

New counterexamples to pole placement by static output feedback

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Abstract

We consider linear systems with m inputs, p outputs and state of dimension n , such that $n = mp$, $\min\{m, p\} = 2$ and $\max\{m, p\}$ is even. We show that for each (m, n, p) satisfying these conditions, there is a non-empty open subset U of such systems, where the real pole placement map is not surjective. It follows that for each system in U , there exists an open set of pole configurations which cannot be assigned by any real output feedback.

1. Introduction

Let \mathbf{F} be one of the fields \mathbf{C} (complex numbers) or \mathbf{R} (real numbers). For fixed positive integers m, n, p , we consider matrices A, B, C and K with entries in \mathbf{F} , of sizes $n \times n$, $n \times m$, $p \times n$ and $m \times p$, respectively. The space Poly_n of monic polynomials of degree n with coefficients in \mathbf{F} is identified with \mathbf{F}^n , using coefficients as coordinates. For fixed A, B and C with entries in \mathbf{F} , the *pole placement map* $\chi = \chi_{A,B,C}$ is defined as

$$\chi : \text{Mat}_{\mathbf{F}}(m \times p) \rightarrow \text{Poly}_n \simeq \mathbf{F}^n, \quad \chi(K) = \varphi_K,$$

where

$$\varphi_K(s) = \det(sI - A - BKC). \tag{1}$$

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This map will be called the real or complex pole placement map, depending on \mathbf{F} .

Our primary interest is in the real pole placement map. We briefly explain how it arises in control theory. (A general reference for this theory is [3], and a survey of the pole placement problem is [2]). A linear system with static output feedback is described by a system of equations

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx \\ u &= Ky.\end{aligned}$$

Here the state x , the input u and the output y are functions of a real variable t (time), with values in \mathbf{R}^n , \mathbf{R}^m , and \mathbf{R}^p , respectively, the dot denotes the derivative with respect to t , and A, B, C, K are real matrices of the sizes specified above. The matrix K is usually called a *gain* matrix, or a compensator. Eliminating u and y gives

$$\dot{x} = (A + BKC)x,$$

thus φ_K is the characteristic polynomial of the system. The pole placement problem is:

Given real A, B, C and a set of points $\{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$ (listed with multiplicities) in \mathbf{C} , symmetric with respect to the real axis, to find real K such that the zeros of φ_K are exactly s_1, \dots, s_n .

This amounts to finding real solutions of n algebraic equations with mp unknowns, the entries of K . For any dimensions m, n, p , there are systems (A, B, C) such that the map $\chi_{A,B,C}$ is not surjective (for example, if $B = 0$). So we consider generic systems (A, B, C) . We say that for given m, n, p , the (real or complex) pole placement map is *generically surjective* if there exists an open dense set V in the space $\text{Mat}_{\mathbf{F}}(n \times n) \times \text{Mat}_{\mathbf{F}}(n \times m) \times \text{Mat}_{\mathbf{F}}(p \times n)$, such that for $(A, B, C) \in V$, the map $\chi_{A,B,C}$ has dense image in $\mathbf{R}^n \simeq \text{Poly}_n$. Thus “generic surjectivity” is a property of a triple of integers (m, n, p) .

All topological terms in this paper refer to the usual topology.

We recall the known results on generic surjectivity. The case $\min\{m, p\} = 1$ is completely understood (see, for example, [2, 8]). From consideration of dimensions follows that $mp \geq n$ is a necessary condition of generic surjectivity, complex or real. If $mp > n$, then the real pole placement map is

generically surjective [11, 7]. So from now on we restrict our attention to the case $n = mp$.

Theorem A [1] *For $n = mp$, the complex pole placement map is generically surjective. Moreover, it is a finite map of degree*

$$d(m, p) = \frac{1!2! \dots (p-1)! (mp)!}{m!(m+1)! \dots (m+p-1)!}.$$

The numbers $d(m, p)$ occur as the solution of the following problem of enumerative geometry: how many m -subspaces intersect mp given p -subspaces in \mathbf{C}^{m+p} in general position? The answer $d(m, p)$ was obtained by Schubert in 1886 (see, for example, [6]).

One can deduce from Theorem A that the real pole placement map is generically surjective if $d(m, p)$ is odd. This number is odd if and only if one of the following conditions is satisfied [2]: a) $\min\{m, p\} = 1$, or b) $\min\{m, p\} = 2$ and $\max\{m, p\} + 1$ is an integral power of 2.

If $n = mp$, the real pole placement map was known not to be generically surjective in the following two cases: a) $m = p = 2$ [12], and b) $\min\{m, p\} = 2$, $\max\{m, p\} = 4$. For the case b), a rigorous computer assisted proof was given in [8]. It disproved an earlier conjecture, that a) is the only case when $n = mp$ and the real pole placement map is not generically surjective.

In this paper we show that infinitely many more cases exist.

Theorem 1 *If $n = mp$, $\min\{m, p\} = 2$, and $\max\{m, p\}$ is even, then the real pole placement map is not generically surjective.*

Our proof of Theorem 1 gives explicitly a system (A, B, C) , and a point $w \in \text{Poly}_n$, such that for any (A', B', C') close to (A, B, C) , the real pole placement map $\chi_{A, B, C}$ omits a neighborhood of w .

In Section 2 we prove Theorem 1 using only elementary algebra, but the real reasons why this proof works are explained in Sections 3 and 4. In Section 3 we exhibit a wider class of counterexamples to pole placement, which includes those presented in Section 2. The content of Section 3 is based on a result from [4], whose rather complicated proof is outlined in Section 4. The word “circle” in this paper always means a circle on the Riemann sphere \mathbf{CP}^1 , which corresponds to a circle or a line in the complex plane.

2. A class of linear systems and proof of Theorem 1

We begin with a well-known transformation of the expression (1). We factorize the rational matrix-function $C(sI - A)^{-1}B$, as

$$C(sI - A)^{-1}B = D(s)^{-1}N(s), \quad \det D(s) = \det(sI - A), \quad (2)$$

where D and N are polynomial matrix-functions of sizes $p \times p$ and $p \times m$, respectively. For the possibility of such factorization we refer to [3, Assertion 22.6]. Using (2), and the identity $\det(I - PQ) = \det(I - QP)$, which is true for all rectangular matrices of appropriate dimensions, we write

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_K(s) &= \det(sI - A - BKC) = \det(sI - A) \det(I - (sI - A)^{-1}BKC) \\ &= \det(sI - A) \det(I - C(sI - A)^{-1}BK) \\ &= \det D(s) \det(I - D(s)^{-1}N(s)K) = \det(D(s) - N(s)K). \end{aligned}$$

This can be rewritten as

$$\varphi_K(s) = \det \left([D(s), N(s)] \begin{bmatrix} I \\ -K \end{bmatrix} \right). \quad (3)$$

It is convenient to extend φ to a map between compact manifolds. For this purpose, we allow an arbitrary $(m + p) \times p$ matrix L of rank p in (3) instead of

$$\begin{bmatrix} I \\ -K \end{bmatrix}.$$

A system is called *non-degenerate* if $\varphi_L \neq 0$ for every $(m + p) \times p$ matrix L of rank p . Such matrices are called equivalent, $L_1 \sim L_2$ if $L_1 = L_2 U$ where $U \in GL_p(\mathbf{F})$. The set of equivalence classes is the Grassmannian $G_{\mathbf{F}}(p, m + p)$ which is a compact algebraic manifold of dimension mp . If $L_1 \sim L_2$, we have $\varphi_{L_1} = c\varphi_{L_2}$, where $c \neq 0$ is a constant. The space of all non-zero polynomials of degree at most mp , modulo proportionality, is identified with the projective space \mathbf{FP}^{mp} , coefficients of the polynomials serving as homogeneous coordinates. This construction extends the pole placement map of a non-degenerate system to a regular map of compact algebraic manifolds

$$\chi : G_{\mathbf{F}}(p, m + p) \rightarrow \mathbf{FP}^{mp}, \quad (4)$$

where $\chi(L)$ is the proportionality class of the polynomial

$$\varphi_L(s) = \det ([D(s), N(s)] L), \quad (5)$$

and L is an $(m+p) \times p$ matrix of rank p representing a point in $G_{\mathbf{F}}(p, m+p)$.

To prove Theorem 1, we set $p = 2$. This does not restrict generality in view of the symmetry of our problem with respect to the interchange of m and p , see, for example, [9, Theorem 3.3]. We consider a system (A_0, B_0, C_0) represented by

$$[D(s), N(s)] = \begin{bmatrix} s^{m+1} & s^m & \dots & s & 1 \\ (m+1)s^m & ms^{m-1} & \dots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

The second row of $[D(s), N(s)]$ is the derivative of the first. The matrices A_0, B_0, C_0 can be recovered from $[D, N]$, by [3, Theorem 22.18]. Let $L = (a_{i,j})$. Introducing polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} f_{1,L}(s) &= a_{1,1}s^{m+1} + a_{2,1}s^m + a_{3,1}s^{m-1} + \dots + a_{m+2,1} \quad \text{and} \\ f_{2,L}(s) &= a_{1,2}s^{m+1} + a_{2,2}s^m + a_{3,2}s^{m-1} + \dots + a_{m+2,2}, \end{aligned}$$

we can write (3) as

$$\varphi_L = f_{1,L}f'_{2,L} - f'_{1,L}f_{2,L} = W(f_{1,L}, f_{2,L}). \quad (7)$$

Thus for our system (A_0, B_0, C_0) , the pole placement map becomes the *Wronski map*, which sends a pair of polynomials into their Wronski determinant. We say that two pairs of polynomials are equivalent, $(f_1, f_2) \sim (g_1, g_2)$, if $(g_1, g_2) = (f_1, f_2)U$, where $U \in GL_2(\mathbf{F})$. Equivalent pairs have proportional Wronski determinants. Equivalence classes of pairs of non-proportional polynomials of degree at most $m+1$ parametrize the Grassmannian $G_{\mathbf{F}}(2, m+2)$. A pair of complex polynomials will be called *real* if it is equivalent to a pair of real polynomials. The system represented by (6) is non-degenerate. This is a consequence of the well known fact that the Wronski determinant of two polynomials is zero if and only if the polynomials are proportional.

We will consider rational functions $f_L = f_{2,L}/f_{1,L}$. Equivalence relation on polynomial pairs defined above corresponds to the equivalence relation on rational functions: $f \sim g$ if $f = \ell \circ g$, where ℓ is a fractional-linear transformation. If r is a common factor of maximal degree of polynomials f_1 and f_2 then the roots of $W(f_1, f_2)$ are the critical points of the rational function f_2/f_1 plus the roots of r^2 , all counted with multiplicity.

To prove Theorem 1, we use the following general result:

If, for some (m, n, p) , there exists a real non-degenerate system (A_0, B_0, C_0) such that the real pole placement map χ_{A_0, B_0, C_0} in (4) is not surjective, then for these (m, n, p) the real pole placement map is not generically surjective.

Indeed, if χ_{A_0, B_0, C_0} omits one point w , it omits a neighborhood of w , because the image of a compact space under a continuous map is compact. Then for all (A, B, C) in a neighborhood of (A_0, B_0, C_0) , the maps $\chi_{A, B, C}$ omit a neighborhood of w .

So, to prove Theorem 1, it is enough to find a non-zero real polynomial of degree at most $2m$ which cannot be represented as the Wronski determinant of a pair of real polynomials of degree at most $m + 1$.

Thus Theorem 1 is a corollary from

Proposition 1. *If $m \geq 2$ is an even integer, then the polynomial $w(s) = s(s^2 + 1)^{m-1}$ cannot be represented as the Wronski determinant of a pair of real polynomials of degree at most $m + 1$.*

Proof. The group $\text{Aut}(\mathbf{CP}^1)$ of fractional linear transformations acts on the space \mathbf{CP}^k of proportionality classes of non-zero polynomials of degree at most k by the following rule. Let

$$\ell(s) = \frac{as + b}{cs + d}, \quad ad - bc \neq 0$$

represent a fractional-linear transformation. For a polynomial $r(s)$, we put

$$\ell r(s) = (-cs + a)^k r \circ \ell^{-1}(s).$$

That this is indeed a group action, can be verified as follows. The space of proportionality classes of non-zero polynomials of degree at most k can be canonically identified with the symmetric power $\text{Sym}^k(\mathbf{CP}^1)$, which is the set of unordered k -tuples of points in \mathbf{CP}^1 . To each polynomial r one puts into correspondence its roots, counted with multiplicity, and the point ∞ with multiplicity $k - \deg r$. Then the action of $\ell \in \text{Aut}(\mathbf{CP}^1)$ on such k -tuple is simply

$$(s_1, \dots, s_k) \mapsto (\ell(s_1), \dots, \ell(s_k)).$$

It is easy to verify that this action of $\text{Aut}(\mathbf{CP}^1)$ extends to the space $G_{\mathbf{C}}(2, m + 2)$ of equivalence classes of polynomial pairs. Furthermore, this extended action is respected by the Wronski map:

$$W(\ell g_1, \ell g_2) = \ell W(g_1, g_2).$$

We use this fact to simplify the polynomial equation

$$W(g_1, g_2) = w, \quad w(s) = s(s^2 + 1)^{m-1} \quad (8)$$

which has to be solved to prove Proposition 1.

Consider the fractional-linear transformations

$$\ell(s) = \frac{1 - is}{1 + is}, \quad \ell^{-1}(s) = \frac{is - i}{s + 1}.$$

We have $\ell : (0, i, \infty, -i) \mapsto (1, \infty, -1, 0)$, $\ell(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{T}$, the unit circle. Then

$$\ell w(s) = (s + 1)^{2m} w \circ \ell^{-1}(s) \sim s^{m+1} - s^{m-1} = v(s),$$

where “ \sim ” means “proportional”. Thus the equation (8) is equivalent to the equation

$$W(f_1, f_2) = v, \quad v(s) = s^{m+1} - s^{m-1}, \quad (9)$$

which we are going to solve now. Every solution (g_1, g_2) of (8) is equivalent to $(\ell^{-1}f_1, \ell^{-1}f_2)$, where (f_1, f_2) is a solution of (9).

For a polynomial r we denote by $\text{ord } r$ the multiplicity of a root at 0. Replacing (f_1, f_2) by an equivalent pair, we can always achieve that

$$\deg f_1 \neq \deg f_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{ord } f_1 \neq \text{ord } f_2. \quad (10)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} m - 1 &= \text{ord } v = \text{ord } f_1 + \text{ord } f_2 - 1, \\ m + 1 &= \deg v = \deg f_1 + \deg f_2 - 1. \end{aligned}$$

So

$$(\deg f_1 - \text{ord } f_1) + (\deg f_2 - \text{ord } f_2) = 2,$$

and we have two cases to consider.

Case 1. $\deg f_1 - \text{ord } f_1 = \deg f_2 - \text{ord } f_2 = 1$. In this case,

$$f_1(s) = as^{k+1} + bs^k, \quad f_2(s) = cs^{l+1} + ds^l,$$

where a, b, c, d are non-zero complex numbers, $k + l = m$, and $k < l$ (without loss of generality). For the Wronskian $W(f_1, f_2)$, we obtain

$$ac(l - k)s^{m+1} + (ad(l - k - 1) + bc(l - k + 1))s^m + bd(l - k)s^{m-1}.$$

Substituting this to (9) gives

$$ac = -bd \quad \text{and} \quad ad(l - k - 1) + bc(l - k + 1) = 0.$$

Solving these equations, we conclude that the rational function $f = f_2/f_1$ has the form

$$f(s) = \lambda s^q \frac{s - \mu}{s + 1/\mu}, \quad \text{where} \quad q = l - k \geq 2, \quad \lambda \in \mathbf{C}^*, \quad \mu = \pm \sqrt{\frac{q+1}{q-1}}.$$

Notice that the image of the unit circle under this f *cannot* belong to a circle. Indeed, if we suppose that this image belongs to a circle S , then the points $0 = f(0)$ and $\infty = f(\infty)$ are symmetric with respect to S , so S is centered at 0, and thus $f \circ \sigma = \text{const} \cdot \sigma \circ f(s)$, where $\sigma(s) = 1/\bar{s}$, which is evidently not true.

Case 2. $f_1(s) = cs^l$, $f_2(s) = as^{k+1} + bs^{k-1}$, where a, b, c are non-zero complex numbers, $l \neq k \pm 1$. Computing $W(f_1, f_2)$ gives

$$ac(k - l + 1)s^{k+l} + bc(k - l - 1)s^{l+k-2},$$

and substitution to (9) gives $l + k = m + 1$, $(k - l + 1)ac = -(k - l - 1)bc$. This implies that the rational function $f = f_2/f_1$ has the form

$$f(s) = \lambda(s^{q+1} - \mu s^{q-1}), \quad \text{where} \quad q = k - l, \quad \lambda \in \mathbf{C}^*, \quad \mu = \frac{q+1}{q-1}.$$

From our assumption that m is even follows that $q = k - l$ is odd, thus $q \neq 0$. Furthermore, $q \neq \pm 1$ in view of (10), in particular, $\mu \neq 0$. Under these conditions, the image of the unit circle under f is not contained in any circle. Indeed, $f(\{0, \infty\}) = \{0, \infty\}$, and the same argument as in Case 1 works.

Now we can complete the proof of Proposition 1. Suppose that (8) has a real solution (g_1, g_2) . Then the rational function $g = g_2/g_1$ is real. As ℓ^{-1} maps the unit circle onto the real line, we conclude that $g \circ \ell^{-1}$ is real on the unit circle. This implies that f , which is equivalent to $g \circ \ell^{-1}$, maps the unit circle into a circle, but we know from the explicit forms of f obtained in Cases 1 and 2 that this is not so. Thus no solution of (8) can be real. \square

3. Rational functions with critical points on a circle

In this section we use

Proposition 2 [4] *If all critical points of a rational function f belong to a circle S , then f maps S into a circle.*

This result permits to prove the following generalization of Proposition 1:

Proposition 3 *Let $m \geq 2$ be even, S a circle orthogonal to the real line, and w a real polynomial whose roots belong to S . Suppose that one of the two conditions holds:*

- a) $\infty \notin S$, $\deg w = 2m$, and both points of $S \cap \mathbf{R}$ are simple roots of w , or*
- b) $\infty \in S$, $\deg w = 2m - 1$, and the only point in $S \cap \mathbf{R}$ is a simple root of w .*

Then w cannot be represented as the Wronski determinant of a pair of real polynomials of degrees at most $m + 1$.

Proof of Proposition 3. We give the proof only for the case a). Case b) can be treated similarly, or derived from case a) using the action of $\text{Aut}(\mathbf{CP}^1)$ described in the proof of Proposition 1. Thus we assume

$$\deg w = 2m. \quad (11)$$

Suppose that

$$W(f_1, f_2) = w, \quad (12)$$

where w satisfies the conditions of Proposition 3, and (f_1, f_2) is a pair of real polynomials of degree at most $m + 1$.

We define $f = f_1/f_2$, and claim that

$$\deg f \text{ is odd.} \quad (13)$$

To prove the claim, we may assume that

$$\deg f_1 \leq \deg f_2 - 1, \quad (14)$$

replacing if necessary the pair (f_1, f_2) by an equivalent pair. Let r be a common factor of f_1 and f_2 of maximal degree. We can choose r to be real. Each root of r is a root of w of even multiplicity. As w has only simple roots on the real line, we conclude that r has no real roots. So

$$\deg r \text{ is even.} \quad (15)$$

By assumption, we have $\deg f_2 \leq m + 1$. Combined with (11) and (14) this gives

$$2m = \deg w = \deg f_1 + \deg f_2 - 1 \leq 2 \deg f_2 - 2 \leq 2m,$$

so

$$\deg f_2 = m + 1, \quad \text{and} \quad \deg f_1 = \deg f_2 - 1. \quad (16)$$

Then $\deg f = \deg f_2 - \deg r = m + 1 - \deg r$ is odd, because m is even by assumption, and $\deg r$ is even by (15).

As we suppose that f_1 and f_2 are real, the rational function $f = f_2/f_1$ is real. The second equation in (16) implies that ∞ is not a critical point of f . The critical points of f in \mathbf{C} are contained in the set of roots of w , so all critical points of f belong to S . By Proposition 2, the image $f(S)$ is contained in a circle S' . This circle S' is symmetric with respect to \mathbf{R} , because f is real, and S is symmetric with respect to \mathbf{R} . So either $S' = \overline{\mathbf{R}}$ or S' is orthogonal to R . The second possibility is excluded, because S is orthogonal to \mathbf{R} , and f has simple critical points at the intersection $S \cap \overline{\mathbf{R}}$. Thus $S' = \overline{\mathbf{R}}$. Let $\sigma(s) = \overline{s}$ and τ be the reflections with respect to $\overline{\mathbf{R}}$ and S , respectively. As $f(\overline{\mathbf{R}}) \subset \overline{\mathbf{R}}$, and $f(S) \subset \overline{\mathbf{R}}$, we have $f \circ \sigma = \sigma \circ f$ and $f \circ \tau = \sigma \circ f$, so

$$f \circ \sigma \circ \tau = f. \quad (17)$$

The composition $\ell = \sigma \circ \tau$ of reflections in two orthogonal circles is a fractional-linear transformation with two fixed points $\overline{\mathbf{R}} \cap S$, and $\ell \circ \ell = \text{id}$. Now (17) implies that a rational function h of degree 2, whose critical set coincides with $S \cap \overline{\mathbf{R}}$, is a right compositional factor of f , that is $f = g \circ h$, where g is a rational function. This contradicts (13). \square

4. Outline of the proof of Proposition 2.

Taking $S = \mathbf{R}$ in Proposition 2, we obtain: *Every rational function whose critical points are real is equivalent to a real rational function.* This implies something opposite to Proposition 1, namely: the pole placement problem for a system (6), with distinct *real* points $\{s_1, \dots, s_{2m}\}$ always has $d(m, 2)$ real solutions. This is a special case of the B. and M. Shapiro conjecture, [9]. Systems similar to (6) were recently used to prove that the real pole placement map is generically surjective when $m + p$ is odd [4]. This shows that Theorem 1 detects all cases when $p = 2$ and the real pole placement map is not generically surjective.

Now we explain the ideas behind the proof of Proposition 2. It is derived from Theorem A and

Proposition 4 [4] *Given $2m$ distinct points on a circle S , there exist at least $d(2, m)$ non-equivalent rational functions of degree $m+1$ having these critical points, and mapping S into a circle.*

Theorem A with $p = 2$ implies: *Given $2m$ points on a circle S , there exist at most $d(2, m)$ classes of rational functions of degree $m+1$ with these critical points.* Comparing this with Proposition 4, we conclude that all these $d(2, m)$ classes contain functions mapping S into a circle. This proves Proposition 2 in the case when all critical points are simple. An additional approximation argument is necessary to prove Proposition 2 when multiple critical points are present, [4, Section 7].

Now we outline the proof of Proposition 4. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $S = \mathbf{T}$, the unit circle. The word “symmetry” in what follows always refers to the symmetry with respect to \mathbf{T} . Let R be the class of all rational functions f of degree $m+1 \geq 3$, such that $f(\mathbf{T}) \subset \mathbf{T}$, $f(1) = 1$, $f'(1) = 0$, all critical points of f are simple and belong to \mathbf{T} . We first describe a convenient parametrization of a subclass of properly normalized functions in R . We consider a *net*, $\gamma(f) = f^{-1}(\mathbf{T})$. It coincides with the 1-skeleton of a cell decomposition of \mathbf{CP}^1 , whose 2-dimensional cells are components of $f^{-1}(\mathbf{CP}^1 \setminus \mathbf{T})$, and 0-dimensional cells (vertices) are the critical points of f . It is easy to see that this cell decomposition has the following properties:

- (i) γ is symmetric with respect to \mathbf{T} and contains \mathbf{T} ,
- (ii) all $2m$ vertices belong to \mathbf{T} and have order 4,
- (iii) the point $1 \in \mathbf{T}$ is a vertex.

Such cell decompositions are uniquely determined by their 1-skeletons. Two nets γ_1 and γ_2 are called *equivalent* if there exists an orientation-preserving symmetric homeomorphism $\eta : \mathbf{CP}^1 \rightarrow \mathbf{CP}^1$, fixing the point 1, and such that $\eta(\gamma_1) = \gamma_2$. We *label* each edge e of a net $\gamma(f)$ by a non-negative number $p(e)$, the length of the arc $f(e) \subset \mathbf{T}$. Then

$$\sum_{e \in \partial G} p(e) = 2\pi \quad \text{for every 2-dimensional cell } G. \quad (18)$$

A *labeled net* is a 1-skeleton of a cell decomposition of \mathbf{CP}^1 satisfying N1-N3, equipped with a non-negative symmetric function p on the set of edges,

satisfying (18). If p is strictly positive, we call the labeling non-degenerate. Using the Uniformization Theorem (for the sphere) we prove: *To each labeled net corresponds a rational function $f_{\gamma,p}$, such that for non-degenerate p we have $\gamma \sim f_{\gamma,p}^{-1}(\mathbf{T})$, and $p(e) = \text{length} f(e)$, for every edge e of $f_{\gamma,p}^{-1}(\mathbf{T})$.*

This result gives a parametrization of a properly normalized subclass of R by classes of labeled nets $([\gamma], p)$, where $[\gamma]$ is a class of equivalent nets, and p a non-degenerate labeling. This parametrization has an advantage that it separates topological information about f , described by the class $[\gamma]$, from the continuous parameters p , in such a way that the space of continuous parameters is topologically trivial. Indeed, the space of all non-degenerate labelings of a fixed net is a convex polytope Λ_γ , described by equations (18), the symmetry conditions, and the condition $p > 0$. The set of all labelings of γ is the closure $\overline{\Lambda}_\gamma$ of Λ_γ . For a fixed net γ and every $p \in \Lambda_\gamma$ we consider the critical set of $f_{\gamma,p}$, which is a sequence of $2m$ distinct points on the unit circle containing the point 1. We denote the space of all such sequences by Σ_γ . It can be identified with an open convex polytope of the same dimension as Λ_γ . Thus for every γ we have a map $\Phi_\gamma : \Lambda_\gamma \rightarrow \Sigma_\gamma$. We want to show that it is surjective, using a “continuity method,” going back to Poincaré and Koebe. First we extend Φ_γ to a continuous map of the closed polytopes

$$\Phi_\gamma : \overline{\Lambda}_\gamma \rightarrow \overline{\Sigma}_\gamma.$$

Rational functions $f_{\gamma,p}$ corresponding to $p \in \partial\Lambda_\gamma$ either have multiple critical points, or degree strictly less than $m + 1$. The proof of continuity of the extended map Φ_γ uses classical function theory: Picard’s and Montel’s theorems. The surjectivity of Φ_γ is derived from the careful analysis of its boundary behavior. The purpose of this analysis is to show that full preimages of the closed faces of $\overline{\Sigma}_\gamma$ are topologically trivial, that is they have the same homology groups as a one-point space. In particular, these preimages are non-empty and connected. As the preimages of the closed faces can be rather complicated, this is done in several steps. First we describe the preimages of *open faces*, which are much simpler because they are convex. Then we consider chains A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k of open faces of $\overline{\Sigma}$, such that $\overline{A_1} \supset \overline{A_2} \supset \dots \supset \overline{A_k} \neq \emptyset$, and show that, for each such chain, the closures of preimages of open faces have non-empty intersection:

$$\overline{\Phi_\gamma^{-1}(A_1)} \cap \dots \cap \overline{\Phi_\gamma^{-1}(A_k)} \neq \emptyset.$$

This is enough to deduce that the preimages of closed faces are topologically trivial. Once this is established, we use the following fact.

Lemma 1 *Let $\Phi : \overline{\Lambda} \rightarrow \overline{\Sigma}$ be a continuous map of closed convex polytopes of the same dimension. If the preimage of every closed face of $\overline{\Sigma}$ is (non-empty and) topologically trivial, then Φ is surjective.*

Thus for every class of nets γ and every critical set in Σ_γ we have a rational function $f \in R$, having this critical set, and such that $\gamma \sim f^{-1}(\mathbf{T})$. Since equivalent functions have equivalent nets, there are at least as many equivalence classes of functions in R , sharing a given critical set, as the number of classes of nets with $2m$ vertices. So the proof of Proposition 4 is completed by simple combinatorics:

Lemma 2 *The number of classes of nets on $2m$ vertices is $d(m, 2)$, the d -th Catalan number.*

For this we refer to [10, Exercise 6.19 n].

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