Felipe Souza Lima

Metacontrol: a Python based software for self-optimizing control strucutre selection using metamodels

Campina Grande, Paraíba, Brasil

Março, 2020

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Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Engenharia Química da Universidade Federal de Campina Grande, como requisito parcial para obtenção do grau de Mestre. Área de concentração: Engenharia Química.

Universidade Federal de Campina Grande

Unidade Acadêmica de Engenharia Química

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For those who doubt themselves. Just embrace it.

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[1] Os nomes dos integrantes do primeiro projeto abnTeX foram extraídos de http://codigolivre.org.br/projects/abntex/

[2] http://www.cpai.unb.br/

[3] http://groups.google.com/group/latex-br

[4] http://groups.google.com/group/abntex2 e http://www.abntex.net.br/

"To love the journey is to accept no such end.
I have found, through painful experience, that the most important step a person can take is always the next one.
(Dalinar Kholin, Oathbringer.)

Resumo

Segundo a **NBR6028:2003**, o resumo deve ressaltar o objetivo, o método, os resultados e as conclusões do documento. A ordem e a extensão destes itens dependem do tipo de resumo (informativo ou indicativo) e do tratamento que cada item recebe no documento original. O resumo deve ser precedido da referência do documento, com exceção do resumo inserido no próprio documento. (. . .) As palavras-chave devem figurar logo abaixo do resumo, antecedidas da expressão Palavras-chave:, separadas entre si por ponto e finalizadas também por ponto.

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Abstract

This is the english abstract.

Keywords: latex. abntex. text editoration.

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List of abbreviations and acronyms

CV Controlled Variable

MV Manipulated Variable

NLP Non Linear Problem

RTO Real Time Optimization

SOC Self-Optimizing Control

List of symbols

Chapter 2

c	Controlled variable
d	Process disturbances
F	Optimal measurement sensitivity matrix with respect to the disturbances
G^y	Gain matrix with respect to the measurements
G_d^y	Gain matrix with respect to the disturbances
H	Linear combination matrix
J	Process objective function
J_{opt}	Optimal value of J
J_{ud}	Hessian of cost function with respect to the disturbance variables $\left(\frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial u \partial d}\right)$
J_{uu}	Hessian of cost function with respect to the manipulated variables $\left(\frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial^2 u}\right)$
L	Loss
n	Implementation error
$n^{y'}$	Implementation error with respect to the measurements
u	Manipulated variable
u_0	Process degrees of freedom
W_d	Diagonal magnitude matrix of disturbances
W_n	Diagonal magnitude matrix of measurement errors
x	Process states
y	Measurements
z	Loss variable

Chapter 3

$\hat{y}$	Metamodel (approximation) of y
$\mathcal{F}, f(x)$	Polynomial regression function
σ_l^2	Process variance

θ	*Kriging* hyperparameter of variable activity
ε	Residuals or random noise
p	*Kriging* hyperparameter of correlation smoothness
x	Input of a process, or sample
y	Function that calculates the output of a process
z	Stochastic departure function

Contents

1 Introduction

This dissertation is about an assembly of several methodologies into a software tool, called *Metacontrol*, which enables a fast implementation of the Self-Optimizing Control (SOC) technique. This assembly consist of three major methodologies: *Kriging* metamodels, optimization through infill criteria and SOC. The dissertation is organized as follows:

Chapter 2 gives a brief summary of the key concepts involving SOC methodology and the main the reason why this research and software tool development was needed.

Chapter 3 presents a discussion of *Kriging* metamodels and its reasoning.

Chapter 4 introduces the process of constrained nonlinear optimization using *Kriging* metamodels. This process is also known as infill criteria.

Chapter 5 demonstrates how the assembly of the methodologies shown in chapters 2, 3 and 4 are combined to form the core concept behind *Metacontrol*.

Chapter 6 is dedicated to case-studies using *Metacontrol*. In addition, there is a brief discussion on good practices involving the use of the software tool.

The *Metacontrol* software is publicly available at `https://github.com/feslima/metacontrol`. There, the reader can find instructions on how to install the open-source tool. Also, for each technique discussed in chapters 2, 3 and 4, there is an open-source Python package as result. Their links are found in their respective chapters.

2 The Self-Optimizing Control overview

Every industrial process is under limitations ranging from design/safety (e.g. temperature or pressure which an equipment can operate, etc.), environmental (e.g. pollutant emissions), to quality specifications (e.g. product purity), and economic viability. More often than not, these constraints are applied all at once and can be conflicting. Therefore, it is mandatory to operate such processes optimally (or, at least, close to its optimal point) in order to attain maximum profits or keep expenses at minimum while still obeying these specifications.

One way to achieve this is through the application of plantwide control methodologies. In particular, Self-Optimizing Control (MORARI; STEPHANOPOULOS, 1980; SKOGESTAD, 2000; ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD; HORI, 2009) is a practical way to design a control structure of a process following a criterion (for instance: economic, environmental, performance) considering a constant set-point policy (ALVES et al., 2018). The SOC methodology is advantageous in this scenario because there is no need to reoptimize the process every time that a disturbance occurs.

However, the review presented here contains merely the paramount elements needed to understand the main concepts and expressions that translate the ideas behind the method. The author recommends them if the reader needs a more detailed explanation (SKOGESTAD, 2000; HALVORSEN et al., 2003; HORI; SKOGESTAD; ALSTAD, 2005; HORI, Eduardo S.; SKOGESTAD, 2007; ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD; HORI, 2009; ALVES et al., 2018; KARIWALA; CAO; JANARDHANAN, 2008; KARIWALA; CAO, 2009; UMAR et al., 2012).

The main concept of Self-optimizing control consists in the pursue of a control structure that is based on a constant setpoint policy, leading to near-optimal operation. From Skogestad (2004):

> "Self-optimizing control is when one can achieve an acceptable loss with constant setpoint values for the controlled variables without the need to reoptimize when disturbances occur."

It is assumed the process objective function, assumed scalar, is influenced by its steady-state operation. Therefore, the optimization problem described in Equation 2.1 is formed, with u_0 being the degrees of freedom available, x and d representing the states

and the disturbances of the system, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} \underset{u_0}{\text{minimize}} \quad & J_0\left(x, u_0, d\right) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & g_1\left(x, u_0, d\right) = 0 \\ & g_2\left(x, u_0, d\right) \leq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

Regarding the disturbances, these can be: change in feed conditions, prices of the products and raw materials, specifications (constraints) and/or changes in the model. Using NLP solvers, the objective function can be optimized considering the expected disturbances and implementation errors.

Since the whole technology considers near-optimal operation, as a result of keeping constant setpoints (differently from RTO, for instance), there will always exist a (positive) loss, given by Equation 2.2

$$L = J_0(d, n) - J_{opt}(d) \tag{2.2}$$

Metacontrol focus on the first four steps of the Self-Optimizing Control technology, named by Skogestad (2000) as "top-down" analysis. In these steps, the variable selection seeking the usage of the steady-state degrees of freedom is the main problem to be addressed with the systematic procedure proposed. It is possible to search for a Self-Optimizing Control structure basically using two methods:

1. Manually testing each CV candidate, reoptimizing the process for different disturbances' scenarios, and choosing the strucutre that yields the lowest (worst-case or average-case) loss;

2. Using local methods based on second-order Taylor series expansion of the objective function, that are capable of easily and quickly "pre-screening" the most promising CV candidates.

The manual nature of method 1 and the possibility of creating an automated framework using method 2 motivated the creation of *Metacontrol* itself. Applying, comprehensively, the second method in a software was also a key motivation for this work. Therefore, it is logical that the usage of the linear methods will be discussed in this section, since they are the ones implemented within *Metacontrol*.

A linear model with respect to the plant measurements can be represented as Equation 2.3

$$\Delta y = G^y \Delta u + G_d^y \Delta d \tag{2.3}$$

With

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta y &= y - y^* \\ \Delta u &= u - u^* \\ \Delta d &= d - d^* \end{aligned} \tag{2.4}$$

G^y and G_d^y are the gain matrices with respect to the measurements and disturbances, respectively. Regarding the CVs, linearization will give Equation 2.5

$$\Delta c = H \Delta y = G \Delta u + G_d \Delta d \tag{2.5}$$

With

$$\begin{aligned} G &= H G^y \\ G_d &= H G_d^y \end{aligned} \tag{2.6}$$

Linearizing the loss function results in Equation 2.7:

$$\begin{aligned} L &= J(u,d) - J_{opt}(d) = \frac{1}{2}\|z\|_2^2 \\ z &= J_{uu}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(u - u_{opt}\right) = J_{uu}^{\frac{1}{2}} G^{-1} \left(c - c_{opt}\right) \end{aligned} \tag{2.7}$$

Later, Halvorsen et al. (2003) developing the exact local method, showed that the loss function can be rewritten as in Equation 2.8

$$z = J_{uu}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\left(J_{uu}^{-1} J_{ud} - G^{-1} G_d \right) \Delta d + G^{-1} n \right] \tag{2.8}$$

With J_{ud} and J_{uu} corresponding to the hessian with respect to the disturbances and manipulated variables $\left(\frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial u \partial d}\right)$ and with respect to the manipulated variables $\left(\frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial^2 u}\right)$, respectively. If one assumes that W_d is a (diagonal) magnitude matrix that considers the disturbances and W_n^y the magnitude matrix that takes into account the measurement error, and considering that both are 2-norm-bounded (Halvorsen et al. (2003) and Alstad,

Skogestad, and Hori (2009) contains a discussion and justification for using 2-norm), Equations 2.9 to 2.11 can be defined to scale the system:

$$d - d^* = W_d d' \tag{2.9}$$

$$n = HW_n^y n^{y'} = W_n n^{y'} \tag{2.10}$$

$$\left\| \begin{pmatrix} d' \\ n^{y'} \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 \leq 1 \tag{2.11}$$

The loss function from Equation 2.7 can be also written in a more appropriate way considering the definition of (ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD; HORI, 2009) of the uncertainty variables regarding the contribution of the disturbances and measurement error on the incurred loss, Equation 2.12 and considering the scaled system from Equations 2.9 to 2.11

$$M \triangleq [M_d \quad M_n^y] \tag{2.12}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} M_d &= -J_{uu}^{1/2} \left(HG^y\right)^{-1} HFW_d \\ M_{n^y} &= -J_{uu}^{1/2} \left(HG^y\right)^{-1} HW_{n^v} \end{aligned} \tag{2.13}$$

with F corresponding to the optimal measurement sensitivity matrix with respect to the disturbances.

Finally, if one uses all the definitions described so far, the worst-case loss for the effect of the disturbances and measurement error is given by Equation 2.14

$$L_{worst-case} = \max_{\left\| \begin{pmatrix} d' \\ n^{y'} \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 \leq 1} = \frac{\bar{\sigma}(M)^2}{2} \tag{2.14}$$

Equation 2.14 shows that in order to minimize the worst-case loss, it is necessary to minimize $\bar{\sigma}(M)$, Equation 2.15:

$$H = \arg\min_H \bar{\sigma}(M) \tag{2.15}$$

This optimization problem was initially solved using a numerical search, as proposed by Halvorsen et al. (2003). Fortunately, Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009) derived an explicit solution that gives the optimal linear combination of measurements coefficient matrix (H) that minimize the worst-case loss that exists due to the effect of the disturbances and measurement errors, in Equation 2.16

$$H^T = \left(\tilde{F}\tilde{F}^T\right)^{-1} G^y \left(G^{yT}\left(\tilde{F}\tilde{F}^T\right)^{-1} G^y\right)^{-1} J_{uu}^{1/2} \tag{2.16}$$

where

$$\tilde{F} = [FW_d W_n^y] \tag{2.17}$$

Assuming that $\tilde{F}\tilde{F}^T$ is full rank.

Equation 2.16 has three interesting properties proved by Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009):

1. It applies to any number of measurements (n_y).
2. The solution for H was proved to minimize not only the worst-case, but also the average-case loss. Therefore, if one uses Equation 2.16 seeking the determination of a control strucutre that minimizes the loss at the worst-case scenario, he is also minimizing the loss for the average-case scenario. This was called as a "super-optimality" by Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009).
3. The solution proposed minimizes the *combined* effect of the disturbances and the measurement errors, simultaneously.

Therefore, the usage of the explicit solution will give both the minimized worst and average case losses using a single evaluation, and will also consider the combined effect of the disturbances and measurement errors of the problem. Therefore, this solution it is the default one used in *Metacontrol*.

Another way of solving the optimization problem from Equation 2.15 is to use the Extended nullspace method (ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD; HORI, 2009). Differently from Equation 2.16, this solution does not consider the combined effect of the disturbances and measurement errors simultaneously. Instead, the problem is solved in two steps. The first regards "disturbance rejection": The loss is minimized with respect to disturbances. If there are remaining degrees of freedom, then the effect of the measurement errors can be minimized. The extended nullspace, differently from the exact local method, is not an optimal solution, instead being considered sub-optimal. (ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD, 2007; ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD; HORI, 2009). However, the authors of Alves et al. (2018) also

translated the mathematical formulations of the extended nullspace method into Python, and it is intended to be implemented within *Metacontrol* GUI in future releases merely as a secondary feature, giving its sub-optimality. The solution using the extended nullspace method is depicted in Equation 2.18:

$$H = M_n^{-1} \tilde{J} \left(W_{n^y}^{-1} \tilde{G}^y \right)^{\dagger} W_{n^y}^{-1} \tag{2.18}$$

Since Equation 2.16 also minimizes the worst-case loss, its evaluation was also considered inside *Metacontrol*: the user can inspect the expected average-case loss for each control structure that can exist in the combinatorial problem. The expression for the average-case loss is a result of the work of Kariwala, Cao, and Janardhanan (2008) and is described in Equation 2.19:

$$L_{\text{average}} = \frac{1}{6\left(n_y + n_d\right)} \left\| J_{uu}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(HG^y\right)^{-1} H\tilde{F} \right\|_F^2 \tag{2.19}$$

Lastly, it was necessary to implement within *Metacontrol* a branch-and-bound algorithm capable of quickly searching the best control structures for each possible subset of a given process, using the incurred loss as metric. This was considered by the authors of Alves et al. (2018) as an obligatory feature, since when *Metacontrol* is being used, it was understood that the main idea was to, in a comprehensive software, the user operating it should be capable of inspecting the most promising control structures, and discarding the unnecessary evaluation of the unpromising structures (i.e.: With a high incurred loss - both average of worst-case scenario) to save time and effort. It is important to remember that there is an evident combinatorial problem that grows in an explosive fashion, as the number of the unconstrained degrees of freedom of the reduced space problem and the number of available measurements both increases. Without a search method that is capable of quickly discarding undesired solutions, the usability of *Metacontrol* would be seriously compromised. Luckily, there are several implementations of branch-and-bound algorithms tailored for Self-Optimizing Control studies purposes, such as in Cao and Saha (2005), Cao and Kariwala (2008) and Kariwala and Cao (2009).

From the aforementioned works, Kariwala and Cao (2009) it is of particular interest: the monotonic criterion implemented consists of the exact local method from Halvorsen et al. (2003) and derived explicitly by Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009), which is used as the default methodology to pre-screen the most promising self-optimizing CV candidates in *Metacontrol*. Therefore, the usage of the proposed branch-and-bound algorithm by Kariwala and Cao (2009) it is not only convenient, making the software more effective, but also keeps the "calculation engine" from *Metacontrol* using the same criterion. It would not make any sense, for instance, using a branch-and-bound algorithm that outputs the index of the most promising CVs using the maximum singular value rule from Skogestad

and Postlethwaite (2007) and use the CV index sequence from this algorithm to evaluate the worst-case loss. Fundamentally speaking, the orders of "best" control structures would not be the same, simply because the search method would be using an different criterion from the linear method implemented to evaluate the H matrix.

The Branch-and-Bound algorithm developed by Kariwala and Cao (2009) that was originally implemented in MATLAB® by them was translated to Python by the main author of Alves et al. (2018). The same is true for equations of Exact Local and Extended Nullspace methods described by Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009). Those Python routines were packaged under the name of *pySOC* (Python-based Self-Optimizing Control), and can be found in `https://github.com/feslima/pySOC`, with the code being freely available for inspection, revision and suggestions.

3 *Kriging* reasoning

Metamodels are a way to represent the world in simpler terms. Think of them as a photograph, they do not capture the moment as whole but can represent it good enough. In this analogy, the moment is a complex process that it is too cumbersome to explain it completely in mathematical terms, and metamodels, as photographs, may serve the purpose of capturing the core trends of this process without being too unwieldy and not losing too much information.

There is a family of metamodeling methodologies, ranging from a simple linear regression to complex neural networks. However, this chapter will be dedicated to discuss *Kriging* surrogates.

The simplest form to represent a real world process (y) through a metamodel ($\hat{y}$) and its error (ε) is done through Equation 3.1.

$$y(x) = \hat{y}(x) + \varepsilon \tag{3.1}$$

The error ε is associated with the unmodeled effects of the inputs x and random noise (i.e. it cannot be explained in detail but cannot be ignored as well.). When using the *Kriging* methodology as metamodel, this error is assumed to be a probabilistic function of x, or in other words, this error is assumed to be *not* independent and identically distributed. The specific probabilistic function is represented by a Gaussian distribution with mean zero and variance σ^2.

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon(x) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \tag{3.2}$$

As from Søren Nymand Lophaven, Hans Bruun Nielsen, and Jacob Søndergaard (2002), a *Kriging* metamodel is comprised of two parts: a polynomial regression $\mathcal{F}$ and departure function z of stochastic nature, as can be seen in Equation 3.3.

$$\hat{y}_l(x) = \mathcal{F}\left(\beta_{:,l}, x\right) + z_l(x), \quad l = 1, \ldots, q \tag{3.3}$$

The regression model, considered as a linear combination of t functions ($f_j : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$), as defined in Equation 3.4.

$$\mathcal{F}\left(\beta_{:,l}, x\right) \equiv f(x)^T \beta_{:,l} \tag{3.4}$$

The most common choices for $f(x)$ are polynomials with orders ranging from zero (constant) to two (quadratic). It is assumed that z has mean zero, and the covariance between to given points, arbitrarily named w and x for instance, is defined by Equation 3.5:

$$\mathrm{Cov}\left[z_l(w), z_l(x)\right] = \sigma_l^2 \mathcal{R}\left(\theta_l, w, x\right), \quad l = 1, \ldots, q \tag{3.5}$$

With σ_l^2 being the process variance for the *lth* response component, and $\mathcal{R}(\theta, w, x)$ defined as the correlation model. In *Metacontrol*, the correlation model used is described in Equation 3.6.

$$\mathcal{R}\left(\theta_l, w, x\right) = \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{m} \theta_l \left(w - x_i\right)^p\right), \quad (\theta_l \geq 0, p_l \in [0, 2]) \tag{3.6}$$

Two important concepts must be addressed at this point: The first regards the meaning of the hyperparameter θ, being interpreted as the "activity" of variable x, meaning that, a low value of θ indicates that the points are highly correlated (ALVES et al., 2018). In addition, the value of θ also indicates how fast the correlation goes to zero as the process moves in the *lth* direction, as discussed by Caballero and Grossmann (2008). The second concept regards the parameter p in Equation 3.6, that represents the "smoothness" of the correlation. As its value reduces, the rate of the initial correlation drops as the distance between w and x_i increases. When $p \approx 0$, there is a discontinuity between $Y(w)$ and $Y\left(x_i\right)$ (FORRESTER; SOBESTER; KEANE, 2008) and there is no immediate correlation between the given points.

The hyperparameters θ are degrees of freedom available for optimization purposes, seeking the improvement of the metamodel fitness. In Søren Nymand Lophaven, Hans Bruun Nielsen, and Jacob Søndergaard (2002), the optimal set of hyperparameters θ^* corresponds to the maximum likelihood estimation. Assuming a Gaussian process (LOPHAVEN, S.; NIELSEN, H.; SØNDERGAARD, Jacob, 2002), the optimal values of the hyperparameters solves Equation 3.9:

$$\min_{\theta} \left\{\psi(\theta) \equiv |R|^{\frac{1}{m}} \sigma^2\right\} \tag{3.7}$$

Where $|R|$ is the determinant of the correlation matrix. The internal optimizer used in *DACE* corresponds to a modified version of the *Hooke & Jeeves* method, as showed by S. N. Lophaven, H. B. Nielsen, and J. Søndergaard (2002).

As stated before, high-order data obtainment it is an obligatory step in the proposed methodology implemented in *Metacontrol*. Fortunately, Søren Nymand Lophaven, Hans Bruun Nielsen, and Jacob Søndergaard (2002) also derived expressions for Jacobian

evaluation of a *Kriging* prediction (for full demonstration, consult Søren Nymand Lophaven, Hans Bruun Nielsen, and Jacob Søndergaard (2002)), given in Equation 3.8:

$$\hat{y}'(x) = J_f(x)^T \beta^* + J_r(x)^T \gamma^* \tag{3.8}$$

The expression for Hessian evaluation was derived by Alves et al. (2018) (full demonstration in appendix A of their work), and it is depicted in Equation 3.9:

$$\hat{y}''(x) = H_f(x)\beta^* + H_r(x)\gamma^* \tag{3.9}$$

Equations 3.8 and 3.9, differently from numeric/automatic differentiation, are not approximations and, instead, are analytical expressions derived by Søren Nymand Lophaven, Hans Bruun Nielsen, and Jacob Søndergaard (2002) and Alves et al. (2018). Therefore, it is expected a reduced error when one is using these expressions, if compared to techniques based in numerical approximation, considering that the *Kriging* metamodel used is precise enough.

For the design of experiments part, it was decided to implement the Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) because it allows to better sample the optimization domain without introducing ill-conditioning in the spatial correlation matrix calculated by the *Kriging* builder.

Lastly, both the LHS function and *Kriging* model builder/predictor were implemented as a separated package in Python under the name of *pydace* (from *Python toolbox for Design and Analysis of Experiments*). This package is a partial code translation from the MATLAB® toolbox implemented by Søren Nymand Lophaven, Hans Bruun Nielsen, and Jacob Søndergaard (2002) named *DACE* to the Python programming language. The link to the open-source code is `https://github.com/feslima/pydace`. There the reader can find a brief documentation on how to install and example of usage.

4 Non linear optimization and infill criteria

When dealing with a non linear problem, such as in Equation 2.1, typically it is resorted to classical solvers (e.g. SQP, trust-region-dogleg, genetic algorithms, simulated annealing, etc.) to obtain its solution, depending on the nature of the NLP (e.g. presence of discontinuities, whether or not the function is differentiable, etc.).

There is a entire field of study dedicated to find these NLP solutions with *Kriging* surrogates. In the works of Jones (2001), Sasena (2002), Forrester, Sobester, and Keane (2008) and Alexandrov et al. (2000), there are entire discussions and frameworks on how to solve non linear problems and comparisons of several metrics involved in the optimization process with metamodels.

The premise of performing a optimization using surrogates is that the model to be optimized is too time consuming or computationally expensive to be solved with classical solvers. To circumvent this, the following steps are proposed:

1. Build an approximation model with *Kriging* surrogates using a limited number of initial samples. This approximation is a "generalistic" enough representation of the real model;

2. Perform a optimization of the approximation model using classical NLP solvers and an infill criteria. The surrogate model reduces the "search area" needed by the solver;

3. Compare the surrogate optimum found in step 2 with the result from original model. In other words: feed the results from the *Kriging* metamodel optimum into the original model and see if they are close enough;

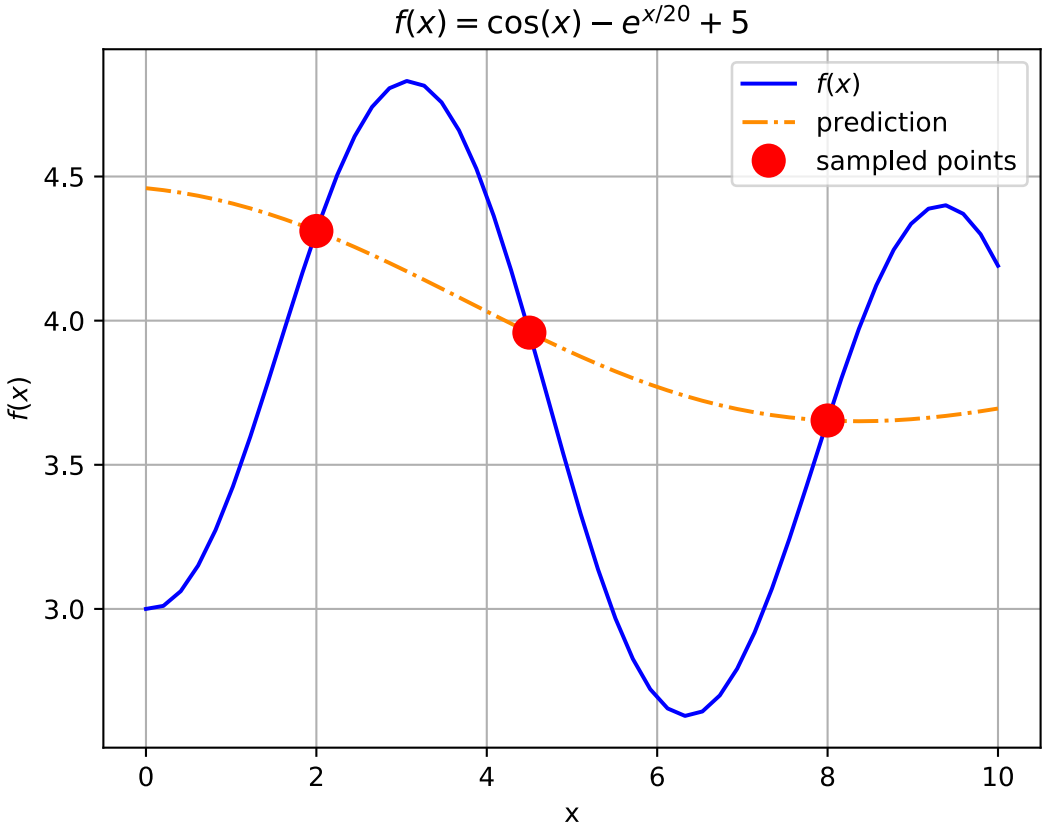
4. If the optimum from the metamodel is close enough (based on a chosen metric) to the original model, then this may be the true optimum. Otherwise, update the *Kriging* model by introducing the value found and return to step 2;

This process is basically "filling holes" (hence the name *infill*) in our *Kriging* metamodel until original model optimum is found. To illustrate this in the simplest way, suppose a complex process that we need to optimize that is represented by the following function:

$$f(x) = -\cos(x) - e^{\frac{x}{20}} + 5$$

Assuming that we only have three initial points sampled from this model function, we build our *Kriging* model. As can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1 – Initial plot of our complex model. The solid blue line represents the function behavior. The dashed line is the *Kriging* metamodel of the three sampled points (red circles) available.



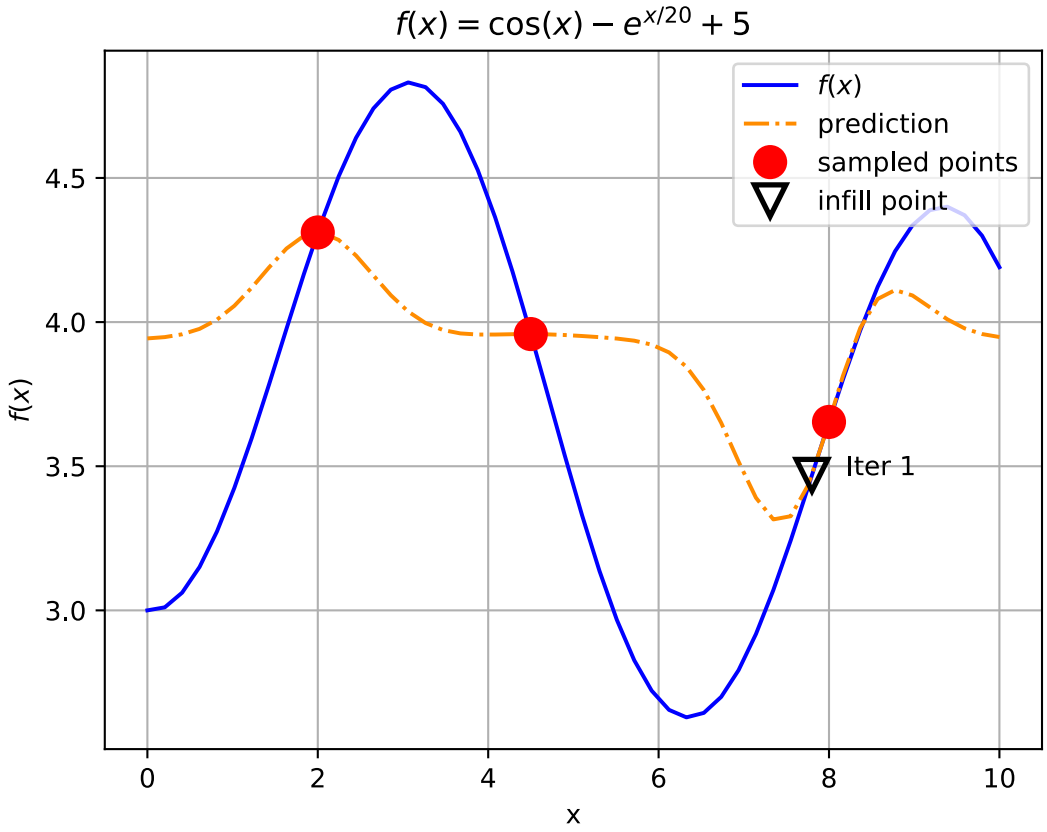
Source: Author.

When applying an optimization solver on the *Kriging* model, we get a new optimal value for x near 7.8 (3.47 for $f(x)$ when we consult the original model). Now, we include these values of $(x, f(x))$ in the sample and rebuild the *Kriging* metamodel. The result is shown Figure 2. We keep repeating this procedure until we get the result in Figure 3.

This example is a trivial one because the problem involves a single input variable and infill criteria is the own *Kriging* prediction of the model. As discussed in Jones (2001), this criteria has its pitfalls if used without other precautions.

Caballero and Grossmann (2008) presented an algorithm, based on the "method 2" in the work of Jones (2001), referred as a gradient matching technique where the gradient of the surrogate is forced to match with the true function gradient, this is done through trust-region approach to ensure local convergence which was proven in the work of Alexandrov et al. (2000). The basic idea of this approach is: minimize the NLP problem

Figure 2 – The *Kriging* model after one update.

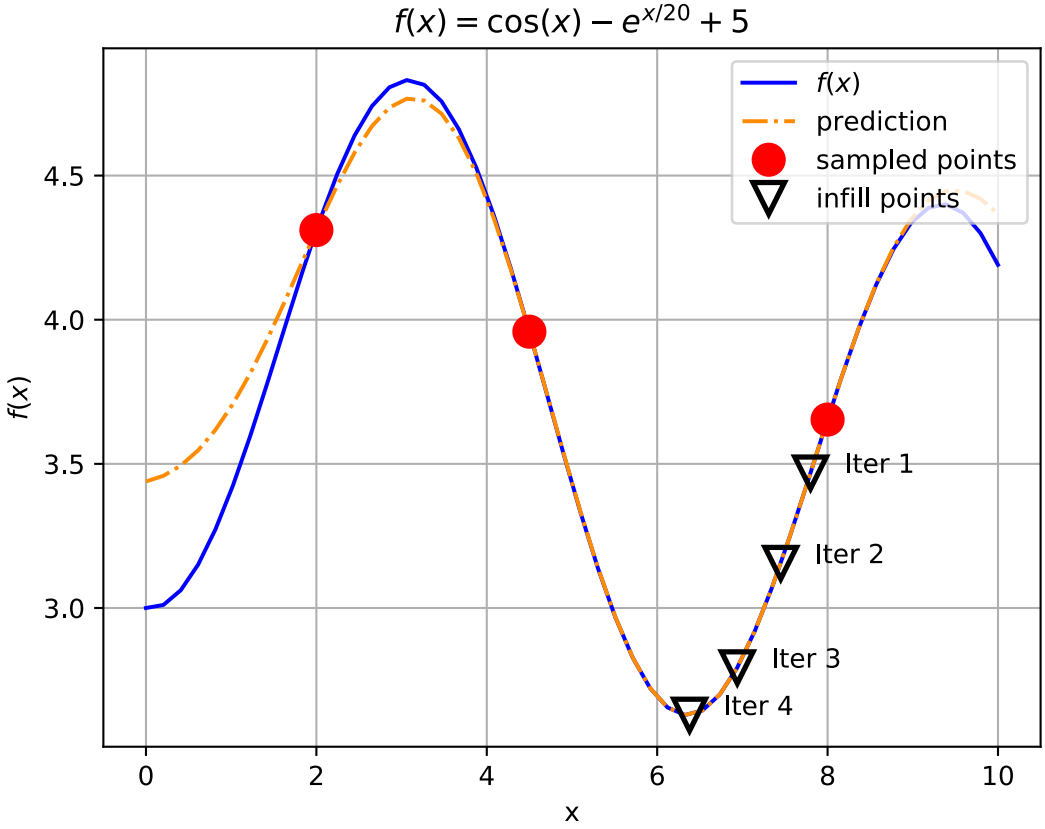


Source: Author.

metamodel, consult the original function at the minimum found in the metamodel, update the sample matrix used to build the surrogate. Repeat this until a convergence criteria is met. The flowchart depicting the whole procedure is defined in Figure 4. For detailed explanation of each step of the proposed algorithm, one must refer to Caballero and Grossmann (2008) and Alves et al. (2018).

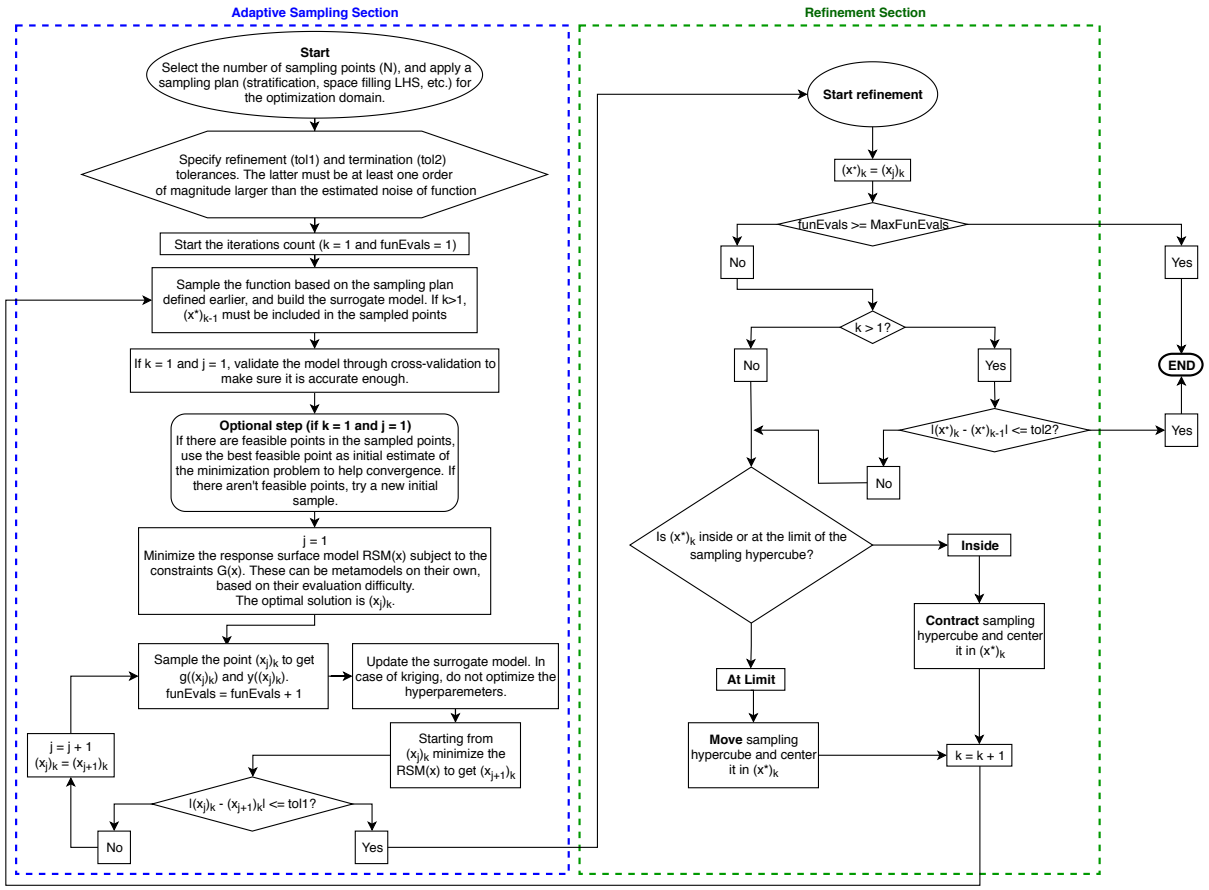
This approach was implemented as a procedure of the Python package *surropt* (from *Surrogate Optimization*). It uses as internal NLP solver a Python wrapper authored by Kummerer and Moore (2019) of the well-established *IpOpt* package (WÄCHTER; BIEGLER, 2006). The *surropt* package is found on `https://github.com/feslima/surropt`.

Figure 3 – The *Kriging* model after four updates. Notice how the *Kriging* model adjusts to the true function.



Source: Author.

Figure 4 – Flowchart of Caballero and Grossmann (2008) algorithm, translated to Python by the authors of this work and implemented within *Metacontrol*.



Source: Alves et al. (2018)

5 The *Metacontrol* framework

To apply the "top-down" part (SKOGESTAD, 2000) of the SOC methodology the conventional way (ALVES et al., 2018; ALSTAD; SKOGESTAD; HORI, 2009; SKOGESTAD, 2000), the following steps are typically involved:

1. Identify the relevant process variables: manipulated variables, disturbances and potential CV candidates (process measurements) in order to perform a Degree of Freedom (DOF) analysis (taking into account both steady and dynamic state of the process);

2. Define optimal operation: Define the objective function to be used in order to seek an optimal operating point;

3. Modeling of the industrial process (using a process simulator or or any numerical environment, for instance) as close as possible to the reality;

4. Optimize the process model;

5. Implement the control loops of active constraints found in the previous step - "active constraint control" (SKOGESTAD, 2000);

6. Evaluate the loss (result of a constant setpoint policy as showed by Skogestad (2000) and Halvorsen et al. (2003)) for each possible control structures for the remaining (unconstrained) degrees of freedom available: This can be done manually, evaluating each possible control structures one at a time ("brute-force" approach (UMAR et al., 2012)), which is, very often, an impracticable approach due to combinatorial explosion (ARAÚJO; GOVATSMARK; SKOGESTAD, 2007). Therefore, it is more efficient to "pre-screen" the most promising CV candidates using local (linear) methods that have been developed and applied by several authors such as Halvorsen et al. (2003), Hori, Skogestad, and Alstad (2005), Eduardo Shigueo Hori and Skogestad (2008) and Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009). For the latter approach, it is necessary to obtain the reduced-space problem (unconstrained) differential information (gradient with respect to CV candidates and disturbances, and also the objective function Hessian) evaluated at the optimal point found in step 4;

    a) When using the local methods, it is necessary to define disturbances magnitudes and the measurement errors of the candidates of step 1;

    b) To evaluate the loss using local methods, one have to apply the mathematical formulations involved in these methods to obtain the candidates variables

combinations and their respective losses. The mathematical formulations that can be used are mainly: The maximum gain rule authored by Skogestad and Postlethwaite (2007), the exact local method derived by Halvorsen et al. (2003) and analytically solved by Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009) or the nullspace method derived by Alstad and Skogestad (2007);

7. Perform a controllability analysis based on the results from step 6 in order to determine the most efficient MV-CV pairings.

Even though it is possible to describe the methodology in steps, its application is not so simple. That is, many of those steps take place in different environments. For instance:

- In steps 1 amd 2, it is the closest as engineers, have to a brainstorming session, where it is considered the variables that best describe the process, which of these will yield better convergence in the process simulator; which of them will be realistic enough when designing a control system, etc. Then perform a degree of freedom analysis for both steady state and dynamic state (i.e. the DOF analysis of one seldom is the same as the other). In addition, there is the performance criteria decision in the objective function it is going to be optimized.

- In step 3, it is necessary to simulate with a software package, the process to a minimum satisfaction standard. Or in other words, is this simulation a realistic enough representation of the process?

- Sometimes, the process simulator (e.g. Aspen Plus, Aspen HYSYS, Unisim, etc.) optimization routines are not capable of solving the nonlinear problem that has been defined. So, in step 4, it may be needed to resort an external optimization package (e.g. IpOpt, GAMS, MATLAB® optimization toolbox, etc). This is another environment to work with. In other words, an additional "layer" of complexity.

- If it is necessary the usage of an external NLP solver, then one have to go back to the process simulator and implement the active constraints, as required by the SOC methodology.

- In step 6, to obtain the differential information required, there are different approaches in order to do so:

    1. Extracting manually from the simulator (i.e. performing a first and second order numerical differentiation by applying the differentiation steps and collecting the output from the simulator);

2. Using another external package to extract the gradient and hessian (i.e. Automatic differentiation packages);
3. Using a surrogate approximation of the process simulation in the optimum region, and extracting the differential information from this metamodel;

Option 3 was proposed as solution in the work of Alves et al. (2018), and is implemented in *Metacontrol*. Options 1 and 2 are not implemented due to difficult nature inherent to them. For example, option 1 is a tedious task, even impossible depending on the number of variables to apply the differentiation steps required, and human-error prone since each step applied is done manually. In both options, another limitation that one faces regards the physical meaning of the variables involved in the numeric differentiation process. Strictly speaking: the simulation package does not accept negative values for variables such as flowrates. Compositions are limited to values between 0 and 1. Temperatures may or not accept negative values depending on their units (from 0 to infinity for Kelvin, or -273 to infinity in degree Celsius), etc. Thus, if the numeric differentiation package try to step into outside of these valid value ranges, the simulation software will simply not converge.

- In Step 6 and 7, one have to use another numeric environment to implement algorithms and equations from Kariwala and Cao (2009), Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009) and Alves et al. (2018) in order to perform the calculations necessary to obtain the controlled variables candidates combinations and analyze the controllability of the process studied, respectively.

As can be seen, this is a methodology implementation that goes back-and-forth between several numeric computation (e.g. MATLAB®, Octave, Microsoft Excel, etc.) and simulation (e.g. Aspen Plus, Aspen HYSYS, Unisim, etc.) environments. Therefore, *Metacontrol* was created as a software package that allows all of these steps to be done in a single environment (or at least, keep the necessity of transition to a minimum) for the sake of convenience to apply the SOC methodology.

5.1 *Metacontrol* workflow

The tool has two modes of operation:

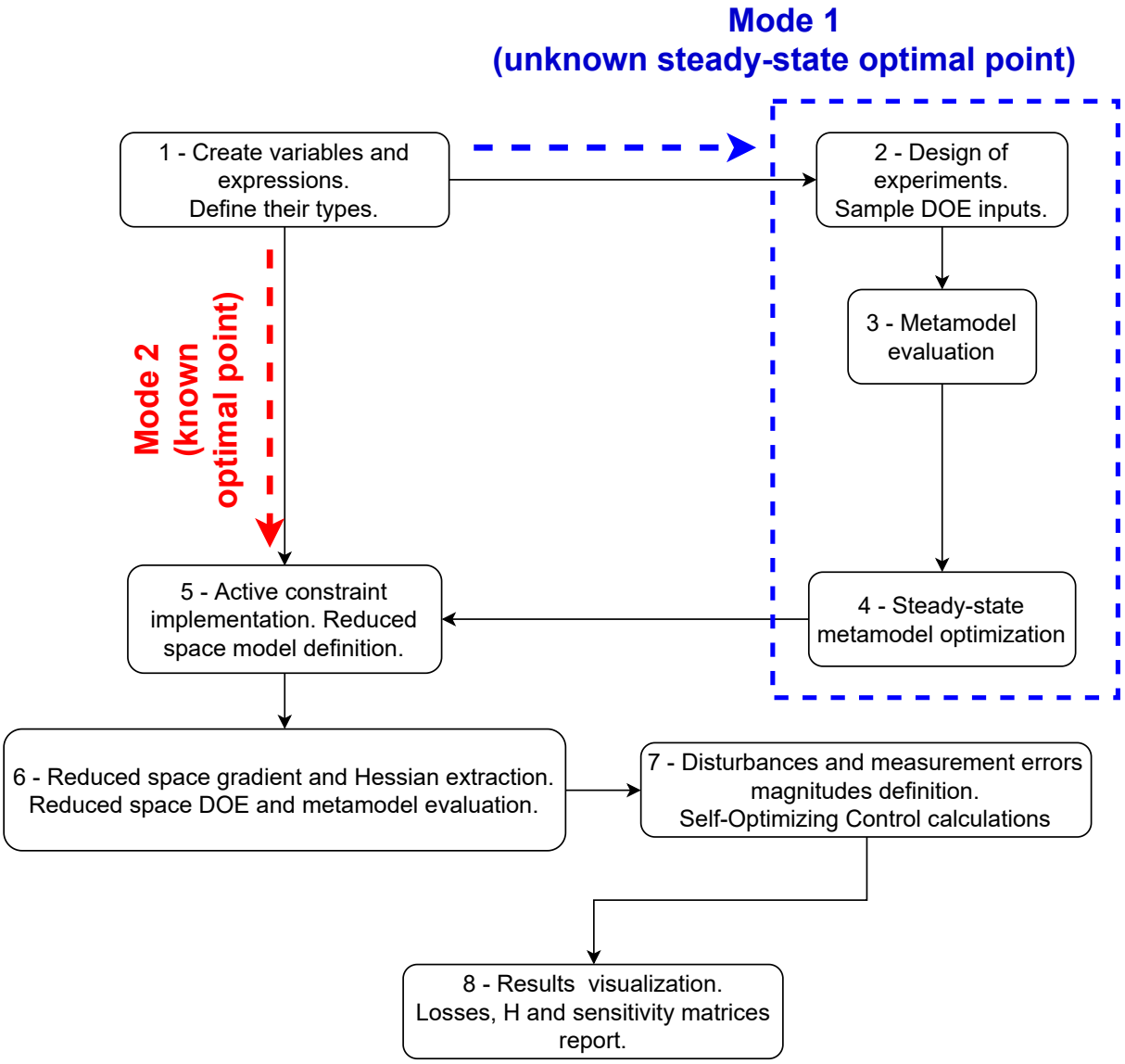
1. The user wishes to apply the methodology proposed by Alves et al. (2018) completely, as seen in Figure 5 represented by the blue dashed arrow and rectangle. That is, he needs to create and define variables and expressions (1), perform a Design of Experiments (DOE) of the industrial process (2), build its NLP constraints and objective function metamodels (3), optimize this NLP metamodel (4). If the

optimization process is successful, implement its active constraints and obtain the reduced space model (5), build another metamodel of the objective function and controlled candidates variables in reduced space, then extract the gradient and Hessian (6). Finally, apply the SOC methodology described by Alstad, Skogestad, and Hori (2009) (7-8).

2. The user already knows the process steady-state optimum, and wishes to apply the methodology partially, see the red dashed arrow in Figure 5. He needs to create the variables/expressions (1), then he implements the active constraints and generate the reduced space metamodels (5). Extract the gradients and hessian needed (6), define the rest of inputs needed to perform the SOC analysis (7) and analyze its results (8).

The only difference between modes 1 and 2, is that the user, when opting for mode 2, skips steps (2) to (4) in mode 1. Everything else is the same.

Figure 5 – Flowchart describing how *Metacontrol* works.



Source: Alves et al. (2018)

6 Case studies applied in *Metacontrol*

Text goes here...

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Appendix

APPENDIX A – Quisque libero justo

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