

# Physics and Machine Learning Based Approaches to Stability Analysis and Control on DIII-D

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with

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Mechanical  
and Aerospace  
Engineering

PRINCETON



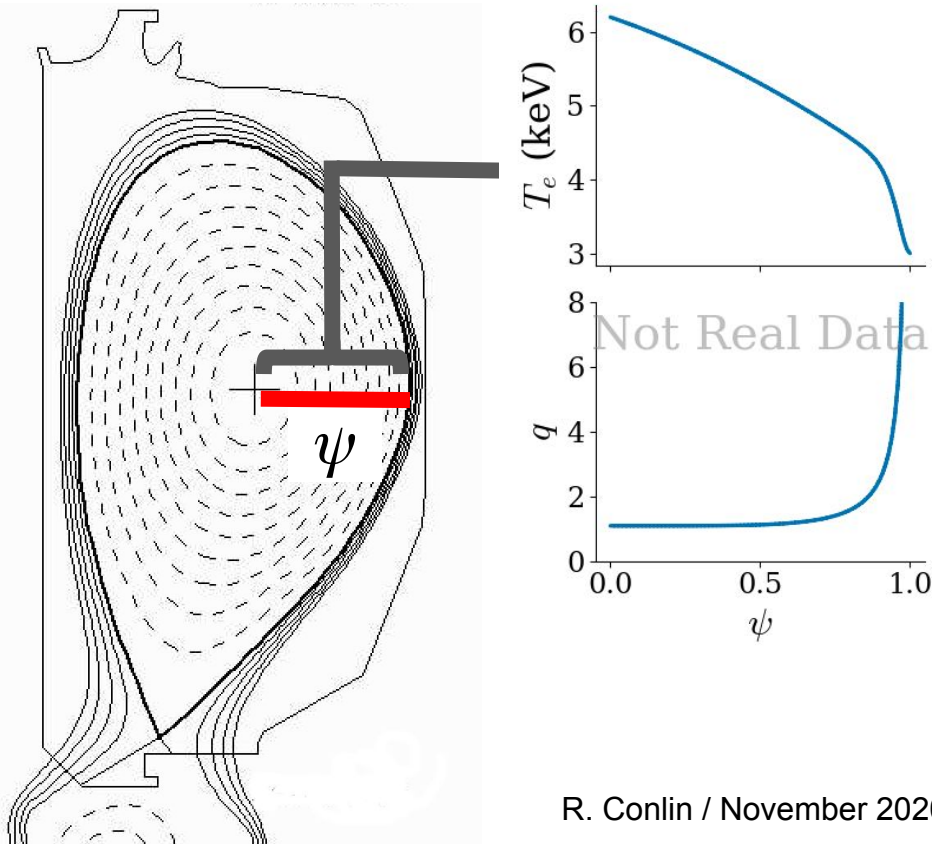
# Outline

- Machine Learning to predict/control plasma state
  - What should control inputs be to achieve desired state?
- Using machine learning models in real time systems
  - How do we get a neural net onto plasma control system (PCS)?
- Physics based models to determine which states are best
  - Given a controller, which state should we aim for?

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# Transport Plasma State

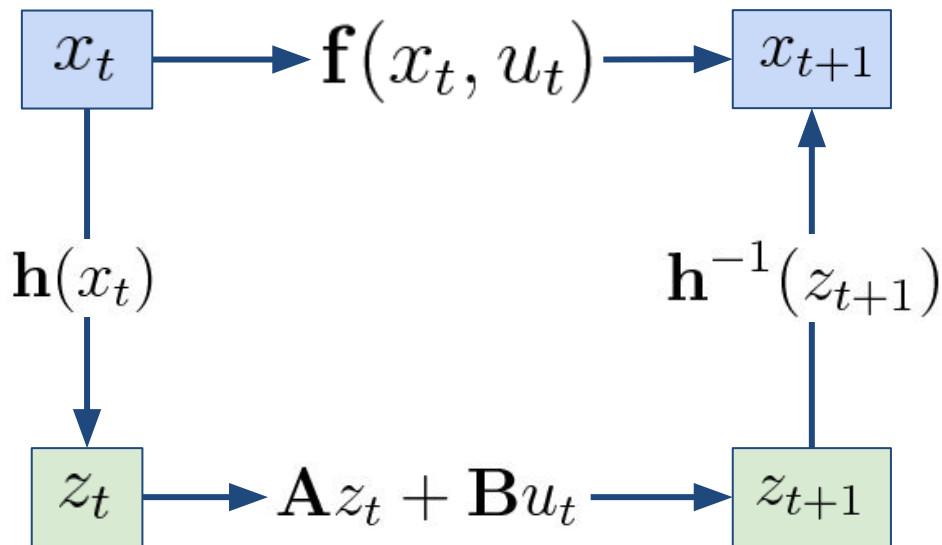


Full state of plasma determined by 1D profiles:

- Pressure ( $P$ )
- Current ( $J$ )
- Electron temperature and density ( $T_e, n_e$ )
- Ion temperature and density ( $T_i, n_i$ )
- Rotation ( $\Omega$ )

Given state (and actuators), can we predict how plasma will evolve on transport timescales ( $\sim 100$ - $200$ ms)?

# Transport is nonlinear - use ML to get linear model



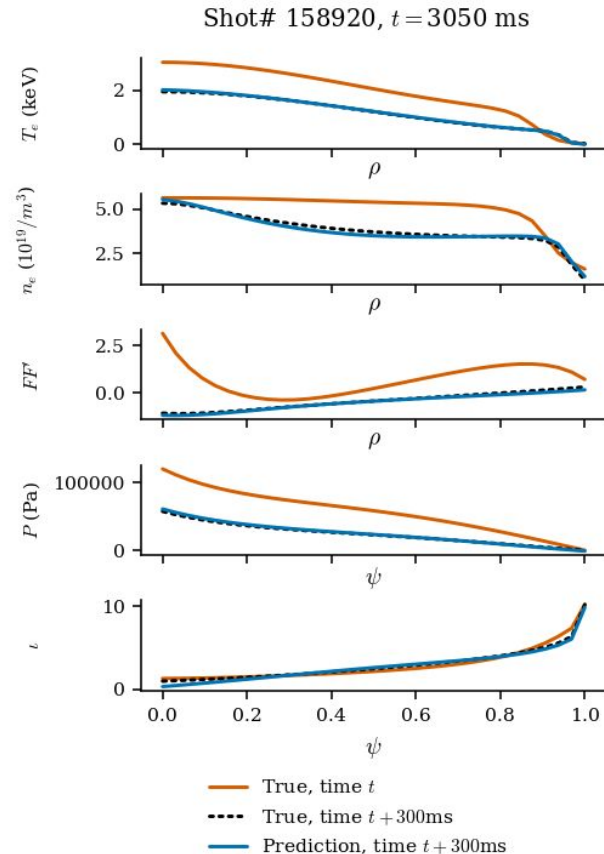
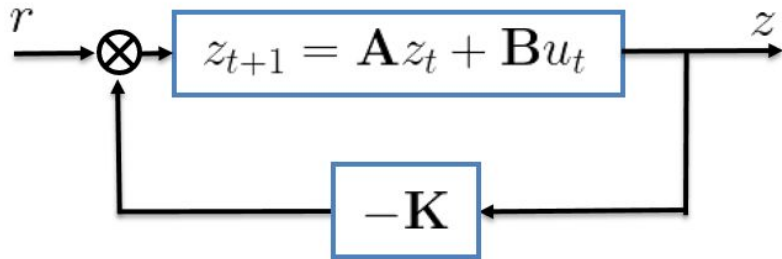
\* see:

- Abbate, ZO04.00006 Data-Driven Profile Prediction,
- Jalalvand, GP19.00024 Hyper-dimensional time-series data analysis with reservoir computing networks to predict plasma profiles in tokamak

- Traditional ML\*: Learn  $\mathbf{f}$ , but model predictive control with nonlinear model is expensive, inefficient.
- Solution: use **Linearly Recurrent Autoencoder Network** (LRAN) to learn linear embedding of nonlinear dynamics
- Functions  $\mathbf{h}$  and  $\mathbf{h}^{-1}$  parameterized by neural networks
- Learned along with matrices  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$
- Gives linear model for dynamics, so we can use robust methods for linear optimal control

# LRAN: high accuracy, easy robust control design

- Model trained on experimental data from DIII-D 2013-2018
- After model tuning, can get similar performance to more advanced models
- Currently developing finite horizon linear optimal controller for tests on DIII-D

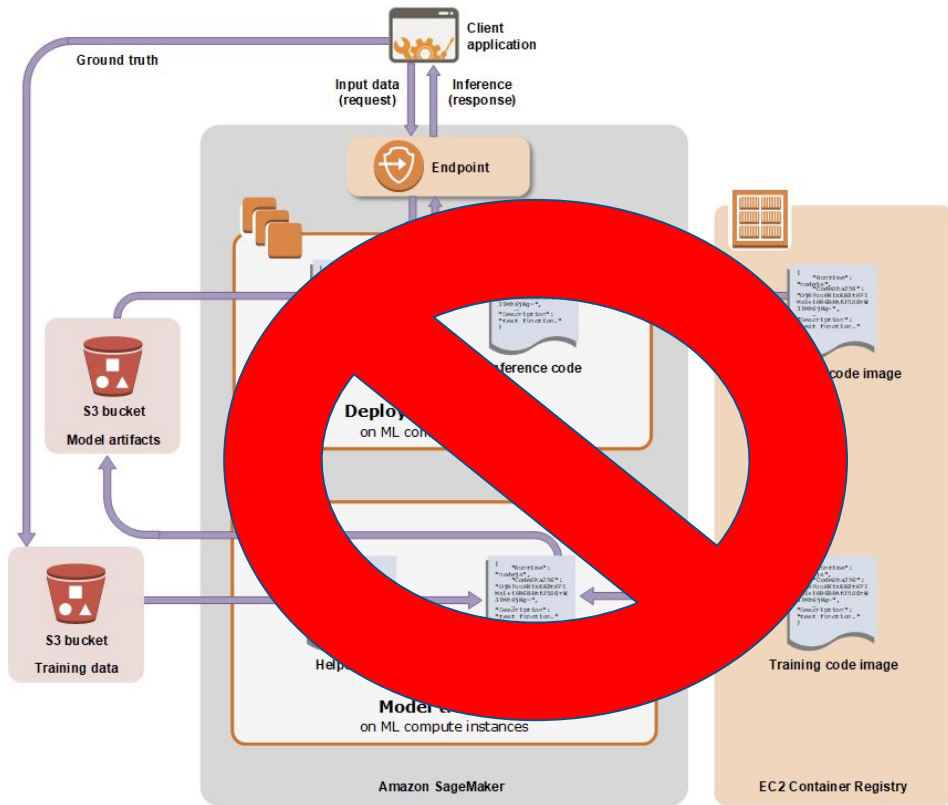


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# How to deploy machine learning models for control?

- Current method for deploying ML models based around mobile + web applications
- Generally involve communicating with process running on remote server
  - Large latency
  - Non-deterministic behavior
  - **Not safe for real-time applications**
- Other option: recode entire model by hand
  - Time consuming
  - Error prone

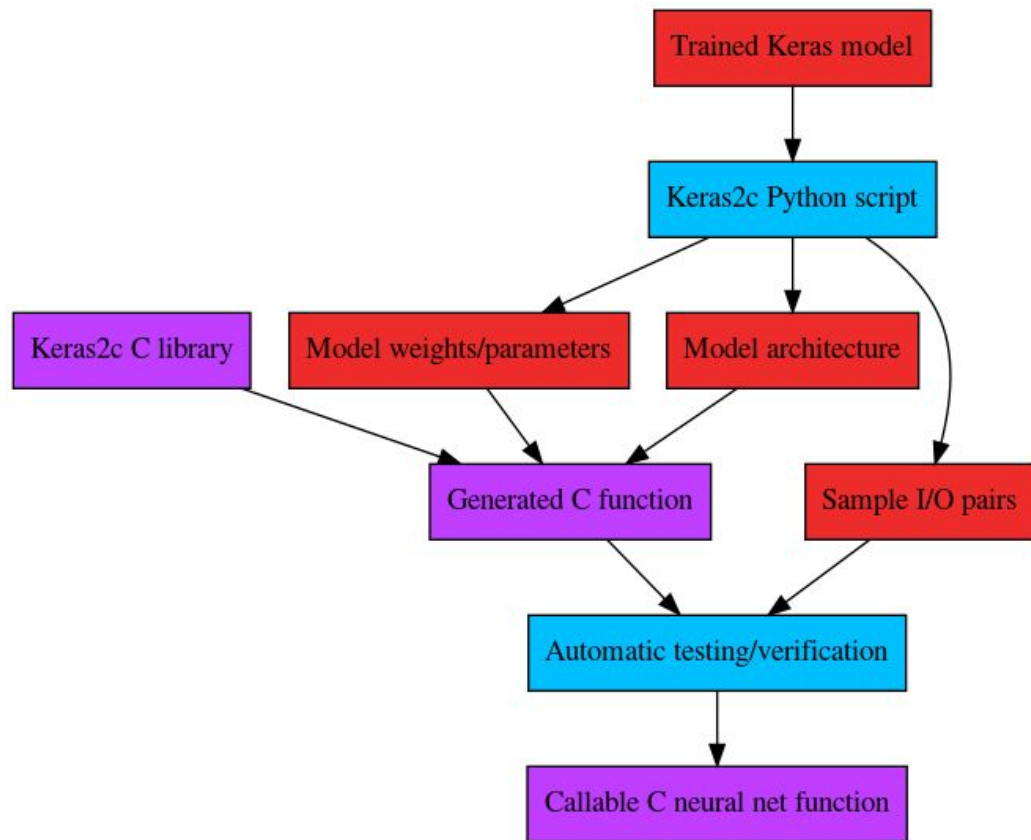




# Keras2c: full automated conversion / code generation

Script/Library for converting Keras neural nets to C functions

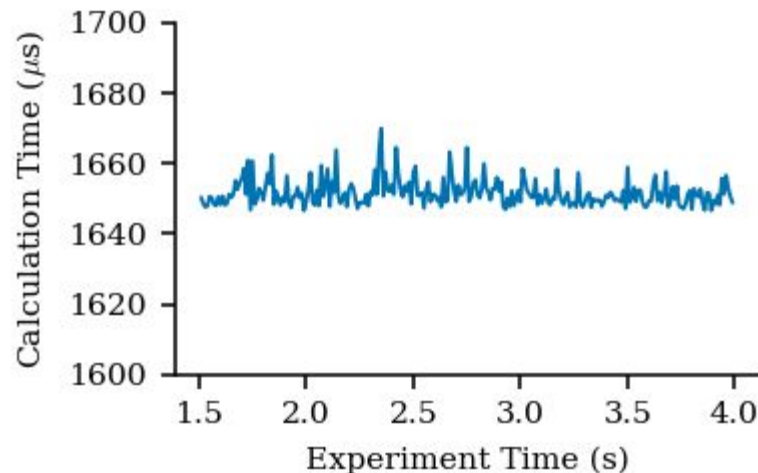
- Designed for simplicity and real time applications
- Core functionality only ~1500 lines
- Generates self-contained C function, no external dependencies
- Supports full range of operations & architectures
- Fully automated conversion & testing



# Real-time applications: DIII-D Plasma Control

- Example timing shown for neural net predicting plasma transport
  - 30 convolutional layers of varying size
  - 2 recurrent LSTM layers
  - Dozens of reshaping/padding/merging operations
  - Multi-input/multi-output model with branching internal structure
  - Total 45,485 parameters
- Mean time 1.65 ms\*
- Worst case jitter 23  $\mu$ s, rms 3.75  $\mu$ s

\*Also includes time to gather input data from other processes and pre-processing



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# STRIDE: Real Time $\delta W$ Calculations

$$\delta W = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} d\mathbf{x} \left[ Q^2 + \mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\xi} \times \mathbf{Q} + (\boldsymbol{\xi} \cdot \nabla P)(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \gamma P(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\xi})^2 \right]$$

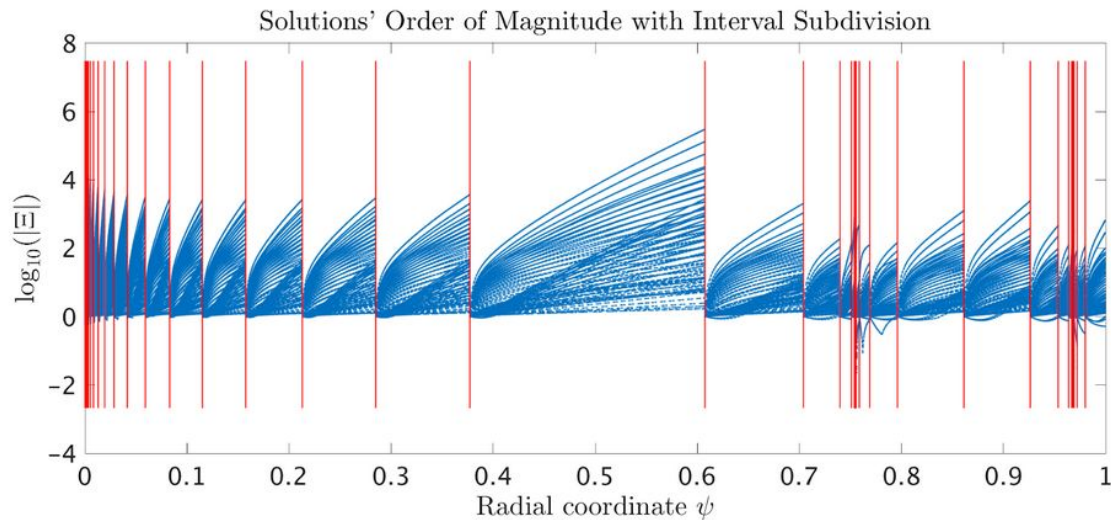
- $\delta W < 0 \rightarrow$  MHD instability
- Quadratic Lagrangian gives Linear Euler-Lagrange equation
- Linear E-L can be domain decomposed using state transition matrices

$$\mathbf{x}'(\psi) = \mathbf{L}(\psi)\mathbf{x}(\psi)$$

$$\Phi'(\psi) = \mathbf{L}(\psi)\Phi(\psi)$$

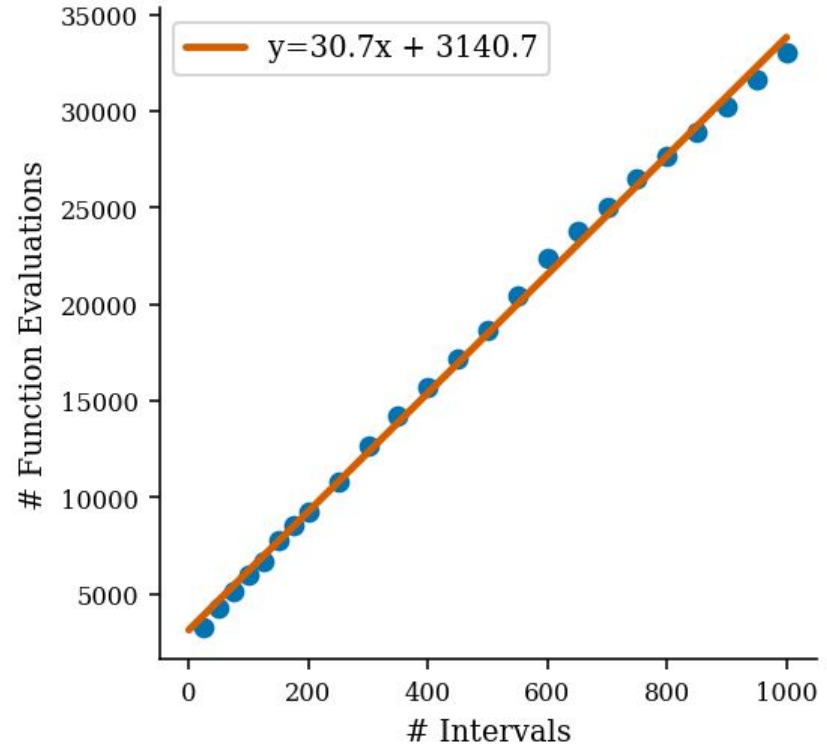
$$\mathbf{x}(\psi_2) = \Phi(\psi_2, \psi_0)\mathbf{x}(\psi_0) = \Phi(\psi_2, \psi_1)\Phi(\psi_1, \psi_0)\mathbf{x}(\psi_0)$$

**Easy parallelization  $\rightarrow$  fast (real time) stability calculations**



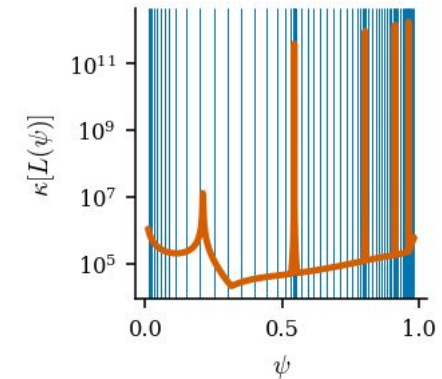
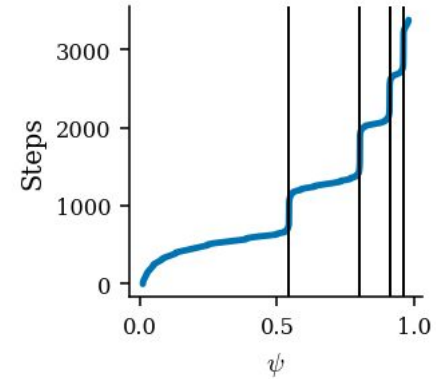
# Adaptive multistep integration scales poorly with many threads

- Previous approach used ZVODE (adaptive multistep method) to integrate on each interval
- Adaptive step size takes extra unnecessary steps in stiff regions
- Multistep method not self starting, needs extra function evaluations on each interval.
- **Adding more intervals to balance threads adds 1000s of function evaluations**
- Compute time ~300 ms at best on 72 core CPU



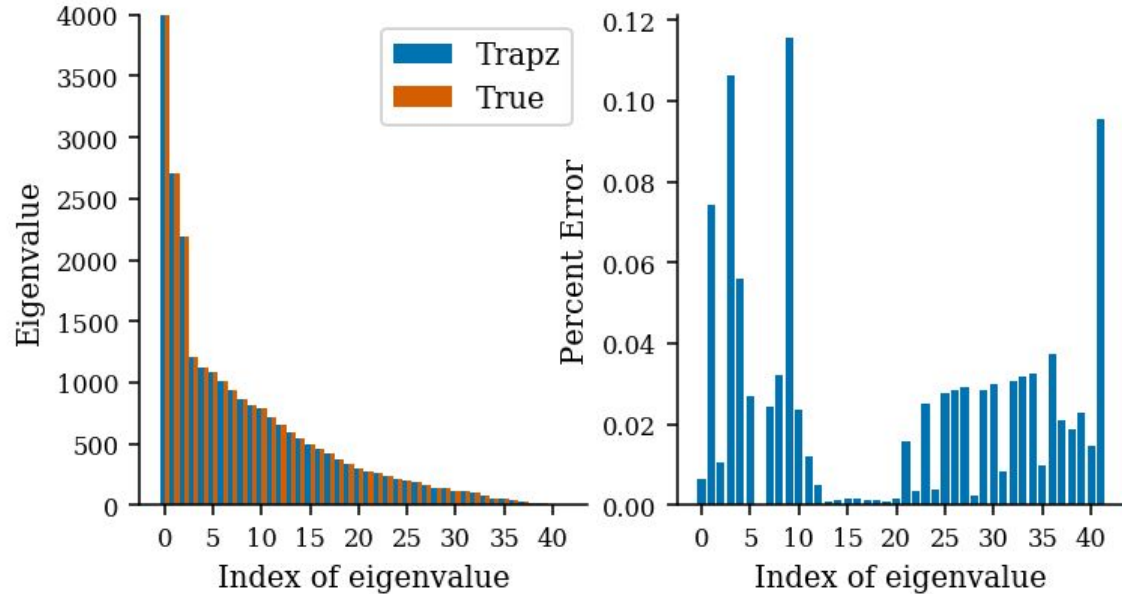
# Extreme parallelization - fixed steps, tuned intervals

- Use 1 trapezoidal step per interval with optimized interval division
- Binary reduction to combine solutions in  $\sim \text{Log}_2(N)$  time
- Know we need to take smaller steps closer to rational surfaces
  - Assume step size  $h \sim 1/\kappa$  where  $\kappa$  is some measure of stiffness
  - Fit a function of the form  $\kappa = \sum_s \frac{\alpha}{1 + \beta|\psi - \psi_s|}$ 
    - $s$  = index of singularity,
    - $\psi_s$  = location of singularities
    - $\alpha, \beta$  = coefficients to optimize



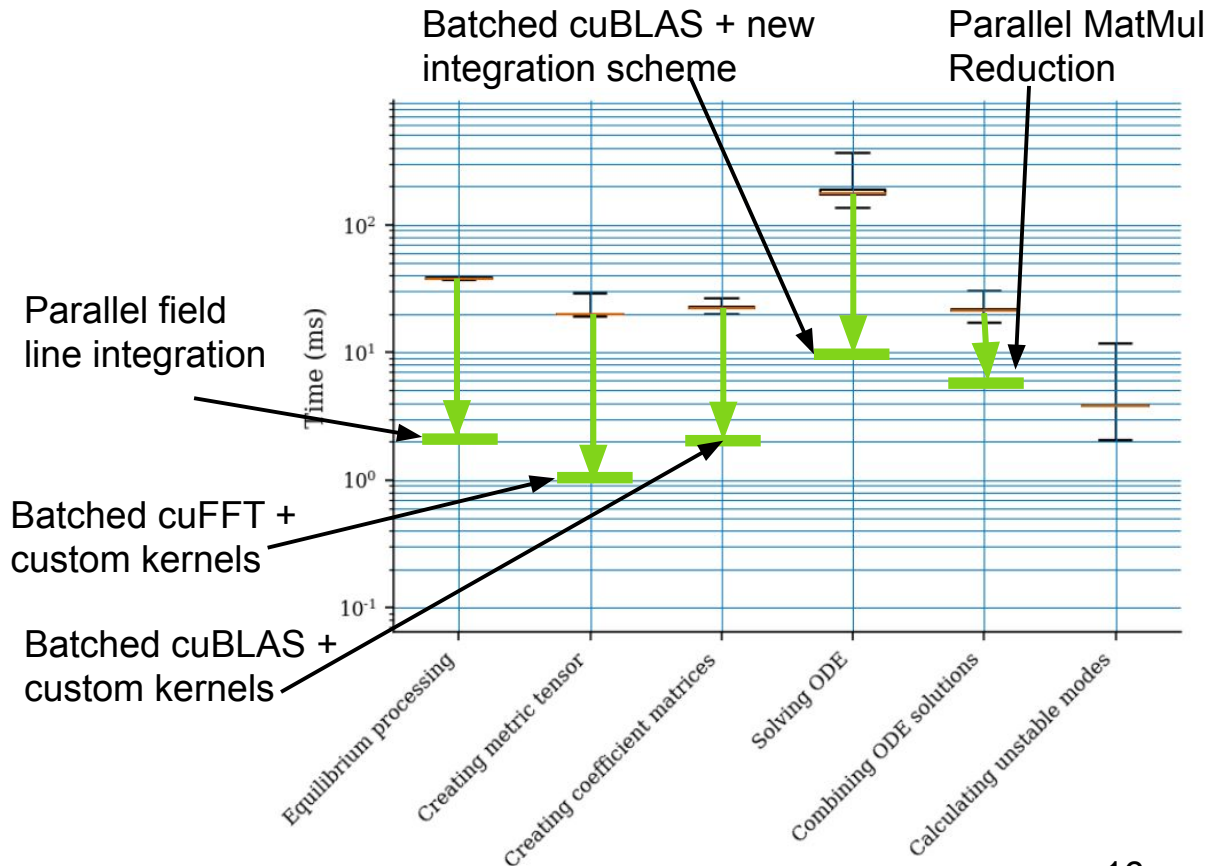
# Significant speedup, minimal error

- Trapezoidal method reduces integration cost by  $\sim 10x$ , with only 0.1% error in eigenvalues of plasma response matrix
- Implemented in PCS, achieves **calculation times < 100 ms**
- Ideal for real time analysis
  - Integrating with Proximity Control to steer away from stability boundary
  - But need faster still for model based predictive control



# STRIDE GPU for predictive stability analysis

- GPU implementation under development
- Projected to achieve **<20ms calculation time**
- Combined with state prediction, hope to **predict instabilities 100s of ms before they occur**





# Summary

- **Autoencoders can learn linear embedding for robust control design**
  - S. Otto, C. Rowley: "Linearly recurrent autoencoder networks for learning dynamics", *SIAM Journal on Applied Dynamical Systems* (2019)
  - J. Abbate, R. Conlin, E. Kolemen: "Data-Driven Profile Prediction for DIII-D", *Nuclear Fusion* (under review)
  - A. Jalalvand, J. Abbate, R. Conlin, G. Verdoolaege, E. Kolemen (2020), "Real-Time and Adaptive Reservoir Computing with an Application to Profile Prediction in Fusion Plasma", *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*. (Under Review)
- **Keras2c allows automatic conversion of neural networks to real time C code**
  - <https://github.com/f0uriest/keras2c>
  - R. Conlin, K. Erickson, J. Abbate, E. Kolemen: "Keras2c: A library for converting Keras neural networks to real-time compatible C", *Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence* (under review)
- **STRIDE calculates ideal MHD stability in real time**
  - A.S. Glasser, E. Kolemen, A.H. Glasser: "A Riccati solution for the ideal MHD plasma response with applications to real-time stability control", *Physics of Plasmas* (2018)
  - A.S. Glasser, E. Kolemen: "A robust solution for the resistive MHD toroidal  $\Delta'$  matrix in near real-time", *Physics of Plasmas* (2018)
  - A.S. Glasser, A.H. Glasser, R. Conlin, E. Kolemen: "An ideal MHD  $\delta W$  stability analysis that bypasses the Newcomb equation", *Physics of Plasmas* (2020)

# Koopman operator theory

Consider a nonlinear discrete time system:

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_t) \quad (1)$$

with state  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and continuous map  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

Let  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be an observable of the system. The collection of all observables form a linear vector space  $\mathcal{G}$ .

Define the Koopman operator  $U$  as a linear transformation on this vector space as follows:

$$U\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{g} \circ \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \quad (2)$$

Where  $\circ$  denotes the composition operator ( $z \circ y(x) = z(y(x))$ ). The linearity follows directly from the linearity of the composition operator:

$$U[\mathbf{g}_1 + \mathbf{g}_2](\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{g}_1 + \mathbf{g}_2] \circ \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{g}_1 \circ \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{g}_2 \circ \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = U\mathbf{g}_1(\mathbf{x}) + U\mathbf{g}_2(\mathbf{x}) \quad (3)$$

# Koopman operator theory

Thus, we have transformed our original nonlinear system  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_t)$  into a linear system in the observables of  $\mathbf{x}$ , given by  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) = U\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_t)$ . However, this new linear system is infinite dimensional, due to the infinite dimensionality of the vector space  $\mathcal{G}$ .

However, because the Koopman operator is linear, we can seek to find its eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  and eigenfunctions  $\phi_j$ , which satisfy

$$U^t \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_j^t \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) \quad (4)$$

And assuming that the eigenfunctions span  $\mathcal{G}$ , we can decompose any observable as

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_k \mathbf{g}_k \phi_k(\mathbf{x}) \quad (5)$$

We can define an observable to be the full state  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$ , whose Koopman decomposition is given by

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_j \boldsymbol{\xi}_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) \quad (6)$$

# LRAN theory

The evolution of the state is then given by

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \sum_j \boldsymbol{\xi}_j \lambda_j^t \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_0) \quad (7)$$

We can then interpret the autoencoder  $\mathbf{h}$  as learning the Koopman eigenfunctions  $\phi_j$ , and the learned matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  as a low dimensional approximation to the Koopman operator, with eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  and eigenvectors  $\boldsymbol{\xi}_j$

We train the autoencoder to both minimize the traditional residual in  $\mathbf{x}$ , as well as the recurrent residual in the latent space  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})$

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_t (\mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{h}^{-1}(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_t, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \boldsymbol{\theta}))^2 + (\mathbf{z}_{t+1} - (\mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\mathbf{z}_t + \mathbf{B}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\mathbf{u}_t))^2 \quad (8)$$

I am visiting another poster session and will return at 4:15 EST