MACHINE LEARNING: A NEW ICE AGE ? (IDENTIFICATION, CONTROL, ESTIMATION)

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A TIMELINE OF CONTROL ENGINEERING



• MPC and ML = main trends in control R&D in industry !

MODEL PREDICTIVE CONTROL (MPC)

- Long history of success of MPC in the process industries, now spreading in the automotive industry (and many others):
 - multivariable, linear/nonlinear/stochastic systems w/ constraints
 - intuitive to design and calibrate, easy to reconfigure
 - great tools for MPC design () and deployment (() exist (Bemporad, Ricker, Morari, 1998-today) (ODYS Srl, 2013-present)
- An MPC for engine control developed by General Motors and ODYS is in high-volume production since 2018 (Bemporad, Bernardini, Long, Verdejo, 2018)



First known mass production of MPC in the automotive industry

https://www.odys.it/odys-and-gm-bring-online-mpc-to-production







MACHINE LEARNING (ML)

- Massive set of techniques to extract mathematical models from data for classification, prediction, decision-making
- Good mathematical foundations from artificial intelligence, statistics, optimization
- Works very well in practice (despite training is most often a nonconvex optimization problem ...)
- Used in myriads of most diverse application domains
- Availability of excellent open-source software tools exist like scikit-learn, Keras/TensorFlow also explains success



ML FOR MPC

- How can ML be useful in MPC:
 - Identification = learn the prediction model from data
 - Control = learn the MPC control law from data
 - Estimation = learn how to reconstruct unmeasured signals from data



OUTLINE OF MY TALK

Identification

- Black-box identification of state-space models using autoencoders
- Learning the entire MPC prediction from data

- Control
 - Reinforcement learning (direct policy search)
 - Automatic and semi-automatic calibration of MPC

- Estimation
 - Learning virtual sensors / state observers from data

LEARNING PREDICTION MODELS FOR MPC

PREDICTION MODELS FOR MPC

- Physics-based nonlinear models are often too complex
- Use black-box system identification algorithms to fit linear or nonlinear models to data
- A mix of the above (gray-box models) is often the best
- Jacobians of prediction models are required
- Computation complexity depends on chosen model, need to trade off descriptiveness vs simplicity of the model

$$\begin{split} \dot{p}_1 &= k_1 (W_c + W_{egr} - k_e p_1) + \frac{\dot{T}_1}{T_1} p_1 \\ \dot{p}_2 &= k_2 (k_e p_1 - W_{egr} - W_t + W_f) + \frac{\ddot{T}_2}{T_2} p_2 \\ \dot{P}_c &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} (P_c - \eta_m P_\ell) \end{split}$$







LEARNING NONLINEAR STATE-SPACE MODELS FOR MPC

Idea: use autoencoders and artificial neural networks to learn a nonlinear state-space model of desired order from input/output data



LEARNING NONLINEAR STATE-SPACE MODELS FOR MPC

• Training problem: choose n_a , n_b , n_x and solve

$$\min_{f,d,e} \sum_{k=k_0}^{N-1} \alpha \left(\ell_1(\hat{O}_k, O_k) + \ell_1(\hat{O}_{k+1}, O_{k+1}) \right) \\ + \beta \ell_2(x_{k+1}^\star, x_{k+1}) + \gamma \ell_3(O_{k+1}, O_{k+1}^\star)$$
s.t. $x_k = e(I_{k-1}), k = k_0, \dots, N$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1}^{\star} &= f(x_k, u_k), \ k = k_0, \dots, N-1 \\ \hat{O}_k &= d(x_k), \ O_k^{\star} &= d(x_k^{\star}), \ k = k_0, \dots, N \end{aligned}$$



- Model complexity reduction: add group-LASSO penalties on subsets of weights
- Quasi-LPV structure for MPC: set $f(x_k, u_k) = A(x_k, u_k) \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + B(x_k, u_k)u_k$ (A_{ij}, B_{ij}, C_{ij} = feedforward NNs) $y_k = C(x_k, u_k) \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Different options for the state-observer:
 - use encoder e to map past I/O into x_k (deadbeat observer)
 - design extended Kalman filter based on obtained model f, d
 - simultaneously fit state observer $\hat{x}_{k+1} = s(x_k, u_k, y_k)$ with loss $\ell_4(\hat{x}_{k+1}, x_{k+1})$

LEARNING NONLINEAR NEURAL STATE-SPACE MODELS FOR MPC

• Example: nonlinear two-tank benchmark problem



$$\begin{aligned} x_1(t+1) &= x_1(t) - k_1 \sqrt{x_1(t)} + k_2 u(t) \\ x_2(t+1) &= x_2(t) + k_3 \sqrt{x_1(t)} - k_4 \sqrt{x_2(t)} \\ y(t) &= x_2(t) + u(t) \end{aligned}$$

Model is totally unknown to learning algorithm

www.mathworks.com

- Artificial neural network (ANN): 3 hidden layers 60 exponential linear unit (ELU) neurons
- For given number of model parameters, autoencoder approach is superior to NNARX
- Jacobians directly obtained from ANN structure for Kalman filtering & MPC problem construction



LEARNING AFFINE NEURAL PREDICTORS FOR MPC

(Masti, Smarra, D'Innocenzo, Bemporad, IFAC 2020)

• Alternative: learn the entire prediction

$$y_k = h_k(x_0, u_0, \dots, u_{k-1}), \ k = 1, \dots, N$$



• LTV-MPC formulation: linearize h_k around nominal inputs \bar{u}_j

$$y_k = h_k(x_0, \bar{u}_0, \dots, \bar{u}_{k-1}) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{\partial h_k}{\partial u_j}(x_0, \bar{u}_0, \dots, \bar{u}_{k-1})(\mathbf{u}_j - \bar{u}_j)$$

Example: \bar{u}_k = MPC sequence optimized @k-1

• Avoid computing Jacobians by fitting h_k in the affine form

$$y_k = f_k(x_0, \bar{u}_0, \dots, \bar{u}_{k-1}) + g_k(x_0, \bar{u}_0, \dots, \bar{u}_{k-1}) \begin{bmatrix} u_0 - \bar{u}_0 \\ \vdots \\ u_{k-1} - \bar{u}_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

cf. (Liu, Kadirkamanathan, 1998)

LEARNING AFFINE NEURAL PREDICTORS FOR MPC

• Example: apply affine neural predictor to nonlinear two-tank benchmark problem

10000 training samples, ANN with 2 layers of 20 ReLU neurons

$$e_{\text{FIT}} = \max\left\{0, 1 - \frac{\|\hat{y} - y\|_2}{\|y - \bar{y}\|_2}\right\}$$

- Closed-loop LTV-MPC results:
- Model complexity reduction: add group-LASSO term with penalty λ

λ	$e_{ m FIT}$ (average on all prediction steps)	# nonzero weights
.01	0.853	328
0.005	0.868	363
0.001	0.901	556
0.0005	0.911	888
0	0.917	9000

Prediction step	$e_{\rm FIT}$	
1	0.959	
2	0.958	
4	0.948	
7	0.915	
10	0.858	



LEARNING APPROXIMATE MPC LAWS

MPC WITHOUT ON-LINE QP



YES!



- Can we implement MPC without on-line optimization ?
- If model / constraints are linear, and model / constraints / quadratic cost are time-invariant:

(Bemporad, Morari, Dua, Pistikopoulos, 2002)

EXPLICIT MODEL PREDICTIVE CONTROL

• Explicit MPC: continuous and piecewise affine control law

$$u_0^*(x) = \begin{cases} F_1 x + g_1 & \text{if} \quad H_1 x \leq K_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ F_M x + g_M & \text{if} \quad H_M x \leq K_M \end{cases}$$



- Only limited to small MPC problems with time-invariant linear/hybrid models, linear/quadratic costs, linear constraints
- Approximate explicit MPC solutions are possible to simplify the control law (Alessio, Bemporad, 2008) (Johansen, Grancharova, 2003) (Christophersen, Zeilinger, Jones, Morari, 2007)

APPROXIMATE MPC LAWS

- Use any function regression technique to approximate MPC laws
 - Collect M samples (x_i, u_i) by solving MPC optimization problem for each x_i
 - Fit approximate mapping $\hat{u}(x)$ on the samples
 - Check performance / feasibility/ prove closed-loop stability (if possible)
- Possible function regression approaches:
 - Lookup tables (linear interpolation, inverse distance weighting, ...)
 - Neural networks (Parisini, Zoppoli, 1995) (Karg, Lucia, 2018)
 - Hybrid system identification / PWA regression (Breschi, Piga, Bemporad, 2016)
- Semi-explicit MPC: use binary classification methods to learn the optimal
 - binary variables solving parametric MIQP/LP, $\delta^* = \delta(x)$, then solve QP/LP online (Masti, Bemporad, 2019) (Masti, Pippia, Bemporad, De Schutter, IFAC 2020)
 - active set of parametric QP for warm start (Klauco, Kalúz, Kvasnica, 2019)

LEARNING THE CONTROL LAW DIRECTLY FROM DATA

DATA-DRIVEN OPTIMAL POLICY SEARCH

• Plant + environment dynamics (unknown):

 $s_{t+1} = h(s_t, p_t, u_t, d_t)$

- s_t states of plant & environment
- p_t exogenous signal (e.g., reference)
- u_t control input
- d_t unmeasured disturbances
- Control policy: $\pi : \mathbb{R}^{n_s + n_p} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_u}$ deterministic control policy

$$u_t = \pi(s_t, p_t)$$

• Closed-loop performance of an execution is defined as

$$\mathcal{J}_{\infty}(\pi, s_0, \{p_{\ell}, d_{\ell}\}_{\ell=0}^{\infty}) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \rho(s_{\ell}, p_{\ell}, \pi(s_{\ell}, p_{\ell}))$$

 $\rho(s_\ell, p_\ell, \pi(s_\ell, p_\ell)) \; = \; {\rm stage \; cost}$

OPTIMAL POLICY SEARCH PROBLEM

• Optimal policy:

 $\begin{array}{lll} \pi^* &=& \arg\min_{\pi} \mathcal{J}(\pi) \\ \mathcal{J}(\pi) &=& \mathbb{E}_{s_0, \{p_{\ell}, d_{\ell}\}} \left[\mathcal{J}_{\infty}(\pi, s_0, \{p_{\ell}, d_{\ell}\}) \right] & \text{ expected performance} \end{array}$

- Simplifications:
 - Finite parameterization: $\pi = \pi_K(s_t, p_t)$ with K = parameters to optimize

- Finite horizon:
$$\mathcal{J}_L(\pi, s_0, \{p_\ell, d_\ell\}_{\ell=0}^{L-1}) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{L-1} \rho(s_\ell, p_\ell, \pi(s_\ell, p_\ell))$$

• Optimal policy search: use stochastic gradient descent (SGD)

$$K_t \leftarrow K_{t-1} - \alpha_t \mathcal{D}(K_{t-1})$$

with $\mathcal{D}(K_{t-1})$ = descent direction

DESCENT DIRECTION

- The descent direction $\mathcal{D}(K_{t-1})$ is computed by generating:
 - N_s perturbations $s_0^{(i)}$ around the current state s_t
 - N_r random reference signals $r_\ell^{(j)}$ of length L,
 - N_d random disturbance signals $d_\ell^{(h)}$ of length L,

$$\mathcal{D}(K_{t-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} \sum_{j=1}^{N_p} \sum_{k=1}^{N_q} \nabla_K \mathcal{J}_L(\pi_{K_{t-1}}, s_0^{(i)}, \{r_\ell^{(j)}, d_\ell^{(k)}\})$$



SGD step = mini-batch of size $M = N_s \cdot N_r \cdot N_d$

- Computing $\nabla_K \mathcal{J}_L$ requires predicting the effect of π over L future steps
- We use a local linear model just for computing $\nabla_K \mathcal{J}_L$, obtained by running recursive linear system identification

OPTIMAL POLICY SEARCH ALGORITHM

- At each step *t*:
 - 1. Acquire current s_t
 - 2. Recursively update the local linear model
 - 3. Estimate the direction of descent $\mathcal{D}(K_{t-1})$
 - 4. Update policy: $K_t \leftarrow K_{t-1} \alpha_t \mathcal{D}(K_{t-1})$
- If policy is **learned online** and needs to be applied to the process:
 - Compute the nearest policy K_t^{\star} to K_t that stabilizes the local model

 $K_t^{\star} = \arg \min_K \|K - K_t^s\|_2^2$ s.t. K stabilizes local linear model Linear matrix inequality

• When policy is learned online, exploration is guaranteed by the reference r_t

SPECIAL CASE: OUTPUT TRACKING

•
$$x_t = [y_t, y_{t-1}, \dots, y_{t-n_o}, u_{t-1}, u_{t-2}, \dots, u_{t-n_i}]$$

 $\Delta u_t = u_t - u_{t-1}$ control input increment

- Stage cost: $\| y_{t+1} r_t \|_{Qy}^2 + \| \Delta u_t \|_R^2 + \| q_{t+1} \|_{Q_q}^2$
- Integral action dynamics $q_{t+1} = q_t + (y_{t+1} r_t)$

$$s_t = \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ q_t \end{bmatrix}, \quad p_t = r_t.$$

• Linear policy parametrization:

$$\pi_K(s_t, r_t) = -K^s \cdot s_t - K^r \cdot r_t, \qquad K = \begin{bmatrix} K^s \\ K^r \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE: RETRIEVE LQR FROM DATA

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{t+1} & = & \begin{bmatrix} -0.669 & 0.378 & 0.233 \\ -0.288 & -0.147 & -0.638 \\ -0.337 & 0.589 & 0.043 \end{bmatrix} x_t + \begin{bmatrix} -0.295 \\ -0.325 \\ -0.258 \end{bmatrix} u_t \\ y_t & = & \begin{bmatrix} -1.139 & 0.319 & -0.571 \end{bmatrix} x_t \end{array} \right) \text{ model is}$$

Online tracking performance (no disturbance, $d_t = 0$): 4 $Q_y = 1$ $\mathbf{2}$ $\vec{R} = 0.1$ $Q_q = 1$ 0 L n_o $\frac{n_i}{3}$ 3 20 -2 \mathbf{r}_{t} $\frac{N_0}{50}$ N_r N_q y_t 10 -410000 20000 30000 0 Time t

unknown

EXAMPLE: RETRIEVE LQR FROM DATA

Evolution of the error $||K_t - K_{opt}||_2$:



 $K_{\text{SGD}} = [-1.255, 0.218, 0.652, 0.895, 0.050, 1.115, -2.186]$

 $K_{\text{opt}} = [-1.257, 0.219, 0.653, 0.898, 0.050, 1.141, -2.196]$

NONLINEAR EXAMPLE

Online learning



Approach currently extended to switching-linear and nonlinear policies

(Ferrarotti, Bemporad, IFAC 2020) (Ferrarotti, Bemporad, 2020)

Inputs

States

Cooling Jacket

Reaction

A-B

Feed

L

 n_{0}

3

 n_i

2

LEARNING OPTIMAL MPC TUNING

MPC CALIBRATION PROBLEM

- Controller depends on a vector x of parameters
- Parameters can be many things:

...

- MPC weights, prediction model coefficients, horizons
- Entries of covariance matrices in Kalman filter
- Tolerances used in numerical solvers



• Define a **performance index** *f* over a closed-loop simulation or real experiment. For example:



• Auto-tuning = find the best combination of parameters that solves the global optimization problem

 $\min_{x} f(x)$

GLOBAL OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHMS FOR AUTO-TUNING

What is a good optimization algorithm to solve $\min f(x)$?

• The algorithm should not require the gradient ∇f of f(x)(derivative-free or black-box optimization)

• The algorithm should not get stuck on local minima (global optimization)

• The algorithm should make the **fewest evaluations** of the cost function *f* (which is expensive to evaluate)

AUTO-TUNING - GLOBAL OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHMS

- Several derivative-free global optimization algorithms exist: (Rios, Sahidinis, 2013)
 - Lipschitzian-based partitioning techniques:
 - DIRECT (DIvide in RECTangles) (Jones, 2001)
 - Multilevel Coordinate Search (MCS) (Huyer, Neumaier, 1999)
 - Response surface methods
 - Kriging (Matheron, 1967), DACE (Sacks et al., 1989)
 - Efficient global optimization (EGO) (Jones, Schonlau, Welch, 1998)
 - Bayesian optimization (Brochu, Cora, De Freitas, 2010)
 - Genetic algorithms (GA) (Holland, 1975)
 - Particle swarm optimization (PSO) (Kennedy, 2010)

- ...

• New method: radial basis function surrogates + inverse distance weighting

(GLIS) (Bemporad, 2019)

cse.lab.imtlucca.it/~bemporad/glis

MPC AUTOTUNING EXAMPLE

• Linear MPC applied to cart-pole system: 14 parameters to tune



- sample time
- weights on outputs and input increments
- prediction and control horizons
- covariance matrices of Kalman filter
- absolute and relative tol of QP solver

• Closed-loop performance score:
$$J = \int_0^T |p(t) - p_{ref}(t)| + 30|\phi(t)|dt$$

- MPC parameters tuned using 500 iterations of GLIS
- Performance tested with simulated cart on two hardware platforms (PC, Raspberry PI)

MPC AUTOTUNING EXAMPLE



- Auto-calibration can squeeze max performance out of the available hardware
- Bayesian Optimization gives similar results, but with larger computation effort

AUTO-TUNING: PROS AND CONS

- Pros:
 - \bullet Selection of calibration parameters x to test is fully automatic
 - Applicable to any calibration parameter (weights, horizons, solver tolerances, ...)
 (Piga, Forgione, Formentin, Bemporad, 2019) (Forgione, Piga, Bemporad, IFAC 2020)
 - **...** Rather arbitrary performance index f(x) (tracking performance, response time, worst-case number of flops, ...)
- Cons:
 - **•** Need to **quantify** an objective function f(x)
 - No room for qualitative assessments of closed-loop performance
 - Often objectives are multiple, not clear how to blend them in a single one
- Current research: preference-based optimization (GLISp), having human assessments in the loop (semi-automatic tuning)

(Bemporad, Piga, 2019) (Zhu, Bemporad, Piga, 2020)

cse.lab.imtlucca.it/~bemporad/glis

ESTIMATION: LEARNING VIRTUAL SENSORS

LEARNING VIRTUAL SENSORS

• unknown model of a dynamical system

 $\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= f(x_k, u_k, \rho_k) \\ y_k &= g(x_k, \rho_k) \\ \rho_{k+1} &= h(\rho_k, k, u_k) \end{aligned}$

(Masti, Bernardini, Bemporad, 2019)

- $\begin{array}{ll} x \in \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}_x} & \text{state vector} \\ u \in \mathbb{R}^{n_u} & \text{command input} \\ y \in \mathbb{R}^{n_y} & \text{output vector} \\ \rho \in \mathbb{R}^S & \text{signal to estimate} \end{array}$
- *ρ_k* can model equipment wear/component drift, faults, ... or unmeasured states of the system
- Special cases:
 - linear parameter-varying (LPV) systems

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= A(\rho_k) x_k + B(\rho_k) u_k \\ y_k &= C(\rho_k) x_k + D(\rho_k) u_k \end{aligned}$$

- switched affine systems $ho_k \in \{1,\ldots,s\}$



(aa1car.com)

LEARNING VIRTUAL SENSORS

- Assumption #1: ρ_k cannot be measured at runtime
- Assumption #2: ρ_k is available in training data
- Assumption #3: we do not know model f, g, h

 $\begin{array}{ll} x_{k+1} &= f(x_k, u_k, \rho_k) \\ y_k &= g(x_k, \rho_k) \\ \rho_{k+1} &= h(\rho_k, k, u_k) \end{array}$

Goal: estimate ρ_k from input/output data at runtime

- Applications:
 - onboard diagnosis, anomaly/fault detection and isolation, predictive maintenance
 - gain scheduling control
- Existing approaches to estimate ρ_k are mostly model-based:

extended Kalman-filtering, moving horizon estimation, interacting multiple model (IMM) estimator, ...

LEARNING VIRTUAL SENSORS - DESIGN

- $D = \{u_k, y_k, \rho_k\}, k = 1, \dots, K$, = training dataset (acquired off line)
- For each k estimate a local linear model using recursive SYS-ID, γ_k = vector of model parameters. Example:

$$y_k = -\sum_{i=1}^{n_a} a_i y_{k-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_b} b_i u_{k-i}, \qquad \gamma = [a_1 \dots a_{n_a} b_1 \dots b_{n_b}]'$$

- Use unsupervised learning to partition the set {γ_{k1},..., γ_K} in N clusters (more generally: partition the set of pairs (ρ_k, γ_k))
- Identify N linear time-invariant models Σ_j for each cluster (j = 1, ..., N)
- Design a linear observer for each model Σ_j to summarize all past input/outputs into state estimates x^1, x^2, \ldots, x^N (one per model)



 γ -space

LEARNING VIRTUAL SENSORS - DATA COMPRESSION AND PREDICTOR

• Compress past input/outputs into sum of output prediction errors

$$\nu_k^j = \sum_{r=k-\ell}^k (y_r^j - \hat{y}_r^j)^2$$

 ℓ = window of past estimates (hyperparameter)

Two-layer structure

$$I_k = (u_k, y_k, \nu_k^1, \dots, \nu_k^N)$$
$$\hat{\rho}_k = q_\theta(I_k)$$



- g_{θ} = feedforward artificial neural network (ANN) w/ rectified linear unit (ReLU) activation function, or decision tree (DT), or random forest (RF) regression
- Training objective: $\min \sum_{k} \|\hat{\rho}_k \rho_k\|_2^2$

EXAMPLE: NONLINEAR PARAMETER-VARYING SYSTEM

• True (unknown) underlying nonlinear system ($\alpha = 1$)

$$\begin{cases} x_{k+1} = Ax_k + \frac{\alpha}{2} \operatorname{atan}(x_k) + \log(\rho_k + 1)Bu_k \\ y_k = -(1 + e^{\rho_k}) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x_k \\ B \in \mathbb{R}^{5 \times 2} \end{cases} \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{5 \times 5}$$

• $u_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, the scheduling signal ρ_k is generated by setting

$$p_k = 0.999\rho_k + 0.03\omega_k, \qquad \omega_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

$$\rho_{k+1} = \begin{cases} p_k \text{ if } p_k \in [-0.95, 0.95] \\ \frac{p_k}{2} \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Input, output, and ρ measurements are affected by noise in $\mathcal{N}(0, 0.03^2)$
- Training dataset = up to 25,000 samples, testing data set = 5,000 samples

EXAMPLE: NONLINEAR PARAMETER-VARYING SYSTEM

- Local models identified by recursive ARX estimator based on Kalman filtering (3 past outputs, 3 past inputs $\Rightarrow \gamma_k \in \mathbb{R}^6$)
- N clusters created by running K-means in γ -space
- Deadbeat observer for each centroidal model $\Sigma(\bar{\gamma}_j), j = 1, \dots, N$ (equivalent to $\hat{y}_k^j = \bar{[}\hat{y}_{k-1} \, \hat{y}_{k-2} \, \hat{y}_{k-3} \, u_{k-1} \, u_{k-2} \, u_{k-3}]' \gamma_j$)

• Input to ANN is
$$I_k = (u_k, y_k, \nu_k^1, \dots, \nu_k^N), \nu_k^i = \sum_{r=k-4}^k (y_r^i - \hat{y}_r^i)^2$$
 ($\ell = 4$)

- ANN with 2 ReLU layers, 64 neurons + linear output function
- Alternative: **DT** or **RF**, both with max depth = 10 nodes

EXAMPLE: NONLINEAR PARAMETER-VARYING SYSTEM

• Quality of reconstruction $\hat{\rho}$ of ρ is measured by

FIT =
$$1 - \frac{\|\rho_k - \hat{\rho}_k\|_2}{\|\rho_k - \bar{\rho}_k\|_2}$$



• Experiments are repeated 10 times with different *ρ* and noise realizations

# models	2	3	5	7	(PE predictor)
mean (std)	0.686 (0.033)	0.766 (0.027)	0.779 (0.026)	0.784 (0.027)	

# training	5 models		
samples	DT	RF	ANN
25000	0.757 (0.026)	0.779 (0.026)	0.778 (0.026)
15000	0.733 (0.031)	0.762 (0.028)	0.763 (0.031)
5000	0.613 (0.191)	0.682 (0.150)	0.685 (0.090)

EXAMPLE: MODE RECONSTRUCTION

• True (unknown) switching linear system $(\alpha = 0)$ with 4 modes

 $\rho_k \in \{0, 0.5, 1, 1.5\}$ (discrete)

• Experiments are repeated 10 times with different ρ and noise realizations



# models	2	3	4	5
mean (std)	0.773 (0.018)	0.876 (0.012)	0.931 (0.009)	0.931 (0.009)

- Note: no penalty on ρ_k switching used. Cf. Hidden Markov Models and Jump Models (Bemporad, Breschi, Piga, Boyd, 2018)
- Note: a classifier rather than a function regressor may improve fit quality

EXAMPLE: NONLINEAR STATE ESTIMATION (BATTERY SOC)

• Lithium-ion battery model (unknown) (Ali et al., 2017)

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1(t) &= \frac{-i(t)}{C_c} \\ \dot{x}_2(t) &= \frac{-x_2(t)}{R_{ts}(x_1)C_{ts}(x_1)} + \frac{i(t)}{C_{ts}(x_1)} \\ \dot{x}_3(t) &= \frac{-x_3(t)}{R_{tl}(x_1)C_{tl}(x_1)} + \frac{i(t)}{C_{ts}(x_1)} \\ y(t) &= E_0(x_1) - x_2(t) - x_3(t) - i(t)R_s(x_1) \end{cases}$$



renewableenergyworld.com

- Only voltage y(t) and current i(t) are measurable
- **Goal**: estimate the state of charge (SoC) $x_1(t)$

EXAMPLE: NONLINEAR STATE ESTIMATION (BATTERY SOC)

- Virtual sensor architecture:
 - 5 linear observers
 - predictor: ANN, DT, or RF
 - 25,000 training samples
 - 5,000 validation samples

• Requirements:

	Memory	CPU time	
	(single floats)	(μs)	
ANN	pprox 1,350	6	
DT	pprox 3,000	0.1	
RF	pprox 30,000	1	

(Intel Core i5 6200U)



Comparison with **model-based** extended Kalman filter (EKF) with different covariance matrices

CONCLUSIONS

- MPC + ML together can have a tremendous impact in the design and implementation of nonlinear control systems:
 - MPC and on-line optimization is an extremely powerful control methodology
 - ML extremely useful to get control-oriented models (system identification) and control laws (reinforcement learning) from data
- Ignoring ML tools would be a mistake (a lot to "learn" from machine learning)
- ML alone is not enough to replace control:
 - Black-box modeling can be a failure.
 Better use gray-box models when possible.
 - Approximating the control law can be a failure. Don't abandon on-line optimization.

