

Polynomial Chaos-Based \mathcal{H}_2 Output-Feedback Control of Systems with Probabilistic Parametric Uncertainties

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Abstract

\mathcal{H}_2 static and dynamic output-feedback control problems are investigated for linear time-invariant uncertain systems. The goal is to minimize the averaged \mathcal{H}_2 performance in the presence of nonlinear dependence on time-invariant probabilistic parametric uncertainties. By applying the polynomial chaos theory, the control synthesis problem is solved using a high-dimensional expanded system which characterizes stochastic state uncertainty propagation. Compared to existing polynomial chaos-based control designs, the proposed approach addresses the simultaneous presence of parametric uncertainties and white noises. The effect of truncation errors due to using finite-degree polynomial chaos expansions is captured by time-varying norm-bounded uncertainties, and is explicitly taken into account by adopting a guaranteed cost control approach. This feature avoids the use of high-degree polynomial chaos expansions to alleviate the destabilizing effect of expansion truncation errors, thus significantly reducing computational complexity. Moreover, rigorous analysis clarifies the condition under which the stability of the high-dimensional expanded system implies the internal mean square stability of the original system under control. Using iterations between synthesis and post-analysis, a bisection algorithm is proposed to find the smallest bounding parameter on the effect of expansion truncation errors such that robust closed-loop stability is guaranteed. A numerical example is used to illustrate the effectiveness of the proposed approach.

Key words: output-feedback, robust control, parametric uncertainties, polynomial chaos, stochastic systems

1 Introduction

The closed-loop stability and performance obtained by state- and output-feedback control systems can be sensitive to model uncertainties, which has motivated numerous studies on the synthesis of robust control insensitive to uncertainties, e.g., Ahn et al. (2018); Chang et al. (2015); Dong and Yang (2013); Lee et al. (2015); Petersen and Tempo (2014); Rosa et al. (2018); Sadabadi and Peaucelle (2016); Salavati et al. (2019). The static or reduced-order dynamic output-feedback control synthesis problem for both nominal and uncertain systems is NP-hard, which implies that standard linear matrix inequalities (LMIs) and other convex optimization formulations do not exist (Sadabadi and Peaucelle, 2016).

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The majority of the output-feedback and broader control literature adopts a worst-case design strategy to ensure stability and achieve a desired performance bound for all possible uncertainties. This worst-case approach tends to produce highly conservative performance because the worst-case scenario may have vanishingly low probability of occurrence. In addition, most worst-case approaches are limited to specific uncertainty structures, such as norm-bounded, affine, polytopic, and integral quadratic uncertainties (Petersen and Tempo, 2014). A general nonlinear uncertainty structure cannot be effectively addressed without introducing overbounds.

In contrast to a worst-case performance bound, the practical interest in the performance variation or dispersion across the uncertainty region has motivated recent research on probabilistic robustness (Petersen and Tempo, 2014). The design objectives then include second-moment stability (Hosoe et al., 2018), a probability-guaranteed performance bound (Tempo et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2018), or an optimal averaged performance (Boyarski and Shaked, 2005). In this line of research, literature like Hosoe et al. (2018) assume the uncertain parameters to be independent and identically distributed stochastic processes. This assumption allows arbitrarily fast parameter variations, which is not true in some applications. The randomized algorithm proposed in Tempo et al. (2013) can address general nonlinear dependence on uncertain parameters, but can be computationally demanding since a large number of samples is often needed.

The above observations have further led to robust control research that aims at addressing averaged performance in the presence of general nonlinear dependence on probabilistic time-invariant parametric uncertainties. Such an uncertainty description is commonly generated by parameter identification techniques, but is poorly suited for any existing robust control design methods mentioned above. This robust control problem is non-trivial because uncertainty propagation in such an uncertain system is no longer a Markov process when accounting for the time invariance of uncertain parameters (Paulson et al., 2015). As a computationally efficient non-sampling approach for quantifying uncertainty propagation, polynomial chaos (PC) theory builds the foundation of a recent promising solution to this problem (Kim et al., 2013). PC theory allows characterization of the evolution of probability distributions of the underlying stochastic system states by a high-dimensional expanded deterministic system describing the evolution dynamics of the polynomial chaos expansion (PCE) coefficients. Thus the control synthesis problem can be solved by using the PCE-transformed system. Up to now, the existing PCE-based control methods have been applied to stability analysis (Hover and Triantafyllou, 2006; Lucia et al., 2017), state-feedback control (Fisher and Bhattacharya, 2009; Bhattacharya, 2019; Hsu and Bhattacharya, 2017), optimal control (Bergner and

Kirches, 2018; Lefebvre et al., 2020; Nandi and Singh, 2018; Paulson and Mesbah, 2019), and stochastic model predictive control (Dai et al., 2015; Paulson et al., 2015). Except for Konda et al. (2011), most of the published methods do not simultaneously consider time-invariant random parametric uncertainties and time-varying stochastic external disturbances, because applying PCE to compute the uncertainty propagation of time-varying stochastic disturbances involves infinite number of random variables as time goes to infinity. Moreover, due to truncation errors introduced by using finite-degree PCEs, stability and performance derived for the PCE-transformed system may not be automatically achieved by the original system (Lucia et al., 2017). Although increasing the PCE degree can alleviate the effect of PCE truncation errors, it may result in significant increase in computational complexity as the state dimension of the PCE-transformed system factorially grows with the PCE degree.

In this article, PCE-based \mathcal{H}_2 static and dynamic output-feedback controls are investigated. Both nonlinear dependence on probabilistic time-invariant parametric uncertainties and additive white noises are taken into account by the developed PCE-transformed system. Moreover, the approximation errors introduced by the PCE truncations are captured by time-varying norm-bounded uncertainties whose bound is used as a robustifying tuning parameter. Based on the above PCE-transformed system, a nominal \mathcal{H}_2 synthesis approach is proposed when neglecting PCE truncation errors, while a guaranteed cost \mathcal{H}_2 control is adopted to cope with PCE truncation errors. The use of a robustifying parameter enforces closed-loop stability without resorting to a high-degree PCE, thus avoiding high computational complexity due to a large number of PCE terms. Moreover, rigorous analysis reveals the relationship between the stability of the PCE-transformed system and the internal mean square stability of the original system under control. Using iterations between synthesis and post-analysis, a bisection algorithm is proposed to find the smallest robustifying parameter that ensures robust closed-loop stability. In contrast, further analysis shows that the Monte-Carlo sampling based \mathcal{H}_2 synthesis is much less computationally efficient, and converges to imposing the conservative worst-case stability constraint as the number of samples grows to infinity.

This journal article extends the authors' previous conference paper (Shen et al., 2017) in several ways including robust synthesis that explicitly accounts for PCE truncation errors, dynamic output feedback control synthesis, and providing proofs of the theoretical results.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 states the probabilistic robust \mathcal{H}_2 control problem. Section 3 reviews preliminaries of PC theory and analyzes the effect of PCE truncation errors. Our proposed static and dynamic output-feedback controls are presented in

Sections 4 and 5, respectively. Section 6 compares our PCE-based approaches to the Monte-Carlo sampling based synthesis. The simulation study and some conclusions are presented in Sections 7 and 8, respectively.

2 Problem statement

Consider the linear time-invariant (LTI) dynamical system described by

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{x}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{B}_w(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{w}(t) + \mathbf{B}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{u}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \quad (1a)$$

$$\mathbf{z}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbf{C}_z(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{x}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{D}_{zw}\mathbf{w}(t) + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{u}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \quad (1b)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{x}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{D}_w\mathbf{w}(t) \quad (1c)$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ is the state, $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_u}$ is the control input, $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_w}$ is the stochastic disturbance or noise, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_y}$ is the measured output, and $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_z}$ is the controlled output related to the performance of the control system. Since \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B}_w , \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{C} , and \mathbf{C}_z in (1) are general nonlinear functions of a random parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_\xi}$, the system state \mathbf{x} , control input \mathbf{u} , measured output \mathbf{y} , and controlled output \mathbf{z} all depend on $\boldsymbol{\xi}$. Note that \mathbf{D}_{zw} and \mathbf{D}_z in (1b) are assumed to be independent of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, for the sake of notation simplicity. Note that \mathbf{D}_w in (1c) is assumed to be independent of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ for the sake of brevity, which is explained later in Remark 3.

The uncertain parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ lies within a bounded set Ξ , and its elements are assumed to be mutually independent random variables with known probability density functions (PDFs). The PDF of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ can be obtained via either offline parameter identification from data, or the a priori knowledge that specifies the relative belief/importance of the underlying system at different points in the uncertainty region Ξ . The above assumption of mutual independence among the elements of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is not restrictive, since linear transformation (Rosenblatt, 1952) or K-L expansion (Li and Zhang, 2007) can be applied to remove correlation among these elements. With the above time-invariant probabilistic parametric uncertainties, the system model (1) describes a family of LTI systems associated with a probability measure, i.e., each LTI system with a specific value of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is assigned with a relative weight determined by the PDF of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ (Fisher and Bhattacharya, 2009; Konda et al., 2011; Piga and Benavoli, 2017).

The objective of this paper is to design

- (i) a static output-feedback (SOF) controller

$$\mathbf{u}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{y}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \quad (2)$$

- (ii) a dynamic output-feedback (DOF) controller

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_K(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \mathbf{A}_K\mathbf{x}_K(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{B}_K\mathbf{y}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \\ \mathbf{u}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \mathbf{C}_K\mathbf{x}_K(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{D}_K\mathbf{y}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

that minimizes the \mathcal{H}_2 norm of the closed-loop system \mathcal{T}_{zw} in (1)-(3) from the noisy input \mathbf{w} to the controlled output \mathbf{z} . Here, $\mathbf{x}_K \in \mathbb{R}^{n_c}$ and $n_c \leq n_x$. To account for the time-invariant probabilistic parametric uncertainties $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, the \mathcal{H}_2 norm of the closed-loop system \mathcal{T}_{zw} in (1)-(3) is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{T}_{zw}\|_2^2 &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \left\| \hat{\mathcal{T}}_{zw}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\|_2^2 \right\}, \\ \left\| \hat{\mathcal{T}}_{zw}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\|_2^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^{n_w} \int_0^\infty \|\mathbf{z}_k(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 dt, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{z}_k(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ denotes the controlled output response over $t \geq 0$ given the impulse disturbance $\mathbf{w}(t) = \mathbf{e}_k\delta(t)$, with $\delta(t)$ representing the unit impulse and \mathbf{e}_k the k th column of an identity matrix \mathbf{I}_{n_w} . As shown in (4), $\|\mathcal{T}_{zw}\|_2^2$ can be regarded as the averaged squared \mathcal{H}_2 norm of a collection of systems $\hat{\mathcal{T}}_{zw}(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ parameterized by $\boldsymbol{\xi}$. Such a time-domain characterization of the \mathcal{H}_2 norm is related to the impulse-to-energy system gain, see Section 4.7 of Skelton et al. (1997). By interchanging the order of expectation, summation and integration, the definition (4) can be rewritten as

$$\|\mathcal{T}_{zw}\|_2^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{n_w} \int_0^\infty \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \{ \|\mathbf{z}_k(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \} dt. \quad (5)$$

As the usual \mathcal{H}_2 norm, the finiteness of $\|\mathcal{T}_{zw}\|_2^2$ requires $\mathbf{D}_{zw} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_w = \mathbf{0}$ for the SOF case and $\mathbf{D}_{zw} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{D}_K\mathbf{D}_w = \mathbf{0}$ for the DOF case.

Due to its general nonlinear uncertainty structure, the above problem cannot be effectively addressed by most existing worst-case robust control methods without overbounding the uncertainties. Inspired by Fisher and Bhattacharya (2009) and references therein, the PC theory is adopted to quantify the dependence of $\mathbf{z}_k(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ on $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ in the above \mathcal{H}_2 norm $\|\mathcal{T}_{zw}\|_2^2$. Specifically, the substitution of state \mathbf{x} , control input \mathbf{u} , controlled output \mathbf{z} , and measured output \mathbf{y} with their PCE approximations transforms the original stochastic system (1) into a high-dimensional expanded system describing the dynamics of PCE coefficients. The \mathcal{H}_2 control synthesis is then solved by using the PCE-transformed system.

The proposed approach aims at improving the existing PCE-based control design methodology by (i) explicitly taking into account stochastic disturbance \mathbf{w} ; (ii) proposing systematic design procedures to cope with PCE truncation errors which could destabilize the closed-loop system if neglected.

Remark 1 For the sake of notation simplicity, the measured output equation (1c) does not include direct feedthrough. With slight modifications, our proposed

PCE-based approach is applicable to direct feedthrough in the two cases:

- i) The DOF control (3) with $\mathbf{D}_K = \mathbf{0}$ can be designed with our proposed PCE-based approach in the presence of direct feedthrough.
- ii) Let \mathbf{K}_d and \mathbf{K} represent the SOF control gains derived with and without direct feedthrough, respectively. Consider the case that the direct feedthrough matrix \mathbf{D} is independent of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$. If $\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{K}$ is nonsingular, the relationship $\mathbf{K}_d = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{K})^{-1}$ ensures that the above two controls result in the same closed-loop dynamics (Fletcher, 1981). This approach enables designing \mathbf{K}_d in the presence of direct feedthrough by first computing \mathbf{K} for a system without direct feedthrough.

Other cases that include direct feedthrough and are different from the above two cannot be addressed by the PCE-based approach proposed in this paper, and are left to future research.

3 Polynomial chaos approximation to stochastic linear system

This section provides a brief introduction of polynomial chaos approximation to the stochastic linear system (1) using Galerkin projection, and then shows how the PCE truncation errors affect the PCE-approximated closed-loop dynamics.

3.1 Polynomial chaos expansion

For a random vector $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, a function $\psi(\boldsymbol{\xi}) : \mathbb{R}^{n_\xi} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with a finite second-order moment admits a PCE (Xiu, 2010)

$$\psi(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \quad (6)$$

where $\{\psi_i\}$ denotes the expansion coefficients, and $\{\phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi})\}$ denotes the multivariate PC bases in terms of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$. By using the Askey scheme of orthogonal polynomial bases, the above expansion exponentially converges in the \mathcal{L}_2 sense, which results in accurate approximations even with a relatively small number of terms (Xiu, 2010). These basis functions are orthogonal with respect to the probabilistic distribution $\mu(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ of the random vector $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, i.e., $\phi_0(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = 1$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \phi_j(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \rangle &= \int_{\Xi} \phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \phi_j(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mu(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \, d\boldsymbol{\xi} = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \{ \phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \phi_j(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \} \\ &= \begin{cases} \langle \phi_i^2(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \rangle = 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where Ξ is the support of $\mu(\boldsymbol{\xi})$, and $\phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi})$'s are normalized such that $\langle \phi_i^2(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \rangle = 1$.

In practical computations, a PCE with an infinite number of terms (6) needs to be truncated to a finite degree p ,

$$\psi(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \approx \hat{\psi}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \sum_{i=0}^{N_p} \psi_i \phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi}). \quad (8)$$

The total number of terms in (8) is $N_p + 1 = \frac{(n_\xi + p)!}{n_\xi! p!}$, depending on the dimension n_ξ of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ and the highest degree p of the retained polynomials $\{\phi_i(\boldsymbol{\xi})\}_{i=0}^{N_p}$. By using Wiener-Askey orthogonal polynomials according to the PDF of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, the truncated PCE approximation $\hat{\psi}(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (8) converges to $\psi(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ in the mean-square sense (Xiu, 2010; Xiu and Karniadakis, 2002). Roughly speaking, for a function $\psi(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ with a differentiability order m_d , the above PCE approximation error is $O(p^{-m_d})$, which means that the convergence rate is as fast as p^{-m_d} (Xiu, 2010). As such, in general a sufficiently accurate approximation does not require a very high PCE degree.

3.2 Galerkin projection for stochastic linear system

Let $s_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ denote the i th component of a vector $\mathbf{s}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_s}$. The scalar $s_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ is expressed as

$$s_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \hat{s}_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \tilde{s}_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}), \quad (9)$$

where

$$\hat{s}_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \sum_{j=0}^{N_p} \pi_{i,j}(t) \phi_j(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \quad (10)$$

is a truncated PCE with a degree p , $\pi_{i,j}(t)$ is the expansion coefficient associated with the PC basis $\phi_j(\boldsymbol{\xi})$, and $\tilde{s}_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ represents the truncation error. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \left[\hat{s}_1(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \hat{s}_2(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \cdots \ \hat{s}_{n_s}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{n_s}, \\ \tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \left[\tilde{s}_1(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \tilde{s}_2(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \cdots \ \tilde{s}_{n_s}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{n_s}, \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\pi}_i^\top(t) &= \left[\pi_{i,0}(t) \ \pi_{i,1}(t) \ \cdots \ \pi_{i,N_p}(t) \right] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (N_p+1)}, \\ \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \left[\phi_0(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \phi_1(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \cdots \ \phi_{N_p}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \right]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{N_p+1}, \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

$$\mathbf{s}_{\text{PCE}}(t) = \left[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(t) \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{\pi}_{n_s}(t) \right] \in \mathbb{R}^{(N_p+1) \times n_s}.$$

Then the PCE approximation $\hat{s}_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (10) can be compactly written as $\hat{s}_i(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \boldsymbol{\pi}_i^\top(t) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\xi})$, and the vector $\mathbf{s}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \left[s_1(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \ \cdots \ s_{n_s}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right]^\top$ is expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{s}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \hat{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbf{s}_{\text{PCE}}^\top(t) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\boldsymbol{\phi}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n_s} \right)}_{\boldsymbol{\Phi}_s^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi})} \underbrace{\text{vec}(\mathbf{s}_{\text{PCE}}^\top(t))}_{\mathbf{s}(t)} + \tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

where \otimes and $\text{vec}(\cdot)$ represent the Kronecker product and the vectorization of a matrix, respectively. In the last equation of (13), the property of the Kronecker product, i.e., $\text{vec}(EFG) = (G^T \otimes E)\text{vec}(F)$ is applied (Brewer, 1978). With \mathbf{s} representing \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{y} , or \mathbf{z} , the PCE coefficient vectors \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{Y} , and \mathbf{Z} are defined similarly as \mathbf{S} in (13).

With (9)–(13), two equations

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}^{\top}(\xi)\} = \mathbf{I}_{n_s(N_p+1)}, \quad \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\xi)\dot{\tilde{\mathbf{s}}}(t, \xi)\} = \mathbf{0} \quad (14)$$

are obtained as a result of the normalized orthogonality of the PC bases in (7). The second equation in (14) is derived from

$$\dot{\tilde{s}}_i(t, \xi) = \frac{d}{dt}\{s_i(t, \xi) - \hat{s}_i(t, \xi)\} = \sum_{j=N_p+1}^{\infty} \dot{\pi}_{i,j}(t)\phi_j(\xi),$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\phi_k(\xi)\dot{\tilde{s}}_i(t, \xi)\} = 0, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, N_p.$$

In the Galerkin projection, the PCEs of $\mathbf{x}(t, \xi)$ and $\mathbf{u}(t, \xi)$ in the form of (13) are inserted into (1a) to give

$$\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \mathbf{A}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w}}(\xi)\mathbf{w}(t) \quad (15)$$

$$+ \mathbf{B}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{U}(t) + \mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) - \dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t, \xi),$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) = \mathbf{A}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) + \mathbf{B}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t, \xi), \quad (16)$$

where $\mathbf{x}(t, \xi)$ and $\mathbf{u}(t, \xi)$ in (1a) are replaced by $\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{X}(t) + \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)$ and $\Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{U}(t) + \tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t, \xi)$, respectively. Note that the error term $\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) - \dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t, \xi)$ results from the PCE truncation errors $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t, \xi)$. Then, left multiplying (15) by $\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) &= \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{A}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{X}(t) \\ &+ \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w}}(\xi)\mathbf{w}(t) + \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{U}(t) \\ &+ \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t, \xi). \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

By taking the expectation with respect to ξ on both sides of (17), it follows that the PCE-transformed system

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \mathcal{A}\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{w}(t) + \mathcal{B}\mathbf{U}(t) + \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t) \quad (18)$$

describes the dynamics of the PCE coefficient vector $\mathbf{X}(t)$, with

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{A}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\}, \quad (19a)$$

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w}}(\xi)\}, \quad (19b)$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\}, \quad (19c)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)\}. \quad (19d)$$

For deriving (18) and (19), (14) is applied. Note that \mathcal{A} , $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}}$, and \mathcal{B} are time-invariant matrices, while $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)$ is a

time-varying error term since the error term $\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)$ is not orthogonal to the low-degree PC bases in $\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)$.

Following similar procedures, the controlled output equation (1b), the measured output equation (1c), the SOF controller (2), and the DOF controller (3) can be transformed into

- the PCE-transformed controlled output equation

$$\mathbf{Z}(t) = \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{Z}}\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{Zw}}\mathbf{w}(t) + \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{Z}}\mathbf{U}(t), \quad (20)$$

- the PCE-transformed measured output equation

$$\mathbf{Y}(t) = \mathcal{C}\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{w}(t) + \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t), \quad (21)$$

- the PCE-transformed SOF controller

$$\mathbf{U}(t) = \mathcal{K}\mathbf{Y}(t), \quad (22)$$

- the PCE-transformed DOF controller

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{X}}_K(t) &= \mathcal{A}_K\mathbf{X}_K(t) + \mathcal{B}_K\mathbf{Y}(t) \\ \mathbf{U}(t) &= \mathcal{C}_K\mathbf{X}_K(t) + \mathcal{D}_K\mathbf{Y}(t), \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

respectively, where

$$\mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{Z}} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{z}}(\xi)\mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z}}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\}, \quad \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{Zw}} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{z}}(\xi)\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{zw}}\}, \quad (24a)$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{Z}} = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}}, \quad \mathcal{C} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}(\xi)\mathcal{C}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\}, \quad (24b)$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}(\xi)\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}}\}, \quad \mathcal{K} = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathbf{K}, \quad (24c)$$

$$\mathcal{A}_K = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathbf{A}_K, \quad \mathcal{B}_K = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathbf{B}_K, \quad (24d)$$

$$\mathcal{C}_K = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathcal{C}_K, \quad \mathcal{D}_K = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathcal{D}_K, \quad (24e)$$

$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)$ is an error term defined as

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}(\xi)\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{y}}(t, \xi)\}, \quad \mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{y}}(t, \xi) = \mathcal{C}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) \quad (25)$$

due to the PCE truncation errors, similar to $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)$ in (19d). Note that the matrices in the controlled output equation (1b), the SOF controller (2), and the DOF controller (3) do not depend on ξ , thus the high-degree terms of these equations satisfy $\mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t, \xi)\} = \mathbf{0}$, where \mathbf{s} represents \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{y} , and \mathbf{z} .

As the uncertain system (1) has general nonlinear uncertainty structure depending on ξ , the matrices \mathcal{A} , $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}}$, \mathcal{B} , $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{Z}}$, $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{Zw}}$, $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{Z}}$, \mathcal{C} , and $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}}$ defined in (19), (24a), (24b), and (24c) are time-invariant, and can be obtained via numerical integration (Xiu, 2010).

3.3 Error analysis of PCE-approximated dynamics

Most existing PCE-based control design methods, e.g., Fisher and Bhattacharya (2009), relied on the PCE-transformed system (18)–(23) but neglected the error

terms $\mathbf{R}_x(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_y(t)$ therein. In this case, even though the PCE-transformed system is stabilized, the closed-loop system might be unstable due to perturbations from the neglected error terms $\mathbf{R}_x(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_y(t)$, as is analyzed in next section.

Combining the PCE-transformed open-loop dynamics (18) and the PCE-transformed SOF controller (22) gives the PCE-transformed closed-loop system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) &= (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{C}) \mathbf{X}(t) + (\mathbf{B}_w + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_w) \mathbf{w}(t) \\ &\quad + \mathbf{R}_x(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{R}_y(t) \\ \mathbf{Z}(t) &= (\mathbf{C}_z + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{C}) \mathbf{X}(t) + (\mathbf{D}_{z_w} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_w) \mathbf{w}(t) \\ &\quad + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{R}_y(t).\end{aligned}\quad (26)$$

To facilitate the PCE-based control synthesis, the following expressions for the two error terms $\mathbf{R}_x(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_y(t)$ are derived, with a proof given in Appendix A.

Proposition 1 *There exist time-varying matrices $\mathcal{F}_x(t)$ and $\mathcal{F}_y(t)$ such that*

$$\mathbf{R}_x(t) = \mathcal{F}_x(t)\mathbf{X}(t), \quad \mathbf{R}_y(t) = \mathcal{F}_y(t)\mathbf{X}(t). \quad (27)$$

Using the above notations, the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (26) can be written as

$$\mathcal{T}_{z_w} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{C} + \mathcal{F}_x(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K}\mathcal{F}_y(t) & \mathbf{B}_w + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_w \\ \hline \mathbf{C}_z + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathcal{F}_y(t) & \mathbf{D}_{z_w} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_w \end{array} \right]. \quad (28)$$

With similar procedures, the PCE-transformed closed-loop system under the PCE-transformed DOF controller (23) is

$$\bar{\mathcal{T}}_{z_w} = \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}_K\mathbf{C} + \mathcal{F}_x(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}_K\mathcal{F}_y(t) & \mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}_K & \mathbf{B}_w + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}_K\mathbf{D}_w \\ \mathbf{B}_K\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{B}_K\mathcal{F}_y(t) & \mathbf{A}_K & \mathbf{B}_K\mathbf{D}_w \\ \hline \mathbf{C}_z + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{D}_K\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{D}_K\mathcal{F}_y(t) & \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{C}_K & \mathbf{D}_{z_w} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{D}_K\mathbf{D}_w \end{array} \right]. \quad (29)$$

In (28) and (29), the effect of the PCE truncation errors is described by the multiplicative uncertainties $\mathcal{F}_x(t)$ and $\mathcal{F}_y(t)$. They would destabilize the closed-loop system in certain cases if completely neglected. How to cope with these uncertainties will be discussed in Sections 4.2, 4.3, and 5.

4 Static output-feedback synthesis using polynomial chaos

In this section, two PCE-based \mathcal{H}_2 synthesis methods are proposed for the SOF synthesis problem formulated

in Section 2, using the PCE-transformed systems (18)–(22). The first PCE-based synthesis method neglects the PCE approximation errors $\mathbf{R}_x(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_y(t)$ analyzed in Section 3.3, while the second PCE-based synthesis method explicitly copes with these error terms using a guaranteed-cost approach.

4.1 \mathcal{H}_2 static output-feedback synthesis

According to (13), the controlled output $\mathbf{z}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{z}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \Phi_z^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{Z}(t) + \tilde{\mathbf{z}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}),$$

which leads to

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \|\mathbf{z}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \} \\ &= \mathbf{Z}^\top(t) \mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \Phi_z(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \Phi_z^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \} \mathbf{Z}(t) \\ &\quad + 2\mathbf{Z}^\top(t) \mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \Phi_z(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \tilde{\mathbf{z}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \} + \mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \|\tilde{\mathbf{z}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \} \\ &\approx \|\mathbf{Z}(t)\|_2^2.\end{aligned}\quad (30)$$

In the above equation, $\mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \Phi_z(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \Phi_z^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \} = \mathbf{I}_{n_z(N_p+1)}$ and $\mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \Phi_z(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \tilde{\mathbf{z}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \} = \mathbf{0}$ are used as a result of the normalized orthogonality (7). The term $\mathbb{E}_\xi \{ \|\tilde{\mathbf{z}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \}$ due to the PCE truncation error $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ is neglected, because it converges to zero at a fast rate, and thus could be sufficiently small without using a high PCE degree, see explanations at the end of Section 3.1. From (30), minimizing the \mathcal{H}_2 norm $\|\mathcal{T}_{z_w}\|_2^2$ in (5) can be approximated by

$$\min_{\mathbf{K}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_w} \int_0^\infty \|\mathbf{Z}_k(t)\|_2^2 dt, \quad (31)$$

where $\mathbf{Z}_k(t)$ is the PCE coefficient vector of the output response $\mathbf{z}_k(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (5). By doing so, the original SOF problem (5) of minimizing the \mathcal{H}_2 norm $\|\mathcal{T}_{z_w}\|_2^2$ in (5) is transformed into a standard nominal \mathcal{H}_2 SOF problem (31) for the linear time-invariant PCE-transformed system (18)–(22), when the error terms $\mathbf{R}_x(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_y(t)$ can be neglected. How to cope with nonnegligible errors $\mathbf{R}_x(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_y(t)$ will be discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.3.

The problem (31) aims at minimizing the \mathcal{H}_2 norm of the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (28) from the disturbance \mathbf{w} to the measured output \mathbf{Z} . Note that $\mathcal{F}_x(t)$ and $\mathcal{F}_y(t)$ in (28) are set to zero due to neglecting PCE truncation errors, and $\mathbf{D}_{z_w} + \mathbf{D}_z\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_w = \mathbf{0}$ is required to obtain a finite \mathcal{H}_2 norm. Then standard procedures are used to convert (31) into the optimization

$$\begin{aligned}\min_{\mathbf{P}_{cs}, \mathbf{K}} \quad & \text{trace}(\mathbf{B}_{w,cs}^\top \mathbf{P}_{cs} \mathbf{B}_{w,cs}) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{P}_{cs} > 0, \quad \mathcal{A}_{cs}^\top \mathbf{P}_{cs} + \mathbf{P}_{cs} \mathcal{A}_{cs} + \mathbf{C}_{z,cs}^\top \mathbf{C}_{z,cs} < 0\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_{\text{cs}} &= \mathcal{A} + \mathcal{B}\mathcal{K}\mathcal{C}, & \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cs}} &= \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}} + \mathcal{B}\mathcal{K}\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}}, \\ \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cs}} &= \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z}} + \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}}\mathcal{K}\mathcal{C}, \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

and the subscript ‘‘cs’’ indicates that all three matrices are for the closed-loop system under SOF. The above problem can be equivalently transformed into

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\text{cs}}, \mathbf{Q}_{\text{cs}}, \mathbf{K}} \quad & \text{trace}(\mathbf{Q}_{\text{cs}}) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q}_{\text{cs}} & \star \\ \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}} + \mathcal{B}\mathcal{K}\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}} & \mathbf{\Lambda}_{\text{cs}} \end{bmatrix} > 0, \\ & \begin{bmatrix} \text{He}\{(\mathcal{A} + \mathcal{B}\mathcal{K}\mathcal{C})\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\text{cs}}\} & \star \\ (\mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z}} + \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}}\mathcal{K}\mathcal{C})\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\text{cs}} & -\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} < 0, \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

using $\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\text{cs}} = \mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}}^{-1}$, and \mathcal{K} defined in (24c), according to the Schur complement lemma, where $\text{He}\{\cdot\}$ denotes the sum of a square matrix and its transpose. In the rest of this paper, within a symmetric block matrix as in (33), an off-diagonal block \star at the position (i, j) represents the transpose of the block at the symmetric position (j, i) . As in any standard SOF problem, the second matrix inequality in (33) is a bilinear matrix inequality (BMI) (VanAntwerp and Braatz, 2000) due to the multiplication between $\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\text{cs}}$ and \mathcal{K} as well as the special structure of $\mathcal{K} = \mathbf{I}_{N_p+1} \otimes \mathbf{K}$.

The above \mathcal{H}_2 synthesis problem extends the PCE-based linear quadratic regulation method proposed in Fisher and Bhattacharya (2009) to address the additive stochastic disturbance \mathbf{w} . This formulation has the same limitation as Fisher and Bhattacharya (2009) as a result of neglecting the PCE truncation errors, i.e., the above synthesis might fail to stabilize the original dynamics (1a) (Lucia et al., 2017). Specifically, the accuracy of the PCE approximation degrades over time, and the perturbation from the neglected error terms $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)$ in the closed-loop system (28) grows (Luchtenburg et al., 2014). When the control action does not provide sufficient compensation for such a model-plant mismatch, the system state would diverge. Few existing PCE-based control designs explicitly address this problem (Lucia et al., 2017). The commonly adopted remedy in literature is the use of higher degree PCE approximations at the cost of larger computational burden when solving (33). As the PCE degree p increases, the number of PCE terms increases factorially, and then the involved computational burden rapidly grows and easily becomes prohibitive.

4.2 \mathcal{H}_2 guaranteed cost static output-feedback synthesis

In order to explicitly compensate for PCE truncation errors in the PCE-based synthesis, the error terms

$\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (16) and $\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{y}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (25) are assumed to be bounded as

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} \leq \rho_{\mathbf{s}}^2 \|\mathbf{X}(t)\|_2^2 \quad (34)$$

where \mathbf{s} represents \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} , respectively. From (19d), (25) and (34), it then follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{s}}(t)\|_2^2 &= \|\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \{\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\}\|_2^2 \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{s}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} \leq \rho_{\mathbf{s}}^2 \|\mathbf{X}(t)\|_2^2, \end{aligned}$$

and consequently, $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{s}}^{\top}(t)\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{s}}(t) \leq \rho_{\mathbf{s}}^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_x(N_p+1)}$ according to (27). With the above norm-bounded uncertainty description of $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)$ and $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)$, the synthesis of the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (28) is proposed below, with tuning of $\rho_{\mathbf{x}}$ and $\rho_{\mathbf{y}}$ discussed in Section 4.3.

First, the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (28) is rewritten as

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \mathcal{A}_{\text{cs}}\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{G}_{\text{cs}}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}(t) + \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cs}}\mathbf{w}(t) \quad (35a)$$

$$\mathbf{Z}(t) = \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cs}}\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{L}_{\text{cs}}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}(t) \quad (35b)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}(t) & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \Delta_{\mathbf{y}}(t) \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cs}}(t), \quad (35c)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cs}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{I} \\ \rho_{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}(t), \quad (35d)$$

with \mathcal{A}_{cs} , $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cs}}$, and $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cs}}$ defined in (32), and

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cs}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathcal{B}\mathcal{K} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{cs}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}}\mathcal{K} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (36)$$

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{s}}(t) = \frac{\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{s}}(t)}{\rho_{\mathbf{s}}}, \quad \|\Delta_{\mathbf{s}}(t)\| \leq 1, \quad \mathbf{s} \text{ presents } \mathbf{x} \text{ or } \mathbf{y}. \quad (37)$$

With the same procedures in Section 4.1, the design objective (5) is transformed into (31).

Theorem 1 *The closed-loop system (35) is quadratically stable for all $\|\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| \leq 1$ and $\|\Delta_{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| \leq 1$ if and only if there exist $\mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}} > 0$ and a scalar $\mu_{\text{cs}} > 0$ such that*

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}\mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}}\mathcal{A}_{\text{cs}} + \mu_{\text{cs}}(\rho_{\mathbf{x}}^2 + \rho_{\mathbf{y}}^2)\mathbf{I} & \star \\ \mathcal{G}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}\mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}} & -\mu_{\text{cs}}\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cs}}^{\top} \\ \mathcal{L}_{\text{cs}}^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cs}} & \mathcal{L}_{\text{cs}} \end{bmatrix} < 0. \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

Suppose the above statement holds, then the \mathcal{H}_2 cost function (31) is upper bounded by $\text{trace}(\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cs}}^{\top}\mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}}\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cs}})$.

The proof is given in Appendix B.

Algorithm 1 Bisection search for tuning ρ^2 in (39)

Initialization: $\rho_L^2 \leftarrow 0$, $\rho_U^2 \leftarrow \rho_{\max}^2$, where ρ_{\max}^2 is the maximal value of ρ^2 that ensures the feasibility of (39). Set the tolerance ϵ of the stopping criteria.

repeat

$$\rho^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}(\rho_L^2 + \rho_U^2)$$

if the posterior robust stability test shows that the solution to (39) with ρ^2 stabilizes the original system (1) **then**

$$\rho_U^2 \leftarrow \rho^2$$

else

$$\rho_L^2 \leftarrow \rho^2$$

end if

until $\rho_U^2 - \rho_L^2 \leq \epsilon$

Output: $\rho_{\min}^2 \leftarrow \rho^2$

of significantly higher computational load, since the size of the synthesis problem grows factorially with the PCE degree.

5 Dynamic output-feedback synthesis using polynomial chaos

In this section, BMI synthesis conditions are derived for the PCE-based \mathcal{H}_2 DOF controller by reducing it to a SOF problem, as in the standard DOF synthesis approach proposed in Scherer et al. (1997).

When neglecting the PCE truncation errors, the cost function (31) is considered in the PCE-based DOF synthesis for the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (29), i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\mathcal{T}}_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{w}} &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \bar{\mathcal{A}} + \bar{\mathcal{B}}\bar{\mathcal{K}}\bar{\mathcal{C}} & \bar{\mathcal{B}}_{\mathbf{w}} + \bar{\mathcal{B}}\bar{\mathcal{K}}\bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{w}} \\ \hline \bar{\mathcal{C}}_{\mathbf{z}} + \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}}\bar{\mathcal{K}}\bar{\mathcal{C}} & \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{w}} + \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}}\bar{\mathcal{K}}\bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{w}} \end{array} \right] \\ &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathcal{A}_{\text{cd}} & \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cd}} \\ \hline \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cd}} & \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\mathcal{A}} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathcal{B}}_{\mathbf{w}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w}} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{B} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}, \\ \bar{\mathcal{C}}_{\mathbf{z}} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z}} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{w}} = \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{w}}, \quad \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \\ \bar{\mathcal{C}} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{C} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{w}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathcal{K}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{D}_K & \mathcal{C}_K \\ \mathcal{B}_K & \mathcal{A}_K \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

\mathcal{A}_K , \mathcal{B}_K , \mathcal{C}_K , \mathcal{D}_K are defined in (24d) and (24e), the subscript ‘‘cd’’ indicates the closed-loop system matrices under DOF, and $\bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{w}} + \bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{z}}\bar{\mathcal{K}}\bar{\mathcal{D}}_{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0}$ is required to obtain a finite \mathcal{H}_2 norm. Since (40) and (28) are in the same form, the above PCE-based DOF synthesis

problem can be constructed similarly to the PCE-based SOF synthesis problem (33), hence the details are omitted.

When addressing the PCE truncation errors, the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (29) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{X}}_{\text{cd}}(t) &= \mathcal{A}_{\text{cd}}\mathbf{X}_{\text{cd}}(t) + \mathcal{G}_{\text{cd}}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cd}}(t) + \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cd}}\mathbf{w}(t), \\ \mathbf{Z}(t) &= \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cd}}\mathbf{X}_{\text{cd}}(t) + \mathcal{L}_{\text{cd}}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cd}}(t), \\ \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cd}}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{\mathbf{x}}(t) & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{\mathbf{y}}(t) \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cd}}(t), \\ \boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cd}}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \rho_{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{\text{cd}}(t), \end{aligned} \quad (42)$$

by applying the same procedure that derives (35) from (28), with $\mathbf{X}_{\text{cd}}(t) = \left[\mathbf{X}^{\top}(t) \quad \mathbf{X}_K^{\top}(t) \right]^{\top}$, \mathcal{A}_{cd} , $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},\text{cd}}$, and $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{z},\text{cd}}$ defined in (40) and (40), $\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)$ defined in (37), and

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{cd}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathcal{B}\mathcal{D}_K \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathcal{B}_K \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{cd}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{z}}\mathcal{D}_K \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, the robust \mathcal{H}_2 DOF synthesis problem for (42) can be constructed by following Theorem 1 that is applied to the closed-loop SOF system (35).

In the conventional output-feedback synthesis, the additional structure in a DOF controller allows the use of congruence transformation and change of variables to obtain a LMI synthesis problem (Scherer et al., 1997). The same strategy, however, does not work for the above PCE-based DOF synthesis problems because of the block-diagonal structure of controller parameters as shown in (24d) and (24e). Therefore, a BMI solver is needed to solve the PCE-based DOF synthesis problems for a full-order or reduced-order controller.

Remark 2 *All the proposed PCE-based synthesis problems involve BMIs, thus are nonconvex. Global optimization algorithms exist which are applicable to moderate-sized BMI problems without requiring an initial guess (Goh et al., 1994). For a BMI problem with a large size, a global optimization algorithm is often computationally prohibited, and the alternative are local optimization algorithms such as PENBMI (Kočvara and Stingl, 2012). To find a good initial guess for the local search, various LMI relaxations or iterative LMI algorithms are available for SOF or DOF controls in literature (Sadabadi and Peaucelle, 2016). It should be noted that modifications have to be made to these existing methods to account for the structures of the SOF/DOF control gains \mathcal{K} in (24c) and $\bar{\mathcal{K}}$ in (41). Relevant details are not included here due to limited space. If an initial guess cannot be found by*

these local search methods, the global search approach can be used by solving a BMI feasibility problem with a higher computational cost.

6 Comparison with Monte-Carlo sampling based \mathcal{H}_2 output-feedback synthesis

Following Tempo et al. (2013), a Monte-Carlo sampling based method is briefly reviewed here, to compare with the PCE-based synthesis proposed in the previous sections. For the sake of brevity, only the SOF case is discussed, and similar conclusions are applicable to the DOF case.

When applying the standard \mathcal{H}_2 synthesis conditions, the averaged \mathcal{H}_2 SOF problem stated in Section 2 can be formulated as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \mathbf{K}} \quad & \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \text{trace} \left(\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \right) \right\} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) > 0, \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \mathbf{x}^\top(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \boldsymbol{\Upsilon}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{x}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\} < 0, \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

where $\mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times n_x}$ is a predefined function of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_c(\boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{B}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{K} \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \\ \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \mathbf{B}_w(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{B}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{K} \mathbf{D}_w, \\ \mathbf{C}_{z,c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \mathbf{C}_z(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{D}_z \mathbf{K} \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \\ \boldsymbol{\Upsilon}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) &= \mathbf{A}_c^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{A}_c(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \mathbf{C}_{z,c}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{C}_{z,c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}). \end{aligned} \quad (44)$$

The Monte-Carlo sampling based approach uses a finite number of realizations of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ to recast the above problem as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\substack{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_N, \\ \mathbf{Q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Q}_N, \mathbf{K}}} \quad & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \text{trace}(\mathbf{Q}_i) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i \mathbf{A}_c^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) + \mathbf{A}_c(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i & \star \\ \mathbf{C}_{z,c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i & -\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} < 0, \\ & \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q}_i & \star \\ \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i \end{bmatrix} > 0, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i > 0, i = 1, \dots, N, \end{aligned} \quad (45a) \quad (45b)$$

where $\{\boldsymbol{\xi}_i\}$ are sampled from the probability distribution of $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, N is the number of samples, and each pair of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i$ and \mathbf{Q}_i is applied to a different sample. The inequalities in (45) are converted from $\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) \mathbf{P}_i \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) < \mathbf{Q}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{\Upsilon}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) < 0$ by using $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i = \mathbf{P}_i^{-1}$, with $\boldsymbol{\Upsilon}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i)$ defined in (44).

To achieve a satisfactory approximation to the original problem (43), a large number of samples are necessary, as analyzed in Sections 8.3 and 10.3 of Tempo et al. (2013). This leads to heavy computational load when solving the problem (45), as illustrated later by a

numerical example in Section 7. In contrast, the PCE approximation exponentially converges with its degree increasing, thus usually a relatively small degree is needed. As a result, solving the PCE-based synthesis problems derived in Sections 4 and 5 can be much more efficient. Even when a small PCE degree results in PCE truncation errors to be accounted for, not only the PCE degree p but also the robustifying parameter ρ introduced in Sections 4.2 and 5 are available to enhance our proposed PCE-based design without significantly increasing computational complexity.

Another limitation of the Monte-Carlo sampling based approach lies in replacing the stochastic stability condition $\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \mathbf{x}^\top(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \boldsymbol{\Upsilon}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \mathbf{x}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\} < 0$ in (43) by (45b). This is conservative, because (45b) converges to a worst-case robust stability constraint as the sample size increases.

7 Numerical simulations

Consider a system of the form (1) whose parameters are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}(\xi) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 + 0.3\xi^3 & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{B}_w = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{B} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.1 \\ 0.2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{C}_z = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_2 \\ \mathbf{0}_{2 \times 2} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{D}_z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}_{2 \times 2} \\ \mathbf{I}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{C} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{D}_w = \mathbf{0}_{1 \times 2}, \mathbf{D}_{zw} = \mathbf{0}_{4 \times 2}, \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

with the uncertain parameter ξ being uniformly distributed over the interval $[-1, 1]$.

Firstly, four \mathcal{H}_2 SOF control synthesis methods are implemented for comparisons: (i) a worst-case robust SOF synthesis that exploits the polytopic uncertainty $\xi^3 \in [-1, 1]$ to overbound the polynomial parametric uncertainty in (46) (Geromel et al., 2007); (ii) our proposed PCE-based nominal SOF synthesis (33); (iii) our proposed PCE-based guaranteed cost SOF synthesis (39); (iv) a Monte-Carlo sampling based SOF synthesis. With the implemented SOF controls, the \mathcal{H}_2 norms $\left\| \tilde{\mathcal{T}}_{zw}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\|_2$ defined in (4) vary with $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, as depicted in Figure 1. Both the worst-case robust SOF control and the 10-degree PCE-based nominal SOF control succeed in stabilizing the closed-loop system, whilst the 2-degree PCE-based nominal SOF control fails. It can be also seen that compared to the worst-case robust SOF control, although the 10-degree PCE-based nominal SOF control gives a larger worst-case \mathcal{H}_2 norm for $\xi = -1$, it indeed achieves a smaller averaged \mathcal{H}_2 norm.

In order to illustrate the benefit of the PCE-based guaranteed cost SOF control synthesis (39), a 2-degree PCE is adopted to introduce relatively larger PCE truncation errors on purpose. The bisection method in Algorithm

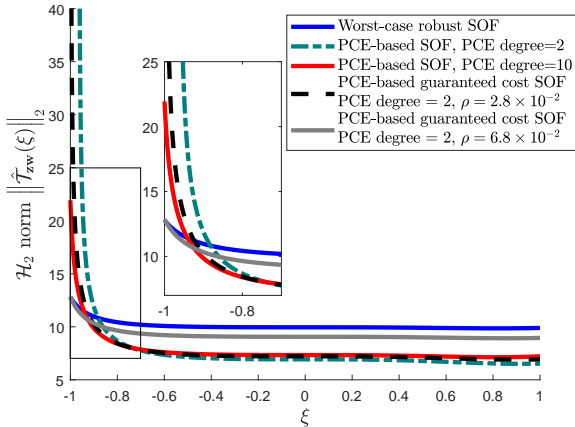


Fig. 1. Variations of the \mathcal{H}_2 norm $\|\hat{T}_{zw}(\xi)\|_2$ generated by different SOF controls.

1 is applied to find the minimal robustifying parameter ρ_{\min} that results in a robustly stabilizing control gain. First, the lower bound ρ_L and the upper bound ρ_U are chosen as $\rho_L = 0$ and $\rho_U = 9.5 \times 10^{-2}$, respectively. After 11 bisection iterations, the gap between ρ_L and ρ_U becomes smaller than 5×10^{-5} . Then Algorithm 1 terminates, and the minimal robustifying parameter ρ_{\min} is 2.8×10^{-2} . As a result, the obtained SOF gain is $[-21.86 \ 16.36]^\top$. When performing the posterior stability analysis, the moment relaxation problem of Piga and Benavoli (2017) is formulated with the support information $[-1, 1]$ and the first four orders of moments. The obtained upper probability bound of instability for all probability measures with the same support $[-1, 1]$ is 0.00003%, thus robust closed-loop stability is guaranteed according to Property 1 of Piga and Benavoli (2017). In Fig. 1, the 10-degree PCE-based nominal SOF control achieves an averaged \mathcal{H}_2 norm 7.7 and a worst-case \mathcal{H}_2 norm 21.9. In comparison, the 2-degree PCE-based guaranteed cost SOF control synthesis with $\rho = 2.8 \times 10^{-2}$ results in a similar averaged \mathcal{H}_2 norm 8.1, although it obtains a much larger worst-case \mathcal{H}_2 norm 289.6. With the robustifying parameter increased to $\rho = 6.8 \times 10^{-2}$, the achieved worst-case \mathcal{H}_2 norm is reduced to 12.9, which is almost the same as that of the worst-case robust SOF control, while its averaged \mathcal{H}_2 norm has a minor increase to 9.2.

In terms of computational cost, the proposed PCE-based SOF synthesis problems (33) and (39) are compared with the Monte-Carlo sampling based synthesis (45). As shown in Fig. 2, the solution to the Monte-Carlo sampling based formulation (45) converges to $\mathbf{K}_{\text{mc}} = [-19.6 \ 14.9]^\top$ with 10^4 samples. The number of involved decision variables is 60004. In contrast, both two PCE-based synthesis problems (33) and (39) have a significantly reduced problem size. To be specific, the 10-degree PCE-based nominal SOF synthesis (33) produces

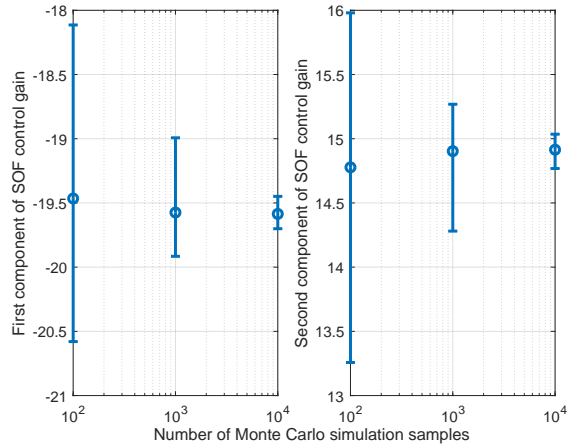


Fig. 2. The dependence of both components of the SOF controller on the number of Monte-Carlo samples (circles: the average of 100 trials with different samples of ξ ; error bars: the range of 100 trials). The control gain converges when using 10^4 samples.

almost the same control gain $\mathbf{K}_{\text{PCE}} = [-19.5 \ 14.8]^\top$ as \mathbf{K}_{mc} , which involves only 508 decision variables. In the 2-degree PCE-based guaranteed cost SOF synthesis (39), the number of decision variables further reduces to 45.

Similarly to the performance comparison of four \mathcal{H}_2 SOF controls, the corresponding \mathcal{H}_2 DOF controls are also implemented. As depicted in Fig. 3, the results are very similar to Fig. 1. It can be seen again that the 2-degree PCE-based guaranteed cost DOF synthesis with $\rho = 2.5 \times 10^{-2}$ produces almost the same \mathcal{H}_2 performance as the 5-degree PCE-based nominal DOF synthesis, but it has a much larger \mathcal{H}_2 norm as ξ approaches -1. By increasing ρ to 6.8×10^{-2} , the 2-degree PCE-based guaranteed cost DOF synthesis achieves a slightly smaller worst-case \mathcal{H}_2 norm than the worst-case DOF synthesis result. This is due to the conservatism introduced by using polytopic uncertainty description to overbound the polynomial parametric uncertainty in the simulation example (46).

8 Conclusions

Polynomial chaos based \mathcal{H}_2 static and dynamic output-feedback control synthesis methods are presented for systems subject to time-invariant probabilistic parametric uncertainties and white noises. The effect of polynomial chaos expansion truncation errors is captured by time-varying norm-bounded uncertainties, and explicitly taken into account by adopting a guaranteed cost control approach. This strategy further leads to rigorous analysis of the condition under which the stability of the PCE-transformed system ensures the closed-loop stability of the original system, which has not been achieved by existing PCE-based controls. Instead of using high-degree expansions to alleviate the effect

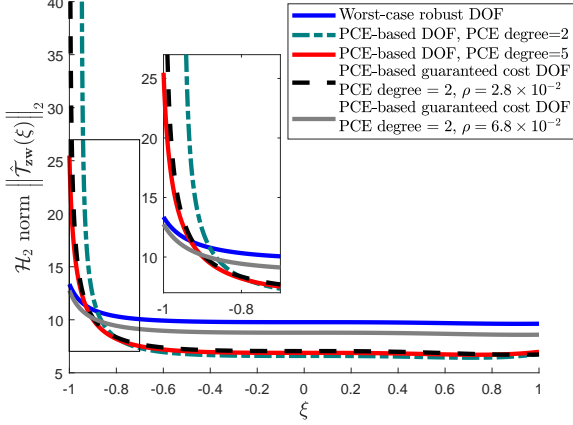


Fig. 3. Variations of the \mathcal{H}_2 norm $\|\hat{\mathcal{T}}_{zw}(\xi)\|_2$ generated by different DOF controls.

of truncation errors, our proposed polynomial chaos based synthesis allows the use of relatively low-degree expansions by tuning a robustifying parameter, which significantly reduces computational cost.

A Proof of Proposition 1

Between the PCE truncation error $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)$ and the PCE approximation $\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{X}(t)$, there exists a non-unique transformation matrix $\mathbf{M}(t, \xi) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times n_x}$ such that

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) = \mathbf{M}(t, \xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{X}(t) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

holds for all t . Then, it can be derived from (25) and (A.1) that

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}(\xi)\mathbf{C}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)\} = \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)\mathbf{X}(t) \quad (\text{A.2})$$

with $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{y}}(t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}(\xi)\mathbf{C}(\xi)\mathbf{M}(t, \xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\}$.

From (13), (21), (22), and (24c), the truncation error $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t, \xi) = \mathbf{u}(t, \xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{U}(t)$ can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{u}}(t, \xi) &= \mathbf{K}\mathbf{y}(t, \xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{K}\mathbf{Y}(t) \\ &= \mathbf{K}\mathbf{C}(\xi)(\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{X}(t) + \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)) + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{w}(t) \\ &\quad - \Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{w}(t) + \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)) \\ &= \mathbf{K}\mathbf{C}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) - \mathbf{K}\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(t) \\ &\quad + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{C}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{C})\mathbf{X}(t). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

Note that the third equation in (A.3) leverages

$$\Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{K} = \mathbf{K}\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi), \quad \mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}} = \Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{K}\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

which are derived by using the definitions of $\Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)$, $\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)$, \mathcal{K} , and $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}}$ in (13) and (24c) as well as the orthog-

onality in (7):

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_{\mathbf{s}}^{\top}(\xi) &= [\mathbf{I}_{n_s} \phi_1(\xi)\mathbf{I}_{n_s} \cdots \phi_{N_p}(\xi)\mathbf{I}_{n_s}], \\ \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}} &= \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\left\{\left(\phi^{\top}(\xi) \otimes \mathbf{I}_{n_y}\right)\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}}\right\} = \left[\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}}^{\top} \mathbf{0}_{n_y N_p \times n_y}\right]^{\top}, \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbf{s} represents \mathbf{u} or \mathbf{y} . By substituting (A.2), (A.3), and (A.4) into (16), it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) &= \mathbf{A}_{\text{cl}}(\xi)\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi) - \mathbf{B}(\xi)\mathbf{K}\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{y}}(t)\mathbf{X}(t) \\ &\quad + \mathbf{B}(\xi)\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{C}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{C})\mathbf{X}(t) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.5})$$

with $\mathbf{A}_{\text{cl}}(\xi) = \mathbf{A}(\xi) + \mathbf{B}(\xi)\mathbf{K}\mathbf{C}(\xi)$. From the above derivations, $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)$ in (19d) can be rewritten as

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}}(t, \xi)\} = \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)\mathbf{X}(t)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{x}}(t) &= \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\left\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{A}_{\text{cl}}(\xi)\mathbf{M}(t, \xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi)\right. \\ &\quad - \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}(\xi)\mathbf{K}\Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{y}}(t) \\ &\quad \left. + \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}(\xi)\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{C}(\xi)\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}(\xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{y}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{C})\right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

Remark 3 The independence of $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}}$ on ξ is used for deriving (A.4). Without such an assumption, $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{x}}(t)\mathbf{X}(t) + \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{w}(t)$ is then derived with

$$\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}\left\{\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\xi)\mathbf{B}(\xi)(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}}(\xi) - \Phi_{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}(\xi)\mathcal{K}\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{w}})\right\},$$

where $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{w}}(\xi)$ depends on ξ . In this case, the basic idea for the PCE-based synthesis method in Sections 4.2 and 4.3 is still applicable, except that minor modifications are needed to cope with the additional uncertainty $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{w}(t)$. Derivations for this case are not included for the sake of brevity.

B Proof of Theorem 1

A sketch of the proof is as follows, and please refer to Section 4.7 in Skelton et al. (1997) for more details. By multiplying (38) with $[\mathbf{X}^{\top}(t) \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}(t)]$ to its left and with $[\mathbf{X}^{\top}(t) \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}(t)]^{\top}$ to its right, we can derive

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V}(\mathbf{X}(t)) &< -\mathbf{Z}^{\top}(t)\mathbf{Z}(t) \\ &\quad + \mu_{\text{cs}}\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}(t)\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}(t) - \boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}(t)\boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cs}}(t)\right). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

from (35), where $V(\mathbf{X}(t))$ is the quadratic Lyapunov function defined as $V(\mathbf{X}(t)) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{X}^{\top}(t)\mathbf{P}_{\text{cs}}\mathbf{X}(t)$. Since $\|\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| \leq 1$ and $\|\Delta_{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| \leq 1$, we also have

$$\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}(t)\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{cs}}(t) - \boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cs}}^{\top}(t)\boldsymbol{\psi}_{\text{cs}}(t) \leq 0. \quad (\text{B.2})$$

Then, it is easy to see $\dot{V}(\mathbf{X}(t)) < 0$ from (B.1) and (B.2), which proves the sufficient condition for quadratic stability.

Now, we prove the necessity condition implied by quadratic stability. According to the concept of quadratic stability, there exists a Lyapunov function $V_1(\mathbf{X}(t)) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{X}^\top(t)\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{X}(t)$ with $\mathbf{P}_1 > 0$ such that $\dot{V}_1(\mathbf{X}(t)) < 0$ holds. Then, using $\dot{V}_1(\mathbf{X}(t)) < 0$ and (B.2), there exist sufficiently small positive scalars ε_1 and ε_2 such that

$$\dot{V}_1(\mathbf{X}(t)) + \varepsilon_1 \left(\boldsymbol{\psi}_{cs}^\top(t)\boldsymbol{\psi}_{cs}(t) - \boldsymbol{\omega}_{cs}^\top(t)\boldsymbol{\omega}_{cs}(t) \right) + \varepsilon_2 \mathbf{Z}^\top(t)\mathbf{Z}(t) < 0. \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Dividing both sides of (B.3) by ε_2 , and define $\mathbf{P}_{cs} = \varepsilon_2^{-1}\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mu_{cs} = \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2^{-1}$, we can derive the necessary condition (38) from (B.3) by using (35).

Next, we derive an upper bound for the \mathcal{H}_2 cost function (31) by using (B.1) that is obtained from (38). Let $\mathbf{X}_k(t)$, $\mathbf{Z}_k(t)$, $\boldsymbol{\psi}_{cs,k}(t)$, and $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{cs,k}(t)$ denote the impulse responses to the unit-impulse input $\mathbf{w}(t) = \mathbf{e}_k\delta(t)$ in the k th coordinate of \mathbf{w} . Integrating both sides of (B.1) from $t = 0$ to ∞ leads to

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mathbf{X}_k(0)) &= V(\mathbf{X}_k(0)) - V(\mathbf{X}_k(\infty)) \\ &> \int_0^\infty \|\mathbf{Z}_k(t)\|_2^2 dt \\ &\quad + \mu_{cs} \int_0^\infty \|\boldsymbol{\psi}_{cs,k}(t)\|_2^2 - \|\boldsymbol{\omega}_{cs,k}(t)\|_2^2 dt \\ &\geq \int_0^\infty \|\mathbf{Z}_k(t)\|_2^2 dt, \end{aligned}$$

In the above derivation, the first equality is due to $V(\mathbf{X}_k(\infty)) = 0$ implied by the quadratic stability, while the second inequality comes from $\|\boldsymbol{\psi}_{cs,k}(t)\|_2^2 \geq \|\boldsymbol{\omega}_{cs,k}(t)\|_2^2$ according to (35c) and (37). Since the impulse response to the unit-impulse $\mathbf{w}(t) = \mathbf{e}_k\delta(t)$ is equivalent to the initial state response under the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_k(0) = \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},c}\mathbf{e}_k$, the upper bound of the \mathcal{H}_2 cost function (31) is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{n_w} \int_0^\infty \|\mathbf{Z}_k(t)\|_2^2 dt &< \sum_{k=0}^{n_w} V(\mathbf{X}_k(0)) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n_w} (\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},cs}\mathbf{e}_k)^\top \mathbf{P}_{cs} \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},cs} \mathbf{e}_k \\ &= \text{trace}\{\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},cs}^\top \mathbf{P}_{cs} \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{w},cs}\}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

C Proof of Theorem 2

For internal stability analysis, the additive noise $\mathbf{w}(t)$ is set to zero. According to Theorem 1, the solution to (39)

stabilizes the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (28), thus we have $\mathbf{X}(\infty) = \mathbf{0}$. This implies that the PCE-transformed approximated state $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{X}(t)$ goes to zero as time goes to infinity. To show the internal mean square stability of the original system (1) under the synthesized SOF control, the PCE truncation error $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ needs to be discussed in the following.

For any normalized orthogonal PCE bases, the first basis function $\phi_0(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (12) is equal to 1 (Xiu, 2010). Therefore, using the definition of $\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ in (13), (34) implies

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \{ \|\mathbf{r}_s(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \} &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{N_p} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \phi_i^2(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \|\mathbf{r}_s(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\Phi_{\mathbf{s}}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{r}_s(t, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} \leq \rho_s^2 \|\mathbf{X}(t)\|_2^2. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{C.1})$$

As such, combining (25), (A.5) and (C.1) gives

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \{ \|\mathbf{A}_{cl}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \{ \|\mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \} = \mathbf{0},$$

which can be further expressed as

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{cl}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \\ \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\|_2^2 \right\} = \mathbf{0}. \quad (\text{C.2})$$

Since the detectability of $(\mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}))$ for any $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \Xi$ implies that $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) & \mathbf{C}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{bmatrix}^\top$ has full column rank (see Theorem 3.4 in Zhou et al. (1996)), the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{cl}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \\ \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{B}(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{K} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \\ \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{bmatrix}$$

is also of full column rank for any $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \Xi$. Consequently, (C.2) leads to

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} = \mathbf{0},$$

which further implies

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\mathbf{x}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\Phi_{\mathbf{x}}^\top(\boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{X}(\infty) + \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} = \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

due to $\mathbf{X}(\infty) = \mathbf{0}$.

All the above analysis shows that under the condition specified in Theorem 2, the stability of the PCE-transformed closed-loop system (28) indeed ensures $\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left\{ \|\mathbf{x}(\infty, \boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2^2 \right\} = \mathbf{0}$, i.e., the internal mean square stability of the original system (1) under control.

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