MATH 4280

Lecture Notes 8: Data-driven dynamical systems

Dynamical systems

We consider dynamical systems of the form

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), t; \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

where \mathbf{x} is the state, \mathbf{f} is a given vector field and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is a set of parameters

We will also consider simpler case of an autonomous system

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t))$$

where the right hand side has no time dependence or parameter

Discrete-time systems

We also consider discrete-time systems

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

- Discrete-time dynamics may be induced from continuous-time dynamics, where $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}(k\Delta t)$ is obtained the sampling in discrete times
- In this case, the discrete-time propagator ${f F}_{\Delta t}$ is parameterized by the time step Δt
- For an arbitrary time, we define the flow map \mathbf{F}_t by

$$\mathbf{F}_t(\mathbf{x}(t_0)) = \mathbf{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t_0+t} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(\tau)) d\tau$$

Linear dynamics

We consider linear dynamics of the form

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$$

The solution is given by

$$\mathbf{x}(t_0 + t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}(t_0)$$

The matrix A has the following spectral decomposition

$$AT = T\Lambda$$

• When the matrix A has distinct eigenvalues, we have $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{T} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{T}^{-1}$ and

$$\mathbf{x}(t_0 + t) = \mathbf{T}e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t}\mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{x}(t_0)$$

where Λ is a diagonal matrix, columns of T are eigenvectors

Goals

- Future state prediction: e.g. weather forecasting
- Design and optimization: tune the parameters of a system for improved performance
- Estimation and control: actively control a dynamical system through feedback
- Physical understanding: obtain insights of a system by analyzing the solutions

Challenges

- Nonlinearity: the main challenge
- Unknown dynamics: a lot of problems do not have known governing equations
- High dimensional dynamics: difficult to find patterns to uncover intrinsic coordinates which the dominant behavior evolves

Data-driven approaches

- Traditionally, physical systems are analyzed by making ideal approximations, resulting in simple models
- With increasing complex systems, the paradigm is shifting from classical approaches to data-driven methods to discover governing equations
- Determining the correct model is becoming more subjective, and there is a need for automated model discovery technique
- Thus, identifying unknown dynamics and learning intrinsic coordinates are the most pressing goals

Dynamic mode decomposition (DMD)

- DMD is used to identity spatio-temporal coherent structures in high dimensional data
- DMD is based on proper orthogonal decomposition (POD)
- DMD identifies the best linear dynamical system that advances high dimensional measurement forward in time
- DMD is based purely on measurement data

Basic ideas of DMD

- It is a data-driven approach
- First, collect a number of pairs of snapshots as they evolve in time
- We denote the snapshots as $\{(\mathbf{x}(t_k),\mathbf{x}(t_k')\}_{k=1}^m \text{ where } t_k'=t_k+\Delta t$
- Here Δt is the time step, small enough to capture highest frequencies in the dynamics
- The snapshot is a state of the system sampled at a number of discretized locations

The snapshots can be arranged into data matrices

reshape a snapshot into a 1D array

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & \\ \mathbf{x}(t_1) & \mathbf{x}(t_2) & \cdots & \mathbf{x}(t_m) \\ & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{X}' = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & \\ \mathbf{x}(t_1') & \mathbf{x}(t_2') & \cdots & \mathbf{x}(t_m') \\ & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

• Note, if we assume uniform sampling in time $t_k = k\Delta t$ and $t_k' = t_k + \Delta t = t_{k+1}$, we use the notation $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}(k\Delta t)$

shifting the data entries by one

• The DMD algorithm seeks the best linear operator **A** that relates the two snapshot matrices in time

$$\mathbf{X}' \approx \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$$

- This best fit linear operator gives a linear dynamical system that advances snapshot measurements in time
- If we assume uniform sampling in time

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} \approx \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k$$

Mathematically, the linear operator is defined as

$$\mathbf{A} = \underset{\mathbf{A}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\|_F = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}^{\dagger}$$

 Note that A and its eigenvectors are expensive to compute due to large dimension

DMD algorithm

- Assume **X** is $m \times n$, $m \ll n$
- Step 1: Compute the SVD of **X**

$$\mathbf{X} pprox \tilde{\mathbf{U}} \tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}} \tilde{\mathbf{V}}^*$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{U}} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times r}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}} \in \mathbb{C}^{r \times r}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{V}} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times r}$

- Here $r \leq m$ is the exact or approximate rank of the data matrix X
- ullet Recall that the columns of $ar{f U}$ are called POD modes

(= PCA modes)

Step 2: Recall that the full matrix A is computed as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}' \tilde{\mathbf{V}} \tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{U}}^*$$

- Note that we are interested in the leading r eigenvectors
- We project A onto the POD modes (the space that spanned by U \tilde)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \tilde{\mathbf{U}}^* \mathbf{A} \tilde{\mathbf{U}} = \tilde{\mathbf{U}}^* \mathbf{X}' \tilde{\mathbf{V}} \tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1}$$

- Note that the reduced matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ has the same nonzero eigenvalues as the full matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$
- The reduced matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ defines a linear dynamic for POD modes

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} = \tilde{\mathbf{A}} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k$$
 $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{A} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k$ $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{A} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k$

• The full state can be recovered by $\mathbf{x} = \tilde{\mathbf{U}}\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$

• Step 3: Perform the spectral decomposition of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{\Lambda}$$

- Note that the diagonal matrix $\bf \Lambda$ contains the DMD eigenvalues, which are also eigenvalues of the full matrix $\bf \Lambda$
- ullet The columns of ullet are eigenvectors, which are linear combination of POD modes amplitudes
- Step 4: The high dimensional DMD modes Φ are reconstructed by

$$\mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{\tilde{V}} \mathbf{\tilde{\Sigma}}^{-1} \mathbf{W}$$
 (Which has no explanation

Note that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{\Phi} = (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\mathbf{V}}\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1}\underbrace{\tilde{\mathbf{U}}^*)(\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\mathbf{V}}\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1}}_{\tilde{\mathbf{A}}}\mathbf{W})$$

$$= \mathbf{X}'\tilde{\mathbf{V}}\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1}\tilde{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{W}$$

$$= \mathbf{X}'\tilde{\mathbf{V}}\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{\Lambda}$$

 $= \Phi \Lambda$

DMD modes are eigenvectors

DMD expansion

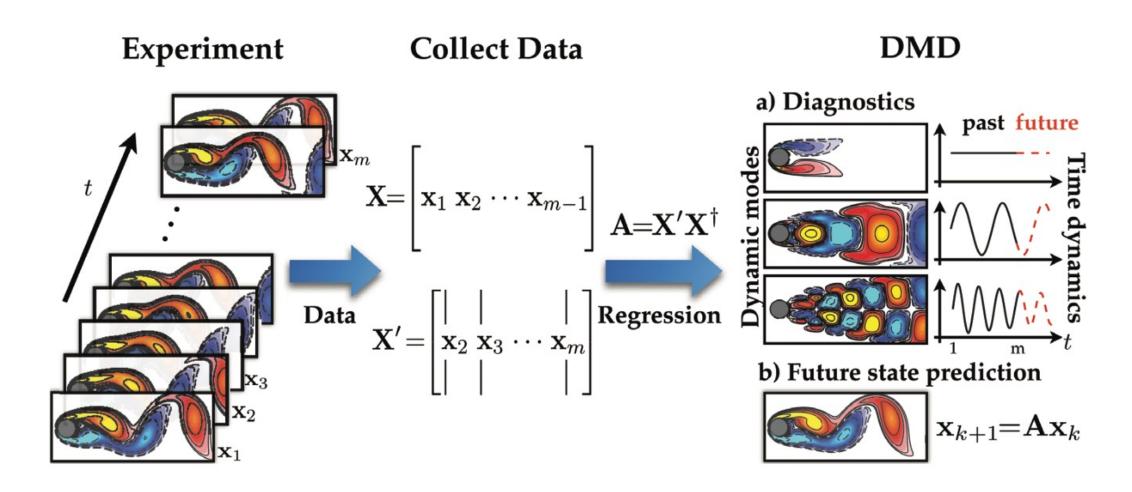
We can use DMD modes to represent the state of the system

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \sum_{j=1}^r \boldsymbol{\phi}_j \lambda_j^{k-1} b_j = \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{k-1} \mathbf{b}$$

- The vector \mathbf{b} is computed by $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{\Phi}^{\dagger} \mathbf{x}_1$
- A more convenient way to compute b

$$\begin{array}{ll} & x_1 = \Phi b \\ \Longrightarrow & \tilde{U}\tilde{x}_1 = X'\tilde{V}\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}Wb \\ \Longrightarrow & \tilde{x}_1 = \tilde{U}^*X'\tilde{V}\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}Wb \\ \Longrightarrow & \tilde{x}_1 = \tilde{A}Wb \\ \Longrightarrow & \tilde{x}_1 = W\Lambda b \\ \Longrightarrow & b = (W\Lambda)^{-1}\tilde{x}_1. \end{array}$$

Overview of using DMD algorithm



Applications: fluid dynamics, neuroscience, video processing, etc

Sparse identification of nonlinear dynamics

- Discovering dynamical systems from data is a central challenge
- Sparse identification of nonlinear dynamics (SIND) considers

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$$

We seek the following approximation

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \sum_{k=1}^{p} \theta_k(\mathbf{x}) \xi_k = \mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \boldsymbol{\xi}$$

with the fewest nonzero terms in §

We collect the following data for the states and their derivatives

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t_1) & \mathbf{x}(t_2) & \cdots & \mathbf{x}(t_m) \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t_1) & \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t_2) & \cdots & \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t_m) \end{bmatrix}^T$$

A library of candidate functions is used

$$\mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{X}^2 & \cdots & \mathbf{X}^d & \cdots & \sin(\mathbf{X}) & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$$

The dynamical system is represented using data matrices

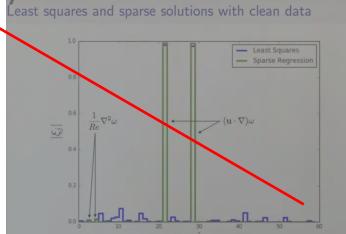
$$\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{\Xi}$$

The following optimization problem is used to identify the model

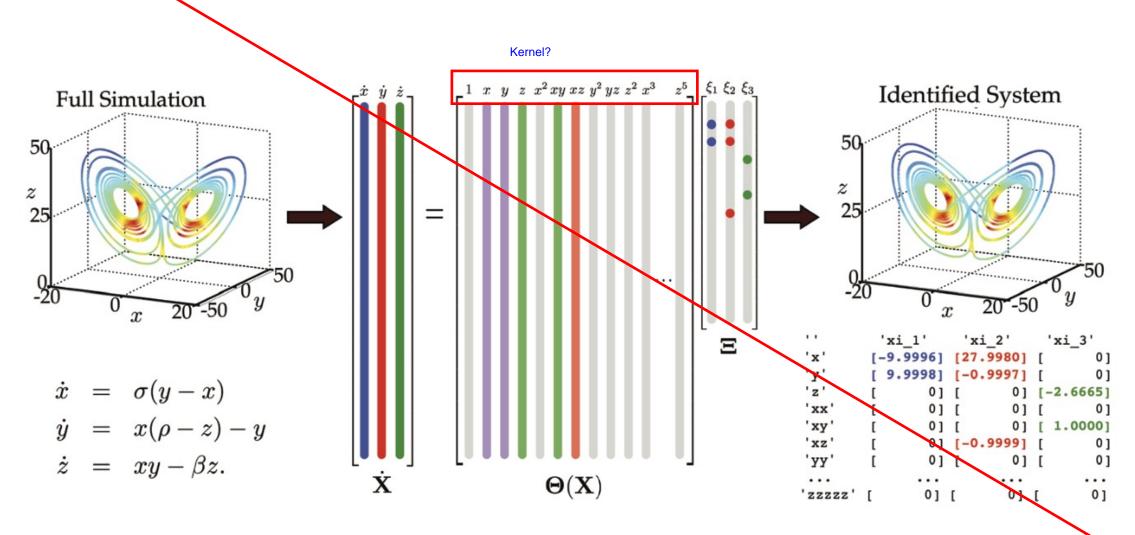
$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}_k'} \|\dot{\mathbf{X}}_k - \boldsymbol{\Theta}(\mathbf{X})\boldsymbol{\xi}_k'\|_2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\xi}_k'\|_1$$

Bad approach: least squares - It is bad because \xi is almost surely dense. Better approach: sparse regression

Green column: generated by sparse regression



Schematic of SIND



Discovering PDE

Data: if the data is not clean, we need to smoothen it

- Let $\Upsilon \in \mathbb{C}^{mn}$ be space-time data, m is the number of spatial locations
- Additional input can be included in $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_1 \setminus \{u_t(x_n, t_m)\}}$
- Next, a library $\Theta(\Upsilon, \mathbf{Q}) \in \mathbb{C}^{mn \times D}$ with \underline{D} candidates of <u>linear and</u> nonlinear terms and partial derivatives is used, and it has the form

$$\Theta(\Upsilon, \mathbf{Q}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \Upsilon & \Upsilon^2 & \dots & \mathbf{Q} & \dots & \Upsilon_x & \Upsilon\Upsilon_x & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

The PDE can be represented in this library by

$$\Upsilon_t = \Theta(\Upsilon, \mathbf{Q})\xi$$

• Then, we find the sparse vector \(\xi \)

Data + assumptions \Rightarrow linear system

Collect data for discovery of PDE

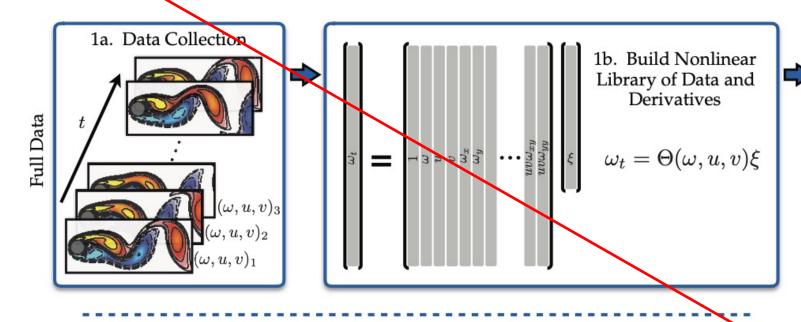
U is discretization of u across spatiotemporal domain

Q is discretization of q on same domain

Numerically compute u_x, u_{xx}, \ldots from uCreate linear system to solve for v: $u_t = v$: $u_t(x_1, t_1)$ $u_t(x_2, t_1$

 $\Theta(U,Q)$

Schematic



1c. Solve Sparse
Regression $\min_{\|\Theta \mathcal{E} - \omega_n\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathcal{E}}$

 $\underset{\xi}{arg\,min} \|\Theta\xi - \omega_t\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\xi\|_0$



d. Identified Dynamics

$$\omega_t + 0.9931u\omega_x + 0.9910v\omega_y$$

= $0.0099\omega_{xx} + 0.0099\omega_{yy}$

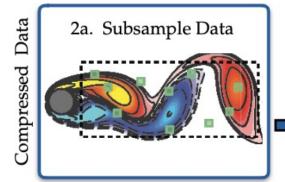
Compare to True Navier Stokes (Re = 100)

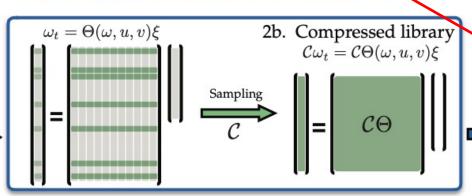
$$\omega_t + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla)\omega = \frac{1}{Re} \nabla^2 \omega$$



2c. Solve Compressed
Sparse Regression

 $\underset{\xi}{arg\,min} \|\mathcal{C}\Theta\xi - \mathcal{C}\omega_t\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\xi\|_0$





Koopman operator

- Represent a nonlinear dynamical system in terms of an infinite dimensional linear operator
- This Koopman operator is linear, and its spectral decomposition completely characterizes the nonlinear dynamics
- Obtaining finite dimensional approximation of the Koopman operator is the focus of research

 Linear matrix that advances measurements forward in time

Mathematical formulation

- We let $g\colon M \to \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued measurement function
- ullet The Koopman operator \mathcal{K}_t is an infinite dimensional linear operator acting on measurement functions defined by

$$\mathcal{K}_t g = g \circ \mathbf{F}_t$$
 (F_t we considered before)

For discrete time system, we have

$$\mathcal{K}_{\Delta t} g(\mathbf{x}_k) = g(\mathbf{F}_{\Delta t}(\mathbf{x}_k)) = g(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})$$
 we could have many choices of g

• Thus, the Koopman operator advances the observation of a state

$$g(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = \mathcal{K}_{\Delta t} g(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

 For smooth continuous time dynamical system, we can define the following Koopman dynamical system

$$\frac{d}{dt}g = \mathcal{K}g.$$

ullet The operator ${\mathcal K}$ is defined as

$$\mathcal{K}g = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\mathcal{K}_{tg} - g}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{g \circ \mathbf{F}_t - g}{t}$$

Mathematical formulation

Koopman eigenfunctio \mathfrak{P} be a real-valued measurement function

- ullet The Koopman operator \mathcal{K}_t is an infinite dimensional linear operator acting on measurement functions defined by
- Identify key measurement functions, that evolves linearly (F_1) WE CONSIDERATE OF THE PROPERTY (F_1) WE CONSIDERATE OF THE PROPERTY OF THE P
- Discrete-time Koopman eigenfunctions are given $b_{g}y_{x_{k}} = g(\mathbf{F}_{\Delta t}(\mathbf{x}_{k})) = g(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})$ we could have many choloes of

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = \mathcal{K}_{\Delta t} \varphi(\dot{\mathbf{x}}_k) = \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x}_k)$$
 Koopman operator advances the observation of a state

Continuous-time Koopman eigenfunctions are given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{K}\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda\varphi(\mathbf{x})$$

Taking derivatives, we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \dot{\mathbf{x}} = \nabla\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$$

• So, we obtain a PDE for the eigenfunctions

$$\nabla \varphi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x})$$

page 32 discusses how to obtain eigenfunction

- Any conserved quantity is a Koopman eigenfunction corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda=0$
- ullet The constant function arphi=1 is the trivial eigenfunction
- Product of two eigenfunctions is still an eigenfunction:

$$\mathcal{K}(\varphi_1 \varphi_2) = \frac{d}{dt} (\varphi_1 \varphi_2)$$

$$= \dot{\varphi}_1 \varphi_2 + \varphi_1 \dot{\varphi}_2$$

$$= \lambda_1 \varphi_1 \varphi_2 + \lambda_2 \varphi_1 \varphi_2$$

$$= (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) \varphi_1 \varphi_2.$$

• The continuous and discrete time eigenvalues are related: if λ is a continuous time eigenvalue, then $e^{\lambda t}$ is the corresponding discrete time eigenvalue:

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\mathcal{K}_t \varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x})}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{e^{\lambda t} \varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x})}{t} = \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x})$$

Koopman mode decomposition

- Usually, we like to take multiple measurements of a system
- We denote these measurements as a vector

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} g_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ g_2(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ g_p(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Each individual measurement can be expanded in terms of eigenfunctions

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v_{ij} \varphi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v_{ij} \varphi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} g_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ g_2(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ g_p(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v}_j$$

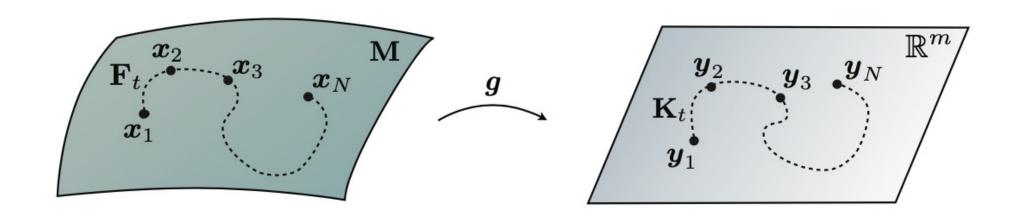
where \mathbf{v}_i is the j-th Koopman mode associated with φ_i

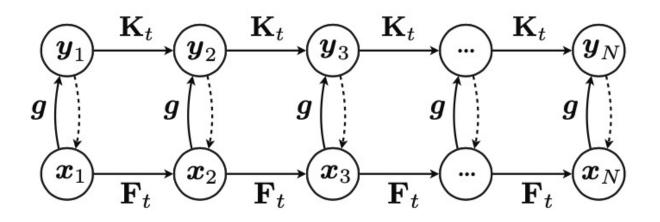
 Using the above decomposition, we can represent the dynamics of the measurement function as follows

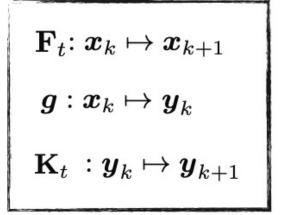
$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k) = \mathcal{K}_{\Delta t}^k \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{K}_{\Delta t}^k \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}_0) \mathbf{v}_j$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{K}_{\Delta t}^k \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}_0) \mathbf{v}_j$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lambda_j^k \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}_0) \mathbf{v}_j$$

• The triple $\{(\lambda_j, \varphi_j, \mathbf{v}_j)\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$ is called the Koopman mode decomposition

Schematic for Koopman operator







Invariant eigenspace

• A Koopman invariant subspace is the span of functions $\{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p\}$ if all functions g in this space

$$g = \alpha_1 g_1 + \alpha_2 g_2 + \cdots + \alpha_p g_p$$

remain in the space after applied the Koopman operator

$$\mathcal{K}g = \beta_1 g_1 + \beta_2 g_2 + \dots + \beta_p g_p$$

- Find a finite dimensional matrix representation of the Koopman operator restricted to the invariant subspace
- This gives finite dimensional systems

$$g(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = \mathcal{K}_{\Delta t} g(\mathbf{x}_k)$$
 $\frac{d}{dt} g = \mathcal{K} g.$

A simple example

Consider the following nonlinear dynamical system

$$\dot{x}_1 = \mu x_1$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = \lambda (x_2 - x_1^2)$$

• We introduce the nonlinear measurement $g=x_1^2$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & -\lambda \\ 0 & 0 & 2\mu \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for} \quad \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Examples of Koopman eigenfunctions

Consider the linear dynamics

$$\frac{d}{dt}x = x$$

Using Taylor's expansion

$$\varphi(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \cdots$$

$$\nabla \varphi = c_1 + 2c_2 x + 3c_3 x^2 + 4c_4 x^3 + \cdots$$

$$\nabla \varphi \cdot f = c_1 x + 2c_2 x^2 + 3c_3 x^3 + 4c_4 x^4 + \cdots$$

- We use the equation $\nabla \varphi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x})$
- We observe that $c_0 = 0$
- For any positive integer $\lambda = k$, $\varphi(x) = cx^k$ is an eigenfunction

Consider the nonlinear dynamical system

$$\frac{d}{dt} = x^2$$

Assume the Laurent series

$$\varphi(x) = \dots + c_{-3}x^{-3} + c_{-2}x^{-2} + c_{-1}x^{-1} + c_0$$

$$+ c_1x + c_2x^2 + c_3x^3 + \dots$$

$$\nabla \varphi = \dots - 3c_{-3}x^{-4} - 2c_{-2}x^{-3} - c_{-1}x^{-2} + c_1 + 2c_2x$$

$$+ 3c_3x^2 + 4c_4x^3 + \dots$$

$$\nabla \varphi \cdot f = \dots - 3c_{-3}x^{-2} - 2c_{-2}x^{-1} - c_{-1} + c_1x^2 + 2c_2x^3$$

$$+ 3c_3x^4 + 4c_4x^5 + \dots$$

- We observe $c_k=0$ for $k\geq 1$, and $\lambda c_{k+1}=kc_k$ for $k\leq -1$
- Thus, for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, we have

$$\varphi(x) = c_0 \left(1 - \lambda x^{-1} + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} x^{-2} - \frac{\lambda^3}{3} x^{-3} + \dots \right) = c_0 e^{-\lambda/x}$$

Extended DMD: data-driven approach

- Goal: identify Koopman eigenfunctions from data
- We construct an augmented state

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{\Theta}^{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{1}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \theta_{2}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \theta_{p}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

which contains the original state and nonlinear measurements, $p\gg n$

Define the data matrices

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{y}_1 & \mathbf{y}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{y}_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{Y}' = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{y}_2 & \mathbf{y}_3 & \cdots & \mathbf{y}_{m+1} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

The best fit matrix is obtained by

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{Y}}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{Y}' - \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{Y}\| = \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y}^{\dagger}$$

Equivalently

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{Y}}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{\Theta}^{T}(\mathbf{X}') - \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{\Theta}^{T}(\mathbf{X})\| = \mathbf{\Theta}^{T}(\mathbf{X}') \left(\mathbf{\Theta}^{T}(\mathbf{X})\right)^{\dagger}$$

Approximating Koopman eigenfunctions

• For discrete time dynamics, Koopman eigenfunction satisfies

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \vdots \\ \lambda \varphi(\mathbf{x}_m) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \varphi(\mathbf{x}_3) \\ \vdots \\ \varphi(\mathbf{x}_{m+1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Expand the eigenfunction in terms of some candidate functions

$$\mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1(\mathbf{x}) & \theta_2(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \theta_p(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$
 set of basis

So, we have

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \approx \sum_{k=1}^{p} \theta_k(\mathbf{x}) \xi_k = \mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \boldsymbol{\xi}$$

We obtain the following using the above

$$(\lambda \Theta(\mathbf{X}) - \Theta(\mathbf{X}')) \xi = 0.$$

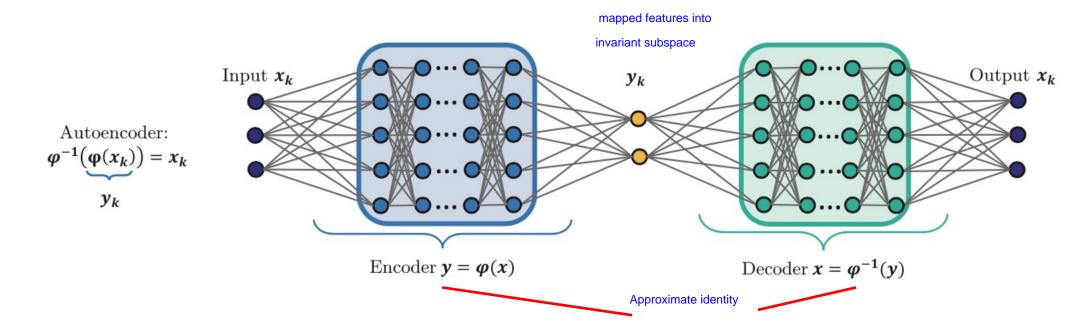
If we seek the least squares fit

$$\lambda \boldsymbol{\xi} = \boldsymbol{\Theta}(\mathbf{X})^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\Theta}(\mathbf{X}') \boldsymbol{\xi}$$

• So, we need to find eigenvectors of the above matrix

Using neural networks

- The eigenfunctions of the Koopman operator are complicated
- Deep learning provides a convincing approach
- The auto encoder structure is used naturally, that is, a few latent variables $y = \varphi(x)$ are used to parameterize the dynamics



- An additional constraint is enforced so that the dynamic is linear on these latent variables
- This constraint can be enforced using the loss function $\|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) \mathbf{K}\varphi(\mathbf{x}_k)\|$ where K is a matrix

