

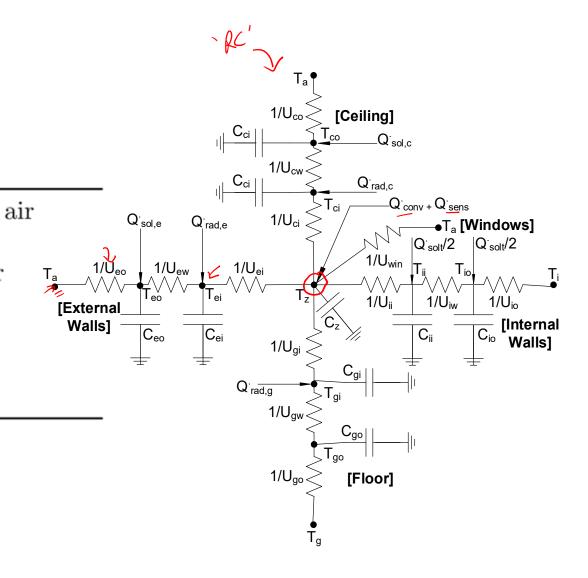
Principles of Modeling for Cyber-Physical Systems

Instructor: Madhur Behl

Previously...

How to find the values of the parameters?

$U_{\star o}$	convection coefficient between the wall and outside
$U_{\star w}$	conduction coefficient of the wall
$U_{\star i}$	convection coefficient between the wall and zone air
U_{win}	conduction coefficient of the window
$C_{\star\star}$	thermal capacitance of the wall
C_z	thermal capacity of zone z_i
	g: floor; e : external wall; c : ceiling; i : internal wall



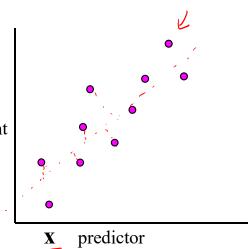
Parameter estimation overview

- Simple Linear Regression
- Least squares
- Non-linear least squares
- State-space sum of squared errors
- Non-linear optimization (estimation) methods
- Global and local search
- MATLAB implementations

Suppose we collect some data and want to determine the relation between the observed values, y, and the independent variable, x:

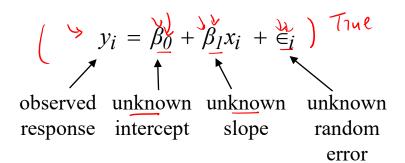
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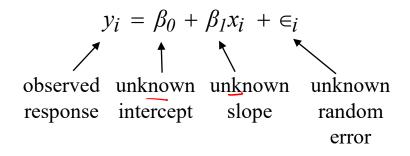
response (dependent variable)



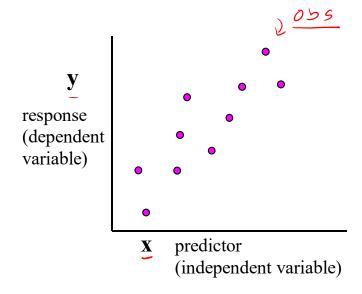
(independent variable)

We can model the data using a linear model

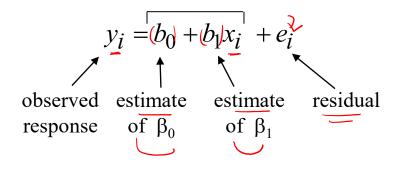




 β_0 and β_1 are the **parameters** of this linear model.

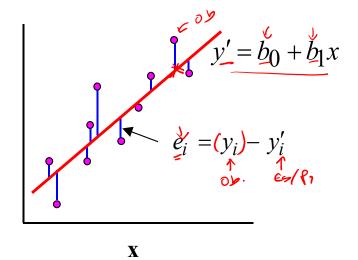


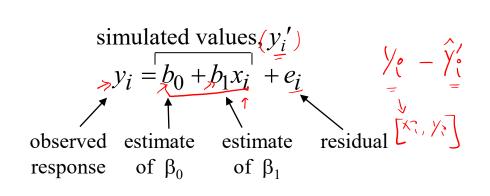
- Don't know the true values of the parameters.
- Estimate them using the assumed model and the observations (data)

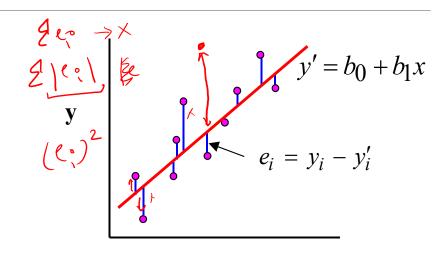


 Estimate b₀ and b₁ to obtain the best fit of the simulated values to the observations.









Sum of squared residuals:

To minimize:

$$\det \frac{\partial S}{\partial b_0} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial b_1} = 0$$

$$S(b_0, b_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_i')^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_i x)^2$$

$$Set \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial b_0} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial b_1} = 0$$

$$b_0 n + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \leftarrow b_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$
This results in the normal equations: $i = 1$ $i = 1$

• Solve these equations to obtain expressions for b_0 and b_1 , the parameter estimates that give the best fit of the simulated and observed values.



Linear Regression in Matrix Form

Linear regression model:
$$y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i + e_i$$
, i=1.n $\Rightarrow y = X b_1 + e_2$

$$\underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \underline{e} = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix}$$

vector of observed values

matrix of Predictors/ features

vector of parameters

vector of residuals



Linear Regression in Matrix Form

Linear regression model:
$$y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i + e_i$$
, i=1.n $\Rightarrow \underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{b} + \underline{e}$

• The **normal equations** (\underline{b} ' is the vector of least-squares estimates of \underline{b}):

Using summations
And setting the derivative to 0

$$b_{0}n + b_{1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}$$

$$b_{0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} + b_{1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i}$$

Using matrix notation:

$$\underline{X}^{T}\underline{X}\underline{b'} = \underline{X}^{T}\underline{y} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \underline{b'} = (\underline{X}^{T}\underline{X})^{-1}\underline{X}^{T}\underline{y}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & X_{21} & \dots & X_{k1} \\ 1 & X_{12} & X_{22} & \dots & X_{k2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{1n} & X_{2n} & \dots & X_{kn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1}$$

This can be rewritten more simply as:

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{\epsilon}$$

$$\underline{e} = \underline{y} - X \hat{\beta}$$

The sum of squared residuals (RSS) is e'e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & \dots & e_n \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times n} \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \times e_1 + e_2 \times e_2 + \dots + e_n \times e_n \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times 1}$$

The sum of squared residuals (RSS) is e'e.

$$\underline{e'e} = (\dot{y} - \dot{X}\hat{\beta})'(y - X\hat{\beta})
= y'y - \hat{\beta}'X'y - y'X\hat{\beta} + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta}
\underline{ss(\hat{p})} = y'y - 2\hat{\beta}'X'y + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta}$$

$$e'e = y'y - 2\hat{\beta}'X'y + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta} \leftarrow$$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial e'e}{\partial \hat{\beta}} = -2X'y + 2X'X\hat{\beta} = 0$$

$$(X'X)\hat{\beta} = X'y$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y \rightarrow Closed form.$$



Linear versus Nonlinear Models

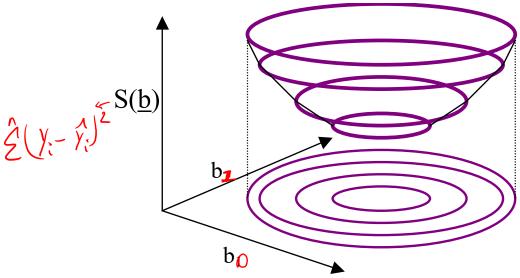
Linear models: Sensitivities of the output are **not** a function of the model parameters:

$$y_i' = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$

$$y_i' = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial y_i'}{\partial b_0} = 1 \text{ and } \frac{\partial y_i'}{\partial b_1} = x_i \text{ ; recall } \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{dy}{d\beta} = g(xx)$$





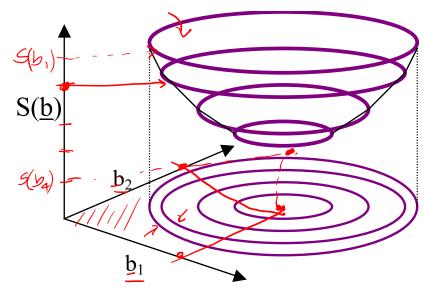
Linear versus Nonlinear parameters

- Linear models have elliptical objective function surfaces.
- i.e. the level sets of the objective function (sum of errors squared) are ellipsis.

One step to get to the minimum.

$$= (X/X) X$$

Nonlinear parametric models: Sensitivities are a function of the model parameters.



With two parameter

Nonlinearity is in parameter space.

$$x(k+1) = A_{\theta}(k)x(k) + B_{\theta}(k)u(k)$$

$$y(k) = C_{\theta}(k)x(k) + D_{\theta}(k)u(k)$$

$$0 = [U_{\omega}U_{\cos}U_{\omega}U_{\omega}] \cdot C_{e,C_{2}}$$

Elements of A, B, C, and D could be non-linear in the parameter θ

Suppose that we have collected data on the output/response Y (n samples),

$$(y_1, y_2, ...y_n)$$

corresponding to n sets of values of the independent variables/predictors/features

$$X_1, X_2, \dots$$
 and X_p [Ta, Tg, Te, Qsd -- · ·)

$$(x_{11}^{1}, x_{21}, ..., x_{p1})$$
,

• ... and



For possible values θ_1 , θ_2 , ..., θ_q of the parameters, the residual sum of squares function

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)]^2$$

$$\hat{y}_{i} = f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi}, \theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \dots, \theta_{q})$$

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)]^2$$

The least squares estimates of $\underline{\theta_1}$, $\underline{\theta_2}$, ..., $\underline{\theta_q}$, are values which minimize $S(\underline{\theta_1}, \, \underline{\theta_2}, \, \dots, \, \underline{\theta_q})$.

$$S(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \dots, \theta_{q}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_{i} - f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \dots, \theta_{q})]^{2}$$

To find the least squares estimate we need to determine when all the derivatives $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q)$ with respect to each parameter $\theta_1, \theta_2, ...$ and θ_q are equal to zero.

This will involve, terms with partial derivatives of the non-linear function f.

$$\left(\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_1}\right), \left(\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_2}\right), \dots, \frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_q}\right)$$



$$\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_1}$$
, $\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_2}$, ..., $\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_q}$

Closed form <u>analy</u>tical solutions are not possible.

It is usually necessary to develop an iterative technique for solving them

Recall..

$$x(k+1) = A_{\theta}(k)x(k) + B_{\theta}(k)u(k)$$

$$y(k) = C_{\theta}(k)x(k) + D_{\theta}(k)u(k)$$

$$\hat{y}(k) = \hat{f}(\hat{x}(k), u(k), \hat{\theta}_{1}, ..., \hat{\theta}_{q})$$

How can we compute the sum of squared error for state-space models?

$$y(k) = C_{\theta}(k) + D_{\theta}u(k)$$
$$y(k) = C_{\theta}(k) + D_{\theta}u(k)$$

21 (y: - \$i) 2

Consider the LTI model

sum of squared error for state-space models

Given
$$x(0) = x_0$$
, and $u(k)$, $k = 0$, ... $N-1$

$$y(0) = C_{\theta}x(0) + D_{\theta}u(0)$$

$$y(1) = C_{\theta}x(1) + D_{\theta}u(1)$$

$$x(2) = A_{\theta}x(1) + B_{\theta}u(1)$$

$$y(1) = C_{\theta}A_{\theta}x(0) + C_{\theta}B_{\theta}u(0) + D_{\theta}u(1)$$

$$y(2) = C_{\theta}x(2) + D_{\theta}u(2)$$

$$y(\underline{2}) = C_{\theta} A_{\theta} A_{\theta} x(\underline{0}) + C_{\theta} A_{\theta} B_{\theta} u(\underline{0}) + C_{\theta} B_{\theta} u(\underline{1}) + D_{\theta} u(\underline{2})$$

sum of squared error for state-space models

$$\begin{pmatrix}
y(0) \\
y(1) \\
\vdots \\
y(N-1)
\end{pmatrix} = 2 x(0) + T \begin{pmatrix}
u(0) \\
u(1) \\
\vdots \\
u(N-1)
\end{pmatrix}$$

For a given estimate of $\overset{\mathbf{V}}{\theta}$, this is the \hat{y} vector

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

sum of squared error for state-space models

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{\theta} \\ C_{\theta} A_{\theta} \\ \vdots \\ C_{\theta} A_{\theta}^{N-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{\theta} \\ C_{\theta} A_{\theta} \\ \vdots \\ C_{\theta} A_{\theta}^{N-1} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{\tau} = \begin{pmatrix} D_{\theta} & 0 & \dots & \\ C_{\theta} B_{\theta} & D_{\theta} & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ C_{\theta} A_{\theta}^{N-2} B_{\theta} & C_{\theta} A_{\theta}^{N-3} B_{\theta} & \dots C_{\theta} B_{\theta} & D_{\theta} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let \mathcal{Z}^N be the given data-set $\{u_k, x_0, k=1, ..., N\}$

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N(\mathcal{Z}^N) = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta} S_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Z}^N)$$

$$S_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Z}^N)$$
 is the squared error i.e. $S_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Z}^N) = \sum_{k=1}^N \boldsymbol{e}_{\underline{k}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \, \boldsymbol{e}_{\underline{k}}^T(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$e_k(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{y}_k - \widehat{\boldsymbol{y}}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Predicted (for a particle)

Non-linear least squares

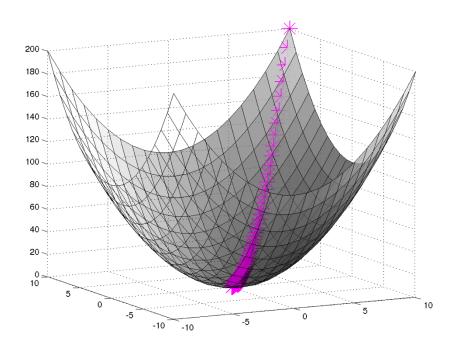
We will cover the following methods:

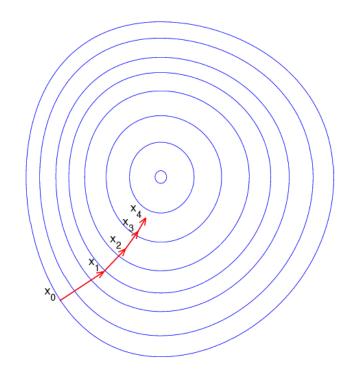
- 1) Steepest descent (or Gradient descent) and Newton's method,
- 2) Gauss Newton and Linearization, and
- (3) Levenberg-Marquardt's procedure.
- 1. In each case a iterative procedure is used to find the least squares estimators : $\hat{ heta}_1,\hat{ heta}_2,\ldots,\hat{ heta}_q$
- 2. That is an <u>initial estimates</u>, $\theta_1^0, \theta_2^0, \dots, \theta_q^0$, for these values are determined. (556)
- 3. Iteratively find better estimates, $\theta_1^i, \theta_2^i, \dots, \theta_q^i$ that hopefully converge to the least squares estimates,

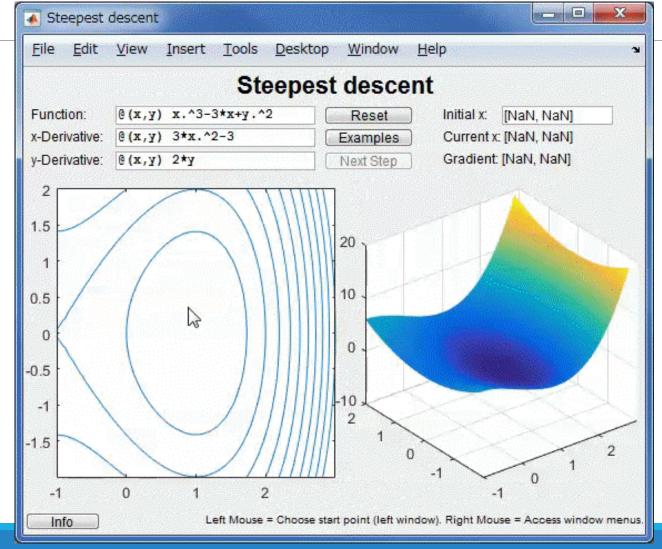
- The steepest descent method focuses on determining the values of θ_1 , θ_2 , ..., θ_q that minimize the sum of squares function, $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q)$.
- The basic idea is to determine from an initial point, $\,\theta_1^0,\theta_2^0,\,\ldots,\theta_q^0\,$
- and the tangent plane to $S(\theta_1,\,\theta_2,\,\dots\,,\,\theta_q)$ at this point, the vector along which the function $S(\theta_1,\,\theta_2,\,\dots\,,\,\theta_q)$ will be decreasing at the fastest rate.
- •The method of steepest descent than moves from this initial point along the direction of steepest descent until the value of $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q)$ stops decreasing.

- It uses this point, $\theta_1^1, \theta_2^1, \ldots, \theta_q^1$ as the next approximation to the value that minimizes $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_q)$.
- The procedure than continues until the successive approximation arrive at a point where the sum of squares function, $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_a)$ is minimized.
- At that point, the tangent plane to $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q)$ will be horizontal and there will be no direction of steepest descent.

To find a local minimum of a function using steepest descent, one takes steps proportional to the *negative* of the gradient of the function at the current point.

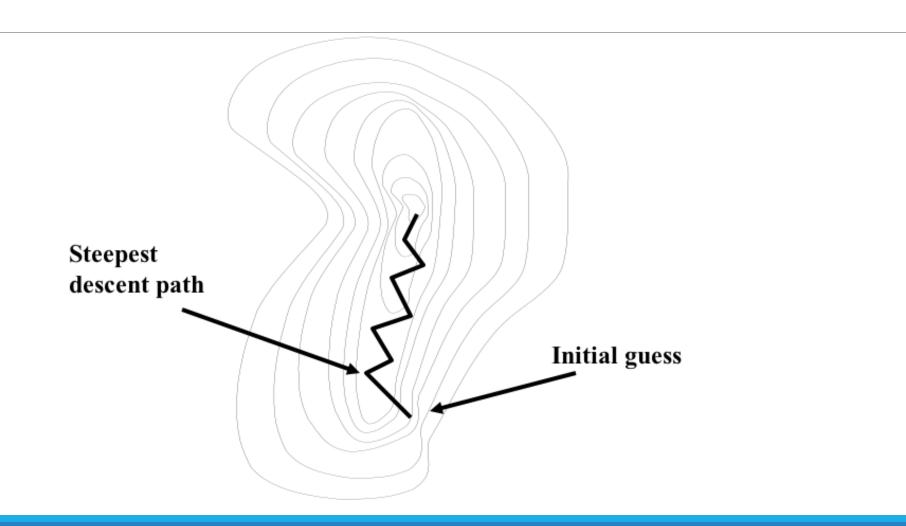


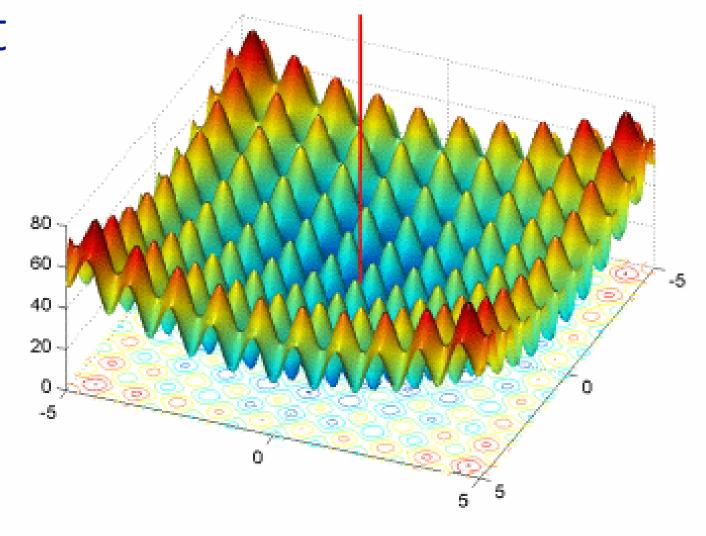




Initialize k=0, choose θ_0

$$\theta_k = \theta_{k-1} - \nabla F(\theta_{k-1})$$





Gradient descent is a *local* optimization method

Steepest Descent

- While, theoretically, the steepest descent method will converge, it may do so in practice with agonizing slowness after some rapid initial progress.
- Slow convergence is particularly likely when the $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q)$ contours highly curved and it happens when the path of steepest descent zigzags slowly up a narrow ridge, each iteration bringing only a slight reduction in $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_q)$.
- A further disadvantage of the steepest descent method is that it is not scale invariant.
- The steepest descent method is, on the whole, slightly less favored than the linearization method (described later) but will work satisfactorily for many nonlinear problems

Recall: Least squares in general

Most optimization problem can be formulated as a nonlinear least squares problem

$$x^* = \arg\min_{x} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (f_i(x))^2$$

Sorry for being lazy, we have been denoting Error using e, and parameter θ , and I just switched the notation to f, and f(x)

$$x^* = \arg\min_{x} \frac{1}{2} f(x)^T f(x)$$

Where $f_i: R^n \mapsto R$, i=1,...,m are given functions, and m>=n

Quadratic approximation

$$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + f'(x)\Delta x + \frac{1}{2}f''(x)\Delta x^2$$

What's the minimum solution of the quadratic approximation

$$\Delta x = -\frac{f'(x)}{f''(x)}$$

High dimensional case:

$$F(x + \Delta x) \approx F(x) + \nabla F(x) \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^{T} H(x) \Delta x$$

What's the optimal direction?

$$\Delta x \approx -H(x)^{-1} \nabla F(x)$$

Terminology

The gradient ∇f of a multivariable function is a vector consisting of the function's partial derivatives:

$$\nabla f(x_1, x_2) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}\right)$$

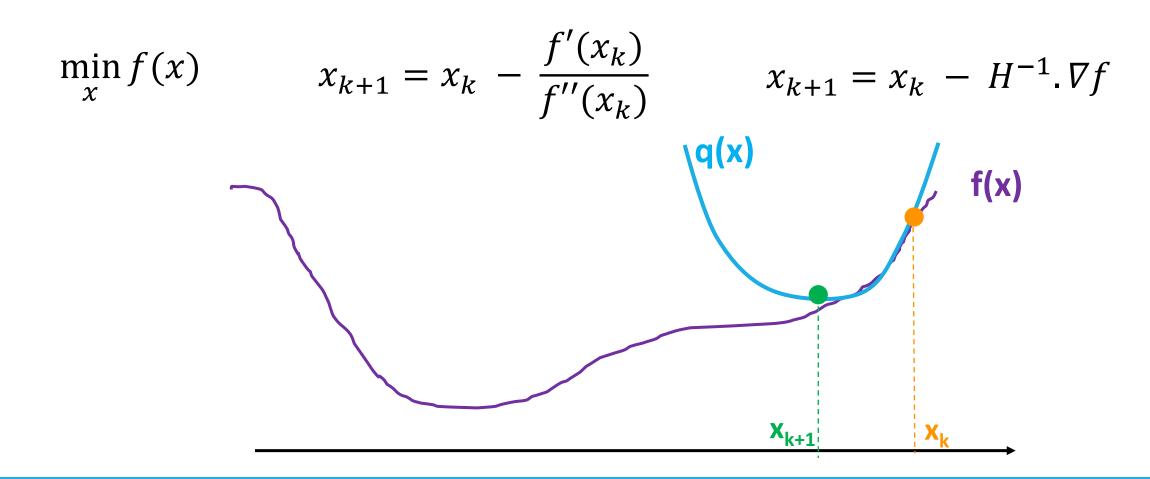
The Hessian matrix H(f) of a function f(x) is the square matrix of second-order partial derivatives of f(x):

$$H(f(x_1, x_2)) = \left(egin{array}{ccc} rac{\partial f}{\partial x_1^2} & rac{\partial f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \ rac{\partial f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & rac{\partial f}{\partial x_2^2} \end{array}
ight)$$

Initialize k=0, choose x_0

While k<k_{max}

$$x_k = x_{k-1} - \lambda H(x)^{-1} \nabla F(x_{k-1})$$



$$\min_{x} f(x) \qquad x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)} \qquad x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1}.\nabla f$$

Let $f(x): \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be sufficiently smooth

Taylor's approximation: For close to point 'a'
$$f(x) \approx f(a) + g^T(x-a) + \frac{1}{2} (x-a)^T H(x-a) + h.o.t.$$

$$g = \nabla f(a)$$
 $H = \nabla^2 f(a)$

$$x^T H x - 2a^T H x + a^T H a$$

$$q(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T H x + b^T x + c \quad \text{where} \quad b = g - H T a$$

$$\nabla q = 0 \Rightarrow Hx + b = 0 \Rightarrow x = -H^{-1}b = -H^{-1}g + a = a - H^{-1}g$$

$$x = a - H^{-1}g \implies x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1}.\nabla f$$

$$\nabla q = 0 \Rightarrow Hx + b$$

For minima

$$\nabla^2 q > 0$$

$$\nabla^2 q = H$$

Minima if H is PSD

- 1) Initialize: x_0
- 2) Iterate: $x_{k+1} = x_k H^{-1}.g$

$$g = \nabla f(x_k)$$
 $H = \nabla^2 f(x_k)$

- 1) H may fail to be PSD
- 2) H may not be invertible.
- 3) Difficult to compute H in practice through numerical methods



Recall: Non-linear least squares

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (r_j(x))^2 = ||r(x)||_2^2$$

The j-th component of the vector r(x) is the residual

$$r_j(x) = y_j - \widehat{y}_j$$

$$r(x) = (r_1(x), r_2(x), ..., r_N(x))^T$$



Non-linear least squares

The Jacobian J(x) is a matrix of all $\nabla r_j(x)$:

$$J(x) = \left[\frac{\partial r_j}{\partial x_i}\right]_{j=1,...,N} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla r_1(x)^T \\ \nabla r_2(x)^T \\ \vdots \\ \nabla r_N(x)^T \end{bmatrix}$$



Non-linear least squares

$$\nabla f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} r_j(x) \nabla r_j(x) = J(x)^T r(x)$$

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N \nabla r_j(x) \nabla r_j(x)^T + \sum_{j=1}^N r_j(x) \nabla^2 r_j(x)$$

$$= J(x)^{T}J(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{N} r_{j}(x)\nabla^{2}r_{j}(x)$$

Gauss-Newton Method

Use the approximation $\nabla^2 f_k \approx J_k^T J_k$

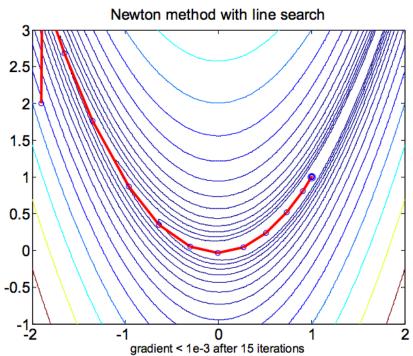
 J_k must have full rank Requires accurate initial guess Fast convergence close to solution

$$J(x)^{T}J(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{N} r_{j}(x)\nabla^{2}r_{j}(x)$$

Residuals are small when close to the optimal

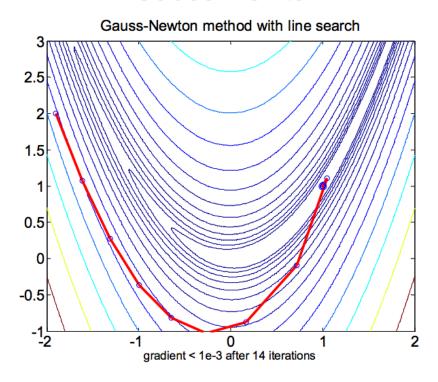
Comparison





- requires computing Hessian
 (i.e. n^2 second derivatives)
- exact solution if quadratic

Gauss-Newton



- approximates Hessian by Jacobian product
- requires only n first derivatives



Newton's method cannot use negative curvature

- We can progress if we use a positive definite approximation of the Hessian matrix of f(x). $x_{k+1} = x_k H^{-1}.g$
- One possibility is to approximate H by the identity matrix I (always PD)
 - This will be the same as steepest descent: $x_{k+1} = x_k \Delta g$
 - Too slow, + convergence issues
- Instead use $\widetilde{H} = H_k + \lambda I$
 - High value of λ == steepest (gradient) descent.
 - Low value == Newton or Gauss Newton method

Levenberg-Marquardt Method

- Mixture of Gauss-Newton and Gradient descent.
- Acts like Gauss-Newton when close to the minimum (quadratic region)
- Gradient descent when improvement is difficult.
- ullet Depends on a parameter λ which
 - 1. Controls the mixture of Gauss-Newton and Gradient Descent
 - 2. Controls the step-length.

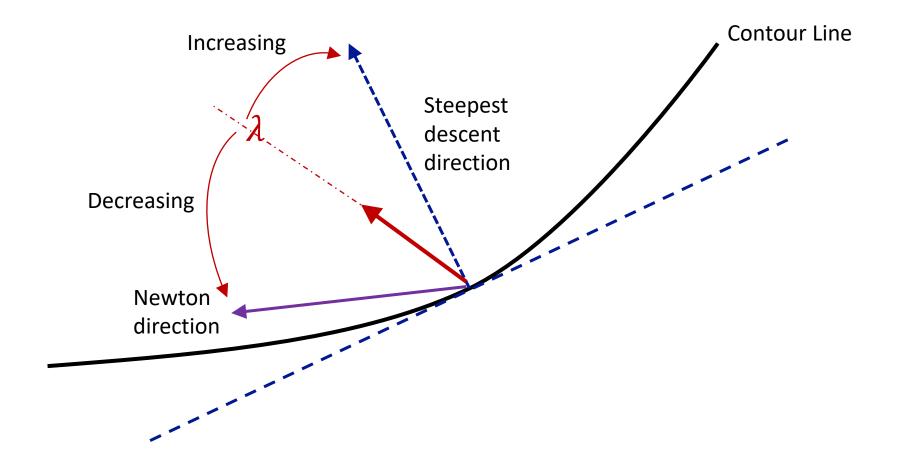
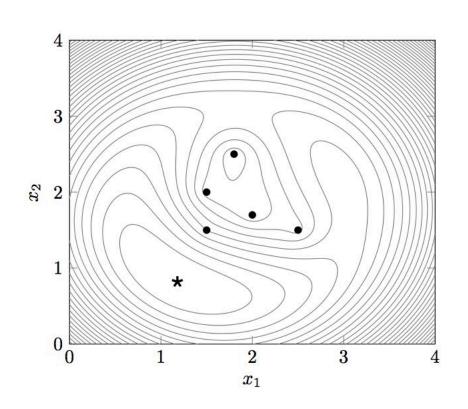


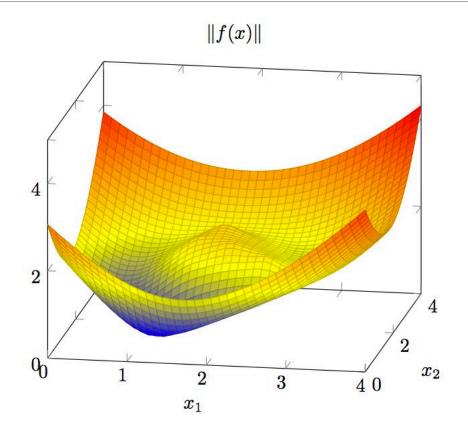
Illustration of Levenberg-Marquardt gradient descent

Levenberg-Marquardt Method

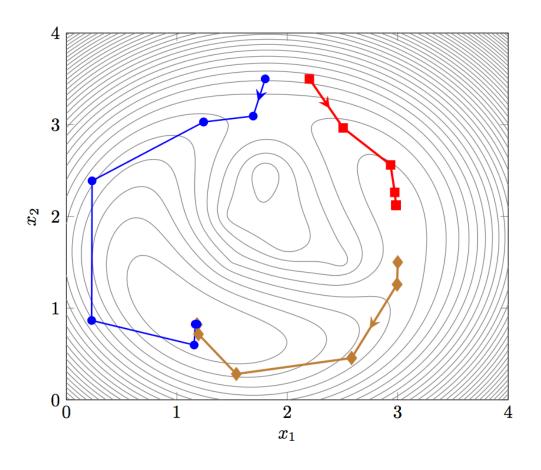
- 1) Adapt the value of λ during the optimization.
- 2) If the iteration was successful $(F(x_{k+1}) < F(x_k))$
 - a) Decrease λ and try to use as much curvature information as possible.
- 3) If the previous iteration was unsuccessful $(F(x_{k+1}) > F(x_k))$
 - a) Increase λ and use only basic gradient information.
- 4) Trust Region Algorithm

Levenberg-Marquardt Method

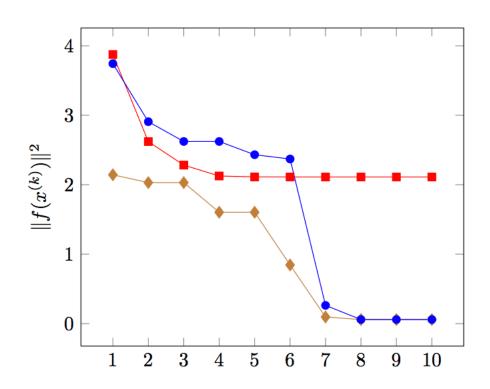


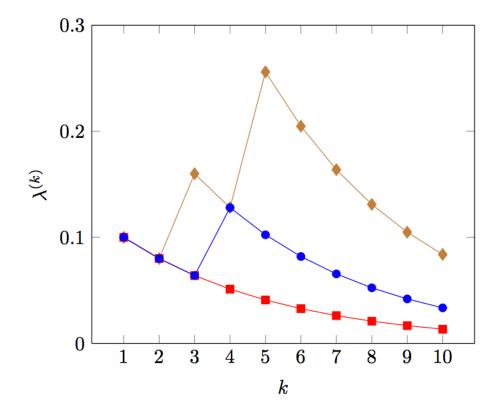


Levenberg-Marquardt from 3 initial points



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Stopping Criteria

Criterion 1: reach the number of iteration specified by the user

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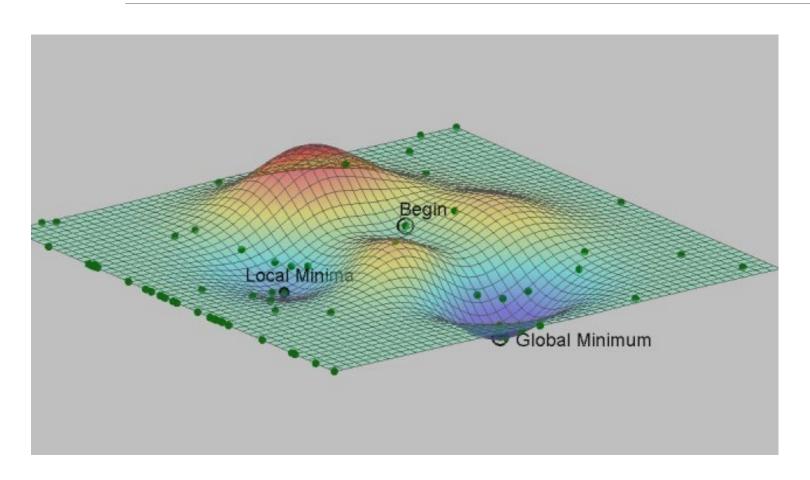
Criterion 2: when the current function value is smaller than a userspecified threshold

$$F(x_k) < \sigma_{user}$$

Criterion 3: when the change of function value is smaller than a user specified threshold

$$||F(x_k)-F(x_{k-1})|| < \varepsilon_{user}$$

Multi-start search



- Several points as initial guesses for regression and the regression is performed for each point.
- 1) Choose randomly..
- 2) Choose within some neighborhood of nominal values.

NLLS in Matlab

nlinfit

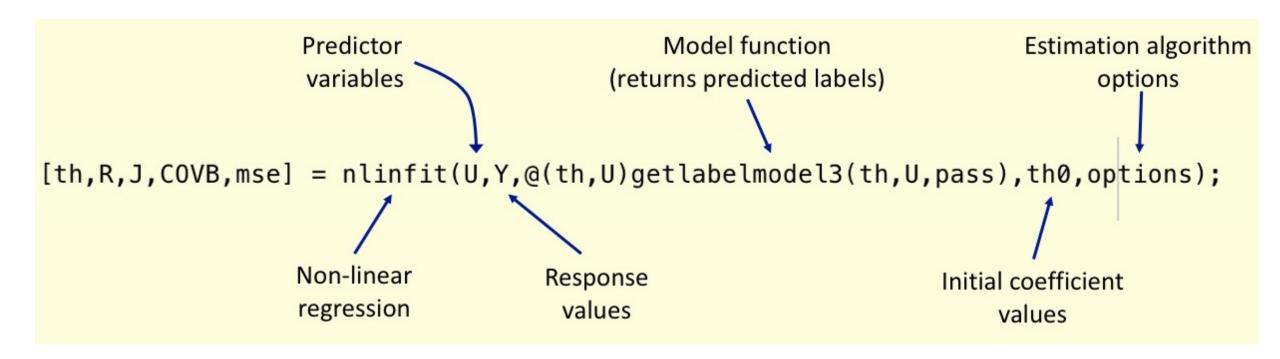
Nonlinear regression

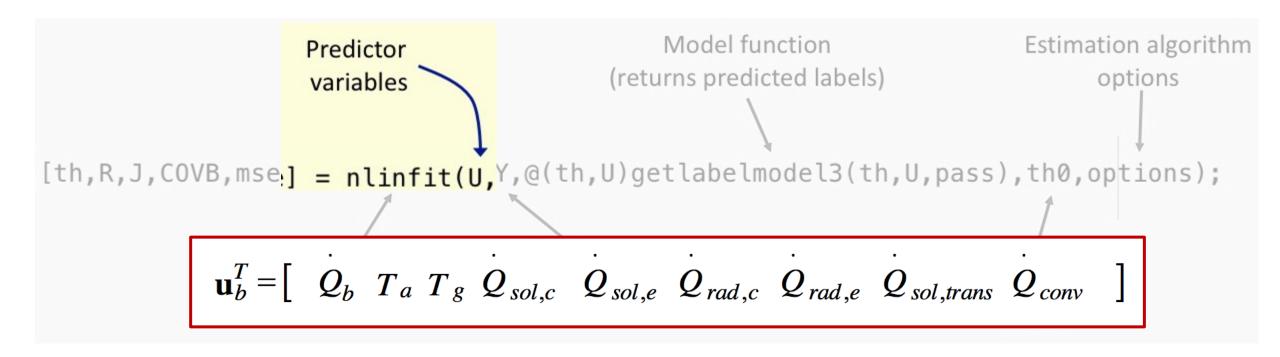
Isqnonlin

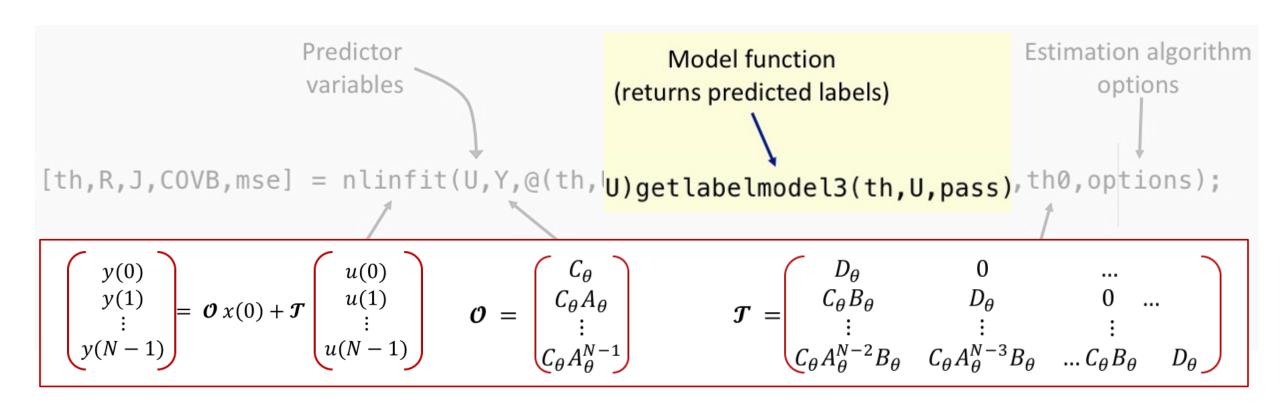
Solve nonlinear least-squares (nonlinear data-fitting) problems

Isqcurvefit

Solve nonlinear curve-fitting (data-fitting) problems in least-squares sense







$$\theta_{1} = [C_{e1} \ C_{i1} \ C_{c1} \ C_{g1} \ R_{e1} \ R_{e2} \ R_{i1} \ R_{i2} \ R_{c1} \ R_{c2} \ R_{g1} \ R_{g1} \ R_{g2} \ C_{e2} \ C_{i2} \ C_{c2} \ C_{g2} \ R_{e3} \ R_{i3} \ R_{c3} \ R_{g3} \]$$

