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ModestPy: An Open-Source Python Tool for Parameter Estimation in Functional Mock-up Units

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Abstract
The paper presents an open-source Python tool for parameter estimation in FMI-compliant models, called ModestPy. The tool enables estimation of model parameters using user-defined sequences of methods, which are particularly helpful in non-convex problems. A user can start estimation with a chosen global search method and subsequently refine the estimates with a local search method. Several methods are available already and the tool’s architecture allows for easily adding new ones. The advantages of having a single interface to multiple methods and using them in sequences are highlighted on a case study in which the parameters of a Modelica-based gray-box model of a building zone (nonlinear, multi-output) are estimated using 9 different combinations of methods. The methods are compared in terms of accuracy and computational performance.

Keywords: FMI, parameter estimation, Python, open-source

1 Introduction
1.1 Background
The Functional Mock-up Interface (FMI) is becoming a de facto standard co-simulation interface, as of 2018 being supported by over 100 simulation tools (http://fmi-standard.org/tools/). The support of the FMI in simulation tools varies from full support, especially in Modelica tools, to a subset of FMI 1.0 / 2.0, import / export, co-simulation / model exchange. Models compliant with FMI are referred as Functional Mock-up Units (FMUs).

Using FMUs allows for a flexible co-simulation between models developed in different software environments. It is also attractive for resource-limited embedded systems with no need to install a GUI-based simulation environment, or because relying on FMI makes the system less dependent on specific tools and vendors. In addition, the common interface to models developed in different software environments makes it possible to develop generic tools for co-simulation, system identification, or optimization. System identification methods are commonly used to calibrate models with respect to the real system. In the case of FMUs, the model structure is typically already defined in the FMU, so the problem is narrowed down to the estimation of model parameters and/or states. In fact, several FMI-specific tools for parameter and state estimation have been developed in recent years.

Bonilla et al. (2017) developed a GUI tool for static (batch) parameter estimation in FMUs (compliant with Model Exchange 2.0), based on a global-search Multi-Objective Genetic Algorithm (MOGA). The main motivation for the development of this tool was to facilitate the coupling of different modeling languages, tools and optimization algorithms, while being customizable. The authors stated that the implementation of additional optimization algorithms is planned.

Bonvini et al. (2014) developed a state and parameter estimation Python tool based on Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF), compliant with Model Exchange 1.0. The UKF is a recursive estimation method, meaning it is suitable for on-line applications where the states or parameters need to be continuously updated. The authors presented the capabilities of the tool on a fault detection and diagnosis (FDD) case study, in which it was used to identify a faulty valve in a simple theoretical system. In another exemplary application, the tool has been used for an on-line estimation of the number of occupants in a building based on indoor temperature and CO2 (Sangogboye et al., 2017).

Vanfretti et al. (2016) developed the Rapid Parameter Identification toolbox (RaPId), used for parameter estimation in FMUs. The tool is developed as a Matlab/Simulink plug-in and can be called using the Matlab command line interface, but is also equipped with a GUI allowing it to be used as a standalone application. Multiple optimization methods are available, such as fmincon from Matlab and heuristic algorithms, like a particle swarm optimization (PSO) implemented by the authors.

Kampfmann et al. (2017) proposed a workflow for parameter estimation in FMUs, based on open-source tools. The performance of the workflow was demonstrated on a real industrial problem of a three arm Delta Robot. The estimation problem is formulated using the maximum likelihood approach and the underlying optimization problem is solved using the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm.

De Coninck et al. (2016) developed a more specialized Python toolbox for gray-box system identification for buildings. The tool automates both the model selection (out of a group of predefined models) and parameter estimation. The toolbox relies on the JModelica.org plat-
form which is used for compilation of models, simulation and optimization. The direct collocation method is used to solve the underlying optimization problem. Since the collocation method is a local optimization method, the initial guesses of parameters are either inherited from the previous estimation runs or a set of initial guesses is constructed using the Latin hypercube sampling method. The toolbox is currently in use in MPC systems in existing buildings (De Coninck and Helsen, 2016).

Andersson et al. (2012) implemented in JModelica.org three derivative-free optimization algorithms suitable for parameter estimation in FMUs. The algorithms include the Nelder-Mead simplex method, a differential evolution algorithm, and a genetic algorithm. The algorithms can be accessed through a Python interface.

Despite the diverse landscape of the tools and work flows presented, there are still some niche applications not specifically addressed. For example, there are no lightweight, generic, open-source tools that would enable automated testing of multiple algorithms, including algorithm sequences (for global and local search), and be easily deployable on the target machines and integrable into other codes. The available tools are either tied to specific optimization algorithms, specific proprietary platforms, or large software environments. This paper presents a new tool that potentially fills this niche.

1.2 Paper Objective

The objective of this paper is to present a new open-source Python tool for parameter estimation in FMUs, called ModestPy (Arendt, 2017). Through the PyFMI (Andersson et al., 2016) the tool is compatible with FMI 1.0/2.0 and Co-Simulation/Model Exchange. The main novelty of the tool compared to the ones presented is that it includes several optimization methods and enables easily running the methods in user-defined sequences.

The initial motivation of this work was to facilitate parameter estimation in models of buildings and HVAC systems for the purpose of MPC. One of the often mentioned requirements for MPC to become economically viable in buildings is an automated creation and updating (e.g. through parameter estimation) of predictive models (Rokett and Hathway, 2017). Building and HVAC models are often non-linear and in general can be non-differentiable. In this context, ModestPy is a generic tool with no assumptions on the model structure, offering a high flexibility in terms of combining different algorithms. Since the performance of specific methods is model-dependent, the aim of the tool is to support multiple algorithms. Currently, the tool supports two algorithms implemented by the authors (genetic algorithm and pattern search) in addition to several algorithms from the SciPy eco-system (Jones et al., 2001).

2 Software Description

ModestPy is designed with the ease of use and installation in mind. It is compatible with both Python 2.7 and 3 and was tested on Windows and Linux. The package can be installed using the command pip install modestpy. The package structure is modular (Fig. 1). A user needs to interact only with one class, Estimation from estimation.py, and its two methods: estimate() and validate().

![Figure 1. Package structure (testing, logging and auxiliary modules excluded for clarity).](image)

The implemented algorithms are kept in separate modules under modestpy.estim. The algorithms share some common functionality covering the error calculation (error.py), estimation parameter interface (estpar.py), plotting (plots.py), and FMU model interface (model.py). The interaction with FMUs is provided by PyFMI (Andersson et al., 2016). Two types of error metrics are implemented, the total mean-square error ($\text{MSE}_{\text{tot}}$) and the total normalized mean-square error ($\text{NMSE}_{\text{tot}}$), calculated as follows:

$$\text{MSE}_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (\hat{Y}_i^t - Y_i^t)^2,$$

$$\text{NMSE}_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{\bar{Y}_i^2} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \text{MSE}_i,$$

where $\hat{Y}_i^t$ is the measured value of variable $i$ at time step $t$, $Y_i^t$ is the simulated value of variable $i$ at time step $t$, $\bar{Y}_i$ is the mean measured value of variable $i$, $N$ is the number of time steps, and $\text{MSE}_i$ is the mean-square error for variable $i$. Eq. (1) is suggested for single-output models ($i = 1$) or models with physically comparable outputs. Eq. (2) is suggested for multi-output models ($i > 1$) with physically incomparable outputs, e.g. temperature and CO₂. It should be noted that $\bar{Y}_i$ in Eq. (2) needs to be non-zero. Other norms can be easily implemented in error.py if needed.

2.1 Algorithms

A user can estimate parameters using a single algorithm or an arbitrarily designed sequence of algorithms. The sequences typically contain two methods, the first for global search and the second for local search, but if needed it is possible to queue more methods, e.g. multiple genetic algorithms with different evolution parameters (best solution from each run is saved and propagated to the next...
The algorithm stops when the solution does not improve is reduced by a factor of 2 and the procedure is repeated. If the given step size does not yield a reduction in the cost function value, it starts a series of orthogonal exploratory moves, by changing x. The parameter vector propagated to the next iteration is the one with the lowest cost function value. If the population diversity is low, the population is split into 1/3 and 2/3 parts. The larger group (2/3) undergoes the standard mutation (low mutation rate, wide range of possible values), and the smaller group undergoes mutation with an increased rate (33% by default), but the genes are allowed to change only within a small range (equivalent to a stochastic local search). By tuning mutrate1, mutrate2, range1, and range2 in Algorithm 1, a desired balance between the exploratory and local search of the evolution can be found. The algorithm continues until the error stops decreasing or the maximum number of generations is reached. The tolerance criterion checking can be delayed by a user-defined number of generations (10 by default), allowing for continuing the evolution for some time even if the subsequent generations do not improve the solution. GA is a metaheuristic global search algorithm, which is often able to deal with complex non-convex functions, but does not guarantee that the global optimum is found. In fact, the solution might be worse than in the case of local search methods. It is, therefore, often coupled with some local search methods, as GPS, least squares or Newton-based methods.

The implemented GPS (Algorithm 2) is a simple gradient-free local search method. The algorithm requires an initial guess \( x_0 \) and an initial step size \( s \). Thereafter it starts a series of orthogonal exploratory moves, by changing one parameter at a time (in both positive and negative directions) and evaluating the cost function \( f(x) \). The parameter vector propagated to the next iteration is the one with the lowest cost function value. If the given step size does not yield a reduction in the cost function value, it is reduced by a factor of 2 and the procedure is repeated. The algorithm stops when the solution does not improve despite \( k_{\text{max}} \) reductions of the step size. GPS usually requires more iterations than gradient-based methods, but the method can deal with models that are not differentiable or continuous. A similar algorithm is implemented in the generic optimization program GenOpt (Wetter, 2001).

### Algorithm 1 Genetic algorithm implemented in ModestPy

Initialize population \( \text{pop}_1 \) with \( N \) individuals

\[
\text{while } g < g_{\text{max}} \text{ and error decreasing } \text{do}
\]

for all individuals in \( \text{pop}_1 \) do

Evaluate cost function

end for

Initialize empty population \( \text{pop}_2 \)

Add fittest individual from \( \text{pop}_1 \) to \( \text{pop}_2 \) (elitism)

for \( i = 0 \) to \( N - 1 \) do

\( \text{ind1} \leftarrow \text{tournament}(\text{pop}_1) \)

\( \text{ind2} \leftarrow \text{tournament}(\text{pop}_1) \)

\( \text{child} \leftarrow \text{crossover}(\text{ind1}, \text{ind2}) \)

Add \( \text{child} \) to \( \text{pop}_2 \)

end for

if \( \text{pop}_2 \) is diverse then

\( \text{pop}_2 \leftarrow \text{mutate}(\text{pop}_2, \text{mutrate}_1, \text{range}_1) \)

else

\( X\% \) of \( \text{pop}_2 \) \( \leftarrow \text{mutate}(\text{mutrate}_1, \text{range}_1) \)

\( \text{mutrate}_2 \leftarrow \text{mutrate}_1 K \{ K > 1 \} \)

\( \text{range}_2 \leftarrow \text{range}_1 L \{ L > 0 \} \)

\( (100 - X)\% \) of \( \text{pop}_2 \) \( \leftarrow \text{mutate}(\text{mutrate}_2, \text{range}_2) \)

end if

\( \text{pop}_1 \leftarrow \text{pop}_2 \)

\( g \leftarrow g + 1 \)

\( x \leftarrow \text{parameters of fittest individual} \)

end while

return \( x \)

### 2.2 Usage

ModestPy does not have a GUI (although there are plans to develop one in the future) and is aimed to be used directly in Python scripts. First, the user has to instantiate the \texttt{Estimation} class. All the estimation and validation settings are specified during the instantiation. The required arguments are as follows: path to the working directory (string), path to the FMU (string), data frame with the inputs (pandas DataFrame), known inputs (dictionary), parameters to be estimated (dictionary), and measured data (pandas DataFrame). The user can control other aspects of the estimation with the optional arguments, as discussed in the documentation (Arendt, 2017). Secondly, the estimation and validation methods are called to retrieve the results.

The exemplary Python code setting up an estimation using GA+GPS and using the MSE cost function is as follows:

```python
from modestpy import Estimation

test = Estimation(
    workdir, # string
    fmu_path, # string
)```
3 Example

3.1 System

The functionality of the tool is presented on a case study in which it was used to calibrate a Modelica-based gray-box model of a single building zone to the results of a white-box model developed in EnergyPlus. The case study is a part of a larger project aimed at the development of an MPC framework that will be tested on the OU44 building in Odense, Denmark (Jradi et al., 2017). The developed EnergyPlus model is a downscaled 7-zone version of the OU44 building, but with the same HVAC system and internal heat gains schedules. The EnergyPlus model is used for MPC tests in the project.

The building is equipped with a balanced mechanical ventilation system. The air handling unit (AHU) contains two fans (for supply and exhaust air), a rotary wheel heat recovery system, and a heating coil. No cooling is provided. The fans are controlled to maintain a constant pressure in the duct system. Each zone is equipped with a hydronic radiator and a VAV box. The radiator valve and ventilation damper positions depend on the indoor temperature and CO\textsubscript{2} concentration, respectively. The temperature and CO\textsubscript{2} setpoint schedules are set through the BMS system.

Selected outputs of the white-box model are assumed to represent the measured data for the calibration of the gray-box model. The following zone-level outputs are used: indoor temperature $T$ [$^\circ$C], indoor CO\textsubscript{2} concentration $\text{CO}_2$ [ppm], radiator heat supply $q_{\text{rad}}$ [W], ventilation airflow rate $\text{verate}$ [m$^3$/s], and the number of occupants $\text{occ}$ [—] (notation consistent with the gray-box model variables). The chosen outputs correspond with the available sensors in the OU44 building, so in the later phase of the project the same gray-box model can be used with the real data.

In this study, however, the white-box results are used to exclude the effect of uncertain inputs on the results. In addition to the zone-level measurements, the weather data and assumed temperature and CO\textsubscript{2} setpoints are passed to the gray-box model as inputs.

3.2 Modelica Gray-box Model

The gray-box model was developed in Modelica and exported to an FMU using Dymola (Fig. 2). The thermal part of the model is based on the RC network approach and contains two capacitors, one for the indoor air and one for the internal thermal mass, and one resistor representing the external walls. The solar gains and radiator heat gains are modeled with single gain blocks. The radiator heat supply is controlled by a PI controller, depending on the temperature setpoint (input) and calculated indoor temperature. The occupancy contributes to both the indoor heat gains and CO\textsubscript{2} generation. The metabolic heat generation per person is modeled as a linear function of the indoor temperature. The CO\textsubscript{2} balance is modeled with a custom block containing a steady state mass balance equation. The ventilation heat gain is also modeled with a cus-
tom block containing a steady state heat balance equation. The rest of the model is based on the components from the Modelica Standard Library.

The model takes six inputs and has six outputs. The inputs include the solar radiation solrad [W/m²], outdoor temperature Tout [°C], number of occupants occ, ventilation air temperature setpoint Tvestp [°C], indoor CO₂ setpoint CO2stp [ppm], and indoor temperature setpoint Tstp [°C]. The outputs are the indoor temperature T [°C], indoor CO₂ CO2 [ppm], ventilation airflow rate verate [m³/s⁻¹], total ventilation airflowvetot [m³], radiator heating rate qrad [W], and total radiator heating energy Qrad [J].

Seven of the model parameters are estimated: outdoor wall resistance RExt [m²WK⁻¹], indoor wall resistance RInt [m²WK⁻¹], infiltration air change rate Vinf [h⁻¹], maximum ventilation air change rate maxVent [h⁻¹], internal thermal mass tmass [JK⁻¹m⁻²], solar heat gain coefficient shgc [–], and indoor air thermal mass tmass [JK⁻¹m⁻³]. All parameters except shgc are scaled by the respective surface area (e.g. external wall surface area for RExt) or the indoor volume (tmass). It should be noted that the infiltration rate parameter Vinf affects only the CO₂ balance, while the thermal effect of infiltration is included in the resistance RExt.

### 3.3 Estimation Setup

Table 1 provides the lower and upper bounds in addition to the initial guesses of the seven parameters to be estimated in this study. The bounds were chosen considering standard physical and technical specifications of buildings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Initial guess</th>
<th>Low. bound</th>
<th>Up. bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shgc</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tmass</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imass</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RExt</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RInt</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vinf</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maxVent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The cost function is based on the total normalized mean-square error NMSEₜₗ, calculated according to Eq. (2). Four white-box model outputs are taken into account: T, CO₂, verate, and qrad.

9 different method sequences were used to estimate the parameters: (1) GA, (2) GPS, (3) TNC, (4) SLSQP, (5) L-BFGS-B, (6) GA+GPS, (7) GA+TNC, (8) GA+SLSQP, (9) GA+L-BFGS-B. The GA settings were consistent across the sequences (1) and (6)–(9). In addition a random number seed was used to make the results comparable. The maximum number of generations was set to 100. The initial population contained 40 individuals and was generated using the Latin hypercube sampling. The maximum number of iterations in all the other methods was 500. The absolute solution tolerance was 1e-9 (same for all methods).

All the non-default estimation parameters are specified in the following code:

```python
ga_opts = {
    'maxiter': 100, 'tol': 1e-9,
    'lhs': True, 'pop_size': 40
}
gps_opts = {
    'maxiter': 500, 'tol': 1e-9
}
solpy_opts = {
    'solver': 'scipy_solver',
    'options': {
        'maxiter': 500, 'tol': 1e-9
    }
}
session = Estimation(
    wdir, fmu, inp, known, est, out,
    lp_frame=(0, 86400 * 3),
    vp=(86400 * 3, 86400 * 4),
    ga_opts=ga_opts,
    gps_opts=gps_opts,
    solpy_opts=sciipy_opts,
    methods=met_seq,
    ic_param=ic_param,
    ftype='NMSE', seed=1
)
```

where `scipy_solver` is one from ['TNC', 'L-BFGS-B', 'SLSQP'], and `met_seq` is one from [('GA',), ('GPS',), ('SCIPIY',), ('GA', 'GPS'), ('GA', 'SCIPIY')].

The training period was 3 days long (January 1-3). The validation was performed on the day following the training period (January 4).

### 3.4 Results

All the 9 considered method sequences yielded different estimates, despite the same bounds and initial guesses (in GPS, SLSQP, L-BFGS-B, TNC) and the random number seed (in the GA-based sequences). Fig. 3 presents a stacked histogram of the obtained estimates. The estimates obtained by the GA-based sequences are close to the ones yielded by the GA alone. Differences are noticeable mainly in the case of shgc and maxVent. The remaining method sequences (non-GA-based) yielded estimates scattered across the parameter space.

The GA+L-BFGS-B and GA+GPS sequences yielded the lowest training errors, while GA+SLSQP was the most accurate in the validation, suggesting that the parameters are slightly overfitted in former cases (Table 2). GA+L-BFGS-B was the only GA-based sequence that performed worse in the validation than the GA alone. Nevertheless, all GA-based sequences yielded models with a similar accuracy, with training errors below 0.394 and validation errors below 0.379. The rest of the methods (GPS, TNC, L-
BFGS-B, SLSQP) yielded significantly worse estimates, with validation errors above 3.4.

The computational time of the GA-based sequences was mostly dominated by GA (723 s). In the considered problem only GPS was slower than GA (986 s). All gradient-based methods included in the test were much faster, but stuck in local minima. From the time-to-accuracy point of view mixing GA with a gradient-based method seems the most efficient (801-934 s), while GA+GPS is the slowest combination (1319 s).

All computations were performed on a laptop equipped with an Intel Core i7-5600U processor (2.60GHz), 16 GB RAM, and a hard-disk drive (HDD). The disk type is relevant, because ModestPy was run in a verbose logging mode, each time saving a log file containing up to 85000 lines with detailed results from each iteration. All simulations were run on a single core – ModestPy does not offer parallelized algorithms yet.

Table 2. CPU time and total normalized mean square error (NMSE$_{tot}$) for validation and training, sorted in ascending order by validation NMSE$_{tot}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Training NMSE$_{tot}$</th>
<th>Validation NMSE$_{tot}$</th>
<th>CPU Time [s]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GA+SLSQP</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA+GPS</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td>1319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA+TNC</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.373</td>
<td>723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA+L-BFGS-B</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPS</td>
<td>1.306</td>
<td>3.428</td>
<td>986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TNC</td>
<td>4.967</td>
<td>5.856</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-BFGS-B</td>
<td>4.929</td>
<td>6.808</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLSQP</td>
<td>5.040</td>
<td>6.920</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The different estimates yielded by the respective methods can be due to inaccuracies in the numerically approximated gradients, and due to the non-convexity of the cost function. The non-convexity of the cost function used in this study can be analyzed in Fig. 4. The cost function evaluated on the line connecting estimates yielded by two different methods (GA and SLSQP) has few sections with positive derivatives and local minima. In addition the cost function is very steep in the vicinity of the GA solution, while relatively flat for \( s < 0.7 \). Although the shape of the function in other directions is not presented, Fig. 4 highlights the need for a good initial guess in the case of gradient-based methods if the cost function is non-convex.

\[
g(s) = f(s_1 + (1 - s)s_2)
\]

search domain (yellow color marks NMSE\(_{tot}\) above 5.0). Over time, the solution quality improves to NMSE\(_{tot}\) below 1.0 (purple color). For some parameters (most notably maxVent and Vinf) the value found early in the evolution does not change much throughout the rest of the evolution. In other cases rapid jumps in parameters with only a minor improvement in the accuracy are observed (e.g. imass). Based on this visualization, the user is able to assess whether a desired balance of the exploration and local search was achieved.

Fig. 6 depicts root-mean-square errors (RMSE) for each output variable, calculated for the validation period. RMSE was not used in the cost function, because it is non-differentiable at 0 which is problematic for gradient-based methods, but the metric helps interpreting results. RMSE represents the standard deviation between the predicted and true values. The analysis of the errors reveals that the problems encountered by the non-GA-based sequences were due to both the thermal and CO\(_2\) parts of the model. The best performing models achieved RMSE below 50 ppm for CO\(_2\), 0.4 °C for \( T \), 600 W for qrad, and 10 m\(^3\)h\(^{-1}\) for verate. The RMSE differences between the best and worst performers are around 180 ppm for CO\(_2\), 2 °C for \( T \), 1600 W for qrad, and 20 m\(^3\)h\(^{-1}\) for verate. Interestingly, unlike the gradient-based methods, GPS calibrated well the parameters affecting CO\(_2\) and verate, even though it started from the same initial guess.

The validation results for the four output variables explain the large errors yielded by the non-GA-based sequences. The temperature in those cases slowly reacts to the applied heat loads (Fig. 7), which is due to the overestimated thermal mass (tmass, imass) of the building (Fig. 3).

In the case of CO\(_2\) (CO\(_2\)) and ventilation rate (verate) the inaccuracy of the gradient-based methods is due to the overestimated infiltration rate Vinf (Fig. 3), which reduced the indoor CO\(_2\), preventing it from reaching the setpoint of 800 ppm and triggering the ventilation. Hence, the ventilation in those cases remained turned off through-
Figure 5. Parameter evolution in the genetic algorithm – color represents the training error (darker more accurate).

Figure 6. Validation root-mean-square error (RMSE) per output variable.

Figure 7. Validation results: temperature (T), CO₂ (CO₂), ventilation airflow rate (verate).

out the entire validation period (verate equal to 0).

Similarly, the models with the inaccurate indoor temperature yielded inaccurate radiator heating power qrad (Fig. 8). Only the GA-based method sequences were able to achieve a good accuracy with respect to qrad. In all cases, however, there is a mismatch in the initial 8 hours of the validation period due to the wrong initial condition for qrad. If the grey-box model is to be used for short-term predictions, the initial value should be based on the measurements, as in the case of indoor temperature and CO₂.

4 Discussion

The results are not generalizable to other models, estimation settings (initial guesses, number of iterations, parameter bounds etc.), or even training data. The specific methods can perform differently on different problems. The gradient-based methods heavily rely on the quality of the initial guess, while the GA results depend on the random seed. Both, the initial guess and the random seed were fixed in this study. However, the results highlight the importance of such inter-method comparisons, especially in the cases where the parameter estimation is a non-convex problem. In many practical applications it may be difficult to assess whether or not the problem is non-convex, or what should be the initial guess for parameters.

The GA results presented in this paper are surprisingly good in terms of the accuracy and computational time. Typically GA requires much more time to converge than gradient-based methods. However, since GA is stochastic in nature, the results could be different if the experiment was repeated without a fixed random seed. The computa-
The current functionality of the tool is already sufficient for a general use. It is used by the authors for calibrating gray-box models of buildings and HVAC systems for the use in MPC.

However, the development work continues and there are plans to include the following functionality:

- a simple graphical user interface to attract users less experienced in the Python programming language,
- support for on-line estimation methods (e.g. Kalman filter),
- support for multi-period stochastic gradient descent training,
- support for parallel processing methods.

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References


