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# Generalised modal realisation as a practical and efficient tool for FWL implementation

Yu Feng<sup>a\*</sup>, Philippe Chevrel<sup>a</sup> and Thibault Hilaire<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Institut de Recherche en Cybernétique et Communication de Nantes (IRCCyN UMR CNRS 6597) and Département d'Automatique-Productique, École des Mines de Nantes, France;* <sup>b</sup>*Laboratory of Computer Science (LIP6), University Pierre & Marie Curie of Paris, France*

Finite word length (FWL) effects have been a critical issue in digital filter implementation for almost four decades. Although some optimisations may be attempted to get an optimal realisation with regards to a particular effect, for instance the parametric sensitivity or the round-off noise gain, the purpose of this article is to propose an effective one, i.e. taking into account all the aspects. Based on the specialised implicit form, a new effective and sparse structure, named  $\rho$ -modal realisation, is proposed. This realisation meets simultaneously accuracy (low sensitivity, round-off noise gain and overflow risk), few and flexible computational efforts with a good readability (thanks to sparsity) and simplicity (no tricky optimisation is required to obtain it) as well. Two numerical examples are included to illustrate the  $\rho$ -modal realisation's interest.

**Keywords:** coefficient sensitivity; dynamic scaling; FWL implementation; implicit framework; modal realisation; pole sensitivity; round-off noise gain

## 1. Introduction

It is well known that there exists an infinite set of realisations to represent a given filter. These realisations are equivalent in infinite precision since they yield the same input-output relationship. However, when digital filters are implemented, they are implemented with finite precision due to the finite word length (FWL) of the representation of numbers within computing devices, and the FWL effects lead to a deterioration of realisations' numerical properties. These effects can be normally classified into two categories: the round-off noise resulting from the rounding of variables before and after each arithmetic calculation; and the parameters modification resulting from the quantisation of coefficients. Hence, the so-called 'equivalent' realisations are no longer equivalent in finite precision, and one realisation may be better suited for implementation than another.

Generally speaking, the FWL effects depend naturally on the chosen word length and arithmetic format (floating-point, fixed-point, etc.). They, however, also depend strongly upon the type of realisation. For example,  $\delta$ -operator, introduced by Middleton and Goodwin (1990), normally has much better numerical properties than the usual delay operator  $q$  for fast sampling. Optimal filter implementation problem consists in finding a realisation with which the digital deterioration imposed by the FWL effects is minimised.

Diverse structures and different digital operators have been investigated in the literature with this aim since the late 1970s (Mullis and Roberts 1976; Rao 1986; Gevers and Li 1993; Madiovski, Anderson, and Gevers 1995; Li, Gevers, and Sun 2000; Yan and Teo 2002). In Chevrel (2002), rational operators suitable for discretisation of both LTI and LPV systems were introduced taking potentially into account the frequency bandwidth of each sub-system. Moreover, the authors proposed a direct-form II transposed structure in  $\rho$ -operator ( $\rho$ DFIIt) in Li and Zhao (2004) and Hao and Li (2007). This form not only yields good performance against round-off noise, but also has sparse structure.

On the other hand, most of the significant results have expressed the filter in the state-space form. Although most realisations can be transformed into the state-space form, this form is not completely general and has several limitations. For instance, many realisation forms require the computation of intermediate variables that cannot be represented within the state-space form. The framework of the specialised implicit form (SIF), not subject to these restrictions, was given by Hilaire, Chevrel, and Whidborne (2007a). It provides a generalised description of any realisation in a form allowing a straightforward analysis of the FWL effects.

In this article, motivated by the use of the multivariable  $\rho$ -operator in Li and Zhao (2004) and based on a

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\*Corresponding author. Email: [yu.feng@mines-nantes.fr](mailto:yu.feng@mines-nantes.fr)

modal representation, a new structure, named  $\rho$ -modal realisation, is constructed within the framework of the SIF for implementation of the filters/controllers whose poles are distinct. Associated with a filter/controller of order  $n$ , this sparse and scaled realisation contains few inexactly-implemented<sup>1</sup> parameters, and is resilient to numerical errors. The present form achieves a good trade-off among sensitivity, round-off noises and computation efforts. Moreover, no optimisation process is required to obtain such a realisation.

This article is briefly outlined as follows. After recalling the SIF and the related analysis criteria in Section 2 and Section 3 as preliminaries, a new dynamic-range scaling, named the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling is presented in Section 4. Then in Section 5, the particular  $\rho$ -modal realisation is proposed, while the optimisation on parameters under this structure with regard to different criteria is deduced in Section 6. Numerical illustrations are given in Section 7.

## 2. A unifying framework

Many useful realisations, such as  $\delta$ -based realisations, require intermediate computational variables that cannot be expressed in the state-space form. The SIF proposed in Hilaire et al. (2007a) provides an explicit description of the parameters and variables involved during implementation. The SIF representation is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} J & 0 & 0 \\ -K & I_n & 0 \\ -L & 0 & I_p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T(k+1) \\ X(k+1) \\ Y(k) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & M & N \\ 0 & P & Q \\ 0 & R & S \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T(k) \\ X(k) \\ U(k) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

in which

- $J \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$ ,  $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l}$ ,  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times l}$ ,  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$ ,  $N \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}$ ,  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ,  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$  and  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$ ;
- $U(k)$  is the vector of the  $m$  current inputs,  $Y(k)$  is the  $p$  current outputs;  $T(k+1)$  is the vector for the  $l$  intermediate variables used in the calculations of step  $k$ , while  $X(k+1)$  is the vector of  $n$  new state variables stored till the next sampling time;  $X(k)$  and  $T(k)$  form the generalised variables;
- $J$  is a lower triangular matrix with 1s in the diagonal;
- The computations associated with the realisation (1) are executed in row order

- (i)  $JT(k+1) \leftarrow MX(k) + NU(k)$ ,
- (ii)  $X(k+1) \leftarrow KT(k+1) + PX(k) + QU(k)$ ,
- (iii)  $Y(k) \leftarrow LT(k+1) + RX(k) + SU(k)$ .

The related transfer function is defined by

$$H : z \mapsto C_Z(zI_n - A_Z)^{-1}B_Z + D_Z, \quad (3)$$

with

$$A_Z \triangleq KJ^{-1}M + P, \quad B_Z \triangleq KJ^{-1}N + Q, \quad (4)$$

$$C_Z \triangleq LJ^{-1}M + R, \quad D_Z \triangleq LJ^{-1}N + S. \quad (5)$$

**Definition 1** (Hilaire et al. 2007a): A realisation  $\mathcal{R}$  is defined by the specific set of matrices  $J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R$  and  $S$  in (1) as

$$\mathcal{R} \triangleq (J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S). \quad (6)$$

The coefficients can also be regrouped into one matrix  $Z$  as

$$Z \triangleq \begin{pmatrix} -J & M & N \\ K & P & Q \\ L & R & S \end{pmatrix}, \quad (7)$$

and  $\mathcal{R}$  can be defined by  $\mathcal{R} \triangleq (Z, l, m, n, p)$  where  $l, m, n$  and  $p$  are the dimensions of the underlying matrices.

See Hilaire et al. (2007a) and Hilaire, Chevrel, and Whidborne (2010) for more details on how to transform classical structures (cascade/parallel decomposition, state-space realisation,  $\delta$ -realisation, lattice, ...) into the SIF.

Equivalent structured realisations can be defined through block diagonal similarity transform as

$$Z_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{Y} & & \\ & \mathcal{U}^{-1} & \\ & & I_p \end{pmatrix} Z_0 \begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{W} & & \\ & \mathcal{U} & \\ & & I_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

with  $\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  invertible matrices.

## 3. Criterion analysis

### 3.1 Input-output sensitivity

In order to evaluate how much the digital implementation modifies filters' characteristics, the input-output (I/O) sensitivity measure is introduced. Consider a state-space system, denoted by  $(A, B, C, D)$ . Measure of the transfer function sensitivity through its  $L_2$ -norm is defined as (Gevers and Li 1993)

$$M_{L_2} \triangleq \left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial A} \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial B} \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial C} \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial D} \right\|_2^2. \quad (9)$$

Considering that the coefficients quantised without error make no contribution to the overall I/O

sensitivity, a weighting matrix  $W_Z$  associated with  $Z$  is then introduced

$$(W_Z)_{i,j} \triangleq \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } Z_{i,j} \in \{0, \pm 1\}; \\ 1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

Given a realisation  $\mathcal{R} \triangleq (Z, l, m, n, p)$  with the weighting matrix  $W_Z$ , the I/O transfer function sensitivity is defined in the single-input-single-output (SISO) case by

$$M_{L_2}^W \triangleq \left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial Z} \times W_Z \right\|_2^2, \quad (11)$$

where  $\times$  is the Schur product.

Then, this  $L_2$ -norm sensitivity can be computed by the following lemmas.

**Lemma 1** (Gevers and Li 1993): *Consider a state-space system  $G := (\Phi, \Psi, \Omega, \Upsilon)$ . Its  $L_2$ -norm can be computed by*

$$\begin{aligned} \|G\|_2^2 &= \text{trace}(\Upsilon \Upsilon^\top + \Omega W_c \Omega^\top) \\ &= \text{trace}(\Upsilon^\top \Upsilon + \Psi^\top W_o \Psi), \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where  $W_c$  and  $W_o$  are, respectively, the controllability and observability Gramian. They are solutions to the following Lyapunov equations:

$$W_c = \Phi W_c \Phi^\top + \Psi \Psi^\top, \quad W_o = \Phi^\top W_o \Phi + \Omega^\top \Omega. \quad (13)$$

**Lemma 2** (Hilaire et al. 2007a): *The sensitivity with regard to each matrix in the SIF can be written as*

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial Z} = H_1^\top H_2^\top, \quad (14)$$

with

$$\begin{cases} H_1 : z \mapsto C_Z(zI_n - AZ)^{-1} M_1 + M_2, \\ H_2 : z \mapsto N_1(zI_n - AZ)^{-1} B_Z + N_2, \\ M_1 \triangleq (KJ^{-1} \quad I_n \quad 0), \quad M_2 \triangleq (LJ^{-1} \quad 0 \quad 1), \\ N_1 \triangleq (M^\top J^{-\top} \quad I_n \quad 0)^\top, \quad N_2 \triangleq (N^\top J^{-\top} \quad 0 \quad 1)^\top. \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

### 3.2 Pole sensitivity measure

Some pole sensitivity measures are also commonly used to inform about the robust stability of FWL implementation. During quantisation process, the  $Z$  matrix is perturbed to  $Z + \varepsilon \times W_Z$ , where  $\varepsilon$  represents digital perturbations. Hence, the poles of the implemented realisation may be shifted outside the unit circle even if the initial realisation is stable. Based on this consideration, a stability measure is proposed

(Fialho and Georgiou 1994)

$$\mu_0(Z) = \inf_{\varepsilon} \{ \|\varepsilon\|_{\max} / Z + \varepsilon \times W_Z \text{ unstable} \}. \quad (16)$$

Since this measure is numerically difficult to evaluate, the following measure is most often used:

$$\mu(Z) \triangleq \min_{1 \leq k \leq n} \frac{1 - |\lambda_k|}{\|W_Z\|_F \left\| \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial Z} \times W_Z \right\|_F}, \quad (17)$$

where  $\lambda_k$  denotes the  $k$ th pole of the system and  $\|\cdot\|_F$  stands for the Frobenius norm.

This measure can be evaluated by the following lemma.

**Lemma 3** (Hilaire et al. 2007a):

$$\frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial Z} = M_1^\top \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial A} M_2^\top, \quad (18)$$

where  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are the matrices defined in Lemma 2. Moreover  $\frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial A}$  can be easily computed from the underlying right eigenvectors of  $A$ .

### 3.3 Round-off noise gain

The round-off noise gain (RNG) is another criterion for the analysis of a realisation. Considering the quantisation noises after each multiplication, the algorithm in (2) becomes

- (i)  $JT(k+1) = MX(k) + NU(k) + \xi_T(k)$ ,
- (ii)  $X(k+1) = KT(k+1) + PX(k) + QU(k) + \xi_X(k)$ ,
- (iii)  $Y(k) = LT(k+1) + RX(k) + SU(k) + \xi_Y(k)$ ,

where  $\xi_T$ ,  $\xi_X$  and  $\xi_Y$  are the noise sources corrupting  $T$ ,  $X$  and  $Y$ . These noises are usually modelled as independent white sequences.

Denote  $\xi$  the vector formed by all the noises:  $\xi(k)^\top = (\xi_T(k)^\top \quad \xi_X(k)^\top \quad \xi_Y(k)^\top)$ . It is possible to aggregate all of them as an additive noise  $\xi'(k)$  on the output. This (coloured) noise results from the filtering of  $\xi(k)$  via the transfer function  $H_1$  defined in (15) (Figure 1; Hilaire, Ménard and Sentieys 2007b).

**Definition 2** (Mullis and Roberts 1976): Suppose that the round-off noises  $\xi$  have the same power  $\sigma_o^2$ .

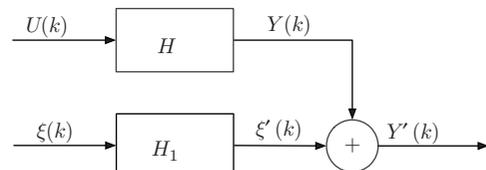


Figure 1. Equivalent noised model.

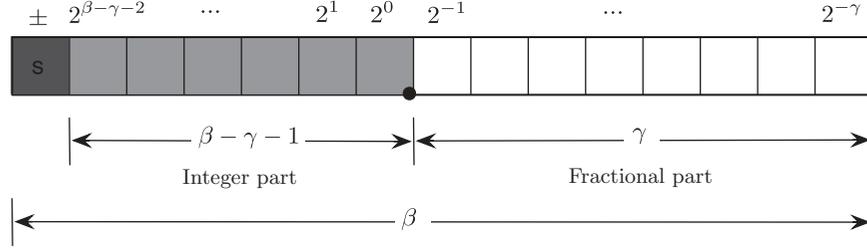


Figure 2. Fixed-point representation.

The round-off noise gain measure is then defined by the ratio of the power of global noise  $\xi'(k)$  and  $\sigma_o^2$

$$G \triangleq \frac{E\{\xi'(k)^\top \xi'(k)\}}{\sigma_o^2}, \quad (19)$$

where  $E\{\cdot\}$  is the mean operator.

**Lemma 4:**

$$G = \text{trace}(d_Z(M_1^\top W_o M_1 + M_2^\top M_2)), \quad (20)$$

in which  $d_Z$  is a diagonal matrix with  $(d_Z)_{i,i}$  denoting the number of non-trivial parameters in the  $i$ th row of  $Z$  (except 0,  $\pm 1$  and powers of 2), and  $W_o$  is the observability Gramian of the state-space system  $(A_Z, B_Z, C_Z, D_Z)$ .

#### 4. $L_2$ -scaling

The  $L_2$ -dynamic-range scaling constraints were introduced by Jackson (1970) and Hwang (1975). They consist in scaling the state variables in a way to prevent overflows or underflows. The  $L_2$ -scaling also contributes to normalise the format of different state variables and the aforementioned sensitivity criteria.

**Definition 3:** A SISO state-space system  $(A, B, C, D)$  is said to be  $L_2$ -scaled if the transfer functions from input to each state have a unitary  $L_2$ -norm ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ )

$$\|e_i^\top (zI - A)^{-1} B\|_2 = 1, \quad (21)$$

in which  $e_i$  is the vector with a 1 in the  $i$ th position and 0s elsewhere.

This definition can be extended to the SIF via unitary scaling of state and intermediate variables, i.e. ( $1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq l$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \|e_i^\top (zI - A_Z)^{-1} B_Z\|_2 &= 1, \\ \|e_j^\top (J^{-1} M (zI - A_Z)^{-1} B_Z + J^{-1} N)\|_2 &= 1. \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

According to Lemma 1, (22) can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} (W_{cX})_{i,i} &= 1 \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq n, \\ (W_{cT})_{j,j} &= 1 \quad \forall 1 \leq j \leq l, \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

where  $W_{cX}$  and  $W_{cT}$  are the controllability Gramians with regard to the state and intermediate variables, respectively

$$\begin{cases} W_{cX} = A_Z W_{cX} A_Z^\top + B_Z B_Z^\top, \\ W_{cT} = J^{-1} M W_{cX} M^\top J^{-\top} + J^{-1} N N^\top J^{-\top}. \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

Recently in Hilaire (2009), new dynamic-range-scaling constraints have been proposed. We extend these constraints here to the SIF.

It appears that, in fixed-point format, the classical  $L_2$ -scaling constraints may be uselessly too strict. It is enough, for preventing overflows, to force all state and intermediate variables to possess the same binary-point position as the input.

Figure 2 illustrates the representation of a fixed-point position, in which  $\beta$  is the total word length in bits of the representation, while  $\gamma$  denotes the fractional part word length (it gives the binary-point position of the representation). Unlike floating-point representation, they are implicitly fixed for each variable and coefficient. In this section,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  will be suffixed by the variable/state/coefficient they refer to.

To represent a value  $x$  without overflows, a fixed-point representation  $(\beta_x, \gamma_x)$  should satisfy

$$\beta_x - \gamma_x - 1 \geq \lceil \log_2 |x| \rceil + 1, \quad (25)$$

where the  $\lceil a \rceil$  operator rounds  $a$  to the nearest integer lower or equal to  $a$ .

**Proposition 1 (Overflows):** Let  $X_i^{\max}$  and  $T_j^{\max}$  be the maximum magnitude for the  $i$ th state and the  $j$ th intermediate variable, respectively. Then, the best binary-point positions  $\{\gamma_{X_i}\}$  and  $\{\gamma_{T_j}\}$  avoiding overflows are given by

$$\gamma_{X_i} = \beta_{X_i} - 2 - \left\lfloor \log_2 X_i^{\max} \right\rfloor, \quad (26)$$

$$\gamma_{T_j} = \beta_{T_j} - 2 - \left\lfloor \log_2 T_j^{\max} \right\rfloor. \quad (27)$$

**Proof:** Applying (25) to the  $i$ th state gives  $\beta_{X_i} - \gamma_{X_i} - 2 \geq \lceil \log_2 |X_i(k)| \rceil \forall k$ . So  $\gamma_{X_i}$  satisfies  $\gamma_{X_i} \leq \beta_{X_i} - 2 - \lceil \log_2 X_i^{\max} \rceil$ , and has the greatest possible value to increase the precision of the represented value.  $\square$

Let  $E_i$  be a state or an intermediate variable, and  $G_i$  the transfer function from the input to this variable. Although it is impossible to evaluate the maximum magnitude of  $E_i$ , some upper bounds can be calculated. Denote  $\overset{\text{up}}{E}_i$  the estimation of  $E_i$  by  $L_1$ -norm,

$$\overset{\text{up}}{E}_i = \|G_i\|_1 \overset{\text{max}}{U}, \quad (28)$$

or by  $L_2$ -norm:

$$\overset{\text{up}}{E}_i \simeq \kappa \|G_i\|_2 \overset{\text{max}}{U}, \quad (29)$$

where the parameter  $\kappa$  can be interpreted as a representation of the value of the standard deviation of  $E_i$ , if the input is unit-variance white centred noise ( $\kappa \geq 1$ ). Since the  $L_2$ -norm estimation in (29) does not give a strict bound, contrary to the  $L_1$ -norm case,  $\kappa$  can be viewed as a safety parameter.

In general, the  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ -estimation of  $\overset{\text{up}}{E}_i$  approximatively lead to the same binary-point position, within one or two bits. However, compared to the  $L_1$ -norm, the  $L_2$ -one is much less conservative and more tractable, hence (29) is practically used, with  $\kappa = 1$ . A simulation-based estimation, (see e.g. Belanovic and Rupp (2005) or Kim, Kum, and Sung (1998)), can be adapted after implementation to verify *in situ* the peak values and binary-point positions, accordingly to the inputs. Finally, these upper bounds are used to set the binary-point positions with

$$\gamma_{E_i} = \beta_{E_i} - 2 - \left\lfloor \log_2 \overset{\text{up}}{E}_i \right\rfloor. \quad (30)$$

Generally, two treatments are possible to prevent overflows:

- set the binary-point positions for each state and intermediate variable according to (26), (27) and (30), to make sure that the fixed-point representation can be dealt with their maximum peak values;
- or choose binary-point positions for each state and intermediate variable, and apply a scaling on them for adapting the peak value of each state or intermediate variable to the chosen binary-point positions.

The classical  $L_2$ -scaling corresponds to the second option, by imposing  $\overset{\text{max}}{E}_i = \overset{\text{max}}{U}$ , i.e.  $\|G_i\|_2 = 1$ . However, it has been shown in Hilaire (2009) that overflows can be avoided by setting the same binary-point position for the state, intermediate variables and inputs. This fact results in the constraints  $\gamma_{E_i} = \gamma_U$  for the scaling, instead of  $\overset{\text{max}}{E}_i = \overset{\text{max}}{U}$ .

The following proposition exhibits these new constraints.

**Proposition 2** (Relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints): *Assume that it is possible to get a good estimation of the upper bound of the generalised (state and intermediate) variables through the  $L_2$ -measure. In order to implement the input and the generalised variables with the same binary-point position, the  $L_2$ -scaling constraints (23) are transformed into ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq l$ ):*

$$\begin{cases} \frac{2^{2\alpha_{X_i}}}{\kappa^2} \leq (W_{cX})_{i,i} < 4 \frac{2^{2\alpha_{X_i}}}{\kappa^2}, \\ \frac{2^{2\alpha_{T_j}}}{\kappa^2} \leq (W_{cT})_{j,j} < 4 \frac{2^{2\alpha_{T_j}}}{\kappa^2}, \end{cases} \quad (31)$$

where

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{X_i} = \beta_{X_i} - \beta_U - \mathcal{F}_2\left(\overset{\text{max}}{U}\right), \\ \alpha_{T_j} = \beta_{T_j} - \beta_U - \mathcal{F}_2\left(\overset{\text{max}}{U}\right), \end{cases} \quad (32)$$

and  $\mathcal{F}_2(x)$  is defined as the fractional value of  $\log_2(x)$ :  $\mathcal{F}_2(x) \triangleq \log_2(x) - \lfloor \log_2(x) \rfloor$ .

**Proof:**  $\gamma_U$  is given by  $\gamma_U = \beta_U - 2 - \left\lfloor \log_2 \overset{\text{max}}{U} \right\rfloor$ , so  $\gamma_U = \gamma_{X_i}$  leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_U - \left\lfloor \log_2 \overset{\text{max}}{U} \right\rfloor \\ = \beta_{X_i} - \left\lfloor \log_2 \left( \kappa \|e_i^T (zI_n - A)^{-1} B\|_2 \overset{\text{max}}{U} \right) \right\rfloor, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\left\lfloor \log_2 \left( \kappa \sqrt{(W_{cX})_{i,i}} \right) + \mathcal{F}_2\left(\overset{\text{max}}{U}\right) \right\rfloor = \beta_{X_i} - \beta_U.$$

$$\text{Hence, } 2^{\alpha_{X_i}} \leq \kappa \sqrt{(W_{cX})_{i,i}} < 2^{\alpha_{X_i}+1}. \quad \square$$

**Corollary 1:** *For micro-controller or DSP implementation, the word length of all variables are equal ( $\beta_{X_i} = \beta_{T_j} = \beta_U$ ), and  $\overset{\text{max}}{U}$  can be set to a power of 2. Then, if  $\kappa = 1$  (as for classical  $L_2$ -scaling constraints), the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints become*

$$1 \leq (W_{cX})_{i,i} < 4, \quad 1 \leq (W_{cT})_{j,j} < 4. \quad (33)$$

**Proposition 3** (a posteriori relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling): *Given an SIF realisation. Relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints (31) can be satisfied by applying the similarity transform (8) with diagonal matrices  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  such that*

$$\mathcal{U}_{i,i} = \kappa \sqrt{(W_{cX})_{i,i}} 2^{-\mathcal{F}_2(\sqrt{(W_{cX})_{i,i}}) - \alpha_{X_i}}, \quad (34)$$

$$\mathcal{W}_{j,j} = \kappa \sqrt{(W_{cT})_{j,j}} 2^{-\mathcal{F}_2(\sqrt{(W_{cT})_{j,j}}) - \alpha_{T_j}}. \quad (35)$$

Not specified, yet  $\mathcal{Y}$  should be chosen to preserve the structure of the realisation, for instance  $\mathcal{Y} = I_n$  or  $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{W}^{-1}$ .



$\{\gamma_i\}$  and  $\{\Delta_i > 0\}$  are two sets of constants to determine. The particular choice  $\gamma_i = 0$  and  $\Delta_i = 1$  (resp.,  $\gamma_i = 1$ ) leads to the shift operator (resp. the  $\delta$ -operator). The SIF related to the  $\rho$ -operator has the following structure:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ -\Delta & I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T(k+1) \\ X(k+1) \\ Y(k) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & A_\rho & B_\rho \\ 0 & \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & C_\rho & D_\rho \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T(k) \\ X(k) \\ U(k) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (40)$$

with

$$A_\rho = \Delta^{-1}(\Lambda - \gamma), \quad B_\rho = \Delta^{-1}B, \quad C_\rho = C, \quad D_\rho = D, \quad (41)$$

$$\Delta = \text{diag}(\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_n), \quad \gamma = \text{diag}(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n). \quad (42)$$

Besides, the matrix  $Z$  in (7) in this case is parameterised as:

$$Z \triangleq \begin{pmatrix} -I & A_\rho & B_\rho \\ \Delta & \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & C_\rho & D_\rho \end{pmatrix}. \quad (43)$$

Moreover, according to the number of complex poles, the number of inexactly-implemented coefficients is between  $3n+1$  and  $4n+1$ , plus  $2n$  free parameters  $\{\Delta_i\}$  and  $\{\gamma_i\}$ .

**Proposition 4** ( $\rho$ -modal realisation): *The algorithm to establish the  $\rho$ -modal realisation is given as follows:*

- (1) Start with a  $q$ -based modal realisation;
- (2) Relaxed- $L_2$ -scale it according to Proposition 3;
- (3) Build the equivalent  $\rho$ -realisation described in (40), then choose  $\{\gamma_i\}$  to minimise the FWL effects;
- (4) Deduce  $\{\Delta_i\}$  to realise the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling of the intermediate variables.

Steps (3) and (4) are detailed later, and the results are given in Proposition 6 and Equation (46), respectively.

To make more precise the way to perform the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling on both the state and intermediate variables, let us reconsider the Gramian's equation (24) which is described for the  $\rho$ -modal realisation as

$$\begin{cases} W_{cX} = \Lambda W_{cX} \Lambda^\top + BB^\top, \\ W_{cT} = \Delta^{-2}[(\Lambda - \gamma)W_{cX}(\Lambda - \gamma)^\top + BB^\top]. \end{cases} \quad (44)$$

It observes that  $W_{cX}$  is independent of the choice of  $\{\gamma_i\}$  and  $\{\Delta_i\}$ . This fact indicates that the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling of  $T(k)$  can be fulfilled by simply choosing appropriate  $\{\gamma_i\}$  and  $\{\Delta_i\}$  sets. In order to explain the

way to get a scaled  $T(k)$ , we denote  $\tilde{W}_{cT}$  as the solution of  $W_{cT}$  in (44) with  $\Delta = I_n$ . Consequently, the condition  $1 \leq (W_{cT})_{i,i} < 4$  is equal to

$$1 \leq \Delta_i^{-2}(\tilde{W}_{cT})_{i,i} < 4. \quad (45)$$

Obviously any

$$\Delta_i \in \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(\tilde{W}_{cT})_{i,i}}, \sqrt{(\tilde{W}_{cT})_{i,i}} \right]$$

achieves the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints. Hence, giving the set of  $\{\gamma_i\}$ , it is always possible to choose the set of  $\{\Delta_i\}$  as powers of 2 according to the following expression, while keeping the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling as well.

$$\Delta_i = 2 \left\lfloor \sqrt{(\tilde{W}_{cT})_{i,i}} \right\rfloor. \quad (46)$$

**Remark 2:** The same trick can be used to create a  $\rho$ DFII realisation with which the state satisfies the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints. Instead of setting the  $\{\Delta_i\}$  with (Li and Zhao 2004, Equation 25)

$$\Delta_1 = \sqrt{(W_c)_{1,1}}, \quad \Delta_k = \sqrt{\frac{(W_c)_{k,k}}{(W_c)_{k-1,k-1}}}, \quad k \leq 2, \quad (47)$$

the following expression is used:

$$\Delta_1 = 2 \left\lfloor \sqrt{(W_c)_{1,1}} \right\rfloor, \quad \Delta_k = 2 \left\lfloor \sqrt{\frac{(W_c)_{k,k}}{(W_c)_{k-1,k-1}}} \right\rfloor, \quad k \leq 2. \quad (48)$$

The resulting realisation requires fewer operations, since  $\{\Delta_i\}$  are now powers of 2. This however is not yet enough to  $L_2$ -scale the intermediate variables for the  $\rho$ DFII realisation.

## 6. Optimisation of $\rho$ -modal realisation

The parameters optimisation of the  $\rho$ -modal realisation with respect to different criteria is derived in this section, and an analytical solution to the optimised  $\rho$ -modal realisation is exhibited.

Consider a given state-space realisation  $\mathcal{R}_0 := (A, B, C, D)$  of  $H(z)$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}_{\rho L_2}$  be the set of relaxed- $L_2$ -scaled  $\rho$ -modal realisations equivalent to  $\mathcal{R}_0$ , that is the realisations described by (40) and satisfying (33).

In what follows, our objective is to find the best realisation within this relaxed- $L_2$ -scaled  $\rho$ -based equivalent class  $\mathcal{C}_{\rho L_2}$ .

**Proposition 5:** *The solution  $(\Delta^*, \gamma^*)$  such as*

$$Z(\mathcal{R}_0, \Delta^*, \gamma^*) = \arg \min_{\mathcal{R} \in \mathcal{C}_{\rho L_2}} \mathcal{J}(Z), \quad (49)$$

where  $\mathcal{J}$  is one of the criteria defined in Section 3, can be obtained in a simple way through minimising  $\Delta_i$  under the constraint (45).

It is noted that Proposition 5 is important since it makes the minimisation problem much simpler than in the general case. Its proof is detailed in the following three sections.

**Corollary 2:**  $(\Delta^*, \gamma^*)$  can be obtained explicitly according to Equations (46) and (54).

### 6.1 I/O sensitivity minimisation

With the proposed  $\rho$ -modal form, from the preceding discussion,  $\Delta_i$  can be implemented exactly, hence the modification of  $\gamma_i$  only relates to the sensitivity of the matrices  $A_\rho, B_\rho$  in (40).

According to Lemma 2, the sensitivities with respect to these two matrices can be written as follows:

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial A_\rho} = (C(zI - \Lambda)^{-1}\Delta)^\top ((zI - \Lambda)^{-1}B)^\top, \quad (50)$$

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial B_\rho} = (C(zI - \Lambda)^{-1}\Delta)^\top, \quad (51)$$

which can be viewed as transfer functions of the following state-space systems, respectively:

$$\Gamma_1 := \left( \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda & BC \\ 0 & \Lambda \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \Delta \end{pmatrix}, (I_n \ 0), 0 \right), \quad (52)$$

$$\Gamma_2 := (\Lambda, \Delta, C, 0). \quad (53)$$

**Lemma 5:** The minimisation of the  $L_2$ -norm of  $\frac{\partial H}{\partial A_\rho}$  and  $\frac{\partial H}{\partial B_\rho}$  is equivalent to the minimisation of  $\Delta_i$ .

**Proof:** Using Lemma 1,  $\left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial B_\rho} \right\|_2^2 = \text{trace}(\Delta^\top W_o \Delta)$ . By noting that the observability Gramian  $W_o$  is invariant to the choice of  $\Delta_i$ , it is clear that the minimisation of  $\left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial B_\rho} \right\|_2^2$  is equivalent to the minimisation of  $\Delta_i$ . The same result is obtained when considering minimising  $\left\| \frac{\partial H}{\partial A_\rho} \right\|_2^2$ .  $\square$

Due to (45), it appears that the minimisation of  $\Delta_i$  is linked to the minimisation of the diagonal terms of  $\tilde{W}_{cT}$ .

**Proposition 6 (Optimal  $\{\gamma_i\}$ ):** The diagonal terms of  $\tilde{W}_{cT}$  are minimised by the choice of  $\gamma_i$  as follows:

$$\gamma_i = \begin{cases} \alpha_i + \frac{\beta_i (W_{cx})_{i+1,i}}{(W_{cx})_{i,i}}, & i \text{ is odd,} \\ \alpha_i + \frac{\beta_i (W_{cx})_{i,i-1}}{(W_{cx})_{i,i}}, & i \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \quad (54)$$

**Proof:** See Appendix A.  $\square$

**Corollary 3:** The choice of  $\{\gamma_i\}$  in (54) leads to the lowest I/O sensitivity.

**Remark 3:** The  $\rho$ -modal realisation proposed here retains the best combination of  $\{\Delta_i\}$  and  $\{\gamma_i\}$ . Once  $\{\gamma_i\}$  are computed,  $\{\Delta_i\}$  are consequently determined to meet the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints.

### 6.2 Pole sensitivity minimisation

**Proposition 7:** With the  $\rho$ -modal realisation, the minimisation of the pole sensitivity is equivalent to the minimisation of  $\Delta_i$ .

**Proof:** Applying Lemma 3 to the  $\rho$ -modal realisation, the pole sensitivity is exclusively related to the matrices  $M$  and  $P$  with

$$\frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial M} = \Delta \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial A_Z} I_n, \quad \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial P} = \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial A_Z}.$$

Since  $A_Z$  only depends on the relaxed scaled  $q$ -based modal realisation,  $\frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial A_Z}$  is invariant to the choice of  $\Delta_i$ . It is easy to see that the minimisation of  $\left\| \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial M} \right\|_F$  and  $\left\| \frac{\partial |\lambda_k|}{\partial P} \right\|_F$  is equal to the minimisation of  $\Delta_i$ .  $\square$

### 6.3 Round-off noise gain minimisation

Owing to its parallel structure and second-order/first-order sub-sections, the modal realisation is less sensitive to quantisation noises. According to (20), the RNG of the  $\rho$ -modal realisation is

$$G = \text{trace}(d_Z(\Delta \ I_n \ 0)^\top W_o(\Delta I_n 0) + (0 \ 0 \ 1)^\top (0 \ 0 \ 1)). \quad (55)$$

As  $W_o$  is the observability Gramian of  $(\Lambda, B, C, D)$ , it is constant with respect to  $\Delta_i$ . The minimisation of  $G$  is hence equal to choosing  $\Delta_i$  as small as possible. This converges to the same optimal conditions as previously deduced for I/O sensitivity and pole sensitivity minimisation.

So far the feature of  $\rho$ -modal realisation has been derived and minimisations of different criteria converge to the unique condition, whose solution can be obtained through the analytical formula (54) without requiring any tricky optimisation algorithm.

**Remark 4:** Once  $\{\Delta_i\}$  is fixed and implemented exactly, the sensitivities and RNG do not depend anymore on the choice of  $\{\gamma_i\}$ . It is also possible to further operate  $\{\gamma_i\}$ , for instance, rounding them to the nearest exactly-implemented numbers while keeping the system under the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaled constraints.

## 7. Numerical examples

Two numerical examples (Li and Zhao 2004) are presented in this section to illustrate the performance of the proposed realisation, and the comparison with some existing methods is also given.

In these examples, the optimal  $\{\gamma_{ij}\}$  for the  $\rho$ -modal realisation is rounded to the nearest exactly-implemented number. Here, only five bits are used to represent  $\{\gamma_{ij}\}$ . Besides, the numerical parameterisations of the  $\rho$ -modal realisation are exhibited in Appendix B.

Five different realisations are compared:

$Z_1$ : Cascade form with  $q$ -based second-order companion canonical sections;

$Z_2$ : Optimised  $\rho$ DFIIt<sup>2</sup> (Li and Zhao 2004);

$Z_3$ : Equivalent state-space realisation of  $Z_2$  (Li and Zhao 2004);

$Z_4$ :  $q$ -based balanced realisation;

$Z_5$ :  $\rho$ -modal realisation.

Numerical simulations are launched by using the FWR Toolbox<sup>3</sup> developed with MATLAB, and the I/O transfer function sensitivity is chosen as the criterion to optimise  $Z_2$ . Note that, in Li and Zhao (2004), the authors did not take into account the  $L_2$ -scaling constraints of intermediate variables, which seems necessary when the  $\rho$ -operator is used.

**Example 1:** This is a fourth-order low-pass Butterworth filter with narrow bandwidth, generated by the MATLAB command `butter(4, 0.05)`. The  $\rho$ -modal realisation yields an I/O sensitivity of 7.1048. The corresponding pole sensitivity and round-off noise gain are 0.2221 and 6.8033, respectively. The set of  $\gamma$  is computed as

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma &= (0.9375, 0.9375, 0.9375, 0.8125) \\ &= (15, 15, 15, 13) \times 2^{-4}. \end{aligned}$$

In order to provide an illustrative case for showing how  $Z_5$  can be implemented in real integer processor, the pseudocode algorithm associated with the realisation  $Z_5$  is given by Algorithm 1 (it is assumed that this realisation is performed on a 16-bit processor, and the additions are 32-bit).

**Example 2:** The second example is a sixth-order pass-band Butterworth filter which is obtained by the MATLAB command `butter(3, [0.75 0.90])`. The optimal I/O sensitivity measure obtained with the proposed realisation is 17.299. The corresponding pole sensitivity and round-off noise gain are 1.588 and 11.523, respectively. The set of  $\gamma$  is computed as

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma &= (-0.5625, -0.6875, -0.8125, \\ &\quad -0.9375, -0.5625, -0.875) \\ &= (-9, -11, -13, -15, -19, -14) \times 2^{-4}. \end{aligned}$$

Table 1. Performance comparison of five realisations of Example 1.

Realisation	$M_{L_2}^W(Z)$	$\mu(Z)$	$G(Z)$	$N_+$	$N_\times$
$Z_1$	469.34	1.2326	11.277	8	12
$Z_2$	7.1600	0.5848	5.0231	12	16
$Z_3$	16.590	3.5100	4.6816	11	16
$Z_4$	28.695	4.3014	12.454	20	25
$Z_5$	7.1048	0.2221	6.8033	16	25

Table 2. Performance comparison of five realisations of Example 2.

Realisation	$M_{L_2}^W(Z)$	$\mu(Z)$	$G(Z)$	$N_+$	$N_\times$
$Z_1$	48.899	2.6938	5.4092	12	18
$Z_2$	26.369	9.1963	16.405	18	25
$Z_3$	29.955	13.487	12.375	17	25
$Z_4$	26.815	6.4235	23.633	42	49
$Z_5$	17.299	1.5880	11.523	24	34

From Tables 1 and 2, it is observed that the cascade form with companion canonical cells ( $Z_1$ ) is the best in terms of computational efforts (just  $2n+1$  non-trivial coefficients); it however behaves relatively poor in terms of the I/O sensitivity and pole sensitivity. Besides, to construct this realisation, we have to choose a suitable configuration of poles and zeros among all possibilities, and determine a best cascade order of sub-sections. When the order of the given filter/controller is high, this task may be exhausting. For instance, in general, a system possessing  $N$  second-order sections has  $N!$  configurations of poles and zeros and  $N!$  possible cascade orders.

The  $\rho$ DFIIt ( $Z_2$ ) and its equivalent state-space realisation ( $Z_3$ ) possess  $3n+1$  non-trivial coefficients. In terms of sensitivity and noise gain, they perform quite well. One disadvantage of these two realisations is the requirement of optimisation algorithm. Indeed, ‘exhaustive research’ and ‘genetic algorithm’ were used in Li and Zhao (2004) and Zhao and Li (2006), respectively, for obtaining the optimal realisations. In addition, no scaling is used for intermediate variables, so overflows on intermediate variables may happen.

The proposed  $\rho$ -modal realisation holds  $4n+1$  non-trivial coefficients, and achieves a good trade-off among different criteria. It is, in the authors’ own experience, always better in terms of pole sensitivity, and comparable in terms of parametric sensitivity. It has especially the great advantage of not requiring a cumbersome and uncertain optimisation (non-convex problem, very large decision space for high-order filters or controllers, convergence not guaranteed within a

reasonable time). Moreover, thanks to its parallel structure, measurement of parametric sensitivity of the  $\rho$ -modal form is nothing else than the sum of parametric sensitivities of individual cells. This property allows a more detailed analysis of resilience depending on the considered frequency range, and also the use of pre-programmed cells making *a posteriori* modification easier. Furthermore, this form is applicable to multivariable filters (e.g. Kalman filters) or controllers, in contrast with  $Z_1$  or  $\rho$ DFII realisation. Finally, it is worth noting that compared with the other realisations, the  $\rho$ -modal realisation can be executed faster due to its parallel form by using several processing units simultaneously. In other realisations, on the contrary, downstream sections have to wait for the accomplishment of upstream sections during computation.

## 8. Concluding remarks

This article deals with the FWL implementation problem of digital LTI filters/controllers. Its principal contribution consists in the proposition of a systematic way to get a realisation well managing the compromise between the different aspects. The proposed structure is deduced based on a modal realisation and the use of a  $\rho$ -operator adapted to each mode. This realisation holds a sparse parameterisation and results in a low computational effort (the number of coefficients is less than  $4n + 1$  for an  $n$ th-order filter/controller), small pole and I/O parametric sensitivity, as well as a small round-off noise gain. All these are obtained under the relaxed  $L_2$ -scaling constraints which allow to normalise the intermediate computational variables, and to limit the risk of overflow as well. Moreover, contrary to other reported results asking some tricky non-linear optimisation, the present method requires the minimisation of parameters whose optimum can be attained analytically.

The present results are concerned with the open-loop case, and the considered filters/controllers are assumed to have no multiple poles. These facts may limit the application of the proposed method. In order to reduce this restriction, the generalisation of the current results to the closed-loop control problem and the diagonalisation of a system with multiple poles by using the Jordan form are under research.

## Notes

1. Exactly-implemented parameters mentioned here are those that are not modified by the process of quantisation (those completely represented by a number of bits lower than the word length used for implementation).

2.  $\rho$ DFII is evaluated by the methods proposed in Li and Zhao (2004). It is under the strict  $L_2$ -scaling constraints, without  $L_2$ -scaling on intermediate variables.
3. From a practical viewpoint, these measures are programmed in the toolbox developed by the authors and freely available at <http://fwrttoolbox.gforge.inria.fr>.

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The  $\rho$ -modal realisation of Example 2 is

$$Z_5 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.095031 & 0.57471 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.60202 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.57471 & 0.065489 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.79499 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.13769 & 0.83082 & 0 & 0 & 1.3422 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.83078 & 0.24842 & 0 & 0 & 0.76651 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.11569 & 0.94998 & 1.1595 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.94992 & 1.5488 & 0.63535 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.5625 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.6875 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.8125 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.9375 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.5625 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.125 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.875 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.29212 & 0.12808 & 0.21633 & 0.08549 & -0.28447 & 0.7058 & 0.0085987 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Algorithm 1 (16-bit pseudocode algorithm of  $Z_5$  (Example 1)):**

**Input:**  $u$ : 16-bits integer

**Output:**  $y$ : 16-bits integer

**Data:**  $xn$ : array [1..5] of 16-bits integers

**Data:**  $T$ : array [1..5] of 16-bits integers

**Data:**  $Acc$ : 32-bits integer

**begin**

```

// Intermediate variables
Acc ← (xn(1) * 2572) + (xn(2) * 24247) + (u * -24634);
T1  Acc >> 16;
Acc ← (xn(1) * -26350) + (xn(2) * -2795) + (u * -7429);
T2 ← Acc >> 15;
Acc ← (xn(3) * -18899) + (xn(4) * 10392) + (u * -23131);
T3  Acc >> 15;
Acc ← (xn(3) * -4523) + (xn(4) * 2056) + (u * -18193);
T4  Acc >> 14;
// States
Acc ← T1 << 13 + (xn(1) * 30720);
xn(1)  Acc >> 15;
Acc ← T2 << 13 + (xn(2) * 30720);
xn(2)  Acc >> 15;
Acc ← T3 << 12 + (xn(3) * 30720);
xn(3)  Acc >> 15;
Acc ← T4 << 13 + (xn(4) * 26624);
xn(4)  Acc >> 15;
// Outputs
Acc ← (xn(1) * 23596) + (xn(2) * 2200) + (xn(3) * -23664);
Acc ← Acc + (xn(4) * -929) + u;
y ← Acc >> 14;

```

**end**