Agent-mediated Multi-step Optimization for Resource Allocation in Distributed Sensor Networks

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ABSTRACT
Distributed collaborative adaptive sensing (DCAS) of the atmosphere is a new paradigm for detecting and predicting hazardous weather using a large dense network of short-range, low-powered radars to sense the lowest few kilometers of the earth's atmosphere. In DCAS, radars are controlled by a collection of Meteorological Command and Control (MC&C) agents that instruct where to scan based on emerging weather conditions. Within this context, this work concentrates on designing efficient approaches for allocating sensing resources to cope with restricted real-time requirements and limited computational resources. We have developed a new approach based on explicit goals that can span multiple system heartbeats. This allows us to reason ahead about sensor allocations based on expected requirements of goals as they project forward in time. Each goal explicitly specifies end-users' preferences as well as a prediction of how a phenomena will move. We use a genetic algorithm to generate scanning strategies of each single MC&C and a distributed negotiation model to coordinate multiple MC&C's' scanning strategies over multiple heartbeats. Simulation results show that as compared to simpler variants of our approach, the proposed distributed model achieved the highest social welfare. Our approach also has exhibited similarly very good performance in an operational radar testbed that is deployed in Oklahoma to observe severe weather events.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
I.2.11 [Distributed Artificial Intelligence]: Multiagent Systems

General Terms
Design, Experimentation, Performance

Keywords
Multi-agent systems, sensor networks, coordination, negotiation

1. INTRODUCTION
Over the last 6 years we have been developing and deploying a new paradigm called collaborative adaptive sensing of the atmosphere (CASA) for detecting and predicting hazardous weather [5, 15]. This new paradigm is achieved through a distributed, collaborative, adaptive sensing (DCAS) architecture. Distributed refers to the use of large numbers of small radars, whose range is short enough to see close to the ground in spite of the Earth’s curvature and to avoid resolution degradation caused by radar beam spreading. Collaborative operation refers to the coordination of the beams from multiple radars to cover the blind, attenuated or cluttered regions of their neighbors and to simultaneously view the same region in space (when advantageous), thus achieving greater sensitivity, precision, and resolution than possible with a single radar. Adaptive refers to the ability of these radars and their associated computing and communications infrastructure to dynamically reconfigure in response to changing weather conditions and end-user needs. The principal components of a CASA DCAS system include the sensors (radars); algorithms that detect, track, and predict meteorological hazards; interfaces that enable end-users to access and interact with the system; storage; and an underlying substrate of distributed computation that dynamically processes sensed data and manages system resources. At the heart of a DCAS system is its Meteorological Command and Control (MC&C) that performs the system’s main control loop - ingesting data from the remote radars, identifying meteorological features in this data, reporting features to end-users, and determining each radar’s future scan strategy based on detected features and end-user requirements.

MC&C’s resource allocation problem of deciding radars’ scan strategies is challenging due to a number of reasons. First, DCAS is an end-user driven approach and different users (e.g., National Weather Service (NWS) whose role is to issue severe weather watches and warnings, regional Emergency Managers (EMs) whose role is to alert the public about weather hazards and to coordinate first responders) have different data collection preferences and needs. Second, in DCAS, adaptive radars are controlled by a collection of MC&C's and each MC&C tries to find the best scan strategy for the set of radars it controls. While such a distributed model brings some good properties (e.g., robustness, scalability), the problem of coordinating scan strategies of multiple MC&C's arises as radars belonging to different MC&C's may have an overlapping region. In certain situations, it is advantageous to have two or more radars focus their scans on overlapping regions in the atmosphere to provide accurate estimation of wind velocity vectors. In some other situations, a single radar’s scanning can provide very high quality data and coordination can allow other radars to scan other meteorological features. Third, DCAS is a real-time system and radars must be re-tasked by the MC&C's every 60 seconds, which defines the system heartbeat interval [5, 15]. Therefore, the optimization for allocating radar resources should be completed in less than 60 seconds. Furthermore, the strategy space of each radar is infinite since each scan action can be represented by a region in the atmosphere.

In the previous resource allocation model [3], all the MC&C's are myopically optimizing every "single" heartbeat's utilities without explicitly taking into account end-users' various needs over...
multiple heartbeats. It turns out this model leads to poor performance since subsequent changes in the environment may make these myopic decisions not appropriate anymore. For instance, an MC&C may repeatedly scan a high utility phenomenon (no matter how many times it has been scanned before) and thus miss some less important phenomena. Furthermore, a user’s data requirement can be satisfied in different ways over multiple heartbeat intervals, which implies that it needs to search over multiple system heartbeats to find radars’ optimal scanning strategies and address potential conflicts of available resources (sensing, computation, and bandwidth) over multiple heartbeats. In addition, predictions about future events [9] are useless in this optimization framework.

The focus of this paper is investigating the practicality of applying real-time distributed multi-step optimization approaches in a real application involving complex resource allocation. We found that a real-time distributed multi-step optimization approach is feasible and it contributes to better performance. This paper proposes a novel distributed resource allocation approach to address diverse user preferences over multiple heartbeats. We introduce the concept “goal” (or constraint) to represent end-users’ preferences on radars’ scan strategies. Each goal specifies the region of a phenomenon over multiple heartbeats and how well a user’s preference is satisfied given radars’ scan strategies over multiple heartbeats. Then the resource allocation problem can be formulated as a continuous time constraint optimization problem. The goal based formulation allows us to reason ahead about allocations based on expected requirements of goals over multiple heartbeats and prediction about future weather phenomena. Given that the strategy space of each radar is continuous and the real-time requirement, it is impractical to exhaustively search all the possible strategies. Alternatively, each MC&C finds approximate local optimal solutions employing a genetic algorithm. Different strategies are mapped into chromosomes and genetic operators like mutation, selection, and crossover are employed. A distributed asynchronous negotiation model is used to coordinate the scan strategies of multiple MC&Cs. Each MC&C always notifies its current multi-heartbeat strategy to its neighbor MC&Cs. Based on the current strategies of its neighbor MC&Cs, an MC&C proposes to change its strategy and decides whether to make the change based on the marginal utilities of its neighbors’ strategy changes. This asynchronous negotiation continues until the heartbeat deadline approaches. Simulation results show that as compared to other mechanisms, the proposed distributed model achieved the highest social welfare. We have also verified the performance of our approach in the operational radar tested deployed in Oklahoma while it was responding to actual severe weather events. These empirical results mirror the positive results achieved in our simulation studies.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses related work. We next formalize the resource allocation problem in Section 3. We then discuss the genetic algorithm for finding each MC&C’s local optimal strategies. The distributed negotiation model is presented in Section 5. Section 6 reports simulation results. Section 7 discusses the performance of our approach in the real sensor system and Section 8 concludes this paper.

2. RELATED WORK

The development of decentralized optimization and coordination techniques to achieve good system-wide performance is a fundamental challenge for practical distributed sensor networks, which mainly comes from various constraints, e.g., realtime response, limited communication and computational resources. While multi-agent systems community has developed a variety of techniques for distributed resource allocation in sensor networks [4, 8], these approaches cannot be directly applied to our special domain with complex user preferences.

The problem of decentralized coordination can be formulated as a distributed constraint optimization problem (DCOP), which makes it possible for us to use a wide range of existing algorithms for DCOP, e.g., ADOPT [6]. However, these complete algorithms cannot be directly applied to problem due to their limitations such as high computational complexity and large size of exchanged messages. Furthermore, these algorithms are for one-step optimization but our problem is a continuous optimization problem. While there have been numerous approximate stochastic algorithms based on entirely local computation for solving DCOPs [14], these algorithms often converge to poor-quality solutions because agents typically communicate only their preferred state, failing to explicitly communicate utility information [8]. Max-sum algorithm has recently been applied to the sensor network domain (e.g., [12]), our recent study [2] showed that the max-sum algorithm did not outperform the approach in [3] and had a much worse performance when there were more overlapping radars.

Negotiation has been used in distributed sensor networks in the past; however, previous techniques are not entirely appropriate for our setting. In the argumentation-based approach [11], an initiator attempts to recruit other sensors to scan a specific task. In our domain, a per goal negotiation would not be feasible based on time limitations. Contract-net based negotiation schemes [10] in which agents make bids based on utility calculations face similar limitations. If the contract net protocol is adopted, every time an MC&C’s neighbor changes its scan strategy, that MC&C must perform potentially as many optimizations for marginal utility calculations as the size of the powerset of the boundary goals belonging to it. The similar problem exists while adopting combinatorial auctions [1]. The negotiation model for single step optimizations for the DCAS system [3] fails to capture users’ preferences over multiple heartbeats and accordingly, may result in low social welfare due to lack of reasoning about future actions. In addition, the synchronous negotiation protocol in [3] may have bad performance due to its lack of concurrency in real time optimization.

3. PROBLEM FORMULATION

This section formalizes the problem of optimizing resource allocation which has observed phenomena as its input and scan commands as its output. The following components are involved in solving the meteorological control problem: goal generation, local optimization that generates scan commands for each MC&C’s radars, and negotiation which coordinates MC&Cs’ scan actions.

3.1 Goal Generation

In the current design, the DCAS system dynamically adapts radar scans at 60 second intervals to sense the evolving weather and disseminates information to users based on their changing and diverse preferences for data. An NWS forecaster may analyze the vertical structure of a storm to determine whether to issue a warning by viewing a sector scan at multiple elevations, while an emergency manager may require two radars to collaborate in order to pinpoint the location of the most intense part of a storm for spotter deployment, and a researcher may require 360 degree scans at all elevations to initialize a numerical weather prediction model. These diverse information preferences require different radar scan strategies. We use scan goals to formulate diverse user preferences and phenomena regions over multiple heartbeats. A goal $g$ specifies:

- Generation time $T_g(g)$.
- Deadline $T_d(g)$. There could be a goal existing for only one heartbeat, i.e., $T_d(g) = T_s(g)$. It is also possible that $T_e(g) = \infty$.
T \_t (g) > 0$, i.e., the satisfaction of the goal may involve scan actions over multiple heartbeats.

- **Scan area(s).** A goal $g$ is either to find new phenomena or to find more details of an existing known phenomenon. For the former case (e.g., 360° scan), the scan area will not change over time. For the latter case, as a phenomenon moves over time, the scan areas at different heartbeats may be different which depends on the moving speed of a phenomenon. Let $A(g, t)$ denote the scan area of goal $t$ at heartbeat $t \in [T_{s}(g), T_{a}(g)]$ and such information can be gained by prediction [9]. A goal may be updated later due to imprecise prediction. An area $A$ (or part of it) may fall within the coverage of a radar $r$, i.e., $Ψ(A, r) = true$.

- **Utility calculation function** $U_{g}(s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})$ which defines how well the goal is satisfied based on radars $R$’s scan actions $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}$ from heartbeat $T_{a}(g)$ to $T_{s}(g)$.

In summary, goals specify 1) in what manner different kinds of weather phenomena should be scanned by radars and 2) how well different user groups are satisfied given radars’ scan strategies. A goal generation rule specifies when the rule is triggered to generate a new goal and how to set the properties of the new goal. A simple goal generation rule specifies when the rule is triggered to generate a new goal and how to set the properties of the new goal. A simple example of goal generation rules is that each radar needs to do a 360° scan every 5 minutes (heartbeats).

Note that each MC&C generates goals individually. It’s possible that two MC&C generate goals for the same phenomenon which is located on the overlapping area of the two MC&C. In such cases, coordination mechanisms (Section 5) are used to resolve such conflicts. When a goal is generated to find the details of a known phenomenon, the goal will also specify its “regions” in the future based on the prediction about the phenomenon’s moving speed and change of its shape. Therefore, an MC&C may also update the properties of an existing goal based on its new observations. This update is important as prediction made at goal generation time may not be accurate enough.

### 3.2 Goal Satisfaction

Let the set of MC&C be $M = \{M_1, \ldots, M_{|M|}\}$ and the set of radars be $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{|M|}\}$, where $R_k$ is the set of radars controlled by MC&C $M_k$, and $R_{\cup} = \emptyset$. Each radar has its coverage area and the coverage area of an MC&C includes the coverage areas of all its radars. MC&C $M_k$ is a neighbor of $M_j$ if their coverage areas overlap. Let $N(M_k)$ denote the set of neighbor MC&C of $M_k$. Let $G_{t}^{T}$ be the set of goals generated for $M_k$ at the beginning of heartbeat $t$, i.e., for any $g \in G_{t}^{T}$, $T_{s}(g) = t$. Accordingly, goals generated by all MC&C at heartbeat $t$ is $G_{t}^{T} = \cup_{M \in M} G_{t}^{T}$. Let $G_{t}^{T} = \cup_{g \in G_{t}^{T}} G_{t}^{T}$. A goal $g$ is active at time $t$ if $t \in [T_{s}(g), T_{a}(g)]$. Let $A_{g}^{T}$ be the set of active goals of MC&C $M_k$ at heartbeat $t$, i.e., $A_{g}^{T} = \{g \in G_{t}^{T} | T_{s}(g) \leq t \leq T_{a}(g)\}$. Accordingly, active goals for all MC&C at heartbeat $t$ is $A_{g}^{T} = \cup_{M \in M} A_{g}^{T}$. Out of the set of goals in $A_{g}^{T}$, some are boundary goals $B_{g}^{T}$. A goal $g \in G_{t}^{T}$ is a boundary goal if there exists a radar $r'$ belonging to another MC&C and one of goal $g$’s scan area from time $t$ could be partially covered by $r'$, i.e., $Ψ(A(g, t'), r') = true$ for some $r' \in R_{\cup}$ and $t \leq t' \leq T_{s}(g)$.

We assume that the set of end-users are $K$. Let $w_{k}(g)$ be the weight associated with user $k \in K$ for goal $g$. The user weight $w_{k}(g)$ reflects 1) the relative priority of user $k$ with respect to other users and 2) the importance of goal $g$ from user $k$’s perspective. The values of $w_{k}(g)$ are set by high-level system user policies. A radar’s scan action (strategy) can be defined to be the start and end angles of the sector to be scanned by an individual radar for a fixed interval of time (a heartbeat). Utility evaluation of a goal depends on both scan quality and weight. Quality measures how well an area is scanned, with quality depending on the amount of time a radar spends sampling a voxel in space, the degree to which an area is scanned in its (spatial) entirety, and the number of radars observing an area.

**Quality function:** The quality $Q(A, s_{r})$ of scanning an area $A$ using scan action $s_{r}$ by a single radar $r$ can be defined as

$$Q(A, s_{r}) = F_{w}(c(A, s_{r})) \times \left(1 - \beta F_{d}(d(r, A)) + (1 - \beta) F_{w}(\frac{wd(s_{r})}{360})\right)$$

where $wd(s_{r})$ is the size of sector $s_{r}$, $a(r, A)$ is the minimal angle that would allow $r$ to cover $A$, $c(A, s_{r}) = \frac{wd(s_{r})}{a(r, A)}$ is the coverage of $A$ by $s_{r}$, $h(r, A)$ is the distance from $r$ to geometric center of $A$, $h_{max}(r)$ is the range of radar $r$, $d(r, A) = \frac{h(r, A)}{h_{max}(r)}$ is the normalized distance from $r$ to $A$, and $\beta$ is a tunable parameter. $F_{w}$ captures the effect on quality due to the percentage of the area covered. $F_{d}$ captures the effect of radar rotation speed on quality. $F_{w}$ measures the effects of the distance from the radar to the geometrical center of the phenomenon area.

A scan area may be scanned by more than one radar in the same heartbeat. $Q(A, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})$ is the maximum quality obtained for scan area $A$ over a set of radars $R$ and their scan actions $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}$ at time $t$. If the phenomenon corresponding to the scan area $A$ is a pinpointing phenomenon, $Q(A, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})$ is defined as $Q(A, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}) = \max_{R \in R} Q(A, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})$ where $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}$ is the scan action for radar $r$ at time $t$. Otherwise, $Q(A, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}) = \max_{R \in R} Q(A, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})$.

We can get user $k$’s utility $U_{k}(s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})$ of satisfying the goal $g$ given the scan actions $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}$ by combining the weight component and the quality component. Formally

$$U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}) = \begin{cases} \delta(t - T_{a}(g))w_{k}(g)Q(A(g, t), s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}) & \text{if } T_{s}(g) \leq t \leq T_{a}(g) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\delta \in (0, 1]$ is a discount factor reflecting a user’s eagerness of scanning a phenomenon earlier.

Let $U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)})^{t_{r}}$ be user $k$’s utility of satisfying goal $g$ based on a series of scan actions $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}} = \{s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)} \}$ from $t_{r}$ to $t'$. There are multiple ways of defining $U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}})$, e.g., $\max_{t_{r} \leq t_{r}' \leq t'} U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}})$, $\max_{t_{r} \leq t_{r}' \leq t'} (U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}}) + U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}' }))$, or $\sum_{t_{r} \leq t_{r}' \leq t'} U_{g}(k, s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}' })$. Given actions $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}}$, the aggregate utility $U_{g}(s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}})$ for satisfying a goal $g$ is the sum $\sum_{g \in G(T)} U_{k}(s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r}})$ of utilities of all users.

### 3.3 Formulation of the Optimization Problem

The objective of the optimization is to satisfy the set of goals $G^{0}, G^{1}, \ldots, G^{\infty}$. At heartbeat $t$, MC&C need to determine optimal radar scanning actions at $t$ and later heartbeats for active goals $A^{t}$. However, limited computational resources preclude that we could compute the optimal actions from now to the infinite future. Instead, we adopt the receding horizon control principle by focusing on the optimal actions $s_{R}^{T_{a}(g) \rightarrow T_{s}(g)}^{t_{r} + t - 1}$ in heartbeats of length $l$.

This formulation is in some sense “myopic” as, in fact, MC&C need to consider what’s going to happen in the future while deciding “optimal” actions at heartbeat $t$. As it is not possible to obtain perfect information about future states, a guaranteed optimal solution is not possible to obtain (even neglecting the computational intractability nature of the problem at hand). Although the optimization process at heartbeat $t$ will output a schedule over multiple
heartbeats, only the scan strategies at time $t$ will be executed by radars. At time $t + 1$, each MC&C updates its goal sets, possibly generates new goals, and runs the optimization algorithm again.

4. LOCAL OPTIMIZATION OF EACH M-C&C

This section discusses how an MC&C $M_i$ searches scanning actions for its radars $R_i$, given the set of active goals $AG_i^t$ at heartbeat $t$. The optimization problem of MC&C $M_i$ at time $t$ is to find the best scan strategy $s_{R_i^{t+1}}$ for its radars. Formally, we have:

$$\arg\max_{s_{R_i^{t+1}}} \sum_{g \in AG_i^t} U_g(s_{R_i^{t+1}}(g) \cup s_{R_i} \cup s_{R_i^{t-1}}(g))$$

where $s_{R_i^{0:t-1}}$ are the strategies of $M_i$'s neighbor MC&Cs, which can be known to $M_i$ through information exchange - negotiation.

The search depth $l$ should be no larger than $\max_{s_{R_i^{t}}(g)} T_c(g)$ and setting search depth $l$ involves a number of tradeoffs. With a larger search depth $l$, $M_i$ has a larger space to coordinate the scan strategies of its radars. However, as only the scan strategy at time $t$ will be executed, the optimal strategy $s_{R_i^{t+1}}$ found at time $t$ may not be optimal in practice. Furthermore, the computational complexity of searching for optimal strategies increases with the search depth $l$. In addition, the prediction of the movement of observed phenomena could be inaccurate. When search depth $l$ is large, the propagation of such inaccuracy could lead to poor performance of the scan strategies.

Since the strategy space of each radar is continuous, we first discretize the radar’s strategy space such that the start and end angles of each strategy can only be in $\{0, 5, 10, \ldots, 360\}$. Then for each goal $g \in AG_i^t$ and each radar $r \in R_i$ such that $Ψ(A(g, t'), r) = true$ at $t \leq t' \leq T_c(g)$, generate the minimum sector that can cover the region $A(g, t')$ and add the sector to the candidate strategy set $S_i^{t'}$ of radar $r$. If $S_i^{t'}$ contains more than $\lambda$ strategies, combine two randomly selected strategies into one strategy and this process continues until $|S_i^{t'}| = \lambda$. The maximum size of $M_i$’s strategy space is $|R_i|^\lambda$. For ease of analysis, we assume that each strategy in $S_i^{t'}$ has an ID ranging from 0 to $|S_i^{t'}| - 1$. Similarly, we give each radar $r \in R_i$ an ID ranging from 0 to $|R_i| - 1$.

The complexity of the optimization problem precludes an M-C&C from using an exhaustive search to find its optimal solution. Alternatively, we use a genetic algorithm (GA) to search the (nearby) best solution. The GA generates a sequence of populations as the outcome of a search method. The individuals of the population are scan strategies over multiple heartbeats. Each strategy combination can be represented as a matrix of size $|R_i| \times l$ in which column $j$ represents radars’ scanning strategies at heartbeat $t + j$ and row $i$ represents radar $i$’s scanning strategies from heartbeat $t$ to heartbeat $t + l - 1$. Let the matrix for a strategy combination be $X$. Then $x_{ij}$ represents radar $i$’s scanning strategies from heartbeat $t + j$ and it follows that $x_{ij} \in [0, |S_i^{t+j}| - 1]$.

An individual’s fitness value is determined by the utility of all the goals $AG_i^t$ while all radars take strategies of the individual. The evolution starts from a population of randomly generated individuals. In each generation, operators selection, crossover (recombining existing genetic materials in new ways) and mutation (introducing new genetic materials by random modifications) are used to form a new population. The new population is then used in the next iteration of the algorithm. The algorithm terminates when the local optimization deadline $\tau$ (e.g., 5 seconds) has been reached, or the population is stable (e.g., 95% of the individuals have the same highest fitness value). When the genetic algorithm terminates, the chromosome that has the highest fitness is extracted and the decoded strategies are the best strategies for the M-C&C.

When each MC&C runs the local optimization algorithm separately resulting in a scan strategy based on its local (partial) view of the physical space, efficiency loss may occur. One such source of quality degradation is the loss of the ability to cooperatively scan pinpointing phenomena on boundaries, which can be solved by coordinating scans between MC&Cs and sharing resulting raw data. Another source of lessened quality are redundant scans which can be alleviated by allowing MC&Cs to share abstract level information regarding goals located in boundaries. The limitations of the fully distributed optimization lead us to study the coordination problem of distributed MC&Cs.

5. NEGOTIATION BASED COORDINATION

This section extends the negotiation model in [3] to accommodate 1) user’s complex preferences over multiple heartbeats and 2) the need of concurrency during negotiation. In [3], all the MC&Cs ignore end users’ preferences over multiple heartbeats and are only maximizing the social welfare of a “single” heartbeat. Accordingly, the model in [3] may lead to poor performance due to its lack of reasoning ahead. In [3], MC&Cs conduct synchronous negotiation. That is, after an MC&C makes proposals to its neighbors, it will respond to its neighbors only after it has received all responses from its neighbors. While the synchronous protocol can guarantee that the social welfare will improve after each round of negotiation, it may be unreasonable for an MC&C to wait for responses from its neighbors given the real time constraints and bounded computational resources.

Algorithm 1 shows how the distributed negotiation is conducted between MC&Cs at heartbeat $t$. For a boundary phenomenon, it is possible that one MC&C observes it while another MC&C fails to discover it. Before MC&Cs begin the main stages of negotiation, each MC&C communicates with its neighbors MC&Cs to make sure its boundary goals are also in the goal sets of other MC&Cs.

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Algorithm 1: The Negotiation Algorithm for MC&C $M_i$

Let $Θ \in \{wstrategy, wproposal\}$ represent the status of MC&C $M_i$.

Let function $\text{GetTime}()$ return the current time.

Let $Ωstr, Ωmove$ be the queue to store other MC&Cs’ strategy update/proposals.

Initialization:

a) Send goal set $AG_i^t$ to its neighbor MC&Cs ($Ωstr = \mathcal{N}_i M_i$);

b) Run the genetic algorithm and get optimal scanning strategies $s_{R_i}$;

c) Send $s_{R_i}$ to all neighbor MC&Cs;

d) Set $Θ = wstrategy$ and $nowt = \text{GetTime}();$

while optimization deadline has not expired do

if $Θ = wstrategy$ and $Ωstr \neq \emptyset$ then

Run the genetic algorithm and get new optimal strategies $s_{R_i}$;

if MC&C $M_i$ can gain positive marginal utility by using $s_{R_i}$ then

Send $s_{R_i}$ with its marginal utility to all neighbor MC&Cs;

Set $Θ = wproposal$, $Ωmove = \emptyset$;

Set $nowt = \text{GetTime}();$

else if $Θ = wproposal$ and $(\text{GetTime}() - nowt) > θ$ then

if The marginal utility of MC&C $M_i$ by using $s_{R_i}$ is higher than its neighbor MC&Cs’ marginal utility then

Set $s_{R_i} = s_{R_i}', Ωstr = \emptyset$;

Send $s_{R_i}'$ to all neighbor MC&Cs $\mathcal{N}_i M_i$;

Set $Θ = wstrategy$, $nowt = \text{GetTime}();$
Then each MC&C runs its local optimization algorithm (Section 4) to generate its initial strategy over multiple heartbeats. Next each MC&C shares its initial configuration with its neighbor MC&Cs. Then the main stages of negotiation starts. The negotiation stops when the heartbeat deadline (60 seconds) approaches.

Since an MC&C’s optimal strategy depends on its neighbor MC&Cs’ scan strategies. After one neighbor MC&C changes its strategy, the MC&C may not be optimal anymore. Thus, MC&C can run its local optimization algorithm again to find its new optimal strategy. M’s marginal utility

\[ U_M(s'_R, s_R) \]

when switching to strategy \( s'_R \) is

\[ \sum_{g \in G} \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} U_g(s'_{R_i}\cup s_{R_{i+1}}) + \sum_{g \in G'} \sum_{j=0}^{l-1} U_g(s'_{R_j}\cup s_{R_{j+1}}) \].

If \( U_M(s'_R, s_R) > 0 \), MC&C may choose to use strategy \( s'_R \). Since it is possible that other MC&Cs change their strategies simultaneously, M’s new strategy \( s'_R \) may not be optimal anymore since the optimality of \( s'_R \) is based on the assumption that M’s neighbor MC&Cs don’t change their strategies. To overcome the efficiency loss due to concurrency, a synchronization mechanism is used: An MC&C first proposes a strategy move by reporting its proposal from one of its neighbor MC&Cs or it has to wait for a certain period of time. The com-plexity of this conflict check for each MC&C is \( O(|M|) \). Note that it is also possible that the utility of a goal set will increase when multiple MC&Cs change their strategies simultaneously, no matter whether their moves are in conflict with each other. Since an MC&C’s changing its strategy will affect the utilities of its neighbor MC&Cs, an MC&C’s making the optimal decision of whether to switch to its new strategy \( s'_R \) may depend on other MC&Cs’ choice of whether to change to their strategies.

Definition 1. (Move selection) Assume that MC&C’s current strategies are \( s_{R_0}, \ldots, s_{R_{|M|}} \), respectively. Assume that MC&Cs are proposing to use new strategies \( s'_{R_0}, \ldots, s'_{R_{|M|}} \), respectively. The move selection problem is to find out the set of moves to maximize the social welfare.

Theorem 2. The move selection problem is \( NP \)-hard.
found that it’s always better to set \( \xi \sim 4 \) seconds. Therefore, M-C&Cs may conduct 6 rounds of negotiation and we found that in most cases, negotiation converges (i.e., no MC&C can find a better strategy) in about 5 rounds of negotiation.

Our negotiation scheme has a number of features: 1) Each M-C&C exchanges its scan plan (generated by local optimization) over multiple heartbeats with neighbor MC&Cs. 2) To reduce the utility loss due to concurrent strategy change, an MC&C changes its strategy if it has the highest marginal utility than that of its neighbor MC&Cs. 3) Negotiation is conducted asynchronously to increase concurrency of MC&C’s strategy change. If we synchronize the negotiation protocol by setting a long waiting time, we can guarantee that the social welfare will monotonically increase with the ongoing negotiation as in [3]. We make tradeoffs between speeding up negotiation and guaranteeing monotonic increase of social welfare by setting the value of waiting deadline \( \xi \) by considering factors such as the communication delay distribution. When we set a long waiting deadline (i.e., there is no concurrency), the protocol is similar to the LID-JESP algorithm [7] which makes use of the distributed breakout algorithm (DBA) algorithm [13].

6. SIMULATION RESULTS

Evaluating the performance of the approach on the real radar system is difficult and complex. To better quantify the benefits of our approach, we turn to simulation results in more controlled settings.

6.1 Simulator

To determine how best to decentralize control, we have created an abstract simulation of the actual DCAS system. The simulator consists of a number of components. Radars are clustered into partitions, each of which has a single MC&C. Each MC&C has a feature repository where it stores information regarding phenomena in its spacial region, where each phenomenon represents a weather event. Goals are generated following goal generation rules given observed weather phenomena. The optimization function of each MC&C takes its scan goals and returns scans for each of its radars. The simulator additionally contains a function which abstractly simulates the mapping from physical events and scans of the radars to what the MC&C eventually sees as the result of those scans. Depending on the elevations scanned, the number of radars scanning, the type of phenomena, and the speed of scan, it assigns error values to the attributes of the phenomena within certain bounds. In this way, the MC&Cs do not see exactly what is there but rather something slightly off.

The parameters of each phenomenon (e.g., speed, density), each radar (e.g., radius), and each MC&C (e.g., the number of radars under control) reflect the current design of the real system. Phenomena may be either pinpointing or non-pinpointing. Goal generation and utility calculation in the simulator are the same as that in the real system. The radars have a range of approximately 30 kilometers and utility calculation in the simulator are the same as that in the real system. The number of radars controlled by each MC&C is ranged between 8 and 12. Each radar can have at most 8 candidate strategies at any heartbeat which represent a wide range of strategies.

6.2 Benchmark approaches

Our distributed negotiation (DN) model was compared with four other different approaches. Both the centralized single-step optimization (CS) approach and centralized multi-step optimization (CM) approach assume that there is a super MC&C controlling all the MC&Cs and the super MC&C runs the local optimization algorithm to find optimal strategies for all MC&C’s radars. The only difference between CS and CM is that CS makes one heartbeat optimization while CM searches over multiple heartbeats. For the fully distributed (FD) approach, MC&Cs optimize the utilities of their separate goal sets and don’t communicate with each other. FD searches strategies over multiple heartbeats.

6.3 Experimental settings

In our experiments, the simulator will model real phenomena generation and different approaches may generate different set of goals given their observations. Each approach will optimize its scan strategy based on its own goal set. Thus it is unfair to compare the performance of different approaches based on their own goal sets. Instead, we generate an oracle goal set based on the system’s real phenomena. The social welfare of each approach is evaluated based on the actions generated by each approach and the set of oracle goals generated by the system. For an experiment, we run the system for multiple heartbeats (e.g., 200) and compute the average social welfare for each heartbeat, e.g., average social welfare \( sw(DN) \) for the approach DN.

An extensive amount of stochastic simulations was carried out for various resource allocation scenarios subjected to the following variables: 1) the scale of each MC&C, i.e., how many radars are controlled by an MC&C; 2) the density of phenomena, i.e., the frequency of new phenomena entering the radar network; 3) the speed of phenomena; and 4) the ratio of boundary goals. In the rest of this section, we report some representative simulation results.

6.4 Observations

6.4.1 Scale of the sensor network

On average, DN achieved a much higher social welfare than all other benchmark approaches. Figure 2 shows the ratios of the social welfare of approaches FD, CM and DN to that of CS in networks of different scales in which each MC&C controls 6 radars ([12, 2] implies 12 radars with 2 MC&Cs). We can see that 1) DN achieved slightly lower social welfare than CM if there are a small number of radars (e.g., 12) and 2) DN achieved higher social welfare other approaches if there are more than 12 radars and the advantage increases with the scale of the network. This result is intuitive since an MC&C’s strategy space increases with the number of radars. Given the real time constraint, distributed optimization with coordination may achieve better performance than centralized optimization. For the two centralized approaches, CM achieved a higher social welfare than CS since \( sw(CM)/sw(CS) \) is higher than 1.

We can also see that the fully distributed approach FD achieved much worse performance than other approaches due to lack of coordination. One interesting observation from the experiments is that...
FD's social welfare based on its own goal set is very high. However, FD's social welfare based on the oracle goal set is low, which is partially due to belief propagation: if an MC&C has wrong belief about the real phenomena, it may still have wrong (or even worse) belief after it sends out scanning commands based on its old wrong belief. Through coordination, MC&Cs will "talk" to each other and accordingly, they may have a more accurate understanding of real phenomena.

6.4.2 Density of phenomena and network structure

We found through simulation that the density of phenomena had a large effect on the performance of different approaches. It is intuitive since, with more phenomena, more goals will be generated and the search space of the optimization problem increases. We use the average number η of phenomena per radar at each heartbeat to measure the density of phenomena. For our domain, an η in the range of [0.5, 1] (respectively, [1, 3] and [3, 6]) is considered as low (respectively, moderate and high). It can be found from Figure 3 that the advantage of DN over the other approaches increases with the increase of the phenomena density. In addition, for different phenomena densities, CM achieved a higher social welfare than CS, which had a much better performance than FD.

One important objective of simulation is to investigate how the performance of DN is affected by the network structure, i.e., the number of radars controlled by each MC&C. Intuitively, if an MC&C has to control a large number of radars, it cannot find a good solution given its heartbeat deadline. However, if each MC&C has only a small number of radars, an MC&C can find a local optimal solution but the global solution based on all MC&Cs' local optimal solutions may be much worse than the global optimal solution. Figure 4 shows how the performance of DN is affected by the number of radars controlled by each MC&C in a network with 48 radars. It can be found that 1) when the phenomena density is low, it is better to allow each MC&C to control relatively more radars (e.g., 12); 2) when the phenomena density is medium, it is better to allow each MC&C to control around 8 radars; and 3) when the phenomena density is high, it is better to allow each MC&C to control a small number of radars (e.g., 4, 6).

6.4.3 Speed of phenomena and boundary goals

We also observed that the advantage of DN over the other approaches increases with the increase of the ratio of boundary goals and moving speed of phenomena (figures omitted due to space limitation). With more boundary goals, coordination between MC&Cs becomes more important since it may improve the utilities of these boundary goals by removing redundant scans and having multiple radars to observe the same phenomenon. If a phenomenon moves fast, multiple MC&Cs may need to coordinate with each other to satisfy the goal existing for multiple heartbeats.

7. FIELD STUDY

We have implemented our approach on the IP1 Testbed, which is located in southwestern Oklahoma in the heart of tornado alley. Figure 5 shows the location and coverage area of the testbed. The testbed consists of four mechanically steered parabolic dish X-band radars atop small towers. The circles around KSASO, KCYR, KLWE, and KRSP show the 30 km coverage area of the IP1 radars. The nearest NEXRAD sites located near the IP1 testbed are the radars at Twin Lakes (KTLX) and Frederick (KFDR) and are shown here with 40 km and 60 km range rings. An interested reader can refer to [5, 15] for the IP1 system architecture.

We evaluated our approach during the 2010 CASA Spring Experiment from April 1st to June 15th. This time period corresponds to a yearly maximum of severe storms and tornadic weather in our testbed domain. We ran cases archived during this experiment period from severe weather events using our system emulator which simulates the behavior of the system in a non-closed loop fashion - that we can verify the behavior of the scan optimization, but the supplied radar data is from the canned case, not from an actual regeneration of data using, for example, a radar simulator. Using this system emulation approach we verified the scanning behavior of the goal-based multi-step optimization.

Figure 6 shows one example of the scanning pattern for each radar from an emulated test case. On the left of Figure 6 shows the scanning actions of radars using our approach and on the right of Figure 6 shows radars' scanning actions using the previous approach described in [3]. Each radar does a pie shaped sector scan, the number of arcs on the edge denoting the number of elevation angles in the scan. It can be found in Figure 6 that the two approaches very often, but not always generated different scanning commands for the radars.

To further test goal-based multi-step optimization versus a baseline functionality of the system we disabled the previous system’s time-since-last-scanned scan optimization heuristic and reran test cases where we compared this baseline system versus the fully
functional goal-based multi-step optimization. We observed that the myopic baseline configuration generally exhibited a much “greedier” approach to scanning - often performing repeated scans of the same phenomena while ignoring other scan requirements such as satisfying user needs for regular low-level surveillance scans. These results with real data verified our simulation studies and showed that 1) goal based problem formulation more precisely models the needs of multiple end-users and 2) multi-step optimization together with negotiation based coordination efficiently schedules radars’ scanning actions over multiple heartbeats.

It has been observed that our approach is significantly better at meeting the user specified “time-since-last-scan” requirements. In addition, our new approach avoided redundant scanning important phenomena and found phenomena failed to be observed by the old approach. Besides the numerical values that were obtained through the analysis of the real-time scanning actions generated by MC&Cs, we also got direct feedback from domain experts informing us that because we were using predictions of the future locations of phenomena we also were doing a better job of scanning the “leading edges” of storm systems. This is an important benefit because most of the interesting observables that lead to better warning by humans are located in these areas.

8. CONCLUSION

This paper presents a distributed resource allocation model combining heuristic search and asynchronous negotiation. In more detail, our contributions to the state of the art include:

- We introduce the concept “goal” to model end-users’ preferences over multiple heartbeats and cast the complex sensing resource allocation problem as a continuous time optimization problem. The goal based formulation enhances modularity and improves the adaptivity of our approach to changing environments and user preferences. Each MC&C utilizes a genetic algorithm to find its local optimal strategy over multiple heartbeats given its neighbor MC&C’s current strategies.
- We extended the distributed negotiation model in [3] by allowing MC&Cs to 1) exchange “plans” over multiple heartbeats and 2) make tradeoffs regarding local optimization time, negotiation time, and concurrency.
- We empirically show that our approach achieved better performance than some benchmark approaches.
- We have applied our approach to an operational radar testbed that is deployed in Oklahoma to observe severe weather events and it has exhibited much better performance than previous techniques.

Future research directions include improving the distributed resource allocation model. For instance, MC&Cs can make multilateral agreement through mediation that allows neighboring M-

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10. REFERENCES