

Advances in Moving Horizon Estimation for Nonlinear Systems

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Abstract—In the past decade, moving horizon estimation (MHE) has emerged as a powerful technique for estimating the state of a dynamical system in the presence of nonlinearities and disturbances. MHE is based on the idea of minimizing an estimation cost function defined on a sliding window composed of a finite number of time stages. The cost function usually comprises two contributions: a prediction error computed on a recent batch of inputs and outputs and an arrival cost that serves the purpose of summarizing the past data. The diffusion of such techniques has been hampered by the difficulty in choosing the arrival cost so as to ensure stability of the overall estimation scheme and by the need for an adequate computational time.

In this paper, both problems are addressed and possible solutions are proposed. First, by means of a novel stability analysis, we show that in most situations a quadratic arrival cost is sufficient to ensure the stability of the estimation error provided that the weight matrix is adequately chosen. Second, we propose a novel approximate MHE algorithm based on nonlinear programming sensitivity calculations. This approximate algorithm has the same stability properties as those of the optimal counterpart and hence is suitable for on-line settings. Preliminary simulation results confirm the effectiveness of our proposed method.

I. INTRODUCTION

Ideas about moving horizon estimation (MHE) date back to the 1960s ([1]), motivated by the intrinsic robustness of such a technique. MHE seeks to minimize an estimation cost function defined on a sliding window involving a finite number of time stages. The cost function usually comprises two contributions: a prediction error computed on a recent batch of inputs and outputs and an arrival cost that summarizes past data.

An approach was proposed in [2] for designing asymptotic state observers that result from the numerical solution of the measurement inversion problem via the Newton’s method. In [3] and [4], similar optimization-based techniques were developed to construct estimators for continuous-time dynamic systems. In [5] an MH observer for nonlinear continuous-time systems was proposed that performs estimations at

discrete-time instants by approximately minimizing an integral error defined on the preceding time window. More recently, advances have been obtained for MHE applied to linear systems [6], [7], [8], [9], hybrid systems [10], [11], and nonlinear systems [12], [13].

The MH estimation scheme proposed in [12] allows one to explicitly take into account possible constraints on the system and requires the solution of a nonlinear programming problem at each time step. Moreover, a sufficient condition for the non divergence of the estimation error in the presence of bounded noises is provided. Unfortunately, this approach requires an exact on-line minimization of a nonlinear cost function, thus reducing the possibility of practical applications. In order to overcome this drawback, a method was proposed in [14] with the possibility of admitting a certain error in the minimization of the cost function. The results were improved later in [13], where the simultaneous presence of system and measurement noises was accounted for. In addition, the conditions that guarantee the stability of the estimation error were relaxed, and the essentially local results of [14] were extended to regional stability.

In this paper, we follow the same approach proposed in [13], but we address the minimization of a more general cost function that involves estimates of all the state vectors in the observation window. In this way, we can estimate the current state without incurring delays or resorting to the propagation of the nominal system. The observability conditions required in [13], based on a suitable \mathcal{K} -function, were recently demonstrated to be very general in that they are equivalent to uniform observability conditions based on the injectivity of the “observation map” or full rankness of its Jacobian (see [15], [16] and references therein). Here such conditions are made less restrictive by removing the requirement for a “finite sensitiveness” of the \mathcal{K} -function. Even in this more general case, stability of the proposed estimation technique can be proved, and explicit bounds on the estimation error can be guaranteed provided that a quadratic arrival cost is adopted and its weight matrix is adequately chosen.

One reason for the limited diffusion of MHE techniques is the need for adequate computational times. In order to cope with this, in [14] an approach was proposed that relies on the use of nonlinear approximate optimal estimation functions able to provide on-line estimates of the state variables. Such functions are implemented via neural networks with parameters determined off line. Further improvements to such methodology are reported in [17]. An alternative strategy to deal with the computational complexity is based on the use of the fast optimization techniques recently proposed for

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both MHE and model predictive control in [18], [19], [20], [21]. The idea is to use the sampling time to solve a reference problem only with the available prediction of the state, while waiting for next and more precise information that allows one to correct the reference solution by performing a quick nonlinear programming (NLP) sensitivity calculation. These NLP sensitivity based controllers and estimators are able to accommodate large-scale models in on-line environments while dramatically reducing dangerous feedback delays.

Fast optimization techniques such as those described in [19], [20], [21] are based on the interior-point NLP solver IPOPT [22], which exploits the sparse structure of MHE problems automatically at the linear algebra level. This provides an efficient approach for solving the reference problem in between sampling times.

Here, an approach to MHE that combines the reduced computational requirements of the sensitivity-based methods presented in [19], [20], [21], [23] with the stability guarantees of the techniques developed by [13].

The paper is organized as follows. In Section II the MHE problem is formulated with particular attention to the definition of the arrival cost. The stability properties of the resulting MH estimation algorithms are proved in Section III in relation to the observability requirements. A general framework to find approximate solutions is described in Section IV, and preliminary simulation results are presented in Section V.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Let us consider a dynamic system described by the discrete-time equations

$$x_{t+1} = f(x_t, u_t) + w_t, \quad (1a)$$

$$y_t = h(x_t) + v_t, \quad (1b)$$

for $t = 0, 1, \dots$, where $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the state vector (the initial state x_0 is unknown) and $u_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the control vector. The vector $w_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an additive disturbance affecting the system dynamics. The state vector is observed through the measurement equation (1b), where $y_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is the observation vector and $v_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is a measurement noise vector. We assume the statistics of x_0 , w_t , and v_t to be unknown, and we consider them as deterministic variables of unknown character.

In this paper, state estimation is addressed within an MHE framework [7], [9], [14], [13]. More specifically, at any time $t = N, N + 1, \dots$, the objective is to derive estimates of the state vectors x_{t-N}, \dots, x_t on the basis of the *information vector*¹

$$I_t^{(N)} \triangleq \text{col}(y_{t-N,t}, u_{t-N,t-1}), \quad (2)$$

where $N + 1$ measurements and N input vectors are collected within a ‘‘sliding window’’ $[t - N, t]$. Hereafter, $\hat{x}_{t-N|t}, \dots, \hat{x}_{t|t}$ will denote the estimates (to be made at time t) of x_{t-N}, \dots, x_t , respectively.

¹In general, given a sequence $\{z_t\}$ and two time instants $0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2$, we use the notation $z_{t_1,t_2} \triangleq \text{col}(z_{t_1}, \dots, z_{t_2})$.

Since we have assumed the statistics of the disturbances and of the initial continuous state to be unknown, we use a least-squares approach to derive the estimator. To this end, at any time $t = N, N + 1, \dots$, the minimization of the following cost function can be addressed:²

$$\begin{aligned} J_t^{(N)} & \left(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}, I_t^{(N)} \right) \\ & = \Gamma_{t-N}(\hat{x}_{t-N|t}) + \sum_{i=t-N}^{t-1} \|\hat{x}_{i+1|t} - f(\hat{x}_{i|t}, u_i)\|_Q^2 \\ & + \sum_{i=t-N}^t \|y_i - h(\hat{x}_{i|t})\|_R^2, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where the initial penalty function $\Gamma_{t-N}(\cdot)$ is assumed to be non-negative and the matrices Q , and R are assumed to be positive definite and can be regarded as design parameters. The first term, known in the MHE literature as *arrival cost* [6], [12], summarizes the past data, $y_{0,t-N-1}$, $u_{0,t-N-1}$, not explicitly accounted for in the objective function. The second contribution, weighted by the matrix Q , takes into account the evolution of the state in terms of the state equation (1). The third term, weighted by the matrix R , penalizes the distances of the ‘‘expected output’’ (based on the state estimates) from the actual measurements.

Clearly, the form of the arrival cost in (3) plays a crucial role in determining the behavior and the performance of the overall estimation scheme. In this connection, a first possibility [6], [12] would consist of choosing each function $\Gamma_{t-N}(\cdot)$ as the *true arrival cost*; that is, the arrival cost obtained by imposing that minimization of the MH cost (3) at time t corresponds to minimization of the *full-information cost*

$$\begin{aligned} J_t^{\text{FI}} & \left(\hat{x}_{0,t|t}, I_t^{(t)} \right) = \Gamma_0(\hat{x}_{0|t}) + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \|\hat{x}_{i+1|t} - f(\hat{x}_{i|t}, u_i)\|_Q^2 \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^t \|y_i - h(\hat{x}_{i|t})\|_R^2. \end{aligned}$$

It is straightforward to show that, under mild assumptions, such a choice always leads to a stable estimation error dynamics. Unfortunately, an algebraic expression for the true arrival cost exists only in a few particular cases (e.g., the linear unconstrained case [6]). Therefore, when the system is nonlinear or constrained, some approximation must be used. For instance, in [6], [12], it is shown that stability of the estimation error dynamics can be preserved provided that the approximate arrival cost is bounded from above by the true one (this condition corresponds to requiring that the approximate arrival cost not add information not specified in the data). While from the theoretical point of view such a choice allows for a clean stability analysis, from a practical perspective its applicability is severely limited by the fact that (with the notable exception of the linear constrained case

²Throughout the paper, given a symmetric positive definite matrix M and a vector z , $\|z\|_M$ denotes the weighted norm of z , $\|z\|_M \triangleq (z^\top M z)^{1/2}$.

[6]) no constructive method is available for determining the approximate arrival cost.

A second possibility [14], [13] involves assigning to the arrival cost a fixed structure that penalizes the distance of the estimate $\hat{x}_{t-N|t}$ of the state at the beginning of the sliding window from some prediction \bar{x}_{t-N} . With this respect, a natural choice is the quadratic arrival cost

$$\Gamma_{t-N}(\hat{x}_{t-N|t}) = \|\hat{x}_{t-N|t} - \bar{x}_{t-N}\|_P^2, \quad P > 0 \quad (4)$$

with the prediction \bar{x}_{t-N} chosen as the estimate of x_{t-N} made at the previous time instant $t-1$ (the vector \bar{x}_0 denotes an a priori prediction of x_0). In Section III, we show that, under general assumptions, such a simple arrival cost is sufficient to ensure the stability of the estimation error dynamics provided that the weight matrix P is adequately chosen. Hereafter, the MH cost with the quadratic arrival cost (4) will be denoted by $J^{(N)}(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}, \bar{x}_{t-N}, I_t^{(N)})$.

As in [12], [13], the following preliminary assumptions are needed.

- A1.** The sets \mathcal{W} , \mathcal{V} , and \mathcal{U} , where w_t , v_t and u_t (respectively) take their values, are compact sets, with $0 \in \mathcal{W}$ and $0 \in \mathcal{V}$.
- A2.** The initial state x_0 and the control sequence $\{u_t\}$ are such that, for any possible sequence of disturbances $\{w_t\}$, the system trajectory $\{x_t\}$ lies in a compact set \mathcal{X} .

Note that Assumptions A1 and A2 are reasonable from a practical point of view when considering the state estimation problem for a physical system: the state variables as well as the exogenous inputs typically are bounded. Since, under Assumption A2, at every time step $t = 0, 1, \dots$, the state x_t falls within the set \mathcal{X} , it is natural to include the constraints

$$\hat{x}_{i|t} \in \mathcal{X}, \quad i = t - N, \dots, t \quad (5)$$

when addressing the minimization of the cost functional (3). Further, when the sets \mathcal{W} and \mathcal{V} are also known, the additional constraints

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_{i+1|t} - f(\hat{x}_{i|t}, u_i) &\in \mathcal{W}, & i = t - N, \dots, t - 1 \quad (6) \\ y_i - h(\hat{x}_{i|t}) &\in \mathcal{V}, & i = t - N, \dots, t \quad (7) \end{aligned}$$

can be imposed. We note that the state constraints (5) are in general crucial for ensuring the applicability of the approach (in fact, most nonlinear programming algorithms are designed to work only for bounded solution sets). On the contrary, the constraint sets (6) and (7) turn out to be unessential, not only for the applicability of the approach, but also for the stability analysis (as will be shown in the next section). Moreover, in some applications, it may be difficult to know an upper bound on the exogenous inputs (for example, because of the presence of outliers). Consequently, only the state constraints (5) will be taken into account in the subsequent problem formulation.

The following algorithm can now be stated.

Algorithm 1 (ε -optimal MHE). Given an a priori prediction \bar{x}_0 and a desired accuracy $\varepsilon > 0$, at any time $t = N, N + 1, \dots$, do the following:

- 1) Find state estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N|t}^\varepsilon \in \mathcal{X}, \dots, \hat{x}_{t|t}^\varepsilon \in \mathcal{X}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} J^{(N)}(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}^\varepsilon, \bar{x}_{t-N}, I_t^{(N)}) \\ \leq J^{(N)}(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}, \bar{x}_{t-N}, I_t^{(N)}) + \varepsilon \quad (8) \end{aligned}$$

for any $\hat{x}_{t-N|t} \in \mathcal{X}, \dots, \hat{x}_{t|t} \in \mathcal{X}$.

- 2) Set

$$\bar{x}_{t-N+1} = \hat{x}_{t-N+1|t}^\varepsilon.$$

The positive real ε represents the desired accuracy in the minimization of the MH cost. In fact, condition (8) amounts to requiring that the cost related to the ‘‘approximate estimates’’ $\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}^\varepsilon$ should not exceed the *optimal cost*

$$\min_{\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t} \in \mathcal{X}^{N+1}} J^{(N)}(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}, \bar{x}_{t-N}, I_t^{(N)})$$

by more than ε . Of course, a compromise must be accepted when selecting such a quantity. In fact, the smaller the ε , the better the expected estimation, but a larger computational effort is required to guarantee such an accuracy. In practical situations, a large enough ε must be considered so that the optimization process may end in each sampling period.

III. STABILITY OF THE ESTIMATION ERROR

In order to study the stability properties of the proposed MHE algorithm, some preliminary definitions and assumptions are needed.

First, let $\text{co}(\mathcal{X})$ be the convex closure of \mathcal{X} . Then, the following smoothness requirement on system (1) can be introduced.

- A3.** The functions f and h are \mathcal{C}^2 functions with respect to x on $\text{co}(\mathcal{X})$ for every $u \in \mathcal{U}$.

Let the *observation map* on a window of length $N + 1$ be defined as

$$F^{(N)}(x_{t-N}, u_{t-N,t-1}, w_{t-N,t-1}) \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} h(x_{t-N}) \\ h \circ f^{u_{t-N}, w_{t-N}}(x_{t-N}) \\ \vdots \\ h \circ f^{u_{t-1}, w_{t-1}} \circ \dots \circ f^{u_{t-N}, w_{t-N}}(x_{t-N}) \end{bmatrix},$$

where ‘‘ \circ ’’ denotes function composition and $f^{u_i, w_i}(x_i) \triangleq f(x_i, u_i) + w_i$. Notice that, by exploiting such a definition, one can write

$$y_{t-N,t} = F^{(N)}(x_{t-N}, u_{t-N,t-1}, w_{t-N,t-1}) + v_{t-N,t}.$$

Further, by defining the estimated system disturbances as

$$\hat{w}_{i|t} \triangleq \hat{x}_{i+1|t} - f(\hat{x}_{i|t}, u_i), \quad i = t - N, \dots, t - 1,$$

the MH cost with quadratic arrival cost can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} J_t & \left(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}, \bar{x}_{t-N}, I_t^{(N)} \right) \\ & = \left\| \hat{x}_{t-N|t} - \bar{x}_{t-N} \right\|_P^2 + \left\| \hat{w}_{t-N,t-1|t} \right\|_{\bar{Q}}^2 \\ & + \left\| y_{t-N,t} - F^{(N)} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N|t}, u_{t-N,t-1}, \hat{w}_{t-N,t-1|t} \right) \right\|_{\bar{R}}^2 \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where

$$\bar{Q} \triangleq \mathbb{I}_N \otimes Q, \quad \bar{R} \triangleq \mathbb{I}_{N+1} \otimes R$$

with \otimes the Kronecker product and \mathbb{I}_N the $N \times N$ identity matrix.

We are now able to introduce the following observability definitions.

Definition 1: System (1) is said to be observable in $N+1$ steps if there exists a K -function³ $\varphi(\cdot)$ such that

$$\varphi \left(\|x_1 - x_2\|^2 \right) \leq \left\| F^{(N)}(x_1, u, 0) - F^{(N)}(x_2, u, 0) \right\|^2, \quad (10)$$

$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\forall u \in \mathcal{U}^N$.

Definition 2: System (1) is said to be observable in $N+1$ steps with *finite sensitivity* $1/\delta$ if it is observable in $N+1$ steps and, in addition, the K -function $\varphi(\cdot)$ satisfies the following condition:

$$\delta \triangleq \inf_{x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}; x_1 \neq x_2} \frac{\varphi \left(\|x_1 - x_2\|^2 \right)}{\|x_1 - x_2\|^2} > 0. \quad (11)$$

The observability definition expressed by (10) has been widely used in the framework of nonlinear state estimation in both discrete time and continuous time settings (see, for example, [2], [4], [24], [12], [13]). The additional condition (11) was introduced in [13] by taking into account the sensitivity of the inverse mapping from the noise-free observations $y = F^{(N)}(x, u, 0)$ to the state x . In fact, the fulfillment of condition (11) ensures that small variations in the observation vector y always correspond to small variations of the state vector x . Recently, it has been shown [15], [16], [23] that such definitions are general and natural in that, under mild assumptions: Definition 1 is equivalent to the injectivity of the mapping from the state x to the noise-free observations $y = F^{(N)}(x, u, 0)$; Definition 2 is equivalent to the observability rank condition

$$\text{rank} \frac{\partial F^{(N)}(x, u, 0)}{\partial x} = n, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall u \in \mathcal{U}^N;$$

and taking into account observation windows of fixed length is not restrictive.

Let us denote by k_f an upper bound on the Lipschitz constant of $f(x, u)$ with respect to x on \mathcal{X} for every $u \in \mathcal{U}$. Further, let

$$r_w \triangleq \max_{w \in \mathcal{W}} \|w\|^2, \quad r_v \triangleq \max_{v \in \mathcal{V}} \|v\|^2.$$

³Recall that a function $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is a K -function if it is continuous and strictly monotone increasing such that $\varphi(0) = 0$.

For the sake of simplicity, suppose that the matrix P is diagonal with $P = p \mathbb{I}_n$ and where p a positive real. Note that this can be done without loss of generality because the general case can be subsumed to this special one by means of a suitable linear change of variables. Then, the following stability result can be stated.

Theorem 1: Suppose that assumptions A1-A3 are satisfied and that system (1) is observable in $N+1$ steps with finite sensitivity $1/\delta$. Further, let the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N|t}^\varepsilon$ and $\hat{w}_{t-N,t-1|t}^\varepsilon$, $t = N, N+1, \dots$, be computed recursively via Algorithm 1. Then, the following upper bounds hold:

$$\|x_{t-N} - \hat{x}_{t-N|t}^\varepsilon\|^2 \leq \xi_{t-N} \quad (12)$$

$$\left\| \hat{w}_{t-N,t-1|t}^\varepsilon \right\|^2 \leq \omega_{t-N}, \quad (13)$$

where the sequences $\{\xi_t\}$ and $\{\omega_t\}$ are generated by the linear system

$$\begin{bmatrix} \omega_{t+1} \\ \xi_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = A(p, \delta) \begin{bmatrix} \omega_t \\ \xi_t \end{bmatrix} + B(p, \delta) \begin{bmatrix} r_w \\ r_v \end{bmatrix} + C(p, \delta) \varepsilon \quad (14)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} A(p, \delta) & \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} c_1 p & c_1 k_f p \\ c_2 p / (p + c_3 \delta) & c_2 k_f p / (p + c_3 \delta) \end{bmatrix}, \\ B(p, \delta) & \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} c_4 p + c_5 & c_6 \\ (c_7 p + c_8) / (p + c_3 \delta) & c_9 / (p + c_3 \delta) \end{bmatrix}, \\ C(p, \delta) & \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} c_{10} \\ c_{11} / (p + c_3 \delta) \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

and c_i , $i = 1, \dots, 11$ are suitable positive constants. \square

Some remarks on Theorem 1 are in order. First, from (12) and (13), one can easily derive an upper bound on the estimation error $\|x_t - \hat{x}_{t|t}^\varepsilon\|^2$ by simple Lipschitz arguments. Further, it can be seen that (12) and (13) still hold, without any modification, even when the additional constraints (6) and (7) are included in the state estimation algorithm. Moreover, noting that the eigenvalues of the matrix $A(p, \delta)$ are 0 and

$$a(p, \delta) \triangleq c_1 p + c_2 p / (p + c_3 \delta),$$

we can state the following corollary to Theorem 1.

Corollary 1: Under the same assumptions of Theorem 1, if the design parameter p is selected such that

$$a(p, \delta) < 1, \quad (15)$$

then the dynamics of system (14) is asymptotically stable, and the upper bounding sequences $\{\omega_t\}$ and $\{\xi_t\}$ converge exponentially to the asymptotic values $\omega_\infty(p, \delta)$ and $\xi_\infty(p, \delta)$, respectively, obtained as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \omega_\infty(p, \delta) \\ \xi_\infty(p, \delta) \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \left(\mathbb{I}_2 - A(p, \delta) \right)^{-1} \left(B(p, \delta) \begin{bmatrix} r_w \\ r_v \end{bmatrix} + C(p, \delta) \varepsilon \right). \quad (16)$$

□

Since $a(0, \delta) = 0$, it is immediate to see that condition (15) can be easily satisfied by imposing that the positive weight p does not exceed a certain stability threshold p_{\max} . For instance, it can be seen that the smaller is k_f (i.e., the more contractive is the system) and the larger is δ (i.e., the more observable is the system) the wider is the range of values of p that satisfy condition (15).

When system (1) is noise-free (i.e., $\mathcal{W} = \{0\}$ and $\mathcal{V} = \{0\}$) and the accuracy ε is set to zero, the asymptotic upper bounds $\omega_\infty(p, \delta)$ and $\xi_\infty(p, \delta)$ turn out to be equal to zero. Thus, in this case, the MHE algorithm yields an exponential observer, provided that the stability condition (15) is satisfied. In the other cases, the asymptotic upper bounds grow linearly with the amplitude of the noises (i.e., r_w and r_v) as well as with the accuracy ε .

In some cases, the finite sensitivity requirement expressed by equation (11) may not hold even if the system itself is observable. Of course, the results of Theorem 1 and Corollary 1 could still be applied also in these situations by setting $\delta = 0$. However, the resulting stability condition would become quite restrictive and, possibly, unfeasible for any choice of the design parameter p . Nevertheless, by following a different approach, it is all the same possible to derive more meaningful upper bounds and stability conditions. In this connection, the basic idea consists in excluding a certain interval $[0, m)$ (with m a positive real) from the calculus of the infimum in condition (11). Then one can define the quantity

$$\delta^{(m)} \triangleq \min_{x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}, \|x_1 - x_2\|^2 \geq m} \frac{\varphi(\|x_1 - x_2\|^2)}{\|x_1 - x_2\|^2} \quad (17)$$

which is always greater than 0 for any $m > 0$ provided that system (1) is observable according to Definition 1. Thanks to such an arrangement, the following result can be stated.

Theorem 2: Suppose that assumptions A1-A3 are satisfied and that system (1) is observable in $N+1$ steps. Further, let the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N|t}^\varepsilon$ and $\hat{w}_{t-N, t-1|t}^\varepsilon$, $t = N, N+1, \dots$, be computed recursively via Algorithm 1. Then, for any $m > 0$, the following upper bounds hold

$$\|x_{t-N} - \hat{x}_{t-N|t}^\varepsilon\|^2 \leq \xi_{t-N}^{(m)} \quad (18)$$

$$\left\| \hat{w}_{t-N, t-1|t}^\varepsilon \right\|^2 \leq \omega_{t-N}^{(m)} \quad (19)$$

where the sequences $\{\xi_t^{(m)}\}$ and $\{\omega_t^{(m)}\}$ are generated by the nonlinear system

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{t+1}^{(m)} \\ \bar{\xi}_{t+1}^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} &= A(p, \delta^{(m)}) \begin{bmatrix} \omega_t^{(m)} \\ \xi_t^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} + B(p, \delta^{(m)}) \begin{bmatrix} r_w \\ r_v \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad + C(p, \delta^{(m)}) \varepsilon, \\ \xi_{t+1}^{(m)} &= \max \left\{ m, \bar{\xi}_{t+1}^{(m)} \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

□

Notice that, in the limit $m \rightarrow 0$, the novel bounding sequences of Theorem 2 tend to those of Theorem 1 (in fact, $\delta^{(0)} = \delta$). As to the asymptotic behavior of such bounding sequences, the following result holds.

Theorem 3: Let the same assumptions of Theorem 2 hold and let the design parameter p be such that

$$a(p, \delta^{(m)}) < 1. \quad (21)$$

Then, system (20) admits a globally exponentially stable equilibrium point.

In particular, given the functions $\omega_\infty(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $\xi_\infty(\cdot, \cdot)$ defined in (16), one of the following two possibilities occurs:

i. If $m \leq \xi_\infty(p, \delta^{(m)})$,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \xi_t^{(m)} &= \xi_\infty(p, \delta^{(m)}), \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \omega_t^{(m)} &= \omega_\infty(p, \delta^{(m)}). \end{aligned}$$

ii. If $m > \xi_\infty(p, \delta^{(m)})$,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \xi_t^{(m)} &= m, \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \omega_t^{(m)} &= \frac{1}{1 - c_1 p} \\ &\quad \times (c_1 k_f m + (c_4 p + c_5) r_w + c_6 r_v + c_{10} \varepsilon). \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Such a stability result overcomes the limitations of Corollary 1. In fact, for an observable system the scalar $\delta^{(m)}$ is always strictly positive (even if the finite sensitivity condition (11) does not hold), and consequently the stability condition (21) is always feasible. In other words, for any given $m > 0$ there always exist a threshold $p_{\max}^{(m)} > 0$ such that condition (21) holds for any choice of the design parameter p in the interval $[0, p_{\max}^{(m)})$.

We note that Theorem 3 actually yields a family of asymptotic upper bounds, one for each choice of m . In this connection, since by construction $\delta^{(m)}$ increases with m , it can be verified that $\xi_\infty(p, \delta^{(m)})$ decreases with m when the value of the design parameter p is fixed. Thus, provided that the behavior of $\delta^{(m)}$ as a function of m is known (either analytically or by numerical tabulation), the best upper bound in such a family can be obtained by choosing m as the unique solution of

$$m = \xi_\infty(p, \delta^{(m)}).$$

Notice that this strategy can be applied also when $\delta > 0$ in order to obtain less conservative upper bounds (this can be useful when the sensitivity $1/\delta$ of the observability map is finite but very large, i.e., the parameter δ is close to zero).

IV. ONE-STEP-AHEAD MOVING-HORIZON ESTIMATION

Even allowing for a certain error ε , the minimization involved in Algorithm 1 cannot be completed instantaneously. This would induce a delay in the estimation process that can be problematic in some applications. For example, when MHE is used in connection with a state feedback controller.

One approach for such a drawback consists in using parameterized functions (to be optimized off line) to approximate the estimation function obtained applying Algorithm 1. Such an approach was considered in [14] and, more recently, in [17]. Here a different approach is adopted.

First, in order to derive an approximate MHE algorithm providing an estimate of the continuous state almost in real time, let us suppose that the MH cost can be minimized with accuracy $\varepsilon = 0$ in less than one sampling interval. This simplifying assumption is adopted only for the sake of clarity; however, the strategy proposed hereafter ensures stability of the estimation error dynamics for a generic accuracy ε . Further, the case when the delay is greater than one sampling interval can be dealt with in a similar way by means of straightforward modifications.

Of course, this amounts to assuming that, at each time t , the most recent available estimates are the optimal estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t-1|t-1}^\circ$ that solve the optimization problem

$$\min_{\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t-1|t-1} \in \mathcal{X}^{N+1}} J^{(N)} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t-1|t-1}, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_{t-1}^{(N)} \right). \quad (22)$$

Then, one can exploit the following fact.

Proposition 1: Let the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t-1|t-1}^\circ$ be a solution of the optimization problem (22), and consider the one-step ahead optimal prediction

$$\hat{x}_{t|t-1}^\circ = f(\hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}^\circ, u_{t-1}).$$

Then, the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ are also a solution of the optimization problem

$$\min_{\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1} \in \mathcal{X}^{N+2}} J^{(N+1)} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)} \right) \quad (23)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)} &\triangleq \text{col}(u_{t-N-1,t-1}, y_{t-N-1,t-1}, \bar{y}_t), \\ \bar{y}_t &\triangleq h(\hat{x}_{t|t-1}^\circ). \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Given Proposition 1, one can exploit well-known results on the sensitivity of NLP problems with respect to variations in the problem data and update the currently available estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t-1|t-1}^\circ$ on the basis of the difference between the predicted measurement \bar{y}_t and the true one y_t .

To this end, suppose that the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ correspond to a strict *isolated* minimizer of (23) satisfying the so-called strong second-order sufficient conditions (SSOC) [25]. As is well known, when the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ do not lie at the boundary of the set \mathcal{X}^{N+2} , such conditions take the form

$$\frac{\partial J^{(N+1)}}{\partial \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)} \right) = 0, \quad (24)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 J^{(N+1)}}{(\partial \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1})^2} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)} \right) > 0. \quad (25)$$

For a detailed SSOC analysis in the context of MHE (also discussing the case wherein the optimal estimates lie at the boundary of \mathcal{X}^{N+2}), the interested reader is referred to Chapters 3 and 6 in [26].

The satisfaction of SSOC also has implications for the sensitivity of the solution to perturbations on the problem data around the reference solution $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$. To explore this, we use the following well-known result, adapted to our context.

Theorem 4: (NLP Sensitivity) [27], [28]. Suppose that the SSOC (24) and (25) hold at $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ for the cost $J^{(N+1)}(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)})$. Then the following hold:

- There exists a unique, continuous, and differentiable vector function $a^\circ(\cdot)$ such that
 - $a^\circ(\bar{y}_t) = \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$;
 - for any y_t in a neighborhood of \bar{y}_t , $a^\circ(y_t)$ is a strict isolated minimizer satisfying SSOC.
- The optimal cost is locally Lipschitz in a neighborhood of \bar{y}_t .

□

Given Theorem 4, one can construct a linear update formula of the form

$$\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u = \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ + K_t(y_t - \bar{y}_t) \quad (26)$$

by means of a first-order Taylor expansion of $a^\circ(\cdot)$ around \bar{y}_t . For instance, by exploiting the implicit function theorem, the gain K_t turns out to be

$$\begin{aligned} K_t &= \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 J^{(N+1)}}{(\partial \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1})^2} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)} \right) \right\}^{-1} \\ &\times \frac{\partial^2 J^{(N+1)}}{\partial \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1} \partial y_t} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Of course, such a first-order Taylor expansion provides a good approximation for the minimizer of $J^{(N+1)}(x_{t-N-1,t|t-1}, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)})$ only in a neighborhood of \bar{y}_t . Conversely, for large values of $y_t - \bar{y}_t$, the linear update formula (26) may lead even to a worse state estimate than the original one. In particular, if an active-set change occurs. However, while it is not possible to directly compare the two estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u$ and $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ being the true states $x_{t-N-1,t}$ unknown, it is still possible to make an indirect comparison by means of cost $J^{(N+1)}(\cdot)$. For instance, one can argue that $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u$ represents an improvement with respect to $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ only if

$$\begin{aligned} J^{(N+1)}(x_{t-N-1,t|t}^u, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)}) \\ \leq J^{(N+1)}(x_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ, \bar{x}_{t-N-1}, \bar{I}_t^{(N+1)}). \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

The foregoing discussion leads to the following one-step-ahead MHE algorithm.

Algorithm 2 (One-step ahead MHE). Given an a priori prediction \bar{x}_0 , at any time $t = N, N + 1, \dots$, do the following:

- 1) If $t = N$, then go to step 5;
else go to step 2.
- 2) If the SSOC (24) and (25) hold at $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$, then compute the updated estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u$ as in (26) and go to step 3;
else set $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u = \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ and go to step 4.
- 3) If inequality (27) holds, then set
 $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^+ = \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u$;
else set $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^+ = \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$.
- 4) Set

$$\bar{x}_{t-N} = \hat{x}_{t-N|t-1}^\circ. \quad (28)$$

- 5) Find a solution $\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}^\circ$ to the NLP problem

$$\min_{\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t} \in \mathcal{X}^{N+1}} J^{(N)} \left(\hat{x}_{t-N,t|t}, \bar{x}_{t-N}, I_t^{(N)} \right).$$

Remark 1: Here the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u$ are understood to belong to the set \mathcal{X}^{N+2} . If such is not the case, then one can either project $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^u$ onto \mathcal{X}^{N+2} (provided that this is computationally feasible) or consider that the test in step 3 automatically failed and set $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^+ = \hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$.

Remark 2: The main advantage of such an algorithm is that the estimation recursion is unaffected by the linear update formula. Further, thanks to the test concerning the cost improvement, it can be seen that stability of the estimation error $x_t - \hat{x}_{t|t}^+$ is ensured under the same assumptions of the ε -optimal MHE algorithm of Section II.

Remark 3: Notice that in step 4, the prediction is obtained from the estimates $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$ instead of from $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^+$. Of course, since $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t}^+$ are believed to be better estimates than $\hat{x}_{t-N-1,t|t-1}^\circ$, it would be natural to replace (28) with

$$\bar{x}_{t-N} = \hat{x}_{t-N|t-1}^+. \quad (29)$$

Even for such a modified algorithm, stability could still be ensured, but the details are not presented here because of to space constraints.

V. NUMERICAL CASE STUDY

In this section, we illustrate the effect of numerical errors on the performance of the MH estimators described in this paper. We consider a simulated MHE scenario on the nonlinear continuous stirred tank reactor studied by [29]:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx^{(1)}}{d\tau} &= \frac{x^{(1)}(\tau) - 1}{\theta} + k_0 x^{(1)}(\tau) \exp \left[\frac{-E_a}{x^{(2)}(\tau)} \right] + w^{(1)}(\tau) \\ \frac{dx^{(2)}}{d\tau} &= \frac{x^{(2)}(\tau) - x_f^{(2)}}{\theta} - k_0 x^{(1)}(\tau) \exp \left[\frac{-E_a}{x^{(2)}(\tau)} \right] \\ &+ \alpha u(\tau) (x^{(2)}(\tau) - x_{cw}^{(2)}) + w^{(2)}(\tau). \end{aligned}$$

The system involves two states $x = [x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}]$, corresponding to the concentration and temperature,

respectively; one control u corresponding to the cooling water flowrate; and two process noise sequences $w = [w^{(1)}, w^{(2)}]$. The continuous-time model is transformed into a discrete-time form through an implicit Euler discretization scheme. The temperature is used as the measured output ($y_t = x_t^{(2)}$) to infer the concentration $x_t^{(1)}$. The model parameters are $x_{cw}^{(2)} = 0.38$, $x_f^{(2)} = 0.395$, $E_a = 5$, $\alpha = 1.95 \times 10^4$, and $k_0 = 300$. We use batch data generated from a simulated closed-loop feedback control scenario with Gaussian process noise sequences with standard deviations $\sigma_{w^{(1)}} = 0.01$, $\sigma_{w^{(2)}} = 0.05$. The resulting temperatures are then corrupted with different levels of Gaussian noise with standard deviation $\sigma_y = 0.0125$ to simulate measurement noise. We use $\bar{x}_0 = [0.15, 0.15]$ as the a-priori prediction for the initial state x_0 and a regularization penalty $P = 30 \mathbb{I}_2$. The estimators are simulated over 250 time steps.

In the top graph of Figure 1 we compare the estimates obtained by Algorithm 1 and by the same algorithm where the second term in (3), weighting the ‘‘estimated system noises,’’ is omitted (denoted as ‘‘Algorithm 1 No Est’’). In the latter algorithm [13], only the state at the beginning of the observation window is estimated and corresponds to setting the estimated system noise to zero. An observation window $N = 3$ is used. As can be observed, the use of the term weighting the estimates of process disturbances improves the performance. This improvement is particularly noticeable at the beginning of the trajectory. In the bottom graph of the same figure we compare the performance of Algorithm 1 with that of Algorithm 2. Note that the performance of both algorithms is nearly identical despite the large levels of noise and the short observation window.

In Figure 2 we illustrate the performance of Algorithm 2 for increasing observation horizons. Here, we compare the mean sum of squared errors (SSE) with respect to Algorithm 1 of the state estimates $x_t^{(1)\varepsilon}$ generated with Algorithm 2 *with and without* considering the term weighting the estimated process noise in the cost (3). The mean SSE is defined as $\frac{1}{250} \sum_{t=1}^{250} (x_t^{(1)\varepsilon} - x_t^{(1)\circ})^2$. We can see that the performance of Algorithm 2 approaches that of the optimal Algorithm 1 when process noise is estimated. This is because of the fact that more accurate step-ahead predictions can be obtained when noise sequences are explicitly accounted. In turn, the sensitivity errors are reduced. Note also that the effect of noise is appreciable at short horizons but that this effect dies out quickly as the horizon is increased. In this study, $N = 3$ is sufficient to obtain close to optimal performance. We also observe that, as the horizon is increased, Algorithm 2 achieves close to optimal performance.

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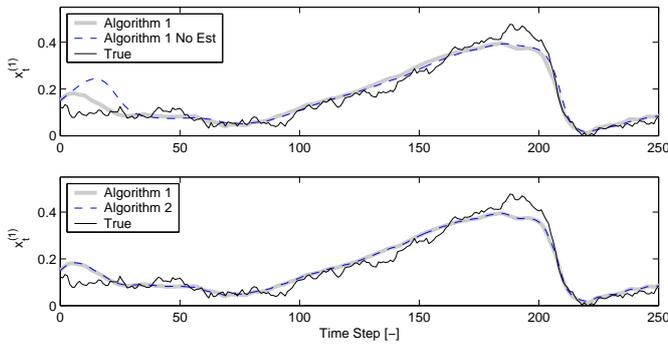


Fig. 1. Performance of Algorithm 1 with and without estimation of process noise disturbances (top). Performance of Algorithm 1 and 2 with estimation of process noise disturbances (bottom).

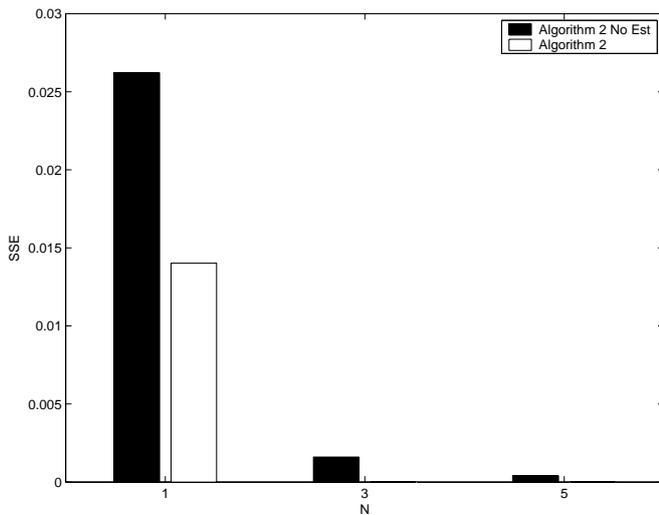


Fig. 2. Performance of Algorithm 2 as horizon is increased.

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