Department of Electrical Engineering

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Ph.D. Thesis Proposal

Analysis sf the Control of Nonlinear Systems subjected to Stochastic Disturbances

by

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I. Introduction

Muck of the phenomena of the real world is nonlinear and should be analyzed **using** nonlinear differential equations **without** recourse to linearized versions of these differential **equations** which, when solved, yield answers strikingly different from the observed phenomena and, hence, having little **value** as a mathematical model. **Many** of the control systems encountered today have essential nonlinearities resulting from the physical limitations of the devices employed. In order to obtain meaningful results from **the** mathematical model, satisfactory methods of analysis must be found for **both** the case of deterministic inputs and the case of stochastic inputs. Suitable analysis techniques are needed as a first step **in** the development of synthesis techniques.

Below are presented some **of** the currant techniques employed in the analysis of nonlinear systems with stochastic inputs. Also mentioned are **the** limitations associated with each of these methods.

II. The Analysis of Nonlinear Control Systems with Random Inputs

According to R. C. Boston (1953), who first introduced the technique, the method of statistical linearization, is an inexact method of allowing systems with a certain class of nonlinearities, subject to random inputs, to be analyzed. The class of nonlinearities allowing the method of statistical linearlizations to be used are zero-memory nonlinearities in both open loop and feedback configurations. Zero-memory ponlinearities are those **nonlinearities** with responses determined completely by the instantaneous amplitude of **the** input to the element. (The method does **not** apply **to nonlinearities** with memory, e.g., hysteresis).

The purpose of the analysis is to **allow** the computation of the probability **denisty** function (**pdf**.) of the output when the pdf of the input is **known**. The configuration **and nonlinearities of** the system must be known **before** the method of statistical **linea**rization **can** be applied.

The method involves replacing the nonlinear element of the system by a linear element with a parameter. The parameter, the equivalent gain, Keg, is evaluated by statistical considerations. After the gain is evaluated the analysis of the whole system proceeds using the methods of linear systems.

The relationship between the output, y, and the input, x, for zero-memory nonlinearities can be expressed as y = f(x). The method of statistical linearization involves assuming the form of $y = \text{Keg } x \neq x_{\text{H}}$ as the input-output relationship and neglecting x_{H} , the "distortion function". Keg is chosen by satisfying the criterion of minimizing the mean square error, $[y \cdot \text{Keg } x]^2$.

The mean square error is **determined** by applying **the** fundsmental theorem of expectation, as shown below:

$$M = [y - K_{eg} X]^{2} = E[[y - K_{eg} X]^{2}] = E[[f(x) - K_{eg} X]^{2}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [f(x) - K_{eg} X]^{2} p_{x}(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^{2}(x) p_{x}(x) dx - 2K_{eg} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) p_{x}(x) dx + K_{eg} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} p_{x}(x) dx .$$

By differentiating M with respect to Keg and setting the result equal to zero an equation results which can be solved for the value of Keg that minimizes M.

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial k_{eg}} = -2\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) p_{x}(x) dx + 2 \quad k_{eg} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} p_{x}(x) dx = 0$$

$$\therefore \quad K_{eg} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) \mathcal{M}_{e}(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} \mathcal{P}_{x}(x) dx}$$

The method of statistical linearization is especially well

adopted to gaussian inputs since, after the conversion of the nonlinear system to an approximate linear system, the theory of linear systems assures that every variable in the system is gaussianly distributed and so, therefore, is the output.

Under the assumption of a gaussian input the expression for the computation of the Keg is greatly simplified. The pdf, of the input to the nonlinearity approximation is $p_{X}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\bar{x})^{2}}{C_{x}}}$. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} p_{X}(x) dx = E(x^{2}) = \sigma_{x}^{2} + (E[x])^{2}$ So $Ke_{g} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sigma_{x} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\bar{x})^{2}}{\sigma_{x}}} dx}{\sigma_{x}^{2} + \bar{X}^{2}}$

The nonlinearity is saw replaced by the linear systems with Keg, The resulting linear system is analyzed using the usual linear system analysis techniques.

According to Booton (1953), the above analysis is also applicable to servomechanisms and feedback control systems with unity feedback. The method of statistical linearization is not so straight forward for these configurations and leads to an analysis equivalent to the analysis of a linear system with a parameter, The result of the analysis indicates that multimodal behavior of the response is indicated.

This type of response is physically verified, but the method of statistical linearization does not predict when the response will be of a particular mode.

In a more recent work, <u>Pervozvanskii</u> (1965) has generalized the method of statistical linearization and extended it to nonlinear time-varying systems.

An example of statistical **linearization is** given in the appendix.

I . <u>Approximate Analysis of Monstationary Nonlinear Systems By</u> <u>Semiinvariants</u>

The purpose of the analysis is to find **the** probability density function (pdf) of **the output of** a system which can be represented as a nonlinear, time-varying, differential equation of the form $\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \alpha(x(t),t) + f_r(t) W(t)$, where w(t) is white gaussian noise.

As shown by M. L. Dashevskii (1966;1967), the method involves a generalization of a technique that is very familiar from statistics. Recall the familiar technique of using the characteristic function, $M = E[e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}X}]$, to calculate the moments of the variables, $\overline{X^{k}} = (-i)^{k} \frac{\partial^{k}M}{\partial jk} \Big|_{j=0}$. The function $\Psi = \ln M$, called the "second characteristic function", was used to compute the semi-invariants, $\lambda_{ik} = (-i)^{k} \frac{\partial^{k}\Psi}{\partial jk} \Big|_{j=0}$. (This method can be found in the exercises of Wozencraft and Jacobs' PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATIONS). The generalization involves extending the technique to the case when all the above quantities are functions of time, **t.** $\chi(t)^{k} = (-i)^{k} \frac{\partial^{k} M(t, j)}{\partial j^{k}} \Big|_{j=0}$ and $\lambda_{k}(t) = (-j)^{k} \frac{\partial^{k} \Psi(t, j)}{\partial j^{k}} \Big|_{j=0}$ are the two generalizations upon which the method is based.

From the Fokker-Planck or Kolgmogorov's equation the partial

differential equation for the pdf of the output $\frac{\partial p(x,+)}{\partial t}$ $= -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[p(x,+)a(x,+) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{t}, \quad \partial x^{-}, \text{ is manipulated into an integro-}$ partial differential equation in $\mathbb{M}(\mathcal{F}, t), \alpha(x, t), p(x, t), \text{ and } b^{-}(t)$: $\frac{\partial \mathbb{M}(\mathcal{F}, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{t} \frac{\mathcal{F}}{\mathcal{F}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\frac{1}{t}} \frac{\mathcal{F}}{\mathcal{F}} (A(x(t), t))b(x(t), t)} \frac{\partial x(t)}{\partial x(t)} - \frac{b^{2}(t)}{z} \frac{\mathcal{F}}{\mathcal{F}} (\mathcal{F}, t).$ integro-partial differential equation involving $\mathbb{V}(\mathcal{F}, t), b(t), a(x, t), t$

and p(x,t) are obtained: $\frac{\partial \Psi(3,t)}{\partial t} = e^{-\Psi(3,t)} j_{3} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j_{3}x(t)} a(x(t),t) p(x(t),t) dx(t)$ - $b^{2}(t) \frac{3}{2}/2$

Mow, differentiating the above with respect to 3, multiplying

by (-j), and setting
$$\mathcal{Z}^{=} 0$$
.
Yields: $\frac{\partial^{2} \Psi(\mathcal{Z}, t)}{\partial \mathcal{Z} \partial t} \Big|_{\mathcal{Z}^{=} 0} = j e^{-\Psi(\mathcal{Z}^{+}, t)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[1 + \mathcal{Z}(jx - \Psi'(\mathcal{Z}, t)) \right] \cdot Q(x, t) e^{j\mathcal{Z} X} p(x, t) dx \Big|_{\mathcal{Z}^{=} 0} = \int_{\mathcal{U}^{2}}^{\mathcal{Z}} (t) \mathcal{Z} \Big|_{\mathcal{Z}^{=} 0}$

Yielding:

By

$$\frac{d\lambda_1(t)}{dt} = (-j)\frac{\partial^2 \psi_{(0,t)}}{\partial y_{(0,t)}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a(x(t),t) p(x(t),t) dx(t),$$

taking (-j) $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ to operate on the above

yields:

$$d\lambda_2(t) = \frac{\partial^3 \psi_{(2+1)}}{\partial z^2 \partial t} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \lambda_1) a(x(t), t)p(x(t), t)dx(t) + b^2(t), t$$

Similarly the above operation is continued until $\frac{d \lambda_1 (d)}{dt} = \frac{d \lambda_2 (d)}{dt}$

$$\frac{d\lambda_3(t)}{dt}_3 \frac{d\lambda_4(t)}{dt}$$
, and $\frac{d\lambda_5(t)}{dt}$ are obtained.

The $\lambda k(t)$ are the semi-invariants and are of fundamental importance in the method. The still unknown p (x(t),t) is expanded in an Edgeworth series which involves the unknown lower parameters $\lambda_1(t), \lambda_2(t), \lambda_3(t), \lambda_4(t)$, and $\lambda_5(t)$. The above integro-differential equations are solved simultaneously for the $\lambda k(t)$, k = 1,2,...,5, and used in the Edgeworth series as a good representation of the pdf, p(x(t),t), of the output.

Only a finite number of the $\frac{d\lambda_k(t)}{dt}$ are solved for simultaneously to keep the work load as low as possible. It is assumed that all $\lambda k(t) = 0$ for $k \ge 6$.

The power of **this** method lies in the **fact that** it easily handles the time-varying nonlinear **differential** equations that have general **nonlinearities** involving **time**.

Owe of the main drawbacks of the method is that the number of integro-differential equations that must be solved simultaneously in order to obtain the required semi-invariants greatly increases as the order of the differential equations describing the system increases.

IV. <u>Volterra Functional</u> Analysis of Nonlinear Tine-Varying Systems with Random Inputs

According to Y. N. Ku (1965,1967), the recent Volterra functional method is extremely powerful in that it can be used to analyzes systems that can be represented as differential equations that are nonlinear, time-varying, and that have dererministic or stochastic inputs. Since the method of analysis for the case of stochastic inputs is very similar but Slightly wore complicated **than** the analysis for the case of **deterministic** inputs, the deterministic case will **be** discussed here first. The method is applicable when the systems can be represented by **differential** equations of **the** following **form**:

- i) $Z(D)x(t) = F(x, \dot{x}, ..., x^{(n-1)}) = r(t), D = \frac{d}{dt}$ ii) $Z(D)x(t) + g(t) F(x, \dot{x}, ..., x^{(n-1)}) - r(t)$
- iii) L(t;D)x(t) + F(x, x, ..., x(n-1)) = r(t)
- iv) $L(t;D)x(t) + g(t) F(x, x, ..., x^{(n-1)}z_r(t))$

where L(t;D) denotes a linear operator in both t and D; F is an a analytic nonlinear function of the response, x(t), and its time d derivatives, g(t) denotes a function of time, and r(t) denotes the input, either deterministie or a sample function $\{\gamma(\frac{1}{t}), -\infty < \frac{1}{t} < \infty\}$ from a strict sense stationary source with bounded moments of all orders.

For $\not\equiv (D) \times (t) + F(x, \dot{x}, \dots, x^{(n-1)}) = r(t)$ and a deterministic r(t), the method yields a solution of the form $x(t) = \int_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n(t)$, $x_n(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h_n(T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n)r(t-T_1) \dots r(t-T_n)dT_1 \dots dT_n$ and where the kernel for the nth term is an n - dimensional kernel $h_n(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$. Thus, the method is a generalization of the convolution integral used in linear system analysis. Indeed; the first term of the series, $x_1(t)$, is simply a convolution sf the first input, $r(t)_{\gamma}$ and the impulse $h_1(t)$ of the linear portion of the pverall system. Recurrence relations exist for computing the Volterra kernels in terns of previous kernels and previously computed terms of the series. These recurrence relations make the evaluation of the several convolutions less tedious.

Only a finite number of terms of the series are required to closely approximate the **nonlinear system**, a situation analogous to the use of a finite number of terms sf a Fourier series to represent a function.

For $L(t;D) \times (t) \neq F(x,x,...,x^{(n-1)}) = r(t)$ and a deterministic r(t), the method is very similar to the method for the case given above except that instead of using an impulse response h1(t) for calculating x1(t), there is a time-varying system function k1(t,T) such that x1(t) = $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} k_1(t,T)r(t-T)dT$. The $k_1(t,T)$ can be found by first finding $K_1(t,s)$ by Zadeh's method and inverse Laplace transforming.

The other two cases of a nonlinearity of the form of g(t)F(x,x,..., $x^{(n-1)}$)are treated in the same way as the above two cases.

The analysis of the four different dorms of differential equations for the case of a stochastic input deviates only slightly from the analysis for the case of a deterministic input. For the differential equation of form i).

 $Z(D) x(t) \neq F(x, \dot{x}, \dots, x^{(n-1)}) : r(t) \text{ where } \{ Y(t), -\infty < t < \infty \}$ is a sample function from a strict sense stationary source with moments of all orders bounded, the linear systems is given by $Z(D) x_1(t) : r(t). \text{ The solution for the linear part is } x_1(t) := \int_{t}^{t} h_1(t-T)r(T)dT^{(1)}, \text{ where } h_1(t) \text{ represents the impulse response}$ of the linear portion system. Denoting the ensemble average of $\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{t})$ and $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{t})$ by $\langle \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{t}) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}}$ and $\langle \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{t}) \rangle_{\mathbf{x}}$ and applying these averages to both members of (1) gives $\langle \mathbf{X}_{1}(\mathbf{t}) \rangle_{\mathbf{x}} = \int_{0}^{t} h_{1} (t-\tau) \langle \mathbf{r}(\tau) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} d\tau$ $= \langle \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{t}) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} \int_{0}^{t} h_{1} (t-\tau) u(\tau) d\tau = \langle \mathbf{T}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} |\mathbf{X}_{1}|_{\mathbf{u}} (t)$ where the interchange of expectation and integration has taken place and $\mathbf{x}_{1\mathbf{u}}$ (t) is the response of the system to a deterministic unit step function $\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{t})$. For the higher order term $\langle \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{t}) \rangle_{\mathbf{x}} =$ $\langle \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{i}}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} |\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{u}}(t)$ where the $\langle \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{i}}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}}$ is the <u>ith</u> moment of the input and $\mathbf{x}_{1\mathbf{u}}$ is a result identical to the deterministic case with $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{U}(t)$.

The other forms ii, iii, and iv, of the nonlinear differential equations are treated in exactly the same way except that for L(t;D)the system function is used. All follow the form $\langle x_i(t) \rangle_x =$ $\langle r^i(t) \rangle_r x_{iu}(t)$ with $\langle x(t) \rangle_x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle x_i(t) \rangle_x$ being the final solution,

As Ku mentions, the method described above is less tedioas when digital computer programs are used in performing the convolutions and sumations.

An example using the Volterra functional analysis is given in the appendix.

V. <u>Sequential Estimation of States and Parameters in Noisy Nonlinear</u> <u>Dynamical Systems</u>

Put forward by D. M. Detchmendy and R. Sridhar (1966) this method is one of the most promising in that it caw yield an estimate of X, \hat{X} , when X = g(x,t) $\neq k(x,t)u$ and y(t) = h(x,t) \neq (observation error) where U represents an unknown input. This method uses a variational approach **and** then uses invariant imbedding equations to solve the resulting two point boundary **value** problem.

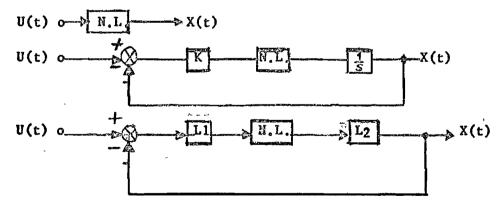
An **important** advantage is that **the** estimator obtained by this scheme can be **implimented** in real time.

There is also the possibility that this method **can** be used in conjunction with statistical linearization in helping to determine the gain for the feedback configuration, when, as mentioned above, the analysis proceeds as with a linear system with a parameter.

VI. Proposed Area of Research

In summary, we have the following four methods or tools to apply to nonlinear systems with stochastic inputs:

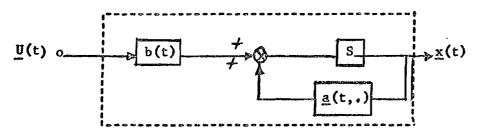
(1.) The method of statistical linearization can be applied to control systems of the following configurations:



where U(t) is white gaussian noise and the nonlinearity, ML is of an acceptable type (zero-memory but time-varying or time-invariant). L₁ and L₂ in the above are linear systems.

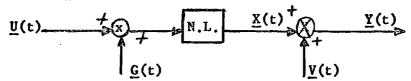
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2.) The method of semi-invariant@ is applicable to the following configuration:



or any **configuration** that allows a nonlinear differential equation to be **explicity** written. Again, **U(t)** is **gaussian white** noise. The precision of the results using **the** method sf semi-invariants is **much** better than the method of statistical linearization and it can be used in the analysis of a larger class of **nonlinear** systems (i.e., time-varying nonlinearities).

- (3.) The Volterra functional analysis method is applicable if the system can be formulated as a differential equation with a linear part and a nonlinear part of the form g(t) F(x,x,...,x⁽ⁿ⁻¹⁾). The only approximation involved in this method is that of using only a finite number of the terms in the series. The random inputs must be strict-sense stationary and have all movements bounded.
- (4.) The sequential estimation **method** is **good** in that it can be used when the input is a composite of control function and noise. The allowed system configuration is:



where U(t) and V(t) are unknown noises and G(t) is a deterministic control force.

The response of a linear **system** subjected to stochastic inputs and a **deterministic** control force **canabe obtained** by adding the response of the system due to **the** stochastic inputs **alone to** the response of the **system** due to the **deterministic control force** alone. That the sum of the responses to the individual inputs is the responses of the system to the combined inputs follows from the validity of the superposition principle for linear systems.

A common characteristic of three of the four approaches to the analysis of nonlinear systems subjected to random inputs given above was the absence of a deterministic control force. No such convient superposition principle exists for nonlinear systems so that, in general, the response of a nonlinear system to a stochnstfc input and a deterministic input is not the sum of the response due to the stochastic part alone and the response due to the deterministic part alone. Because superposition is not valid for nonlinear systems, the response to stochastic inputs alone is of no value in trying to determine the response to stochastic inputs and a deterministic control.

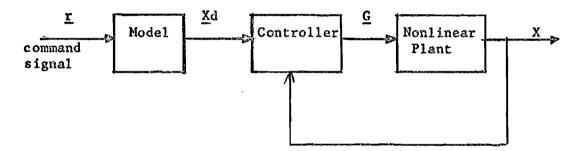
In the proposed research, it is my desire to attempt to solve the problem sf analysis of nonlinear systems subjected to stochastic inputs and deterministic control. I would also like to consider the problem of fittering under the above conditions when the observation is contaminated by measurement noise. My approach will be to learn how to derive the Stratonovich-Kushner-

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Bucy fittering equation for this general nonlinear system having stochastic and deterministic imputs and to learn the Ito and Stratonavich's approach to manipulating this equation. I would then try to generalize the four approaches mentioned above to this problem.

•

Another approach to **the** problem that I plan to take in the proposed research will be in following the lead of a recent paper by H. F. **VanLandingham** and W. A. Blàckwell (1967) on the **design** of a technique that generates a control **signal** which forces tho **state** of a nonlinear plant to be close to the state of a **reference** model by **ingeniously** applying **Liapunov's** second method. The system configuration is **shown** below.



The model used is a linear antonomous system and represents "ideal" system behavior. The state variable representation of this model is $\underline{Xd} = Ao \underline{Xd} \neq Bo \underline{r}$, where Xd is the state of the linear constant system model. \underline{r} is the input vector, and A6 and Bo are constant matrices.

The actural nonlinear system is characterized by the **non**linear differential equation $\mathbf{\underline{X}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{\underline{x}}, \mathbf{\underline{G}}, \mathbf{t})$, where $\mathbf{\underline{X}}$ is the actual state, $\mathbf{\underline{G}}$ is the deterministic control vector, and t is time,

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The error, \underline{e} , is defined as $\underline{Xd} = \underline{X}$ and can be conviently manipulated into the differential equation $\underline{\underline{e}} = \underline{Ao} \underline{e} + \underline{AoX} - \mathbf{f}(\underline{x},\underline{G},t) + \underline{Bo} \underline{r}$.

Liapunov's second method is applied to **this** differential equation by assuming a form for the Liapunov function of $V = \underline{e}^T P \underline{e}$, where P is a symmetric positive definite matrix. The derivative of V with respect to time is

$$\mathbf{v} = \underline{e^{\mathbf{T}}} \left[A \mathbf{o^{\mathbf{T}}} \mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{P} A \mathbf{o} \right] \underline{e} \neq \left\{ 2 \underline{e^{\mathbf{T}}} \left[A \mathbf{o} \underline{\mathbf{X}} - \mathbf{f} (\underline{\mathbf{x}}, \underline{\mathbf{G}}, \mathbf{t}) \neq B \mathbf{o} \underline{\mathbf{r}} \right] \right\}$$

h deterministic control **<u>G</u>** is synthesized that makes V negative definite. This condition ensures that the error, <u>e</u>, is asymptotically stable and, hance, goes to zero.

My proposed research on this aspect of the problem will be to investigate the possibility of replacing the Liapunov function of the deterministic case with a "stochastic Liapunov function" in synthesizing a <u>G</u> to ensure <u>e</u> to be asymptotically stable 'and thus generalize the above method to the control of nonlinear systems with random inputs.

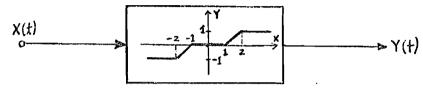
The use of stochastic Liapunov functionshas received a good deal of **attention in** the last **three years**. Kushner (1967) has done quite a **bit** in the area of stochastic **Liapunov** functions.

In working with stochastic Liapunov functions, I realize that this part of the research will be less practical-oriented since, as Kushner (1965) mentioned, a shortcoming common to both deterministic and stochastic Liapunov functions is the difficulty of finding them.

VII. Appendix

Statistical Linerazation Example

The figure below shows a nonlinear element representing saturation with a dead zone.



In equation form, Y(t) = f[X(t)], where X(t) is a zero mean gaussian random process with unit variance and having a pdf of $P_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{x} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\chi^2(\frac{1}{2})}$.

The assumption made is that $X_{H}(t)$ is neglizible in the representation $Y(t) = \text{Keg } X(t) + X_{H}(t)$. Therefore $X_{H}(t)$ is dropped, yielding Y(t) = Keg X(t).

The mean squared error which is to be minimized as the criterion satisfied by this technique is $\left[Y(t)-\dot{Y}(t)\right]^2 = \left[Y(t)-Keg X(t)\right]^2$

$$= \left[f(X(t) - Keg X(t))\right]^2$$

So Keg is to be chosen to minimize

$$M = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[Y(t) - \hat{Y}(t) \right]^2 p_X(x) dx$$

The general result for Keg, shorn-earlier, is

$$\operatorname{Keg} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) p_{x}(x) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} p_{x}(x) dx}$$

Since
$$p_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x} p\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2(t)\right)$$
,
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 p_x(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dx = 0^{\prime 2} - (p_x)^2 = 1$
In the above $p_x = 0$ since $p_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dx = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x' e^{-\frac{(x')^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dx' = -p_x$
under $x' = -x$

and the only quantity equal to its negative is zero.

Evaluating the expression for Keg in terms of the appropriate value of f(x) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{Keg} = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{-2} \chi(-1) p_{X}(x) dx + \int_{-2}^{-1} \chi(1+\chi) p_{X}(\chi) d\chi + \int_{-1}^{+1} \chi \cdot 0 \cdot p_{X}(\chi) d\chi \right. \\ & + \int_{1}^{2} \chi(\chi-1) p_{X}(\chi) d\chi + \int_{2}^{\infty} \chi(1) p_{X}(\chi) d\chi \right] / 1 \,. \end{aligned}$$

Substituting in the pdf yields:

$$\operatorname{Keg} = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{-2} X(-1) e^{-\frac{X^{2}}{2}} dx + \int_{-2}^{-1} (X+X^{2}) e^{-\frac{X^{2}}{2}} dx + \int_{-1}^{+1} 0 dx \right]_{+1}^{2} (X^{2}-X) e^{-\frac{X^{2}}{2}} dx + \int_{2}^{\infty} X e^{-\frac{X^{2}}{2}} dx \left] / \sqrt{2\pi} \right]_{+1}^{-1}$$

Using symmetry properties of even functions and shuffling the integrals around yields: $\operatorname{Keg} = 2 \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} (\chi^{2} - \chi) e^{-\frac{\chi^{2}}{2}} d\chi + \int_{1}^{2} \chi e^{-\frac{\chi^{2}}{2}} d\chi \right] / \sqrt{2\pi} .$

To further simplify the above expression for Reg three

integrations by parts are carried out below. Use is made of the

error function.
i)
$$\int_{2}^{\infty} x e^{-x^{2}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{4}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{y}{2}} dy = -e^{-\frac{y}{2}} \Big|_{4}^{\infty} = -e^{-\infty} + e^{-2} = e^{-2}$$
.
ii) $\int_{1}^{2} x^{2} e^{-x^{2}} dx = \int_{1}^{2} -\chi \left(-e^{-x^{2}} \chi dx \right) = -\chi e^{-x^{2}} \Big|_{1}^{2} + \int_{1}^{2} e^{-x^{2}} dx$
 $= -2 e^{-2} + e^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{11}} \int_{\frac{1}{12}}^{\sqrt{21}} e^{-u^{2}} du = -2 e^{-2} + e^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \Big[erf(\sqrt{2}) - erf(\sqrt{2}) + e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \Big]_{\frac{1}{12}}^{2}$

Resubstituting into the expression for Keg gives

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{Keg} = 2 \left[e^{-2} - 2e^{-2} + e^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left\{ \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{2}) - \operatorname{erf}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) \right\} + e^{-2} - e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right] / \sqrt{2\pi} \\ & = \left[\operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{2}) - \operatorname{erf}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) \right] \end{split}$$

The error function erf(?) is well tabulated.

From the expression for Keg, the expression for the estimate of the output,

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}}(t) = \operatorname{Keg} \mathbf{X}(t) = \left[\operatorname{erf} \left(\sqrt{2'} \right) - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2'}} \right) \right] \mathbf{X}(t),$$

is obtained.

Volterra Functional Analysis Example

$$t^{2} \frac{d^{2}y}{dt^{2}} + 4t \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y + \mu y^{2} = r(t)$$

r(t) is a stochastic imput having all moments $\langle r^i(t) \rangle_{r,i} = 1,2,3,...,$ known and bounded.

First, consider the method of Volterra functional analysis applied to the deterministic case of r(t) = U(t), a unit step, since the results of this analysis are required in evaluating the case of a stochastic r(t).

The above ordinary nonlinear differential equation is of the form $L(t,D)Y(t) \neq F(y,y,\ldots,Y^{(n-1)}) = r(t)$, so the method of Volterra functional analysis is applieable.

In order to start the Volterra functional analysis procedure it is necessary to obtain the impulse response from the linear portion of the nonlinear differential equation. Finding the impulse response involves applying the variation of parameters method to the linear portion of the example. The differential equation now being considered is $t^2 \frac{d^2 w}{dt^2} + 4t \frac{dw}{dt} + 2Y = F(t)$. To apply the method of variation of parameters it is first necessary to have the complementary or transient solution which is the solution of the associated homogeneous differential equation, $t^2 \frac{d^2 w}{dt^2} + 4t \frac{dw}{dt} + 2Y = 0$. The associated differential equation in this example is seen to be of the Canchy type, ameanable to solution by the standard trick of a change of independent variable using the substitution $t = e^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$. (Another method of obtaining the complementary solution would be to use Mellin transforms.)

The substitution requires evaluation of: $\begin{aligned}
t &= e^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \implies \pi = \ln t \\
\frac{dt}{dy} &= e^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = t \implies \frac{dy}{dt} = e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}} = \frac{1}{t} \\
\frac{dt}{dy} &= \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{1}{t} = \frac{1}{t} \frac{dy}{dt} \\
\frac{d^{2}y}{dt^{2}} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{dy}{dt} \right] = \frac{d}{dy} \left[\frac{dy}{dt} \right] \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dy} \left[\frac{1}{t} \frac{d^{2}y}{dt} \right] \cdot \frac{1}{t} \\
\frac{dz}{dt^{2}z} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{t} \frac{dy}{dt} \right] \frac{1}{t} = \left[\frac{1}{t} \frac{d^{2}y}{dt^{2}} - \frac{\frac{dt}{t}}{t} \frac{dy}{dt} \right] \cdot \frac{1}{t} = \frac{1}{t} \left[\frac{1}{t} \frac{d^{2}y}{dt^{2}} - \frac{1}{t} \frac{dy}{dt} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{t^{2}} \left[\frac{dz}{dy^{2}} - \frac{dy}{dy^{2}} \right].
\end{aligned}$

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Then applying the substitution to the associated homogeneous differential equation transforms the Canchy type differential equation into a linear, constant coefficient, ordinary differential equation as shown below:

$$t^{2} \left(\frac{1}{\pi^{2}} \left[\frac{d^{2} y}{d k^{2}} - \frac{d y}{d k} \right] \right) + 4t \left(\frac{1}{4} \frac{d y}{d k} \right) + 2Y = 0$$

$$D^{2}Y + 3DY + 2Y = 0$$

or $(D \neq 2) \cdot (D \neq 1)Y = 0$

or

From the theory of linear constant coefficient differential equuations the complementary solution is $Y(z_1) = C_1 e^{-2\mathcal{F}} + C_2 e^{-\mathcal{F}}$, where Cland C2are arbitary constants. Reversing the substitution used above, replacing by LNt yields $Y(t) = C_1 e^{-2\ln t} + C_2 e^{-\ln t} = \frac{C_1}{t^2} + \frac{C_2}{t}$. That the complementary solution, $\frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t}$,

are independent: can be checked by observing that the Wronskian is nonzero: $\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{3^2} \\ \frac{1}{3^2} \end{vmatrix}$

$$W(3f) = \begin{vmatrix} 3^{2} & 3^{2} \\ -2 & -1 \\ 3^{2} & 3^{2} \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{1}{3^{2}4} + \frac{2}{3^{2}4} = \frac{1}{3^{2}4} \neq 0$$

The linear differential equation $t^2 dx_{1+1}^{2} + 4t dx_{1+1}^{2} + 2Y = F(t)$ is of the form $a_n(t) D^n Y \neq a_{n-1}(t) D^{n-1} Y \neq \ldots \neq a_0 Y(t) = A(D,t)Y = F(t)$ and by being of this form has a particular solution, obtained by variation of parameters, of the form $Y(t) = \int_0^t F(y) \left[\frac{1}{(a_n(y))} \int_{x=1}^n y_1(t) W_{ni}(y) \right] dy_{x_1}$, where the Yi's are the n independent solutions of the associated homogeneous differential equation, W(y) is the Wronskian, and the W_{ni} (3) are the ni-th cofactor of the Wronskian. The Wronskian is given by

$$= \begin{vmatrix} Y_{1}(z) & Y_{2}(z) & \cdots & Y_{n}(z) \\ \dot{Y}_{1}(z) & \dot{Y}_{2}(z) & \cdots & \dot{Y}_{n}(z) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ Y_{1}(z) & Y_{2}(z) & \cdots & Y_{n}(z) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ Y_{1}(z) & Y_{2}(z) & \cdots & Y_{n}(z) \end{vmatrix}$$

The quantity in brackets above is known as the one-sided Green's function and is denoted by $g(t, y) = \frac{1}{\alpha_n(y)} \bigcup_{i=1}^n Y_i(t) \bigcup_{i=1}^n Y_i(t)$. The Green's function satisfies the useful property that the particular solution is given by $Y(t) = \int_0^t F(y) g(t, y) dy$.

For a differential equation of the type considered in this example the impulse response and the one-sided Green's function are identical. Therefore $h(t, z) = \begin{cases} g(t, z) & \text{for } 0 < z < z \\ 0 & \text{for } z < z \end{cases}$

For the present example,
$$\tilde{W}(z) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{3^2} & \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{2}{3^3} & -\frac{1}{3^2} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{3^{24}}$$

and $\begin{cases} 2\\ \frac{1}{3^2} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3^2} & \frac{1}{3^2} \\ \frac{1}{$

The impulse response or Zadeh's system function could have been obtained by Zadeh's method. The above approach was taken here because of the general familiarity of the several techniques used. The techniques used in this example can be found in DeRusso or any good differential equations book or book on the techniques of mathematic physics.

Returning now to the application of the Volterra functional analysis technique to the solution of the nonlinear differential equation $t^2 \frac{d^2 u}{dt^2 z} + 4t \frac{du}{dt} + 2y + \mu y^2 = \gamma(t)$ with a linear portion impulse response represented using a notation in keeping with that suggested in DeRusso of h* $(t, t-z) = h(t, z) = \begin{cases} \frac{(t-z)}{t^2}, t \ge z\\ 0, t < z \end{cases}$. The linear system is given by the convolution integral $Y_1(t) = \int_0^t h_*(t, t-z) \gamma(z) dy$.

The quadratic and cubic systems are

$$\begin{split} Y_{2}(t) &= -\mu \int_{0}^{t} h_{*} (t, t-z) Y_{1}^{2}(z) dz \\ \dot{Y}_{s}(t) &= -2\mu \int_{0}^{t} h_{*} (t, t-z) Y_{1}(z) Y_{2}(z) dz \end{split}$$

In general, the higher order system is given by

$$Y_{i}(t) = -\mu \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \int_{0}^{t} h_{*}(t, t-j) Y_{i-j}(j) Y_{j}(j) dy, \quad i = 4,5,6,...$$

For this example, r(t) = U(t), a unit step function, so the systems reduce to:

$$\begin{split} Y_{1}(t) &= \int_{0}^{t} \frac{(t-x)}{t^{2}} \quad U(z) \, dy = \int_{0}^{t} \frac{(t-z)}{t^{2}} \, dy = \frac{t_{2} - \frac{y^{2}}{t^{2}}}{t^{2}} \Big|_{0}^{t} = \frac{t^{2} - \frac{t^{2}}{t^{2}}}{t^{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \\ Y_{2}(t) &= \int_{0}^{t} (-\mu) \frac{(t-z)}{t^{2}} \quad (\frac{1}{2})^{2} \, dy = -\frac{\mu}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = -\frac{\mu}{8} \\ Y_{3}(t) &= -2\mu \int_{0}^{t} \frac{(t-z)}{t^{2}} \quad (\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{\mu}{8}) \, dy = \frac{\mu^{2}}{8} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{\mu^{2}}{16} \\ \cdots \\ Y_{i}(t) &= -\mu \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \int_{0}^{t} \frac{(t-z)}{t^{2}} \quad Y_{i-j}(z) \quad Y_{j}(z) \, dy = t, i=1, 5, 6, \cdots \end{split}$$

Now that the analysis of the nonlinear system for the case of a deterministic unit step input has been conpleted above, it is permissible to proceed with the analysis of the case of a stochastic input since all the information accrued in the analysis for the unit step will be needed. Applying ensemble averages to the linear portion convolution integral yields $\langle y_1(t) \rangle_y = \langle \int_0^t h_*(t, t-z) Y(z) dy \rangle_Y = \int_0^t h_*(t_2t-z) \langle Y(z) \rangle_Y dy =$ $\langle Y(t) \rangle_Y \int_0^t h_*(t, t-z) U(z) dy = \langle T(t) \rangle_Y Y_{1u}(t)$ where $Y_{1u}(t)$ is notation indica-

ting that it is the deterministic response when the input is a unit step. In general, $\langle Y_i(t) \rangle_y : \langle r^i(t) \rangle_r X_{iu}(t)$ for i = 1, 2, 3, ...For the above example:

$\langle Y_{1} (t) \rangle_{y}$		$\frac{1}{2} \langle \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{t}) \rangle \mathbf{r}$
$\langle Y_2(t) \rangle_y$	1	$-\frac{\nu}{8}\langle r^2(t)\rangle_r$
$\langle Y_{3}(t) \rangle_{y}$	Ţ.	$\frac{\mu^2}{l_0^2} \langle r^3(t) \rangle_r$
• • •		

 $\langle Y_i(t) \rangle y = -\mu \bigotimes_{j=1}^{j-1} \int_c^t \frac{(t-z_j)}{t^2} y_{i-j}(z_j) y_j(z_j) dy \langle r^i(t) \rangle_r$ And the final solution is

$$\langle \mathbf{Y}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{y}} \stackrel{:}{=} \qquad \sum_{\substack{i=1\\ i \neq i}}^{1} \langle \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{i}}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} \quad \mathbf{Y}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{u}}(t) \stackrel{:}{=} \\ \frac{1}{2} \langle \mathbf{r}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} - \frac{\mu}{8} \langle \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{2}}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} \quad + \frac{\mu^{2}}{16} \langle \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{3}}(t) \rangle_{\mathbf{r}} \quad - \dots$$

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