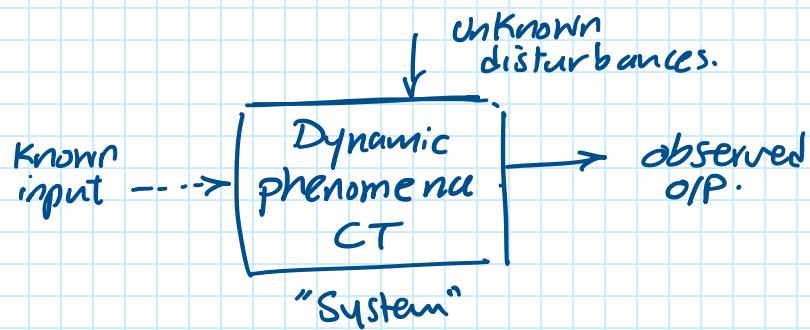


Parameter estimation for stochastic CT dynamical models



One framework of modelling continuous-time dynamical systems adapts SDEs.

To facilitate mathematical analysis, Itô calculus is usually used.

Itô SDEs:

$$\begin{aligned} dX(t) &= f(X(t), u(t); \theta) dt + \sigma(X(t); \theta) dW(t) \\ dY(t) &= g(X(t), u(t); \theta) dt + \lambda(X(t); \theta) dV(t) \end{aligned}$$

- $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ unknown parameter. $\subset \mathcal{H}$ compact
- W, V are Wiener processes.
- f, g, σ and λ are functions with appropriate dimensions that satisfy the required regularity condition for existence and uniqueness of solutions.
- X latent state, u known signal
 Y observed (measured) signal.

Possible setups

- $g = \text{identity function}, \lambda = 0$.

then $y = x$
and we observe the state directly.

- $q \neq \text{identity} \Rightarrow \text{partial observation.}$
- in many applications:
the measurement process is modelled in
discrete-time; i.e.

y is a discrete-time process

$$y(t_k) = q(x(t_k), u(t_k); \theta) + v_k$$

v_k is discrete-time white noise.

Alternatively:

$$y(t_k) \sim P(y(t_k) | x(t_k); \theta)$$

for some pdf P .

Experiment design

- An integral part of the estimation procedure.
- involves designing $u(t)$ (if any), and
choosing sampling times (if possible)
among other things.

Not discussed in this lecture!

Problem.

Given a parameterized SDE, and
a data set, the goal is to construct
an estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of θ .

Data set $\xrightarrow{} \hat{\theta} \in \mathbb{H}$

thus, we assume f , σ etc are fixed to some known form, and parameterized by θ .

ML based on continuous record likelihood

in the discrete-time case, the ML estimator is straightforward to define. The likelihood function based on a sequence y_1, \dots, y_N is interpreted as follows.

Given a value θ , the RVs y_1, \dots, y_N induces a measure P_Y on \mathbb{R}^N , which is absolutely continuous w.r.t the Lebesgue measure dY on \mathbb{R}^N , and the likelihood function is defined to be the corresponding Radon-Nikodym derivative. $\frac{dP_Y}{dY}(y; \theta)$ seen as a function of θ .

Extension to CT

Possible for models on the form.

$$dx(t) = f(x(t); \theta) dt + \sigma(x(t)) dW(t)$$

$$\gamma = x.$$

For simplicity, assume a scalar case.

$C = C[0, T]$ space of continuous functions
 $[0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Let P_Y be the measure induced by the observation process $X(t, \omega)$ on $0 \leq t \leq T$

A likelihood functional can be defined if

we find a fixed measure on \mathbb{C} such that P_Y is absolutely continuous w.r.t it.

This can always be done when σ is known.

$$L_T(\theta) = \exp \left(\int_0^T \frac{f(x(s); \theta)}{\sigma^2(x(s))} dx(s) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \frac{f^2(x(s); \theta)}{\sigma^2(x(s))} ds \right)$$

Motivation (Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process).

$$dx(t) = -\alpha x(t)dt + \sigma dW(t), \\ \alpha > 0 \text{ unknown}, \quad \sigma > 0 \text{ known.}$$

Euler-Maruyama: Δ Small

$$\text{Denote } x_t = X(t_k), \quad x_{t+\Delta} = X(t_{k+1}), \quad t_k = k\Delta$$

$$x_{t+\Delta} = (1 - \alpha \Delta) x_t + \sigma \sqrt{\Delta} z_k, \quad z_k \sim N(0, 1)$$

Take a reference process:

$$dx(t) = \sigma dW(t)$$

$$\text{then } x_{t+\Delta} = x_t + \sigma \sqrt{\Delta} z_k$$

$$P_1^\theta(X_{[0:T]}) = (2\pi \sigma^2 \Delta)^{-T/2} \exp \left[\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2 \Delta} \sum (x_{t+\Delta} - (1 - \alpha \Delta) x_t)^2 \right]$$

$$P_2^\theta(X_{[0:T]}) = (2\pi \sigma^2 \Delta)^{-T/2} \exp \left[\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2 \Delta} \sum (x_{t+\Delta} - x_t)^2 \right]$$

Define.

$$L_T(\alpha) = \frac{P_1^\theta}{P_2^\theta} = \exp \left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2 \Delta} \sum (x_{t+\Delta} - (1 - \alpha \Delta) x_t)^2 - (x_{t+\Delta} - x_t)^2 \right)$$

:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \exp \left(\underbrace{\frac{-\alpha}{\sigma^2} \sum_t x_t (x_{t+1} - x_t)}_{\rightarrow \frac{-\alpha}{\sigma^2} \int_0^T X(s) dX(s)} \right) \exp \left(\underbrace{\frac{-\alpha^2}{2\sigma^2} \sum_t x_t^2}_{\rightarrow -\frac{\alpha^2}{2\sigma^2} \int_0^{T_2} X(s)^2 ds} \right) \\
 &\quad \text{as } \Delta \rightarrow 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

ML estimator of α :

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\max_{\alpha} L_T(\alpha). \quad \text{Its integral.} \\
 \Rightarrow \hat{\alpha}_T &= \frac{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(s) dX(s)}{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T X(s)^2 ds}
 \end{aligned}$$

easy to show $\hat{\alpha}_T \rightarrow \text{true } \alpha$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$

In practice, a continuous record of $X(t)$ is not available & $\hat{\alpha}_T$ is not feasible.

Yet, with sufficiently small Δ , we may use discrete-data to approximate $\hat{\alpha}_T$ by approximating the likelihood function or directly its closed form, if available.

Remark on asymptotics.

- One is usually interested in consistent estimators.

Fixed Δ scheme: $\Delta_n = \Delta > 0$

fixed sampling time.

process is observed on $[0, T = N\Delta]$

- asymptotics in $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Variable Δ scheme $\Delta_N \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$

process is observed on $[0, T = N\Delta]$

Two alternatives

↳ $T = N\Delta$ is fixed

↳ $T = N\Delta \rightarrow \infty$

what to do if the continuous-record likelihood function isn't available?

Likelihood for discrete-data

Due to the Markov properties of

the solution of Itô SDEs, we can write the likelihood function for sampled data as.

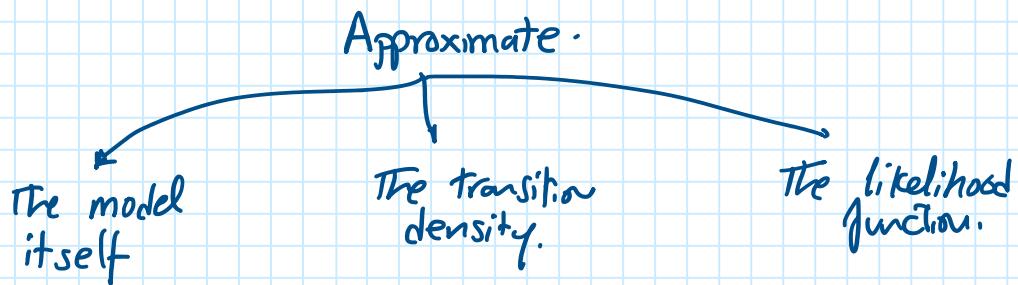
$$P(X(t_1), \dots, X(t_N)) = \prod_{n=0}^{N-1} P(X(t_{n+1})|X(t_n); \theta)$$

- we assumed time-homogeneous case to simplify notations.

- $P(X(t_{n+1})|X(t_n); \theta)$ is the transition density of the SDE.

→ Solutions of FPK equations.
usually not available analytically!

\Rightarrow unknown form for the likelihood.
and approximations have to be used.



The Euler approximation
and the like

rewrite the model as:

$$X_{t+1} = X_t + f(X_t; \theta) \Delta + \sigma(X_t; \theta) \sqrt{\Delta} \varepsilon_t$$

$$\varepsilon_t \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, 1)$$

then $X_{t+1} | X_t \sim N(X_t + f(X_t; \theta) \Delta, \sigma^2(X_t; \theta) \Delta)$
 \equiv transition density.

when Δ is small, this should give a good accuracy.

Generally, we will get a bias; called
discretization bias.

- instead of Euler-Maruyama, one can use Milstein's scheme or any other discretization of the model.

Simulated likelihood methods.

Suppose $M-1$ auxiliary points are introduced between $(n-1)\Delta$ and $n\Delta$

$$(n-1)\Delta \equiv T_0, T_1, \dots, T_{M-1}, T_M \equiv n\Delta$$

By Chapman-Kolmogorov equation, and the Markov property

$$P(X_t | X_{t-1}; \theta) = \int \dots \int_{m=1}^M P(X_{T_m} | X_{T_{m-1}}; \theta) dX_{T_1} \dots dX_{T_{M-1}}$$

The idea is to approximate $P(X_{T_m} | X_{T_{m-1}}; \theta)$ then evaluate the multi-dimensional integral using importance sampling.

When M is large enough, $P(X_{T_m} | X_{T_{m-1}}; \theta)$ can be approximated well using Euler discretization of the model.

So, a simple option is to draw $X_{T_1} \dots X_{T_{M-1}}$ via simulations from the Euler scheme.

(this ignores the end point X_{T_M} during sampling \rightarrow only forward simulation).

Same as before, one may use other model discretizations.

Many other methods are available for approximating transition densities / likelihood function.

For example, closed-form analytic approx.

Partially observed SDEs.

$$dX(t) = f(x(t), u(t); \theta) dt + \sigma(x(t), \theta) dW(t)$$

$$y_n \sim P(y_n | x(t_n); \theta).$$

Here, the problem is closely related to parameter estimation in discrete-time state-space models.

The common approach there is to work with an appropriate discretization of the state equation.

Then apply the Expectation-Maximization algorithm + Approximation of the posterior density of X . (Particle Smoother, or analytical approximation).

Input/output approaches.

When the state $x(t)$ is observed indirectly via $y(t)$, the parameter estimation problem becomes entangled with state smoothing if a likelihood based method is to be used.

Another alternative is to look at the problem using an input output approach.

In what follows, we will only consider the linear case. To simplify further, we limit the discussion to the LTI scenario.

$$\begin{cases} dX(t) = A(\theta)X(t) + B_u(\theta)u(t) + B_w(\theta)dW(t) \\ \bar{y}(t) = C(\theta)X(t) \end{cases}$$

with measurement noise in discrete-time.

i.e. the measured signal.

$$y(t_k) = \bar{y}(t_k) + v_k, \quad \begin{matrix} v_k \text{ iid} \\ \text{zero mean} \\ \text{var. } \sigma_v^2 \end{matrix}$$

We will consider two frameworks

1- Noise is modelled in discrete-time.

requires uniform (equidistance) sampling
 $\Delta_n = \Delta \neq n$

2- Noise in CT

can deal with irregular sampling.

Why an input-output approach is possible?

Regardless of the used model, the output process in continuous time (after removing the mean) has a rational spectrum.

$$\tilde{\Phi}_c(\omega) = \lambda \left| \frac{B(i\omega)}{A(i\omega)} \right|^2$$

$A(s)$, $B(s)$, $s \in \mathbb{C}$ are stable polynomials of orders n & m respectively.
 $n \geq m$.

$$A(s) = \prod_{i=1}^n (s - p_i) \quad P_i, z_i \in \text{LHP}(\mathbb{C})$$

$$B(s) = \prod_{i=1}^m (s - z_i)$$

Thus, we model the spectrum!

If $u(t) = 0$ and $B(s) = 1$, we get

CAR process, Continuous-time auto-regressive.

$$\text{correlation: } r(\tau) = \mathbb{E}[y(t+\tau) y(t)]$$

$$\phi_c(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} r(\tau) e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

$$r(\tau) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \cdot \int_{s=i\omega}^{\infty} \phi_c(s) e^{s\tau} ds$$

Then,

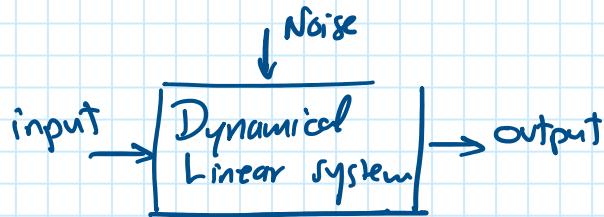
$$A(p) y(t) = B_e(p) e_e(t)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[e_e(t) e_e(s)] = \sigma_e^2 \delta(t-s)$$

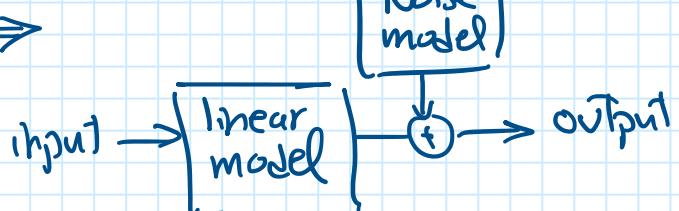
$$P = \frac{d}{dt}$$

State-space form. $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$
 $y(t) = Cx(t)$.

Noise model



Superposition:



We can discrete-time all parts of the model
or only the noise model.

A very common set up in engineering:

$$z(t) = G(P) u(t)$$

$$v_k = H(\bar{q}^k) e_k$$

$$y(t_k) = x(t_k) + v_k$$

CT dynamic model

e_k DT noise

\bar{q} shift operator
 $\bar{q}^k e_k = e_{k-1}$

So, we get

$$y(t_k) = G(P) u(t_k) + H(\bar{q}^k) v_k$$

where we informally mixed the operators here.

Note $dx(t) = A(\theta) x(t) dt + B_u(\theta) u(t) dt + B_w(\theta) dW(t)$

$$x(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)} x(t_0) + \underbrace{\int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-s)} B_u(s) ds}_{\text{due to } u} + \underbrace{\int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-s)} B_w(s) dW(s)}_{\tilde{w}(t) :=}$$

$$\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) = A(\theta) \tilde{x}(t) + B_u(\theta) u(t)$$

$$x(t) = \tilde{x}(t) + \underbrace{\tilde{w}(t)}_{\text{So we can always move the noise to the o/p.}}$$

So we can always move the noise to the o/p.

Issues in CT identification.

$$A(P) y(t) = B(P) u(t) + e_c(t).$$

Assume equidistance/uniform sampling.

At any time t_k , one can assume a model

$$y^{(n)}(t_k) = \varphi^T(t_k) \theta + v(t_k)$$

$$\varphi^T(t_k) = [-y^{(n-1)}(t_k) \dots -y(t_k) \ u^{(m)}(t_k) \dots u(t_k)]$$

$$\theta^T = [a_1 \dots a_n \ b_0 \dots b_m]$$

we used notation $y^{(k)}(t) = P^k y(t)$, $P = \frac{d}{dt}$
Similarly for $u^{(k)}(t)$.

Regressors contain input and output time derivatives. Not available in data!
what is more, they are not well defined.

the State-variable Filter SRF

This issue is solved by the so-called state-variable filter (SRF)

$$F(P) = \frac{1}{(P+\eta)^n}$$

η is a parameter controlling the B.W. of F .

Then,

$$A(P) F(p) y(t) = B(P) F(p) u(t) + F(p) v(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{P^n}{(P+\eta)^n} + a_1 \frac{P^{n-1}}{(P+\eta)^n} + \dots + a_n \frac{1}{(P+\eta)^n} \right) y(t) \\ &= \left(b_0 \frac{P^m}{(P+\eta)^n} + \dots + b_m \frac{1}{(P+\eta)^n} \right) u(t) \\ &+ F(p) v(t). \end{aligned}$$

Define $F_i(P) = \frac{P^i}{(P+\eta)^n}$, $i = 0, \dots, n$

Then define $\hat{y}_f^{(i)}(t) = F_i(P)y(t)$.
similarly for $\hat{u}_f^{(i)}(t)$

then,

$$\hat{y}(t_F) = \hat{\phi}_f^T(t_F)\theta + \hat{\delta}(t_F)$$

$$\hat{\phi}_f^T(t_F) = [-\hat{y}_f^{(n-1)}(t_F) \dots -\hat{y}_f^{(0)}(t_F) \hat{u}_f^{(n)}(t_F) \dots \hat{u}_f^{(0)}(t_F)]$$

$$\text{Then. } \hat{\theta}_{\text{LS-SVF}} = \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum \hat{\phi}_f(t_F) \hat{\phi}_f^T(t_F) \right]^{-1} \frac{1}{N} \sum \hat{\phi}_f^T(t_F) \hat{y}_f^{(n)}(t_F)$$

But then $\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS-SVF}}$ is not consistent,

Due to filtering, $\hat{\delta}(t_F)$ is not white
and correlated with the regressor
 $\hat{\phi}_f(t_F)$.

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS-SVF}} - \theta^* = \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum \hat{\phi}_f(t_F) \hat{\phi}_f^T(t_F) \right] \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum \hat{\phi}_f(t_F) \hat{\delta}(t_F) \right]^{-1} \rightarrow \beta \neq 0$$

Simplified refined instrumental variable method

To solve the consistency problem, we
may use an instrumental variable. This
means that we change the definition.

of the LS-SVF to

$$\hat{\theta} = \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum \hat{\varphi}_f(t_k) \hat{\varphi}_f^T(t_k) \right]^{-1} \frac{1}{N} \sum \hat{\varphi}_f^T(t_k) \hat{y}_f^{(n)}(t_k)$$

\uparrow
IV regressors

$$\hat{\varphi}_f(t_k) = [-\hat{y}_f^{(n-1)}(t_k) \dots -\hat{y}_f^{(0)}(t_k) \ u_f^{(n)}(t_k) \dots u_f^{(0)}(t_k)]$$

$$\hat{y}_f^{(i)}(t_k) = F_i(P) \frac{B(P, \hat{\theta}_{LS-SVF})}{A(P, \hat{\theta}_{LS-SVF})} u(t_k).$$

- This is called an instrumental variable!

Better choice for $F(P)$

if the true noise model $H(q; \theta) = 1$.

Then the optimal prediction errors.

$$\varepsilon(t_k) = y(t_k) - \frac{B(P)}{A(P)} u(t_k)$$

$$= A(P) \underbrace{\frac{1}{A(P)}}_{F(P)} y(t_k) - B(P) \underbrace{\frac{1}{A(P)} u(t_k)}_{F(P)}.$$

But this "optimal" filter is unknown.

Also, $\varepsilon(t_k)$ may not be white.

The following SRIVC algorithm is used:

- instead of $A(P)$ use $A(P; \theta_j)$ where θ_j is the estimate at hand.

- instead of $A(P)$ use $A(P; \theta_j)$ where θ_j is the estimate at hand.
- iterate until max no. of iterations reach or convergence criterion met.
- initialize with LS-SVF.

Estimating a Noise model in discrete-time

Assume, at hand, θ_j with the associated model

$$G_j(P) = \frac{B_j(P)}{A_j(P)}$$

. First, an estimate of the noise model $H_{j+1}(q) = \frac{C_{j+1}(q)}{D_{j+1}(q)}$ is obtained by fitting ARMA

model to $y(t_k) - G_j(P)u(t_k)$ using discrete-time methods.

After that, use $F_{j+1} = H_{j+1}^{-1}(q) \underbrace{\frac{1}{A_j(P)}}_{\substack{\text{discretized} \\ \text{using zero-order}}}$

where we used
informal notation
mixing P & q .

hold assumption!.

What we mean is that
 $1/A(P)$ will be discretized
first!

$$\frac{z-1}{z} \sum \left[\left(\frac{1}{s A_j(s)} \right)_{t=K_0} \right]$$

Identification of stochastic LTI models with CT noise model.

- Use exact discretization:

$$\begin{cases} dX(t) = A(\theta)X(t)dt + B_u(\theta)u(t)dt + B_w(\theta)dW(t) \\ y(t) = C(\theta)X(t) \end{cases}, \quad W \sim \text{Wiener process with incremental cov. } \sum dt$$

↓ discretization

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} X(t_{k+1}) = F_\theta(\Delta_k)X(t_k) + M_\theta(t_k) + v_\theta(t_k) \\ y(t_k) = C(\theta)X(t_k). \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Delta_k = t_{k+1} - t_k.$$

$$F_\theta(\Delta_k) = \exp(A(\theta)\Delta_k).$$

$$M_\theta(\Delta_k) = \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{\int_s^{t_{k+1}} A(\theta) ds} B(\theta) u(s) ds.$$

and $v_\theta(t_k)$ is Gaussian discrete-time white noise with covariance matrix.

$$\int_0^{\Delta_k} e^{\int_s^{t_{k+1}} A(\theta) ds} \Sigma e^{\int_s^{t_{k+1}} A(\theta) ds} ds.$$

Then, likelihood function can be computed using a KF. But this requires running a KF for each candidate θ within a numerical optimization algorithm.

Also, if Δ_k is small, we get numerical problems!

To see this, assume

$$\Delta_k = \Delta, \text{ then } F_0 = \exp(A(0)\Delta).$$

then when $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, all eigenvalues of F_0 converge to 0 !.

Alternatives?

input/output approaches with CT noise model!

Replace differentials by differences in a way that guarantee consistency.

We clarify the problems with examples:

Example

$$dy(t) = -ay(t) dt + b u(t) + \sigma dw(t), a > 0$$

$$\text{sol. } y(t) = e^{-a(t-t_0)} y(t_0) + \quad \text{ARX}$$

$$b \int_{t_0}^t e^{-a(t-s)} u(s) ds +$$

$$\sigma \int_{t_0}^t e^{-a(t-s)} dw(s) \quad \leftarrow \text{Ito integral.}$$

Assume zero initial conditions.

$$y(t) = \frac{b}{P+a} u(t) + \underbrace{\frac{\sigma}{P+a} e_c(t)}$$

Stationary with a spectral density ↓

spectral density

$$\phi_{y_e}(\omega) = \frac{\sigma^2}{|i\omega + \alpha|^2}$$

Approximations of P :

$$\delta_f = \frac{q-1}{\Delta}, \quad \delta_b = \frac{1-q^{-1}}{\Delta}$$

both are $O(\Delta)$ approximations.

Heuristic models. Assume $b=0$, estimate a

$$(P+a)y(t) = e_c(t)$$

$$\delta_b y(t) = -y(t) a_b + \varepsilon_i(t)$$

LS? $\hat{a}_b = -\frac{(y(t) - y(t-\Delta)) y(t)}{\Delta y^2(t)}$

asymptotically.

$$\hat{a}_b \rightarrow -\frac{\frac{1}{\Delta} E[(y(t) - y(t-\Delta)) y(t)]}{E[y^2(t)]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Delta} \left(-1 + \frac{r(\Delta)}{r(0)} \right)$$

r is the correlation function.

$$r(\tau) = E[y(t)y(t+\tau)]$$

satisfies
 $r(\tau) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2a} e^{-a|\tau|}$

thus, $\hat{a}_b \rightarrow \frac{1}{\Delta} \left(-1 + e^{-a\Delta} \right) = -a + O(\Delta)$

which is far from the truth even when $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ and $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Try δ_f :

$$\delta_f y(t) = -y(t) a_f + \varepsilon_i(t).$$

$$\hat{a}_f \rightarrow -\frac{\frac{1}{h} E[(y(t+h) - y(t)) y(t)]}{E[y^2(t)]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \left(1 - \frac{r(\Delta)}{r(0)} \right) = \frac{1}{\Delta} (1 - \bar{e}^{a\Delta})$$

$$= a + O(\Delta).$$

and we get accurate estimates for
 $N \rightarrow \infty$ & $\Delta \rightarrow 0$.

Try central difference:

$$\delta_c y(t) = \frac{1}{2h} (y(t+h) - y(t-h))$$

$$\hat{a}_c \rightarrow \frac{r(\Delta) - r(-\Delta)}{2\Delta r(0)} = 0$$

useless estimator!

Does δ_f always work? No!

Consider the process

$$P^2 y(t) + (a+b) P y(t) + ab y(t) = ab e_c(t)$$

$$\delta_f^2 y(t) + \hat{a}_1 \delta_f y(t) + \hat{a}_2 y(t) = \varepsilon(t).$$

then use LS.

$$\lim_{\substack{\Delta \rightarrow 0 \\ N \rightarrow \infty}} \hat{a}_1 = \frac{2}{3}(a+b) \quad \text{Wrong!}$$

$$\lim_{\substack{\Delta \rightarrow 0 \\ N \rightarrow \infty}} \hat{a}_2 = ab \quad \text{Correct!}$$

There are ways to correct this.
we give here one of these ways without going into details:

let D^k be an approximation of P^k
such that for a smooth function $f(t)$.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} D^k f(t) = P^k f(t) + O(\Delta), \quad k=0, \dots, n \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad = \frac{1}{\Delta^k} \sum_j \beta_{k,j} f(t+j\Delta). \end{array} \right.$$

This holds if.

$$\sum_j \beta_{k,j} j^\nu = \begin{cases} 0 & \nu = 0, \dots, k-1, \\ k!, & \nu = k \end{cases}$$

then, The LS estimator is consistent if

$$\sum_j \beta_{n-1,j} \sum_l \beta_{n,l} (|l-j|^{2n-1} - (l-j)^{2n-1}) = 0$$

this holds when $l > j$

i.e. All measurements used when forming $D^n y(t)$ are at least as recent as those used when forming $D^{n-1} y(t)$.

thus. a simple modification of S_p^2 above gives. $\xrightarrow{\text{all as recent}}$

$$D^2 y(t) = \frac{1}{\Delta^2} [y(t+3\Delta) - 2y(t+2\Delta) + \underline{\underline{y(t+\Delta)}}]$$

(here, $l = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $j = \{0, 1\}$).

because

$$D'y(t) = \delta_f = \frac{\underline{y(t+\Delta)} - y(t)}{\Delta}$$