LQG Control Over a Markov Communication Network

Bernhardsson, Bo; Nilsson, Johan

Published in: Proceedings of the 1997

Link to publication


General rights
Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

• Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
• You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
• You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Take down policy
If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.
Abstract

We formulate and solve a control problem where data are sent over a communication network that introduces random time delays. Past time delays are assumed known by the use of timestamps and the probability distribution of future delays are modeled with a Markov chain with continuous observation densities. We generalize previous results on LQG control of jump linear systems to cover this situation.

1. Introduction

Modern control systems often use a communication network to send measurement and control signals between nodes. A common communication network reduces the cost of cabling, and offers modularity and flexibility in systems design. Possible alternatives include CAN, Profibus, FIP, Ethernet and ATM. Communication delays in such networks can vary in a random fashion. The reason for this can be e.g. interrupt driven events, data dependent computation times, use of dynamic schedules, collisions or varying network load.

In previous papers we have addressed the problem of analysis of given control laws using Markov chain theory. In this contribution we present the optimal linear quadratic controller. This is a generalization of old results in jump linear systems and the results in Nilsson (1996) and Nilsson et al. (1996) where the LQG-problem is solved with the assumption that the time delays are independent from sample to sample. It was also shown how timestamps can be used in the LQG-controller. In Nilsson and Bernhardsson (1996) it is shown how to analyze a given controller when the delays are modeled using the Markov chain setup in Section 1.2.

1.1 Jump Linear Systems

Jump linear systems can in discrete time be written as

\[ x_{k+1} = A(r_k)x_k + B(r_k)u_k, \]

where \( A(r_k) \) and \( B(r_k) \) are functions of the state \( r_k \) in a Markov chain. Jump linear systems was introduced in the 60’s by Krasovskii and Lidskii (1961). The LQ-problem was solved by Sworder (1969).

Since then much work have been done for Jump linear systems, see Ji et al. (1991) for a survey. Recent work include solutions in terms of Linear Matrix Inequalities, see e.g. Rami and Ghaoui (1997). In our setup each Markov state corresponds to a given continuous probability distribution of the time delays. This is a popular, efficient model class in e.g. speech recognition, see the review paper Rabiner (1989) but has to our knowledge not been used in the control field of jump linear systems.

The resulting controller is of a form tractable for fast implementations. It is a linear feedback with gain scheduling on last measured time delay which can be precomputed in a one-parameter table. A time-varying Kalman filter is also needed, but the special system structure makes an efficient implementation possible so that no Riccati equations have to be solved on-line. It is assumed that the state of the Markov chain is known at time of control. If the state is unknown it can be estimated using standard methods from Hidden Markov Models, see Elliot et al. (1995), but the form of the optimal controller is not known.

1.2 Models of Real Time Communication Networks

We will study a model that captures the dependency between successive time delays. This gives a quite flexible model class for which it is possible to derive analytical results of optimal controllers, the separation principle holds and which allows model identification using well established methods from e.g. speech recognition. It is important to keep the number, \( s \), of Markov states low. The reason for this is
that the number of transition probabilities that must be identified grows like $s^2$ and the computational time can grow like $s^6$.

**Example 1—Simple Network Model**

To get a simple network model we can let the network have three states, one for low network load, one for medium network load, and one for high network load. In Figure 1 the transitions between different states in the communication network are modeled with a Markov chain. Together with every state in the Markov chain we have a corresponding delay distribution modeling the delay for that network state. These distributions could typically look like the probabilistic distributions in Figure 2.

![Figure 1](image1)

**Figure 1** An example of a Markov chain modeling the state in a communication network. $L$ is the state for low network load, $M$ the state for medium network load, and $H$ is the state for high network load. The arrows show possible transitions in the system.

![Figure 2](image2)

**Figure 2** The delay distributions corresponding to the states of the Markov chain in Figure 1. Here $L$ is the state for low network load, $M$ the state for medium network load, and $H$ is the state for high network load.

### 1.3 Timestamps and Clock Synchronization

The time delays are unknown in advance. At time $k$ it is however possible to have information about old, or some of the old, time delays. For some networks (such as CAN) this information can be obtained directly, for others it can be achieved by so called timestamps. The idea is to adjoin the time of generation to each signal sent. The receiver can then compare the timestamp with his local clock and calculate the time delay. In some cases arrival information need to be sent back to the controller node. This requires reliable, synchronized clocks. The implementation of this is a research area in itself. For us it suffices to know that such synchronized clocks can under reasonable assumptions be implemented with low cost, see Mills (1991).

### 1.4 Control of Systems with Varying Time Delays

This section gives a short summary of previous work on systems with varying time delays, see the references for a thorough review.

**Make the System Time-Invariant**

An approach to make the closed loop system time-invariant was presented in Luck and Ray (1990). The idea is to introduce buffers of the same length as the worst case delays at the controller and actuator node. The problem with this method is that it makes the delays longer than necessary, which can degrade control performance, see Nilsson et al. (1996).

**Stochastic Approaches**

In Liou and Ray (1991) a setup with a time skew between the sensor and controller is studied. The resulting process description is

$$x_{k+1} = A_k x_k + B_k u_k,$$

where $A_k$ and $B_k$ are random due to the random delays. An LQ-optimal controller is presented, but it is not known whether the separation principle applies.

In Krtolica et al. (1994) a problem with the delays as a multiple of the sampling interval is studied. The number of sampling intervals the signals are delayed is modeled with a Markov chain. Necessary and sufficient conditions for zero-state mean-square exponential stability are derived.

### 2. Problem Formulation

In this section we will setup the network and plant model for the system in Figure 3. It is assumed that the sensor node is sampled regularly at a constant sampling period $h$. The measurement are sent via the network to the controller node. The controller node is assumed to be event driven, i.e. upon arrival to the controller node the control signal is calculated and sent via the network to the actuator node. The computation time, $\tau_c$, is included in $\tau_{ca}$. The actuator node is assumed to be event driven, i.e. the control signal will be used as soon as it arrives.

#### 2.1 The Markov Communication Network

The network delays are collected in the variable $\tau_k$, where $\tau_k$ is a random variable with probability distribution given by the state of a Markov chain.
For instance, \( \tau_k \) can be a vector with the delays in the loop, i.e., \( \tau_k = [\tau_{sc}^c, \tau_{ca}^c]^T \). The Markov chain has the state \( r_k \in \{1, \ldots, s\} \) when \( \tau_k \) is generated. The Markov chain then makes a transition between \( k \) and \( k+1 \). The transition matrix for the Markov chain is \( Q = \{ q_{ij} \}, i,j \in \{1, \ldots, s\} \), where
\[
q_{ij} = P(r_{k+1} = j \mid r_k = i).
\]
Introduce the Markov state probability
\[
\pi_i(k) = P(r_k = i),
\]
and the Markov state distribution vector 
\[
\pi(k) = [\pi_1(k) \quad \pi_2(k) \ldots \quad \pi_s(k)].
\]
The probability distribution for \( r_k \) is given by the recursion
\[
\pi(k+1) = \pi(k)Q
\]
\[
\pi(0) = \pi_0,
\]
where \( \pi_0 \) is the probability distribution for \( r_0 \).

### 2.2 Discrete Time System

The controlled process is assumed to be linear of the form
\[
\frac{dx}{dt} = Ax(t) + Bu(t) + v(t),
\]
where \( x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \), \( u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^m \), \( v(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and where \( A \) and \( B \) are matrices of appropriate sizes. The controlled input is denoted by \( u(t) \) and \( v(t) \) is white noise with zero mean and covariance \( R_v \). As a simplification we will assume that the delay from sensor to actuator always is less than the sampling period \( h \), i.e., \( \tau_{sc}^c + \tau_{ca}^c < h \). If this condition is not satisfied control signals may arrive at the actuator in corrupted order, which makes the analysis much harder. The influence from the network is collected in the variable \( \tau_k \) which has a probability distribution governed by an underlying Markov chain. Discretizing (2) in the sampling instants, see Åström and Wittenmark (1990), gives
\[
x_{k+1} = \Phi x_k + \Gamma_0(\tau_k)u_k + \Gamma_1(\tau_k)u_{k-1} + v_k,
\]
where
\[
\Phi = e^{Ah},
\]
\[
\Gamma_0(\tau_{sc}^c, \tau_{ca}^c) = \int_0^{h-\tau_{sc}^c-\tau_{ca}^c} e^{As}dB, \quad \Gamma_1(\tau_{sc}^c, \tau_{ca}^c) = \int_0^{h-\tau_{sc}^c-\tau_{ca}^c} e^{As}dB.
\]
The output equation is
\[
y_k = Cx_k + w_k,
\]
where \( y_k \in \mathbb{R}^p \). The stochastic processes \( v_k \) and \( w_k \) are uncorrelated white noise with zero mean and covariance matrices \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \) respectively.

**Remark:** The assumption that the delays from sensor to actuator are less than \( h \) can be changed to that the variation in the delays from sensor to controller are less than \( h \). This generalization requires that the process state is extended with some old control signals.

### 2.3 Delay Distributions

Let \( \mathcal{F}_k \) denote the sigma algebra generated by the random components up to time \( k \), i.e.,
\[
\mathcal{F}_k = \{ e_0, \ldots, e_k, \tau_0, \ldots, \tau_k, r_0, \ldots, r_k \}.
\]
The probability distribution of \( \tau_k \) is assumed given by the state \( r_k \) of the Markov chain, i.e.,
\[
P(\tau_k \in F \mid \mathcal{F}_k) = P(\tau_k \in F \mid r_k)
\]
for all measurable sets \( F \). Markov chains with continuous observation densities will be used. Figure 2 shows the probability distribution
\[
f_i(\tau_k) = P(\tau_k \mid r_k = i)
\]
for \( i = 1, 2, 3 \) corresponding to low, medium, and high load on the network. Note that discrete observation densities are covered as a special case obtained by letting \( f_i \) be a sum of Dirac functions.

### 3. Optimal LQG Control — Markov Communication Networks

#### 3.1 Optimal State Feedback

In this section we solve the control problem set up by the cost function
\[
J_N = x_N^T Q_N x_N + E \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \left[ x_k \right]^T \left[ u_k \right] Q_k \left[ x_k \right] \left[ u_k \right],
\]
where

\[ Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{12} \\ Q_{12}^T & Q_{22} \end{bmatrix} \]  

(9)

is symmetric, positive semi-definite, and \( Q_{22} \) is positive definite. The solution of this problem follows by the same technique as for the standard LQ problem. We have the following result:

**THEOREM 1—OPTIMAL STATE FEEDBACK**

Given the plant (3), with noise free measurement of the state vector \( x_k \), i.e., \( y_k = x_k \), and knowledge of the Markov state \( r_k \). The control law that minimizes the cost function (8) is given by

\[ u_k^* = -L_k(\tau_k^{sc}, r_k) \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ u_{k-1}^* \end{bmatrix} \]  

(10)

where, for \( r_k = i, i = 1, \ldots, s \), we have

\[ L_k(\tau_k^{sc}, i) = (Q_{22} + \tilde{S}_i^{22}(k + 1))^{-1} \cdot (Q_{12}^T + \tilde{S}_i^{21}(k + 1) \tilde{S}_i^{23}(k + 1)) \]

\[ \tilde{S}_i(k + 1) = \text{E}_{\tau_k} \left[ G^T \sum_{j=1}^s q_j S_j(k + 1) G \right] \tau_k^{sc}, r_k = i \]

\[ G = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi & 0 \\ \Gamma_0(\tau_k^{sc}, r_k) & \Gamma_1(\tau_k^{sc}, r_k) \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ S_i(k) = \text{E}_{\tau_k} \left[ F_1^T Q F_1 + F_2^T \tilde{S}_i(k + 1) F_2 \right] r_k = i \]

\[ F_1 = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -L(\tau_k^{sc}, r_k) & I \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ F_2 = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -L(\tau_k^{sc}, r_k) & I \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ S_i(N) = \begin{bmatrix} Q_N & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \]

\( \tilde{S}^{ab}_i(k) \) is block \((a, b)\) of the symmetric matrix \( \tilde{S}_i(k) \), and \( Q_{ab} \) is block \((a, b)\) of \( Q \).

**EXAMPLE 2—VARIABLE DELAY LQ-DESIGN**

Consider the closed loop system in Figure 4. Assume that the distribution of the communication delay \( \tau_k \) from controller to actuator is given by the state \( r_k \) of a Markov chain. The Markov chain has two states, see Figure 5. The delay is

\[ \tau_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r_k = 1, \\
\text{rect}(d - a, d + a) & \text{if } r_k = 2, \end{cases} \]

(11)

where \( \text{rect}(d - a, d + a) \) denotes a uniform distribution on the interval \([d - a, d + a]\). It is also assumed that \( d - a > 0 \) and \( d + a < h \). The controlled process is

\[ \begin{cases} \dot{x} = x + u + e \\
y = x \end{cases} \]

Discretizing the process in the sampling instants determined by the sensor we get

\[ x_{k+1} = \Phi x_k + \Gamma_0(\tau_k) u_k + \Gamma_1(\tau_k) u_{k-1} + \Gamma e_k \]
where
\[
\Phi = e^{h},
\]
\[
\Gamma_0(\tau_k) = \begin{cases} 
  e^{h} - 1, & \text{if } r_k = 1, \\
  e^{h-\tau_k} - 1, & \text{if } r_k = 2.
\end{cases}
\]
\[
\Gamma_1(\tau_k) = \begin{cases} 
  0, & \text{if } r_k = 1, \\
  e^{h-\tau_k}(e^{\tau_k} - 1), & \text{if } r_k = 2.
\end{cases}
\]

This is a system where we can use the derived synthesis method. The design is made by setting up a cost function to be minimized. Here we will use (8) with

\[
Q_{11} = C^T C = 1 \quad Q_{12} = 0 \quad Q_{22} = 1.
\]

As we in this example only have statistical information about the control delay when we calculate the control signal the controller will not be a function of \(\tau_k\). The optimal control will be

\[
u_k = -L(r_k) \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ u_{k-1} \end{bmatrix},
\]

where \(r_k\) is the state of the Markov chain. In this example the Markov chain state is assumed known when the control signal is calculated. Solving the coupled Riccati equations in Theorem 1 gives \(L(r_k)\).

In Figure 6 the stationary LQ-cost is evaluated in the \(q_1-q_2\) space for \(h = 0.3, d = 0.8h\) and \(a = 0.1h\). From Figure 6 it can be observed that the most advantageous cases for control is when \(q_1\) is close to 1, and when both \(q_1\) and \(q_2\) are close to 0. In both these cases we have what can be called a “close to deterministic system”. If \(q_1\) is close to 1 we will be in the no delay state most of the time. In the other case where both \(q_1\) and \(q_2\) are small we will switch between state 1 and state 2 every sample, which could be characterized as a deterministic system with period 2 samples.

### 3.2 Optimal State Estimate

It is often impossible to get full state information. A common solution to this is to construct a state estimate from the available data. In our setup there is the problem of the random time delays which enter (3) in a nonlinear fashion. The fact that the old time delays up to time \(k-1\) are known at time \(k\), however, allows the standard Kalman filter of the process state to be optimal. This is because \(x_0\) only depends on delays in the set \(\{\tau_0^{sc}, ..., \tau_{k-1}^{sc}, \tau_0^{ca}, ..., \tau_{k-1}^{ca}\}\), as seen from (3).

When we are to calculate an estimate of \(x_k\) we assume that we know old values of the process output and process input. These can simply be stored in the controller for later use. We also assume that old values of the transfer delays for process output measurements and control signals are known. One way to achieve this is by using timestamps, see Section 1.3. Denote the information available when the control signal \(u_k\) is calculated by \(\mathcal{Y}_k\). This has the structure

\[
\mathcal{Y}_k = \{y_0, ..., y_k, u_0, ..., u_{k-1}, \tau_0^{sc}, ..., \tau_k^{sc}, \tau_0^{ca}, ..., \tau_{k-1}^{ca}, r_0, ..., r_k\}.
\]

Notice that the sensor to controller delay \(\tau^{sc}\) at time \(k\) and older are available, but the controller to actuator delays \(\tau^{ca}\) are only known up to time \(k-1\).

The state estimator that minimizes the error covariance is given in the following theorem.

**Theorem 2—Optimal State Estimate**

Given the plant (3)–(7). The estimator

\[
\hat{x}_{k|k} = \hat{x}_{k|k-1} + \mathbf{K}_k(y_k - C\hat{x}_{k|k-1})
\]

with

\[
\hat{x}_{k+1|k} = \Phi \hat{x}_{k|k-1} + \Gamma_0(\tau_k^{sc}, \tau_k^{ca})u_k + \Gamma_1(\tau_k^{sc}, \tau_k^{ca})u_{k-1} + K_k(y_k - C\hat{x}_{k|k-1})
\]

\[
\hat{x}_{0|0} = E(x_0)
\]

\[
P_{k+1} = \Phi P_k \Phi^T + R_1
\]

\[
- \Phi P_k C^T [CP_k C^T + R_2]^{-1} CP_k \Phi
\]

\[
P_0 = R_0 = E(x_0 x_0^T)
\]

\[
K_k = \Phi P_k C^T [CP_k C^T + R_2]^{-1}
\]

\[
\mathbf{K}_k = P_k C^T [CP_k C^T + R_2]^{-1}
\]

minimizes the state estimate error variance \(E[(x_k - \hat{x}_k)^T(x_k - \hat{x}_k) \mid \mathcal{Y}_k]\). Note that the filter gains \(K_k\) and \(\mathbf{K}_k\) do not depend on \(\tau^{sc}\) and \(\tau^{ca}\). Moreover, the estimation error is Gaussian with zero mean and covariance \(P_{k|k} = P_k - P_k C^T [CP_k C^T + R_2]^{-1} CP_k\).
3.3 Optimal Output Feedback

The following theorem states that the combination of Theorem 1 and Theorem 2 is optimal.

**THEOREM 3—SEPARATION PROPERTY**

Given the plant $H_3$ known when the control signal is calculated. The controller that minimizes the cost function $H_8$ is given by

$$u_k^* = -L(x_{k|k}^c, r_k) \left[ \hat{x}_{k|k} \right]$$

(13)

with

$$L(x_{k|k}^c, r_k) = (Q_{22} + \tilde{S}_{i}^{22}(k + 1))^{-1} \cdot [Q_{12}^T + \tilde{S}_{i}^{21}(k + 1) \tilde{S}_{i}^{23}(k + 1)]$$

where $\tilde{S}_i(k)$ is calculated as in Theorem 1, and $\hat{x}_{k|k}$ is the minimum variance estimate from Theorem 2.

4. Future Work

Future work will include:

- Studies of how the system performs if the state of the Markov chain is not known. In this case the network model will be a hidden Markov model.
- Experimental verification of the results on a research platform for distributed control.

References


