# **Evolutionary Optimization Algorithms for Differential Equation Parameters, Initial Value and Order Identification**

Ivan Ryzhikov, Eugene Semenkin and Ilia Panfilov

Institute of Computer Sciences and Telecommunication, Siberian State Aerospace University, Krasnoyarskij Rabochij. 31, Krasnoyarsk, 660014, Russian Federation

- Keywords: Dynamic System, Linear Differential Equation, Evolutionary Strategies, Parameters Identification, Initial Value Estimation, Order Estimation.
- Abstract: A dynamic system identification problem is considered. It is an inverse modelling problem, where one needs to find the model in an analytical form and a dynamic system is represented with the observation data. In this study the identification problem was reduced to an optimization problem, and in such a way every solution of the extremum problem determines a linear differential equation and coordinates of the initial value. The proposed approaches do not require any assumptions of the system order and the initial value coordinates and estimates the model in the form of a linear differential equation. These variables are estimated automatically and simultaneously with differential equation coefficients. Problem-oriented evolution-based optimization techniques were designed and applied. Techniques are based on the evolutionary strategies algorithm and have been improved to achieve efficient solving of the reduced problem for every proposed determination scheme. Experimental results confirm the reliability of the given approach and the usefulness of the reduced problem solving tool.

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

The dynamical system identification problem is not new but is still of current importance; it is being investigated and developed. There are many different problem definitions and many applications for the problem. Chemistry, biology, engineering and econometrics are the scientific fields in which dynamic system modelling is useful. Some problems are related to linear differential equations.

This study is focused on the identification problem, in the case of making the model with only the output observations of the object and a control function known. A linear differential equation is used as a mathematical model of the dynamic process. It is important to point out that generally there is no information about the order of the equation and its initial value coordinates. The observations are the distorted measurements of the system output. Many other approaches to the identification receive the model in the form of an adequate approximation of the system trajectory. But for some objects it is necessary to have a model that determines dynamic system behaviour. For this reason the solution of the identification problem is required to be in a symbolic form. It permits the model to be useful in further research or work. The model in the form of the differential equation gives the opportunity to solve the optimal control problem, predict system behaviour and conduct stability analysis among other things.

There are many studies on identification problems and the estimation of the differential equation parameters. So-called inverse problems occur for different models: linear differential equations, partial differential equations, nonlinear and delay differential equations.

Our work is related to the identification of single input and single output systems. The proposed approach is also a useful tool for making a linearization of any dynamic process, despite its nature.

The problem of parameter and initial value estimation in the case of a known structure is also a complex problem and many approaches are being developed. Some approaches are based on the preprocessing of sample data (Fang et al., 2011), (Wu et al., 2012). Also there is a class of approaches which are based on the shooting or multiple shooting idea, (Peifer et al., 2007), or nonparametric estimation

#### 168

Ryzhikov, I., Semenkin, E. and Panfilov, I.

Evolutionary Optimization Algorithms for Differential Equation Parameters, Initial Value and Order Identification. DOI: 10.5220/0005979201680176

In Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Informatics in Control, Automation and Robotics (ICINCO 2016) - Volume 1, pages 168-176 ISBN: 978-989-758-198-4

Copyright © 2016 by SCITEPRESS - Science and Technology Publications, Lda. All rights reserved

(Brunel, 2008). In the paper (Schenkendorf et al., 2014) flatness was used for parameter identification problem solving for ordinary differential equations (ODE) and ODE with a delay. There are many works on parameter estimation in the case when the equation structure is given, i.e. (Wöbbekind et al., 2013). All that is mentioned here proves the importance of the dynamic system identification problem. A genetic algorithm is applied to the parameters identification problem for ODE (Sersic et al., 1999), but the structure of the system is given. A genetic algorithm was also used in the study (Parmar et al., 2007), in which an order reduction problem is considered and the model is a second order linear differential equation. But the discretization of real values results in a significant limitation in applicability, and algorithms of this nature do not satisfy the needs of the considered identification problem. Another powerful natureinspired optimization algorithm, partial swarm optimization, was applied to nonlinear dynamical system linearization, (Naiborhu et al., 2013).

Our approach is based on the reduction of the identification problem to the extremum problem on the real-value vector space or on the space with real and integer vector coordinates. The problem reduction allows the simultaneous estimation of the coefficients, the initial value and the order of the differential equation. The objective functional requires a powerful optimization tool. The results of previous work allow us to conclude that improved evolution-based optimization techniques are workable and reliable tools and can be applied to this class of optimization problem.

Optimization algorithms were improved; search operators were designed and implemented. Criteria for comparing algorithms and estimating efficiencies were proposed. The performance of algorithms was investigated and examined on a set of identification problems.

### 2 **IDENTIFIACTION PROBLEM: ORDER, COEFFICIENTS, INITIAL POINT**

Let a set  $\{y_i, u_i, t_i\}, i = \overline{1, s}$ , be a sample, where  $y_i \in R$  is the dynamic system output measurement at the time point  $t_i$ ,  $u_i = u(t_i)$  is a control action and s is the size of the sample. In the current investigation it is supposed that the control function u(t) is known. It is also proposed that the object to

be identified can be described with a linear differential equation of unknown order, and its system state is a solution of the Cauchy problem:

$$a_{k} \cdot x^{(k)} + a_{k-1} \cdot x^{(k-1)} + \dots + a_{0} \cdot x = b \cdot u(t),$$
  
$$x(0) = x_{0}.$$
 (1)

As can be seen, solving the identification problem requires the initial value  $x_0$  if it is necessary to find a solution in a symbolic form, in the form of a linear differential equation (LDE). In the case of distorted observations and/or a small sample size it is a difficult problem to estimate the coordinates of the initial value vector and some approaches can result in significant errors in estimated derivative values. Thus it is important to develop an approach to estimate simultaneous initial value coordinates and the LDE coefficients and order.

It is assumed, that the output data  $y_i$ ,  $i = \overline{1, s}$  is distorted by additive noise  $\xi : E(\xi) = 0, D(\xi) < \infty$ :

$$y_i = x(t_i) + \xi_i, i = \overline{1,s} .$$

where the x(t) function is a solution of the Cauchy problem (1).

Without loss of generality, one may assume that the system is described with the following differential equation:

$$x^{(k)} + \frac{a_{k-1}}{a_k} \cdot x^{(k-1)} + \dots + \frac{a_0}{a_k} \cdot x = \frac{b}{a_k} \cdot u(t)$$
(3)

or

$$x^{(k)} + \tilde{a}_k \cdot x^{(k-1)} + \ldots + \tilde{a}_1 \cdot x = \tilde{a}_0 \cdot u(t) .$$
 (4)

Let m be the order of the LDE, which is assumed to be limited,  $m \le M$ , and  $M, M \in N$  is the parameter that one can set to limit the maximum order. We seek the solution of the identification problem as the LDE, and it is determined with the following parameters: order coefficients  $m \leq M$ ,  $\hat{a}_m = (\hat{a}_m, \ldots, \hat{a}_1, \hat{a}_0)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$  and initial value vector  $\hat{x}(0) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . It is proposed to estimate the adequacy of a model by comparing the sample data with the solution of the Cauchy problem:

$$\hat{x}^{(m)} + \hat{a}_m \cdot \hat{x}^{(m-1)} + \dots + \hat{a}_1 \cdot \hat{x} = \hat{a}_0 \cdot u(t) ,$$
  
$$\hat{x}(0) = x_0^m .$$
(5)

The current problem is the extension of earlier work, which is focused on LDE order and coefficient estimation, (Ryzhikov et al., 2013). Our approach

meets three ways of LDE determination. The first is based on the following representation of a solution. Let a vector

$$\hat{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 & \hat{a}_m, & \dots, & \hat{a}_1, & \hat{a}_0 \end{pmatrix}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}$$
 be a

form of determination for both variables m and  $\hat{a}_m$ . For the order m vector  $\hat{a}$  will contain M - m zero coordinates from the origin. Now when m is defined by the variable  $\hat{a}$ , let  $\hat{x}_0 \in R^M$  be a vector of initial value coordinates and  $\hat{x}_0^m \in R^m$  - its first mcoordinates. Now the identification problem solution is determined by the values that deliver an extremum to a functional

$$I(a, x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \left| y_i - \hat{x}(t_i) \right|_{\hat{a}=a, \hat{x}(0)=\hat{x}_0^m} \left| \rightarrow \min_{a \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^M} \right|, \quad (6)$$

where  $\hat{x}(t)|_{\hat{a}=a,\hat{x}(0)=x_0^m}$  is a solution of the Cauchy problem (5) with order *m*, coefficients  $\hat{a}_m$ determined by  $\hat{a}=a$  and initial point  $\hat{x}(0)=\hat{x}_0^m$ determined by  $x_0$ .

Thus, the simultaneous estimation of all the parameters leads to extremum problem solving on  $R^{M+1} \times R^M$ .

Another method of determination is based on the assumption that coefficient b of control function (3) is not equal to 0. Thus, the same differential equation can be represented in a different way

$$\frac{a_{k}}{b} \cdot \hat{x}^{(k)} + \frac{a_{k-1}}{b} \cdot \hat{x}^{(k-1)} + \dots + \frac{a_{0}}{b} \cdot \hat{x} = u(t) ,$$

$$\tilde{a}_{k} \cdot \hat{x}^{(k)} + \tilde{a}_{k-1} \cdot \hat{x}^{(k-1)} + \dots + \tilde{a}_{0} \cdot \hat{x} = u(t) .$$
(7)

This representation leads to the same optimization problem (6).

Both solution representations have their disadvantages, which are related to the impossibility of transforming the vector into some class of equations. For the determination based on equation (4) it is impossible to determine a differential equation of order k' with  $\hat{a}_{k'} = 0$ . For the other method of determination it is impossible to determine a differential equation with a control coefficient that is equal to 0.

One more method of determination is based on the representation of LDE with a vector  $\hat{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}$ and an integer  $m \leq M$ . The integer variable value sets the order and determines the number of elements for both vectors  $\hat{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}$  and  $\hat{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^M$ . The criterion for this method of determination is suggested to be the following:

$$I(a, x_0, m) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \left| y_i - \hat{x}(t_i) \right|_{\hat{a} = f_z(a, m+1), \hat{x}(0) = f_z(\hat{x}_0^m, m)} \right|,$$

$$I(a, x_0, m) \to \min_{a \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^M, m \le M},$$
(8)

where  $f_z(x,n): \mathbb{R}^{\dim(x)} \to \mathbb{R}^{\dim(x)}, f_z(x,n)_i = \begin{cases} 0, i > n \\ x_i, i \le n \end{cases}$ 

is a function, that transforms the vectors so its coordinates that do not fit the order are equal to 0. The current determination leads to the optimization problem in  $R^{M+1} \times R^M \times \{x \in N : x < M\}$ .

## 3 MODIFIED HYBRID EVOLUTIONARY STRATEGY ALGORITHM FOR LDE IDENTIFICATION

Evolution-based extremum seeking techniques are a useful tool for solving multimodal and complex black-box optimization problems. This is the reason the evolution strategy approach was suggested as the basic one. The evolution strategy optimization algorithm is widely applied and its efficiency has been proved. Its principles are described in (Schwefel, 1995).

Some classes of optimization problems have specific features, so it is possible to analyse properties and reveal the way of improving the techniques that one can use to solve these problems. Since the proposed functional (6) is complex, because of the way the LDE order is determined and parameters and initial values are determined with one vector, some necessary implementations and modifications were made to improve the approach performance. Every alternative is an individual and is characterized by the value of its fitness. The fitness function of individual  $x \in X$  is a mapping

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + I(x \to \arg(I))},$$
(9)

 $x \rightarrow \arg(I)$  is a transformation of the individual's vector coordinates to the arguments of the functional (6) or (8).

In the current investigation the evolutionary strategy optimization algorithm was implemented with the following features: 3 selection schemes: tournament, proportional and rank; 6 crossover schemes; 2 mutation schemes.

The crossover operator is determined by one of the expressions:

$$i_{r} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n_{p}} w_{j} \cdot i_{s}^{j}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n_{p}} w_{j}},$$
 (10)

$$P\left(\left(i_{c}\right)_{j}=\left(i_{s}^{q}\right)_{j}\right)=\frac{w_{q}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n_{p}}w_{j}}, \ j=\overline{1,n_{p}},$$
(11)

where  $i_c$  is an offspring,  $i_s$  is one of the parents,  $n_p$  is the a quantity of parents, w is the weight coefficients.

Crossover schemes differ in their way of forming offspring: as a weighted average of its parents (10) or when every offspring's gene has the probability to be equal to one of the parents' genes.

Here we describe some standard and suggested methods of weight determination. For the case (10):

$$w_{j} = \frac{1}{n_{p}}, \qquad w_{j} = f(i_{s}^{j}), \qquad w_{j} \sim U(\min_{c}, 1),$$
$$w_{j} \sim U(\min_{c}, f(i_{s}^{j})); \text{ and for the case (11):}$$
$$w_{j} = \frac{1}{n_{p}}, \qquad w_{j} \sim U(\min_{c}, f(i_{s}^{j})). \text{ In the given expressions } U(a,b) \text{ is a uniform distribution on } [a, b], \qquad \min_{c} \text{ is a crossover parameter that prevents dividing by 0.}$$

The first essential improvement is the implementation of a stochastic extremum seeking algorithm as a searching operator that acts after standard operators in every generation. The designed stochastic local optimization algorithm is similar to the coordinate-wise extremum seeking technique. The aim of its implementation is to improve alternatives after the random search. The suggested local optimization algorithm is controlled by 4 parameters:  $N_1^L$  - the number of individuals to be optimized,  $N_2^L$  - the number of genes to be improved,  $N_3^L$  - the number of steps for every gene, and  $h_L$  - optimization step value.

The second modification is related to the suppressing of the mutation influence. It is an important point, because the way of transforming the objective vector into a differential equation makes the problem very sensitive to even small changes of the alternative variables. Thus, it was suggested, to add the probability for every gene to be mutated, so that one can decrease the mutation by lessening the value of this setting  $p_m$ . Let the optimization

problem dimension be  $N = \dim(x)$ , variable  $r = (r_1 \dots r_N)$  is randomly distributed for every individual and  $P(r_j = 0) = 1 - p_m, P(r_j = 1) = p_m$ . Now the mutation operator can be described as follows, for counter  $j = \overline{1, N}$ 

$$\left(i_{m}\right)_{j} = \left(i_{c}\right)_{j} + r_{j} \cdot N\left(0, \left(i_{c}\right)_{j+N}\right), \qquad (12)$$

$$(i_m)_{j+N} = (1 - r_j) \cdot (i_c)_{j+N} + r_j \cdot ((i_c)_{j+N} \cdot e^{\tau \cdot N(0,1)})$$
 (13)

or

$$\left(i_{m}\right)_{j+N} = \left|\left(i_{c}\right)_{j+N} + r_{j} \cdot \tau \cdot N(0,1)\right|, \qquad (14)$$

where  $(i_m)_j$ ,  $j = \overline{1, N}$  are objective parameters,  $(i_m)_{j+N}$ ,  $j = \overline{1, N}$  are strategic parameters,  $\tau$  is a learning coefficient,  $N(E, \sigma^2)$  is a normally distributed random value with an expected value Eand a variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Another improvement also focused on supressing the random search influence on the order estimation. The vector determines LDE order and some of its coordinates equal zeroes if m < M. However efficient stochastic optimization algorithms for real variables are based on adding some random values to them. This leads to a contradiction. To solve it, a rounding operator was suggested. One more parameter sets the threshold level  $1 > t_l > 0$ , so the rounding operator works as follows

$$(i_m)_j = \begin{cases} (i_m)_j, & \text{if } | (i_m)_j | > t_l \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad j = \overline{1, N_c} , \quad (15)$$

where  $N_c$  the number of objective parameters that transform into ODE coefficients.

For the functional (8) and related transformation, the modified algorithm was extended to solving optimization problems with both real and integer variables. To save the concept of the evolution strategy algorithm, the integer variable is also related to its strategic parameter.

Since the single input and single output identification problem is considered, every alternative consists of  $2 \cdot M + 1$  real value variables and one integer. The schemes of the crossover operator are similar to (11).

Let  $p_m^c$  be the probability for one integer gene to mutate. Let  $r_m^1, r_m^2, r_m^3$  be a random variables:

$$P(r_m^1 = 0) = 1 - p_m^c, P(r_m^1 = 1) = p_m^c$$
$$P(r_m^2 = 0) = 1 - \min(1, (i_m^c)_2)$$
$$P(r_m^2 = 1) = \min(1, (i_m^c)_2),$$

and  $P(r_m^3 = j) = \frac{1}{N}$ ,  $j = \overline{1, N}$ . The mutation operator works similarly to (12) and (13):

 $\left(i_{m}^{c}\right)_{1}=r_{m}^{1}\cdot r_{m}^{2}\cdot r_{m}^{3}+(1-r_{m}^{1}\cdot r_{m}^{2})\cdot\left(i_{m}^{c}\right)_{1},$ (16)

$$(i_m^c)_2 = |(i_m^c)_2 + r_m^1 \cdot \tau_c \cdot N(0,1)|.$$
 (17)

The main benefit of implementing all the modifications is to achieve a sufficient improvement of the algorithm efficiency. For the same computational resources all of these algorithms are more reliable and more efficient than the standard differential evolution algorithm, particle swarm optimization algorithm and evolutionary strategies with covariance matrix adaptation. The lessen modifications were designed to the complexity that arises from the vector-to-model transformation and the requirements of simultaneous parameter estimation.

## 4 PERFORMANCE INVESTIGATION

To make an investigation of the algorithms and estimate their performances we need to put forward criteria. The first criterion is basic and related to the value (6) for models in forms (7) and (5) and with value (8) for the approach that includes integers and real values. To simplify the representation of results, let  $C_1$  be the criterion (6) or (8), depending on what algorithm was used.

Another criterion calculates the distance between the model output and the real output; we denote it  $C_2$ . It is also important to calculate the error in LDE parameter estimation  $C_3$ , in the case of the real order being estimated.

$$C_2 = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t) - \hat{x}(t)| dt , \qquad (18)$$

$$C_{3} = \|a - \hat{a}\| + \|x_{0} - \hat{x}_{0}\|.$$
(19)

Since criterion (19) is useful only for some class of solutions, let us put forward one more criterion that estimates the probability to find the real order

$$C_4 = \frac{n_{co}}{n_r} \,, \tag{20}$$

where  $n_{co}$  is the number of solutions with the same order as the real object and  $n_r$  is the number of algorithm runs.

The dynamic system output is the Cauchy problem solution on [0, T] for the LDE with given coefficients and the initial value. The solution needs to be discretised and represented as a set with  $N_s$  elements. Let  $I^s$  be a set of randomly chosen

different integers, so accordingly to (2),

$$y_i = x \left( \frac{I_i^s \cdot T}{N_s} \right) + N(0, \sigma^2)$$
 and  $t_i = \frac{I_i^s \cdot T}{N_s}$ , where a

counter i = 1, s.

The list of differential equations that was used to simulate the dynamic process is given in table 1. On the basis of the given differential equations we form initial problems and generate the observations. The samples count 100 observations. The list of problems is given in Table 1.

One faces a difficulty in the examination of algorithms, caused by a large number of setting combinations and a wide problem field. The latter means that optimization problems have many characteristics themselves and depend on differential equations that determine the system output, sample size, noise level and the way random numbers are generated. Every setting and even every realisation is a different problem, because the generating of a sample is a random event.

Due to results of previous works it was decided to use the following settings in the current investigation: 100 individuals for 100 populations, tournament selection, 3 parents for random crossover, mutation scheme (12) and (14), the mutation probability  $p_m = \frac{2}{N}$ ,  $N_1^L = 40$  individuals for the local stochastic improvement,  $N_2^L = 50$ genes and  $N_3^L = 1$ ,  $h_L = 0.1$ , the threshold for rounding  $t_l = 0.4$ . For integer variables the mutation setting took  $p_m^c = \frac{1}{M}$ .

The strategic parameter of the initial population were uniformly generated, U(0,1), every objective parameter is equal to 0, the integer variable with equal probability takes a value from 1 to M. The order limitation value took 10. Every algorithm was launched 25 times for every identification problem. The algorithm that is based on the model (5) is denoted as 1, the algorithm that is based on the model (7) is denoted as 2 and the algorithm that estimates the order with an integer variable is denoted as 3. At first we examine algorithms on the set of problems in Table 1. Results of the examination are given in Table 2.

Table 1: Identification problems.

Identification problems						
1	$x'' + 2 \cdot x' + x = u(t), \ x_0 = (2 \ 0)^T, \ T = 12.5$					
2	$x'' + 2 \cdot x' + x = u(t)$ , $x_0 = (2-2)^T$ , $T = 12.5$					
3	$x''' + x'' + 2 \cdot x' + x = u(t)$ , $x_0 = (010)^T$ , $T = 12.5$					
4	$x''' + x'' + 2 \cdot x' + x = u(t) ,$					
4	$x_0 = (311)^T, T = 12.5$					
5	$x''' + x'' + 2 \cdot x' + x = u(t) ,$					
5	$x_0 = (2\ 0\ 0)^T, T = 12.5$					
6	$x'' + 2 \cdot x' + x = u(t), \ x_0 = (01)^T, \ T = 12.5$					
7	$x'' + 3 \cdot x' + 7 \cdot x = u(t), x_0 = (3-3)^T, T = 12.5$					
_	$x''' + 2 \cdot x'' + 3 \cdot x' + x = u(t) ,$					
8	$x_0 = (-1 - 1 - 1)^T, T = 12.5$					
	$x^{(4)} + x''' + 2.2 \cdot x'' + 3.5 \cdot x' + x = u(t) ,$					
9	$x_0 = (2\ 0\ 0\ 0)^T, T = 12.5$					
10	$x^{(4)} + 2 \cdot x''' + 4 \cdot x'' + 5 \cdot x' + 2 \cdot x = u(t) ,$					
10	$x_0 = (0\ 0\ 0\ 0)^T, T = 12.5$					
	$x^{(4)} + x''' + 4 \cdot x'' + 3 \cdot x' + x = u(t) ,$					
11	$x_0 = (1000)^T, T = 12.5$					
12	$x^{(4)} + x''' + 4 \cdot x'' + 3 \cdot x' + x = u(t) ,$					
12	$x_0 = (2\ 0\ 0\ 0)^T$ , $T = 12.5$					
13	$x^{(5)} + 0.6 \cdot x^{(4)} + 3.4 \cdot x''' + 1.1 \cdot x'' + 2.4 \cdot x' +$					
15	+0.4 · $x = u(t)$ , $x_0 = (0 0 0 0 0)^T$ , $T = 25$					
14	$x^{(5)} + x^{(4)} + 4 \cdot x''' + 2 \cdot x'' + 3 \cdot x' +$					
	+0.5 · x = u(t), x <sub>0</sub> = $(0 0 0 0 0)^T$ , T = 25					
15	$x^{(6)} + 1.5 \cdot x^{(5)} + 2 \cdot x^{(4)} + 2 \cdot x''' + x'' + 0.5 \cdot x' +$					
	$+0.1 \cdot x = u(t), x_0 = (00000)^T, T = 25$					

Average values of criteria show that for the given problems and samples, algorithm 1 is the most efficient.

Table 2: Experimental results for different algorithms and problems from the list in Table 1.

Algorithm	Criteria average values					
number	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_4$		$C_3$	
1	0,045	0,996	0,3	99	0,441	
2	0,059	1,287	3,349		0,453	
3	0,057	1,180	0,3	89	0,252	
Algorithm	Criteria value variance					
number	$C_1$	$C_2$		$C_4$		
1	0,0	17	0,335		1,246	
2	0,0	007	1,520		3,040	
3	0.003		0.566		0.508	

Since observations of the system trajectory are distorted, two more criteria were added. One is needed to estimate the probability of finding a model that is better than the system trajectory in fitting the sample data

$$C_5 = \frac{n_b}{n_r}, \qquad (21)$$

where  $n_b$  is the number of launches in which such solutions were received. And the last criterion gives us a difference in  $C_1$  criterion values for the model and the object:

$$C_6 = C_1 \big|_{model} - C_1 \big|_{object} ,$$
 (22)

where  $C_1|_{model} > C_1|_{object}$  and  $C_1|_{model}$ ,  $C_1|_{object}$  are the criterion values for the model output and the system output, respectively.

The next examination is related to an estimation of noise level influence on the performance of the algorithms. Results for problems 1, 5 and 12 from Table 1 for different noise levels are demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Experimental results for different noise levels. Averaged criteria values. Problems 1, 5 and 12, Table 1.

. 1	Criteria average values								
Alg.	$C_1$	$C_2$		$C_4$	$C_3$	<i>C</i> <sub>3</sub> <i>C</i>		$C_6$	
1	0,195	0,8	364	0,342	0,364	0,6	666	0,301	
2	0,182	1,0	)18	0,888	0,453	0,8	866	0,038	
3	0,187	1,1	12	0,308	0,466	0,6	549	0,014	
	Criteria variance								
Alg.	$C_1$			$C_2$	$C_2 \qquad C_4$			$C_6$	
1	0,139	)	0,343		0,818		0,0004		
2	0,008	3	T	0,251	2,118			0,006	
3	0,007	7 (		0,209	0,468			0,004	

As one can see algorithm 3 is the best for criterion  $C_2$  values. But Table 3 shows that algorithm 1 is still the most reliable: it has the

biggest average value of criterion  $C_6$ . The estimation of its probability to find a solution that would fit the observations more than the real system state equals 1. This can be interpreted as this algorithm finding a solution that fits the sample data even better than the real system output trajectory.

The value that the criterion (18) takes is also important and is given in Figure 1 – its average value for problems 1, 5 and 12. In these pictures, the horizontal axis is the noise level and the vertical axis is the average value of the criterion (18) for 25 launches.



Figure 1: Problems 1, 5 and 12, criterion (18) average value for different noise levels.

The next examination aim is to investigate the effect of the sample size on the algorithm performance. The sample size was varied from 90 to 5: 90, 80, ..., 20, 15, 10, 5. All the average criteria values are given in Table 4 for problems 1, 5 and 12 and 25 launches of the algorithms.

Table 4: Experimental results for different sample size values. Problems 1, 5 and 12, table 1.

Algorithm	Criteria average values					
number	$C_1$ $C_2$ $C_4$		4	<i>C</i> <sub>3</sub>		
1	0,013	0,398	0,596		0,288	
2	0,013	0,464	0,50	)2	0,613	
3	0,021	0,549	0,28	86	0,482	
Algorithm	Criteria variance					
number	$C_1$	C2	$C_2$		$C_4$	
1	0,009	0,210	0,210		0,408	
2	0,014	0,530	0,530		,995	
3	0,010	0,440	0,440		,464	

A criterion (18) average value for different sample size is presented in Figure 2.



Figure 2: Problems 1, 5 and 12, criterion (18) average value for different sample size.

To estimate the influence of both factors: sample size and noise level, another examination was performed. The noise level took values 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3 and the sample size was varied: 200, 150, 80, 40. There we consider all three algorithms for problems 1, 5 and 12. Figures 3, 4 and 5 represent the average values of criterion  $C_2$  for the algorithm 1, 2 and 3, respectively. To make a better presentation of the results, statistics for every sample size are given in a distinct area in the figures. The bars represent average values for some sample size and noise level, differ in colour; the darker colour matches the higher noise level.



Figure 3: Criterion (18) average value for different noise levels and sample sizes. Algorithm 1.



Figure 4: Criterion (18) average value for different noise levels and sample sizes. Algorithm 2.



Figure 5: Criterion (18) average value for different noise levels and sample sizes. Algorithm 3.

Increasing the noise level and decreasing the sample size leads to a loss in efficiency. However the estimation of probabilities  $C_3$  and  $C_5$  shows us the algorithms find a good solution. The samples are not representative, so it is impossible to identify the real dynamical system. Only the dynamical system whose trajectory fits the data can be identified.

In this study the criterion (18) was suggested as being the most important, because it is the estimation of the output distance of the model from the real system output. It is used since it is more useful than criterion  $C_1$  for samples with noised data. Yet it is impossible to use this criterion in solving inverse mathematical modelling problems. We also suggest that the criterion  $C_4$  could be used instead of  $C_2$ , but it is more difficult to interpret the results.

## **5** CONCLUSIONS

The approaches and algorithms described in this work are proven to be useful for linear dynamic system identification. The improved optimization algorithms are powerful and reliable tools for solving the reduced extremum problem. The approach allows the inverse mathematical modelling problem to be solved in a symbolic form knowing only the control function. Since the approach and algorithms solve the problem automatically and simultaneously for all variables, the approach is flexible. The designed algorithms can be easily modified to seek solutions in cases where there is no control input or where the initial value is given.

The developing of the dynamic system identification problem solving approach requires some specific criteria for estimating the optimization algorithms. They are related to the complexity of the problem and its features. In the current study we suggested 6 criteria. Criteria allow algorithm performance to be investigated and more information about the features of a reduced problem to be given. The data we received from the experiments is useful for the further development of evolutionary algorithms and dynamic identification problem solving approaches.

New features of the reduced problem were explored. In the case of no data distortion, the sample size does not affect the efficiency. The examination results show that the improved optimization algorithms find a solution that fits the sample better than the system output trajectory.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Research is performed with the financial support of the Russian Foundation of Basic Research, the Russian Federation, contract №20 16-01-00767, dated 03.02.2016.

# REFERENCES

- Brunel N. J-B., 2008. Parameter estimation of ODE's via nonparametric estimators. *Electronic Journal of Statistics. Vol. 2*, pp. 1242–1267.
- Fang Y., Wu H., Zhu L-X., 2011. A Two-Stage Estimation Method for Random Coefficient Differential Equation Models with Application to Longitudinal HIV Dynamic Data. *Statistica Sinica*. pp. 1145-1170.
- Naiborhu J., Firman, Mu'tamar K., 2013. Particle Swarm Optimization in the Exact Linearization Technic for Output Tracking of Non-Minimum Phase Nonlinear Systems. *Applied Mathematical Sciences*, Vol. 7, no. 109, pp. 5427-5442.
- Parmar G., Prasad R., Mukherjee S., 2007. Order reduction of linear dynamic systems using stability equation method and GA. *International Journal of computer and Information Engeneering* 1:1., pp.26-32.
- Peifer M., Timmer J., 2007 Parameter estimation in ordinary differential equations for biochemical processes using the method of multiple shooting. *IET Syst Biol*, pp. 78–88.
- Ryzhikov I., Semenkin E., 2013. Evolutionary Strategies Algorithm Based Approaches for the Linear Dynamic System Identification. Adaptive and Natural Computing Algorithms. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Volume 7824. – Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, pp. 477-483.
- Schenkendorf R., Mangold M., 2014. Parameter identification for ordinary and delay differential equations by using flat inputs. *Theoretical Foundations of Chemical Engineering. Vol. 48, Issue* 5, pp. 594-607.

ICINCO 2016 - 13th International Conference on Informatics in Control, Automation and Robotics

Schwefel Hans-Paul, 1995. Evolution and Optimum Seeking. New York: Wiley & Sons.

- Sersic K., Urbiha I., 1999. Parameter Identification Problem Solving Using Genetic Algorithm. Proceedings of the 1. Conference on Applied Mathematics and Computation, pp. 253–261.
- Wöbbekind M., Kemper A., Büskens C., Schollmeyer M., 2013. Nonlinear Parameter Identification for Ordinary Differential Equations. *Proc. Appl. Math. Mech.*, 13: pp. 457–458.
- Wu H., Xue H., Kumar A., 2012. Numerical Discretization-Based Estimation Methods for Ordinary Differential Equation Models via Penalized Spline Smoothing with Applications in Biomedical Research. *Biometrics*, pp. 344-352.

