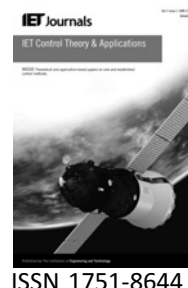


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Resource optimisation in a wireless sensor network with guaranteed estimator performance*

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Abstract: New control paradigms are needed for large networks of wireless sensors and actuators in order to efficiently utilise system resources. In this study, the authors consider the problem of discrete-time state estimation over a wireless sensor network. Given a tree that represents the sensor communications with the fusion centre, the authors derive the optimal estimation algorithm at the fusion centre, and provide a closed-form expression for the steady-state error covariance matrix. They then present a tree reconfiguration algorithm that produces a sensor tree that has low overall energy consumption and guarantees a desired level of estimation quality at the fusion centre. The authors further propose a sensor tree construction and scheduling algorithm that leads to a longer network lifetime than the tree reconfiguration algorithm. Examples are provided throughout the paper to demonstrate the algorithms and theory developed.

1 Introduction

Wireless sensor networks (WSNs) have attracted much attention in the past decade, which can be used for environment and habitat monitoring, health care, home and office automation, traffic control and so on [1]. In WSN, there is an economic incentive towards using off-the-shelf sensors and standardised communication solutions. A consequence of this is that the individual hardware components might be of relatively low quality and that communication resources are quite limited. Thus a single sensor may not be enough to provide a desired level of estimation quality, and data fusion from multiple sensors is often required.

Estimation and control over such resource-constrained networks thus require new design paradigms beyond

traditional sampled-data control. For example, consider the problem of state estimation over such a network using a Kalman filter. The Kalman filter [3] is a well-established methodology for model-based fusion of sensor data [4]. Kalman filtering under certain information constraints, such as decentralised implementation, has been extensively studied [5]. The interaction between Kalman filtering and how data are routed on a network seems to be less studied.

Another issue inherent with WSN is the limited energy resource available at each sensor node, which is typically battery powered. Periodically changing the battery is often difficult and expensive and sometimes even impossible. Thus any good design must fully consider the energy resource constraint and minimise the sensor energy consumption as much as possible.

Sensor network energy minimisation is typically done via efficient MAC protocol design [6], or via efficient scheduling of the sensor states [7]. A sensor transmitting

*Some preliminary results [2] of this study were presented by the same authors (excluding the second author) at the 46th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control at New Orleans, 2007.

scheduling was suggested by Chen *et al.* [8]. Lai *et al.* [9] proposed a scheme to divide the deployed sensors into disjoint subsets of sensors such that each subset can complete the mission, and then maximise the number of such disjoint subsets.

In this paper, we consider the problem of centralised state estimation while considering sensor energy constraint. The main contributions are summarised as follows:

1. Given a tree that represents the sensors' communications with the fusion centre, we derive the optimal estimation algorithm at the fusion centre, and we provide a closed-form expression on the steady-state error covariance matrix.
2. We present a tree reconfiguration algorithm that produces a sensor tree having low overall energy consumption and providing a desired level of estimation quality at the fusion centre.
3. We propose a sensor tree construction and scheduling algorithm that leads to a longer network lifetime than the tree reconfiguration algorithm.

Routing protocols have been widely investigated in the literature. The main efforts have concentrated towards defining protocols that discover routes on demand using local and scalable technique, while avoiding the overhead of storing routing tables or other expensive information such as link costs or topology changes. The main challenge in those works is in discovering paths that are both time and energy efficient, meaning that the information is delivered across the network in a reasonable amount of time and at the minimum cost. Some examples include energy-aware routing, attributed-based routing, rumour routing and directed diffusion. We refer the reader to [10] for a more detailed treatment. The focus of our paper is different since we want to simultaneously solve an estimation and energy minimisation problem. More specifically, we want to find the most efficient network topology given constraints on the estimation performance measured by the estimation error covariance matrix. Differently from the works mentioned above, our network topology is static and recovered once for all as the solution of an optimisation problem.

All algorithms have low complexity, which leads to efficient design and implementation in practice. Furthermore, the low complexity brings the plug-and-play feature to the network, that is, a new tree can be calculated and dynamically formed when new sensors join the network and existing sensors quit from the network, or when the performance requirement is time varying (e.g. see the example in Section 4.3).

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. In Section 2, we give the mathematical models of the considered problems, and provide some preliminary results on Kalman filtering to

facilitate the analysis in remaining sections. In Section 3, we derive the optimal estimation algorithm at the fusion centre for a given sensor tree. In Section 4, we present the a sensor tree reconfiguration algorithm. Then in Section 5, we propose a sensor tree construction and scheduling algorithm that leads to a longer lifetime than the sensor tree reconfiguration algorithm. Concluding remarks as well as future work are given in the end.

2 Problem setup and preliminaries

2.1 Problem setup

Consider the problem of state estimation over a wireless sensor network (Fig. 1). The process dynamics is described by

$$x_{k+1} = Ax_k + w_k \quad (1)$$

A wireless sensor network consisting of N sensors $\{S_1, \dots, S_N\}$ is used to measure the state. When S_i takes a measurement of the state in (1), it returns

$$y_k^i = H_i x_k + v_k^i \quad (i = 1, \dots, N) \quad (2)$$

In (1) and (2), $x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the state vector in the real n -dimensional vector space, $y_k^i \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i}$ is the observation vector at S_i , $w_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $v_k^i \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i}$ are zero-mean Gaussian random vectors with $\mathbb{E}[w_k w_k^T] = \delta_{kj} Q$, $Q \geq 0$, $\mathbb{E}[v_k^i v_k^{i'}] = \delta_{kt} \Pi_i$, $\Pi_i > 0$, $\mathbb{E}[v_k^i v_k^{j'}] = 0 \forall t, k$ and $i \neq j$, $\mathbb{E}[w_k v_k^{i'}] = 0 \forall i, t, k$, where $\delta_{kj} = 0$, if $k \neq j$ and $\delta_{kj} = 1$ otherwise. We assume that (A, \sqrt{Q}) is controllable, and (A, C_{all}) is observable, where $C_{\text{all}} = [H_1, \dots, H_N]$, that is, the joint measurement matrix of all sensors.

Each sensor can potentially communicate via a single-hop connection with a subset of all the sensors by adjusting its transmission power. We assume that the communication links are perfect in this paper in the sense that data packets travelling on the links will not be dropped. Thus, we will not consider the effect of interference or fading and so on. Let us introduce a fusion centre, which we denote as S_0 , and consider a tree T with root S_0 (see Fig. 2). We suppose that there is a non-zero single-hop communication delay,

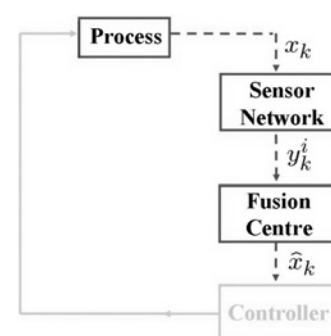


Figure 1 State estimation using a wireless sensor network

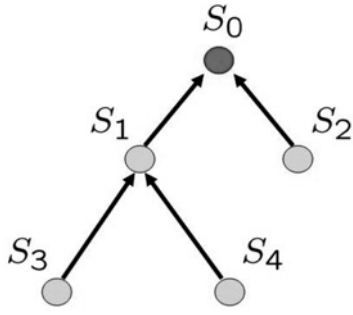


Figure 2 An example of a sensor tree

which is smaller than the sampling time of the process. All sensors are synchronised in time, so the data packet transmitted from S_i to S_0 is delayed one sample when compared with the parent node of S_i . We also assume that S_i aggregates the previous time data packets from all its child nodes with its current time measurement into a single data packet. Therefore only one data packet is sent from S_i to its parent node at each time k .

2.2 Problems of interest

We are interested in the following problems. The first one is how should the fusion centre process the measurement data from the sensors that arrive at different times (due to the multi-hop communications) such that the estimation error is minimised?

The second problem is related to the energy constraint on the sensor nodes. Apparently, to minimise the energy consumption, sensors should only use minimum transmission energy and communicate with their nearby neighbours; on the other hand, the many short-hop communications introduce many delays when delivering the data to the fusion centre. As delays deteriorate the estimation quality, there is a clear trade-off between how much energy the sensors should spend and how good the estimation quality is at the fusion centre. We are thus interested in seeking a low-energy sensor tree, which still guarantees a desired level of estimation quality at the fusion centre.

When all sensors need to participate in the estimation, minimising the total energy consumption might not lead to a longer lifetime of the network as demonstrated by the example in Section 5.3. Therefore we are also interested in schemes that can maximise the network lifetime.

In Sections 3–5, we provide answers to the above three problems, respectively. Before we present the main result of the paper, we briefly introduce the standard Kalman filtering upon which our optimal estimation algorithm for solving the first problem relies.

2.3 Kalman filtering preliminaries

Consider the process in (1) with the following single-sensor measurement equation

$$y_k = C_k x_k + v_k \tag{3}$$

where v_k is zero-mean Gaussian random vectors with $\mathbb{E}[v_k v_j'] = \delta_{kj} R_k$, $R_k > 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[w_k v_j'] = 0 \forall j, k$. Note that we consider time-varying C_k and R_k here. The Kalman filter in its most general form can assume time-varying A and Q . The special form we look at here suffices for deriving the optimal estimation algorithms in later sections.

Assume a linear estimator receives y_k and computes the optimal state estimate at each time k . Let \mathbf{Y}_k denote all measurements available at the estimator at time k . Further define

$$\hat{x}_k \triangleq \mathbb{E}[x_k | \mathbf{Y}_k] \tag{4}$$

$$P_k \triangleq \mathbb{E}[(x_k - \hat{x}_k)(x_k - \hat{x}_k)' | \mathbf{Y}_k] \tag{5}$$

$$\bar{P} \triangleq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} P_k, \text{ if the limit exists} \tag{6}$$

It is well known that \hat{x}_k and P_k can be computed as

$$(\hat{x}_k, P_k) = \mathbf{KF}(\hat{x}_{k-1}, P_{k-1}, y_k, C_k, R_k)$$

where \mathbf{KF} denotes the Kalman filter, which consists of the following update equations at time k

$$\hat{x}_k^- = A \hat{x}_{k-1} \tag{7}$$

$$P_k^- = A P_{k-1} A' + Q \tag{8}$$

$$K_k = P_k^- C_k' [C_k P_k^- C_k' + R_k]^{-1} \tag{9}$$

$$\hat{x}_k = \hat{x}_k^- + K_k (y_k - C_k \hat{x}_k^-) \tag{10}$$

$$P_k = (I - K_k C_k) P_k^- \tag{11}$$

Let \mathbb{S}_+^n be the set of n by n positive semi-definite matrices. For functions $f_1, f_2: \mathbb{S}_+^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_+^n$, define $f_1 \circ f_2$ as

$$f_1 \circ f_2(X) \triangleq f_1(f_2(X)) \tag{12}$$

Further define the functions $b, \tilde{g}_{[C,R]}, g_{[C,R]}: \mathbb{S}_+^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_+^n$ as

$$b(X) \triangleq A X A' + Q \tag{13}$$

$$\tilde{g}_{[C,R]}(X) \triangleq X - X C' [C X C' + R]^{-1} C X \tag{14}$$

$$g_{[C,R]}(X) \triangleq b \circ \tilde{g}_{[C,R]}(X) \tag{15}$$

We write $g_{[C,R]}(X)$ and $\tilde{g}_{[C,R]}$ as g_C and \tilde{g}_C if there is no confusion on the underlying parameters R .

3 State estimation over a sensor tree

Let us define the following state estimate and other quantities at the fusion centre S_0 . For a given tree T rooted at S_0 , define $\hat{x}_k(T)$, $P_k(T)$, $\bar{P}(T)$ at S_0 similar as that in (4)–(6). We write $\hat{x}_k(T)$ as \hat{x}_k , and so on, if there is no confusion on the underlying tree T . In this section, we shall compute \hat{x}_k and P_k for a given T .

Assume the tree T has depth D . Define \mathcal{Y}_k^{k-i} as the set of all measurements available at the fusion centre for time $k-i$ at time k , $i = 0, \dots, D-1$. Let S_j be the sensor node, that is j hops away from the, fusion centre. Define

$$\Gamma_j \triangleq [H_{1j}, H_{2j}, \dots], \quad j = 1, \dots, D$$

$$C_i \triangleq [\Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_i], \quad i = 1, \dots, D$$

$$Y_j \triangleq \text{diag}\{\Pi_{1j}, \Pi_{2j}, \dots\}, \quad j = 1, \dots, D$$

$$R_i \triangleq \text{diag}\{Y_1, \dots, Y_i\}, \quad i = 1, \dots, D$$

Then the following theorem presents the optimal estimation algorithm over a sensor tree and characterises the steady-state error covariance matrices in closed-form expression.

Theorem 1 [2]: Consider a sensor tree T with depth D that is rooted at the fusion centre. Then

1. \hat{x}_k and P_k can be computed from D Kalman filters in sequence as

$$(\hat{x}_{k-D+1}, P_{k-D+1}) = \mathbf{KF}(\hat{x}_{k-D}, P_{k-D}, \mathcal{Y}_k^{k-D+1}, C_D, R_D)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(\hat{x}_{k-1}, P_{k-1}) = \mathbf{KF}(\hat{x}_{k-2}, P_{k-2}, \mathcal{Y}_k^{k-1}, C_2, R_2)$$

$$(\hat{x}_k, P_k) = \mathbf{KF}(\hat{x}_{k-1}, P_{k-1}, \mathcal{Y}_k^k, C_1, R_1)$$

2. Furthermore, the steady-state error covariance matrix \bar{P} satisfies

$$\bar{P} = \tilde{g}_{C_1} \circ g_{C_2} \circ \dots \circ g_{C_{D-1}}(P_\infty) \quad (16)$$

where P_∞ is the unique solution to $g_{C_D}(P_\infty) = P_\infty$.

4 Minimum-energy sensor tree

In this section, we seek a low-energy sensor tree that guarantees a desired level of estimation quality at the fusion centre. The following definition are used in the remaining of the paper. Define $\text{Node}(T)$ as all the nodes of T , $\text{Fam}_T(S_i)$ as the subtree of T that is rooted at S_i , $\text{Par}_T(S_i)$ as the parent node of S_i in T and $\text{Edge}(T)$ as the edges of

T , that is

$$\text{Edge}(T) \triangleq \{(S_i, S_j) : S_i \in \text{Node}(T), S_j = \text{Par}_T(S_i)\}$$

We sometimes omit the subscript T if there is no confusion on the underlying tree T , as for example, we write $\text{Fam}_T(S_i)$ simply as $\text{Fam}(S_i)$.

We assume to have an energy sensor model regulating the amount of energy expenditure for transmission and reception. Further assume that the total energy used by two sensors (one sending and the other receiving) increases as the distance between the two sensors increases [11]. Since at each time, each sensor sends and/or receives fixed number of data packets, without loss of generality, let $e_{tx}^i(T)$ be the energy cost for S_i sending a measurement packet to $\text{Par}_T(S_i)$ and $e_{rx}^i(T)$ as the energy cost for S_i receiving measurement packets from its children. The total energy cost of T per time is then given by

$$e(T) = \sum_{S_i \in T} e_{tx}^i(T) + e_{rx}^i(T) \quad (17)$$

Denote \mathcal{T}_{all} as the set of all sensor trees and let $P_{\text{desired}} \in \mathbb{S}_+^n$ be given. Since the sensors operate on batteries, it is natural to let the network operate at an energy level that is as low as possible. Thus we are interested in the following problem:

Problem 1: How can we choose the sensor tree that has the least overall energy consumption yet still provides certain desired level of estimation quality? that is

$$\min_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{all}}} e(T)$$

subject to

$$\bar{P}(T) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$$

where the inequality is in the matrix sense, that is, $P_{\text{desired}} - \bar{P}(T)$ is positive semi-definite. Cayley [12] showed that the number of all possible trees is N^{N-2} , thus solving Problem 4.1 via exhaustive search is intractable when N is large. It is also non-convex, thus finding the global optimal solution is in general difficult. To approximate the global optimal solution, we present the following tree reconfiguration algorithm.

4.1 Tree reconfiguration algorithm

The proposed tree reconfiguration algorithm (Fig. 3) consists of three subroutines. The first one is the tree initialisation algorithm, which forms an initial tree T_0 (the top rectangular block). Depending on whether T_0 provides the required estimation quality, the switching tree topology algorithm (the middle-right rectangular block) and the minimum-energy subtree algorithm (the bottom rectangular block) are executed, respectively. These algorithms are presented in detail next.

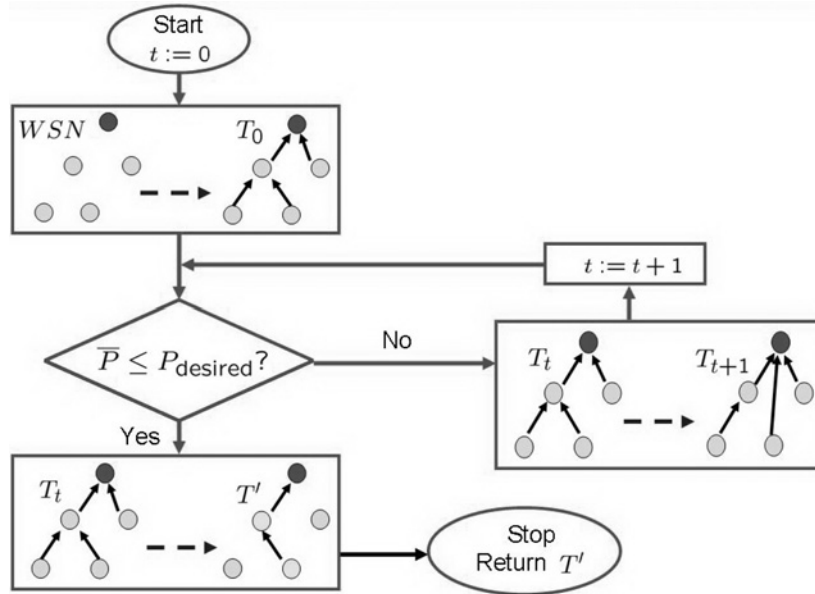


Figure 3 Tree reconfiguration algorithm

Tree initialisation algorithm: The idea contained in the tree initialisation algorithm is that the fusion center S_0 first establishes direct connections with its neighbour sensors using minimum transmission power level Δe . After that, its neighbour sensors establish further connections with their own neighbour sensors also using minimum transmission power level Δe . This process continues until a tree of depth D is formed. As a result, the complexity of the algorithm is $O(D)$. The algorithm is presented graphically in Fig. 4.

Switching tree topology algorithm: For a given tree T_t , if $\bar{P}(T_t) \not\leq P_{\text{desired}}$, the tree needs to be adjusted in a way that the estimation quality is improved. The switching tree topology algorithm provides such a way (Fig. 5). The idea is that a sensor node in T_t that is two-hops away from the fusion centre is reconfigured to directly connect with it, hence becomes only one-hop away from the fusion centre. As we prove shortly, this reconfiguration always improves the estimation quality at the fusion centre.

We define $\pi(T_t, S_i)$ as the new tree obtained by removing the edge $(S_i, \text{Par}_T(S_i))$ and inserting (S_i, S_0) . Further define

$$S_{j\text{-hop}} \triangleq \{S_i : S_i \text{ is } j\text{-hop away from } S_0\} \quad (18)$$

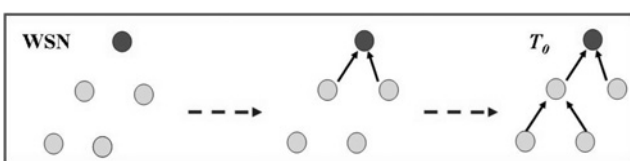


Figure 4 Tree initialisation algorithm: intuitive idea

The algorithm is given as Fig. 6, where $\text{Tr}(X)$ denotes the trace of the matrix X .

Minimum energy subtree algorithm: For a given tree T with $\bar{P}(T) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, the minimum energy subtree algorithm finds the subtree T' rooted at S_0 with the property that $\bar{P}(T') \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, and $e(T') \leq e(\tilde{T})$ for any subtree \tilde{T} of T rooted at S_0 . The idea is that all possible subtrees \tilde{T} rooted at S_0 and satisfying

$$\bar{P}(\tilde{T}) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$$

are found in an efficient way utilising the structure of T . Then the subtree T' , which has the least overall energy cost is returned. The details are as follows.

To make the presentation clear and easy to follow, we divide the algorithm into several key steps and provide an example to illustrate each step. Before introducing the algorithm, let us define $S(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p)$ as the subtree that consists of the sensor nodes $\{S_{i_1}, S_{i_2}, \dots, S_{i_p}\}$. We further define $\Omega(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p)$ as the complementary tree of $S(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p)$ in T , that is

$$\Omega(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p) = T \setminus S(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p)$$

We assume $i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \dots \leq i_p$. The following example is provided to illustrate the algorithm.

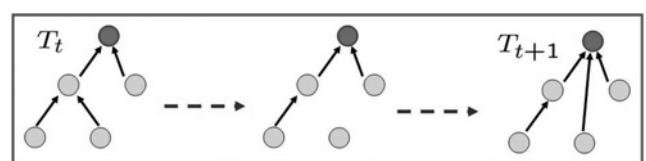


Figure 5 Switching tree topology algorithm: intuitive idea

Init: T_l .

Compute

$$S_p = \arg \min_{S_i \in \mathcal{S}_{2\text{-hop}}} \text{Tr}(\bar{P}(\pi(T_l, S_i))).$$

Return $T_{l+1} := \pi(T_l, S_p)$.

Figure 6 Switching tree topology

Example 1: Consider the tree T with four sensor nodes in Fig. 7. Assume the following:

1. $\bar{P}(T) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, that is, T provides the desired estimation quality.
2. $\bar{P}(S(i)) \not\leq P_{\text{desired}}$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$, that is, no single sensor provides the desired estimation quality.
3. $\bar{P}(S(ij)) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$ iff $\{i, j\} = \{1, 4\}$, that is, among the two sensor pairs, only $\{S_1, S_4\}$ can provide the desired estimation quality.
4. $\bar{P}(\Omega(i)) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, $i = 2, 3, 4$, that is, any three sensors except $\{S_2, S_3, S_4\}$ can provide the desired estimation quality.
5. The energy cost of a single-hop communication in T is Δe .

By the above assumptions, it is easy to see that the minimum energy subtree T' is given by \tilde{T}_4 with $e(\tilde{T}_4) = 2\Delta e$.

Let us examine the case when we take T as an input to the minimum energy subtree algorithm, which consists of the following key steps.

Step 1:

- Init: T
- $l := 0, \mathcal{D}_l := \{S_i \in T : \bar{P}(\Omega(i_p)) \leq P_{\text{desired}}\}$.

In this step, \mathcal{D}_0 holds all individual sensors without which the remaining sensors still satisfy the estimation quality constraint. Therefore in Example 1, $\mathcal{D}_0 = \{S_2, S_3, S_4\}$.

Step 2:

- $l := l + 1, \mathcal{D}_l := \mathcal{D}_{l-1}$

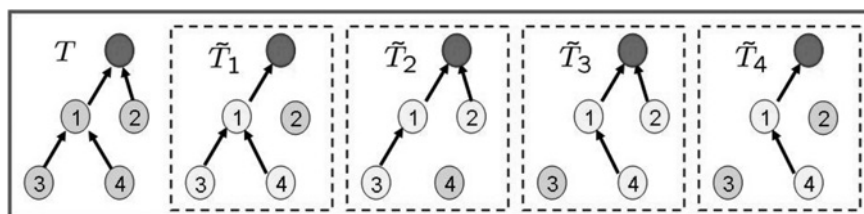


Figure 7 Tree T and some subtree \tilde{T}_s

- $\forall S_{i_p} \in \mathcal{D}_{l-1}$ with $\bar{P}(\Omega(i_p)) \leq P_{\text{desired}} - \forall q > p$ and $S_{i_q} \in \text{Fam}(S_{i_p})$, if $\bar{P}(\Omega(i_p i_q)) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, $\mathcal{D}_l := \mathcal{D}_{l-1} \cup S(i_p i_q)$.

In this step, \mathcal{D}_1 holds all single-sensor or two-sensor pairs without which the remaining sensors still satisfy the estimation quality constraint. The third line of Step 2 eliminates the redundancy in listing the subtrees as $S(i_p i_q) = S(i_q i_p)$, and if S_{i_p} is removed from a tree, so is $\text{Fam}(S_{i_p})$. Therefore in Example 1, $\mathcal{D}_1 = \{S_2, S_3, S_4, S(23)\}$.

Step 3:

- $l := l + 1, \mathcal{D}_l := \mathcal{D}_{l-1}$
- $\forall S(i_p i_q) \in \mathcal{D}_{l-1}$ with $\bar{P}(\Omega(i_p i_q)) \leq P_{\text{desired}} - \forall o > q$ and $S_o \notin (\text{Fam}(S_{i_p}) \cup \text{Fam}(S_{i_q}))$, if $\bar{P}(\Omega(i_p i_q i_o)) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, $\mathcal{D}_l := \mathcal{D}_{l-1} \cup S(i_p i_q i_o)$.

Similar to Step 3, \mathcal{D}_2 holds all single-sensor, two-sensor pairs or three sensors without which the remaining sensors still satisfy the estimation quality constraint. The algorithm continues in this way until $\mathcal{D}_r = \mathcal{D}_{r-1}$ at some step $r \leq D$.

Step: r + 1

- Return $T' = \arg \min_{\Omega(\cdot) \in \mathcal{D}} e(\Omega(\cdot))$

In Example 1, $\mathcal{D}_2 = \{S_2, S_3, S_4, S(23)\} = \mathcal{D}_1$. Hence, the algorithm stops and returns $T' = \Omega(23) = S(14) = \tilde{T}_4$ with $\bar{P}(T') \leq P_{\text{desired}}$ and $e(T') = 2\Delta e$.

Remark 1: In general, the global minimum energy tree depends on the initial tree that we start with. The particular initial tree that we choose is certainly arbitrary but has a low-energy consumption. Star tree (e.g. all sensor nodes connect to the fusion centre directly) could be another choice, which provides the least estimation error. However, it is unlikely to be the minimum energy tree. A better approach may be that start from a few random initial trees and run the algorithms simultaneously. In the end, choose the minimum energy tree from all outcomes of the algorithms. This will be the essential idea in the next section when we consider maximising network lifetime.

4.2 Performance analysis of the algorithms

The performance of the previous algorithms are summarised in the following algorithm.

Theorem 2 [2]:

1. Given a tree T_t , the switching tree topology algorithm returns $T_{t+1} \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{all}}$ such that

$$\bar{P}(T_{t+1}) \leq \bar{P}(T_t)$$

2. Given a tree T with $\bar{P}(T) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, the minimum energy subtree algorithm returns $T' \subset T$ rooted at S_0 such that

$$\bar{P}(T') \leq P_{\text{desired}} \quad \text{and} \quad e(T') \leq e(\tilde{T})$$

for any other $\tilde{T} \subset T$ that is rooted at S_0 .

3. If $\exists T \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{all}}$ such that $\bar{P}(T) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$, then the output T' from the tree reconfiguration algorithm satisfies $\bar{P}(T') \leq P_{\text{desired}}$.

4.3 Example

In this section, we provide an example to demonstrate the use of the tree reconfiguration algorithm. Consider the following process with three sensors. The dynamics of the process and sensor measurement equations are as follows

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &= 0.9x_{k-1} + w_{k-1} \\ y_k^1 &= x_k + v_k^1 \\ y_k^2 &= x_k + v_k^2 \\ y_k^3 &= x_k + v_k^3 \end{aligned}$$

with $Q = 1$, $\Pi_1 = 1.5$, $\Pi_2 = 1$ and $\Pi_3 = 0.5$.

The sensors positions are illustrated in Fig. 8. Assume that if S_i is connected to S_{i-1} , $i = 1, 2, 3$, the energy of communication is Δe ; if S_i is connected to S_{i-2} , $i = 2, 3$, the energy is $4\Delta e$ and if S_3 is connected to S_0 , the energy is $8\Delta e$. Without loss of generality, for the remaining examples, we only calculate the total transmission energy.

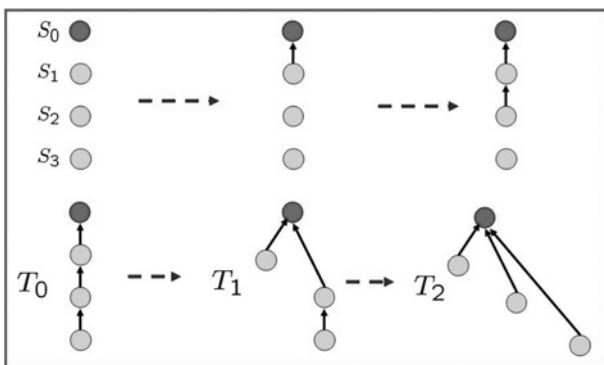


Figure 8 Different trees formed by the tree reconfiguration algorithm

Suppose the following performance specification is received by the fusion centre

$$\bar{P} \leq 0.75, 1 \leq k \leq 100$$

$$\bar{P} \leq 0.25, 101 \leq k \leq 200$$

$$\bar{P} \leq 1.0, 201 \leq k \leq 300$$

$$\bar{P} \leq 0.75, 301 \leq k \leq 500$$

Then the fusion centre can find the corresponding minimum energy tree that fulfills the performance requirement. Fig. 9 shows the simulation result when the fusion centre uses the same tree ($T_0 \setminus S_3$) all the time, and Fig. 10 shows when it reconfigures the trees according to the performance specification. It is easy to see that when $101 \leq k \leq 200$, the total energy usage increases from $2\Delta e$ to $13\Delta e$. However, the error becomes much smaller; when $201 \leq k \leq 300$, the total energy usage reduces to just Δe . Although in this case, the error becomes much larger, the performance specification is still satisfied.

5 Towards maximising sensor network lifetime

We say the sensor network is functioning if there are sufficient number of sensors that can provide the estimation equality, that is, $\bar{P} \leq P_{\text{desired}}$. We define the network

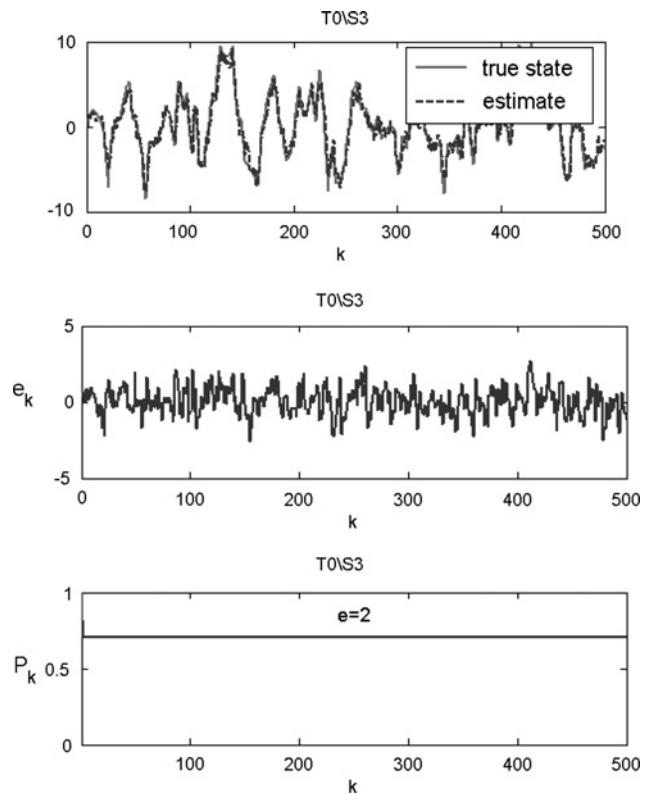


Figure 9 State and error evolution without tree reconfiguration

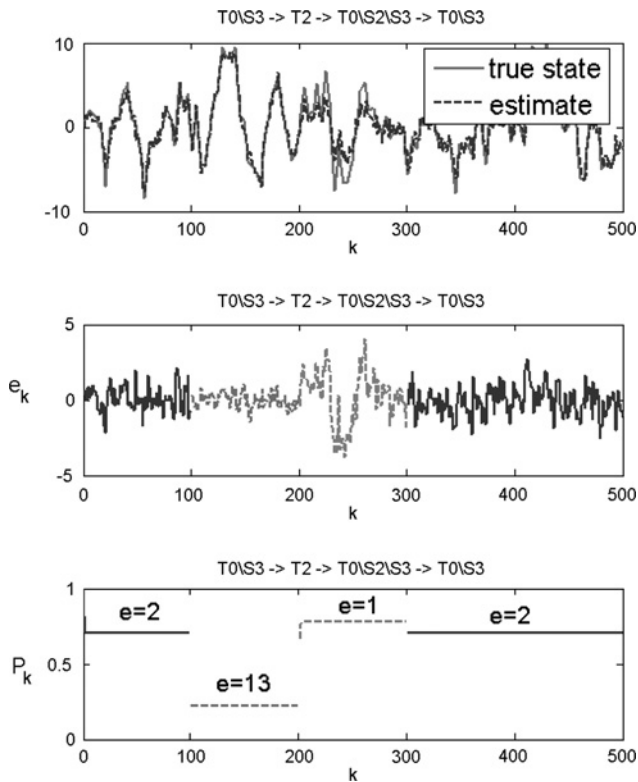


Figure 10 State and error evolution with tree reconfiguration

lifetime as the first time that the sensor network stops functioning, that is, after some sensors die because of running out of battery, the remaining sensors cannot provide the estimation equality.

In some applications, all sensors might be needed (or some high-quality sensors are always needed) for guaranteeing the estimation quality at the fusion centre. In those scenarios, although the tree configuration algorithm in the previous section minimises the total energy consumption of the sensor nodes, it may not maximise the lifetime of the network, which is given by in this case the first time that a sensor dies because of running out of battery.

For example, consider a network that consists of two sensors (Fig. 11). Assume both T_1 and T_2 in Fig. 11 satisfy

$$\bar{P}(T_i) \leq P_{\text{desired}}, \quad i = 1, 2$$

Further assume that

$$\bar{P}(S_i) \neq P_{\text{desired}}, \quad i = 1, 2$$

Let e_{ij} be the total energy cost for S_i in T_j , $i, j = 1, 2$, and let \mathcal{E}_i be the initial energy for S_i . Consider the following parameters

$$E = [e_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 1 \\ 1 & 10 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{E}_1 = \mathcal{E}_2 = 1000$$

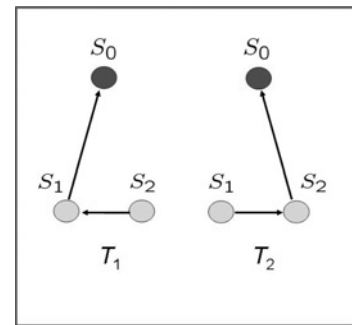


Figure 11 Network with two sensors

Denote the lifetime of the network as L . It is easy to verify that $L = 100$ when the tree reconfiguration algorithm is executed, as T_1 is the only tree used.

It turns out that we can increase L by mixing the use of T_1 and T_2 . Let $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ denote the portion of times that T_1 is used, we can show that if $0 < \alpha < 1$, then $L > 100$. It is also easy to verify that L attains its maximum value at 181 when $\alpha = 0.5$.

From this example, we see that simply minimising the total energy consumption of the sensors may not maximise the network lifetime, which is the focus of this section.

We point out in Section 4 that the set of all possible trees has cardinality N^{N-2} . Thus optimal scheduling on the N^{N-2} trees is intractable when N is large. We therefore restrict our attention to a set of $M \ll N^{N-2}$ trees, and optimally schedule those M trees instead. It turns out that choosing a set of M trees that maximises the lifetime is NP-complete. The complete proof is provided in Section 9.1 in the Appendix. We therefore propose a tree construction algorithm that generates a set of M trees followed by a scheduling algorithm on the M trees. We show that these algorithms lead to a longer lifetime than the previous tree reconfiguration algorithm.

5.1 Tree construction algorithm

The proposed tree construction algorithm consists of three main subroutines, which are the random initialisation algorithm, the topology improvement algorithm, and the tree reconfiguration algorithm from Section 4. The overall algorithm is presented in Fig. 12.

Random initialisation algorithm: For a given T that is rooted at S_0 , define $S^c(T)$ as

$$S^c(T) \triangleq \{S_i : S_i \text{ is not in } T\}$$

The intuitive idea of the random initialisation algorithm is that $S_{j\text{-hop}}, j = 1, \dots, D$, defined in (18), are randomly determined in sequence until all S_i 's are included in the tree.

After the execution of the random initialisation algorithm, an initial tree of depth D is constructed with $|S_{j\text{-hop}}| = n_j, j = 1, \dots, D$ and $\sum_{j=1}^D n_j = N$.

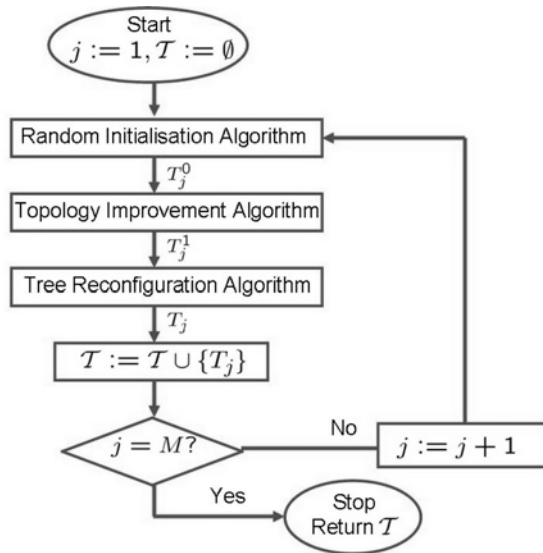


Figure 12 Tree construction algorithm

Remark 2: If $n_1 = N$, then the algorithm returns T^* , that is, all sensor nodes connect to S_0 directly.

Topology improvement algorithm: Since the previous algorithm randomly constructs the initial tree, some sensor communication paths may be established inefficiently, that is, some sensors use more energy yet need more hops to communicate with S_0 . The topology improvement algorithm aims to remove this inefficiency.

When S_i is connected to S_p , we define $\tau_{i,p}$ as the number of hops between S_i and the fusion centre S_0 , and $e_{i,p}$ as the transmission energy cost of S_i . We further define τ_0 and e_0 for S_i in the initial tree constructed by the random initialisation algorithm.

We consider modifying the path of S_i in the initial tree, where $S_i \in S_{j-hop}, j \geq 2$, only if there exists S_p in the same tree and $S_p \in S_{j-hop}, j \leq \tau_0 - 1$ such that either $e_{i,p} < e_0$ or $e_{i,p} = e_0$ and $\tau_{i,p} < \tau_0$. In these cases, S_i is connected to S_p . The first condition corresponds to reducing the energy cost of S_i yet not making the hops between S_i and S_0 larger; the second condition corresponds to making the hops between S_i and S_0 smaller yet not increasing its energy cost. Define F_i as the indicator function for S_i , and $F_i = 1$ means that S_i has already been examined for possible improvement and $F_i = 0$ otherwise. The full algorithm is presented in Fig. 13.

Notice that F_i is set to be 1 for all $S_i \in S_{j-hop}, j \leq 1$, as for those sensor nodes that are one hop away from S_0 , no improvement can be made that further reduces the energy cost (and maintains the same hop numbers) or reduces the hop numbers.

At this step, we have constructed a set of M randomised initial trees. We then use them as input to the tree

```

D := 0
T := {S_0, empty set}
forall j S_{j-hop} := empty set
S^c = {S_1, ..., S_N}
while (S^c != empty set) do
    D := D + 1
    Pick n_D from (1, |S^c|) uniformly randomly.
    l := 1
    while (l <= n_D) do
        Pick any S_p in S^c and any S_q in S_{(D-1)-hop} uniformly randomly.
        Connect S_p to S_q.
        S^c := S^c \ {S_p}
        T := T union {S_p, (S_p, S_q)}
        S_{D-hop} := S_{D-hop} union {S_p}
        l := l + 1
    end while
end while

```

Figure 13 Random initialisation

reconfiguration algorithm from Section 4.1 (ignoring its tree initialisation algorithm subroutine) to make sure that each tree provides the desired estimation quality.

Remark 3: The randomised algorithm here to a certain extent guarantees that the constructed M trees will have different energy cost of the individual sensor nodes, hence through the scheduling algorithm presented in the next section, the overall lifetime of the network is maximised in Fig. 14.

5.2 Tree scheduling algorithm

Up to now, we have constructed a set of trees \mathcal{T} and for each $T_j \in \mathcal{T}$

$$\overline{P}(T_j) \leq P_{\text{desired}}$$

Let T_0 be the low-energy tree from the tree reconfiguration algorithm in Section 4. Denote θ as a scheduling policy on $\mathcal{T} \cup \{T_0\}$, and $t_j(\theta)$ as the time that T_j is used for the policy θ . Then the network lifetime $L(\theta)$ can be computed as

$$L(\theta) = \sum_{j=0}^M t_j(\theta)$$

Consider the following optimisation problem

Problem 2:

$$\max_{t_0, \dots, t_M} \sum_{j=0}^M t_j$$

$$\forall i F_i := 0$$

$$\forall S_i \in \mathcal{S}_{j-hop}, j \leq 1, F_i := 1$$

while $\exists F_i = 0$ **do**

$$F_i := 1$$

$$\Sigma := \{S_p : S_p \in \mathcal{S}_{j-hop}, j \leq \tau_0 - 1, e_{i,p} \leq e_0\}$$

if $\Sigma \neq \emptyset$ **then**

$$\tau_{i,q} := \min\{\tau_{i,p} : S_p \in \Sigma\}$$

if $e_{i,q} < e_0$ or $(e_{i,q} = e_0$ and $\tau_{i,q} < \tau_0)$ **then**

reconnect S_i to S_q

update $\mathcal{S}_{j-hop}, j \leq \tau_{i0}$

end if

end if

end while

Figure 14 Topology improvement

subject to

$$\sum_{j=0}^M t_j e_{ij} \leq \mathcal{E}_i, i = 1, \dots, N$$

where e_{ij} is the energy consumption for sensor S_i in tree T_j and \mathcal{E}_i is the initial energy available at S_i .

Problem 2 can be solved efficiently via linear programming, as both the objective function and constraints are linear functions of the variables. We also have the following result which shows that the tree construction and scheduling algorithm leads to a longer lifetime than using the tree reconfiguration algorithm.

Lemma 1: Let the lifetime of the network via solving Problem 2 be L^* , and via T_0 alone be $L(T_0)$. Then

$$L(T_0) \leq L^*$$

with $L(T_0) = L^*$ iff $t_j^* = 0$ for all $j = 1, \dots, M$.

Proof: Assume $L(T_0) > L^*$. Then setting $t_j^* = 0$ for all $j = 1, \dots, M$ leads to a better solution than L^* , that is, $L(T_0)$. This violates the optimality assumption of L^* . \square

5.3 Example

In this section, we provide an example to demonstrate the theory and algorithms developed so far. We start by describing the process and sensor models.

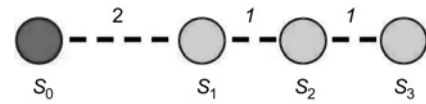


Figure 15 Initial sensor topology

Process and sensor models: We consider the process in (1) with

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.1 & 0.05 & 0.0002 \\ 0 & 1 & 0.1 & 0.05 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0.1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $Q = 0.1I$. There are three sensors available. The measurement equations are given by

$$y_k^1 = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]x_k + v_k^1$$

$$y_k^2 = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]x_k + v_k^2$$

$$y_k^3 = [1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0]x_k + v_k^3$$

with $\Pi_1 = 0.5, \Pi_2 = 0.25$ and $\Pi_3 = 0.1$. Assume the sensors are placed in a line (Fig. 15) with relative distance

$$d_{1,0} = 2, \quad d_{2,1} = 1, \quad d_{3,2} = 1$$

where $d_{p,q}$ is the distance between S_p and S_q .

Let $e_{rx}(S_p, S_q)$ be the energy cost for S_p transmitting a packet to S_q and $e_{tx}(S_p, S_q)$ be the energy cost for S_q receiving such a packet from S_p . We use the following simplified energy model

$$e_{rx}(S_p, S_q) = 1, \quad e_{tx}(S_p, S_q) = d_{p,q}^2, \\ \forall 1 \leq p, \quad q \leq 3, \quad p \neq q$$

Assume the initial energy \mathcal{E}_i available at S_i is known and given by

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = \mathcal{E}_2 = \mathcal{E}_3 = 2000$$

Let the performance specification at the fusion centre be

$$\text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T_k)) \leq 1.75, \quad \forall k$$

It is easy to verify that

$$\text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T \setminus S_2)) = 2.7062, \quad \text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T \setminus S_3)) = 3.1110$$

and $(A, [H_2; H_3])$ is not observable. Therefore all three sensors are needed in order to satisfy the estimation quality constraint.

Tree construction algorithm: Initially, we run the tree reconfiguration algorithm, which returns the initial tree T_0 as seen from Fig. 16. It is easy to verify that

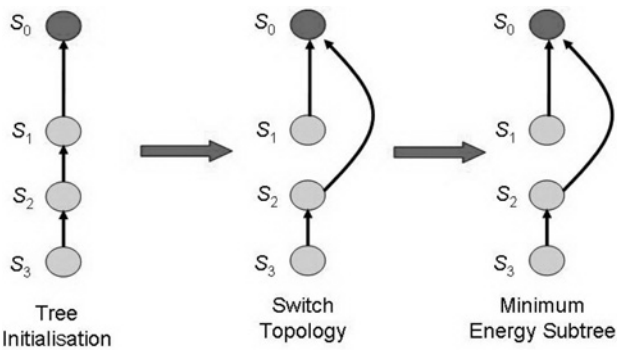


Figure 16 T_0

$\text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T_0)) = 1.5752$, which satisfies the estimation quality constraint.

We further construct three trees, that is, $M = 3$ here. Figs. 17–19 demonstrate the use of the tree construction algorithm. As a result

$$\mathcal{T} = \{T_1, T_2, T_3\}$$

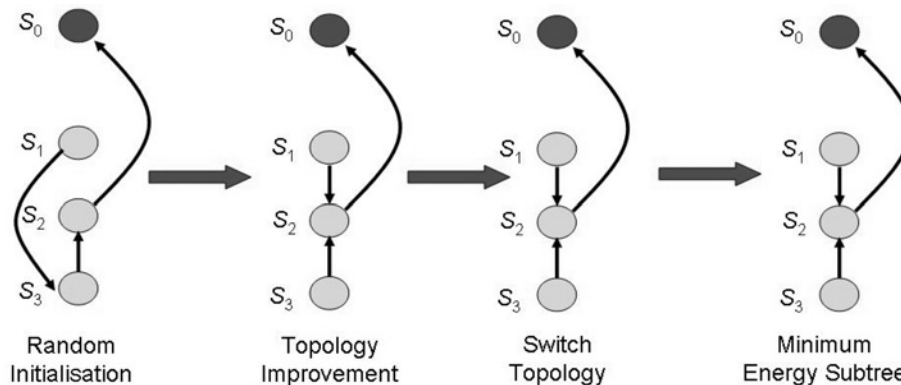


Figure 17 T_1

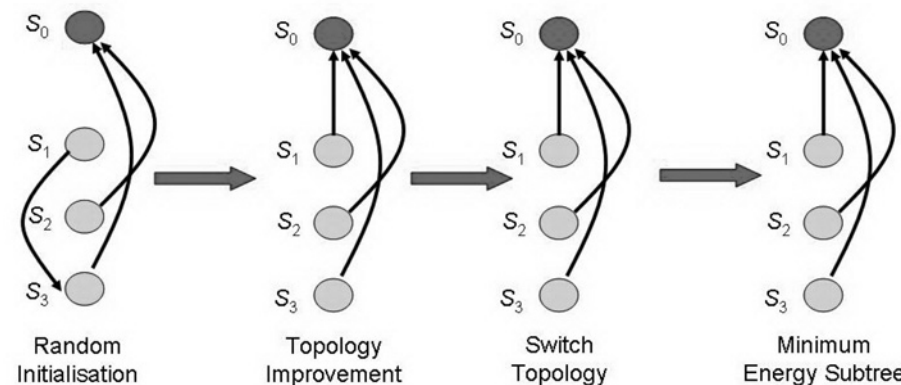


Figure 18 T_2

is returned with $\text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T_1)) = 1.6773$, $\text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T_2)) = 1.3777$, $\text{Tr}(\bar{P}(T_3)) = 1.5023$, and energy cost

$$E = [e_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 10 & 11 & 9 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 16 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $i = 1, 2, 3$ and $j = 0, 1, 2, 3$. Note that during the construction of T_1 to T_3 , only the topology improvement algorithm modifies the input tree.

Tree scheduling algorithm: Let t_j be the time that T_j will be used. In order to maximise the lifetime of the network, we solve the following scheduling problem

$$\max_{t_0, \dots, t_3} \sum_{j=0}^3 t_j$$

subject to

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 t_j e_{ij} \leq 2000, \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

$$t_j \geq 0, \quad j = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

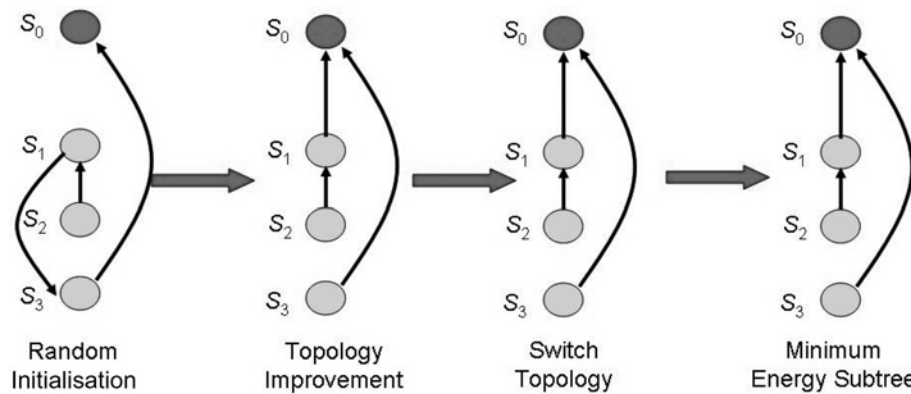


Figure 19 T_3

Solving the above problem via standard LP toolbox gives the following optimal value

$$t^* = [186 \ 0 \ 0 \ 131]$$

Therefore only T_0 and T_3 will be used, and the maximum network lifetime L^* is given by

$$L^* = \sum_{j=0}^3 t_j = t_0 + t_3 = 301$$

It is also to compute that

$$L(T_0) = 200, \quad L(T_1) = 181, \quad L(T_2) = 222, \\ L(T_3) = 125$$

Hence the network lifetime is indeed increased.

6 Conclusions

In this paper, we consider the problem of discrete-time state estimation over a wireless sensor network. We first study the problem of optimal estimation over a sensor tree, and showed that the optimal estimator is a chain of Kalman filters and the length of the chain corresponds to the depth of the tree. Closed-form expression on the steady-state error covariance is obtained, which suggests how much each sensor contributes to the overall estimation quality. Then we present a tree reconfiguration algorithm to establish a sensor tree that has low overall sensor energy consumption and also guarantees a desired level of estimation quality. After that, we propose a tree construction and scheduling algorithm, that has a longer lifetime compared with the tree reconfiguration algorithm. The idea is that a set of low-energy trees with different energy cost of individual sensors are constructed, and those trees are then scheduled in a way that the network lifetime is maximised.

There are many interesting directions along the line of the current work that will be pursued in the future.

We have assumed the communication links are perfect in the current paper in the sense that data packets travelling on the links will not be dropped. However, in many cases, especially in wireless communications, packet drops are often seen, for example, due to interference, fading and so on. We have studied the tradeoffs between measurement communication and estimate communication for a fixed sensor tree subject to random packet drops on the communication links in [13]. We will further take a look at the tradeoff between the estimation quality, the underlying graph that represents the sensor communication, the quality of the communication link and the energy cost of the sensors. We assumed synchronisation of all sensor nodes in the current work and we plan to relax this assumption in the future work. For the algorithms presented in the paper, we will give bounds on how far the solution obtained is from the global optimal solution, and also look for better algorithms. Closing the loop using the estimation algorithms developed in the paper is also interesting.

7 Acknowledgment

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9 Appendix

9.1 Optimal scheduling is NP-complete

In this section, we prove the following.

Problem 1: Show that finding the family, which maximises the network lifetime, among all families consisting of M trees, is NP-complete.

Before formalising the problem of interest, we introduce some notation. Given a set $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_N\}$ of vertices, let us denote by \mathcal{T} the family of all trees having S as vertex set. For any given integer M , we denote by \mathcal{F}_M the family of all subfamilies consisting of M trees, with each tree belonging to \mathcal{T} . Formally speaking

$$\mathcal{F}_M = \{G_i : G_i \subset \mathcal{T}, |G_i| = M\} \quad (19)$$

Let $f : 2^{\mathcal{T}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, where $2^{\mathcal{T}}$ denotes the power set of \mathcal{T} . Moreover, let us denote by (\mathcal{F}_M, f_M) the family \mathcal{F}_M endowed with the function f_M , which is obtained projecting f on \mathcal{F}_M , meaning restricting the domain of f to \mathcal{F}_M .

We now have all ingredients needed to formalise our optimisation problem of interest:

Problem 2: Given (\mathcal{F}_M, f_M) , where $f_M(G_i)$ is computable in polynomial time for any $G_i \in \mathcal{F}_M$, find

$$\max \{f_M(G_i) : G_i \in \mathcal{F}_M\} \quad (20)$$

Before proceeding with the proof of the NP-completeness, we want to relate the formal problem (2) to our original problem (1) of interest. The correspondence is as follows

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow \text{sensors of the network} \\ \mathcal{T} &\rightarrow \text{set of possible trees of sensors} \\ f_M(G_i) &\rightarrow \text{LP}(G_i) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

where $\text{LP}(G_i)$ is the solution of the linear programming problem applied to the family G_i of sensor trees, which is computable in polynomial time using, for example, the ellipsoid method. Using the correspondence given in (21), it is straightforward to check that problem (2) is the formalisation of problem (1). We next proceed with the proof of the NP-completeness. Since NP-completeness deals with decision problems, we reformulate problem (2) as the following decision problem.

$\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$ Given (\mathcal{F}_M, f_M) where $f_M(G_i)$ is computable in polynomial time for any $G_i \in \mathcal{F}_M$, and a real number k , where $k \geq 0$, is

$$\{f_M(G_i) : G_i \in \mathcal{F}_M\} \geq k? \quad (22)$$

If $G_i \in \mathcal{F}_M$ is such that $f_M(G_i) \geq k$, then we say that G_i satisfies the decision problem $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$.

We briefly recall the definition of NP-completeness and refer the reader to [14] for more details. We start with the following definitions:

Definition 1: Let Π be a decision problem. Then Π is said to belong to the class NP if, given a candidate solution s for the problem Π , it is possible to verify in polynomial time that s satisfies the decision problem Π .

Definition 2: Let Π_1 and Π_2 be two decision problems. We say that Π_1 is polynomially reducible to Π_2 (notation: $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_2$), whenever any instance I_1 of Π_1 can be transformed in polynomial time to an instance I_2 of Π_2 such that I_1 satisfies Π_1 if and only if I_2 satisfies Π_2 .

Roughly speaking, Definition 2 says that Π_1 is a special case of Π_2 . Thus, if $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_2$, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm that transforms an instance for Π_1 into an instance for Π_2 , that does not change the outcome.

A decision problem Π is said to be *NP-complete* if the following holds:

- (a) Π is in *NP*
- (b) $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi$ for any decision problem Π_1 in *NP*.

We first establish (a), that is that $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$ is in *NP*. Suppose that we are given a candidate solution, let us call it $G_{\text{sol}} \in \mathcal{F}_M$, for our problem. Since we can evaluate f_M on G_{sol} in polynomial time, then we can verify in polynomial time whether $f(G_{\text{sol}}) \geq K$. Thus we can verify in polynomial time whether G_{sol} satisfies $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$.

We next prove (b). We will show that the satisfiability problem can be reduced to $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$ in polynomial time. This will directly imply (b) since the satisfiability problem is well known to be NP-complete, therefore for any decision problem Π_1 in *NP*, we would have

$$\Pi_1 \leq_p \text{SAT} \leq_p \Pi_{\text{scheduling}}, \quad \forall \Pi_1 \in \text{NP} \quad (23)$$

which clearly implies

$$\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_{\text{scheduling}}, \quad \forall \Pi_1 \in \text{NP} \quad (24)$$

Before proceeding further, we give the formulation of the satisfiability decision problem.

SAT: Given $(\psi, \{0, 1\}^N)$, where ψ is a boolean formula consisting of n literals x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N , find an assignment $y \in \{0, 1\}^N$ such that $\psi(y) = 1$.

We next show that we can map an instance of **SAT** to an instance of $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$ as follows.

Cayley [12] proved that the number of spanning trees of a complete simple graph with n vertices is n^{n-2} . We use the result by Prufer [15] who noticed the fact that n^{n-2} is the number of ways to write down a string of length $n-2$ from a set S of n numbers and constructed a code (called Prufer's code) that maps polynomially such strings to labelled trees in a one-to-one correspondence.

Let $s \in \{0, 1\}^{(n-2)M}$ be a string, with $s = s_1 s_2 \dots s_M$, that is, s is obtained concatenating M strings, each having length $(n-2)$. We can associate to any string s_i its corresponding tree $T_i := \phi(s_i)$ given by the Prufer code. This gives us a family of trees of size M defined as

$$\mathcal{G}_s = \{\phi(s_1), \phi(s_2), \dots, \phi(s_M)\} \quad (25)$$

Since the time required to construct the Prufer's code for each substring s_i , $i = 1 \dots M$, is polynomial in the length n of the substring, it follows that the above construction is polynomial in n . The function f_M associated to the constructed family \mathcal{G}_s would be

$$f_M(\mathcal{G}_s) = \psi(s) \quad (26)$$

where $\psi(s)$ indicates the output of the evaluation of the boolean formula ψ on the string s . Since evaluating a boolean formula of n literals can be done polynomially, any instance s of **SAT** can be polynomially reduced to an instance $(\mathcal{G}_s, f_M(\mathcal{G}_s))$ of $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$. We set the decision boundary k in $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$ to 1.

In order to complete the proof, we need to show that a string instance s satisfies **SAT** if and only if the corresponding instance \mathcal{G}_s satisfies $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$. Assume first that a string instance s satisfies **SAT**. Then $\psi(s) = 1$. Since $f_M(\mathcal{G}_s) = \psi(s)$ by construction and since the decision boundary $k = 1$, we would have that \mathcal{G}_s satisfies $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$. Assume now that \mathcal{G}_s satisfies $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$. This means that $f_M(\mathcal{G}_s) = 1$. Since $f_M(\mathcal{G}_s) = \psi(s)$ by construction, we would have that the boolean formula ψ in **SAT** evaluates to one on the string instance s , thus it is satisfiable.

Having proven both (a) and (b), we can conclude that $\Pi_{\text{scheduling}}$ is NP-complete.