Variable length adaptive filtering within incremental learning algorithms for distributed networks

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VARIABLE LENGTH ADAPTIVE FILTERING WITHIN INCREMENTAL LEARNING ALGORITHMS FOR DISTRIBUTED NETWORKS

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ABSTRACT

In this paper we propose the use of variable length adaptive filtering within the context of incremental learning for distributed networks. Algorithms for such incremental learning strategies must have low computational complexity and require minimal communication between nodes as compared to centralized networks. To match the dynamics of the data across the network we optimize the length of the adaptive filters used within each node by exploiting the statistics of the local signals to each node. In particular, we use a fractional tap-length solution to determine the length of the adaptive filter within each node, the coefficients of which are adapted with an incremental-learning learning algorithm. Simulation studies are presented to confirm the convergence properties of the scheme and these are verified by theoretical analysis of excess mean square error and mean square deviation.

Index Terms— variable tap-length, distributed processing, adaptive filters, incremental algorithm

1. INTRODUCTION

Distributed solutions, only exploiting local data exchanges and communications between immediate neighboring nodes, have been proposed [1, 2, 3] as a consequence of their reduced processing and communications requirements as compared to central solutions. The applications of such distributed adaptive networks range from sensor networks to environmental monitoring and factory instrumentation [4, 5]. However, in many applications of such distributed solutions the tap-length of the adaptive filters is assumed fixed, which is not appropriate for certain situations where the optimal tap-length is unknown or variable.

As a key parameter, tap-length plays an important role in the design of adaptive filters. It is well known that the selection of tap-length significantly influences the performance of adaptive filters: deficient tap-length is likely to result in increase of the mean-square-error (MSE); whereas the computational cost and the excess mean-square-error (EMSE) may become too high if the tap-length is too large. Since the concept of variable tap-length in adaptive filters was initially proposed in [6], various related results [7, 8, 9, 10] have been reported for the single adaptive filter case. As compared with other methods, Gong and Cowan [10] introduce a low-complexity and robust fractional tap-length (FT) algorithm based on instantaneous errors, which obtain improved convergence properties. The steady-state performance analysis of the FT algorithm are provided in [10, 11, 12], which also provide a guideline for parameter selection in the FT algorithm.

Motivated by both the ideas of distributed estimation and variable tap-length, this paper proposes an adaptive learning algorithm which solves the parameter estimation problem in a distributed network where the tap-length of the optimal filter is not known. The steady-state performance of the new algorithm for Gaussian data is studied using weighted spatial-temporal energy conservation arguments. In particular, we derive theoretical expressions for the mean-square deviation (MSD), the EMSE and the MSE for each node within the network. Simulation studies are presented to confirm the convergence properties of the scheme and to verify the theoretical results.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The proposed algorithm and its motivation are introduced in Section 2. The analysis of the fractional tap-length function is described in Section 3. Simulation results that confirm the analysis of the presented algorithm are given in section 4. Section 5 offers conclusions.

The following notations are used in this paper: boldface small and capital letters are used for random complex vectors or scalars and matrices; normal font is employed for deterministic quantities; (·)T and (·)* denote transposition and complex-conjugate transposition respectively; |·|2 and ||·||2 denote the absolute squared operation and squared Euclidean norm operation.

2. ESTIMATION PROBLEM AND FORMULATION

Consider an N-node network, where we collect data and seek an unknown vector w∗, whose tap weights and tap-length are desirable to be estimated. We can decouple the adaptation rules for the tap weights and tap-length, which means that the selection of one does not depend on the other. Assuming the tap-length is L, which is estimated by the tap-length search solution that will be discussed later, each node k obtains the time observations {d(i), u(i)} of zero-mean complex spatial data {d(i), u(i)} at time instant i. Each d(i) is a scalar value and each u(i) is a 1 × L row regression vector. In order to seek w∗, we formulated the linear minimum mean-square estimation problem:

\[ \min_w J_L(w) \quad \text{and} \quad J_L(w) = E||d - Uw||^2 \] (1)
where two global matrices of the desired response and regression data are given by
\[ d \triangleq \text{col}\{d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_N\}, \quad (N \times 1) \]
\[ U \triangleq \text{col}\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_N\}, \quad (N \times L). \]

Let \( w_i \) be an estimate for \( w^o \) at time instant \( i \) and \( \psi_k(i) \) be a local estimate for \( w^o \) at node \( k \) at time instant \( i \). We introduce the incremental steepest-descent solution [2], which estimates the optimal solution \( w^o \) by iterating \( \psi_k(i) \) through an incremental network in the following manner:
\[ \psi_k(i) = \psi_{k-1}(i) + \mu_k u_k(i) (d_k(i) - u_k(i) w_{i-1}) \quad k = 1, \ldots, N \]
(4)

where we start from the initial condition \( \psi_0(i) = w_{i-1} \) at node 1.

With the assumption of the tap-length \( L \), we define the segmented cost function as
\[ J_M(w) \triangleq E[|d - U_M w_M|^2] \]
(5)
where \( 1 \leq M \leq L \), \( w_M \) and \( U_M \) consist of the initial \( M \) elements of \( w \) and the initial \( M \) column vectors of \( U \), respectively, as
\[ w_M \triangleq \text{col}\{w(1), \ldots, w(M)\}, \quad (1 \times M) \]
\[ U_M \triangleq \text{col}\{u_1(1 : M), \ldots, u_N(1 : M)\}, \quad (N \times M). \]
(6)
(7)

We pose the minimum difference of mean-square errors estimation problem to seek the optimal tap-length \( L^* \)
\[ \min \left\{ L \mid J_{L-\Delta}(w) - J_L(w) \leq \epsilon \right\} \]
(8)

where \( \epsilon \), predetermined by system requirements, is a small positive value and \( \Delta \) is an integer value to avoid the suboptimum tap-lengths.

The segmented mean-square estimation error and the mean-square estimation error at time instant \( i \) are respectively given by,
\[ J_{L(i)-\Delta}(w_{i-1}) = e^2_{L(i)-\Delta}(w_{i-1}) \]
(9)
\[ J_{L(i)}(w_{i-1}) = e^2_{L(i)}(w_{i-1}). \]
(10)

We start from the standard pseudo fractional tap-length implement as in [10]
\[ L_f(i+1) = (L_f(i) - \alpha) + \beta \cdot \min \{ L_f(i) - L_f(i+1) \geq \nu \} \]
(11)

where \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are small positive values, \( \alpha \) is the leakage factor used to prevent \( L_f(i) \) from increasing to an undesirably large value and \( \beta \) is the step-size for \( L_f(i) \) adaptation. Then the integer tap-length \( L(i) \) is adjusted according to
\[ L(i+1) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \lfloor L_f(i) \rfloor & \text{if } |L(i) - L_f(i+1)| \geq \nu \\ L(i) & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \]
(12)

where \( \lfloor \cdot \rfloor \) rounds the embraced value to the nearest integer and the step-size parameter \( \nu \) is a small integer.

Distributed networks motivate us to decompose the segment cost function and cost function as
\[ J_{L-\Delta}(w) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} J_{k,L-\Delta}(w) \]
(13)
\[ J_L(w) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} J_{k,L}(w) \]
(14)

where
\[ J_{k,L-\Delta}(w) = E[|d_k - u_k(1 : M) w(1 : M)|^2], \]
(15)

and
\[ J_{k,L}(w) = E[|d_k - u_k w|^2]. \]
(16)

Such results allow us to rewrite (11) as
\[ L_f(i+1) = (L_f(i) - \alpha + \beta \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k(w_{i-1}) \]
(17)

with \( \gamma_k(w_{i-1}) = e^2_k(L_f(i)-\Delta)(w_{i-1}) - e^2_k(L_f(i))(w_{i-1}) \). With proper choice of \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \), we will have \( L(i) \to L^o \) as \( i \to \infty \) for any initial condition, where \( L^o \) is an optimal tap-length and always larger than the true tap-length of \( w^o \). Let \( \ell_{k,f}(i) \) denote the local estimate of the fractional tap-length at node \( k \) at time \( i \). \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) can be decomposed as \( \alpha = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \) and \( \beta = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \beta_k \) respectively, where \( \alpha_k \) indicates the local leakage factor and \( \beta_k \) denotes the local step-size for \( \ell_{k,f}(i) \) adaptation at node \( k \). In the defined cycle, node \( k \) received the estimated fractional tap-length \( \ell_{k-1,f}(i) \) from the node \( k-1 \). At each time instant \( i \), we start with the initial condition \( \ell_{0,f}(i) = L_f(i) \) at node 1 \((L_f(i) \) is the current global estimation for \( L^o \)). At the end of the cycle, the local estimation \( \ell_{N,f}(i) \) is employed as the global estimation \( L_f(i+1) \) for the next time \( i+1 \) and the integer tap-length \( L(i+1) \) is also evaluated by (12). Such implementation of a centralized solution for tap-length adaptation is described as follows:

For each time instant \( i \geq 0 \) repeat:
\[ \ell_{0,f}(i) = L_f(i) \]
For \( k=1, \ldots, N \)
\[ \ell_{k,f}(i) = \ell_{k-1,f}(i) - \alpha_k + \beta_k \cdot \gamma_k(w_{i-1}) \]
end
\[ L_f(i+1) = \ell_{N,f}(i) \]
\[ L(i+1) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \lfloor L_f(i+1) \rfloor & \text{if } |L_f(i) - L_f(i+1)| \geq \nu \\ L_f(i) & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \]
where \( \gamma_k(w_{i-1}) = e^2_k(L_f(i)-\Delta)(w_{i-1}) - e^2_k(L_f(i))(w_{i-1}) \)

where we always hold \( \ell_{k,f}(i) \geq L_{min} \), which is the minimum tap-length. This method also requires all nodes to access the global information \( w_{i-1} \) and only adapts the integer tap-length at the end of a cycle. A fully distributed solution can be achieved by evaluating the segmented mean-square error and mean-square error from its local estimate \( \psi_{k-1}(i) \). This approach leads to distributed adaptation for both tap weights and tap-length. For the estimation of tap weights, a distributed version of algorithm of (4) is presented in [2] as
\[ \psi_k(i) = \psi_{k-1}(i) + \mu_k u_k(i) (d_k(i) - u_k(i) \psi_{k-1}(i)) \quad k = 1, \ldots, N \]
(18)

Let \( L_k(i) \) denote the local estimate of \( L^o \) at node \( k \) at time \( i \). A distributed solution for tap-length adaptation is summarized below:

For each time instant \( i \geq 0 \) repeat:
\[ \ell_{0,f}(i) = L_f(i) \]
For \( k=1, \ldots, N \)
\[ \ell_{k,f}(i) = \ell_{k-1,f}(i) - \alpha_k + \beta_k \cdot \gamma_k(\psi_{k-1}(i)) \]
end
\[ L_f(i+1) = \ell_{N,f}(i) \]
where \( \gamma_k(\psi_{k-1}(i)) = e^2_k(L_k(i)-\Delta)(\psi_{k-1}(i)) - e^2_k(L_k(i))(\psi_{k-1}(i)) \)
where
\[ e_{k,M(i)}(\psi_{k-1}^{(i)}) = d_k(i) - u_{k,i}(1 : M(i))\psi_{k-1}^{(i)}(1 : M(i)) \quad (19) \]
\[ e_{k,Lk}(\psi_{k-1}^{(i)}) = d_k(i) - u_{k,i}\psi_{k-1}^{(i)} \quad (20) \]
with \( M(i) = L_k(i) - \Delta \). As discussed in [2], Fig. 1 illustrates that in optimization theory the distributed solution can outperform the centralized solution. The simulated curves are obtained by averaging 500 independent Monte Carlo runs with \( \mu_k = 0.05 \). The network utilized in the experiment has 12 nodes and seeks an unknown filter with variable tap-length \( M = 10 \) for \( i \geq 140 \) otherwise \( M = 19 \). The input signal is Gaussian data with mean \( \mu_k \) and the background noise is zero mean real white Gaussian with \( \sigma^2_{v,k} \). For both algorithms, we choose the parameters \( \nu_k = \nu = 1, \alpha_k = 0.03, \beta_k = 1, \Delta = 4 \) and \( L_{\text{min}} = L_f(0) = 6 \), where the selection of parameters follows the rules in [10]-[12]. Note that, in theory, we do not need to set the upper bound for the value of fractional tap-length. However, since the length estimation uses instantaneous errors rather than averaged errors, the fractional tap-length may be, at certain time instants, at an undesired large value, which leads instantaneously to high computational and memory cost. Therefore, in practice, the upper bound is required to avoid such situation.

A2) The unknown system vector \( \psi^0 \) and \( \{d_k(i), u_{k,i}\} \) construct:
\[ d_k(i) = u_k(i)w^0 + v_k(i) \quad (21) \]
where \( v_k(i) \) is a temporally and spatially white noise sequence with variance \( \sigma^2_{v,k} \), and independent of \( d_l(j) \) for \( k \neq l \) or \( i \neq j \) and \( u_{l,j} \) for all \( l \) and \( j \).

A3) \( u_{k,i} \) is spatially and temporally independent, namely \( u_{k,i} \) is independent of \( u_{l,j} \) for \( k \neq l \) or \( i \neq j \).

The following local error signals defined as in [2] are introduced to perform the evaluation:
\[ \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i) \triangleq \psi_{k-1}(i) - \psi^0 \quad (22) \]
\[ e_{a,k}(i) \triangleq u_{k,i} \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i), \quad e_{p,k}(i) \triangleq u_{k,i} \hat{\psi}_k(i) \quad (23) \]
Introduce further the weighted error signals:
\[ \psi^2_{p,k}(i) \triangleq u_{k,i}^2 \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)^2, \quad \psi^2_{a,k}(i) \triangleq u_{k,i} \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)^2 \quad (24) \]

where \( \Sigma_k \) is a Hermitian positive-definite weighting matrix that we are free to choose at each node \( k \). Note that the output error \( e_{a,k}(i) = e_{a,k}(i) + v_k(i) \). As a result, the steady-state quantities for each node are formed as
\[ \eta_k \triangleq E[|\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)|^2] \quad (25) \]
\[ \zeta_k \triangleq E[|\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)|^2] \quad (26) \]
where we use the weighted norm notation \( \|x\|_{\Sigma_k}^2 = x^H \Sigma_k x \) for a vector \( x \) and Hermitian positive-definite \( \Sigma > 0 \).

As presented in [2], the spatial-temporal energy conservation relation between two successive nodes is given by
\[ E[\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)]^2 = E[\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)]^2 + \mu_k^2 \sigma^2_{v,k} E[\|u_k\|_{\Sigma_k}^2] \quad (28) \]
where \( \Sigma_k \) is given by
\[ \Sigma_k = \Sigma_k - \mu_k E(\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)\Sigma_k \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i) + \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)) \quad (29) \]
We assume the regressors are from a circular Gaussian distribution and introduce the eigendecomposition \( R_{a,k} = Q_k\Lambda_k Q_k^H \), where \( Q_k \) is unitary and \( \Lambda_k \) is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues of \( R_{a,k} \).

The transformed quantities are defined as
\[ \tilde{\psi}_k \triangleq Q_k^H \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}, \quad \tilde{\psi}_{k-1} = Q_k \tilde{\psi}_{k-1}, \quad \tilde{u}_k \triangleq u_k Q_k \]
\[ \Sigma_k \triangleq Q_k^H \Sigma_k Q_k, \quad \zeta_k \triangleq Q_k^H \zeta_k Q_k \]
Since \( Q_k \) is unitary, we can have \( E[\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)]^2 = E[\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)]^2 \) and \( E[\|u_k\|_{\Sigma_k}^2] = E[\|u_k\|_{\Sigma_k}^2] \). Let \( Tr[A] \) denote the trace of a matrix \( A \). Using the results for Gaussian data [13], we obtain the transformed expressions from (28) and (29)
\[ E[\tilde{\psi}_k]^2 \leq E[\tilde{\psi}_{k-1}(i)]^2 + \mu_k^2 \sigma^2_{v,k} Tr(\Lambda_k \Sigma_k) \quad (30) \]
where \( \Sigma_k \) is given by
\[ \Sigma_k = \Sigma_k - \mu_k X_k + \mu_k^2 Y_k \quad (31) \]

Fig. 1. Evolution curves for the distributed solution and the centralized solution at node 1: a) EMSE performance b) Fractional tap-length performance.

3. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

In this section, we evaluate the steady-state performance of the distributed algorithm using weighted spatial-temporal energy conserva-
tion arguments [2]. Due to space constraints, only the main procedures are given.

A1) In order to simplify the analysis, the estimated tap-length is assumed to be fixed at the steady-state stage.

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where \( X_k = \Lambda_k \bar{\Sigma}_k + \bar{\Sigma}_k \Lambda_k \) and \( Y_k = \Lambda_k \text{Tr}(\bar{\Sigma}_k \Lambda_k) + \tau \Lambda_k \bar{\Sigma}_k \Lambda_k \) with \( \tau = 1 \) for complex data and \( \tau = 2 \) for real data.

Therefore, we proceed as in [13, 14] by introducing the \( M^2 \times 1 \) vectors:

\[
\delta_k = \text{vec}\{\Sigma_k\}, \quad \delta_k' = \text{vec}\{\Sigma_k\}' \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_k = \text{vec}\{\Lambda_k\}
\]

(32)

where we use the \( \text{vec}\{\} \) notation in two ways: \( \delta = \text{vec}\{\Sigma\} \) denotes an \( M^2 \times 1 \) column vector whose entries are formed by stacking the successive columns of an \( M \times M \) matrix on top of each other, and \( \Sigma = \text{vec}(\delta) \) indicates a matrix whose entries are recovered from \( \delta \). We exploit the following useful property for the \( \text{vec}\{\} \) notation when working with Kronecker products: for any matrices \( \{P, \Sigma, Q\} \) of compatible dimensions, it holds that

\[
\text{vec}(P \Sigma Q) = (Q^T \otimes P)\text{vec}(\Sigma).
\]

(33)

The choice of \( \Sigma_k \) can make both \( \Sigma_k \) and \( \Sigma_k' \) become diagonal in (31). Applying the \( \text{vec}\{\} \) operation to both sides of (31), a linear relation between the corresponding vectors \( \delta_k', \delta_k \) is obtained, namely,

\[
\delta_k' = F_k \delta_k
\]

(34)

where \( F_k \) is an \( M^2 \times M^2 \) matrix and given by

\[
F_k = I - 2\mu_k(I \otimes \Lambda_k) + \mu_k^2(\tau(\Lambda_k \otimes \Lambda_k) + \lambda_k \lambda_k^T).
\]

(35)

Therefore, expression (30) becomes

\[
E\|\psi_k^{(i)}\|^2_{\text{vec}(\delta_k)} = E\|\tilde{\psi}_k^{(i)}\|^2_{\text{vec}(\delta_k)} + \mu_k^2 \sigma_{\delta_k}^2(\lambda_k^T \delta_k)
\]

(36)

where we reuse the time index \( i \) for clarity. For simplicity of notation, we drop the \( \text{vec}\{\} \) notation from the subscripts in (36):

\[
E\|\tilde{\psi}_k^{(i)}\|^2_{\delta_k} = E\|\psi_k^{(i)}\|^2_{\delta_k} + \mu_k^2 \sigma_{\delta_k}^2(\lambda_k^T \delta_k)
\]

(37)

Let \( \rho_k = \psi_k^{(\infty)} \), then

\[
E\|\rho_k\|^2_{\delta_k} = E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_{\delta_k} + \mu_k^2 \sigma_{\delta_k}^2(\lambda_k^T \delta_k).
\]

(38)

By iterating (38) over one cycle, \( N \) coupled equations are obtained:

\[
E\|\rho_1\|^2_{\delta_1} = E\|\rho_N\|^2_{\delta_1} + g_1 \delta_1
\]

\[
E\|\rho_2\|^2_{\delta_2} = E\|\rho_1\|^2_{\delta_2} + g_2 \delta_2
\]

\[
E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_{\delta_{k-1}} = E\|\rho_{k-2}\|^2_{\delta_{k-1}} + g_k \delta_{k-1}
\]

(39)

\[
E\|\rho_k\|^2_{\delta_k} = E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_{\delta_k} + g_k \delta_k
\]

(40)

\[
E\|\rho_N\|^2_{\delta_N} = E\|\rho_{N-1}\|^2_{\delta_N} + g_N \delta_N
\]

with \( g_k = \mu_k^2 \sigma_{\delta_k}^2(\lambda_k^T) \). Choose the free parameters \( \delta_k \) and \( \delta_{k-1} \) such that \( \delta_{k-1} = F_k \delta_k \) and combine (39) and (40), then we iterate this procedure across the cycle to obtain

\[
E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_{\delta_{k-1}} = E\|\rho_{k-2}\|^2_{\delta_{k-1}} + g_k F_{k-1} \delta_{k-1}
\]

\[
+ g_{k-1} F_{k-2} \delta_{k-2}
\]

\[
+ g_{k-2} F_{k-3} \delta_{k-3}
\]

\[
+ \cdots + g_1 F_{k-3} \delta_{k-3}
\]

\[
+ g_0 \delta_0
\]

(41)

Let

\[
\Pi_{k-1} = F_{k-1} \cdots F_{N} F_{1} \cdots F_{k-1} = I, \quad l = 1, 2, \ldots, N
\]

(42)

\[
a_{k-1} = g_k \Pi_{k-1,2} + \cdots + g_{k-2} \Pi_{k-1,N} + g_{k-1}
\]

(43)

then

\[
E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_{\delta_{k-1}} = a_{k-1} \delta_{k-1}.
\]

(44)

Since we are free to select the weight vector \( \delta_{k-1} \) in (44), choosing \( \delta_{k-1} = (I - \Pi_{k-1,1})^{-1} q \) or \( \delta_{k-1} = (I - \Pi_{k-1,1})^{-1} \lambda_k \) results in the expressions for the steady-state MSD, EMSE and MSE at node \( k \):

\[
\eta_k = E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_q = a_{k-1}(I - \Pi_{k-1,1})^{-1} q \quad \text{(MSD)}
\]

(45)

\[
\zeta_k = E\|\rho_{k-1}\|^2_{\lambda_k} = a_{k-1}(I - \Pi_{k-1,1})^{-1} \lambda_k \quad \text{(EMSE)}
\]

(46)

\[
\xi_k = \zeta_k + \sigma_{\delta_k}^2
\]

(47)

where \( q = \text{vec}\{I\} \) and \( \lambda_k = \text{vec}\{\Lambda_k\} \).

---

**Fig. 2.** Node profile: a) Input power b) Noise power c) Correlation index d) SNR.

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**4. SIMULATIONS**

In this section, we compare the theoretical performance with the computer simulations in a system identification scenario. All simulations results are averaged over 100 independent Monte Carlo runs. The steady-state curves are obtained by averaging the last 2000 instantaneous samples of 20,000 iterations. We considered a network with 20 nodes seeking an unknown filter with \( M = 10 \) taps. A correlated Gaussian signal is used to generate the inputs at each node \( k \) which satisfies the recursion

\[
u_k(i) = a_k \nu_k(i - 1) + b_k \cdot c_k(i).
\]

Expression (48) produces a first-order autoregressive (AR) process with a pole at \( a_k \); \( c_k \) is a white, zero-mean, Gaussian random sequence with unity variance, \( a_k \in (0, 1] \) and \( b_k = \sqrt{\sigma^2_{\nu,k} \cdot (1 - a_k^2)} \).
In this way, the covariance matrix $R_{u, k}$ of the regressor $u_{k, i}$ is a $10 \times 10$ Toeplitz matrix with entries $r_k(m) = \sigma^2_{u, k} a_k^m$, $m = 0, \ldots, M - 1$ with $\sigma^2_{u, k} \in [0, 1)$. The background noise has variance $\sigma^2_{\nu, k} \in [0, 1]$ across the network. The statistical profiles are illustrated in Fig. 2. Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 show that the theoretical results for MSE match well with the simulated results, where $r_k = 1$, $\alpha_k = 0.05$, $\beta_k = 1$, $\Delta = 3$, and $L_{\text{min}} = L_f(0) = 4$. Similar results for EMSE and MSD have been obtained but are not included due to space limitations.

Fig. 3. MSE versus node $k - \mu_k = 0.02$.

5. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a new algorithm has been proposed for structure adaptation of adaptive filters in an incremental distributed network. Under the assumptions A1, A2 and A3, weighted spatial-temporal energy conservation argument are used to analyze steady-state mean square performance in the Gaussian case. Numerical simulations show that there is a good match between simulated results and theoretical results. Future work includes more sophisticated distributed estimation in a cooperative fashion.

6. REFERENCES


