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Special issue on the use of computer algebra systems for computer aided control system design

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Editorial

Special issue on the use of computer algebra systems for computer aided control system design

N. P. KARAMPETAKIS* and A. I. G. VARDULAKIS (Eds)

The importance of the continuing and growing need in the systems and control community for reliable algorithms and robust numerical software for increasingly challenging applications is well known and has already been reported elsewhere (*IEEE Control Systems Magazine*, Vol. 24, Issue 1). However, we have all had the experience of working on a mathematical project where an increased number of symbolic manipulations was needed. In a simple case, the required computation might have been to compute the Laplace transform or the inverse Laplace transform of a function, or to find the transfer function matrix for a given system topology where parameters are included. In a more demanding situation the required computation might have been to find the parametric family of solutions of a polynomial matrix Diophantine equation resulting from a variety of control problems such as those associated with stabilization, decoupling, model matching, tracking and regulation, or to compute the Smith McMillan form of a rational transfer function matrix in order to obtain a better insight into a number of structural properties of a system. The desire to use a computer to perform long and tedious mathematical computations such as the above led to the establishment of a new area of research whose main objective is the development: (a) of systems (software and hardware) for symbolic mathematical computations, and (b) of efficient symbolic algorithms for the solution of mathematically formulated problems. This new subject area is referred to by a variety of terms such as symbolic computations, computer algebra, algebraic algorithms to name a few. During the last four decades this subject area has accomplished important steps and it is still continuing its evolution process.

Computer algebra systems

Although Computer Algebra Systems (CAS) and Numerical Software (NS) have not been designed and developed for solving the same problems they could be considered as complementary tools rather than adversaries. CAS can be classified according to their functionality into (a) the general purpose CAS i.e. systems that incorporate functions for most subject areas of mathematics such as Macsyma, Reduce, Maple, Mathematica, etc, and (b) special purpose CAS which are systems that are specialized on a specific subject area of mathematics i.e. systems such as CoCoA (deals with computations in multivariate polynomial rings), DELiA (differential equations) etc. Apart from these two main categories there are also software packages of programs

that have been built independently either in the programming environment of a general purpose CAS or in a special purpose CAS. To name a few: CALI is a REDUCE package that contains algorithms for computations in commutative algebra, Control System Professional (Bakshee 2003, Palancz *et al.* 2005) is a MATHEMATICA package that contains algorithms for control, NCAIgebra (Helton *et al.* 2000) is a non-commutative algebra package that runs under MATHEMATICA, SchematicSolver contains details for drawing, solving, simulating and implementing a system, Block Diagram Reduction Toolbox (drawing and calculating the transfer function of a system in terms of transfer functions of its components), PARADISE is a MATLAB toolbox for the design and analysis of robust control systems in which parametric models can be specified using Simulink etc. In table 1 we give an overview of some of the most important computer algebra systems that have been developed during the last four decades.

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Table 1. Computer algebra systems.

Year	Computer algebra system	Purpose
1961	SAINT	Indefinite integration
1964–66	ALTRAN, MATHLAB	Manipulation of polynomial and rational functions
1966–67	SIN	Symbolic integration
1968 – now	REDUCE http://www.uni-koeln.de/REDUCE	Starting from physics calculation. Solution for large scale formal problems in mathematics, science and engineering.
1968	MATHLAB-68	Improved version of Matlab
1968 – now	MACSYMA http://www.macsyma.com	General purpose CAS
Late 1970's	muMATH	
1980 – now	MAPLE http://www.maplesoft.com	General purpose CAS
1980 – now	DERIVE	General purpose CAS, improved version of muMATH
1984 – now	SINGULAR http://www.mathematik.uni-kl.de/pub/~zca/Singular	A CAS for polynomial computations
1988 – now	SMP, MATHEMATICA http://www.wolfram.com	General purpose CAS
1989 – now	MuPAD http://www.mupad.de http://www.sciface.com	General purpose CAS
1991 – now	AXIOM http://www.nongnu.org/axiom	Successor to Stratchpad. General purpose CAS, that allows users to write algorithms over general fields or domains
Late 1980s	CAYLEY MAGMA http://magma.maths.usyd.edu.au	Group theory General purpose CAS for algebra, number theory, algebraic geometry, algebraic topology, algebraic combinatorics etc.
1986–1997	GAP, GAP 2 (2000) http://www-gap.mcs.st-and.ac.uk	Groups, algorithms and programming, computational discrete algebra
1990–1996	FORM LiE http://www-math.univ-poitiers.fr/~maavl/LiE	High energy physics calculation Lie algebra calculations
1992	MACAULAY 2 http://www.math.uiuc.edu/Macaulay2	Algebraic geometry and commutative algebra
Mid 1980s – 2000	PARI ftp://megrez.math.u-bordeaux.fr/pub/pari	Number theory

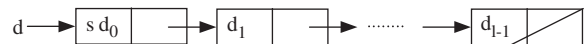
Advantages and disadvantages of the CAS

It was reported in Higham *et al.* (2004) that when solving a computational problem using a computer, the accuracy of the computed solution depends on three main factors:

- (a) the machine arithmetic — i.e. the rounding unit and the range of this arithmetic,
- (b) the computation problem — i.e. the sensitivity of its solution relative to changes in the data, and
- (c) the computational algorithm — i.e. the numerical stability of the algorithm used.

In a typical digital computer the specific word length used in order to store a number is limited by the number of distinct encodings which is typically 8, 16, 32, 36, 48 or 64 bits. These restrictions on the representation of objects have a major impact on the precision and the length of the numbers that can be used in numerical

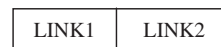
computations and are not sufficient for the purpose of symbolic computations. CAS use different techniques to store multiprecision integers and rational numbers and therefore are not suffering from precision and length problems. The largest integer that can be used in a typical digital computer that stores numbers in a word of 32 bits is $2^{31} - 1 = 2147483647$ while in a CAS any multiprecision integer $d = s \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} d_i b^i$ can be represented by the linked list:



or by a dynamic array allocation:

$$[sl \ d_0 \ d_1 \ \dots \ d_{l-1}]$$

As an extension, a rational number can be represented by a node of the form



where LINK1 is a pointer to the numerator multiprecision integer (either a linked list or an allocation array) and similarly LINK2 is a pointer to denominator. Therefore, one of the major advantages in CAS is that we can use any precision that we want. On the other hand, the above representation of multiprecision numbers results into two disadvantages: (a) more memory is needed to store numbers, and (b) more computational power is required to process numbers. These two main disadvantages make CAS not very suitable for large scale problems, since, such problems, require much memory and speed. However, nowadays many attempts have been made for the solution of this kind of problems by the investigation of faster computational algorithms. By using multiprecision numbers we can use any accuracy we want and therefore avoid numerical stability problems as well as conditioning problems usually face in numerical packages.

Example 1: Consider the well known Kalman criterion of controllability, which states that the matrix pair $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ that corresponds to a state space model with n states and m inputs, is controllable if and only if the controllability matrix

$$\ell = (B \quad AB \quad A^2B \quad \dots \quad A^{n-1}B)$$

has full rank. Following the example due to Paige (1981):

$$A = \text{diag}(2^0 \quad 2^{-1} \quad 2^{-2} \quad \dots \quad 2^{-9}) \in \mathbb{R}^{10 \times 10}$$

$$B = (1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad \dots \quad 1)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{10 \times 1}.$$

The Kalman criterion does not yield a numerically viable test for controllability although the above is a symbolically viable test, as it is easily seen by the following Mathematica program, since it uses infinite precision or otherwise exact representation for integer and rational numbers:

```
In[1] := <<LinearAlgebra`MatrixManipulation`
In[2] := A=Table[If[i == j, 2i-1, 0], {i, 1, 10}, {j, 1, 10}];
In[3] := B=Table[{1}, {i, 1, 10}];
In[4] := L=B;
In[5] := Do [L= AppendRows [L, MatrixPower [A, i-1].B], {i, 2, 10}];
In[6] := MatrixRank [L]
Out[6] := 10
```

In the first line of the program we call the subpackage “MatrixManipulation” of Mathematica that is included in the package “Linear Algebra”. In 2nd and 3rd line we create the matrix pair (A, B) . In the 4th–5th line we create the controllability matrix ℓ and in the 6th line we compute the rank of ℓ .

Example 2: Consider for example the Ackermann formula which for a given matrix pair (A, B) evaluates a matrix F such that the pencil $sI - (A + BF)$ has specific eigenvalues i.e.,

$$F = [0 \quad 0 \quad \dots \quad 1][B \quad AB \quad \dots \quad A^{n-1}B]^{-1}a(A),$$

where

$$a(s) = \det[sI - (A + BF)] = s^n + a_1s^{n-1} + \dots + a_n$$

is the desired closed loop characteristic polynomial. According to Svensson (1993), Ackermann’s method in the MATLAB Control Toolbox yields a feedback matrix of poor quality. More specifically, if we take a random (A, B) pair with only ten states and one input and assign random eigenvalues for the closed loop characteristic polynomial $a(s) = \det[sI - (A + BF)]$ symmetrically located with respect to the real axis, then using the MATLAB control function *acker* we recompute the eigenvalues of $A + BF$ with only 3 digits of accuracy. However, by using the Mathematica program in figure 1 we get the desired results without loss of any accuracy, since Mathematica uses exact arithmetic and does not suffer from loss of precision or significance when manipulating integer and/or rational numbers. It is known that, due to matrix multiplications (for the controllability matrix) and inversion of the controllability matrix ℓ , the use of a numerical approach for the computation of F leads to a severe loss of accuracy when a numerical approach is being used. In the first line of the Mathematica code above we call the subpackage “MatrixManipulation” of Mathematica that is included in the package “LinearAlgebra”. In the second and third lines we create a random (A, B) pair with 10 states and 1 input. Each matrix has integer entries in the range $[-10, 10]$. In the fourth line we create the controllability matrix ℓ . In the fifth line we create the matrix function $a(A)$ where $a(s) = s^3(s + 1)^6(s + 3)$ and in the sixth line we use the Ackermann formula. Below we give the $\{1, 1\}$ element of the matrix F in order to see the precision

```
In[1] := <<LinearAlgebra`MatrixManipulation`
In[2] := A=Table[Random[Integer,{-10,10}],
{i,1,10},{j,1,10}];
In[3] := B=Table[Random[Integer,{-10,10}],
{i,1,10},{j,1}];
In[4] := S1=B;Q=S1;Do[S1=A.S1;
Q=AppendRows[Q,S1],{i,1,9}];
In[5] := k=MatrixPower[A,3].
MatrixPower[A+IdentityMatrix[10],6].
(A+3*IdentityMatrix[10]);
In[6] := F={{0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,1}}.Inverse[Q].k;
```

Figure 1. Mathematica program.

of the numbers that *Mathematica* is using for such kind of computations.

1027897963614676900913612319366785574966548367293686419492349
554443828532848987440054167718543237965615418863522971543021

Another main advantage of CAS is that of symbolic computing or mixed symbolic-numeric computing, that means you can handle symbolic objects in the same way you handle numbers (determine determinants, inverses, transposes etc. of a matrix containing symbolic elements in contrast to a numerical environment, solve polynomial Diophantine equations, solve exact linear differential equations, find the transfer function matrices of systems that may include parameters in their descriptions etc.).

Example 3: Consider the state-space description of a cart with inverted pendulums, for small $|\theta_1|$ and $|\theta_2|$ given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \\ \dot{x}_3(t) \\ \dot{x}_4(t) \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \frac{(M+m)g}{Ml_1} & \frac{mg}{Ml_1} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{mg}{Ml_2} & \frac{(M+m)g}{Ml_2} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ x_3(t) \\ x_4(t) \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -\frac{1}{Ml_1} \\ -\frac{1}{Ml_2} \end{bmatrix}}_B u(t)$$

$$x_1(t) = \theta_1(t), x_2(t) = \theta_2(t), x_3(t) = \dot{\theta}_1(t), x_4(t) = \dot{\theta}_2(t),$$

where M is the mass of the cart, l_1, l_2 are the lengths of the two inverted pendulums that both have bobs of mass m .

We can define the above system using the Control Systems Professional (CSP) package of *Mathematica* as follows

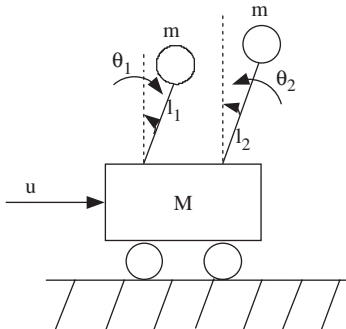


Figure 2. Cart with two inverted pendulums.

```
In[1] := <<ControlSystems';
(*we call the CSP package *)
```

```
In[2] := <<LinearAlgebra';
(* we call the Linear Algebra package *)
```

```
In[3] := a = { {0, 0, 1, 0},
               {0, 0, 0, 1},
               { (M+m)g, mg, 0, 0 },
               { mg, (M+m)g, 0, 0 } };
```

(* we define the matrix A *)

```
In[4] := b = { {0}, {0}, { -1/Ml1 }, { -1/Ml2 } };
```

(* we define the matrix B *)

```
In[5] := system = StateSpace[a, b];
```

(* we define the state space system with *)

(* the matrices A and B *)

Then we can easily check that the controllability matrix of the above system is given by

```
In[6] := L = ControllabilityMatrix[system]
```

```
Out[6] = { { 0, -1/Ml1, 0, -g(m+M)/M^2l1^2 - gm/M^2l1l2 },
           { 0, -1/Ml2, 0, -g(m+M)/M^2l2^2 - gm/M^2l1l2 },
           { -1/Ml1, 0, -g(m+M)/M^2l1^2 - gm/M^2l1l2, 0 },
           { -1/Ml2, 0, -g(m+M)/M^2l2^2 - gm/M^2l1l2, 0 } }
```

which has determinant

```
In[7] := Factor[Det[L]]
```

$$\text{Out[7]} = -\frac{g^2(l_1 - l_2)^2}{M^4 l_1^4 l_2^4}$$

and thus the system is controllable iff $l_1 \neq l_2$. It is easy to find a state feedback of the form $u(t) = -Kx(t) + v(t)$ that will place the poles of the system to $\{-1, -1, -1, -3\}$ when $l_1 \neq l_2$.

```
In[8] := f = StateFeedbackGains[system,
{-1, -1, -1, -3},
```

```
Method -> Ackermann]
```


$$\text{Out}[8] = \left\{ \left\{ \frac{-g^2 m_1 + g^2 m_2 + g^2 M_1 l_2 + 12g M_1 l_2 + 3M_1^2 l_2}{g(l_1 - l_2)}, \frac{-g^2 m_1 - g^2 M_1 + g^2 m_2 - 12g M_1 l_2 - 3M_1 l_2^2}{g(l_1 - l_2)}, \frac{2M_1(3g + 5l_1)l_2}{g(l_1 - l_2)}, -\frac{2M_1 l_2(3g + 5l_2)}{g(l_1 - l_2)} \right\} \right\}$$

```
In[9]: = Det[s * IdentityMatrix[4] - (a - b.f)]//Factor
```

```
Out[9] = (1 + s)3 (3 + s)
```

Apart from the main advantage of the exact arithmetic that CAS have, they also have other advantages such as:

- interactivity—you give questions and directly get your answers,
- arbitrary precision-arithmetic or even exact arithmetic can be used to utilize some of the direct (but numerically error prone) methods efficiently in control system design—apart of the multiprecision arithmetic you may use, you can select specific precision for your work,
- visualization of your results—you can view in 2-D and 3-D graphics your results (XY plots, XYZ plots, polar plots, log plots etc.) and import/export your results to known graphics formats,
- the existence of hundreds of built-in procedures covering both general and specialized areas of mathematics such as Laplace transforms, Inverse Laplace transforms, Z-transforms, inverse Z-transforms, Smith form of polynomial matrices,
- the existence of unique high-level programming languages and programming environments allowing specific procedures to be written,
- they are usually available for different types of computer platforms,
- CAS enables us to fully participate in the mathematical exploration, by exploring different scenarios by asking or being asked “what-if” type of questions,
- CAS help us to work with commutative or noncommutative algebra problems, where numerical environments are not suitable,

CAS can also be used in research

- to test conjectures — supporting or refute conjectures,
- to help us to carry out the solutions steps of a mathematical algorithm and avoiding the hand-calculation mistakes,
- to help us to design and build a CAS for a specialized task in our research area,
- to help us to customize and improve our algorithms for the solution of a problem,
- to give us closed form solutions, and thus provide deeper insight to the problem — we can find for

example the family of stabilizing compensators of a system in a general parametric framework by retaining the extra degrees of freedom as symbols appearing as free parameters in the expression for the compensator. These free parameters can be then optimized to achieve specific goals associated with the internal stability and/or robustness of the resulting closed loop system,

- to assist in creating large mathematical tables such as integral tables, tables of special functions and so on,
- to help us to explore new algorithms and techniques,
- to give us time to focus on ideas and not on calculations — by helping us for example to theoretically analyse the structural properties of linear and nonlinear systems when some parameters are included in the model and we are looking for generic results instead of particular solutions for specific values of them.

However, CAS as part of their large memory requirements and relative poor performance are also accompanied by disadvantages such as

- difficulty to define the domain of the solution you are looking for,
- contain particularities that are learned only with experience,
- specialized areas are not covered by existing general purpose CAS,
- difficulty to give exact answers in problems where a closed form solution does not exist, e.g., exact solution of a general fifth order polynomial equation or a closed formula solution to a non-linear problem,
- difficulty to connect with other applications,
- difficulty to handle large scale problems due to the their excessive computational resources requirement, i.e. difficulty to handle large size of polynomials and polynomial matrices with high degrees and/or large dimensions,
- symbolic matrix analysis with a large number of symbols may become impractical,
- may give meaningless generic answers.

For the reasons described above, a combination of numerical and symbolic techniques is a very good way to reduce simultaneously the loss of accuracy and the required time (Hecker and Varga 2006, Karcianas *et al.* 2006, Söylemez and Ustoglu 2006)

CASs for engineering and control

CAS's are currently successfully used in several areas of engineering, such as robotics, non-linear dynamics, computational fluid dynamics, aerodynamics, control systems etc. For instance, computer algebra techniques

have been used in robotics problems (Grabmeier *et al.* 2003), such as the solution of the inverse kinematic problem (Buchberger 1985, Lee and Liang 1988), and the direct kinematic problem (Husty 1996, Higham *et al.* 2004) in the so-called “piano-movers” or collision avoidance problems where a robot of certain geometry is supposed to move a payload with given shape through an environment containing a number of known obstacles without collision (Canny 1987, Basu *et al.* 1996), and to mechanical synthesis (Cohen and Heck 1995).

Recently, there has been a growing interest in the application of CAS to control design and analysis. Computer algebra techniques has been used for system modelling (Gawtgrio 1993, Gawthrop and Balance 1997, Varga and Looye 1999), and system analysis and synthesis methods. In Munro (1999) an up-to-date treatment of the significant impact of symbolic computing in the field of control engineering is given. Computer algebra techniques have been also used for the study of nonlinear control systems (Buchberger 1985, Akhrif and Blankenship 1987, van Essen 1994, Jager 1995, Kitamoto 1996, Lee and Liang 1988, Rothfui *et al.* 1994, Schlacher and Kugi 2001, Higham *et al.* 2004), linear control systems (Munro 1999, Ogunye 1996, Ogunye and Penlidis 1996 and the references therein) and special problems of control such as the optimal control problem (Boulehmi and Calvet 1997, Stoutemyer 1979), the pole assignment problem (Söylemez and Munro 1998), the block reduction problem (Söylemez and Ustoglu 2004), matrix inequalities in control (de Oliveira and Helton 2003), solutions of ARMA representations (Jones *et al.* 2003), computation of the Smith–McMillan Form (Munro and Tsepikis 1994), modelling and simulation of robot manipulators (Cetinkunt and Ittop 1992, Lin and Lewis 1994, Pota and Alberts 1995) etc. In Ogunye (1996) a comprehensive CAS package SYMCON is described created in Maple, for the design of multivariable discrete-time control systems using the polynomial equation approach. Wolfram Research the producer of one of the most popular CAS, Mathematica, in 1996 released the Control System Professional package (Bakshiee 2003) — a conducive environment for solving control engineering problems — that is now shipping with numerous extensions as Control System Professional Suite.

A new action group for symbolic computation

Due to the interest in the application of computer algebra to control analysis and design an Action Group for Symbolic Computations for CACSD has been created as a part of the recently established IEEE Control System Society’s Technical Committee on

Computer Aided Control Systems Design see (<http://anadrasis.math.auth.gr/cacsd/Home.htm>). The main aim of this action group is to establish an information exchange forum for control related symbolic algorithms and software. The web page given above includes an open list with people, working in this subject area, calls for invited sessions, conferences on symbolic computations for CACSD, list of software, links to other relative web pages, and list of publications or even reprints, and announcements that are relevant to this area of research. The collection of all the above information: (a) would be an advantage for the organization of invited sessions at conferences as well as joint research projects, (b) will make known the existing research groups and their area of interests as well as existing CAS packages for CACSD.

Objectives and contents of the special issue

This special issue aims not at just a collection of papers on symbolic computations, but rather to address, at least to some extent, a coherent vision of the role of symbolic computations in control analysis and design problems. The articles are written in a way so that readers who are not experts in symbolic methods will be able to learn about these techniques. Illustrative examples are usually given to enlighten the main points of the discussions.

The papers in this special issue can be grouped into two categories: (a) the first 9 papers that use only symbolic methods, and b) the last 4 papers that use hybrid (mixed numerical-symbolic) methods.

Anai and Hara (2006) propose a new method of parameter space design for robust control synthesis, which guarantees the real stability radius constraint, accomplished by using quantifier elimination (QE).

Dolecek and Mitra (2006), present a *Matlab*-based symbolic sensitivity analysis of second-order IIR digital filters.

Fotiou *et al.* (2006) present two algebraic methods that help us to solve the parametric optimization problem for optimal control problems arising in model predictive control.

Jeannerod and Villard (2006), show that the asymptotically fastest known algorithms for some basic problems on univariate polynomial matrices, such as computation of rank, nullspace, determinant, generic inverse and reduced form, can be reduced to two computer algebra techniques, namely those of minimal basis computations and matrix fraction expansion/reconstruction, and to polynomial matrix multiplication.

Lutovac and Tošić (2006) present the role of symbolic computations in control engineering and signal

processing. They provide illustrative application examples as appropriate to linear systems, non-linear systems, algorithm development, modelling, and simulation.

M.C. de Oliveira and Helton (2006), describe computer algebra algorithms, methodology and implementation which allow users to convert many system problems to Linear Matrix Inequalities (LMIs). The algorithms and ideas are implemented in a symbolic non-commutative algebra package NCAAlgebra and the package *NCGB* that runs in Mathematica and has been developed by the authors.

Perdon *et al.* (2006) describe how computational algebra techniques can effectively use the geometrical approach in dealing with dynamical systems over rings. More specifically, they describe in details how to practically solve the disturbance decoupling and the block decoupling problem for delay differential systems, by using the symbolic computational package CoCoA.

Söylemez and Ustoglu (2006) present some classical control examples that illustrate the advantages of the computer algebra in the process of control system design, focusing to block diagram reduction, calculation of stabilizing compensators, dominant pole assignment and robust pole assignment.

Zheng *et al.* (2006) present the application of symbolic algebra techniques to the Mathematica implementation of a set of output-feedback pole assignment algorithms, for systems characterized by parametric uncertainty.

Karcanias *et al.* (2006) emphasize the significance of hybrid computations (mixed numerical and symbolic computations) in complex problems such as the computation of the greatest common divisor (GCD) of several polynomials that emerges in many fields of applications.

Liang and Chen (2006), develop a hybrid (symbolic and numerical) method based on Matlab Symbolic Math Toolbox (Moler and Costa 1976) to simulate some typical problems of boundary control of fractional order diffusion-wave equations.

Liu *et al.* (2006) describe the asymptotic time-scale and eigenstructure assignment (AETA) algorithm, which is one of the major applications of the structural decomposition approach in linear systems theory. Then they describe its software implementation in detail and show how the AETA algorithm has been developed in such a way that facilitates the symbolic computation of the resulting feedback gains. Finally, they use simple applications to illustrate how the symbolic computation of AETA based state feedback laws leads to feedback laws that are explicitly parameterized in the design parameter.

Hecker and Varga (2006) present symbolic manipulation techniques which are very useful in obtaining low-order linear fractional transformation (LFT) representations of linear parametric models. The results presented in this work are applied to the Research Civil Aircraft

Model (RCAM), which is one of the most complicated existing parametric models in the literature, with great success.

Dedication

This special issue is dedicated to the memory of Professor Neil Munro who, very unfortunately, passed away in July 2004. For many years Professor Munro had dedicated his research to computer aided control systems design, in particular robust control design for linear systems using symbolic techniques with their novel applications to control systems design including pole assignment algorithms. This is indeed the area originated by him and has received wide-spread attention in our control system research community. In the last days of his life Professor Munro was working very hard to build a toolbox for CAD of control systems analysis and design in Mathematica.

For many years he had been the director of the UMIST Control Systems Centre. He made significant contributions to the development of the Centre and was highly respected by the international control research community. His contributions and papers on Multivariable Control Theory, Computer Aided Control Systems Design and Robust Design Methods have been highly regarded by the community and his papers have been very widely cited. He will be remembered as an excellent scientist, a wise mentor, a conscientious colleague and a reliable friend.

H. Wang

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