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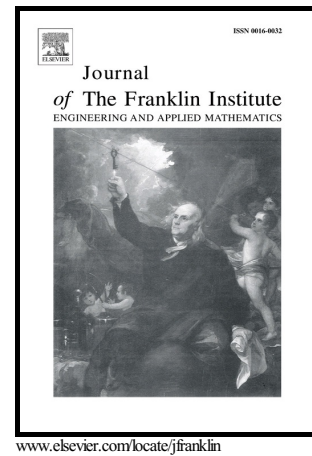
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Stability of Markov jump systems with quadratic terms and its application to RLC circuits[☆]

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Abstract

The paper presents results for the second moment stability of continuous-time Markov jump systems with quadratic terms, aiming for engineering applications. Quadratic terms stem from physical constraints in applications, as in electronic circuits based on resistor (R), inductor (L), and capacitor (C). In the paper, an RLC circuit supplied a load driven by jumps produced by a Markov chain—the RLC circuit used sensors that measured the quadratic of electrical currents and voltages. Our result was then used to design a stabilizing controller for the RLC circuit with measurements based on that quadratic terms. The experimental data confirm the usefulness of our approach.

Keywords: Stochastic systems; Quadratic systems; Markov jump systems; Stability; Electronic circuits.

1. Introduction

Systems subject to Markovian jumps have received attention in recent years because of their potential for representing processes subject to abrupt variations—see, for instance, some recent applications in economics [6], [16], robotics [21], and direct current (DC) motors [17, 19, 20, 25]. In the linear context, recent contributions for Markov jump systems can be found in the monographs [3, 7] and in the papers [5, 9, 18, 22, 26, 27, 28, 29]; for the nonlinear counterpart, contributions can be found in [14, 23, 24, 32], just to cite a few.

Although characterizing the stability of nonlinear Markov jump systems has been a topic of intensive research [14, 23, 24, 31], little attention has been paid to the stability of quadratic Markov jump systems. In reality, to the best of the authors' knowledge,

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11 this paper is the first to consider quadratic terms for Markov jump systems. Presenting
 12 easy-to-check conditions to guarantee the stability of such systems represents the main
 13 contribution of this paper.

To clarify our findings, we now formalize the quadratic Markov jump system under
 study. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}, P)$ be a fixed, filtered probability space governing the following Itô
 stochastic differential equation with Markov jumps:

$$dx(t) = A_{\theta(t)}x(t)dt + \begin{bmatrix} x(t)'G_{1,\theta(t)}x(t) \\ \vdots \\ x(t)'G_{n,\theta(t)}x(t) \end{bmatrix} dt + H_{\theta(t)}dw(t), \quad \forall t \geq 0, \quad x(0) = x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (1)$$

14 where $x(t)$ denotes an n -dimensional system state, $w(t)$ denotes a standard r -dimensional
 15 Brownian motion, and $\{\theta(t)\}$ represents an irreducible continuous-time Markov process
 16 having $\mathcal{S} = \{1, \dots, N\}$ as state space. As usual, $x(t)$, $w(t)$, and $\theta(t)$ are mutually indepen-
 17 dent random variables at $t \geq 0$. The value of each tuple of matrices $(A_i, H_i, G_{1,i}, \dots, G_{n,i})$,
 18 $i = 1, \dots, N$, is given.

19 The main contribution of this paper is to present conditions to assure that the quadratic
 20 Markov jump system in (1) is second moment stable, as follows.

21 **Definition 1.1.** ([1, Defn. 11.3.1, p. 188]). *We say the quadratic Markov jump system*
 22 *in (1) is second moment stable if there exists some constant $c = c(x_0)$ such that*

$$E[\|x(t)\|^2] \leq c, \quad \forall t \geq 0.$$

23 Now, consider the elements of the n -dimensional vector $x(t)$ written explicitly in the
 24 form $x(t) \equiv [x_{[1]}(t), \dots, x_{[n]}(t)]'$.

25 **Assumption 1.1.** *The elements $x_{[\ell]}(t)$, $\ell = 1, \dots, n$, are uniformly bounded from below*
 26 *almost surely. As a result, there exist values μ_1, \dots, μ_n such that*

$$\mu_\ell \leq \liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} x_{[\ell]}(t), \quad \ell = 1, \dots, n, \quad (2)$$

27 *almost surely.*

28 The condition in Assumption 1.1 is fundamental in our approach. Assumption 1.1
 29 states a lower bound for $x_{[\ell]}(t)$, but an upper bound on $x_{[\ell]}(t)$ may not exist, that is, $x_{[\ell]}(t)$
 30 could diverge to infinity as t goes to infinity. In order to prevent such divergent behaviour
 31 in (1), we present conditions to guarantee the second moment stability, as in Definition
 32 1.1.

33 The assumption that $x_{[\ell]}(t)$ has a lower bound is mild, since there are many applications
 34 for which the system states are bounded from below. For instance, in DC motors, both
 35 the angular velocity and the electrical current are bounded from below [19, 20].

36 This paper has two contributions. First, the paper shows conditions to assure the sec-
 37 ond moment stability of the quadratic system in (1). Second, the paper shows a practical
 38 application to an electrical circuit based on resistor (R), inductor (L), and capacitor (C).

39 RLC circuits have the electrical current and the voltage as elements of the system-
 40 state—the lower-bounds required by Assumption 1.1 arise from circuits' assemblage, as
 41 illustrated in Section 4. Indeed, we used our theoretical result to design a stabilizing
 42 Markov jump controller for an RLC circuit in practice. Experiments were carried out, and
 43 the corresponding experimental data support our findings.

44 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 quotes the notation, definitions, and Sec-
 45 tion 3 presents the main stability result for the stochastic system (1). Section 4 illustrates
 46 our findings through a real-time application for an RLC circuit. Finally, Section 5 presents
 47 some concluding remarks.

48 2. Notation and definitions

49 Let us denote the n -dimensional Euclidean space by \mathbb{R}^n and the corresponding Eu-
 50 clidean norm by $\|\cdot\|$. The symbol $\text{tr}\{\cdot\}$ denotes the trace operator. The identity matrix
 51 on $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is represented by I_n . The symbol $\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{C}}$ represents the Dirac measure of \mathcal{C} , i.e., $\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{C}}$
 52 equals 1 when the condition \mathcal{C} is true and 0 otherwise. Given two matrices $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
 53 and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $\text{diag}(V, U)$ represents a square diagonal matrix made up by V and U
 54 as entries in its diagonal form. For simplicity, we use the notation $\text{diag}(V_i)_{\{i=1, \dots, N\}}$ to
 55 represent $\text{diag}(V_1, \dots, V_N)$.

56 Let \otimes be the Kronecker product in such a way that $U \otimes V \in \mathbb{R}^{nm \times nm}$ is the correspond-
 57 ing Kronecker matrix [4]. The Kronecker sum is defined as $U \oplus V = U \otimes I_m + I_n \otimes V$. Let
 58 $\text{Re}(z)$ denote the real part of the complex number z . Given any matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\sigma(U)$
 59 represents the spectrum of U ; and the largest real part of the eigenvalues of U is referred
 60 to as

$$\text{Re}(\lambda_U) := \max\{\text{Re}(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma(U)\}.$$

61 When U stands for a set of N matrices, i.e. $U = (U_1, \dots, U_N)$, we apply the definition

$$\text{Re}(\lambda_U) = \max\{\text{Re}(\lambda_{U_i}), i = 1, \dots, N\}.$$

62 3. Main result

63 The main result of this paper is presented in the sequence.

64 Let $\Pi = [\pi_{ij}]$, $i, j = 1, \dots, N$ be the transition rate matrix associated with the Markov
 65 process $\{\theta(t)\}$. Accordingly, consider $p_i(t) := P(\theta(t) = i)$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, $\forall t \geq 0$. Consider
 66 the second moment matrix

$$X_i(t) = \text{E}[x(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}], \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad \forall t \geq 0. \quad (3)$$

Consider also the symmetric positive semidefinite matrix $V(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, solution of the
 matrix differential equation

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V}_i(t) = V_i(t) \left(A_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^n \mu_{\ell} G_{\ell, i} \right)' + \left(A_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^n \mu_{\ell} G_{\ell, i} \right) V_i(t) \\ + \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_{ji} V_j(t) + H_i H_i' p_i(t), \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad \forall t \geq t_0, \quad (4) \end{aligned}$$

67 with an initial condition $V_i(t_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, for each $i = 1, \dots, N$.

68 Now, we are able to present the main result of this paper.

69 **Theorem 3.1.** *Assume that the matrices $G_{1,i}, \dots, G_{n,i}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, are negative semi-*
 70 *definite. Then there exists some $t_0 \geq 0$ such that*

$$\text{tr}\{X_i(t)\} \leq \text{tr}\{V_i(t)\}, \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad \forall t \geq t_0, \quad (5)$$

71 where $V(t)$ satisfies (4) with $V(t_0) = X(t_0)$.

72 The proof of Theorem 3.1 is available in Appendix.

73 **Remark 3.1.** *Theorem 3.1 assures that $X(t)$ is bounded from above by $V(t)$, for all $t \geq t_0$.*
 74 *Due to $\mathbb{E}[\|x(t)\|^2] = \text{tr}\{\mathbb{E}[x(t)x(t)']\} = \sum_{i=1}^N \text{tr}\{X_i(t)\}$, we can conclude that the Markov*
 75 *jump quadratic system in (1) is second moment stable provided that $V(t)$ is uniformly*
 76 *bounded. This conclusion represents the main theoretical novelty of this paper.*

77 The authors of [11, Thm 5.6], [7, Thm. 3.25, p. 52] have introduced a condition that
 78 we recall here to check whether $V(t)$ is uniformly bounded. To present such a condition,
 79 we define the matrix

$$\mathcal{A} = \Pi' \otimes I_{n^2} + \text{diag} \left(\left(A_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^n \mu_\ell G_{\ell,i} \right) \oplus \left(A_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^n \mu_\ell G_{\ell,i} \right) \right)_{\{i=1, \dots, N\}}. \quad (6)$$

80 **Proposition 3.1.** *([11, Thm 5.6], [7, Thm. 3.25, p. 52]). If $\text{Re}(\lambda_{\mathcal{A}}) < 0$, then the limit*
 81 *$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} V(t)$ in (4) does exist and does not depend on the initial condition $V(t_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.*

82 The existence of $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} V(t)$ assures that $V(t)$ is uniformly bounded. This conclusion,
 83 together with Theorem 3.1, Remark 3.1, and Proposition 3.1, allows us to present the next
 84 result.

85 **Corollary 3.1.** *Let the matrices $G_{1,i}, \dots, G_{n,i}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, be negative semi-definite. If*
 86 *$\text{Re}(\lambda_{\mathcal{A}}) < 0$, then the quadratic Markov jump system in (1) is second moment stable.*

87 **Remark 3.2.** *The novelty of Corollary 3.1 is that it reveals a easy-to-check condition*
 88 *to verify the second moment stability of the quadratic system in (1), i.e., $\text{Re}(\lambda_{\mathcal{A}}) < 0$,*
 89 *a condition borrowed from [11, Thm 5.6], [7, Thm. 3.25, p. 52]. Thus, Corollary 3.1*
 90 *expands the use of the matrix (6) for Markov jump systems with quadratic terms.*

91 **Remark 3.3.** *Corollary 3.1 has practical implications to design a real-time controller*
 92 *subject to Markov jumps in an RLC circuit, where the corresponding experimental data*
 93 *confirm the usefulness of Corollary 3.1, as detailed in Section 4.*

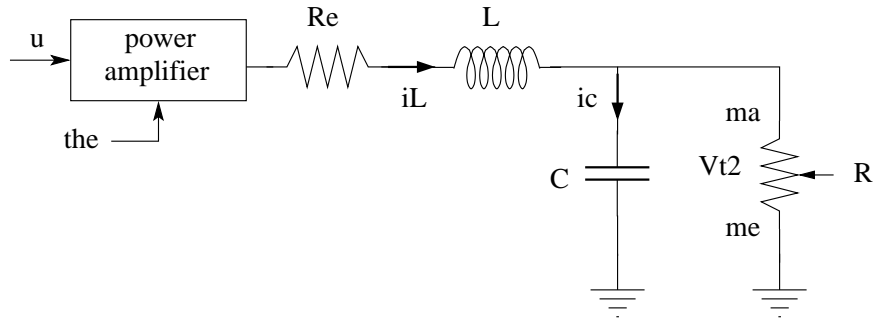


Figure 1: Open-loop diagram of the RLC circuit. The Markov chain generates jumps for both the power amplifier and the resistive load $R_{\theta(t)}$.

94 4. RLC circuit with Markov-driven load

95 Circuits based on resistor (R), inductor (L), and capacitor (C) are widely used in
 96 electrical equipments, such as antennas [2, 12], power converters [10, 13], filters [8], and
 97 oscillators [15]. In many of these applications based on RLC circuits, the load changes as
 98 the time evolves.

99 When electronic elements are connected or disconnected from the load terminals, the
 100 nominal value of the load changes accordingly. As such, time-varying loads induce time-
 101 varying voltages in the load terminals; but voltage fluctuations in terminals may represent
 102 risks of damage for the underlying devices. It is then necessary to keep the voltage supplied
 103 to the load at a fixed, regulated level.

104 The main contribution of this section is that of applying Corollary 3.1 to design a real-
 105 time controller for the RLC circuit. The aim of the controller is to regulate the voltage
 106 supplied to the load—the load value jumps according to a Markov chain. Actually, the
 107 proposed controller depends on quadratic terms. The benefits of such controller become
 108 clear through real-time experiments, as detailed next.

109 4.1. Modelling the RLC circuit with Markov jumps in the load

110 The RLC circuit studied in this section is detailed in Fig. 1. As can be seen, the RLC
 111 circuit has a power amplifier that converts the input signal $u(t)$ into the voltage-current
 112 required to supply the circuit. The output voltage, $v_o(t)$, is applied in the load $R_{\theta(t)}$;
 113 and the load $R_{\theta(t)}$ changes its value according to a Markov chain. In fact, three distinct
 114 resistive loads were used in the experiments, and the jumps among them were implemented
 115 through relays that were programmed to follow a three-state Markov chain.

To model the RLC circuit shown in Fig. 1, we consider a second-order system with
 two state variables (cf., [30]): (i) the current $i_L(t)$ flowing through the inductor; and (ii)
 the voltage $v_o(t)$ available in the terminals of the capacitor. It allows us to represent the
 RLC circuit through the next Markov jump system:

$$d \begin{bmatrix} v_o(t) \\ i_L(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -a_{11}^{(i)} & a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & -a_{22}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_o(t) \\ i_L(t) \end{bmatrix} dt + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ b^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} u(t)dt + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ h \end{bmatrix} dw(t), \quad (7)$$

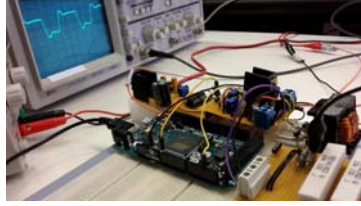


Figure 2: Laboratory testbed used to the experiments involving the RLC circuit.

116 with $\theta(t) = i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, for each $t \geq 0$, where $a_{11}^{(i)}, a_{22}^{(i)}, b^{(i)}$, $i = 1, 2, 3$, and a_{12}, a_{21}, h are
 117 positive numbers. These numbers were identified by the next procedure.

118 4.2. Experiments for the identification of the RLC circuit

119 A laboratory testbed was assembled to carry out the experiments involving the RLC
 120 circuit, see Fig. 4.1. The laboratory was equipped with oscilloscopes, microcontrollers,
 121 and power sources. A digital oscilloscope (Picoscope Model 2205) was used to measure
 122 data from the input-output of the RLC circuit. In its input, the power amplifier received
 123 analog signals from an Arduino Due. The Arduino Due was able to generate signals in $u(t)$
 124 from 0V to 2.7V, and it worked with sampling time of 90 microseconds approximately.

125 In the experiments, the resistor $R_{\theta(t)}$ in the load assumed the value of $30\ \Omega$ when
 126 $\theta(t) = 1$, $10\ \Omega$ when $\theta(t) = 2$, and $20\ \Omega$ when $\theta(t) = 3$. Relays were used to implement the
 127 jumps among these resistances.

128 The power amplifier was assembled with an adjustable regulator, code LM338. A phe-
 129 nomenon observed in the laboratory is that the internal resistance of the power amplifier
 130 had changed its value slightly when the load changed. This phenomenon suggests that the
 131 resistance of the power amplifier was also driven by the Markov jumps; this motivated us
 132 to account the influence of such jumps in the element $b^{(i)}$ of the model (7).

133 In order to identify the parameters of (7), we calculated the mean square error between
 134 the model in (7) and the corresponding experimental data (see Fig. 2). Square waves with
 135 distinct amplitudes were applied in the input $u(t)$ of the RLC circuit in practice, and
 136 the corresponding output data were compared with the values of $v_o(t)$ and $i_L(t)$ taken by
 137 simulating (7); this comparison allowed us to find the parameters of (7) that minimized
 138 that mean square error—these parameters are shown in Table 1.

139 4.3. Markov jump control with quadratic terms

140 Usually, RLC circuits must have a fixed voltage on the load under all operating condi-
 141 tions, voltage condition referred to as *setpoint*. When a Markov jump occurs in the load,
 142 the nominal value of the load changes, but changing the load creates a gap between the
 143 desired setpoint and the voltage available in the load terminals—this voltage gap is called
 144 *offset*.

145 Voltage offsets are undesired because they can lead not only to unnecessary loss of
 146 energy, but also to damage of the underlying equipments. For instance, in transient
 147 times, the equipment can suffer voltage spikes, exceeding safety limits. For this reason,

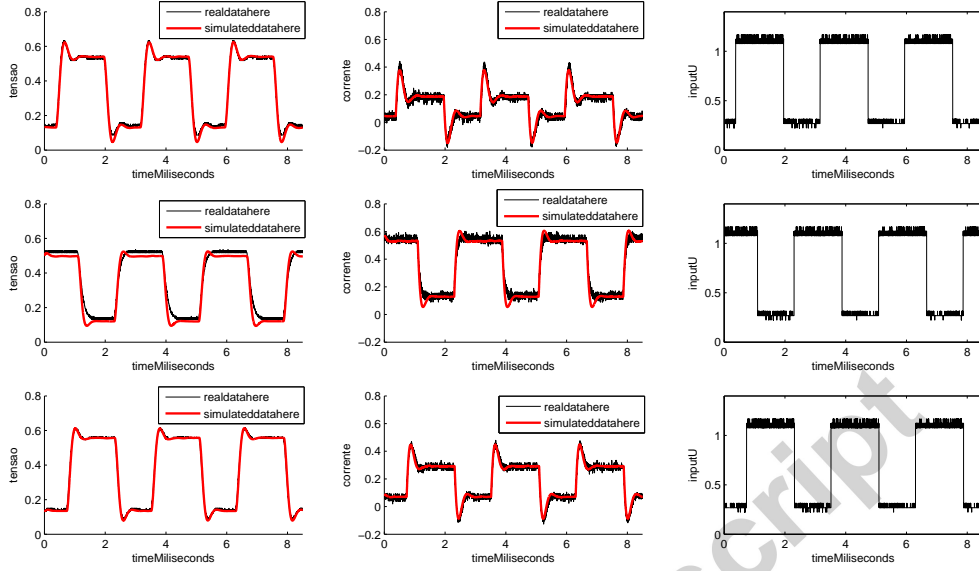


Figure 2: Data from the RLC circuit for a square wave input. Rows from up to down: $\theta(t) \equiv 1$, $\theta(t) \equiv 2$, and $\theta(t) \equiv 3$, respectively. The simulated curves were generated by using the values of Table 1.

148 it is reasonable to design controllers able to remove that voltage offsets, mainly for RLC
 149 circuits with jumping loads. Designing such a controller with the help of Corollary 3.1
 150 sets the main contribution of this section.

151 The sensors used in the laboratory were designed to measure only the square of the
 152 output signals. This signifies that the sensors were used to measure $v_o(t)^2$ and $i_C(t)^2$. This
 153 feature lead us to construct a control signal $u(t)$ that depends on $v_o(t)^2$ and $i_C(t)^2$ only,
 154 as detailed next.

155 We mention that the load sensor presented a small bias of -50mV in practice, measured
 156 in the laboratory. For this reason, we set $\bar{v}_o(t) = v_o(t) + 0.05$ and adjusted the bias
 157 accordingly in $v_o(t)^2$.

158 Since the Proportional-Integrative (PI) control strategy has produced promising results
 159 in the control of processes subject to Markovian jumps [20, 17], we decided to adapt the
 160 PI control to our setup, as detailed in the scheme of Fig. 3. Note from Fig. 3 that the

Table 1: Parameters of the quadratic Markov jump system representing an RLC circuit.

Parameters	$i = 1$	$i = 2$	$i = 3$
$a_{11}^{(i)}$	-3.98	-12.2492	-6.01
$a_{22}^{(i)}$	-7.167	-7.012	-8.3177
$b^{(i)}$	6.3415	8.101	7.4757
$a_{12} = 11.495$		$a_{21} = -10.651$	$h = 1$

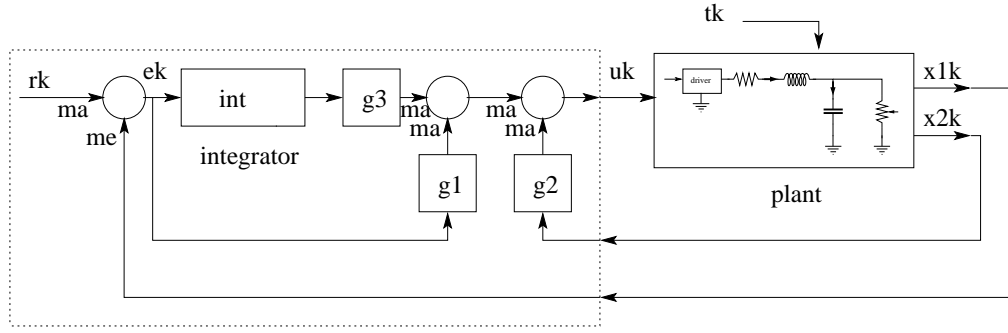


Figure 3: Block representing the ‘proportional integrative’ (PI) control strategy. The nonlinear feedback accounts both the square of voltage in the load and the square of current in the capacitor.

161 proposed control action is

$$u(t) = k_1 e(t) + k_2 \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau + k_3 i_C(t)^2, \quad e(t) = r(t) - \bar{v}_o(t)^2, \quad \forall t \geq 0, \quad (8)$$

162 where $r(t)$ stands for a deterministic setpoint signal. With $r(t) \equiv r$, $r > 0$ being a constant
 163 to be given latter, the control objective was to assure that the statistical mean values of
 164 both $e(t)$ and $i_C(t)$ tend to zero as t tends to infinity.

Due to the Kirchoff’s current law, we can write $i_C(t) = i_L(t) - v_o(t)/R_{\theta(t)}$; hence

$$i_C(t)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} v_o(t) & i_L(t) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{R_{\theta(t)}^2} & \frac{-1}{R_{\theta(t)}} \\ \frac{-1}{R_{\theta(t)}} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_o(t) \\ i_L(t) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

Now, take the system state as $x(t) \equiv [v_o(t) \ i_L(t) \ q(t)]'$; here $q(t)$ denotes the integral of the error, i.e., $q(t) := \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau$, so that $\dot{q}(t) \equiv e(t)$. Combining (7)–(9), we obtain the quadratic Markov jump system (with $\theta(t) = i$):

$$\begin{aligned} dx(t) = & \begin{bmatrix} -a_{11}^{(i)} & a_{12} & 0 \\ -a_{21} - 0.1b^{(i)}k_1 & -a_{22}^{(i)} & b^{(i)}k_2 \\ -0.1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x(t)dt + \begin{bmatrix} x(t)'G_{1,i}x(t) \\ x(t)'G_{2,i}x(t) \\ x(t)'G_{3,i}x(t) \end{bmatrix} dt \\ & + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ b^{(i)}k_1(r(t) - 0.0025) \\ r(t) - 0.0025 \end{bmatrix} dt + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ h \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} dw(t), \quad (10) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$G_{1,i} = 0, \quad G_{2,i} = b^{(i)} \begin{bmatrix} k_3/R_i^2 - k_1 & -k_3/R_i & 0 \\ -k_3/R_i & k_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad G_{3,i} = \text{diag}(-1, 0, 0), \quad i = 1, 2, 3.$$

165 The controlled RLC circuit with Markov jumps in (10) satisfies the condition stated
 166 in Assumption 1.1. Indeed, for the RLC circuit assembled in our laboratory testbed, the
 167 output voltage $v_o(t)$ was greater than $-1V$ as well as the current $i_L(t)$ was greater than

168 $-1A$ for all $t \geq 0$. As a result, in (2), we considered $\mu_1 = -1$ and $\mu_2 = -1$ to cope (2)
 169 with (10). To complete the analysis, we have assumed that $\mu_3 = -10$.

170 The Markov jumps on the load were programmed through relays, which followed the
 171 next transition rate matrix:

$$\Pi = \begin{bmatrix} -53.0492 & 42.2072 & 10.8420 \\ 42.2072 & -53.0492 & 10.8420 \\ 54.2098 & 54.2098 & -108.4196 \end{bmatrix}.$$

172 Corollary 3.1 now plays a key role. In fact, with gains $(k_1, k_2, k_3) = (0.5, 0.05, -0.01)$ ar-
 173 bitrarily chosen, we have that the corresponding matrix \mathcal{A} in (6) yields $\text{Re}(\lambda_{\mathcal{A}}) = -0.0097$.
 174 Consequently, Corollary 3.1 assures that the quadratic Markov jump system in (10) is sec-
 175 ond moment stable.

176 The remaining part of this section shows data collected from experiments that confirm
 177 the second moment stability; this finding corroborates the usefulness of Corollary 3.1 for
 178 the RLC circuit.

179 4.4. Experimental results: controlled RLC circuit with Markov jumps

180 The controlled RLC circuit with Markov jumps shown in Fig. 3 was assembled in the
 181 laboratory testbed with control gains (k_1, k_2, k_3) as mentioned previously.

182 A small sample of data is shown in Fig. 4. The picture shows the output corresponding
 183 to a step from 0V to 0.6V applied at $t = 1.5\text{ms}$, or equivalently, the reference was $r(t) =$
 184 $r = 0.36V^2$ when $t \geq 1.5\text{ms}$ and zero otherwise. As can be seen in Fig. 4, the controller was
 185 able to overcome the perturbations produced by the Markov jumps on the load, driving
 186 the load voltage to the setpoint of 0.6V.

187 To assess the influence of the Markov jumps in the controlled RLC circuit, we analysed
 188 the data taken from 12,000 distinct experiments. Each experiment was carried out for a
 189 step from 0V to 0.6V and execution time of 20ms. The experimental data were used to
 190 generate the phase portrait depicted in Fig. 5.

191 Fig. 5 shows data for 12,000 experiments. Since the jumps in the load produced
 192 perturbations for both voltage and current, Fig. 5 represents the statistical dispersion of
 193 these perturbations, accounted in the shading of the colors. As can be seen, the statistical
 194 dispersion of voltage and current tends to follow an spiral path, in the clockwise direction,
 195 and reach an accumulated point in 0.6V and 0A (colored in red in the middle of the
 196 picture). This accumulated point represents the statistical mean.

197 In summary, Fig. 5 suggests that the controlled RLC circuit be second moment sta-
 198 ble, an evidence that supports the result of Corollary 3.1—Corollary 3.1 states that the
 199 quadratic system in (10) is second moment stable.

200 Our findings thus reinforce the usefulness of Corollary 3.1 for applications.

201 5. Concluding remarks

202 In this paper, we have presented conditions to assure the second moment stability of
 203 Markov jump systems with quadratic terms. To prove our main result, we have borrowed
 204 from [11, Thm 5.6], [7, Thm. 3.25, p. 52], a condition based on the spectral radius of

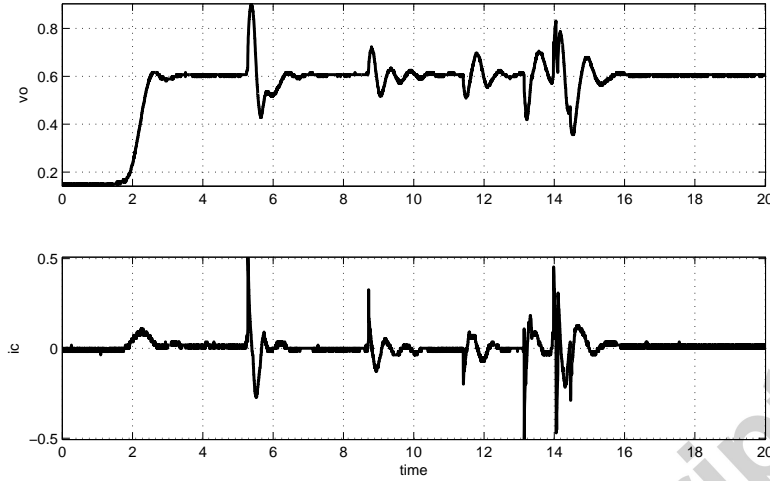


Figure 4: Typical response of the voltage in the load and current in the capacitor from a controlled RLC circuit subject to jumps on the load—the jumps driven by a Markov chain generated the perturbations. Even under perturbations, the proposed controller steered the load voltage to the desired setpoint (i.e., 0.6V).

205 the matrix in (6); and this condition is reinforced here to assure the stability of quadratic
 206 Markov jump systems (see both Assumption 1.1 and Corollary 3.1).

207 Besides the theoretical contributions, our findings have practical implications. Indeed,
 208 we have applied our stability result on the design of a real-time controller for an RLC
 209 circuit. The RLC circuit, assembled in a laboratory, supplied a resistive load with values
 210 jumping according to a Markov chain. Interestingly, the sensors used in practice to perform
 211 the control measured only the square of the corresponding variables (i.e., $v_o(t)^2$ and $i_C(t)^2$
 212 in Fig. 3). This signifies that the control system resulted in a Markov jump system with
 213 quadratic terms.

214 Our main result, Corollary 3.1, was applied on the design of a second moment stabiliz-
 215 ing controller for the RLC circuit—the experimental data suggested that the RLC circuit
 216 be second moment stable in practice. This evidence matches the theoretical result, a fact
 217 that supports the implications of our approach for applications.

218 Appendix: Proof of Theorem 3.1

219 In the next result, the notation $o(h)$ denotes an infinitesimal of higher order than h ,
 220 i.e., $\lim_{h \downarrow 0} o(h)/h$ equals zero.

221 **Proposition 5.1.** ([11, Lem. 4.2], [7, Ch. 3]). Assume that $f(t)$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is \mathcal{F}_t -
 222 measurable and that $f_i(t) := \mathbb{E}[f(t)\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}]$ exists. Then $\mathbb{E}[f(t)d(\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i})] = \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_{ji}f_j(t)dt +$
 223 $o(dt)$.

224 Now, we are able to present the proof of Theorem 3.1.

225 *Proof.* (Proof of Theorem 3.1).

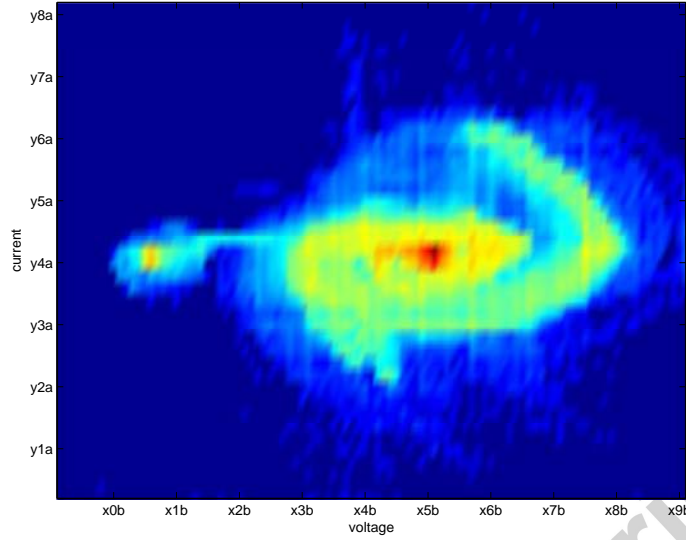


Figure 5: Phase portraits representing the voltage in the load (V) and current in the capacitor (A) measured in practice from a RLC circuit with Markov jumps—the picture condenses data from 12,000 distinct realizations. The picture suggests that the RLC circuit be second moment stable, a fact in accordance with Corollary 3.1.

226 Before presenting the arguments to prove Theorem 3.1, we need first some definitions.
 227 Define the quadratic operator $\mathcal{G}_i : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, as

$$\mathcal{G}_i(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x'G_{1,i}x \\ \vdots \\ x'G_{n,i}x \end{bmatrix}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (11)$$

The next argument introduces the matrix differential equation for (3). Indeed, by applying the Itô's rule in (1), we can write $dX_i(t)$ as (e.g., [7, Prop. 3.28, p. 56])

$$\begin{aligned} d\mathbb{E}[x(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] &= \mathbb{E}[dx(t)dx(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}[dx(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] + \mathbb{E}[x(t)dx(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] + \mathbb{E}[x(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}]. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

228 For the sake of clarity, each term in the right-hand side of (12) is evaluated in separate,
 229 as follows. The first term in the right-hand side of (12) reads as

$$\mathbb{E}[dx(t)dx(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] = \mathbb{E}[H_{\theta(t)}dw(t)dw(t)'H_{\theta(t)}'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] = H_iH_i'p_i(t)dt. \quad (13)$$

The second term in the right-hand side of (12) is identical to (using notation in (3))

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[dx(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] &= \mathbb{E}[(A_{\theta(t)}x(t) + \mathcal{G}_{\theta(t)}(x(t)))x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}]dt + \mathbb{E}[H_{\theta(t)}dw(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] \\ &= A_iX_i(t)dt + \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{G}_{\theta(t)}(x(t))x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}]dt. \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

230 The last term in the right-hand side of (12) follows from Proposition 5.1, which assures
 231 that

$$\mathbb{E}[x(t)x(t)'\mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] = \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_{ji}X_j(t)dt + o(dt). \quad (15)$$

Combining (12)–(15) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{X}_i(t) = & X_i(t)A'_i + A_iX_i(t) + \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_{ji}X_j(t) + H_iH'_ip_i(t) \\ & + \mathbf{E} [x(t)\mathcal{G}_{\theta(t)}(x(t))' \mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] + \mathbf{E} [\mathcal{G}_{\theta(t)}(x(t))x(t)' \mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}]. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

232 Note that the trace of the rightmost element of (16) equals

$$\text{tr} \left\{ \mathbf{E} \left[\begin{array}{c} x(t)'G_{1,i}x(t) \\ \vdots \\ x(t)'G_{n,i}x(t) \end{array} [x_{[1]}(t), \dots, x_{[n]}(t)] \mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i} \right] \right\}. \quad (17)$$

233 On the other hand, we have from (2) that given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists some $t_0 \geq 0$ such
234 that

$$\mu_\ell - \varepsilon < x_{[\ell]}(t), \quad \forall t \geq t_0, \ell = 1, \dots, n.$$

Since the matrix $G_{\ell,i}$ is negative semi-definite by assumption, the value of $x_{[\ell]}(t)x(t)'G_{\ell,i}x(t)$ is bounded from above by $(\mu_\ell - \varepsilon)x(t)'G_{\ell,i}x(t)$ when $t \geq t_0$. Thus, we have from (17) that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} \{ \mathbf{E} [\mathcal{G}_{\theta(t)}(x(t))x(t)' \mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] \} & \leq \sum_{\ell=1}^n \text{tr} \{ \mathbf{E} [(\mu_\ell - \varepsilon)x(t)'G_{\ell,i}x(t) \mathbb{1}_{\theta(t)=i}] \} \\ & = \sum_{\ell=1}^n \text{tr} \{ (\mu_\ell - \varepsilon)G_{\ell,i}X_i(t) \}. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

Passing the trace operator on both sides of (16), and using (18), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} \{ \dot{X}_i(t) \} \leq & \text{tr} \left\{ X_i(t) \left(A_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^n (\mu_\ell - \varepsilon)G_{\ell,i} \right)' + \left(A_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^n (\mu_\ell - \varepsilon)G_{\ell,i} \right) X_i(t) \right. \\ & \left. + \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_{ji}X_j(t) + H_iH'_ip_i(t) \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

235 With $V(t)$ as in (4), $V(t_0) = X(t_0)$, we obtain $\text{tr} \{ X_i(t) \} \leq \text{tr} \{ V_i(t) \}$, for $i = 1, \dots, N$,
236 since $\varepsilon > 0$ was taken arbitrarily. The result then follows from (4) and (19). \square

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