Parametric, nonparametric and parametric modelling of a chaotic circuit time series

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Abstract

The determination of a differential equation underlying a measured time series is a frequently arising task in nonlinear time series analysis. In the validation of a proposed model one often faces the dilemma that it is hard to decide whether possible discrepancies between the time series and model output are caused by an inappropriate model or by bad estimates of parameters in a correct type of model, or both. We propose a combination of parametric modelling based on Bock’s multiple shooting algorithm and nonparametric modelling based on optimal transformations as a strategy to test proposed models and if rejected suggest and test new ones. We exemplify this strategy on an experimental time series from a chaotic circuit where we obtain an extremely accurate reconstruction of the observed attractor.

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Key words: Modelling chaotic time series; nonparametric modelling; parameter estimation; flow vector field reconstruction.

1 Introduction

It is an old goal in nonlinear time series analysis to infer the “Equations of motion from data series” (1). Especially, for continuous flow systems modelling a sampled time series by a differential equation might allow for insight into the mechanisms at work by interpreting the resulting structure of the equation and values of the parameters. This is known as “interpretability” of a model (2) as opposed to black-box approaches like an attractor reconstruction (3).

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The straightforward procedure to estimate the parameters in differential equations is to estimate time derivatives from the data and determine the parameters by a least-squares minimisation (4, 5, 6). This approach is firstly limited by the additive observational noise which usually covers the observed dynamics and prohibits the reliable estimation of the derivatives (7), especially if only one component of the multidimensional system can be measured. Secondly, it is hampered by the huge number of possible nonlinear models that have to be compared.

Fortunately, there is often prior knowledge that gives constraints on the model or even suggests a specific type of model (8, 9). The validity of a specific model can be evaluated by comparing properties of simulated time series with the measured one (9). This approach faces a dilemma. For the simulation the parameters have to be specified. Thus, it is difficult to decide whether possible discrepancies between the properties of the simulated and the measured time series are caused by the fact that the chosen type or structure of model is wrong or by the circumstance that the parameters have been chosen inappropriately in the correct type of model, or both. In this paper we show that parametric modelling based on Bock’s multiple shooting algorithm (10, 11) can solve this dilemma. If the model type is rejected we propose a search in structure space instead of parameter space. A search in structure space can be performed in two ways: Fitting coefficients for certain basis functions (e.g. coefficients of polynomials) and nonparametrically. Here we chose nonparametric modelling based on optimal transformations and maximal correlations (12, 13, 14) as an exploratory tool to suggest a new type of model that again can be tested by parametric modelling. We explain and exemplify this strategy on a measured time series from a chaotic circuit (8, 15). In this application our strategy yields a reconstruction of the observed attractor of unprecedented accuracy.

The paper is organized as followed: In the next section we briefly describe the two modelling procedures. For detailed discussions of the mathematical methods, proofs of convergence and numerical details, see (10, 11, 12). In Section 3 we introduce the data and the model derived from prior knowledge for these data in (8). The parametric modelling based on the suggested model, the search for a better model by a nonparametric procedure and the final parametric fit is presented in Section 4.

2 Methods

2.1 Bock’s multiple shooting algorithm for parameter estimation

A common setting in modelling time series by differential equations is
\[ \begin{align*}
\dot{x}(t) &= f(\hat{x}(t), \hat{\rho}) \quad (\hat{x}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^m, \quad \hat{\rho} \in \mathbb{R}^p, \quad t \in [t_0, t_f]) \\
y(t_i) &= g(\hat{x}(t_i)) + \eta(t_i),
\end{align*} \tag{1} \]

where \( f \) defines the dynamics that depends on a parameter vector \( \hat{\rho} \). The state vector \( \hat{x}(t) \) is observed through a function \( g(\cdot) \) and the observation \( y(t_i) \) is sampled at times \( t_i \) and disturbed by white observational noise \( \eta(t_i) \) of standard deviation \( \hat{\sigma}_i \). In general, the observation function \( g(\cdot) \) can also contain unknown parameters. In the following, for ease of clarity, we assume the often met condition of a known, scalar observation function

\[ g(\cdot) = x_1(t_i) \tag{3} \]

which records one, for ease of notation the first, component of the dynamical state.

A first approach to estimate the parameters without the need to estimate derivatives from the data is the initial value approach \cite{16, 17}. For this procedure, initial guesses for the parameters and the initial values \( \hat{x}(t_0) \) are chosen. Then Eq. (1) is solved numerically and estimates \( \hat{y}(t_i, \hat{\rho}, \hat{x}(t_0)) \) are calculated by Eq. (3). The error cost function

\[ \chi^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( \frac{(\hat{y}(t_i, \hat{\rho}, \hat{x}(t_0)) - y(t_i))^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right) \tag{4} \]

is minimized with respect to the parameters \( \hat{\rho} \) and the initial values \( \hat{x}(t_0) \) by some numerical optimization algorithm \cite{18}. For this procedure, the only information from the measured time series that enters the initial guesses of the optimization procedure is the value of the observed component, Eq. (3), at time \( t_0 \).

Simulation studies have shown that, for many types of dynamics, this approach is numerically unstable by yielding a diverging trajectory or stopping in a local minimum \cite{19, 20, 21}. The reason for this is that even for slightly wrong parameters, the trial trajectory looses contact to the measured trajectory. This is most evident in the case of chaotic dynamics, where due to the sensitivity with respect to initial conditions the numerical trial trajectory is expected to follow the measured trajectory of the system only for a limited amount of time. This divergence of the numerical and measured trajectory introduces many local minima in the landscape of the error functional, Eq. (4).

This problem can be circumvented by a multiple shooting algorithm introduced by Bock \cite{10, 11}. Here we only briefly explain this algorithm. The basic idea of the algorithm is to start the optimization with an only piecewise continuous trajectory that stays close to the data. If the observation function is
\( g(.) = x_1(t) \), more information than only the first value of the measured time series as in the initial value approach can be used as initial guesses for the optimization procedure by the following strategy: The time interval \([t_0, t_f]\) of measurement is divided into numerous segments \([t_j, t_{j+1}]\). A trial trajectory for each segment is calculated using the information \( \tilde{x}_1(t_j) = y(t_j) \) from the measured time series and initial guesses for the remaining components of \( \tilde{x}(t_j) \). The condition that the underlying trajectory is smooth enters into the algorithm by a constraint in the cost function, Eq. (4). This constraint is nonlinear in the parameters but enters the optimization strategy using a Gauß-Newton procedure only in a linearized way. Therefore, the trajectory is allowed to be discontinuous at the beginning of the optimizing iterations but is forced to become smooth in the end. After convergence the algorithm also provides an estimate \( \tilde{x}(t) \) of the unobserved dynamical state.

For time series of chaotic systems it will, in general, not be possible to find a trajectory \( \tilde{x}(t) \) that shadows the true trajectory for arbitrary long times. Furthermore, if the model is not correct, experience shows that a fit to the whole time interval \([t_0, t_f]\) of measurement often does not converge. For both reasons, the time series is cut into pieces of equal length, and the parameters are fitted to all the pieces simultaneously. The length of these pieces is chosen as large as possible.

We show the process of convergence for the time series under investigation in Section 4.3, Fig. 6. Analogous illustrative applications to simulated time series are given in (21, 22, 23). Note that after convergence the algorithm is identical to an initial value approach: It predicts the time series for each of the whole pieces based on the estimated initial values of the unobserved state vector.

After convergence confidence intervals for the parameters can be calculated from the curvature of the cost function (11). Note that both approaches do not need an attractor reconstruction by a delay embedding. Thus, all problems associated with the delay reconstruction of a chaotic and noisy phase space, like finding an optimal embedding window and the “curse of dimensionality,” are of no or minor importance here. Most importantly, we do not need such huge amounts of data as generally needed for a useful delay reconstruction and the method is also applicable to transient time series, see (20, 24).

By Bock’s multiple shooting algorithm the probability of stopping in local minima is reduced compared to the initial value approach. Nonetheless, the algorithm should be applied with different initial guesses for the parameters and the unobserved components at times \( t_j \) to yield confidence in the global optimality of the resulting estimates.
2.2 Nonlinear regression and optimal transformations

Optimal transformations and the associated concept of maximal correlation provide a nonparametric procedure to detect and determine nonlinear relationships in data sets. Let $X$ and $Y$ denote two zero-mean data sets and

\[ R(X,Y) = \frac{E[XY]}{\sqrt{E[X^2] E[Y^2]}} \]  

their (normalized) linear correlation coefficient, where $E[.]$ is the expectation value. The basic idea of this approach is to find transformations $\Theta(Y)$ and $\Phi(X)$ such that the absolute value of the correlation coefficient between the transformed variables is maximized. That is, the so-called maximal correlation (25; 26; 27)

\[ \Psi(X,Y) = \sup_{\Theta^*, \Phi^*} |R(\Theta^*(Y), \Phi^*(X))| \]  

is calculated. The functions $\Theta(Y)$ and $\Phi(X)$ for which the supremum is attained are called optimal transformations. Generalizing the concept of linear correlation, where the linear correlation coefficient $R(X,Y)$ quantifies linear dependences

\[ Y = aX + \eta \quad (a \in \mathbb{R}) , \]  

$\Psi(X,Y)$ quantifies nonlinear dependences of the form

\[ \Theta(Y) = \Phi(X) + \eta . \]  

Especially, if there is complete statistical dependence (27), i.e., $Y$ is a function of $X$ or vice versa, the maximal correlation attains unity. This is also true for the relation (8) with $\eta = 0$. Here we are mainly interested in the estimation of the optimal transformations for the multivariate regression problem

\[ \Theta(Y) = \Phi_1(X_1) + \ldots + \Phi_m(X_m) + \eta . \]  

This is an additive model for the (not necessarily independent) input variables $X_1, \ldots, X_m$. The regression functions involved can be estimated as the optimal transformations for the multivariate problem analogous to Eq. (6). To estimate these in a nonparametric way, we use the Alternating Conditional Expectation (ACE) algorithm (12). This iterative procedure is nonparametric because the optimal transformations are estimated by local smoothing of
the data using kernel estimators. We use a modified algorithm\footnote{A MATLAB- and a C-program for the ACE algorithm can be obtained from the authors or from the web page \url{http://www.fdm.uni-freiburg.de/~hv/hv.html}.} in which the data are rank-ordered before the optimal transformations are estimated. This makes the result less sensitive to the data distribution. We remark that optimal transformations for multiplicative combinations of variables $\tilde{X}_1, \ldots, \tilde{X}_l$ can be estimated by forming

$$X_i = h_i(\tilde{X}_1, \ldots, \tilde{X}_l), \quad (10)$$

where the $h_i$ are arbitrary functions.

With respect to the analysis of data from nonlinear dynamical systems, the maximal correlation and optimal transformations have been applied to identify delay \cite{14} and partial differential equations \cite{28}. In application to differential equations, time derivatives have to be estimated from data. The effects of the noise on the estimated optimal transformations is not yet completely understood. On the one hand, for neglectable amounts of noise this approach has successfully been applied to experimental physical data of different origin \cite{29,30}, yielding also quantitatively accurate results. On the other hand, if noise contamination is strong, this method should more be used as an exploratory tool in the process of model selection. To minimize the influence of the noise on the results, the variable with the best signal-to-noise ratio, usually the undifferentiated time series, should be chosen as $Y$. In Section 4.2 we show an application to a measured time series.

3 The data

The time series that we will analyze in Section 4 by the methods described in Section 2 was taken from an electric circuit in a chaotic regime. Technical details of the circuit are given in \cite{15}. The data were measured at The Institute for Nonlinear Science of UCSD and are available in the scope of the Y2K Benchmarks of Predictability competition at \url{http://y2k.maths.ox.ac.uk}

The model proposed in \cite{8,15} to describe the circuit reads in dimensionless units

\begin{align*}
\dot{x} &= y \\
\dot{y} &= -x - \delta y + z \\
\dot{z} &= \gamma(\alpha f(x) - z) - \sigma y , \quad (11)
\end{align*}
where \( x \) corresponds to a voltage, \( y \) to a current and \( z \) to another voltage. The parameters correspond to combinations of an inductivity, the resistances and the two capacitances of the circuit. For the chosen experiment the proposed parameters are \( \alpha = 15.6, \gamma = 0.294, \sigma = 1.52, \) and \( \delta = 0.534 \) (8).

The nonlinearity is given by

\[
f(x) = \begin{cases} 
0.528 & \text{if } x \leq -1.2 \\
 x(1-x^2) & \text{if } -1.2 < x < 1.2 \\
-0.528 & \text{if } x \geq 1.2 
\end{cases}
\]  
\text{(12)}

The measured time series corresponds to the \( x \)-component of the differential equation.

The nonparametric modelling by optimal transformations requires a reformulation of Eq. (11) as a scalar higher order differential equation. The equivalent description reads:

\[
x^{(3)} + (\delta + \gamma)\ddot{x} + (1 + \gamma\delta + \sigma)\dot{x} + \gamma(x - \alpha f(x)) = 0.
\]  
\text{(13)}

For the sake of clarity, we define \( a = \delta + \gamma, b = 1 + \gamma\delta + \sigma \) and \( g(x) = \gamma(x - \alpha f(x)) \). For the proposed parameters, \( a = 0.828 \) and \( b = 2.677 \). Furthermore, to facilitate the comparison of the results of the different approaches in Section 4.3, based on Eq. (13), we transform the original system (11), into

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x} &= v \\
\dot{v} &= w \\
\dot{w} &= -aw - bv - g(x)
\end{align*}
\]  
\text{(14)}

Visual inspection of the time series indicates that the variance of the observational noise is rather small. This is confirmed by spectral analysis which shows a low power flattening for high frequencies (31). Thus, we assume that the observational noise is due to discretization during sampling and follows a uniform distribution:

\[
\eta \sim U(-0.0005, 0.0005)
\]  
\text{(15)}
4 Results

Figure 1 shows attractor reconstructions for the measured and a simulated time series based on Eq. (11), and the proposed parameters given in the previous section. For the simulated time series, the attractor is smaller, the “holes” in the two loops are larger and the distances between the inner edges of the loops and the region in phase space where the trajectories change the loops are smaller.

4.1 Parametric modelling I

To compare the measured and the simulated time series in the time domain we apply a restricted version of Bock’s algorithm. As outlined in Section 2.1 the algorithm finally yields estimates for the parameters as well as for the unobserved dynamical state (in Eq. (11) denoted by \(x, y, z\)). Here, we fix the parameters during the optimization process to the proposed ones and only allow the estimation of the state to be optimized. Figure 2 shows a segment of the measured time series (dotted line) and the estimated time series conditioned on the parameter values \(\alpha = 15.6, \gamma = 0.294, \sigma = 1.52,\) and \(\delta = 0.534\). We have reproduced identical results for numerous different choices of the initial guesses for the unobserved components \(y\) and \(z\). The maximal length of the pieces applied in the estimation procedure that yielded a convergence was 1280µs corresponding to 64 data points, which represents approximately 1.5 rotations on the loops. The mean squared error between the measured and the estimated time series is \(2.312 \times 10^{-2}\). Now we are in the situation mentioned in the Introduction, Section 1: The proposed model type with proposed specific parameters is not able to reproduce the measured time series.

To decide the question if a change of the parameters is sufficient to explain the measured data or whether a different model type has to be chosen, we apply the full version of Bock’s algorithm. As initial guesses for the parameters we chose those originally proposed and also tested different ones in the same order of magnitude. As initial guesses for the initial values of the unobserved \(y, z\)-components we chose values between \(-10\) and \(10\). The result is given in Fig. 2 (solid line). The estimated parameters are \(\alpha = 1333 \pm 101, \gamma = 0.00291 \pm 0.00031, \sigma = 1.420 \pm 0.075,\) and \(\delta = 0.799 \pm 0.075\). The mean squared error between the measured and the estimated time series is \(7.689 \times 10^{-3}\). The mean deviation to the measured time series is decreased, but there are still systematic discrepancies. This can be observed by the mismatch at the minima and maxima of the time series. Moreover, as in the first attempt, the maximal length of the pieces applied in the estimation procedure that yielded
a convergence was 1280 $\mu$s. As mentioned in Section 2.1 this gives evidence that the proposed model type is incorrect.

4.2 Nonparametric modelling

Figure 2 shows that there is a systematic deviation of the estimated time course from the measured one even for the best fit parameters. This calls for an alteration of the model. Since there is only one nonlinearity in the suggested model, see Eq. (11), we suspect that the proposed functional form of this nonlinearity might not be correct. To obtain a nonparametric estimate of the functional form, we apply the method of optimal transformations, described in Section 2.2. Therefore, in order to make all variables accessible, we use the equivalent one-dimensional third order system (13). As input variables for the multiple nonparametric regression problem (9) we use

$$Y = x, \quad X_1 = \dot{x}, \quad X_2 = \ddot{x}, \quad X_3 = x^{(3)}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

The time derivatives entering $X_1$, $X_2$ and $X_3$ have to be estimated from the data. The observational noise on the data is rather small, see Fig. 2 (solid line), presumably only resulting from the analog-to-digital conversion. Despite the small variance the estimated time derivatives are rather noisy. Figure 3a shows segments of the estimated derivatives of first to third order. The third derivative appears to be useless for a further analysis. However, by a proper filtering in frequency domain, also third-order derivatives can be recovered easily and with high precision, as shown in Fig. 3b.

According to Eq. (13) we expect the optimal transformations of $X_1$, $X_2$ and $X_3$ each to be linear. The optimal transformation of $Y$ should turn out to be a linear combination of the unknown nonlinearity in the circuit and a linear function. It corresponds to $g(x) = \gamma(x - \alpha f(x))$ in the original system.

Applying the nonparametric regression analysis, we get the optimal transformations as displayed in Fig. 4. In estimating conditional expectation values as necessary in the ACE algorithm, we choose a rectangular smoothing kernel that averages over 41 data points. The value of $\Psi(Y, X_1, X_2, X_3)$ is 0.989 indicating that $Y$ can be well described by the chosen variables $(X_1, X_2, X_3)$. The results for $X_1$ and $X_3$ within the 5 to 95 % quantiles of the data are well consistent with the expected linear behavior from Eq. (13). The optimal transformation for $X_2$ can still be described fairly well by a linear function. Linear regression yields the parameter estimates $a = 0.7963$ and $b = 2.5041$. The optimal transformation for $Y = x$, Fig. 4(a), deviates qualitatively from the proposed form $g(x) = \gamma(x - \alpha f(x))$ which exhibits a discontinuous first derivative at $x = \pm 1.2$, see also Fig. 7 below. It suggests a description of the
term \( g(x) \) by a polynomial

\[
g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i x^i. \tag{17}
\]

We fitted polynomials of increasing order to the nonparametric estimate of the nonlinearity by the optimal transformation. An order of 7 yields a fit that is essentially unaffected by a further increase of \( m \), see Fig. 4a (smooth line). The resulting parameters are \( c_0 = 0.1033, c_1 = -4.9573, c_2 = -0.2462, c_3 = 6.887, c_4 = 0.1744, c_5 = -2.656, c_6 = -0.040, \) and \( c_7 = 0.3652. \)

Figure 5 displays the reconstructed attractor based on a simulation of the model described by the estimated optimal transformations. The size of the attractor coincides with the attractor reconstructed from the measured time series, but the appearance differs. Since, unlike in the parametric approach, we have not optimized the dynamics of our model but performed only a nonlinear regression analysis of the variables \((Y, X_1, X_2, X_3)\), it can be expected that this result could still be improved. This would require, however, an extensive search for optimal parameters in the estimation of derivatives and conditional expectation values in the ACE algorithm, since the effect of noise in these steps is not completely understood. Rather to do that, we take this result as an exploratory approximation that yields useful guesses for the functional form of the nonlinearity and the initial parameters in parametric modelling again.

### 4.3 Parametric modelling II

In the following, to allow for a comparison of the different approaches, we use the writing of Eq. (14), where the proposed nonlinearity reads \( g(x) = \gamma (x - \alpha f(x)). \)

The coefficients of the even-order monomials fitted to the optimal transformation in the previous section are rather small. Therefore, we suspect that they are consistent with zero. Based on the suggested form for the nonlinearity from the previous section, we now apply Bock’s algorithm using a sum of odd monomials up to seventh order as nonlinearity

\[
g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{4} c_{2i-1} x^{2i-1}. \tag{18}
\]

For the new model we were able to fit the parameters from pieces of length 1024 points. Figure 6 shows the first half of one such piece of the measured
time series (dotted line) and the process of convergence of Bock’s multiple
shooting algorithm (solid line).

The convergence for rather long pieces as well as the coincidence of the finally
estimated time course of $x(t_i)$ and the measured data in Fig. 6c suggests that
the polynomial nonlinearity of Eq. (18) provides a better description of the
underlying system than the saturating nonlinearity of Eq. (12).

As mentioned in Section 3, the small observation noise on the data leads to
unrealistic small confidence intervals for the estimated parameters. To obtain
a realistic impression of the variability of the parameter estimates, we divided
the time series in 8 parts and report the mean and standard deviations cal-
culated from the results for these parts: $a = 0.759 \pm 0.021$, $b = 2.526 \pm 0.014,$
$c_1 = -4.56 \pm 0.16$, $c_3 = 6.44 \pm 0.58$, $c_5 = -2.55 \pm 0.41$, and $c_7 = 0.366 \pm 0.074$.
The mean squared error is $1.581 \times 10^{-3}$.

Figure 7 compares the proposed nonlinearity $g(x) = \gamma(x - \alpha f(x))$, the optimal
transformation $\Theta(Y = x)$ and the corresponding function based on the final
parametric fit. Interestingly, the fitted polynomial closely follows the proposed
nonlinearity for small absolute values of $x$, but approaches the estimated op-
timal transformation for larger values of $x$.

Analogous to Fig. 1, Fig. 8 displays the reconstructed attractor based on a
simulated time series using the polynomial Eq. (18) as nonlinearity and the
best fit parameters. The attractors are in excellent agreement.

5 Discussion

We proposed a three-step procedure for modelling nonlinear time series by
differential equations and exemplified this strategy on a physical application.
We chose the algorithmically more difficult modelling by differential equations
in favor to discrete-time difference equations because the results of the former
are usually easier interpretable in terms of the underlying physics (23).

Bock’s multiple shooting approach to parameter estimation in differential
equations does not require to estimate time derivatives from the data which
limits the applicability of many other approaches. Note that even for the very
clean data in our application it is not possible to estimate the third deriva-
tive without using some kind of low-pass filtering, see Fig. 3. The price to be
paid in Bock’s algorithm is that this approach needs a parameterized model.
On the other hand, nonparametric modelling by optimal transformations does
not require a specific parameterized model but is more susceptible to noise.
Furthermore, it treats the problem as a case of regression, not taking into
account that the data were generated by a dynamical system. Nevertheless, as our application has shown, it can be applied to inspire parametric models that, again, can be checked by parametric modelling of the dynamical system by Bock’s multiple shooting algorithm.

The difference between the results for the nonparametric and the final parametric analysis displayed in Fig. 7 shows that a simple parametric fit to the nonparametric estimate of the nonlinearity as reported in Section 4.2 can be improved by the third step of our procedure that evaluates the predictive ability of the model in the time domain. In the discussed application our final result is extremely accurate considering that we used an experimental time series and that we can reproduce the global dynamics of this highly nonlinear system (Fig. 8). The excellent agreement between the dynamics of a measured chaotic time series and an estimated model is a highly nontrivial result in nonlinear modelling.

Canonically, dynamical systems are given as vector-valued first order differential equations. A precondition to apply the second, nonparametric, model generating step of the proposed strategy is that the dynamical system can be expressed as a scalar, higher order differential equation. It follows from Theorem III of Takens’ seminal paper that for an $m$-dimensional system of first order differential equations there is always an equivalent one dimensional differential equation of maximum order $2m + 1$. Unfortunately, it depends on the given system whether it is possible to find an explicit form for the one dimensional counterpart. Fortunately, as far as known to the authors, for all chaotic standard systems the one-dimensional writing is possible. Note that in the investigated case of electronic circuits (due to Kirchhoff’s laws) a huge class of nonlinear circuits can be modelled by differential equations like Eq. (11) anyway.

It has to be emphasized that the suggested procedure of alternating parametric modelling by Bock’s algorithm and nonparametric modelling by optimal transformations is not a general purpose procedure in the sense of “Equations of motion from a data series” (1). The success of the discussed application depended on prior knowledge about the system, i.e. a roughly correct first suggestion on the structure of right hand side of the differential equation. This, however, is often the case in systems where the dynamics is qualitatively understood, and one is interested in obtaining coefficients or special forms of nonlinearities involved in the dynamics. Therefore, we assume that our approach will be applicable mainly for systems from physics, like electronic circuits or lasers, engineering, e.g. effects of nonlinear friction, biochemistry, e.g. dynamics of protein folding, and biophysics, e.g. dynamics of photosynthesis.
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Fig. 1. Reconstructed attractors. (a) From the measured time series. (b) From the simulated time series based on Eq. (11) and parameters $\alpha = 15.6$, $\gamma = 0.294$, $\sigma = 1.52$, and $\delta = 0.534$. The delay time is 15 sampling units, corresponding to 300$\mu$s.

Fig. 2. Segment of the measured time series (dotted line), the best fit trajectory with fixed parameters $\alpha = 15.6$, $\gamma = 0.294$, $\sigma = 1.52$, and $\delta = 0.534$ (broken line) and result for the best fit parameters $\alpha = 1333$, $\gamma = 0.00291$, $\sigma = 1.420$, and $\delta = 0.799$ (solid line). The fit trajectories contain eight continuous pieces of 64 data points each.
Fig. 3. Piece of the time series and, from top to bottom, pieces of first to third time derivatives estimated from the time series. To obtain the highest accuracy, the derivative estimations are performed in frequency domain by multiplying the transformed data with the first to third power of the wave numbers, respectively, and subsequent back-transforming into the time domain. (a) is a direct estimate, (b) uses a cut-off at 10% of the Nyquist frequency corresponding to a low-pass filter. The reliability of the derivative estimates can be checked roughly by noting that the extrema of the \(i\)th derivative \((i = 0, 1, 2)\) always correspond to a zero in the \((i + 1)\)th derivatives one line below.
Fig. 4. Estimated optimal transformations for the one-dimensional third order differential equation Eq. (13). (a) $\Theta(Y = x)$, (b) $\Phi_1(X_1 = \dot{x} = x^{(1)})$, (c) $\Phi_2(X_2 = \ddot{x} = x^{(2)})$, (d) $\Phi_3(X_3 = x^{(3)})$. In (a) also a fit of a 7th order polynomial is shown. The coefficients of the nonlinearity $g(x)$ estimated this way are given in the text. The vertical lines indicate upper and lower 5% quantiles of the data.
Fig. 5. Reconstructed attractor based on the results for the nonparametric modelling by the optimal transformations.

Fig. 6. Segment of the measured time series (dotted line) and convergence of the multiple shooting approach based on the polynomial nonlinearity (solid line). (a) Trial trajectory for initial guesses of the parameters and initial values, see text for details. (b) Trial trajectory after 3 iterations. (c) Result after convergence.
Fig. 7. Comparison of the proposed piecewise differentiable model nonlinearity, \( g(x) = \gamma(x - \alpha f(x)) \) (bold line), the nonparametrically given optimal transformation \( \Theta(x) \) (dithered line), and the parametrically fitted odd polynomial (dotted line).

Fig. 8. Reconstructed attractors. (a) From the measured time series. (b) From the simulated time series based on Eqs. (14,18) and the best fit parameters, see text. The delay time is 15 sampling units, corresponding to 300\( \mu \)s.