**ABSTRACT** 

Title of Document: BAYESIAN BELIEF NETWORK AND FUZZY

LOGIC ADAPTIVE MODELING OF DYNAMIC

SYSTEM: EXTENSION AND COMPARISON

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The purpose of this thesis is to develop, expand, compare and contrast two methodologies, namely BBN and FLM, which are used in the modeling of the dynamics of physical system behavior and are instrumental in a better understanding on the POF. The paper begins with an introduction of the proposed approaches in the modeling of complex physical systems, followed by a quick literature review of FLM and BBN. This thesis uses an existing pump system [3] as a case study, where the resulting NPSHA data obtained from the applications of BBN and FLM are compared with the outputs derived from the implementation of a Mathematical Model. Based on these findings, discussions and analyses are made, including the identification of the respective strengths and weaknesses posed by the two methodologies. Last but not least, further extensions and improvements towards this research are discussed at the end of this paper.

# BAYESIAN BELIEF NETWORK AND FUZZY LOGIC ADAPTIVE MODELING OF DYNAMIC SYSTEM: EXTENSION AND COMPARISON

By

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

Uncertainties within data or information are inherent in complex dynamic systems, underscoring the challenges faced in the development of dynamic models. Empirical information may be non-existent or are not easily available in physical systems; therefore it is not uncommon to fall back on expert opinions as the main source of information. With respect to these issues, there is a need to identify more simplified methodologies to model complex physical system behaviors, in particular, the dynamics of systems that support the POF. In this regard, two methodologies have been identified: FLM and BBN.

Probability theory is synonymous with the modeling of stochastic uncertainty, which deals with the uncertainty of the occurrence of a specific event. BBN which is also known as causal belief network [1] prescribes to the probabilistic model. It is a powerful tool that can be used to model a wide variety of domains, which includes diagnosis of electronic/mechanical systems, ecosystem and organizational factors.

On the other hand, fuzzy logic involves a tradeoff between precision and significance. It represents uncertainty via fuzzy sets and membership function [2]. Fuzzy logic and probabilistic logic are mathematically similar where both have truth values ranging between 0 and 1. One significant difference is that fuzzy logic focuses on the degrees of truth, while probabilistic logic revolves around probability and likelihood.

The fuzzy set theory explains day-to-day realities better than the probability theory because not all phenomena and observations assume only two definite states.

However, the modern and methodical science of fuzzy logic is still in its budding stage and warrants further research before more definitive conclusion can be provided [2].

In light of this, this thesis attempts to adopt the FLM and the BBN model into the analyses of complex physical systems. The objective of this thesis is to develop, expand, compare and contrast these two methodologies. An application of the use of these two methods is also developed to better understand their strengths and weaknesses. The application that was used in this thesis was adapted from the pump system example of an earlier PhD. research conducted by S.H. Hu at the University of Maryland [3].

Proposed BBN and FLM approaches in modeling complex physical system are discussed in Chapter 2. Theoretical background studies on FLM and BBN are presented in Chapter 3 and 4. Chapter 5 describes the implementation of the BBN and FLM models on the pump system, where the procedure to obtain the NPSHA output is also clearly defined. For this comparison study, NPSHA is estimated based on the assumption that  $Z_0$  is equal to zero. Chapter 6 reports on the results obtained from both the BBN and FLM, followed by an in-depth discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of the two models. Chapter 7 looks into possible extensions of the two methodologies on more complex systems, suggests future research that could be conducted, and rounds up the thesis in the conclusion.

The main contributions of this thesis are: 1) to propose a methodology applicable to BBN in estimating behavior of complex physical systems; 2) to adopt tools to compute complex BBN based on the proposed methodology; 3) to automate the solution of S.H. Hu's [3] FLM approach in modeling complex physical system

behavior; and 4) to compare, contrast and assess the accuracy and uncertainty of the two methods.

# Chapter 2: Proposed Approaches in Modeling Complex Physical System

There are several different methods to define complex physical systems. According to Marashi and Davis, a complex physical system contains many components and layers of subsystems with multiple non linear interconnections that are difficult to recognize, manage and predict [4]. Solidova and Johnson also highlighted that it is difficult to predict complex time dependent changes within interactions of components or subsystems, in response to rapidly changing properties of both systems and environment [5].

Due to the complex nature of dynamic systems, mathematical models are often used to produce numerical results that represent some observable aspects of system behaviour in the physical sciences or engineering disciplines [6]. It would be ideal if such methodologies are readily available to model complex physical systems behaviors, or are straightforward and easy to work on. However in reality, this is rarely the case. Mathematical models are usually based on complicated concepts such as higher order/partial differentiation which can be time consuming, and the intricate computations required may pose great difficulties for novices in solving complex system problems. Therefore, the use of mathematical models in the industrial context may be constrained by limited resources available, as the complexities involved in these models require hiring of mathematical experts or purchasing of relevant software programs tailored to the specific needs of the mathematical model, which could be non-economical for most practitioners.

Another reason for advocating the use of simplified methodologies in place of mathematical models was mentioned in Chapter 1, where empirical information may be non- existent or not easily available in physical complex systems. In such cases, expert opinions comprising of uncertainties, variations and subjective judgments will form the best alternative source of information, reinforcing the strengths of using BBN and FLM to solve complex system problems. On the other hand, mathematical models tend to be more rigid and inflexible, as they are unable to account for such uncertainty and variability. Any variation or change to the data might result in disproportionate changes in the computations of results by the mathematical models, which may not reflect the actual impact of the changes.

Instead of turning to complex mathematical models, there is therefore a need to search for more simplified methodologies that require lesser time and resources to model complex physical system behavior. In the context of this thesis, two methodologies, FLM and BBN have been identified as simpler alternatives to mathematical models, where both can be represented graphically in providing more direct platforms for analyses, as opposed to working with complicated mathematical equations. FLM and BBN are reliable and yet more time-efficient methods, as they do not require exact historical data or evidence to produce convincing results. Both proposed models are also able to account for variability and uncertainty of input and output data, where such flexibility is lacking in conventional mathematical models. To recap on the concepts of the proposed methodologies, FLM represents uncertainty via fuzzy sets and membership function [2], while BBN epitomizes probabilistic dependency models that represent random stochastic uncertainty via its nodes [7].

This chapter first discusses the logic based illustration of generic physical systems and how it can be represented in the form of matrices. This is followed by a

discussion on the frameworks and use of FLM and BBN in solving the dynamics of these complex physical systems. In essence, this chapter explains the core fundamentals for the implementation of both methodologies on generic physical systems before the thesis focuses on a specific example of a complex system, the pump system case study.

#### 2.1 Logic Based Illustration of Physical Systems

The interaction between the inputs and outputs of physical systems can be represented by matrices that are made up of dependent and independent variables/parameters. These variables and parameters may be divided into distinct ranges that have their own unique features and functions. These ranges are not arbitrary and can be represented either quantitatively or qualitatively. The division of each range has physical meaning and could result in phenomenal changes or a shift in the rate of change of dependent variables i.e., A shift from a gradual slope to a steep slope. For a more explicit illustration of a physical system, refer to Figure 1 below:

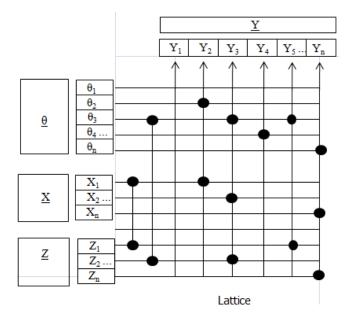


Figure 1: Logic Based Illustration of Physical Systems

Figure 1 shows a logic based illustration of physical systems that is made up of multiple equations. The general mathematical model of the physical system can be represented by  $\underline{Y} = f(\underline{\theta}, \underline{X}, \underline{Z})$ , where  $\underline{Y}$  is a matrix of discrete vector input parameters  $\underline{\theta}$  and variables  $\underline{X}$  and  $\underline{Z}$ .

 $\underline{\theta}$ ,  $\underline{X}$ ,  $\underline{Y}$  and  $\underline{Z}$  may be divided into distinct ranges and can be represented as follows:

$$\underline{\theta} = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \theta_4, \dots, \theta_n\}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \{\mathbf{X}_1, \, \mathbf{X}_2 \, \dots, \, \mathbf{X}_n\}$$

$$Y = \{Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, Y_4, Y_5 ..., Y_n\}$$

$$\underline{Z} = \{Z_1, Z_2 ..., Z_n\}$$

The lattice is made up of a system of equations:

$$Y_2 = f(\theta_2, X_2), Y_3 = f(\theta_3, X_2, Z_2), Y_4 = f(\theta_4), Y_5 = f(\theta_3, Z_1), Y_n = f(\theta_n, X_n, Z_n)$$

Note that  $Z_1$  is an input to  $X_1$ , which is an input to  $Y_2$ ; and  $Z_2$  is an input to  $\theta_3$  which is an input to  $Y_3$  and  $Y_5$ .

In the event that mathematical models are not available, or require too much resource to solve the relevant system problems, the interaction between the lattices can be developed by expert judgment either through FLM or BBN, as a more effective alternative. The implementation of the two models on complex physical systems will be discussed shortly in the following sections.

#### 2.2 Illustration of Fuzzy Logic Model

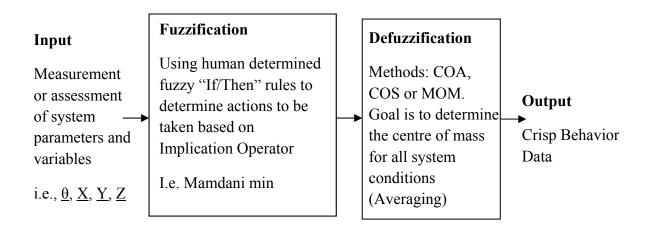


Figure 2: Fuzzy Logic Control Analysis Method [8]

Figure 2 shows an overview of how a complex physical system can be represented as a FLM. The ranges of the input and output parameters/variables are represented by membership functions and fuzzy sets. In addition, the interactions between input and output variables/parameters are represented by fuzzy rules. In a nutshell, system input parameters and variables are encoded into fuzzy representations using well defined "If/Then" rules which are converted into their mathematical equivalents. These rules would then determine actions to be taken based on Implication Operators such as Zadeh Min/Max, or Mamdani Min. The fuzzified data is then put through a defuzzification process via Center of Area, Center of Sum or Mean of Maxima methods to obtain a crisp output value.

In order to better explain how FLM can be implemented into a complex physical system; refer back to the illustration of physical systems as shown in Figure 1. The input and output parameters/ variables of the physical system,  $\underline{\theta}$ ,  $\underline{X}$ ,  $\underline{Y}$ , and  $\underline{Z}$  go through a fuzzification process (*Refer to Figure 2*).

Figure 3 shows a simple graphical illustration of the membership function of the input parameter  $\underline{\theta}$ . The fuzzy sets determine the different grades of the membership function that is made up of distinct ranges of  $\theta_1$ ,  $\theta_2$ ,  $\theta_3$  ...  $\theta_n$ . Therefore, the fuzzy set of  $\theta_1$  can be set between the interval  $\theta_1$ min and  $\theta_1$ max; the fuzzy set for  $\theta_2$  can be set between the interval  $\theta_2$ min and  $\theta_2$ max; and the fuzzy sets for the remaining membership functions can be assigned accordingly. The input parameters  $\underline{\theta}$  take the form of triangular shaped membership functions. Note that the membership functions allow overlaps between the members which accounts for the approximations and uncertainties between the parameters/variables. The same steps can be taken to fuzzify variables  $\underline{X}$ ,  $\underline{Z}$  and output  $\underline{Y}$ .

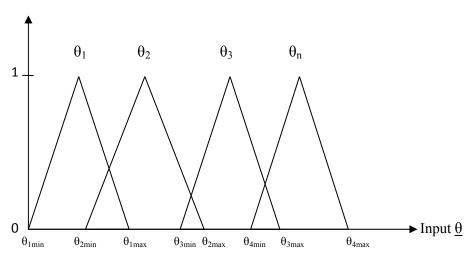


Figure 3: Membership function of Input parameter  $\underline{\theta}$  with overlaps

The fuzzy rules of the physical system as shown in Figure 1 can be represented via the "If/Then" rules as follows:

if 
$$\theta=\theta_2$$
 and  $X=X_1$  then  $Y=Y_2$  ELSE if  $\theta=\theta_3$  and  $X=X_2$  and  $Z=Z_2$  then  $Y=Y_3$  ELSE if  $\theta=\theta_4$  then  $Y=Y_4$  ELSE

if 
$$\theta = \theta_2$$
 and  $Z = Z_1$  then  $Y = Y_2$  ELSE

if 
$$\theta = \theta_n$$
 and  $X = X_n$  and  $Z = Z_n$  then  $Y = Y_n$  ELSE

if 
$$Z = Z_1$$
 then  $X = X_1$  ELSE

if 
$$Z = Z_2$$
 then  $\theta = \theta_3$  ELSE

For this example, the implication operator,  $\phi$  is Mamdani min.  $\Phi[\mu_A(x), \mu_B(y)] = \mu_A(x) \wedge \mu_B(y)$ , where  $\mu_A$  and  $\mu_B$  are membership functions of A and B, and its interpretation for ELSE is AND ( $\Lambda$ ). Section 3.1 would further discuss some of the other fuzzy implication operators that can be used.

The defuzzification method uses COA to determine the centre of mass for all system conditions in order to obtain crisp output data. The COA methodology can be found in section 3.2.1 and would be further explained. Section 3.2 would look into some other defuzzification methods that can be used to obtain a crisp output data.

#### 2.3 Illustration of Proposed Bayesian Belief Network Model

This section illustrates how complex physical system can be represented by the proposed BBN model. Either discrete probability or continuous probability method can be employed to estimate the output Y. However, the latter method is a better option to solve the proposed BBN modelling as there is a need to account for the uncertainties and overlaps between input/output intervals of a system.

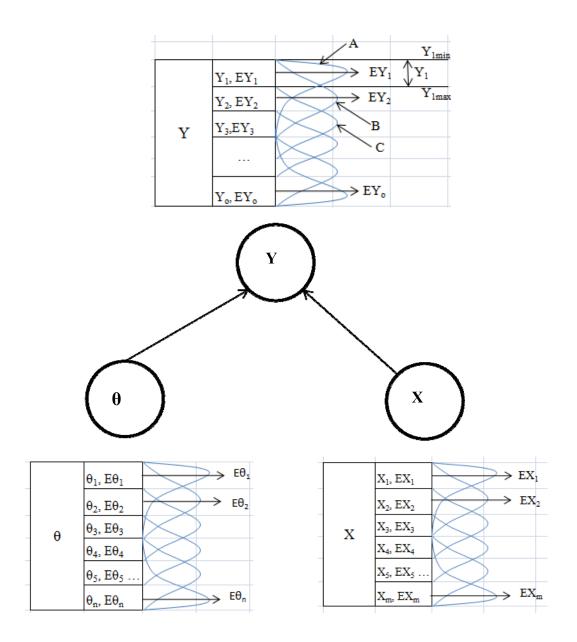


Figure 4: Illustration of Proposed BBN Method

Refer to Figure 4 where the focus of this illustration is on output Y. Assume that parameter  $\theta_1$  and variable  $X_1$  would lead to an output  $Y_A$  represented by a right truncated normal distribution labelled "A" that ranges between the interval  $Y_{1min}$  and  $Y_{3max}$ .  $EY_1$  is the probability that the output Y falls within the interval  $Y_1$ , which is between limits  $Y_{1min}$  and  $Y_{1max}$ . Similarly, assume that the input  $\theta_2$  and  $X_1$  would lead to an output  $Y_B$  represented by a normal distribution labelled "B" that ranges between

the interval  $Y_{1min}$  and  $Y_{3max}$ .  $EY_2$  is the probability that the output Y falls within interval  $Y_2$  which ranges between  $Y_{2min}$  and  $Y_{2max}$ .

The truncated normal distribution "A" can be represented within the intervals  $Y_1$ ,  $Y_2$  and  $Y_3$ . The probability of the output  $Y_A$  falling within the three intervals are shown below. The summation of  $Pr(Y_{A1})$ ,  $Pr(Y_{A2})$  and  $Pr(Y_{A3})$  must add up to one.

$$Pr(Y_{A1}) = Pr(Y_{1min} < Y_A < Y_{1max})$$

$$Pr(Y_{A2}) = Pr(Y_{2min} < Y_A < Y_{2max})$$

$$Pr(Y_{A3}) = Pr(Y_{3min} < Y_A < Y_{3max})$$

In the same vein, the normal distribution "B" can be represented within the intervals  $Y_1$ ,  $Y_2$  and  $Y_3$ . The probability of the output  $Y_B$  falling within the three intervals are shown below. The summation of Pr  $(Y_{B1})$ , Pr  $(Y_{B2})$  and Pr  $(Y_{B3})$  must add up to one.

$$Pr(Y_{B1}) = Pr(Y_{1min} < Y_{B} < Y_{1max})$$

$$Pr(Y_{B2}) = Pr(Y_{2min} < Y_B < Y_{2max})$$

$$Pr(Y_{B3}) = Pr(Y_{3min} < Y_{B} < Y_{3max})$$

 $\mathrm{EY}_1$  can then be calculated based on the sum of all the distribution overlaps between  $\mathrm{Y}_{1\mathrm{min}}$  and  $\mathrm{Y}_{1\mathrm{max}}$ . The generalized equation can be represented by:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EY}_1 &= \text{Pr}(Y_1 \,|\: (\theta_{1\text{min}} < \: \theta_1 < \: \theta_{1\text{max}}) \cap (X_{1\text{min}} < X_1 < X_{1\text{max}})) + \\ &\quad \text{Pr}(Y_1 \,|\: (\theta_{2\text{min}} < \: \theta_2 < \: \theta_{2\text{max}}) \cap (X_{1\text{min}} < X_1 < X_{1\text{max}})) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, EY<sub>2</sub> is calculated based on the sum of all the distribution overlaps between  $Y_{2min}$  and  $Y_{2max}$ . The generalized equation can be represented by:

$$\begin{split} \text{EY}_2 &= \text{Pr}(Y_2 \,|\: (\theta_{1\text{min}} < \: \theta_1 < \: \theta_{1\text{max}}) \cap (X_{1\text{min}} < X_1 < X_{1\text{max}})) \,+ \\ &\quad \text{Pr}(Y_2 \,|\: (\theta_{2\text{min}} < \: \theta_2 < \: \theta_{2\text{max}}) \cap (X_{1\text{min}} < X_1 < X_{1\text{max}})) \,+ \\ &\quad \text{Pr}(Y_2 \,|\: (\theta_{n\text{min}} < \: \theta_n < \: \theta_{n\text{max}}) \cap (X_{1\text{min}} < X_1 < X_{1\text{max}})) \end{split}$$

Note that the summation of  $EY_1$ ,  $EY_2$  ...  $EY_0$  must add up to one. Table 1 shows a generalized representation of the CPT of output Y:

Table 1: Generalized representation of CPT of output Y

	θ		$\theta_1$		θ <sub>2</sub>			$\theta_n$		
	X	$X_1$	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>n</sub>	$X_1$	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>m</sub>	$X_1$	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>m</sub>
	$\mathbf{Y}_{1}$	Pr(Y <sub>A1</sub> )			$Pr(Y_{B1})$					
	$Y_2$	Pr(Y <sub>A2</sub> )			Pr(Y <sub>B2</sub> )			Pr(Y <sub>C2</sub> )		
Y	$Y_3$	Pr(Y <sub>A3</sub> )			Pr(Y <sub>B3</sub> )			Pr(Y <sub>C3</sub> )		
	Y <sub>4</sub>							Pr(Y <sub>C4</sub> )		
	Yo									

The methodologies of the proposed approaches in modeling complex physical system that was described in this chapter would be further discussed in the next chapter.

# Chapter 3: Fuzzy Logic Modeling

Fuzzy systems represent a unique approach to represent uncertainties that usually arise from complex systems. As quoted by Lotfi A. Zadeh, "As the complexity of a system increases, it becomes more difficult and eventually impossible to make a precise statement about its behavior, eventually arriving at a point of complexity where the fuzzy logic method born in humans is the only way to get at the problem." [8].

A fuzzy system is deterministic and time invariant where the input and output parameters are encoded in fuzzy representations and the interrelationships between the fuzziness take the form of well defined if/then rules. The fuzzy system then converts these rules to their mathematical equivalents, which would simplify the interaction between the human and computer. This in turn offers a more realistic and accurate representation of system behavior in the real world.

Fuzzy logic deals with reasoning that hinges on approximation rather than precision. This presents a stark contrast to crisp logic where binary sets have binary logic and the logic variables have a membership value of either 0 or 1.

The Fuzzy Logic Toolbox [2] can be used to create a fuzzy logic system. This toolbox is a collection of functions built on the MATLAB numeric computing environment which enables one to create and edit fuzzy inference system within the MATLAB interface. The implementation of this function with an existing application will be discussed in Chapter 5 of this paper.

Several definitions relating to the fuzzy logic modeling are given as follows:

- (1) Membership Function: A characteristic function pertaining to a simple and versatile mathematical tool for indicating flexible membership to a set. [9]
- (2) Fuzzy Set: Any set that allows its members to have different grades of membership function in the interval [0, 1]. [10]
- (3) Universe of Discourse: A range of all possible values of an input into a fuzzy control system. [10]

Properties of Fuzzy Sets [9]:

Double Negation Law	<del>7</del> 5 .
Bodole Negation Law	$(\bar{A}) = A$
I dominator av	4.1.4
Idempotency	$A \cup A = A$
	$A \cap A = A$
	ATTA – A
Commutativity	$A \cap B = B \cap A$
	$A \cup B = B \cup A$
Associative Property	$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$
	$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
D: (1)	(1(2(2(1(2(2(2(2
Distributive Property	$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
	$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
	$A \sqcap (B \cup C) = (A \sqcap B) \cup (A \sqcap C)$
Absorption	$A \cap (A \cup B) = A$
	$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$
	, ,
De Morgen's Laws	$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$
	$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

## 3.1 Fuzzification

Fuzzy if/then rules are conditional statements that describe the dependence of one or more linguistic variables on another. The underlying analytical form of the fuzzy if/then rule is called the implication relation [9]. These relations are obtained through different fuzzy implication operator  $\Phi$ . Information from the LHS and RHS of a rule is imputed to  $\Phi$ , and it outputs an implication relation. Note that  $\mu_n$  represents the membership function of n [9].

For example [9], consider an if/then rule involving two linguistic variables:

if x is 
$$A_1$$
 then y is  $B_1$  ELSE

if x is 
$$A_2$$
 then y is  $B_2$  ELSE ...

if x is 
$$A_n$$
 then y is  $B_n$ 

where the linguistic variable x (LHS) and y (RHS) takes the value  $A_n$  and  $B_n$  respectively.

Table 2: Some Fuzzy Implication Operators [9]

Name	Implication Operator			
	$\boldsymbol{\Phi}[\mu_A(x),\mu_B(y)] =$			
$\Phi_m$ , Zadeh Max-Min	$(\mu_A(x) \wedge \mu_B(y)) \vee (1 - \mu_A(x))$			
$\Phi_c$ , Mamdani min	$\mu_A(x) \wedge \mu_B(y)$			
$\Phi_P$ ,Larsen Product	$\mu_A(x).\mu_B(y)$			
$\Phi_a$ , Arithmetic	$1 \wedge (1 - \mu_A(x) + \mu_B(y))$			
$\Phi_b$ , Boolean	$(1-\mu_A(x)) \vee \mu_B(y)$			

$\Phi_{bp}$ , Bounded Product	$0 \ V(\mu_A(x) + \mu_B(y) - 1)$

Table 3: Interpretation of ELSE under some Implication [9]

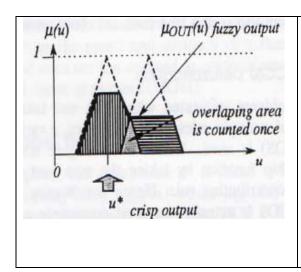
Implication	Interpretation of ELSE				
$\Phi_m$ , Zadeh Max-Min	AND (Λ)				
$\Phi_c$ , Mamdani min	OR (V)				
$\Phi_P$ ,Larsen Product	OR (V)				
$\Phi_a$ , Arithmetic	AND (Λ)				
$\Phi_b$ , Boolean	AND (Λ)				
$\Phi_{bp}$ , Bounded Product	OR (V)				

## 3.2 Defuzzification Methods

Defuzzification [9] is a process of selecting a crisp number  $u^*$  representation from the membership function output  $\mu_{out}$ . This step takes place after the inputs to the controller has been processed by the fuzzy algorithm. The most commonly used defuzzification methods are COA, COS, and MOM.

## 3.2.1 Center of Area Defuzzification

The crisp value u* is taken to be the
geometrical center of the output fuzzy
value $\mu_{out}$ , where $\mu_{out}$ is the union of all
the contributions of rules whose DOF >

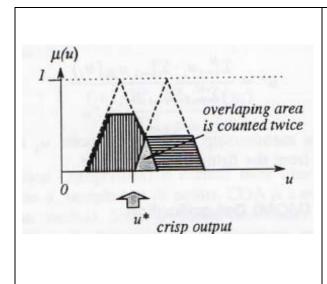


0.

$$u* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} u_i \mu_{out}\left(u_i\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mu_{out}\left(u_i\right)}$$

Where  $u_i$  is the universe of discourse and N is the number of samples. It is a commonly used defuzzification method, and is also known as Centroid.

## 3.2.2 Center of Sums Defuzzification



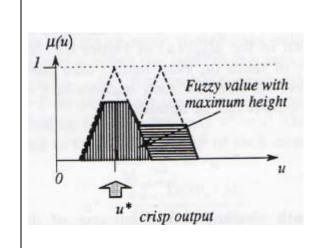
Easy to implement, and has fast inference cycle. COS takes into account the overlapped areas of multiple rules more than once.

COS takes the sum of the outputs from each contributing rule and not just the union.

$$u * = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} u_i \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu'_{B_k}(u_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu'_{B_k}(u_i)}$$

Where  $\mu'_{B_k}(u_i)$  is the membership function resulting from firing the kth rule.

## 3.2.3 Mean of Maxima Defuzzification



Takes the crisp value with the highest degree of membership in  $\mu_{out}(u)$ .

$$u * = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{u_m}{M}$$

 $u_M$  is the mth element in the universe of discourse where membership function is at the maximum value, and M is the total number of such elements.

Faster than COA and allows controller to reach values near the edges of the universe of discourse.

## Chapter 4: Bayesian Belief Network

Bayesian belief network is a powerful tool for modeling causes and effects in systems and is sometimes described as a marriage between probability theory and graphical theory [11]. BBN represents compact networks of probabilities that capture the probabilistic relationships between variables, as well as historical information on their relationships. From another perspective, BBN is a combination of Bayesian probability theory and the notion of conditional independence [12]. BBN is also known as belief network, causal graph, causal network, probabilistic network, or influence diagram.

Bayesian belief network allows for clear graphical representation of causes and effect; and are effective for modeling scenarios where some prior information is already known but input data is uncertain, vague, conflicting or partially unavailable. BBNs are defined as: 1) DAG that represent probabilistic dependency models; 2) DAG with nodes representing random stochastic/uncertain variables [7]; and 3) the arcs that represent the Bayesian probabilistic relationships/influences between these variables. BBN uses Bayes theorem to express conditional probability between each event/alternative. It is also known as a network of nodes of influences based on reasoning.

Some advantages [11] of BBN are listed as follows:

- Exact historical data or evidence is not necessary to produce convincing results.
- The ability to provide effective output despite of uncertainties in the input information.

- Able to display variables in a model as nodes in a network, and causes and effects as links between the nodes.
- Able to diagnose current situation based on past data.

An example of a BBN extracted from Adnan Darwiche's paper [7] is shown below:

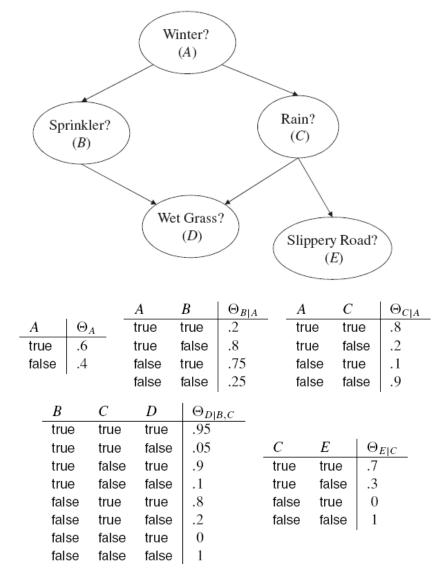


Figure 5: Bayesian Network over five propositional variables [7]

Figure 5 shows a BN with five nodes,  $Z = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$ . The five tables are known as CPT  $\Theta_{B|A}$  where it denotes the CPT for variable B, and its parent A.  $\theta_{b|a}$  is used to denote the value assigned by the CPT  $\Theta_{B|A}$  to the conditional probability Pr

(b|a). Note that the sum of  $\theta_{b|a}$  must add up to one. In addition, conditional probabilities represent the likelihoods based on prior or historical information.

Based on the above BN, the probability of winter being true given the conditions that sprinkler is on; there is no rain; grass is wet; and road is not slippery is as follows:

$$Pr(a, b, \bar{c}, d, \bar{e}) = \theta_a \theta_{b|a} \theta_{\bar{c}|a} \theta_{d|b,\bar{c}} \theta_{\bar{e}|\bar{c}}$$
$$= (0.6) * (0.2) * (0.2) * (0.9) * (1) = 0.0216$$

Similarly, the probability that winter is false, given the conditions that sprinkler is off, there is no rain, grass is not wet and road is not slippery is as follows:

$$Pr(\bar{a}, \bar{b}, \bar{c}, \bar{d}, \bar{e}) = \theta_{\bar{a}} \theta_{\bar{b}|\bar{a}} \theta_{\bar{c}|\bar{a}} \theta_{\bar{d}|\bar{b},\bar{c}} \theta_{\bar{e}|\bar{c}}$$
$$= (0.4) * (0.25) * (0.9) * (1) * (1) = 0.09$$

Further explanations on the terminology of the BBN can be found in Appendix B.

# Chapter 5: Applications of Proposed Bayesian Belief Network and Fuzzy Logic Models

A pump system application is used to illustrate the employment of the proposed BBN method and FLM in dynamic systems. This application is adapted from previous research done by Y.S. Hu [3], where it demonstrates the modeling dynamic behavior of a pump to avoid cavitation from occurring at the suction head. One important parameter for measuring pump cavitation at the inlet is the NPSHA, which is the difference between the sum of the velocity and the pressure heads, and the vapor pressure head. Studying the POF of this application is accomplished by obtaining the optimal values of three input parameters  $Z_0$ , GPM and Temperature as shown in Figure 7, such that NPSHA will not reach negative, which would otherwise cause the pump suction head to break. In this application, it should be noted that  $Z_0$  represents the distance below the pump that extends to the free water surface of the reservoir; 'GPM' is proportional to the speed of the pump; and 'Temperature' is the temperature of the free water surface of the reservoir.

This application involves implementing the proposed BBN model and FLM respectively to estimate the NPSHA results based on the three input parameters. Results obtained from the two methodologies are then compared with a reference NPSHA data obtained via the implementation of a mathematical model [3]. The advantages and disadvantages of the BBN and FLM would be discussed in detail at the end of this thesis.

To better understand how the DMLD works in Figure 7, refer to Appendix A for the Notations of DMLD based on time dependent fuzzy logic.

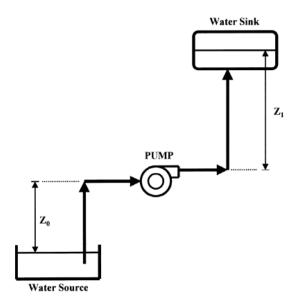


Figure 6: A Pumping System [3]

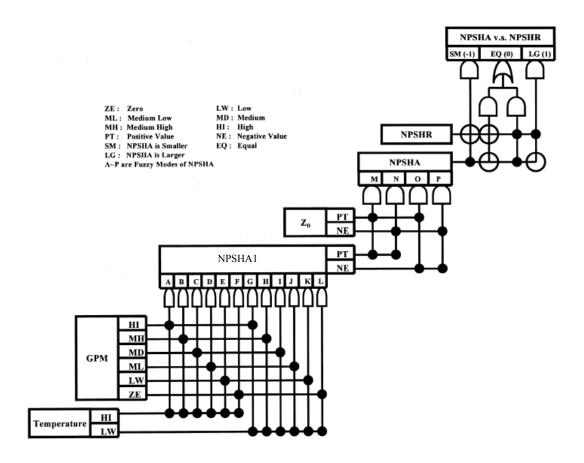


Figure 7: DMLD for simulating NPSHA [3]

#### 5.1 Mathematical Model

Consider the system where  $Z_1 = 100 \, ft$  and the pipe is 4 inches in diameter. For a given relative installation location of a pump-sink set, the NPSHA can be expressed as:

NPSHA = 
$$35.18 + Z_0 - 6.4 * 10^{-5} * (GPM)^2 - 0.085 * (Temperature  $\epsilon^{\circ}F$ ) [3]$$

The pump GPM ranges between 0 and 480 and temperature falls in the range of 0 to  $200\,^{\circ}$ F. Note that  $Z_0=0$  would give the worst case scenario for NPSHA at any given GPM and Temperature data. Thus to simplify this application,  $Z_0$  is assumed to be zero.

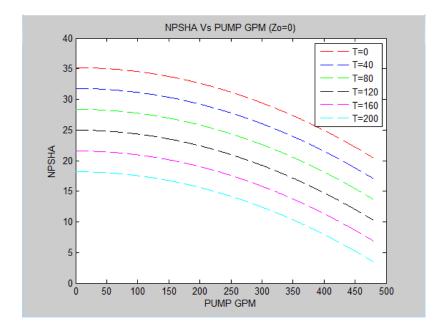


Figure 8: Numerical representation of NPSHA vs. GPM

NPSHA's output calculation of six different temperature ranges was based on the physical model. These data is used as the reference data for comparison between the FLM and the proposed BBN Model. Figure 8 captures the plot of GPM vs. NPSHA when  $Z_0 = 0$ . As the distance between pump and water surface increases, NPSHA adjusts according to the increase in  $Z_0$ .

## 5.2 Fuzzy Logic Model

The first step of developing the FLM is to define the rules (*Figure 9*) based on the input conditions mapped by the DMLD as shown in Figure 7. The fuzzy logic illustration of the Pump System when  $Z_0 = 0$  is shown in Figure 10.

			GPM				
		HI	МН	MD	ML	LW	ZE
ТЕМР	HI	A	В	С	D	Е	F
	LW	G	Н	I	J	K	L

Figure 9: Rules based between Temperature and GPM

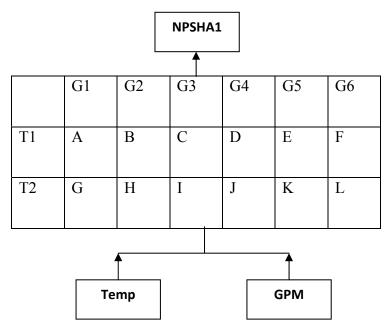


Figure 10: Fuzzy logic illustration of Pump System at  $\mathbf{Z_0} = 0$ 

Assumptions made in the application of this model are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Temperature and GPM Category breakdown

Temperature Range	Category	Symbol
0 to 100 deg F	Low	TempLW
101 to 200 deg F	High	ТетрНІ

GPM Range	Category	Symbol
-40 to 40	Zero	ZE
0 to 120	Low	LW
80 to 200	Mid Low	ML
160 320	Mid	MD
280 to 400	Mid High	MH
360 to 480	High	Н

MATLAB's FLT function was used in this instance where the FIS structure is a MATLAB object that contains all the fuzzy inference system information.

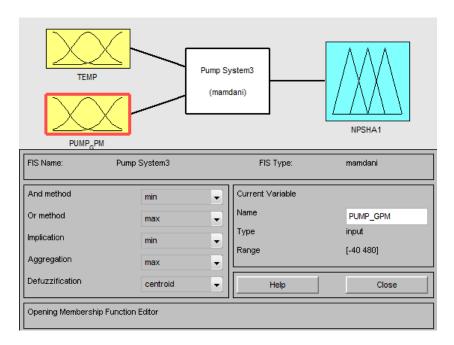


Figure 11: FIS interface with 2 input and 1 output parameter

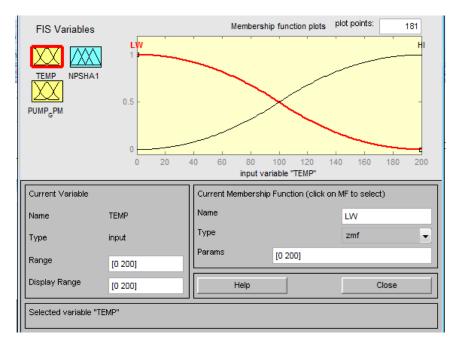


Figure 12: Membership function of Temperature

The input Temperature is made up of a Z-shaped and S-shaped membership function.

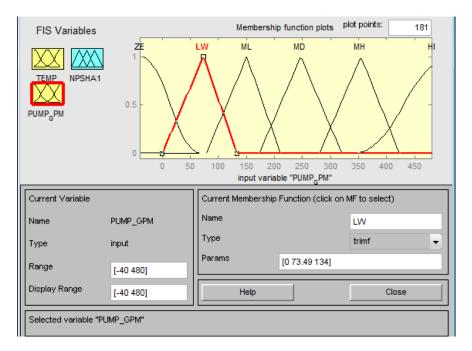


Figure 13: Membership function of GPM

The GPM inputs are made up of triangular-shaped membership functions, and the Z/S shaped membership functions at the extreme ends.

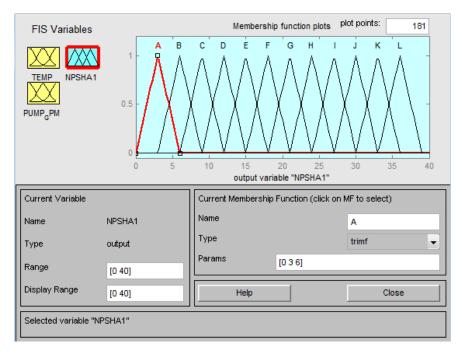


Figure 14: Membership function of output NPSHA1

The fuzzy output of NPSHA1 is represented by letters A to L. These fuzzy modes are made up of triangular-shaped membership function as shown in Figure 14.

The implication operator that was used to work out the fuzzy algorithm is the Mamdani Min, as discussed in Section 3.1

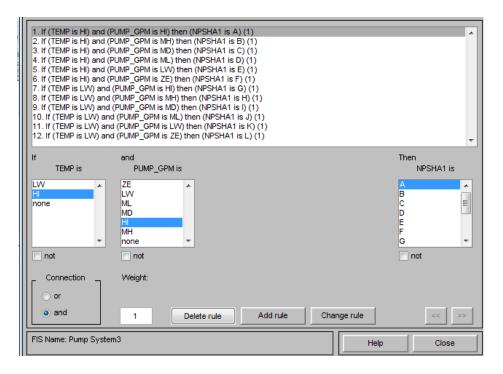


Figure 15: Rules conditions between input and output parameters

Note that the rules as shown in Figure 15 are defined based on the DMLD (*Figure 7*). The fuzzy NPSHA1 output goes through a defuzzification process via COA method, as discussed in Section 3.2.1 so as to obtain crisp values for the output.

The surface view of the crisp NPSHA1 is shown in the figure below.

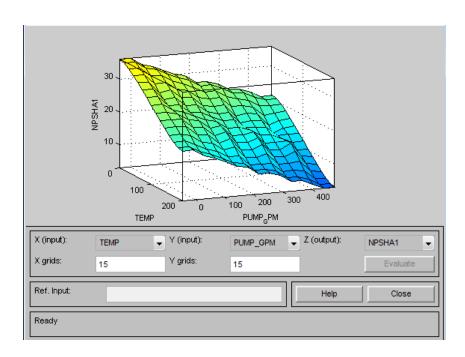


Figure 16: 3D Surface view of NPSHA1

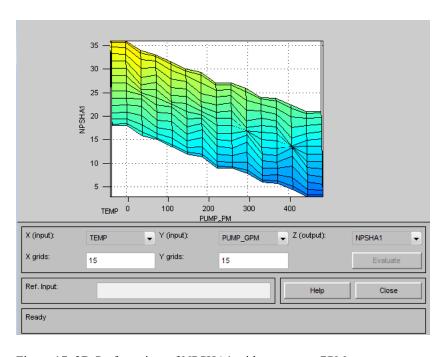


Figure 17: 2D Surface view of NPSHA1 with respect to GPM

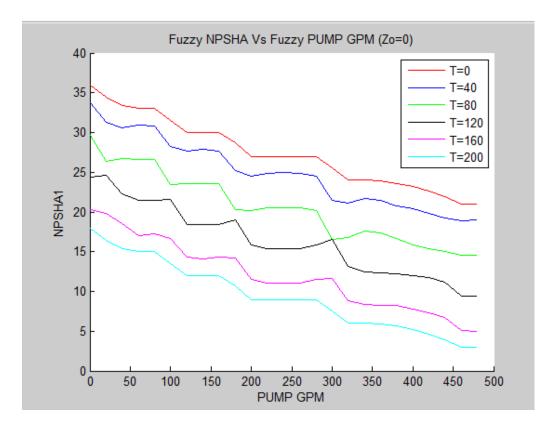


Figure 18: Pump GPM vs. NPSHA1

Figure 18 shows the visualization of the NPSHA1 output with respect to Temperature and GPM. From the surface view of NPSHA1, GPM vs. NPSHA ( $Z_0$ =0) is plotted and compared with the reference plot obtained via the mathematical model. The trends of the graphs at all 6 temperature points are consistent with the reference plot as shown in Figure 8. It is not possible to obtain precise output solution as FLM is based on approximation given limited input and output data. In order to obtain a smoother curve with higher resolution, the membership functions of the input/output parameters needs to be broken down into more defined categories, and fuzzy rules need to be defined with greater accuracy.

The output of NPSHA can be estimated by incorporating  $Z_0$  with NPSHA1 using the FIS controller as shown in Figure 19. NPSHA output can be estimated by using the same methodology to estimate the initial NPSHA1.

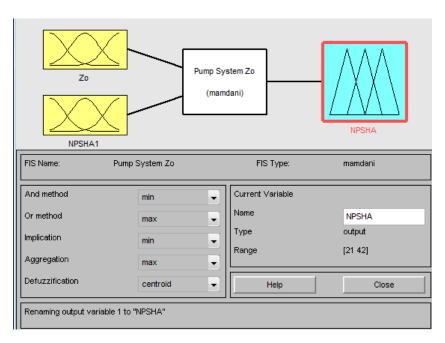


Figure 19: FIS of NPSHA with  $\mathbf{Z_0}$  parameter

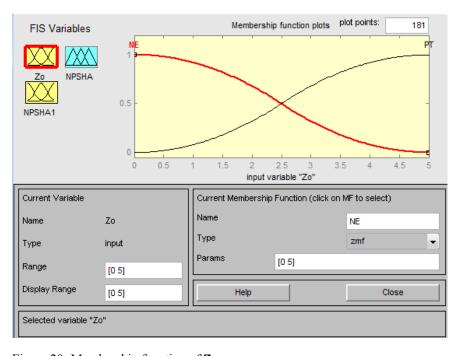


Figure 20: Membership function of  $\mathbf{Z_0}$ 

The membership function of  $Z_0$  is grouped into either positive or negative category. Similarly, the membership function of NPSHA1 at individual temperature is grouped according to five categories: NE, SN, NT, SP and PT. For this application, the area of focus would be on NPSHA1 when temperature is zero. The fuzzy NPSHA1 output range is shown in Figure 21, when T=0 is between 21 and 36, and the triangular membership function is distributed across the output range.

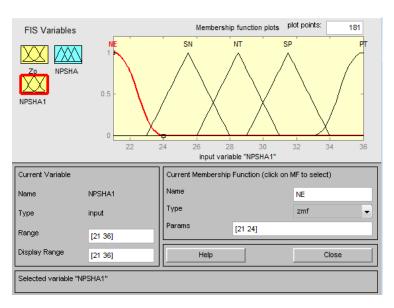


Figure 21: Membership function of NPSHA1 at Temp = 0

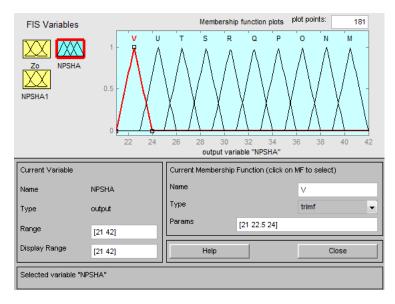


Figure 22: Membership function of NPSHA at Temp =0

The fuzzy output of NPSHA is then represented by the triangular membership function labeled M to V as shown in Figure 22

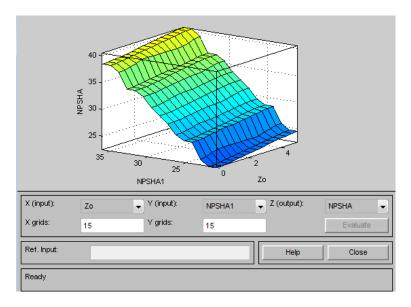


Figure 23: Surface view of NPSHA at T=0 with respect to NPSHA1 and Z<sub>0</sub>

Referring to the surface view of output in Figure 23, the trend reveals that NPSHA increases proportionally with  $Z_0$  increase. This estimated result is reasonable given that the result obtained from the mathematical model in Section 5.1 is similar, where NPSHA also exhibits a proportional increase when  $Z_0$  increases.

The same steps were repeated to obtain the corresponding fuzzy outputs of NPSHA at temperatures of 40°F, 80°F, 120°F, 160°F and 200°F respectively.

# 5.3 Proposed Bayesian Belief Network Model

Similar to the fuzzy logic method, BBN methodology adopts a probabilistic approach to estimate the output NPSHA. Consider the case where inputs of the system follow a normal distribution. To solve NPSHA1,  $Z_0$  is assumed to be zero. Using Monte Carlo simulation for a sample size of 5000, both the inputs Temperature

(*0degF to 200degF*) and GPM (*0 to 480*) were randomly sampled to form a normal distribution as shown in Figure 24.

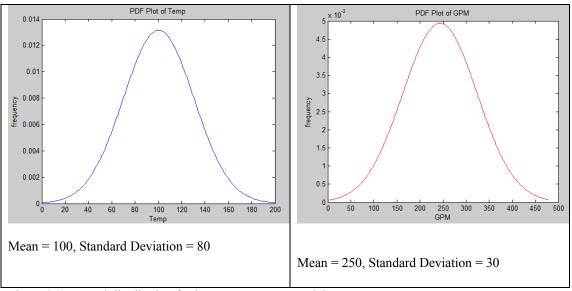


Figure 24: Normal distribution for input Temperature and GPM

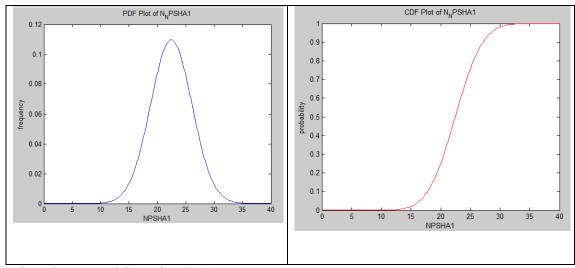


Figure 25: PDF and CDF of NPSHA1output

Assumptions made were based on expert opinions that suggested a NPSHA1 output range of 6.5 to 35. Monte Carlo simulation was used to generate this output assuming a normal distribution of mean 23 and standard deviation of 3.6. (*Refer to Figure 25*).

Note that if the mathematical model were available, the two input distributions can be fitted into the equation to generate a NPSHA1 output which follows a normal distribution. The equation of NPSHA1 is the same as the NPSHA equation [3] in section 5.1, except that the  $Z_0$  parameter is removed since it is considered to be zero.

In reality, it is more often than not that the mathematical Model of a system is usually not available, and this is especially true for new systems which still lack established model testing. BBN is therefore a useful tool to estimate the output of the system.

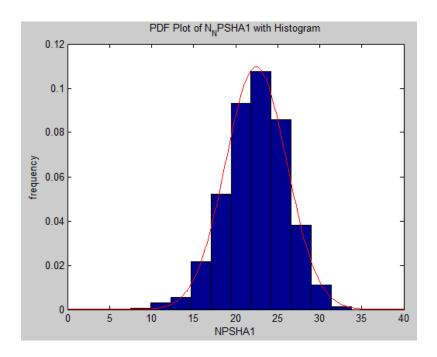


Figure 26: Histogram of NPSHA1 to estimate the probability of A to L

The normal distribution of NPSHA1 is divided equally into 12 columns as shown in the histogram of Figure 26. The histogram is aligned to the state A to L of the DMLD as shown in Figure 7 assuming no overlap and uncertainty between the states. The probabilities of A to L estimated based on the CDF of NPSHA1 (*Figure* 25) are tabulated in Table 5:

Table 5: Probability data and value of A to L based on the CDF of NPSHA1

	NPSHA1	Probability
Amax	8.9431	2.12E-05
Bmax	11.296	2.70E-04
Cmax	13.649	2.38E-03
Dmax	16.002	1.39E-02
Emax	18.355	5.34E-02
Fmax	20.708	1.36E-01

Gmax	23.06	2.28E-01
Hmax	25.414	2.53E-01
Imax	27.767	1.86E-01
Jmax	30.12	9.06E-02
Kmax	32.473	2.91E-02
Lmax	34.826	6.19E-03
NPSHA	6.59	

The probabilities of GPM and Temperature inputs as shown in Table 6 are estimated based on the CDF of inputs GPM and Temperature.

Table 6: Probability data of GPM and Temperature inputs

Input	Symbol	Range	Probability
CDMUNCH	CITI		2.705.02
GPM HIGH	GHI	391-480	2.79E-02
GPM MID HIGH	GMH	301-390	1.95E-01
GPM MID	GMD	181-300	5.51E-01
GPM MID LOW	GML	91-180	1.96E-01
GPM LOW	GLW	1 – 90	2.81E-02
GPM ZERO	GZE	0	1.29E-03
TEMP LOW	TLW	0 – 100	4.82E-01
TEMP HIGH	THI	100 - 200	5.18E-01

In the real world, uncertainties are inevitable, and it is not realistic to represent the output of GPM and Temperature based on the NPSHA's DMLD structure. Instead, it is more feasible to spread the outputs of GPM and Temperature over a range of values represented by a distribution.

To prove that overlaps do exist over the A to L states of NPSHA1 output, the two extreme ends of each GPM and Temperature category are substituted into the physical equation of NPSHA1. The minimum/maximum GPM and Temperature values are then tabulated in Table 7:

Table 7: Representation of GPM and Temperature variables

Symbol	GPM	Value
GHI1	HI_max	480
GHI2	HI_min	391
GMH1	MH_max	390
GMH2	MH_min	301
GMD1	MD_max	300
GMD2	MD_min	181
GML1	ML_max	180
GML2	ML_min	91
GLW1	LW_max	90
GLW2	LW_min	1
GZE	ZE	0

Symbol	Temp	TEMP
THI2	HI_max	200
THI1	HI_min	101
TLW2	LW_max	100
TLW1	LW_min	0

The minimum/maximum values of A to L tabulated in Table 8 are computed by substituting minimum/maximum GPM and Temperature into the mathematical model.

For example, based on the DMLD structure:

$$A1 = 35.18 - 6.4 * 10^{-5} * (GHI1)^2 - 0.085 * (THI2)$$

$$A1 = 35.18 - 6.4 * 10^{-5} * (480)^{2} - 0.085 * (200) = 3.4344$$

$$A2 = 35.18 - 6.4 * 10^{-5} * (GHI2)^2 - 0.085 * (THI1)$$

$$A2 = 35.18 - 6.4 * 10^{-5} * (391)^{2} - 0.085 * (101) = 16.8106$$

Table 8: Numerical values of A to L

Symbol	NPSHA1	Value
A1	A_min	3.4344
A2	A_max	16.81062
B1	B_min	8.4456
B2	B_max	20.79654
C1	C_min	12.42
C2	C_max	24.4983
D1	D_min	16.1064
D2	D_max	26.06502
E1	E_min	17.6616
E2	E_max	26.59494
F1	F_min	18.18
F2	F_max	26.595

Symbol	NPSHA1	Value
G1	G_min	11.9344
G2	G_max	25.39562
H1	H_min	16.9456
H2	H_max	29.38154
I1	I_min	20.92
12	I_max	33.0833
J1	J_min	24.6064
J2	J_max	34.65002
K1	K_min	26.1616
K2	K_max	35.17994
L1	L_min	26.68
L2	L_max	35.18

From Table 8, note that the overlaps between A and L imply that uncertainties do exist between the A to L states.

The DMLD of the pump system can be illustrated by a BBN as shown in Figure 27. For this particular example, the area of focus would be on the comparison of NPSHA1 (*highlighted in red*). The software used to develop the BBN is IRIS [13].

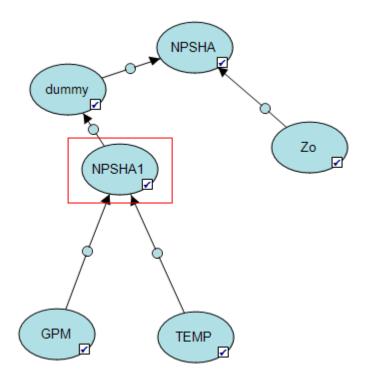


Figure 27: BBN interpretation of the pump system

In the perfect world, NPSHA1 can be represented based on the following Bayesian model:

$$\Pr(A_{min} < NPSHA1 < A_{max}|\ (GHI_1 < GPM < GHI_2) \cap (THI_1 < Temp < THI_2)) = \\ \Pr\left(A\right)$$

$$\Pr(B_{min} < NPSHA1 < B_{max}| \ (GMH_1 < GPM < GMH_2) \cap (THI_1 < Temp < THI_2)) = \\ \Pr(B) \ \dots$$

$$\Pr(K_{min} < NPSHA1 < K_{max}| \ (GLW_1 < GPM < GLW_2) \cap (TLW_1 < Temp < TLW_2)) = \Pr(K)$$

$$\Pr(L_{min} < NPSHA1 < L_{max} | \textit{GZE} \ \cap (TLW_1 < Temp < TLW_2)) = \Pr\left(L\right)$$

This computation assumes no uncertainty between A and L. The probability data of GPM and Temperature as shown in Table 6 would be entered into the GPM and Temp node respectively. The conditional probability of A to L entered into the NPSHA1 node is shown in Figure 28. Interpretations based on these conditions are incorrect as there are overlaps in the NPSHA1 output data.

GPM'		HI		MH		MD		ML		LW		ZE
TEMP'	HI	LW										
Α	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
В	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
С	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
E	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
F	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
G	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Н	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
J	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
K	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
L	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Figure 28: Conditional Probability table assuming no uncertainty between A to L

On the other hand, consider the case where the outputs of GPM and Temperature are spread over a range of NPSHA1 distribution. The 12 output combinations of GPM and Temperature are listed as follows:

Set1 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is HI and Temp is HI
Set2 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is MH and Temp is HI
Set3 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is MD and Temp is HI
Set4 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is ML and Temp is HI
Set5 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is LW and Temp is HI
Set6 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is ZE and Temp is HI
Set7 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is HI and Temp is LW
Set8 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is MH and Temp is LW

Set9 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is MD and Temp is LW Set10 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is ML and Temp is LW Set11 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is LW and Temp is LW Set12 represents the NPSHA1 output when GPM is ZE and Temp is LW

Assume that all 12 sets follow a normal distribution with the corresponding estimated means and standard deviations that are listed in Table 9. The distributions between these sets have overlaps where more specifically, set 1 follows a left sided truncated normal distribution, and set 12 follows a right sided truncated normal distribution. The overlapped areas for each set would be summed up according to the NPSHA1 groups.

Table 9: Mean and Standard Deviation of 12 sets

Sets		Mean	SD
	1	10	2
	2	14	2
	3	18	2
	4	21	1.5
	5	22	1.2
	6	23	1.2

Sets	Mean	SD
7	19	2
8	23	2
9	27	2
10	29	2
11	30	2
12	31	1.5

MATLAB was used to compute the weights for the states A to L for each set. To illustrate this method, the derivation of Sets 1 and 2 would be explained in greater depth as follows.

#### Truncated normal distribution

The PDF of the truncated normal distribution is represented by the equation:

$$f(x|\mu,\sigma,a,b) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma}\phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}{\Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

Where  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $X \in (a,b)$ ,  $-\infty \le a < b \le \infty$ . If  $b \to \infty$ , then  $\Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = 1$ ; and if  $a \to -\infty$ , then  $\Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = 0$ .

The CDF of the truncated normal distribution is represented by the equation:

$$F(x|\mu,\sigma,a,b) = \frac{\Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}{\Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

Similarly, if  $b \to \infty$ , then  $\Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = 1$ ; and if  $a \to -\infty$ , then  $\Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = 0$ .

The range of set 1 is first estimated, which is approximately between 3 and 17; and represented by a normal distribution. Since set 1 is left truncated at a = 6.59 and  $b \rightarrow \infty$ , the PDF of set 1 is given by:

$$f(x | \mu, \sigma, 6.59, \infty) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma} \phi \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)}{1 - \phi \left(\frac{6.59 - \mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

Similarly, the CDF of this set is given by:

$$F(x | \mu, \sigma, 6.59, \infty) = \frac{\Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{6.59 - \mu}{\sigma}\right)}{1 - \Phi\left(\frac{6.59 - \mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

where the respective  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  values can be obtained from Table 9.

The PDF plot of set 1 is shown in Figure 29. The blue plot represents the normal distribution while the red line represents the truncated normal distribution.

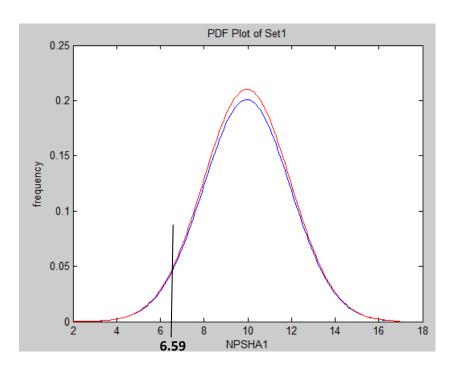


Figure 29: PDF of Set 1 which represents the GPM\_HI and Temp\_HI

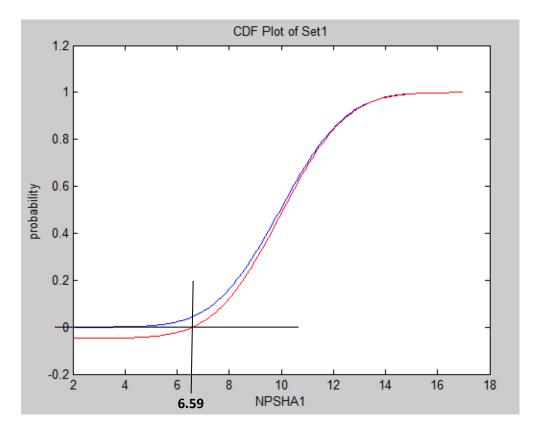


Figure 30: CDF of Set 1 which represents the GPM\_HI and Temp\_HI

The CDF of set 1 is shown in Figure 30. The blue plot represents the normal distribution while the red line represents the truncated normal distribution. In addition, set 1 assumes the range of A to E (referring to Table 5) which is represented by A1 to A5 respectively. The probabilities of A1 to A5 are given as follows:

$$Pr(A1) = 2.63E-01$$

$$Pr(A2) = 4.66E-01$$

$$Pr(A3) = 2.35E-01$$

$$Pr(A4) = 3.34E-02$$

$$Pr(A5) = 1.30E-03$$

Working out the probabilities of set 2, the PDF and CDF graphs are plotted in Figures 31 and 32 respectively:

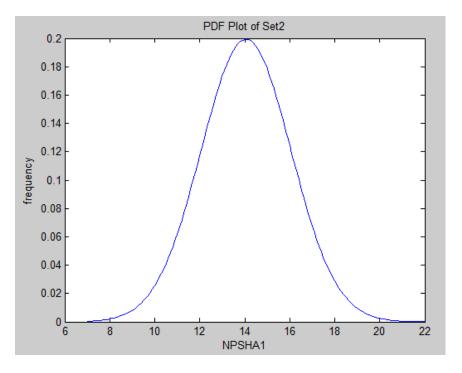


Figure 31: PDF of set 2 which represents the GPM\_MH and Temp\_HI

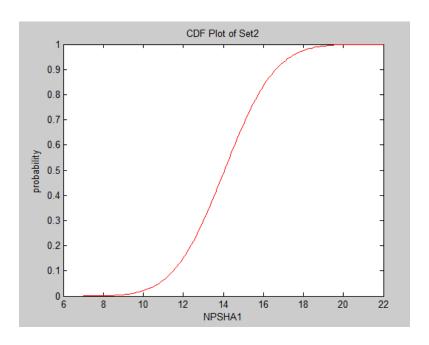


Figure 32: CDF of set 2 which represents the GPM\_MH and Temp\_HI

The range of set 2 takes on parameters A to G (referring to Table 4), and is represented by B1 to B7 respectively. The probabilities of B1 to B7 are as follows:

$$Pr(B1) = 5.55E-03$$

$$Pr(B2) = 8.66E-02$$

$$Pr(B3) = 3.42E-01$$

$$Pr(B4) = 4.06E-01$$

$$Pr(B5) = 1.44E-01$$

$$Pr(B6) = 1.49E-02$$

$$Pr(B7) = 4.46E-4$$

The same method is then used to estimate sets 3 to 11. Set 12 follows a similar methodology as set 1, except that this time it is represented by a truncated normal distribution that is right truncated at b = 34.826 and  $a \rightarrow -\infty$ .

The PDF of set 12 is given by the equation:

$$f(x|\mu,\sigma,-\infty,34.38) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma}\phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}{\phi\left(\frac{34.38-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

Similarly, the CDF of set 12 is given by:

$$F(x | \mu, \sigma, -\infty, 34.38) = \frac{\Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)}{\Phi\left(\frac{34.38 - \mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

where the respective  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  values can be obtained from Table 8.

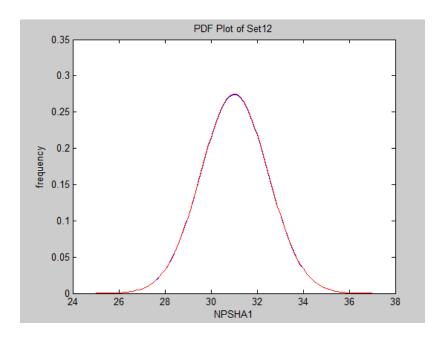


Figure 33: PDF of set 1 which represents the GPM\_ZE and Temp\_LW

Figure 33 illustrates the graphical representation of PDF of set 12. The blue plot represents the normal distribution while the red line represents the truncated normal distribution. Note that there is only a slight truncation to the right that results in a small change in the PDF.

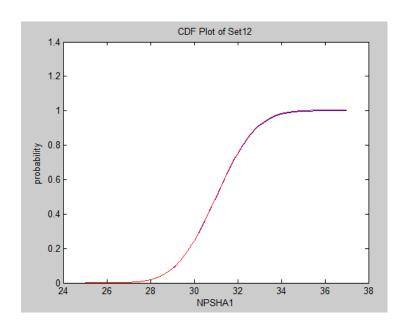


Figure 34: CDF of set 12 which represents the GPM\_ZE and Temp\_LW

The CDF of set 12 is represented by the graph in Figure 34. The blue plot represents the normal distribution while the red line represents the truncated normal distribution. After computing the probability distributions for all 12 sets, the probability of the weights of each set can be estimated. The results are entered into the CPT as shown in Figure 35.

GPM (2)	H	41	M	1H	M	1D	N	ΛL	L	W	Z	Œ
TEMP (2)	HI	LW	HI	Lγ								
Α	0.2634	0	0.0055	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
В	0.4664	4.4320	0.0865	0	0.0003	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
С	0.2353	0.0031	0.3422	0	0.0133	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D	0.0333	0.0593	0.4062	0.0002	0.1405	0	0.0005	0	4.0850	0	1.8377	0
Е	0.0013	0.3040	0.1438	0.0099	0.4130	0	0.0409	0	0.0013	0	4.4325	0
F	0	0.4363	0.0149	0.1165	0.3454	0.0007	0.3842	0	0.1433	0	0.0260	0
G	0	0.1767	0.0004	0.3879	0.0818	0.0229	0.4872	0.0015	0.6649	0	0.4886	0
Н	0	0.0204	0	0.3733	0.0054	0.1889	0.0851	0.0359	0.1878	0.0101	0.4633	0.00
I	0	0	0	0.1037	0	0.4384	0.0018	0.2359	0.0024	0.1175	0.0219	0.016
J	0	0	0	0.0083	0	0.2911	0	0.4440	0	0.3883	0	0.269
K	0	0	0	0	0	0.0548	0	0.2427	0	0.3720	0	0.60
L	0	0	0	0		0.0029	0	0.0397	0	0.1118	0	0.103

Figure 35: Conditional probabilities of A to L

S1 = Pr	(GHI) ∩	Pr (THI)
---------	---------	----------

$$S2 = Pr(GMH) \cap Pr(THI)$$

$$S3 = Pr(GMD) \cap Pr(THI)$$

$$S4 = Pr(GML) \cap Pr(THI)$$

$$S5 = Pr(GLW) \cap Pr(THI)$$

$$S6 = Pr(GZE) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

$$S7 = Pr(GHI) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

$$S8 = Pr(GMH) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

$$S9 = Pr(GMD) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

$$S10 = Pr(GML) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

$$S11 = Pr(GLW) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

$$S12 = Pr(GZE) \cap Pr(TLW)$$

Symbol	Value
S1	1.44E-02
S2	1.01E-01
S3	2.85E-01
S4	1.01E-01
S5	1.45E-02
S6	6.71E-04
S7	1.34E-02
S8	9.39E-02
S9	2.65E-01
S10	9.43E-02
S11	1.35E-02
S12	6.24E-04

Note that the probability values of GPM and Temp can be found in Table 6.

The probabilities of A to L can be estimated by adding up the overlaps. For example,

= 
$$2.63E-01 * 1.44E-02 + 5.55E-03 * 1.01E-01 = 4.37 E -3$$

$$Pr(B) = A2 * S1 + B2 * S2 + C2 * S3 + G2 * S7$$

$$= 4.66E-01 * 1.44E-02 + 8.66E-02 * 1.01E-01 + 3.44E-04 * 2.85E-01 + 4.43E-5 *$$

$$1.34E-02 = 1.56E-02$$

Pr(A) = A1 \* S1 + B1 \* S2

Applying the same calculations to the rest of the parameters, Table 10 lists the estimated probabilities of A to L using the BBN structure shown in Figure 27.

Table 10: Probability of A to L

Symbols	Probability	Cumulative				
А	4.37E-03	4.37E-03				
В	1.56E-02	2.00E-02				
С	4.18E-02	6.18E-02				
D	8.25E-02	1.44E-01				
E	1.42E-01	2.86E-01				
F	1.58E-01	4.44E-01				
G	1.28E-01	5.72E-01				
Н	1.03E-01	6.75E-01				
I	1.50E-01	8.25E-01				
J	1.26E-01	9.51E-01				
К	4.32E-02	9.94E-01				
L	6.16E-03	1.00E+00				

The following chapter will compare and analyze the results obtained via the two methodologies. The respective pros and cons of both BBN and FLM will also be discussed.

# Chapter 6: Findings and Discussion

This section discusses the probability data of NPSHA1 obtained from the BBN model based on the assumption of whether uncertainty is incorporated into constructing the BBN. The probability data and NPSHA1 data are tabulated in Table 10.

Comparisons will also be made on both BBN model and FLM with respect to the reference model which for this case is the mathematical model. The criteria for comparisons are as follows:

- Accuracy of results\*
- Resolution of data\*
- Flexibility in model adjustment
- Ease of building the model
- Ability to update the model
- Requirement for precise data
- Mathematical strength
- Areas of application

The strengths and weaknesses of the two methodologies are also discussed as a follow up to the comparisons.

\* Note that some of the comparisons are made in the context of the pump system application.

## 6.1 Discussion on Bayesian Belief Network Probability Data

In the comparison of the probability data of NPSHA1, the assumption of whether uncertainty is incorporated gives rise to the following two scenarios (Refer to Table 11 for the comparisons of probability data of NPSHA1 based on the two scenarios):

# Scenario 1: Bayesian Belief Network with no uncertainty

Bayesian Belief Network methodology as discussed in section 5.3 was used to estimate the NPSHA1 output, with no physical equation available. The input parameters mapped to the NPSHA1 output range from A to L via a DMLD as shown in Figure 7. IRIS [13] was used to model the BBN representation of the pump system. The CPT as shown in Figure 28 was set up with the assumption of no uncertainty between the outputs, given the GPM and Temperature input conditions.

Analyzing the "Probability with No Uncertainty" column in Table 11, the probabilities of F and L are very low, suggesting that it is unlikely that the range of NPSHA will fall in state F and state L. Further observation of the expected NPSHA1 output (*refer to "Midpoint of NPSHA1a Interval" column*) between D and G reveals that the data are very close to each other which might raise some concern over the credibility of the results obtained.

Since no uncertainty is assumed, the midpoint of NPSHA1 interval outputs for each state from A to L are point estimates. This interpretation is not realistic as data sources often lack precision, and consequently rarely produces point estimate results. Given that there are uncertainties within the input parameters, one should also expect uncertainties in the outputs of A to L. This issue is addressed in scenario 2.

# Scenario 2: Bayesian Belief Network considering uncertainty

Using BBN methodology can incorporate uncertainties for each of the output A to L. This method assumes a normal distribution with estimated means and standard deviations for A to L (*refer to Table 9*). The CPT, obtained in Figure 32 shows a distribution for each GPM/Temp alternative. The summation of the overlaps between the distributions of the input alternatives provides a good estimate of the probabilities of A to L.

Analyzing the "Probability with Uncertainty" column in Table 11, the probabilities of A to L are considerably evenly distributed, with the two ends of the tail, A and L having smaller probabilities as compared to the rest. The range of NPSHA1 between A to L are well spread out, indicating uncertainties between each range. The results obtained from the assumption of uncertainty are more realistic and would be used for further discussion in section 6.2.

Table 11: Comparison of probability data of NPSHA1 based on 2 scenarios

			Probability		Midpoint <sup>+</sup> of	Probability		Midpoint <sup>+</sup> of	
			with No		NPSHA1a	with		NPSHA1b*	
	Temp	GPM	Uncertainty	Cumulative	Interval	Uncertainty	Cumulative	Interval	
A	100-200	391-480	1.64E-02	1.64E-02	8.96	4.37E-03	4.37E-03	8.07	
В	100-200	301-390	1.03E-01	1.19E-01	16.64	1.56E-02	2.00E-02	14.16	
C	100-200	181-300	2.76E-01	3.95E-01	20.00	4.18E-02	6.18E-02	16.08	
D	100-200	91-180	1.00E-01	4.95E-01	22.10	8.25E-02	1.44E-01	17.85	
E	100-200	1 to 90	1.66E-02	5.11E-01	22.64	1.42E-01	2.86E-01	19.59	
F	100-200	0	8.43E-04	5.12E-01	22.71	1.58E-01	4.44E-01	21.24	
G	0-100	391-480	1.56E-02	5.28E-01	22.79	1.28E-01	5.72E-01	22.57	
Н	0-100	301-390	9.77E-02	6.26E-01	23.31	1.03E-01	6.75E-01	23.63	
I	0-100	181-300	2.62E-01	8.88E-01	25.37	1.50E-01	8.25E-01	24.98	
J	0-100	91-180	9.54E-02	9.83E-01	28.64	1.26E-01	9.51E-01	27.12	
K	0-100	1 to 90	1.58E-02	9.99E-01	32.16	4.32E-02	9.94E-01	29.94	
L	0-100	0	8.02E-04	1.00E+00	34.72	6.16E-03	9.98E-01	32.18	

<sup>\*</sup> NPSHA1b is normally distributed over the expected data. + Midpoint estimates used as the closest estimation for the mean of NPSHA1

# 6.2 Comparison of NPSHA1 Data with Reference Data

NPSHA1 output obtained via the BBN and FLM were compared to the NPSHA1 output of the reference model over four different temperatures of 40, 80, 120 and 160°F. The results are tabulated in Tables 12 and 13.

## 6.2.1 Bayesian Belief Network Model Comparison and Discussion

## Accuracy of results

The NPSHA1 estimated via BBN gives expected values over a range of uncertainties. For example, given the assumption that GPM is zero and temperature is low, NPSHA output is distributed across H to L. There is a 61% probability of being in state K, which is estimated to be between the range of 26 and 36; and a 27% probability of being in state J, which is estimated to be between 24 and 35 (*As shown in Figure 36*). Note that the probability of state K dominates the other states.

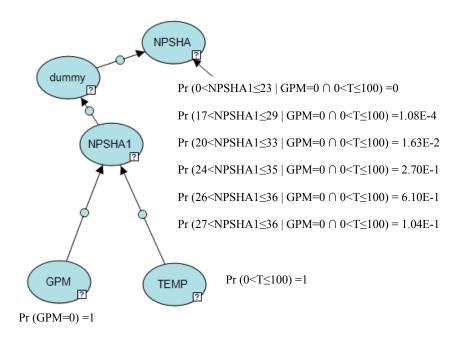


Figure 36: Distribution of NPSHA given GPM and Temperature evidence

Referring to Table 12 (*highlighted in red*), when GPM=0 and Temperature =40 ° F, the midpoint of NPSHA1 output interval via BBN is 32.18, and has an uncertainty range of 26 to 36. Compare this result with the reference NPSHA of 31.78. One would notice that there is no uncertainty in the GPM input when GPM equals to zero while on the other hand, uncertainty exists in the input Temperature parameter. Comparing the two results, there is a difference of approximately 1.26%, which provides a reasonable estimate.

Consider another scenario where uncertainties exist for both inputs GPM and Temperature. Using the same methodology, this time given that GPM is mid low and temperature is high, NPSHA1 output is distributed across D to I. There is a 38% probability of being in state F, which is estimated to be between the range of 18 and 27; and a 49% probability of being in state G, which is estimated to be between 12 and 27. Note that the probabilities of NPSHA1 falling in state F and G are relatively higher as compared to the previous scenario.

Referring to Table 12 (*highlighted in red*), when GPM = 120 and T = 160 °F, the midpoint of NPSHA1 output interval via BBN is approximately 17.85, and has an uncertainty range of 12 to 27. Compare this result with the reference NPSHA of 20.6584. Notice that the uncertainty range is larger, and the difference between the expected NPSHA1 and the reference NPSHA1 is approximately 13.59%.

Total absolute error of the NPSHA1 data at Temperature = 40 deg F is calculated to be 38.17, which was derived by aggregating all absolute error terms within the temperature range as listed in Table 12. The total percentage error is therefore given by  $\frac{\text{Sum of absolute error}}{\text{Sum of reference data}} * 100 = \frac{38.17}{430.45} * 100 = 8.87\%$ . Using the same

computations for all error terms at Temperature = 160 deg F, the total percentage error is found to be:  $\frac{29.09}{267.25} * 100 = 10.89\%$ .

The relatively low percentage errors at the two temperature points suggest that the results obtained via BBN on the two scenarios do provide a satisfactory estimate of NPSHA1, although the extent of the errors are still dependent on the degree of uncertainty of the input variables. In this particular application, the data obtained from the reference model all falls within the uncertainty range specified by the BBN model for every scenario. The important question is: what is the range that would be considered acceptable? In order to have more precise results, the input parameters need to be better defined such that uncertainties can be reduced.

Table 12: Comparison of NPSHA1data between BBN model and Reference model at T = 40, 80, 120 and 160°F

GPM	T = 40			T = 80			T = 120			T = 160		
	REF	BBN	Error	REF	BBN	Error	REF	BBN	Error	REF	BBN	Error
0	31.78	32.18	0.40	28.38	32.18	3.80	24.98	21.24	3.74	21.58	21.24	0.34
20	31.75	29.94	1.81	28.35	29.94	1.59	24.95	19.59	5.36	21.55	19.59	1.96
40	31.68	29.94	1.74	28.28	29.94	1.66	24.88	19.59	5.29	21.48	19.59	1.89
80	31.37	29.94	1.43	27.97	29.94	1.97	24.57	19.59	4.98	21.17	19.59	1.58
120	30.86	27.12	3.74	27.46	27.12	0.34	24.06	17.85	6.21	20.66	17.85	2.81
160	30.14	27.12	3.02	26.74	27.12	0.38	23.34	17.85	5.49	19.94	17.85	2.09
200	29.22	24.98	4.24	25.82	24.98	0.84	22.42	16.08	6.34	19.02	16.08	2.94
220	28.68	24.98	3.70	25.28	24.98	0.30	21.88	16.08	5.80	18.48	16.08	2.40
240	28.09	24.98	3.11	24.69	24.98	0.29	21.29	16.08	5.21	17.89	16.08	1.81
280	26.76	24.98	1.78	23.36	24.98	1.62	19.96	16.08	3.88	16.56	16.08	0.48
320	25.23	23.63	1.60	21.83	23.63	1.80	18.43	14.16	4.27	15.03	14.16	0.87
340	24.38	23.63	0.75	20.98	23.63	2.65	17.58	14.16	3.42	14.18	14.16	0.02
380	22.54	23.63	1.09	19.14	23.63	4.49	15.74	8.07	7.67	12.34	8.07	4.27
400	21.54	22.57	1.03	18.14	22.57	4.43	14.74	8.07	6.67	11.34	8.07	3.27
440	19.39	22.57	3.18	15.99	22.57	6.58	12.59	8.07	4.52	9.19	8.07	1.12
480	17.03	22.57	5.54	13.63	22.57	8.94	10.23	8.07	2.16	6.83	8.07	1.24

## Resolution of data

In this pump system example, the Temperature input parameter only assumes dichotomous categories, namely: low (0-100 °F) and high (101-200 °F). Referring to Table 12, the expected NPSHA1 outputs estimated via BBN are the same for Temperature input 0 to 100 °F; and 101 to 200 °F respectively.

Similarly, GPM input is divided into 6 categories such that NPSHA1 output is the same for every GPM input that falls within each category. Referring to Table 12, GPM = 20, 40 and 80 all falls within GML category where this results in the same expected NPSHA1 output of 31.469 with an uncertainty range between 20 to 32. Therefore, such categorical classifications of parameters would reduce the sensitivity of output results, and may fail to distinguish output values that correspond to the different values of the same input category. Plotting GPM with respect to NPSHA1 would result in a discrete graph that represents a loss of resolution, instead of a smooth curve as shown in Figure 8.

In order to improve the resolution, more conditions would need to be defined in the input parameter nodes. This can be achieved by obtaining more information on the input parameters As the CPT increases in size and complexity, more time would be required to build the BBN model. In short, there is a corresponding increase in the resolution of the output data with larger number of conditions defined for each input node.

## Flexibility in model adjustment

Representing the pump system as a BBN is a more flexible approach to solve system problems. Consider a case where the NPSHA output is known and estimations

are necessary for the input parameters. In this instance, expert opinion estimates that the NPSHA output is approximately between 13 and 17, which falls within state D. Setting the evidence of NPSHA node of the BBN to D, the input parameters can be estimated based on the graphical representation of BBN as shown in Figure 37.

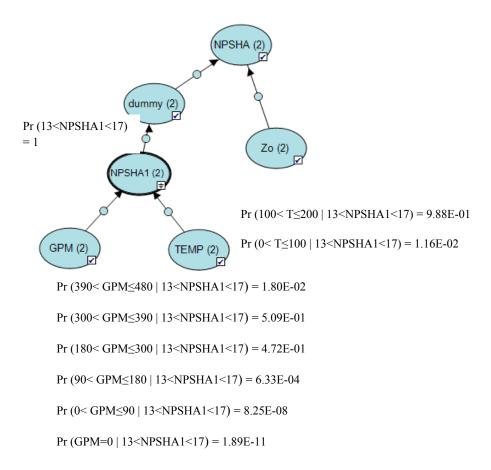


Figure 37: BBN of pump system given evidence that NPSHA1 is D

In order to achieve NPSHA1 output that falls within state D, there is a 51% probability that GPM is in the mid high range and 47% probability of being in the mid range. There is a 98.8% probability that temperature would fall in the high region.

# Ease of building the model

Although building the structure of a BBN model is not difficult, the process of understanding, identifying and estimating the probability data for each condition of

every node makes the modeling challenging and tedious. The model becomes complicated when many uncertainties are being considered in the input parameters, and overlapping data are expected within the output parameters.

Currently, there is no established method to incorporate BBN into a system with cyclic network. This proves to be a major problem as many complex real life systems consist of cyclic networks. To counter this limitation, Tang, Liu and Qian [14] proposed using DBN model to solve complex real life system with feedback loops.

To elaborate further, DBN is based on temporal time series data. Consider a simple example [14] with a feedback loop  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow A$ , where node C at time t has an influence on node A at time t+1 (*Refer to Figure 38*).

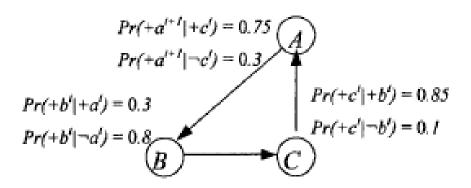


Figure 38: Dynamic Bayesian Network with feedback loop [11]

Dynamic Bayesian Network can construct a cyclic regulation by dividing the states of a variable by time slices [15]. Node A at time t has an influence on itself at t+1, i.e.  $A^t \to A^{t+1}$  as shown in the dotted lines in Figure 39. Node C in this case is primary time dependent where  $C^t \to A^{t+1}$ .

One recommendation is to implement DBN on a primary feedback loop if it satisfies the primary time dependency requirements, i.e. Node C and ignore all trivial time dependencies, i.e. Node A.

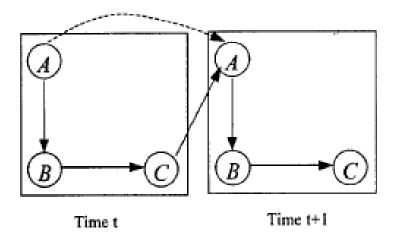


Figure 39: Time expansion of the dynamic network in Figure 34 [11]

In another paper, Z. Mohaghegh, R. Kazemi, and A. Mosleh [16] proposed using hybrid modeling to address dynamic complex system with feedback loops. They use simulation based techniques such as ABM [17] and SD [18] to model complex model with impossible analytical solutions.

System Dynamics technique represents dynamic deterministic relations in hybrid modeling environment and provides dynamic integration among various modules/subsystems. These subsystems which can be modeled via various techniques such as BBN would have their own inputs and outputs to the SD module. Consequently, the entire hybrid model would have the relevant capability to capture feedback loops and delays. The SD software used in this paper [16] was STELLA.

For example, the hybrid model allows the targeted subsystem that is modeled via BBN to be imported and processed inside SD which has delays and feedback loops. The estimated value calculated from SD would then be exported back into the BBN environment. Such integrated processes would pose as a good alternative to resolve the challenges that arise from integrating BBN into systems with feedback loops. Figure 40 shows a demonstration on how BBN can be integrated into a system with feedback loops.

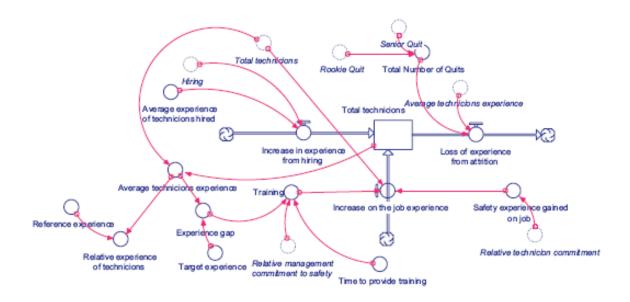


Figure 40: Training module within a SD environment [16]

This thesis implements the use of BBN on a simple two inputs - one output system, to demonstrate that it is possible to model a dynamic system probabilistically. However, incorporating uncertainty into a complex system using BBN is highly challenging as uncertainty has to be considered in every parameter and condition. Building a BBN on multiple hierarchies of complex systems would require much more computational effort and time. Therefore such applications are often subjected to constraints posed by the limited resources in the industrial context.

#### Ability to update model

Bayesian Belief Network is a powerful tool for reasoning and learning with uncertainty. Therefore the capability of Bayesian updating is a major advantage of learning via BBN. For example, in the face of uncertainty in the NPSHA1 output range, one can only approximate the mean and standard deviation over a certain form of distribution. Assuming that the expected values of NPSHA1 follow a normal distribution, and the likelihood model also follows a normal distribution with known standard deviation, one can use conjugate priors to estimate the posterior mean of NPSHA1, given that the initial estimates for mean and standard deviation are the prior parameters.

Posterior mean is given by 
$$\mu = \frac{\frac{\mu_0}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_F} t_i^F}{v}}{\frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{n_F}{v}}$$
 [19]

Where the evidence is  $n_F$  failures at times  $t_i$ ,  $\mu_0$  is the prior mean,  $\sigma_0$  is the prior standard deviation, and  $\sigma^2 = v$ 

Posterior variance is given by 
$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{n_F}{v}}$$
 [19]

#### Requirement for precise data

The findings reinforce the notion that the BBN model does not require exact historical data or evidence to produce convincing results. As demonstrated in the pump system application in section 5.3, precise evidences of the two input parameters are not necessary to produce an accurate NPSHA1 output, even when the physical equation is not available.

However accuracy of the output will be limited to the certainty of the input parameters. Therefore, highly uncertain inputs are often accompanied by more ambiguous outputs. Further research can look into the determination of the level of uncertainties within the data that is deemed as acceptable.

#### Mathematical strength

Bayesian Belief Network is modeled after Bayes' theorem which is a proven and established mathematical model. As a result, BBN methodology is also well documented and widely accepted among scholars and practitioners.

#### Areas of application

One rule of thumb in using BBN is that it is highly effective for modeling applications where some information is already known and incoming data is uncertain or partially unavailable. It is especially useful when historical or current information is vague, incomplete, conflicting and uncertain [11].

However, there is a flip side to every coin as BBN is not adapted to work in applications with time delays and feedback loops. Tang, Liu and Qian [14], and Z. Mohaghegh, R. Kazemi, and A. Mosleh [16] have proposed DBN and Hybrid modeling respectively to counter these problems. BBN is also useful in applications where the exact mathematical model is difficult or impossible to be determined.

#### 6.2.2 Fuzzy Logic Comparison and Discussion

#### Accuracy of results

Using the FLM methodology as discussed in section 5.2, the NPSHA1 fuzzy data can be estimated via the plot as shown in Figure 18. From the results obtained from Table 13, Figure 41 illustrates the comparison of NPSHA1 between reference and FLM data at Temperature =  $40^{\circ}$ F.

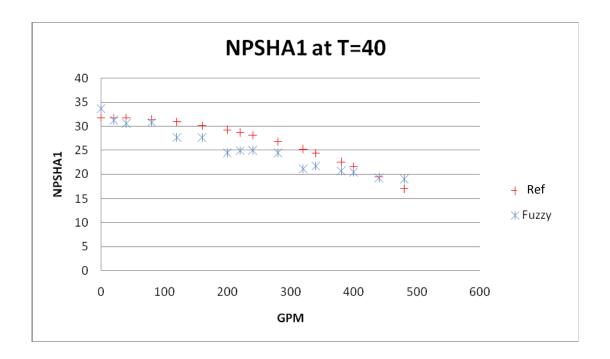


Figure 41: Comparison of NPSHA at T=40 between Reference model and FLM

With reference to Figure 41, at Temperature = 40 °F, the trend of fuzzy logic line is consistent with the physical model line. It is not possible to obtain precise results produced by the reference model due to the fuzziness or uncertainty defined for the input and output parameters. The fuzzy output is more accurate towards the two extreme ends of plot and less accurate in the middle. Referring to Table 13 (*highlighted in red*), at Temperature =40 °F and GPM = 120, the NPSHA1 Fuzzy output is 27.67 as compared to the reference NPSHA1 of 30.86, where the difference is approximately 10.3%. Referring to Table 13(*highlighted in red*), at Temperature

=160 ° F and GPM=120, the NPSHA1 Fuzzy output is 14.33 as compared to the reference NPSHA1 of 20.66, which translates into approximately 30% difference.

The total absolute error for NPSHA1 data at Temperature =  $40 \text{deg} \,^{\circ}\text{F}$  is 35.63, which is obtained by summing up all absolute error terms at this temperature found in Table 13.. The total percentage error is therefore calculated as  $\frac{\text{Sum of absolute error}}{\text{Sum of reference data}} * 100 = <math>\frac{35.63}{430.45} * 100 = 8.28\%$ . Similarly for Temperature =  $160 \text{deg} \,^{\circ}\text{F}$ , the total percentage error is  $\frac{72.82}{267.28} * 100 = 27.14\%$ .

Assuming a fixed input GPM, as the temperature increases, the variation between the fuzzy NPSHA1 and reference NPSHA1 becomes larger. Such inaccuracy is due to the fact that input temperature has only two membership functions, resulting in fuzzier outputs.

In a nutshell, fuzzy logic is tolerant of imprecise data. Fuzzy reasoning builds this understanding into the process rather than tacking it at the end [2].

Table 13: Comparison of NPSHA1data between Fuzzy Logic model and Reference Model at T = 40, 80, 120 and  $160 \, ^{\circ} F$ 

GPM		T = 40			T = 80			T = 120			T = 160	
GI WI	REF	FUZZY	Error	REF	FUZZY	Error	REF	FUZZY	Error	REF	FUZZY	Error
0	31.78	33.69	1.91	28.38	29.60	1.22	24.98	24.40	0.58	21.58	20.31	1.27
20	31.75	31.24	0.51	28.35	26.35	2.01	24.95	24.64	0.31	21.55	19.77	1.78
40	31.68	30.59	1.09	28.28	26.78	1.50	24.88	22.23	2.65	21.48	18.57	2.91
80	31.37	30.81	0.56	27.97	26.57	1.40	24.57	21.43	3.14	21.17	17.19	3.98
120	30.86	27.67	3.19	27.46	23.60	3.86	24.06	18.40	5.66	20.66	14.33	6.33
160	30.14	27.67	2.47	26.74	23.60	3.14	23.34	18.40	4.94	19.94	14.33	5.61
200	29.22	24.45	4.77	25.82	20.15	5.67	22.42	15.85	6.57	19.02	11.55	7.47
220	28.68	24.90	3.78	25.28	20.57	4.71	21.88	15.43	6.45	18.48	11.10	7.38
240	28.09	24.98	3.12	24.69	20.57	4.13	21.29	15.43	5.86	17.89	11.02	6.87
280	26.76	24.45	2.32	23.36	20.15	3.21	19.96	15.85	4.11	16.56	11.55	5.01
320	25.23	21.12	4.11	21.83	16.83	5.00	18.43	13.17	5.26	15.03	8.88	6.14
340	24.38	21.67	2.71	20.98	17.60	3.38	17.58	12.40	5.18	14.18	8.33	5.85
380	22.54	20.71	1.83	19.14	16.70	2.44	15.74	12.17	3.56	12.34	8.20	4.13
400	21.54	20.41	1.13	18.14	15.89	2.25	14.74	12.00	2.74	11.34	7.77	3.57
440	19.39	19.22	0.17	15.99	14.98	1.01	12.59	11.18	1.41	9.19	6.76	2.42
480	17.03	18.98	1.94	13.63	14.57	0.93	10.23	9.43	0.80	6.83	5.02	1.81

#### Resolution of data

Fuzzy data has better resolution as compared to the BBN model. Referring to Figure 41, note that there is a decreasing trend in the fuzzy plot which is noticeably consistent with the reference plot. In order to improve the resolution, the membership functions for the input and output parameters should be broken down further into finer details. As such, more if/then rules between the inputs and outputs would need to be defined.

#### Flexibility in model adjustment

Fuzzy Logic Modeling offers higher flexibility in its ability to adjust and change the boundaries and membership functions of both input and output parameters with little effort. However, application is limited in situations where the designers only have information regarding the output parameters, and will need to estimate an unknown input parameter.

#### Ease of building the model

The process of adapting FLM into a complex system is relatively easy and straightforward. FIS greatly depends on a number of conditional "if-then" rules in order to model the system output. Although these rules are easy to write, if the designers do not understand the system well, they would not be able to provide sufficient rules to accurately describe the system.

Fuzzy logic can be adapted onto multiple hierarchies of complex systems by using SIMULINK [20], which is a dynamic system simulator for MATLAB. It supports linear and non linear systems, and can be modeled in continuous time, sampled discrete time, or a hybrid of both. Using the graphical user interface

provided, one can build multiple hierarchies of FIS controllers in complex systems using top down or bottom up approach; integrate them via logic gates and connectors; and simulate the defuzzified data at the allocated output.

#### Ability to update model

Updating of model can be done manually by adjusting the boundaries of the input and output parameters, or changing the shape of the membership functions.

There is no mathematical model that can be used to update FLM, and analysts are required to manually update the models.

#### Requirement for precise data

Fuzzy logic addresses incomplete/uncertain input and output parameters directly by defining them with fuzzy sets that can be expressed in linguistic terms. When implementing FLM using the pump system, the only information available is the approximate range of the two input and one output parameters. The rules are formulated based on the mappings of the DMLD between the input and output variables.

The model does not require historical data, but prior knowledge of the system is necessary. If there is insufficient information, the fuzzy logic controller would not be able to accurately model the system output [2].

For the pump system example, the prior knowledge about the system is based on the DMLD, which is sufficient to generate the basic rules for the fuzzy controller to process and generate a reasonable consistent output.

When historical data is not available, FLM can be built on expert opinions. This allows one to draw on the experience of experts in the relevant fields who are already familiar with the associated systems [2].

#### Mathematical strength

The interrelationship between the fuzziness within a system is represented by simple if/then rules, which allows simple representations of fuzzy descriptions [8].

The rules and conditions for the pump system are generated based on the DMLD which maps the input variables to the output variable. These rules are easy to understand as compared to analyzing the DMLD maps.

There is little complicated mathematics when describing the if/then rules. This methodology is relatively new and not widely documented to-date [2]. As such, FLM is still not widely implemented into controllers to solve system problems.

#### Areas of application

Fuzzy logic is able to model non linear functions of complex system such that a fuzzy system can be created to match any set of input-output data. It is useful in complex applications, system controls and analysis designs where the exact mathematical model is hard or impossible to be determined [8].

Fuzzy logic is an effective modeling application for systems laden with ambiguities and uncertainties during the decision-making process. In the pump system example, the uncertainty of the input Temperature, input GPM, and output NPSHA1 are estimated and translated into the boundaries of their membership functions. The range for each category of the two input parameters is tabulated in Table 4.

#### 6.2.3 Comparison between Bayesian Belief Network and Fuzzy Logic Model

This section summarizes the respective discussions made on the Fuzzy Logic and BBN models relative to the reference model and evaluates the two methodologies against each other. The comparison is shown in Table 14.

Figure 42 shows a graphical representation of NPSHA1 output at Temperature = 40 ° F for the BBN, FLM and the reference model. Note that the fuzzy model has better resolution than the BBN model. As calculated earlier in section 6.2.1 and 6.2.2, at Temperature = 40 ° F, the BBN model has an error percentage of 8.87% as compared to Fuzzy Logic Model which has an error percentage of 8.28%. This shows that FLM has slightly better accuracy than the BBN model at Temperature = 40 ° F.

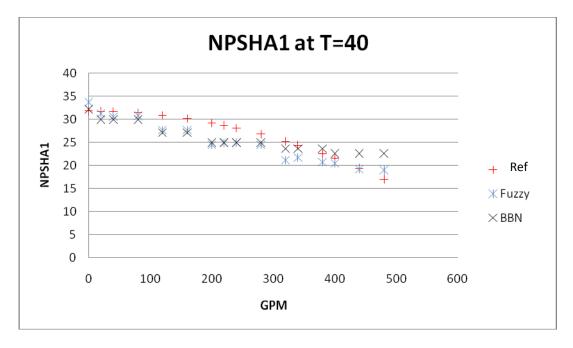


Figure 42: NPSHA1 comparison based on the reference model, FLM and BBN at Temp = 40.

Figure 43 shows a graphical representation of NPSHA1 output at Temperature = 160 °F for the BBN, FLM and the reference model. Again, it can be observed that the fuzzy model has better resolution than the BBN model. As calculated earlier in sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2, at Temperature = 160 °F, the BBN model has an error percentage of 10.89% as compared to FLM which has an error percentage of 27.14%. The significantly smaller error percentage derived by the BBN demonstrates that at Temperature = 160 °F, this model produces more accurate NPSHA1 data than the FLM.

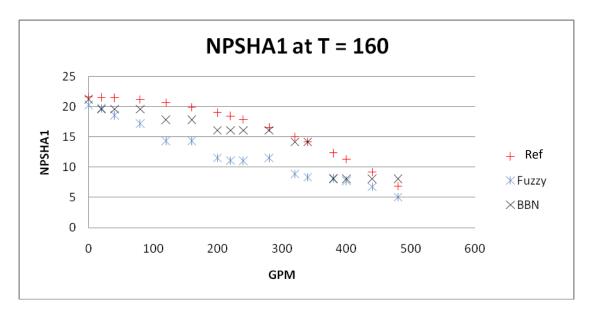


Figure 43: NPSHA1 comparison based on the reference model, FLM and BBN at Temp = 160

As a round up to our comparisons made between the BBN and FLM, Table 14 summarizes the respective strengths and weaknesses of each methodology based on the comparison criteria as outlined in Chapter 6.

Table 14: Table of Comparison between BBN and Fuzzy Logic Models

Comparison Criteria	Bayesian Belief Network	Fuzzy Logic Modeling		
Accuracy of results*	The expected value of the output is more	Output data are point estimates that		
	accurate when there is less uncertainty in the	follow a consistent trend when		
	input parameters.	compared to a reference data.		
	The output is distributed over a range of	Slightly smaller percentage change in		
	uncertainties.	error at Temperature = 0°F as compared		
	The output from the reference model falls	to the BBN output, which concluded		
	within the uncertainty range, thus satisfying	that FLM produces slightly more		
*Note that this criterion is	the criteria.	accurate results than BBN at		
compared in the context of the	Smaller percentage change in error at high	Temperature = $0  ^{\circ}$ F.		
pump system application and may	temperature as compared to the FLM output,			
not be generalized. Different	suggesting that BBN yields better accuracy at			
applications would produce	Temperature = 160°F.			
different results.				

2. Resolution of data*	Relatively poor resolution that greatly  depends on the number of conditions being	Better resolution as compared to the  BBN model.
*Note that this criterion is  compared in the context of the  pump system application and may  not be generalized. Different  applications would produce  different results.	<ul> <li>Unable to accurately estimate output data when several inputs fall within a categorical range as specified by the conditions. This reduces sensitivity of the output results.</li> </ul>	Increases the number of membership functions so as to reduce the fuzziness, and as a result, improve the resolution.
3. Flexibility in model adjustment	Given that the evidence is known for certain nodes, one would be able to estimate the probability output of another node. This would provide flexibility in estimating required data.	<ul> <li>Less flexibility over estimating required data given that some data are unknown.</li> <li>Designers must have a good knowledge of the system in order to effectively use FLM.</li> </ul>

4. Ease of building the model	BBNs are easy to build, but estimating and	Straightforward and easy to implement
	assigning probabilities to every condition	Fuzzy Logic into a complex system, but
	within the node is tedious and time	FIS greatly depends on a number of
	consuming.	conditional "if-then" rules in order to
	Difficult to implement BBN in multiple	model the system output.
	hierarchies of complex system.	SIMULINK can be use to integrate
	Hybrid modeling/SD could be used to	multiple FIS controller into a system
	incorporate BBN into a system with time	with time delays, cyclic network and
	delays, cyclic network and multiple	multiple hierarchies of complex
	hierarchies of complex systems.	systems.
5. Ability to update	The model has the ability to use Bayesian	Updating of model can be done

	updating methodology to learn and train data.	manually by adjusting the fuzzy sets of
	This is a more formal methodology and has a	the input and output parameters, or
	stronger mathematics basis for using it.	changing the shape of the membership
		functions.
		• In case of new information, Fuzzy rules
		need to be changed. Updating can only
		be done by analyst.
6. Requirement for precise	The model does not require exact historical	There is no need for precise data, but
data	data or evidence to produce convincing	designers need to understand how the
	results.	system operates in order to generate
	Accuracy of the output will be limited to the	sufficient if/then rules for the FIS
	certainty of the input parameters. Therefore,	controller to produce an accurate
	highly uncertain inputs are often accompanied	output.
	by more ambiguous outputs.	

7. Mathematical strength	<ul> <li>Follows Bayes theorem which is an established and proven model.</li> <li>Methodology has been used widely used in many applications and is well documented.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Fuzzy algorithm follows the if/then rules, which uses basic mathematics.</li> <li>Methodology is relatively new, and is not well accepted yet.</li> </ul>
8. Areas of application	<ul> <li>Effective for modeling applications where some information is already known and incoming data is uncertain or partially unavailable.</li> <li>Useful in applications where the mathematical model is hard or impossible to be determined.</li> <li>Appropriate for diagnostic applications where frequent updating of data is necessary.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Effective for modeling applications with ambiguities and uncertainties.</li> <li>Effective for modeling non linear functions of complex system.</li> <li>Useful in complex applications, system controls and analysis designs where the mathematical model is hard or impossible to be determined.</li> </ul>

### Chapter 7: Conclusion and Recommendation

#### 7.1 Conclusion

Bayesian Belief Network and FLM both present a systematic approach to account for uncertainties in a dynamic system. BBN represents uncertainties in a probabilistic manner, while FLM represents uncertainties as fuzzy set membership functions. A brief literature review on both methods has shown that BBN adopts a probabilistic approach to deal with reasoning, which is distinct from the FLM that deals with reasoning from its fuzzy sets. Following the implementation of both methodologies on the pump system example, this thesis has shown that the two methodologies generally yield consistent estimates as compared to the results calculated from the mathematical model.

Based on the results obtained, the strengths and weaknesses of both BBN and FLM were identified, and limitations of the methodologies were also discussed. In particular, incorporating uncertainties within BBN is tedious and time consuming as overlapping data has to be taken into account for all input/output states, therefore implementing a BBN into multiple hierarchies of complex systems would be highly challenging. In addition, the poor resolution of output by both FLM and BBN is another limitation that may undermine the accuracy of the results; this inadequacy can be addressed by further defining the input parameters in finer details when time and resources permit. In order to overcome weaknesses that are inherent in the individual application of each model, future research can explore how BBN and FLM can be integrated into more complex systems with the function of timing delays and feedback loops.

#### 7.2 Recommendations

In this paper, BBN and FLM were implemented on a simple mono- hierarchy system. Future studies should attempt to model these two methodologies on multiple hierarchies of complex systems, which are more realistic and applicable to the real world.

As proposed by Z. Mohaghegh, R. Kazemi, and A. Mosleh [16], Hybrid modeling via SD environment is an ideal method to resolve the challenges that arise from integrating BBN into systems with feedback loops. They have introduced the use of STELLA to integrate BBN, ESD, and FT into a SD module that allows for feedback and delays. However, their researches have a stronger focus on human reliability and organizational risk management. Therefore, future research can explore integrating BBN into an SD environment that models a mechanical or electronic system with delays and feedbacks loop features.

Since both BBN and FLM have their pros and cons, one could also look into integrating FLM and BBN in an SD environment to solve system problems. There are possibilities that both methodologies can be combined to achieve synergies that are not possible from applying each method individually in the SD environment. Weaknesses of each model may even be offset by each other. Alternatively, optimization of the problem could be examined to determine the acceptable limits of uncertainty in data, so that the accuracy of the output is not compromised.

One of the disadvantages of BBN as mentioned in chapter 6 is the poor resolution of output given the limited conditions specified for the input. Breaking down the input temperatures into only two conditions would result in more "discrete" rather than continuous outputs. In view of this, extension of this thesis research should

strive for continuous BBN data, where the input nodes take the form of a continuous distribution instead of discrete numbers. However, there will be limitations when using IRIS to model BBNs with continuous data as it only allows discrete inputs to be entered into the CPT.

A recommended software that possesses the capability to build continuous BBNs using continuous chance nodes (as illustrated in Figure 44) is HUGIN LITE. Obtaining continuous data in this way might solve the poor resolution problem without having to specify many conditions.

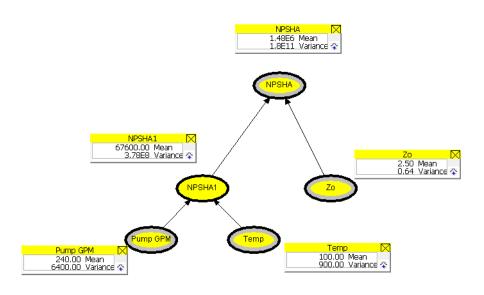


Figure 44: Example of Continuous BBN where each node is a continuous chance node

Another area that deserves further attention is to consider other types of distributions that can be used for the input and output parameters apart from the normal distribution. One limitation in using the normal distribution is that the two extreme ends of the curve have infinite values, which might undermine the accuracy

of the results. One alternative is to use triangular or uniform distributions which have fixed values on the extreme ends for the input and output parameters. It may also be useful to conduct a pilot study that compares output data obtained via various types of distributions so as to gain a better understanding on any consistency and variations obtained from the various distributions.

## Appendix A

#### Acronyms

ABM Agent Based Modeling

BBN Bayesian Belief Network

BN Bayesian Network

CDF Cumulative Distribution Function

COA Centroid/Center of Area

COS Centre Of Sum

CPT Conditional Probability Table

DAG Directed Acyclic Graphs

DBN Dynamic Bayesian Network

DMLD Dynamic Master Logic Diagram

DOF Degree Of Freedom

ESD Event Sequence Diagram

FIS Fuzzy Inference System

FLM Fuzzy Logic Modeling

FLT Fuzzy Logic Toolbox

FT Fault Tree

GPM Gallons Per Minute

GHI GPM High

GLW GPM Low

GMD GPM Midpoint

GMH GPM Mid High

GML GPM Mid Low

GZE GPM Zero

LHS Left Hand Side

MOM Mean Of Maxima

NE Negative

NPSHA Net Pump Suction Head

NPSHA1 Net Pump Suction Head when  $Z_0 = 0$ 

NT Neutral

PDF Probability Distribution Function

POF Physics of Failure

PT Positive

RHS Right Hand Side

SD System Dynamics

SN Slight Negative

SP Slight Positive

THI Temperature High

TLW Temperature Low

### Notations of DMLD based on time dependent fuzzy logic [5]

Notation	Description
HIGH MID LOW State  State HIGH MID LOW	Fuzzy Sets of a state: The location of the name of the state addresses the direction of the fuzzification and defuzzification.  AND gate: The minimum value of inputs will be the output value

$\triangle$	<b>OR</b> gate: The maximum value of inputs will be the output value
dt	AND transition gate: The minimum value of inputs will be the output value with a delay, dt
dt	OR transition gate: The maximum value of inputs will be the output value with a delay, dt
-(0.9)-	Uncertain Node: The number inside the node represents the uncertainty of relationship. The minimum between the input degree of membership function (dmf) and the uncertainty is selected as the output.
-	Certain Node: Represents a certain relationship that directly propagates the input dmf to the output dmf.
	<b>NOT</b> Node: Represents certain negation in which the output dmf is (1-input dmf).

<u>-(0.9)</u> -	Uncertain Negation Node: A hollow node with a bar above the degree of certainty inside. The output dmf is the minimum between the uncertainty and (1- input dmf).
	Independent Node: Represents no relationship
- <b>D</b> -	<b>Dependent</b> Node: Represents that more DMLD hierarchies are required to model the system behavior in details.

# Appendix B

# Definitions of Bayesian Belief Network [8]

Acyclic Graph	A graph that contains no cycles. At most one path		
	exists between each pair of nodes in the graph		
Anticipatory node	A leaf node that has not been instantiated. It is a node		
	awaiting evidence.		
Arc	A link or edge joining between 2 nodes.		
Bayesian	Probabilities that are based on a person's belief/expert		
Probabilities	judgment of the likelihood of an event.		
Belief	The probability that a variable will be in a certain		
	state based on additional evidence in a current		
	situation of each possible state of a variable after		
	considering all available evidence.		
	A-priori beliefs are special case of beliefs that are		
	based only on prior information. A-priori beliefs are		
	determined only by the information stored in the		
	belief networks' CPT [6]		
Belief Network	A graphical representation of a model that captures		
	the relationships between the model's variables.		
Binary variable	A variable that has only two possible states.		
Child	A descendent variable whose state is directly		
	influenced by the parent variable.		

Clique	A set of variables that are all pairwise linked.
Cluster tree	A tree in which each node is a cluster of variables
	from the domain of interest and each variable in the
	domain appears in at least one node of the cluster
	tree.
Clustering	A technique where variables are grouped into clusters
	to form singly connected network/trees.
Conditional	Conditional probabilities represent likelihoods based
Probabilities	on prior information or past experience. [6]
Cyclic graph	A graph that contains at least one cycle. This means
	that multiple paths must exist between at least two of
	the nodes in the graph.
<b>D-Separation</b>	The blocking of the flow of evidence between nodes
	or set of nodes in a network. It is used to represent
	independence in causal belief network.
Decomposable model	A probability model with a minimal independency
	тар.
Dependency map	A graph in which all connected nodes correspond to
	dependent variables in the model that is represented
Directed Acyclic	A graph that has direct arcs and no cycles.
Graph	
Directed graph	A graph containing directed arcs between nodes.
<b>Dummy node</b>	A node representing evidence that bears upon another
	node of interest.
Evidence	It is information about a current situation [6]

Evidence node	A node with a single value that has been observed
	with probability one.
Graph	A set of nodes or vertices connected by a set of arcs
	or edges.
Hypothesis node	A node whose state represents one of a number of
	alternative hypotheses
Inference	The calculation of posterior marginal distributions for
	variables of interests given a set of observations or
	evidence.
Intermediate node	A node inserted before a hypothesis variable to allow
	uncertainty to be modeled.
Join tree	A tree structure in which the nodes are the cliques of
	the graph that it represents.
Leaf node	A node whose arcs are directed towards it.
Likelihood	How often a particular event is expected to occur.
Markov networks	Graphical networks that are represented by undirected
	graphs.
Marginal	This distribution can be viewed as a <i>projection</i> of the
distribution [5]	joint distribution on the smaller set of variables $X1$
	Xm.
	Where $Pr(X_1,,X_m) = \sum Pr(X_1X_m)$
Maximal clique	A maximal set of variables that are all pairwise
	linked.
Neighbors	Nodes that are directly connected to a node

Parent	A parent of a variable is any other variable that
	directly influences the state of that variable.
Probabilistic Model	An encoding of probabilistic information that allows
	computation of every well formed
	sentence/proposition in accordance with axioms of
	the probability language.
Root node	A node whose arcs are directed away from it.
Stochastic simulation	A technique for computing probabilities by
	measuring how frequently specific events occur
	during simulation runs.
Uncertain evidence	Specific evidence that do not directly identify the
	state of a variable.
Undirected graph	A graph that has arcs with no direction. i.e. Arcs that
	exhibit bidirectional influence between nodes
Universe	The set of all variables in a model representing all
	knowledge in the domain of interest.

# Appendix C

```
MATLAB source code1: Pump System Model Application
```

```
function PumpSystem()
clc
clear all
close all
format long
%Defining input and output parameter range
x_GPM = 0:1:480; %Estimated Pump GPM range
x_Temp = 0:1:200; %Estimated Temperature range
x_Zo = 0.0.1.5; %Estmated Height of Pump range
x_NPSHA1 = 0:0.1:40; %Estimated NPSHA(Zo=0)range
x NPSHA = 0:0.1:45; % Estimated NPSHA output
GPMmax = 480;
TempMax = 200;
```

ZoMax = 10;

GPM mu1 = 240; %Estimated GPM mean

GPM sd1 = 80; %GPM standard deviation

Temp mu1 = 100; %Estimated Temperature mean

Temp\_sd1 = 30; %Temperature standard deviation

Zo mu1 = 2.5; %Estimated Zo mean

Zo sd1 = 0.8; %Zo standard deviation

N = 5000; %Sample Size

%Consider Monte Carlo Sampling based on a Uniform Distribution (Not used in %Thesis example)

for i = 1:N

U\_GPM(i) = GPMmax \* rand(1); %Based on a uniform distribution input
 U\_Temp(i) = TempMax \* rand(1); %Based on a uniform distribution input
 U\_Zo(i) = ZoMax \* rand(1); %Based on a uniform distribution input

 $U_NPSHA1 = 35.18 - 6.4*10^{-5} * U_GPM.^2 - 0.085 * U_Temp; % for Zo = 0$ 

U\_NPSHA = 35.18 + U\_Zo - 6.4\*10^-5 \* U\_GPM.^2 - 0.085 \* U\_Temp; % NPSHA inclusive of Zo component.

end

```
figure(1)
hist(U NPSHA1,100)
                         % Histogram of Uniform NPSHA1
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                       % X Axis Label
ylabel('Number of Samples') % Y Axis Label
title('Histogram Plot of Uniform NPSHA')
[U NPSHA1 mu U NPSHA1 sd] = normfit(U NPSHA1,0.05)
                                                                %Calculate
mean and standard deviation of NPSHA1
U NPSHA1 pdf = normpdf(x NPSHA1,U NPSHA1 mu, U NPSHA1 sd);
                                                                     %pdf
of Uniform NPSHA1
U NPSHA1 cdf = normcdf(x NPSHA1,U NPSHA1 mu, U NPSHA1 sd);
                                                                     %cdf
of Uniform NPSHA1
figure(2)
plot(x_NPSHA1, U_NPSHA1_pdf, 'b') %Plot pdf of Uniform NPSHA1
                          % X Axis Label
xlabel('NPSHA1')
ylabel('probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of U NPSHA')
figure(3)
plot(x NPSHA1, U NPSHA1 cdf, 'r') %Plot cdf of Uniform NPSHA1
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
                        % Y Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
title('CDF Plot of U NPSHA')
```

```
%Consider Monte Carlo Sampling for a normal distribution
```

for j = 1:N

 $N_GPM(j) = normrnd(GPM_mu1,GPM_sd1);$  %Based on a normal distribution input

 $N_{mp}(j) = normrnd(Temp_mu1, Temp_sd1);$  %Based on a normal distribution input

 $N_Zo(j) = normrnd(Zo_mu1, Zo_sd1);$  %Based on a normal distribution input

N\_NPSHA1 = 35.18 - 6.4\*10^-5 \* N\_GPM.^2 - 0.085 \* N\_Temp; %For Zo = 0

N\_NPSHA = 35.18 + N\_Zo - 6.4\*10^-5 \* N\_GPM.^2 - 0.085 \* N\_Temp; %

NPSHA inclusive of Zo component.

end

figure(4)

hist(N\_NPSHA1,100) % Histogram for normal NPSHA1 xlabel('NPSHA1') % X Axis Label

ylabel('Number of Samples') % Y Axis Label

title('Histogram Plot of N\_NPSHA')

N\_NPSHA1\_pdf = normpdf(x\_NPSHA1,N\_NPSHA1\_mu, N\_NPSHA1\_sd); %pdf of Normal NPSHA1

N\_NPSHA1\_cdf = normcdf(x\_NPSHA1,N\_NPSHA1\_mu, N\_NPSHA1\_sd); %cdf of normal NPSHA1

[N\_NPSHA\_mu N\_NPSHA\_sd] = normfit(N\_NPSHA,0.05) %Calculate mean and standard deviation of NPSHA

N\_NPSHA\_pdf = normpdf(x\_NPSHA,N\_NPSHA\_mu, N\_NPSHA\_sd); %pdf of Normal NPSHA

N\_NPSHA\_cdf = normcdf(x\_NPSHA,N\_NPSHA\_mu, N\_NPSHA\_sd); %cdf of Normal NPSHA

[N\_Temp\_mu, N\_Temp\_sd] = normfit (N\_Temp,0.05); %Calculate mean and standard deviation of Temperature

N\_Temp\_pdf = normpdf(x\_Temp,N\_Temp\_mu,N\_Temp\_sd); %pdf of Normal Temperature

N\_Temp\_cdf = normcdf(x\_Temp,N\_Temp\_mu,N\_Temp\_sd); %cdf of Normal
Temperature

 $LWTempdata = N\_Temp\_cdf(100) \qquad \qquad \% Estimating \ the \ probability \ of \ Low$   $Temperature \ data$ 

$$\label{eq:high-cdf} \begin{split} HITempdata &= N\_Temp\_cdf(200) - N\_Temp\_cdf(100) \quad \%Estimating \ the \ probability \\ of \ High\ Temperature \ data \end{split}$$

```
figure(5)
plot(x_NPSHA1, N_NPSHA1_pdf, 'b')
                         % X Axis Label
xlabel('NPSHA1')
ylabel('frequency')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of N_NPSHA1')
figure(6)
plot(x_NPSHA1, N_NPSHA1_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                        % X Axis Label
                       % Y Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
title('CDF Plot of N NPSHA1')
[n1,xout1] = hist(N NPSHA1,12); %breaking down the normal distribution into 12
parts
norm_den1 = sum(n1)*(max(N_NPSHA1)-min(N_NPSHA1))/12;
figure(7);
bar(xout1,n1/norm_den1,'hist');hold on;
plot(x NPSHA1, N NPSHA1 pdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                        % X Axis Label
                      % Y Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
title('PDF Plot of N_NPSHA1 with Histogram')
I = 12;
max_Xout1 = max(N_NPSHA1) %estimating the maximum NPSHA1
```

```
min_Xout1 = min(N_NPSHA1) %estimating the minimum NPSHA1

Interval1 = (max Xout1 - min Xout1)/I;
```

Amax = min Xout1 + Interval1

Bmax = Amax + Interval1

Cmax = Bmax + Interval1

Dmax = Cmax + Interval1

Emax = Dmax + Interval1

Fmax = Emax + Interval1

Gmax = Fmax + Interval1

Hmax = Gmax + Interval1

Imax = Hmax + Interval1

Jmax = Imax + Interval1

Kmax = Jmax + Interval1

Lmax = Kmax + Interval1

%Obtaining Probability Data from Physical Model assuming no overlaps

Aact = normcdf(Amax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)

Bact = normcdf(Bmax, N\_NPSHA1\_mu, N\_NPSHA1\_sd) - normcdf(Amax,

N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)

Cact = normcdf(Cmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Bmax,

N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)

Dact = normcdf(Dmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Cmax,

N\_NPSHA1\_mu, N\_NPSHA1\_sd)

```
Eact = normcdf(Emax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Dmax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Fact = normcdf(Fmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Emax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Gact = normcdf(Gmax, N_NPSHA1_mu, N_NPSHA1_sd) - normcdf(Fmax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Hact = normcdf(Hmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Gmax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Iact = normcdf(Imax, N_NPSHA1_mu, N_NPSHA1_sd) - normcdf(Hmax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Jact = normcdf(Jmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1_sd) - normcdf(Imax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Kact = normcdf(Kmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Jmax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
Lact = normcdf(Lmax, N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd) - normcdf(Kmax,
N NPSHA1 mu, N NPSHA1 sd)
[n,xout] = hist(N NPSHA,4);
norm den = sum(n)*(max(N NPSHA)-min(N NPSHA))/4;
figure(8);
bar(xout,n/norm den,'hist');hold on;
plot(x NPSHA, N NPSHA pdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA')
                   % X Axis Label
                  % Y Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
title('PDF Plot of N NPSHA with Histogram')
```

```
max Xout = max(N NPSHA);
min Xout = min(N NPSHA);
Interval1 = (max Xout-min Xout)/I;
Mmax = min Xout + Interval1;
Nmax = Mmax + Interval1;
Omax = Nmax + Interval1;
Pmax = Omax + Interval1;
%Estimating the probability of M, N, O, P
M = normcdf(Mmax, N NPSHA mu, N NPSHA sd)
N
       normcdf(Nmax, N NPSHA mu,
                                    N NPSHA sd) -
                                                       normcdf(Mmax,
N_NPSHA_mu, N_NPSHA_sd)
      normcdf(Omax, N NPSHA mu,
                                    N NPSHA sd)
                                                       normcdf(Nmax,
N NPSHA mu, N NPSHA sd)
       normcdf(Pmax, N NPSHA mu, N NPSHA sd)
                                                       normcdf(Omax,
N NPSHA mu, N NPSHA sd)
[N GPM mu, N GPM sd] = normfit (N GPM,0.05); %Calculating the mean and
standard deviation of GPM
N GPM pdf = normpdf(x GPM,N GPM mu,N GPM sd); %pdf of GPM
```

I = 4;

N GPM cdf = normcdf(x GPM,N GPM mu,N GPM sd); %cdf of GPM

```
[N Zo mu, N Zo sd] = normfit (N Zo,0.05);
                                                     %Calculating the mean and
standard deviation of Zo
N_Zo_pdf = normpdf(x_Zo_N_Zo_mu_N_Zo_sd);
                                                  %pdf of Zo
N_Zo_cdf = normcdf(x_Zo_N_Zo_mu_N_Zo_sd);
                                                  %cdf of Zo
figure(9)
plot(x_GPM, N_GPM_pdf, 'r')
xlabel('GPM')
                      % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                      % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of GPM')
figure(10)
plot(x_Temp, N_Temp_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('Temp')
                      % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Temp')
figure(11)
plot(x_Zo, N_Zo_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('Zo')
                    % X Axis Label
                       % Y Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
title('PDF Plot of Zo')
```

```
figure(12)
plot(x Temp, N Temp cdf, 'b')
xlabel('Temp')
                       % X Axis Label
ylabel('Probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Temp')
figure(13)
plot(x_GPM, N_GPM_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('GPM')
                       % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of GPM')
figure(14)
plot(x_Zo, N_Zo_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('Zo')
                     % X Axis Label
                       % Y Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
title('CDF Plot of Zo')
%Estimating the probability of individual Temperature states
LWTempdata = N_Temp_cdf(100)
HITempdata = N_Temp_cdf(200) - N_Temp_cdf(100)
%Estimating the probability of individual GPM states
ZE_GPMdata = normcdf(1, N_GPM_mu,N_GPM_sd)
```

 $LW_GPMdata = normcdf(90, N_GPM_mu, N_GPM_sd) - normcdf(1,$ 

N GPM mu,N GPM sd)

ML\_GPMdata = normcdf(180, N\_GPM\_mu, N\_GPM\_sd) - normcdf(90,

N\_GPM\_mu,N\_GPM\_sd)

MD\_GPMdata = normcdf(300, N\_GPM\_mu, N\_GPM\_sd) - normcdf(180,

N GPM mu,N GPM sd)

MH GPMdata = normcdf(390, N GPM mu, N GPM sd) - normcdf(300,

N GPM mu,N GPM sd)

HI GPMdata = normcdf(480, N GPM mu, N GPM sd) - normcdf(390,

N GPM mu,N GPM sd)

#### %Estimating the probability of individual Zo states

 $N_ZoNE = normcdf(2.5, N_Zo_mu, N_Zo_sd)$ 

 $N_ZoPT = normcdf(5,N_Zo_mu,N_Zo_sd) - normcdf(2.5,N_Zo_mu,N_Zo_sd)$ 

#### % Bayesian Belief Network Methodology

S1 = HI GPMdata \* HITempdata

S2 = MH GPMdata \* HITempdata

S3 = MD GPMdata \* HITempdata

S4 = ML\_GPMdata \* HITempdata

S5 = LW GPMdata \* HITempdata

S6 = ZE GPMdata \* HITempdata

S7 = HI GPMdata \* LWTempdata

S8 = MH GPMdata \* LWTempdata

S9 = MD GPMdata \* LWTempdata

S10 = ML\_GPMdata \* LWTempdata

S11 = LW GPMdata \* LWTempdata

 $S12 = ZE\_GPMdata * LWTempdata$ 

$$SUM = S1 + S2 + S3 + S4 + S5 + S6 + S7 + S8 + S9 + S10 + S11 + S12$$

end

MATLAB Source Code 2: Comparison of NPSHA1 data between Physical and Fuzzy Logic Model

%Comparison of NPSHA data between physical model and Fuzzy Logic Model %Fuzzy Interface System was used to generate the Fuzzy output.

clc % clears all input and output from command window

clear all % clears the values stored in all variables

% closes all MatLab figures open in Windows

fis = readfis('Pump System2');

surfview(fis) %Surface view of NPSHA with respect to Temperature and Pump

**GPM** 

200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480],fis)

200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480],fis)

200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480],fis)

20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180 200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480],fis)

```
420 440 460 480], fis)
%Estimating NPSHA output at Temperature = 2000degF between GPM 0 to 480
20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180 200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400
420 440 460 480],fis)
%Plotting Fuzzy NPSHA output vs Pump GPM at 6 different temperatures
GPM = 0 : 20: 480;
figure(10)
hold on;
plot(GPM, out0deg, 'r')
plot(GPM, out40deg, 'b')
plot(GPM, out80deg, 'g')
plot(GPM, out120deg, 'k')
plot(GPM, out160deg, 'm')
plot(GPM, out200deg, 'c')
title('Fuzzy NPSHA Vs Fuzzy PUMP GPM (Zo=0)')
legend('fT=0', 'fT=40', 'fT=80', 'fT=120', 'fT=160', 'fT=200')
xlabel('PUMP GPM')
                   %X axis
                 %Y axis
ylabel('NPSHA1')
```

20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180 200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400

```
%Plotting Physical NPSHA output vs Pump GPM at 6 different temperatures
for Z0 = 0
GPM = 0:1:480;
%figure(11)
TEMP=0;
plot(GPM, 35.18 + Z0 - 6.4*10^-5 * GPM.^2 - 0.085 * TEMP,'-- r')
hold on;
TEMP = 40;
plot(GPM, 35.18 + Z0 - 6.4*10^-5 * GPM.^2 - 0.085 * TEMP,'-- b')
TEMP = 80;
plot(GPM, 35.18 + Z0 - 6.4*10^-5 * GPM.^2 - 0.085 * TEMP,'-- g')
TEMP = 120;
plot(GPM, 35.18 + Z0 - 6.4*10^-5 * GPM.^2 - 0.085 * TEMP,'-- k')
TEMP = 160;
TEMP = 200;
plot(GPM, 35.18 + Z0 - 6.4*10^-5 * GPM.^2 - 0.085 * TEMP,'-- c')
title('NPSHA Vs PUMP GPM (Zo=0)')
legend('T=0', 'T=40', 'T=80', 'T=120', 'T=160', 'T=200')
xlabel('PUMP GPM') %X axis
ylabel('NPSHA') %Y axis
hold off
```

end

### MATLAB Source Code 3: Distribution of NPSHA1 output

%Distribution of NPSHA1 at various GPM and Temperature range %S1 to S2 is assumed to be normally distributed across the A to L range

%Overlaps between the normal distributions would be accounted for

## function NPSHA1output()

clc

clear all

close all

format long

%Initial estimated ranges of A to L

$$x_A = 2:0.1:17;$$

$$x_B = 7:0.1:22;$$

$$x_C = 11:0.1:26;$$

$$x_D = 15:0.1:27;$$

$$x E = 16:0.1:28;$$

$$x_F = 17:0.1:28;$$

$$x_G = 10:0.1:27;$$

$$x_H = 15:0.1:31;$$

$$x I = 19:0.1:34;$$

$$x J = 24:0.1:35;$$

$$x_K = 25:0.1:37;$$

$$x_L = 25: 0.1:37;$$

%Set1 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is HI and Temp is HI
%Set2 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is MH and Temp is HI
%Set3 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is MD and Temp is HI
%Set4 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is ML and Temp is HI
%Set5 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is LW and Temp is HI
%Set6 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is ZE and Temp is HI
%Set7 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is HI and Temp is LW
%Set8 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is MH and Temp is LW
%Set9 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is MD and Temp is LW
%Set10 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is ML and Temp is LW
%Set11 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is LW and Temp is LW
%Set12 = Represents the NPSHA output when GPM is ZE and Temp is LW

%Estimating the mean and standard deviation for all 12 sets

Set 
$$1 \text{ mean} = 10$$
; Set  $7 \text{ mean} = 19$ ;

Set 
$$1 SD = 2$$
; Set  $2 SD = 2$ ;

Set2 mean = 
$$14$$
; Set8 mean =  $23$ ;

Set 
$$2 SD = 2$$
; Set  $2 SD = 2$ ;

Set3 mean = 
$$18$$
; Set9 mean =  $27$ ;

$$Set3\_SD = 2;$$
  $Set9\_SD = 2;$ 

Set4 mean = 
$$21$$
; Set10 mean =  $29$ ;

Set4 SD = 
$$1.5$$
; Set10 SD =  $2$ ;

Set5 mean = 
$$22$$
; Set11 mean =  $30$ ;

Set6 mean = 
$$23$$
; Set12 mean =  $31$ ;

```
Set6\_SD = 1.2;
                    Set12\_SD = 1.5;
N = 5000;
%Normal Random Sampling of A to L based on 5000 samples
for j = 1:N
  A(j) = normrnd(Set1 mean, Set1 SD);
  B(j) = normrnd(Set2\_mean, Set2\_SD);
  C(j) = normrnd(Set3 mean, Set3 SD);
  D(j) = normrnd(Set4\_mean, Set4\_SD);
  E(j) = normrnd(Set5\_mean, Set5\_SD);
  F(j) = normrnd(Set6 mean, Set6 SD);
  G(j) = normrnd(Set7 mean, Set7 SD);
  H(j) = normrnd(Set8 mean, Set8 SD);
  I(j) = normrnd(Set9_mean,Set9_SD);
  J(j) = normrnd(Set10\_mean, Set10\_SD);
  K(j) = normrnd(Set11 mean, Set11 SD);
  L(j) = normrnd(Set12 mean, Set12 SD);
end
%Defining Probability Input Paramenters obtained from PumpSystemFinal.m
LWTempdata = 0.491593887090371;
HITempdata = 0.507981643183724;
```

```
HI_GPMdata = 0.030244034122316;
```

$$LW_GPMdata = 0.028448548042403;$$

$$[A_mu A_sd] = normfit(A,0.05);$$

$$A_pdf = normpdf(x_A,A_mu, A_sd);$$

$$A_cdf = normcdf(x_A,A_mu, A_sd);$$

```
AT_pdf = normpdf(x_A,A_mu, A_sd)/(1-normcdf(6.59,A_mu,A_sd));
AT_cdf = (normcdf(x_A,A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59,A_mu, A_sd))/(1-
normcdf(6.59,A_mu,A_sd));
figure(1)
plot(x_A, A_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set1')
hold on;
plot(x_A, AT_pdf, 'r')
hold off;
figure(2)
plot(x_A, A_cdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
                        % Y Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
title('CDF Plot of Set1')
hold on;
plot(x A, AT cdf, 'r')
hold off;
```

 $A1 = (normcdf(8.94312,A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59,A_mu, A_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59,A_mu,A_sd)) - ...$ 

 $(normcdf(6.59,A\_mu, A\_sd) - normcdf(6.59,A\_mu, A\_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59,A\_mu,A\_sd))$ 

 $A2 = (normcdf(11.29611, A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd)) - ...$ 

 $(normcdf(8.94312,A\_mu, \quad A\_sd) \quad - \quad normcdf(6.59,A\_mu, \quad A\_sd))/(1-mormcdf(6.59,A\_mu,A\_sd))$ 

 $A3 = (normcdf(13.6491, A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd)) - ...$ 

 $(normcdf(11.29611,A\_mu, \quad A\_sd) \quad - \quad normcdf(6.59,A\_mu, \quad A\_sd))/(1-mormcdf(6.59,A\_mu,A\_sd))$ 

 $A4 = (normcdf(16.002, A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd)) - ...$ 

 $(normcdf(13.6491, A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd)) \\$ 

 $A5 = 1 - (normcdf(16.002, A_mu, A_sd) - normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd))/(1-normcdf(6.59, A_mu, A_sd))$ 

SUMA = A1 + A2 + A3 + A4 + A5

```
[B_mu B_sd] = normfit(B,0.05);
B pdf = normpdf(x B,B mu, B sd);
B_cdf = normcdf(x_B,B_mu, B_sd);
figure(3)
plot(x_B, B_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                           % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                         % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set2')
figure(4)
plot(x B, B cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                           % X Axis Label
                         % Y Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
title('CDF Plot of Set2')
B1 = normcdf(8.84312, B mu, B sd)
B2 = normcdf(11.2961, B mu, B sd) - normcdf(8.84312, B mu, B sd)
B3 = normcdf(13.6491, B mu, B sd) - normcdf(11.2961, B mu, B sd)
B4 = normcdf(16.002, B \text{ mu, } B \text{ sd}) - normcdf(13.6491, B \text{ mu, } B \text{ sd})
B5 = normcdf(18.3551, B_mu, B_sd) - normcdf(16.002, B_mu, B_sd)
```

```
B6 = normcdf(20.708, B mu, B sd) - normcdf(18.3551, B mu, B sd)
B7 = 1 - normcdf(20.708, B_mu, B_sd)
SUMB = B1+B2+B3+B4+B5+B6+B7
[C mu C sd] = normfit(C,0.05);
C_pdf = normpdf(x_C,C_mu, C_sd);
C_{cdf} = normcdf(x_C, C_mu, C_sd);
figure(5)
plot(x C, C pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
                       % Y Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
title('PDF Plot of Set3')
figure(6)
plot(x C, C cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set3')
```

```
C2 = normcdf(11.2961, C_mu, C_sd)
C3 = normcdf(13.6491, C_mu, C_sd) - normcdf(11.2961, C_mu, C_sd)
C4 = normcdf(16.002, C_mu, C_sd) - normcdf(13.6491, C_mu, C_sd)
C5 = normcdf(18.3551, C mu, C sd) - normcdf(16.002, C mu, C sd)
C6 = normcdf(20.708, C_mu, C_sd) - normcdf(18.3551, C_mu, C_sd)
C7 = normcdf(23.061, C mu, C sd) - normcdf(20.708, C mu, C sd)
C8 = 1 - normcdf(23.061, C mu, C sd)
SUMC = C2+C3+C4+C5+C6+C7+C8
[D mu D sd] = normfit(D,0.05);
D pdf = normpdf(x D,D mu, D sd);
D \ cdf = normcdf(x \ D,D \ mu, D \ sd);
figure(7)
plot(x_D, D_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set4')
```

```
figure(8)
plot(x_D, D_cdf, 'r')
                        % X Axis Label
xlabel('NPSHA1')
ylabel('probability')
                      % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set4')
D4 = normcdf(16.002, D mu, D sd)
D5 = normcdf(18.3551, D_mu, D_sd) - normcdf(16.002, D_mu, D_sd)
D6 = normcdf(20.708, D mu, D sd) - normcdf(18.3551, D mu, D sd)
D7 = normcdf(23.061, D_mu, D_sd) - normcdf(20.708, D_mu, D_sd)
D8 = normcdf(25.41407, D_mu, D_sd) - normcdf(23.061, D_mu, D_sd)
D9 = 1 - normcdf(25.41407, D mu, D sd)
SUMD =D4+D5+D6+D7+D8+D9
```

 $[E_mu E_sd] = normfit(E,0.05);$ 

```
E_pdf = normpdf(x_E,E_mu,E_sd);
E \ cdf = normcdf(x \ E,E \ mu, E \ sd);
figure(9)
plot(x_E, E_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set5')
figure(10)
plot(x E, E cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set5')
E4 = normcdf(16.002, E_mu, E_sd)
E5 = normcdf(18.3551, E mu, E sd) - normcdf(16.002, E mu, E sd)
E6 = normcdf(20.708, E_mu, E_sd) - normcdf(18.3551, E_mu, E_sd)
E7 = normcdf(23.061, E mu, E sd) - normcdf(20.708, E mu, E sd)
E8 = normcdf(25.41407, E mu, E sd) - normcdf(23.061, E mu, E sd)
```

```
E9 = 1 - normcdf(25.41407, E_mu, E_sd)
SUME = E4+E5+E6+E7+E8+E9
[F_mu F_sd] = normfit(F,0.05);
F_pdf = normpdf(x_F,F_mu, F_sd);
F_cdf = normcdf(x_F,F_mu, F_sd);
figure(11)
plot(x_F, F_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
                       % Y Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
title('PDF Plot of Set6')
figure(12)
plot(x_F, F_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1') % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set6')
F4 = normcdf(16.002,F mu, F sd)
F5 = normcdf(18.3551,F mu, F sd) - normcdf(16.002,F mu, F sd)
F6 = normcdf(20.708, F_mu, F_sd) - normcdf(18.3551, F_mu, F_sd)
```

```
F7 = normcdf(23.061, F mu, F sd) - normcdf(20.708, F mu, F sd)
F8 = normcdf(25.41407,F_mu, F_sd) - normcdf(23.061,F_mu, F_sd)
F9 = 1 - normcdf(25.41407, F mu, F sd)
SUMF = F4+F5+F6+F7+F8+F9
[G_mu\ G_sd] = normfit(G,0.05);
G pdf = normpdf(x G,G mu, G sd);
G_cdf = normcdf(x_G,G_mu, G_sd);
figure(13)
plot(x_G, G_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set7')
figure(14)
plot(x_G, G_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set7')
```

```
G2 = normcdf(11.2961, G_mu, G_sd)
G3 = normcdf(13.6491,G_mu, G_sd) - normcdf(11.2961,G_mu, G_sd)
G4 = normcdf(16.002, G_mu, G_sd) - normcdf(13.6491, G_mu, G_sd)
G5 = normcdf(18.3551,G_mu, G_sd) - normcdf(16.002,G_mu, G_sd)
G6 = normcdf(20.708, G_mu, G_sd) - normcdf(18.3551, G_mu, G_sd)
G7 = normcdf(23.061, G mu, G sd) - normcdf(20.708, G mu, G sd)
G8 = 1 - \text{normcdf}(23.061, G \text{ mu, } G \text{ sd})
SUMG = G2+G3+G4+G5+G6+G7+G8
[H mu H sd] = normfit(H,0.05);
H pdf = normpdf(x H, H mu, H sd);
H \ cdf = normcdf(x \ H,H \ mu, H \ sd);
figure(15)
plot(x_H, H_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set8')
```

```
figure(16)
plot(x_H, H_cdf, 'r')
                        % X Axis Label
xlabel('NPSHA1')
ylabel('probability')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set8')
H4 = normcdf(16.002, H mu, H sd)
H5 = normcdf(18.3551, H_mu, H_sd) - normcdf(16.002, H_mu, H_sd)
H6 = normcdf(20.708, H mu, H sd) - normcdf(18.3551, H mu, H sd)
H7 = normcdf(23.061, H_mu, H_sd) - normcdf(20.708, H_mu, H_sd)
H8 = normcdf(25.41407, H_mu, H_sd) - normcdf(23.061, H_mu, H_sd)
H9 = normcdf(27.767, H mu, H sd) - normcdf(25.41407, H mu, H sd)
H10 = 1- normcdf(27.767,H_mu, H_sd)
SUMH = H4+H5+H6+H7+H8+H9+H10
[I mu I sd] = normfit(I,0.05);
I pdf = normpdf(x_I,I_mu, I_sd);
```

```
I_cdf = normcdf(x_I,I_mu, I_sd);
figure(17)
plot(x_I, I_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                           % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set9')
figure(18)
plot(x_I, I_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
                        % Y Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
title('CDF Plot of Set9')
I6 = normcdf(20.708,I mu, I sd) - normcdf(18.3551,I mu, I sd)
I7 = normcdf(23.061, I mu, I sd) - normcdf(20.708, I mu, I sd)
I8 = normcdf(25.41407, I mu, I sd) - normcdf(23.061, I mu, I sd)
I9 = normcdf(27.767, I mu, I sd) - normcdf(25.41407, I mu, I sd)
I10 = normcdf(30.12, I mu, I sd) - normcdf(27.767, I mu, I sd)
I11 = normcdf(32.473,I_mu, I_sd) - normcdf(30.12,I_mu, I_sd)
```

```
I12 = 1- normcdf(32.473,I_mu, I_sd)
SUMI = I6+I7+I8+I9+I10+I11+I12
[J_mu J_sd] = normfit(J,0.05);
J_pdf = normpdf(x_J, J_mu, J_sd);
J_cdf = normcdf(x_J, J_mu, J_sd);
figure(19)
plot(x_J, J_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                           % X Axis Label
                        % Y Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
title('PDF Plot of Set10')
figure(20)
plot(x_J, J_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set10')
J7 = normcdf(23.061, J mu, J sd) - normcdf(20.708, J mu, J sd)
J8 = normcdf(25.41407, J mu, J sd) - normcdf(23.061, J mu, J sd)
J9 = normcdf(27.767, J mu, J sd) - normcdf(25.41407, J mu, J sd)
```

```
J10 = normcdf(30.12, J mu, J sd) - normcdf(27.767, J mu, J sd)
J11 = normcdf(32.473, J_mu, J_sd) - normcdf(30.12, J_mu, J_sd)
J12 = 1 - normcdf(32.473, J_mu, J_sd)
SUMJ = J7+J8+J9+J10+J11+J12
[K_mu K_sd] = normfit(K,0.05);
K pdf = normpdf(x K,K mu, K sd);
K_{cdf} = normcdf(x_K, K_mu, K_sd);
figure(21)
plot(x_K, K_pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
ylabel('frequency')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set11')
figure(22)
plot(x_K, K_cdf, 'r')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                         % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set11')
```

```
K8 = normcdf(25.41407, K_mu, K_sd) - normcdf(23.061, K_mu, K_sd)
K9 = normcdf(27.767, K mu, K sd) - normcdf(25.41407, K mu, K sd)
K10 = normcdf(30.12, K_mu, K_sd) - normcdf(27.767, K_mu, K_sd)
K11 = normcdf(32.473, K_mu, K_sd) - normcdf(30.12, K_mu, K_sd)
K12 = 1- normcdf(32.473,K_mu, K_sd)
SUMK = K8+K9+K10+K11+K12
[L mu L sd] = normfit(L,0.05);
L_pdf = normpdf(x_L, L_mu, L_sd);
L \ cdf = normcdf(x \ L,L \ mu, L \ sd);
%Right Side Truncated Normal Distribution of L at 34.826
LT pdf = normpdf(x L,L_mu, L_sd)/normcdf(34.826,L_mu,L_sd);
LT cdf = normcdf(x L, L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826, L mu, L sd);
figure(23)
plot(x L, L pdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1') % X Axis Label
```

```
ylabel('frequency')
                       % Y Axis Label
title('PDF Plot of Set12')
hold on;
plot(x_L, LT_pdf, 'r')
hold off;
figure(24)
plot(x L, L cdf, 'b')
xlabel('NPSHA1')
                          % X Axis Label
ylabel('probability')
                        % Y Axis Label
title('CDF Plot of Set12')
hold on;
plot(x L, LT cdf, 'r')
hold off;
L8 = normcdf(25.414, L_mu, L_sd)/normcdf(34.826, L_mu, L_sd)
L9 = normcdf(27.767, L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826, L mu, L sd) - normcdf(25.414)
,L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826,L mu,L sd)
L10 = normcdf(30.12 , L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826, L mu, L sd) - normcdf(27.767)
,L_mu, L_sd)/normcdf(34.826,L_mu,L_sd)
L11 = normcdf(32.826, L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826, L mu, L sd) - normcdf(30.12)
,L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826,L mu,L sd)
```

L12 = 1 - normcdf(32.826, L mu, L sd)/normcdf(34.826, L mu, L sd)

SUML = L8 + L9 + L10 + L11 + L12

%Sum of all the categories

A = A1\*S1 + B1\*S2

B = A2\*S1 + B2\*S2 + C2\*S3 + G2\*S7

C = A3\*S1 + B3\*S2 + C3\*S3 + G3\*S7

D = A4\*S1 + B4\*S2 + C4\*S3 + D4\*S4 + E4\*S5 + F4\*S6 + G4\*S7 + H4\*S8

E = A5\*S1 + B5\*S2 + C5\*S3 + D5\*S4 + E5\*S5 + F5\*S6 + G5\*S7 + H5\*S8

F = B6\*S2 + C6\*S3 + D6\*S4 + E6\*S5 + F6\*S6 + G6\*S7 + H6\*S8 + I6\*S9

G = B7\*S2 + C7\*S3 + D7\*S4 + E7\*S5 + F7\*S6 + G7\*S7 + H7\*S8 + I7\*S9 +

J7\*S10

H = C8\*S3 + D8\*S4 + E8\*S5 + F8\*S6 + G8\*S7 + H8\*S8 + I8\*S9 + J8\*S10 +

K8\*S11 + L8\*S12

I = D9\*S4 + E9\*S5 + F9\*S6 + H9\*S8 + I9\*S9 + J9\*S10 + K9\*S11 + L9\*S12

J = H10\*S8+I10\*S9+J10\*S10+K10\*S11+L10\*S12

K = I11\*S9 + J11\*S10 + K11\*S11 + L11\*S12

L = I12\*S9 + J12\*S10 + K12\*S11 + L12\*S12

SumTotal = A+B+C+D+E+F+G+H+I+J+K+L

end

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