Scheduling Parameter Reduction of Diesel Engine Air Path LPV Model by PCA and Autoencoder-Based Method

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Abstract: This study presents a method to reduce the number of scheduling variables in a linear parameter-varying (LPV) model of a diesel engine air path system. The reduction of these scheduling variables is very important because it exponentially decreases the computational complexity for the gain-scheduled LPV controller synthesis. Principal component analysis (PCA) and autoencoder (AE) based neural networks are applied to the LPV diesel engine’s air path model, and the relationship between the accuracy of the reproduced scheduling variables and the number of the reduced scheduling parameters is evaluated via conduction of numerical simulations.

Keywords: Diesel engine, air path system, LPV model, autoencoder neural networks, principal component analysis, gain-scheduled control

1. INTRODUCTION

Modern diesel engines are typically equipped with variable geometry turbochargers (VGT) and an exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) system to meet the lower NOx, particulate matter (PM) emission, and higher thermal efficiency requirements (Xie et al., 2013; Stefanopoulou et al., 2000; Abd-Alla, 2002). However, these technologies increase the complexity of the system architecture and make it difficult to design the control system. In commercial vehicles, conventional controllers employ lookup tables that are optimized from the results of various experiments. However, the effort involved in constructing these tables has considerably increased because of the complexity of recent engines. Therefore, model-based controller design approaches are required as an alternative to traditional controller design methods.

The plant model of the diesel engines is highly nonlinear, and the controller gains have to be scheduled along with the operational conditions. For this control problem, a gain-scheduled $H_{\infty}$ control (GS control) method can be a promising approach because it can cope with the plant nonlinearity, while also taking into account the plant uncertainties. In GS control, the plant model has to be represented by a linear parameter-varying (LPV) system. In most previous studies, the number of scheduling variables is restricted to one or two, because the number of the linear matrix inequalities (LMIs) to be solved for the GS control grows exponentially with the number of scheduling variables, and this produces a conservative result. However, in the LPV model of the diesel engine, many scheduling variables appear. Conventionally, the ad hoc reduction of the scheduling variables can be employed (Jung and Glover, 2006; Xiukun Wei and del Re, 2006; Liu et al., 2007; Lihua Liu et al., 2008); however, this compromises on the model accuracy, while making the synthesis problem tractable.

For the reduction of the scheduling variables, several approaches have been proposed. One such approach is a procedure based on principal component analysis (PCA) proposed by Kwiatkowski and Werner (2008). The ability of the PCA to reduce the data dimension makes it possible to reduce the number of scheduling variables in the LPV models. However, the PCA cannot capture the nonlinear nature of the scheduling variables, and a method based on the autoencoder (AE) neural networks was proposed by Rizvi et al. (2018). Unlike the PCA, the AEs can capture the nonlinear nature of the scheduling variables by employing the nonlinear activation function. In this study, we apply the PCA-based and AE-based reduction methods on the scheduling variables for the LPV model of the diesel engine air path system, and the relationship between the accuracy of the reduced model and the number of scheduling variables is evaluated via conduction of numerical simulations.

2. LPV MODEL REDUCTION

2.1 Problem formulation

An LPV state-space (LPV-SS) model is defined as follows:

$$\dot{x}_t = A(\theta_t)x_t + B(\theta_t)u_t$$
$$y_t = C(\theta_t)x_t + D(\theta_t)u_t$$

where $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n_x$, $u_t \in \mathbb{R}^n_u$, and $y_t \in \mathbb{R}^n_y$ represent the state vector, control input, and output at time $t$, respectively. The LPV-SS matrices $A(\theta_t)$, $B(\theta_t)$, $C(\theta_t)$ and $D(\theta_t)$ are assumed to be affine functions of $\theta_t$ as:

$$Q(\theta_t) = Q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \theta_{t,i}Q_i, \quad Q_i \in \mathbb{R}^{(n_x+n_y) \times (n_x+n_u)}$$

(2)
where

\[ Q(\theta_t) = \begin{bmatrix} A(\theta_t) & B(\theta_t) \\ C(\theta_t) & D(\theta_t) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n_x+n_u) \times (n_x+n_u)}. \] (3)

The scheduling variables \( \theta_t \in \mathcal{R}^l \) are a continuous function of the measurable signal \( \mu_t \in \mathcal{R}^s \) as:

\[ \theta_t = p(\mu_t), \quad p : \mathcal{R}^s \to \mathcal{R}^l. \] (4)

For the given system Eq. (1), the problem of LPV model reduction can be defined as follows: find a mapping

\[ \rho_t = q(\theta_t) = q(p(\mu_t)), \quad q : \mathcal{R}^l \to \mathcal{R}^m, \] (5)

where \( m < l \), such that the system matrices in

\[ \dot{x}_t = \dot{A}(\rho_t)x_t + \dot{B}(\rho_t)u_t, \]
\[ y_t = \dot{C}(\rho_t)x_t + \dot{D}(\rho_t)u_t \] (6)

have an affine dependence on \( \rho_t \), and the LPV-SS of Eq. (6) approximates that of Eq. (1) sufficiently well.

2.2 PCA-based method

Let us assume that the scheduling variable \( \theta_t \) have been sampled at the time instants \( t = jT_s, j = 0, 1, \ldots, N-1 \); thus, the following matrix is defined as:

\[ \Theta = [\theta(0) \cdots \theta((N-1)T_s)] \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times N}. \] (7)

The rows \( \Theta_i \) of the data matrix need to be normalized by an affine map \( \mathcal{N}_i \) to achieve scaled, zero mean data:

\[ \hat{\Theta}_i^\rho = \mathcal{N}_i(\Theta_i), \quad \Theta_i = \mathcal{N}_i^{-1}(\hat{\Theta}_i^\rho) \] (8)

and a normalized data matrix

\[ \hat{\Theta}^\rho = [\hat{\theta}^\rho(0) \cdots \hat{\theta}^\rho((N-1)T_s)] \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times N} \] (9)

is defined.

In order to apply the PCA to the normalized data, a singular value decomposition is introduced as follows:

\[ \hat{\Theta}^\rho = [U_s, V_s] \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_s & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_s^T \\ V_m^T \end{bmatrix} \] (10)

where \( \Sigma_s \) has \( m \) significant singular values, and \( \Sigma_m \) has \( l-m \) less significant singular values. Therefore, the following approximation holds

\[ \hat{\theta}^\rho = \hat{\theta}^\rho(0) \cdots \hat{\theta}^\rho((N-1)T_s) \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times N} \]
\[ = U_s \Sigma_s V_s^T \approx \Theta_n. \] (11)

The matrix \( U_s \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m} \) represents the basis of the significant column space of the data matrix \( \hat{\Theta}^\rho \), and can be used to obtain a reduced mapping \( q \) from \( \theta_t \) to \( \rho_t \) by computing

\[ \rho_t = U_s^T \Theta_n. \] (12)

The matrix

\[ \dot{Q}(\theta_t) = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{A}(\rho_t) & \dot{B}(\rho_t) \\ \dot{C}(\rho_t) & \dot{D}(\rho_t) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n_x+n_u) \times (n_x+n_u)} \] (13)

in Eq. (6) can be calculated by substituting

\[ \theta_t = \mathcal{N}^{-1}(U_s \rho_t) \] (14)

into Eq. (3). Note that \( \mathcal{N}^{-1} \) denotes the row-wise rescaling map.

### 2.3 Autoencoder neural network-based method

An autoencoder is a special neural network that is defined and trained to replicate its input at the output. The autoencoder has two parts: an encoder and a decoder, and each can have multiple layers. Fig. 1 is a simple autoencoder equipped with a single encoder layer and a single decoder layer. The weighting and bias parameters are optimized by minimizing the error between \( \hat{\theta}^\rho \) and \( \hat{\theta}^\rho_0 \). The nonlinear activation functions can be used for both of the encoder and decoder layers to obtain a reasonable low dimensional transformation of the scheduling variables. The nonlinear mapping obtained between \( \hat{\theta}^\rho \) and \( \hat{\theta}^\rho_0 \) for the reduced scheduling variables leads to solving of the other optimization problem to obtain a reduced LPV model for controller design (Rizvi et al., 2018).

### 3. DIESEL ENGINE AIR PATH SYSTEM

#### 3.1 Plant model

The plant to be controlled is a direct-injection diesel engine manufactured by Toyota. It has four cylinders with a 2.8-L displacement. As shown in Fig. 2, the engine has a variable-geometry turbocharger (VGT) and an exhaust-gas recirculation (EGR) system.

The control inputs are the VGT valve closing \( u_{vgt} \) [% closed] and EGR valve opening \( u_{egr} \) [% open]; in addition, the controlled variables are the intake manifold pressure \( p_{im} \) [kPa] and EGR ratio \( r_{egr} \in [0, 1] \) which is defined as

\[ r_{egr} = \frac{W_{egr}}{W_{egr} + W_{pt}} \] (15)
where $W_{egr}$ [kg/s] and $P_{pt}$ [kg/s] denote the EGR flow and throttle flow, respectively. Furthermore, we define the engine speed as $\omega_e$ [rpm]. The variables and constants used in the model are listed in Table 1 and Table 2. For simplicity, we assume that $c_p$, the specific heat at a constant pressure, and $c_t$, the specific heat at a constant volume, are constants, and all the gases considered in this research obey the ideal gas law.

The diesel engine air path model can be described by the following four differential equations (Hirata et al., 2018a,b).

\[
\frac{p_{pt}}{V_{em}} = \frac{\gamma R}{V_{im}} (T_{im} W_{pt} + T_{egr} W_{egr} - T_{im} W_{ei}), \quad (16)
\]

\[
\frac{\dot{p}_{em}}{V_{em}} = \frac{\gamma R}{V_{em}} (T_{eo} W_{ei} + T_{eo} W_{f} - T_{em} W_{egr} - T_{em} W_{c}), \quad (17)
\]

\[
\dot{\rho}_{pt} = \frac{\gamma R}{V_{pt}} (T_{ic} W_{c} - T_{pt} W_{pt}), \quad (18)
\]

\[
\dot{P}_{c} = \frac{1}{\tau_e} (\rho_{c} P_{t} - P_{c}). \quad (19)
\]

where

\[
W_{ei} = \frac{\omega_e V_{d} \rho_{e}}{120 R T_{im}} p_{im},
\]

\[
W_{pt} = A_{pt} \frac{p_{pt}}{\sqrt{R T_{pt}}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{im}}{p_{pt}} \right),
\]

\[
W_{egr} = A_{egr} \frac{p_{em}}{\sqrt{R T_{em}}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{im}}{p_{em}} \right),
\]

\[
W_{f} = A_{egr} \frac{p_{em}}{\sqrt{R T_{em}}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{cab}}{p_{em}} \right),
\]

\[
W_{c} = c_{p} T_{cab} \left( \frac{p_{im}}{p_{cab}} \right)^{\gamma} - 1,
\]

Table 1. List of variables

| Symbol | Description | Units |
|--------|-------------|-------|
| $W_c$  | Compressor mass flow | [kg/s] |
| $W_{pt}$ | Pre-Throttle mass flow | [kg/s] |
| $W_{egr}$ | EGR mass flow | [kg/s] |
| $W_{ei}$ | Cylinder mass flow | [kg/s] |
| $W_t$ | Turbine mass flow | [kg/s] |
| $W_f$ | Fuel mass flow | [kg/s] |
| $p_{pt}$ | Pre-throttle manifold pressure | [kPa] |
| $p_{im}$ | Intake manifold pressure | [kPa] |
| $p_{em}$ | Exhaust manifold pressure | [kPa] |
| $P_c$ | Compressor power | [W] |
| $P_t$ | Turbine power | [W] |
| $T_{em}$ | Exhaust manifold temperature | [K] |
| $T_{eo}$ | Cylinder out temperature | [K] |
| $A_{pt}$ | Effective opening area (Pre-throttle) | [m²] |
| $A_{egr}$ | Effective opening area (EGR) | [m²] |
| $A_{egr}$ | Effective opening area (VGT) | [m²] |
| $\tau_{egr}$ | EGR ratio | [%] |
| $\omega_e$ | Turbocharger efficiency | | |
| $Q_f$ | Fuel injection quantity | [mm³/st] |

Table 2. List of constants

| Symbol | Description | Units |
|--------|-------------|-------|
| $\rho_{cab}$ | Ambient pressure | [Pa] |
| $T_{pt}$ | Pre-throttle manifold temperature | [K] |
| $T_{im}$ | Intake manifold temperature | [K] |
| $T_{cab}$ | Ambient temperature | [K] |
| $T_{t}$ | Intercooler out temperature | [K] |
| $T_{egr}$ | EGR cooler out temperature | [K] |
| $\eta_{e}$ | Cylinder efficiency | | |
| $H$ | Specific gas constant | [J/kg/K] |
| $c_p$ | Specific heat at constant pressure | [J/kg/K] |
| $\gamma$ | Ratio of specific values | | |
| $V_{im}$ | Volume (Intake manifold) | [m³] |
| $V_{em}$ | Volume (Exhaust manifold) | [m³] |
| $V_{pt}$ | Volume (Pre-throttle manifold) | [m³] |
| $V_{d}$ | Volume (Cylinder) | [m³] |
| $\gamma_v$ | Time constant (Compressor) | [s] |
| $\rho_f$ | Fuel density | [kg/mm³] |
| $N_{cyl}$ | Number of cylinder | | |

\[
P_t = W_{t} P_{t} T_{em} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{p_{cab}}{p_{em}} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} \right],
\]

\[
W_f = \rho_f Q_f \frac{N_{cyl}}{2} \omega_e \frac{\omega_e}{60}
\]

In this model, $T_{em}$ = $T_{eo}$ is assumed, and $T_{eo}$ is calculated using a nonlinear function of a fuel injection quantity $Q_f$ followed by a first-order lag filter (Hirata et al., 2018b).

3.2 LPV model representation

By defining the state vector $x$, control input $u$, and output $y$ as $x = [p_{im}, p_{em}, p_{pt}, P_c]^T$, $u = [A_{pt}, A_{egr}]^T$, $y = (p_{im}, \tau_{egr})^T$, we have the following LPV model.

\[
\dot{x} = A(\theta_t) x + B(\theta_t) u,
\]

\[
y = C(\theta_t) x + D(\theta_t) u
\]

where

\[
\theta_t = [\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_9],
\]

\[
A(\theta_t) = \begin{bmatrix}
-\frac{\gamma V_{d} \rho_{e} \theta_1}{V_{im}} & 0 & \frac{\gamma R}{V_{im}} \theta_2 & 0 \\
-\frac{\gamma R}{V_{im}} \theta_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{\gamma}{V_{pt}} \theta_2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \frac{\gamma R T_{egr}}{V_{pt} P_{c} T_{cab}} \theta_4 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 - \frac{1}{\tau_{c}}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
B(\theta_t) = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & -\frac{\gamma R T_{egr}}{V_{im}} \theta_5
\\
-\frac{\gamma}{V_{em}} \theta_6 & -\frac{\gamma}{V_{em}} \theta_7
\\
\frac{\eta_{t} C}{P_{c}} \theta_8 & 0
\\
0 & \theta_9 \theta_9
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
C(\theta_t) = \begin{bmatrix}
10^{-3} & 0 & 0 & 0
\\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix},
\]

$D(\theta_t) = 0$.

The elements of the scheduling variables $\theta_t$ are described as follows:

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Fig. 3. Simulation pattern (engine speed $\omega_e$ and fuel injection quantity $Q_f$).

\[ \theta_1 = \omega_e, \]
\[ \theta_2 = A_{pf} \sqrt{RT_{pf}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{im}}{p_{pf}} \right), \]
\[ \theta_3 = T_{em} \omega_e \left( \frac{A_{em} Q_f}{RT_{em}} + \frac{\rho_f Q_f N_{em}}{p_{im}} \right), \]
\[ \theta_4 = \frac{1}{\left( \frac{p_{em}}{p_{cem}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} - 1}, \]
\[ \theta_5 = \frac{\psi \left( \frac{p_{cem}}{p_{em}} \right) p_{cem}}{\sqrt{RT_{cem}}}, \]
\[ \theta_6 = \sqrt{RT_{cem} p_{cem}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{cab}}{p_{cem}} \right), \]
\[ \theta_7 = \sqrt{RT_{cem} p_{cem}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{im}}{p_{cem}} \right), \]
\[ \theta_8 = p_{cem} \frac{T_{em}}{R} \psi \left( \frac{p_{cab}}{p_{cem}} \right) \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{p_{cab}}{p_{cem}} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} \right] \]
\[ \theta_9 = \frac{A_{egr} p_{cem} \sqrt{RT_{cem}} \psi \left( \frac{p_{cem}}{p_{em}} \right) \psi \left( \frac{p_{cem}}{p_{em}} \right)}{A_{egr} \sqrt{RT_{cem} p_{cem}}} + A_{m} \frac{p_{cem}}{\sqrt{RT_{pf} p_{pf}}}, \]

where

\[ \psi \left( \frac{p_{out}}{p_{in}} \right) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, & (0 \leq \frac{p_{out}}{p_{in}} < 0.5) \\ \sqrt{2 \frac{p_{out}}{p_{in}} \left( 1 - \frac{p_{out}}{p_{in}} \right)}, & (0.5 \leq \frac{p_{out}}{p_{in}} < 1) \end{cases} \]

3.3 LPV model reduction by PCA-based method

$\Theta$ in Eq. (7) was obtained by performing the mode operation test in which the engine speed and fuel injection quantity were varied as shown in Fig. 3. Since the sampling period of simulation was 1 ms and the obtained data was comparatively longer, the data was re-sampled with the sampling period of 200 ms. The data length was reduced from 160001 to 801. Furthermore, it was normalized so as to have zero mean and unit variance, and $\Theta^n$ in Eq. (9) was obtained. The time responses of $\theta^n_i, i = 1, \ldots, 9$ are shown in Fig. 4.

Then, we applied the singular value decomposition Eq. (10) to $\Theta^n$ for $m = 1, 2, \ldots, 9$, and the estimated scheduling parameters $\hat{\Theta}_n$ in Eq. (11) were calculated. The sum of the RMSE

\[ J = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(\theta^n_i - \hat{\theta}_n^i)^2}{N} \]

was shown in Fig. 5. This RMSE was reduced by increasing the number of the reduced scheduling variables. For $m = 2$, the time responses of $\theta^n$ and $\hat{\theta}_n^i$ are shown in Fig. 6. From this figure, some estimation error is confirmed for $\hat{\theta}_1^i, \hat{\theta}_2^i$, and $\hat{\theta}_3^i$. These errors were reduced by increasing the number of the reduced scheduling variables to $m = 3$ as shown in Fig. 7. $\hat{\theta}_3^i$ still reflects some error; however, other variables replicate the original scheduling variables well. This can be confirmed by Fig. 8 which indicates the RMSE of $\hat{\theta}_n^i$ for $m = 1, 2, 3$. 

![Graph](image1.png)

![Graph](image2.png)

![Graph](image3.png)
3.4 LPV model reduction by autoencoder-based method

We constructed an autoencoder to have four layers for both the encoder and decoder parts. A \textit{selu} (scaled exponential linear unit) function was used as an activation function for the first three layers and a \textit{linear} function was used for the last layer for both the encoder and decoder parts. The \textit{selu} is defined as follows:

\[
\text{selu}(x) = \begin{cases} 
\alpha x & (x > 0) \\
\alpha \lambda (e^x - 1) & (x \leq 0) 
\end{cases}
\]  

where \(\alpha\) and \(\lambda\) are constants, and they are chosen such that the mean and variance of the inputs are preserved between the two consecutive layers (Klambauer et al., 2017). The structure of the autoencoder neural network is shown in Table 3. A Keras neural network API in the Tensorflow library that is written in Python was used to optimize the autoencoder.

The autoencoder was trained so as to minimize the mean squared reconstruction error of \(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta_n\) for the normalized data \(\Theta_0\) —the same data that was used for the PCA-

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**Table 3. Structure of autoencoder**

| Layer     | Activation func. | size |
|-----------|------------------|------|
| Encoder-1 | selu             | 9    |
| Encoder-2 | selu             | 7    |
| Encoder-3 | selu             | 5    |
| Encoder-4 | linear           | \(n\) |
| Decoder-1 | selu             | 5    |
| Decoder-2 | selu             | 7    |
| Decoder-3 | selu             | 9    |
| Decoder-4 | linear           | 9    |
Fig. 11. Estimation error ($m=1,2,3$).

based method. An Adagrad optimizer was used to learn the neural network.

The time response of the reconstructed scheduling variables $\theta^m$ is shown in Fig. 9 for $m = 2$. From this figure, we can confirm that all the reconstructed scheduling variables replicate the original ones, even though the number of the reduced scheduling variables is two. Fig. 10 shows the result when $m = 1$, and it can be seen that the performance is similar to the PCA-based method for $m = 2$. This can be confirmed by comparing Fig. 8 and Fig. 11 which indicate the RMSE of $\theta^m$ for $m = 1, 2, 3$.

4. SUMMARY

In this study, we applied two scheduling parameter reduction methods on the LPV model of a diesel engine air path system, and the accuracy of the reconstructed scheduling variables was evaluated. In the PCA-based method, a minimum of three scheduling variables were required to replicate $\theta^m$. On the other hand, we confirmed through simulations that the AE-based method exhibits the potential to reduce the number of the scheduling variables by one, as compared to the PCA-based method. As a potential future work, a gain-scheduled $H_{\infty}$ controller can be designed using the reduced LPV model, and the evaluation of the relationship between the control performance and the number of the reduced scheduling variables will be insightful.

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