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{F}, t \in [t_0, t_1]$ 

The transfer function of the reduced-order model is of the form:

$$\mathbf{H}_n(s) = \mathbf{L}_n^T (\mathbf{G}_n + s\mathbf{C}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{B}_n$$

Therefore, in the frequency domain, our *objective* is to ask

 $\|\mathbf{H}(s) - \mathbf{H}_n(s)\| \le \epsilon$ 

over the frequency range of interest, and

 $n \ll N$ 

A simple RLC network [Chiprout & Nakhla'94]



Modified nodal admittance formulation (Kirchoff's laws) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \mathbf{G}\mathbf{x}(t) &= \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t), \\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{x}(t), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}(t)$ : 11 × 1,  $\mathbf{C}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$ : 11 × 11,  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{e}_8$ ,  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{e}_7$ , and  $\mathbf{u}(t)$ :

 $L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i & 0 & i$ 

## An illustrative simple example, cont'

Frequency responses H(s),  $H_2(s)$ ,  $H_4(s)$ ,  $H_6(s)$ 



# An illustrative simple example, cont'

Transient responses y(t),  $\tilde{y}_2(t)$ ,  $\tilde{y}_4(t)$ ,  $\tilde{y}_6(t)$ :



- SVD-based methods
   Balanced truncation
   Hankel-norm approximation
   Proper orthogonal decomposition
- Krylov-based methods

   explicit moment-matching
   moment-matching via Krylov subspace projection
- 3. SVD-Krylov methods

iterative methof for approximate balance trunction ...

#### Padé approximation and moment-matching

• Since  $H(s_0 + \sigma)$  is a rational function, it may be best approximated by Padé approximation:

$$H_n(s_0 + \sigma) = \frac{P_{n-1}(\sigma)}{Q_n(\sigma)} \equiv \frac{a_{n-1}\sigma^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\sigma + a_0}{b_n\sigma^n + b_{n-1}\sigma^{n-1} + \dots + b_1\sigma + 1}$$

• The coefficients  $\{a_j\}$  and  $\{b_j\}$  are uniquely determined by the first 2n Taylor coefficients of  $H(s_0 + \sigma)$ :

$$H(s_0 + \sigma) = \mathbf{l}^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{r}$$
  
=  $\mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{r} + (\mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{r}) \sigma + (\mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{A}^2 \mathbf{r}) \sigma^2 + \cdots$   
=  $m_0 + m_1 \sigma + m_2 \sigma^2 + \cdots$ 

where  $m_j = \mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{A}^j \mathbf{r}$  for j = 0, 1, 2, ... are called moments (or markov parameters).

• Padé approximation

$$H(s_0 + \sigma) = H_n(s_0 + \sigma) + \mathcal{O}(\sigma^{2n})$$

$$H(s_0 + \sigma)Q_n(\sigma) \cong P_{n-1}(\sigma),$$

by comparing the coefficient of  $\sigma^k$  terms for k = 0, 1, ..., 2n - 1, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_0 & m_1 & \cdots & m_{n-1} \\ m_1 & m_2 & \cdots & m_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ m_{n-1} & m_n & \cdots & m_{2n-2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_n \\ b_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} m_n \\ m_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ m_{2n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where the coefficient matrix is the **Hankel matrix**  $M_n$ , and

$$\begin{cases} a_0 = m_0 \\ a_1 = m_0 b_1 + m_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} = m_0 b_{n-1} + m_1 b_{n-2} + \dots + m_{n-2} b_1 + m_{n-1} \end{cases}$$

#### Padé approximation and moment-macthing, cont'

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⇒ Asymptotic Waveform Evaluations (AWE) techniques.
[Pillage & Rohrer, '90]
[Chiprout & Nakhla, '94]
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However,  $M_n$  is generally very ill-conditioned!

For example

$$n = 2 \quad \text{cond}(\mathbf{M}_2) = 2.62$$
  

$$n = 3 \quad \text{cond}(\mathbf{M}_3) = 5.4 \times 10^3$$
  

$$n = 4 \quad \text{cond}(\mathbf{M}_4) = 1.13 \times 10^9$$
  

$$n = 6 \quad \text{cond}(\mathbf{M}_6) = 1.21 \times 10^{17}$$

#### **Krylov subspaces**

- *Right* Krylov subspace  $\mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{r}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{Ar}, \mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{r}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{n-1}\mathbf{r}\}$
- Left Krylov subspace  $\mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{A}^T, \mathbf{l}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{l}, (\mathbf{A}^T)^2 \mathbf{l}, \dots, (\mathbf{A}^T)^{n-1} \mathbf{l}\}$
- Krylov subspace and Hankel matrix  $\mathbf{M}_n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{l}^{T} \\ \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{A} \mathbf{r} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{r} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{r} & \cdots & \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{2} \mathbf{r} & \cdots & \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{n} \mathbf{r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{n} \mathbf{r} & \cdots & \mathbf{l}^{T} \mathbf{A}^{2n-2} \mathbf{r} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} m_{0} & m_{1} & \cdots & m_{n-1} \\ m_{1} & m_{2} & \cdots & m_{n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ m_{n-1} & m_{n} & \cdots & m_{2n-2} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{M}_{n}$$

**Key issue**: Krylov subspaces provide the desired information, but the vectors

$$\{\mathbf{A}^{j}\mathbf{r}\}$$
 and  $\{(\mathbf{A}^{T})^{j}\mathbf{l}\}$ 

are unstable as basis vectors.

Question: How to construct more stable basis vectors

$$\{\mathbf{v}_k\}$$
 and  $\{\mathbf{w}_j\}$ 

such that

$$\mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{A},\mathbf{r}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1,\mathbf{v}_2,\ldots,\mathbf{v}_n\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{A}^T, \mathbf{l}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n\}$$

Solution: Lanczos process is an elegant way to generate the desired basis vectors [Lanczos, '50].

(1) 
$$\rho_{1} = \|\mathbf{r}\|_{2}, \eta_{1} = \|\mathbf{l}\|_{2}$$
  
(2)  $\mathbf{v}_{1} = \mathbf{r}/\rho_{1}, \mathbf{w}_{1} = \mathbf{l}/\eta_{1}$   
(3) **for**  $k = 1, 2, ..., n$  **do**  
(4)  $\delta_{k} = \mathbf{w}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{k}$   
(5)  $\alpha_{k} = \mathbf{w}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_{k} / \delta_{k}$   
(6)  $\beta_{k} = (\delta_{k}/\delta_{k-1})\eta_{k}$   
(7)  $\gamma_{k} = (\delta_{k}/\delta_{k-1})\rho_{k}$   
(8)  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_{k} - \mathbf{v}_{k}\alpha_{k} - \mathbf{v}_{k-1}\beta_{k}$   
(9)  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{w}_{k} - \mathbf{w}_{k}\alpha_{k} - \mathbf{w}_{k-1}\gamma_{k}$   
(10)  $\rho_{k+1} = \|\mathbf{v}\|_{2}$   
(11)  $\eta_{k+1} = \|\mathbf{w}\|_{2}$   
(12)  $\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \mathbf{v}/\rho_{k+1}$   
(13)  $\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \mathbf{w}/\eta_{k+1}$ 

A fundamental tool in numerical analysis, particularly, for large scale matrix computations.

• Lanczos process in matrix-vector form

$$egin{array}{lll} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{V}_n \ = \ \mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{T}_n + 
ho_{n+1} \mathbf{v}_{n+1} \mathbf{e}_n^T, \ \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{W}_n \ = \ \mathbf{W}_n \widetilde{\mathbf{T}}_n + \eta_{n+1} \mathbf{w}_{n+1} \mathbf{e}_n^T, \end{array}$$

where  $\mathbf{T}_n$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_n$  are the tridiagonal matrices

$$\mathbf{T}_{n} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{1} & \beta_{2} & & \\ \rho_{2} & \alpha_{2} & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \beta_{n} \\ & & \rho_{n} & \alpha_{n} \end{bmatrix} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{n}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{1} & \gamma_{2} & & \\ \eta_{2} & \alpha_{2} & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \gamma_{n} \\ & & \eta_{n} & \alpha_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_n^T = \Delta_n \mathbf{T}_n \Delta_n^{-1}$
- Lanczos vectors

$$\mathbf{V}_{n} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_{1} \ \mathbf{v}_{2} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_{n} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{V}_{n}\} = \mathcal{K}_{n}(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{r})$$
$$\mathbf{W}_{n} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{1} \ \mathbf{w}_{2} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{w}_{n} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{W}_{n}\} = \mathcal{K}_{n}(\mathbf{A}^{T}, \mathbf{l})$$

• Biorthogonality

$$\mathbf{W}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{V}_{n} = \Delta_{n} = \operatorname{diag}(\delta_{k}),$$
  
and  $\mathbf{W}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{v}_{n+1} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{w}_{n+1}^{T}\mathbf{V}_{n} = 0$ 

• Projection

$$\mathbf{W}_n^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{V}_n = \Delta_n \mathbf{T}_n$$

If the Lanczos process is carried to the end, then

$$\mathbf{V}_N^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}_N=\mathbf{T}_N,$$

## **Reduced-order modeling by Lanczos**

• Let 
$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{v}_1 \rho_1$$
 and  $\mathbf{l}^T = \mathbf{w}_1^T \eta_1$ 

$$H(s_0 + \sigma) = \mathbf{l}^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{e}_1^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{T}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{e}_1$$
  
=  $(\mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{r}) \frac{\det(\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{T}_N)}{\det(\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{T}_N)} = \frac{\operatorname{zero}}{\operatorname{pole}}$  representation

• Define the *n*-th ROM of transfer function

$$H_n(s_0 + \sigma) = (\mathbf{l}^T \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{e}_1^T (\mathbf{I} - \sigma \mathbf{T}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{e}_1$$

where

$$\mathbf{T}_N = \begin{array}{cc} n \\ \mathbf{T}_n \\ & \ddots \end{array} \right)$$

• Question: What is  $H_n(s_0 + \sigma)$ ?

What is  $H_n(s_0 + \sigma)$ ?

• Lanczos-Padé connection

**Theorem.**  $H_n(s_0 + \sigma)$  is the Padé approximation of  $H(s_0 + \sigma)$ .

• Lanczos-Padé connection

[Gragg, '74, Gragg & Lindquist, '83]

Krylov subspace, moments matching and applications to ROM [De Villemagen & Skelton,'87]
[Craig, Hale & Su,'88--'92]
[Feldman & Freund,'94] (PVL)
[Gallivan, Grimme & Van Dooren,'94]
[Bai & Ye,'97]

#### **Example: PEEC circuit**

A 3D electromagnetic problem modeled via partial element equivalent circuit (PEEC) simulation [Ruehli, '94]

|H(s)| and  $|H_{60}(s)|$ :



#### **ROM** in time domain

Linear dynamical system:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \mathbf{G}\mathbf{x}(t) &= \mathbf{B}\,\mathbf{u}(t), \\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{x}(t), \end{cases}$$

Let  $\mathbf{A} = -(\mathbf{G} + s_0 \mathbf{C})^{-1} \mathbf{C}$  and  $\mathbf{R} = (\mathbf{G} + s_0 \mathbf{C})^{-1} \mathbf{B}$ , then yield the "shift-and-invert" system

$$\begin{cases} -\mathbf{A}\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) + (\mathbf{I} + s_0 \mathbf{A})\mathbf{x}(t) &= \mathbf{R} \mathbf{u}(t), \\ \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{x}(t), \end{cases}$$

Let

$$\mathbf{x}(t) \cong \mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{z}(t),$$

then the approximate system

$$\begin{cases} -\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}_n \dot{\mathbf{z}}(t) + (\mathbf{I} + s_0 \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{z}(t) &= \mathbf{R} \mathbf{u}(t), \\ \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) &= \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{z}(t). \end{cases}$$

Multiplying  $\mathbf{W}_n^T$  from the left, we have

$$\begin{cases} -\mathbf{W}_n^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{V}_n \dot{\mathbf{z}}(t) + \mathbf{W}_n^T (\mathbf{I} + s_0 \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{z}(t) &= \mathbf{W}_n^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{u}(t), \\ \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) &= \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{z}(t). \end{cases}$$

*n*-th reduced-order model:

$$\begin{cases} -\mathbf{T}_n \dot{\mathbf{z}}(t) + (\mathbf{I}_n + s_0 \mathbf{T}_n) \mathbf{z}(t) &= \mathbf{R}_n \mathbf{u}(t), \\ \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) &= \mathbf{L}_n^T \mathbf{z}(t). \end{cases}$$

- A linear(ized) system is **stable** 
  - if all the poles  $p_j$  of H(s) lie in

$$\mathcal{C}_{-} := \{ s \in \mathcal{C} \mid \Re(s) < 0 \}$$

and

– if all pole s of H(s) on the imaginary axis,  $\Re(s)=0,$  are simple, i.e.,

$$H(s) \cong \frac{\kappa_j}{s - p_j}$$
 as  $s \to p_j$ 

• This guarantees that, in the time domain,

 $\exp(p_j t)$  remains bounded as  $t \to \infty$ 

A stable system is a dynamic system with a bounded response to a bounded input.

### **Property of LS: passivity and positive realness**

A (linear or nonlinear) system is called **passive** if it is incapable of generating energy and can only absorb energy form the sources used to excited it. For example, RLC circuits are passive. Mathematically,

$$\int_0^T y(t) \cdot u(t) dt \ge 0, \qquad \forall \ T \ge 0$$

By Parseval's identity,

**Passivity** = H(s) is **Positive Real** 

#### **Positive real**

A function  $f : \mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  is called **positive real** if (i) f is analytic in  $\mathcal{C}_+ \equiv \{s \in \mathcal{C}, \Re(s) > 0\}$ ; (ii)  $f(\bar{s}) = \overline{f(s)}$  for all  $s \in \mathcal{C}$ ; (iii)  $\Re(f(s)) \ge 0$  for all  $s \in \mathcal{C}_+$ .

## **Positive realness of a rational function**

Using standard results from complex analysis, such as the maximum modulus theorem, one readily obtains the following well-known conditions for a rational function to be positive real;

Theorem: Let f be a rational function.

- a) If f is positive real, then it has no poles and zeros in  $C_+$  and any possible pole and zero on the imaginary axis (including  $s = \infty$ ) is simple.
- b) The function f is positive real if, and and if, it has no poles in  $C_+$  and

 $\Re\left(f(\mathtt{i}\,\omega)\right)\geq 0\quad\text{for all}\quad\omega\in\mathcal{R}.$ 

References: [Anderson and Vongpanitlerd'73], [Boyd et al'94], ...

## **Further reading**

The above presentation is based on the following introductory survey:

 Z. Bai, Krylov subspace techniques for reduced-order modeling of large-scale dynamical systems, Appl. Numer. Math. 43:9-44, 2002

It is available on the class website. The basic implementation of some methods and test data discussed in the survey paper can be found in

• http://www.cs.ucdavis.edu/~bai/ROMmatlab

A graduate textbook on the subject is published by SIAM in 2005:

• A. C. Antoulas, Approximation of Large-Scale Dynamical Systems, SIAM Press, 2005