State Estimation of Multiple Plants over a Shared Communication Network

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Abstract

This paper considers state estimation for multiple plants over a shared communication network. Each linear time-invariant plant transmits information through the common network according to either a time-triggered or an event-triggered rule. For an event-triggered algorithm with CSMA (carrier sense multiple access), each plant is assumed to access the network based on a priority mechanism. For a time-triggered algorithm combined with TDMA (time division multiple access), each plant uses the network according to an off-line scheduling. Performance in terms of the communication frequency and the estimation error covariance is analytically characterized for some special cases. The main result is that event-triggered schemes may perform worse than time-triggered schemes when considering the effect of communication network.

I. INTRODUCTION

Event triggered sampling and transmission have emerged as exciting alternatives to more traditional periodic, or time-triggered, sampling and transmission. For the control and estimation of a scalar Weiner process, works such as [1], [2] showed that the average number of transmissions could be reduced significantly with event triggered schemes for the same state variance. Such reductions were noted experimentally in works such as [3]. Motivated by these results, event triggered schemes to ensure stability or passivity for arbitrary non-linear systems were designed in works such as [4], [5], [6]. However, performance analysis for such general cases

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(i.e., estimation/control performance metric as a function of the communication rate) remains open. A stream of work to bypass this problem has been to design event triggered schemes for control and estimation for a guaranteed level of control performance [7] and error covariance [8], [9] while satisfying constraints on the communication rate through a communication cost. However, an analytic trade-off between the covariance and communication rate by imposing a hard constraint on the number of communications typically leads to complicated triggering events that are computationally difficult to compute and implement [10], [11]. To facilitate the analysis, approximations for some truncated Gaussian random variables are used in [12], [13].

Another direction in which the idea of event trigger is being extended is by moving beyond the assumption that a single process needs to be estimated or controlled. If multiple processes are present, then events for various processes can trigger transmissions for more than one process at the same time. If the communication medium is shared, this can lead to congestion, and in turn, delays and packet losses. Realizing this fact, recent work has considered the interaction of control architecture and communication strategies in the setting of event triggered control.

Of particular interest to this paper is the work in [14] that considers a communication network being shared by a number of independent control loops and uses numerical methods to compute the control performance under various multiple access schemes such as TDMA (time division multiple access), FDMA (frequency division multiple access) and CSMA (carrier sense multiple access). The work in [15] considers scaler noisy integrator models and provides the stationary state distribution of such models. Packet loss due to contention of different loops using event triggered control and sharing a common medium is analyzed in [16]; however, the analysis is based on an assumption that the losses for different loops are independent, which does not hold in general [17]. Moreover, the analysis is limited to processes described by a single integrator driven by white noise. A simple ALOHA protocol is used for modeling the communication networks in [18]. Similar to [16], each loop is modeled by noisy integrator dynamics. The correlation among different loops is removed through a particular triggering rule and performance characterization is obtained. A more sophisticated strategy for conflict resolution when two plants wish to transmit simultaneously was considered in [17]. A Markov chain based model was introduced to characterize the probability of successful transmission for each plant in steady state. The key assumption (originating from [19]) was that the conditional probability of a busy channel for the attempting node to transmit is independent for each node. The correlations between various loops and the need for joint analysis between event trigger and CRM (collision resolution mechanism) were addressed; however, no performance analysis of the NCS was provided.

In this paper, we consider multiple plants transmitting information through a common network according to either a time triggered rule or an event triggered rule. To avoid collisions when multiple plants wish to transmit in the event triggered setting, we use CSMA based on a priority mechnism as in [14]. For the case when the plants transmit according to a time triggered rule, no collisions are possible and we use a TDMA (round-robin) transmission schedule. Performance in terms of the communication rate and the estimation error covariance is analytically characterized under various medium access schemes. Our results demonstrate that simple time triggered scheme can outperform event triggered scheme when multiple loops share access to the network. This result may be of interest to designers while moving from implementing event triggered schemes for a single plant to a wider array of applications.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II presents an illustrative example to show that time trigger may perform better than event trigger with associated medium access schemes. Section III presents the problem formulation. The analysis for event triggered estimation of a single plant over a dedicated network is provided in Section IV and extended to NCS with multiple plants sharing the communication network in Section V. Analytical results for multiple plants case are provided in Section VI when triggering level is small. Numerical illustration is provided in Section VII. This paper concludes with some avenues for future work in Section VIII.

Notation: The *n*-dimensional real space is denoted by \mathbb{R}^n . Denote the vector of all zeros by $\underline{0}$ and the vector of all ones by $\underline{1}$. The infinity norm of a vector x is denoted by |x|. For a matrix M, the (i, j)-th element is denoted by M(i, j). The variable y is less than but close to a real number b is denoted by $y \leq b$. For a m-dimensional multivariate Gaussian random variable X with mean vector μ and covariance R, we denote the generalization of the cumulative distribution function F function as $Pr(|X| \leq x) \triangleq F(m, \mu, R, x)$, where the inequality is interpreted element-wise. For the truncated multivariate Gaussian random variable obtained by truncating X between the vectors t_1 and t_2 , define the variance by $\Sigma(X, t_1, t_2)$. As with the standard F functions and truncated Gaussian distributions, evaluation of these generalizations is done through Gaussian integrals (see, e.g., [20, Equation (16)] for formulas for the variance of truncated Gaussian distributions) and is a standard feature in most statistics packages.

II. ONE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

In this section, we present an example to show that time trigger may outperform event trigger with associated medium access schemes described as follows¹ when multiple plants share the communication network.

- 1) In a time triggered setting, TDMA can be used to multiplex the data where a cyclic access schedule is decided in advance. When the number of plants is finite, an optimal schedule can be found by evaluating the cost for every possible schedule [14].
- 2) In an event triggered setting, we use a priority based mechanism as in [14], for which priority orders of the plants can be decided according to one of the following CRM.
 - Static priority: The priority orders are decided in advance and remain fixed during system operation. This scheme is typically implemented by polling or token ring.
 - Random priority: In wireless networks, random back off strategies are normally used and a random plant is allowed to access the network maybe after some delay.
 - Dynamic priority: The priority orders are adapt to dynamically changing progress during the system operation. The objective is to use the the network more efficiently.

Now, consider the following example where two plants share a communication medium. Example 1: Suppose the plant S_i (i = 1, 2) is described by the following dynamics,

$$S_i : x_i(k+1) = A_i x_i(k) + w_i(k),$$
$$y_i(k) = x_i(k),$$

where $A_1 = 1, A_2 = 0.9$, the process noise $\{w_i(k)\}$ is white, zero mean, Gaussian with covariance unity and the initial condition $x_i(0)$ is a normal Gaussian random variable. The process noise $\{w_i(k)\}$ and initial condition $x_i(0)$ are assumed to be mutually independent. Denote the estimate for state $x_i(k)$ by $\hat{x}_i^{dec}(k)$. At the *i*th estimator, we have

$$\hat{x}_i^{dec}(k) = \begin{cases} x_i(k), & \text{if } x_i(k) \text{ received at } k, \\ A_i \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k-1), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

¹These medium access schemes are used in many applications. For instance, TDMA is used in mobile communications and WirelessHART [21]. Static and dynamic schedulers are used in Control Area Network (CAN) and random schedulers are used in Ethernet or wireless local area network (WLAN), see e.g. [22], [23].

The estimation error is given by $e_i^{dec}(k) = x_i(k) - \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k)$ and the quality of estimate for the NCS is measured by $J = \sum_{i=1}^2 \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{k=0}^t \mathbb{E} \left[e_i^{dec}(k) \right]^2$.

1) Event trigger: The event for plant S_i that triggers information transmission is given by

$$|x_i(k) - A_i \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k-1)| > \varepsilon_i$$

where ε_i is a given constant. We assume the network allows each plant to transmit at least once for every T_e time steps.² The simulation results are given in Fig. 1 by conducting 10,000 Monte Carlo experiments and by setting $T_e = 10$, $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2$. Fig. 1 shows that the communication rate is close for various CRM (in the top plot), but the system performance (in the bottom plot) is quite different when the triggering level ε_i is small, say when $\varepsilon_i \leq 1$.

2) *Time trigger:* Each plant uses the network periodically. To avoid collision, we assume the two plants use the network asynchronously. Since there is no cost associated with using the network, we consider the case when the communication rate $P \lesssim 1$, e.g. P = 0.98.³

The comparison between time triggered scheme and event triggered scheme are summarized in Table I. From Table I, we can conclude that

- 1) Under the same communication rate P = 0.98, event trigger with static and random schedulers have larger estimation error covariance than time trigger with TDMA. In other words, time trigger with TDMA outperform event trigger with static and random schedulers.
- 2) For event trigger with dynamic scheduler, when the triggering level ε ≥ 1, the estimation error covariance can be larger than time triggered scheme with cost J = 1, as shown in the bottom plot of Figure 1. Thus, if we choose the triggering level ε randomly on the interval [0, 4], there is a probability of 75% that time triggered scheme performs better than event triggered scheme based on a dynamic scheduling policy.

III. PROBLEM FORMULATION

Consider the problem setup as shown in Fig. 2 where N plants transmit information over a shared network with the following associated assumptions.

²This is to guarantee fairness and guard against the practical concern of maximum delay that each plant can tolerate.

³The communication rate P = 0.98 can be obtained by e.g. transmitting S_1 at odd time steps in every 50 time steps and transmitting S_2 at even time steps except for the multiples of 50.



Fig. 1. The communication frequency and the error covariance for Example 1 using event trigger with various CRM. The communication rate converges to 0.2 since for large triggering level ε (no local events are generated), the network transmits information for each plant every $T_e = 10$ time steps.

 TABLE I

 Performance comparison of time trigger and event trigger under the same communication rate

Scheme	Scheduler	Performance	Threshold	Comm Rate
Time-trigger	TDMA	J = 1.036	-	98%
Event-trigger	Static	J = 2.618	0.215	98%
	Random	J = 1.348	0.221	98%
	Dynamic	J = 0.427	0.176	98%

Plant and Sensor: The *i*th plant denoted by S_i is described by the following discrete linear time-invariant evolution:

$$x_{i}(k+1) = A_{i}x_{i}(k) + w_{i}(k),$$

$$y_{i}(k) = C_{i}x_{i}(k) + v_{i}(k),$$
(1)

where $x_i(k) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ denotes the state vector, $y_i(k) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the output vector, $w_i(k)$ is the process noise assumed to be white Gaussian with zero mean and covariance $R_{w_i} > 0$, and $v_i(k)$ is the measurement noise assumed to be white Gaussian with zero mean and covariance $R_{v_i} > 0$. For the analytical results in the paper, we will consider n = m = 1, although the arguments can be easily generalized at the expense of more notation. The initial condition of the process $x_i(0)$



Fig. 2. Problem setup considered in this paper.

is assumed to be a Gaussian random vector with zero mean and covariance $R_i(0)$. The process noise $\{w_i(k)\}$, the measurement noise $\{v_i(k)\}$, and the initial condition $x_i(0)$ are assumed to be mutually independent. A_i and C_i are real matrices and the pair (A_i, C_i) is assumed to be observable.

Estimator: At every time k, the *i*th estimator generates a minimum mean squared error (MMSE) estimate for the state $x_i(k)$ based on whatever information is available to it. In a time-triggered architecture, this information is the set of measurements $\{y_0, \dots, y_k\}$ that received from the network in a periodic manner. In an event-triggered architecture, this information is any information transmitted by the comparator, and the time steps at which information transmission occurs. Denote the estimate for state $x_i(k)$ held by the *i*th estimator as $\hat{x}_i^{dec}(k)$.

Comparator: The event-triggered algorithm is implemented at the comparator. We consider a level based scheme. Specifically, we consider two cases. In the first simpler case, we assume that the measurement noise $v_i(k)$ is identically zero, and the matrix C_i is identity. Thus, the *i*th sensor observes the state $x_i(k)$ at every time k. The local event is defined as

$$e_i^{comp}(k) \mid > \varepsilon_i, \tag{2}$$

where $e_i^{comp}(k) \triangleq x_i(k) - A_i \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k-1)$, the threshold ε_i is a given constant, $A_i \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k-1)$ is the optimal estimate at the estimator if the estimator did not receive any information at time k. The second case we consider is when the measurement noise is not zero. In this case, we assume

that the comparator calculates a local estimate \hat{x}_k^{enc} of the state x_k based on all measurements $\{y_0, \dots, y_k\}$. However, in this case, $e_i^{comp}(k) \triangleq \hat{x}_i^{enc}(k) - A_i \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k-1)$. Calculation of $\hat{x}_i^{enc}(k)$ admittedly requires more computational resources at the comparator; however, this scheme can transmit much more information than simply transmitting the latest measurement y(k), see e.g. [24].

Communication Network: The communication network is modeled by satisfying the following assumptions.

- A1: The network does not permit simultaneous transmissions and the transmission time of the scheduled packet is less than one time step [17], [18].
- A2: The plant sends information according to an off-line scheduling (for time-triggered schemes) or whenever an event is generated (for event-triggered schemes).
- A3: When two or more plants send information simultaneously, the network transmits the packet received from the plant with highest priority [14] and the rest packets are discarded.
- A4: The network allows each plant to transmit at least once for every T time steps to guard against the practical concern of maximum tolerable delay.

We are interested in the following two metrics for state estimation of the NCS:

- 1) The communication rate P, which is defined as the average probability for the network to transmit information at each time step.
- 2) The quality of estimate for the NCS, which is measured by the aggregate error covariance,

$$J = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{k=0}^{t} \mathbb{E} \left\{ e_i^{dec}(k) [e_i^{dec}(k)]^T \right\},$$

with $e_i^{dec}(k) \triangleq x_i(k) - \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k)$ as the estimation error for S_i .

IV. PRELIMINARY RESULTS: SINGLE PLANT ACROSS A DEDICATED NETWORK

We begin with preliminary results for event triggered estimation of a single plant (and thus the subscript *i* is dropped in this section), see Fig. 3. We assume that the measurement noise v_k is identically 0 and *C* is the identity matrix.⁴

The information can be successfully transmitted through the network whenever

$$|e^{comp}(k)| \triangleq |x(k) - A\hat{x}^{dec}(k-1)| > \varepsilon$$

⁴When the process state is not observed by the sensor, the development is similar by using, e.g. a Kalman filter, see Appendix.



Fig. 3. System Model for a Single Plant across a Dedicated Network. If the state is observed, then $\hat{x}^{enc}(k) = x(k)$.



Fig. 4. Transition graph of the Markov Chain defined for a single plant.

since there is no contention to access the network. As shown in Fig. 4, we can define a discretetime discrete-state Markov chain \mathcal{M} with T + 1 modes, the state $\{X(k)\}_{k\geq 0}$ and the transition probabilities

$$p_{ij} = Pr(X(k+1) = j | X(k) = i),$$

such that X(k) = j implies that at time k, the last transmission occurred at time k - j.

The communication frequency and the estimation error covariance are characterized by this Markov chain. To this end, define the random variables

$$Z_i(k) = \sum_{j=0}^{i} A^j w(k+i-j), \qquad 0 \le i \le T.$$
(3)

Since the noise w(k) is white, the probability density function of the variables $Z_i(k)$ is independent of k. In the sequel, we will simply write Z_i to denote the random variables. Clearly, for any i, the vector random variable $M_i = \begin{bmatrix} Z_0^T, Z_1^T, \dots, Z_i^T \end{bmatrix}^T$ has a multi-variate normal

distribution with mean 0 and covariance matrix R_i as

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_w & R_w A^T & \cdots & R_w (A^T)^i \\ A R_w & A R_w A^T + R_w & A R_w (A^T)^2 + R_w A^T & \cdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ A^i R_w & \cdots & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Now for $1 \le i \le T$, define the events

$$N_{i} = (\mid Z_{0} \mid < \varepsilon) \cap (\mid Z_{1} \mid < \varepsilon) \cap \dots \cap (\mid Z_{i-1} \mid < \varepsilon),$$
(4)

with the convention that N_0 is the sure event. We have $Pr(N_0) = 1$ and for $1 \le i \le T$,

$$Pr(N_i) = F(ni, 0, R_i, \varepsilon \underline{1}), \tag{5}$$

The following results is immediate.

Lemma 1: Consider the Markov chain \mathcal{M} as defined above. The transition probabilities p_{ij} are given by

$$p_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{F(n(i+1), 0, R_{i+1}, \varepsilon \underline{1})}{F(ni), 0, R_i, \varepsilon \underline{1})} & 0 \le i \le T - 1, j = 0\\ 1 & i = T, j = 0\\ 1 - p_{i0} & 0 \le i \le T - 1, j = i + 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(6)

Proof: We concentrate on the case when $0 \le i \le T - 1$, j = 0 since the other expressions are obvious from the structure of the Markov chain shown in Fig. 4. Consider the transition probability p_{00} . Since X(k) = 0 is equivalent to $e^{dec}(k) = 0$, we have

$$p_{00} = Pr(X(k+1) = 0 | X(k) = 0)$$
$$= Pr(|w(k)| > \varepsilon | e^{dec}(k) = 0)$$
$$\stackrel{(a)}{=} Pr(|w(k)| > \varepsilon) = Pr(|Z_0| > \varepsilon),$$

where (a) holds because $e^{dec}(k)$ is independent of the process noise at time step k. Similarly,

for any i such that $0 \le i \le T - 1$, the probability

$$p_{i0} = Pr(X(k+1) = 0 | X(k) = i)$$

$$\stackrel{(b)}{=} Pr(|Z_i| > \varepsilon | N_i, e^{dec}(k-i) = 0)$$

$$\stackrel{(c)}{=} Pr(|Z_i| > \varepsilon | |Z_{i-1}| < \varepsilon, \cdots, |Z_0| < \varepsilon)$$

$$= \frac{Pr(|Z_i| > \varepsilon, N_i)}{Pr(N_i)} = 1 - \frac{Pr(N_{i+1})}{Pr(N_i)},$$

where (b) follows the Markovian property and the definiations in (3), and (c) holds because $e^{dec}(k-i)$ is independent of the process noise after time step k-i and in particular, Z_i . Now the result follows from (5), which can be evaluated using Gaussian integrals and the fact that $p_{T0} = 1$.

Theorem 2: The average communication rate for the event triggered algorithm described above is given by $\frac{1}{1+\sum_{j=1}^{T}\prod_{i=0}^{j-1}(1-p_{i0})}$, which can be calculated using (6).

Proof: The average communication rate for the system is given by $\lim_{k\to\infty} Pr(X(k) = 0)$. From the fact that p_{i0} 's are time-invariant and using the structure of the Markov chain from Fig. 4, the probability for each mode j ($j \ge 1$) can be computed as

$$Pr(X(k) = j) = (1 - p_{j-1,0})Pr(X(k) = j - 1)$$

=
$$\prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (1 - p_{i0})Pr(X(k) = 0).$$
 (7)

Thus, the balance equation for the Markov chain yields

$$1 = \sum_{j=0}^{T} Pr(X(k) = j)$$

= $Pr(X(k) = 0) + \sum_{j=1}^{T} \prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (1 - p_{i0}) Pr(X(k) = 0)$
= $(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{T} \prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (1 - p_{i0})) Pr(X(k) = 0).$

The required probability Pr(X(k) = 0) can now be calculated as

$$Pr(X(k) = 0) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{T} \prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (1 - p_{i0})}.$$

DRAFT

The other performance metric is the covariance of estimation error $\Pi(k) = \mathbb{E}[e^{dec}(k)(e^{dec}(k))^T]$ which is given by the following relation.

Theorem 3: The steady state average error covariance $\Pi = \lim_{k\to\infty} \Pi(k)$ for the event triggered algorithm described above is given by

$$\Pi = \sum_{j=1}^{T} \prod_{t=0}^{j-1} (1 - p_{t0}) Pr(X(k) = 0) \Sigma_{M,j}(j,j),$$
(8)

where $\Sigma_{M,j} = \Sigma(M_j, -\varepsilon \underline{1}, \varepsilon \underline{1}).$

Proof: We use the relation $\Pi(k) = \sum_{j=0}^{T} Pr(X(k) = j)\mathbb{E}[e^{dec}(k)(e^{dec}(k))^T | X(k) = j].$ For j = 0, since the estimation error $e^{dec}(k) = 0$, we obtain $\mathbb{E}[e^{dec}(k)(e^{dec}(k))^T | X(k) = j] = 0$. For j > 0, we use the fact that the error covariance $e^{dec}(k)$ under the event X(k) = j is simply $\sum_{i=0}^{j} A^i w(k-i)$. However, since the process noise w(j) is white and has a time-invariant probability distribution function, we can alternatively write

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{dec}(k)(e^{dec}(k))^T \mid X(k) = j] = \operatorname{var}[Z_{j-1} \mid N_j],$$

where $\operatorname{var}(X)$ is the variance of the random variable X and N_i was defined in (4). The variance of Z_{j-1} is given by the (j, j)-th element of the variance matrix of M_j ; however, as calculated under the truncation imposed by N_j , i.e., all the elements Z_0, \dots, Z_{j-1} being bounded between $-\varepsilon \underline{1}$ and $\varepsilon \underline{1}$. This variance is given by $\Sigma_{M,j}(j,j)$. Together with (7), this yields the desired expression.

Together, these two results provide analytic expressions for the communication frequency and average error covariance given any level ε . For the case when there exists process noise, the development is similar but notationally more involved (see Appendix).

V. MAIN RESULTS: MULTIPLE PLANTS SHARING THE NETWORK

In this section, we present the main results of this paper.

A. Markov Model for Multiple Plants

When $N \ge 2$ plants transmit information over a common network, similar to the single plant case, we can define a discrete-time discrete-state Markov chain \mathcal{M} with $N_s = (T+1)T \cdots (T-N+2)$ states $\{X(k)\}_{k\ge 0} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and the transition probabilities

$$Pr[X(k+1) = \underline{\mathbf{m}} | X(k) = \underline{\mathbf{n}}] \triangleq p(m_1, \cdots, m_N | n_1, \cdots, n_N),$$



Fig. 5. Illustrating example for the Markov model with T = 2.

such that $X(k) = \underline{m}$ implies that at time k, the last transmission for the *i*th plant occurred at time $k - m_i$. Note that $m_i \neq m_j$ for all $i \neq j$ since the network does not permit simultaneous transmissions. Performance of event triggered algorithms can be characterized by this Markov chain. In the following analysis, we concentrate on the case when N = 2 (and the arguments can be easily generalized to N > 2).

In this case, at every time step, there are 3 possibilities of information transmission:

- The network transmits information from S_1 .
- The network transmits information from S_2 .
- The network does not transmit any information.

This corresponds to the structure of the Markov chain. In particular, for any mode $\{i_1, i_2\}$ when $i_1, i_2 < T$, it can go to the following modes correspondingly,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0\\i_2+1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} i_1+1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} i_1+1\\i_2+1 \end{bmatrix},$$

whose transition probabilities are determined by the scheduling policies. For the modes with $i_1 = T_e$ or $i_2 = T_e$, the network transits information for S_1 or S_2 , respectively. Thus, for any scheduling policy, we have the following transitions

$$\begin{bmatrix} T\\i_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0\\i_2+1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} i_1\\T \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} i_1+1\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$

occurring with probability 1. To clarify this, consider the following example.

Example 4: Consider a NCS with N = 2 plants over a shared medium. Assume the maximum delay that each plant can tolerate is T = 2. We can define a Markov chain with the following $N_s = 6$ modes as shown in Fig. 5. The communication rate for S_1 and S_2 are given as

$$P_{1} = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix}\right) + Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix}\right),$$
$$P_{2} = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix}\right) + Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2\\0 \end{bmatrix}\right),$$

respectively. The communication rate for the network is then given by $P_0 = P_1 + P_2$. From the mode $\{1, 0\}$ and $\{0, 1\}$, there are three possible transitions and the following transitions are with probability 1.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

To characterize the system performance, we need to calculate the probability of each Markov mode. To this end, define $\underline{\mathbf{P}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s}$ as the vector for probability of each mode and define $\underline{\mathbf{b}} = [1, 0, \cdots] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s}$. The relations of the modes are given through the following equation

$$\Delta \underline{\mathbf{P}} = \underline{\mathbf{b}},\tag{9}$$

where $\Delta \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s \times N_s}$ with the first row $[1, 1, \dots, 1]$ given by the balance equation and the rest elements can be determined from the structure of the Markov model. We can verify that the matrix Δ always has full rank. This guarantees that the above equation (9) has a unique solution.

Remark 1: The matrix Δ may not be unique since the relations between the Markov modes can be expressed in various manners, however, all these choices will give the same probability of each mode in the end.

We next characterize the matrix Δ and evaluate the performance of event triggered algorithms with static, random and dynamic schedulers through the Markov model defined above.

B. Event Trigger with Static Scheduler

We begin our analysis with the case when every plant has been given a fixed priority to access the network. We assume that the *i*th plant has the *i*th priority without loss of generality. Thus, we assume S_1 wins the arbitration to access the network whenever it contends with S_2 . Lemma 2: By using static scheduler, for any $0 \le i < T$,

$$p(0, i+1|T, i) = 1; p(i+1, 0|i, T) = 1.$$
(10)

Furthermore, for 0 < i < T, we have

$$p(0, i+1|0, i) = p_{0,0}^{(1)},$$
(11)

where $p_{0,0}^{(1)}$ can be calculated through (6) using $\{A_1, w_1\}$.

Proof: The equality (10) holds since the network transmits information for each plant at least once every T time steps. (11) holds because S_1 has higher priority and thus information transmission is delayed for S_2 when local event for S_1 is generated and i < T, i.e.

$$p(0, i+1|0, i) = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\i+1 \end{bmatrix} | \begin{bmatrix} 0\\i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
$$= Pr(X_1(k+1) = 0 | X_1(k) = 0)$$
$$= Pr(|w_1(k)| > \varepsilon) \triangleq p_{0,0}^{(1)}.$$

To illustrate the application of this result, let us consider Example 4 again. We have the following relation

$$Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right)p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} + Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\2\end{bmatrix}\right),\tag{12}$$

where $p_{01}^{(1)} = 1 - p_{00}^{(1)}$ and $\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}$ given by

$$\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} = Pr(|A_2w_2(k-1) + w_2(k)| > \varepsilon).$$

One step later, we have the following transition,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix},$$

and from these transitions we have

$$Pr\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}2\\1\end{array}\right]\right) = Pr\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}0\\1\end{array}\right]\right) p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}p_{12}^{(1)}p_{01}^{(2)} + Pr\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}0\\2\end{array}\right]\right)\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}p_{01}^{(2)},$$
(13)

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where $p_{01}^{(2)} = 1 - p_{00}^{(2)}$ and

$$p_{12}^{(1)} = Pr(|A_1w_1(k-1) + w_1(k)| < \varepsilon ||w_1(k-1)| < \varepsilon)$$

can be calculated through (6) by using $\{A_2, w_2\}$ and respectively $\{A_1, w_1\}$. The probability $\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}$ is given by

$$\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} = Pr(|A_1w_1(k-1) + w_1(k)| < \varepsilon).$$

We can obtain the following relations in a similar manner,

$$Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}1\\2\end{bmatrix}\right) = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right) p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{12}^{(2)},\tag{14}$$

$$Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}2\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right) p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}p_{12}^{(1)}p_{00}^{(2)}$$
(15)

$$+ Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right) p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{12}^{(2)} + Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} p_{00}^{(2)},$$

$$Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right) p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} p_{12}^{(1)} p_{01}^{(2)}$$

$$+ Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right) p_{00}^{(1)} + Pr\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} p_{01}^{(2)},$$
(16)

where $\bar{p}_{12}^{(2)} = 1 - \bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}$.

In this way, we represent the probabilities of all modes through the relations with mode $\{0, 1\}$ and $\{0, 2\}$ as in (12)-(16). Then from the balance equation that the sum of all probabilities equal to 1, we can solve for probability of each mode. More compactly, define

$$a = p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} p_{12}^{(1)} p_{00}^{(2)} + p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{12}^{(2)}, b = p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} p_{12}^{(1)} p_{01}^{(2)}$$

and we obtain the probability for every individual mode from equation (9) with Δ given as

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
p_{01}^{(1)} \bar{p}_{12}^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
a & \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} p_{00}^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
b & \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} p_{01}^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\
p_{00}^{(1)} + c & -1 + \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} p_{01}^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}.$$
(17)

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Remark 2: Notice $\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} \neq p_{12}^{(1)}$, since in transitions such as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \to \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \to \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix},$$

 $X_1(k) = 1$ is caused by $t_2 = T$ independent of the error $|w_1(k-1)|$ which yields $\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}$. However, in transitions such as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix},$$

 $X_1(k) = 1$ is caused by $|w_1(k-1)| < \varepsilon$ and this yields $p_{12}^{(1)}$. Similarly, we have $\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)} \neq p_{10}^{(2)}$.

Remark 3: For the single plant case in Section IV, we can easily obtain the relations between the modes from the structure of the Markov model. Particularly, the matrix Δ for single plant is given as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & & \cdots & 1 \\ p_{01} & -1 & & & \\ & p_{12} & -1 & & & \\ & & p_{23} & -1 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & & p_{T-1,T} & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the transition probabilities are given in Lemma 1. For the multiple plant case, the relation is more complicated because of coupling of the two Markov states in one mode.

By solving (9), we obtain the probability of each Markov mode. The following result is immediate.

Theorem 5: For T = 2, the average communication rate for S_1 under event triggered algorithm described above is given by $P_1 = Pr(\{0,1\}) + Pr(\{0,2\})$, and $P_2 = Pr(\{1,0\}) + Pr(\{2,0\})$ for S_2 through $\underline{P} = \Delta^{-1}\underline{b}$ with Δ given in (17). Furthermore, the average communication rate for the network is given by $P_0 = P_1 + P_2$.

The other performance metric is the covariance of the estimation error

$$\Pi_i(k) = \mathbb{E}[e_i^{dec}(k)(e_i^{dec}(k))^T],$$

which is given by the following result.

Theorem 6: For T = 2, the steady state average error covariance for the *r*th plant, $\Pi_r = \lim_{k\to\infty} \Pi_r(k)$, under the event triggered algorithm described above is given by

$$\Pi_r(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_s} \Pi_r(j)$$

from (18-24). Furthermore, the average error covariance for the NCS is given by $\Pi = \Pi_1 + \Pi_2$.

Proof: To calculate Π_1 , we use the relation $\Pi_1 = \sum_{j=0}^{N_s} \Pi_1(j)$, where $\Pi_1(j)$ corresponds to the error covariance under the Markov mode j as defined above. We have

$$\Pi_1(1) = 0, \Pi_1(2) = 0, \tag{18}$$

since the estimation error $e_1^{dec}(k) = 0$. Under the Markov mode $\{1, 0\}$, we have

$$\Pi_1(3) = Pr(\{0,1\})\Delta(1,3)\operatorname{var}\{w_1(k) \mid |w_1(k)| < \varepsilon\}$$
$$+ Pr(\{0,2\})\operatorname{var}\{w_1(k)\}.$$

As for single plant case, $var\{w_1(k) \mid |w_1(k)| < \varepsilon\}$ is given by $\Sigma_{M,1}^{(1)}(1,1)$. Thus, we have

$$\Pi_1(3) = Pr(\{0,1\})\Delta(1,3)\Sigma_{M,1}^{(1)}(1,1) + Pr(\{0,2\})R_{w_1}.$$
(19)

Under the Markov mode $\{1, 2\}$, we have

$$\Pi_1(4) = Pr(\{0,1\})\Delta(1,4)\Sigma_{M,1}^{(1)}(1,1).$$
(20)

We can also obtain the error covariance under mode $\{2, 0\}$,

$$\Pi_{1}(5) = Pr(\{0,2\})\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}p_{00}^{(2)}\Xi_{1}$$

$$+ Pr(\{0,1\})p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}p_{12}^{(1)}p_{00}^{(2)}\Xi_{2}$$

$$+ Pr(\{0,1\})p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{12}^{(2)}\Xi_{3},$$
(21)

where $\Xi_1 = \Sigma(A_1w_1(k-1) + w_1(k), -\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ can be evaluated through Gaussian integrals, $\Xi_2 = \Sigma_{M,2}^{(1)}(2,2)$, and

$$\Xi_3 = \operatorname{var} \{ A_1 w_1(k-1) + w_1(k) \mid |w_1(k-1)| < \varepsilon \}$$
$$= A_1 \Sigma_{M,1}^{(1)}(1,1) A_1^T + R_{w_1}.$$

Also, the error covariance under the mode $\{2,1\}$ is given by

$$\Pi_{1}(6) = Pr(\{0,2\})\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}p_{01}^{(2)}\Xi_{1}$$

$$+ Pr(\{0,1\})p_{01}^{(1)}\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}p_{12}^{(1)}p_{01}^{(2)}\Xi_{2}.$$
(22)

To calculate Π_2 , similar to calculation of Π_1 , we use the relation $\Pi_2 = \sum_{j=0}^{N_s} \Pi_2(j)$ with

$$\Pi_2(3) = 0, \Pi_2(5) = 0, \tag{23}$$

since the estimation error $e_2^{dec}(k) = 0$. We can also have the following relations

$$\Pi_{2}(1) = R_{w_{2}},$$

$$\Pi_{2}(2) = Pr(\{0,1\})p_{00}^{(1)}\Xi_{4} + Pr(\{2,1\})\Xi_{5},$$

$$\Pi_{2}(4) = Pr(\{1,2\})\Xi_{4},$$

$$\Pi_{2}(6) = Pr(\{2,1\})\Sigma_{M,1}^{(2)}(1,1),$$
(24)

where $\Xi_4 = \Sigma(A_2w_2(k-1) + w_2(k), -\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ and $\Xi_5 = A_2\Sigma_{M,1}^{(2)}(1,1)A_2^T + R_{w_2}$. Together with the probabilities from the previous theorem, this yields the desired expressions.

Remark 4: For the single plant case, $e^{dec}(k) = 0$ for X(k) = 0 and X(k) = j > 0 implies the estimation error in previous steps all less than ε . As a result, the error covariance under the mode X(k) = j > 0 is simply

$$\Pi(j) \triangleq Pr(X(k) = j)\mathbb{E}[e^{dec}(k)(e^{dec}(k))^T \mid X(k) = j]$$
$$= Pr(X(k) = j)\Sigma_{M,j}(j,j)$$

and the average estimation error covariance can be calculated as $\sum_{j=1}^{T} \Pi(j)$. For the multiple plant case, however, we have to identify how the current mode is reached (i.e. whether caused by local noise or by network constraints), which yields different expressions for the error covariance.

Remark 5: For T > 2, a similar Markov chain can be defined by considering two more variables for each mode indicating how long each plant has signaled that it wants to transmit.

C. Event Trigger with Random Scheduler

With random scheduler, both plants have the chance to win the arbitration when contention occurs. Denote P_{α} as the probability for S_1 to win, and $1 - P_{\alpha}$ for S_2 . The access probability P_{α} is provided by the network [17]. When there is no contention, the plant can transmit information successfully whenever its local event is generated.

Consider the Markov model shown in Fig. 5. As mentioned earlier, one has to track the past states to calculate the transition probabilities. As an example, consider the transition from mode $\{0,1\}$ to $\{1,0\}$. The transition probability for $X_2(k) = 1 \rightarrow 0$ is not given by $\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}$ (as for static

scheduler). The reason is that $X_2(k) = 1$ in the mode $\{0, 1\}$ depends on the error $w_2(k-1)$ in the previous step. Similarly, in transition $\{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{1, 0\} \rightarrow \{2, 0\}$, the transition probability for $X_1(k) = 1 \rightarrow 2$ is not given by $\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}$ since $X_1(k) = 0 \rightarrow 1$ might be caused by $|w_1(k-1)| > \varepsilon$ as well. However, the approximation of ignoring this past and calculating transition probability only with the current state is quite good. Through such approximations, the matrix Δ for a random scheduler is given as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \Delta_{21} & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \Delta_{31} & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ p_{01}^{(1)}(1-\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}) & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \Delta_{53} & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)}(1-p_{00}^{(2)}) & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$
(25)

where

$$\Delta_{31} = [p_{01}^{(1)} + p_{00}^{(1)}(1 - P_{\alpha})]\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)},$$

$$\Delta_{53} = p_{00}^{(2)}[\bar{p}_{12}^{(1)} + (1 - \bar{p}_{12}^{(1)})(1 - P_{\alpha})],$$

$$\Delta_{21} = (1 - p_{01}^{(1)})(\bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}P_{\alpha} + 1 - \bar{p}_{10}^{(2)}).$$

By solving equation (9) with Δ given in (25), we can get the probability for each mode. The approximate results calculated in this way match closely to the Monte Carlo simulations as demonstrated in Section VII. We can therefore characterize the communication rate and error covariance from this Markov model along the same lines as for static scheduler.

D. Event Trigger with Dynamic Scheduler

With dynamic scheduler, when two local events are generated simultaneously, the network grants the one with maximum error $|e_i^{comp}(k)|$ to access the network first. As a result, the network transmits information for S_1 if it has a larger error when both local events are generated, i.e.

$$|e_1^{comp}(k)| > |e_2^{comp}(k)|, |e_1^{comp}(k)| > \varepsilon, |e_2^{comp}(k)| > \varepsilon,$$

or the following events occur

$$|e_1^{comp}(k)| > \varepsilon, |e_2^{comp}(k)| < \varepsilon.$$

Define the conditional probability P_d as follows,

$$P_d \triangleq Pr(|e_1^{comp}| > |e_2^{comp}| | |e_1^{comp}| > \varepsilon, |e_2^{comp}| > \varepsilon),$$

where the dependence of the errors on time k is omitted for notational convenience. It is worthwhile to point out that for random scheduler case, when both errors exceed the predefined threshold, the probability of the network to transmit information for S_1 is actually

$$P_{\alpha}Pr(|e_1^{comp}| > \varepsilon, |e_2^{comp}| > \varepsilon).$$

For the dynamic case, unlike P_{α} defined above, P_d depends on the magnitudes of the errors of both plants and hence the interference between the plants and the shared medium becomes more complicated. P_d can be exactly evaluated through Gaussian integrals because the errors are Gaussian random variables as defined in (3). However, for simplicity, we can use

$$\lambda \triangleq Pr(|e_1^{comp}| > |e_2^{comp}|)$$

as an approximation of the conditional probability P_d . In fact, we have $\lambda = 1/2$ based on the following arguments. From the fact that

$$\begin{split} ⪻(|e_1^{comp}| > |e_2^{comp}|) = Pr(|e_1^{comp}|^2 > |e_2^{comp}|^2) \\ &= Pr(e_1^{comp} + e_2^{comp} > 0, e_1^{comp} - e_2^{comp} > 0) \\ &+ Pr(e_1^{comp} + e_2^{comp} < 0, e_1^{comp} - e_2^{comp} < 0) \\ &\stackrel{(e)}{=} Pr(e_1^{comp} + e_2^{comp} > 0) Pr(e_1^{comp} - e_2^{comp} > 0) \\ &+ Pr(e_1^{comp} + e_2^{comp} < 0) Pr(e_1^{comp} - e_2^{comp} < 0), \end{split}$$

and (e) holds because $e_1^{comp} + e_2^{comp}$ and $e_1^{comp} - e_2^{comp}$ are Gaussian random variables and mutually independent. Since e_1^{comp} and e_2^{comp} are zero mean, we have

$$Pr(e_1^{comp} + e_2^{comp} < 0) = 1/2,$$
$$Pr(e_1^{comp} - e_2^{comp} < 0) = 1/2.$$

This yields the desired result. Therefore, the communication rate can be calculated as a special case of random access by setting $P_{\alpha} = \lambda = 1/2$. The results given by this approximation match the Monte Carlo experiments very closely as demonstrated in Section VII.

Remark 6: $\lambda \neq 1/2$ for $N \geq 2$, although λ can be evaluated through Gaussian integrals for the general case.

Remark 7: The error covariance is different from random scheduler case (with $P_{\alpha} = 1/2$) since for dynamic scheduler there exists additional condition on the magnitudes of e_1^{comp} and e_2^{comp} . However, the error covariance can be evaluated through Gaussian integrals as well.

E. Time Triggered Algorithm

In this section, we evaluate the performance of time triggered scheme with TDMA. Since we do not consider the cost of using the network, we assume the network transmits information at every time step. For N = 2, there exist two possible schedules: $S_1 = \{1, 2, 1, 2 \dots\}$ and $S_2 = \{2, 1, 2, 1 \dots\}$. If $A_1 = A_2$ and $R_{w_1} = R_{w_2}$, it can be verified that the two round robin schedules S_1 and S_2 are both optimal. Otherwise, one can find an optimal schedule by evaluating the cost function for every possible schedule [14]. Therefore, for N = 2, both schedules are optimal and the system performance can be calculated as

$$J = \frac{1}{2}(R_{w_2} + R_{w_1}).$$

VI. DISCUSSION

In this section, we provide analytical results for special cases of event and time triggered algorithms. When $\varepsilon = 0$, the local event (2) for each plant is generated at every time step. This implies both plants intend to access the network simultaneously at each time step. The network is thus utilized at every time step and the decision to transmit packets from which plant is based on the scheduling policies. It is worthwhile to point out that the following analysis can be used as an approximation for $\varepsilon \gtrsim 0$.

A. Static scheduler for $\varepsilon = 0$

The network transmits information for S_1 with higher priority until the *hard* constraint for maximum tolerable delay of S_2 is triggered. The Markov model will be reduced to $T_e + 1$ states with all transition probabilities 1 as shown in Fig 6. The following result is immediate.

Lemma 3: Consider the event triggered algorithm with static scheduler for $\varepsilon = 0$. The average communication rate for S_1 and S_2 are given by

$$P_1 = \frac{T_e}{T_e + 1}, P_2 = \frac{1}{T_e + 1},$$



Fig. 6. Static Scheduler when $\varepsilon = 0$.

respectively. Furthermore, the steady state average error covariance for \mathcal{S}_1 and \mathcal{S}_2 are given by

$$\Pi_1 = \frac{1}{T_e + 1} R_{w_1}, \Pi_2 = \frac{1}{T_e + 1} \sum_{i=1}^{T_e} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} A_2{}^j R_{w_2} (A_2^T)^j$$

Proof: From the structure of the Markov chain shown in Fig 6, the probabilities of all modes are identical. From the balance equation that the sum of the probabilities of all modes is equal to 1, the probability for each mode is $1/(T_e + 1)$. Therefore, the communication rate for S_i is given by

$$P_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{T_e} Pr(X(k) = [0; j]) = \frac{T_e}{T_e + 1},$$
$$P_2 = 1 - P_1 = \frac{1}{T_e + 1}.$$

The estimation error for S_2 under the mode X(k) = [0, j] for $1 \le j \le T_e$ is given by Z_j . Thus the error covariance for S_2 can be calculated as

$$\Pi_{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{T_{e}} Pr(X(k) = [0; j]) \mathbb{E} \{ Z_{j-1} Z_{j-1}^{T} \}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{T_{e}} \frac{1}{T_{e} + 1} \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} A_{2}^{i} R_{w_{2}} A_{2}^{Ti}.$$

The error covariance for S_1 is simply $\frac{1}{T_e+1}R_{w_1}$.

B. Random scheduler for $\varepsilon = 0$

Since both local events are generated, the network transmits the packets from S_1 with probability P_{α} and transmits the packets from S_2 with probability $1 - P_{\alpha}$. The Markov model is presented in Fig. 7. The communication rate and error covariance can thus be obtained along the lines of Lemma 3 through the following result.



Fig. 7. Random Scheduler when $\varepsilon = 0$.

Lemma 4: Consider the event triggered algorithm with random scheduler for $\varepsilon = 0$. The average communication rate for S_1 and S_2 are given by

$$P_1 = \frac{(1 - P_{\alpha}^{T_e})}{1 - P_{\alpha}}\rho, P_2 = \frac{1 - (1 - P_{\alpha})^{T_e}}{P_{\alpha}}\rho,$$

where $\rho = \frac{P_{\alpha}(1-P_{\alpha})}{1-P_{\alpha}^{T_e+1}-(1-P_{\alpha})^{T_e+1}}$. Furthermore, the steady state average error covariance for S_1 and S_2 are given by

$$\Pi_{1} = \frac{\rho}{1 - P_{\alpha}} \sum_{i=1}^{T_{e}} (1 - P_{\alpha})^{i} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} A_{1}{}^{j} R_{w_{1}} (A_{1}^{T})^{j},$$
$$\Pi_{2} = \frac{\rho}{P_{\alpha}} \sum_{i=1}^{T_{e}} P_{\alpha}^{i} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} A_{2}{}^{j} R_{w_{2}} (A_{2}^{T})^{j}.$$

C. Time triggered algorithm

In this section, we evaluate the performance by using time trigger with TDMA. Since we do not consider the cost of using the network, we assume the network transmits information at every time step.

For N = 2, there exist two possible schedules: $S_1 = \{1, 2, 1, 2 \cdots\}$ and $S_2 = \{2, 1, 2, 1 \cdots\}$. If $A_1 = A_2$ and $R_{w_1} = R_{w_2}$, we are going to show that the two round robin schedules S_1 and S_2 are both optimal. Otherwise, one can find an optimal schedule by evaluating the cost function for every possible schedule [14]. Assume $\hat{x}_i^{dec}(0) = 0$ for i = 1, 2. With schedule S_1 , at the *i*th estimator, we have for any $0 \leq j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and for any $k \geq 1$,

$$\hat{x}_i^{dec}(k) = \begin{cases} x_i(k), & \text{if } k = 2j + i, \\ A_i \hat{x}_i^{dec}(k-1), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It is easy to verify that for any $k \ge 2$,

$$\hat{x}_i^{dec}(k) = \begin{cases} x_i(k), & \text{if } k = 2j + i, \\ A_i x_i(k-1), & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and the estimation error evolves as

$$e_i^{dec}(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } k = 2j + i, \\ w_i(k-1), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore, we can obtain for schedule S_1 and $k \ge 2$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2} \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{k=2}^{t} \mathbb{E}[e_i^{dec}(k)(e_i^{dec}(k))^T] = \frac{1}{2}(R_{w_2} + R_{w_1}).$$

The system performance can be calculated as

$$J = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{1}{t} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{k=2}^{t} \mathbb{E}[e_i^{dec}(k)(e_i^{dec}(k))^T] + \nu_3 \right)$$

= $\frac{1}{2} (R_{w_2} + R_{w_1}),$

where $\nu_3 > 0$ is finite and depends on the values of A_2, R_2 . For schedule S_2 , we will obtain the same system performance along the above lines. Therefore, for N = 2, both schedules are optimal with the minimum cost given by

$$\Omega_T = \frac{1}{2} (R_{w_2} + R_{w_1})$$

D. Comparison of special cases

Now, we are ready to state the main result in this section, which compares performance of time trigger and event trigger with various MA schemes. Note that the system performance is continuous with respect to the threshold ε and thus the previous results for $\varepsilon = 0$ can be considered as a good approximation for small positive ε .

Theorem 7: For $\varepsilon \gtrsim 0$, denote system performance as $\Omega_T, \Omega_S, \Omega_R$ for time trigger and event trigger with static scheduler and random scheduler, respectively. We have the following result: $\Omega_T < \Omega_S, \Omega_T < \Omega_R$. *Proof:* When the network is fully utilized, for time trigger with TDMA, the system performance is given by

$$\Omega_T = \frac{1}{2}(R_{w_1} + R_{w_2}),$$

which is independent of the system dynamics A_1, A_2 .

For event trigger with static scheduler, a lower bound for system performance Ω_S is given by

$$\Omega_S > \frac{1}{T_e + 1} \left[R_{w_1} + T_e R_{w_2} \right] + \nu_1.$$

The gap between two sides of the above inequality ($\nu_1 > 0$) depends on the dynamic of S_2 , or A_2 . For instance, with $T_e = 2$, the gap is characterized by $\frac{A_2 R_{w_2} A_2^T}{(T_e+1)}$. For simplicity, we assume $R_{w_1} = R_{w_2}$, thus we obtain

$$\Omega_S > \Omega_T + \nu_1 > \Omega_T.$$

For event trigger with random scheduler, a lower bound of system performance Ω_R is given by

$$\Omega_R > \rho \sum_{i=1}^{T_e} \left[(1 - P_\alpha)^{i-1} R_{w_1} + P_\alpha^{i-1} R_{w_2} \right] + \nu_2,$$

The gap between two sides of the above inequality ($\nu_2 > 0$) depends on the the dynamics of both plants, or A_1, A_2 . Again, for simplicity, we assume $R_{w_1} = R_{w_2}$, then we have

$$\begin{split} \Omega_R &> \sum_{i=1}^{T_e} \rho \left[(1 - P_\alpha)^{i-1} + P_\alpha^{i-1} \right] R_w + \nu_2, \\ &= \rho R_w \left(\frac{1 - (1 - P_\alpha)^{T_e}}{P_\alpha} + \frac{1 - P_\alpha^{T_e}}{1 - P_\alpha} \right) + \nu_2 \\ &= R_w + \nu_2 > \Omega_T, \end{split}$$

It has been shown that $\Omega_T < \Omega_S, \Omega_T < \Omega_R$. In other words, time trigger with TDMA performs better than event trigger with static and random schedulers.

Remark 8: For dynamic case, we can obtain similar results. However, the system performance is now evaluated through Gaussian integrals. As an example, for the transition from mode [0; 1] to [1; 0], we need the following formula,

$$\operatorname{var}\{X | |X| < |Y|\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y) dy \int_{-|y|}^{|y|} x^2 f(x) dx$$

where $f(x) = N(0, R_1)$ and $f(y) = N(0, R_2)$ are normal distributions with mean 0 and variance $R_1 = R_{w_1}$ and $R_2 = (A_2^2 + 1)R_{w_2}$, respectively. This integral can be evaluated as

$$\begin{split} & 2\int_{0}^{\infty}\int_{-y}^{y}\frac{x^{2}}{2\pi\sqrt{R_{1}R_{2}}}\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(R_{1}^{-1}x^{2}+R_{2}^{-1}y^{2})\right]\mathrm{d}x\mathrm{d}y\\ &=2\frac{R_{1}}{2\pi}\int_{\beta}^{\pi-\beta}\cos^{2}\theta\mathrm{d}\theta\int_{0}^{\infty}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}r^{2}\right)r^{3}\mathrm{d}r\\ &=\frac{R_{1}}{\pi}[\pi-2\beta-\sin(2\beta)], \end{split}$$

and $\beta \in [0, \pi/2]$ satisfies $r \cos \beta \sqrt{R_1} = r \sin \beta \sqrt{R_2}$. Together with the fact Pr(|X| < |Y|) = 1/2, this yields

$$\operatorname{var}\{X | |X| < |Y|\} = 2\frac{R_1}{\pi} [\pi - 2\beta - \sin(2\beta)].$$

VII. SIMULATION RESULTS

In this section, we present numerical examples to illustrate our main results. The system model is given by (1) with $A_1 = 0.8$ and $A_2 = 0.5$ and we assume $w_i, x_i(0)$ (i = 1, 2) are zero-mean Gaussian random variables with unit covariance. We set T = 2 and $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon$. For various values of ε from 0 to 4, we evaluated system performance for static, random and dynamic schedulers. We compared the analytic results to Monte Carlo simulations of the system.

The comparison of using static scheduler is shown in Fig. 8 for the communication rate in the top plot and in the bottom one for the error covariance. It can be seen that the analytic results match the Monte Carlo simulations very closely. From the bottom plot in Fig. 8, we can see that for $\varepsilon \in [0.2, 1.2]$, the error covariance for event trigger is less than time trigger; however, for other values of $\varepsilon \in [0, 4]$, time triggered algorithm performs better. This implies that there is a probability of 75% for event-triggered algorithm to perform worse than time-triggered algorithm if we choose the threshold randomly.

The system performance by using approximate models for random scheduler in terms of the communication rate and the error covariance is provided in Fig. 9 with $P_{\alpha} = 0.7$. The results for communication rates by using dynamic scheduler in Fig. 10 by setting $P_{\alpha} = 0.5$. It can be seen that the results obtained from approximate models for both cases match the Monte Carlo simulations very closely.



Fig. 8. Performance metrics for the NCS obtained from derived analytic expressions and Monte Carlo simulations.



Fig. 9. Performance metrics for the NCS using random scheduler obtained from approximate expressions and Monte Carlo simulations.

VIII. FINAL REMARKS

This paper studies state estimation for a NCS with multiple plants over a shared communication network. Each plant transmits information through the common network according to a timetriggered or an event-triggered rule. For a time-triggered algorithm combined with TDMA, each plant uses the network according to an off-line scheduling. For an event-triggered algorithm with



Fig. 10. Communication rates for each plant using dynamic scheduler.

CSMA, each plant is assumed to access the network based on one of the following scheduling strategies: static, random or dynamic schedulers. Performance in terms of the communication rate and estimation error covariance is analytically characterized for some special cases. Our results demonstrate that event-triggered schemes may preform worse than time-triggered schemes when considering the effect of communication strategies.

For future works, we need a more accurate model to analyze general cases (such as for $T_e > 2$). It is also interesting to find an optimal triggering level for various scheduling policies. Another extension is to consider a control setting where the control input is updated using an event triggered rule and consider other performance metrics (such as LQG). From a design point of view, it is also interesting to design an optimal scheduling strategy for given control tasks.

IX. APPENDIX: EVENT-TRIGGERED ESTIMATION OF A SINGLE PLANT WITH MEASUREMENT NOISE OVER A DEDICATED NETWORK

We now consider the case when the process state is not observed by the sensor as shown Fig.3. As stated earlier, in this case, the comparator calculates and transmits the estimate

$$\hat{x}_k^{enc} = \mathbb{E}[x_k | y_0, \cdots, y_k].$$

Denote the corresponding error by $e_k^{enc} = x_k - \hat{x}_k^{enc}$, and the error covariance by

$$S_k = \mathbb{E}[(e_k^{enc})^2 | y_0, \cdots, y_k].$$

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Both \hat{x}_k^{enc} and S_k can be computed recursively through a Kalman filer. In particular, we have

$$\hat{x}_{k+1}^{enc} = A\hat{x}_{k}^{enc} + L_{k}(y_{k+1} - CA\hat{x}_{k}^{enc}),$$

where $L_k = S_k C^T R_v^{-1}$ denotes the Kalman filter gain. Thus, the error evolves as

$$e_{k+1}^{enc} = (I - L_k C) A e_k^{enc} + (I - L_k C) w_k - L_k v_{k+1}.$$
(26)

The error e_k^{enc} is Gaussian with zero mean and covariance S_k , that evolves according to the standard Riccati recursion [25, Chapter 9]. Since the pair (A, C) is observable, the matrices S_k and L_k converge exponentially to steady state values. For simplicity, we consider the steady state regime where S_k and L_k have converged to steady state values S and L respectively.

The development in this case is similar to the case when the state is observed, but notationally more involved. We indicate the changes that need to made as compared to the analysis presented in Section IV. The error at the decoder is now calculated as

$$e_k^{dec} = \begin{cases} e_k^{enc}, & \text{if } | e_k^{comp} | > \varepsilon, \\ A e_{k-1}^{dec} + w_{k-1}, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
(27)

with $e_k^{comp} = \hat{x}_k^{enc} - A\hat{x}_{k-1}^{dec}$. We can once again set up the Markov chain as shown in Fig. 4. Similar to the random variables $Z_i(k)$ from (3), define the variables for all *i* such that $0 \le i \le T$,

$$\bar{Z}_{i}(k) = \hat{x}_{k+1}^{enc} - A^{i+1} \hat{x}_{k-i}^{enc}$$
$$= A^{i+1} e_{k-i}^{enc} + \sum_{j=0}^{i} A^{j} w_{k-j} - e_{k+1}^{enc}.$$

In steady state, the probability density function of the variables $\bar{Z}_i(k)$ is once again timeinvariant; hence, we drop the time index for simplicity. Given these variables, define $\bar{M}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{Z}_0^T, \bar{Z}_1^T, \dots, \bar{Z}_i^T \end{bmatrix}^T$. Similar to the variable M_i in Section IV, \bar{M}_i is also a multivariate normal distribution with zero mean. However, the covariance matrix \bar{R}_i is notationally too involved to write succinctly. To outline the argument for calculating a general \bar{R}_i , we present the values of \bar{R}_0 and \bar{R}_1 . The variable \bar{Z}_0 is given by

$$\bar{Z}_0 = w_k + Ae_k^{enc} - e_{k+1}^{enc}$$
$$= LCAe_k^{enc} + Lv_{k+1} + LCw_k$$

Since e_k^{enc} , w_k and v_{k+1} are mutually independent Gaussian variables with the same mean, \bar{Z}_0 is also Gaussian with zero mean and covariance $\bar{R}_0 = LC(ASA^T + R_w)C^TL^T + LR_vL^T$.

The variable \overline{Z}_1 is given by $\overline{Z}_1 = w_k + Aw_{k-1} + A^2 e_{k-1}^{enc} - e_{k+1}^{enc}$. Thus, we can evaluate

$$\bar{R}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_0^2] & \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_0\bar{Z}_1^T] \\ \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_1\bar{Z}_0^T] & \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_1^2] \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_{0}^{2}] &= LC(ASA^{T} + R_{w})C^{T}L^{T} + LR_{v}L^{T}, \\ \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_{1}\bar{Z}_{0}^{T}] &= L(CR_{w}C^{T} - R_{v})L^{T} - (I - LC)ASA^{T}C^{T}L^{T} \\ &+ A(R_{w} + ASA^{T})(I - LC)^{T}A^{T}C^{T}L^{T}, \\ \mathbb{E}[\bar{Z}_{1}\bar{Z}_{1}^{T}] &= R_{w} + AR_{w}A^{T} + A^{2}S(A^{T})^{2} + S - [R_{w}(I - LC)^{T} + (I - LC)R_{w} \\ &- (\text{Term}_{1} + \text{Term}_{1}^{T}) - (\text{Term}_{2} + \text{Term}_{2}^{T}), \end{split}$$

and Term₁ and Term₂ are given by

$$\operatorname{Term}_{1} = AR_{w}(I - LC)^{T}A^{T}(I - LC)^{T},$$
$$\operatorname{Term}_{2} = A^{2}SA^{T}(I - LC)^{T}A^{T}(I - LC)^{T}.$$

The covariance matrices \bar{R}_i for any *i* can be similarly calculated.

As before, for $1 \le i \le T$, define the events

$$\bar{N}_{i} = \left(\mid \bar{Z}_{0} \mid < \varepsilon \right) \cap \left(\mid \bar{Z}_{1} \mid < \varepsilon \right) \cap \dots \cap \left(\mid \bar{Z}_{i-1} \mid < \varepsilon \right),$$
(28)

with the convention that \bar{N}_0 is the sure event. Then we have with $Pr(\bar{N}_0) = 1$ and for $1 \le i \le T$,

$$Pr(\bar{N}_i) = F(ni, 0, \bar{R}_i, \varepsilon \underline{1}), \tag{29}$$

In turn, the transition probabilities p_{ij} for the Markov chain can be calculated as

$$p_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{F(n(i+1), 0, \bar{R}_{i+1}, \varepsilon \underline{1})}{F(ni), 0, \bar{R}_{i}, \varepsilon \underline{1})} & 0 \le i \le T - 1, j = 0\\ 1 & i = T, j = 0\\ 1 - p_{i0} & 0 \le i \le T - 1, j = i + 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(30)

which can be evaluated using Gaussian integrals, and the fact that $p_{T0} = 1$. We concentrate on p_{00} since the proof for rest of the probabilities follows that of Lemma 1. We have

$$p_{00} = Pr(X_{k+1} = 0 | X_k = 0)$$
$$= Pr(|e_{k+1}^{comp}| > \varepsilon | \hat{x}_k^{dec} = \hat{x}_k^{enc}),$$

where e_{k+1}^{comp} when $X_k = 0$ equals $\overline{Z}_0(k)$. Since \hat{x}_k^{enc} is an MMSE estimate, the error e_k^{enc} is independent of measurements $\{y_0, \dots, y_k\}$, and in particular, of both \hat{x}_k^{enc} and \hat{x}_k^{dec} . Also because the process and measurement noises are white, v_{k+1} and w_k are independent of \hat{x}_k^{enc} and \hat{x}_k^{dec} as well. Then, we have

$$p_{00} = Pr(|LC(Ae_{k}^{enc} + w_{k}) + Lv_{k+1}| > \varepsilon |\hat{x}_{k}^{dec} = \hat{x}_{k}^{enc})$$
$$= Pr(|LC(Ae_{k}^{enc} + w_{k}) + Lv_{k+1}| > \varepsilon)$$
$$= 1 - Pr(\bar{N}_{1}),$$

which yields the desired result. The estimation quality of the scheme can thus be obtained along the lines of Theorems 2 and 3. It should be noted that similar arguments can be developed for the case when multiple plants share the common network in Section V.

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