Numerical Simulation of Dynamic Systems XXVII

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This 27th and final presentation of the class on the *Numerical Simulation of Dynamic Systems* deals with "Chapter 13 of a 12-chapter book," i.e., it discusses a number of issues related to *Quantized State System (QSS) solvers* that were discovered only after the book went to print.

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Introduction

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- Also of importance are special solvers for dealing with marginally stable systems, and indeed, an F-stable QSS-based solver has also been developed since the book went to press.

Introduction II

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- Finally, a few remarks shall be offered on the use of QSS-based algorithms in real-time simulations.

Choosing the Quantum Size

Let us suppose that we wish to simulate a system in which a state variable x_1 grows from 0 to 1000, while x_2 grows from 0 to 1.

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- Consequently, an appropriate value of the quantum used for each state variable depends on the variability of that state variable.
- Unfortunately, before performing the simulation, we normally do not know, how the state variables will develop over time.

We need some mechanism to adjust the size of the quantum automatically during the simulation in accordance with the values that the state variable assumes over time.

Logarithmic Quantization

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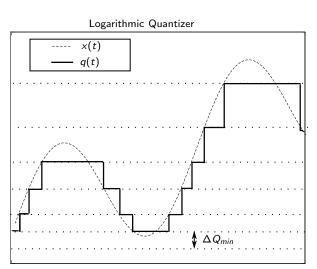
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This idea can be applied to all QSS methods.

Logarithmic Quantization

Logarithmic Quantization II



Perturbed Representation

Recall that the QSS approximation of a linear time-invariant ODE:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathsf{a}}(t) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{a}}(t) + \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{u}(t)$$

can be written as:

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Defining $\Delta x(t) \triangleq q(t) - x(t)$, we have:

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This perturbed representation does not depend on the type of quantization. However, with *logarithmic quantization*, the upper bound of $|\Delta x(t)|$ depends on the state value x(t).

Stability and Error Bound

Assume that matrix $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{\Lambda} \cdot \mathbf{V}^{-1}$ is Hurwitz, and define:

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Let ΔQ_{rel} be a diagonal matrix with entries ΔQ_{rel} , and let ΔQ_{min} be a column vector with components ΔQ_{min} . Then, provided that all eigenvalues of the matrix $\mathbf{R} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{Q}_{rel}$ lie inside the unit circle, it can be shown that:

$$|\mathbf{e}(t)| \leq (\mathbf{I^{(n)}} - \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{Q_{rel}})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{R} \cdot \max(\mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{Q_{rel}} \cdot \mathbf{x_{max}}, \mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{Q_{min}})$$

where x_{max} is the column vector of the maximum absolute values reached by each component of the analytical solution $x_a(t)$.

Relative Error Control

Logarithmic Quantization and Relative Error Control

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In this case, we obtain:

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The use of logarithmic quantization yields an intrinsic control of the relative error.

QSS Methods and Stiff Systems

The linear time-invariant system:

$$\dot{x}_1(t) = 0.01 \ x_2(t)$$

 $\dot{x}_2(t) = -100 \ x_1(t) - 100 \ x_2(t) + 2020$

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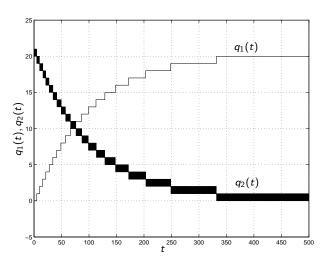
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Let us simulate this system using the QSS solver with initial conditions $x_1(0)=0$ and $x_2(0)=20$ and with the quantization $\Delta Q_1=\Delta Q_2=1$.

QSS Methods for Stiff Systems

QSS Methods and Stiff Systems

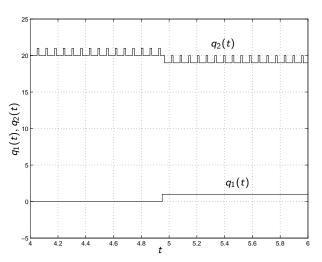
QSS Methods and Stiff Systems II



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Evidently, the QSS method is not appropriate for the simulation of stiff systems.

Backward QSS Method

Backward QSS: Basic Idea

How can we prevent oscillations?

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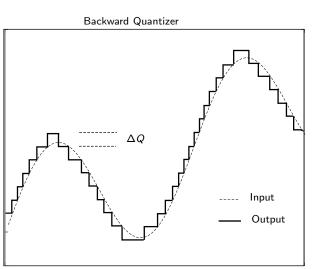
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This is an implicit algorithm, but it does not require a Newton iteration, as $q_j(t)$ can only assume one of two values at each step. The method is called Backward QSS (BQSS) solver.

QSS Methods for Stiff Systems

Backward QSS Method

Backward Quantization



Backward QSS Method

Backward Quantization II

In non-stiff QSS solvers, the trajectories of q(t) and x(t) at the beginning of the step always move away from each other. The next internal transition is scheduled to occur at time \hat{t} , where $|q(\hat{t}^-) - x(\hat{t})| = \Delta Q$. At that time, q(t) is reset to $q(\hat{t}^+) = x(\hat{t})$.

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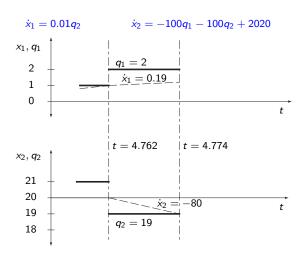
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- Higher-order stiff QSS solvers need additional provisions that shall be discussed in due course.

Backward QSS: An Example

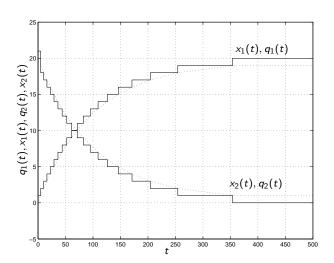
Backward QSS: An Example



QSS Methods for Stiff Systems

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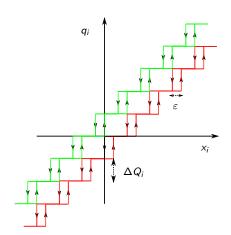
Backward QSS: An Example II



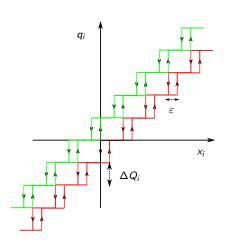
QSS Methods for Stiff Systems

Backward QSS Method

Quantization Functions in BQSS

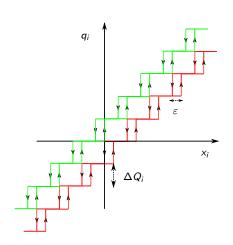


Quantization Functions in BQSS



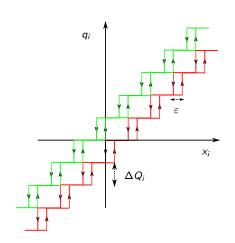
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where the components q_j of \mathbf{q} take the values of either the lower quantized state $\underline{q}_j(t)$ or the upper quantized state $\overline{q}_i(t)$, such that:

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$$f_j(\mathbf{q}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)) \cdot (q_j(t) - x_j(t)) > 0$$

$$\exists \hat{q}_j \in (\underline{q}_j(t), \overline{q}_j(t))\big|_{f_j(\hat{\mathbf{q}}^{(j)}(t), \mathbf{u}(t))} = 0$$

with
$$\hat{\mathbf{q}}^{(j)}(t) = [q_1, \dots, \hat{q}_j, \dots, q_n]^T$$
.

BQSS Definition II

In the BQSS approximation:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{q}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)) + \Delta \mathbf{f}$$

the terms Δf_i will satisfy:

$$\Delta f_j = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } f_j(\mathbf{q}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)) \cdot (q_j - x_j) > 0 \\ -f_j(\mathbf{q}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Backward QSS Method

Algorithm to Obtain q(t)

When a state $x_i(t)$ reaches the quantized state $q_i(t)$, we proceed as follows:

Algorithm to Obtain q(t)

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Algorithm:

- 1. We update \underline{q}_i and \overline{q}_i and choose $q_i = \overline{q}_i$ or $q_i = \underline{q}_i$ depending on the sign of $\dot{x}_i(t^-)$.
- 2. We evaluate the functions f_j depending on q_i .
- 3. If some f_i changes its sign:
 - We change q_i according to the new sign of \dot{x}_i .

Otherwise

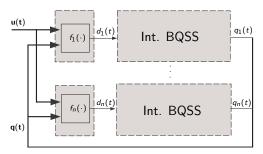
- End of the Algorithm.
- 4. We evaluate the functions f_j depending on the quantized states q_i that changed and we return to step 3.

Restriction: We do not allow any q_i to change more than once in the process.

Backward QSS Method

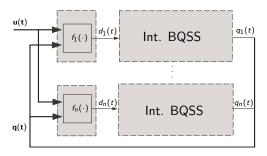
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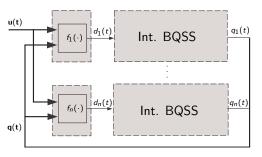
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- ▶ The static functions are the same as for QSS.
- ► The *hysteretic quantized integrators* are similar, but:
 - ightharpoonup they compute q_i in accordance with the algorithm just outlined,
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BQSS is very similar to QSS, but it has an additional *perturbation* term that enforces that $\dot{x}_i = 0$ when a consistent value for q_i cannot be found.

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▶ The global error formula of BQSS for linear time-invariant stable systems now becomes:

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Example: Second-order Linear System

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L QSS Methods for Stiff Systems
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- The number of steps grows linearly with the accuracy. Unfortunately, we have not found any way to extend the BQSS algorithm to higher orders of approximation accuracy.



Linearly Implicit QSS Methods

LIQSS: Basic Idea

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The *Linearly Implicit QSS (LIQSS)* algorithm is based on an idea very similar to that of BQSS.

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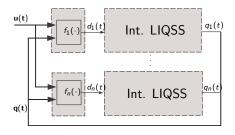
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- ▶ The search for \hat{q}_i is done in a linear manner.
- ▶ Contrary to BQSS, once we have computed a new value for q_j , no further internal transition will be scheduled, until x_j has advanced by $\pm \Delta Q_j$, even if the sign of \dot{x}_j changes during the step.

QSS Methods for Stiff Systems

Linearly Implicit QSS Methods

LIQSS and PowerDEVS

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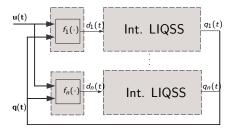


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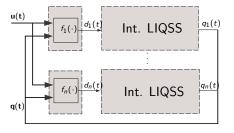
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- ► The static functions are the same as for QSS and BQSS.
- ► The *hysteretic quantized integrators* are similar, but:
 - before they output a new value for q_i, they estimate the value of the derivative x

 i that each of the two options would produce;
 - if one of them has the correct sign, i.e., $x_i \rightarrow q_i$, that value is chosen;
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USS Methods for Stiff Systems

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Stability and Error Bound of LIQSS

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The properties of LIQSS are almost identical to those of QSS, but the error bound is twice the error bound of QSS.

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Example: Second-order Linear System

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- ▶ LIQSS only looks at the main diagonal of the Jacobian matrix, allowing it sometimes to happen that \dot{x}_j changes its direction without causing a modification of q_j . In such cases, LIQSS can provoke oscillations depending on the system structure, i.e., the algorithm may lose its stiffly-stable nature.

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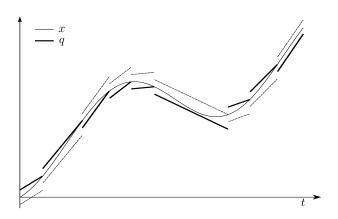
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Linearly Implicit QSS Methods

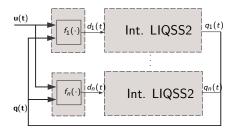
LIQSS2: Trajectories



Linearly Implicit QSS Methods

LIQSS2 and PowerDEVS

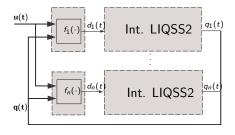
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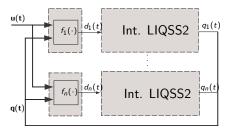
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LIQSS2 and PowerDEVS

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- ▶ The *static functions* are the same as for QSS2.
- ► The *hysteretic quantized integrators* are similar, but:
 - before they output a new value for q_i , they estimate the value of the second derivative \ddot{x}_i that each of the two options would produce;
 - if one of them has the correct sign, i.e., $x_i \rightarrow q_i$, that value is chosen;
 - otherwise, the value \hat{q}_i is estimated that makes $\ddot{x}_i = 0$.

Stability and Error Bound of LIQSS2

Given the system:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t))$$

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The properties of LIQSS2 are identical to those of LIQSS.

Eigenvalues

 $\lambda_1 = -0.01; \\ \lambda_2 = -99.99$

Example: Second-order Linear System

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$$\lambda_1 = -0.01;$$

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Initial states

$$x_1(0) = 0; x_2(0) = 20$$

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Quantization

S1
$$\Delta Q_{1,2} = 1$$

S2 $\Delta Q_{1,2} = 0.1$
S3 $\Delta Q_{1,2} = 0.01$

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Number of Events

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Quantization

- $\Delta Q_{1,2} = 1$
- S2 $\Delta Q_{1,2}^{-7} = 0.1$ S3 $\Delta Q_{1/2} = 0.01$

- Number of Events $x_1 : 5; x_2 : 8$ S2 x₁: 18; x₂: 22
- S3 x₁:57; x₂:65

Error Bound

- $\begin{array}{lll} \text{S1} & e_1 \leq 2; & e_2 \leq 6 \\ \text{S2} & e_1 \leq 0.2; & e_2 \leq 0.6 \\ \text{S3} & e_1 \leq 0.02; & e_2 \leq 0.06 \end{array}$

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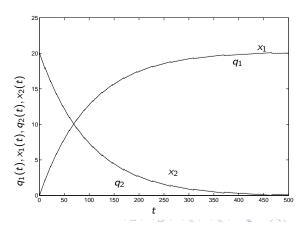
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Some remarks:

▶ The number of steps grows inversely proportional to the *square root of the quantization*.

Example: Second-order Linear System II

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- ▶ The theoretical error bound is conservative in this example.

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QSS Methods for Stiff Systems

Linearly Implicit QSS Methods

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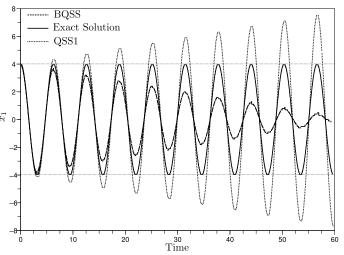
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Let us check what happen with QSS and BQSS.

☐ QSS Methods for Marginally Stable Systems ☐ QSS and BQSS and Marginally Stable Systems

QSS, BQSS and Marginally Stable Systems



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Evidently, neither of the two methods is suited for the simulation of marginally stable systems.

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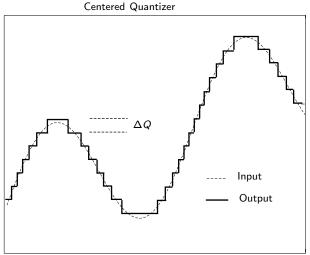
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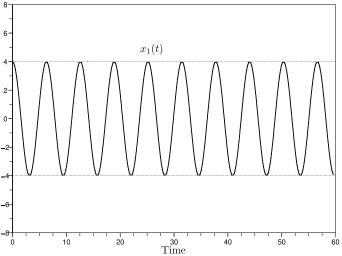
Let us see what happens if we take q_j as the *mean* value between the last and the next quantized values, i.e., if we choose q_j in the middle of the quantization interval. We shall call this new method *Centered QSS (CQSS) solver*.

Centered Quantization



LQSS Methods for Marginally Stable Systems
Centered QSS Method

CQSS Simulation of the Harmonic Oscillator



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- Consequently, CQSS is well suited for real-time simulation of marginally stable systems with low to modest accuracy requirements.
- Unfortunately, CQSS is only first-order accurate. There are reasons to believe that higher-order CQSS methods cannot be constructed.
- ▶ It is certainly possible to design higher-order QSS-based solvers that are decently well suited for the simulation of marginally stable systems, e.g., by creating a cyclic method, in which steps of QSS; toggle with steps of LIQSS;. Unfortunately, these methods will not preserve the geometric properties of CQSS in a strict sense, and they will not be truly F-stable.

Delay differential equations (DDEs) are similar to ODEs, but their right-hand functions also depend explicitly on past state values.

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{x}(t - \tau_1(\mathbf{x}, t)), ..., \mathbf{x}(t - \tau_m(\mathbf{x}, t)), \mathbf{u}(t))$$

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- The algorithms are however more complex, as they must look backward in time in order to compute the state derivatives.

Delay differential equations (DDEs) are similar to ODEs, but their right-hand functions also depend explicitly on past state values.

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{x}(t - \tau_1(\mathbf{x}, t)), ..., \mathbf{x}(t - \tau_m(\mathbf{x}, t)), \mathbf{u}(t))$$

The *delay functions* $\tau_i(\cdot)$ can be constant, or they can depend on time and/or the state itself. Instead of an initial state, DDEs need an *initial history* to be solvable.

- DDEs require numerical integration algorithms similar to those for ODEs.
- The algorithms are however more complex, as they must look backward in time in order to compute the state derivatives.
- ▶ From the point of view of the numerical integration, DDEs have some features in common with discontinuous ODEs.

DDEs and QSS Methods

Recently obtained results show that QSS methods provide an efficient and comparatively simple solution to the numerical integration of DDEs.

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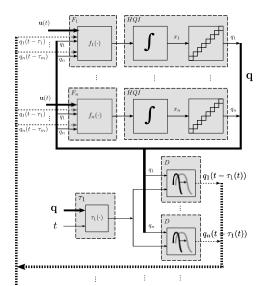
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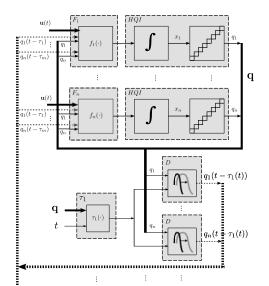
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The so-called DQSS methods (DQSS1, DQSS2, or DQSS3) approximate it as:

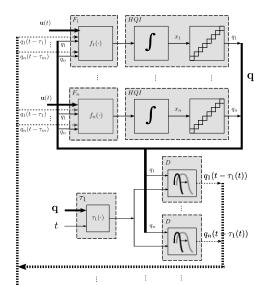
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{q}(t), \mathbf{q}(t-\tau_1(\mathbf{q},t)), ..., \mathbf{q}(t-\tau_m(\mathbf{q},t)), \mathbf{u}(t))$$

where the components of \boldsymbol{q} and \boldsymbol{x} are related by quantization functions of the given approximation order.



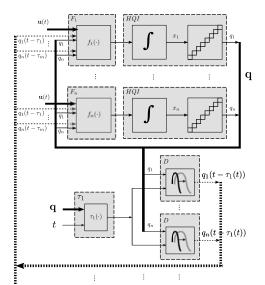


The *block diagram of a DQSS* contains:



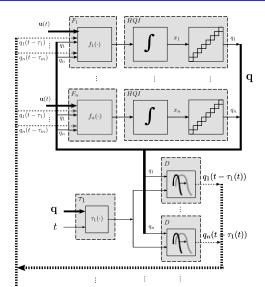
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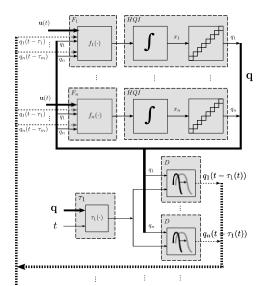
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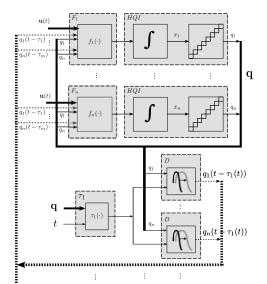


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- a new type of *delay blocks* that compute $q_i(t \tau_j(t))$ given $q_i(t)$ and $\tau_j(t)$.

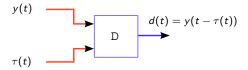
Each of the PowerDEVS blocks can be implemented as a DEVS model.

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▶ The first input y(t) will be represented as a sequence of events at times t_k^y , carrying values $y_{0,k}$, $y_{1,k}$, $y_{2,k}$, so that:

$$y(t) = y_{0,k} + y_{1,k} \cdot (t - t_k^y) + y_{2,k} \cdot (t - t_k^y)^2; \text{ for } t_k^y < t < t_{k+1}^y$$

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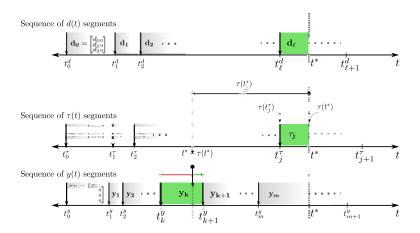
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▶ The *DEVS delay model* computes the corresponding event sequences of $d(t) = y(t - \tau(t))$.

The Delay Algorithm



Given a *DDE* with constant delays of the form:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{A_i} \cdot \mathbf{x}(t - \tau_i)$$

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There is a similar property for *general nonlinear DDE models with state and time dependent delays*. In that case, a stronger condition (*input-to-state stability*) is required for the original system, and the global error boundedness is only guaranteed for sufficiently small quanta.

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- While conventional methods for ODEs must be almost entirely reformulated to deal with DDEs, QSS methods reduce the problem of the delays to polynomial manipulations locally managed by a new atomic DEVS block. The static functions and hysteretic quantized integrators remain unchanged.
- DQSS solvers have strong theoretical properties regarding stability, convergence, and accuracy that guarantee the correctness of the results.

QSS methods have features that make them particularly suitable for *running* simulations in real time:

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- These algorithms are naturally asynchronous. Hence distributing QSS simulations across a parallel multi-processor architecture is trivial.

A version of **PowerDEVS** runs on a *real-time operative system* called **Linux RTAI**, with the following features:

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- ▶ PowerDEVS-RT has been successfully used in the *real-time simulation of power electronic converters*, working at frequencies where most real-time simulation tools fail.

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- QSS-based algorithms can be <u>highly competitive</u> when used for applications with <u>low to average accuracy requirements</u>. Problems calling for high-order algorithms cannot be dealt with effectively using QSS-based solvers.
- Already QSS4 is rarely more cost-effective than QSS3, because the increased overhead eats into the benefit to be reaped from the larger step sizes. Already QSS5 will require iterations in every step, because a fifth-order polynomial will have to be solved, which can only be done iteratively.

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- ▶ QSS-based solvers perform equally well as classical solvers when dealing with small-scale models of systems without discontinuities. Yet in those cases, there is nothing that the QSS solvers can exploit that would make them more attractive than the much simpler classical ODE solvers.

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- ▶ The communication band-width is furthermore minimized, because *only a single bit needs to be communicated* between processors to indicate a state change. A message of "1" means that the sending state incremented its level, whereas a message of "0" means that it decremented its level. As long as the state variable doesn't change its level, it doesn't send an output event through its output channel.

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