Introduction
First Principles Modeling
Nonlinear systems & linearization
System Identification

Chapter 3: System Modeling

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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. $\sin(\theta) \sim \theta, \theta \rightarrow 0$
- System identification or Empirical Modeling: Developing models from observed or collected data

Main classes of System identification methods

White box modeling: based on first principles.

→ known equations (structure) & parameters (coefficients).

Grey box identification: first principles & experimentation.

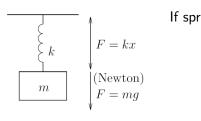
 \rightarrow known equations, unknown/uncertain parameters.

Black box identification: based on experimentation.

 \rightarrow unknown equations & unknown parameters.

Most popular approaches are forms of black box identification.

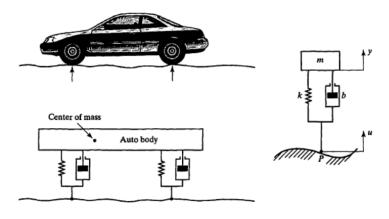
Example 1: Mass-Spring System



If spring is at rest at x = 0:

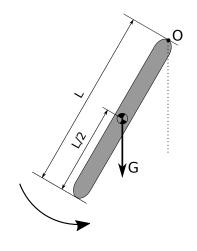
$$m \cdot \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + k \cdot x = m \cdot g$$

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 $I = \frac{mL^2}{3}$

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

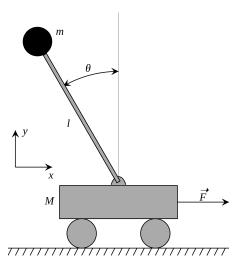
Small deviation of $\theta(t)$:

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

Solving the differential equation yields the general solution:

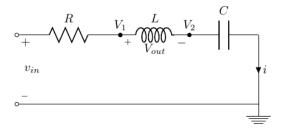
$$\theta(t) = A\cos(\omega_0 + \phi)$$
 with $\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{3g}{2L}}$ and ϕ & A to be determined with the initial condition

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

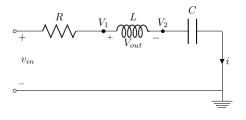
Example 5: RLC Circuit

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

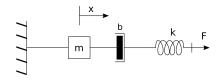
- Writing derivatives of state variables in function of state variables and inputs: $\begin{cases} \frac{di}{dt} = \frac{V_1 V_2}{L} = \frac{V_{in} R \cdot i V_2}{L} \\ \frac{dV_2}{dt} = \frac{i}{C} \end{cases}$
- Writing output in function of state variables and inputs: $V_{out} = V_1 V_2 = V_{in} Ri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

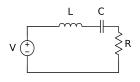
State Space Representation

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

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

Force-Voltage Analogy





Let:

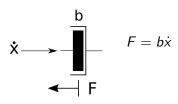
$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathsf{F} & \leftrightarrow & \\
\dot{x} & \leftrightarrow & \\
\mathsf{x} & \leftrightarrow & \\
\end{array}$$

Force-Voltage Analogy

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

Damping:

Resistance:



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

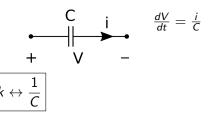
$$b \leftrightarrow R$$

Force-Voltage Analogy

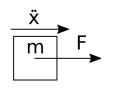
Spring:

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

Capacitor:



Newton:



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

Coil:

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

$$m \leftrightarrow L$$

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:

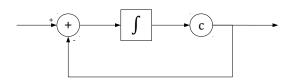
$$y(t) = c_2 \cdot h(t)$$

 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 $c \triangleq \frac{c_2}{c_1}$:

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



Nonlinear systems

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

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

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. $\alpha \leq x(t) \leq \beta$.

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

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

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.

Linearizing is done via first order Taylor expansions.

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:

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

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

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: $[Ca(OH)_2]$

Nonlinear model and equilibrium point

Nonlinear model for the given reactor:

$$\begin{split} \frac{d[\textit{Ca}(\textit{OH})_2]}{dt} &= \frac{k}{V} - \frac{c}{V}[\textit{Ca}(\textit{OH})_2][\textit{CO}_2], \\ \frac{d[\textit{CO}_2]}{dt} &= \frac{u}{V} - \frac{c}{V}[\textit{Ca}(\textit{OH})_2][\textit{CO}_2], \\ y &= [\textit{Ca}(\textit{OH})_2], \end{split}$$

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

The equilibrium point $(k_{eq}, u_{eq}, x_{1,eq}, x_{2,eq}, y_{eq})$ of this system is:

$$\begin{split} \frac{k_{eq}}{V} - \frac{c}{V}[\textit{Ca}(\textit{OH})_2]_{eq}[\textit{CO}_2]_{eq} &= 0, \\ \frac{u_{eq}}{V} - \frac{c}{V}[\textit{Ca}(\textit{OH})_2]_{eq}[\textit{CO}_2]_{eq} &= 0. \end{split}$$

Linearization of the decalcification plant

For small deviations near the equilibrium:

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

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

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

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

Grey box identification: conceptual

Grey box identification starts from a known model structure but with unknown/uncertain parameters \leftrightarrow parametric statistics.

We assume linear, continuous time state space representation:

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

Given: states, inputs, outputs and guesstimates of \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} , \tilde{C} & \tilde{D} . **Task**: estimate \hat{A} , \hat{B} , \hat{C} and \hat{D} adequately via experiments.

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

Linear regression

Consider input matrix \mathbf{X} , output vector \mathbf{y} and residuals ϵ :

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

The parameter vector θ must be estimated, given the observations.

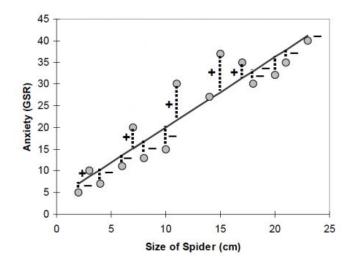
A common estimation approach is ordinary least squares (OLS):

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}) \hat{\theta}_{OLS} &= \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}, \\ \hat{\theta}_{OLS} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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} :

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

For some structures, ML estimate can be obtained in closed form.

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

Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation

Bayesian: maximum likelihood estimation with a *prior* $p(\theta)$.

→ MAP estimation is a regularization of ML estimation

Bayes' theorem:
$$P(A \mid B) = P(B \mid A) \cdot P(A) / P(B)$$
.

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

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

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

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

Errors-in-variables approach

Additionally accounts for measurement errors in inputs. ↔ standard regression only accounts for errors in *outputs*

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^* . **Assumption**: latent variables x^* and y^* exist which follow the true functional relationship $g(\cdot)$.

Task: estimate θ .

Black box identification

Start from unknown equations & unknown parameters.

→ related to machine learning and nonparametric statistics.

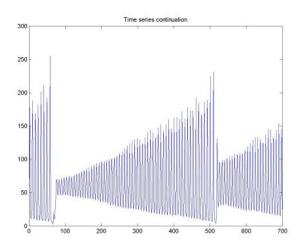
If we assume a linear state space system:

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Black box identification deals with:

- unknown states, both in number & physical interpretation
 → dimensions of A, B & C unknown
- unknown parameters (values in A, B, C, D)

Time series: Santa Fe laser



Modelling the Santa Fe laser

This laser can be treated as an autonomous discrete time system:

$$\begin{cases} x[k+1] = f(x[k-N+1], \dots, x[k]), \\ y[k] = x[k]. \end{cases}$$

The output depends on the past N states & no inputs.

 \rightarrow how large is $N? \rightarrow$ unknown structure

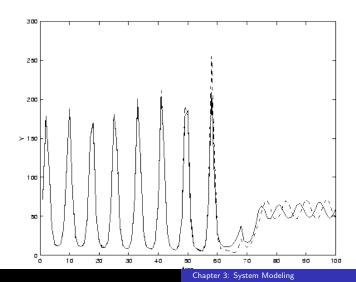
Treat it as a regression problem with N inputs: $y = f(X_1, \dots, X_N)$.

- \rightarrow lets say linear, i.e. $y = \mathbf{X}\theta \rightarrow \mathbf{unknown}$ parameters $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^N$.
- ightarrow for given N, we can estimate heta via grey box methods.

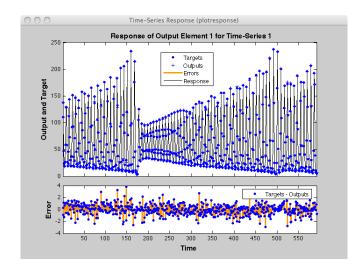
Nonlinear models can be obtained via machine learning methods.

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

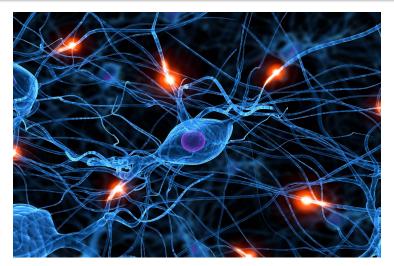
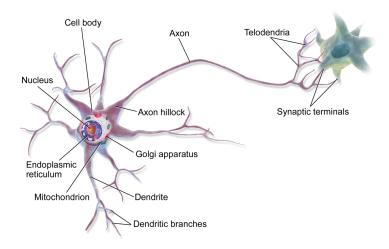


Image taken from http://www.extremetech.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/340.jpg.

Structure of a single neuron



 $Image\ taken\ from\ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Blausen_0657_MultipolarNeuron.png.$

Neural network: artificial

