

1. Introduction to Structural Approach — Overview of the Book

This chapter is a brief introduction to the central ideas of the combinatorial method of this book for the structural analysis of engineering systems. We explain the motivations and the general framework by referring, as a specific example, to the problem of computing the index of a system of differential-algebraic equations (DAEs). In this approach, engineering systems are described by mixed polynomial matrices. A kind of dimensional analysis is also invoked. It is emphasized that relevant physical observations are crucial to successful mathematical modeling for structural analysis. Though the DAE-index problem is considered as an example, the methodology introduced here is more general in scope and is applied to other problems in subsequent chapters.

1.1 Structural Approach to Index of DAE

1.1.1 Index of Differential-algebraic Equations

Let us start with a simple electrical network¹ of Fig. 1.1 to introduce the concept of an index of a system of *differential-algebraic equations* (DAEs) and to explain a graph-theoretic method.

The network consists of a voltage source V (branch 1), two ohmic resistors R_1 and R_2 (branch 2 and branch 3), an inductor L (branch 4), and a capacitor C (branch 5). A state of this network is described by a 10 dimensional vector $\mathbf{x} = (\xi^1, \dots, \xi^5, \eta_1, \dots, \eta_5)^T$ representing currents ξ^i in and the voltage η_i across branch i ($i = 1, \dots, 5$) with reference to the directions indicated in Fig. 1.1. The governing equations in the frequency domain are given by a system of equations $A^{(1)}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where $\mathbf{b} = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0; V, 0, 0, 0, 0)^T$ is another 10 dimensional vector representing the source, and $A^{(1)}$ is a 10×10 matrix defined by

¹ This example, described in Cellier [28, §3.7], was communicated to the author by P. Bujakiewicz, F. Cellier, and R. Huber.

$$A^{(1)} = \begin{array}{c|ccccc} & \xi^1 & \xi^2 & \xi^3 & \xi^4 & \xi^5 & \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 \\ \hline & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & & & & & \\ & -1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & & & & \\ \hline & & & & & & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ & & & & & & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ & & & & & & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & R_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & R_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & sL & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & sC \end{array}. \quad (1.1)$$

As usual, s is the variable for the Laplace transformation that corresponds to d/dt , the differentiation with respect to time (see Remark 1.1.1 for the Laplace transformation). The first two equations, corresponding to the 1st and 2nd rows of $A^{(1)}$, represent *Kirchhoff's current law (KCL)*, while the following three equations *Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL)*. The last five equations express the element characteristics (*constitutive equations*). The system of equations, $A^{(1)}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, represents a mixture of differential equations and algebraic equations (i.e., a linear time-invariant DAE), since the coefficient matrix $A^{(1)}$ contains the variable s .

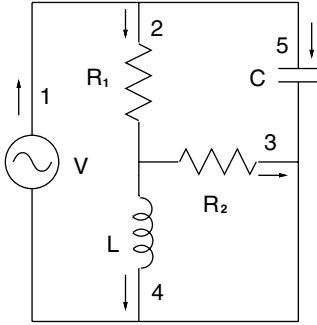


Fig. 1.1. An electrical network

For a linear time-invariant DAE in general, say $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with $A = A(s)$ being a nonsingular polynomial matrix in s , the *index* is defined (see Remark 1.1.2) by

$$\nu(A) = \max_{i,j} \deg_s (A^{-1})_{ji} + 1. \quad (1.2)$$

Here it should be clear that each entry $(A^{-1})_{ji}$ of A^{-1} is a rational function in s and the degree of a rational function p/q (with p and q being polynomials) is defined by $\deg_s(p/q) = \deg_s p - \deg_s q$. An alternative expression for $\nu(A)$ is

$$\nu(A) = \max_{i,j} \deg_s((i,j)\text{-cofactor of } A) - \deg_s \det A + 1. \quad (1.3)$$

For the matrix $A^{(1)}$ of (1.1), we see

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{i,j} \deg_s((i,j)\text{-cofactor of } A^{(1)}) &= \deg_s((6,5)\text{-cofactor of } A^{(1)}) = 2, \\ \det A^{(1)} &= R_1 R_2 + sL \cdot R_1 + sL \cdot R_2 \end{aligned} \quad (1.4)$$

by direct calculation and therefore $\nu(A^{(1)}) = 2 - 1 + 1 = 2$ by the formula (1.3).

The solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is of course given by $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$, and therefore $\nu(A) - 1$ equals the highest order of the derivatives of the input \mathbf{b} that can possibly appear in the solution \mathbf{x} . As such, a high index indicates difficulty in the numerical solution of the DAE, and sometimes even inadequacy in the mathematical modeling. Note that the index is equal to one for a system of purely algebraic equations (where $A(s)$ is free from s), and to zero for a system of ordinary differential equations in the normal form ($d\mathbf{x}/dt = A_0\mathbf{x}$ with a constant matrix A_0 , represented by $A(s) = sI - A_0$).

Remark 1.1.1. For a function $x(t)$, $t \in [0, \infty)$, the *Laplace transform* is defined by $\hat{x}(s) = \int_0^\infty x(t)e^{-st}dt$, $s \in \mathbf{C}$. The Laplace transform of $dx(t)/dt$ is given by $s\hat{x}(s)$ if $x(0) = 0$. See Doetsch [49] and Widder [341] for precise mathematical accounts and Chen [33], Kailath [152] and Zadeh–Desoer [350] for system theoretic aspects of the Laplace transformation. \square

Remark 1.1.2. The definition of the index given in (1.2) applies only to linear time-invariant DAE systems. An index can be defined for more general systems and two kinds are distinguished in the literature, a differential index and a perturbation index, which coincide with each other for linear time-invariant DAE systems. See Brenan–Campbell–Petzold [21], Hairer–Lubich–Roche [100], and Hairer–Wanner [101] for details. \square

Remark 1.1.3. Extensive study has been made recently on the DAE index in the literature of numerical computation and system modeling. See, e.g., Brenan–Campbell–Petzold [21], Bujakiewicz [26], Bujakiewicz–van den Bosch [27], Cellier–Elmqvist [29], Duff–Gear [60], Elmqvist–Otter–Cellier [72], Gani–Cameron [86], Gear [88, 89], Günther–Feldmann [98], Günther–Rentrop [99], Hairer–Wanner [101], Mattsson–Söderlind [188], Pantelides [264], Ponton–Gawthrop [272], and Ungar–Kröner–Marquardt [324]. \square

1.1.2 Graph-theoretic Structural Approach

Structural considerations turn out to be useful in computing the index of DAE. This section describes the basic idea of the graph-theoretic structural methods.

In the graph-theoretic structural approach we extract the information about the degree of the entries of the matrix, ignoring the numerical values

of the coefficients. Associated with the matrix $A^{(1)}$ of (1.1), for example, we consider

$$A_{\text{str}}^{(1)} = \begin{array}{c|ccccc} \xi^1 & \xi^2 & \xi^3 & \xi^4 & \xi^5 & \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 \\ \hline t_1 & t_2 & 0 & 0 & t_3 & & & & & \\ t_4 & 0 & t_5 & t_6 & t_7 & & & & & \\ \hline & & & & & t_8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_9 \\ & & & & & 0 & t_{10} & t_{11} & 0 & t_{12} \\ & & & & & 0 & 0 & t_{13} & t_{14} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{15} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & t_{16} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{17} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & t_{18} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{19} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & s t_{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{21} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{22} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s t_{23} \end{array}$$

where t_1, \dots, t_{23} are assumed to be independent parameters.

For a polynomial matrix $A = A(s) = (A_{ij})$ in general, we consider a matrix $A_{\text{str}} = A_{\text{str}}(s)$, called the *structured matrix* associated with A , in a similar manner. For a nonzero entry A_{ij} , let $\alpha_{ij}s^{w_{ij}}$ be its leading term, where $\alpha_{ij} \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and $w_{ij} = \deg_s A_{ij}$. Then $(A_{\text{str}})_{ij}$ is defined to be equal to $s^{w_{ij}}$ multiplied by an independent parameter t_{ij} . Note that the numerical information about the leading coefficient α_{ij} is discarded with the replacement by t_{ij} . Namely, we define the (i, j) entry of A_{str} by

$$(A_{\text{str}})_{ij} = \begin{cases} t_{ij}s^{\deg_s A_{ij}} & (\text{if } A_{ij} \neq 0) \\ 0 & (\text{if } A_{ij} = 0) \end{cases} \quad (1.5)$$

where t_{ij} is an independent parameter. We refer to the index of A_{str} in the sense of (1.2) or (1.3) as the *structural index* of A and denote it by $\nu_{\text{str}}(A)$, namely,

$$\nu_{\text{str}}(A) = \nu(A_{\text{str}}). \quad (1.6)$$

Two different matrices, say A and A' , are associated with the same structured matrix, $A_{\text{str}} = A'_{\text{str}}$, if $\deg_s A_{ij} = \deg_s A'_{ij}$ for all (i, j) . In other words, a structured matrix is associated with a family of matrices that have a common structure with respect to the degrees of the entries. Though there is no guarantee that the structural index $\nu_{\text{str}}(A)$ coincides with the true index $\nu(A)$ for a particular (numerically specified) matrix A , it is true that $\nu_{\text{str}}(A') = \nu(A')$ for “almost all” matrices A' that have the same structure as A in the sense of $A'_{\text{str}} = A_{\text{str}}$. That is, the equality $\nu_{\text{str}}(A') = \nu(A')$ holds true for “almost all” values of t_{ij} ’s, or, in mathematical terms, “generically” with respect to the parameter set $\{t_{ij} \mid A_{ij} \neq 0\}$. (The precise definition of “generically” is given in §2.1.)

The structural index has the advantage that it can be computed by an efficient combinatorial algorithm free from numerical difficulties. This is based on a close relationship between subdeterminants of a structured matrix and matchings in a bipartite graph.

Specifically, we consider a bipartite graph $G(A) = (\text{Row}(A), \text{Col}(A); E)$ with the left vertex set corresponding to the row set $\text{Row}(A)$ of the matrix A , the right vertex set corresponding to the column set $\text{Col}(A)$, and the edge set corresponding to the set of nonzero entries of $A = (A_{ij})$, i.e.,

$$E = \{(i, j) \mid i \in \text{Row}(A), j \in \text{Col}(A), A_{ij} \neq 0\}.$$

Each edge $(i, j) \in E$ is given a weight $w_{ij} = \deg_s A_{ij}$.

For instance, the bipartite graph $G(A^{(1)})$ associated with our example matrix $A^{(1)}$ of (1.1) is given in Fig. 1.2(a). The thin lines indicate edges (i, j) of weight $w_{ij} = 0$ and the thick lines designate two edges, $(i, j) = (9, 4), (10, 10)$, of weight $w_{ij} = 1$.

A matching M in $G(A)$ is, by definition, a set of edges (i.e. $M \subseteq E$) such that no two members of M have an end-vertex in common. The weight of M , denoted $w(M)$, is defined by

$$w(M) = \sum_{(i,j) \in M} w_{ij},$$

while the size of M means $|M|$, the number of edges contained in M . We denote by \mathcal{M}_k the family of all the matchings of size k in $G(A)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots$, and by \mathcal{M} the family of all the matchings of any size (i.e., $\mathcal{M} = \cup_k \mathcal{M}_k$).

For example, the thick lines in Fig. 1.2(b) show a matching M of weight $w(M) = 1$ and of size $|M| = 10$, and $M' = (M \setminus \{(3, 10), (10, 5)\}) \cup \{(10, 10)\}$ is a matching of weight $w(M') = 2$ and of size $|M'| = 9$.

Assuming that A_{str} is an $n \times n$ matrix, we consider the defining expansion of its determinant:

$$\det A_{\text{str}} = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{S}_n} \text{sgn } \pi \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n (A_{\text{str}})_{i\pi(i)} = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{S}_n} \text{sgn } \pi \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n t_{i\pi(i)} \cdot s^{\sum_{i=1}^n w_{i\pi(i)}},$$

where \mathcal{S}_n denotes the set of all the permutations of order n , and $\text{sgn } \pi = \pm 1$ is the signature of a permutation π . We observe the following facts:

1. Nonzero terms in this expansion correspond to matchings of size n in $G(A)$;
2. There is no cancellation among different nonzero terms in this expansion by virtue of the independence among t_{ij} 's.

These two facts imply the following:

1. The structured matrix A_{str} is nonsingular (i.e., $\det A_{\text{str}} \neq 0$) if and only if there exists a matching of size n in $G(A)$;
2. In the case of a nonsingular A_{str} , it holds that

$$\deg_s \det A_{\text{str}} = \max_{M_n \in \mathcal{M}_n} w(M_n). \quad (1.7)$$

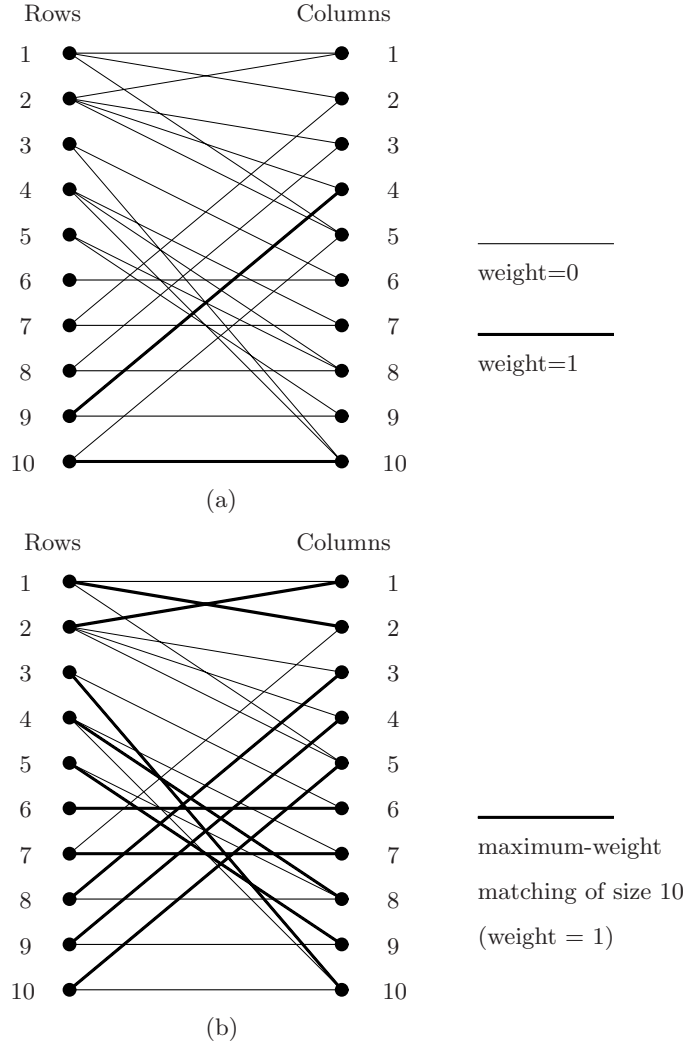


Fig. 1.2. Graph $G(A^{(1)})$ and the maximum-weight matching

A similar argument applied to submatrices of A_{str} leads to more general formulas:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank } A_{\text{str}} &= \max_{M \in \mathcal{M}} |M|, \\ \max_{|I|=|J|=k} \deg_s \det A_{\text{str}}[I, J] &= \max_{M_k \in \mathcal{M}_k} w(M_k) \quad (k = 1, \dots, r_{\text{str}}), \end{aligned} \quad (1.8)$$

where $A_{\text{str}}[I, J]$ means the submatrix of A_{str} having row set I and column set J , and $r_{\text{str}} = \text{rank } A_{\text{str}}$. It should be clear that the left-hand side of (1.8) designates the maximum degree of a minor (subdeterminant) of order k .

A combination of the formulas (1.3) and (1.8) yields

$$\nu_{\text{str}}(A) = \max_{M_{n-1} \in \mathcal{M}_{n-1}} w(M_{n-1}) - \max_{M_n \in \mathcal{M}_n} w(M_n) + 1 \quad (1.9)$$

for a nonsingular $n \times n$ polynomial matrix A . Thus we have arrived at a combinatorial expression of the structural index.

For the matrix $A^{(1)}$ we have (cf. Fig. 1.2)

$$\max_{M_{n-1}^{(1)} \in \mathcal{M}_{n-1}^{(1)}} w(M_{n-1}^{(1)}) = 2, \quad \max_{M_n^{(1)} \in \mathcal{M}_n^{(1)}} w(M_n^{(1)}) = 1$$

and therefore $\nu_{\text{str}}(A^{(1)}) = 2 - 1 + 1 = 2$, in agreement with $\nu(A^{(1)}) = 2$.

It is important from the computational point of view that efficient combinatorial algorithms are available for checking the existence of a matching of a specified size and also for finding a maximum-weight matching of a specified size. Thus the structural index ν_{str} , with the expression (1.9), can be computed efficiently by solving weighted bipartite matching problems utilizing those efficient combinatorial algorithms.

A number of graph-theoretic techniques (which may be considered variants of the above idea) have been proposed as “structural algorithms” (Bujakiewicz [26], Bujakiewicz–van den Bosch [27], Duff–Gear [60], Pantelides [264], Ungar–Kröner–Marquardt [324]). It is accepted that structural considerations should be useful and effective in practice for the DAE-index problem and that the generic values computed by graph-theoretic “structural algorithms” have practical significance.

1.1.3 An Embarrassing Phenomenon

While the structural approach is accepted fairly favorably, its limitation has also been realized in the literature. A graph-theoretic structural algorithm, ignoring numerical data, may well fail to render the correct answer if numerical cancellations do occur for some reason or other. So the failure of a graph-theoretic algorithm itself should not be a surprise. The aim of this section is to demonstrate a further embarrassing phenomenon that the structural index of our electrical network varies with how KVL is described.

Recall first that the 3rd row of the matrix $A^{(1)}$ represents the conservation of voltage along the loop 1–5 (V – C). In place of this we now take another loop 1–2–4 (V – R_1 – L) to obtain a second description of the same electrical network. The coefficient matrix of the second description is given by

$$A^{(2)} = \begin{array}{c|ccccc} & \xi^1 & \xi^2 & \xi^3 & \xi^4 & \xi^5 & \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 \\ \hline & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & & & & & \\ & -1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & & & & \\ \hline & & & & & & -1 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ & & & & & & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ & & & & & & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & R_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & R_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & sL & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & sC \end{array}, \quad (1.10)$$

which differs from $A^{(1)}$ in the 3rd row. The associated structured matrix $A_{\text{str}}^{(2)}$ differs from $A_{\text{str}}^{(1)}$ also in the 3rd row, and is given by

$$A_{\text{str}}^{(2)} = \begin{array}{c|ccccc} & \xi^1 & \xi^2 & \xi^3 & \xi^4 & \xi^5 & \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 \\ \hline & t_1 & t_2 & 0 & 0 & t_3 & & & & & \\ & t_4 & 0 & t_5 & t_6 & t_7 & & & & & \\ \hline & & & & & & t_{24} & t_{25} & 0 & t_{26} & 0 \\ & & & & & & 0 & t_{10} & t_{11} & 0 & t_{12} \\ & & & & & & 0 & 0 & t_{13} & t_{14} & 0 \\ \hline & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{15} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & t_{16} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{17} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & t_{18} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{19} & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & s t_{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{21} & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & t_{22} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s t_{23} \end{array},$$

where $\{t_i \mid i = 1, \dots, 7, 10, \dots, 26\}$ is the set of independent parameters.

Naturally, the index should remain invariant against this trivial change in the description of KVL, and in fact we have

$$\nu(A^{(1)}) = \nu(A^{(2)}) = 2.$$

It turns out, however, that the structural index does change, namely,

$$\nu_{\text{str}}(A^{(1)}) = 2, \quad \nu_{\text{str}}(A^{(2)}) = 1,$$

where the latter is computed from the graph $G(A^{(2)})$ in Fig. 1.3; we have

$$\max_{M_{n-1}^{(2)} \in \mathcal{M}_{n-1}^{(2)}} w(M_{n-1}^{(2)}) = 2, \quad \max_{M_n^{(2)} \in \mathcal{M}_n^{(2)}} w(M_n^{(2)}) = 2$$

and therefore

$$\nu_{\text{str}}(A^{(2)}) = \nu(A_{\text{str}}^{(2)}) = 2 - 2 + 1 = 1$$

according to the expression (1.9).

The discrepancy between the structural index $\nu_{\text{str}}(A^{(2)})$ and the true index $\nu(A^{(2)})$ is ascribed to the discrepancy between $\deg_s \det A_{\text{str}}^{(2)} = 2$ and

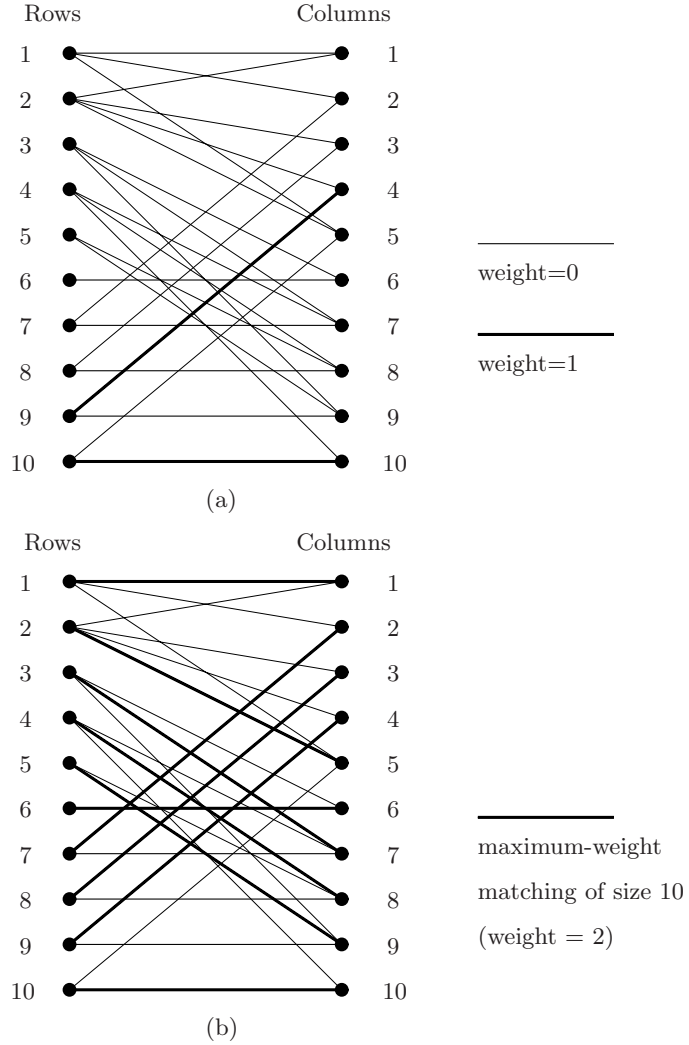


Fig. 1.3. Graph $G(A^{(2)})$ and the maximum-weight matching

$\deg_s \det A^{(2)} = 1$, which in turn is caused by a numerical cancellation in the expansion of $\det A^{(2)}$. A closer look at this phenomenon reveals that this cancellation is *not an accidental cancellation, but a cancellation with good reason* which could be better called *structural cancellation*. In fact, we can identify a 2×2 singular submatrix of the coefficient matrix for the KCL and a 3×3 singular submatrix of the coefficient matrix for the KVL:

$$\begin{array}{cc} \xi^1 & \xi^5 \\ \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{array}} \end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 \\ \boxed{\begin{array}{ccc} -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{array}} \end{array}$$

as the reason for this cancellation. More specifically, the expansion of $\det A_{\text{str}}^{(2)}$ contains four “spurious” quadratic terms

$$\underline{t_1 \cdot t_7} \cdot \underline{t_{25} \cdot t_{11} \cdot t_{14}} \cdot t_{15} \cdot t_{16} \cdot t_{18} \cdot st_{20} \cdot st_{23}, \quad (1.11)$$

$$\underline{t_1 \cdot t_7} \cdot \underline{t_{26} \cdot t_{10} \cdot t_{13}} \cdot t_{15} \cdot t_{16} \cdot t_{18} \cdot st_{20} \cdot st_{23}, \quad (1.12)$$

$$\underline{t_3 \cdot t_4} \cdot \underline{t_{25} \cdot t_{11} \cdot t_{14}} \cdot t_{15} \cdot t_{16} \cdot t_{18} \cdot st_{20} \cdot st_{23}, \quad (1.13)$$

$$\underline{t_3 \cdot t_4} \cdot \underline{t_{26} \cdot t_{10} \cdot t_{13}} \cdot t_{15} \cdot t_{16} \cdot t_{18} \cdot st_{20} \cdot st_{23}, \quad (1.14)$$

which cancel one another when the numerical values as well as the system parameters are given to t_{ij} ’s ($t_1 = t_7 = t_{10} = t_{11} = t_{14} = 1$, $t_3 = t_4 = t_{13} = t_{15} = t_{25} = t_{26} = -1$, $t_{16} = R_1$, $t_{18} = R_2$, $t_{20} = L$, $t_{23} = C$). In fact, $\det A^{(2)}$, which is equal to $\det A^{(1)} = R_1 R_2 + sL \cdot R_1 + sL \cdot R_2$ given in (1.4), does not contain those terms. Note that the term (1.11) corresponds to the matching in Fig. 1.3(b), and recall that the system parameters R_1 , R_2 , L , C are treated as mutually independent parameters, which cannot be cancelled out among themselves.

This example demonstrates that the structural index is not determined uniquely by a physical/engineering system, but it depends on its mathematical description. It is emphasized that both

$$A^{(1)} : \begin{array}{ccccc} \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 \\ \boxed{\begin{array}{ccccc} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}} \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad A^{(2)} : \begin{array}{ccccc} \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 \\ \boxed{\begin{array}{ccccc} -1 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}} \end{array}$$

are equally a legitimate description of KVL and there is nothing inherent to distinguish between the two. In this way the structural index is vulnerable to our innocent choice. This makes us reconsider the meaning of the structural index, which will be discussed in the next section.

Remark 1.1.4. The limitation of the graph-theoretic structural approach, as explained above, is now widely understood. Already Pantelides [264] recognized this phenomenon and more recently Ungar–Kröner–Marquardt [324] expounded this point with reference to an example problem arising from an analysis of distillation columns in chemical engineering. \square

1.2 What Is Combinatorial Structure?

In view of the “embarrassing phenomenon” above we have to question the physical relevance of the structural index (1.6) and reconsider how we should

$$\begin{aligned}
Q_0^{(2)} &= \begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & \end{array} \\ \hline & \begin{array}{ccccc} -1 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}, \quad T_0^{(2)} = \begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & \end{array} \\ \hline & \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & R_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}, \\
\\
Q_1^{(2)} &= \begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & \end{array} \\ \hline & \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}, \quad T_1^{(2)} = \begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & \end{array} \\ \hline & \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & L & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & C \end{array} & \begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}.
\end{aligned}$$

It is assumed that the system parameters, R_1 , R_2 , L , C , are independent parameters. Even when concrete numbers are given to R_1 , R_2 , L , C , those numbers are not expected to be exactly equal to their nominal values, but they lie in certain intervals of real numbers of engineering tolerance. Even in the extreme case where both R_1 and R_2 are specified to be 1Ω , for example, their actual values will be something like $R_1 = 1.02\Omega$ and $R_2 = 0.99\Omega$.

Generally, when a physical system is described by a polynomial matrix

$$A(s) = \sum_{k=0}^N s^k A_k, \quad (1.16)$$

it is often justified (see §1.2.2) to assume that the nonzero entries of the coefficient matrices A_k ($k = 0, 1, \dots, N$) are classified similarly into two groups. In other words, we can distinguish the following *two kinds of numbers*, together characterizing a physical system. We may refer to the numbers of the first kind as “fixed constants” and to those of the second kind as “system parameters.”

Accurate numbers (fixed constants): Numbers accounting for various sorts of conservation laws such as Kirchhoff’s laws which, stemming from topological incidence relations, are precise in value (often ± 1), and therefore cause no serious numerical difficulty in arithmetic operations on them.

Inaccurate numbers (system parameters): Numbers representing independent system parameters such as resistances in electrical networks and masses

in mechanical systems which, being contaminated with noise and other errors, take values independent of one another, and therefore can be modeled as algebraically independent numbers.²

Accurate numbers often appear in equations for conservation laws such as Kirchhoff's laws, the law of conservation of mass, energy, or momentum, and the principle of action and reaction, where the nonvanishing coefficients are either 1 or -1 , representing the underlying topological incidence relations. Integer coefficients in chemical reactions (*stoichiometric coefficients*), such as “2” and “1” in $2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O} = 2 \cdot \text{H}_2 + 1 \cdot \text{O}_2$, are also accurate numbers. Another example of accurate numbers appears in the defining relation $dx/dt = 1 \cdot v$ between velocity v and position x . Typical accurate numbers are illustrated in Fig. 1.4.

The above observation leads to the assumption that the coefficient matrices A_k ($k = 0, 1, \dots, N$) in (1.16) are expressed as

$$A_k = Q_k + T_k \quad (k = 0, 1, \dots, N), \quad (1.17)$$

where

(A-Q1): Q_k ($k = 0, 1, \dots, N$) are matrices over \mathbf{Q} (the field of rational numbers), and

(A-T): The collection \mathcal{T} of nonzero entries of T_k ($k = 0, 1, \dots, N$) is algebraically independent over \mathbf{Q} .

Namely, each A_k may be assumed to be a *mixed matrix*, in the terminology to be introduced formally in §1.3. Then $A(s)$ is split accordingly into two parts:

$$A(s) = Q(s) + T(s) \quad (1.18)$$

with

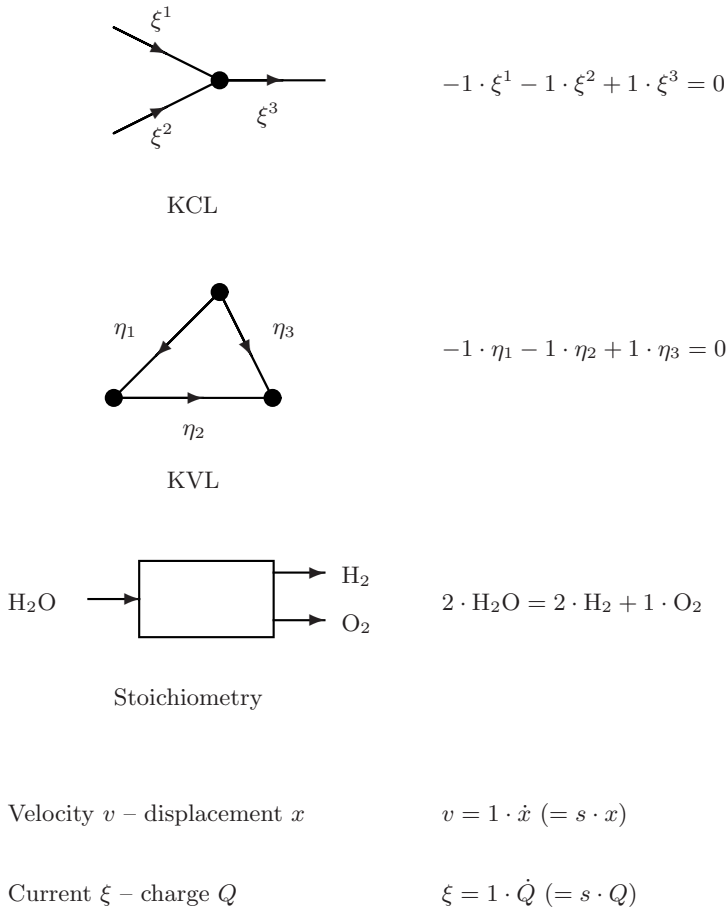
$$Q(s) = \sum_{k=0}^N s^k Q_k, \quad T(s) = \sum_{k=0}^N s^k T_k. \quad (1.19)$$

Namely, $A(s)$ is a *mixed polynomial matrix* in the terminology of §1.3.

Our intention in the splitting (1.17) or (1.18) is to extract a more meaningful combinatorial structure from the matrix $A(s)$ by treating the Q -part numerically and the T -part symbolically. This is based on the following observations.

Q-part: The nonzero pattern of the Q -matrices is subject to our arbitrary choice in the mathematical description, as we have seen in our electrical network, and hence the structure of the Q -part should be treated numerically, or linear-algebraically. In fact, this is feasible in practice, since the entries of the Q -matrices are usually small integers, causing no serious numerical difficulty in arithmetic operations.

² Informally, “algebraically independent numbers” are tantamount to “independent parameters,” whereas a rigorous definition of algebraic independence will be given in §2.1.1.

**Fig. 1.4.** Accurate numbers

T-part: The nonzero pattern of the *T*-matrices is relatively stable against our arbitrary choice in the mathematical description of constitutive equations and therefore it can be regarded as representing some aspect of the combinatorial structure of the system. It can be treated properly by graph-theoretic concepts and algorithms.

Combination: The structural information from the *Q*-part and the *T*-part can be combined properly and efficiently by virtue of the fact that each part defines a well-behaved and well-studied combinatorial structure called matroid. Mathematical and algorithmic results from matroid theory afford effective methods of system analysis.

We may summarize the above as follows:

Q -part	by	linear algebra
T -part	by	graph theory
Combination	by	matroid theory

In §1.3 we shall take a glimpse at how the DAE-index problem can be treated using mixed polynomial matrices and how the embarrassing phenomenon of §1.1.3 can be resolved properly.

1.2.2 Descriptor Form Rather than Standard Form

In introducing mixed polynomial matrices we have assumed that the nonzero entries of the coefficient matrices are either fixed constants or independent parameters. This is an assumption on a description of a physical system, and not an assumption on the system itself. For a system in question there can be many different descriptions, but some of them may satisfy the assumption and others may fail to meet it. In this section we discuss this issue by comparing the state-space equations (Kalman [153]) and the descriptor equations (Luenberger [182, 183]).

Let us consider another example, a simple mechanical system (Fig. 1.5) which consists of two masses m_1 , m_2 , two springs k_1 , k_2 , and a damper f ; u is the force exerted from outside.

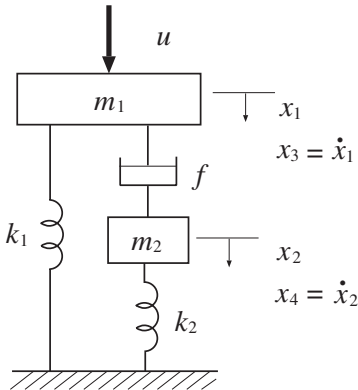


Fig. 1.5. A mechanical system

We may describe the system in the form of *state-space equations*:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \hat{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \hat{B}\mathbf{u}(t) \quad (1.20)$$

in terms of $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$ and $\mathbf{u} = (u)$, where x_1 and x_2 are vertical displacements (downwards, as indicated in Fig. 1.5) of masses m_1 and m_2 , respectively, and x_3 and x_4 are their velocities, and

$$\hat{A} = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccc} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -k_1/m_1 & 0 & -f/m_1 & f/m_1 \\ 0 & -k_2/m_2 & f/m_2 & -f/m_2 \end{array} \end{array}, \quad \hat{B} = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} u \\ \hline 0 \\ 0 \\ 1/m_1 \\ 0 \end{array} \end{array}. \quad (1.21)$$

It should be clear that $\dot{\mathbf{x}}$ is a short-hand notation for $d\mathbf{x}/dt$, the time derivative of \mathbf{x} .

The state-space equations (1.20) have been useful for investigating analytic and algebraic properties of a dynamical system, and the structural or combinatorial analysis at the early stage³ was based on it. It is gradually recognized, however, that the state-space equations are not very suitable for representing the combinatorial structure of a system in that the entries of matrices \hat{A} and \hat{B} of (1.20) are usually not independent but interrelated to one another, being subject to algebraic relations. For instance, we have $\hat{A}_{33} + \hat{A}_{34} = 0$ in (1.21), and consequently \hat{A} of (1.21) does not admit a splitting into Q -part and T -part satisfying (A-Q1) and (A-T).

In this respect, the so-called *descriptor form*

$$\bar{F}\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \bar{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \bar{B}\mathbf{u}(t) \quad (1.22)$$

is more promising, having more flexibility to avoid complicated algebraic relations among entries of the coefficient matrices. Here \mathbf{x} is called the descriptor-vector and \mathbf{u} is the input-vector. The matrix \bar{F} is not necessarily nonsingular, so that the reduction of (1.22) to the standard state-space form (1.20) is not straightforward. Even when \bar{F} is nonsingular, the reduction to the standard state-space form (1.20) with $\hat{A} = \bar{F}^{-1}\bar{A}$ and $\hat{B} = \bar{F}^{-1}\bar{B}$ entailing complicated algebraic relations among the entries of \hat{A} and \hat{B} , is not advantageous from the combinatorial point of view.

To describe our mechanical system in the descriptor form (1.22), it may be natural to introduce two additional variables x_5 (= force by the damper f) and x_6 (= relative velocity of the two masses). Additional equations (constraints) for these variables are given by⁴

$$x_5 = fx_6, \quad x_6 = \dot{x}_1 - \dot{x}_2.$$

Then the coefficient matrices in (1.22) are given by

$$\bar{F} = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & m_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & m_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \end{array}, \quad \bar{A} = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccccc} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -k_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -k_2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \end{array}, \quad \bar{B} = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \end{array}. \quad (1.23)$$

³ Structural approach in the literature of control theory was initiated by Lin [173] in the mid-seventies.

⁴ We could replace the equation $x_6 = \dot{x}_1 - \dot{x}_2$ by $x_6 = x_3 - x_4$, which may be more natural. Our choice is to make the example less trivial.

The Laplace transform of the equation (1.22) gives a *frequency domain description*:

$$s\bar{F}\hat{\mathbf{x}}(s) = \bar{A}\hat{\mathbf{x}}(s) + \bar{B}\hat{\mathbf{u}}(s), \quad \text{or} \quad [\bar{A} - s\bar{F}|\bar{B}] \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}}(s) \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}(s) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0},$$

where $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{0}$, $\mathbf{u}(0) = \mathbf{0}$ is assumed (see Remark 1.1.1 for the Laplace transform). Then the system is described by a polynomial matrix

$$A(s) = [\bar{A} - s\bar{F}|\bar{B}]. \quad (1.24)$$

For our mechanical system we have

$$A(s) = \begin{array}{c|cccccc} & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & u \\ \hline -s & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -s & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -k_1 & 0 & -sm_1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -k_2 & 0 & -sm_2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & f & 0 & 0 \\ -s & s & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \quad (1.25)$$

as the matrix of (1.24). Note that no complicated algebraic expressions are involved in this matrix, for which it is reasonable to assume (A-Q1) and (A-T) above. Consequently, $A(s)$ of (1.25) is expressed as $A(s) = Q(s) + T(s)$ with

$$Q(s) = \begin{array}{c|cccccc} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & u \\ \hline -s & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -s & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -s & s & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}, \quad T(s) = \begin{array}{c|cccccc} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & u \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -k_1 & 0 & -sm_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -k_2 & 0 & -sm_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & f & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}. \quad (1.26)$$

Here we have $\mathcal{T} = \{m_1, m_2, k_1, k_2, f\}$ as the set of system parameters.

It is emphasized again that the coefficient matrices \hat{A} and \hat{B} in the standard state-space form do not admit such natural splitting into two parts. Thus we may conclude that the descriptor form is more suitable for representing the combinatorial structure than the standard state-space form.

1.2.3 Dimensional Analysis

Here is a kind of *dimensional analysis* concerning “accurate numbers,” i.e., concerning the constant part $Q(s) = \sum_{k=0}^N s^k Q_k$ of the matrix $A(s)$ in (1.18).

First we consider the physical dimensional consistency in the system of equations $A(s)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where $A(s)$ is assumed to be an $m \times n$ matrix. Since this system is to represent a physical system, relevant physical dimensions are

associated with both the variables (corresponding to the components of \mathbf{x}) and the equations (corresponding to the components of \mathbf{b}), or alternatively, with both columns and rows of the matrix $A(s)$. Also the entries of $A(s)$ have physical dimensions.

In our mechanical system, for instance, we may choose time T , length L and mass M as the *fundamental quantities* in the dimensional analysis. Then the dimensions of velocity and force are given by $T^{-1}L$ and $T^{-2}LM$, respectively. The physical dimensions associated with the equations, i.e., with the rows of $A(s)$ of (1.25), are

row 1	row 2	row 3	row 4	row 5	row 6
velocity	velocity	force	force	force	velocity
$T^{-1}L$	$T^{-1}L$	$T^{-2}LM$	$T^{-2}LM$	$T^{-2}LM$	$T^{-1}L$

(1.27)

whereas those with the variables (x_i and u), i.e., with the columns of $A(s)$, are

col 1	col 2	col 3	col 4	col 5	col 6	col 7
length	length	velocity	velocity	force	velocity	force
L	L	$T^{-1}L$	$T^{-1}L$	$T^{-2}LM$	$T^{-1}L$	$T^{-2}LM$

(1.28)

The $(3, 1)$ -entry “ $-k_1$ ” of $A(s)$, for example, has a dimension of $T^{-2}M$.

The *principle of dimensional homogeneity* demands that

$$\begin{aligned} & [\text{Dimension of } i\text{th row}] \\ &= [\text{Dimension of } (i, j) \text{ entry}] \times [\text{Dimension of } j\text{th column}] \end{aligned} \quad (1.29)$$

for each (i, j) with $A_{ij} \neq 0$. For instance, this identity reads

$$T^{-2}LM = T^{-2}M \times L$$

for $(i, j) = (3, 1)$ in our mechanical system.

Choosing time as one of the fundamental dimensions, we denote by $-r_i$ and $-c_j$ the exponent to the dimension of time associated respectively with the i th row and the j th column. Then the (i, j) entry of $A(s)$ should have the dimension of time with exponent $c_j - r_i$.

In our mechanical system we have

$$\begin{aligned} r_1 &= r_2 = 1, \quad r_3 = r_4 = r_5 = 2, \quad r_6 = 1; \\ c_1 &= c_2 = 0, \quad c_3 = c_4 = 1, \quad c_5 = 2, \quad c_6 = 1, \quad c_7 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

from (1.27) and (1.28).

The “accurate numbers” usually represent topological and/or geometrical incidence coefficients (cf. Fig. 1.4), which have no physical dimensions, so that it is natural to expect that the entries of Q_k in (1.19) are dimensionless constants. On the other hand, the variable (indeterminate) “ s ” should have

the physical dimension of the inverse of time, since it corresponds to d/dt , the differentiation with respect to time. This implies, in particular, that each entry of the term $s^k Q_k$ has the physical dimension of time with exponent $-k$. On the other hand, the (i, j) entry of $A(s)$, and hence the (i, j) entry of $Q(s)$, should have the dimension of time with exponent $c_j - r_i$, as pointed out above.

Combining these two facts we obtain

$$r_i - c_j = k \quad \text{if} \quad (Q_k)_{ij} \neq 0, \quad (1.30)$$

or in matrix form:

$$Q(s) = \text{diag}[s^{r_1}, \dots, s^{r_m}] \cdot Q(1) \cdot \text{diag}[s^{-c_1}, \dots, s^{-c_n}], \quad (1.31)$$

where $\text{diag}[d_1, d_2, \dots]$ means a diagonal matrix having diagonal entries d_1, d_2, \dots . It follows from this decomposition that every nonvanishing subdeterminant of $Q(s)$ is a monomial in s over \mathbf{Q} , i.e., of the form αs^p with a nonvanishing rational number α and a nonnegative integer p .

In our mechanical system, it can be verified that $Q(s)$ of (1.26) admits an expression of the form (1.31):

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{|cccccc|c|} \hline -s & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -s & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -s & s & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \\ = \begin{array}{|cccccc|c|} \hline s & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & s^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \cdot \begin{array}{|cccccc|c|} \hline -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \cdot \begin{array}{|cccccc|c|} \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s^{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & s^{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s^{-2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s^{-1} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & s^{-2} \\ \hline \end{array} \cdot \end{array}$$

Note that the diagonal entries s^{r_i} and s^{-c_j} are determined from the negative of the exponents to T (time) in (1.27) and (1.28).

We have thus arrived at a subclass of mixed polynomial matrices suitable for representing the structure of linear time-invariant dynamical systems. Namely, we are to consider the class of polynomial matrices $A(s)$ in indeterminate s with rational coefficients which are represented as

$$A(s) = Q(s) + T(s),$$

where

(A-Q2): Every nonvanishing subdeterminant of $Q(s)$ is a monomial in s over \mathbf{Q} , and

(A-T): The collection \mathcal{T} of the nonzero coefficients of the entries of $T(s)$ is algebraically independent over \mathbf{Q} .

The dual viewpoint of dimensional analysis and structural analysis constitutes the physical foundation of the mathematical development explained in this book. Chapter 3 will be devoted to a full discussion about this issue.

1.3 Mathematics on Mixed Polynomial Matrices

While the previous section is devoted to physical motivations for mixed polynomial matrices, this section offers an informal introduction to their mathematical aspects through a successful treatment of the DAE-index problem left unanswered in §1.1.3.

1.3.1 Formal Definitions

The concept of a mixed matrix is defined formally as follows. Let \mathbf{K} be a subfield of a field \mathbf{F} . A matrix $A = (A_{ij})$ over \mathbf{F} (i.e., $A_{ij} \in \mathbf{F}$) is called a *mixed matrix* with respect to (\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{F}) if

$$A = Q + T, \quad (1.32)$$

where

- (M-Q) $Q = (Q_{ij})$ is a matrix over \mathbf{K} (i.e., $Q_{ij} \in \mathbf{K}$), and
- (M-T) $T = (T_{ij})$ is a matrix over \mathbf{F} (i.e., $T_{ij} \in \mathbf{F}$) such that the set of its nonzero entries is algebraically independent over \mathbf{K} .

For example, $A_0^{(2)}$ in (1.15) is a mixed matrix with respect to $(\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{F}) = (\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{Q}(\mathcal{T}))$, where $\mathcal{T} = \{R_1, R_2\}$ and $\mathbf{Q}(\mathcal{T})$ is the field of rational functions in \mathcal{T} with rational coefficients.

Similarly, a polynomial matrix $A(s)$ over \mathbf{F} (i.e., $A_{ij} \in \mathbf{F}[s]$) is called a *mixed polynomial matrix* with respect to (\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{F}) if

$$A(s) = Q(s) + T(s) = \sum_{k=0}^N s^k Q_k + \sum_{k=0}^N s^k T_k \quad (1.33)$$

for some integer $N \geq 0$, where

- (MP-Q1) Q_k ($k = 0, 1, \dots, N$) are matrices over \mathbf{K} , and
- (MP-T) T_k ($k = 0, 1, \dots, N$) are matrices over \mathbf{F} such that the set of their nonzero entries is algebraically independent over \mathbf{K} .

A mixed polynomial matrix with respect to (\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{F}) is a mixed matrix with respect to $(\mathbf{K}(s), \mathbf{F}(s))$. It should be obvious that (MP-Q1) and (MP-T) generalize (A-Q1) and (A-T), respectively. Corresponding to (A-Q2) we consider



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