

# On the Performance of Principal Component Analysis in Multiple Gross Error Identification

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In this paper, the use of the principal component test for the identification stage of three existing collective compensation strategies is presented. The three modified techniques are UBET (unbiased estimation of gross errors), SEGE (simultaneous estimation of gross errors) in the form of their recent modifications (MUBET and MSEGE), and SICC (serial identification with collective compensation). These techniques are modified to apply a statistical test based on principal component analysis instead of the nodal, global, and measurement tests they use. The performance of the modified techniques is assessed by means of Monte Carlo simulations. Comparative analysis indicates that PCA tests do not significantly enhance the ability in identification features of these strategies, and even in some cases, it may lower the exact identification performance.

## Introduction

Typically, the presence of biased instruments and leaks, as well as departures from steady state, invalidates the results of data reconciliation techniques. These are performed to estimate process variables in such a way that balance constraints are satisfied, but to obtain accurate estimates, some action should be taken to eliminate the influence of gross errors. The application of a hypothesis statistical test has been extensively used for this purpose. The global test,<sup>1</sup> the measurement test,<sup>2,3</sup> the nodal test,<sup>1,4</sup> the generalized likelihood ratio (GLR)<sup>5</sup> test, and Bonferroni tests<sup>6</sup> have been used for gross error identification. Recently, principal component tests (PCT) have been proposed by Tong and Crowe.<sup>7,8</sup> Some results on their performance were reported by Tong and Bluck.<sup>9</sup> The authors indicated that tests based on principal component analysis (PCA) are more sensitive to subtle gross errors and have greater power to correctly identify the variables in error than the first three tests.

For multiple gross error identification and estimation, serial elimination, serial compensation, and simultaneous or collective compensation strategies have been proposed. Among them, collective compensation strategies have some advantages: they are applicable to all types of gross errors, can maintain redundancy during the procedure, and provide better estimates thanks to the collective estimation.<sup>6</sup>

Collective compensation strategies have been presented for steady-state linear processes by Rollins and Davis,<sup>6</sup> Keller et al.,<sup>10</sup> Kim et al.,<sup>11</sup> and Sánchez and Romagnoli,<sup>12</sup> that considered the simultaneous estimation of all gross errors. In addition, Bagajewicz and Jiang<sup>13</sup> proposed a collective compensation strategy for dynamic systems that can be used for steady-state cases.

The methods presented by Keller et al.,<sup>10</sup> Rollins and Davis,<sup>6</sup> and Sánchez and Romagnoli<sup>12</sup> (CGLR, UBET, and SEGE) have been recently modified to avoid singularities and to assess uncertainties (Bagajewicz et al.<sup>14</sup> and Sánchez et al.<sup>15</sup>).

The increasing application of PCA in process monitoring and fault diagnosis (Gertler et al.,<sup>16</sup> Tong and Bluck,<sup>9</sup> Vedam and Venkatasubramanian,<sup>17</sup> and Jia et al.<sup>18</sup>) suggests the need of reviewing these methods in the area of gross error identification and comparing their performance. In this work, the performance of PCA tests will be evaluated in a systematic way using Monte Carlo simulation (Iordache et al.<sup>19</sup>). For this analysis, the statistical tests applied in the identification step of three existing collective compensation strategies are replaced with PCA tests, while the estimation stage remains unchanged. The study considers the following techniques: UBET, unbiased estimation of gross errors<sup>6</sup> as modified by Bagajewicz et al.,<sup>14</sup> SEGE, simultaneous estimation of gross errors<sup>12</sup> as modified by Sánchez et al.,<sup>15</sup> and SICC, serial identification with collective compensation,<sup>20</sup> for which a variant is also proposed in this paper.

The paper is organized as follows: The PCT is reviewed first. The modified versions of UBET and SEGE (MUBET and MSEGE) are reviewed next, followed by a discussion of modifications performed to SICC. Last, results are discussed.

## Principal Component Tests

In this section a review of principal component tests proposed by Tong and Crowe<sup>7</sup> is presented. Both the principal component nodal test (PCNT) and the principal component measurement test (PCMT) are briefly described.

Given a linear steady-state process, the residuals of the constraints are defined as

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of measurements and  $\mathbf{A}$  the

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balance matrix. For simplicity, in this formulation it is assumed that all variables are measured. This is not a limitation because the unmeasured variables can be removed using, for example, the reduced balance scheme,<sup>21</sup> matrix projection,<sup>3</sup> QR decomposition,<sup>22,23</sup> or matrix co-optimization.<sup>24</sup>

Assuming that the measurement errors follow a certain distribution with covariance  $\Psi$ , then  $r$  will follow the same distribution with expectation and covariance given by

$$E\{\mathbf{r}\} = \mathbf{r}^* = \mathbf{0} \quad \Phi = \text{cov}\{\mathbf{r}\} = \mathbf{A}\Psi\mathbf{A}^T \quad (2)$$

The eigenvalue decomposition of matrix  $\Phi$  is formulated as

$$\mathbf{A}_r = \mathbf{U}_r^T \Phi \mathbf{U}_r \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{U}_r$  is the matrix of orthonormalized eigenvectors of  $\Phi$  ( $\mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{U}_r^T = \mathbf{I}$ ) and  $\Lambda_r$  is the diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues of  $\Phi$ .

Accordingly, the following linear combinations of  $r$  are proposed

$$\mathbf{P}^r = \mathbf{W}_r^T (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}^*) = \mathbf{W}_r^T \mathbf{r} \quad (4)$$

where

$$\mathbf{W}_r = \mathbf{U}_r \Lambda_r^{-1/2} \quad (5)$$

and  $\mathbf{p}^r$  consists of the principal components. Also,  $r \sim P(0, \Phi) \Rightarrow \mathbf{p}^r \sim P(0, \mathbf{I})$ , for any distribution  $P$ . That is, a set of correlated variables  $r$  is transformed into a new set of uncorrelated variables  $\mathbf{p}^r$ . If the measurement errors are normally distributed, then the principal components will be normally distributed too. That is,  $\mathbf{y} \sim N(x, \Psi) \Rightarrow \mathbf{p}^r \sim N(0, \mathbf{I})$ . Consequently, instead of looking at a statistical test for  $r$ , the hypothesis test may be performed on  $\mathbf{p}^r$ . Tong and Crowe<sup>7</sup> proposed the following principal component nodal test:

$$\mathbf{P}_i^r = (\mathbf{W}_r^T \mathbf{r})_i \sim N(0, 1) \quad i = 1, \dots, npr \quad (6)$$

which is tested against a threshold tabulated value. The constraints suspected to be in gross error can further be identified by looking at the contribution from the  $j$ th residual in  $r$  ( $r_j$ ) to a suspect principal component, say  $p_i^r$ , which can be calculated by

$$g_j = (w_i^r)_j r_j \quad j = 1, \dots, m \quad (7)$$

where  $w_i^r$  is the  $i$ th eigenvector in  $\mathbf{W}_r$ .

Similarly, the principal component measurement test can be stated as follows:

The vector of adjustments  $\mathbf{a}$  and its covariance matrix  $\mathbf{V}$  are

$$\mathbf{a} = \Psi \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \Psi \mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} \quad (8)$$

$$\mathbf{V} = \Psi \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \Psi \mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{A} \Psi \quad (9)$$

The vector of principal components,  $\mathbf{p}^a$ , is the following linear combination of  $\mathbf{a}$ :

$$\mathbf{p}^a = \mathbf{W}_a^T (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a}^*) = \mathbf{W}_d^T \mathbf{a} \quad (10)$$

Because  $\mathbf{V}$  is singular,  $\Lambda_a$  has some eigenvalues which are zero. Then, instead of normalizing the whole vector  $\mathbf{p}^a$  and applying the test, as in the case of the PCNT, we only normalize those components whose eigenvalues are different from zero. Without loss of generality, consider that the first  $t$  eigenvalues are different from zero. Then define

$$w_{a,i} = \mathbf{U}_{a,i} \lambda_{a,i}^{-1/2} \quad i = 1, \dots, t \quad (11)$$

where  $\lambda_{a,i}$  is the eigenvalue, that is, the  $i$ th diagonal position of

$$\Lambda_a = \mathbf{U}_a^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{U}_a \quad (12)$$

Thus, the normalized principal components are

$$p_i^a = (w_i^a)^T \mathbf{a} \quad i = 1, \dots, t \quad (13)$$

Then,  $\mathbf{a} \sim P(0, \mathbf{V}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{p}^a \sim P(0, \mathbf{I})$ . When the adjustments are normally distributed, Tong and Crowe<sup>7</sup> proposed the PCMT to be based on the testing of the  $t$  uncorrelated variables  $p_i^a$  against a threshold tabulated value.

In both PCNT and PCMT, the measurements in gross errors can further be identified by looking at the contribution from the  $j$ th residual/adjustment to a suspect principal component, say,  $p_i^a$ . This contribution is calculated as follows:

$$g_j = (w_i^a)_j a_j \quad j = 1, \dots, n \quad (14)$$

To assess the number of major contributors  $k_1$  for a suspect principal component  $p_i^a$ , a vector  $\mathbf{g}^i$  is defined that contains the elements  $g_j$  in descending order of their absolute values. Then  $k_1$  is set so that

$$\left| \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k_1} g_j^i - p_i^a}{p_i^a} \right| \leq \zeta \quad (15)$$

where  $\zeta$  may be fixed, for example, at 0.1.

### Collective Compensation Strategies

In this section, three collective compensation strategies are reviewed.

**(a) Review of MUBET.** The unbiased estimation technique, UBET,<sup>6</sup> is developed from the balance residuals, defined by eq 1 and its expected value

$$\mu_r = \mathbf{A}\delta + \mathbf{M}\gamma \quad (16)$$

where

$$\mathbf{M} = [m_1, \dots, m_q] \quad (17)$$

and  $n$  and  $q$  are the number of measured variables and constraint equations, respectively,  $\delta$  and  $\gamma$  are the unknown  $n \times 1$  measurement biases and  $q \times 1$  leaks,  $\mathbf{A}$  is a  $q \times n$  constraint matrix with rank  $(\mathbf{A}) = q$ , and  $m_j$  is a  $q \times 1$  vector with zeros in every position but a 1 in the  $j$ th.

By partitioning  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{M}$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\gamma$  and assuming there are always  $q$  gross errors, one can get

$$\mu_{\mathbf{r}} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & M_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 \\ \gamma_2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{C}_1 \theta_1 \quad (18)$$

Finally, by introducing

$$\mathbf{I}_i^T = \mathbf{e}_i^T \mathbf{C}_1^{-1} \quad (19)$$

one obtains

$$\mathbf{I}_i^T \mu_{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{e}_i^T \theta_1 = \theta_i \quad (20)$$

Thus,  $\mathbf{I}_i^T \mu_{\mathbf{r}}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, q$ ) are unbiased estimators of the components of  $\delta$  and  $\gamma$  contained in  $\theta_1$ .

According to Rollins and Davis,<sup>6</sup> the procedure for applying UBET can be summarized as follows:

(1) Use a gross error identification strategy, like the nodal strategies reported by Mah et al.<sup>4</sup> and Serth and Heenan,<sup>25</sup> to isolate the suspect nodes and construct the candidate bias/leak list from the suspect nodes.

(2) Obtain  $\theta_1$  with elements no more than the number of constraint equations ( $q$ ).

(3) Construct  $\mathbf{C}_1$  with rank equal to  $q$ .

(4) Obtain the size estimation for the elements in  $\theta_1$ .

(5) Use the Bonferroni test to identify the gross errors.

Bagajewicz et al.<sup>14</sup> have presented a modified version of this strategy, which addresses singularities and uncertainties of the original method (MUBET). The modifications are the following:

(i) In step 1, after the candidate bias/leak list is constructed, the equivalency theory<sup>13</sup> is applied to delete the possible existing loops in this list. All candidates are checked one by one. If a candidate forms a loop with any candidate(s) checked, it will be deleted from the list.

(ii) After this modified step 1, in view of the equivalency theory, the elements of  $\theta_1$  in step 2 will certainly be no more than the number of constraint equations ( $q$ ). Therefore,  $\theta_1$  can be directly transferred from step 1.

(iii) In step 3, if the number of elements in  $\theta_1$  is less than  $q$ , one has to add other streams/leaks as candidates to  $\theta_1$  to make the number equal to  $q$ . Any of these streams/leaks must be checked to be sure that it is not forming a loop with any element(s) in  $\theta_1$  before it is added.

**(b) Review of MSEGE.** In this technique, a collective statistical test based on the vector of adjustments  $\mathbf{a}$  is selected to detect the presence of gross errors. The null and alternative hypotheses are stated as follows:  $H_0 = \mathbf{a}^T \Psi^{-1} \mathbf{a}$ ,  $E(\mathbf{a}) = 0$ ;  $H_1 = E(\mathbf{a}) \neq 0$ . The global test statistic  $H_0$  is used to compare both alternatives.

If  $H_0$  is rejected, the first stage of the procedure starts. This allows the isolation of a subset of constraints that do not pass the global test. This applies a recursive procedure that has the advantage that only the reciprocal of a scalar has to be computed in each step. In this procedure, equations are added one by one to the least-squares estimation problem of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . After each addition, the objective function (ofv) of the least-squares estimation technique is calculated and compared with the critical value  $\tau_c$ . For updating the test statistic, the

following expressions are applied

$$\Sigma_c^{\text{new}} = \Sigma_c^{\text{old}} - \Sigma_c^{\text{old}} \mathbf{B}_i^T (\mathbf{B}_i \Sigma_c^{\text{old}} \mathbf{B}_i^T)^{-1} \mathbf{B}_i \Sigma_c^{\text{old}} \quad (21)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{new}} = \Sigma_c^{\text{new}} \Psi^{-1} \mathbf{y} \quad (22)$$

$$\text{ofv} = (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}) \Psi^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}) \quad (23)$$

where  $\Sigma_c^{\text{new}}$  and  $\Sigma_c^{\text{old}}$  represent the covariance matrices of the measurement estimates after and before equation addition, and  $\mathbf{B}_i$  stands for the added equation.

After an equation is incorporated, the following is checked:

(a) If  $\text{ofv} > \tau_c$ , gross errors are detected, so the last equation of the system of equations is eliminated. All of the measurements involved in the constraint and a leak from the corresponding node are added to the list of suspected gross errors.

(b) If  $\text{ofv} < \tau_c$ , gross errors are not detected after the addition of the constraint, and the constraint remains in the set.

From stage 1 of the procedure, a set of measurements and units suspected of being biased or having leaks is obtained. In stage 2, the identification and estimation of gross errors is accomplished by the following procedure:

(1) Set the number of gross errors  $s$  to 1 ( $s = 1$ ).

(2) Take all combinations of  $s$  gross errors and run the corresponding reconciliation model (biases only, leaks only, or biases and leaks).

(3) Determine which combination of gross errors gives the lowest objective function value.

(4) If the global test is satisfied, stop. The combination or combinations with the lowest objective function value involve gross errors. Otherwise, increase  $s$  by 1 ( $s = s + 1$ ) and go to step 2.

Sánchez et al.<sup>15</sup> have modified this strategy to address singularities and uncertainties of the original method (MSEGE). The modifications are as follows:

(i) If a set to be investigated in stage 2 is equivalent to a set previously considered, the set is ignored, as the result is known.

(ii) If a set to be investigated in stage 2 is included in any loop of the augmented graph, the set is ignored. It is known that it will be singular, as it cannot capture the number of gross errors targeted.

(iii) All equivalent sets are identified at the end of the application of the algorithm.

**(C) Review of SICC.** This strategy relies on the measurement test for gross error detection. It uses the MT to make a list of suspect gross errors and identifies from the list one gross error using a compensation model.<sup>13</sup> This error is put in a list of confirmed gross errors. Next a new list of suspects is constructed, and the compensation model is run using the confirmed gross errors and a new candidate at a time to determine which should be added to the confirmed gross error list. The procedure is repeated until no gross errors are detected. Leaks are identified using the equivalency theory.

The technique is made up of the following steps:

(1) Run the data reconciliation and calculate the measurement tests (MT). If there are no MT flags, declare no gross error and stop. Otherwise, go to step 2.

(2) Construct a list of candidates (LC) by including all variables that failed the MT. If any two members in

LC form a loop, erase one of them. Create a list of confirmed gross errors (LCGE). This list is empty at this stage.

(3) Run the data reconciliation with the gross error estimation model simulating a gross error in all of the members of the LCGE and in one member of the LC at a time.

(4) Determine which member of the LC leads to the smallest value of the objective function. Add that variable to the LCGE.

(5) Calculate MT for the run chosen in step 4. Erase all elements of the LC and place the latest flagged variables in LC. If there are any two members in LC forming a loop with any member(s) in LCGE, erase one of them. If LC is empty, go to step 6. Otherwise, go to step 3.

(6) Determine all equivalent sets and corresponding gross error sizes. Declare all members in LCGE in suspect and stop.

### A Nodal Test Based SICC (NT-SICC)

The original version of SICC relies on the measurement test for the identification step. To identify leaks, this method needs to resort to equivalency theory, as the compensation model only uses biases. The nodal test can be used to construct a list of candidates. This list will now include leaks, and thus the full compensation module with biases and leaks can be used. The modifications are summarized next:

(i) In step 1: Calculate the nodal tests (NT). If there are no NT flags, declare no gross error and stop. Otherwise, go to step 2.

(ii) In step 2: Construct a list of candidates (LC) by including all streams and leaks connected to the nodal tests that have failed. If any two members in LC form a loop, erase one of them. Create a list of confirmed gross errors (LCGE). This list is empty at this stage.

(iii) In step 5: Calculate NT for the run chosen in step 4. Erase all elements of the LC and place the latest flagged variables in LC. If any two members in LC form a loop, erase one of them. If there is any member in LC forming a loop with any member in LCGE, erase it from LC. If there are any two members in LC forming a loop with any member in LCGE, erase one of them. If LC is empty, go to step 6. Otherwise, go to step 3.

### Inclusion of Principal Component Tests

The aforementioned techniques have been modified to use PCA tests. For MUBET, the strategy of pseudonodes<sup>25</sup> has been replaced by PCNT. However, the Bonferroni tests used at the end of the estimation step have been left unaltered. The same modification is performed to MSEGE: Its stage 1 is accomplished now by PCNT to obtain a suspect set of measurements and leaks. In the case of SICC, the measurement test was replaced by the PCMT test. Finally, in the case of the nodal test-based SICC (NT-SICC), the nodal test was replaced by PCNT.

### Simulation Procedure and Uncertainty Removal

A simulation procedure was applied to evaluate the performance of the aforementioned strategies. The

method proposed by Iordache et al.<sup>19</sup> was followed. Each result is based on 10 000 simulation trials where the random errors are changed and the magnitudes of gross errors are fixed.

Three performance measures of exact identification are used: overall power (OP), average number of type I errors (AVTI), and expected fraction of perfect identification (OPF). They are defined as follows:

$$OP = \frac{\text{no. of gross errors correctly identified}}{\text{no. of gross errors simulated}} \quad (24)$$

$$AVTI = \frac{\text{no. of gross errors incorrectly identified}}{\text{no. of simulation trials}} \quad (25)$$

$$OPF = \frac{\text{no. of trials with perfect identification}}{\text{no. of simulation trials}} \quad (26)$$

The first two measures are proposed by Mah and Narasimhan<sup>5</sup> and the last one by Rollins and Davis.<sup>6</sup>

In addition, a set of gross errors may have its equivalent basic sets, as described by Bagajewicz and Jiang.<sup>13</sup> Thus, to assess these uncertainties, a new measure, the overall performance of equivalent identification (OPFE), was introduced recently by Sánchez et al.<sup>15</sup>

$$OPFE = \frac{\text{no. of trials with successful identification}}{\text{no. of simulation trials}} \quad (27)$$

**(a) Determination of OPFE.** To clarify the uncertainty in gross error detection, a series of concepts were presented in a recent paper.<sup>13</sup> Two sets of gross errors are considered equivalent when they have the same effect in data reconciliation. Equivalent sets usually have the same gross error cardinality. However, in some cases when a set of gross errors has special sizes (usually equal to each other), it can be represented by another set of gross errors with different cardinality. These cases are called degenerate.

When a set of gross errors is obtained, one can identify if it is a successful identification by simply applying the conversion equation between equivalent sets, which has been proposed by Jiang and Bagajewicz:<sup>20</sup>

$$[\mathbf{AL}_1 \quad \mathbf{K}_1] \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\delta}_1 \\ \hat{\gamma}_1 \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{AL}_2 \quad \mathbf{K}_2] \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\delta}_2 \\ \hat{\gamma}_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (28)$$

where  $\mathbf{A}$  is the incidence matrix,  $\hat{\delta}_1$  and  $\hat{\gamma}_1$  are vectors of biases and leaks for the set of gross errors identified,  $\hat{\delta}_2$  and  $\hat{\gamma}_2$  are vectors of biases and leaks for the set of gross errors introduced, and  $\mathbf{L}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{K}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{L}_2$ , and  $\mathbf{K}_2$  are matrices reflecting the positions of biases and leaks in the system.

Premultiplying both  $[\mathbf{AL}_1 \quad \mathbf{K}_1]$  and  $[\mathbf{AL}_2 \quad \mathbf{K}_2]$  by a certain particular matrix, one can transform  $[\mathbf{AL}_2 \quad \mathbf{K}_2]$  into a canonical form and obtain the new gross error sizes  $\hat{\delta}_2$  and  $\hat{\gamma}_2$ .

In addition, sometimes many sets of gross errors can represent degeneracy if certain tolerance is allowed. These situations are called quasi-degeneracy.<sup>20</sup> For example, consider the flowsheet of Figure 1. In particular consider one existing gross error in  $S_2$  of size  $\delta_2 = -1$ . Consider now that a particular gross error identification method finds gross errors in  $S_4$  and  $S_5$  of sizes  $\delta_4 = +1$  and  $\delta_5 = +1$ . These variables are part of the equivalent set ( $S_2$ ,  $S_4$ , and  $S_5$ ), which has gross error cardinality 2. To determine whether the identification

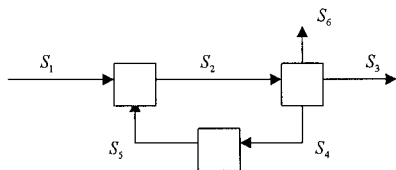


Figure 1. Example of a flowsheet.

is successful, one should be able to convert from the set of gross errors found to the originally introduced. In this case, this is possible because, by virtue of degeneracy, the two identified gross errors are equivalent to  $\delta_2 = -1$ .

Quasi-degeneracy takes place when, for example, the gross errors found are of sizes  $\delta_4 = +0.98$  and  $\delta_5 = +1.01$ . Strictly, this set does not represent a degenerate case. Rather, the conversion to an equivalent set containing  $S_2$ , such as, for example,  $(S_2, S_5)$ , gives values  $\delta_2 = -0.98$  and  $\delta_5 = -0.01$ . Therefore, if  $\delta_5$  is ignored because its size is too small compared to a tolerance, the gross errors introduced are retrieved and it can be claimed that the identification was successful.

In eq 28, both sides are vectors. Strictly, when quasi-degeneracy is not allowed, both sides have to be equal to declare a successful identification. When quasi-degeneracy is allowed, both sides are compared within certain threshold tolerance  $\tau_D$ .

Furthermore, another situation called quasi-equivalency of gross errors can arise. Consider the following example. Assume that, in Figure 1, a gross error is introduced in stream  $S_1$  of size  $\delta_1 = +1$ . Assume also that the gross error identification finds two gross errors in  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , with sizes  $\delta_1 = +0.98$  and  $\delta_2 = +0.05$ . This is a type I error but is accompanied with a small size estimate. In principle, even though the result is based on the usage of statistical tests, one is tempted to disregard  $\delta_2$  and declare the identification successful. One important observation in this case is that  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are not a basic set of any subset of the graph. In other words, no degeneracy or equivalency can apply.

Thus, generalizing quasi-equivalency occurs when only a subset of the identified gross errors is equivalent to the introduced gross errors, and in addition the nonequivalent gross errors are of small size. Quasi-equivalency is also detected by using eq 28 and a threshold tolerance  $\tau_E$ .

Thus, OPFE measure represents the fraction of trials with successful identification. A trial is considered successful if the set of simulated gross errors is identified in the simulated positions or if the strategy identifies a set of gross errors which is equivalent to the simulated set. OPFE is calculated in this paper by allowing both quasi-degeneracy and quasi-equivalency.

**(b) Differences in Success Measures.** The performance evaluation of gross error identification strategies is intended to analyze their behavior in different situations (location and size of gross errors). In this paper the evaluation procedure, which is based on Monte Carlo simulations, proposes the use of three measures of success: OP, OPF, and OPFE. The main differences between them are the following:

(a) OP indicates the fraction of simulated gross errors that are identified. Thus, some trials may identify other errors that are neither simulated nor equivalent sets.

(b) OPF counts as successful those trials for which all of the simulated gross errors are identified. As a measure of exact identification, it is superior to OP

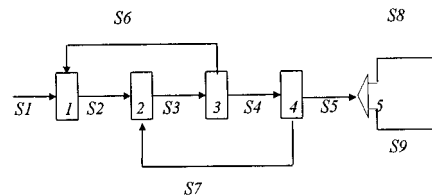


Figure 2. Example of a process flowsheet.

because it takes into account the fact that no extra gross errors, except the simulated ones, are identified.

(c) OPFE is an extension of OPF, which avoids considering a failure of the algorithm when a set equivalent to the simulated set is identified. However, no other gross errors, except the equivalent sets, are allowed to participate in the identified set.

## Results

First, the process flowsheet in Figure 2 is used with comparative purposes. It consists of a recycle system with five units and nine streams. The true flow rate values are  $x = [10, 20, 30, 20, 10, 10, 10, 4, 6]$ . The flow rate standard deviations were taken as 2% of the true flow rates.

Measurement values for each simulation trial were taken as the average of 10 random generated values. To compare results on the same basis, the level of significance of each method was chosen such that it gives an AVTI equal to 0.1 under the null hypothesis. This common basis of comparison for gross error detection schemes was introduced by Rosenberg et al.<sup>26</sup> The same confidence levels for comparison have been used by different authors too. If a comparison is performed on such an alternative basis, the conclusions of this paper do not vary. Each strategy was tested under the same scenarios of gross errors introduced. The size of the gross error is selected as 4 times its corresponding flow rate standard deviation when there is only one gross error, 5 and 3 times for two gross errors, and 5, 4, and 3 times for three gross errors. If a leak is introduced, then the minimum standard deviation of flow rates connected to the corresponding process is chosen for the selection of the leak's size. In many papers where the power of gross error detection is assessed, it has been customary to use large sizes (around 10 standard deviations). In this paper, we have chosen relatively smaller values, especially because the claim has been that PCA is more efficient in the case of small gross errors. For this reason, the thresholds  $\tau_D$  and  $\tau_E$  are quite permissive. They both have been chosen as the maximum gross error size in the introduced set. If a more stringent criterion is used, the values of OPFE may be lower.

Table 1 shows the comparison between MUBET and PCNT-MUBET. When there is one gross error, both of them reached high and similar performance, i.e., high OP, OPF, and OPFE with low AVTI. For more than one gross error, the OPF for the two methods drops to low values, reaching zero for the case of three gross errors. However, the OPFE maintains good values and for PCNT-MUBET is slightly higher in most cases.

The AVTI of all of these runs is substantially large for the case of many gross errors. This indicates an average large type I error. However, these are based on consideration of the criterion of perfect identification.

**Table 1. Performance Comparison between MUBET and PCNT-MUBET**

no.	gross error introduced		MUBET				PCNT-MUBET			
	location <sup>a</sup>	size	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE
1	S <sub>1</sub>	0.8	0.1582	0.9626	0.8793	0.9978	0.1338	1.0000	0.8809	0.9992
	S <sub>3</sub>	2.4	0.1141	0.9927	0.9066	0.9998	0.1717	1.0000	0.8414	0.9992
	S <sub>5</sub>	0.8	0.2290	0.9431	0.8898	0.9984	0.1731	0.9995	0.8645	0.9991
	S <sub>7</sub>	0.8	0.4162	0.8725	0.8165	0.9753	0.1590	0.9575	0.8234	0.9577
	L <sub>3</sub>	0.8	0.1769	0.8337	0.7835	0.8756	1.7290	0.2983	0.2752	0.9678
2	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 1.2	2.8005	0.0780	0.0686	0.9977	0.1189	0.9998	0.8896	0.9988
	S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	3.0, 0.24	0.7924	0.5828	0.1641	0.8155	1.3226	0.6836	0.3360	0.8661
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub>	1.0, 0.6	2.7848	0.2515	0.1285	0.6382	1.7704	0.5000	0.0000	0.7061
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	2.0, 0.6	1.2664	0.7030	0.3883	0.9557	0.1357	0.9993	0.8762	0.9981
	S <sub>4</sub> , L <sub>2</sub>	2.0, 0.6	0.2287	0.8095	0.5876	0.6397	2.5140	0.5000	0.0000	0.7045
3	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	1.0, 2.4, 0.6	2.4214	0.4949	0.1769	0.9560	0.0986	0.9982	0.9127	0.9996
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>4</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	2.0, 1.6, 0.24	4.2424	0.0969	0.0000	0.8155	1.9111	0.6663	0.0000	0.8608
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>9</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.36	4.8456	0.0013	0.0000	0.8728	3.8903	0.3335	0.0000	0.9150
	S <sub>1</sub> , L <sub>2</sub> , L <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.6	1.8961	0.3733	0.0005	0.9454	2.1917	0.3333	0.0000	0.8997
	S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>8</sub> , L <sub>3</sub>	1.0, 0.32, 0.6	2.3781	0.3641	0.0007	0.6074	1.8516	0.6072	0.0000	0.6866

<sup>a</sup> S<sub>n</sub> means a bias in stream S<sub>n</sub> and L<sub>n</sub> a leak in unit n.

**Table 2. Performance Comparison between MSEG and PCNT-MSEG**

no.	gross error introduced		MSEG				PCNT-MSEG			
	location	size	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE
1	S <sub>1</sub>	0.8	0.0448	0.9950	0.9593	0.9987	0.1021	0.9928	0.9066	0.9984
	S <sub>3</sub>	2.4	0.0499	0.9932	0.9578	1.0000	0.1091	1.0000	0.9035	0.9978
	S <sub>5</sub>	0.8	0.0434	0.9998	0.9577	0.9999	0.1006	0.9999	0.9025	1.0000
	S <sub>7</sub>	0.8	0.0606	0.9776	0.9425	0.9785	0.1147	0.9776	0.8917	0.9776
	L <sub>3</sub>	0.8	0.0840	0.9555	0.9326	0.9682	0.1328	0.9548	0.8943	0.9712
2	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 1.2	0.6047	0.7105	0.6940	0.9986	0.6383	0.7127	0.6679	0.9991
	S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	3.0, 0.24	0.2165	0.8559	0.7038	0.7487	1.0820	0.7275	0.4189	0.6151
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub>	1.0, 0.6	0.1335	0.9337	0.8481	0.8821	0.1992	0.9342	0.8219	0.9003
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	2.0, 0.6	0.0475	0.9989	0.9551	0.9979	0.1052	0.9982	0.8998	0.9973
	S <sub>4</sub> , L <sub>2</sub>	2.0, 0.6	0.3767	0.8321	0.6520	0.6822	0.1791	0.9451	0.8507	0.9134
3	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	1.0, 2.4, 0.6	0.0655	0.9930	0.9540	0.9970	0.1044	0.9986	0.9014	0.9952
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>4</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	2.0, 1.6, 0.24	0.1747	0.9166	0.7740	0.8225	1.7376	0.6572	0.0988	0.8838
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>9</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.36	1.0947	0.6449	0.0000	0.9572	1.1736	0.6352	0.0000	0.9659
	S <sub>1</sub> , L <sub>2</sub> , L <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.6	1.9335	0.3444	0.0000	0.9151	2.0212	0.3386	0.0000	0.9472
	S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>8</sub> , L <sub>3</sub>	1.0, 0.32, 0.6	0.8449	0.7014	0.4061	0.6501	0.6601	0.7782	0.5466	0.9093

**Table 3. Performance Comparison between SICC and PCMT-SICC**

no.	gross error introduced		SICC				PCMT-SICC			
	location	size	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE
1	S <sub>1</sub>	0.8	0.0713	1.0000	0.9293	0.9999	0.0653	1.0000	0.9353	1.0000
	S <sub>3</sub>	2.4	0.0693	1.0000	0.9317	0.9999	0.0790	1.0000	0.9231	0.9996
	S <sub>5</sub>	0.8	0.0731	1.0000	0.9274	1.0000	0.0631	1.0000	0.9372	1.0000
	S <sub>7</sub>	0.8	0.0820	0.9787	0.9202	0.9797	1.1429	0.4236	0.4032	0.9473
	L <sub>3</sub>	0.8	2.0355	0.0000	0.0000	0.9787	2.5566	0.0000	0.0000	0.9403
2	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 1.2	0.0465	0.9988	0.9543	0.9983	0.0235	0.9995	0.9769	0.9994
	S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	3.0, 0.24	0.0717	0.9499	0.8749	0.9213	0.9851	0.5000	0.0000	0.9183
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub>	1.0, 0.6	0.1380	0.9438	0.8592	0.8983	1.3892	0.5091	0.0212	0.4978
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	2.0, 0.6	0.0478	1.0000	0.9523	1.0000	0.0241	1.0000	0.9760	1.0000
	S <sub>4</sub> , L <sub>2</sub>	2.0, 0.6	1.9792	0.5000	0.0000	0.8790	1.8590	0.5000	0.0000	0.7987
3	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	1.0, 2.4, 0.6	0.9413	0.9244	0.2985	0.9360	1.6100	0.7868	0.2969	0.8284
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>4</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	2.0, 1.6, 0.24	0.0685	0.9530	0.8513	0.8882	0.9486	0.6667	0.0000	0.9049
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>9</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.36	1.0685	0.6455	0.0000	0.9467	1.7177	0.6796	0.0460	0.8146
	S <sub>1</sub> , L <sub>2</sub> , L <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.6	2.0020	0.3333	0.0000	0.8150	2.0254	0.3333	0.0000	0.8798
	S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>8</sub> , L <sub>3</sub>	1.0, 0.32, 0.6	2.0572	0.3963	0.0000	0.4052	3.1281	0.1215	0.0000	0.6391

Within these "failures" there are gross errors that are equivalent to the introduced. A different version of AVTI in which all equivalent and degenerate identifications are considered as successful would show lower values consistent with the large OPFE scores.

A comparison between MSEG and PCNT-MSEG is shown in Table 2. For one gross error, MSEG has lower AVTI and higher OPF while OP and OPFE are comparable to those of PCNT-MSEG. For two gross errors, SEGE also has better OPF. When OPFE is considered, PCNT-MSEG outperforms MSEG 5 times out of 10 for two or three gross errors. Thus, in terms of perfect identification, PCA helps MSEG strategy in

two situations, also makes no difference in two situations, and performs worse in 11 cases.

Table 3 indicates the simulation results for SICC and PCMT-SICC. Performance measures show both strategies have similar performance. For instance, out of 15 cases, the OPFE is higher in 6 cases for SICC and higher in 3 cases for PCMT-SICC. The rest are about the same.

Table 4 shows a comparative performance of NT-SICC and PCNT-SICC. Although performance measures are slightly higher for PCNT-SICC, the conclusion that one should make is that the inclusion of PCT does not introduce any significant enhancement for the behavior of NT-SICC.

**Table 4. Performance Comparison between NT-SICC and PCNT-SICC**

no.	gross error introduced		NT-SICC				PCNT-SICC			
	location	size	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE	AVTI	OP	OPF	OPFE
1	S <sub>1</sub>	0.8	0.0850	0.9980	0.9156	0.9983	0.0668	0.9975	0.9345	0.9980
	S <sub>3</sub>	2.4	0.0635	1.0000	0.9379	0.9998	0.0729	1.0000	0.9280	0.9999
	S <sub>5</sub>	0.8	0.0655	1.0000	0.9354	0.9998	0.0659	1.0000	0.9344	0.9999
	S <sub>7</sub>	0.8	0.0761	0.9784	0.9267	0.9800	0.0701	0.9780	0.9309	0.9790
	L <sub>3</sub>	0.8	0.0997	0.8667	0.8015	0.8737	0.0945	0.9704	0.9088	0.9722
2	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 1.2	1.4408	0.3518	0.2959	0.9993	1.4167	0.3321	0.3042	0.9986
	S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	3.0, 0.24	0.0664	0.8842	0.7395	0.7920	0.1333	0.9042	0.7761	0.8372
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub>	1.0, 0.6	0.1257	0.9363	0.8564	0.8847	0.1268	0.9258	0.8268	0.8639
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	2.0, 0.6	0.0314	1.0000	0.9687	1.0000	0.0293	1.0000	0.9707	0.9999
	S <sub>4</sub> , L <sub>2</sub>	2.0, 0.6	0.3167	0.7550	0.4851	0.6105	0.3484	0.8830	0.7499	0.8590
3	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>3</sub> , S <sub>5</sub>	1.0, 2.4, 0.6	1.1615	0.8955	0.1564	0.9654	1.1299	0.9070	0.1578	0.9768
	S <sub>2</sub> , S <sub>4</sub> , S <sub>8</sub>	2.0, 1.6, 0.24	0.0379	0.9198	0.7567	0.7920	0.0988	0.9199	0.7564	0.7972
	S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>9</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.36	1.1174	0.6340	0.0000	0.9435	1.1250	0.6335	0.0000	0.9414
	S <sub>1</sub> , L <sub>2</sub> , L <sub>4</sub>	1.0, 0.8, 0.6	0.9648	0.6507	0.0000	0.8623	1.6588	0.4156	0.0000	0.8728
	S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>8</sub> , L <sub>3</sub>	1.0, 0.32, 0.6	1.1991	0.4742	0.1942	0.5753	1.1790	0.5896	0.2408	0.8430

These results clearly show that PCA is of help in some situations and it does not make a difference in others. Moreover, its application lowers the exact identification performance of some strategies that are analyzed in this paper. In this sense, PCA methods may be considered as members of the broad spectrum of gross error detection techniques and not superior strategies.

Although PCA strategies rely first on testing independent variables against the normal distribution, in the next steps the identification is broadened to the entire set of residuals or adjustments. The contributions to a suspect principal component are partially added to assess the number of major contributors  $k_1$ . There are some numerical evidences that this procedure may not be satisfactory enough because it enlarges the number of residuals/measurements in suspect, depending on the numerical values of the contributions and the threshold value.

It has been discussed elsewhere<sup>13</sup> that the use of OPF as an assessment tool for the power of gross error detection is misleading. The reason for this, it was argued, is the fact that equivalent sets have an effect on data reconciliation and therefore the identification of equivalent gross errors should be considered a success. However, for all practical purposes, high OPF may still be a desired property, as it reflects exact identification. However, as is shown from the examples, once one departs from simple cases of one gross error, this measure ceases to be practical. Thus, in the presence of several gross errors, the identification of equivalent sets is a must in practice. In addition, these equivalent sets represent an uncertainty that, in the absence of other information, is unavoidable.

Finally, if one chooses to use OPF instead of OPFE as a comparison tool, except for the fact that all techniques fail rather dramatically for a large number of gross errors when OPF is used, the conclusions about the introduction of PCA are the same.

## Conclusions

The principal component tests have been added to different collective compensation techniques. The performance has then been compared to the regular techniques using known tests. The simulation results show that the use of PC tests does not necessarily improve the power of serial identification strategies. In fact, it sometimes performs better and sometimes worse. It also appears then that the performance of these methods is dependent on the location of the gross errors.

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## Notation

**a** = vector of measurement adjustments  
**A** =  $m \times n$  balance matrix  
 AVTI = average number of type I errors  
**B<sub>i</sub>** = row vector corresponding to a balance constraint  
**C<sub>1</sub>** = matrix defined by eq 18  
**e<sub>i</sub>** = vector with 1 in the  $i$ th place and zero elsewhere  
**g** = vector of contributions to a suspect principal component  
**I** = identity matrix  
 $k_1$  = number of major contributors to a suspect principal component  
**K** = matrix for leaks' positions  
**l** = vector used for making linear combinations of measurements  
**L** = matrix for biases' positions  
**M** = diagonal matrix of constants for calculating leaks  
 $n$  = number of measurements  
 $n_{pr}$  = number of elements of  $p^r$   
 $n_{pa}$  = number of elements of  $p^a$   
 OP = overall power  
 OPF = expected fraction of correct identification  
 ofv = least-squares objective function value  
**P** = general distribution  
 $q$  = number of constraints  
 $r$  = equations' residuals  
 $s$  = number of hypothesized gross errors  
 $t$  = number of nonzero eigenvalues  
**p<sup>r</sup>** = principal component vector of vector **r**  
**p<sup>a</sup>** = principal component vector of vector **a**  
**U<sub>r</sub>** = matrix of orthonormalized eigenvectors of  $\Phi$   
**U<sub>a</sub>** = matrix of orthonormalized eigenvectors of **V**  
**V** = covariance matrix of **a**  
**W<sub>r</sub>** = matrix defined by eq 5  
**W<sub>a</sub>** = matrix defined by eq 11  
 $\hat{x}$  = reconciled measurements  
**y** = vector of measurements

## Greek Symbols

$\Psi$  = measurement error covariance matrix  
 $\Phi$  = residual covariance matrix  
 $\Lambda_r$  = diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues of  $\Phi$   
 $\Lambda_a$  = diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues of **V**  
 $\delta(n \times 1)$  = measurement biases  
 $\gamma(m \times 1)$  = leaks  
 $\epsilon$  = vector of random measurement errors  
 $\tau_D, \tau_E$  = threshold tolerances

$\mu_r$  = expected value of  $\mathbf{r}$   
 $\theta_1$  = vector with elements of  $\delta$  and  $\gamma$   
 $\tau_c$  = critical value for the test statistic  
 $\Sigma$  = covariance matrix of  $\hat{x}$   
 $\Sigma_c^{\text{old}}$  =  $\Sigma_c$  for a resolved problem  
 $\Sigma_c^{\text{new}}$  =  $\Sigma_c$  for a new problem  
 $\zeta$  = prescribed tolerance  
 $\lambda_{a,i}$  =  $i$ th eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{V}$

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