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Identification of control-oriented models for helicopter flight mechanics

M. Lovera

Dipartimento di Scienze e Tecnologie Aerospaziali

Politecnico di Milano



- Rotorcraft model identification: objectives and constraints
- Control-oriented physical model identification
- Frequency- and time- domain approaches: advantages and drawbacks
- Non-iterative time-domain approach: continuous-time predictor-based subspace identification algorithm
- Outline of proposed time/frequency domain approach
- Case studies:
 - A small, rpm-controlled quadrotor
 - A not-so-small, pitch-controlled quadrotor
 - A full scale helicopter.



- Most helicopters are characterized by an unstable behaviour
- Helicopter control systems design needs accurate models
- Intrinsic limitations in nonlinear physical modelling call for full or partial resort to empirical modelling → increasing attention given to system identification



Main difficulties in rotorcraft model identification:

- Intrinsically multivariable (MIMO) problem
- High order dynamics
- Most rotorcraft vehicles are open loop unstable
 - need for closed-loop identification techniques
- Community wants continuous-time, physically parameterised models
 - need for continuous-time identification techniques
- Expensive flight experiments
 - need to use all available flight data

Objective:

- Continuous-time identification algorithm able to deal with closed-loop MIMO systems using time- and frequency-domain data



Rotorcraft model identification

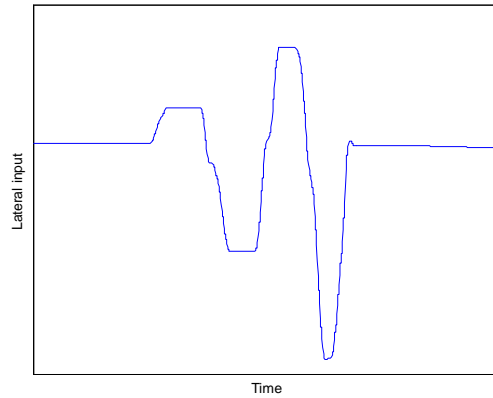
Typical Input classes

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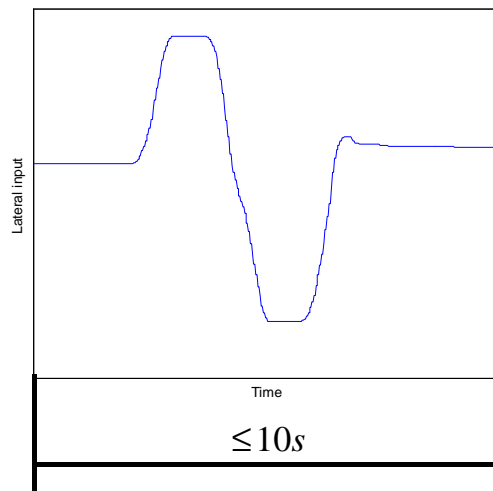


Time-domain data

DLR 3211

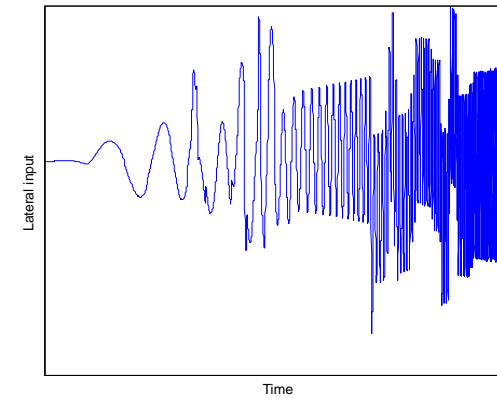


DOUBLET

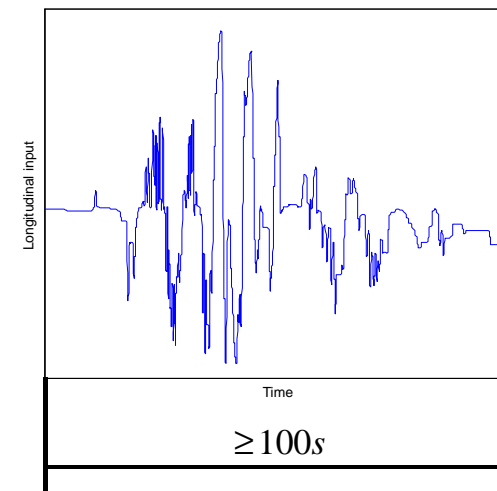


Frequency-domain data

Automatic SWEEP



Manual SWEEP





Rotorcraft model identification

Control-oriented physical model

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- The dynamics of a rotorcraft during steady flight (e.g., hover, forward flight)



can be well described using a MIMO LTI continuous-time system

$$\dot{x}(t) = A(\theta)x(t) + B(\theta)u(t)$$

$$y(t) = C(\theta)x(t) + D(\theta)u(t)$$

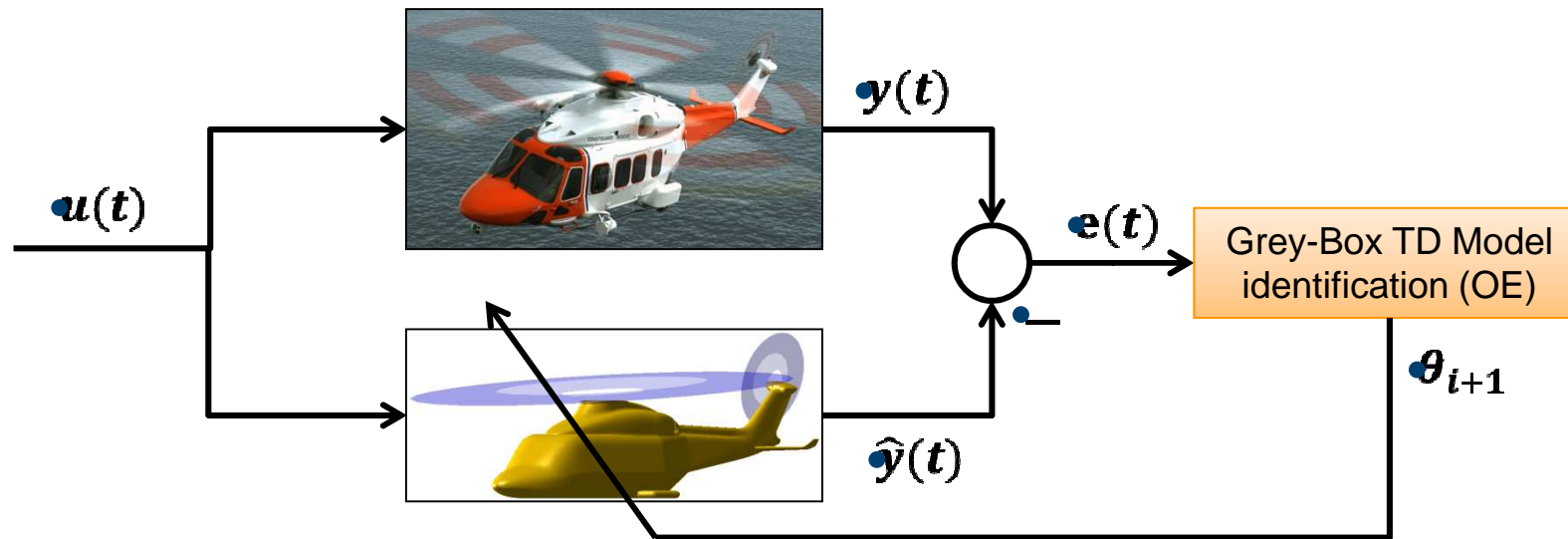
where the system matrices depend on unknown parameters (*i.e.*, physical parameters)

- The objective is to estimate the unknown parameters θ



Iterative time-domain approaches (e.g., OE, EE, see Jategaonkar 2006)

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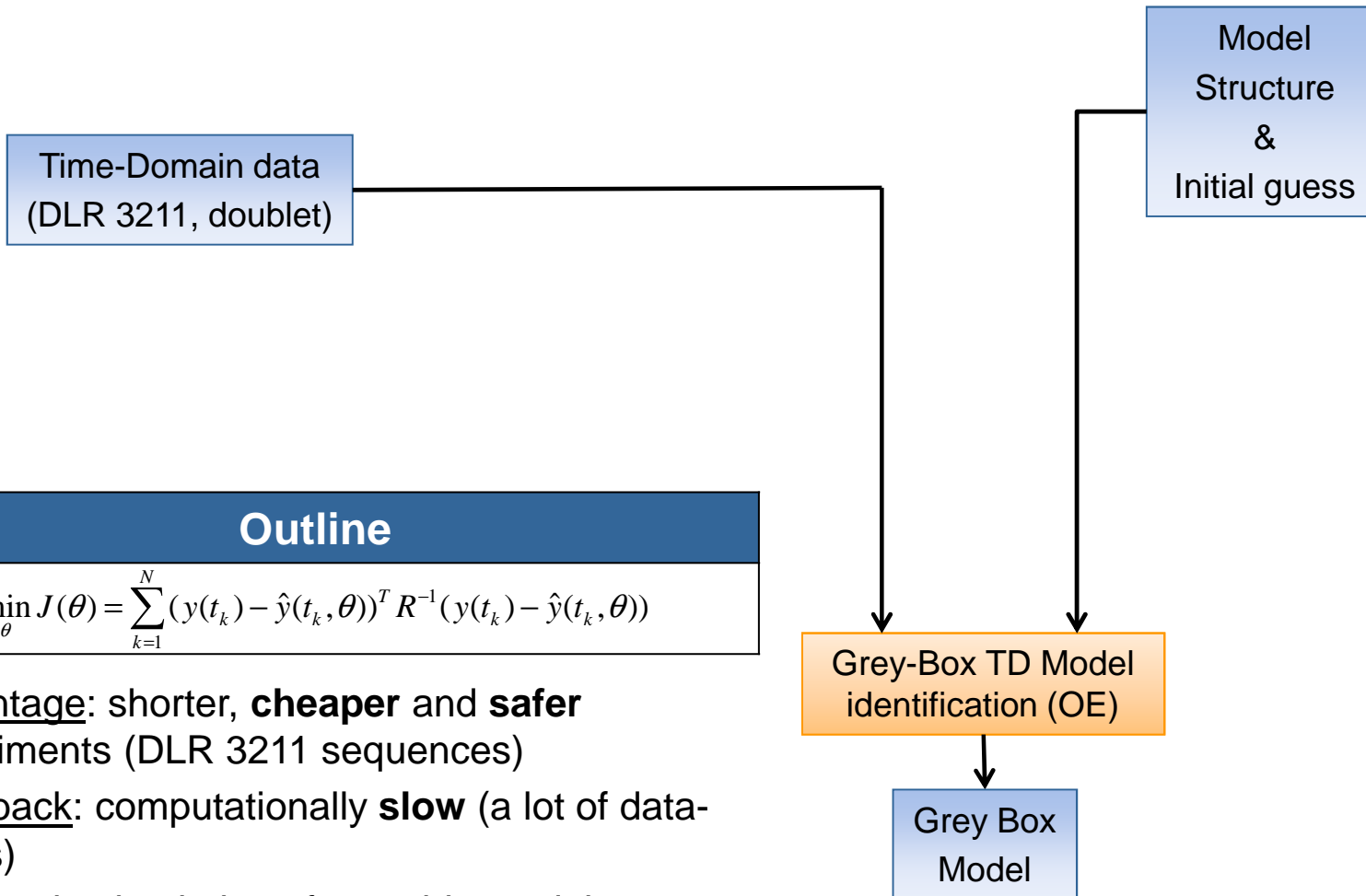


Outline

$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^N (y(t_k) - \hat{y}(t_k, \theta))^T R^{-1} (y(t_k) - \hat{y}(t_k, \theta))$$



Iterative time-domain approaches (e.g., OE, EE, see Jategaonkar 2006)



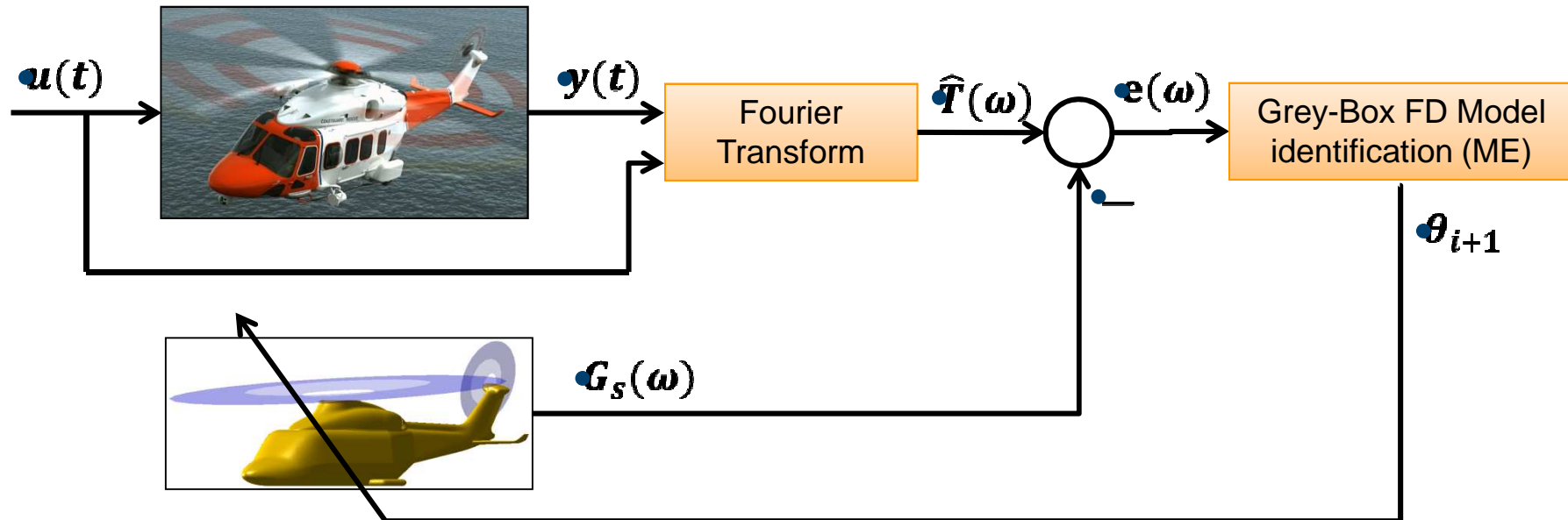
Outline
$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^N (y(t_k) - \hat{y}(t_k, \theta))^T R^{-1} (y(t_k) - \hat{y}(t_k, \theta))$

- Advantage: shorter, **cheaper** and **safer** experiments (DLR 3211 sequences)
- Drawback: computationally **slow** (a lot of data-points)
- Drawback: simulation of unstable models
- Drawback: initial guess needed.



Frequency-domain approaches (e.g., CIFER, see Tischler and Remple 2006)

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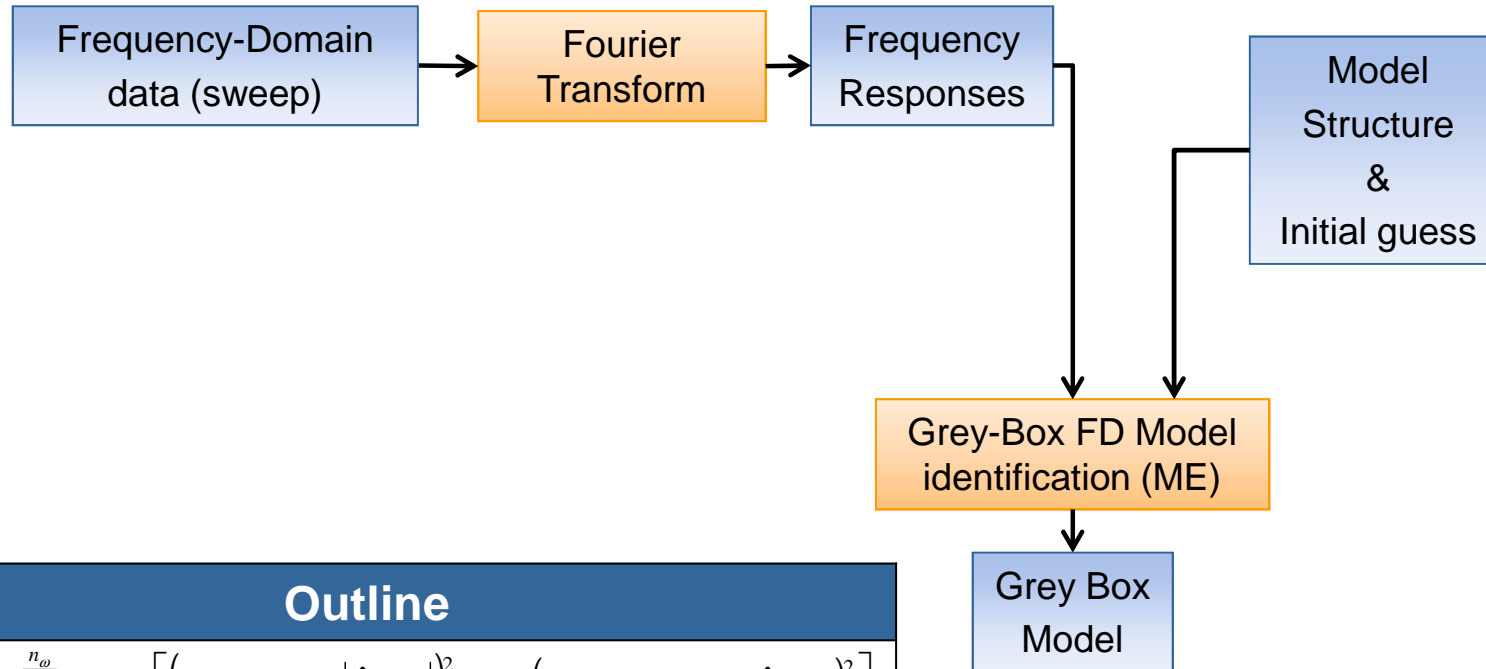
Outline

$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\omega}} W(\omega_i) \left[\left(|G_s(\omega_i, \theta)| - |\hat{T}(\omega_i)| \right)^2 + W_p \left(\angle G_s(\omega_i, \theta) - \angle \hat{T}(\omega_i) \right)^2 \right]$$



Frequency-domain approaches (e.g., CIFER, see Tischler and Remple 2006)

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Outline

$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\omega}} W(\omega_i) \left[\left(|G_s(\omega_i, \theta)| - |\hat{T}(\omega_i)| \right)^2 + W_p \left(\angle G_s(\omega_i, \theta) - \angle \hat{T}(\omega_i) \right)^2 \right]$$

- Advantage: computationally **fast** (few data-points)
- Advantage: deal with unstable system in a very natural way (phase signs)
- Drawback: long and **costly** experiments (sweeps)
- Drawback: initial guess needed.



Non-iterative time-domain approach (e.g., CT subspace model identification methods)

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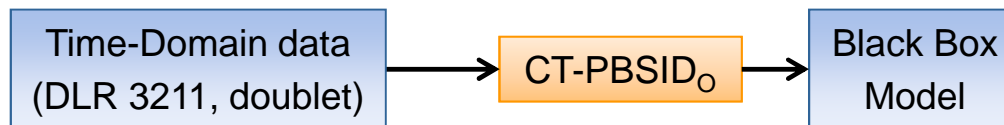


- In the system identification community Subspace Model Identification (SMI) was proposed about 25 years ago to handle black-box MIMO problems in a numerically stable way
- SMI has proved extremely successful in a number of industrial applications
- The discrete-time case has been studied extensively
- The continuous-time case has been investigated in a number of contributions, mainly for the open-loop setting
- Main downside: impossibility to impose a fixed basis to the state space representation, *i.e.*, the identified models are unstructured



Non-iterative time-domain approach (e.g., CT subspace methods, see Bergamasco and Lovera)

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Outline

$$\min_{\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}} J = f(\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}, u(t), y(t))$$

- Advantage: shorter, **cheaper**, and **safer** experiments
- Advantage: computationally **efficient and robust**
- Advantage: no model structure and initial guess (high order model can be eventually considered)
- Drawback: no control on state space basis of identified models, i.e., no physical model.



Continuous-time PBSID algorithm

Model class, assumptions, approach

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- Consider the MIMO LTI continuous-time system

$$dx(t) = Ax(t)dt + Bu(t)dt + Kde(t), \quad x(0) = x_0$$

$$y(t)dt = Cx(t)dt + Du(t)dt + de(t)$$

(in innovation form for simplicity) where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^p$

Assumptions

- $de(t)$ Wiener process
- (A, B, C, D, K) such that (A, C) observable and $(A, [B \ K])$ controllable
- system possibly operating in closed-loop

Approach

- Convert the model to discrete-time via an exact signals-based method
- Apply the discrete-time PBSID SMI algorithm
- Retrieve the original continuous-time model, *i.e.*, (A, B, C, D, K)



Definitions

- Consider the first order all-pass transfer function

$$w(s) = \frac{s - a}{s + a}, \quad a > 0$$

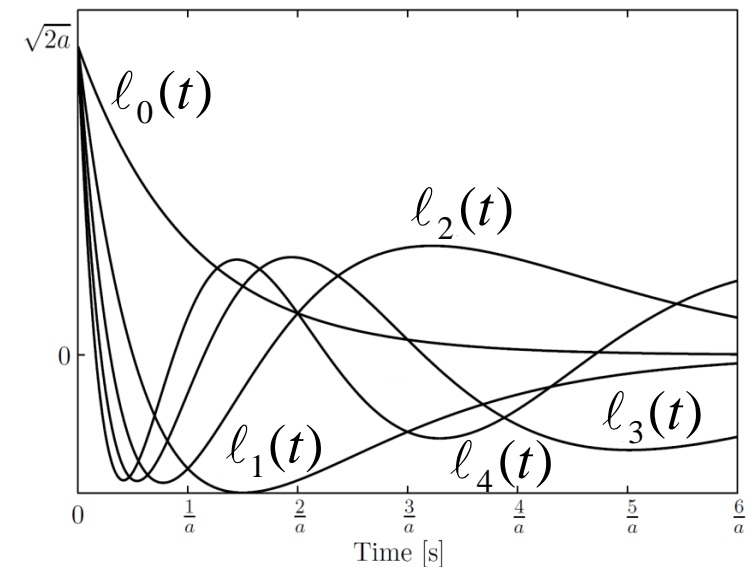
- $w(s)$ generates the family of Laguerre filters, defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_i(s) = w^i(s)\mathcal{L}_0(s), \quad \mathcal{L}_0(s) = \sqrt{2a} \frac{1}{(s + a)}$$

- Denote with $l_i(t)$ the impulse response of the i -th Laguerre filter. The set

$$\{l_0, l_1, \dots, l_i, \dots\}$$

is an orthonormal basis of $L_2(0,1)$.





Continuous-time PBSID algorithm

From continuous-time to discrete-time: system transformation

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$$\begin{aligned} dx(t) &= Ax(t)dt + Bu(t)dt + Kde(t) \\ y(t)dt &= Cx(t)dt + Du(t)dt + de(t) \end{aligned}$$

Matrix
transformations

Signal
projections

$$A_o = (A - aI)^{-1}(A + aI)$$

$$B_o = \sqrt{2a}(A - aI)^{-1}B$$

$$C_o = -\sqrt{2a}C(A - aI)^{-1}$$

$$D_o = D - C(A - aI)^{-1}B$$

$$\tilde{u}(k) = \int_0^{\infty} l_k(t)u(t)dt$$

$$\tilde{y}(k) = \int_0^{\infty} l_k(t)y(t)dt$$

$$\tilde{e}(k) = \int_0^{\infty} l_k(t)de(t)$$

$$\xi(k+1) = A_o\xi(k) + B_o\tilde{u}(k) + K_o\tilde{e}(k)$$

$$\tilde{y}(k) = C_o\xi(k) + D_o\tilde{u}(k) + \tilde{e}(k)$$

Discrete index k : basis order



The discrete-time PBSID algorithm: model in predictor form

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Consider the discrete-time system

$$\begin{aligned}\xi(k+1) &= A_o \xi(k) + B_o \tilde{u}(k) + K_o \tilde{e}(k) \\ \tilde{y}(k) &= C_o \xi(k) + D_o \tilde{u}(k) + \tilde{e}(k)\end{aligned}$$

Innovation
Form

Closed-loop predictor matrices

$$\bar{A}_o = A_o - K_o C_o$$

$$\bar{B}_o = B_o - K_o D_o$$

$$\tilde{z}(k) = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{u}(k) \\ \tilde{y}(k) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \tilde{B}_o = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{B}_o & K_o \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\xi(k+1) &= \bar{A}_o \xi(k) + \tilde{B}_o \tilde{z}(k) \\ \tilde{y}(k) &= C_o \xi(k) + D_o \tilde{u}(k) + \tilde{e}(k)\end{aligned}$$

Prediction
Form



The discrete-time PBSID algorithm: the data equation

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Iterating $p-1$ times the state equation one gets

$$\begin{aligned}\xi(k+2) &= \bar{A}_o^2 \xi(k) + [\bar{A}_o \tilde{B}_o \quad \tilde{B}_o] \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{z}(k) \\ \tilde{z}(k+1) \end{bmatrix} \\ &\vdots \\ \xi(k+p) &= \bar{A}_o^p \xi(k) + \mathcal{K}^p Z^{0,p-1}\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\mathcal{K}^p = [\bar{A}_o^{p-1} \tilde{B}_o \quad \dots \quad \tilde{B}_o]$$

Extended controllability
matrix

and

$$Z^{0,p-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{z}(k) \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{z}(k+p-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

Input-output
"past" data



The discrete-time PBSID algorithm: the data equation

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- The predictor is AS by assumption, so

$$\bar{A}_o^p \xi(k) \simeq 0$$

for sufficiently large values of p and

$$\xi(k+p) \simeq \mathcal{K}^p Z^{0,p-1}$$

p : past window length
 f : future window length

- Then, the input-output behaviour of the system is given by the data equation:

$$\tilde{y}(k+p) \simeq C_o \mathcal{K}^p Z^{0,p-1} + D_o \tilde{u}(k+p) + \tilde{e}(k+p)$$

⋮

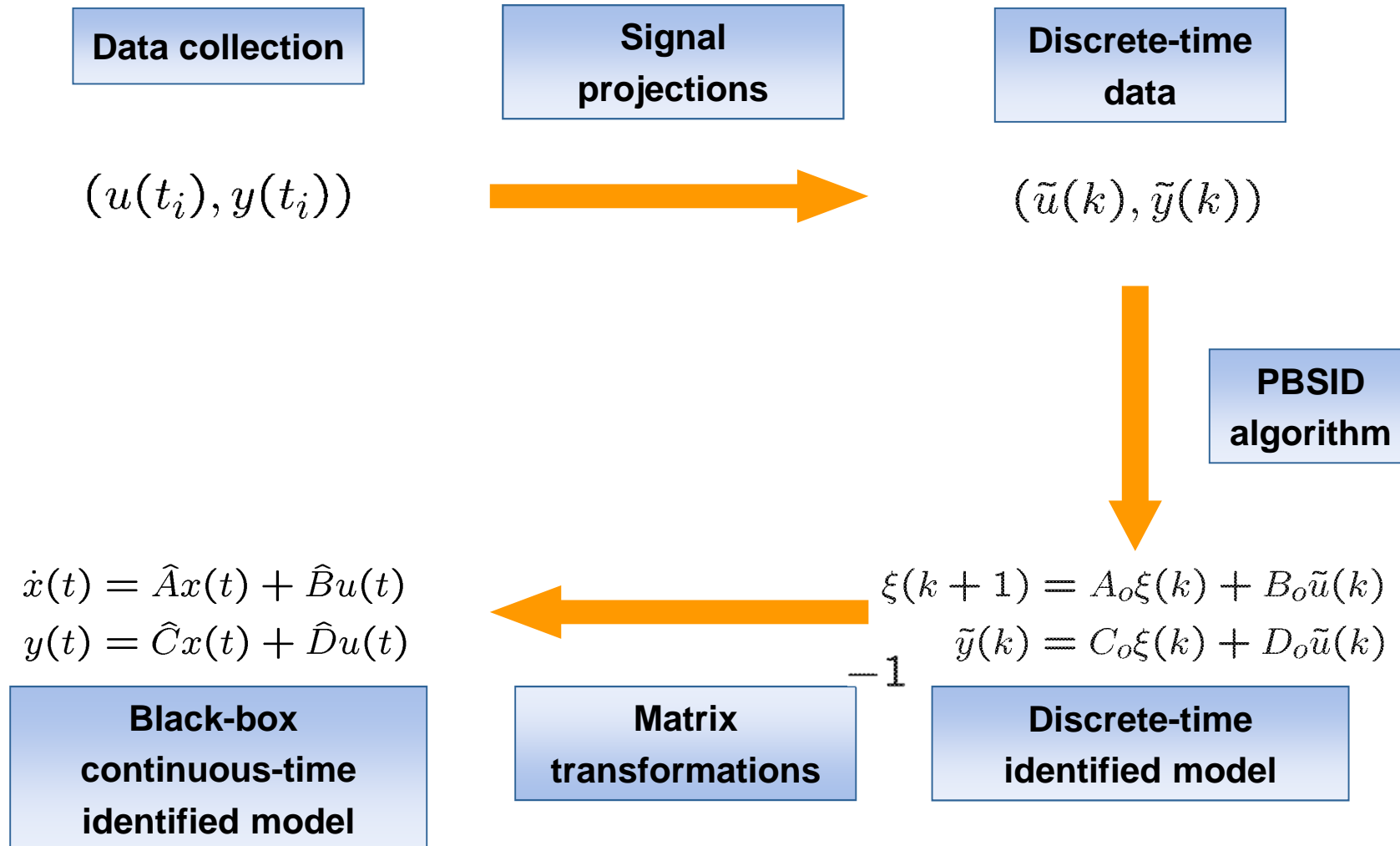
$$\tilde{y}(k+p+f) \simeq C_o \mathcal{K}^p Z^{f,p+f-1} + D_o \tilde{u}(k+p+f) + \tilde{e}(k+p+f)$$

- Finally, the state space matrices can be recovered from the data equation using Least Squares techniques.



Continuous-time PBSID algorithm Summary

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- The computation of the signals transformations

$$\tilde{u}(k) = \int_0^{\infty} \ell_k(t)u(t)dt \quad \tilde{y}(k) = \int_0^{\infty} \ell_k(t)y(t)dt$$

allows to deal with **non uniform sampling**.

- Data from **different experiments** can be naturally **merged** in the identification procedure.
- The identification algorithm is based on QR and SVD factorisations (very efficient implementations are available in Matlab).



- The asymptotic theory of SMI methods has been studied extensively
- Estimates are asymptotically Gaussian
- Expressions for the asymptotic variance are extremely cumbersome (see Chiuso 2005, Chiuso 2007, van Wingerden 2012).
- Proposed approach: use the bootstrap method to estimate model uncertainty (along the lines of Bittanti, Lovera 2000)
- Analysis of the bootstrap method for CT SMI is ongoing.



$$(u_i, y_i) \quad i = 0, \dots, N$$



$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= \hat{A}x + \hat{B}u + \hat{K}e \\ y &= \hat{C}x + \hat{D}u + e \end{aligned}$$



$$e \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_e^2)$$



$$\begin{matrix} e_i^{(1)} & e_i^{(2)} & e_i^{(4)} \\ e_i^{(3)} & e_i^{(\dots)} & e_i^{(M)} \end{matrix}$$



$$\begin{matrix} (u_i, e_i^{(1)}, \tilde{y}_i^{(1)}) & (u_i, e_i^{(\dots)}, \tilde{y}_i^{(\dots)}) \\ (u_i, e_i^{(2)}, \tilde{y}_i^{(2)}) & (u_i, e_i^{(M)}, \tilde{y}_i^{(M)}) \end{matrix}$$



$$\begin{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{A} & \hat{B} \\ \hat{C} & \hat{D} \end{bmatrix}^{(1)} & \begin{bmatrix} \hat{A} & \hat{B} \\ \hat{C} & \hat{D} \end{bmatrix}^{(\dots)} \\ \begin{bmatrix} \hat{A} & \hat{B} \\ \hat{C} & \hat{D} \end{bmatrix}^{(M)} & \end{matrix}$$



- SMI enabled the possibility of dealing with MIMO state space identification in a simple and natural way
- Downside: it is hard to impose a fixed basis to the state space representation. Therefore, it is hard to
 - impose a parameterisation to the state space matrices
 - exploit prior knowledge
 - recover numerical values for physical parameters.
- The problem has been recently addressed in, e.g., Xie & Ljung 2002, Parrilo & Ljung 2003, Prot *et al.* 2012, by solving the bilinear equations resulting from the definition of state space similarity transformations.



Black-box to grey-box model transformation in the frequency-domain

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- Black-box identified model

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= \hat{A}x(t) + \hat{B}u(t) \\ y(t) &= \hat{C}x(t) + \hat{D}u(t) \end{aligned} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \hat{G}_{ns}(s)$$

- Grey-box model structure

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= A(\theta)x(t) + B(\theta)u(t) \\ y(t) &= C(\theta)x(t) + D(\theta)u(t) \end{aligned} \quad \longrightarrow \quad G_s(s; \theta)$$

- H_∞ approach in frequency-domain

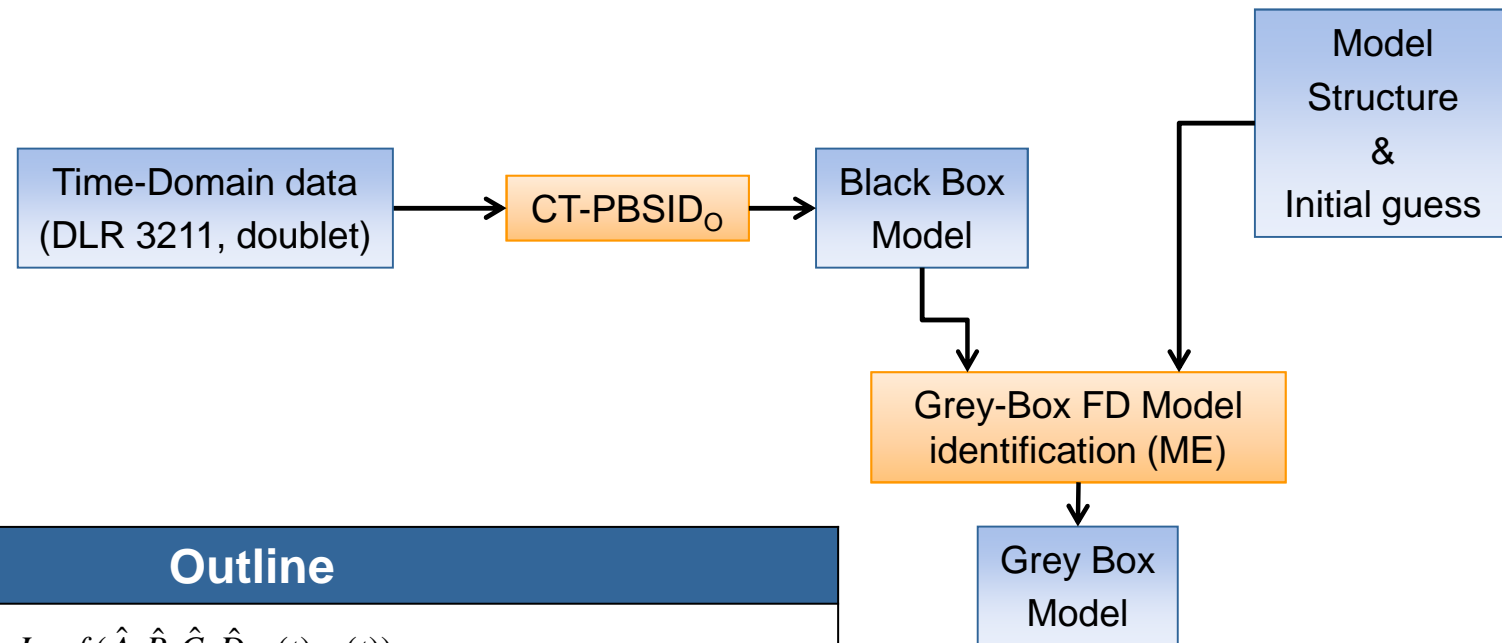
$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \|\hat{G}_{ns}(s) - G_s(s; \theta)\|_\infty$$

- Model Error (ME) approach in frequency-domain

$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_\omega} W(\omega_i) \left[\left(|G_s(\omega_i, \theta)| - |\hat{G}_{ns}(\omega_i)| \right)^2 + W_p \left(\angle G_s(\omega_i, \theta) - \angle \hat{G}_{ns}(\omega_i) \right)^2 \right]$$



- The optimization problem can be solved using some recent algorithms available in literature, see Apkarian & Noll 2006 (and in Matlab R2012a, see Gahinet & Apkarian 2011).
- The estimation of the similarity transformation is not necessary (this enables handling of larger problems).
- Frequency-domain data (if available) can be included in the optimization problem.

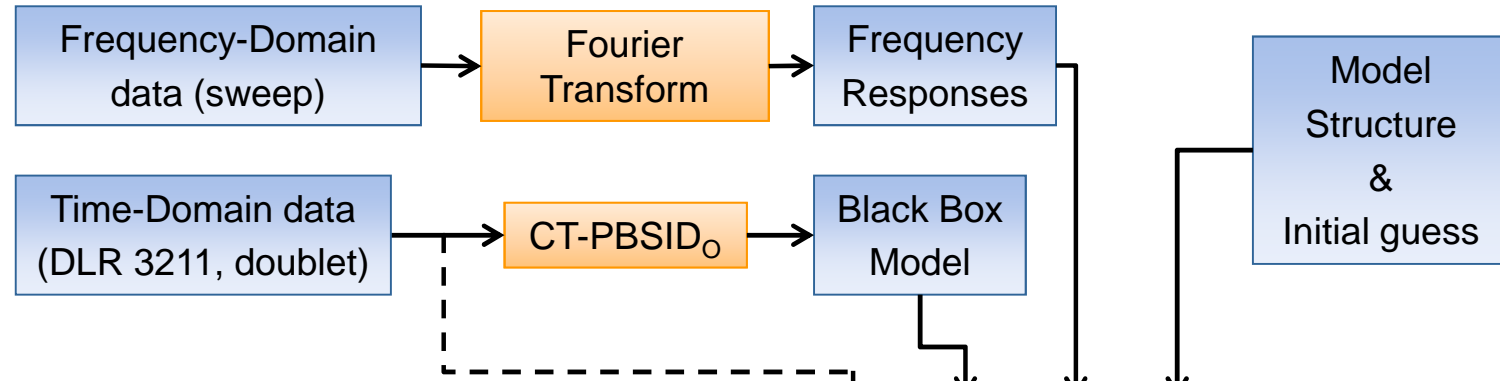


Outline

1.
$$\min_{\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}} J = f(\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}, u(t), y(t))$$

2.
$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\omega}} W(\omega_i) \left[\left(|G_s(\omega_i, \theta)| - |\hat{G}_{ns}(\omega_i)| \right)^2 + W_p \left(\angle G_s(\omega_i, \theta) - \angle \hat{G}_{ns}(\omega_i) \right)^2 \right]$$

- Advantage: shorter, **cheaper**, and **safer** experiments (DLR 3211 sequences)
- Advantage: computationally **efficient and robust**



Outline

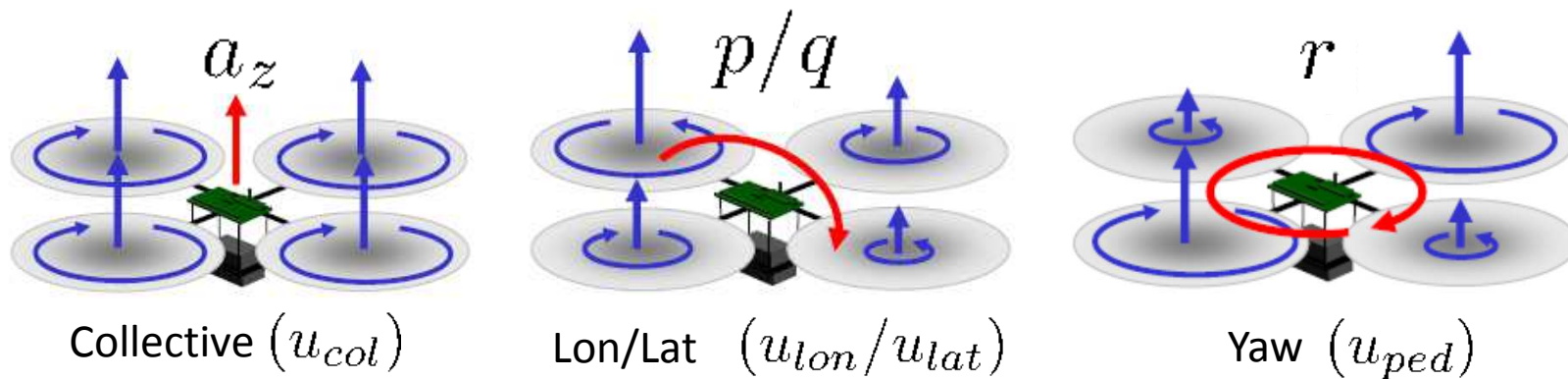
1.
$$\min_{\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}} J = f(\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}, \hat{D}, u(t), y(t))$$
2.
$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\omega}} W_1(\omega_i) \left[\left(|G_s(\omega_i, \theta)| - |\hat{G}_{ns}(\omega_i)| \right)^2 + W_p \left(\angle G_s(\omega_i, \theta) - \angle \hat{G}_{ns}(\omega_i) \right)^2 \right]$$
3.
$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^N (y(t_k) - \hat{y}(t_k, \theta))^T R^{-1} (y(t_k) - \hat{y}(t_k, \theta))$$

- Advantage: FD data (when available) can be eventually included in the optimization problem
- Advantage: all kind of (appropriate) data can be used in the same procedure



Experimental setup

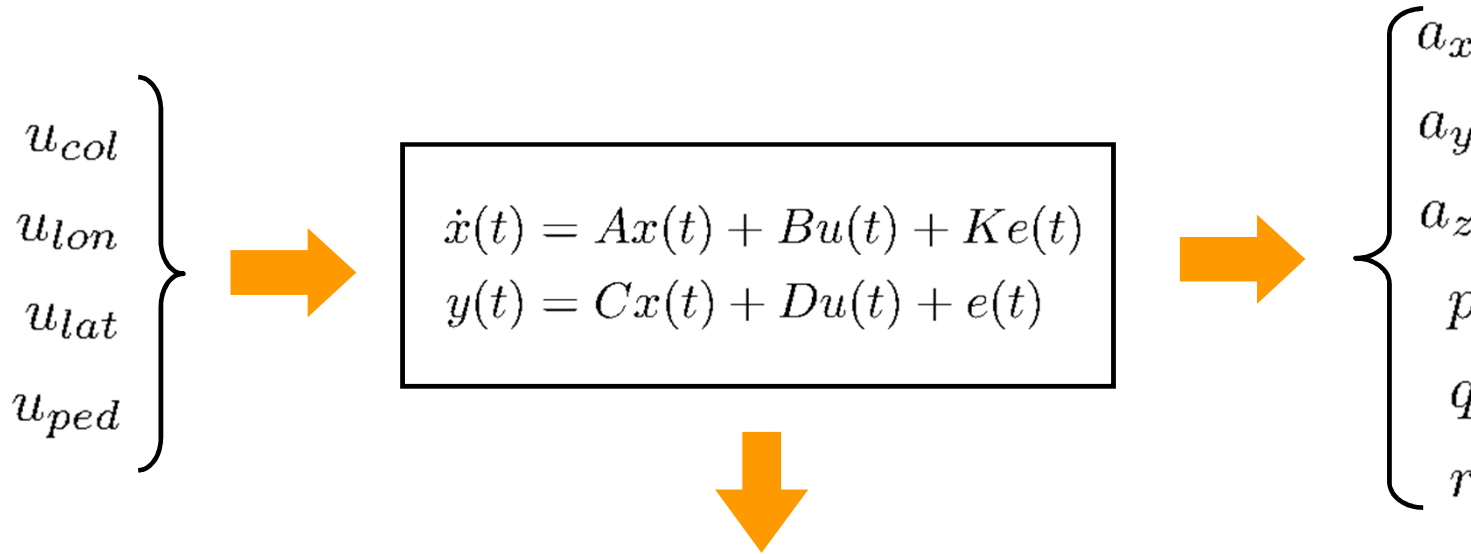
- Mikrokopter platform
- Equipped for outdoor flight
- Sampling onboard at 100Hz
- Automatic excitation
- Attitude control (closed-loop)



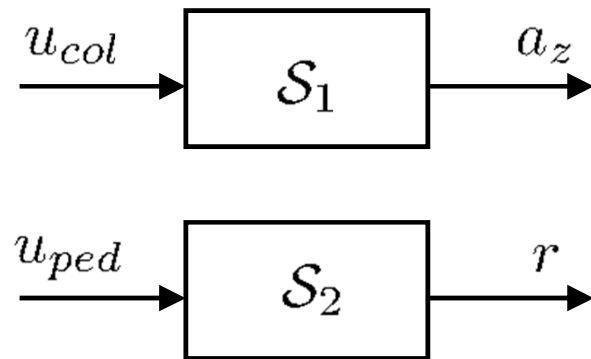


Case studies: a small quadrotor

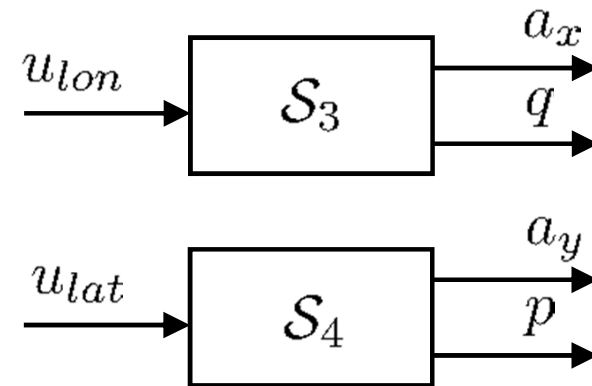
Hover condition



Stable modes

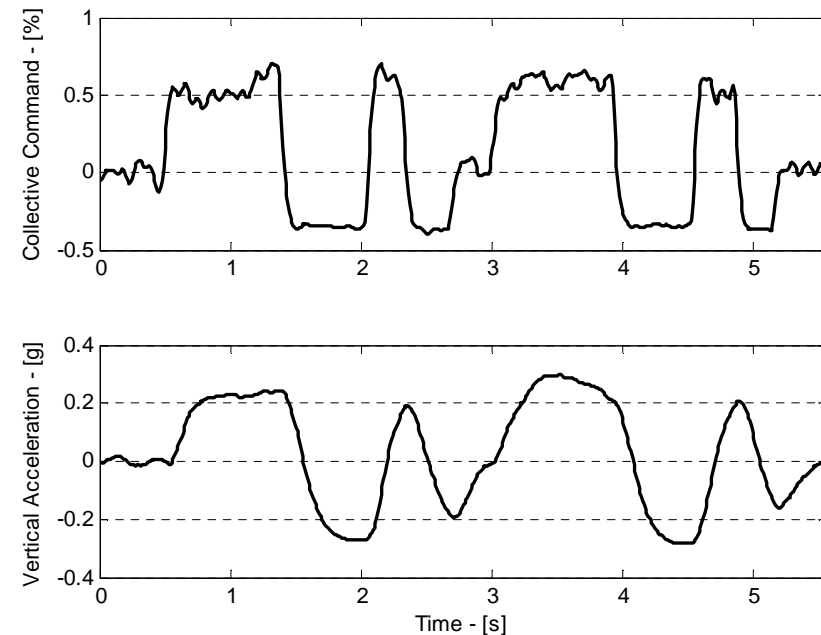


Unstable modes





- Manual excitation too slow → automatic excitation
- Input signal:
3211 piece-wise constant sequence
- Input channels are excited one by one
- Identification phase
Multiple 3211 datasets (~20s)
- Cross-validation phase (order and parameters selection)
a 3211 dataset (~7s)
- Validation: response to doublet inputs.





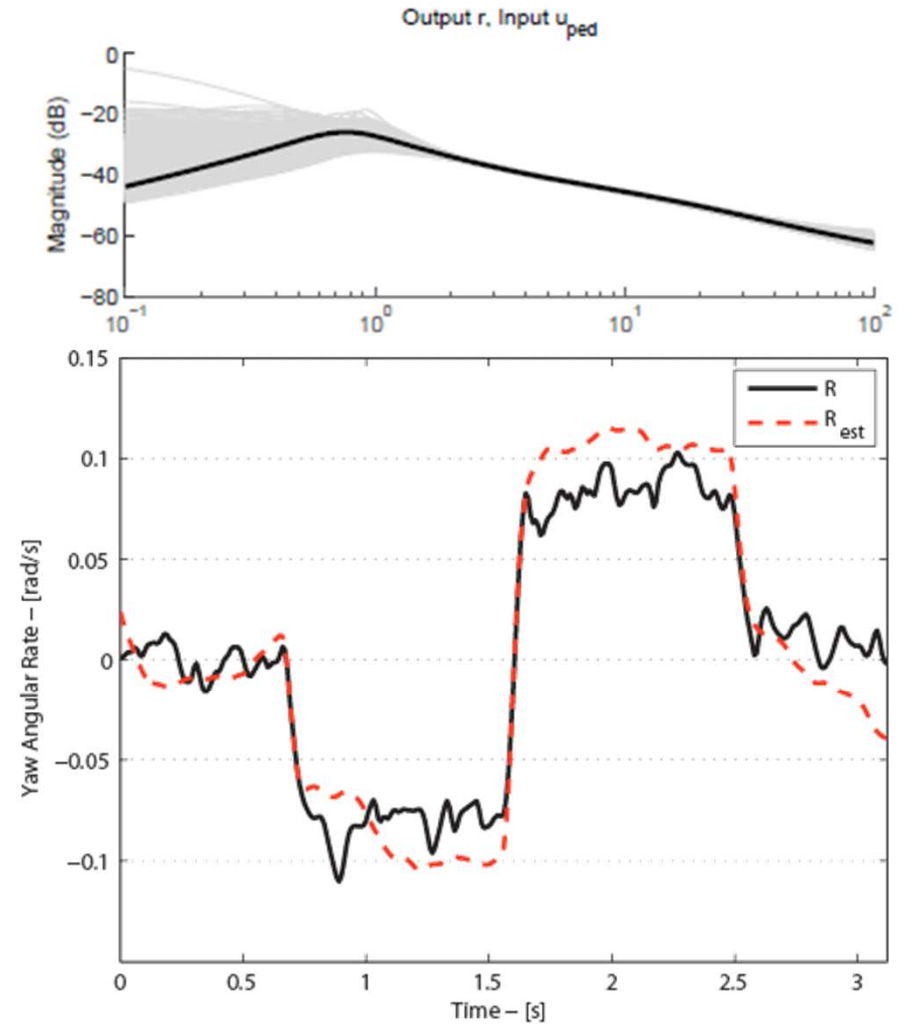
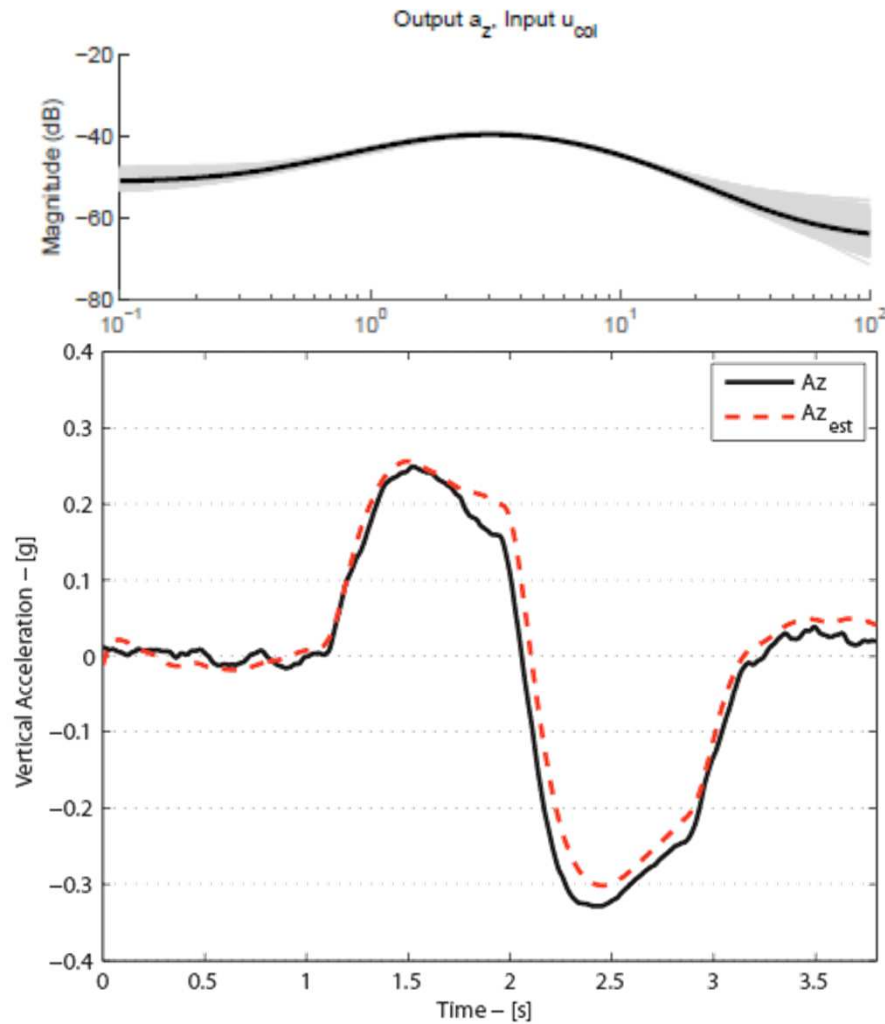
Case studies: a small quadrotor

Collective and yaw models



Collective

Yaw





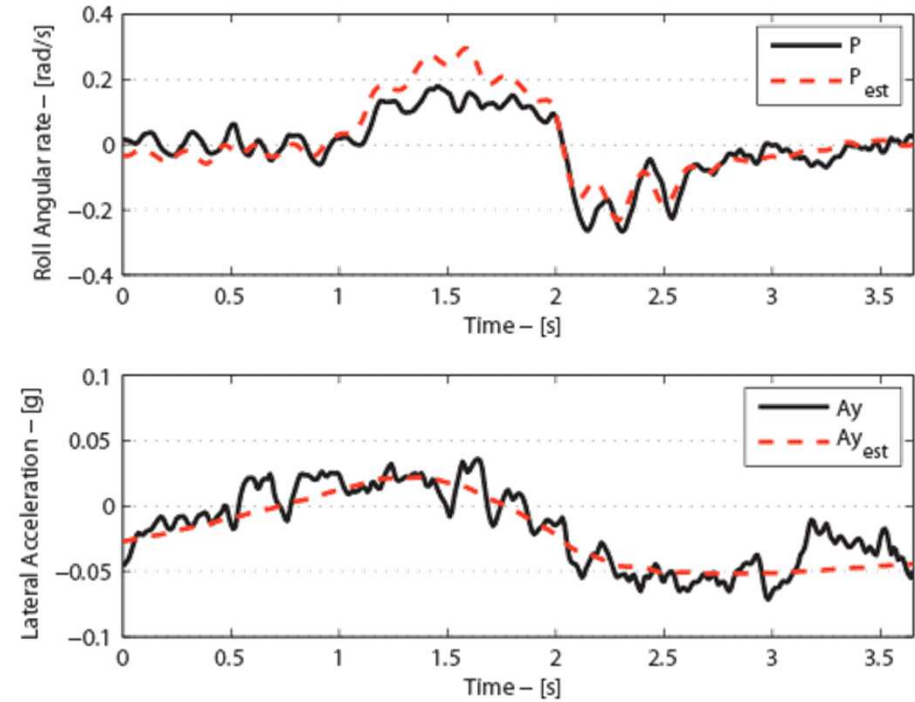
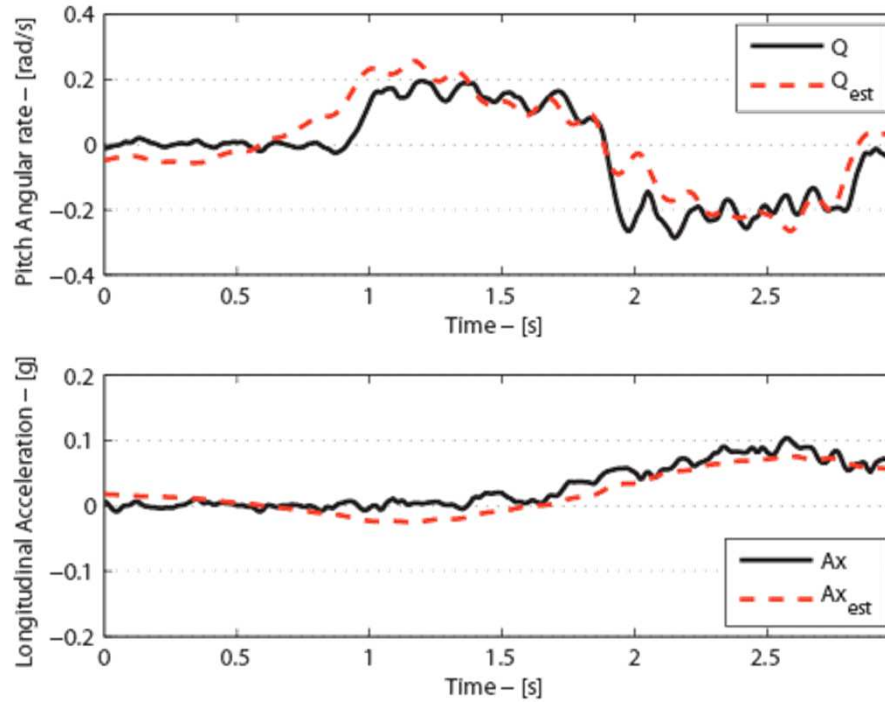
Case studies: a small quadrotor

Longitudinal and lateral models: TD validation



Longitudinal

Lateral



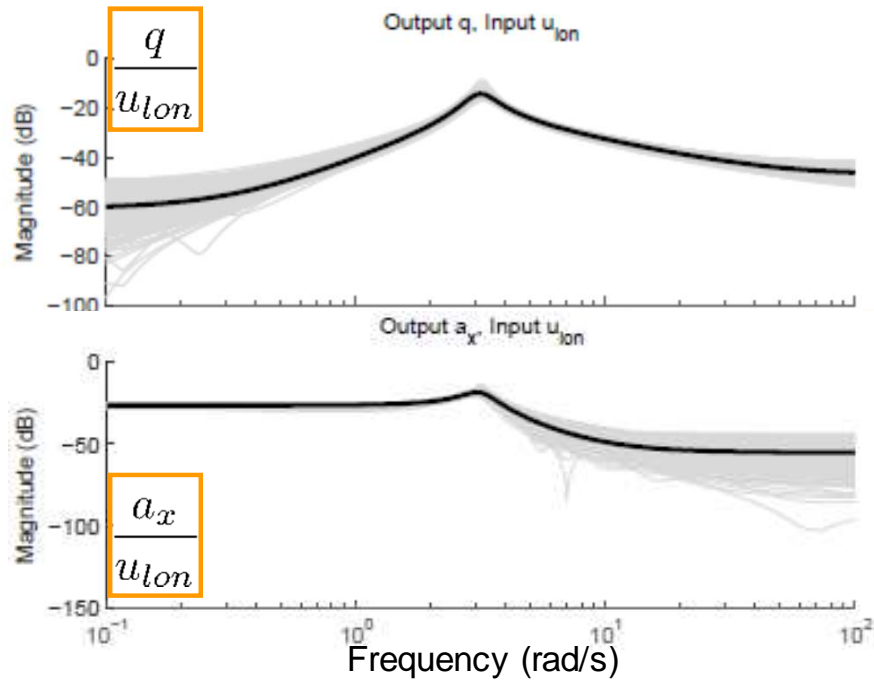


Case studies: a small quadrotor

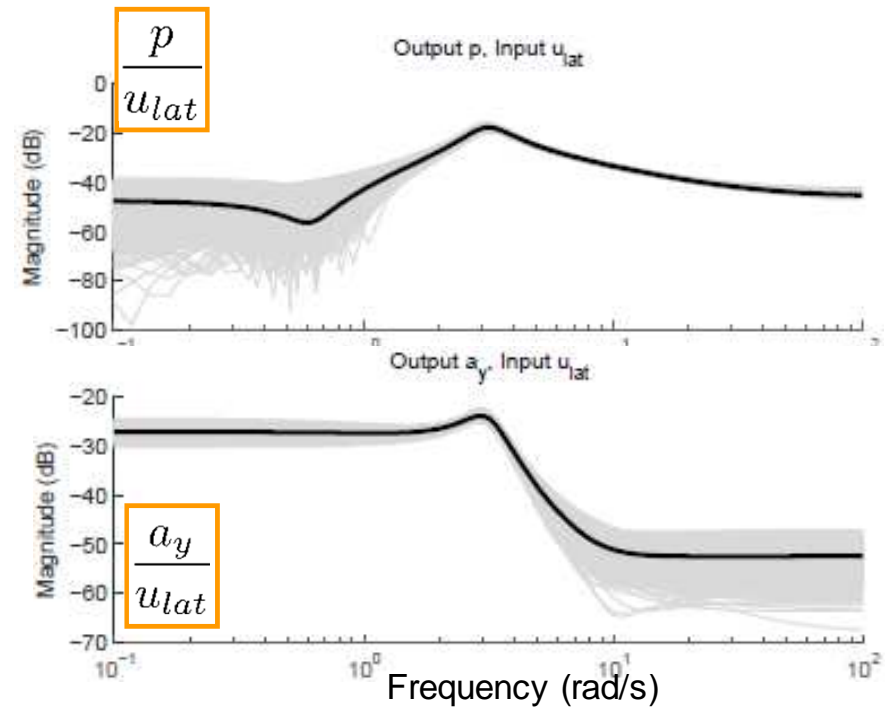
Longitudinal and lateral models: Bode plots



Longitudinal



Lateral





Problem: identification of the pitch attitude dynamics for the Aermatica Anteos RPA.

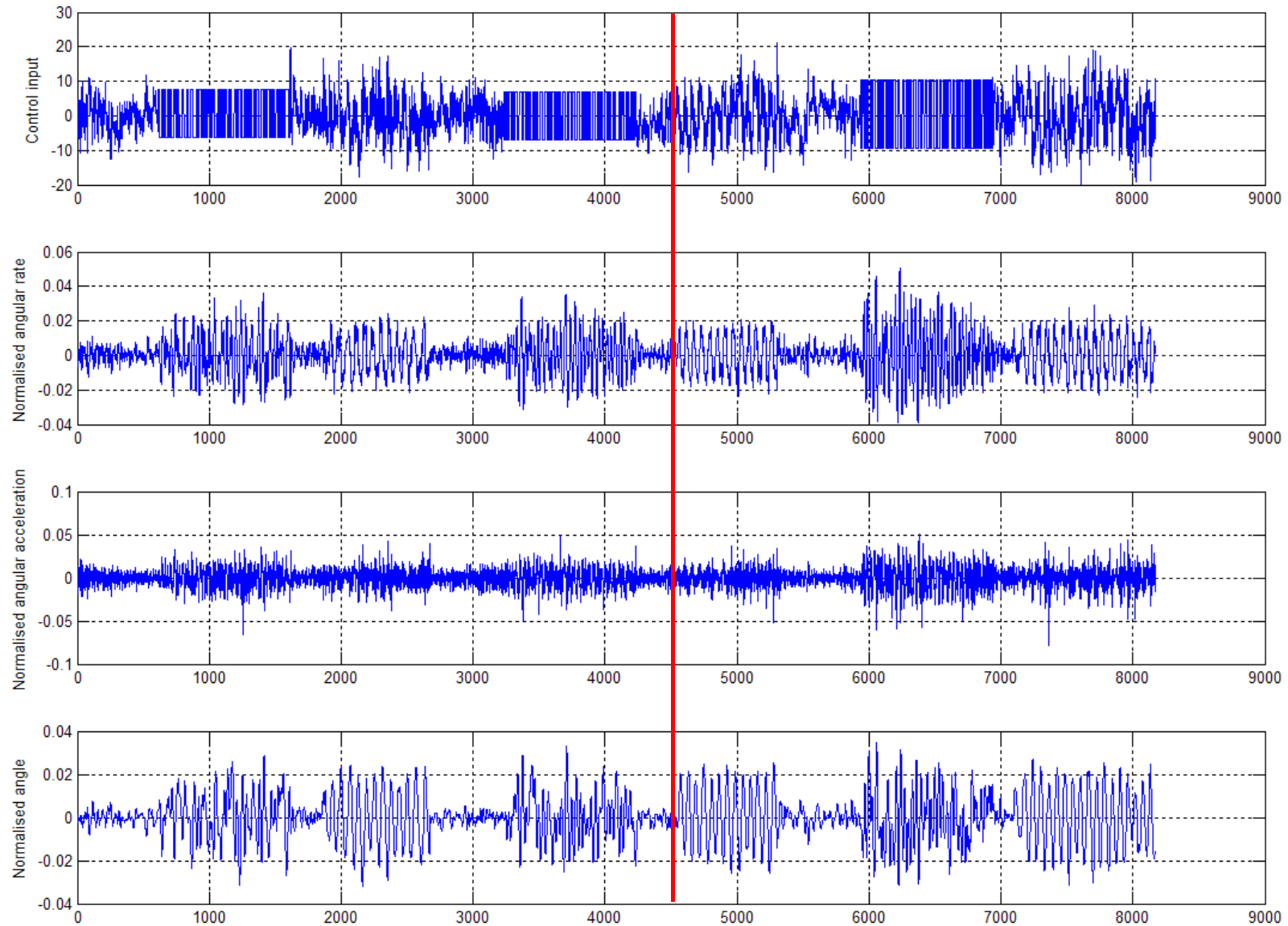




Case studies: a not-so-small quadrotor

Experimental data: indoor testing

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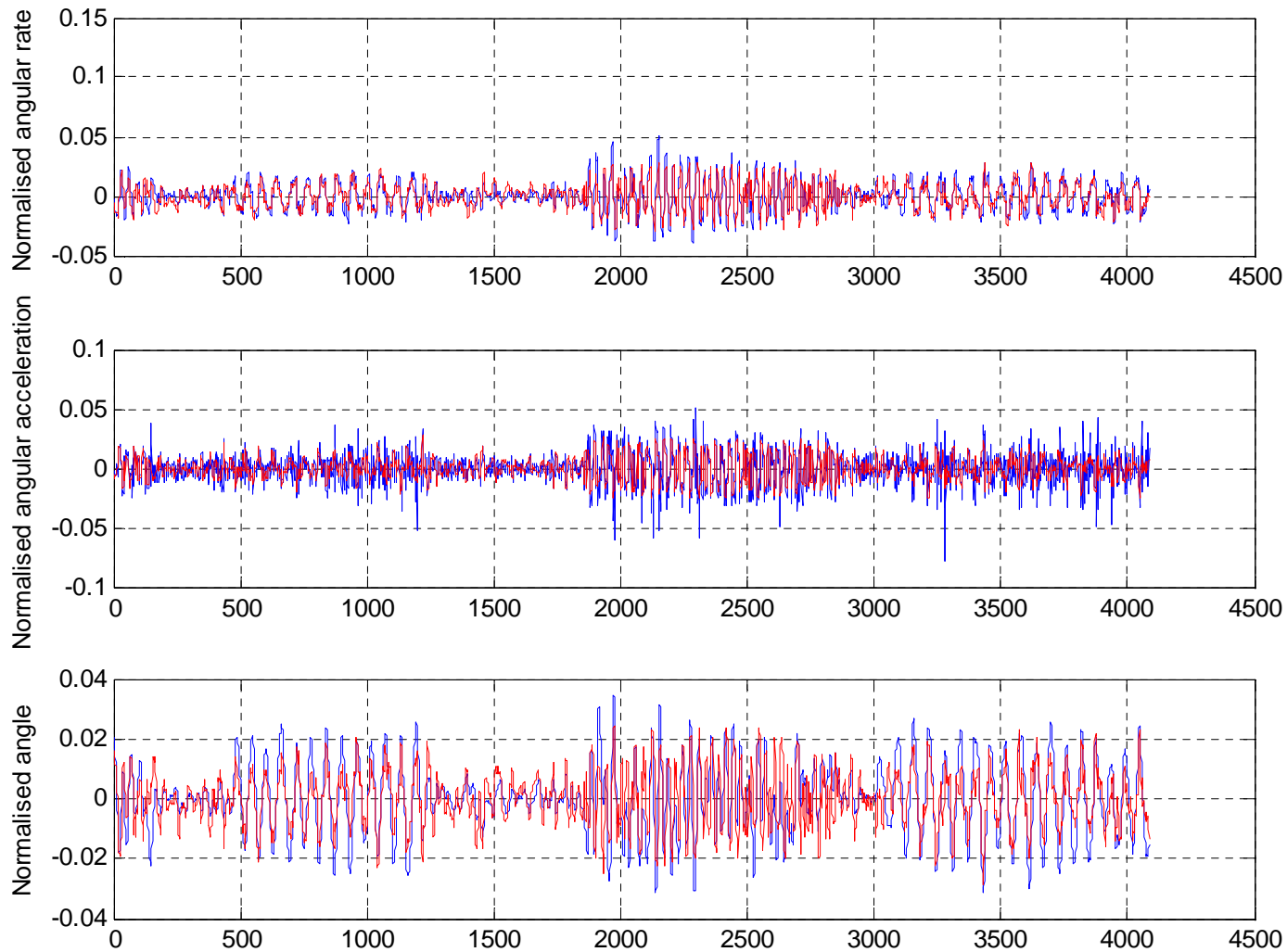


Case studies: a not-so-small quadrotor

Results: black-box model



Pitch response, identified from indoor data





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter



Research project aimed at developing methods and tools for identification of full-scale helicopter flight dynamics.



Results obtained in piloted simulations (flight simulator based based on the FlightLab code).



AW189 model identification

Simulator introduction and data description



<http://www.flightlab.com/>

- AW189 simulator: nonlinear model with certified FCS, 80kts steady flight condition
- 4 inputs and 8 outputs are considered

$$u = [\delta_{col} \quad \delta_{lat} \quad \delta_{lon} \quad \delta_{ped}]^T \quad y = [p \quad q \quad r \quad \vartheta \quad \varphi \quad a_x \quad a_y \quad a_z]^T$$

- Each input has been excited separately
- Time-domain data:
 - 8 datasets: 2 for each input channel (DLR3211 for identification, doublet for cross-validation)
 - Manual excitation
- Frequency-domain data:
 - 8 datasets: 2 for each input channel (2xSweep)
 - Automatic excitation



- LTI MIMO model

$$\dot{x}(t) = A(\theta)x(t) + B(\theta)u(t)$$

$$y(t) = C(\theta)x(t) + D(\theta)u(t)$$

- where the state vector (6-DOF) is

$$x = [\varphi \quad \vartheta \quad u \quad v \quad w \quad p \quad q \quad r]^T$$

- Physical model has 64 unknowns parameters θ to be estimated
- Validation dataset: a manual pseudo-random excitation in closed-loop
- Root Mean Square error of validation dataset as comparison index

$$RMS_{err} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y(t_i) - \hat{y}(t_i))^2}$$

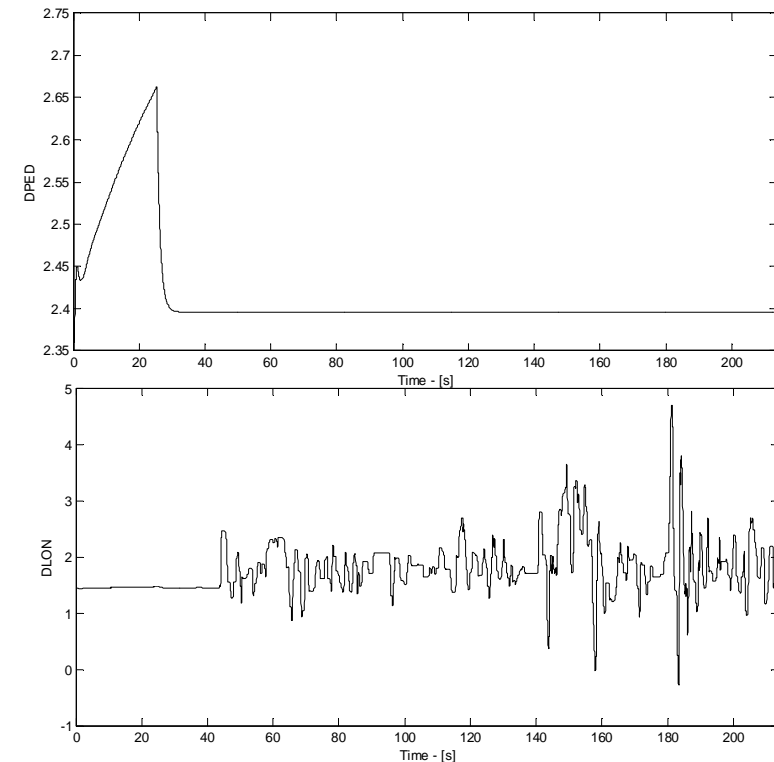
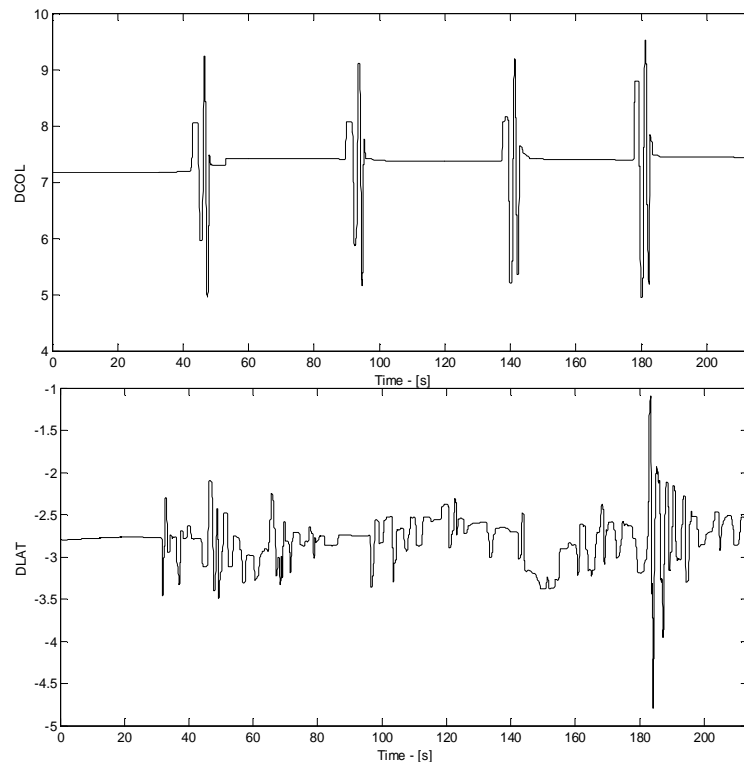


Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

Input sequences 1/2



- Primary input manually excited using 3211 sequence and frequency sweeps; secondary inputs manually controlled to stay close to trim
- Several repetitions for each manoeuvre are collected



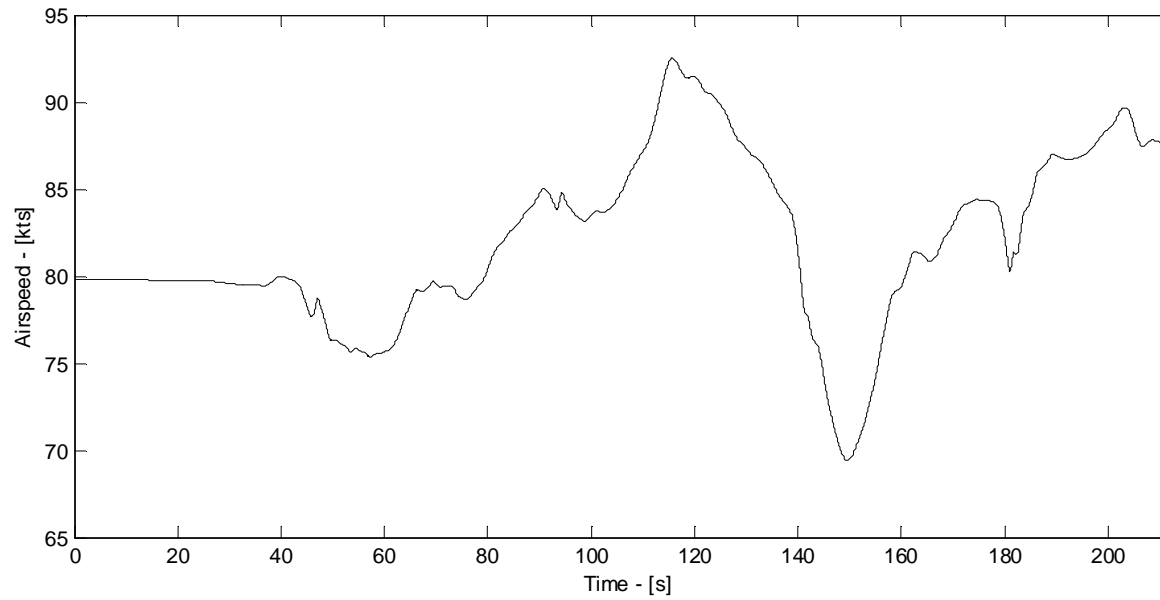


Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

Input sequences 2/2



Close to trim?





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

Model structure



- FLFM: FlightLAB linearised full-model (55 states)
- FLRM: FlightLAB linearised reduced-model (8 states)

$$M\dot{x}(t) = Fx(t) + Gu(t)$$

$$y(t) = H_0x(t) + H_1\dot{x}(t)$$

- Grey-box model with 64 free parameters is initialized with FLRM

Total	No. Free M Terms	No. Free F Terms	No. Free G Terms	No. Free Tau Terms
64	0	36	24	4

- State vector

$$x = [\varphi \ \vartheta \ u \ v \ w \ p \ q \ r]^T$$

- Input vector

$$u = [\delta_{col} \ \delta_{lat} \ \delta_{lon} \ \delta_{ped}]^T$$

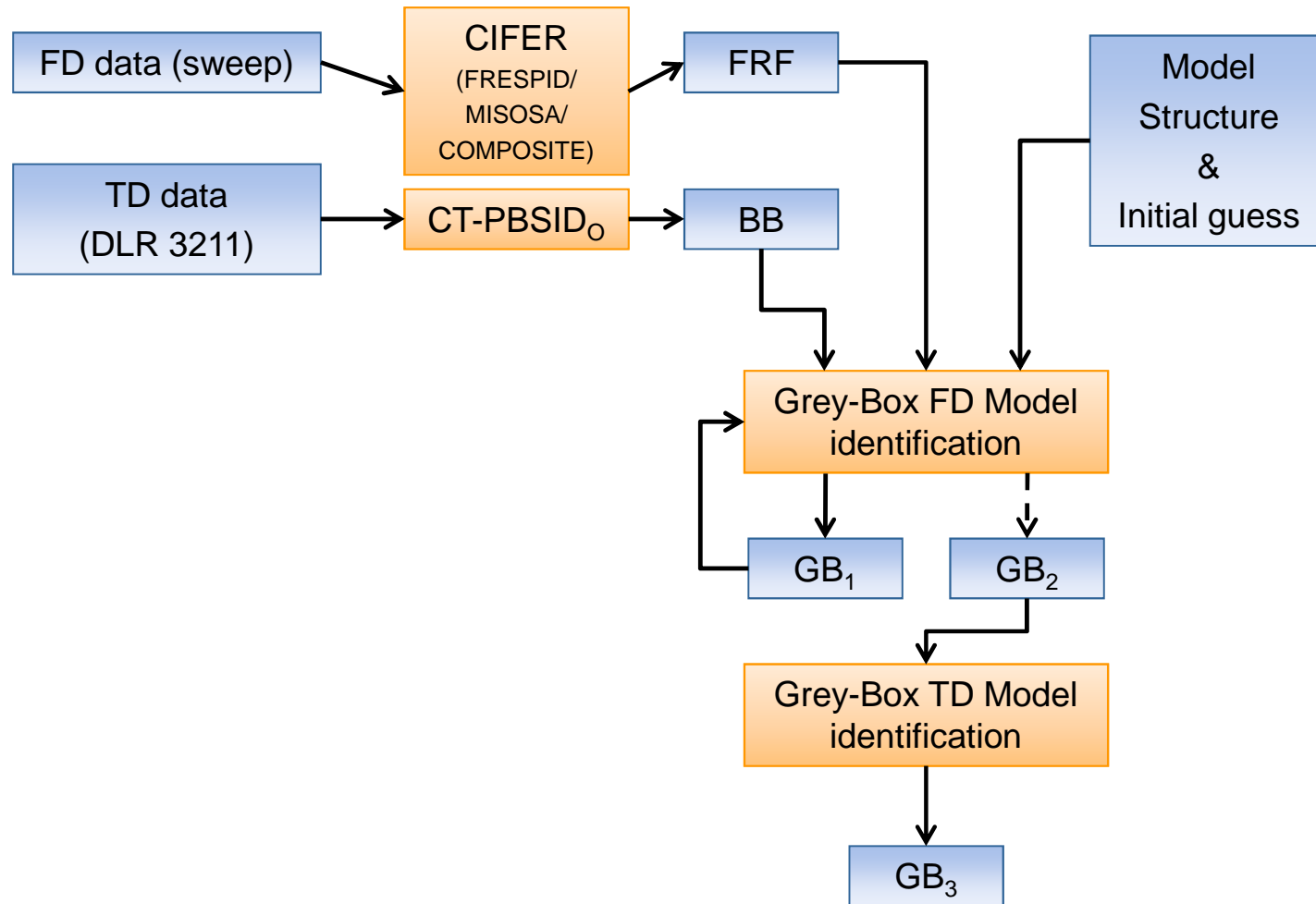
- Output vector

$$y = [p \ q \ r \ \vartheta \ \varphi \ a_x \ a_y \ a_z]^T$$



Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

Overall approach



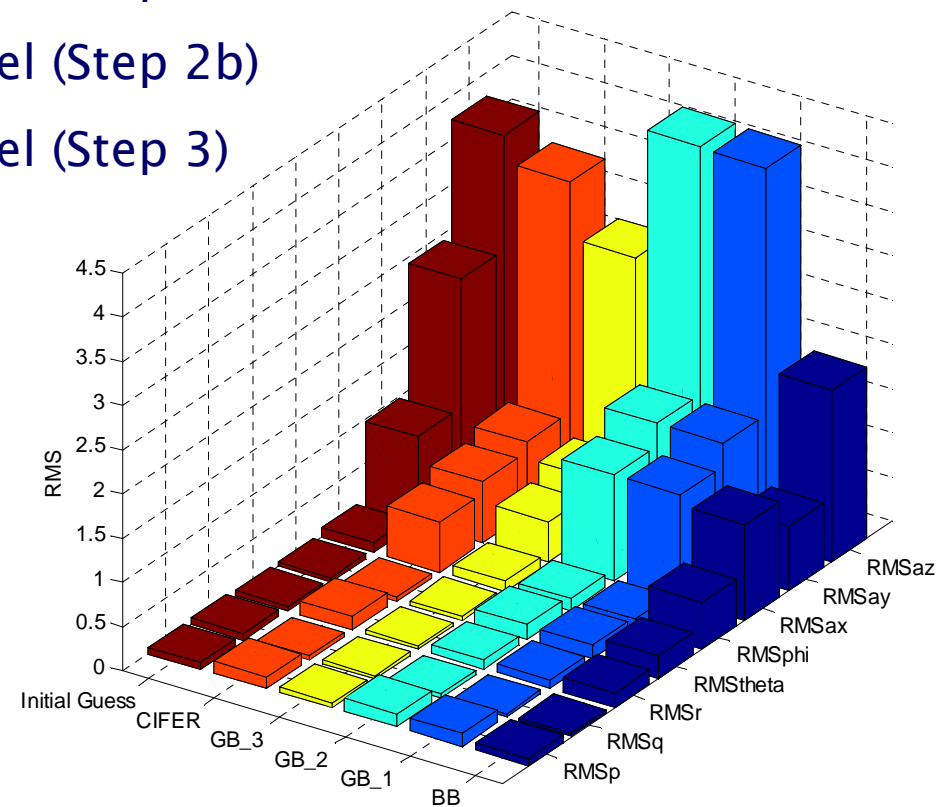


Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

Validation results



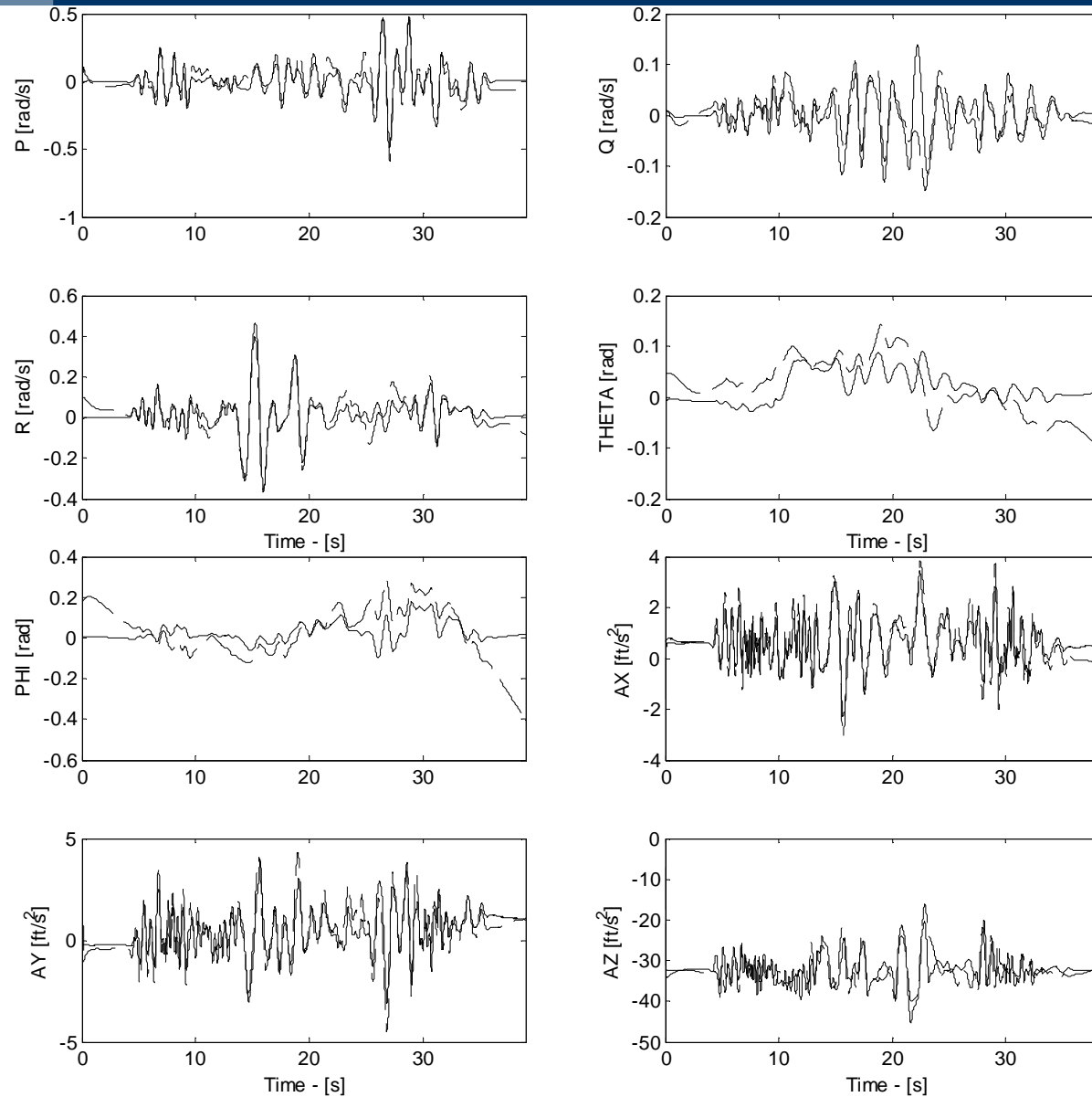
- Root Mean Square Error comparison
 - BB: Black-box identified model
 - GB_1: Grey-box identified model (Step 2a)
 - GB_2: Grey-box identified model (Step 2b)
 - GB_3: Grey-box identified model (Step 3)
 - CIFER
 - Initial Guess





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

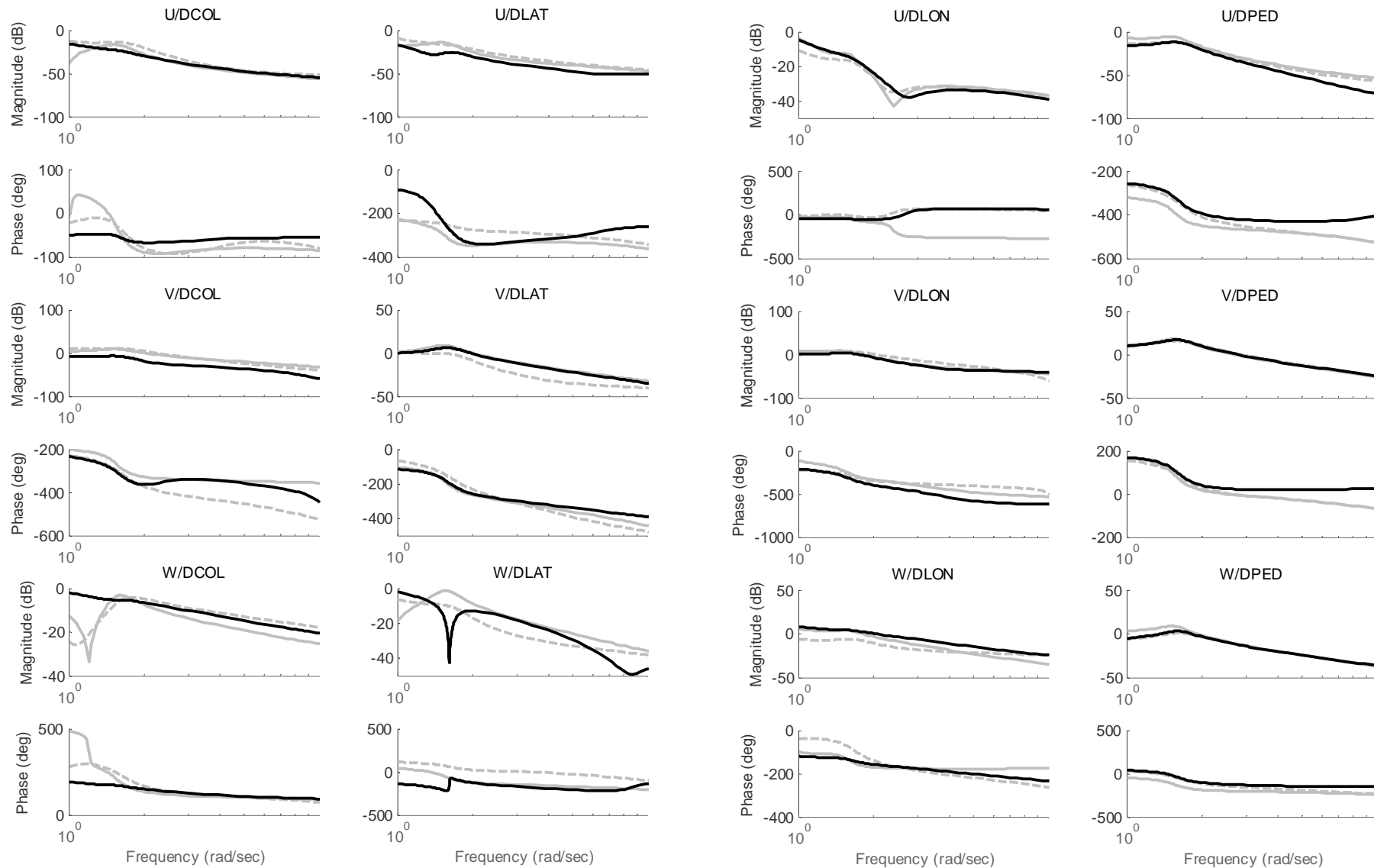
Time-domain comparison





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

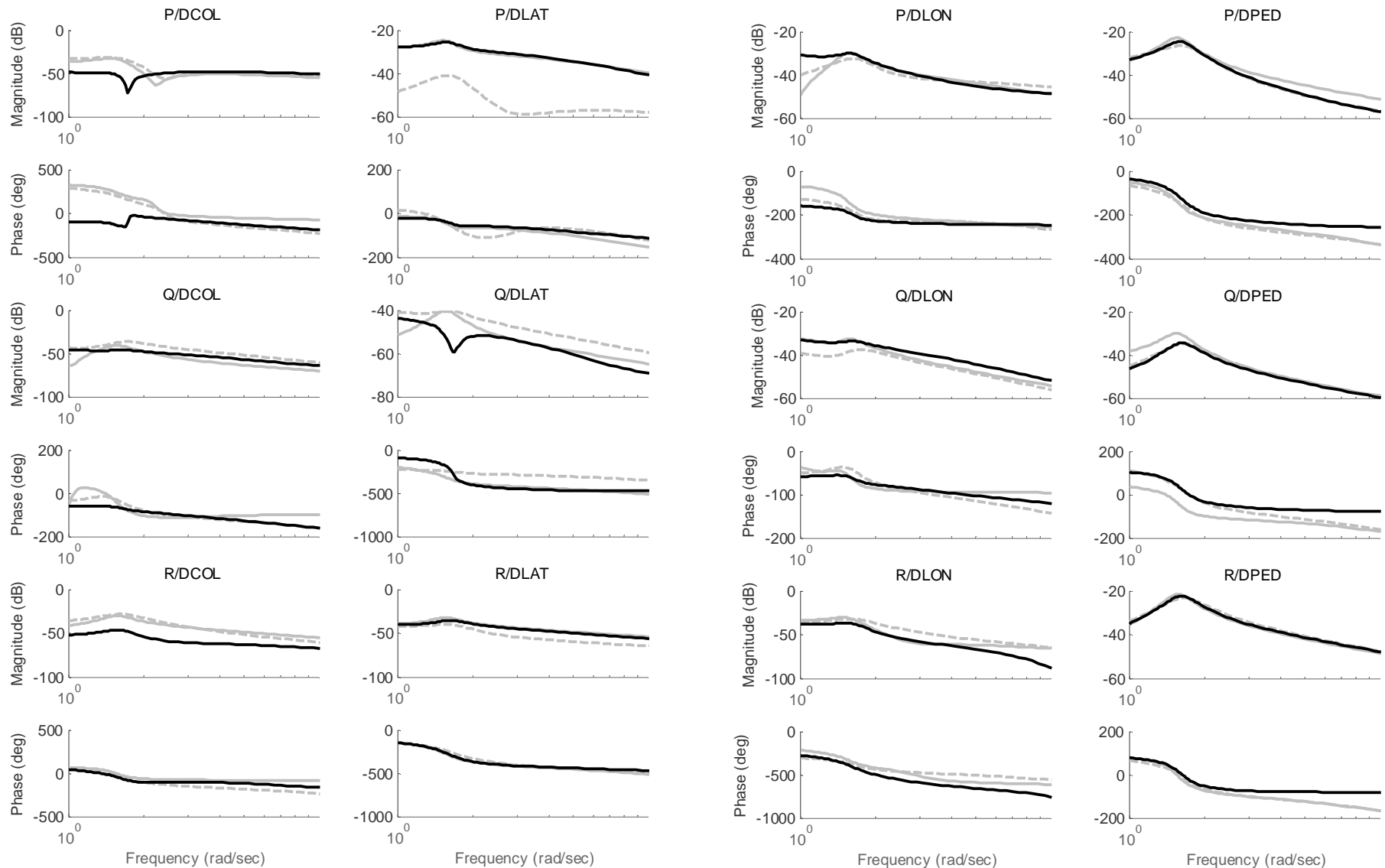
Frequency responses comparison 1/4





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

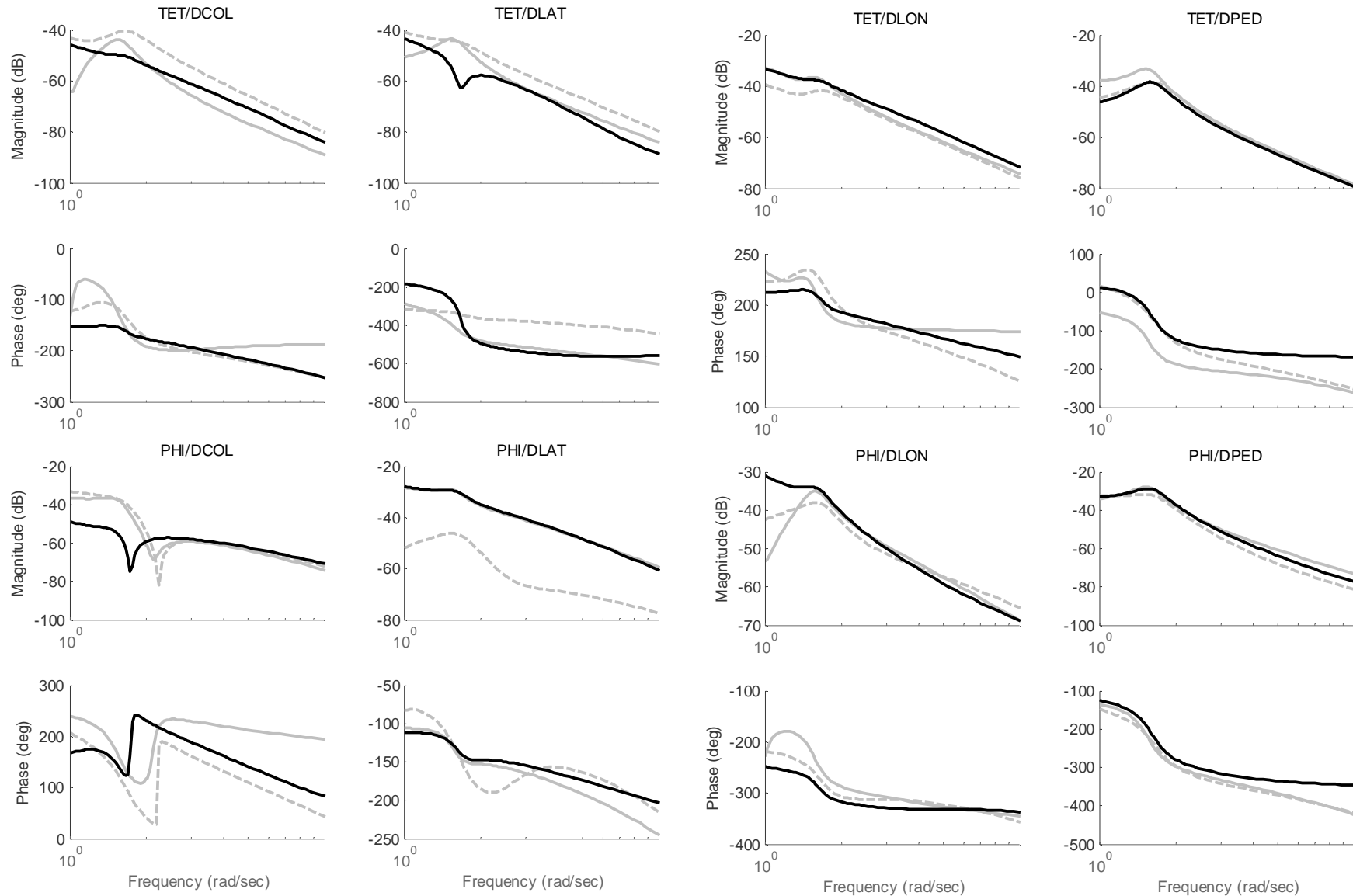
Frequency responses comparison 2/4





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

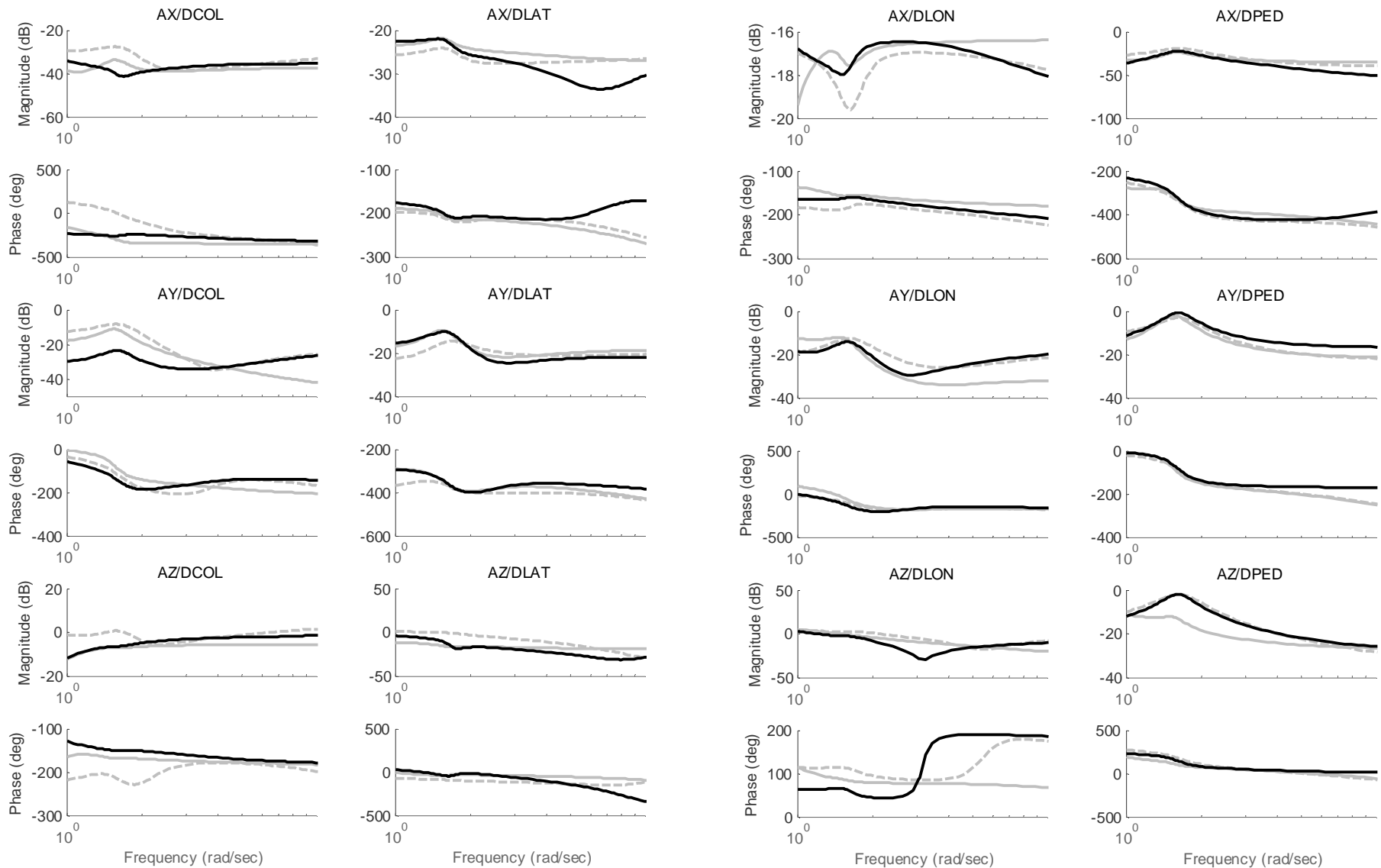
Frequency responses comparison 3/4





Case studies: a full-scale helicopter

Frequency responses comparison 4/4





- Rotorcraft model identification has been considered
- An overview of the state-of-the-art of rotorcraft model identification has been provided
- Continuous-time predictor-based subspace identification algorithm and black-box to grey-box transformation have been introduced
- A novel approach combining time and frequency domain data has been presented and discussed
- Preliminary results based on the AW189 simulation example has shown the viability of the proposed approach