# THE BEHAYIOR OF A SELF-OSCILLATING SYSTEM ACTED UPON BY SLIGHT NOISE 

## (O RABOTE AVTOKOLEBATEL' NOI SISTEMY PRI VOZDEISTVII NA NEE MALOGO SHUMA)

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We consider the behavior of a self-oscillating system

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{\prime \prime}+\omega^{2} X^{\prime}-\varepsilon f\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=\mu \xi^{\prime}(t) \tag{0.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for small values of $\varepsilon$ and $\mu$, where $\xi^{\prime}(t)$ is a "white noise" process. We shall investigate the probability density of a transition (Section 2) and of a stationary distribution (Section 3) of a Markov process ( $X(t)$ $\left.X^{\prime}(t)\right)$, defined by equation ( 0.1 ), under various assumptions regarding the order of magnitude of $\mu N E$. In particular, it is shown that if $\mu N_{E} \ll 1$, then the "white noise" may be neglected in calculating the steady state of self-oscillations. Particular attention is paid to the case $\mu \mathcal{N} \varepsilon \sim 1$. It is shown that in this case the stationary probability distribution tends to a limit as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. This limit is found. The effective frequency of the oscillations is calculated (Section 4) to within a quantity which is $o(\varepsilon)$. The results are applied to the Van der Pol case (Section 5). In this particular case the stationary distribution is found to be Gaussian.

1. As is known, the system $F\left(x^{\prime \prime}, x^{\prime}, x, \varepsilon\right)=0$ (which is conservative for $E=0$ ) has a stable limit cycle for any arbitrarily small $E$ if $F$ satisfies certain conditions. The methods for calculating the position of this limit cycle for small values of $\varepsilon$ have been developed in detail. These methods, dating back to Van der Pol, were established on a more general basis in the works of N. N. Bogoliubov and N.N. Krylov (the averaging principle).

It may happen, however, that as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, the system will become
sensitive to small random disturbances which "spread out" its limiting operation. It is demonstrated below that the operation of such a system may be analyzed with the aid of a theorem, proved by the author, which extends the averaging principle to systems with random noise.

Equation (0.1) may be written more correctly in the form of stochastic differential equations [1, p.248]

$$
d X(t)=Y^{( }(t) d t,
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
d Y(t)=\left[-\omega^{\varepsilon} X(t)+\varepsilon f(X(t), Y(t))\right] d t+\sqrt{\varepsilon \sigma d \xi}(t) \quad\left(\sigma=\frac{\mu}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\right) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\zeta(t)$ is a Wiener random process (that is, a process with independent increments and a Gaussian probability distribution; in this case* $\left.\langle\xi(t)\rangle=0,\left\langle\xi^{2}(t)\right\rangle=t\right)$. The solution of the system (1,1), as is known [1], is a time-uniform Markov process $(X(t), Y(t))$ in the phase space of the system. We shall denote by $p_{\varepsilon}\left(x, y, t, x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ the probability density of a transition from the point ( $x, y$ ) to the point ( $x_{0}$, $y_{0}$ ) in time $t$ for the trajectory of this process. This density, as a function of $x, y, t$, satisfies equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}=y \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}-\omega^{2} x \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}+\varepsilon\left[\sigma^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} p}{\partial y^{2}}+f(x, y) \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}\right] \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the initial condition $p_{E}\left(x, y, 0, x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\delta\left(x-x_{0}, y-y_{0}\right)$.
The density for a stationary distribution of this process, $P_{E}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. defined by equations

$$
\begin{gather*}
P_{\varepsilon}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\int P_{\varepsilon}(x, y) P_{\varepsilon}\left(x, y, t, x_{0}, y_{0}\right) d x d y  \tag{1.3}\\
\int P_{\varepsilon}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) d x_{0} d y_{0}=1 \tag{1.4}
\end{gather*}
$$

satisfies equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon\left[\delta^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} P_{\varepsilon}}{\partial y^{2}}-\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(f(x, y) P_{\varepsilon}\right)\right]-y \frac{\partial P_{\varepsilon}}{\partial x}+\omega^{2} x \frac{\partial P_{\varepsilon}}{\partial y}=0 \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Naturally, a stationary operation of system (1.1), and hence al so a function $P_{\varepsilon}$. satisfying conditions (1.3) and (1.4), will not necessarily exist for every function $f(x, y)$. In the remainder of this article it will be assumed that the function $f$ satisfies conditions such that $P_{\varepsilon}(x, y)$, which is a solution of the problem (1.5) and (1.4), exists and that for a fixed value of $\sigma$ the function $P_{\varepsilon}(x, y)$ does not "spread out" as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$; this is equivalent to the condition: for any $\delta>0$, there exists some $R>0$ such that for all $\varepsilon>0$ we have

[^0]\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{r<R} P_{\varepsilon}(x, y) d x d y \geqslant 1-\delta \quad\left(r=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}\right) \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

2. Changing to new coordinates in equation (1.2), we readily obtain the equation for the function

$$
q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) \equiv p_{\varepsilon}\left([r / \omega] \sin \varphi, r \cos \varphi, t,\left[r_{1} / \omega \mid \sin \varphi_{1}, r_{1} \cos \varphi_{1}\right)\right.
$$

Introducing another unknown function

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)=q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi-\omega t, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Which is equivalent to changing to a rotating coordinate system $x=(r / \omega) \sin (\varphi-\omega t), y=r \cos (\varphi-\omega t)$, we obtain the equation

$$
\begin{gather*}
\frac{\partial u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial t}=\varepsilon\left\{\sigma ^ { 2 } \left[\cos ^{2}(\varphi-\omega t) \frac{\partial^{2} u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial r^{2}}-\frac{\sin 2(\varphi-\omega t)}{r} \frac{\partial^{2} u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial r \partial \varphi}+\right.\right. \\
\left.+\frac{\sin ^{2}(\varphi-\omega t)}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial^{2} u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial \varphi^{2}}+\frac{\sin 2(\varphi-\omega t)}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial \varphi}+\frac{\sin ^{2}(\varphi-\omega t)}{r} \frac{\partial u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial r}\right]+ \\
\left.+f\left(\frac{r}{\omega} \sin (\varphi-\omega t), r \cos (\varphi-\omega t)\right)\left[\cos (\varphi-\omega t) \frac{\partial u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial r}+\frac{\sin (\varphi-\omega t)}{r} \frac{\partial u_{\varepsilon}}{\partial \varphi}\right]\right\} \tag{2.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

Let $x$ be a point of $n$-dimensional Euclidean space. The averaging principle has been proved $[2,3]$ for differential equations of the form $\partial_{u} / \partial_{t}=\varepsilon L(x, t) u$, where $L$ is an elliptical or parabolic second-order differential operator; according to this principle the solution of the Cauchy problem for this equation as $E \rightarrow 0$ may be uniformly approximated over an interval of time which is $O(1 / E)$ by the solution of the equation $\partial_{v} / \partial_{t}=\varepsilon L^{O}(x) v$, where $L^{\circ}(x)$ is an operator whose coefficients are obtained from those of $L(x, t)$ by averaging with respect to time, that is

$$
L^{\circ}(x)=\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} L(x, t) d t
$$

Applying this averaging principle to equation (2.2) and taking account of (2, 1), we obtain the following result: let $p_{0}\left(r, \varphi, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)$ be the probability density of a transition of the random process to a plane described in polar coordinates by equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial p_{0}}{\partial t}=\frac{\sigma^{2}}{2}\left[\frac{\partial^{2} p_{0}}{\partial r^{2}}+\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial p_{0}}{\partial r}+\frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial^{2} p_{0}}{\partial \varphi^{2}}\right]+\Phi(r) \frac{\partial p_{0}}{\partial r}+\frac{\Psi(r)}{r} \frac{\partial p_{0}}{\partial \varphi} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where
$\Phi(r)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f\left(\frac{r}{\omega} \cos t, r \sin t\right) \sin t d t, \Psi(r)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f\left(\frac{r}{\omega} \cos t, r \sin t\right) \cos t d t$

Then for any $R>0$ and $T>0$

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi-\omega t, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)-p_{0}\left(r, \varphi, t \varepsilon, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } \quad \varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

uniformly with respect to $r, \varphi, r_{l}, \varphi_{1}$ in the region $r<R, r_{1}<R$ and with respect to $t$ in the region $0 \leqslant t \leqslant T / \varepsilon$.

The relation (2.5) may also be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)-p_{0}\left(r, \varphi+\omega t, t \varepsilon, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } \varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is more suitable for our further work.
3. If, for the process described by equation (2.3), there exists a stationary density $p(r, \varphi)$, then it will evidently be independent of $\varphi$ and will be a solution of the problem

$$
\frac{\sigma^{2}}{2}\left[(p r)^{\prime \prime}-p^{\prime}\right]-(\Phi(r) p)^{\prime}=0, \quad \int_{0}^{\infty} p(r) r d r=1
$$

Hence, we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(r)=\left[\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp \left\{\frac{2}{\sigma^{2}} \int_{0}^{r} \Phi(s) d s\right\} r d r\right]^{-1} \exp \left\{\frac{2}{\sigma^{2}} \int_{0}^{r} \Phi(s) d s\right\} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is assumed that the function $\Phi(r)$ satisfies the conditions under which the integral in (3.1) will converge; the convergence of this integral, as is known, is necessary and sufficient for stationary operation in the process described by equation (2.3). We introduce the notation

$$
Q_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi)=P_{\varepsilon}\left(r \omega^{-1} \sin \varphi, r \cos \varphi\right)
$$

We shall prove that for any bounded function $f(r, \varphi)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\iint f(r, \varphi) Q_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi) r d r d \varphi \rightarrow \iint f(r, \varphi) p(r) r d r d \varphi \quad \text { as } \varepsilon \ldots 0 \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

From known limit theorems on Markov processes with invariant measure [4,5] it follows that for any $\delta>0$ and $R>0$ there exists a $T_{0}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\iint f\left(r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)\left[p_{0}\left(r, \varphi, T_{0}, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)-p\left(r_{1}\right)\right] r_{1} d r_{1} d \varphi_{1}\right|<\delta \text { where } r<R \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.6), (1.6) and (3.3) we obtain the inequality
$\left.\iint f\left(r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)\left[q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, \frac{T_{0}}{\varepsilon}, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)-p\left(r_{1}\right)\right] r_{1} d r_{1} d \varphi_{1} \right\rvert\,<2 \delta \quad$ if $\varepsilon \leqslant \varepsilon_{0}\left(\delta, T_{0}\right), \quad r<R$

From (3.4), taking account of the identity
$\iint f(r, \varphi) Q_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi) r d r d \varphi=\iint_{\varepsilon} Q_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi) r d r d \varphi \int q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, \frac{T_{0}}{\varepsilon}, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) f\left(r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) r_{1} d r_{1} d \varphi_{1}$ we find that for $\varepsilon \leqslant \varepsilon_{0}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left|\iint_{r<R} t Q_{\varepsilon} r d r d \varphi-\iint_{r \geqslant R} f p r d r d \varphi\right| \leqslant \\
& \leqslant\left(\iint_{R}+\int Q_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi) r d r d \varphi\right. \left.\iint_{\Omega}\left[q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, \frac{T_{0}}{\varepsilon}, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)-p\left(r_{1}\right)\right] f\left(r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) r_{1} d r_{1} \varphi_{1} \right\rvert\, \leqslant \\
& \leqslant 2 \delta+M \iint_{r \geqslant R} Q_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi) r d r d \varphi \quad(M=\sup |f|)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\delta>0$ and $R>0$ are arbitrary, it follows that, taking (1.6) into account, we obtain (3.2).

Equation (3.2) enables us to investigate the behavior of the stationary measure of the process (1.1) as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ for different orders of magnitude of $\sigma=\mu \mathcal{N}_{\varepsilon}$, since it is sufficient for this to investigate the behavior of the function $p(r)$ defined by equation (3.1). Evidently for the density of the distribution $r p(r)$ with respect to the measure $d r d \varphi$ we have extremum points where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(r)=-\sigma^{2} / 2 r \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the limiting case $\sigma \rightarrow 0$ equation (3.5) becomes the well-known equation for the equilibrium points of an oscillatory system which approximates a harmonic oscillator [6, p.658]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(r)=0 \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

This result shows that in the case of noise power $\mu^{2} \ll \varepsilon$, white noise may be neglected in the study of the oscillations.

In the second limiting case, $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$, the stationary distribution "spreads out". This means that for $\mu^{2} \gg \varepsilon$, no stable oscillatory behavior is possible.

Physically, the quantity

$$
E_{\varepsilon}(t)=1 / 2\left\{\omega^{2}\left[X_{z}(t)\right]^{2}+\left[Y_{\varepsilon}(t)\right]^{2}\right\}
$$

represents the energy of the oscillations at time $t$. From ergodic theorems it follows that the average energy of the oscillations over
time $T$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$ has for almost all trajectories the limit

$$
\left\langle E_{\mathrm{z}}\right\rangle=\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 T} \int_{0}^{T} E_{z}(t) d t=\frac{1}{2} \int r^{2} P_{\varepsilon}(r, \varphi) r d r d \varphi
$$

We assume that the following condition (somewhat more restrictive than (1.6)) is satisfied: for all $\varepsilon>0$ and fixed $\sigma$

$$
\iint_{r>R} P_{z}(r, \varphi) r^{3} d r d \varphi<\delta \quad \text { for } R \geqslant R_{0}(\delta)
$$

Then from (3.2) we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{z \rightarrow 0}\left\langle E_{z}\right\rangle=\left\langle E_{0}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^{3} p(r) d r \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

4. Let $\zeta(t)$ be a random variable equal to the number of times the component $X_{E}(t)$ of the process ( $X_{\mathcal{E}}(t), Y_{\varepsilon}(t)$ ) goes through zero from left to right. As is known, the limit of the random variable $(1 / t) \zeta(t)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ is, with a probability of unity, lim $[(1 / t)<\zeta(t)>]$. where the averaging is taken for any initial distribution. This limit multiplied by $2 \pi$ is called the effective frequency of oscillation of the process, $\left\langle\omega_{\varepsilon}\right\rangle$.

It is clear that for $\varepsilon=0, \sigma=0$, the quantity $\left\langle\omega_{\varepsilon}\right\rangle$ is identical with $\omega$. The presence of nonlinearity and random disturbances necessitates a corrective term added to the frequency. It is known that in the absence of noise ( $\sigma=0, \varepsilon \neq 0$ ) the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{\varepsilon}=\omega+\varepsilon \frac{\Psi\left(r_{0}\right)}{r_{0}}+o(\varepsilon) \quad(\varepsilon \rightarrow 0) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is valid, where $\Psi(r)$ is defined by equation (2.4) and the constant $r_{0}$ is determined from equation (3.6). The purpose of the present section is to obtain the analog of the formula (4.1) for any $\sigma$.

In order to calculate $\left\langle\omega_{E}\right\rangle$ it is convenient to consider the random process ( $X_{\mathcal{E}}(t), Y_{\varepsilon}(t)$ ) in another phase space so that the number of times that the trajectory of the process has encircled zero will be "remembered".

The mapping inverse to $x=r \omega^{-1} \sin \varphi, y=r \cos \varphi$ translates the Markov process $X_{1}=\left(X_{E}(t), Y_{\varepsilon}(t)\right)$ in the $x y$-plane into the Markov process $X_{2}=(r(t), \varphi(t))$ on the set $K=\{0 \leqslant \varphi<2 \pi, r>0\}$, where ( $r, \varphi$ ) and ( $r, \varphi+2 \pi$ ) represent the same point.

Each trajectory ( $r(t), \varphi(t)$ ) of the process $X_{2}$ will be mapped onto
the trajectory of a new process $X_{3}=(\rho(s), \theta(s))$ in the half-plane $K_{1}(-\infty<\theta<\infty, \rho>0)$ by the formulas

$$
\rho(s)=r(s), \quad \theta(s)=\varphi(s)+2 \pi \zeta(s)
$$

and we shall require this mapping to preserve the probability measure on the set of trajectories. It is easy to verify that the process $X_{3}$ thus constructed is also a Markov process. Its transition probability density $q_{\varepsilon} *\left(\rho, \theta_{0} t_{1}, \rho_{1}, \theta_{1}\right)$ (with respect to the measure $\rho_{1} d \rho_{1} d \theta_{1}$ ) satisfies the same differential equation in the variables $\rho, \theta, t$ as the function $q_{\varepsilon}\left(r, \varphi, t, r_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)$ does in the variables $r, \varphi, t$. However, unlike the function $q_{E}$, which is the Green' s function of this equation on the set $(K, t>0)$, the function $q_{\varepsilon}{ }^{*}$ is the Green's function on ( $K_{1}, t>0$ ).

Applying the method of Section 2 (it must be proved that the theorems from [2,3] are applicable to this situation), we can again obtain equation (2.6), with $q_{\varepsilon}$ replaced by $q_{\varepsilon} *$ and $p_{0}$ replaced by $p_{0}{ }^{*}$, where $p_{0}{ }^{*}$ is the Green's function of equation (2.3) on the set ( $K_{1}, t>0$ ) (not ( $K, t>0$ ), as is the case with $p_{0}$ ). Furthermore, just as in Section 3 we found equation (3.2) from (2.6), we can find from this the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\omega_{\varepsilon}\right\rangle=\omega+\varepsilon V(1)+o(\varepsilon) \quad(\varepsilon \rightarrow 0) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for

$$
\left\langle\omega_{\varepsilon}\right\rangle=\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{\rho=0}^{\infty} \int_{\theta=-\infty}^{\infty} q_{\varepsilon}^{*}\left(\rho, \theta, T, \rho_{1}, \theta_{1}\right)\left(\theta_{1}-\theta\right) \rho_{2} d \rho_{1} d \theta_{1}
$$

Here

$$
V(t)=\int_{r=0}^{\infty} p(r) r d r \int_{r_{1}=0}^{\infty} \int_{\theta_{2}=-\infty}^{\infty} p_{0}^{*}\left(r, \theta, t, r_{2}, \theta_{1}\right)\left(\theta_{1}-\theta\right) r_{1} d r_{1} d \theta_{1}
$$

Multiplying (2.3) by $\theta_{1} d \theta_{1} r_{1} d r_{1}$ and integrating, we find that the function

$$
u_{0}(r, \theta, t)=\iint_{X_{1}} p_{0}^{*}\left(r, \theta, t, r_{1}, \theta_{1}\right) \theta_{1} r_{1} d r_{1} d \theta_{1}
$$

also satisfies equation (2.3) on $\left(K_{1}, t>0\right)$ and the initial condition $u_{0}(r, \theta, 0)=\theta$.

It follows from this that $v_{0}(r, \theta, t)=u_{0}(r, \theta, t)-\theta$ will be the solution of the problem

$$
\frac{\partial v_{0}}{\partial t}=\frac{\sigma^{2}}{2}\left[\frac{\partial^{2} v_{0}}{\partial r^{2}}+\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v_{0}}{\partial r}\right]+\Phi(r) \frac{\partial v_{0}}{\partial r}+\frac{\Psi(r)}{r}, \quad v_{0}(r, 0)=0
$$

Multiplying the last equation by $r p(r) d r$ and integrating, we find

$$
\frac{d V}{d t}=\int \Psi(r) p(r) d r, \quad V(0)=0
$$

and consequently

$$
V(t)=t \int \Psi(r) p(r) d r
$$

Substituting this value of $V(t)$ into (4.2), we finally obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\omega_{\varepsilon}\right\rangle=\omega+\varepsilon \int_{0}^{\infty} \Psi(r) p(r) d r+o(\varepsilon) \quad(\varepsilon \rightarrow 0) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

5. Let us consider an example for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega=1, \quad f(x, y)=y\left(1-x^{2}\right) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the absence of noise (for $\mu=0$ ) we obtain the Van der Pol equation, for which, as is known

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(r)=1 / 2^{r}-1 / 8 r^{3}, \quad \Psi(r)=0 \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying the conclusions of Sections 2 to 4 , we obtain from (5.2), $(3,1)$ and (4.3).

$$
\begin{gathered}
p(r)=\left[2 \sqrt{\pi} \sigma \exp \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\right) F\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sigma}\right)\right]^{-1} \exp \left[\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\left(\frac{r^{2}}{2}-\frac{r^{4}}{16}\right)\right] \\
\left(F(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} \exp \left(-\frac{y^{2}}{2}\right) d y\right) \\
\left\langle\omega_{\varepsilon}\right\rangle=\omega+o(\varepsilon) \quad(\varepsilon \rightarrow 0)
\end{gathered}
$$

It should be noted that the applicability of the conclusions of Sections 2 to 4 in the present case requires additional proof, since in $[2,3]$ it was assumed that the coefficients of the equation increase to infinity no faster than linear functions, while $f(x, y)=y\left(1-x^{2}\right)$ does not satisfy this condition.

From (3.5) it is clear that in the present case the function $r p(r)$ has a single maximum at the point $r_{0}=\left[2+2 \sqrt{ }\left(1+\sigma^{2}\right)\right]^{1 / 2}$

Hence, as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$, we obtain the well-known approximate value for the radius of the limit cycle in the no-noise case: $r_{0}=2$. The average energy of the oscillations in this example as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ tends to a limit (see (3.7)) is

$$
\left\langle E_{0}\right\rangle=2+(1 / \sqrt{\pi}) \sigma \exp \left(-1 / \sigma^{2}\right)[F(\sqrt{2} / \sigma)]^{-1}
$$

In conclusion, it should be noted that the effect of random noise on the operation of a self-oscillating system of the type considered here was studied in [7-9]. However, in all of those investigations it was assumed that the noise power was much less than the parameter characterizing the nonlinearity (that is, $\sigma \ll 1$ in the notation of the present study). It is readily seen that the results obtained for $\sigma \ll 1$ agree with the results of $[7-8]$.

We should mention that the method used here is suitable for investigating the effect of random noise on more general systems, both onedimensional and multi-dimensional, which contain a small parameter $\varepsilon$ and become conservative for $\varepsilon=0$.

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[^0]:    * Here and hereafter, pointed brackets will he used to denote probability averaging.

