

# Wave Excitation Force Estimation for a Multi-DoF WEC via a Cubature Kalman Filter: Improved Design and Results

Jiamin Zhu, Alexis Mériçaud, and Paolino Tona

**Abstract**—In this study, we propose a nonlinear multi-degree-of-freedom wave excitation force estimator for a CETO-like device, a submerged wave energy converter powered by three power take-off systems. Our approach combines the square-root cubature Kalman filter (SCKF), with a heuristic covariance adaptation method. This method is developed based on a numerical sensitivity analysis and is shown to be easily implementable and extendable. Only 3 hyper-parameters need to be tuned offline for a single sea state, and the resulting tuning achieves quite good estimation performance across a wide range of sea states.

**Index Terms**—Wave energy converters, wave excitation force estimation, Kalman filters, error covariance matrix adaptation heuristic.

## I. INTRODUCTION

MANY advanced control methods for power maximisation of wave energy converters (WECs) require online estimation of wave excitation forces. While most published studies address the estimation problem for WECs with one degree of freedom (DoF), the existing literature is relatively scarce for multi-DoF devices. Reference [1], which explores wave excitation force estimation and prediction for a spar-buoy WEC, is likely the earliest published study addressing the 3-DoF context. It introduces an extended Kalman filter approach that treats the wave excitation force as a combination of time-varying sinusoids. On average, simulation results demonstrate accurate estimation in the heave direction, but less satisfactory performance in the surge and pitch directions, with a significant deterioration for some of the considered sea states. In [2], a multi-DOF extension of the “simple-but-effective” controller is developed for a WaveSub-like device, a 4-PTO submerged WEC, while in [3] a model predictive control (MPC) approach is introduced for the same device. While the estimation results presented in [2] for the surge and heave directions appear perfect, no details regarding the dynamic observer are provided. Conversely, in [3], the authors mention utilizing a 3-DoF extension of the Kalman Filter approach proposed

in [4]. In the latter study, the plots indicate appreciable discrepancy between the estimated wave and the “true” excitation force in the surge and heave directions. However, no results are provided for the pitch direction, nor for off-axis loading scenarios that would induce excitation in other directions.

Undoubtedly, the design of a multi-DoF excitation force estimator presents various challenges. Indeed, the high dimension of the underlying dynamic system poses difficulties in both online implementation and estimator parameter-tuning. In addition, multi-DoF systems are associated with specific non-linear effects, stemming from the kinematic terms. Those effects may lead to a substantial performance deterioration, if the estimator relies on a linearized model to reduce computation time. Therefore, an efficient nonlinear estimator is desirable.

Among the various Kalman-like nonlinear filters, the extended Kalman filter (EKF) and the unscented Kalman filter (UKF) have emerged as the most commonly utilized approaches for estimator design. In both EKF and UKF, the state distribution is approximated by a Gaussian random variable. While in the EKF this distribution is propagated analytically through the (first-order) linearization of the nonlinear system, in the UKF, this distribution is approximated using a set of carefully chosen sample points (called sigma points) and is propagated through the true nonlinear system [5]. In [6], it has been pointed out that the simpler form of the UKF obtained by setting the nonzero scaling parameter (defining the nonzero center sigma point), corresponds to the Cubature Kalman Filter (CKF), which is derived directly from the cubature integration rules. The advantage of the CKF is that it does not have any free parameter to be tuned, if the process and the observation error covariances are known. The CKF appears to be numerically accurate and can be easily extended to high-dimensional problems. However, several operations in the CKF algorithm, such as matrix square-rooting and matrix inversion, can destroy the symmetry and the (semi-)positive definiteness of covariance matrices. Some nonlinear filtering problems can also be numerically ill-conditioned. A remedy to this problem is the square-root extension of the CKF, known as SCKF (square-root cubature Kalman filter), which preserves the desired properties of covariance matrices and increases numerical accuracy.

As for the wave excitation force estimation problem,

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a CKF wave excitation force estimator was proposed in [7], based on a linear state-space model. Regrettably, undesirable large estimation errors on yaw were observed for several scenarios, primarily attributed to model errors resulting from kinematics linearization. Furthermore, although the CKF (and SCKF) are known to be straightforward to apply, the tuning of covariance matrices of the process and observation model noises remains troublesome.

In this paper, to jointly address the challenges of parameter tuning and nonlinear estimation accuracy, we propose the more robust SCKF, in conjunction with a heuristic method to adjust the error covariance matrix. In our estimator, a nonlinear dynamic system of dimension 72 is used to predict the system dynamics at the cubature points, and to estimate the 6-dimensional excitation force. In addition, we show that careful scaling of system state can substantially reduce estimation errors on yaw. Furthermore, thanks to the parallelization capability and moderate computational complexity of the SCKF, online implementation becomes feasible by slightly increasing the sampling time step, albeit at the price of a minor performance degradation.

It is important to highlight that our heuristic covariance adaptation method, despite being founded on a numerical sensitivity analysis and requiring calibration of several hyper-parameters, holds practical significance. This is because it is easy to calibrate and seems to be easily extendable to other estimation problems. For our wave force estimator, according to the sensitivity analysis, only 3 hyper-parameters are to be tuned. Numerical results show that, these hyper-parameters do not need to be tuned based on simulations performed on a wide range of expected sea conditions: we only need to tune and fix them with respect to a single sea state.

This paper is organized as follows. In section (II), we recall the SCKF algorithm and present a brief stability analysis, with respect to the covariance matrices tuning parameters. In section III, we show how the SCKF is applied to our wave excitation force estimation problem. Finally, Section IV shows numerical results, and conclusions are drawn in Section V.

## II. SQUARE ROOT CUBATURE KALMAN FILTER

Assuming Gaussian conditional densities, the key to Bayesian filters is the computation of Gaussian weighted integrals, the integrands of which are the product of a nonlinear function with a Gaussian density. The main idea of the CKF is to approximate these integrals using the cubature integration rules, which are known to be numerically efficient. Compared to the CKF, the SRCKF introduces two additional techniques to improve numerical stability: the least-squares method for the Kalman gain and the matrix triangular factorizations or triangularizations for the covariance updates.

Consider the following process and observation models

$$x_k = f(x_{k-1}, u_{k-1}) + v_{k-1} \quad (1)$$

$$z_k = h(x_k) + w_k \quad (2)$$

where  $x_k \in \mathbf{R}^{n_x}$  and  $z_k \in \mathbf{R}^{n_z}$  represent the system state and measurement at time  $k$ ,  $f: \mathbf{R}^{n_x} \mapsto \mathbf{R}^{n_x}$  and  $h: \mathbf{R}^{n_x} \mapsto \mathbf{R}^{n_z}$  are some known functions,  $\{v_k\}$  and  $\{w_k\}$  are independent process and measurement Gaussian noise sequences with zero means and covariances  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$ , respectively.

### A. SCKF algorithm

In the following,  $Tria(\cdot)$  denotes a general triangularization algorithm (e.g., the QR decomposition) resulting in a lower triangular matrix. We summarize the square-root cubature Kalman filter (SCKF) algorithm as below.

**Setup.** Let  $m = 2n_x$ , and generate the cubature points

$$\xi_i = \begin{cases} \sqrt{n_x} \mathbf{e}_i, & i = 1, \dots, n_x \\ \sqrt{n_x} \mathbf{e}_{i-n_x}, & i = n_x + 1, \dots, 2n_x \end{cases}$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_i$  denotes the  $i$ th-column vector of the identity matrix  $I_{n_x}$ .

#### Time Update

- 1) Evaluate the cubature points for  $i = 1, \dots, m$

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,k-1|k-1} = S_{k-1|k-1} \xi_i + \hat{x}_{k-1|k-1}. \quad (3)$$

- 2) Evaluate the propagated cubature points for  $i = 1, \dots, m = 2n_x$

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,k|k-1}^* = f(\mathbf{X}_{i,k-1|k-1}, u_{k-1}). \quad (4)$$

- 3) Estimate the predicted state

$$\hat{x}_{k|k-1} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}_{i,k|k-1}^*. \quad (5)$$

- 4) Estimate the square-root factor of the predicted error covariance

$$S_{k|k-1} = \text{Tria} \left( [\mathcal{X}_{k|k-1}^* \quad S_{Q,k-1}] \right), \quad (6)$$

where  $S_{Q,k-1}$  denotes a square-root factor of  $Q_{k-1}$  such that  $Q_{k-1} = S_{Q,k-1} S_{Q,k-1}^T$  and the weighted, centered (prior mean is subtracted off) matrix

$$\mathcal{X}_{k|k-1}^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} [\mathbf{X}_{1,k|k-1}^* - \hat{x}_{k|k-1}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{m,k|k-1}^* - \hat{x}_{k|k-1}].$$

#### Measurement Update

- 1) Evaluate the cubature points for  $i = 1, \dots, m$

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,k|k-1} = S_{k|k-1} \xi_i + \hat{x}_{k|k-1}. \quad (7)$$

- 2) Evaluate the propagated cubature points  $i = 1, \dots, m$

$$\mathbf{Z}_{i,k|k-1} = h(\mathbf{X}_{i,k|k-1}). \quad (8)$$

- 3) Estimate the predicted measurement

$$\hat{z}_{k|k-1} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{Z}_{i,k|k-1}.$$

- 4) Estimate the cross-covariance matrix

$$P_{xz,k|k-1} = \mathcal{X}_{k|k-1} \mathcal{Z}_{k|k-1}^T, \quad (9)$$

with the weighted, centered matrices

$$\mathcal{X}_{k|k-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} [\mathbf{X}_{1,k|k-1} - \hat{x}_{k|k-1}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{m,k|k-1} - \hat{x}_{k|k-1}],$$

$$\mathcal{Z}_{k|k-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} [\mathbf{Z}_{1,k|k-1} - \hat{z}_{k|k-1}, \dots, \mathbf{Z}_{m,k|k-1} - \hat{z}_{k|k-1}].$$

- 5) Compute the matrices  $T_{11}$ ,  $T_{21}$ ,  $T_{22}$  using a triangularization algorithm

$$\begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & \mathbf{O} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \text{Tri} \begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{Z}_{k|k-1} & S_{R,k} \\ \mathcal{X}_{k|k-1} & \mathbf{O} \end{pmatrix} \quad (10)$$

where  $S_{R,k}$  denotes a square-root factor of  $R_k$  such that  $R_k = S_{R,k} S_{R,k}^T$ ,  $T_{11} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_z \times n_z}$  and  $T_{22} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_x \times n_x}$  are lower-triangular matrices, and  $T_{21} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_x \times n_z}$ .

- 6) Estimate the Kalman gain

$$W_k = T_{21} T_{11}^{-1}. \quad (11)$$

- 7) Estimate the updated state

$$\hat{x}_{k|k} = \hat{x}_{k|k-1} + W_k (z_k - \hat{z}_{k|k-1}). \quad (12)$$

- 8) Estimate the square-root factor of the corresponding error covariance

$$S_{k|k} = T_{22}.$$

For the full mathematical derivation of the SCKF, the interested reader is referred to papers [6], [8].

*Remark 1:* A usual choice for the matrices  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$  are the covariances for the noise terms in (1)-(2). However, these covariances are generally not known a-priori, and other options exist: in deterministic estimation problems without any noise, for instance, this particular choice is not applicable.

As a matter of fact, the choice of matrices  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$  can impact the stability and accuracy of the SCKF algorithm. In the next section, we provide a brief analysis that sheds light on how to design the matrix  $Q_k$ .

### B. Stability analysis of SCKF

We restrict the stability analysis to the linear observation model case

$$z_k = Cx_k + w_k,$$

since it is the case for our WEC force application - see Section III. Let us define the estimation error

$$e_{k+1} = x_{k+1} - \hat{x}_{k+1|k+1}, \quad (13)$$

the prediction error

$$e_{k+1|k} = x_{k+1} - \hat{x}_{k+1|k}, \quad (14)$$

and the innovation

$$\Delta z_{k+1|k} = z_{k+1} - \hat{z}_{k+1|k} = Ce_{k+1|k}. \quad (15)$$

The Kalman gain defined by (11) has been derived from its definition

$$W_{k+1} = P_{xz,k+1|k} P_{zz,k+1|k}^{-1},$$

with

$$P_{xz,k+1|k} = T_{21} T_{11}^T, \quad P_{zz,k+1|k} = T_{11} T_{11}^T. \quad (16)$$

(see details in [8]). In the linear measurement model case, we can rewrite the Kalman gain as

$$W_{k+1} = P_{k+1|k} C^T P_{zz,k+1|k}^{-1}.$$

Then, by definitions (13)-(14) and (12), we have

$$\begin{aligned} e_{k+1} &= e_{k+1|k} - W_{k+1} \Delta z_{k+1} \\ &= \left( I - P_{k+1|k} C^T P_{zz,k+1|k}^{-1} C \right) e_{k+1|k}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Expressing  $x_{k+1}$  and  $\hat{x}_{k+1|k}$  (5) as a Taylor series about  $\hat{x}_{k|k}$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= f(\hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k) + A_k e_k + \frac{1}{2} e_k^T \nabla^2 f((\hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k) e_k \\ &\quad + o(\|e_k\|^2) + v_k, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_{k+1|k} &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m f(S_{k|k} \xi_i + \hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k) \\ &= f(\hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k) + A_k \sum_{i=1}^m S_{k|k} \xi_i + \\ &\quad \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \xi_i^T S_{k|k}^T \nabla^2 f((\hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k) (S_{k|k} \xi_i) + o(\|S_{k|k} \xi_i\|^2) \end{aligned}$$

where  $A_k = \nabla f(\hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k)$ . In the linear process model case, i.e.,  $x_{k+1} = A_k x_k + v_k$ , one has simply  $e_{k+1|k} = A_k e_k + v_k$ . In the nonlinear model case, in order to take the higher order terms into account, we introduce, like in [9], a time-varying diagonal matrix  $\beta_k = \text{diag}(\beta_{1,k}, \dots, \beta_{n_x,k})$  such that

$$e_{k+1|k} = \beta_k A_k e_k + v_k.$$

Therefore, defining

$$\begin{aligned} D_k &:= I - P_{k+1|k} C^T P_{zz,k+1|k}^{-1} C, \\ \Phi(k+1, k) &:= D_k \beta_k A_k, \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

the evolution of the estimation error (17) becomes

$$e_{k+1} = \Phi(k+1, k) e_k + D_k v_k. \quad (19)$$

Define  $\Phi(k', k) = \Phi(k', k' - 1) \Phi(k' - 1, k' - 2) \dots \Phi(k + 1, k)$ . By definition, the distribution of  $D_k v(k)$  is normal, specified by the zero means and the second moment  $Q_e(k) := \mathbf{E}[(D_k v_k)(D_k v_k)^T] = D_k Q_k D_k^T$ . The initial state  $e(k_0)$  is also assumed normal with mean  $m_0$  and covariance matrix  $Q_{e,0}$ . The solution of this normal and linear stochastic difference equation is a normal stochastic process characterized by the mean value function  $m(k) = \mathbf{E}[e_k]$  given by the difference equation

$$m_{k+1} = \Phi(k+1, k) m_k, \quad (20)$$

with the initial condition  $m(k_0) = m_0$ , and the covariance function  $R_e(k', k) = \Phi(k', k) P_e(k) \Phi^T(k', k) + Q_e(k)$ ,  $k' \geq k$ , where  $P_e(k) := \mathbf{E}[e(k) e^T(k)]$  satisfies

$$P_e(k+1) = \Phi(k+1, k) P_e(k) \Phi^T(k+1, k) + Q_e(k), \quad (21)$$

with initial condition  $P(k_0) = Q_{e,0}$ . The SCKF stability analysis problem thus consists in evaluating the behavior of the system (20) and (21).

The stability analysis of the mean value function equation (20) can be done via standard analysis of time-varying linear systems, see e.g. [10]–[12]. A classical result is the following: the system (20) is asymptotically stable if and only if

- 1) for any  $k_0$ , there exists a bound  $M$  (which may depend on  $k_0$ ) such that  $\|\Phi(k, k_0)\| \leq M$ ;
- 2)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(k, k_0) = 0$ .

A sufficient (but conservative) condition to ensure the stability is simply to have the bound  $M \leq 1$  for all  $k$  large enough. If the inequality is strict, we can get asymptotic stability. Since we have

$$\|\Phi(k+1, k)\| \leq \|I - P_{k+1|k} C^T P_{zz,k+1|k}^{-1} C\| \|\beta_k\| \|A_k\|, \quad (22)$$

we may expect to choose suitable  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$  to make the eigenvalues of  $\|I - P_{k+1|k} C^T P_{zz,k+1|k}^{-1} C\|$  small enough.

We observe that a small value for  $R_k$  leads to a small value for  $P_{zz,k+1|k}$  (see (16) and (10)), and hence may lead to instability.

As for the matrix  $Q_k$ , the authors of [13], [14] proposed to select it with the heuristic

$$Q_k = (\rho \Delta z_{k|k-1}^T \Delta z_{k|k-1} + \delta) I, \quad (23)$$

where  $\rho$  and  $\delta$  are chosen large and small enough respectively. The idea is that when estimation error is large (resp. small),  $Q_k$  becomes large (resp. small) enough to improve stability (resp. accuracy). This heuristic has been motivated by the following observations :

- when the estimation error (innovation) is large, the values of  $\beta_k$  can be big and a small constant value for  $Q_k$  may lead to instability;
- a larger value for  $Q_k$  can increase the predicted error covariance  $P_{k+1|k}$  (see (6)) and thus improve stability, at a price of a decrease in estimation accuracy.

In the next section, we present how we apply the SCKF to the wave excitation force estimation problem, and propose a heuristic method to tune the matrix  $Q_k$ . It is worth noting that many previous articles in the literature propose to adapt only one of the matrices  $R_k$  and  $Q_k$ , see e.g. [13]–[15]. Indeed, a large  $Q_k$  and a small  $R_k$  (resp. a small  $Q_k$  and a large  $R_k$ ) indicate that we have more (resp. less) confidence on the observations than on the model. Therefore, it is generally sufficient to adjust only one of these matrices. In this paper, we will fix the matrix  $R_k$ , thus focusing solely on the tuning of  $Q_k$ .

### III. APPLICATION TO THE EXCITATION FORCE ESTIMATION

#### A. Description and model of WEC device

As in [7], our study considers a CETO 6-like WEC. The device involves a cylindrical buoy fully submerged below the free surface, floating several meters deep,

and connected to the seabed through three identical tether lines. The buoy undergoes motion in its six hydrodynamic degrees of freedom as a result of the wave excitation force. To harness this motion, each leg of the buoy is equipped with a power take-off (PTO) system, which converts the translational motion of the tethers into electrical energy. To counteract the static Archimedes force that would otherwise cause the device to ascend to the surface, each tether line is pre-tensioned. This pre-tensioning keeps the lines under tension most of the time, so that the PTOs can effectively exploit both directions of the reciprocating motion of the tethers.

The device and its main geometrical characteristics (with their notations) are shown in Figure 1.

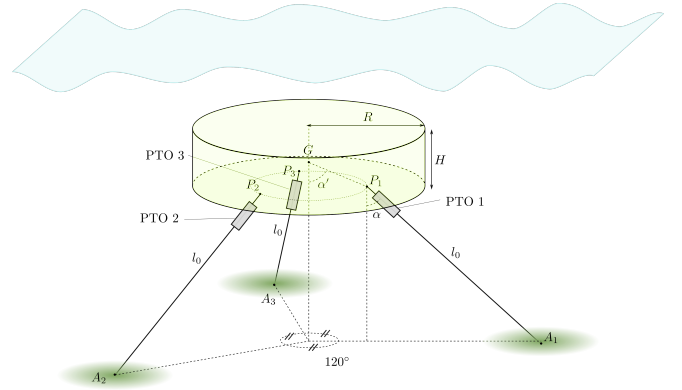


Fig. 1. The considered WEC device.

Let us denote the gravity center of the buoy as

$$\mathbf{x}_G = (x_G, y_G, z_G),$$

and the three rotations, corresponding to the Euler angles, as

$$\Theta = (\theta_x, \theta_y, \theta_z).$$

There are 6 degree of freedom: surge, sway, heave, roll, pitch, yaw. Under the small motion assumption, the dynamics of the CETO system can be described by

$$M_{tot} \ddot{\mathbf{X}} = f_{rad} + f_{visc} + f_{hydstat} + f_{tether} + f_e. \quad (24)$$

where  $\mathbf{X} := (\mathbf{x}_G, \Theta)$ ,  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$  and  $\ddot{\mathbf{X}}$  are, respectively, the generalized position, velocity and acceleration of the buoy.  $M_{tot}$  is a diagonal matrix including the buoy mass and inertia terms for each degree of freedom. The wave excitation force  $f_e$  in the 6 degrees of freedom is considered as an unknown exogenous input of the system. The other forces are defined in the following.

**Viscous forces.** The viscous damping force is given by

$$f_{visc}(\dot{\mathbf{X}}) = -\mathbf{C}_v \|\dot{\mathbf{X}}\| \dot{\mathbf{X}},$$

where  $\mathbf{C}_v = \frac{1}{2} C_d S_d$  is a diagonal matrix with  $C_d$  the matrix of the drag coefficients and  $S_d$  the cross-section areas of the buoy perpendicular to the direction of motion. A linearization of the viscous force leads to

$$f_{visc}(\dot{\mathbf{X}}) = B_v \dot{\mathbf{X}},$$

with  $B_v$  a constant matrix.

**Hydrostatic forces.** The hydrostatic force is expressed as

$$f_{hydrostat}(\mathbf{X}) = -K_{hs}\mathbf{X} + f_{hs,0},$$

where  $K_{hs}$  is a matrix provided by the WAMIT hydrodynamic modelling software, and  $f_{hs,0}$  is a constant vector.

**Tether forces.** Under the assumption of small rotation motion, the tether force  $f_{tether}$  can be given by

$$f_{tether}(\mathbf{X}, u) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \left( \begin{matrix} (T_0 + u_i)\mathbf{e}_i \\ (\mathbf{R}(\Theta)\mathbf{n}_{i0}) \times ((T_0 + u_i)\mathbf{e}_i) \end{matrix} \right),$$

$$\mathbf{e}_i = \frac{\overrightarrow{A_i G_0} + \mathbf{x}_G + \mathbf{R}(\Theta)\mathbf{n}_{i0}}{\|\overrightarrow{A_i G_0} + \mathbf{x}_G + \mathbf{R}(\Theta)\mathbf{n}_{i0}\|}.$$

Here,  $T_0$  is a pretension term,  $\mathbf{R}(\Theta)$  is the rotation matrix, and  $u = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$  is the vector of PTO forces exerted along each tether, i.e. the control input of the system. Note that  $\mathbf{e}_i$  is the orientation of the tether  $i$ , the length of which is  $l_i = \|\overrightarrow{A_i G_0} + \mathbf{x}_G + \mathbf{R}(\Theta)\mathbf{n}_{i0}\|$ .

The tether force can be linearized under the assumption of small disturbances  $f_e$  and control inputs  $u_i$ . The linearized tether force can be written as

$$f_{tether}(\mathbf{X}, u) = B_u u,$$

where the matrix  $B_u$  projects control forces to the buoy centre of gravity. Note that the length  $l_i$  and the length time-derivative  $\dot{l}_i$  of each tether can then be related to the buoy position and velocity through a matrix  $C_{l,i}$ , i.e.  $l_i = l_0 + C_{l,i}\mathbf{X}$ ,  $\dot{l}_i = C_{l,i}\dot{\mathbf{X}}$ .

**Radiation forces.** The radiation force  $f_{rad}$  is given by

$$f_{rad}(\dot{\mathbf{X}}, \ddot{\mathbf{X}}) = -A_\infty \ddot{\mathbf{X}} - K_{rad}(t) * \dot{\mathbf{X}}(t), \quad (25)$$

where  $A_\infty$  is the added mass at infinite frequency, and  $K_{rad}(t)$  is the radiation kernel response, obtained from a boundary element method (BEM) hydrodynamic database for the buoy. For control design and implementation, as well as for efficient time-domain simulations, the convolution integral term can be advantageously replaced by a state-space approximation [16]:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{X}}_r = A_r \mathbf{X}_r + B_r \dot{\mathbf{X}} \\ K_{rad}(t) * \dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = C_r \mathbf{X}_r. \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

This approximation can be obtained by identifying a state-space model from BEM-computed frequency-domain data, namely the radiation kernel frequency response  $\hat{K}_{rad}$ :

$$\hat{K}_{rad} = B_{rad}(\omega) + j\omega(A_{rad}(\omega) - A_\infty) \quad (27)$$

Following the same approximation procedure described in [7], the resulting full state space radiation model (26) has an order of 54.

Further details on the modelling approach can be found in [17], where a similar approach is presented for a generic three-tether, fully-submersed point absorber.

## B. State process and observation models

In order to apply the SCKF, we need to build process and observation models of the form (1)-(2). The main idea of the Kalman filter-based approach is to consider the wave excitation force  $f_e$  as a state. For the sake of simplicity [4], a random walk model is used to represent this additional state

$$f_e(k+1) = f_e(k) + v_e(k), \quad (28)$$

where  $v_e(k)$  describes the variation of  $f_e(k)$  and is considered as a random number. This model assumes that, at each sampling time, the wave excitation force takes a random step away from its previous value, and the steps are independently and identically distributed in size.

Let us define the state of the estimation system as

$$x := (\mathbf{X}, \dot{\mathbf{X}}, \mathbf{X}_r, f_e). \quad (29)$$

Then, we can derive a discrete-time state-space model of the general form as

$$\dot{x}_{k+1} = f(x_k, u_k) + v_k := f_0(x_k) + \sum_{i=1}^3 g(x_k)u_k + v_k. \quad (30)$$

Note that this model can be linear if we consider linearized viscous and tether forces, i.e.

$$f(x_k, u_k) = A_0 x_k + B_0 u_k,$$

where the matrix  $A_0$  is given by

$$A_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0}_{6 \times 6} & I_6 & \mathbf{0}_{6 \times 36} \\ -M_{inv}(K_p + K_H) & -M_{inv}B_v & -M_{inv}C_r \\ \mathbf{0}_{36 \times 6} & B_r & A_r \end{pmatrix},$$

with  $M_{inv} = (M_{tot} + A_{inf})^{-1}$ , and the matrix  $B_0$  is given by

$$B_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0}_{6 \times 6} \\ M_{inv}B_u \\ \mathbf{0}_{36 \times 6} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here and in the following, we use  $I_n$  to denote an identity matrix of dimension  $n \times n$ .

A controllability analysis on the linearized system was reported in [18] for a very similar WEC device, via the computation of a frequency-based relative gain array (RGA), which shows that (at the nominal position of the buoy  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}_{6 \times 1}$ ) the pitch  $\theta_x$  and roll  $\theta_y$  motions are less controllable than the surge  $x_g$ , sway  $y_G$  and heave  $z_G$  motions. We will see in the numerical results section that the estimates of wave force over pitch and roll motions are less accurate. The poor controllability over these motion directions may be one reason.

For simplicity, we suppose that the covariance matrix  $Q_k$  takes the form of

$$Q_k = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & Q_{k,22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (31)$$

with  $Q_{k,22} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_z \times n_z}$  being a positive definite diagonal matrix.

The observations of the system are supposed to be the generalized position  $\mathbf{X}$  and speed  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$  of the buoy. Therefore, the observation model is simply

$$z_k = Cx_k + w_k, \quad (32)$$

where  $w_k$  are measurement noises. The matrix  $C$  takes the form

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} I_{n_z} & \mathbf{0}_{n_z \times (n_x - n_z)} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (33)$$

Now that we have the process model (30) and the observation model (32), we can apply the SCKF. Unfortunately, direct application of the SCKF fails because of the convergence problems due to the huge differences in the magnitudes of state components : while  $f_e$  is of order  $1 \times 10^6 - 1 \times 10^7$ , the other components are of order 1 or less. We propose in the next section a remedy to this problem: introducing a state scaling factor to bring all components back to similar magnitudes.

### C. State scaling

Instead of using directly  $f_e$  in the state (29), we replace it with a scaled state  $x_e$  which satisfies

$$x_e = s_e f_e,$$

where  $s_e \in \mathbf{R}^6 = (s_{e,1}, \dots, s_{e,6})$  with  $s_{e,i} > 0$  small enough. Obviously, by choosing a suitable scaling factor  $s_e$ , we can get similar magnitudes for all components of the state.

In the following, we show an additional advantage of introducing this scaling factor. Considering the process model (30), due to the random walk model (28), we have

$$A_k = \nabla f(\hat{x}_{k|k}, u_k) = \begin{pmatrix} A_{k,11} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & I_{n_e} \end{pmatrix}$$

with  $n_e = 6$  the dimension of the wave excitation force, and  $v_k = (\mathbf{0}_{(n_x - n_z) \times 1}, v_e(k))$ . Let us decompose matrix  $P_{k+1|k}$  as

$$P_{k+1|k} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $P_{11} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_z \times n_z}$  and the other matrices are of suitable dimensions. Taking into account the form of matrix  $C$  (33), the transition matrix (18) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(k+1, k) &= \left( I - P_{k+1|k} C^T P_{zz, k+1|k}^{-1} C \right) \beta_k A_k \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} * & * & \mathbf{0} \\ * & * & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & I_{n_e} \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

with  $*$  some non-zero matrices. The identity  $I_{n_e}$  at the right bottom of the transition matrix  $\Phi(k+1, k)$  confirms our intuition: the random walk model (28) produces bounded wave force estimates but preserves as well the estimation error.

Keeping this in mind, we can see that the scaling factor  $s_e$  indirectly reduces the process noise. Indeed, rewriting (28) with the scaled state, we have

$$x_e(k+1) = x_e(k) + s_e v_e(k), \quad (35)$$

and hence the state noise  $v_k$  in the process model (30) becomes  $v_k = (\mathbf{0}_{(n_x - n_z) \times 1}, s_e v_e(k))$ , which is much smaller.

*Remark 2:* By setting an appropriate state scaling factor  $s_e$ , the undesirable large estimation errors on the yaw direction (reported in [7]) can be avoided.

In the next section, we propose a heuristic method to adjust the matrix  $Q_k$ , which is later shown to be efficient by numerical experiments.

### D. Choice of $Q_k$

In order to avoid divergence or performance degradation of standard SCKF due to the inadequate prior knowledge on model noise statistics, the matrices  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$  should be chosen to ensure stability of the algorithm while trying to decrease estimation errors.

Since the covariance matching techniques are among the most popular methods to achieve this, we give here a brief recall. The covariance matrix of the measurement noise can be estimated from (see e.g. [19])

$$\hat{R}_k = \mathbf{E}[\Delta z_k \Delta_k^T] - C P_{k|k-1} C^T, \quad (36)$$

where  $\Delta \bar{z} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \Delta z_{k-j}$  and

$$\mathbf{E}[\Delta z_k \Delta_k^T] = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^N (\Delta z_{k-j} - \Delta \bar{z})(\Delta z_{k-j} - \Delta \bar{z})^T$$

can be estimated with a limited number of innovation samples with an estimation window  $N$ . A similar estimation exists also for the covariance matrix  $Q_k$  if the system is completely observable

$$C \hat{Q}_k C^T = \mathbf{E}[\Delta z_k \Delta_k^T] + \mathbf{E}[r_k r_k^T] - C(P_{k|k} + P_{k|k-1}) C^T, \quad (37)$$

where  $r_k = z_k - C x_{k|k}$ .

Unfortunately, these commonly used covariance estimation approaches are not applicable in our case. Indeed, we observe from numerical experiments that (36) gives rise to negative definite  $R_k$ , and (37) gives no information about how we should adjust the  $Q_k$  defined by (31). Keeping in mind that the choice of  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$  can be other than the real covariance matrices, we propose to design our  $Q_k$  with a heuristic method.

As mentioned in Section II, it is in general sufficient to adjust only one of the matrices  $R_k$  and  $Q_k$ , so we will fix the matrix  $R_k$  in this paper. As for  $Q_k$ , inspired by (23), we adjust it according to the following heuristic method:

- 1) Perform a numerical sensitivity analysis by modifying each non-zero component of  $Q_k$  and observing its influence on the innovation  $\Delta z_{k+1|k}$ .
- 2) Adjust  $Q_k$  according to the sensitivity analysis results, in a component-wise manner.

In this heuristic method, the normalized mean square error goodness-of-fit (GoF) is used to quantify the sensitivity analysis results. The GoF is given by the expression

$$GoF = 1 - NMSE = 1 - \frac{\|s(t) - \bar{s}(t)\|_2}{\|s(t) - \bar{s}(t)\|_2}, \quad (38)$$

where  $s(t)$  is the time domain reference signal (the "true" wave excitation force  $f_e$ , fed to the plant model), the bar notation denotes the mean value,  $\bar{s}(t)$  is the estimated signal, and the notation  $\|\cdot\|_2$  represents the L2-norm of a vector [20]. GoF = 1 (or 100%, when expressed in percentage) would denote perfect estimation of the reference wave excitation force component.

Let us present an example. According to the sensitivity analysis, increasing the third diagonal component of  $Q_{k,22}(3,3)$  leads to an increase of the GoF of the

9th component of the innovation. Then, we can adjust the corresponding component of  $Q_{k,22}$  by

$$Q_{k,22}(3, 3) = c_{q,3,3} \cdot \text{GoF}_{innov}^k(9), \quad (39)$$

where  $c_{q,3,3}$  a tuning hyper-parameter, and  $\text{GoF}_{innov}^k$  denotes the GoF of the innovation computed at step  $k$ . The matrix  $Q_k$  is adaptively adjusted during the estimation: every  $N_q$  estimator steps, we compute  $\text{GoF}_{innov}^k$  using the last  $N_q$  gathered innovations, and then update the corresponding components of the  $Q_k$  matrix. Here we use a window of size  $N_q$  to alleviate the computational burden associated to  $\text{GoF}_{innov}^k$ .

Note that the hyper-parameters should be carefully chosen, as too large values may yield accurate estimates under ideal conditions (without measurement noises), and yet lead to significant inaccuracies in the presence of measurement noises. We will see a numerical example in the next section.

To sum up, for our SCKF estimator, according to the sensitivity analysis, we need to choose only 3 hyper-parameters: one for the third, the fourth, and the fifth diagonal component of  $Q_{k,22}$ , respectively. We tune and fix these hyper-parameters based on simulations performed on a single sea state in the presence of observation noises. For all the other test sea states, we use the same hyper-parameters and let the algorithm adjust the matrix  $Q_k$  every  $N_q$  estimator steps. Numerical results will show the efficiency of this procedure.

#### IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

##### A. Implementation and numerical setting

Recall that the dimension of the state  $x$  is  $n_x = 72$  (6 for  $\mathbf{X}$ , 6 for  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$ , and 54 for  $\mathbf{X}_r$ ) and the dimension of the observation  $z$  is  $n_z = 12$  (6 for  $\mathbf{X}$ , 6 for  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$ ). The dimensions being quite high, the real-time implementation of the SCKF with the nonlinear process model becomes less straightforward. Fortunately, steps (3), (4), (7), (8) in the SCKF can be parallelized. The parallelization of the evaluation on the  $2n_x$  cubature points, especially on the propagated cubature points (4), makes the algorithm much more efficient.

In addition, we distinguish the SCKF time step from the system simulation time step: we apply the time update and measurement update of the SCKF every  $N_{step} \geq 1$  of the system simulation time. In general, this comes at a price: the greater  $N_{step}$ , the less accurate the estimator. Therefore,  $N_{step}$  should be chosen large enough, while still ensuring acceptable performance.

In our experiments, the measurements  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$  are obtained by simulating the full model (24), with an artificially generated wave signal and a spring-damper feedback control law

$$u_i = -k_{l,i}l_i - k_{ldot,i}\dot{l}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, 3,$$

where coefficients  $k_{l,i}$  and  $k_{ldot,i}$  are tuned by grid search to maximize the mean energy production. Measurement noises with normal distributions are then added to simulated data. More precisely, we add to each measurement component a noise  $w_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu\sigma_i, 1)$ , where  $\mu > 0$  is the chosen noise level and  $\sigma_i$  is the variance of the  $i$ -th component data.

In the following, we will simulate the WEC behavior under the action of realistic short-crested irregular waves, obtained using a  $\cos - 2s$  directional spreading function around the main wave direction  $\theta_0$

$$D(\theta) = \cos\left(\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_0)\right)^{2s}. \quad (40)$$

Moreover, for all numerical tests presented hereafter, we set  $N_{step} = 5$  and the state scaling factor  $s_e = (1 \times 10^6, \dots, 1 \times 10^6, 1)$ .

##### B. A case study

In this section, we present in details results of a case study. A first comparison will show that our heuristic method to adapt the matrix  $Q_k$  dramatically improves the quality of wave excitation force estimation, and a second comparison will give a hint on the tuning of the heuristic parameters.

We consider the case with noise level  $\mu = 0.1$  and an irregular wave signal having characteristics  $T_p = 14$  s (peak wave period),  $H_s = 3$  m (significant wave height),  $\theta_0 = 60^\circ$  (mean direction) and  $s = 5$  (spreading coefficient).

In Table I, the GoF of the observations  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$  are given for the test with both constant and adaptive matrices  $Q_k$ . We can see that the heuristic proposed in section III-D significantly improves the GoF of the 4-th component of  $\mathbf{X}$  and the 4-th and the 5-th components of  $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$ . These improvements lead to a significant accuracy increase of  $f_e$  estimates over the roll and the pitch motions, as shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3.

Constant $Q_k$ and $R_k$						
GoF of $\mathbf{X}$	99.96	99.97	99.97	96.62	98.98	99.21
GoF of $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$	99.73	99.75	98.33	63.37	85.73	99.34
GoF of $f_e$	85.39	84.52	93.78	-38.16	-35.06	-
Adaptive $Q_k$ and $R_k$						
GoF of $\mathbf{X}$	99.96	99.97	99.97	99.98	99.97	99.07
GoF of $\dot{\mathbf{X}}$	99.73	99.74	99.53	99.61	99.73	99.19
GoF of $f_e$	90.28	90.76	92.95	89.70	87.94	-

TABLE I  
GoF (IN %) OF THE MEASUREMENTS AND THE WAVE MOMENT ESTIMATES. NOISE LEVEL  $\mu = 0.1$ .

In Table II, the GoF of the  $f_e$  estimates without noise ( $\mu = 0$ ) and with noise level  $\mu = 0.05$  are given. We can see that the measurement noises degrade a bit the estimation accuracy, which however remains acceptable.

	Surge	Sway	Heave	Roll	Pitch
$\mu = 0$	97.06	96.50	98.52	92.67	91.36
$\mu = 0.05$	95.41	95.10	97.97	91.86	91.41

TABLE II  
GoF (IN %) OF WAVE MOMENT ESTIMATES.

Now we deal with the same wave signal, but set all components of  $Q_k$  to be 10 times larger than those of the previous test. In Table III, the GoF of the wave force estimates are given for different noise levels. Compared to Table II, we can see that, when there is no measurement noise ( $\mu = 0$ ), the GoF of the wave estimates with larger  $Q_k$  is higher. However, the larger  $Q_k$  leads to serious degradation in the cases with measurement



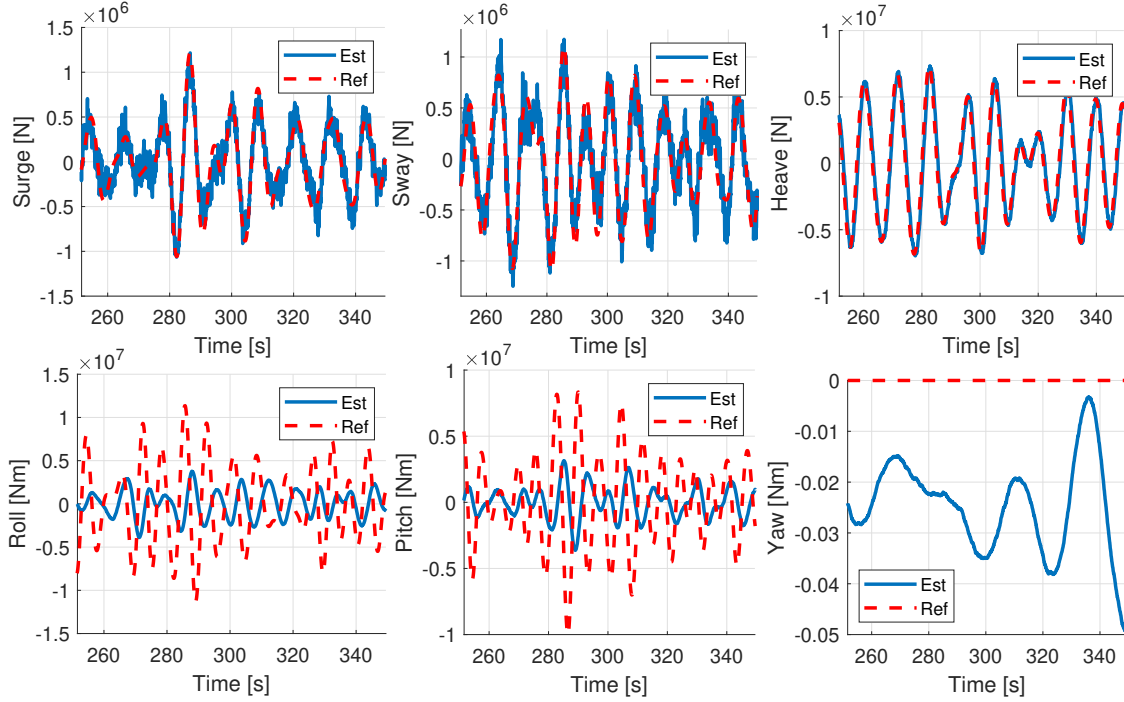


Fig. 2. Comparison of  $f_e$  and its estimate. Wave signal characteristics:  $T_p = 12$  s,  $H_s = 3$  m,  $\theta_0 = 60^\circ$ ,  $s = 5$ . Noise level  $\mu = 0.1$ .

noises, especially over heave, roll, and pitch motions. An intuitive explication for this phenomenon is that when the measurement is quite noisy, one needs to place less reliance on the measurement and instead place greater trust in the process model (by setting  $Q_k$  smaller).

	Suege	Sway	Heave	Roll	Pitch
$\mu = 0$	97.37	96.76	99.17	99.72	99.35
$\mu = 0.05$	95.52	95.27	64.13	-127.41	-407.23
$\mu = 0.1$	89.91	90.64	-42.88	-893.61	-2245.11

TABLE III

GoF (IN %) OF WAVE MOMENT ESTIMATES : OBTAINED WITH LARGER VALUES OF  $Q_k$  COMPONENTS.

In the next section, we apply the SCKF with the tuned heuristic method to a set of irregular wave signals, and show that the proposed method give acceptable estimation results for all the tested signals.

### C. Additional results

To evaluate the estimator performance, in addition to the GoF, we consider also the mean lag (or delay) between the real signal and the estimated one. The mean lag is estimated via cross-correlation, using the Matlab function `finddelay`. The mean lag should not be larger than the sampling time that will be used for control.

A set of short-crested irregular wave signals are generated (all with a spreading coefficient  $s = 5$ ). Those sea states represent a wide variety of scenarios, both in terms of the main wave direction, which excites predominantly different modes of motion, and in terms of wave steepness, which enhance the non-linear dynamics.

Estimation results with different noise levels under these irregular wave signals are summarized in Table IV-VI. We can see that the wave estimator works well: results show higher GoF in surge, sway, and heave axes, with a small degradation in roll and pitch axes. The GoF decreases with larger measurement noises, but remains acceptable.

As for the mean lag, any value not larger than the sampling time of the control system using the wave excitation force estimates, should be considered acceptable. Following the lines of [7], 0.5 s should be a reasonable value for the 25 m-diameter buoy considered in this work. In our experiments, the system integration time step was set to 0.01 s and the SCKF updates time step was 0.05 s (with  $N_{step} = 5$ ). We can see from Table IV-VI that the estimator gives good enough mean lags.

*Remark 3:* Several parameters of our heuristic method need to be tuned, such as the parameter  $c_{q,3,3}$  in (39). However, it is worth noting that the tuning procedure has proven to be quite simple: we have conducted the sensitivity analysis and tuned the parameters with the case study of section IV-B with noise level  $\mu = 0.1$ . The resulting parameters turned out to be good enough to obtain acceptable estimator performance for all the tests of this section.

## V. CONCLUSION

In a multi-DoF context, this paper has introduced a readily adjustable SCKF framework for estimating the wave excitation force acting on a submerged WEC. The estimator has been designed based on a nonlinear state-space system of order 66 of a CETO 6 - like device, and tested with a set of multi-directional (short-crested)



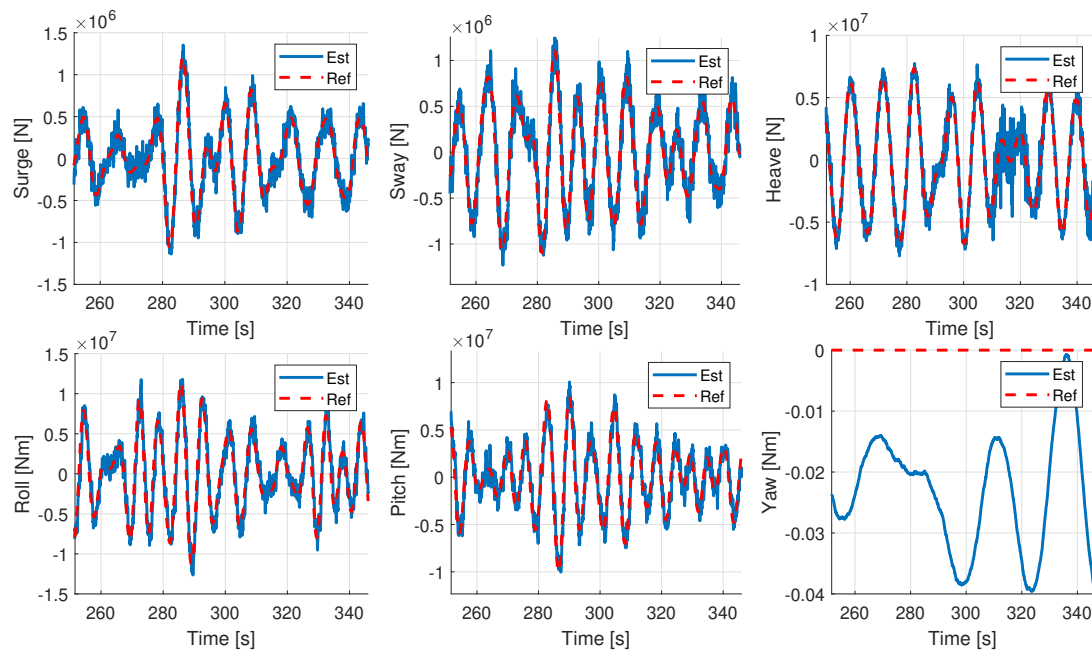


Fig. 3. Comparison of  $f_e$  and its estimate: with  $Q_k$  and  $R_k$  adjustments. Wave signal characteristics:  $T_p = 12$  s,  $H_s = 3$  m,  $\theta_0 = 60^\circ$ ,  $s = 5$ . Noise level  $\mu = 0.1$ .

irregular wave signals. With a careful state scaling and a heuristic method to adapt the process noise covariance matrix  $Q_k$ , we have obtained consistently good estimation results in all motion directions, despite the presence of measurement (observation) noises.

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	Surge		Sway		Heave		Roll		Pitch	
	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	95.84	0.25	96.00	0.20	98.11	0.15	90.39	0.30	90.48	0.30
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	94.85	0.25	95.24	0.25	98.05	0.15	91.16	0.30	90.94	0.30
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	95.25	0.25	94.82	0.25	98.21	0.15	91.34	0.30	90.50	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	95.88	0.25	96.10	0.25	98.56	0.15	93.58	0.25	91.55	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	95.90	0.25	95.98	0.25	98.64	0.15	93.05	0.30	91.61	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	96.01	0.25	95.76	0.25	98.68	0.15	92.84	0.30	91.88	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	96.68	0.25	97.22	0.25	98.44	0.15	95.96	0.20	91.71	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	96.83	0.25	96.79	0.25	98.08	0.20	93.59	0.25	91.25	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	97.06	0.25	96.50	0.25	98.52	0.15	92.67	0.30	91.36	0.30
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	97.18	0.25	96.06	0.25	98.73	0.15	87.08	0.25	92.49	0.25
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	97.14	0.25	95.93	0.25	98.67	0.15	89.23	0.30	90.97	0.30
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	96.92	0.25	96.68	0.25	98.60	0.15	91.80	0.30	88.59	0.30

TABLE IV  
NOISE LEVEL  $\mu = 0$ : NMSE-GoF (IN %) AND MEAN LAGS (IN S) OF WAVE MOMENT ESTIMATES

	Surge		Sway		Heave		Roll		Pitch	
	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	94.10	0.25	95.00	0.20	98.00	0.15	90.31	0.30	90.42	0.30
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	94.12	0.25	94.38	0.25	97.93	0.15	91.00	0.30	90.56	0.30
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	94.27	0.25	94.01	0.25	98.04	0.15	91.15	0.30	90.67	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	95.50	0.25	95.70	0.25	98.39	0.15	93.31	0.25	91.41	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	95.51	0.25	95.56	0.25	98.62	0.15	92.79	0.30	91.57	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	95.62	0.25	95.40	0.25	98.61	0.15	92.76	0.30	91.91	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	95.54	0.25	95.81	0.25	98.02	0.15	93.36	0.20	91.65	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	95.21	0.25	95.78	0.25	97.68	0.15	92.50	0.25	90.74	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	95.41	0.25	95.10	0.25	97.97	0.15	91.85	0.30	91.41	0.30
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	95.81	0.25	94.00	0.25	98.44	0.15	84.48	0.25	91.95	0.25
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	95.97	0.25	94.47	0.25	98.47	0.15	88.11	0.30	90.68	0.30
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	95.93	0.25	95.42	0.25	98.15	0.15	90.59	0.30	89.32	0.30

TABLE V  
NOISE LEVEL  $\mu = 0.05$ : NMSE-GoF (IN %) AND MEAN LAGS (IN S) OF WAVE MOMENT ESTIMATES

	Surge		Sway		Heave		Roll		Pitch	
	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag	GoF	Lag
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	91.92	0.25	92.16	0.20	95.91	0.15	89.83	0.30	90.00	0.30
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	92.06	0.25	91.82	0.25	96.60	0.15	90.37	0.30	89.98	0.30
$T_p = 8 \text{ s}, H_s = 1 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	91.65	0.25	91.81	0.25	96.41	0.15	90.87	0.30	90.30	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	94.48	0.25	94.73	0.25	96.89	0.15	92.76	0.25	91.09	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	94.25	0.25	94.40	0.25	97.85	0.10	92.29	0.25	91.29	0.30
$T_p = 10 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	94.38	0.25	94.31	0.25	97.38	0.10	92.32	0.30	91.84	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	92.10	0.25	91.39	0.25	93.52	0.10	84.87	0.20	90.39	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	90.72	0.25	92.54	0.25	92.22	0.15	88.95	0.25	89.16	0.30
$T_p = 12 \text{ s}, H_s = 2 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	90.28	0.25	90.76	0.25	92.95	0.15	89.70	0.30	87.94	0.25
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 0^\circ$	91.78	0.25	88.18	0.25	95.45	0.10	79.24	0.25	87.94	0.25
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 30^\circ$	92.52	0.25	89.73	0.25	95.57	0.10	83.48	0.30	86.98	0.25
$T_p = 14 \text{ s}, H_s = 3 \text{ m}, \theta_0 = 60^\circ$	93.06	0.25	91.56	0.25	94.40	0.10	85.80	0.30	86.07	0.25

TABLE VI  
NOISE LEVEL  $\mu = 0.1$ : NMSE-GoF (IN %) AND MEAN LAGS (IN S) OF WAVE MOMENT ESTIMATES