Distributed Economic Model Predictive Control
of a Catalytic Reactor: Evaluation of Sequential
and Iterative Architectures

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by

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ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

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In this work, the development and application of distributed economic model predictive control (DEMPC) methodologies to a catalytic reactor is considered. Specifically, two DEMPC methodologies are designed for sequential and iterative implementation, respectively. The DEMPC architectures are evaluated on the basis of the closed-loop performance and on-line computation time requirements compared to a centralized EMPC approach. For the catalytic reactor considered, DEMPC proves to be a viable option as it is able to give similar closed-loop performance while reducing the on-line computation time requirements relative to a centralized EMPC strategy.
The thesis of Timothy Leif Anderson is approved.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Operating chemical processes in an economically-optimal manner while maintaining closed-loop stability and satisfying the process constraints is an important issue within chemical process control. To accomplish this objective, model predictive control (MPC) has proven to be an attractive way in many industrial applications (e.g., [17]). MPC is a control methodology that accounts for performance criterion by optimizing a cost function over a finite-time prediction horizon subject to a process model (to predict the future behavior of the process), process constraints (e.g., state and input constraints), and stability constraints. Traditionally, the cost function used within MPC is a quadratic cost that is positive definite with respect to an operating steady-state of a process.

Given that MPC is implemented in a receding horizon fashion (i.e., an optimization problem is solved on-line at each sampling time to compute the control actions), significant computation delay may result when computing control actions for process systems of high dimension (i.e., many states and inputs) which may affect closed-loop stability and performance. In the context of control of large-scale nonlinear chemical process networks, an attractive alternative is to employ a distributed MPC (DMPC) architecture (e.g., [5]). DMPC has the ability to control large-scale multiple-input multiple-output with input and state constraints while remaining computationally feasible to implement on-line through a
distributed implementation of the computations (i.e., the computation of control actions is distributed to multiple processors). Numerous formulations, implementation strategies, and theoretical results have been developed within the context of standard tracking DMPC (e.g, [14, 13, 19]; see, also, the reviews of [18, 5] and the references therein for results on DMPC).

To integrate process (dynamic) optimization and control, economic MPC (EMPC), which optimizes a general cost function that represents the process economics instead of a quadratic cost function, has been proposed as a control methodology that may help to enable future manufacturing tasks like demand-driven process operations (e.g., [2, 10, 3, 9]; see, also, the review [8] and the references therein). Recently, significant effort within the control community has focused on (centralized) EMPC. Since EMPC may use a general (nonlinear) economic cost function and may dictate a time-varying operation strategy, the on-line computation required to solve EMPC may be significant especially for large-scale process networks. Thus, distributed EMPC (DEMPC) may be one choice to significantly reduce the on-line computational burden. To date, only a limited amount of work on DEMPC for linear systems [11, 6, 15] and for nonlinear systems [4, 12] has been completed. While these works on distributed EMPC (DEMPC) have shown some promising results on DEMPC, more work in this direction is in order which may include the continued development of DEMPC algorithms, rigorous theoretical stability analysis, and novel control loop decompositions methodologies tailored for DEMPC.

In the present work, sequential and iterative distributed EMPC strategies are developed and applied to a benchmark catalytic reactor where time-varying operation of the reactor gives greater yield of the product compared to steady-state operation. A description of the DEMPC implementation strategies is provided. Several closed-loop simulations are performed to evaluate the approaches. Two key performance metrics are considered in the evaluation: the closed-loop economic performance under the various DEMPC strategies and the on-line computation time required to solve the EMPC optimization problems.
An outline of the remainder of the paper is as follows: in the following section, the class of systems that the catalytic reactor belongs to is given and a general formulation of EMPC is provided. The subsequent section gives a description of the process. The final section gives numerous closed-loop simulation results of the catalytic reactor under various DEMPC schemes implemented according to centralized and distributed implementations.

1.1 Class of Nonlinear Systems

The class of nonlinear systems considered are described by the following system of first-order ordinary differential equations:

\[
\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u_1(t), \ldots, u_m(t), w(t))
\]  

(1.1)

where \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \) denotes the state vector, \( u_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{u_i}} \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) denotes the \( i \)th manipulated (control) input vector, \( w \in \mathbb{R}^{n_w} \) denotes the disturbance vector. The (full) input vector has been divided into \( m \) input vectors given that \( m \) distributed controllers will be designed to control each of the \( m \) input vectors. The input vectors are bounded in a convex set denoted as \( U_i := \{ u_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{u_i}} \mid u_{ij,\text{min}} \leq u_{ij} \leq u_{ij,\text{max}}, j = 1, \ldots, m_i \} \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) where \( u_{ij,\text{min}} \) and \( u_{ij,\text{max}} \) denote the minimum and maximum bound on the \( j \)th element of the \( i \)th input vector, respectively. Additionally, the disturbance vector is assumed to be bounded: \( w \in W := \{ w \in \mathbb{R}^l \mid |w| \leq \theta \} \) where \( \theta > 0 \) bounds the norm of the disturbance vector. The vector field of the system of Eq. 1.1 is assumed to be a locally Lipschitz vector function of its arguments, and the origin of the unforced system is the equilibrium point of Eq. 1.1 (i.e., \( f(0,0,\ldots,0,0) = 0 \)). A state measurement of the system of Eq. 1.1 is assumed to be available synchronously at sampling instances denoted as \( t_k := t_0 + k\Delta \) where \( t_0 \) is the initial time, \( k \in \mathcal{I}_{\geq 0} \) and \( \Delta > 0 \) is the sampling period.
1.2 Economic Model Predictive Control

In a centralized approach, one can design an EMPC system that computes control actions for all \( m \) input vectors. EMPC, implemented in a centralized approach for the system of Eq. 1.1, is formulated as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{maximize} & \quad \int_0^{N\Delta} l_e(\tilde{x}(\tau), u_1(\tau), \ldots, u_m(\tau)) \, d\tau \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \dot{\tilde{x}}(\tau) = f(\tilde{x}(\tau), u_1(\tau), \ldots, u_m(\tau), 0) \\
& \quad \tilde{x}(0) = x(t_k) \\
& \quad u_i(\tau) \in U_i, \ i = 1, \ldots, m \\
& \quad \forall \tau \in [0, N\Delta) \\
& \quad \int_0^{N\Delta} g(\tilde{x}(\tau), u(\tau)) \, d\tau \leq 0
\end{align*}
\]  

(1.2a) (1.2b) (1.2c) (1.2d) (1.2e)

where the notation \( S(\Delta) \) denotes the family of piecewise constant functions with period \( \Delta \), \( \tilde{x}(\tau) \) denotes the predicted state trajectory under the piecewise constant input profiles, \( u_1(\tau), \ldots, u_m(\tau) \), which are the decision variable of the dynamic optimization problem, \( \Delta \) is the sampling period of the EMPC, and \( N \in I_{\geq 0} \) is the prediction horizon (i.e., number of sampling periods in the prediction horizon). To distinguish between real-time and the prediction time of the EMPC, \( t \) denotes the real (continuous) time, \( t_k \) denotes the discrete sampling instances where state feedback is obtained, and \( \tau \in [0, N\Delta) \) denotes the predicted time in the controller.

The stage cost \( l_e(x, u_1, \ldots, u_m) \) of the EMPC is one of the design/tuning elements of the EMPC. It is chosen to reflect the process economics and need not be a quadratic stage cost like that typically used with standard tracking MPC. The stage cost of the EMPC is referred to as the economic cost function. The computed input profile optimizes the eco-
nominal cost (1.2a) over the prediction horizon while accounting for the following constraints. The constraint (1.2b) is the dynamic model of the process initialized with a state measurement (1.2c) received at sampling instance $t_k$. The nominal dynamic model predicts the future behavior of the process under any input trajectories $u_1(\tau), \ldots, u_m(\tau)$ for $\tau \in [0, N\Delta)$ and allows for the EMPC to compute the optimal input trajectories. The optimal input trajectories are denoted: $u_1^*(\tau|t_k), \ldots, u_m^*(\tau|t_k)$ for $\tau \in [0, N\Delta)$. The bounds on the inputs are given by the constraints of (1.2d). Lastly, the constraint (1.2e) represents economics-based constraints which are typically integral constraints (e.g., the time-averaged amount of raw material that may be fed to the process is fixed and this constraint may be imposed directly in the EMPC).

EMPC, like standard tracking MPC, is implemented in a receding horizon fashion. At a sampling instance $t_k$, the controller receives the current state measurement $x(t_k)$, computes the optimal input trajectories $u_1^*(\tau|t_k), \ldots, u_m^*(\tau|t_k)$ for $\tau \in [0, N\Delta)$ (which corresponds from $t_k$ to $t_{k+N}$), and implements the control action computed for the first sampling period in the prediction horizon on the process: $u_i(t) = u_i^*(0|t_k)$ for $t \in [t_k, t_{k+1})$. The process is repeated at the next sampling period by rolling the horizon one sampling period.
Chapter 2

Catalytic Reactor Example

In this work, a catalytic reactor example is considered to evaluate various DEMPC implementation strategies. A non-isothermal continuous stirred tank reactor (CSTR) where ethylene is catalytically converted to ethylene oxide is considered. Besides the oxidation reaction, two combustion reactions occur that consume ethylene and ethylene oxide. The three reactions are given by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 \overset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow} \text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O} & \quad (R1) \\
\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 3\text{O}_2 \overset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow} 2\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} & \quad (R2) \\
\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O} + \frac{5}{2}\text{O}_2 \overset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow} 2\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} & \quad (R3)
\end{align*}
\]

The reactor has a cooling jacket to remove the heat generated by the three exothermic reactions. The catalytic reactor has three manipulated inputs: the volumetric flow rate of the reactor feed, the ethylene concentration in the reactor feed, and the coolant jacket temperature.

The gaseous mixture contained in the reactor is assumed to be an ideal gas. By employing other standard modeling assumptions, a dynamic model can be developed for the catalytic
reactor, and the resulting dynamic model has four states: the reactor gas mixture density, the reactor ethylene concentration, the reactor ethylene oxide concentration, and the reactor temperature. The states are denoted as $x_1$, $x_2$, $x_3$, and $x_4$, respectively, and the inputs are denoted $u_1$, $u_2$, and $u_3$, respectively (dimensionless variable form is used for all variables). The complete model can be found in [16] which uses the nonlinear Arrhenius reaction rate laws of [1]. The admissible input values are given by the following sets:

$$u_1 \in U_1 := [0.0704, 0.7042] ,$$

$$u_2 \in U_2 := [0.2465, 2.4648] ,$$

$$u_3 \in U_3 := [0.6, 1.1] .$$

The metric that assesses the performance of the catalytic reactor is the average yield of ethylene oxide which is given by:

$$Y(t_f) = \frac{\int_0^{t_f} u_1(t)x_4(t)x_3(t) \, dt}{\int_0^{t_f} u_1(t)u_2(t) \, dt} \quad (2.1)$$

where $t_f$ is the length of operation of the catalytic reactor ($t = 0$ is taken to be the initial time of operation). The average molar flow rate of ethylene that may be fed to the reactor is fixed owing to practical considerations:

$$\frac{1}{t_f} \int_0^{t_f} u_1(t)u_2(t) \, dt = 0.175 . \quad (2.2)$$

To maximize the yield with EMPC, the economic cost used is:

$$l_e(x, u) = u_1 x_4 x_3 \quad (2.3)$$
which only consists of the numerator of the yield (2.1) given that the denominator is fixed by
the constraint (2.2). The following steady-state is within the range of operation of interest,
satisfies constraint (2.2), and is open-loop asymptotically stable:

\[ x_s^T = [0.998 \ 0.424 \ 0.032 \ 1.002] \] (2.4)

with a corresponding steady-state input:

\[ u_s^T = [0.35 \ 0.5 \ 1.0] \] (2.5)

(i.e., stability is not an issue within the range of operation of interest and the objective of
applying EMPC is used to optimize the average yield).
Chapter 3

Evaluation of DEMPC Methods to the Catalytic Reactor

Several implementation strategies (centralized and distributed) are applied to the catalytic reactor. Studying the benefits of applying EMPC to the catalytic reactor has already been considered. In [7], improved average yield of ethylene oxide resulted by applying EMPC to the process compared to operating the reactor at steady-state as well as operating the reactor with an open-loop optimal periodic switching of the inputs $u_1$ and $u_2$ considered in [16]. The closed-loop simulations below were programmed using C++ on a desktop computer with an Ubuntu Linux operating system and an Intel® Core™ i7 3.4 GHz processor. To recursively solve the catalytic reactor dynamic model, the explicit Euler method was used. A step size of 0.00001 was used to simulate the closed-loop dynamics of the reactor, while a step size of 0.005 was used to solve the model within the EMPC optimization problem; both led to stable numerical integration.

Regarding the implementation details of the EMPC systems below, a sampling period of $\Delta = 1.0$ was used. The optimization problems were solved using the interior point solver Ipopt ([20]). To account for real-time computation considerations, the solver was forced to terminate after 100 iterations and/or after 100 seconds of computation time and the tolerance...
of the solver was set to $10^{-5}$. To satisfy the constraint on the amount of ethylene that may be fed to the reactor, this constraint was enforced over operating windows of length $t_p = 47$, that is the average molar flow rate of ethylene must be equal to 0.175 at the end of each operating window. A shrinking horizon approach was used within EMPC: at the beginning of the $j$th operating window, the prediction horizon was set to $N_k := t_p / \Delta$ and the horizon was decreased by one at every subsequent sampling period ($N_k = N_{k-1} - 1$ at the sampling instance $t_k$). At the beginning of the $(j+1)$th operating window, the prediction horizon was reset to $t_p / \Delta$.

### 3.1 Centralized EMPC

For this computational study, a centralized EMPC strategy was considered to compare the two distributed implementation strategies and an EMPC of the form (3.1) was formulated for the catalytic reactor. The centralized EMPC formulation is given by:

$$\begin{align*}
\text{maximize} & \quad \int_0^{N_k \Delta} u_1(\tau) \dot{x}_4(\tau) \tilde{x}_3(\tau) \, d\tau \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \dot{x}(\tau) = f(\tilde{x}(\tau), u_1(\tau), u_2(\tau), u_3(\tau)) \\
& \quad u_i(\tau) \in U_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, 3, \\
& \quad \forall \tau \in [0, N_k \Delta) \\
& \quad \frac{1}{t_p} \int_0^{N_k \Delta} u_1(\tau) u_2(\tau) \, d\tau \\
& \quad = 0.175 - \frac{1}{t_p} \int_{t_0 + j t_p}^{t_k} u_1^*(t) u_2^*(t) \, dt
\end{align*}$$

where $u_1^*(t)$ and $u_2^*(t)$ denote the optimal control actions applied to the reactor from the beginning of the current operating window to the current sampling time.
Figure 3.1: Closed-loop state trajectories of the catalytic reactor under centralized EMPC.

Figure 3.2: Input trajectories computed by the centralized EMPC.
Figs. 3.1-3.2 depict the closed-loop state and input trajectories under the centralized EMPC scheme over ten operating windows. Similar to the results of [7], the EMPC distributes the ethylene in a non-uniform fashion with respect to time to optimize the yield of ethylene oxide. The average yield of ethylene oxide of the reactor under centralized EMPC is 10.22%. On the other hand, the average yield of ethylene oxide of the reactor over the same length of operation under constant steady-state input values is 6.38%, and the average yield under EMPC is 60% better than that of steady-state operation.

3.2 Sequential DEMPC

A sequential implementation strategy computes the control actions for the process by computing a series of distributed controllers in succession. The first controller computes an input trajectory for the first input trajectory (i.e., $u_1$ of system (1.1)). The input trajectory $u_1(t)$ is sent to the next controller to solve for the input trajectory $u_2(t)$. The input trajectory $u_3(t)$ is computed by the third controller after the input trajectories $u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$ are received from the previous controllers. The process is repeated until control actions for all $m$ input vectors have been computed.

For this process example which has three inputs, a reasonable choice of input grouping can be made as a consequence of the integral input constraint (2.2) (i.e., $u_1$ and $u_2$ should be computed by the same EMPC, while it is worth investigating if the input $u_3$ can be placed on another EMPC system). This input pairing will be used in all of the DEMPC schemes below and the resulting EMPC system that computes control actions for $u_1$ and $u_2$ is denoted as EMPC-1, and the other EMPC that computes control actions for $u_3$ is denoted as EMPC-2. The formulations of each EMPC system follows from the centralized EMPC formulation (3.1) and are omitted due to space constraints.
3.2.1 Sequential DEMPC 1-2

The first configuration considered, which is referred to as the sequential DEMPC 1-2, first computes EMPC-1 for the optimal input trajectories $u_1^*(\tau|t_k)$ and $u_2^*(\tau|t_k)$ for $\tau \in [0, N_k \Delta)$. Then, EMPC-2 computes the input trajectory $u_3^*(\tau|t_k)$ after receiving $u_1^*(\tau|t_k)$ and $u_2^*(\tau|t_k)$ from EMPC-2. Since the input trajectory $u_3(\tau)$ has not been determined when EMPC-1 is computed, it is set to be the resulting input trajectory under a PI controller implemented in a sample-and-hold fashion over the prediction horizon (other methods for the assumed profile of $u_3(t)$ within EMPC-1 could be considered). The optimal input trajectories $u_1^*(\tau|t_k)$ and $u_2^*(\tau|t_k)$ are used in EMPC-2 to predict the behavior of the reactor over the prediction horizon (i.e., the optimization problem of EMPC-2 is similar to (3.1) except the decision variable is $u_3$ only, $u_1(\tau)$ and $u_2(\tau)$ are set to the values computed by EMPC-1, and there is no integral input constraint (3.1d)). A block diagram of the resulting control architecture and the communication between EMPC-1 and EMPC-2 is given in Fig. 3.3.

Figs. 3.4-3.5 show the closed-loop state and input trajectories under the sequential DEMPC 1-2, respectively, and the trajectories are similar to those under the centralized EMPC (Figs. 3.1-3.2). For this closed-loop simulation, the average yield was 10.20% (recall, the average yield under centralized EMPC was 10.22%). The difference between the average yield under the centralized EMPC and under the sequential DEMPC 1-2 is small and likely numerically insignificant given the solver parameters used. Some differences in the state
Figure 3.4: Closed-loop state trajectories of the catalytic reactor under the sequential DEMPC 1-2.

Figure 3.5: Input trajectories computed by the sequential DEMPC 1-2.
Figure 3.6: Closed-loop state trajectories of the catalytic reactor under the sequential DEMPC 2-1.

Figure 3.7: Input trajectories of computed by the sequential DEMPC 2-1.

trajectories are observed from Fig. 3.1 and Fig. 3.4 (e.g., \( x_1(t) \) and \( x_4(t) \)). It is important to note that given the nonlinear nature of the process considered, there is no guarantee, in general, that the centralized EMPC and sequential EMPC scheme will lead to the same optimal input trajectories.

3.2.2 Sequential DEMPC 2-1

Another sequential implementation of EMPC-1 and EMPC-2 may be considered by reversing the execution of EMPC-1 and EMPC-2. In this case, EMPC-2 computes its optimal
input trajectory $u_3^*(\tau|t_k)$ first. The sequential DEMPC approach is referred to as sequential DEMPC 2-1. To solve EMPC-2, the trajectories $u_1(\tau)$ and $u_2(\tau)$ are set to the input trajectories resulting from two PI controllers implemented in sample-and-hold fashion. The block diagram describing this DEMPC architecture is similar to that of Fig. 3.3 with communication between EMPC-1 and EMPC-2 in the opposite direction. Figs. 3.6-3.7 are the closed-loop state and input trajectories under the sequential DEMPC 2-1 approach. Compared to the other trajectories more noticeable differences are observed.

### 3.3 Iterative DEMPC

Instead of sequential computation of the distributed EMPC schemes, parallel computation may be employed. Given the control actions are computed without the knowledge of the control actions computed by the other distributed EMPC schemes, an iterative approach may be used to (ideally) compute control actions closer to the centralized solution. It is important to note that given the nonlinearity and non-convexity of the optimization problems, it is difficult, in general, to guarantee that an iterative DEMPC strategy will converge to the centralized solution (even after infinite iterations). Moreover, there is no guarantee that the input solution computed at each iteration improves upon the closed-loop performance over the previous iterate. An iterative DEMPC scheme is designed for the catalytic reactor and a block diagram of the iterative DEMPC control architecture is given in Fig. 3.8. The
computed input trajectories at each iteration of the iterative DEMPC is denoted as $u_{i}^{*c}(\tau|t_k)$, $i = 1, 2, 3$ where $c$ is the iteration number. Both EMPC-1 and EMPC-2 were initialized with the sample-and-hold input solution computed from the same PI controllers used in the sequential DEMPC schemes. The control action applied to the reactor is denoted as $u_{i}^{*f}(t_k|t_k)$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$ where $f$ is the number of iterations of the iterative DEMPC scheme ($f$ is a design parameter of the scheme).

For this example, no closed-loop performance benefit was observed after iterating more than once through the iterative DEMPC scheme. In fact, using the previous iterate solution
to compute the next iterative gave worse closed-loop performance than applying the first computed iteration to the process. One method considered to compensate for this problem was to use the best computed input solution over all iterations to compute the next iteration. However, minimal closed-loop performance benefit was observed with this method as well. Thus, $f = 1$ for this case given that using more than one iteration did not improve the closed-loop performance and the resulting trajectories are given in Figs. 3.9-3.10. The trajectories have similar characteristics as the centralized case.

### 3.4 Evaluation of DEMPC Approaches

The average yield and average computation time required to solve the optimization problem at each sampling period over the entire simulation were considered for all the cases considered. The sequential DEMPC computation time is computed as the sum of the computation time of EMPC-1 and EMPC-2 at each sampling time because the sequential DEMPC schemes are computed sequentially. The iterative DEMPC is computed as the maximum computation time of any one EMPC at each sampling time (recall only one iteration was used). The average yield and average computation time for all the cases is given in Table 3.1. The centralized EMPC, sequential DEMPC 1-2, and iterative DEMPC schemes all gave similar closed-loop performance. The sequential DEMPC 1-2 and iterative DEMPC result in approximately a 70% reduction in computation time over the centralized EMPC. The sequential DEMPC 2-1 scheme not only had the worst performance of all the strategies

### Table 3.1: Summary of the closed-loop average yield and average computation time under various EMPC implementation strategies.

| Strategy           | Yield (%) | Comp. time (s) |
|--------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Sequential DEMPC 1-2 | 10.20     | 1.039          |
| Sequential DEMPC 2-1 | 9.92      | 2.969          |
| Iterative DEMPC    | 10.05     | 0.832          |
| Centralized EMPC   | 10.22     | 4.244          |
considered (albeit still better than steady-state operation), but also, approached the amount of time to solve the optimization problems as the centralized case, thereby implying a strong dependence of closed-loop performance on controller calculation sequence.

The overall need for DEMPC for this example may be debatable given its size. However, the example and implementation strategy illustrate a key point within the context of DEMPC in addition to the points regarding closed-loop performance and on-line computation time. Specifically, the inclusion of integral constraint in EMPC may be an important consideration for input selection in DEMPC. From the sequential DEMPC results, the computed $u_3(\tau)$ profile is impacted by the assumed input profiles $u_1(\tau)$ and $u_2(\tau)$ (Fig. 3.7), while $u_1(\tau)$ and $u_2(\tau)$ are not affected as much by the assumed profile $u_3(\tau)$ (Fig. 3.5) compared to the centralized EMPC case (Fig. 3.2). This behavior may be due to the enforcement of the integral input constraint, and for this example, there may only be one method to distribute a fixed amount of ethylene to the reactor that maximizes the yield that is independent of $u_3(\tau)$. 
Chapter 4

Conclusion

Sequential and iterative DEMPC methodologies were formulated and applied to a catalytic reactor example. For the catalytic reactor, the DEMPC was able to yield comparable closed-loop performance while reducing the on-line computation burden required to solve the EMPC optimization problems at each sampling period. This could allow EMPC to be used on processes where centralized control is not feasible due to the solve time. Future work on DEMPC will include systematic loop decomposition for DEMPC on the basis of the process economics as well as formulating an iterative DEMPC scheme with guaranteed closed-loop stability.
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