A Geometric Transversals Approach to Analyzing the Probability of Track Detection for Maneuvering Targets

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Abstract—There is considerable precedence in the sensor tracking and estimation literature for modeling maneuvering targets by Markov motion models in order to estimate the target state from multiple, distributed sensor measurements. Although the transition probability density functions of these Markov models are routinely outputted by tracking and estimation algorithms, little work has been done to use them in sensor coordination and control algorithms. This paper presents a geometric transversals approach for representing the probability of track detection by multiple, distributed sensors, as a function of the Markov model transition probabilities. By this approach, the Markov parameters of maneuvering targets that may be detected by the sensors are represented by three-dimensional cones that are finitely generated by the sensors fields-of-view in a spatiotemporal Euclidian space. Then, the problem of deploying a sensor network for the purpose of maximizing the expected number of target detections can be formulated as a nonlinear program that can be solved numerically for the optimal sensor placement. Numerical results show that the optimal sensor placements obtained by this geometric transversals approach significantly outperform greedy, grid, or randomized sensor deployments.

Index Terms—Detection theory, geometric transversals, nonlinear optimization, sensor networks, target tracking, track coverage

1 Introduction

The problem of placing multiple sensors for the purpose of providing a desired quality-of-service (QoS) in a region-of-interest (RoI), also known as sensor network deployment, is relevant to a wide range of sensor applications, including security and surveillance, environmental and atmospheric monitoring, and tracking of endangered species [1], [2]. In particular, when sensors are deployed in order to cooperatively detect and track moving targets in an RoI they can be placed to optimize the network's QoS known as track coverage. Track coverage represents the ability of a sensor network to cooperatively obtain non-simultaneous detections of a single target during its transit through the RoI [3]–[5]. As a result, track coverage is related to the probability of cooperatively detecting target tracks over time.

A target track is said to be detected when it can be formed from multiple independent sensor detections using an assumed prior spatio-temporal model. Multiple independent detections are required by cost-effective sensors that have limited detection capabilities, and are subject to frequent false alarms. Existing track coverage functions have been successfully utilized in deployment, control, and coordination algorithms to significantly increase the effectiveness of the sensor network by controlling and, in some cases, optimizing QoS with respect to the sensors' positions [4]–[12]. However, these

existing track coverage functions assume that the targets travel with constant heading and speed [5]–[10], or that the sensors are uniformly distributed and have constant range [4], [11], [12].

The method presented in this paper relaxes all of these assumptions, and extends the geometric transversals approach in [5] to a three-dimensional Euclidian space representing the sensor-target spatio-temporal coordinates. In this space, the Markov parameters of maneuvering targets can be represented by three-dimensional cones that are finitely generated by the sensors' fields-of-view (FOVs). There is considerable precedence in the sensor tracking and estimation literature for modeling target tracks by Markov motion models in order to estimate the target state from multiple, distributed sensor measurements [13]. Although the transition probability density functions of these Markov models are routinely outputted by tracking and estimation algorithms [13], little work has been done to use them as a feedback to sensor coordination and control algorithms.

This paper derives the probability of track detection in closed-form, as a function of the target Markov model transition probabilities and of the sensors' ranges and positions in the RoI. The motivation for deriving coverage functions expressing the QoS of wireless sensor networks in closed form is that they can be utilized to deploy the sensors via control and optimization theory and algorithms [5]–[7]. The numerical simulations presented in this paper show that sensors deployed by optimizing this new track coverage function are significantly more effective than sensors deployed using other applicable deployment methods, such as, greedy or incremental algorithms [14]–[16], grid placement algorithms [17], circle-packing algorithms [18], and randomized strategies [19].

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2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

This paper addresses the problem of deploying a network of n fixed omnidirectional sensors for the purpose of obtaining multiple track detections for a maneuvering target. The target is assumed to obey a Markov motion model that is commonly implemented by multi-sensor multi-target tracking algorithms [20], [21]. In Markov motion models, the target movement is modeled by a Markov chain characterized by probability distributions that are typically computed via Kalman filtering based on prior sensor measurements.

A Markov chain is defined as a sequence of correlated random variables, X_1, X_2, \ldots , that obey the Markov property by which the future states only depend on past states through the present state, i.e.,

$$Pr(X_{k+1} = x_j \mid X_k = x_i, \dots, X_1 = x_l)$$

= $Pr(X_{k+1} = x_j \mid X_k = x_i),$ (1)

where, lower-case letters denote numerical values of the random variables [22]. The probability law, or probability function, denoted by $\Pr(\cdot)$, obeys the three axioms of probability [22]. Then, based on the Markov property, the evolution of the state can be described by a transition probability function $f_{X_{k+1}|X_k}(x_j \mid x_i)$ [23].

Let the random variables θ and v represent the target heading and velocity, respectively. Consider the target motion in a region-of-interest (RoI) $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, during a finite time interval $(T_0, T_f]$. A three-dimensional real-valued vector function maps the family of random variables $\{\theta(t), v(t)\}$ into the random vector $\mathbf{x}(t) = [x(t) \ y(t)]^T$ at every time $t \in (T_0, T_f]$,

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}(t) \\ \dot{y}(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v(t)\cos\theta(t) \\ v(t)\sin\theta(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad t \in (T_0, T_f], \quad (2)$$

where x and y denote the target's xy-coordinates with respect to an inertial frame of reference embedded in \mathcal{A} , and the third component of the vector function is the identity function.

Assuming the target heading and velocity are constant during a time interval $(t_j,t_{j+1}]\subset (T_0,T_f]$, with $j=1,\ldots,m$, where $\Delta t_j=(t_{j+1}-t_j)$ is not necessarily constant, the target motion can be modeled as a Markov chain as follows. Let \mathbf{x}_j denote the target position at the beginning of the j^{th} time interval, namely, $\mathbf{x}_j=\mathbf{x}(t_j)$, for $j=1,\ldots,m$. The target heading and velocity during $(t_j,t_{j+1}]$ are denoted by two random parameters $\theta_j\in\mathcal{H}$ and $v_j\in\mathcal{V}$, respectively, where $\mathcal{H}=[\theta_{min},\theta_{max}]$ represents the range of all possible target heading values, and $\mathcal{V}=[v_{min},v_{max}]$ represents the range of all possible target velocity values. Then, the linear differential equation (2) can be integrated with respect to time to obtain the Markov motion model,

$$\mathbf{x}_{j+1} = \mathbf{x}_j + [v_j \cos \theta_j \quad v_j \sin \theta_j]^T \Delta t_j, \quad j = 1, \dots, m, \quad (3)$$

for the time interval $(T_0, T_f]$. By this approach, the target motion is described by the evolution of the random variables θ_j , v_j , and \mathbf{x}_j , referred to as Markov motion parameters, and denoted by the set $\mathcal{M} = \{\mathbf{x}_j, \theta_j, v_j\}_{j=1,\cdots,m}$.

As illustrated in Fig. 1, a realization of the above Markov motion model is a trajectory in which the heading and velocity are piece-wise constant, while the *xy*-coordinates are

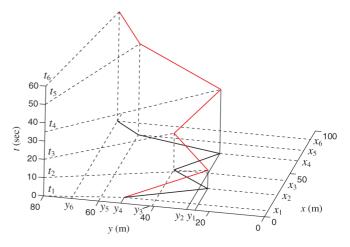


Fig. 1. Example of target track sampled from a Markov motion model in ${\cal A}$ (black) and in Ω (red).

variables with discontinuities at every time instant t_j , $j=1,\ldots,m$, when the target is said to *maneuver*, thereby changing both heading and velocity. These maneuvering time instants are not necessarily equally spaced and, in this paper, they are assumed known for simplicity. However, the approach can be easily extended to unknown maneuvering times, by considering t_j as another random variable of the Markov motion model.

The probability density functions (PDFs) of the Markov motion parameters, \mathcal{M} , are computed from prior measurements using target tracking algorithms [20], [21]. For simplicity, in this paper, it is assumed that these PDFs are given, and that, during every interval $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$, the Markov parameters $\{\mathbf{x}_j, \theta_j, v_j\}$ are independent random variables. Also, it is assumed that the target heading and velocity at the jth time interval, $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$, are independent of the Markov parameters at the (j-1)th interval, $(t_{j-1}, t_j]$. Thus, the probability that θ_j and v_j take any of the values in their ranges during $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$ is given by the PDFs $f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(\theta_j)$ and $f_{V}^{(j)}(v_j)$, respectively. From (3) it can be seen that the probability that \mathbf{x}_j takes any of its possible values in $\mathcal A$ depends on the values of the Markov parameters during the (j-1)th interval. Thus, the PDF of \mathbf{x}_j can be obtained as follows,

$$f_X^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_j) = \int_{\theta_{min}}^{\theta_{max}} \int_{v_{min}}^{v_{max}} f_X^{(j-1)}(\mathbf{x}_{j-1} - [\cos \theta_{j-1} \sin \theta_{j-1}]^T v_{j-1} \Delta t_{j-1}) \times f_{\Theta}^{(j-1)}(\theta_{j-1}) f_V^{(j-1)}(v_{j-1}) dv_{j-1} d\theta_{j-1}, \tag{4}$$

for j = 1, ..., m, where all of the PDFs are known from the previous time interval.

In this paper, the set of n sensors deployed to detect and track the maneuvering target is assumed to be fixed and omnidirectional. In particular, it is assumed that every sensor can be described by an omnidirectional boolean sensing model that has been used to model a variety of sensors, including passive acoustic sensors, radars, and electromagnetic sensors [24]. Every sensor in the network, indexed by i, has a constant sensing range $r_i > 0$ that may depend on its detection threshold, and is to be placed at a position $\mathbf{s}_i = [s_{x_i} \ s_{y_i}]^T \in \mathcal{A}$. For simplicity, it is also assumed that the sensor positions are all fixed and deterministic, and that the

RoI is a square region $\mathcal{A} = [0, L] \times [0, L]$. Under these assumptions, the ith sensor field-of-view (FOV) can be represented by a disk $\mathcal{C}_i = \mathcal{C}[\mathbf{s}_i, r_i] \subset \mathcal{A}$, centered at \mathbf{s}_i , and with a constant radius r_i , for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. By definition, a sensor i can only detect a target if it enters its FOV at time t. Thus, the sensing model is

$$P_d[\mathcal{C}_i, \mathbf{x}(t)] = \begin{cases} 0 : \|\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}(t)\| > r_i \\ 1 : \|\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}(t)\| \le r_i, \end{cases}$$
 (5)

where, P_d is the probability of detection or, in other words, the probability that the target track will intersect C_i at time $t \in (T_0, T_f]$. The approach can also be extended to moving sensors and other ROIs, as will be shown in a separate paper.

We are now ready to formulate the three problems addressed in this paper, namely:

Problem 2.1 (Probability of Detection). Given the PDFs of the Markov parameters \mathcal{M} for a target in an RoI $\mathcal{A} = [0, L] \times [0, L]$, find the probability of detection for an omnidirectional sensor i at time $t \in (T_0, T_f]$ as a function of the range $r_i \in \mathbb{R}$, and position $\mathbf{s}_i \in \mathcal{A}$.

Problem 2.2 (Track Coverage). Given the PDFs of the Markov parameters \mathcal{M} for a target in an RoI $\mathcal{A} = [0, L] \times [0, L]$, find the *track coverage* of n sensors, defined as the expected number of target detections during a time interval $(T_0, T_f]$, as a function of the sensors' positions, $\mathbf{s}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{s}_n$, and ranges, r_1, \ldots, r_n .

Problem 2.3 (Sensor Placement). Given the PDFs of the Markov parameters \mathcal{M} for a target in an RoI $\mathcal{A} = [0, L] \times [0, L]$, find the n sensor positions $\mathbf{S}^* = [\mathbf{s}_1^{*T} \cdots \mathbf{s}_n^{*T}]^T$ that maximizes the expected number of target detections during a time interval $(T_0, T_f]$.

In the following sections, Problems 2.1–2.3 are addressed by extending the geometric transversals approach first proposed in [3], [5] to maneuvering targets described by Markov motion models.

3 COVERAGE CONE REPRESENTATION OF TRACKS DETECTED BY ONE SENSOR

In this section, we show that all Markov target tracks detected by an omnidirectional sensor at time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ are contained by a three-dimensional cone that can be used to define a Lebesgue measure of track coverage (Section 4). In [5], it was shown that in the case of non-maneuvering targets, a two-dimensional (2D) coverage cone (Fig. 2) can be used to derive a Lebesgue measure of all tracks through an intercept b_y that are detected by an omnidirectional sensor positioned at \mathbf{s}_i . Because the Lebesgue measure is provided by the opening angle of the coverage cone, $2\alpha_i$, it follows that a measure of track coverage can be obtained by the dot product of the generating unit vectors $\hat{\mathbf{h}}_i$ and $\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i$, and, thus, can be written conveniently in closed-form, as a function of \mathbf{s}_i and r_i . It also follows, under proper assumptions, that the probability of detection can be obtained solely as a function of α_i [5].

In the case of maneuvering targets, the track detection problem cannot be viewed as time invariant or, in other words, the probability of detection is an explicit function of time. Hence, we consider the spatio-temporal Euclidian

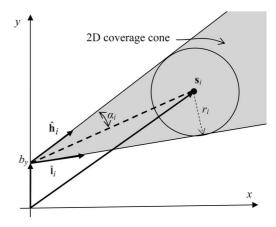


Fig. 2. Coverage cone for a target traveling along a straight line (adapted from [5]).

subspace $\Omega = \mathcal{A} \times (T_0, T_f] \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, such that during $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$ the target track can be represented by a time-varying vector with constant orientation $\mathbf{m}_j(t) \in \Omega$, referred to as $Markov\ track$. Now, let the origin of \mathbf{m}_j , denoted by $\mathbf{z}_j = [\mathbf{x}_j^T t_j]^T$, coincide with the origin of a local coordinate frame \mathcal{F}_j . Then, as shown in Fig. 3, at any time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$, the Markov track \mathbf{m}_j can be defined in cylindrical coordinates (r, θ, ζ) , where $\theta = \theta_j$ is a constant, $\zeta = (t - t_j)$ represents the time elapsed since the maneuvering time t_j , and $r = v_j \zeta$ represents the distance traveled. In other words, \mathbf{m}_j is the target position at $t \in [t_j, t_{j+1}]$, relative to \mathcal{F}_j , which can be expressed as $(v_j(t-t_j), \theta_j, t-t_j)$ in cylindrical coordinates.

Given the nonempty subset C_i of Ω , the cone generated by C_i is the set of all nonnegative combinations of the elements of C_i , denoted by $K = \operatorname{cone}(C_i) \subset \Omega$ (see [25] for a review of cones and their properties). Then, in the remainder of the paper, we define the *coverage cone* of the ith sensor at $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ to be the cone generated by C_i , with origin $\mathbf{z}_j \in \Omega$, as illustrated by the example in Fig. 3. The coverage cone is a basic construct for analyzing the probability of track detection because it represents the set of Markov tracks that can be detected by the ith sensor at time t. Since, in this paper, the origin \mathbf{z}_j is a random but constant vector, the coverage cone is a time-dependent, random object in Ω .

If we consider an inertial frame \mathcal{F}_{Ω} , embedded in Ω , the coverage cone at time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ can be parameterized as follows,

$$K(t) = \left\{ [x y z]^T \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \left\| [x y]^T - \frac{z - t_j}{t - t_j} (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j) - \mathbf{x}_j \right\| \le \frac{z - t_j}{t - t_j} r_i \right\}, \tag{6}$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the L_2 -norm. From the omnidirectional boolean sensing model, sensor i has a non-zero probability to detect the target if and only if $\|\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{s}_i\| \le r_i$. It follows that the coverage cone (6) contains all Markov tracks that can be detected during $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$, as summarized by the following remark:

Remark 3.1. The coverage cone K(t), defined in (6), contains the set of all Markov tracks with origin $\mathbf{z}_j = [\mathbf{x}_j^T t_j]^T \in \Omega$ that intersect the sensor FOV, $C_i = C[\mathbf{s}_i, r_i]$, at any time $t \in (t_i, t_{j+1}]$.

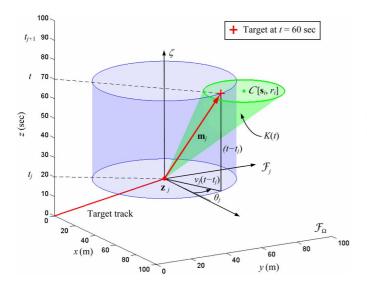


Fig. 3. Definition of Markov track and coverage cone for a maneuvering target in Ω .

Proof. Let $\mathbf{m}_j(t) \in \Omega$ be any Markov track with origin $\mathbf{z}_j \in \Omega$ that intersects $\mathcal{C}_i = \mathcal{C}[\mathbf{s}_i, r_i]$ at some time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$, i.e. $\mathbf{m}_j(t) \cap \mathcal{C}_i \neq \emptyset$. Let $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = [u_x \ u_y \ u_z]^T$ denote a unit vector in \mathcal{F}_Ω that is collinear with \mathbf{m}_j , and shares the same origin \mathbf{z}_j . Without loss of generality, assume the unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ points from \mathbf{z}_j to the target position in Ω at t, such that $u_z \geq 0$. It follows that \mathbf{m}_j can be written in terms of $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{m}_j(t) = \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{z}_j + c\hat{\mathbf{u}}, c \ge 0 \}, \tag{7}$$

where the constant c can be determined from the fact that $t=t_j+cu_z$. Moreover, the target position in \mathcal{F}_{Ω} at time t can be obtained from \mathbf{m}_i as follows,

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{x}_j + \left[(t - t_j)u_x/u_z \quad (t - t_j)u_y/u_z \right]^T$$

From the boolean omnidirectional sensor model (5), a Markov track intersects the sensor's FOV C_i at some time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ if and only if the target position satisfies $\|\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{s}_i\| \le r_{i,t}$ or:

$$\left\| \mathbf{x}_j + \frac{(t - t_j)}{u_z} [u_x \ u_y]^T - \mathbf{s}_i \right\| \le r_i, \quad \text{for} \quad t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]. \tag{8}$$

Considering any point $\mathbf{a} = [a_x \ a_y \ a_z]^T \in \mathbf{m}_j$, it follows from (7) that,

$$[a_x a_y a_z]^T = \mathbf{z}_j + \frac{(a_z - t_j)}{u_z} \hat{\mathbf{u}}, \tag{9}$$

and, thus, from the definition of $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$, any unit vector collinear with \mathbf{m}_i satisfies

$$\|[a_{x} a_{y}]^{T} - (a_{z} - t_{j})(t - t_{j})^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}) - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|$$

$$= \left\|\mathbf{x}_{j} + \frac{(a_{z} - t_{j})}{u_{z}}[u_{x} u_{y}]^{T} - \frac{(a_{z} - t_{j})}{(t - t_{j})}(\mathbf{s}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}) - \mathbf{x}_{j}\right\|$$

$$= \frac{(a_{z} - t_{j})}{(t - t_{j})} \left\|\frac{(t - t_{j})}{u_{z}}[u_{x} u_{y}]^{T} - \mathbf{s}_{i} + \mathbf{x}_{j}\right\|.$$
(10)

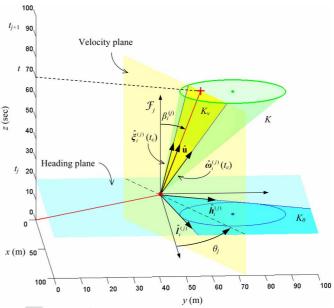


Fig. 4. Heading-cone (cyan) and velocity-cone (yellow) representation of coverage cone (green) for the example in Fig. 3.

From (8) and (10), it follows that for any target at $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{m}_j$ to be detected by the *i*th sensor, the condition,

$$\left\| [a_x \, a_y]^T - \frac{(a_z - t_j)}{(t - t_j)} (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j) - \mathbf{x}_j \right\| \le \frac{(a_z - t_j)}{(t - t_j)} r_i, \quad (11)$$

must be satisfied.

Since (11) is equivalent to the parameterized representation of the coverage cone (6), it follows that for any target at $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{m}_j$ to be detected by the ith sensor at $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$, $\mathbf{m}_j(t)$ must be contained by K(t).

4 UNIT VECTOR REPRESENTATION OF COVERAGE CONE

The coverage cone K, defined in (6) and illustrated in Fig. 3, is a 3D circular cone that is possibly oblique. As a result, it is not easy to identify a Lebesgue measure for K in terms of the Markov parameters \mathcal{M} . This section shows that it is possible to represent any 3D coverage cone with the parametrization (6) by two 2D cones that also provide lower and upper bounds for the heading and velocity of any Markov track \mathbf{m}_j contained by K. The two cones, referred to as *heading cone* and *velocity cone*, are derived in the following subsections, and then illustrated through an example in Fig. 4.

4.1 Heading Cone

The heading cone, denoted by K_{θ} , is obtained by projecting the 3D coverage cone onto a so-called *heading plane* defined as,

$$\{[x y z]^T \in \Omega \mid z = t_j\}, \tag{12}$$

such that it is parallel to the xy-plane and contains \mathbf{z}_j . Since the heading plane contains all of the possible target headings \mathcal{H} , the heading cone can be used to represent the headings of all targets detected by the ith sensor, during the jth time interval

 $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$. In particular, the extremals of K_θ can be described in \mathcal{F}_j by two unit vectors,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{h}}_{i}^{(j)} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha_{i}^{(j)} & -\sin \alpha_{i}^{(j)} \\ \sin \alpha_{i}^{(j)} & \cos \alpha_{i}^{(j)} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \frac{\mathbf{p}_{i}^{(j)}}{\|\mathbf{p}_{i}^{(j)}\|} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \cos \lambda_{i}^{(j)} \\ \sin \lambda_{i}^{(j)} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (13)$$

and

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}}_{i}^{(j)} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha_{i}^{(j)} & \sin \alpha_{i}^{(j)} \\ -\sin \alpha_{i}^{(j)} & \cos \alpha_{i}^{(j)} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \frac{\mathbf{p}_{i}^{(j)}}{\left\| \mathbf{p}_{i}^{(j)} \right\|} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \cos \gamma_{i}^{(j)} \\ \sin \gamma_{i}^{(j)} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (14)$$

where, $\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)} \equiv (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)$ is the position of the sensor relative to the maneuvering point \mathbf{x}_j , and $\alpha_i^{(j)}$ is half the opening angle of K_θ , that is,

$$\alpha_i^{(j)} = \sin^{-1}(r_i/\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|). \tag{15}$$

Then, the heading cone can be defined as the cone that is finitely generated by $\hat{\pmb{h}}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\pmb{I}}_i^{(j)}$, i.e.:

$$K_{\theta}[C_i, \mathbf{z}_j] = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \mathbf{x} = c_1 \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)} + c_2 \hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)}, c_1, c_2 \ge 0 \}.$$
 (16)

It can be seen that the heading cone is analogous to the 2D coverage cone first illustrated in Fig. 2, which was introduced in [5] to analyze track coverage for non-maneuvering targets.

4.2 Velocity Cone

Consider now a so-called *velocity plane* that represents the space of all spatio-temporal target coordinates in \mathcal{F}_{Ω} with a constant heading θ_i . The velocity plane is defined as,

$$\{[x y z]^T \in \Omega \ (x \sin \theta_j - y \cos \theta_j) = [\sin \theta_j \cos \theta_j] \mathbf{x}_j, \ z \ge t_j\},$$
(17)

such that it is perpendicular to A, and contains \mathbf{z}_j . Then, the velocity cone, denoted by K_v , can be defined as the intersection of the 3D coverage cone (6), and the velocity plane (17).

Now, let all coplanar unit vectors be ordered based on the orientation of an inertial reference frame embedded in the velocity plane (17) such that, for any two coplanar unit vectors $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i$ and $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_j$, we say that $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i \prec \hat{\mathbf{u}}_j$ if when these vectors are translated such that their origins coincide, and $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i$ is rotated through the smallest possible angle to meet $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_j$, the rotation is in the same direction as the orientation of the reference frame. Then, K_v contains all possible target velocities that would cause a detection by sensor i at $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$, provided the target heading θ_j satisfies the condition,

$$\hat{\mathbf{l}}_{i}^{(j)} \prec \left[\cos \theta_{i} \sin \theta_{i}\right]^{T} \prec \hat{\mathbf{h}}_{i}^{(j)}, \tag{18}$$

or, in other words, the Markov track is contained by both K_v , and K_θ .

At time t, the extremals of K_v can be described by two unit vectors in \mathcal{F}_i ,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{i}^{(j)}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin\eta_{i}^{(j)} \cos\theta_{j} \\ \sin\eta_{i}^{(j)} \sin\theta_{j} \\ \cos\eta_{i}^{(j)} \end{bmatrix}, \tag{19}$$

and,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{i}^{(j)}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin\mu_{i}^{(j)}\cos\theta_{j} \\ \sin\mu_{i}^{(j)}\sin\theta_{j} \\ \cos\mu_{i}^{(j)} \end{bmatrix}, \tag{20}$$

where $\eta_i^{(j)}$ and $\mu_i^{(j)}$ are the angles that $\hat{\pmb{\xi}}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\pmb{\omega}}_i^{(j)}$ make with the z-axis, respectively, defined as

$$\eta_i^{(j)}, \mu_i^{(j)} \equiv \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{(t - t_j)} \left([\cos \theta_j \quad \sin \theta_j] \mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j \right) \right.$$
$$\left. \mp \sqrt{r_i^2 - ([\sin \theta_j \quad -\cos \theta_j] (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j))^2} \right) \right]. \tag{21}$$

For $t \ge t_j$, $\eta_i^{(j)}$ and $\mu_i^{(j)}$ are less than or equal to $\pi/2$. Then, the velocity cone can be defined as the cone that is finitely generated by $\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)}$, i.e.:

$$K_v[\mathcal{C}_i, \mathbf{x}_j] = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \mathbf{x} = c_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)} + c_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)}, c_1, c_2 \ge 0 \}.$$
 (22)

The results obtained in this section can be summarized by the following remark:

Remark 4.1. The coverage cone K, defined in (6), can be represented by the pair of 2D cones $\{K_{\theta}, K_{v}\}$, defined in (16) and (22).

Proof. Suppose \mathbf{m}_j is any Markov track in the coverage cone K, or $\mathbf{m}_j \in K$, and let $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = [u_x \ u_y \ u_z]^T$ denote a unit vector that is collinear with \mathbf{m}_j , and has the same origin \mathbf{z}_j where, all quantities are defined with respect to \mathcal{F}_j . Without loss of generality, assume $u_z > 0$. Then, \mathbf{m}_j can be represented in terms of $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ as shown in (7), and substituted into the coverage cone equation (6) to obtain

$$\left\|\mathbf{x}_j + c[u_x \ u_y]^T - \frac{cu_z}{(t - t_j)}(\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j) - \mathbf{x}_j\right\| \le \frac{cu_z}{(t - t_j)}r_i.$$
(23)

Choose the nonnegative constant c such that $cu_z = (t - t_j) \ge 0$, because $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ during the jth time interval. Then, (23) can be simplified to,

$$\left\| \frac{(t - t_j)}{u_z} [u_x \ u_y]^T + \mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{s}_i \right\| \le r_i, \tag{24}$$

where the vector $[(t-t_j)/u_z][u_x\ u_y]^T$ is the projection of the Markov track on the heading plane (12). The projection $[(t-t_j)/u_z][u_x\ u_y]^T$ can be expressed as a linear combination of $\hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)}$, because $\hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)}$ are linearly independent. Hence, there exist two nonnegative constants $c_1,c_2\in\mathbb{R}$, such that

$$\frac{(t-t_j)}{u_z} [u_x \ u_y]^T = c_1 \|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\| \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)} + c_2 \|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\| \hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)}, \qquad (25)$$

where $\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)} \equiv (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)$ from Section 4.1.

Substituting (25) in (24), and dividing both sides by $\|\mathbf{p}_{i}^{(j)}\|$, (24) can be rewritten as,

$$\left\| c_1 \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)} + c_2 \hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)} - \hat{\mathbf{p}}_i^{(j)} \right\| \le \frac{r_i}{\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|},$$
 (26)

where $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_i^{(j)} = \mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}/\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|$. From the definition of $\alpha_i^{(j)}$ in (16), the following holds,

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\mathbf{h}}_{i}^{(j)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}^{(j)} = \cos \alpha_{i}^{(j)} \\ \hat{\mathbf{l}}_{i}^{(j)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{p}}_{i}^{(j)} = \cos \alpha_{i}^{(j)} \\ \hat{\mathbf{h}}_{i}^{(j)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{l}}_{i}^{(j)} = \cos 2\alpha_{i}^{(j)}, \\ \sin \alpha_{i}^{(j)} = \frac{r_{i}}{\|\mathbf{p}_{i}^{(j)}\|} \end{cases}$$
(27)

where (\cdot) denotes the dot product. Then, taking the square of both sides of (26), which are both positive quantities,

$$(c_1\hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)} + c_2\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)} - \hat{\mathbf{p}})^T(c_1\hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)} + c_2\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)} - \hat{\mathbf{p}}) \le \sin^2\alpha_i^{(j)}, \quad (28)$$

and substituting (27) in (28), (28) can be simplified to

$$c_1^2 + c_2^2 + 2c_1c_2\cos 2\alpha_i^{(j)} - 2(c_1 + c_2)\cos \alpha_i^{(j)} + \cos^2 \alpha_i^{(j)} \le 0.$$
(29)

Because $|\cos 2\alpha_i^{(j)}| \le 1$, the following inequality holds for any two nonnegative constants c_1 and c_2 :

$$c_1^2 + c_2^2 + 2c_1c_2\cos 2\alpha_i^{(j)} \ge c_1^2 + c_2^2 - 2|c_1c_2|$$

= $(|c_1| - |c_2|)^2$. (30)

Substituting (30) in (29), (29) can be rewritten as,

$$(|c_1| - |c_2|)^2 - 2c_1 \cos \alpha_i^{(j)} - 2c_2 \cos \alpha_i^{(j)} + \cos^2 \alpha_i^{(j)} \le 0,$$
(31)

where, to satisfy (31) c_1 and c_2 can not be both less then or equal to zero. We now show that c_1 and c_2 must have the same sign, by rewriting (29) such that

$$(c_1 + c_2 - \cos \alpha_i^{(j)})^2 - 4c_1c_2\sin^2 \alpha_i^{(j)} \le 0.$$
 (32)

Then, it follows from (31) and (32) that both c_1 and c_2 are strictly positive. Since $\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\| \geq 0$, $c_1\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|$ and $c_2\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|$ are both greater than or equal to zero. Therefore, letting $c_1' \equiv c_1\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|$ and $c_2' \equiv c_2\|\mathbf{p}_i^{(j)}\|$, the projection of any Markov track $\mathbf{m}_j \in K$ onto the heading plane (25) can be written as

$$\frac{(t-t_j)}{u_z}[u_x \ u_y]^T = c_1' \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)} + c_2' \hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)}, \quad c_1', c_2' \ge 0.$$
 (33)

Comparing (33) with the definition of the heading cone K_{θ} in (16), it can be seen that the projection (33) of any Markov track in K must also lie in the heading cone K_{θ} . Since (33) holds for any $\mathbf{m}_j \in K$, it follows that K_{θ} contains the projections of all Markov tracks in K onto the heading plane (25).

We now prove that any Markov track $\mathbf{m}_j \in K$ must also lie in the velocity cone, K_v . In this case, the unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ is expressed in spherical coordinates, i.e. $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = (1, \beta_i^{(j)}(t), \theta_j)$, where $\beta_i^{(j)}$ is the angle that $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ makes with the z-axis, and θ_j is the azimuth angle that the projection of $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ onto the heading plane (25) makes with the x-axis. Using the conversion from Cartesian to spherical coordinates, $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ can be written as

$$[u_x \ u_y \ u_z]^T = [\cos\theta_j \sin\beta_i^{(j)} \ \sin\theta_j \sin\beta_i^{(j)} \ \cos\beta_i^{(j)}]^T, \quad (34)$$

and the coverage cone equation (6) can be written in spherical coordinates, as follows

$$\|(t - t_i) \tan \beta_i^{(j)} [\cos \theta_i \sin \theta_i]^T - (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_i)\| \le r_i. \tag{35}$$

Since both sides of (35) are nonnegative quantities they can be squared and re-arranged to obtain the inequality

$$(t - t_j)^2 \tan^2 \beta_i^{(j)} + \|\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2 - r_i^2 - 2(t - t_j) [\cos \theta_j \sin \theta_j] (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j) \tan \beta_i^{(j)} \le 0.$$
 (36)

From (36), upper and lower bounds for the angle $\beta_i^{(j)}$ can be obtained as follows,

$$\tan^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{(t - t_j)} \left([\cos \theta_j \sin \theta_j] (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j) \right) - \sqrt{r_i^2 - ([\sin \theta_j - \cos \theta_j] (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j))^2} \right] \le \beta_i^{(j)}(t)$$

$$\le \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{(t - t_j)} \left([\cos \theta_j \sin \theta_j] (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j) \right) + \sqrt{r_i^2 - ([\sin \theta_j - \cos \theta_j] (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{x}_j))^2} \right], \tag{37}$$

and compared to the tangents of $\eta_i^{(j)}$ and $\mu_i^{(j)}$, defined in (21), to show that,

$$\tan \eta_i^{(j)} \le \tan \beta_i^{(j)} \le \tan \mu_i^{(j)},\tag{38}$$

where, from (21), $\tan \eta_i^{(j)} \leq \tan \mu_i^{(j)}$.

Since $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ lies in the velocity plane, there exist two constants $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, such that

$$[u_x \ u_y \ u_z]^T = c_1(t - t_j)\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)}(t) + c_2(t - t_j)\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)}(t). \tag{39}$$

From (22), if c_1 and c_2 are nonnegative, then $\mathbf{m}_j \in K_v$. Substituting (19) and (20) in (39), and dividing both sides by $\cos \theta_j$, it follows that

$$\begin{cases} c_1 \sin \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \sin \mu_i^{(j)} = \sin \beta_i^{(j)} \\ c_1 \cos \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \cos \mu_i^{(j)} = \cos \beta_i^{(j)}, \end{cases}$$
(40)

because $\cos \beta_i^{(j)}(t) \geq 0$ for $t \geq t_j$. The tangent of $\beta_i^{(j)}$ can be obtained as follows,

$$\tan \beta_i^{(j)} = \frac{c_1 \sin \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \sin \mu_i^{(j)}}{c_1 \cos \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \cos \mu_i^{(j)}},\tag{41}$$

and substituted into (38), such that the two inequalities in (38) can be re-written as,

$$\tan \eta_i^{(j)} \le \frac{c_1 \sin \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \sin \mu_i^{(j)}}{c_1 \cos \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \cos \mu_i^{(j)}},\tag{42}$$

and

$$\tan \mu_i^{(j)} \ge \frac{c_1 \sin \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \sin \mu_i^{(j)}}{c_1 \cos \eta_i^{(j)} + c_2 \cos \mu_i^{(j)}},\tag{43}$$

thereby eliminating $\beta_i^{(j)}$.

From (21), $\cos \eta_i^{(j)} \ge 0$ and $\cos \mu_i^{(j)} \ge 0$ because $t \ge t_j$. Also, substituting (41), (42), and (43) in (38), the inequalities,

$$c_2 \tan \eta_i^{(j)} \le c_2 \tan \mu_i^{(j)}, \tag{44}$$

and,

$$c_1 \tan \eta_i^{(j)} \le c_1 \tan \mu_i^{(j)}, \tag{45}$$

are obtained. Since by assumption $\tan \eta_i^{(j)} \leq \tan \mu_i^{(j)}$, c_1 and c_2 must be greater than or equal to zero for (44) and (45) to hold simultaneously. Moreover, since $(t-t_j) \geq 0$, it follows that $(t-t_j)c_1 \geq 0$ and $(t-t_j)c_2 \geq 0$. Thus, any Markov track $\mathbf{m}_i \in K$ can be written as,

$$\mathbf{m}_{j}(t) = c_{1}' \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{i}^{(j)}(t) + c_{2}' \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{i}^{(j)}(t), \quad c_{1}', c_{2}' \ge 0, \tag{46}$$

and, thus, from the definition of the velocity cone (22), it follows that $\mathbf{m}_i \in K_v$.

Since the above proof holds for any Markov track with target heading θ_j that obeys (18), it also follows that K_v contains all Markov tracks in K with this property. In other words, any Markov track in the coverage cone also lies in a velocity cone, such that its projection onto the heading plane simultaneously lies in the corresponding heading cone. As a result, K can be represented by the pair of 2D cones $\{K_\theta, K_v\}$.

Example. Consider the target trajectory plotted in Fig. 5, obtained by sampling the Markov motion model described in Section 8. A sensor located at $\mathbf{s}_i = [66.03\ 85.00]^T$ (m), with range $r_i = 10$ (m), detects the target at a time t = 52 (s) with $t \in (t_5, t_6]$. Since $\mathbf{x}_5 = [62.16\ 48.14]^T$, and $\mathbf{z}_5 = [62.16\ 48.14\ 45]^T$, it can be seen from Fig. 5 that the target Markov track, \mathbf{m}_5 , is contained by K, and that K can be represented by the corresponding velocity cone K_v and heading cone K_θ , also plotted in Fig. 5.

From Remark 4.1, the heading cone and the velocity cone contain all Markov tracks with origin $\mathbf{z}_j \in \Omega$ that are detected by sensor i at any time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$. For any 2D cone with origin \mathbf{z}_j , the opening angle defines a Lebesgue measure on the set of line transversals through \mathbf{z}_j [5]. Therefore, K_v and K_θ can be used to define a Lebesgue measure on the set of tracks detected as a function of the sensor position \mathbf{s}_i , and range r_i . Furthermore, a cone opening angle can be computed from the cross product of the two unit vectors from which the cone

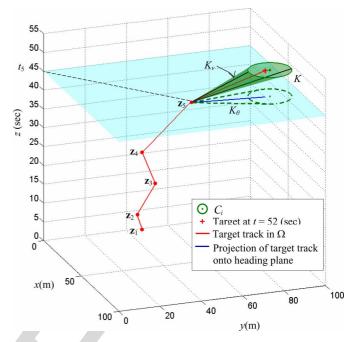


Fig. 5. Example of track detected at t=52 (s), and contained by the coverage cone K (green) or, equivalently, by K_{θ} (dashed green line) and K_{v} (black).

is finitely generated, as follows. The opening angle of the heading cone K_{θ} , finitely generated by $\hat{\mathbf{h}}_{i}^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{l}}_{i}^{(j)}$, is

$$\psi_i^{(j)} = \sin^{-1} \|\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)} \times \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)}\|$$

$$= H(\det[\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)} \quad \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)}]^T) \sin^{-1}(\det[\hat{\mathbf{l}}_i^{(j)} \quad \hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(j)}]^T), \quad (47)$$

where, $H(\cdot)$ denotes the Heaviside function, and $\det(\cdot)$ denotes the matrix determinant.

Similarly, the opening angle of the velocity cone K_v , finitely generated by $\hat{\omega}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\xi}_i^{(j)}$, is

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_i^{(j)} &= \sin^{-1} \| \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)} \times \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)} \| \\ &= H(\det[\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)} \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)}]^T) \sin^{-1}(\det[\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)} \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)}]^T), \quad (48) \end{aligned}$$

where, the unit vectors $\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)}$ are a function of time and, thus, so is the opening angle of K_v . The Heaviside function $H(\cdot)$ in (47) and (48) ensures that if $\hat{\boldsymbol{l}}_i^{(j)} \succ \hat{\boldsymbol{h}}_i^{(j)}$, or $\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_i^{(j)}(t) \succ \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_i^{(j)}(t)$, the corresponding opening angles are equal to zero, indicating that $K_\theta = \emptyset$ or $K_v = \emptyset$, respectively. In the next section, the heading and velocity cones and their properties, are used to derive the probability of track detection in closed-form.

5 PROBABILITY OF DETECTION

The Lebesgue measures (47) and (48) can be used to quantify the tracks detected by a sensor i, during a time interval $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$, when the PDFs of the Markov parameters are uniform. This case typically comes about when no prior target information is available, and all target tracks are equally probable. In many target-tracking applications, however, the PDFs of the Markov parameters are not uniform, and are computed from sensor measurements via Kalman filtering.

This section builds on results presented in Sections 3–4 to derive the probability of track detection as function of the sensor position, range, and the PDFs of the Markov parameters.

From the definition of joint PDF [22] and the Markov property of the target motion model, the probability that the values of the Markov parameters during the jth time interval $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$ fall in a subset $B \subset \{\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{V}\}$ is,

$$\Pr(\{\mathbf{x}_j, \theta_j, v_j\} \in B) = \int_B f_{X,\Theta,V}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_j, \theta_j, v_j) d\mathbf{x}_j d\theta_j dv_j, \quad (49)$$

where $f_{X,\Theta,V}$ denotes the joint PDF of \mathbf{x}_j , θ_j , and v_j . Based on the assumptions in Section 2, the parameters at the jth time interval are independent and, thus, the joint PDF can be factorized such that,

$$\Pr(\{\mathbf{x}_j, \theta_j, v_j\} \in B) = \int_B f_X^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_j) f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(\theta_j) f_V^{(j)}(v_j) d\mathbf{x}_j d\theta_j dv_j,$$
(50)

where all of the PDFs in (50) can be obtained from (4) and a target-tracking algorithm.

From the results in Section 4, the heading cone and the velocity cone contain the Markov parameters' values that cause a detection by sensor i, during the jth time interval. Let the binary random variable $D_i(t)$ represent the ith sensor detection at time t, where event $\{D_i(t)=1\}$ represents a successful detection, and event $\{D_i(t)=0\}$ represents a failed detection. Then, the probability of detection at a time $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ is the probability that $\mathbf{m}_j(t) \in K(t)$. Based on the 2D-cone representation of K (Section 4), the unit vectors that finitely generate the heading cone and the velocity cone can be used to define lower and upper bounds for the Markov parameters that correspond to $\{D_i(t)=1\}$. In particular, from Remark 4, $\mathbf{m}_j \in K$ if and only if $\gamma_{i_j}^{(j)} \leq \theta_j \leq \lambda_i^{(j)}$ and $\tan \eta_i^{(j)} \leq v_j \leq \tan \mu_i^{(j)}$, where $\lambda_i^{(j)}$ and $\gamma_i^{(j)}$ are defined in (13) and (14), and $\eta_i^{(j)}$ and $\mu_i^{(j)}$ are defined in (21). Thus, given the PDFs of the Markov parameters, the probability that \mathbf{m}_j is contained in K is

$$\Pr[\mathbf{m}_{j}(t) \in K(t)] \equiv P_{d}(i, t)$$

$$= \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_{X}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \int_{\gamma_{i}^{(j)}}^{\lambda_{i}^{(j)}} f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(\theta_{j}) \int_{\tan \eta_{i}^{(j)}}^{\tan \mu_{i}^{(j)}} f_{V}^{(j)}(v_{j}) dv_{j} d\theta_{j} d\mathbf{x}_{j}. \quad (51)$$

Then, the probability mass function (PMF) of the discrete random variable D_i can be written in terms of (51), as shown by the following result.

Theorem 5.1. The probability mass function (PMF) of a discrete random variable D_i that represents the ith sensor detection at time t is,

$$p_{D_i}(d_i) = \begin{cases} P_d(i,t), & \text{if } d_i(t) = 1\\ 1 - P_d(i,t), & \text{if } d_i(t) = 0, \end{cases}$$
 (52)

where, d_i denotes any possible value of D_i in the range $\mathcal{D} = \{0, 1\}$, and $P_d(i, t)$ is an integral function defined in terms of the Markov parameters, as shown in (51).

Proof. Given the PDFs of the Markov parameters, f_X , f_Θ , and f_V , and the independence assumptions in Section 2, the probability of event $\{D_i(t)=1\}$ can be obtained through marginalization of the joint probability of \mathbf{x}_j , θ_j , and v_j , [22], such that

$$\Pr[D_{i}(t) = 1]$$

$$= \Pr[v_{j} \in [\tan \eta_{i}^{(j)}, \tan \mu_{i}^{(j)}], \theta_{j} \in [\gamma_{i}^{(j)}, \lambda_{i}^{(j)}], \mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathcal{A}]$$

$$= \Pr[v_{j} \in [\tan \eta_{i}^{(j)}, \tan \mu_{i}^{(j)}] \mid \theta_{j} \in [\gamma_{i}^{(j)}, \lambda_{i}^{(j)}], \mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathcal{A}]$$

$$\times \Pr[\theta_{j} \in [\gamma_{i}^{(j)}, \lambda_{i}^{(j)}], \mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathcal{A}]$$

$$= \Pr[v_{j} \in [\tan \eta_{i}^{(j)}, \tan \mu_{i}^{(j)}] \mid \theta_{j} \in [\gamma_{i}^{(j)}, \lambda_{i}^{(j)}], \mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathcal{A}]$$

$$\times \Pr[\theta_{j} \in [\gamma_{i}^{(j)}, \lambda_{i}^{(j)}] \mid \mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathcal{A}] \Pr[\mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathcal{A}]. \tag{53}$$

From the definitions of joint and conditional PDFs [22], the above probabilities can be expressed in terms of the PDFs of the Markov parameters as follows

$$\Pr[D_{i}(t) = 1] \\
= \int_{\mathcal{A}} \int_{\mathcal{H}} \int_{\mathcal{V}} f_{V}(v_{j} \mid \theta_{j}, \mathbf{x}_{j}) f_{\Theta}(\theta_{j} \mid \mathbf{x}_{j}) f_{X}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) dv_{j} d\theta_{j} d\mathbf{x}_{j} \\
= \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_{X}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \int_{\gamma_{i}^{(j)}}^{\lambda_{i}^{(j)}} f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(\theta_{j}) \int_{\tan \eta_{i}^{(j)}}^{\tan \mu_{i}^{(j)}} f_{V}^{(j)}(v_{j}) dv_{j} d\theta_{j} d\mathbf{x}_{j} \\
= P_{d}(i, t). \tag{54}$$

Then, from the normalization property, the probability of a failed detection at time $t \in (t_i, t_{i+1}]$ is,

$$\Pr[D_i(t) = 0] = [1 - P_d(i, t)], \tag{55}$$

and, thus, the PMF of
$$D_i$$
 is given by (52).

Since the integral function $P_d(i,t)$ is provided solely as a function of the PDFs of the Markov parameters during the jth time interval, it holds for all $j=1,\ldots,m$. Then, the PMF of D_i in (52) provides the probability of detection for sensor i, at any time $t \in (T_0,T_f]$, as formulated in Problem 2.1. Also, now that the PMF of D_i is known from (52), it can be used to compute the *expected value* of D_i at time $t \in (T_0,T_f]$,

$$E[D_i(t)] \equiv \sum_{d_i \in \mathcal{D}} d_i f_{D_i}(d_i) = (1)P_d(i,t) + (0)[1 - P_d(i,t)]$$

$$= P_d(i,t), \tag{56}$$

where $E[\cdot]$ denotes the expectation [22].

6 Track Coverage

In many monitoring and surveillance applications, it may be relevant to optimize the number of detections obtained by the sensor network over a time interval $(T_0, T_f]$. Typically, detection events are defined in discrete time because the sensor requires a finite amount of time to process the target information and declare a detection. Also, by this approach, the detection events are countable and, thus, over a finite period of time, the sensor obtains a finite number of detections, even if the target is always in its FOV.

Let δt denote the time required by a detection event, and assume δt is a finite positive constant chosen such that $\delta t \ll \Delta t_j$ and Δt_j is a multiple of δt , for any $j=1,\ldots,m$. Then, the time interval $(T_0,T_f]$ can be discretized as follows,

$$\tau_k = T_0 + k\delta t, \quad k = 0, \dots, N, \tag{57}$$

where, $N=(T_f-T_0)/\delta t$. With these assumptions, the two discrete-time indices, t_j and τ_k can be reconciled because $(t_j-T_0)/\delta t$ is a positive integer for any $j=1,\ldots,m$, and at the initial time $T_0=t_1=\tau_0$.

Then, the expected number of detections for a sensor i during $(T_0, T_f]$ is,

$$J_{i} = \operatorname{E}\left[\sum_{k=1}^{N} D_{i}(t=\tau_{k})\delta t\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \operatorname{E}[D_{i}(\tau_{k})]\delta t$$
$$= \delta t \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{\tau_{k} \in (t_{j}, t_{j+1})} P_{d}(i, \tau_{k}), \tag{58}$$

where, P_d is defined in (51), and δt is a known constant. Also, the track coverage of n sensors, as defined in Problem 2.2, can be determined as follows

$$J = \sum_{i=1}^{n} J_{i} = \delta t \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{\tau_{k} \in (t_{j}, t_{j+1}]} \left\{ \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_{X}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \int_{\gamma_{i}^{(j)}}^{\lambda_{i}^{(j)}} f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(\theta_{j}) \int_{\tan \eta_{i}^{(j)}}^{\tan \mu_{i}^{(j)}} f_{V}^{(j)}(v_{j}) dv_{j} d\theta_{j} d\mathbf{x}_{j} \right\}.$$
 (59)

For some PDFs, the track coverage function in (59) may not be readily solved analytically. In this case, the track coverage can be computed numerically, for example using the MATLAB® int function or the quadl function which uses recursive adaptive Lobatto quadrature [26]. When track coverage is to be optimized, an approximate closed-form representation may be obtained by approximating the integrals in (59) using Riemann sum. By this approach, the ranges of the Markov motion, \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{H} , and \mathcal{V} are also discretized using constant increments $[\delta x_j \quad \delta y_j]^T$, $\delta \theta_j$, and δv_j , respectively. Since the PDFs of target heading and speed are smooth, the granularity of discretization does not affect the accuracy of the track coverage performance greatly. Then, the discrete Markov track origin $\mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{A}$ is indexed by,

$$\mathbf{x}_{j}^{(i,j)} = \begin{bmatrix} i\delta x_{j} & j\delta y_{j} \end{bmatrix}^{T}, i = 0, \cdots, N_{x}, j = 0, \cdots, N_{y},$$
 (60)

where, $N_x = L/\delta x_j$ and $N_y = L/\delta y_j$. The discrete target heading is indexed by,

$$\theta_j^{(l)} = \gamma_i^{(j)} + l\delta\theta_j, \quad l = 0, \dots, N_\theta, \tag{61}$$

where, $N_{\theta} = (\lambda_i^{(j)} - \gamma_i^{(j)})/\delta\theta_j$, and the discrete velocity is indexed by,

$$v_j^{(\ell)} = \eta_i^{(j)} + \ell \delta v_j, \quad \ell = 0, \dots, N_v,$$
 (62)

where, $N_v = (\mu_i^{(j)} - \eta_i^{(j)})/\delta v_j$.

With the above discretization, the track coverage function (59) can be approximated as follows,

$$J \approx J_{D} = \delta t \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{\tau_{k} \in (t_{j}, t_{j+1}]} \sum_{i=0}^{N_{x}} \sum_{j=0}^{N_{y}} f_{X}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}_{j}^{(i,j)})$$

$$\times \sum_{l=0}^{N_{\theta}} f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(\theta_{j}^{(l)}) \sum_{\ell=0}^{N_{v}} f_{V}^{(j)}(v_{j}^{(\ell)}) \delta v_{j} \delta \theta_{j} \delta x_{j} \delta y_{j}, \quad (63)$$

evaluating the PDFs of the Markov parameters at all discrete values that fall in the range specified by the heading and velocity cones. It can be seen that J and J_D both are functions of the sensor positions and ranges, because so are the angles $\lambda_i^{(j)}$, $\gamma_i^{(j)}$, $\mu_i^{(j)}$, and $\eta_i^{(j)}$ derived from the heading and velocity cones in (13), (14), and (21). Now that a track coverage function has been obtained in closed form it can be optimized with respect to the sensor placement, as shown in the following section.

7 SENSOR PLACEMENT

The track coverage function derived in the previous section can be used to determine the placement of n sensors in \mathcal{A} such that the expected number of target detections is maximized during a time interval $(T_0, T_f]$ (Problem 2.3). The optimal sensor placement S^* can be computed using a nonlinear program (NLP) that optimizes the coverage function (63), subject to a set of equality and inequality constraints. These constraints can be used to specify additional requirements to be satisfied by the sensor deployment. For example, many surveillance systems require sensors to obtain multiple independent detections [12], [27]–[30]. In this case, the NLP may be used to avoid intersections between the sensor FOVs. Also, the sensor FOVs typically must be contained by the RoI in order to maximize area coverage [7].

Then, a sensor placement S^* that maximizes J_D , while satisfying the above requirements, can be obtained by solving the NLP,

maximize
$$J_D(\mathbf{S})$$
,
subject to $(s_{x_i} - s_{x_l})^2 + (s_{y_l} - s_{y_l})^2 - (r_i + r_l)^2 > 0$,
 $i, l = 1, \dots, n, i \neq l$
 $(s_{x_i} - r_i) > 0$
 $(s_{y_i} - r_i) > 0$
 $(L - s_{x_i} - r_i) > 0$
 $(L - s_{y_i} - r_i) > 0$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, (64)

in S, using a sequential quadratic programming (SQP) algorithm [31], [32].

8 SIMULATION RESULTS

In this section, the probability of detection P_d , derived in closed form in (51), and used to obtain the track coverage function (59), is first validated numerically using Monte Carlo simulations. Then, the sensor placement method presented in the previous section is demonstrated numerically and compared to greedy, grid, and random deployment algorithms.

| Maneuvering Interval | Heading PDF | Velocity PDF |
|------------------------|---|---|
| $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$ (s) | $f_{\Theta}^{(j)}(heta_j)$ | $f_V^{(j)}(v_j)$ |
| (0, 5] (s) $(j = 1)$ | $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$, $\mathcal{H} = [-\pi/4, -\pi/6]$ | $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{V})$, $\mathcal{V} = [1, 5]$ (m/s) |
| (5, 15] (s) $(j = 2)$ | $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, $\mu = \pi/4$, $\sigma = \pi/8$ | $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{V})$, $\mathcal{V} = [1, 4]$ (m/s) |
| (15, 30] (s) $(j = 3)$ | $\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)$, $\mu=-\pi/4$, $\sigma=\pi/8$ | $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, $\mu = 2$ (m/s), $\sigma = 0.25$ (m/s) |
| (30, 45] (s) $(j = 4)$ | $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$, $\mathcal{H} = [\pi/4, \ 3\pi/4]$ | $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, $\mu = 2$ (m/s), $\sigma = 0.25$ (m/s) |
| (45, 55] (s) $(j = 5)$ | Mult ₂ $(w_i; \mu_i, \sigma_i)$, $w_1 = 0.5$, $\mu_1 = -\pi/4$, | $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{V}), \mathcal{V} = [3, 5] (\text{m/s})$ |
| | $\sigma_1 = \pi/6$, $w_2 = 0.5$, $\mu_2 = \pi/4$, $\sigma_2 = \pi/6$ | |

TABLE 1
Markov Motion Model Probability Density Functions (PDFs)

The simulations are performed using the Markov motion model described in Table 1, and are representative of all simulations conducted with other models and parameters.

The Markov motion model in Table 1 describes the target motion over a time interval $(T_0, T_f]$ with $T_0 = 0$ (s), and $T_f = 55$ (s), characterized by five maneuvering intervals, $(t_j, t_{j+1}]$, indexed by $j = 1, \ldots, m$, with m = 5. At the initial time $T_0 = t_1 = 0$ (s), the PDF of the initial target position, \mathbf{x}_1 , is a two-dimensional multivariate Gaussian PDF,

$$f_X^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}_1) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \det(\mathbf{\Sigma})^{1/2}} e^{[-(1/2)(\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu})]}, \quad (65)$$

with a mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 50 \end{bmatrix}^T$ and a diagonal covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \operatorname{diag}(\begin{bmatrix} 20 & 20 \end{bmatrix})$. Where, $\operatorname{det}(\cdot)$ denotes the matrix determinant, $(\cdot)^{-1}$ denotes the matrix inverse, and $\operatorname{diag}(\cdot)$

denotes an operator that places a row vector on the diagonal of a zero matrix.

The PDFs of the heading and velocity parameters for every maneuvering interval are described in Table 1. Gaussian PDFs are denoted by $\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)$, where μ is the mean, and σ is the standard deviation. Uniform PDFs are denoted by $\mathcal{U}(a,b)$, where [a,b] is the range of the random variable (also known as support of the distribution). PDFs modeled by mixtures of g-Gaussian components are denoted by $\mathrm{Mult}_g(w_i;\mu_i,\sigma_i)$, where w_i , μ_i , and σ_i are the weight, mean, and standard deviation of the ith component, respectively. Then, the PDF of the heading angle at j=5 is,

$$f_{\Theta}^{(5)}(\theta_5) = \sum_{i=1}^g w_i \frac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{[-(1/2)(\theta_5 - \mu_i)/\sigma_i]}, \tag{66}$$

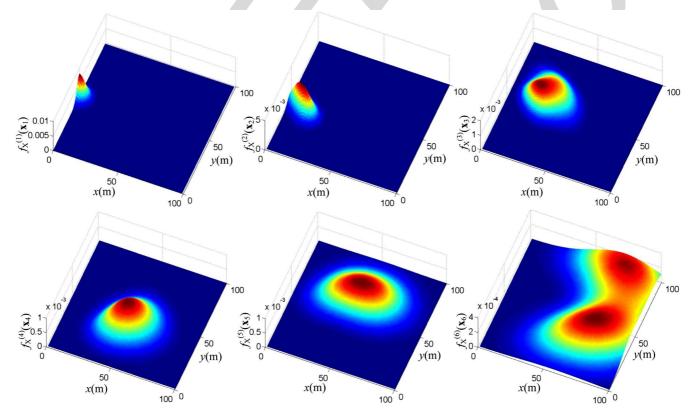


Fig. 6. PDFs of initial target positions derived from (4).

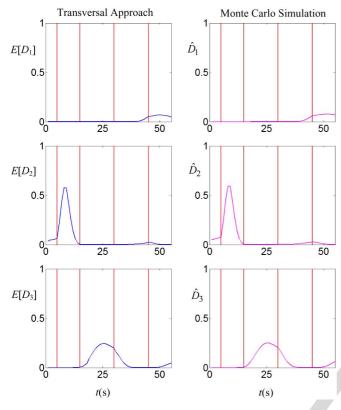


Fig. 7. Probability of detection for n=3 sensors computed by the integral function (51) (blue), and by MC simulation (magenta).

where, $0 \le w_i \le 1$ for all $i=1,\ldots,g$, and $\sum_{i=1}^g w_i=1$ [33]. Once the PDFs of the headings and velocities are specified, the PDFs of the initial positions \mathbf{x}_j are computed from (4). For the Markov motion model in Table 1, the PDFs of \mathbf{x}_j are computed from $f_{\Theta}^{(j)}$ and $f_V^{(j)}$ for $j=2,\ldots,6$, and then plotted in Fig. 6. These results, obtained from (4), were also validated numerically using Monte Carlo simulations (plots omitted for brevity).

8.1 Probability of Detection Simulation Results

The probability of detection (51) is validated numerically by considering n=3 sensors at known positions. The detection probability is first evaluated by integrating (51) over time using MATLAB® dblquad and quad functions. Then, the results are plotted in Fig. 7, and compared to the detection probability obtained from a Monte Carlo (MC) simulation. Monte Carlo simulations are a computationally intensive but useful approach for approximating the evolution of a dynamical systems involving random variables with known PDFs [34]. A statistically significant number of trials or, in this case, target tracks, denoted by N_{MC} , are drawn by sampling the PDFs of the Markov parameters described in Table 1. A 3D Boolean array $B = \{b_{ijk}\}$ is used to store detection outcomes, such that when a target track is sampled, the event $\{D_i(\tau_k)=1\}$ is stored by letting element $b_{ijk}=1$ for any time $\tau_k \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ at which $\mathbf{x}(\tau_k) \in \mathcal{C}_i$ during the simulation. For any time $\tau_k \in (t_j, t_{j+1}]$ at which $\mathbf{x}(\tau_k) \notin \mathcal{C}_i$, the event $\{D_i(\tau_k)=0\}$ is stored by letting element $b_{ijk}=0$.

In the MC simulation, the expected value of D_i at time τ_k is computed by summing the detection events for

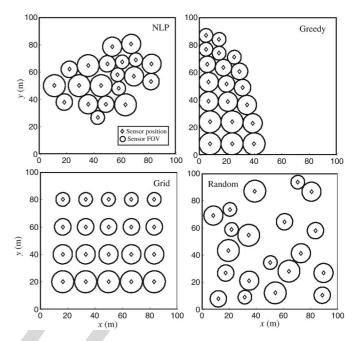


Fig. 8. Optimal, greedy, grid, and random sensor placements for n=20, and the target model in Table 1.

TABLE 2
Size and Ranges of Simulated Sensor Networks

| Size, n | Ranges, $\{r_1,\ldots,r_n\}$ |
|---------|---|
| 2 | {8, 8} |
| 3 | {8, 8, 8} |
| 4 | {8, 8, 8, 8 } |
| 5 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8} |
| 6 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7} |
| 7 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7} |
| 8 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7} |
| 9 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7} |
| 10 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7} |
| 11 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6} |
| 12 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6} |
| 13 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6} |
| 14 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6} |
| 15 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6} |
| 16 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 5} |
| 17 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 5, 5} |
| 18 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 5, 5, 5} |
| 19 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 5, 5, 5, 5} |
| 20 | {8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5} |

the entire target track, and dividing by the total number of trials, i.e.:

$$\hat{D}_i(\tau_k) = \frac{1}{N_{MC}} \sum_{j=1}^m b_{ijk}.$$
 (67)

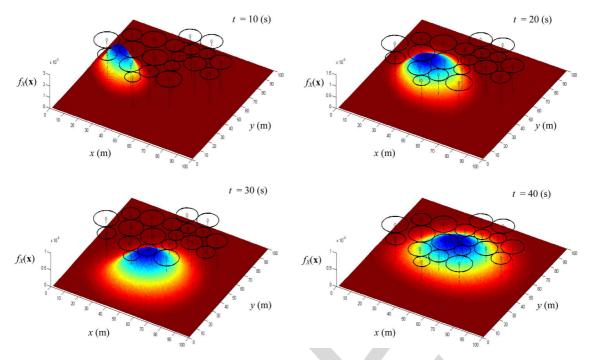


Fig. 9. PDF of target position at four instants in time, and optimal placement obtained by NLP for n=20 sensors.

From (56) the expected value of D_i is equal to the probability of detection P_d . Therefore, (67) can be used to validate the integral function P_d in (51). The results are plotted for comparison in Fig. 7, where it can be seen that the MC simulations validate the probability of detection P_d in (51), derived using a geometric transversals approach.

8.2 Sensor Placement Optimization Results

The track coverage function J_D , derived in closed form in (63), represents the expected number of detections during a time interval $(T_0, T_f]$, as a function of the sensor placement ${\bf S}$. Using the approach described in Section 7, J_D can be optimized to obtain a sensor placement ${\bf S}^*$ that maximizes the network's ability to track a target based on its Markov motion model (Problem 2.3). The sensor placement ${\bf S}^*$ is obtained by solving the NLP in (64) using an SQP algorithm implemented by the MATLAB® Optimization Toolbox *fmincon* function, described in [35]. The MATLAB® SQP algorithm was found to outperform other NLP software packages, such as [36], while also allowing for an easier implementation. In every case, multiple random initializations are used to avoid local maxima by ultimately picking the solution ${\bf S}^*$ with the highest value of J_D .

An example of sensor placement S^* obtained from the NLP solution is shown in Fig. 8 for a network with the ranges shown in Table 2, for n=20. The target motion model in Table 1 is then used to simulate the PDF of the target position, x, over time, and to plot it at four instants in time in Fig. 9. Superimposing a plot of S^* onto the PDFs in Fig. 9, it can be seen that sensors are placed in regions where the probability of detection is high throughout the time interval $(T_0, T_f]$.

The effectiveness of the proposed sensor placement approach is compared to that of three existing sensor deployment methods known as greedy algorithm [16], grid algorithm [17], and randomized algorithm [19]. The greedy

algorithm places the sensors by packing unequal circles into a 2D rectangular container according to the maximum hole degree rule [16]. Given the same sensor network size and ranges used in the NLP example, the greedy algorithm produces the sensor placement plotted in Fig. 8. The grid algorithm uses the approach presented in [17] to place sensors on a grid that takes into account the sensor ranges and the dimensions of the RoI, as shown in Fig. 8. The randomized algorithm, inspired by the approach presented in [19], places sensors randomly in the RoI, preventing intersections between FOVs, or with the RoI boundaries, in order to maximize area coverage and obtain independent detections, as shown in Fig. 8.

The performance of the sensor placements obtained by the four algorithms are compared in Fig. 10, using nineteen sensor

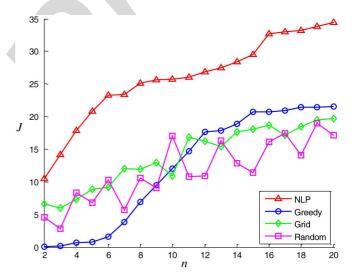


Fig. 10. Track coverage of sensor placements obtained by NLP, greedy, grid, and randomized algorithms for the networks in Table 2.

networks with the characteristics shown in Table 2. For each sensor placement, the track coverage function J, in (59), is evaluated using MATLAB® dblquad and quad functions. The results, plotted in Fig. 10, show that the sensor placements obtained by NLP significantly outperform all others in the expected number of target track detections for the Markov model in Table 1.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There is considerable precedence in the sensor tracking and estimation literature for modeling maneuvering targets by Markov motion models in order to estimate the target state from multiple, distributed sensor measurements. Although the transition probability density functions of these Markov models are routinely outputted by tracking and estimation algorithms, little work has been done to use them as a feedback to sensor coordination and control algorithms. Geometric transversals and convex theory have been previously utilized to derive track coverage functions for deploying and controlling sensor networks such that their ability to track targets traversing the RoI at constant speed and heading is

This paper extends this theory to maneuvering targets described by Markov motion models, by analyzing the geometric properties of track detections in a spatio-temporal Euclidian space. Using this novel approach, the probability of track detection can be derived in closed-form for a timevarying problem formulation, in which the Markov transition probabilities are not necessarily uniform. The concept of three-dimensional spatio-temporal coverage cone is introduced, along with its two-dimensional representations referred to as heading and velocity cones, which may be utilized to define a Lebesgue measure of track coverage for omnidirectional sensors. The probability of track detection derived by the geometric transversals approach is validated numerically through Monte Carlo simulations. Then, a related track coverage function is utilized to formulate the optimal sensor deployment problem as an NLP. The numerical results presented in this paper show that sensor deployments obtained from the NLP significantly outperform deployments obtained by existing greedy, grid, and randomized algorithms.

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