

# IDENTIFICATION, ANALYSIS AND CONTROL OF DYNAMICAL SYSTEMS

## PART 2: SYSTEMS IDENTIFICATION

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# System identification: introduction

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when driving a car, pushing the break decreases the speed.
  - **graphical** models. For example:  
Bode diagram or step response of an LTI system;  
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- We will focus on mathematical models of dynamical systems, described, in general, by **differential or difference equations**.
- Mathematical models can be derived from:
  - first principle laws of physics, chemistry, biology, etc.  
(**physical modeling** approach)
  - observed data generated by the system  
(**system identification** approach)



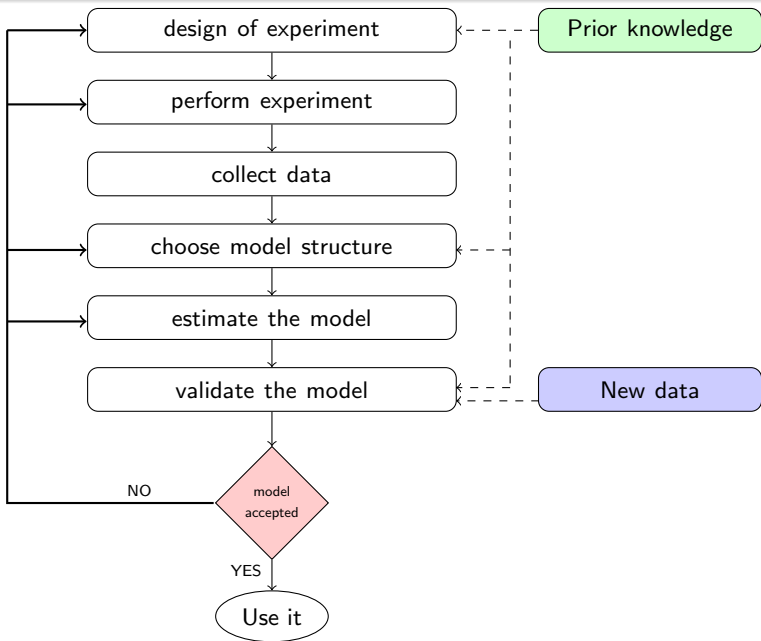
The system identification procedure involves three basic entities:

- 1 **Data**, which can be either recorded from specifically designed experiments or from normal operations of the system.
- 2 **Set of candidate models**, obtained by specifying within which set of models we are going to look for a suitable one. Different kinds of models may be specified (e.g., linear vs nonlinear; continuous time vs discrete time; deterministic vs stochastic, etc.). Two types of model sets:
  - **gray boxes**. A model with some unknown parameters is derived from physical laws. The parameters are then estimated from data.
  - **black boxes**. A model structure is chosen (e.g., linear models). The parameters of the model do not reflect any physical consideration.
- 3 **Rule to assess candidate models** using data. This is the identification method, used to determinate the “best” model in the set, guided by data.

**Test** whether the estimated model is an “appropriate” representation of the system. Assess how the model relates to:

- **prior knowledge**. Does the model adequately describes prior known physical behaviour of the system?
- **experimental data** (not used for training). Compare the simulated outputs of the model with the observed outputs.

# System identification loop



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- T. Söderstrom and P. Stoica, *System identification*, Prentice Hall International, 1989. Available online at: <http://user.it.uu.se/~ps/ps.html>
- Parametric System Identification - theory and tools, R. De Callafon, University of California San Diego, [http://mechatronics.ucsd.edu/mae283a\\_10/index.html](http://mechatronics.ucsd.edu/mae283a_10/index.html)
- IEEE CSS Technical Committee on *System Identification and Adaptive Control*, <http://system-identification.ieeecss.org>

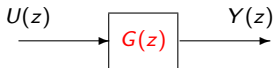
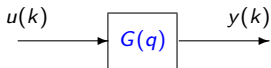
# LTI systems

# Input/Output representation

Given a discrete-time signal  $u(k)$ ,  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ , we define the (unilateral) z-transform of  $u$  as

$$\mathcal{Z}\{u(k)\} = U(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} u(k)z^{-k}$$

- $\mathcal{Z}\{u(k-d)\} = \mathcal{Z}\{q^{-d}u(k)\} = z^{-d}U(z)$ ,  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$
- $\mathcal{Z}\{g(k) * u(k)\} = \mathcal{Z}\left\{\sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} g(\ell)u(k-\ell)\right\} = \mathcal{Z}\{G(q)u(k)\} = G(z)U(z)$

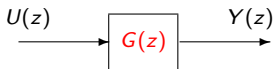
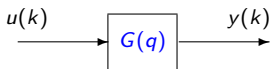


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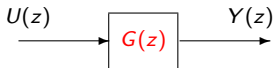
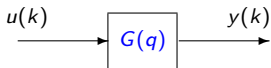
Analogy between the time-domain operator  $G(q)$  and the DT transfer function  $G(z)$

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Analogy between the time-domain operator  $G(q)$  and the DT transfer function  $G(z)$

Thanks to this analogy, we can treat  $G(q)$  as polynomials in  $q$ . Product and ratio between  $G_1(q)$  and  $G_2(q)$  have a meaning!

Example:  $y(k) = \frac{b_1 q^{-1}}{1 + a_1 q^{-1}} u(k) \rightarrow (1 + a_1 q^{-1})y(k) = b_1 q^{-1} u(k)$



# Linear regression representation

- Linear regression representation of the system:

$$y(k) = \varphi^\top(k)\theta$$

$\theta$ : **parameter** vector,  $\varphi(k)$ : **regressor** vector, typically containing past values of inputs and outputs.

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(k) &= [-y(k-1) \quad \dots \quad -y(k-n_a) \quad u(k) \quad \dots \quad u(k-n_b)]^\top \\ \theta &= [a_1 \quad \dots \quad a_{n_a} \quad b_0 \quad \dots \quad b_{n_b}]^\top\end{aligned}$$

Writing out the product gives:

$$y(k) = G(q)u(k), \quad G(q) = \frac{b_0 + b_1q^{-1} + \dots + b_{n_b}q^{-n_b}}{1 + a_1q^{-1} + \dots + a_{n_a}q^{-n_a}}$$

Non-linear systems can be easily represented in a linear regression form. Just include nonlinear terms (e.g.,  $y^2(k-1)$ ;  $u(k)y(k-1)$ ) in the regressor!

# Least-squares estimation

- Consider a model in the linear regression form:  $\mathcal{M} : \hat{y}(k, \theta) = \varphi^\top(k)\theta$

# Linear least-squares

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- Define the residuals as  $\varepsilon(k, \theta) = y(k) - \hat{y}(k, \theta) = y(k) - \varphi^\top(k)\theta$

$\varepsilon(k, \theta)$  represents the error between output observations and model outputs  $\hat{y}(k, \theta)$

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- Least-squares (LS) estimate:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon^2(k, \theta) = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{k=1}^N \left( y(k) - \varphi^\top(k)\theta \right)^2$$

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$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y(1) \\ \vdots \\ y(N) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi^\top(1) \\ \vdots \\ \varphi^\top(N) \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}} = (\Phi^\top \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^\top Y$$

- Compute a QR factorization of the (full-column rank) matrix  $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{N,n}$ , i.e.,

$$\Phi = \underbrace{[[Q_1]_{N,n} \quad [Q_2]_{N,(N-n)}]}_Q \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} [R_1]_{n,n} \\ 0_{N-n,n} \end{bmatrix}}_R$$

with  $Q_1^\top Q_1 = I$ ,  $R_1$  upper triangular,  $r_{ii} > 0$  if  $\Phi$  is full-column rank.

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- Solve the following linear system through **backward substitution** to compute  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}$ :

$$R_1 \hat{\theta}_{LS} = Q_1^T Y$$

- Estimate the parameters  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}$  recursively in time.
- If there is an estimate  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k-1)$  based on data up to time  $k-1$ , then  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k)$  is computed based on a “simple” update of  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k-1)$ .
- No need to record all data up to time  $k$  (low memory requirement).
- Recursive LS can be easily modified to estimate time-varying parameters.

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k) = \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^k \varphi(\ell)\varphi^{\top}(\ell) \right)^{-1} \sum_{\ell=1}^k \varphi(\ell)y(\ell)$$

- $P(k) = \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^k \varphi(\ell)\varphi^{\top}(\ell) \right)^{-1}$ ,  $P^{-1}(k) = P^{-1}(k-1) + \varphi(k)\varphi^{\top}(k)$
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- $\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k) = \hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k-1) + K(k)\varepsilon(k)$

$K(k)$ : gain

$\varepsilon(k)$ : error in the prediction of  $y(k)$  based on  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k-1)$

$$\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k) = \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^k \varphi(\ell)\varphi^T(\ell) \right)^{-1} \sum_{\ell=1}^k \varphi(\ell)y(\ell)$$

- $P(k) = \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^k \varphi(\ell)\varphi^T(\ell) \right)^{-1}$ ,  $P^{-1}(k) = P^{-1}(k-1) + \varphi(k)\varphi^T(k)$

- $\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k) = P(k) \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^{k-1} \varphi(\ell)y(\ell) + \varphi(k)y(k) \right)$

If the prediction error is "small", the estimate  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k-1)$  is "good" and should not be modified "very much"

- $$\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k) = \hat{\theta}_{LS}(k-1) + \underbrace{P(k)\varphi(k)}_{K(k)} \underbrace{\left( y(k) - \varphi^T(k)\hat{\theta}_{LS}(k-1) \right)}_{\varepsilon(k)}$$

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# Recursive linear least squares

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k) = \hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k-1) + P(k)\varphi(k) \left( y(k) - \varphi^\top(k)\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k-1) \right)$$
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Updating  $P(k)$  requires to invert  $P^{-1}(k)$  at each time instant (time consuming)

## Solution

$$P(k) = \left[ P^{-1}(k) \right]^{-1} = \left[ P^{-1}(k-1) + \varphi(k)\varphi^\top(k) \right]^{-1}$$

From Matrix Inversion Lemma:

$$P(k) = P(k-1) - \frac{P(k-1)\varphi(k)\varphi^\top(k)P(k-1)}{1 + \varphi^\top(k)P(k-1)\varphi(k)}$$

# Recursive linear LS for real-time identification

- Identify (slowly) time-varying parameters (due to slow time-variation of the process)
- Useful for adaptive control
- Introduce forgetting factor  $0 < \lambda \leq 1$  in the cost function:

$$\hat{\theta}(k) = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{\ell=1}^k \lambda^{k-\ell} \left( y(\ell) - \varphi^{\top}(\ell)\theta \right)^2$$

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## Recursive LS with forgetting factor

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\theta}(k) &= \hat{\theta}(k-1) + P(k)\varphi(k) \left( y(k) - \varphi^{\top}(k)\hat{\theta}_{\text{LS}}(k-1) \right) \\ P(k) &= \frac{1}{\lambda} \left[ P(k-1) - \frac{P(k-1)\varphi(k)\varphi^{\top}(k)P(k-1)}{\lambda + \varphi^{\top}(k)P(k-1)\varphi(k)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

# Estimate of FIR models through LS

- Use a Finite Impulse Response (FIR) model to describe the dynamical system  $\mathcal{S}$  to be identified:

$$\mathcal{M} : \hat{y}(k, \mathbf{g}) = \sum_{\ell=0}^M g(\ell) u(k - \ell)$$



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- Collect  $N \gg M$  observations of the pairs  $\{u(k), y(k)\}_{k=1}^N$
- LS estimate of  $\mathbf{g}$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{g}} = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \mathbf{Y}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{g}} = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{Y}$$

- Assume that the “true” system  $\mathcal{S}$  is described by

$$\mathcal{S} : y(k) = \sum_{\ell=0}^M g_o(\ell) u(k - \ell) + v_o(k) = \varphi^T(k) \mathbf{g}_o + v_o(k)$$

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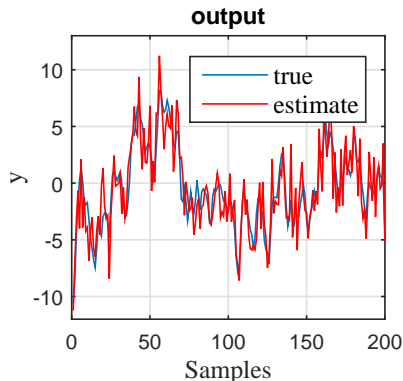
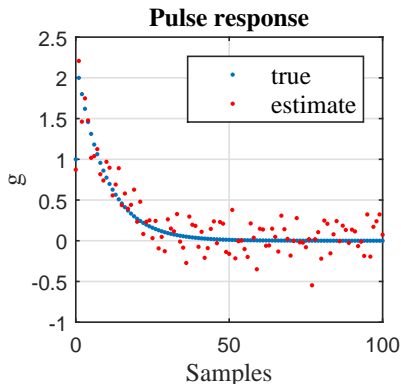
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- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{g} = g_0 + R^* \bar{\mathbb{E}}[\varphi(k) v_0(k)] = g_0$
- Thus,  $\hat{g}$  is a consistent estimate of  $g_0$

# Estimate of FIR models through LS: example

$N = 300$

$$SNR = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N y^2(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N v_0^2(k)} \right) = 6 \text{ db}$$

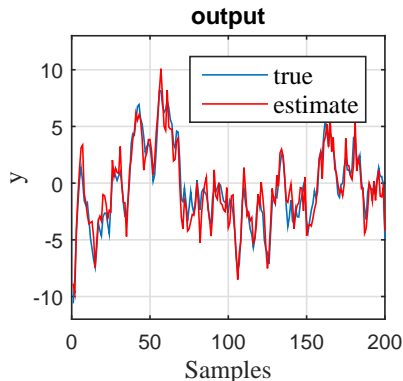
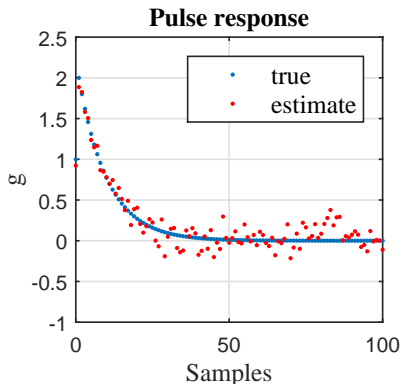


$$BFR = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \hat{y}(k))^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \bar{y})^2} = 72\%$$

# Estimate of FIR models through LS: example

$N = 500$

$$SNR = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N y^2(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N v_0^2(k)} \right) = 6 \text{ db}$$

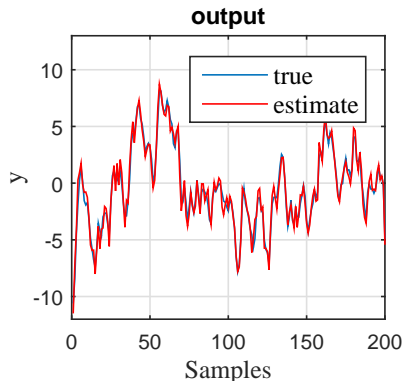
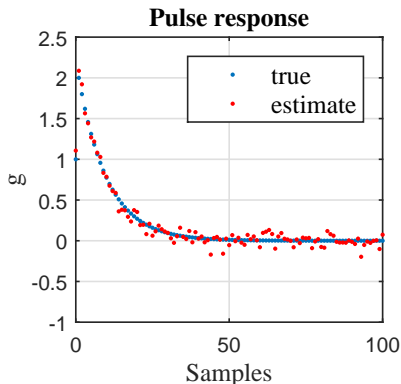


$$BFR = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \hat{y}(k))^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \bar{y})^2} = 91\%$$

# Estimate of FIR models through LS: example

$N = 1000$

$$SNR = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N y^2(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N v_0^2(k)} \right) = 6 \text{ db}$$

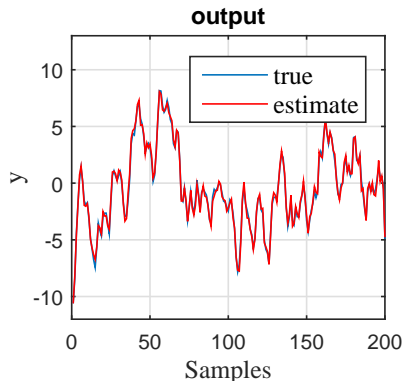
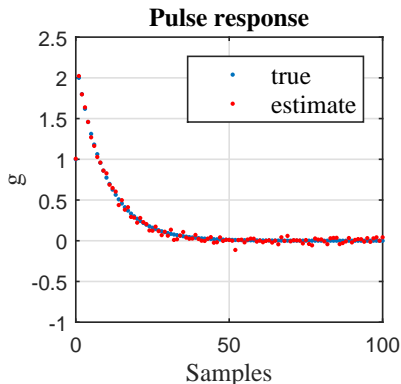


$$BFR = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \hat{y}(k))^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \bar{y})^2} = 96\%$$

# Estimate of FIR models through LS: example

$N = 5000$

$$SNR = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N y^2(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N v_0^2(k)} \right) = 6 \text{ db}$$

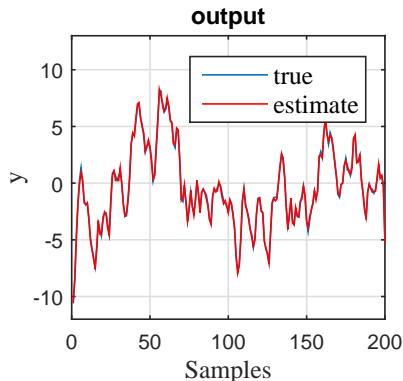
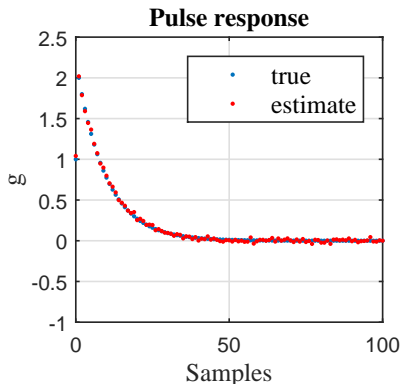


$$BFR = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \hat{y}(k))^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \bar{y})^2} = 99\%$$

# Estimate of FIR models through LS: example

$N = 10000$

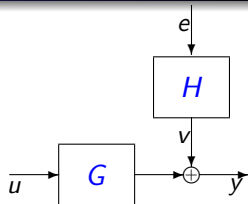
$$SNR = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N y^2(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N v_0^2(k)} \right) = 6 \text{ db}$$



$$BFR = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \hat{y}(k))^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_v} (y(k) - \bar{y})^2} = 99.7\%$$

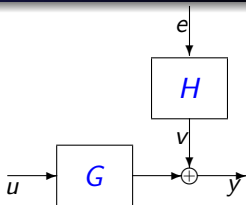
# Estimate of ARX models through LS

$$y(k) = G(q)u(k) + H(q)e(k)$$





$$y(k) = G(q)u(k) + H(q)e(k)$$



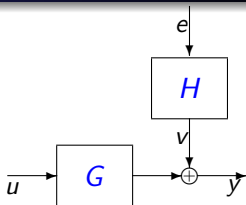
- AutoRegressive with eXogenous input (ARX) model structure:

$$G(q) = \frac{B(q)}{A(q)} = \frac{b_1 q^{-1} + \dots + b_{n_b} q^{-n_b}}{1 + a_1 q^{-1} + \dots + a_{n_a} q^{-n_a}}$$

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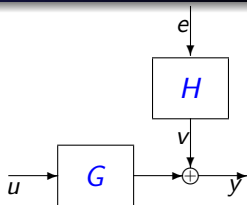
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- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\theta}_{LS} = \theta_o + R^* \overline{\mathbb{E}}[\varphi(k) e(k)] = \theta_o$
- Thus,  $\hat{\theta}_{LS}$  is a consistent estimate of  $\theta_o$

## Linear Parameter-Varying (LPV) systems

- Linear relationship between inputs and outputs:

$$y(k) = G(q^{-1}, p(k))u(k) + v(k)$$

- The input/output relationship changes over time according to a **measurable** signal  $p$  (called **scheduling signal**)

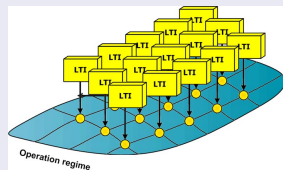


Figure provided by R. Tóth

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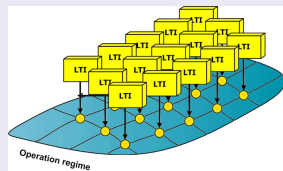


Figure provided by R. Tóth

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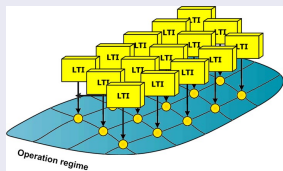


Figure provided by R. Tóth

## LPV-ARX models

- $A(q^{-1}, p(k))y(k) = B(q^{-1}, p(k))u(k) + e(k)$ ,  $e$  white

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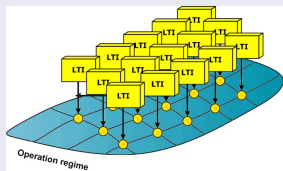


Figure provided by R. Tóth

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- $A(q^{-1}, \mathbf{p}(k)) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n_a} a_i(\mathbf{p}(k))q^{-i}$ ,  $B(q^{-1}, \mathbf{p}(k)) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_b} b_j(\mathbf{p}(k))q^{-j}$

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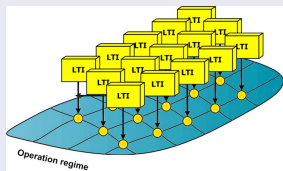


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- $a_i(\mathbf{p}(k))$  and  $b_j(\mathbf{p}(k))$  are a-priori parametrized functions of  $\mathbf{p}(k)$  (e.g., polynomials):

$$a_i(\mathbf{p}(k)) = a_{i,0} + \sum_{l=1}^{n_l} a_{i,l} p^l(k), \quad b_j(\mathbf{p}(k)) = b_{j,0} + \sum_{l=1}^{n_l} b_{j,l} p^l(k)$$

## LPV-ARX models: example

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- Example:

$$y(k) = - [a_{1,0} + a_{1,1}\mathbf{p}(k)]y(k-1) + [b_{1,0} + b_{1,1}\mathbf{p}(k)]u(k-1) + e(k)$$



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- Estimate  $\theta$  through least-squares

## LPV-ARX models: example

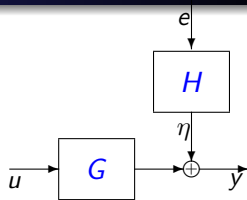
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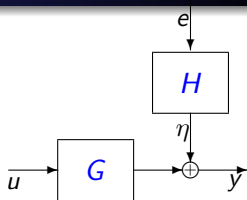
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- Estimate  $\theta$  through least-squares
- Consistency is guaranteed if  $e$  is white

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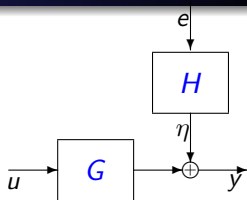


- Output Error (OE) model structure:

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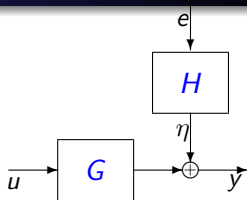
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- Corresponding input/output relationship

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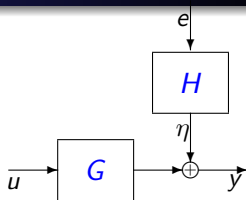
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- Unknown parameter vector:  $\theta = [a_1 \dots a_{n_a} \ b_1 \dots b_{n_b}]^T$
- Regressor vector:  $\varphi = [-y(k-1) \ \dots \ -y(k-n_a) \ u(k-1) \ \dots \ u(k-n_b)]^T$
- Output representation:  $y(k) = \varphi^T(k)\theta + \underbrace{e(k) + a_1 e(k-1) + \dots + a_{n_a} e(k-n_a)}_{v(k)}$

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$v(k)$  is not white!



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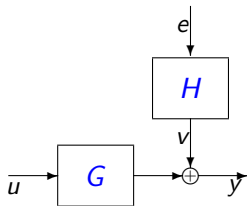
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# Instrumental Variable Methods

$$y(k) = G(q)u(k) + H(q)e(k)$$

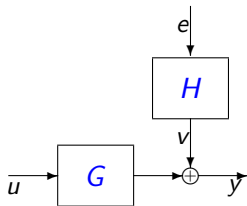


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- Instrumental Variables (IV) methods provide solutions to guarantee consistency also when  $\{v(k)\}$  is correlated with the regressor

# Instrumental Variables (IV): main idea

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- Chose a vector  $z(k)$ , called instrument, with the same dimension of the regressor  $\varphi(k)$  and such that

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- 3 Construct the instrument  $z(k)$  as follows

$$z(k) = [-\hat{y}(k-1) \cdots -\hat{y}(k-n_a) \ u(k-1) \cdots u(k-n_b)]^T$$

- 4 Estimate the model parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  through IV (consistent estimate)



# Instrumental Variables: how to choose the instruments?

- The instrument  $z(k)$  should be such that  $\mathbb{E}[z(k)v(k)] = 0$
- The instrument  $z(k)$  should be correlated with  $\varphi(k)$
- In order to minimize the variance of the estimate, we would like to choose:

$$z(k) = [-y_o(k-1) \cdots -y_o(k-n_a) \ u(k-1) \cdots u(k-n_b)]^T$$

- Summarizing,  $z(k)$  should be as much as possible correlated with the noise-free regressor, but not correlated with the residual  $v(k)$ .

## Choice of the instrument: idea

- 1 Estimate the model parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  through LS (biased estimate!)
- 2 Perform an open-loop simulation of the estimated model:

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- 4 Estimate the model parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  through IV (consistent estimate)
- 5 Repeat from step 2 until convergence

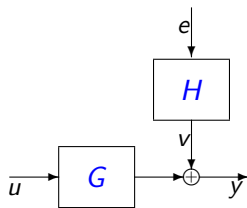
# Prediction Error Methods

# Description of Prediction Error Methods

$$y(k) = G(q, \theta)u(k) + H(q, \theta)e(k)$$

$$\mathbb{E} [e(t)e^\top(s)] = \Lambda_e \delta(s - t) \text{ (i.e., } e \text{ is white)}$$

$$G(0, \theta) = 0, \quad H(0, \theta) = I, \quad H^{-1}(q, \theta) \text{ is stable}$$

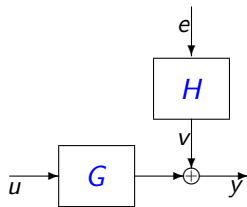


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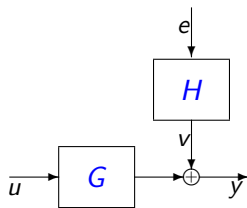
## Linear predictor

$$\hat{y}(k|k-1; \theta) = L_y(q^{-1}, \theta)y(k) + L_u(q^{-1}, \theta)u(k)$$
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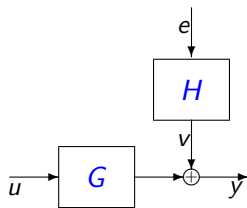
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$$\varepsilon(k, \theta) = y(k) - \hat{y}(k|k-1, \theta)$$

The estimated parameters  $\hat{\theta}$  should make the prediction errors  $\{\varepsilon(k, \theta)\}_{k=1}^N$  “small”

## Prediction Error Methods

- Choice of **model structure** (parametrization of  $G(q, \theta)$  and  $H(q, \theta)$  as a function of  $\theta$ )
- Choice of **predictor** (define filters of  $L_y(q^{-1}, \theta)$  and  $L_u(q^{-1}, \theta)$ )
- Choice of **criterion**  $V_N(\theta)$  (scalar function of the prediction errors  $\{\varepsilon(k, \theta)\}_{k=1}^N$  to assess the performance of the predictor)
- Estimate the parameters  $\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} V_N(\theta)$

- AutoRegressive with Exogenous inputs (ARX) models

$$y(k) = \frac{B(q, \theta)}{A(q, \theta)} u(k) + \frac{1}{A(q, \theta)} e(k)$$

- AutoRegressive-Moving-Average with Exogenous inputs (ARMAX) models

$$y(k) = \frac{B(q, \theta)}{A(q, \theta)} u(k) + \frac{C(q, \theta)}{A(q, \theta)} e(k)$$

- Output Error (OE) models

$$y(k) = \frac{B(q, \theta)}{A(q, \theta)} u(k) + e(k)$$

- Box-Jenkins (BJ) models

$$y(k) = \frac{B(q, \theta)}{A(q, \theta)} u(k) + \frac{C(q, \theta)}{D(q, \theta)} e(k)$$



# Choice of the predictor filters

## Optimal predictor

Choose the prediction filters  $L_y(q^{-1}, \theta)$  and  $L_u(q^{-1}, \theta)$  providing the prediction error with smallest variance

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- Sample covariance matrix

$$R_N(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon(k, \theta) \varepsilon^\top(k, \theta)$$



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$$V_N(\theta) = h(R_N(\theta))$$

with  $h$  continuous monotonically increasing function defined on the set of positive semidefinite matrices:

$$h(Q + \Delta Q) \geq h(Q) \quad \forall Q, \Delta Q \succeq 0.$$

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## Final estimate

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}} = \arg \min_{\theta} V_N(\theta)$$

What happens when  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ?

- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} R_N(\theta) = \overline{\mathbb{E}} \left[ \varepsilon(k, \theta) \varepsilon^\top(k, \theta) \right] = R_\infty(\theta)$

- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} h(R_N(\theta)) = h(R_\infty(\theta)) = V_\infty(\theta)$

- Convergence is uniform on a compact set  $\Theta$ , i.e.,

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} |V_N(\theta) - V_\infty(\theta)| \rightarrow 0$$

- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}} = \theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} V_\infty(\theta)$

Is  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}}$  a consistent estimate of  $\theta_o$ ?

- Let  $\theta_o$  be the true system parameters:

$$y(k) = G(q, \theta_o)u(k) + H(q, \theta_o)e(k), \quad \mathbb{E} [e(t)e^\top(s)] = \Lambda_e \delta(s - t),$$
$$G(0, \theta_o) = 0, \quad H(0, \theta_o) = I, \quad H^{-1}(q, \theta_o) \text{ stable}$$

- Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon(k, \theta) &= H^{-1}(q, \theta) (G(q, \theta_o)u(k) + H(q, \theta_o)e(k) - G(q, \theta)u(k)) = \\ &= H^{-1}(q, \theta) (G(q, \theta_o) - G(q, \theta)) u(k) + H^{-1}(q, \theta)H(q, \theta_o)e(k) = \\ &= e(k) + \text{terms independent of } e(k) \end{aligned}$$

- Thus:  $R_\infty(\theta) = \overline{\mathbb{E}} [\varepsilon(k, \theta)\varepsilon^\top(k, \theta)] \geq \mathbb{E} [e(k)e^\top(k)] = \Lambda_e$
- $\theta_o$  is a minimizer of  $h(R_\infty(\theta)) = V_\infty$ .
- If  $u(k)$  and  $e(k)$  are not correlated, only the “true” parameters  $\theta_o$  minimize  $h(R_\infty(\theta)) = V_\infty$
- Thus  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}} = \theta_o$ .

$$\hat{y}(k|k-1, \theta) = (I - H^{-1}(q^{-1}, \theta)) y(k) + H^{-1}(q^{-1}, \theta) G(q^{-1}, \theta) u(k)$$
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## Predictor for ARX models

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Linear regression representation

- PEM estimate:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}} = \min_{\theta} \sum_{k=1}^N (y(k) - \hat{y}(k|k-1, \theta))^2$$

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$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}} = \min_{\theta} \sum_{k=1}^N (y(k) - \hat{y}(k|k-1, \theta))^2 = \min_{\theta} \sum_{k=1}^N (y(k) - \varphi^T(k) \theta)^2 = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T Y$$

LS method and PEM coincide!

$$\hat{y}(k|k-1, \theta) = (I - H^{-1}(q^{-1}, \theta)) y(k) + H^{-1}(q^{-1}, \theta) G(q^{-1}, \theta) u(k)$$
$$\varepsilon(k, \theta) = e(k) = H^{-1}(q^{-1}, \theta) (y(k) - G(q^{-1}, \theta) u(k))$$

## Predictor for OE models

$$y(k) = \frac{B(q^{-1}, \theta)}{A(q^{-1}, \theta)} u(k) + e(k), \quad e \text{ white}$$

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- Optimal predictor:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y}(k|k-1, \theta) &= \frac{B(q^{-1}, \theta)}{A(q^{-1}, \theta)} u(k) = \\ &= -a_1 \hat{y}(k-1|k-2) - \dots - a_{n_a} \hat{y}(k-n_a|k-n_a-1) + \\ &+ b_1 u(k-1) + \dots + b_{n_b} u(k-n_b) = \\ &= \hat{\varphi}^\top(k) \theta \end{aligned}$$

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$$\hat{\varphi}^\top(k) \text{ depends on the noise-free past outputs } \hat{y}(k-i|k-i-1, \theta) = \frac{B(q^{-1}, \theta)}{A(q^{-1}, \theta)} u(k-i)$$

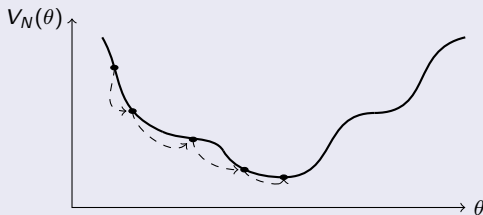
# PEM: numerical optimization

- PEM estimate:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}} = \arg \min_{\theta} V_N(\theta) = \arg \min_{\theta} h \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon(k, \theta) \varepsilon^\top(k, \theta) \right)$$

- The solution cannot be always computed analytically
- Numerical iterative algorithms for non-convex optimization should be used:
  - i initialize with an initial estimate  $\hat{\theta}^{(0)}$
  - ii update:  $\hat{\theta}^{(i+1)} = f(\hat{\theta}^{(i)})$  (the estimate is iteratively refined)
  - iii we would like that the estimate converges to the optimum  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}}$ :

$$\hat{\theta}^{(0)} \rightarrow \hat{\theta}^{(1)} \rightarrow \hat{\theta}^{(2)} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \hat{\theta}_{\text{PEM}}$$





## Gradient method

- choose an **initial condition**  $\hat{\theta}^{(0)}$ ;
- **iterate**
  - (i) *line search*: choose a positive step size  $t > 0$
  - (ii) *update*:  $\hat{\theta}^{(i+1)} = \hat{\theta}^{(i)} - t \left. \frac{\partial V_N(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\hat{\theta}^{(i)}}$
- **until** stopping criterion is satisfied (typically:  $\left\| \frac{\partial V_N(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right\| \leq \epsilon$ )
- in case of scalar output,  $V_N(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon^2(k, \theta)$  and  $\frac{\partial V_N(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon(k, \theta) \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta}$
- it converges (slowly) to the global optimum if  $V_N(\theta)$  is convex
- in case of non-convex  $V_N(\theta)$ , convergence to the global minimum is **not** guaranteed

## Exact line search

$$t = \arg \min_{t>0} V_N \left( \hat{\theta}^{(i)} + t\Delta\theta \right), \text{ with } \Delta\theta = - \left. \frac{\partial V_N(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\hat{\theta}^{(i)}}$$

## Gauss-Newton method

- choose an **initial condition**  $\hat{\theta}^{(0)}$ ;
- **iterate**
  - (i) *line search*: choose a positive step size  $t > 0$
  - (ii) *update*:  $\hat{\theta}^{(i+1)} = \hat{\theta}^{(i)} - t \left( \nabla^2 V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)}) \right)^{-1} \nabla V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)})$
- **until** stopping criterion is satisfied. Typically:  $\left| \nabla V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)})^\top \left( \nabla^2 V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)}) \right)^{-1} \nabla V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)}) \right| \leq \epsilon$
- in case of scalar output,  $V_N(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon^2(k, \theta)$  and

$$\nabla V_N(\theta) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \varepsilon(k, \theta) \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta}, \quad \nabla^2 V_N(\theta) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \varepsilon^\top(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial^2 \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta^2} \varepsilon(k, \theta)$$

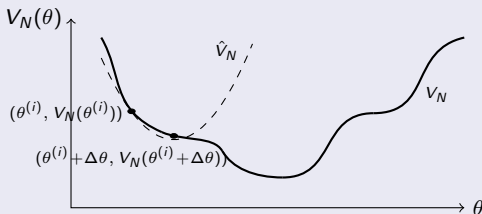
$$\hat{\theta}^{(i+1)} = \hat{\theta}^{(i)} + \Delta\theta, \text{ with } \Delta\theta = - \left( \nabla^2 V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)}) \right)^{-1} \nabla V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)})$$

## Gauss-Newton method: interpretation

$\hat{\theta}^{(i+1)} = \hat{\theta}^{(i)} + \Delta\theta$  minimizes the second order approximation:

$$\hat{V}_N(\theta^{(i)} + \Delta\theta) = V_N(\theta^{(i)}) + \nabla V_N(\theta^{(i)})^\top \Delta\theta + \frac{1}{2} \Delta\theta^\top \nabla^2 V_N(\theta^{(i)}) \Delta\theta$$

The minimum of the quadratic function above is achieved at  $\Delta\theta = - \left( \nabla^2 V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)}) \right)^{-1} \nabla V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)})$



$$\hat{\theta}^{(i+1)} = \hat{\theta}^{(i)} + t\Delta\theta, \text{ with } \Delta\theta = - \left( \nabla^2 V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)}) \right)^{-1} \nabla V_N(\hat{\theta}^{(i)})$$

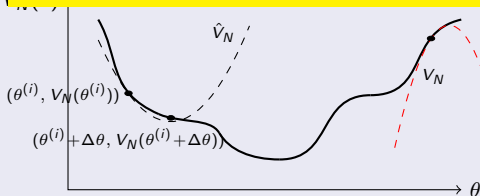
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Careful: if the Hessian is not positive definite, we move to the "wrong" direction



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Hessian approximation:

$$\nabla^2 V_N(\theta) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \varepsilon^\top(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial^2 \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta^2} \varepsilon(k, \theta) \approx \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \varepsilon^\top(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} + \underbrace{\delta I}_{\text{regularization}} \succ 0$$

## Example: evaluation of the gradient for ARMAX models

- ARMAX model:  $y(k) = \frac{B(q^{-1}, \theta)}{A(q^{-1}, \theta)} u(k) + \frac{C(q^{-1}, \theta)}{A(q^{-1}, \theta)} e(k)$
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- compute derivatives of both left and right hand of the above equation:

$$C(q^{-1}, \theta) \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial a_i} = y(k-i) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial a_i} = \frac{1}{C(q^{-1}, \theta)} y(k-i)$$

$$C(q^{-1}, \theta) \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial b_i} = -u(k-i) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial b_i} = -\frac{1}{C(q^{-1}, \theta)} u(k-i)$$

$$\varepsilon(k-i, \theta) + C(q^{-1}, \theta) \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial c_i} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial c_i} = -\frac{1}{C(q^{-1}, \theta)} \varepsilon(k-i, \theta)$$

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- Thus:

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon(k, \theta)}{\partial \theta} = [y_F(k-1) \cdots y_F(k-n_a) \quad -u_F(k-1) \cdots -u_F(k-n_b) \quad -\varepsilon_F(k-1) \cdots -\varepsilon_F(k-n_c)]^T$$

with:

$$y_F(k) = \frac{1}{C(q^{-1}, \theta)} y(k), \quad u_F(k) = \frac{1}{C(q^{-1}, \theta)} u(k), \quad \varepsilon_F(k) = \frac{1}{C(q^{-1}, \theta)} \varepsilon(k)$$