

Distributed Fusion in Sensor Networks [Çetin et al. 06]

A Graphical Models Perspective

January 21st 2008

Overview

- Introduction
 - Challenges in sensor networks
 - Graphical models? What for?
- Graphical models
 - Definitions
 - Markov property
 - Factorization
 - Sum Product Algorithm
 - Other algorithms
- Mapping a Network Application to a Graphical Model
 - Self localization in Sensor Networks
- Message Censoring
- Trading off Accuracy for Bits in Particle-Based Messaging
- Effects of Message Approximation
- Summary
- Outlook

Typical Challenges in (Wireless) Sensor Networks

- Distributed nature of computation and deployment
- Communication bandwidth constraints
- Energy constraints
- Information sharing involves approximation
- Traditional measures of distortion not sufficient to describe quality of approximation

- Well suited to capture structure of sensor network which consists of
 - Nodes (for sensing, communication and computation)
 - Connections between nodes (for modelling statistical dependencies and communication links)
- Well developed inference algorithms on graphs already exist
 - Scalable
 - Can deal with “loopy graphs”
 - good convergence and accuracy properties
- Inference Algorithms use parallel message-passing operations
 - well suited to parallel realization of sensor networks via physically distributed processors
- Provide suitable framework for development and analysis of communication-constrained versions of message-passing algorithms

- GM defined on (undirected) graph $G(V,E)$ consisting of
 - Vertex or node set V and
 - Edge set $E \subset V \times V$
- Each node $v \in V$ is associated with a random variable or random vector X_v
- Set of edges E describe conditional dependencies that exist between nodes
- set of random variables/vectors $X = \{X_v : v \in V\}$ has to satisfy Markov property with respect to G

Definition of conditionally independence:

- two variables X_A and X_B are conditionally independent given a third variable X_C if:

$$P(X_A, X_B | X_C) = P(X_A | X_C) P(X_B | X_C) \quad \dots \text{ for every } X_C$$

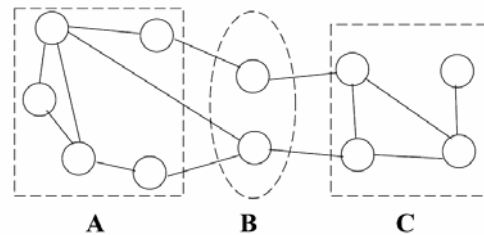
- which is equivalent to saying

$$P(X_A | X_B, X_C) = P(X_A | X_C) \quad \dots \text{ for every } X_C$$

- Assuming V partitioned in disjoint sets A , B and C , in which B separates A and C (Every path between sets A and C must pass through set B)
- The sets of variables $X_A = \{X_v : v \in A\}$ and $X_C = \{X_v : v \in C\}$ must be conditionally independent given the values of $X_B = \{X_v : v \in B\}$

- Thus, the distribution $p(X_A, X_B, X_C)$ can be written in the form:

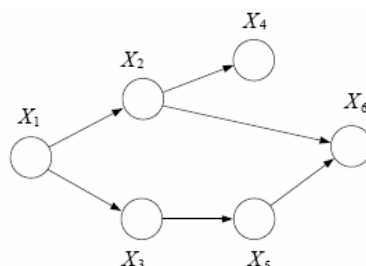
$$p(X_B) p(X_A|X_B) p(X_C|X_B)$$



[Ihler et al. 05]

- For a “graph” associated to time series we could say: the past and the future are conditionally independent given the present

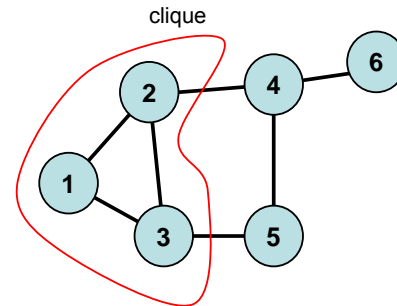
- Graphical models represent large joint distributions compactly using a set of “local” relationships specified by a graph
- Macro language for description particular family of joint distributions
- Edges between the nodes tell us *qualitatively* about the factorisations of the joint probability
- Functions, stored at the nodes tell us *quantitative* details of the pieces into which the joint distribution factors



[Roweis 06]

- As long G is relatively sparse, performing factorisation is an efficient method for calculating joint distributions of a large number of random variables

- Let \mathcal{C} denote the set of all cliques on G
- A clique C is a subset of nodes out of V that are fully connected



- If a random vector X is Markov with respect to G its distribution $p(x)$ admits factorisation as product of functions ψ of variables restricted to cliques $C \in \mathcal{C}$
- $p(x)$ has to be strictly positive

$$p(x) = \frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_C(x_C)}{Z} ; Z \triangleq \sum_x \prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_C(x_C)$$

- Z is the partition Function
- $\psi_C(x_C)$ are the so-called compatibility functions
- if log is applied to this functions, they are referred to as potentials or potential functions

- Assumption for simplicity: a potential is a function either of
 - variable at single node of graph (node potential) or
 - variables at pair of nodes corresponding to an edge in E (edge potential)

$$p(x) = \frac{\left(\prod_{s \in V} \psi_s(x_s) \right) \left(\prod_{(s,t) \in E} \psi_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) \right)}{Z}$$

- Assumption causes no real loss of generality
- Graphical models with higher-order potential functions may always be converted to models with pair wise potential functions (via variable augmentation)

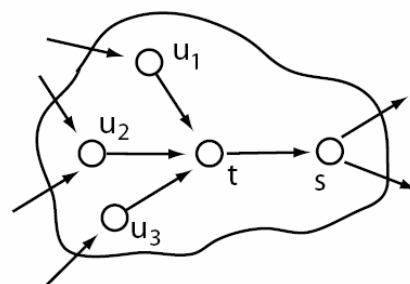
- Computation of marginal distributions relatively straight forward for graphs without loops
- Node and pair-wise potentials can be expressed in terms of
 - marginal probabilities at nodes: $\psi_s(x_s) = p_s(x_s)$ or $\psi_s(x_s) = p_s(x_s) p(y_s|x_s)$ if there is a measurement y_s associated with x_s
 - Joint probabilities of pairs of nodes connected by edges: $\psi(x_s, x_t) = p_s(x_s, x_t) / p(x_s) p(x_t)$

$$p(x) = \prod_{s \in V} p_s(x_s) \prod_{(s,t) \in E} \frac{p_{st}(x_s, x_t)}{p_s(x_s) p_t(x_t)}$$

- Marginal probabilities (at each node) can be calculated efficiently by so-called belief propagation algorithms

- Synonym: sum-product algorithm [Ihler et al. 05]
- popular method for solving inference problems on arbitrary graphical models exactly or approximately
 - Tree-structured GMs: optimal (exact) results
 - Loopy graphs: approximate results, may not converge
- Approximate nature of loopy belief propagation acceptable price for performing efficient inference
- Often even additional approximations are performed because
 - Exact message representation is computationally intractable
 - Finite parameterisation for messages is needed
 - Reducing size of messages to decrease their representational costs (energy and bandwidth constraints)
 - ...

- Goal: compute marginal distribution $p(x_t)$ at each node t
- Via message-passing algorithm between nodes
- Message is expressed in terms of updating outgoing message at iteration i from each node t to each neighbour s in terms of previous $(i-1)$ iteration's incoming messages from t 's neighbours Γ_t

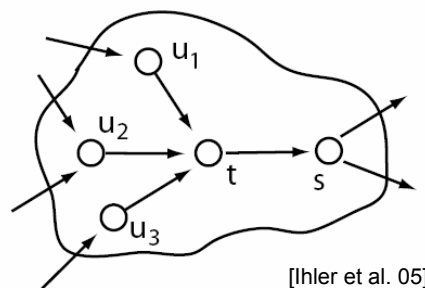


[Ihler et al. 05]

- Message $m_{t,s}$ sent from node t to subsequent node s

$$m_{ts}^i(x_s) \propto \int \psi_{ts}(x_t, x_s) \psi_t(x_t) \prod_{u \in \Gamma_t \setminus s} m_{ut}^{i-1}(x_t) dx_t$$

- $\Gamma_t \dots$ Neighborhood nodes of t
- Each message is normalized so as to integrate to unity



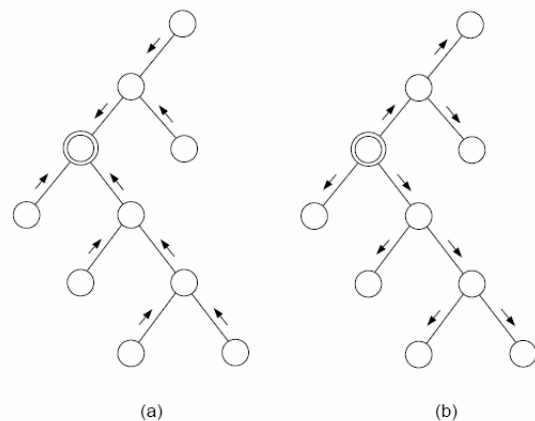
Graphical Models – Belief Propagation (4)

- Marginal distribution at any node is calculated by

$$M_t^i(x_t) \propto \psi_t(x_t) \prod_{u \in \Gamma_t} m_{ut}^i(x_t).$$

- Belief propagation algorithm:

- Choose an arbitrary root node
- Calculate messages and pass them from leaves up to root (a) and then back down (b)
- Given all messages, compute marginals by upper formula



[Roweis 06]

Other methods

- Max-product algorithm
 - alternative factorisation of $p(x)$ in terms of max-marginals

$$p(x) \propto \prod_{s \in V} q_s(x_s) \prod_{(s,t) \in E} \frac{q_{st}(x_s, x_t)}{q_s(x_s)q_t(x_t)} \quad \begin{aligned} q_s(x_s) &:= \max_{x_u, u \in V \setminus s} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ q_{st}(x_s, x_t) &:= \max_{x_u, u \in V \setminus \{s,t\}} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

- For loop free graphs
- Tree-reweighted max-product algorithm (TRMP)
- Nonparametric belief propagation (NBP)

Mapping Network Applications to GM (1)

Self localisation in sensor networks

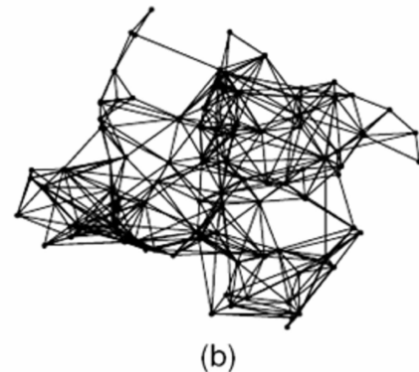
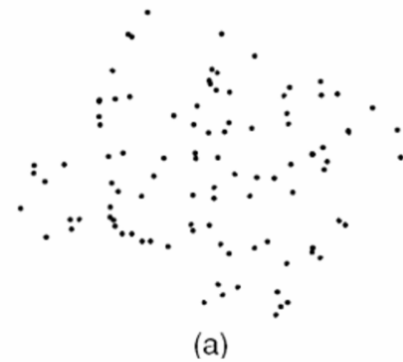
- Well-recognized problem for many sensor network applications
- We consider case in which available information for sensor location consists of
 - Uncertain prior information about location of a sensor subset (e.g. GPS data)
 - Ability of sensors to communicate with each other and measure their intersensor distance
 - Any distance measurements obtained

Sensor localisation

a) Physical location of sensors

b) Graphical Model:

- Nodes correspond to sensor node location variables
- Edges correspond to observed information (intersensor distance measurements) from a subset of node pairs



Definitions:

- $p_s(x_s)$... prior location probability distribution
- $\Pr(x_s, x_t)$... probability of obtaining a distance measurement between two sensors s and t (located at x_s and x_t)
- $p_L(l_{st}|x_s, x_t)$... probability distribution of measuring a distance l_{st} (given, that the true sensor positions are x_s and x_t)

- Calculating potentials

$$\psi_s(x_s) = \rho_s(x_s)$$

$$\psi_{st}(x_s, x_t) = \begin{cases} Pr(x_s, x_t) \rho_L(l_{st}); & l_{st} \text{ is observed} \\ 1 - Pr(x_s, x_t); & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Finally we can apply the belief propagation algorithm to this network to gather marginal distributions of all nodes
- Marginals refer to inferred sensor position

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Self localization in sensor networks

Multiobject data association

Different approaches

- Sum-product algorithm (Belief-propagation)
- Max-product
- TRMP algorithm

For all these messages

- Message transmitted over whole network

Message schedule

- Creation, transmission, processing
- Convergence behaviour
 - Centralized coordination
 - Local rules

Simple local rule

- Compute Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD)

$$D\left(M_{ts}^k \| M_{ts}^{k-1}\right) = \sum_{x_s} M_{ts}^k(x_s) \log \frac{M_{ts}^k(x_s)}{M_{ts}^{k-1}(x_s)}$$

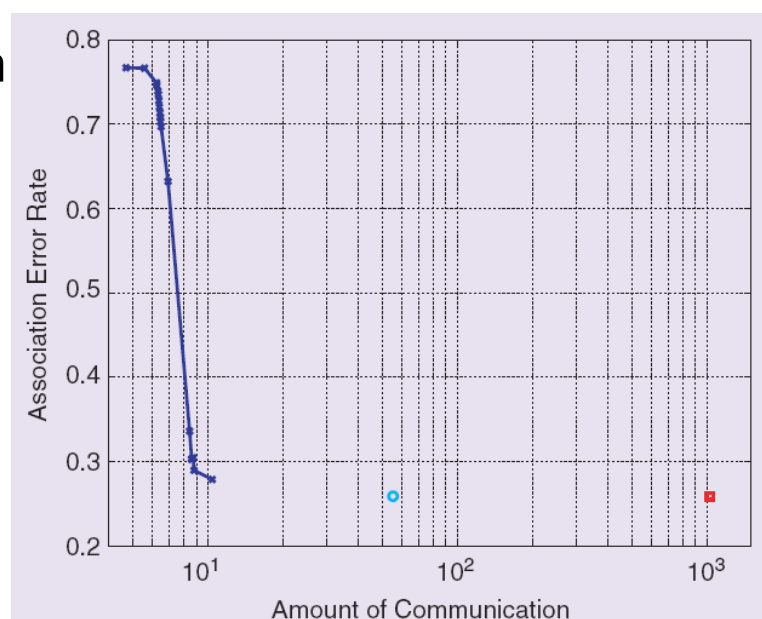
Kullback-Leibler divergence

- Completely local
- Data dependent message
- Nodes can become silent
- Restart sending when sufficiently new information reaches from “elsewhere”

Message censoring (4)

Modified sum-product algorithm

- Tracking targets
- Varying threshold
- Number of wrong matches / number of measurements
- Compared to
 - Max-product (cyan)
 - TRMP (blue)



Performance-communication tradeoff

Side-effect

- Better performance with message censoring (?)
- “Rumor propagation” of algorithm
 - Repeated propagation of messages in loops
 - Leads to incorrect corroboration of hypothesis

Particle based representations of messages

- Efficient transmission for such messages
- How many particles do we need
- How accurate a representation is required

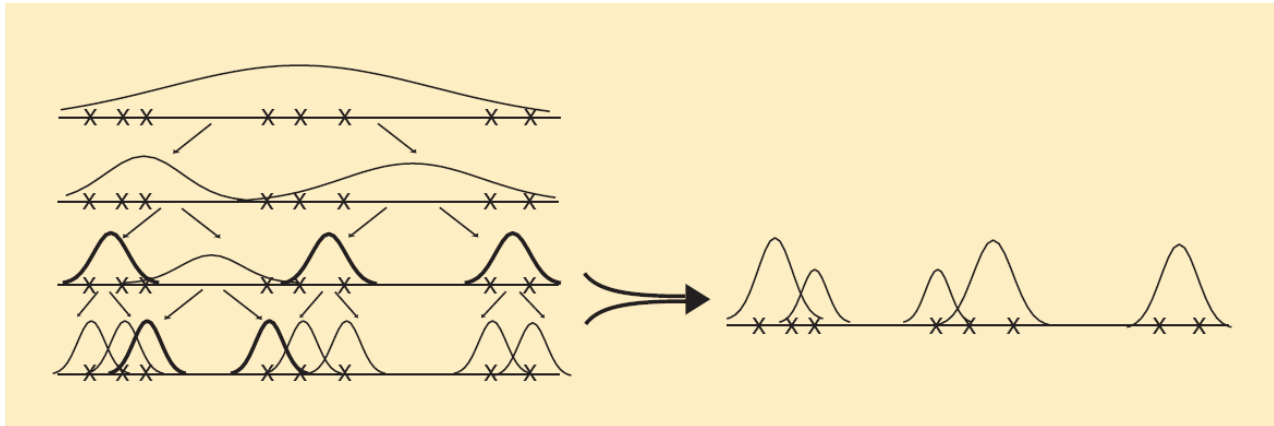
The task is to transmit a probability distribution $q(x)$ represented by a set of particles $\{x_i\}$

- Standard problem in transmission
- Big difference: Neither order nor the accuracy is important for individual particles
- Only the accuracy of the reconstruction of $q(x)$ is important
- Transmission protocol can order the particles and encode only differences $x_{i+1} - x_i$

KD-tree

- The idea is to group particles in a binary tree structure
- Starting from a root node where all particles are grouped together
- Split the set and refine the clustering
- Make an easy approximation on each node of the tree such as Gaussian
- Every cut through this tree corresponds to an approximation of the full, fine scale distribution $q(x)$

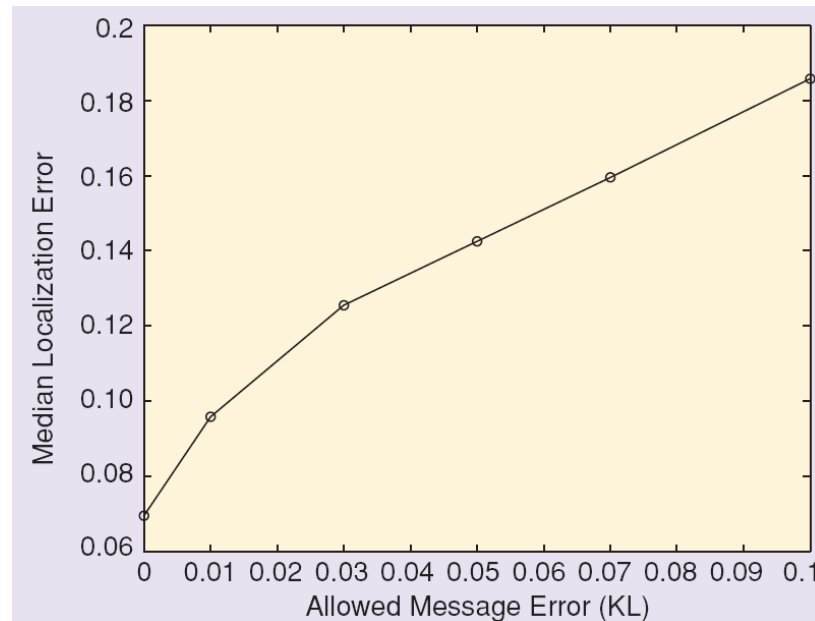
KD-tree conceptual illustration



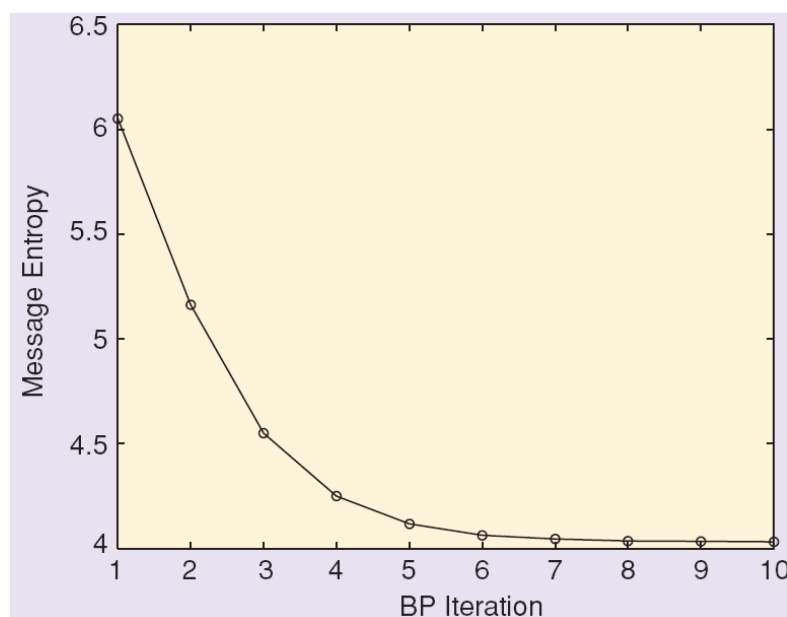
KD-tree benefits

- The tree structure allows an easy estimation of KLD
- Transmission protocol can take advantage of the structure of parent/child mean/covariances
- Adaption of message transmission
 - Specify a desired message accuracy → leads to a cut through in the tree/message approximation
 - Specify a upper bound of bits for communication → determines the most accurate approximation

Trade off between message approximation error and localization error



Entropy behaviour in successive messages over iterations proceed



The preceding methods

- Message approximation due to censoring or to particle based approximation
- A relation between communication resources and the accuracy of the fused estimates

Difference between an exact and approximate message

- Kullback Leibler divergence
- ***Dynamic range measure***

Reminder of BP

Dynamic range (1)

- measure for $e_{ts}(x_s)$
$$d(e_{ts}) = \sup_{a,b} \sqrt{e_{ts}(a)/e_{ts}(b)}$$
- point wise equality condition $d(e_{ts}) = 1$ or $\log d(e_{ts}) = 0$

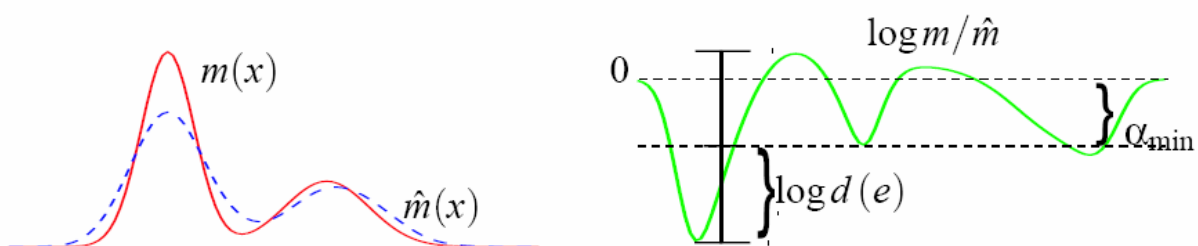
- Equivalently definition

$$\log d(e_{ts}) = \inf_{\alpha} \sup_x |\log \alpha m_{ts}(x) - \log \hat{m}_{ts}(x)| = \inf_{\alpha} \sup_x |\log \alpha - \log e_{ts}(x)|$$

- It is directly related to the point wise error between two distributions

Scalar α

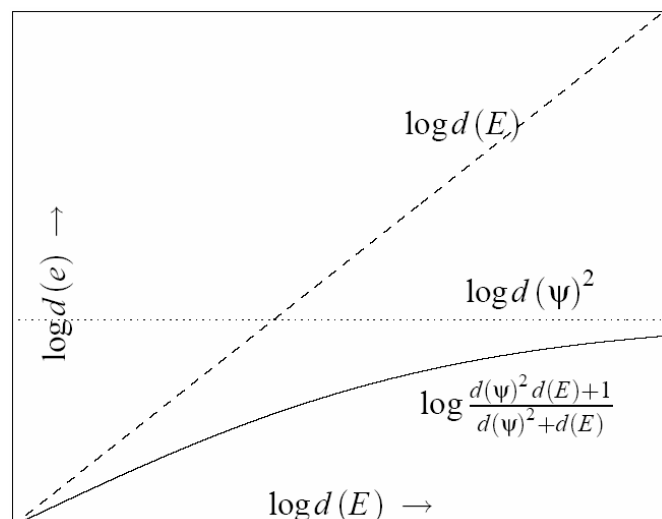
- „purpose of zero-centering“ – invariance of simple rescaling
- Acts as a scale factor defining a class of equivalent messages
- The closest message will be chosen in log-error sense



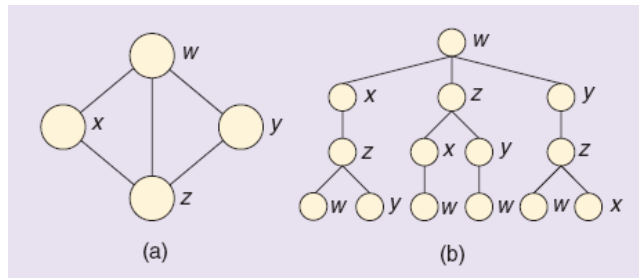
Other interesting properties

- Bounding of the error
- Error propagation
- Mixing of potentials
- Satisfies a rate of contraction

$$d(e_{ts}^{j+1}) \leq \frac{d(\psi_{ts})^2 d(E_{ts}^i) + 1}{d(\psi_{ts})^2 + d(E_{ts}^i)}$$



- These properties provide a basis for bounding
- For loopy graph it is often visualized through „unwrapping“

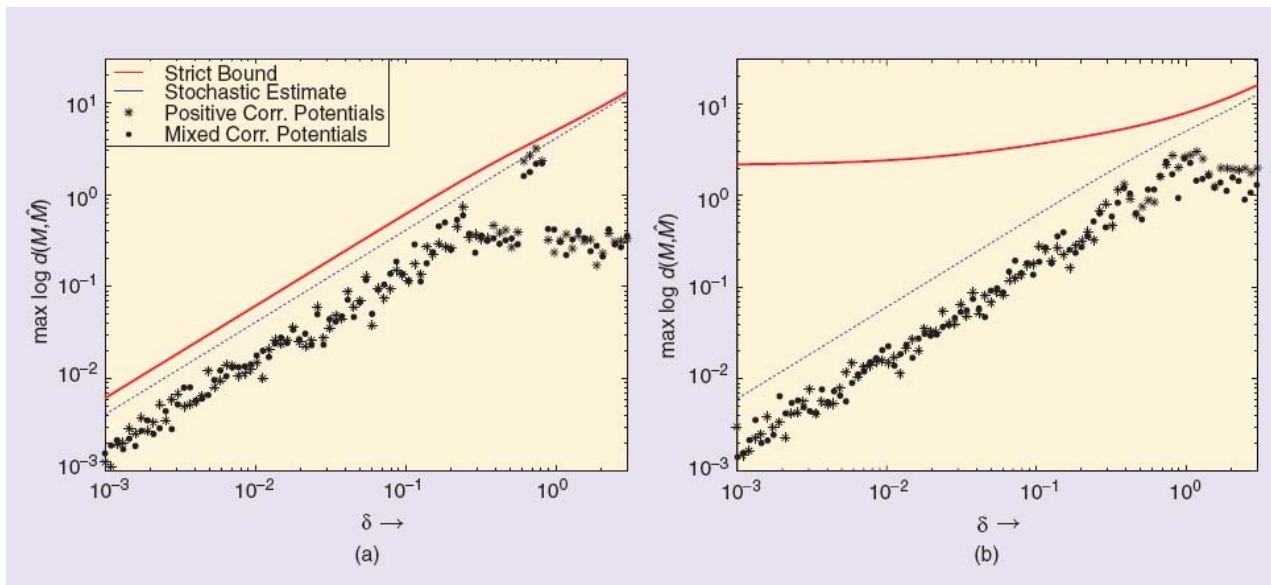


- It is possible to compute a bound on the dynamic range after any number of iterations (without message approximation)
- Provide a strict bound for error

- This bounds seems to be too pessimistic to actual performance
- Assumption of uncorrelated error between nodes and iterations (crazy?)
- Empirically the system behaves similarly to the predictions made by such an assumption
- However such an assumption is unsuitable for deriving strict convergence guarantees

Experimental results

- Maximum errors incurred over quantization error



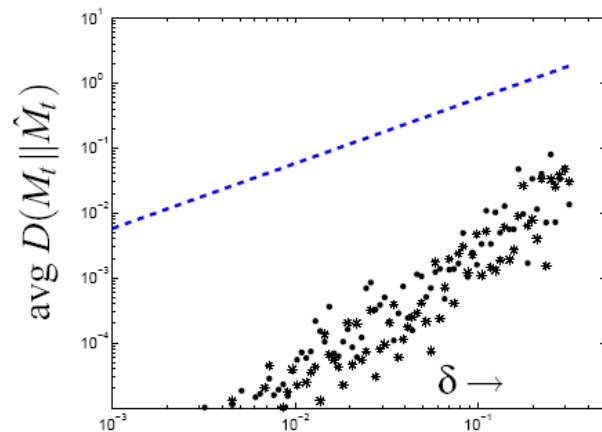
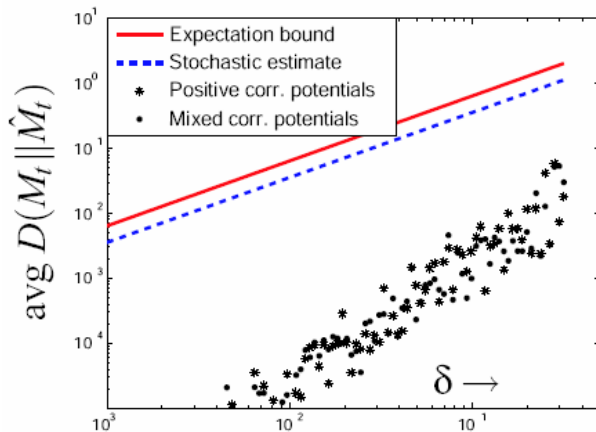
Effects of Message Approximation (5)

KL-divergence measures

- Dynamic range measure is too strict (?)
- KLD address to a weighted average
- Can such a measure fail (?)
- Many properties can not be fulfilled
 - Result is more an approximation than a bound
 - Error accumulation bounding, additive error, contraction rates
- Experiments

Again the same setup than before

- Different power of potentials
- Different quantization level



Summary (1)

Introduction

- Challenges in sensor networks
- Why graphical models are used?

Graphical models

- Definitions, Markov property, Factorization
- Sum Product Algorithm for calculating marginal distributions

Mapping a Network Application to a Graphical Model

- Self localization in Sensor Networks

Message censoring & Bit trading

- Optimisation for communication
- First step to get some logic in one particular node
- Algorithm with more local word load

Effects of message approximation

- the message at each iteration is a noisy (erroneous) version of some true BP fixed point
- For two different error measures
- Mathematical model for error propagation

Thank you for your attention!

Beliefs are more powerful than facts.
Brian Herbert and Kevin Anderson, Dune: House of Atreides

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