Subspace-based Identification of Infinite-dimensional Multivariable Systems from Frequency-response Data

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A subspace-based identification algorithm, which takes samples of an infinite-dimensional transfer function, is shown to produce estimates which converge to a balanced truncation of the system.

- Identification of infinite-dimensional systems studied in time-domain in Ljung and Yuan: 1985; Huang and Guo: 1990, Hjalmarsson: 1993.
- In frequency-domain studied in Helmicki *etal.*: 1991; Mäkilä and Partington: 1991; Gu and Khargonekar: 1992.
- Despite that low-order nominal models are preferred in most practical applications as in the design of model-based controllers, the true systems are usually of high or infinite order with unmodeled dynamics and random/deterministic noise.

• Thus, the basic task of system identification is to construct a simple nominal model based on the measured data generated from a complex system.

Based on how the disturbances are characterized, problem formulations can be divided into two categories:

- Stochastic formulation leading to instrumental variable and prediction error methods (Ljung: 1997, Södestrom and Stoica: 1989). "The least-squares method".
- Deterministic formulation leading to "robustly convergent" non-linear algorithms (Helmicki *etal.*: 1991, Gu and Khargonekar: 1992).

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- In both approaches, a prejudice-free model set of high complexity is the underlying model structure.
- In most practical applications, the model is required to be of restricted complexity despite the fact that the true system might have infinite order. Thus, model reduction is a complementary step to the black-box identification.
 - Besides the computational complexity, this step induces large approximation errors.

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- An alternative method is to directly realize low complexity models from the experimental data.
 - Nonlinear parametric optimization (Ljung: 1993, Pintelon *et al.*: 1994b) where the solution is obtained by iterations.
 - Non-iterative subspace-based algorithms delivering state-space models without any parametric optimization (Verhaegen and Dewilde: 1992, Van Overschee and De Moor: 1994).
- Models in canonical minimal parametrizations are numerically sensitive for high-order models, in comparison with state-space models in a balanced realization.
- Subspace-based algorithms are more robust to numerical inaccuracies than the canonically parametrized models since the model obtained is normally close to being balanced.

- Frequency-domain subspace algorithms (Juang and Suziki: 1988, Liu *etal.*: 1994, McKelvey *etal.*,: 1996 based on the realization algorithms by Ho and Kalman (1966) and Kung (1978).
 - Ho and Kalman: 1966 and Kung: 1978 find a minimal state-space realization given a finite sequence of the Markov parameters estimated from the inverse discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of the frequency-response data.
 - Juang and Suziki: 1988 is exact only if the system has a finite impulse response, therefore for lightly damped systems yields very poor estimates.
 - In McKelvey etal.: 1994, the inverse DFT technique is combined with a subspace identification step yielding the true finite-dimensional system in spite of this aliasing effect.
 - Current work reporting extensions of McKelvey *etal.*: 1996 to infinite-dimensional systems.

 G stable, MIMO, linear-time invariant, discrete-time system with input-output properties characterized by the impulse response coefficients g_k through the equation:

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k u(t-k)$$
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where $y(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{p}$, $u(t) \in \mathbf{R}^{m}$, and $g_{k} \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times m}$.

$$egin{aligned} G(m{e}^{j\omega}) &= \sum_{k=1}^\infty g_k m{e}^{-j\omega k}, & \mathbf{0} \leq \omega \leq \pi. \ & G(m{e}^{-j\omega}) &= G^*(m{e}^{j\omega}), & \mathbf{0} \leq \omega \leq \pi. \end{aligned}$$

 For engineering purposes, a more practical model is a state-space model:

$$\begin{aligned} x(k+1) &= Ax(k) + Bu(k), \\ y(k) &= Cx(k) + Du(k) \end{aligned}$$

where $x(t) \in \mathbf{R}^n$.

• The state-space model is a special case of (1) with

$$g_k = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} D, & k=0,\ CA^{k-1}B, & k>0. \end{array}
ight.$$

 Identify a finite-dimensional model which is a good approximation of the infinite-dimensional system (1).

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System assumptions

Some further assumptions must be imposed on the system to obtain good approximations.

The Hankel operator of G(z) with symbol Γ is defined on ℓ_2^m by

$$(\Gamma u)(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} g_{t+i+1} u(i), \qquad t \geq 0$$

is a mapping into ℓ_2^p . Let Γ^* be the adjoint of Γ .

The Hankel singular values $\Gamma_i(G)$ are defined to be the square roots of the eigenvalues of $\Gamma\Gamma^*$.

Let u_i and v_i be the corresponding normalized eigenvectors of $\Gamma\Gamma^*$ and $\Gamma^*\Gamma$, respectively.

The pair (v_i, u_i) is called the Schmidt pair and satisfies

 $\Gamma v_i = \Gamma_i(G)u_i,$ $\Gamma^* u_i = \Gamma_i(G)v_i.$

A system *G* is said to be *Hilbert-Schmidt* if its Hankel singular values satisfy

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k^2(G) < \infty$$

and *nuclear* if

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k(G) < \infty.$$

 All finite-dimensional linear systems form a subset of nuclear systems and nuclear systems themselves are contained in the set of Hilbert-Schmidt systems.

These classes can be identified with impulse-response decay rates.

• G has Hilbert-Schmidt Hankel operator if

$$\|g_k\| = O(k^{-\alpha}), \qquad \alpha > 1$$

or

$$\|g_k\| = O(1/(k\log k))$$

which follows from the identity

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k^2(G) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \|g_k\|^2.$$

• A sufficient condition for the nuclearity (Bonnet: 1993)

$$\|g_k\| = O(k^{-\alpha}), \qquad \alpha > 3/2.$$

 Conversely, sufficient conditions for a system to have a Hilbert-Schmidt or nuclear Hankel operator can be stated in terms of boundary behavior of the system transfer function and its derivatives (Curtain:1985)

Assumption 1 The system $G \in \mathcal{H}_{\infty}$ has a continuous transfer function and a Hilbert-Schmidt Hankel operator Γ . For a fixed *n*, the Hankel singular values satisfy

 $\Gamma_n(G) > \Gamma_{n+1}(G).$

• Let *f* be a complex-valued periodic function on the unit circle. Its *modulus of continuity* is defined by

$$\omega_f(t) = \sup_{|x-y| \le t} \|f(e^{ix}) - f(e^{iy})\|.$$

- *f* is of class Λ_{α} (0 < $\alpha \le 1$) if $\omega_f(t) = O(t^{\alpha})$ as $t \to 0$.
- Optimal Hankel norm and balanced truncations are two popular model reduction techniques for nuclear systems:

$$\|G_n - G\|_{\infty} \le 2\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k(G)$$
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where repeated singular values are omitted in the sum and G_n is nth-order balanced truncation of G (Hinrichsen and Pritchard: 1990).

Noise assumptions

Data: $G_k = G(e^{j\pi k/M}) + e_k$, $k = 0, \dots, M$. **Assumption 2** The noise e_k , $k = 0, \dots, M$ are independent zero-mean complex random variables with uniformly-bounded second moments

$$R_k = \mathrm{E}\{e_k e_k^H\} \leq \bar{R}, \quad \forall k.$$

Objective: to achieve (2) with probability one:

$$\lim_{M\to\infty} \|\hat{G}_{n,M} - G\|_{\infty} \le 2\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k(G) \qquad \text{w.p.1}, \qquad (3)$$

where $\hat{G}_{n,M}$ is the nth-order identified model.

Algorithm 1

• 1. Expand the transfer function samples to the full circle

$$G_{M+k}=G_{M-k}^*, \qquad k=1,\cdots,M-1$$

and perform the 2M-point inverse DFT

$$\hat{g}_i = rac{1}{2M} \sum_{k=0}^{2M-1} G_k e^{j2\pi i k/2M}, \qquad i=0,\cdots,q+r-1$$

to obtain the estimates of g_i .

• 2. Construct the $q \times r$ -block Hankel matrix

$$\hat{H}_{qr} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{g}_1 & \hat{g}_2 & \cdots & \hat{g}_r \\ \hat{g}_2 & \hat{g}_3 & \cdots & \hat{g}_{r+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \hat{g}_q & \hat{g}_{q+1} & \cdots & \hat{g}_{q+r-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

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and perform an SVD for $\hat{H}_q r$ as follows

$$\hat{H}_{qr} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{U}_1 & \hat{U}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\Sigma}_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \hat{\Sigma}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{V}_1^T \\ \hat{V}_2^T \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\hat{\Sigma}_1$ contains the *n* dominant singular values.

• 3. Determine the system matrices as

$$\hat{A} = (J_1^q \hat{U}_1)^\dagger J_2^q \hat{U}_1,$$

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$$\begin{array}{lll} \hat{C} &=& J_{3}^{q} \hat{U}_{1}, \\ \hat{B} &=& (I - \hat{A}^{2M}) \hat{\Sigma}_{1} \hat{V}_{1}^{T} J_{4}^{r}, \\ \hat{D} &=& \hat{g}_{0} - \hat{C} \hat{A}^{2M-1} (I - \hat{A}^{2M})^{-1} \hat{B}, \end{array}$$

where

$$J_{1}^{q} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{(q-1)p} & 0_{(q-1)p \times p} \end{bmatrix}, \\ J_{2}^{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{(q-1)p \times p} & I_{(q-1)p} \end{bmatrix}, \\ J_{3}^{q} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{p} & 0_{p \times (q-1)p} \end{bmatrix}, \\ J_{4}^{r} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{m} \\ 0_{(r-1)m \times m} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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• 4. The estimated transfer function is

$$\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}(z) = \hat{D} + \hat{C}(zI - \hat{A})^{-1}\hat{B}.$$

Theorem 1 Let *G* be a stable system of order *n*. Assume $q > n, r \ge n$ and $2M \ge q + r$. Suppose that M + 1 equidistant noise-free frequency-response measurements of *G* on $[O, \pi]$ are available and let $\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}$ be given by Algorithm 1. Then

$$\|\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}-G\|_{\infty}=0.$$

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- Let q = n + 1 and r = n to meet the requirements on r and q which imply that M = n + 1, and consequently n + 2 equidistant samples of the frequency-response function on $[0, \pi]$ are required.
- Algorithm 1 is in the class of correct algorithms when applied to data from systems of finite dimension and uses a minimum amount of data among all such algorithms.
- Remarkable advantage with respect to black-box identification algorithms which use linearly parametrized model structures and satify (3).

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Theorem 2 Let *G* be a linear system satisfying Assumption 1. Let ω_G be the modulus of continuity of *G* and assume that *q* and *r* satisfy the conditions

(i)
$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty} \sqrt{qr} \frac{q+r}{M} = 0,$$

(ii)
$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty} \sqrt{qr} \omega_G\left(\frac{\pi}{M}\right) = 0.$$

Let G_n be the balanced truncation of G be the balanced truncation of order n. Let $\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}$ be given by Algorithm 1 using M + 1 noise-free frequency-response measurements of G equidistantly spaced on $[O, \pi]$. Then

$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty}\|\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}-G_n\|_{\infty}=0.$$

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- The Hilbert-Schmidt assumption on *G* merely implies that ||*g_k*|| = *o*(1/√*k*). The set of Hilbert-Schmidt systems is not contained in *H*_∞ (Duren: 1970, Exercise 6-7 in Chapter 6).
- $\ell_1^{p \times m}$ is not contained in the set of Hilbert-Schmidt systems either. Example:

$$g_k = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} rac{1}{\sqrt{k}}, & ext{for } k=1,2^4,3^4,\cdots, \ 0, & ext{otherwise.} \end{array}
ight.$$

 $\|g\|_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{-2} < \infty$ while $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k |g_k|^2 = \infty$.

Assumption 1 imposed on the system is rather weak!

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Convergence condition $\sqrt{qr}\omega_G(\pi/M)$

Suppose $||g_k|| = O(k^{-\alpha})$. If $\alpha > 1$, such systems are Hilbert-Schmidt and in ℓ_1 . Moreover,

Lemma Assume that $||g_k|| = O(k^{-\alpha})$ for some $\alpha > 1$. Then, $G(e^{i\theta}) \in \Lambda_{\min\{2,\alpha\}-1}$.

• Hence, for this class, we have a convergence requirement

$$qr = o(M^{2\alpha-2}), \qquad \text{for } 1 < \alpha \leq 2$$

which drops out for $\alpha > 2$ since have M > q, r.

• Lemma 5 is sharp. Thus, as α gets closer to one, more and more data are required for the convergence to take place.

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• Let r = O(q). Then, condition (i) in Theorem 2 reads off $q = o(\sqrt{M})$ and for the class in the lemma, condition (ii) in Theorem 2 becomes $q = O(M^{\alpha-1})$.

$$q = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} o(\sqrt{M}), & lpha \geq 3/2, \ o(M^{lpha-1}), & 1 < lpha < 3/2. \end{array}
ight.$$

For nuclear systems characterized by α > 3/2, the only convergence requirement is q = o(√M) if q = O(r).

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Theorem 3 Let *G* be a system satisfying Assumption 1. Let ω_G be the modulus of continuity of *G*. Assume *q*, *r* satisfy condition (ii) in Theorem 2 and be at most $O(\sqrt{M}(\log M)^{-\beta})$ for some $\beta > 1/2$. Let G_n be the balanced truncation of *G* of order *n*. Let $\hat{G}_{g,r,n,M}$ be given by Algorithm 1 using equidistantly spaced M + 1 frequency-response measurements of *G* on $[0, \pi]$. Let e_k satisfy Assumption 2. Then

$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty}\|\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}-G_n\|_{\infty}=0,\qquad \text{w.p.1.}$$

Furthermore if the Hankel operator of G is nuclear, then

$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty} \|\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M} - G_n\|_{\infty} \leq 2\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k(G), \quad \text{w.p.1.}$$

where repeated singular values are omitted in the sum.

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Corollary Let *G* be a system satisfying Assumption 1. Assume that $||g_k|| = O(k^{-\alpha})$ for some $\alpha > 1$. Let *q* and *r* be at most $O(\sqrt{M}(\log M)^{-\beta})$ for some $\beta > 1/2$ and satisfy $qr = o(M^{2\min\{\alpha,2\}-2})$. Let $\hat{G}_{g,r,n,M}$ be given by Algorithm 1 using equidistantly spaced M + 1 frequency-response measurements of *G* on $[0, \pi]$. Let e_k satisfy Assumption 2. Let G_n be the balanced truncation of *G* of order *n*. Then

$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty}\|\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M}-G_n\|_{\infty}=0,\qquad \text{w.p.1.}$$

Furthermore, if $\alpha > 3/2$ then

$$\lim_{q,r,M\to\infty} \|\hat{G}_{q,r,n,M} - G_n\|_{\infty} \leq 2\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \Gamma_k(G), \quad \text{w.p.1.}$$

where repeated singular values are omitted in the sum.

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 Assume q = O(r), then the consistency condition in Corollary 1 is

$$q = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} o(M^{lpha-1}), & ext{if } lpha < 3/2, \ O(\sqrt{M}(\log M)^{-eta}); eta > 1/2, & ext{if } lpha \geq 3/2. \end{array}
ight.$$

- If α < 3/2, rates for q and r depend on the smoothness of the system impulse response.
- For the nuclear systems characterized by α > 3/2, rates are determined by approximation errors caused by the measurement noise.

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• Let \hat{A} , \hat{C} be calculated as in Algorithm 1, \hat{B} as

$$\hat{B} = \hat{\Sigma}_1 \hat{V}_1^T \begin{bmatrix} I_m \\ 0_{(r-1)m \times m} \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\hat{D} = \hat{g}_0$. This algorithm, which we call Algorithm 2, studied in a modal analysis context by Juang and Suziki (1988) is a biased algorithm. Indeed, Example 1 illustrates poor performance of Algorithm 2 on real data of finite length when it is applied to lightly damped systems.

• The bias term vanishes asymptotically and the algorithm yields truncated balanced realizations of the identified system under same assumptions in Theorem 3.

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• In the third algorithm, which we call Algorithm 3, *g_i* are estimated as in Algorithm 1 and a pre-identified model is calculated by

$$\hat{G}_{\mathrm{pi}}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^k \hat{g}_i z^{-i}.$$

The nth-order identified model is obtained from \hat{G}_{pi} by a recursively implemented balanced truncation technique. Thanks to the FIR structure!

• Algorithm 1 contains Algorithm 3 as a special case. Thus, Algorithm 3 is also consistent under the assumptions of Theorem 3 though it is biased for finite data sets. (Algorithm 1 yields the nth-order balanced truncation of $\hat{G}_{\rm pi}$).

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- The bias error of Algorithm 3 has two components:
 - the first-stage error $\|\boldsymbol{G} \hat{\boldsymbol{G}}_{\mathrm{pi}}\|_{\infty}$
 - 2 approximation error: $\|\hat{G}_{pi} \hat{G}\|_{\infty}$.

The total error is bounded above by the sum of $\|G - \hat{G}_{pi}\|_{\infty}$ and $\|\hat{G}_{pi} - \hat{G}\|_{\infty}$. In the same example, Algorithm 3 performs poorly on the same data due to large approximation errors.

 In the choice of a potential identification algorithm, the posterior error caused by model reduction and correctness in addition to asymptotic properties must be taken into account.

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Algorithm 1 differs from McKelvey *etal.*: 1996, which we call Algorithm 4, only in the calculation of *B* and *D*:

$$\hat{B}, \hat{D} = \arg \min_{\substack{B \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times m} \\ D \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times m}}} \sum_{i=0}^{2M-1} \|G_i - \tilde{G}(e^{j\pi i/M})\|_F^2$$

where

$$ilde{G}(z) = D + \hat{C}(zI - \hat{C})^{-1}B$$

• Algorithm 4 is also correct and uses minimal data when restricted to finite-dimensional systems, In Algorithm 1, \hat{B} and \hat{D} were modified to obtain truncation error formula while maintaining correctness of Algorithm 2.

- The least-squares procedure to estimate B̂ and D̂ is a particular case of the NLS identification algorithm where and Ĉ as well are estimated. The NLS is not suitable for narrow band data if model fit is measured in the H_∞-norm.
- To reduce model mismatch, model orders should be increased. As this happens, pole-zero sensitivity of the model increases. Example 1 of this section illustrates a model error fluctuation at high orders for the NLS.
- Since Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 4 yield identical asymptotic poles, the asymptotic performance of Algorithm 4 should be expected between the NLS and Algorithm 1.

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Example 1 Real data set obtained at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Pasadena, California originating from a frequency-response experiment on a flexible structure.

• The JPL-data consist of a total of M = 512 complex frequency samples in the frequency range [1.23,628] and have several lightly damped modes.

• The discrete-time models matching the given frequency response were constructed applying zero-order hold sampling equivalence and five algorithms.

• *q* = *r* = 512.

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Plot of $\|\hat{G}^M - G\|_{m,\infty} = \max_{\omega_k} |\hat{G}^M(e^{j\omega_k}) - G_k|$ for different model orders and algorithms in Example 1.



- Algorithm 3 was tested by Friedman and Khargonekar: 1995 on the JPL-data.
- The pre-identified model had a finite-impulse response represented by 1024 coefficients and was reduced by a recursively implemented model reduction procedure. (With this choice of model order, the data are entirely explained by the model!)
- The use of an FIR model as an intermediate step in the identification leads to less accurate models as compared with a direct approximation of a rational model to the given data using a correct algorithm.

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Example 2 Consider the problem of approximating

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s+1-e^{-2-s}}$$
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with a finite-dimensional linear model (Gu etal.: 1989).

- 512 uniformly spaced noise-free frequency-response data on [0, π] derived from (4) by use of the bilinear map.
- q = r = 512 which gives the maximal size Hankel matrix.
- Aprroximation errors: 1st order: 3.1 × 10⁻² of Algorithm 1 versus 3.2 × 10⁻² of Gu *etal.*: 1989; 24th-order: 1.4 × 10⁻⁶ of Algorithm 1 versus 7.9 × 10⁻³ of Gu *etal.*: 1989; 27th-order: 2.4 × 10⁻¹² of Algorithm 1.

Plot of $\|\hat{G}^M - G\|_{m,\infty}$ for different model orders in Example 2 using Algorithm 1 with "x" and without "o" projecting unstable eigenvalues of \hat{A} into the unit disk.



- We presented a correct, frequency domain subspace-based algorithm yielding w.p.1 balanced truncations of the identified system.
- Two examples were used to illustrate the properties of different algorithms and to show the practical applicability of the algorithms.

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