Introduction
First Principles Modeling
Nonlinear systems & linearization
System Identification

Chapter 3 - System Modeling

July 9, 2015

Outline

- Introduction
- First Principles Modeling
- Nonlinear systems & linearization
- System Identification
 - Grey box identification
 - Black box identification

Introduction

We can derive the mathematical model of a dynamic system in **two ways** mainly:

- Physical Modeling:
 Applying the laws of physics, chemistry, thermodynamics,...
 Also called modeling from First Principles
 - Sometimes these are non-linear. Lots of methods of this course require linear systems. Therefore **linearization** is needed. e.g. $\sin(\theta) \sim \theta, \theta \rightarrow 0$

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 - Sometimes these are non-linear. Lots of methods of this course require linear systems. Therefore **linearization** is needed. e.g. $\sin(\theta) \sim \theta, \theta \rightarrow 0$
- System identification or Empirical Modeling: Developing models from observed or collected data



White box modeling: based on first principles.

 \rightarrow known equations (structure) & parameters (coefficients).

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Black box identification: based on experimentation.

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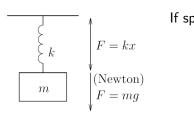
→ unknown equations & unknown parameters.

Most popular approaches are forms of black box identification.

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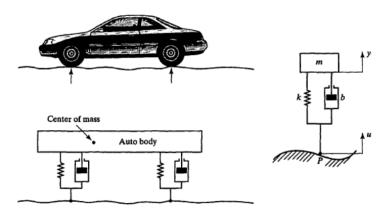
Example 1: Mass-Spring System



If spring is at rest at x = 0:

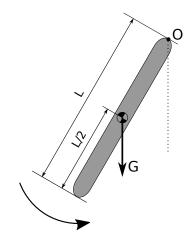
$$m \cdot \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + k \cdot x = m \cdot g$$

Example 2: Mass-Spring Damped



Force exerted by damper: $F = b\dot{x}$ Differential equation can be found by writing force equilibrium and moment equilibrium around center of mass

Example 3: Pendulum



Dynamic equilibrium:

$$I\ddot{\theta}(t) = -mg\frac{L}{2}\sin(\theta(t))$$
 with $I = \frac{mL^2}{3}$
 $\ddot{\theta}(t) = -\frac{3g}{2I}\sin(\theta(t))$

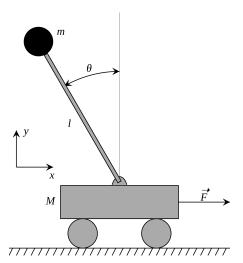
Small deviation of $\theta(t)$:

$$\ddot{\theta}(t) = -\frac{3g}{2L}\theta(t)$$

Solving the differential equation yields the general solution:

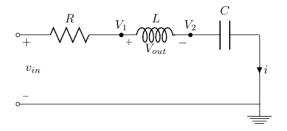
$$\theta(t) = A\cos(\omega_0 + \phi)$$
 with $\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{3g}{2L}}$ and $\phi \& A$ to be determined with the initial condition

Example 4: Inverted Pendulum



Analysis can be done with Newton like former example, but less tedious is using energy-methods (Lagrange)

Example 5: RLC Circuit



Besides input v_{in} , two internal variables are needed to determine output \Rightarrow Second-order System

Inputs	Ouputs	Choosen States
Vin	V _{out}	V_2
		i

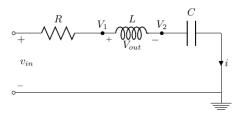
Example 5: RLC Circuit

Equations for each component:

$$i=rac{V_{in}-V_1}{R}$$
 (Ohm's law) $V_1-V_2=L\cdotrac{di}{dt}$ (Coil) $i=C\cdotrac{dV_2}{dt}$ (Capacitor)

$$V_1 - V_2 = L \cdot \frac{dI}{dt}$$
 (Coil)

$$i = C \cdot \frac{dV_2}{dt}$$
 (Capacitor)



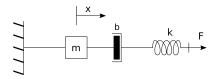
Example 5: RLC Circuit

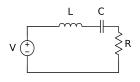
- Writing derivatives of state variables in function of state variables and inputs: $\begin{cases} \frac{di}{dt} = \frac{V_1 V_2}{L} = \frac{V_{in} R \cdot i V_2}{L} \\ \frac{dV_2}{dt} = \frac{i}{C} \end{cases}$
- Writing output in function of state variables and inputs: $V_{out} = V_1 V_2 = V_{in} Ri V_2$

State Space Representation

This yields the **State Space Representation** of the dynamic system. In Matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{dV_2}{dt} \\ \frac{di}{dt} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1/C \\ -1/L & -R/L \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_2 \\ i \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} V_{in}$$
$$V_{out} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -R \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_2 \\ i \end{bmatrix} + V_{in}$$





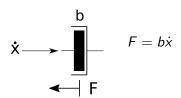
Let:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
\mathsf{F} & & \leftrightarrow & & \\
\dot{x} & & \leftrightarrow & \\
\mathsf{x} & & \leftrightarrow & \\
\end{array}$$

The analogy between the other quantities follows from comparing the physical laws.

Damping:

Resistance:



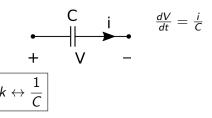
$$\begin{array}{ccc}
R & i & V = Ri \\
+ & V & -
\end{array}$$

$$b \leftrightarrow R$$

Spring:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & F = kx \\
 & \Rightarrow \frac{dF}{dt} = k \frac{dx}{dt}
\end{array}$$

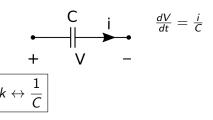
Capacitor:



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Newton:

$$F = m\ddot{x}$$
$$= m\frac{d\dot{x}}{dt}$$

$$V = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

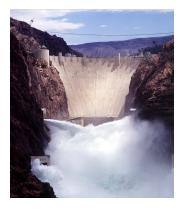
Example 6: Hoover dam

Define:

- Inflow of water: u(t)
- Current volume of water: x(t)
- Outflow of water: y(t)
- Water level: h(t)

Assume that
$$x(t) = c_1 \cdot h(t)$$

What will happen when we open the gate?



Example 6: Hoover dam

Outflow depends on height:

$$y(t) = c_2 \cdot h(t)$$

 The state of the system is defined by the contained volume of water:

$$\dot{x}(t) = u(t) - y(t) = u(t) - c_2 \cdot h(t)$$

• Thus a **State Space Representation** is, with $c \triangleq \frac{c_2}{c_1}$:

$$\dot{x}(t) = u(t) - c \cdot x(t)$$
$$y(t) = c \cdot x(t)$$



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Nonlinear systems

In this course we focus on the linear state-space representation:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t), \\ y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t). \end{cases} \begin{cases} x[k+1] = Ax[k] + Bu[k], \\ y[k] = Cx[k] + Du[k]. \end{cases}$$

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Most real life systems involve nonlinearity:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t)), \\ y(t) = g(x(t), u(t)), \end{cases}$$

where f and/or g contain some nonlinearity, such as:

- powers: e.g. $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) + \gamma u(t)^2$,
- interactions: e.g. $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) + \gamma x(t)u(t)$,
- clipping: e.g. $\alpha \leq x(t) \leq \beta$.

Linearization around equilibrium point

Nonlinear systems have (several) equilibrium points x_e , u_e , y_e :

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_e = f(x_e, u_e) = 0, \\ y_e = g(x_e, u_e). \end{cases}$$

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Linearizing in the region of (x_e, u_e, y_e) :

$$x = x_e + \Delta x$$
, $u = u_e + \Delta u$, $y = y_e + \Delta y$,

with Δx , Δu and Δy sufficiently small.

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Linearization around equilibrium points

Linearizing is done via **first order Taylor expansions**.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{d(x_e + \Delta x)}{dt} = \frac{d\Delta x}{dt} = f(x, u) = f(x_e + \Delta x, u_e + \Delta u), \\ y_e + \Delta y = g(x, u) = g(x_e + \Delta x, u_e + \Delta u). \end{cases}$$

We write the *vectors* x and u in their individual components to simplify interpretation:

$$\dot{x}_1 = f_1(x_1, ..., x_n, u_1, ..., u_l)
\vdots
\dot{x}_n = f_1(x_1, ..., x_n, u_1, ..., u_l)
\dot{y}_1 = h_1(x_1, ..., x_n, u_1, ..., u_l)
\vdots
\dot{y}_l = h_l(x_1, ..., x_n, u_1, ..., u_l)$$

Linearization around equilibrium points

The first order Taylor expansion of f() around (x_e, u_e) is described by the **Jacobian Matrix**:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x_e, u_e) + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_l} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_l} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta x_n \\ \Delta u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u_l \end{bmatrix}$$

With the partial derivatives evaluated in x_e and u_e $f(x_e, u_e) = \frac{dx_e}{dt} = 0$ because we choose x_e and u_e to be equilibrium points

Linearization around equilibrium points

This can be split up in a contribution by the state x and the input u:

$$\frac{d\Delta x}{dt} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}}_{A} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta x_n \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_l} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_l} \end{bmatrix}}_{B} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u_l \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly C & D can be constructed from the Jacobian Matrix of h(x, u)

Example: decalcification plant

Used to reduce concentration of calcium hydroxide in water:

- chemical reaction: $Ca(OH)_2 + CO_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3 + H_2O$
- reaction speed: $r = c[Ca(OH)_2][CO_2]$
- rate of change of concentration:

$$\frac{d[Ca(OH)_2]}{dt} = \frac{k}{V} - \frac{r}{V},$$
$$\frac{d[CO_2]}{dt} = \frac{u}{V} - \frac{r}{V},$$

with inflow rates k and u in mol/s and tank volume V in L.

• input u: inflow of CO_2 , output: $[Ca(OH)_2]$



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with two state variables: $x_1 = [Ca(OH)_2]$ and $x_2 = [CO_2]$.

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$$rac{k_{eq}}{V} - rac{c}{V}[Ca(OH)_2]_{eq}[CO_2]_{eq} = 0, \ rac{u_{eq}}{V} - rac{c}{V}[Ca(OH)_2]_{eq}[CO_2]_{eq} = 0.$$

Linearization of the decalcification plant

For small deviations near the equilibrium:

$$\begin{split} \frac{d\Delta x_1}{dt} &= -\frac{c}{V}[CO_2]_{eq}\Delta x_1 - \frac{c}{V}[Ca(OH)_2]_{eq}\Delta x_2, \\ \frac{d\Delta x_2}{dt} &= -\frac{c}{V}[CO_2]_{eq}\Delta x_1 - \frac{c}{V}[Ca(OH)_2]_{eq}\Delta x_2 + \frac{\Delta u}{V}, \\ \Delta y &= \Delta x_1. \end{split}$$

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The resulting linear state-space model is $\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t) \end{cases}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{d[Ca(OH)_2]}{dt} \\ \frac{d[CO_2]}{dt} \end{bmatrix} = -\begin{bmatrix} \frac{c}{V}[CO_2]_{eq} & \frac{c}{V}[Ca(OH)_2]_{eq} \\ \frac{c}{V}[CO_2]_{eq} & \frac{c}{V}[Ca(OH)_2]_{eq} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [Ca(OH)_2] \\ [CO_2] \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{V} \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

$$v(t) = [Ca(OH)_2]$$

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"All models are wrong, but some are useful." - George E. P. Box

Linear regression

Consider input matrix **X**, output vector **y** and residuals ϵ :

$$\mathbf{X}\theta = \mathbf{y} + \epsilon.$$

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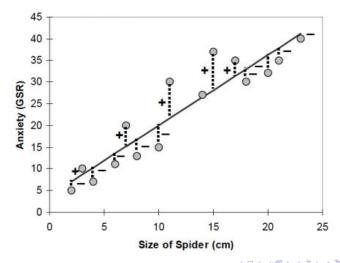
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The OLS estimate minimizes the sum-of-squares of errors, i.e.:

$$\hat{\theta}_{OLS} = \arg\min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y(i) - \sum_{j=1}^{d} X(i,j)\theta(j) \right)^{2}$$

Linear regression with ordinary least squares



Maximum likelihood estimation

The maximum likelihood estimate $\hat{\theta}_{ML}$ is the parameter vector that maximizes the likelihood $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$ of observing the (known) outputs \mathbf{y} , given the (known) inputs \mathbf{X} :

$$\hat{\theta}_{\textit{ML}} = \argmax_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L} \big(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta} \big)$$

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Example: least squares estimators are the maximum likelihood estimators if the associated residuals ϵ are normally distributed.

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Bayes' theorem:
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If a prior distribution $p(\cdot)$ is available for θ , then the posterior distribution for θ becomes:

$$heta \mapsto \mathcal{L}(heta \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = rac{\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X} \mid heta) p(heta)}{\int_{artheta} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X} \mid artheta) p(artheta) dartheta}.$$

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The MAP estimate is the mode of the posterior distribution of θ :

$$\hat{ heta}_{MAP} = rg\max_{ heta} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X} \mid heta) p(heta).$$



Additionally accounts for measurement errors in inputs.

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Typically described via *latent variables*:

$$\begin{cases} x = x^* + \eta, \\ y = y^* + \epsilon, \\ y^* = g(x^* \mid \theta), \end{cases}$$

with x, y the observed inputs, outputs and latent variables x^* , y^* .

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Task: estimate θ .

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If we assume a linear state space system:

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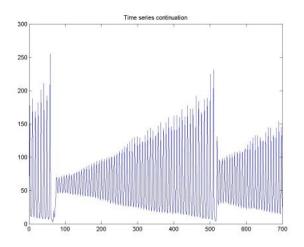
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Time series: Santa Fe laser



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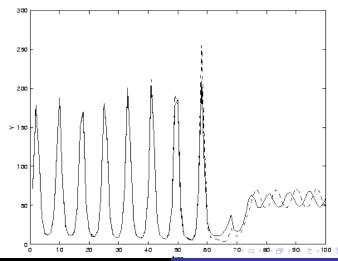
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Nonlinear models can be obtained via machine learning methods.

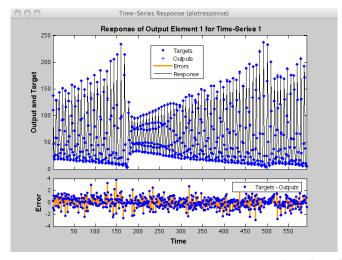
ightarrow neural networks, support vector machine, random forest, ...



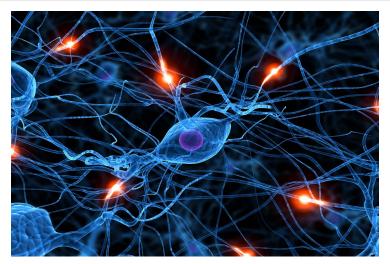
Predictions of a least-squares support vector machine



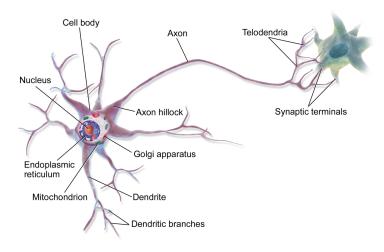
Predictions of an artificial neural network



Neural network: biological



Structure of a single neuron



Neural network: artificial

