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Introduction

2

Deterministic modeling

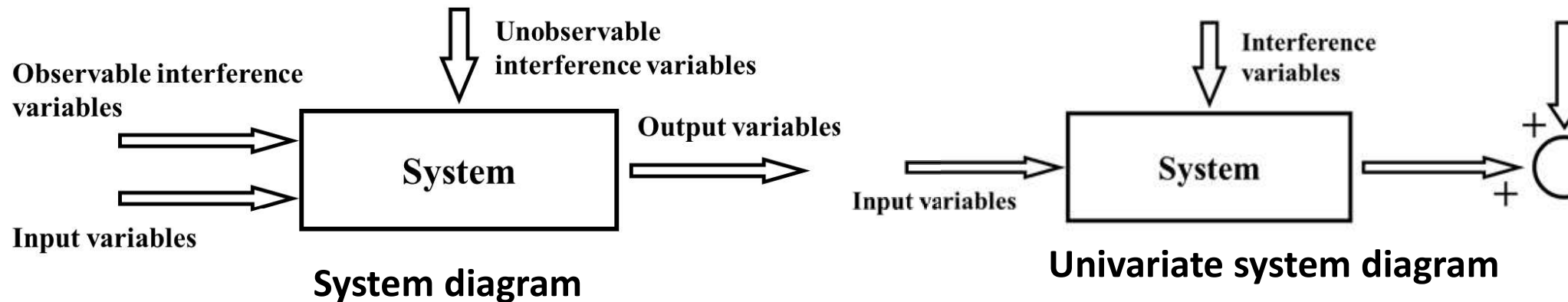
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Uncertainty modeling

4

Case study

■ The concepts of system



**What is
system?**

- ❑ A system represents an object, phenomenon, thing, process, or relationship.
- ❑ Its attributes must have corresponding input-output relationships, essential elements and unobservable interference variables.

**Types of
system.**

- ❑ Open-loop systems (with causal relationships)
- ❑ Closed-loop systems (with feedback effects)
- ❑ Sequential systems (without input effects)

■ The concepts of system

- A system is the research object of systems theory and other systems science. attributes and characteristics, including structure, function, behavior, and interaction



Example: computer

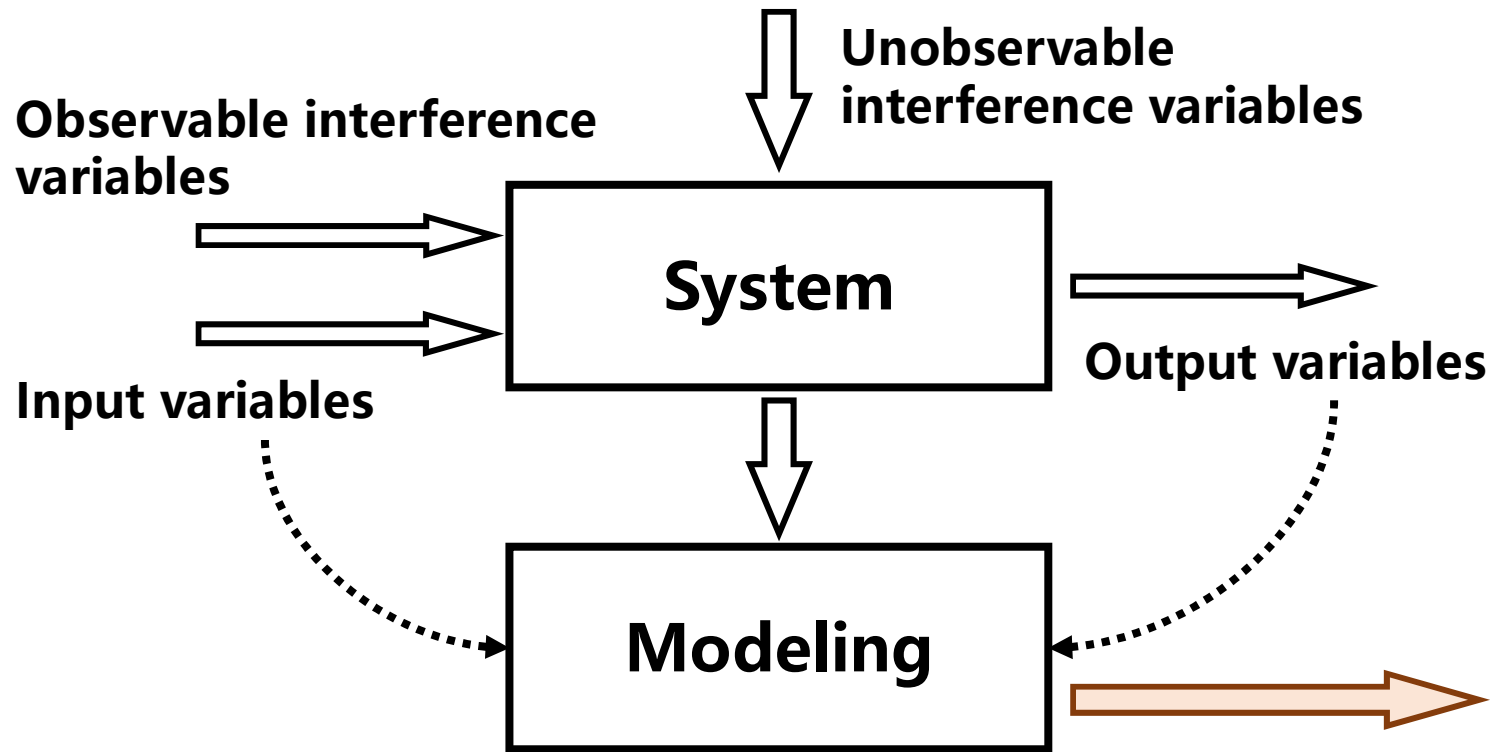
- A computer's hardware system is composed of arithmetic controllers, memory, and input/output devices, and the hardware system is a subsystem of the computer system.

Example: clock

- A clock is assembled from components such as gears, springs, and pointers in a certain way, but a pile of gears, springs, and pointers placed randomly together cannot form a clock



■ The concepts of model



Different types:

- Equation expressions
- Mathematical relations
- Natural laws
- Physical laws
- Assumptions
- Examples
- Schemes
- Hierarchical structures

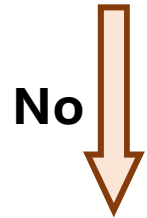
What is models ?

- A model is the main means of describing a system, which is an abstraction of specific behavioral patterns of the system. The external characteristics of the system or the input-output behavior of the system are concerned.

■ Classification of system modeling approaches

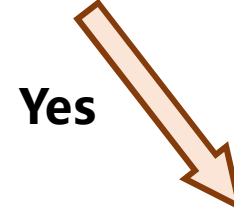
Concerning randomness or uncertainty?

(When the state of the system described is determined, the system's output response is certain or uncertain?)



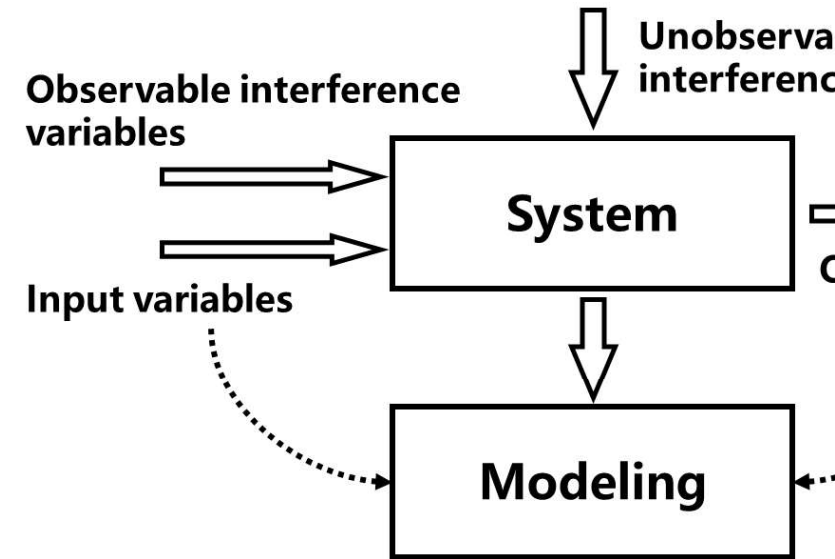
Deterministic modeling

- ❑ Differential equation modeling
- ❑ Transfer function modeling
- ❑ State space modeling
- ❑ AI-based modeling



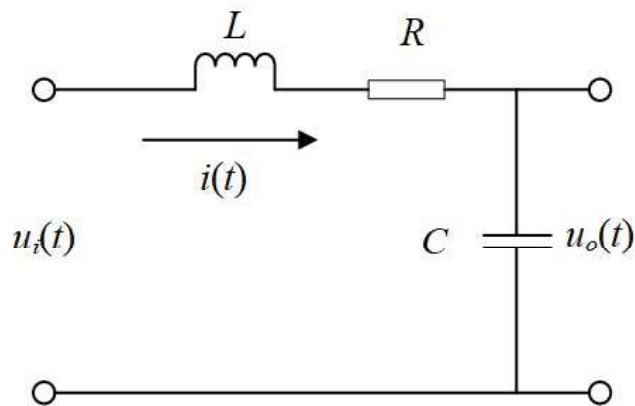
Uncertainty modeling

- ❑ Evidence theory modeling
- ❑ Bayesian theory modeling
- ❑ Markov process modeling

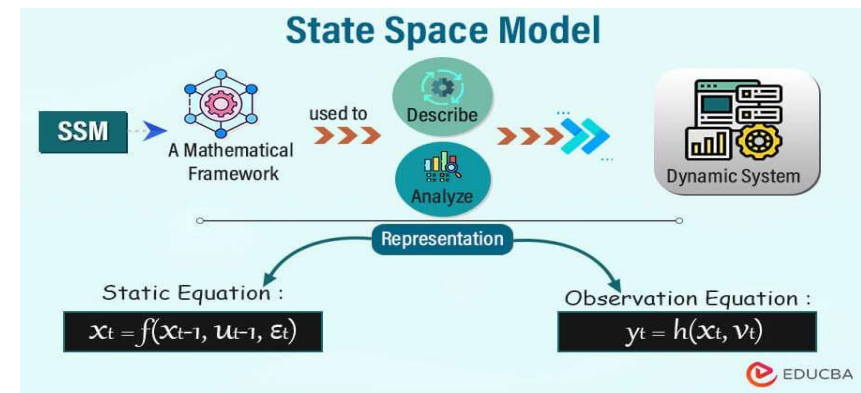


■ Classification of system modeling approaches: Deterministic modeling

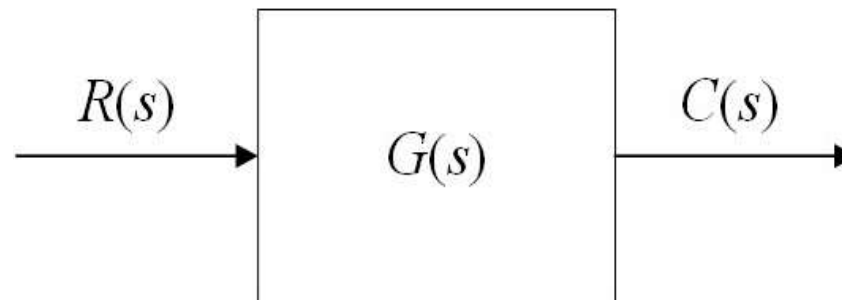
- ❑ A **mathematical model** of a system describes the **relationship** between internal **physic variables**) using mathematical expressions.
- ❑ In system modeling, deterministic models refer to models that do not contain any **random**



Differential equation modeling



State space modeling



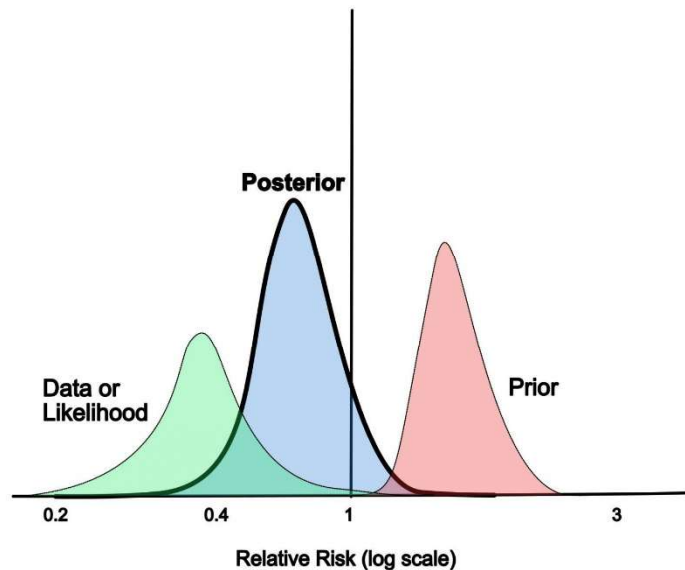
Transfer function modeling



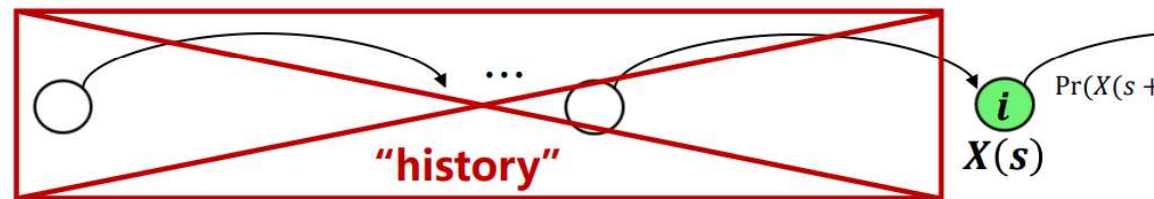
AI-based

■ Classification of system modeling approaches: Uncertainty modeling

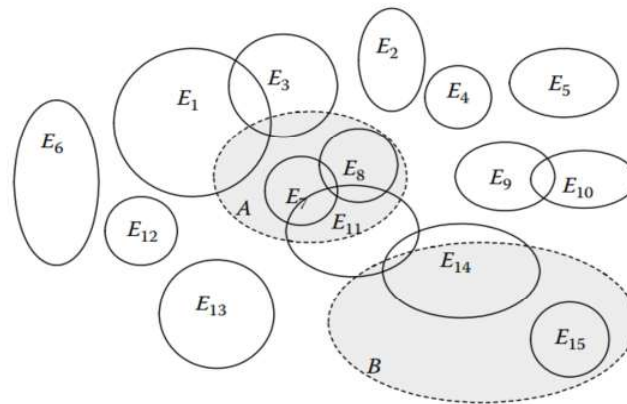
- Uncertainty modeling refers to the process of representing and quantifying **the various uncertainties** that exist within a system or a model.
- It applies to predictions of future events, to physical measurements that are already unknown.



Bayesian theory



Markov Process



Evidence theory

Content

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Deterministic modeling

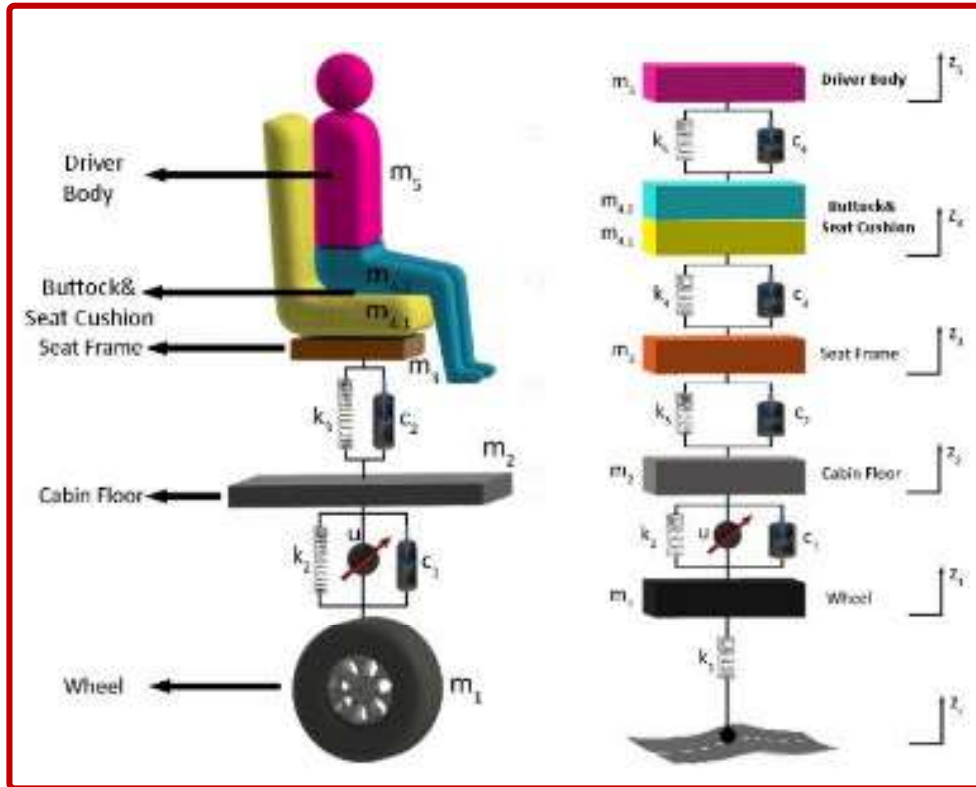
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Uncertainty modeling

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Case study

■ The concepts of deterministic modeling



Differential



Transfer fun



State space



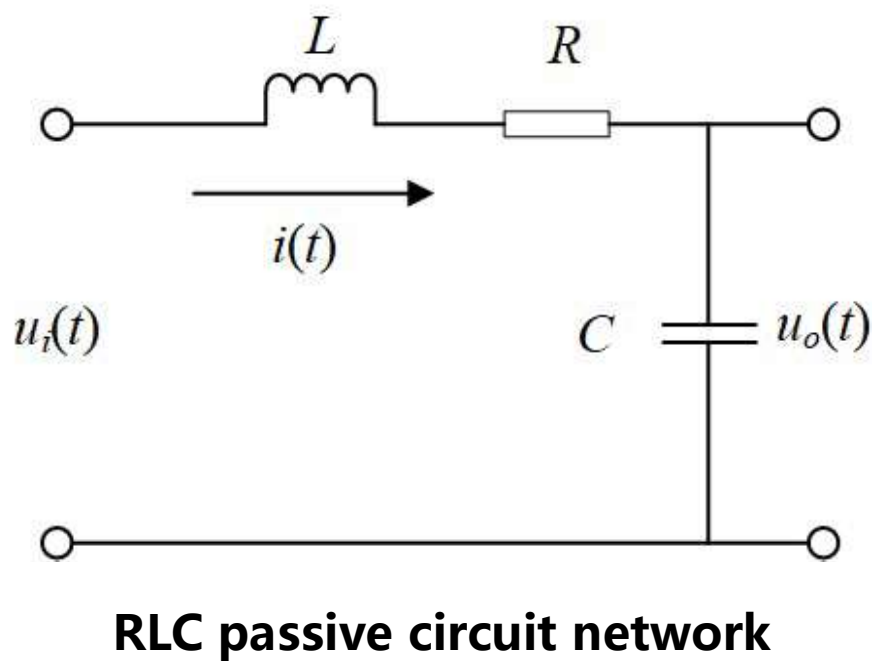
AI-based m

What is
deterministic
modeling ?

- ❑ A **mathematical model** of a system describes the **relationships** between internal **physical quantities (or variables)** using mathematical equations.
- ❑ In system modeling, deterministic models refer to models that do not contain any **random components**.

■ Differential equation modeling — System differential equations

- **Example 2-1:** The following figure shows a passive network composed of resistor and capacitor C . Please write down the network's differential equation with $u_i(t)$ and $u_o(t)$ as the output.



Kirchhoff's voltage law:

$$L \frac{di(t)}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} \int i(t) dt + Ri(t) = u_i(t)$$

$$u_o(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int i(t) dt$$

Eliminating the intermediate variable $i(t)$:

$$LC \frac{d^2 u_o(t)}{dt^2} + RC \frac{du_o(t)}{dt} + u_o(t) = u_i(t)$$

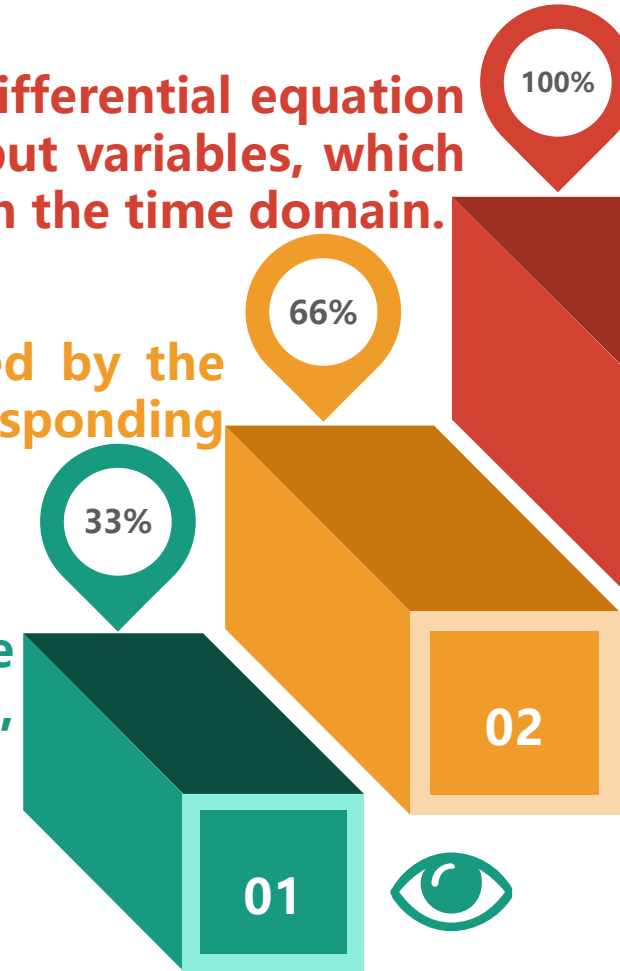
■ Differential equation modeling — System differential equations

➤ The steps for formulating component differential equations

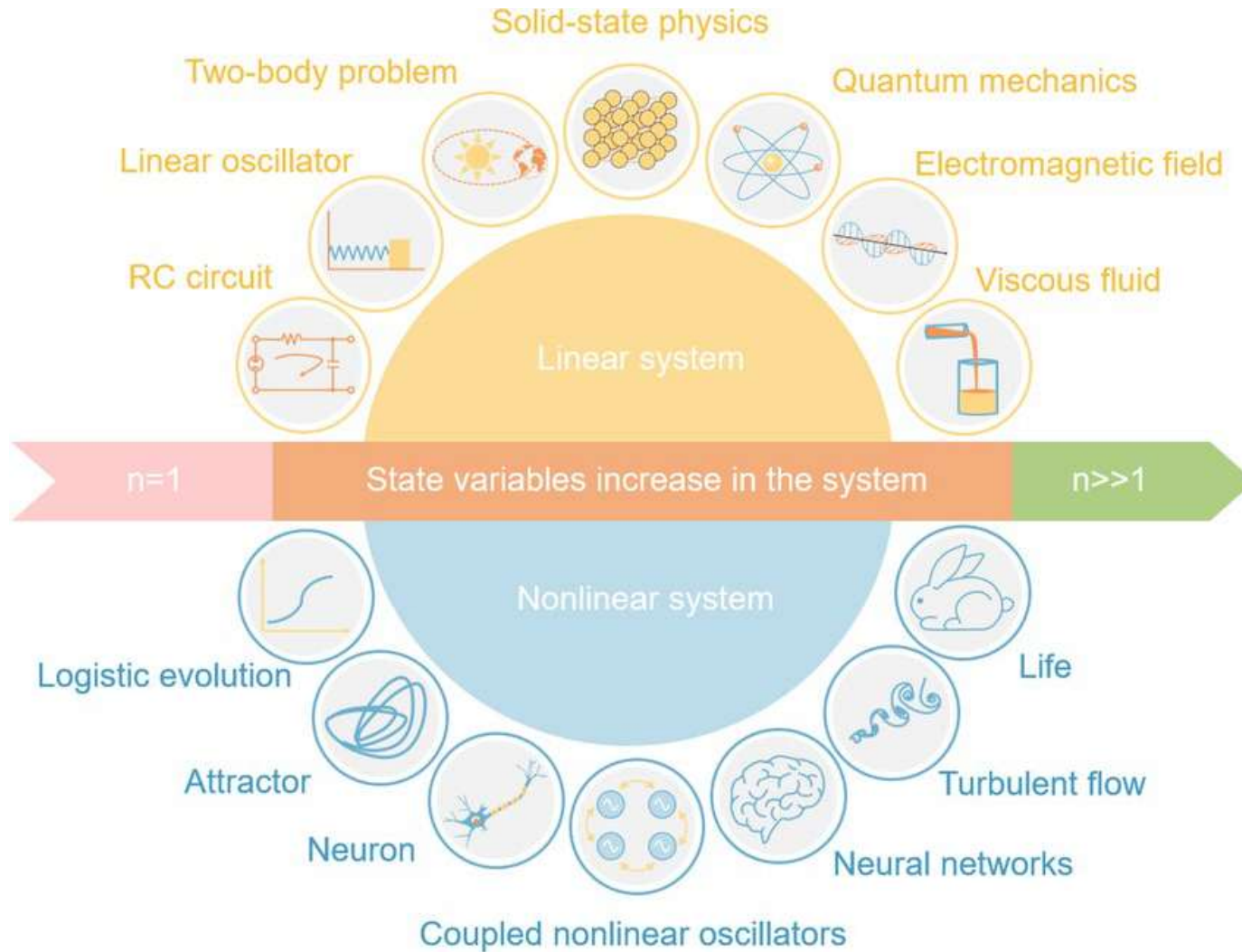
Step 3: Eliminate intermediate variables to obtain the differential equation describing the relationship between the output and input variables, which constitutes the mathematical model of the component in the time domain.

Step 2: Analyze the physical or chemical laws followed by the components in operation, and formulate the corresponding differential equations.

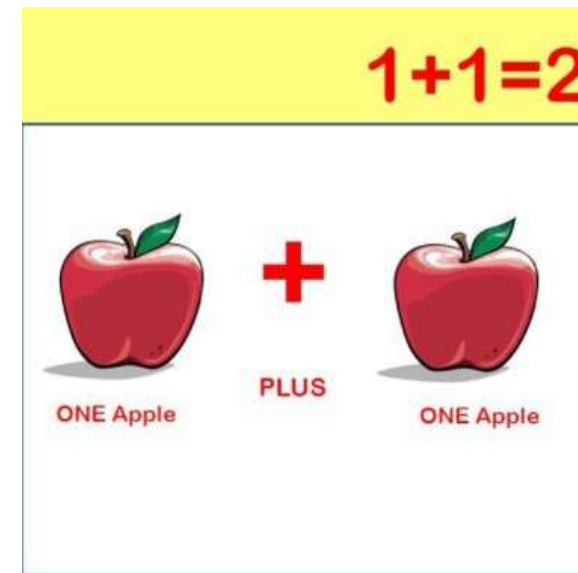
Step 1: Based on the operational principles of the components and their roles in control systems, determine their input and output variables.



■ Differential equation modeling — The basic characteristics of linear systems



➤ **What is linear system:** systems described by linear equations are referred to as linear components or linear systems.



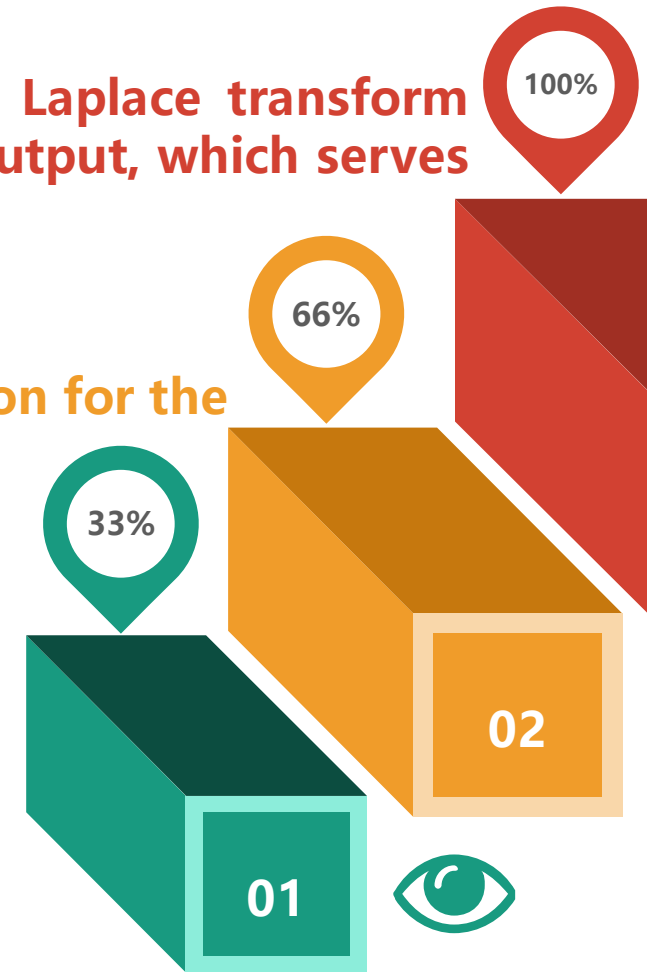
Superposition Principle

■ Differential equation modeling — The solution of linear time-invariant differential

Step 3: Perform the inverse transform on the output Laplace transform function to obtain the time-domain expression of the output, which serves as the solution to the given differential equation.

Step 2: From the algebraic equation, derive the expression for the Laplace transform function of the output.

Step 1: Considering the initial conditions, perform the Laplace transform on each term of the differential equation to convert the differential equation into an algebraic equation in terms of the variables.



■ Transfer function modeling

What is
Transfer
function
modeling
?

- When using the **Laplace transform method** to solve equations of linear systems, the mathematical model system in the complex domain can be obtained.
- The transfer function not only characterizes the **system performance**, but also can be used to study the effect of structure or parameter changes on **system performance**.

A linear time-invariant n-order system:

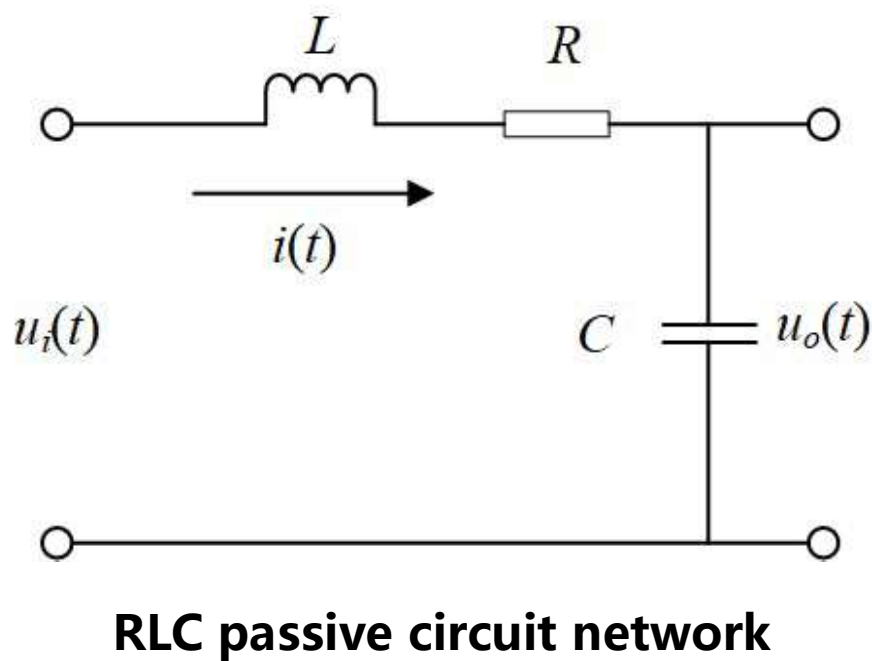
$$\begin{aligned} a_0 \frac{d^n c(t)}{dt^n} + a_1 \frac{d^{n-1} c(t)}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_{n-1} \frac{dc(t)}{dt} + a_n c(t) \\ = b_0 \frac{d^m r(t)}{dt^m} + b_1 \frac{d^{m-1} r(t)}{dt^{m-1}} + \dots + b_{m-1} \frac{dr(t)}{dt} + b_m r(t) \end{aligned}$$

Laplace transform: $\left[a_0 s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} s + a_n \right] C(s) = \left[b_0 s^m + b_1 s^{m-1} + \dots + b_{m-1} s + b_m \right] R(s)$

Transfer function: $G(s) = \frac{C(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{b_0 s^m + b_1 s^{m-1} + \dots + b_{m-1} s + b_m}{a_0 s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} s + a_n}$

■ Transfer function modeling

- **Example 2-2:** Let's find the transfer function $U_o(s)/U_i(s)$ for the RLC passive network in Example 2-1.



The differential equation for the RLC network

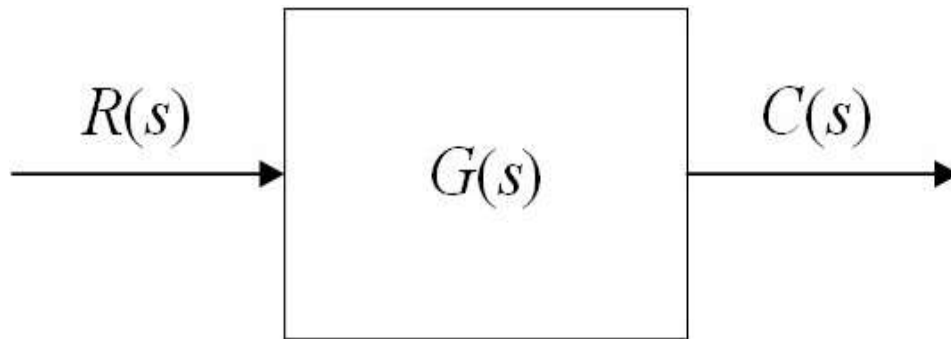
$$LC \frac{d^2 u_o(t)}{dt^2} + RC \frac{du_o(t)}{dt} + u_o(t) = u_i(t)$$

The transfer function:

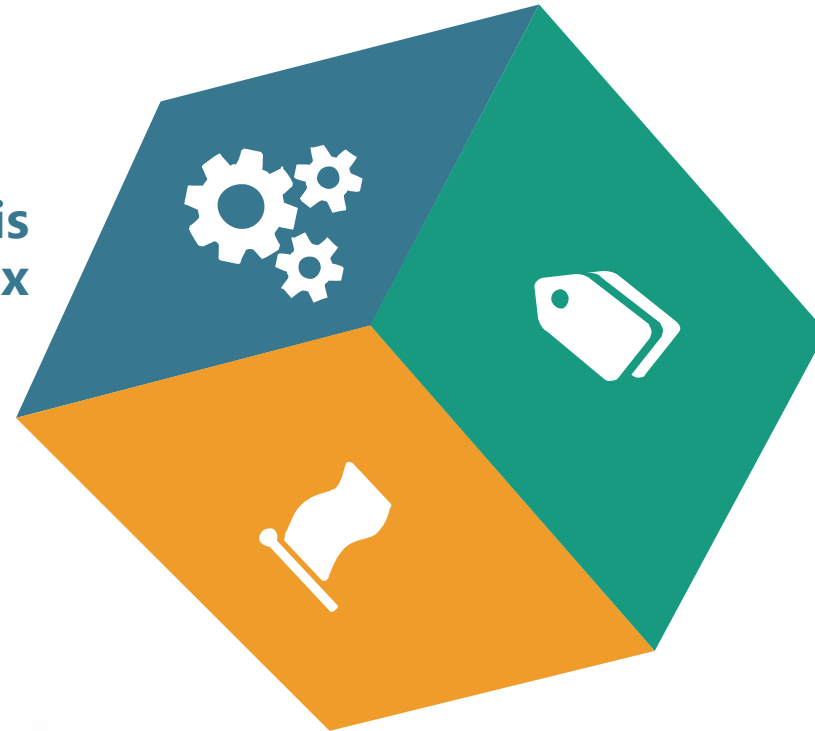
$$G(s) = \frac{U_o(s)}{U_i(s)} = \frac{1}{LCs^2 + RCs + 1}$$

■ Transfer function modeling

Property 1: The transfer function is a rational function of the complex variable s .



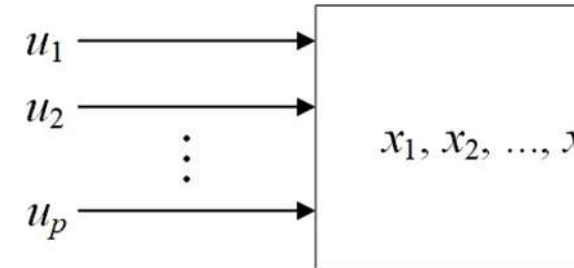
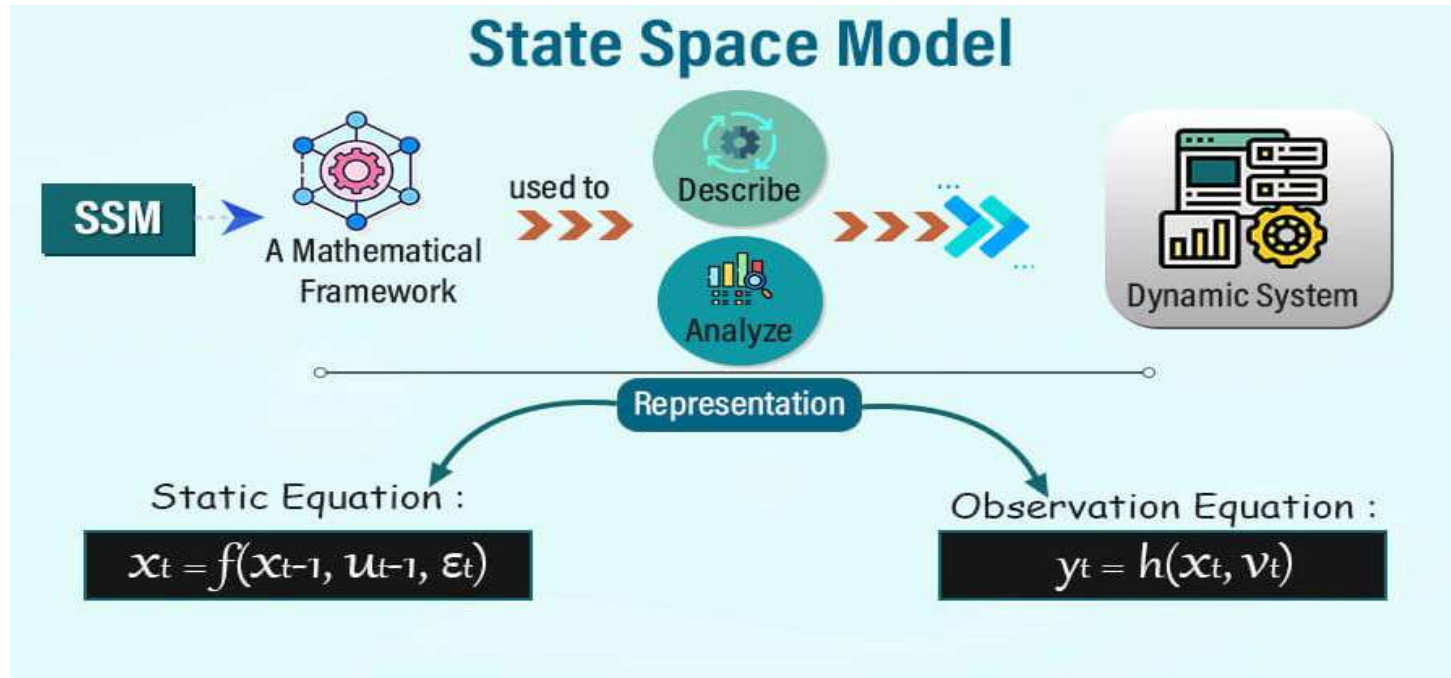
The graphic representation of transfer function



Property 2: function is that relates the input system parame

Property 3: The transfer function analogous to a differential equation

■ State space modeling



Input vectors: $u =$

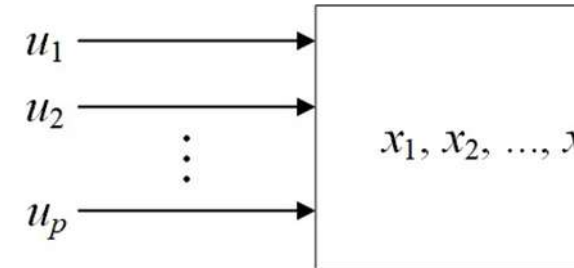
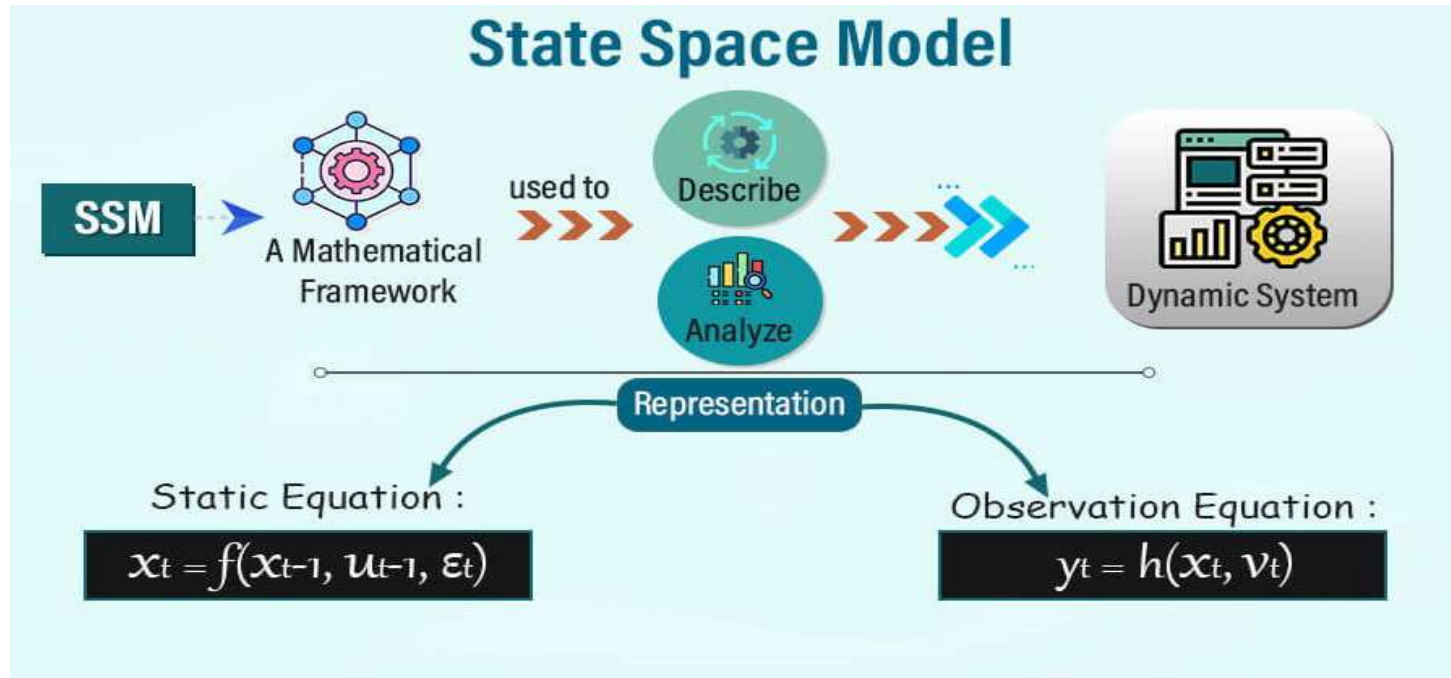
Output vectors: $y =$

Internal variables: x

What is
state space
modeling
?

- ❑ **State-space modeling** is a mathematical framework for behavior of dynamic systems.
- ❑ The state space represents the system through a set of and their **changing relationship** over time, and links the **internal state variables** of the system.

■ State space modeling



Input vectors: $u =$

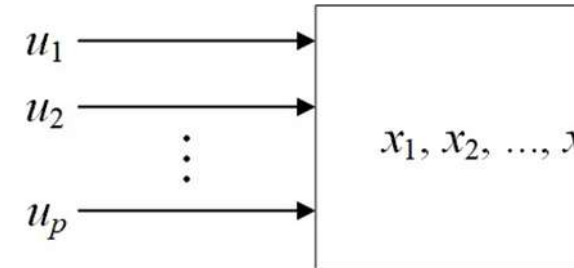
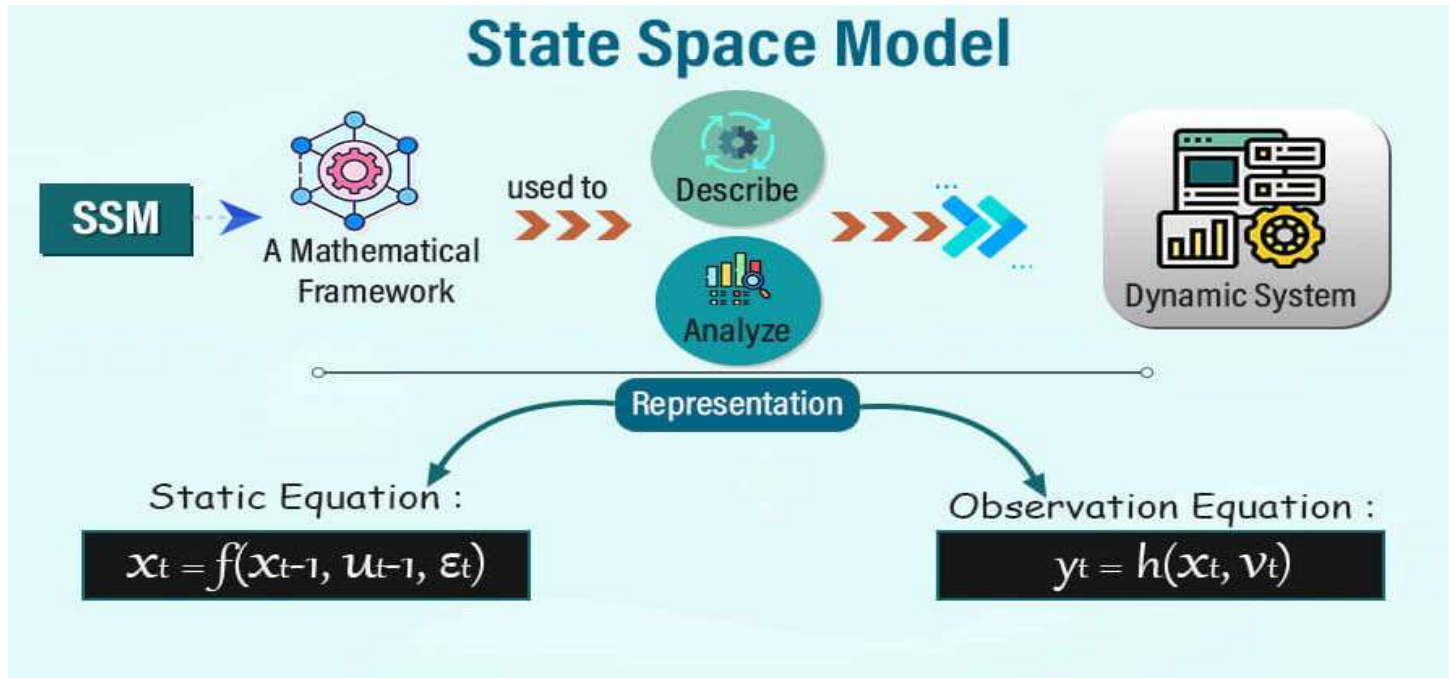
Output vectors: $y =$

Internal variables: x

Basic concepts of state space modeling

- ❑ **State and State Variables:** The collection of information about the state or motion of the system in the time domain is referred to as state.
- ❑ **State-space representation:** The system using a set of differential (or difference) equations that relate the state variables, inputs, and outputs.

■ State space modeling



Input vectors: $u =$

Output vectors: $y =$

Internal variables: x

Representation of state space modeling

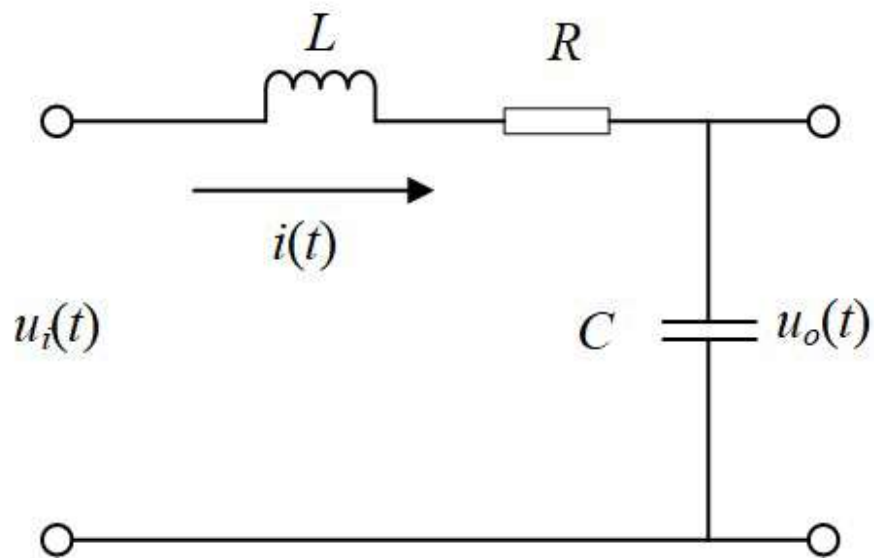
$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = A(t)x(t) + B(t)u(t) \\ y(t) = C(t)x(t) + D(t)u(t) \end{cases}$$

$x(t)$: The state vector
 $u(t)$: The input vector
 $y(t)$: The output vector

A : The state matrix
 B : The input matrix
 C : The output matrix
 D : The feedthrough matrix

■ State space modeling

- **Example 2-3:** Let's write down the circuit equations for the RLC network shown select a few sets of state variables, and establish the corresponding state-space. Then, we'll discuss the relationship between the selected state variables.



RLC passive circuit network

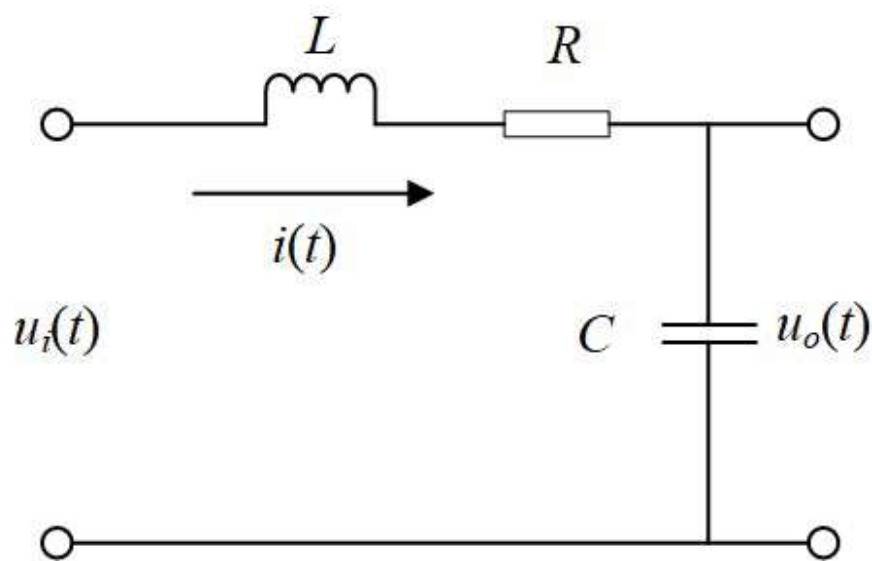
According to circuit laws, we can write the equations:

Circuit laws: $Ri + L \frac{di}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} \int i dt = u_i$

The output of the circuit: $y = u_c = \frac{1}{C} \int i dt$

■ State space modeling

- **Example 2-3: Let's write down the circuit equations for the RLC network shown select a few sets of state variables, and establish the corresponding state-space**
Then, we'll discuss the relationship between the selected state variables.



RLC passive circuit network

Solution 1:

Assume

$$x_1 = i \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{C}$$

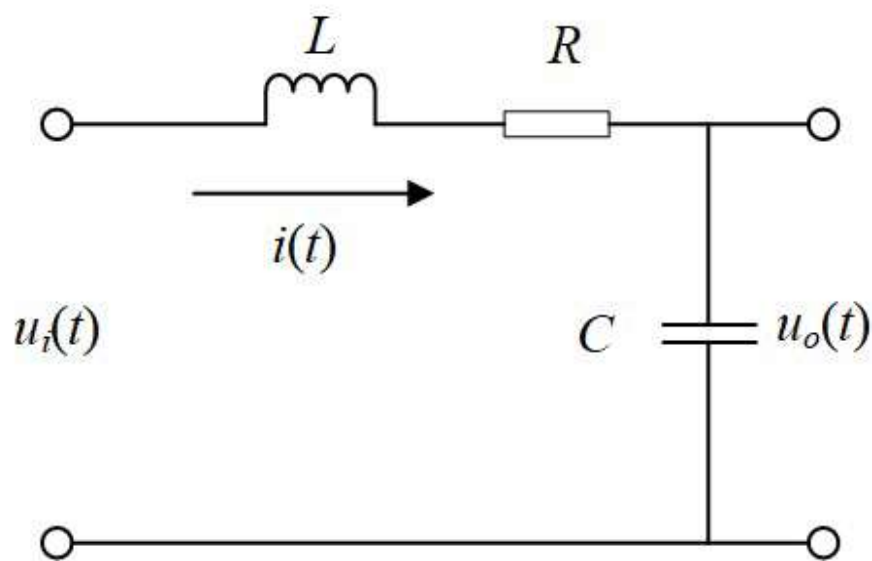
$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1(t) = -\frac{R}{L}x_1 - \frac{R}{L}x_2 + \frac{1}{L}e \\ \dot{x}_2(t) = \frac{1}{C}x_1 \end{cases} \quad (2-10)$$

$$y = x_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R}{L} & -\frac{1}{L} \\ \frac{1}{C} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} e$$
$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2-12)$$

■ State space modeling

- **Example 2-3: Let's write down the circuit equations for the RLC network shown select a few sets of state variables, and establish the corresponding state-space Then, we'll discuss the relationship between the selected state variables.**



RLC passive circuit network

Solution 2: Assume $x_1 = \frac{1}{C} \int i dt + Ri$ $x_2 =$

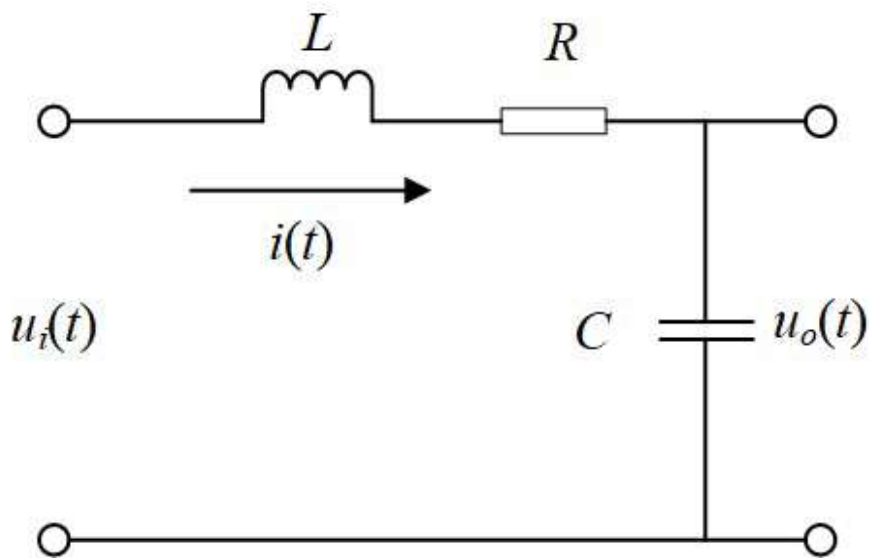
$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1(t) = -\frac{R}{L}x_1 - \frac{1}{LC}x_2 + \frac{1}{L}e \\ \dot{x}_2(t) = x_1 \end{cases} \quad (2-13)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{C}x_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R}{L} & -\frac{1}{LC} \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} e$$
$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{C} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2-15)$$

■ State space modeling

- **Example 2-3:** Let's write down the circuit equations for the RLC network shown select a few sets of state variables, and establish the corresponding state-space. Then, we'll discuss the relationship between the selected state variables.



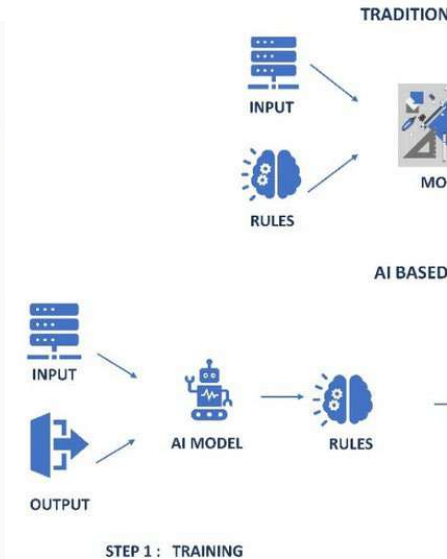
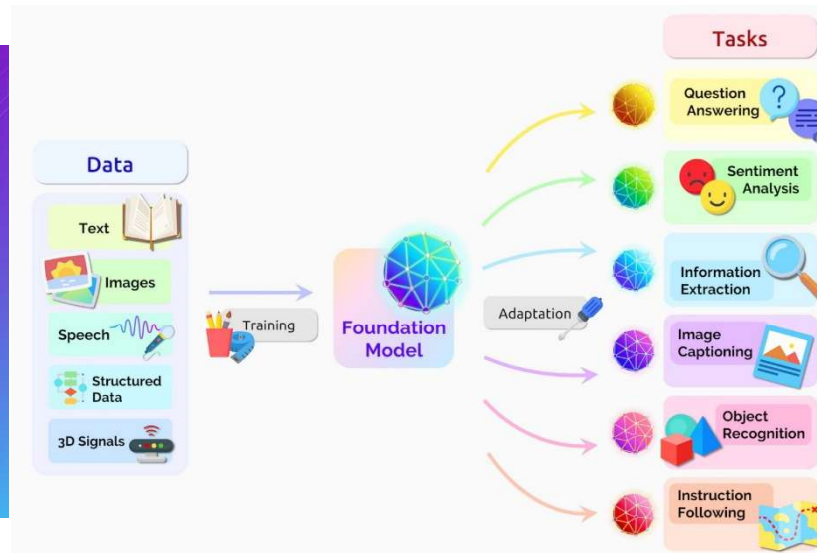
RLC passive circuit network

- **The state-space representation of the unique.** Choosing different state variables, different state-space representations, describe the same system.
- It can be inferred that there exists a **transformation relationship** between different state-space representations describing the same system.

■ AI-based modeling

What is Artificial Intelligence?

Explained in Simple Terms

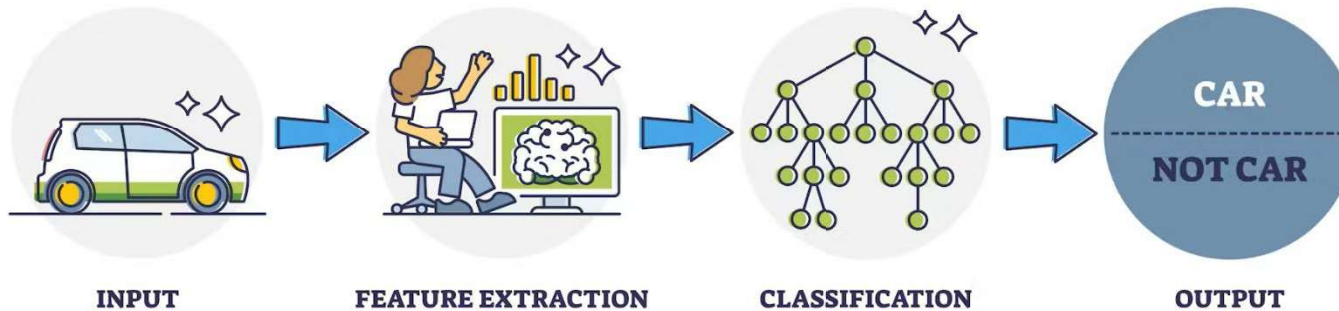


What is AI-based modeling ?

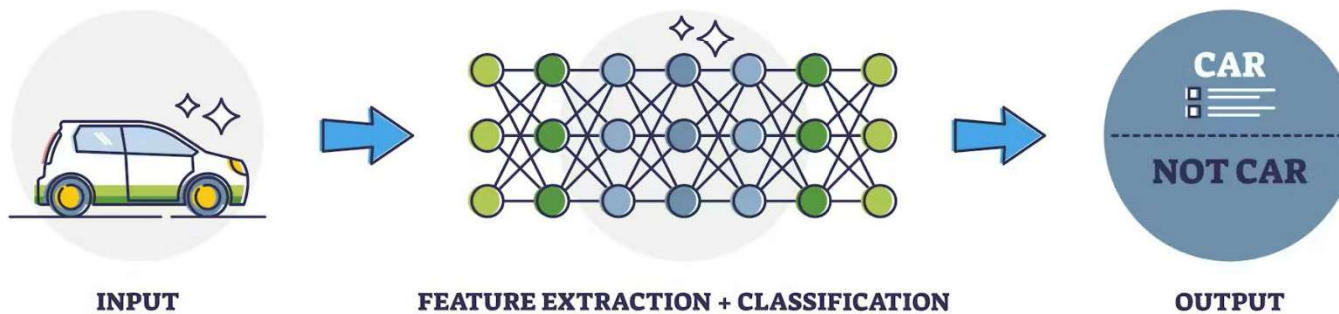
- ❑ **AI-based modeling:** Construct learning-based algorithms to establish the mapping relationship between input data and output for direct end-to-end prediction.
- ❑ Without the need for any **prior knowledge**, AI-based systems can learn **feature representations** from the inherent patterns in the data.

■ AI-based modeling

MACHINE LEARNING



DEEP LEARNING



Artificial Intelligence

The theory and development of computer systems that can perform tasks normally requiring human intelligence, such as visual perception, speech recognition, and decision-making.

Machine Learning

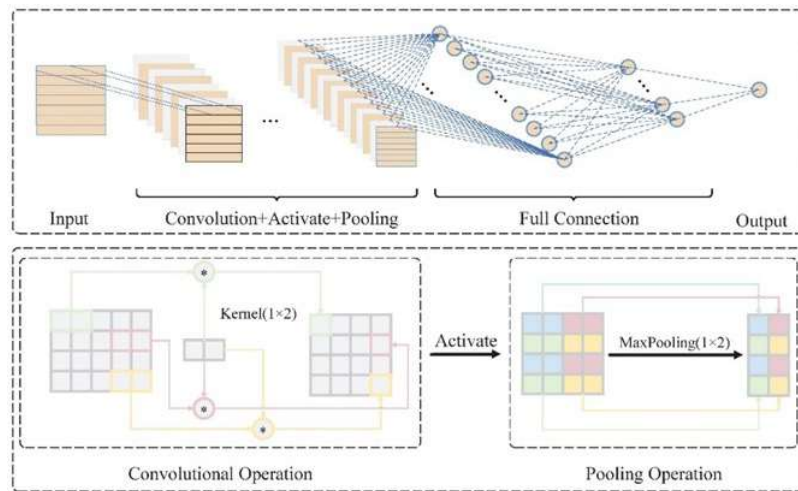
Gives computers "the ability to learn from data without being explicitly programmed."

Deep Learning

Machine learning algorithm with brain-like logic structure of algorithm called artificial neural networks

■ AI-based modeling—Neural networks

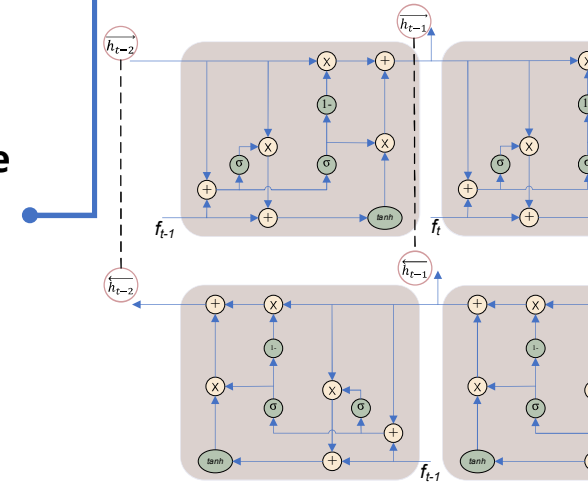
Convolutional Neural Network



Deep networks exploit

- Translation equivariance (weight sharing)
- Hierarchical compositionality

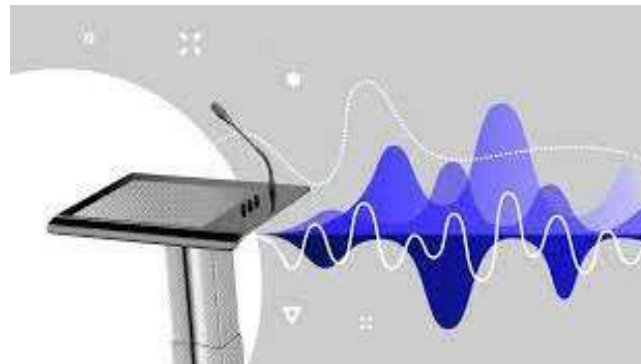
Recurrent Neural



• Image data



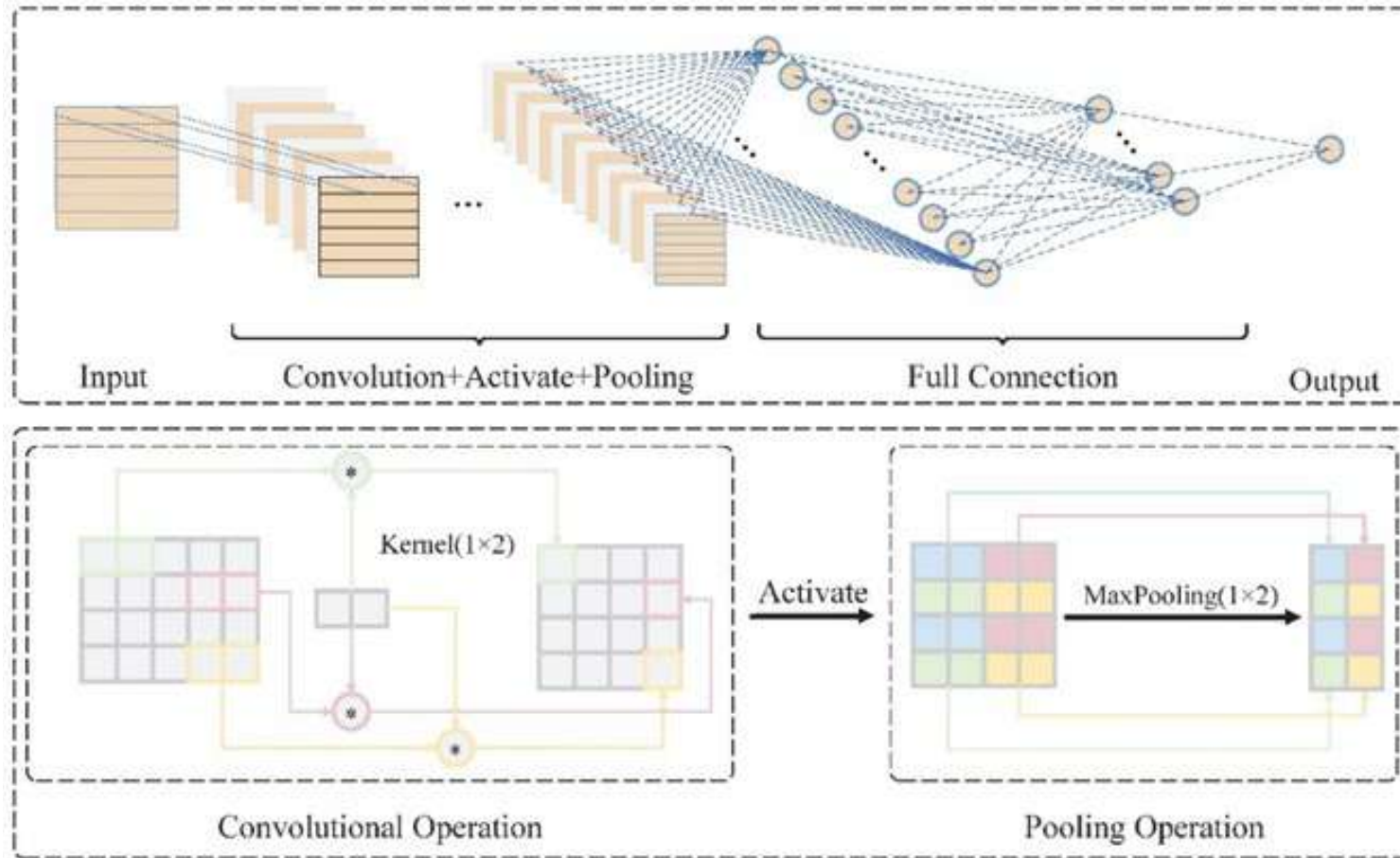
• Speech data



• Natural language



■ AI-based modeling—Convolutional neural network



Assuming:
Convolution kernel
Input matrix : $X =$ [...]
At the coordinates (...)
the input matrix, the
output of the
convolution operation
is shown as follows:

$$y = f \left(\sum_{p=1}^t \sum_{q=1}^t k_{pq} \cdot x_{i+p-q} \right)$$

where f is the ReLU
function, b is the offset

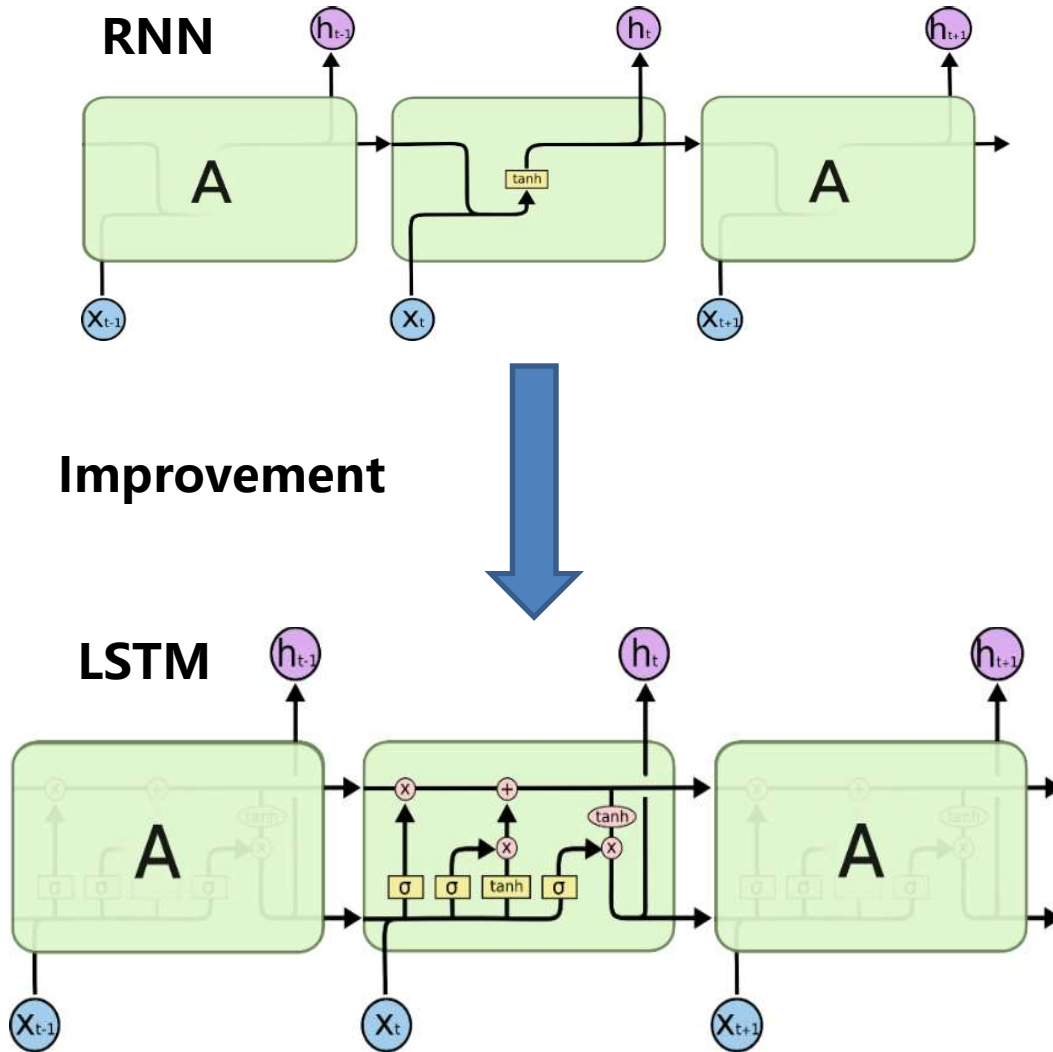
■ Advantages

- Automatic feature extraction
- Weight sharing

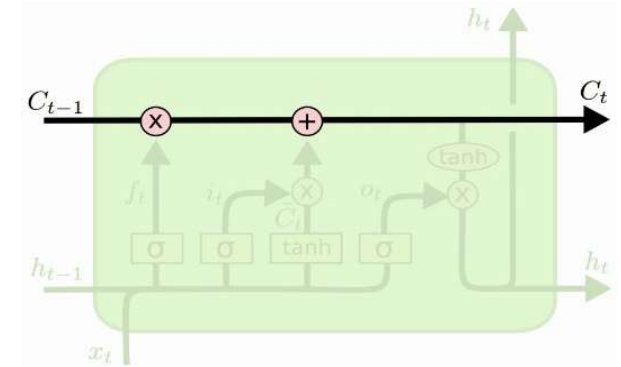


- Convolution operation
- Pooling operation

■ AI-based modeling—Long-short-term memory network



1. Cell State: Store LSTM cell information

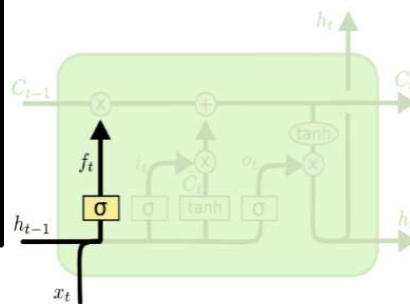


2. Gated structure

- How to control the cell state of t
- LSTM **removes or adds** cell state information through the gate structure.
- LSTM contains **3 gate structures** to control the cell state, namely, input gate, forget gate and output gate.
- **Each gate structure** contains a Sigmoid layer and a bitwise multiplication operation.

■ AI-based modeling—Long-short-term memory network

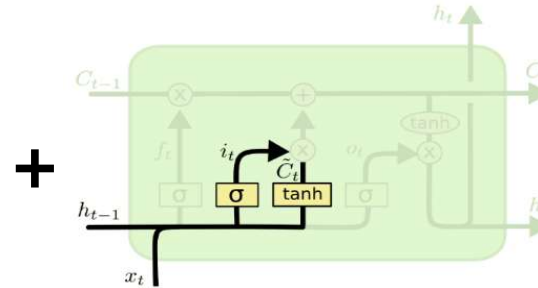
Forget gate:
Decide which part of the information is forgotten.



$$f_t = \sigma(U_f[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f) \quad (2-17)$$

Input gate:

Determine the information that needs to be added to the cell state in the current sequence information

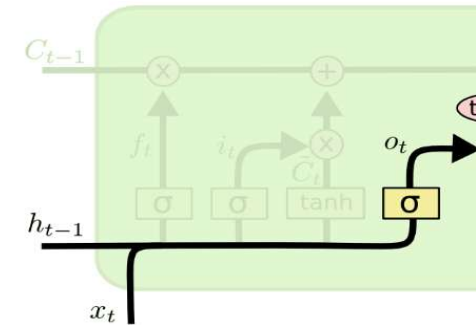
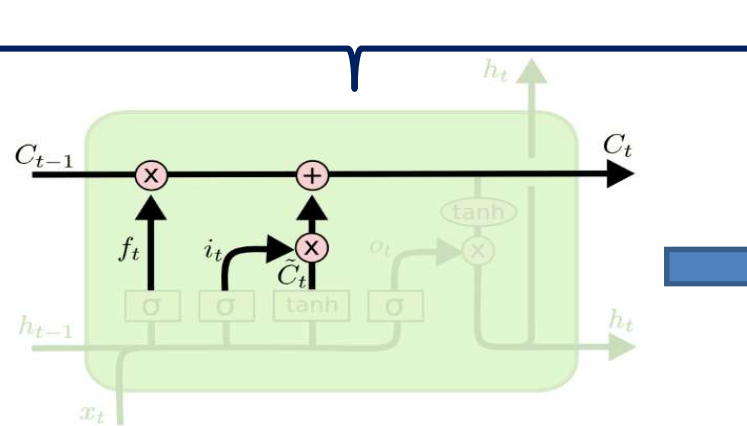


$$i_t = \sigma(U_i[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i) \quad (2-18)$$

Output gate:
 $h(t-1), x(t), c(t)$
to determine the current moment

Forget gate and input gate work together to update cell state.

$$c_t = f_t * c_{t-1} + i_t * \tanh(U_c[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_c) \quad (2-19)$$



$$o_t = \sigma(W_o[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o)$$

$$h_t = o_t * \tanh(c_t)$$

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■ The concept of uncertainty modeling

What is Uncertainty ?

- **Uncertainty** refers to epistemic situations involving imperfect or unknown information.
- Uncertainty is usually classified into **aleatory uncertainty** and **epistemic uncertainty**.



Evidence th



Bayesian th



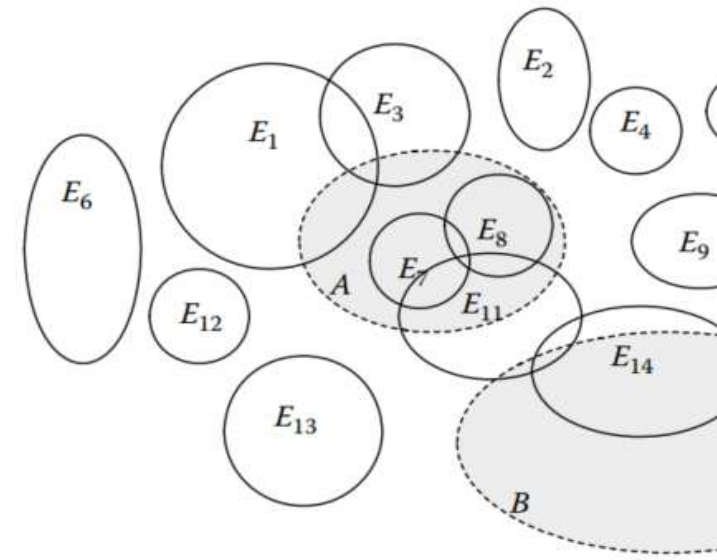
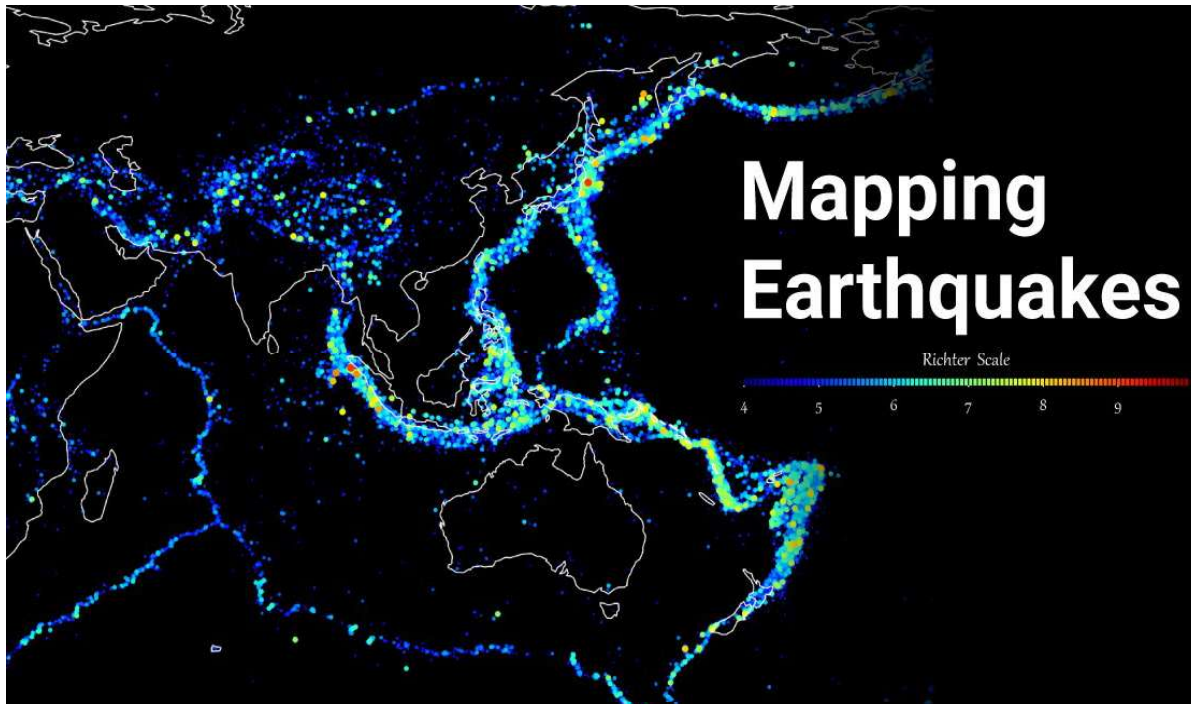
Markov Pr

What is uncertainty modeling ?

- Uncertainty modeling refers to the process of representing and various sources of uncertainty that exist within a system or a model.
- It applies to predictions of future events, to physical measurements already made, or to the unknown.

■ Evidence theory

- **Example 3-1: Assessing the potential consequences of an earthquake with location of its epicenter.**

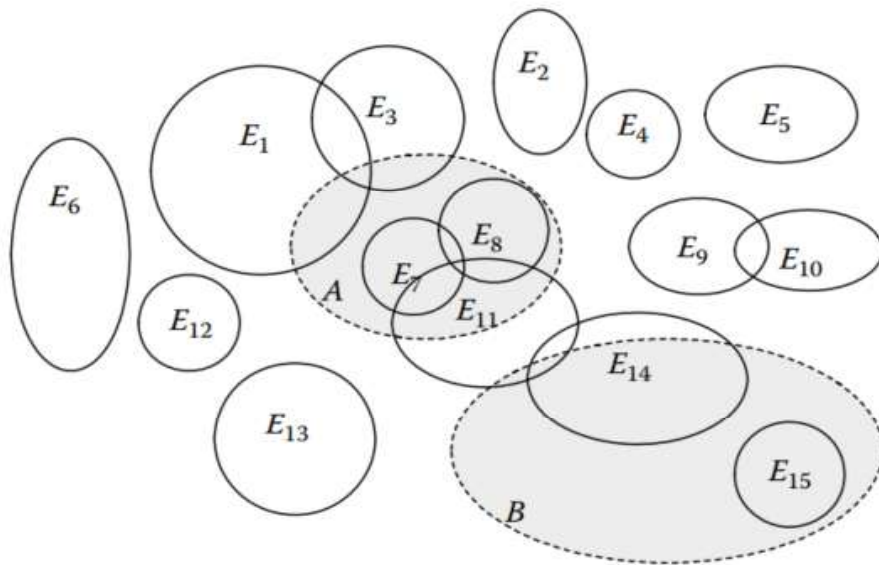


A group of 15 experts provided their possible location of the epicenter of t in the form of zones

■ Evidence theory

➤ Example 3-1: Assessing the potential consequences of an earthquake

- A group of 15 experts provided their estimates of possible location of the epicenter of an earthquake in the form of zones



Estimates of the locations of the epicenter of an earthquake

- The location estimates are both nonspecific (i.e., provided as regions) and conflicting (not in agreement) with each other.
- The expert opinions can be treated as evidence in this case.
- This evidence body can be used to estimate the likelihood that the epicenter is inside particular areas of interest representing cities or densely populated areas A and B.

■ Evidence theory

- The theory of evidence, also called the Dempster–Shafer theory (DST) developed by Shafer and Dempster. This theory is based on belief measures and plausibility measures.



A basic assignment (m) can be conveniently defined by the following function that maps the powerset to the range $[0, 1]$:

$$m : P_X \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

For any set $A_i \in P_X$, the belief measure (Bel) and the plausibility measure (Pl) measure is

$$Bel(A_i) = \sum_{all A_j \subseteq A_i} m(A_j) \quad Pl(A_i) = \sum_{all A_j \cap A_i \neq \emptyset} m(A_j)$$

1: Belief and plausibility measures

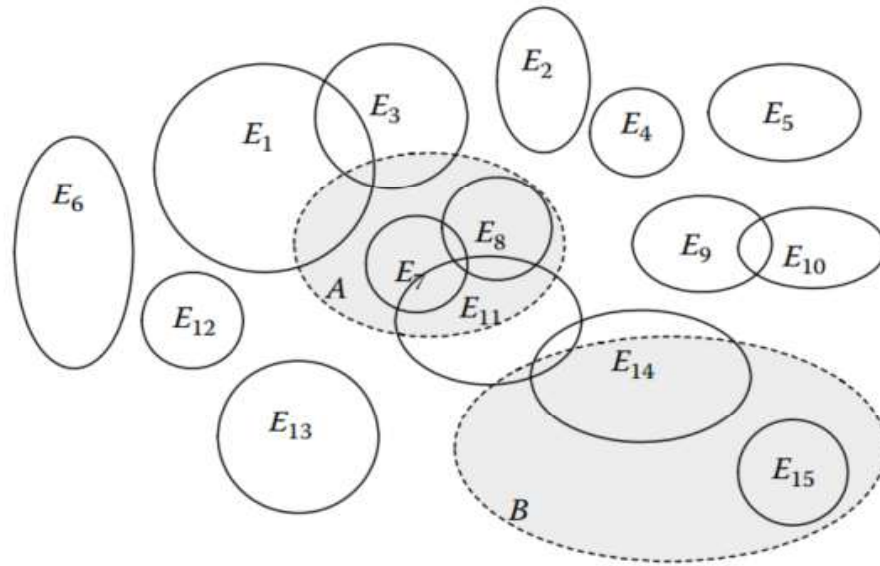
2: Basic assignment

The belief and plausibility functions satisfy

$$Bel(A) \leq P(A) \leq Pl(A)$$

■ Evidence theory

➤ Example 3-1: Assessing the potential consequences of an earthquake

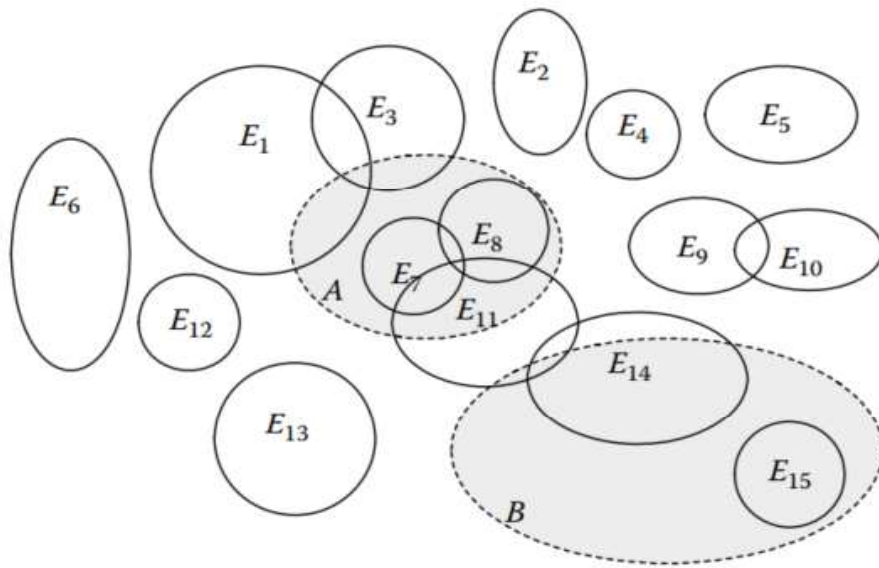


Estimates of the locations of
the epicenter of an earthquake

- The experts can be assumed for the purpose of this example to have an equal level of credibility, therefore assigning their respective regions equal weights of evidence of $1/15$. In other words, equally credible and reliable (i.e., equivalent in their opinions).
- This evidence body can be used to estimate the likelihood that the epicenter is inside particular regions of interest representing two cities or densely populated areas A and B

■ Evidence theory

➤ Example 3-1: Assessing the potential consequences of an earthquake



Estimates of the locations of the epicenter of an earthquake

1. The belief that the epicenter is in region A is

$$Bel(A) = 2/15 = 0.13$$

2. The plausibility that the epicenter is in region A is

$$Pl(A) = 5/15 = 0.33$$

3. Similarly for region B, the belief and plausibility are

$$Bel(B) = 1/15 = 0.07 ; Pl(B) = 3/15 = 0.2$$

4. These belief and plausibility values can be used to provide the following interval valued estimates of the probabilities of A and B:

$$0.13 \leq P(A) \leq 0.33; \quad 0.07 \leq P(B) \leq 0.2$$

■ Bayesian theory

- **Example 3-2: Calculating the probability of a factory producing defective components.**



How can you determine the defect rate of a batch of products when you know the defect rate for each production line?

■ Bayesian theory

- It is common in engineering to encounter problems with both objective and subjective types of information. Both types of information can be used to obtain solutions or make decisions.
- The subjective probabilities are assumed to constitute a prior knowledge about a parameter, with gained objective information (or probabilities).

If $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N$ represents the prior information, or a partition of a universe $E \in X$ represents the objective ability

$$P(E) = P(A_1)P(E|A_1) + P(A_2)P(E|A_2) + \dots$$

where $P(A_i)$ = the probability of the occurrence of A_i ,
= the occurrence of E given A_i , where

Bayes' theorem is based on the same principle of partitioning. The posterior probability is computed as follows:

$$P(A_i|E) = \frac{P(A_i)P(E|A_i)}{P(A_1)P(E|A_1) + P(A_2)P(E|A_2) + \dots + P(A_N)P(E|A_N)}$$

■ Bayesian theory

- **Example 3-2: A factory has three production lines. The three lines manufacture 20%, 30%, and 50% of the components produced by the factory, respectively. The quality department of the factory determined that the probability of having defective components from lines 1, 2, and 3 are 0.1, 0.1, and 0.2, respectively.**

1. The following events were defined:

L_1 = Component produced by line 1

L_2 = Component produced by line 2

L_3 = Component produced by line 3

D = Defective component

2. The following probabilities are given:

$$P(D | L_1) = 0.1;$$

$$P(D | L_2) = 0.1;$$

$$P(D | L_3) = 0.2$$

3. Since these events are not independent, joint probabilities can be determined as follows:

$$P(D \cap L_1) = P(D | L_1)P(L_1) = 0.1(0.2) = 0.02$$

$$P(D \cap L_2) = P(D | L_2)P(L_2) = 0.1(0.3) = 0.03$$

$$P(D \cap L_3) = P(D | L_3)P(L_3) = 0.2(0.5) = 0.1$$

4. The probability of a defective component is:

$$\begin{aligned} P(D) &= P(D | L_1)P(L_1) + P(D | L_2)P(L_2) + P(D | L_3)P(L_3) \\ &= 0.1(0.2) + 0.1(0.3) + 0.2(0.5) = 0.02 + 0.03 + 0.1 \\ &= 0.15 \end{aligned}$$

■ Markov Process Modeling

- **Example 3-3: A particle moves along the real axis in one step from any integer valued coordinate i either to $i+1$ or to $i-1$ with equal probabilities. The single steps are independent of each other.**



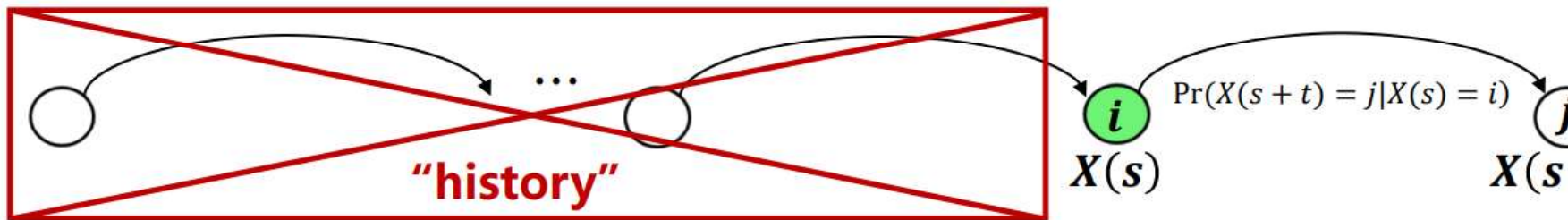
What is the absolute distribution of the position of the particle after 2 steps ?

■ Markov Process Modeling

- **Definition 1:** A process is said to have Markov property if

$$\Pr(X(s+t) = j | X(s) = i, X(u) = x(u), 0 \leq u < s) = \Pr(X(s+t) = j | X(s) = i)$$

for all $x(u), 0 \leq u < s$



The future development of a discrete Markov chain depends only on its present state and not on the sequence of previous states.

■ Markov Process Modeling

- **A Markov chain is called homogeneous if it has homogeneous (stationary) increments.**

The one-step transition probabilities from state i to state j of a homogeneous Markov chain do not depend on n :

$$p_{ij}(n) = p_{ij}, \text{ for all, } n = 0, 1, \dots$$



The one-step transition probabilities combined in the matrix of the one-probabilities (shortly: transition matrix)

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{00} & \cdots & p_{0j} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{i0} & \cdots & p_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$

- **The m -step transition or probabilities of a Markov chain are defined by**

$$p_{ij}^{(m)} = P(X_{n+m} = j | X_n = i); m = 1, 2, \dots$$

- **The following relationships between transition probabilities of a Markov chain are called **Chapman-Kolmogorov****

$$p_{ij}^{(m)} = \sum_{k \in Z} p_{ik}^{(r)} p_{kj}^{(m-r)}; r = 0, 1, \dots$$

■ Markov Process Modeling

- **Example 3-3:** A particle moves along the real axis in one step from any integer valued coordinate i either to $i+1$ or to $i-1$ with equal probabilities $1/2$. There are absorbing barriers at $x=0$ and $x=6$, so that if the particle arrives at one of these points it can-not leave it again. Provided that $0 < X_0 < 6$, the state space of the corresponding Markov chain $(X_0, X_1, \dots)$ is $Z = \{0, 1, \dots, 6\}$.

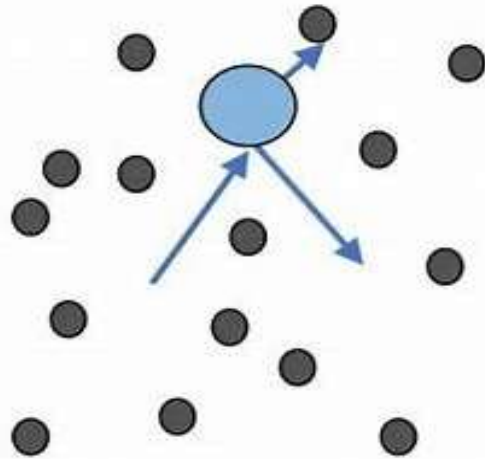


Fig 1. Random Motion. The particles in a gas have a random motion, moving in any direction at any speed.

1. The transition probabilities are

$$p_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1/2 & \text{for } j = i+1 \text{ or } j = i-1 \text{ and } 0 < i < 6 \\ 1 & \text{for } j = i = 0 \text{ or } j = i = 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

■ Markov Process Modeling

- **Example 3-3: The starting position of the particle X_0 is uniformly distributed over $\{1, 2, \dots, 5\}$ and the initial distribution is given by $p_i^{(0)} = P(X_0 = i) = 1/5; i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$.**

2. The matrices of the one and two-step transition probabilities are

$$\mathbf{P}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1/4 & 0 & 1/4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/4 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/4 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 & 0 & 1/4 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

3. The absolute distribution of the position of the particle after 2 steps is

$$p^{(2)} = \left\{ \frac{3}{20}, \frac{2}{20}, \frac{3}{20}, \frac{3}{20}, \frac{3}{20}, \frac{3}{20} \right\}$$

Content

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Introduction

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Deterministic modeling

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Uncertainty modeling

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Case study

■ Data description

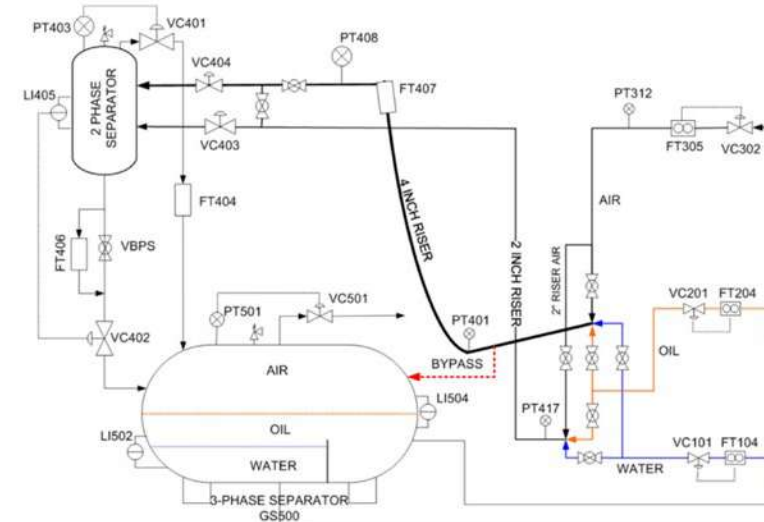
The three-phase flow equipment at Cranfield University aims to provide controlled and measurable flow rates of water, oil, and air for pressurized systems. The industrial process is shown in Figure 1 and can be used to achieve fault diagnosis and health monitoring. The dataset contains 24 variables collected by sensors and six types of faults based on different operating conditions.

Fault description of three-phase flow process.

Faulty types	0	1	2	3
Description	Normal condition	Air line blockage	Water line blockage	Top separator input blockage

Overview of the working conditions of three-phase flow process.

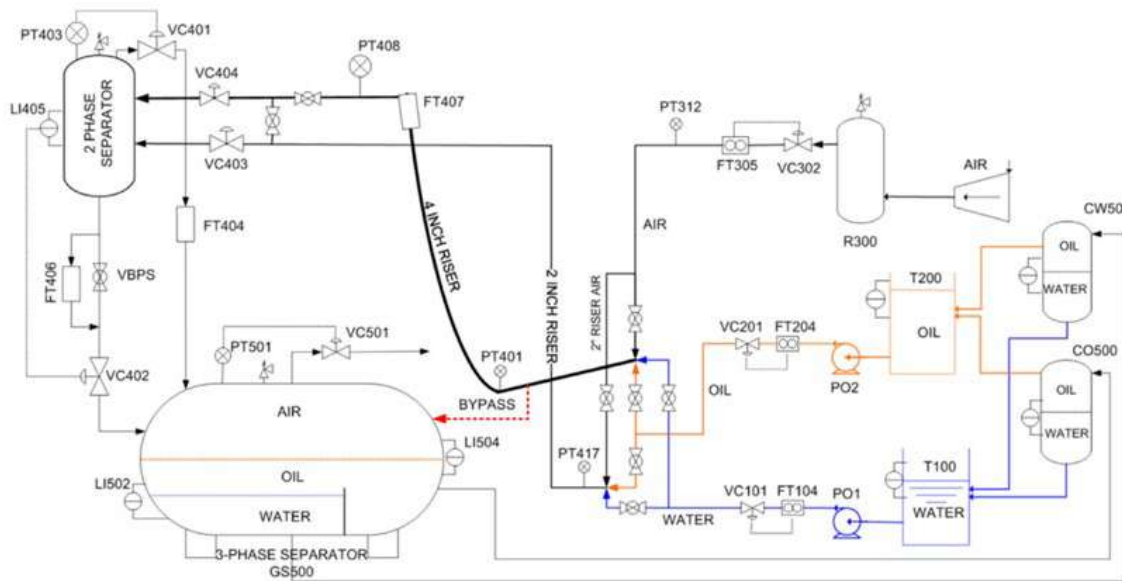
Domain	Conditions	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4
A	Water flow (kg/s)	2	2	2	2
	Air flow (m ³ /s)	0.0278	0.0417	0.0278	0.0278
	No. of samples	1000	1000	1000	1000
B	Water flow (kg/s)	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Air flow (m ³ /s)	0.0208	0.0208	0.0417	0.0208
	No. of samples	1000	1000	1000	1000



The diagram of three-phase flow in

■ Data preprocessing

- Data preprocessing can refer to manipulation, filtration or augmentation of data before it is often an important step in the data mining process and improve the quality of data. Data collection methods are often loosely controlled, resulting in out-of-range values, combinations, and missing values, amongst other issues.



■ Detailed steps

□ Feature analysis and selection

Analyze the relationship between features and select key features.

□ Outliers Removing:

Detect outliers in the training set and remove them.

□ Noise Reduction:

Reduce the negative impact of noise on data quality.

□ Normalization:

Features are transformed into a range of 0 to 1 to reduce the impact of data size imbalance on model training.

■ AI-based modeling—Decision tree

Process of decision trees training

■ Information entropy of current sample set D

$$Ent(D) = -\sum_{k=1}^m p_k \log_2 p_k$$

■ Information gain with attribute a

$$Gain(D, a) = Ent(D) - \sum_{v=1}^V \frac{|D^v|}{D} Ent(D^v)$$

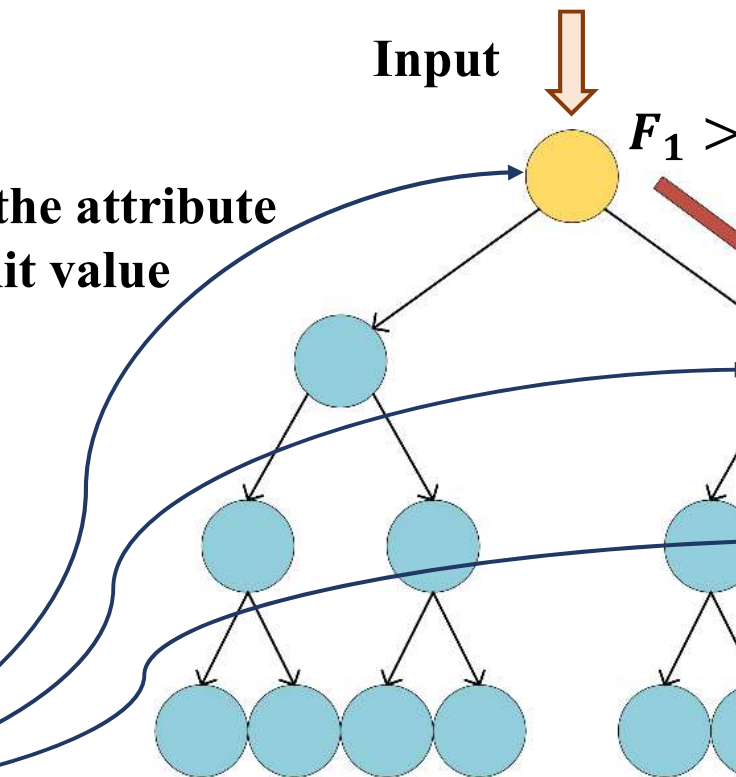
■ Gain ratio calculation

$$IV(a) = -\sum_{v=1}^V \frac{|D^v|}{D} \log_2 \frac{|D^v|}{D}$$

$$Gain_{ratio}(D, a) = \frac{Gain(D, a)}{IV(a)}$$

Guide the attribute and split value

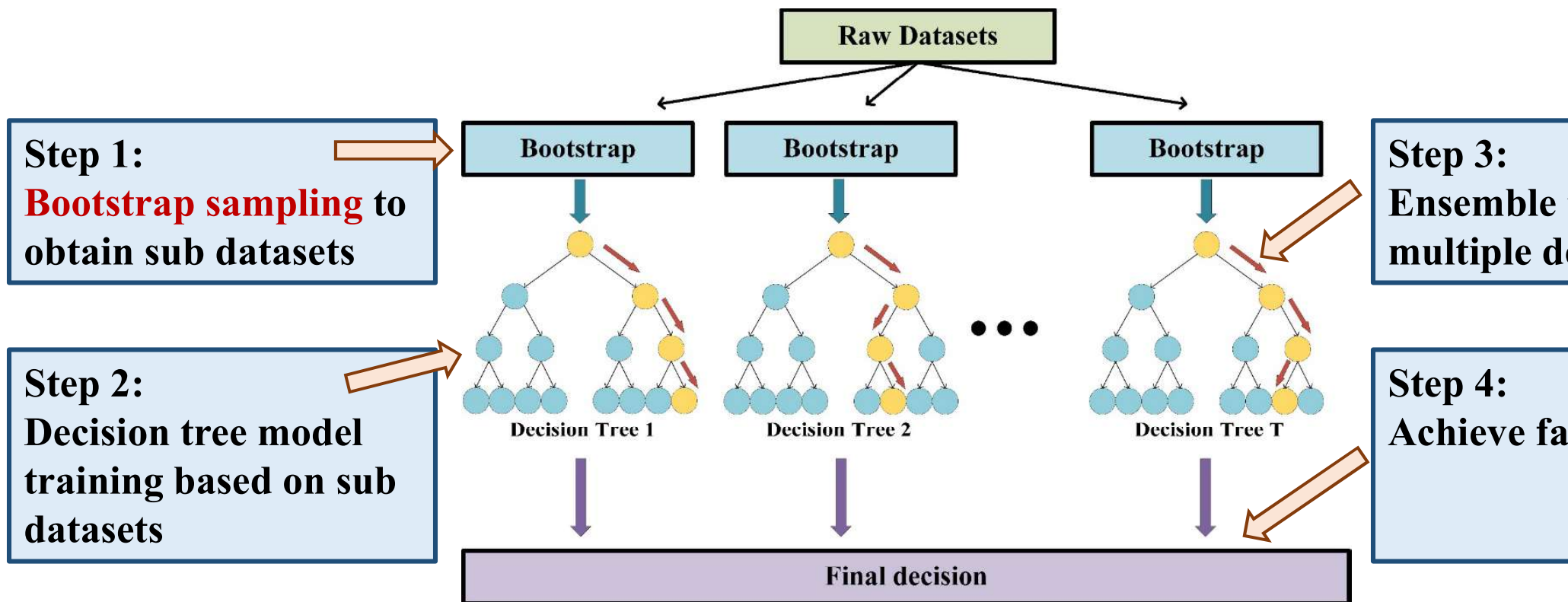
Decision trees model



Predicted faulty types by the tr

■ AI-based modeling—Random forest

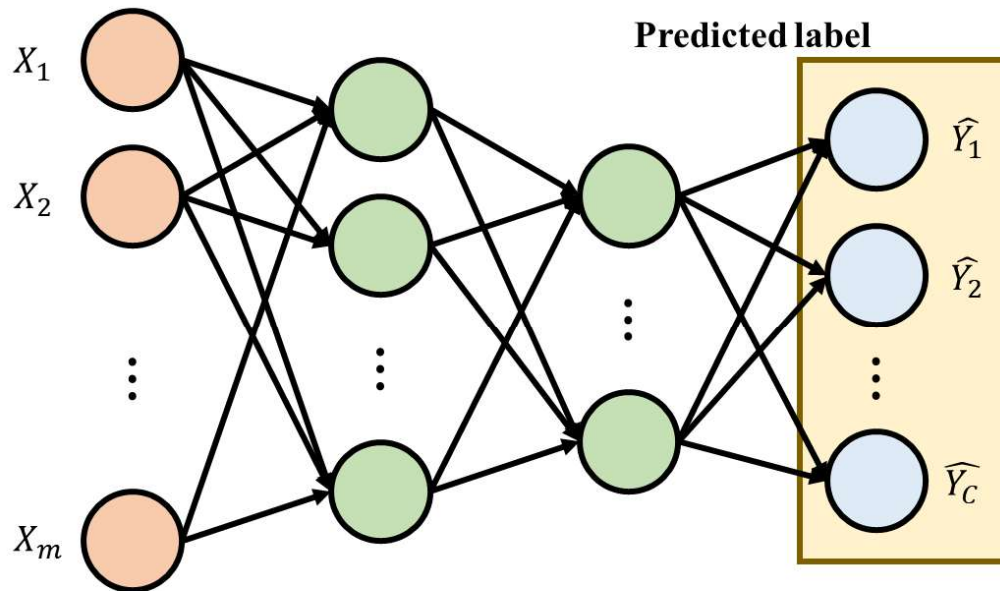
- Random forest is an ensemble learning method for classification, regression and other tasks that operates by constructing a multitude of decision trees at training time.



■ AI-based modeling—Neural network

Step 2. Forward calculation

$$Y_{pred} = \sigma_k(\cdots \sigma_1(W_1 X_{Input} + b_1) \cdots)$$



Step 3. Gradient descent

$$L = \sum \|Y_{pred} - Y_{real}\|_2^2 \quad \Theta_{i+1} = \Theta_i - \lambda \frac{\partial L}{\partial \Theta}$$

■ Main algorithm

- ❑ Step 1: Data preprocessing
- ❑ Step 2: Forward calculation
- ❑ Step 3: Back propagation (Gradient descent)
- ❑ Step 4: Iterative learning on S
- ❑ Step 5: Results validation

■ Advantages

- ❑ Strong nonlinear fitting capability
- ❑ Good learning and generalization
- ❑ Relax the assumption of physics

■ Data description

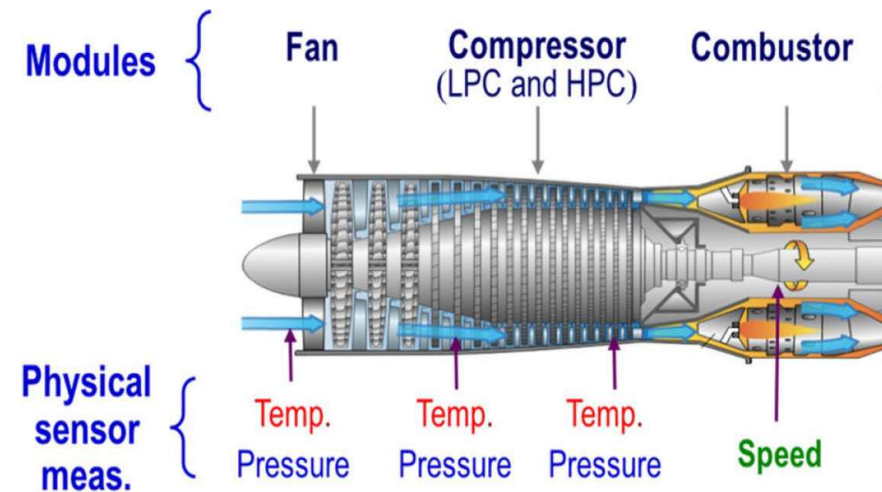
The widely used **commercial modular aero-propulsion system simulation** (C-MAP) adopted for the evaluation of the proposed RUL prediction approach. This data describes the degradation process of the aircraft engine. The engine consists of fan, compressor (LPC), high pressure compressor (HPC), combustor, low pressure turbine, and high pressure turbine (HPT). Total **21 onboard sensors**, measuring temperature, pressure, and speed, are deployed at different locations to **monitor** the condition of the engine.

Train data

The full life cycle monitoring data of 21 sensors

Test data

The monitoring data of 21 sensors of the partial life cycle, and the corresponding real value of RUL



The diagram of aircraft engine

■ Data preprocessing

■ Feature selection

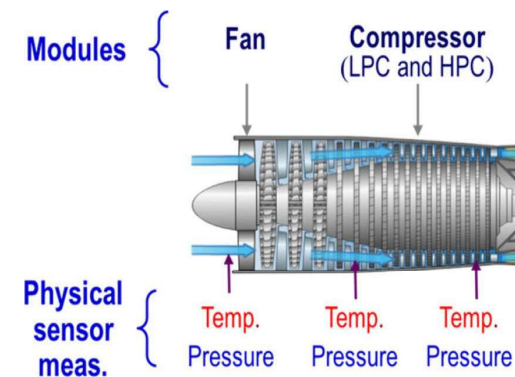
- For the 21 sensors (indices from 1 to 21 in training and testing files), the sensors with indices 18, and 19 always have **constant values** during the run-to-fail experiments. This means they are not related to the degradation of engines. In this sense, 14 sensors are used for **the RUL**

■ Time windows acquisition

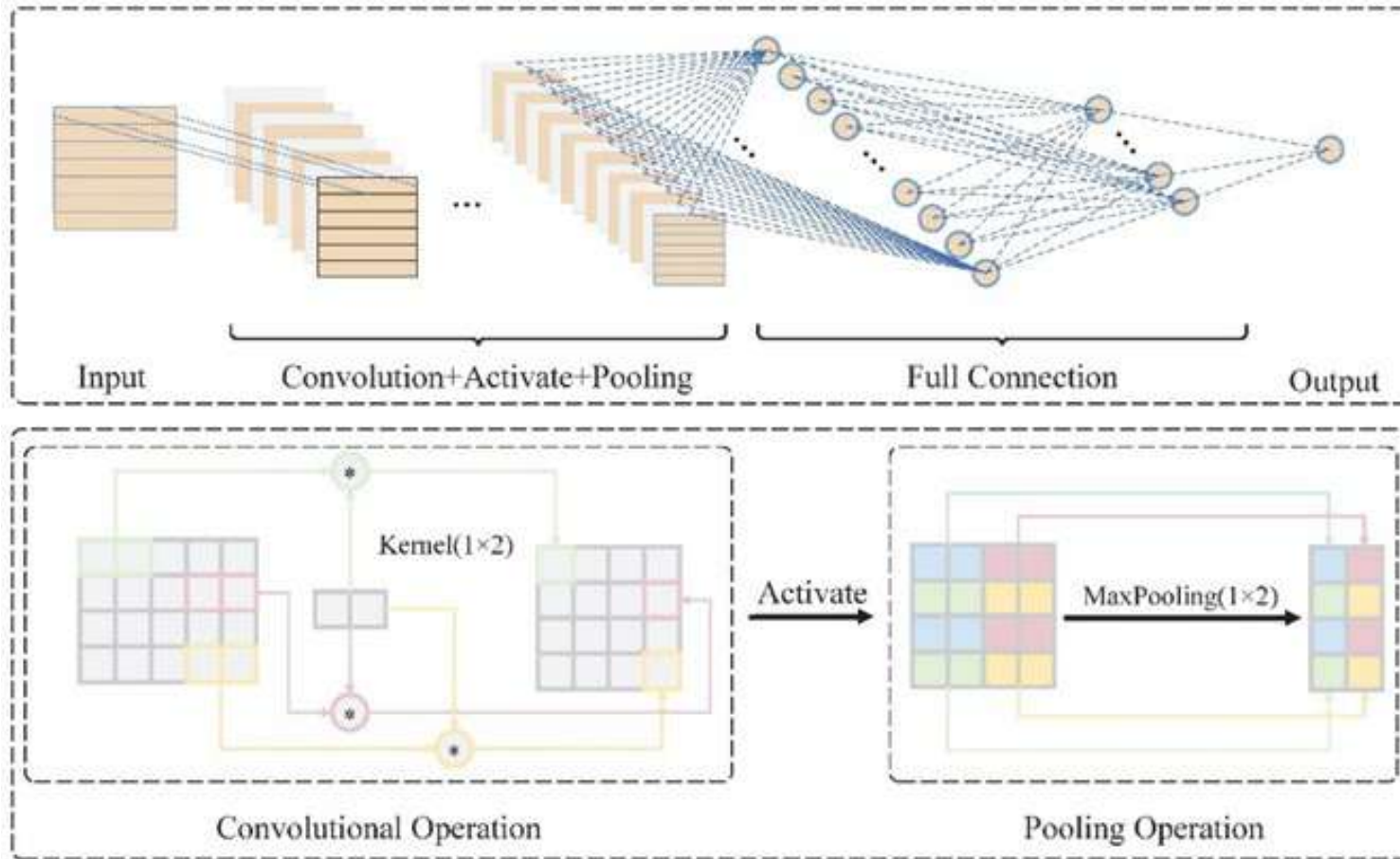
- Since the data picked up by the sensors are time series data, the data are combined in time windows, which act as the input into the RUL prediction model.

The description of aircraft turbofan engine dataset.

Data	Aircraft turbofan engine datasets			
	FD001	FD002	FD003	FD004
Training engines	100	260	100	249
Testing engines	100	259	100	248
Fault modes	1	1	2	2
Operational conditions	1	6	1	6



■ AI-based modeling—Convolutional neural network



Assuming:
Convolution kernel
Input matrix : $X =$
At the coordinates (i, j) of the input matrix, the output of the convolution operation y shown as follows:

$$y = f \left(\sum_{p=1}^t \sum_{q=1}^t k_{pq} \cdot x_{i+p-j, i+q-k} \right)$$

where f is the ReLU function, b is the offset

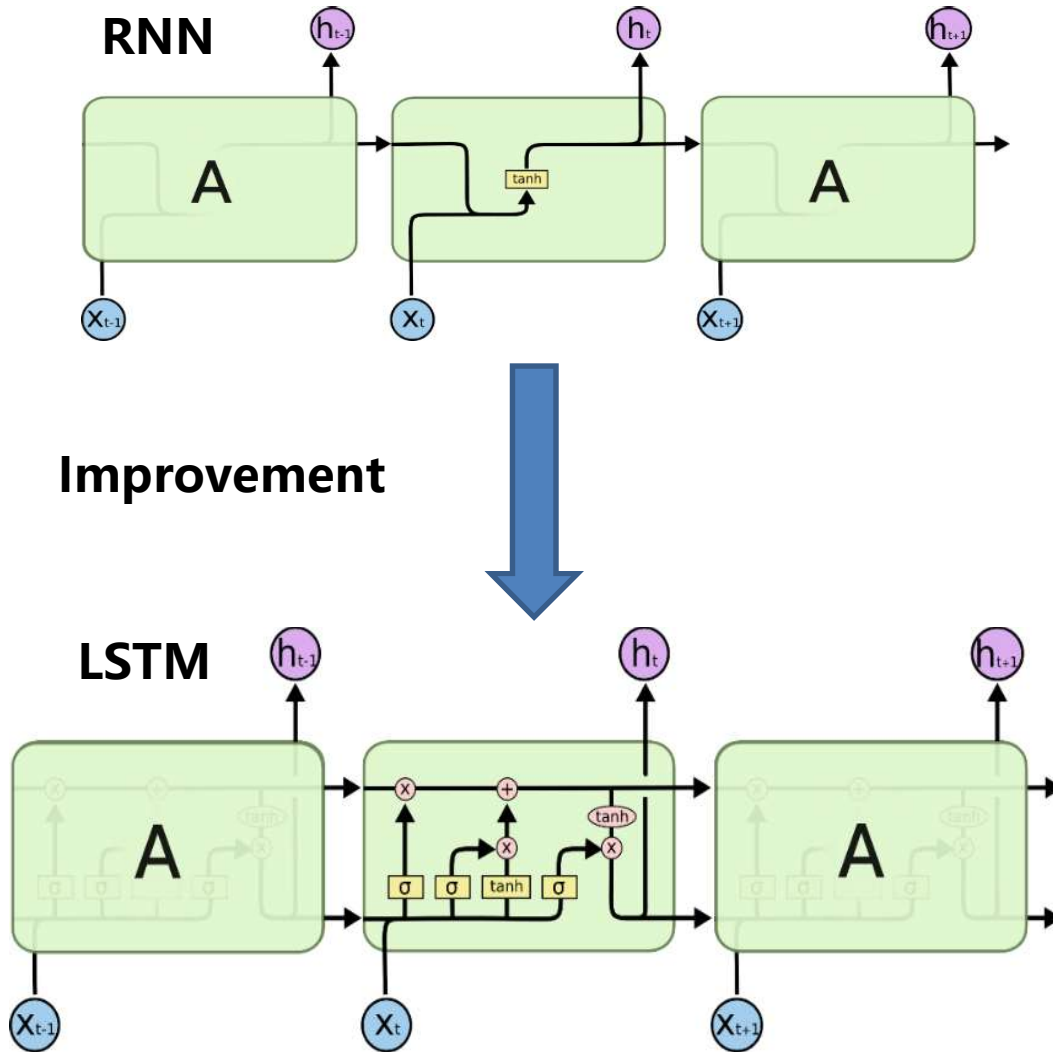
■ Advantages

- Automatic feature extraction
- Weight sharing

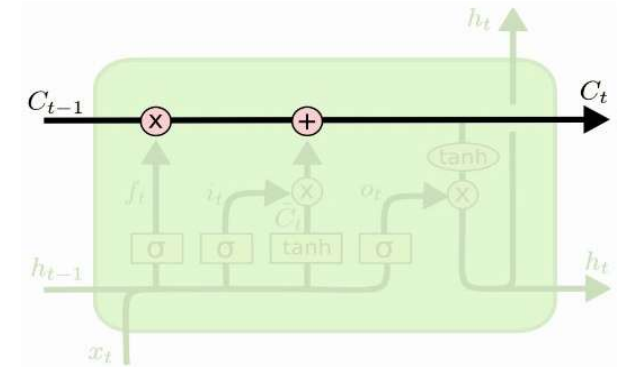


- Convolution operation
- Pooling operation

■ AI-based modeling—Long-short-term memory network



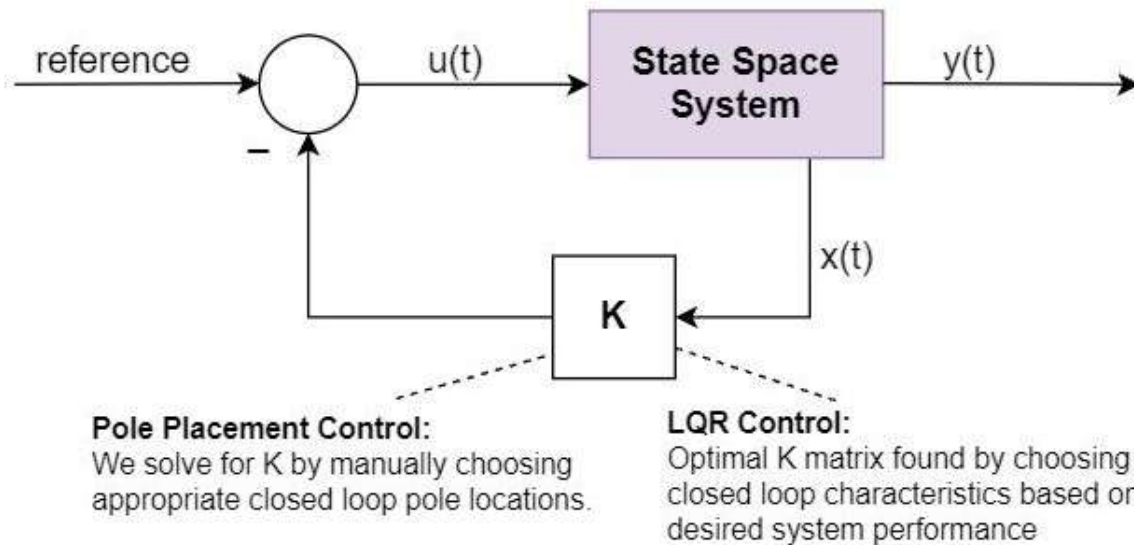
1. Cell State: Store LSTM cell information



2. Gated structure

- How to control the cell state of t
- LSTM **removes or adds** cell state information into the gate structure.
- LSTM contains **3 gate structures** to control the cell state, namely, input gate, forget gate and output gate.
- **Each gate structure** contains a Sigmoid layer and a bitwise multiplication operation.

■ State feedback control



What is state feedback

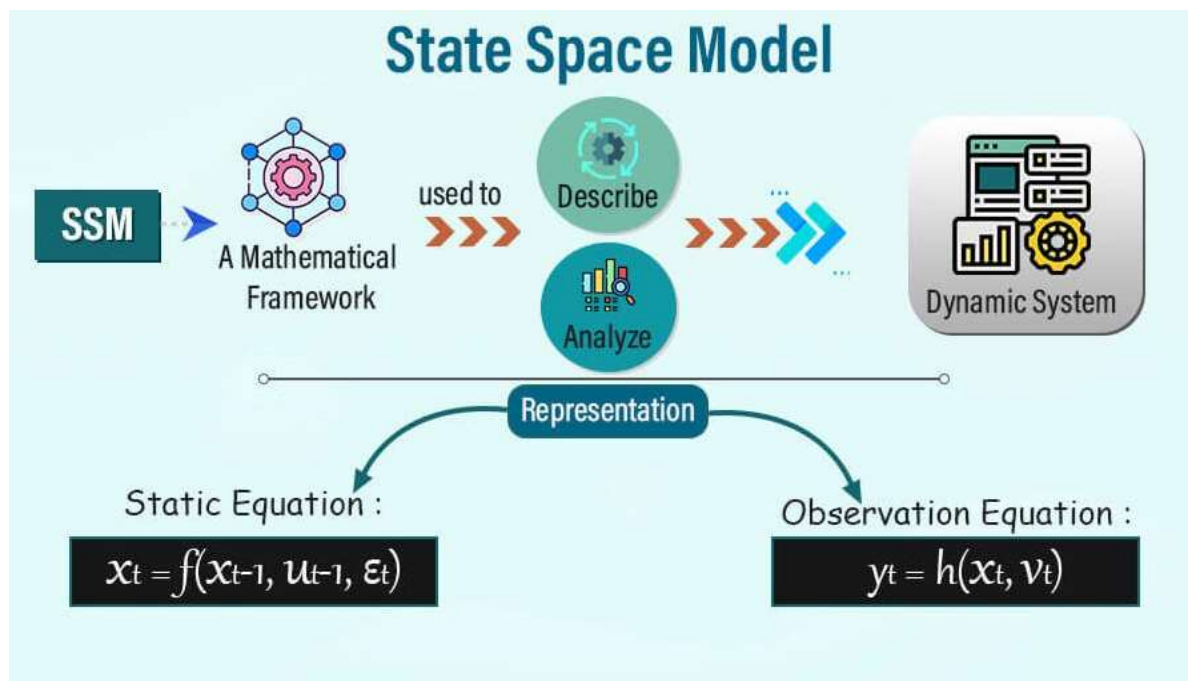
- State-feedback control is a system design technique that uses the full state of the system to calculate the control input.
- The feedback gains are then determined by solving an optimization problem using various control design methods such as pole placement or linear quadratic regulator (LQR).

What are the benefits of using state feedback control?

- By using the full state information provided by the system model, the state feedback control system can achieve improved performance, enhanced stability, and better disturbance rejection compared to feedback control systems that rely only on system output (e.g., PID control).

■ State feedback control

Step1: Obtain the state-space model of the system

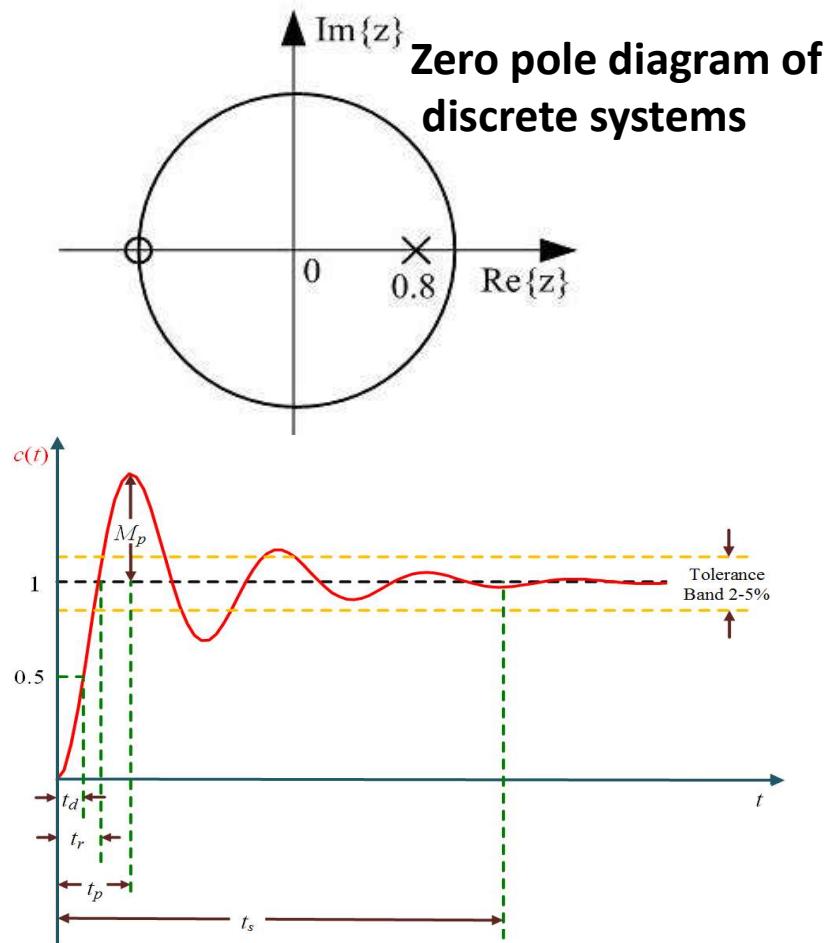


- Identify the state variable variables, and output variable of the system.
- Derive the state-space equations that describe the dynamics of the system, typically in the form:

State equation: $\frac{dx}{dt} = Ax + Bu$

Output equation: $y = Cx + Du$

■ State feedback control



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Figure 2 Step response (underdamped case) of a second order control system.

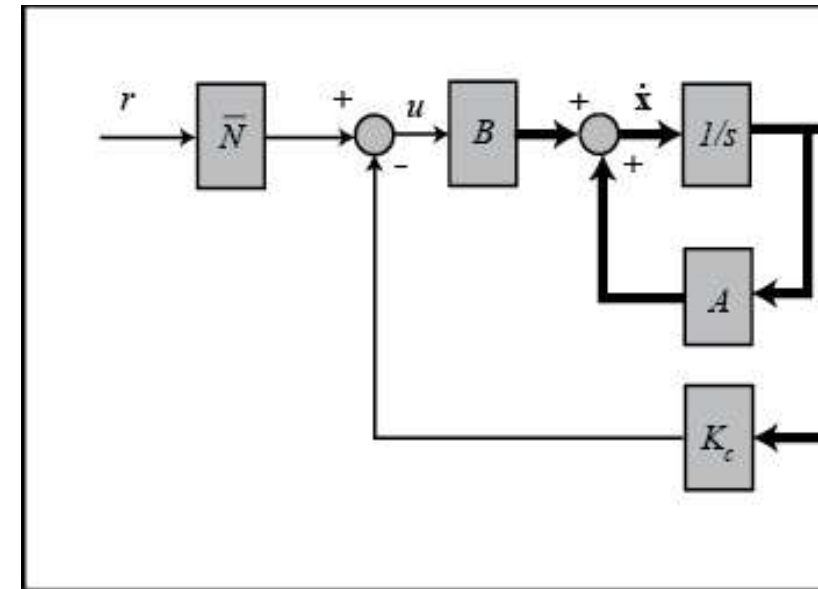
Step2: Determine the desired closed-loop system characteristics

- Specify the desired closed-loop system performance requirements, such as stability, transient response, and steady-state accuracy.
- Identify the desired closed-loop system poles (eigenvalues of the closed-loop system matrix).

■ State feedback control

Step3: Design the state-feedback control law

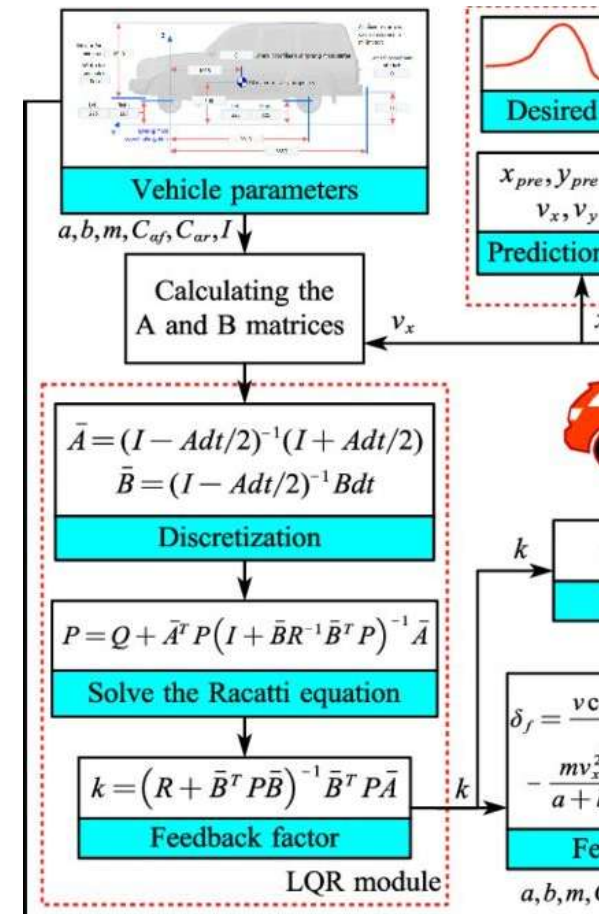
- ❑ Construct the state-feedback control law in the form: $u = -Kx$, where K is the state-feedback gain matrix.
- ❑ The state-feedback gain matrix K is designed to place the closed-loop system's poles at the desired locations, ensuring the desired closed-loop system characteristics.



State feedback control block

Step4: Compute the state-feedback gain matrix K

- ❑ Use pole placement or optimal control techniques to determine the values of the state-feedback gain matrix K.
- ❑ Pole placement method: Specify the desired closed-loop poles and solve for the elements of K that place the closed-loop system's poles at the desired locations.
- ❑ Optimal control method: Formulate an optimality criterion (e.g., minimizing a performance index) and solve for the state-feedback gain matrix K that optimizes the criterion.



Thanks for your attention!

