

Improved Tracking for Distributed Signal Fusion Optimization in a Fully-Connected Wireless Sensor Network

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Abstract—The distributed adaptive signal fusion (DASF) algorithm is a generic algorithm that can be used to solve various spatial signal and feature fusion optimization problems in a distributed setting such as a wireless sensor network. Examples include principal component analysis, adaptive beamforming, and source separation problems. While the DASF algorithm adaptively learns the relevant second order statistics from the collected sensor data, accuracy problems can arise if the spatial covariance structure of the signals is rapidly changing. In this paper, we propose a method to improve the tracking or convergence speed of the DASF algorithm in a fully-connected sensor network with a broadcast communication protocol. While the improved tracking increases communication cost, we demonstrate that this tradeoff is efficient in the sense that an L -fold increase in bandwidth results in an R times faster convergence with $R \gg L$.

Index Terms—Distributed Signal Processing, Distributed Optimization, Distributed Spatial Filtering, Feature Fusion.

I. INTRODUCTION

A wireless sensor network (WSN) consists of a collection of sensor nodes which are spread out over an area, where each node is equipped with one or more sensors, a processing unit, and a wireless radio. Instead of transferring all the raw sensor data to a central fusion center, a distributed processing of the sensor data is often preferred in terms of bandwidth efficiency. The distributed adaptive signal fusion (DASF) algorithm described in [1] allows to solve a variety of spatial signal or feature fusion optimization problems in such a distributed context. In contrast to various other distributed algorithms [2]–[6], distributed signal fusion optimization (DSFO) problems of interest do not have a separable objective nor a shared optimization variable across nodes. Instead, the objective and the constraint functions consist of spatial filtering operations given by $X^T \mathbf{y}(t)$, where X is the optimization variable and $\mathbf{y}(t)$ is a multi-channel signal containing all the sensor signals of the WSN. In the DSFO setting, each node k in the WSN measures its own signal \mathbf{y}_k and has its own local variable X_k such that $X^T \mathbf{y}(t) = \sum_k X_k^T \mathbf{y}_k(t)$. This type of partitioning has also been studied under the name of feature partitioning or distributed features in previous works, such as [7]–[10].

In practice, the iterations of the DASF algorithm are spread over time, i.e., over different batches of signal observations (samples), thereby exploiting the stationarity of the underlying

signals. This results in an adaptive algorithm that is able to track the changes in the signal statistics. However, this is a valid argument as long as the changes in the statistical parameters of \mathbf{y} (e.g., their spatial covariance matrix) are slower than the algorithm convergence rate, which is not always the case in practice. In this paper, we propose a modified scheme for the DASF algorithm in a fully-connected WSN, which improves the tracking speed by re-using and re-transmitting previously measured observations in a bandwidth-efficient way, avoiding the centralization of the full data measured at each node. Although this leads to additional communication costs, we show that the resulting tradeoff can be made efficient by synergistically combining the data exchange protocol with the computations within the DASF algorithm. In the last section of this paper, we demonstrate the improvements made by the proposed method on two different algorithms from the DASF family.

II. REVIEW OF THE DASF FRAMEWORK

Consider a WSN with K nodes given in the set $\mathcal{K} = \{1, \dots, K\}$, where each node k measures its own M_k -channel signal \mathbf{y}_k . Let

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = [\mathbf{y}_1^T(t), \dots, \mathbf{y}_K^T(t)]^T \quad (1)$$

be the stacked vector containing all the sensor signals, where $\mathbf{y}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^M$ with $M = \sum_k M_k$. The signal \mathbf{y} is assumed to be short-term stationary and ergodic. The goal is now to learn a network-wide signal fusion or spatial filter $X \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times Q}$ such that the Q -channel output signal $X^T \mathbf{y}(t)$ is optimal in some sense. To this end, each node is responsible for optimizing its corresponding part of X , based on the per-node partitioning:

$$X = [X_1^T, \dots, X_K^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times Q}. \quad (2)$$

The generic DSFO problem can be written in the form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} : \underset{X}{\text{minimize}} \quad & \varphi(X^T \mathbf{y}(t), X^T B) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \eta_j(X^T \mathbf{y}(t), X^T B) \leq 0 \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{I}, \\ & \eta_j(X^T \mathbf{y}(t), X^T B) = 0 \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{E}, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where φ is the objective and η_j 's are the constraint functions respectively. The sets \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{E} contain the indices j representing inequality and equality constraints respectively. A few practical examples of spatial filtering problems that fit in this framework are given in Table I (we refer to [1] for

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TABLE I: Examples of DSFO problems

\mathbb{P}	$\min \varphi$	Constraints
LCMV [11], [12]	$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}(t) ^2]$	$\mathbf{x}^T B = \mathbf{f}^T$
EVD [13]	$\min_X -\mathbb{E}[X^T \mathbf{y}(t) ^2]$	$X^T X = I_Q$
CCA [14]	$\min_{(X, W)} -\mathbb{E}[\text{tr}(X^T \mathbf{y}(t) \mathbf{v}^T(t) W)]$	$\mathbb{E}[X^T \mathbf{y}(t) \mathbf{y}^T(t) X] = I_Q$ $\mathbb{E}[W^T \mathbf{v}(t) \mathbf{v}^T(t) W] = I_Q$

a more extensive list). The notation in (3) emphasizes that the optimization variable X and the signal $\mathbf{y}(t)$ exclusively appear in the form $X^T \mathbf{y}(t)$ in the considered DSFO problems. The matrix X can also appear in linear forms $X^T B$ where B is an a-priori known deterministic matrix (e.g., linearly constrained minimum variance beamforming (LCMV) and eigenvalue decomposition (EVD) with $B = I_M$ in Table I). Although not represented for conciseness, the considered DSFO problems can also have more than one variable, as in the canonical correlation analysis (CCA) example in Table I. The rows of B are partitioned in a similar way to \mathbf{y} in (1), where each node k only has access to the block-row B_k .

In practice, \mathbf{y} is a stochastic signal, therefore φ and η_j 's are functions of the statistical parameters of \mathbf{y} and hence contain expectation operators $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$, as can be seen in the examples given in Table I, which we have omitted in (3). The statistical properties of \mathbf{y} can be estimated using a window, or batch, of N time samples $\{\mathbf{y}(t)\}_{t=0}^{N-1}$, using the short-term stationarity and ergodicity of \mathbf{y} , where N is sufficiently large. However, in a distributed setting, communicating \mathbf{y}_k 's between nodes to construct \mathbf{y} is costly. Note that in practice, N is generally much larger than the number of columns of B , therefore the transmission of observations of \mathbf{y} contribute to the main communication cost. The DASF algorithm solves this issue and guarantees convergence to an optimal solution X^* of the problem by requiring each node k to communicate only a linearly compressed version of \mathbf{y}_k , instead of \mathbf{y}_k itself. While the DASF algorithm can be applied in any connected network topology [1], we specifically focus here on the case where the network is fully-connected, i.e., a signal that is broadcast by any node can be received by all other nodes in the network.

Consider a fully-connected WSN, where each node k collects a batch of N samples of the M_k -channel signal \mathbf{y}_k , denoted as $\{\mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t=iN}^{(i+1)N-1}$ where i is the iteration index of the DASF algorithm. Note that the N sample batch changes with each iteration. Additionally, each node k has an estimation X_k^i of their local variable X_k , which is part of the network-wide X as defined in the partitioning (2). While X_k^i is part of the optimization variable X , it is also used by the DASF algorithm to compress the M_k -channel signal into a Q -channel signal, thereby reducing the communication cost (note that many practical examples have $Q = 1$). A similar compression is done for B_k and the compressed signals and deterministic matrices are then given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_k^i(t) \triangleq X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k(t), \quad \hat{B}_k^i \triangleq X_k^{iT} B_k. \quad (4)$$

At each iteration, one node (say node q) acts as the ‘‘updating node’’, where the updating node changes in each iteration.

Each $k \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \{q\}$ sends $\{\hat{\mathbf{y}}_k^i(t) = X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t=iN}^{(i+1)N-1}$ and \hat{B}_k^i to node q at iteration i . We define the locally available signal at node q after receiving the compressed signals $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_k^i$ from the other nodes as

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t) = [\mathbf{y}_q^T(t), \hat{\mathbf{y}}_1^{iT}(t), \dots, \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{q-1}^{iT}(t), \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{q+1}^{iT}(t), \dots, \hat{\mathbf{y}}_K^{iT}(t)]^T, \quad (5)$$

which corresponds to stacking node q 's own signal with the compressed signals it receives, while \tilde{B}_q^i is defined similarly. The mechanism of the DASF algorithm is to solve a compressed version of the global problem (3) at the updating node by using the locally available signal $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i$ and matrix \tilde{B}_q^i . We define the local variable at node q as

$$\tilde{X}_q = [X_q^T, G_{1,q}^T, \dots, G_{q-1,q}^T, G_{q+1,q}^T, \dots, G_{K,q}^T]^T, \quad (6)$$

where X_q is $M_q \times Q$ and every $G_{k,q}$ is $Q \times Q$. The purpose of \tilde{X}_q is to be the local fusion matrix for $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i$ and \tilde{B}_q^i , analogous to X being the network-wide fusion matrix for \mathbf{y} and B . We write

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t) &= X_q^T \mathbf{y}_q(t) + \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \{q\}} G_{k,q}^T \hat{\mathbf{y}}_k^i(t) \\ &= X_q^T \mathbf{y}_q(t) + \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \{q\}} (X_k^i G_{k,q})^T \mathbf{y}_k(t) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

(a similar expression holds for $\tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{B}_q^i$), such that the global variable X is parameterized as

$$\begin{aligned} X &= [(X_1^i G_{1,q})^T, \dots, (X_{q-1}^i G_{q-1,q})^T, \\ &X_q^T, (X_{q+1}^i G_{q+1,q})^T, \dots, (X_K^i G_{K,q})^T]^T. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

In this parameterization, X_q corresponds to the filter applied to node q 's signal \mathbf{y}_q and matrix B_q , while the $G_{k,q}$'s correspond to the filters applied to the compressed $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_k^i$'s and \hat{B}_k^i 's node q receives from nodes $k \neq q$. We define the parameterized local problem at node q as

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbb{P}}_q^i : \text{minimize} \quad & \varphi \left(\tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t), \tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{B}_q^i \right) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \eta_j \left(\tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t), \tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{B}_q^i \right) \leq 0 \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{I}, \\ & \eta_j \left(\tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t), \tilde{X}_q^T \tilde{B}_q^i \right) = 0 \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{E}. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Note the similarity between (10) and (3), yet the problems are not equal, as the data is not the same, namely $(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i, \tilde{B}_q^i)$ and (\mathbf{y}, B) respectively. We define the solution of the local problem (10) at node q and iteration i as

$$\tilde{X}_q^{i+1} \triangleq \text{argmin} \tilde{\mathbb{P}}_q^i, \quad (11)$$

where \tilde{X}_q^{i+1} is partitioned into X_q^{i+1} and $G_{k,q}^{i+1}$'s, $k \neq q$, as in (6). If the solution of (11) is not unique, node q chooses the \tilde{X}_q for which the distance between its consecutive local estimators $\|\tilde{X}_q^{i+1} - \tilde{X}_q^i\|_F$ is minimized, where $\tilde{X}_q^i \triangleq [X_q^{iT}, I_Q, \dots, I_Q]^T$. Based on the parameterization in (9), the local variables X_k are updated as

$$X_k^{i+1} = \begin{cases} X_q^{i+1} & \text{if } k = q \\ X_k^i G_{k,q}^{i+1} & \text{if } k \neq q \end{cases}, \quad (12)$$

Algorithm 1: DASF in a Fully-Connected Network [1]

X^0 initialized randomly, $i \leftarrow 0$.

repeat

Choose the updating node as $q \leftarrow (i \bmod K) + 1$.

1) Every node k collects $\{\mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t=iN}^{(i+1)N-1}$, compresses it using (4) to obtain $\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k^i(t)\}_{t=iN}^{(i+1)N-1}$ and transmits it to node q . B_k is also compressed into \tilde{B}_k^i as in (4) and transmitted to node q .

at Node q do

2a) $\tilde{X}_q^{i+1} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin} \tilde{\mathbb{P}}_q^i$.

If the solution of (10) is not unique, select the solution which minimizes $\|\tilde{X}_q^{i+1} - \tilde{X}_q^i\|_F$.

2b) Partition \tilde{X}_q^{i+1} as in (6).

2c) Transmit $G_{k,q}^{i+1}$ to node k for every $k \neq q$.

end

3) Every node updates X_k^{i+1} according to (12).

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

to have an estimation X^{i+1} of the global variable X at the end of iteration i , where X^{i+1} is obtained by stacking X_k^{i+1} 's, as defined in (2). Since each node k has only access to its own local variable X_k , the updating node q needs to communicate the newly computed $G_{k,q}^{i+1}$'s to nodes $k \neq q$ so that they can update their variable X_k according to (12). The DASF algorithm then chooses another node to be the updating one (for the next batch of N samples) and the process is repeated until convergence. From (7)-(9), we also see that the network-wide output $X^T \mathbf{y}(t)$ for the batch of N samples used at iteration i can be computed locally at node q as $X^{iT} \mathbf{y}(t) = \tilde{X}_q^{iT} \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t)$. Algorithm 1 summarizes the steps of the DASF algorithm as discussed in this section. Sufficient conditions for the convergence and optimality of this algorithm can be found in [1].

III. EFFICIENT COMMUNICATION FOR IMPROVED TRACKING

In the DASF algorithm described in Section II, each batch of N samples of \mathbf{y}_k is used in only one iteration i , i.e., the batch $\{\mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t=iN}^{(i+1)N-1}$ at iteration i . This might lead to a slow convergence/tracking speed, in particular for large networks (i.e., large K). To see this, note that it takes at least K iterations before each X_k has been updated once, which happens only after sample time $t = KN$ (i.e., K batches of N samples). In order to improve the tracking performance, one could perform $R > 1$ iterations per N -sample batch. However, a straightforward realization of such a scheme would result in an R -fold increase of the communication cost. We will show that a specific re-transmission scheme which exploits the broadcast nature of the transmissions, and which synergistically combines the re-transmissions with the computations within the DASF algorithm, can actually make this tracking-vs-bandwidth tradeoff very efficient in the sense that the bandwidth increase is smaller than R .

Let us define $\mathcal{T}_m \triangleq \{(m-1)N, \dots, mN-1\}$, where m is a strictly positive integer, and let R be the number of iterations

over which the signal batch $\{\mathbf{y}(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$ will be used. This means that the m -th batch $\{\mathbf{y}(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$ will be used over the iterations $\mathcal{I}_m \triangleq \{(m-1)R, \dots, mR-1\}$ of the DASF algorithm, hence $m = \lceil (i+1)/R \rceil$. In Algorithm 1, we had $R = 1$ and therefore $m = i+1$ at every iteration, i.e., the batch index m and iteration i always update at the same pace. If $R > 1$, each new batch of N samples will lead to multiple DASF iterations, leading to faster convergence/tracking properties, i.e., more nodes can update per batch.

For $R > 1$, let us first consider a straightforward approach where we apply the steps of Algorithm 1 while re-using the same batch R times. As $X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k$ is a Q -channel signal, each broadcast has a communication cost in $\mathcal{O}(NQ)$ per node, where \mathcal{O} represents the Landau notation, and $\mathcal{O}(NQK)$ over the full network. This approach would then cost $\mathcal{O}(NQKR)$ per batch since each node would have to re-compress and re-transmit the same batch of samples R times. In this case, the communication cost increases linearly with R .

In the remaining of this section, we propose a more efficient scheme, which results in a much smaller and more scalable increase in communication cost. For each *new* batch $\{\mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$, i.e., for each increment of m , all nodes k first broadcast the compressed data batch $\{X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$ to the entire network of nodes, where i is the index corresponding to the first iteration where this new batch of samples is used. Assuming a broadcast communication protocol, this requires only one transmission per node, which is the same as in a single iteration of Algorithm 1. Every node in the network then has access to

$$\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k^i(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m} = \{X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}, \forall k. \quad (13)$$

$\tilde{B}_k^i = X_k^{iT} B_k$ is also broadcast initially. After this initial broadcast, the first updating node (say node q) solves Problem (10), obtaining \tilde{X}_q^{i+1} . Partitioning \tilde{X}_q^{i+1} as in (6) gives a new X_q^{i+1} and matrices $G_{k,q}^{i+1}$, to be used in (12), i.e., $X_k^{i+1} = X_k^i G_{k,q}^{i+1}$, $\forall k \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \{q\}$. For the other nodes to be aware of these changes, node q broadcasts its compressed signal samples and deterministic matrix obtained using its new estimation X_q^{i+1} , as well as the matrices $G_{k,q}^{i+1}$, i.e., node q broadcasts

$$\begin{aligned} \{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^{i+1}(t) = X_q^{(i+1)T} \mathbf{y}_q(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}, \\ \tilde{B}_q^{i+1} = X_q^{(i+1)T} B_q \text{ and } \{G_{k,q}^{i+1}\}_{k \neq q}, \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

so that the next updating node has access to the batch of samples of node q as well as \tilde{B}_q^{i+1} , this time compressed by the new X_q^{i+1} and can update the compressed signals and deterministic matrix of the other nodes (received in the previous iteration i) using:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \neq q : \{X_k^{(i+1)T} \mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m} = \{G_{k,q}^{(i+1)T} X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}, \\ X_k^{(i+1)T} B_k = G_{k,q}^{(i+1)T} X_k^{iT} B_k. \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

In the remaining $R-1$ iterations in \mathcal{I}_m , the only transmissions done in the network are the broadcasts (14) performed by the updating node (which changes at each iteration). Each

node therefore needs to re-compress and re-broadcast the same batch of samples only when it becomes an updating node. The modifications are presented in Algorithm 2.

As mentioned previously, $X_k^{iT} \mathbf{y}_k$ is a Q -channel signal, hence the initial broadcast has a communication cost in $\mathcal{O}(NQ)$ per node and $\mathcal{O}(NQK)$ over the full network. Then, for each iteration $i \in \mathcal{I}_m$ (except the last one), the extra data to be transmitted (only by a single node each time) is given in (14), which has a cost in $\mathcal{O}(NQ)$ (assuming N is large¹). Note that the final updating node does not have to broadcast (14) as the next iteration starts with a new batch. Thus, over the R iterations in \mathcal{I}_m , the total communication cost in the network is in $\mathcal{O}(NQ(K + R - 1))$ per batch, as opposed to a cost of $\mathcal{O}(NQKR)$ in the case of the “straightforward” approach mentioned earlier. Algorithm 2 thus allows to perform $R > 1$ iterations per batch of N samples, albeit with a larger communication bandwidth than Algorithm 1 (see Table II). To appreciate why this is an efficient and desirable tradeoff, consider the case where $R = K$. In this case, the bandwidth of Algorithm 2 is doubled compared to Algorithm 1, yet the former can perform K iterations in the time where the latter can only perform a single iteration (note that a batch increment is directly coupled to the sample time of the sensors). As a result, the convergence or tracking speed is K times faster, whereas the bandwidth is only doubled. Moreover, the communication cost is $K/2$ times more efficient than the “straightforward” approach.

IV. SIMULATIONS

In this section, we demonstrate the performance of the proposed method for two different spatial filtering algorithms: LCMV beamforming and the EVD problem. These problems have been studied in a DASF setting in [11], [12] for the former and [13] for the latter, and were later shown to be special cases of Algorithm 1 in [1]. In both cases, we consider a WSN with $K = 5$ nodes, each measuring the signal \mathbf{y}_k on $M_k = 5$ channels. The network-wide signal \mathbf{y} has then $M = 25$ channels and is modeled as

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = C \cdot \mathbf{d}(t) + \mathbf{n}(t), \quad (16)$$

where \mathbf{d} represents an S -dimensional source signal, C is an $M \times S$ mixture matrix and $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{R}^M$ is an additive noise signal. The values over time of \mathbf{d} have been chosen independently at random, following the zero-mean Gaussian distribution with variance 0.5, i.e., $\mathcal{N}(0, 0.5)$. Similarly, each entry of \mathbf{n} independently follows $\mathcal{N}(0, 0.1)$. On the other hand, the entries of the mixture matrix C are drawn from the uniform distribution on the interval $[-a, a]$.

In our experiments, the spatial covariance matrix $K_{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}(t)\mathbf{y}^T(t)]$ is estimated using batches of N samples of \mathbf{y} during the time intervals \mathcal{T}_m with the following estimator:

$$\hat{K}_{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m} \mathbf{y}(t)\mathbf{y}^T(t). \quad (17)$$

¹In practice, the number of observations in a single batch is large in order to estimate the statistics of $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k$ [1]. As a result, the transmission of \hat{B}_k 's and the parameters $G_{k,q}$ becomes negligible. We therefore neglect these in the asymptotic communication cost.

Algorithm 2: DASF in a Fully-Connected Network with Data Re-Use

X^0 initialized randomly, $i \leftarrow 0$, $m \leftarrow 1$.

repeat

1) Every node k collects $\{\mathbf{y}_k(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$, compresses it to obtain $\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k^i(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$ using (4) and broadcasts the compressed signals to all other nodes along with \hat{B}_k^i defined in (4).

repeat R times

$q \leftarrow (i \bmod K) + 1$.

at Node q do

2a) $\tilde{X}_q^{i+1} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin} \mathbb{P}_q^i$.
If the solution of (10) is not unique, select the solution which minimizes $\|\tilde{X}_q^{i+1} - \tilde{X}_q^i\|_F$.

2b) Partition \tilde{X}_q^{i+1} as in (6).

2c) Broadcast
 $\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^{i+1}(t) = X_q^{(i+1)T} \mathbf{y}_q(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$,
 $\hat{B}_q^{i+1} = X_q^{(i+1)T} B_q$ and $\{G_{k,q}^{i+1}\}_{k \neq q}$ to all other nodes.

end

3) For all k , every node updates X_k^{i+1} according to (12) and recomputes
 $\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k^{i+1}(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m} = \{G_{k,q}^{(i+1)T} \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_q^i(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}_m}$ and
 $\hat{B}_k^{i+1} = G_{k,q}^{(i+1)T} \hat{B}_q^i$.

$i \leftarrow i + 1$
 $m \leftarrow m + 1$

TABLE II: Per batch communication cost for the original [1], straightforward, and proposed methods.

Original	Straightforward	Proposed
$\mathcal{O}(NQK)$	$\mathcal{O}(NQKR)$	$\mathcal{O}(NQ(K + R - 1))$

Each estimation of the covariance matrix is then used R times before using newly collected data to obtain a new estimation of $K_{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}}$. Additionally, we also change the entries of C at random points in time by adding random numbers drawn from $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_C^2)$, to simulate a change in signal statistics and to assess the tracking performances for different values of R (see further). The metric we use to compare different approaches that we present below is the mean-squared error (MSE):

$$\epsilon(i) = \frac{1}{MQ} \|X^i - X^*\|_F^2, \quad (18)$$

where X^i is only evaluated at the last update of the batch, i.e., $i = mR - 1$ and where X^* represents a solution of the global optimization problem. Note that X^* depends on $K_{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}}$ which changes during the simulations due to the additive noise on C we mentioned previously. Therefore, the value of the optimal filter X^* will depend on the iteration as well.

A. LCMV beamforming

Let us consider the following LCMV beamforming problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{X \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times Q}}{\text{minimize}} && \mathbb{E}[\|X^T \mathbf{y}(t)\|^2] = \operatorname{trace}(X^T K_{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}} X) \\ & \text{subject to} && B^T X = F, \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where the steering matrix $B \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times J}$ contains the first J columns of the mixture matrix C , where we fix $J = Q = 3$, and the elements of $F \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times Q}$ are drawn independently at random from $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. The unique solution of (19) is given by $X^* = K_{yy}^{-1} B (B^T K_{yy}^{-1} B)^{-1} F$. We take the number of sources to be $S = 10$ and the statistical parameter of the mixture matrix to be $a = 0.5$. We consider batches of size $N = 10^4$ samples to obtain the estimator \hat{K}_{yy} (17) of the spatial covariance matrix of \mathbf{y} and take $\sigma_C^2 = 10^{-3}$.

B. EVD problem

We take $Q = 1$ hence $X = \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^M$ and consider:

$$\begin{aligned} \underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^M}{\text{maximize}} \quad & \mathbb{E}[|\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}(t)|^2] = \mathbf{x}^T K_{yy} \mathbf{x} \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = 1. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

This time, we take $S = 1$ such that $\mathbf{d} = d$ is a 1-dimensional source signal and $C = \mathbf{c}$ is an M -dimensional vector with statistical parameter $a = 0.1$. Moreover, the covariance matrix is estimated using batches of $N = 10^5$ samples of \mathbf{y} while $\sigma_C^2 = 10^{-4}$. There exists two solutions to (20) given by the normalized eigenvectors of the covariance matrix K_{yy} corresponding to the largest eigenvalue. Based on (16), they are $\{\pm \mathbf{c}/\|\mathbf{c}\|\}$ and we fix $X^* = \mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{c}/\|\mathbf{c}\|$.

C. Results

Figure 1 shows the results for $R \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, K = 5\}$ for both problems. For the case of $R = 1$, the results are obtained using Algorithm 1, whereas we used Algorithm 2 when $R \geq 2$. The plots represent the median value of ϵ over 100 Monte-Carlo runs. The time instants where C (or $\mathbf{c} = C$) changes are indicated by black vertical lines. We observe that for a fixed C , the minimal MSE value is achieved faster for larger values of R , which is eventually reached for every $R \geq 2$ when the statistics of the signals do not change for a long enough period of time. After every change in statistics, a slight increase in the MSE can be observed but can be corrected if C does not change too rapidly. A case worth highlighting is when $R = K = 5$ which is very slightly affected by the changes of C . On the other hand, if the signal statistics change too fast, a larger value of R is necessary for tracking performances to stay accurate. In the case of $R = 1$, i.e., the original DASF algorithm (Algorithm 1), the MSE does not attain its minimal value when the signal statistics change very frequently. Note that the bandwidth is only doubled in the case of $R = 5$ (vs. the case $R = 1$), while achieving a 5-fold faster convergence, thereby allowing to (nearly) perfectly track the changes in C .

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have proposed a scheme to improve the convergence or tracking speed of the DASF algorithm for a fully-connected WSN. This is done by efficiently communicating the data across the network so as to re-use the same batch of observations over multiple iterations while keeping the communication cost as low as possible. Our claims were confirmed by simulation results. As a future work, an extension of this scheme will be developed for general network topologies.

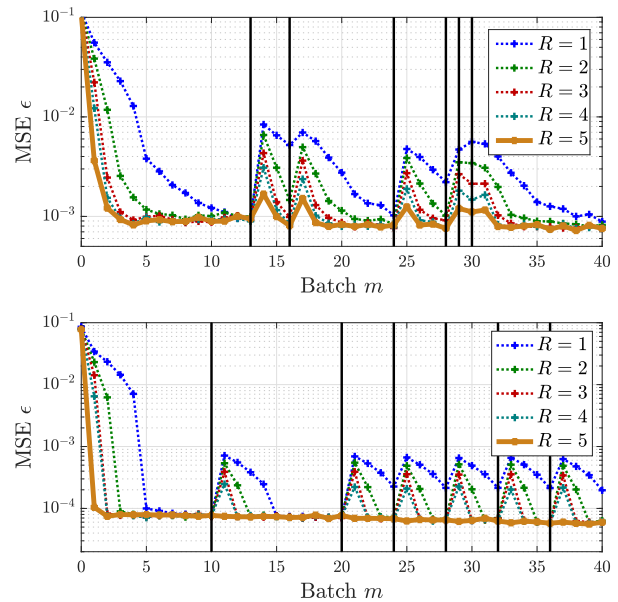


Fig. 1: Comparison of the median MSE for different values of R in a network with $K = 5$ nodes. The vertical lines in black represent time instants where C changes. *Top*: Solving the LCMV problem described in IV-A. *Bottom*: Solving the EVD problem described in IV-B.

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