A Random Search Framework for Convergence Analysis of Distributed Beamforming with Feedback

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Abstract—The focus of this work is on the analysis of transmit beamforming schemes with a low-rate feedback link in wireless sensor/relay networks, where nodes in the network need to implement beamforming in a distributed manner. Specifically, the problem of distributed phase alignment is considered, where neither the transmitters nor the receiver has perfect channel state information, but there is a low-rate feedback link from the receiver to the transmitters. In this setting, a framework is proposed for systematically analyzing the performance of distributed beamforming schemes. To illustrate the advantage of this framework, a simple adaptive distributed beamforming scheme that was recently proposed by Mudambai et al. is studied. Two important properties for the received signal magnitude function are derived. Using these properties and the systematic framework, it is shown that the adaptive distributed beamforming scheme converges both in probability and in mean. Furthermore, it is established that the time required for the adaptive scheme to converge in mean scales linearly with respect to the number of sensor/relay nodes.

Index Terms—Array signal processing, convergence of numerical methods, detectors, distributed algorithms, feedback communication, networks, relays.

I. INTRODUCTION

The problem of distributed beamforming arises quite naturally in wireless sensor/relay networks. In a sensor network, sensors make estimates of a common observed phenomenon and reach a consensus using a local message passing algorithm. In a relay network, a source node intends to communicate with the destination node by passing the message to all relay nodes. In both settings, the sensor/relay nodes then serve as distributed transmitters and seek to convey a common message to the intended receiver. To preserve energy in this stage, transmit beamforming has emerged as a promising scheme due to its potential array gain and low-complexity. However, perfect channel state information (CSI) at the transmitter is required by conventional transmit beamforming schemes to generate beamforming coefficients and achieve phase alignment at the receiver end. This requirement and the distributed nature of wireless sensor/relay networks make it difficult to implement transmit beamforming schemes in practice. Although obtaining perfect CSI may be too expensive from a practical point-of-view, partial CSI can be made available via a low-rate feedback link from the receiver to the transmitters. As a consequence, there has been increased interest in designing efficient schemes that achieve distributed phase alignment in the presence of a low-rate feedback link [1], [2], [4], [5]. In this work, our goal is to provide a framework for systematically analyzing the performance of a general set of distributed beamforming schemes with such low-rate feedback.

To illustrate the advantages of our framework, we focus on the analysis of a recently proposed training scheme for distributed beamforming [1], [2]. The proposed scheme is a simple adaptive algorithm using one bit of feedback information, and is attractive in practice since it is simple to implement. Naturally, one would expect a tradeoff in energy consumption due to possible slow convergence of distributed beamforming, but surprisingly, the scheme proposed in [1] converges rapidly and hence utilizes energy efficiently. The scheme adjusts its phases for all sensors simultaneously in each time slot to achieve phase alignment. This reduces the overhead significantly compared with direct channel estimation between each source node and the destination node. In fact, the convergence time of the scheme scales linearly with the number of nodes.

Although the scheme of [1] has many desirable features, the fundamental reasons behind the effectiveness of the scheme are unclear from previous work. In [2], the analyses of the convergence and linear scalability of distributed beamforming schemes have been based on model approximations, which may be loose for some cases. Assuming the stepsize approaches zero, stochastic approximation is used in [3] to show the convergence of the one-bit scheme in distribution. Furthermore, the authors proposed two more algorithms: the signed algorithm and the $\rho\%$ solution algorithm and proved the convergence of both algorithms via the same technique. A discrete version of the problem has been solved in [4], [5] by considering a simplified model with a binary channel and binary signaling.

In this work, instead of focusing on the convergence of a particular algorithm for a particular function, we seek a fundamental understanding into the convergence of distributed beamforming schemes more generally by studying them within the framework of local random search algorithms. Through this framework, we are able to provide a more comprehensive
analysis of the fast convergence and linear scalability of the scheme proposed in [1]. In particular, our analysis does not involve approximation of any sort and hence makes statements on convergence and linear scalability in [2], [3] more rigorous. Our result is also stronger than that in [3] in the sense that convergence in probability is proved instead of convergence in distribution. Further, we show that due to the special structure of the objective function considered in this problem, any adaptive distributed beamforming scheme that can be reformulated as a random search algorithm converges in probability. This broad set of algorithms also includes the signed and the \( \rho \% \) solution algorithms proposed in [3] and makes our analysis more general and rigorous than existing work in the literature.

We organize the paper as follows: In Section II we introduce the system model and the received signal magnitude function, which is used as our metric to measure the beamforming array gain throughout the paper. In Section III we propose a framework that allows for a systematic analysis of a general set of adaptive distributed beamforming schemes. Specifically, we reformulate this set of adaptive distributed beamforming schemes as random search algorithms via a general framework. This reformulation provides insights into the necessary condition for the convergence of the scheme proposed in [1]. These insights lead us to investigate the properties of the received signal magnitude function in Section IV. We further use these properties to prove the convergence of the local random search algorithm in probability and in mean, and provide simulations to validate our analysis. In Section V we show that the time required for the algorithm to converge in mean scales linearly with the number of nodes. We also provide numerical results that validate our analysis. Finally, we conclude the paper in Section VI and suggest directions for future research.

II. System Setup

We consider the problem of distributed beamforming, where \( n_s \) transmitters seek to beamform a common message to one receiver in a distributed manner. We assume that each transmitter and the receiver is equipped with one antenna, and that the channels from the transmitters to the receiver experience frequency-flat, slow fading. The discrete-time, complex baseband system model over a coherence interval is given by

\[
y[t] = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} h_i g_i[t] s[t] + w[t] = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i b_i[t] e^{j(\phi_i[t] + \psi_i[t])} s[t] + w[t]
\]

where \( s[t] \in \mathbb{C} \) is the transmitted common message, \( y[t] \in \mathbb{C} \) is the received signal, and \( w[t] \sim \mathcal{CN}(0, \sigma^2) \) corresponds to the additive white Gaussian noise. For transmitter \( i \), we denote the channel fading gains by \( h_i = a_i e^{j\phi_i} \in \mathbb{C} \) and beamforming coefficients by \( g_i[t] = b_i[t] e^{j\psi_i[t]} \in \mathbb{C} \). Note that \( a_i \geq 0 \), \( b_i[t] \geq 0 \), and \( \phi_i \in [0, 2\pi] \), \( \psi_i[t] \in [0, 2\pi] \) for all \( i \) and \( t \) since they are the corresponding magnitudes and phases of \( h_i \) and \( g_i \), respectively. Moreover, \( a_i \) and \( \phi_i \) are considered to be constant with time over the coherence interval due to the slow fading assumption. We assume an average power constraint on \( s[t] \) given by \( E[|s[t]|^2] \leq P \) for all \( t \).

We assume a noncoherent communication model, where the realization of the channel is unknown at both the transmitters and receiver. There is, however, an error-free, zero-delay feedback link of finite capacity from the receiver to all transmitters conveying low-rate partial channel state information (CSI) in each time step.

The goal of distributed beamforming is to pick the beamforming coefficients \( \{g_i[t] = b_i[t] e^{j\psi_i[t]}\} \) to maximize the received SNR. In a noncoherent setting and with a low-rate feedback link, beamforming can only be achieved adaptively through training. Without loss of generality, we assume that the signal \( s[t] \) is constant during the training stage. Furthermore, we make the following two simplifications. First, we assume that each transmitter utilizes the same amount of energy for each transmission, i.e., that \( b_i[t] = 1 \) for all \( i \) and \( t \), i.e., we do not optimize the beamforming gains, and we therefore set \( s[t] = \sqrt{P} \). This assumption is justified for situations where the transmitters rely on a limited energy source (battery) and allowing them use different amounts of energy would cause some nodes to use up their energy before others. Secondly, we assume that the receiver can estimate the magnitude of the signal component at the receiver (without the noise term \( w[t] \) in (1)). We therefore use received signal magnitude as the metric for optimizing the beamforming phases.

The received signal magnitude can be expressed as

\[
Mag(\theta_1[t], \ldots, \theta_{n_s}[t]) = \sqrt{P} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i e^{j\theta_i[t]} \tag{2}
\]

where \( \theta_i[t] = \phi_i + \psi_i[t] \) is the total received phase for sensor \( i \).

It is easy to see that \( Mag(\cdot) \) is maximized when the phases \( \{\theta_i[t]\} \) are aligned, i.e., they are equal to each other (modulo \( 2\pi \)). Our goal is to study adaptive distributed beamforming schemes that achieve this phase alignment through the use of a low-rate feedback link from the receiver.

III. A Framework for Systematic Analyzing Adaptive Distributed Beamforming Schemes

In this section, we introduce a framework for analyzing a general class of adaptive distributed beamforming schemes that can be reformulated as random search algorithms. Random search algorithms are well studied in the literature [6], [7], [8] as methods to maximize an unknown function via random sampling. Once an adaptive distributed beamforming scheme can be successfully reformulated as a random search algorithm, a systematic study of the convergence of such adaptive scheme is possible.

A. Reformulation of Adaptive Distributed Beamforming Schemes as Random Search Algorithms

Adaptive distributed beamforming algorithms introduced in Section I seek to maximize \( Mag(\cdot) \) given in (2) with the help of a low-rate feedback link. At each step of the adaptation, the

\footnote{A good estimate of the received signal magnitude can be obtained directly when the noise is small, or by averaging over several time slots when the noise is not negligible.}
signal magnitude at the receiver is a sample of the function \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \). Thus, from the receiver point of view, the problem of distributed phase alignment can be considered under the setting of the following problem:

**Problem 1:** Given a unknown function \( f : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \), where only samples of \( f(\Theta) \) are available for arbitrary \( \Theta \in \Theta \), find the global maxima of \( f \).

It is important to note that **Problem 1** is a global maximization problem in general if no special structure is assumed for the objective function \( f \). To solve the maximization in **Problem 1** one may be tempted to use gradient-based algorithms that are well-developed in the literature. Since it is possible for \( f \) to possess local maxima, conventional gradient-ascent methods would fail in general. Besides, acquiring the gradient of the function \( f \) may be infeasible especially when the function itself is unknown. Hence, random search techniques [6, 7]. [8] are more appropriate in this setting and can be described as follows:

A Random Search Algorithm:

- **Step zero:** Initialize the algorithm by choosing \( \Theta[0] \in \Theta \).
- **Step one:** Generate a random perturbation \( \delta[t] \) from the sample space \( (\mathbb{R}^n, B, \mu_t) \), where \( B \) is a Borel set on \( \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( \mu_t \) is a probability measure that could be time-varying.
- **Step two:** Update the search point by \( \Theta[t] = D(\Theta[t-1], \delta[t]) \), where the map \( D \) satisfies the condition \( f(D(\Theta[t-1], \delta[t])) \geq f(\Theta[t-1]) \).

Clearly, for a random search algorithm, we require only function evaluations and control over the probability measure \( \mu_t \), which is used to sample the function. Any adaptive distributed beamforming scheme can be reformulated as a random search algorithm if each distributed transmitter initializes its phase as in **Step zero**, generates a random perturbation of phase as in **Step one**, and updates its new phase by the map \( D \) as in **Step two**. The low-rate feedback link is used to guarantee the condition \( f(D(\Theta[t-1], \delta[t])) \geq f(\Theta[t-1]) \). Note that the unknown function \( f \) can be any objective function that we find fit for the distributed transmitters to optimize. This suggests that our framework can be used to analyze a more general function optimization problem over distributed networks. Note further that the probability measure \( \mu_t \) for the sampling can be time-varying in general. The time-varying nature of the probability measure can be thought of as “adaptive stepsize” for distributed algorithms in the most general sense. In this sense, our framework can be used to analyze a large set of adaptive distributed algorithms.

**B. One-bit Adaptive Distributed Beamforming Scheme**

To illustrate the advantage of our framework, we now analyze a one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming scheme recently proposed in [1]. Specifically, we reformulate this scheme as a local random search algorithm, which allows for its systematic analysis. We begin by describing the one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming scheme as follows:

A One-bit Adaptive Distributed Beamforming Scheme [1]:

**Step zero:** Referring to [2] and noting that the \( i \)-th transmitter controls its beamforming phase \( \psi_i[t] \), the algorithm is initialized by setting \( \psi_i[0] = 0 \), and hence \( \theta_i[0] = \phi_i \) for transmitter \( i \).

**Step one:** In this step, a random perturbation \( \delta_i[t] \) is generated at each distributed transmitter such that \( \{\delta_i[t]\}_{t=1}^n \) are i.i.d. uniform random variables in \([-\delta_0, \delta_0]^n\) across time and transmitters, where \( \delta_0 \) is a constant parameter. The random perturbation is added to the total phase of each transmitter. The distributed transmitters then use the perturbed total phases as their new total phases to transmit the training symbol.

**Step two:** After receiving the training symbols, the receiver measures the received signal magnitude and compares it with the signal magnitude received in the previous time slot. If the newly received signal magnitude is larger, the receiver feeds back a “keep” beacon to the transmitters. Otherwise, a “discard” beacon is sent to the transmitters. Note that the beacon is a broadcast from the receiver to all transmitters. Clearly, this feedback scheme only requires one bit of feedback information per time step. When a “keep” is received at the transmitters, each transmitter selects and keeps its newly updated total phase. Otherwise, the old phase is selected and the new phase discarded. This selection process is determined by whether the random perturbation increases or decreases the array gain for the adaptive distributed beamforming scheme. Specifically, the evolution of \( \Theta[t] \) is given by

\[
\Theta[t] = \begin{cases} 
\Theta[t-1] + \delta[t], & \text{if } \delta[t] \in \mathcal{K} \\
\Theta[t-1], & \text{if } \delta[t] \notin \mathcal{K}
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \Theta[t] = [\theta_1[t], \ldots, \theta_n[t]]^T \), \( \delta[t] = [\delta_1[t], \ldots, \delta_n[t]]^T \), and \( \mathcal{K} = \{\delta[t] | \text{Mag}(\Theta[t-1] + \delta[t]) > \text{Mag}(\Theta[t-1])\} \).

Matching the steps of the above one-bit adaptive scheme and those of a random search algorithm introduced in Section [II-A], it is clear that the one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming algorithm can be regarded as a special case of the random search algorithm by setting

\[
f = \text{Mag}(\cdot)
\]

\[
n = n_s
\]

\[
\Theta = [0, 2\pi]^{n_s}
\]

\[
\mu_t = \mu
\]

\[
D(\Theta[t-1], \delta[t]) = \Theta[t-1] + 1_{\{\delta[t] \notin \mathcal{K}\}} \delta[t]
\]

where \( 1_{\{\cdot\}} \) is the indicator function and \( \mu \) is uniform on \([-\delta_0, \delta_0]^{n_s}\), which is a \( n_s \)-dimensional hypercube. Note that (8) is the same as the evolution described by (3).

Since the probability measure \( \mu \) is non-zero only within a hypercube, with sides of length \( 2\delta_0 \) and centered around \( \Theta[t-1] \), the one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming scheme can be reformulated as a local random search algorithm. We emphasize again that we can use this framework to study more general adaptive distributed beamforming schemes. For example, the probability measure for sampling may be time-varying and with a support that spans the entire space \( \Theta \). We can also study adaptive distributed beamforming schemes with...
more than one bit of feedback information. It is also interesting to note the connection between this local random search algorithm and simulated annealing \[9\]. Simulated annealing is a generic probabilistic algorithm that approximates the global optimal solution of a given function in a large search space. The algorithm uses a parameter \(T\) called the temperature to control the acceptance probability, i.e., the probability that the current state of the algorithm transitions to a new state. If we let \(T \to 0\) and assume that the current state is only allowed to move to neighboring states, the simulated annealing procedure reduces to a local random search algorithm.

A local random search algorithm, however, does not necessarily converge in general. For example, if the unknown function possesses local maxima (that are not global maxima), the sequence \(\{\theta(t)\}_{t=0}^{\infty}\) is likely to be trapped in a local maximum if the local perturbation \(\delta_0\) is not large enough. Thus, a necessary condition for the convergence of local random search algorithms for arbitrary \(T\) is that there is no local maximum point for \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\). With these in mind, two questions arise naturally: \(a\) Does the reformulated local random search algorithm even converge? \(b\) If it does, is there a fundamental reason behind the convergence? In the following section, we investigate properties of the function \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\) towards the goal of addressing these questions.

IV. CONVERGENCE OF THE DISTRIBUTED BEAMFORMING SCHEME

A. Properties of Received Signal Magnitude Function

The properties of the received signal magnitude function \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\) do not depend on the time evolution of its arguments. We hence ignore the time dependence of \(\theta(t)\) in this section. The following proposition states the first property of \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\).

**Proposition 1:** For the received signal magnitude function \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\) defined in (2), all local maxima are global maxima.

**Proof:** To facilitate analysis, we introduce a change of variables

\[
\mathbf{x}_i := \begin{bmatrix} x_i^R \\ x_i^I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta_i \\ \sin \theta_i \end{bmatrix}
\]

Eqn. (2) can be rewritten as

\[
\text{Mag}(\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_{n_s}) = \sqrt{P} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|
\]

where \(\left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 = 1\) for all \(i = 1, \cdots, n_s\). The maximization of \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\) can be rewritten as

\[
\max_{\left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 = 1, i = 1, \cdots, n_s} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2
\]

(9)

In the following, we will show that all local maxima of this objective function correspond to complete phase alignment for all transmitters. That is, all local maximum points are global maximum points.

By relaxing the equality constraints to inequality constraints, the optimization problem in (9) is equivalent to

\[
\max_{\left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 \leq 1, i = 1, \cdots, n_s} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2
\]

(10)

This equivalence can be seen as follows: if \(\mathbf{x}^*\) is a local maximum with an inactive constraint \(\left\| \mathbf{x}_k^* \right\|^2 < 1\), by fixing all other variables \(\{\mathbf{x}_j^*\}_{j \neq k}\), we obtain

\[
\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 = \left\| a_k \mathbf{x}_k^* + \mathbf{c} \right\|^2 = \left\| a_k \mathbf{x}_k^R + \mathbf{c} \right\|^2 + \left\| a_k \mathbf{x}_k^I + \mathbf{c} \right\|^2
\]

where \(\mathbf{c} = [c^R, c^I]^T\) is a constant vector depending on \(\{\mathbf{x}_j^*\}_{j \neq k}\).

Obviously, the above function can be improved by appropriately perturbing \(\left\| \mathbf{x}_k^* \right\|\) according to the signs of \(c^R\) and \(c^I\). This contradicts the fact that \(\mathbf{x}^*\) is a maximum. Thus, all constraints are active if \(\mathbf{x}^*\) is a maximum point. This shows that the optimization problems (9) and (10) are equivalent.

Focusing on the optimization problem with relaxed constraints, the Lagrangian of (10) reads

\[
L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = -\left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} \lambda_i \left( \left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 - 1 \right)
\]

where \(\mathbf{x} = [x_1^R, \cdots, x_{n_s}^R]^T\), \(\lambda = [\lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_{n_s}]^T\), \(\lambda_i \geq 0\) for all \(i = 1, \cdots, n_s\), and \(\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \mathbf{x}_i\). By the Lagrange Multiplier Theorem, all local maxima satisfy

\[
\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_i} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = -2\lambda_i \mathbf{w} + 2\lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i^T = 0^T
\]

(11)

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n_s} \lambda_i \left( \left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 - 1 \right) = 0
\]

(12)

\[
\left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 - 1 \leq 0
\]

(13)

for all \(i = 1, \cdots, n_s\). Let \(\mathbf{x}^*\) be a local maximum and \(\lambda^*\) be the corresponding Lagrange multipliers. If \(\lambda_i^* = 0\), Eqn. (11) implies that \(\mathbf{w} = 0\) since \(\sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i > 0\). In this case, \(\text{Mag}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0\) and this contradicts the fact that \(\mathbf{x}^*\) is a local maximum, since we can always improve \(\text{Mag}(\cdot)\) by letting \(\mathbf{x}_i^* = [\xi^R, \xi^I]^T\), \(\xi^R \leq 1\), and \(\mathbf{x}_i = 0\) for all \(j \neq i\). This leads to \(\lambda_i > 0\) for all \(i\). We hence have

\[
\mathbf{x}_i^* = \frac{a_i}{\lambda_i^*} \mathbf{w}
\]

(14)

\[
\lambda_i^* = \frac{a_i \left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|}{\left\| \mathbf{x}_i \right\|}
\]

(15)

The optimal solutions described by (14) and (15), however, also satisfy

\[
\text{Mag}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \sqrt{P} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|} \right\| = \sqrt{P} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i
\]

and hence are global maxima. This completes our proof. □

**Proposition 1** implies that the local random search algorithm cannot be trapped in a suboptimal local maximum since all local maxima are global maxima. Furthermore, it also suggests that the necessary condition for the convergence of random search algorithms is satisfied. While it is intuitively clear that the local random search algorithm should converge according to **Proposition 1** it is to be noted that the condition is only necessary and may not be sufficient. We will provide a rigorous proof of the convergence of the local random search algorithm by letting \(\mathbf{x}_i^* = [\xi^R, \xi^I]^T\), \(\xi^R \leq 1\), and \(\mathbf{x}_i = 0\) for all \(j \neq i\). This leads to \(\lambda_i > 0\) for all \(i\). We hence have

\[
\text{Mag}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \sqrt{P} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|} \right\| = \sqrt{P} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i
\]

and hence are global maxima. This completes our proof. □

2Note that the case where \(a_i = 0\) is not interesting since we can always reduce the dimension of the problem by ignoring \(\mathbf{x}_i\).
algorithm later. Now, we explore an additional property of \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) that explains the efficiency of the algorithm.

Another interesting property of \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) is that it is invariant under a common phase shift across all transmitters. That is, where \( \theta_c \) is a common phase shift that can depend on \( \{\theta_i\}_{i=1}^{n_s} \). One possible choice for the common phase shift is to let \( \theta_c = 0 \).

\[ \text{Mag}(\theta + \theta_c) = \text{Mag}(\theta) \]

This property leads to the rapid convergence of the local random search algorithm since converging to any of the global maxima form a one-dimensional “ridge” since if \( \theta^* \) is a global maximum, \( \theta \) with \( \theta_i = \theta^*_i + \theta_c \) is also a global maximum. This property leads to the rapid convergence of the local random search algorithm since converging to any of these global maximum points is adequate.

We conclude this section by summarizing these two important properties of \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) as follows:

1. all local maxima are global maxima, and
2. a common shift to its arguments does not change its value.

\[ \text{Mag}(\theta + \theta_c) = \text{Mag}(\theta) \]

We prove it in the following proposition.

**Proposition 2:** For any given \( \theta \in \Theta \setminus R_e \) and \( \delta > 0 \), there correspond \( \gamma > 0 \) and \( 0 < \eta \leq 1 \) such that
\[ \Pr \{ \text{Mag}(\theta + \delta) - \text{Mag}(\theta) \geq \gamma \} \geq \eta \]

where \( \delta \) is a random vector with i.i.d. elements uniformly distributed over \( [-\delta_0, \delta_0] \).

**Proof:** From Proposition 7, all local maxima are global maxima for the function \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \). This implies that for all \( \theta \neq R_e \) and all \( \delta > 0 \), there exists a point \( \theta_u \in S_\theta \) and a constant \( \gamma(\theta) > 0 \) such that
\[ \text{Mag}(\theta_u) - \text{Mag}(\theta) \geq 2\gamma(\theta) \]

where the set \( S_\theta \) is a hypercube of length \( 2\delta_0 \) centered around \( \theta \) given by
\[ S_\theta = \{ \omega \in \Theta : \omega = \theta + \delta, \ \delta \in [-\delta_0, \delta_0]^{n_s} \} \]

The continuity of \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) implies that there exists \( \sigma(\theta_u) > 0 \) such that for all \( \xi \in T := \{ \omega \in \Theta : \|\omega\| \leq \sigma(\theta_u) \} \), we have
\[ \text{Mag}(\theta_u + \xi) - \text{Mag}(\theta_u) \leq \gamma(\theta) \]

Combining (17) and (18), we arrive at a lower bound
\[ \Pr \{ \text{Mag}(\theta + \delta) - \text{Mag}(\theta) \geq \gamma(\theta) \} \geq \mu(T) =: \eta(\theta) \]

Note that \( \mu(T) \) is a function of \( \theta \), since \( \theta_u \) is a function of \( \theta \). We complete the proof of the proposition by letting
\[ \gamma = \inf_{\theta \in \Theta \setminus R_e} \gamma(\theta) \]
\[ \eta = \inf_{\theta \in \Theta \setminus R_e} \eta(\theta) \]

We prove it in the following proposition.

**Proof:** By Proposition 2, we know that given any time \( t \)
\[ \Pr \{ \text{Mag}(\theta[t] + \delta[t]) - \text{Mag}(\theta[t-1]) \geq \gamma \} \]

\[ \Pr \{ \text{Mag}(\theta[t] - 1 + \delta[t]) - \text{Mag}(\theta[t] - 1) \geq \gamma \} \]

or \( \{ \theta \in R_e \} \geq \tilde{\eta} \]
where $\bar{\eta} = \min \{ \Pr [\theta \in R_e], \eta \}$. Since $\Theta$ is compact and $\operatorname{Mag}(\cdot)$ is continuous, there always exists a positive integer $p$ such that

$$p \gamma > \operatorname{Mag}(\theta_1) - \operatorname{Mag}(\theta_2), \quad \forall \theta_1, \theta_2 \in \Theta$$

The probability that the sequence lies in $R_e$ after $p$ time steps is hence lower bounded by

$$\Pr [\theta[p] \in R_e] \geq \bar{\eta}^p$$

since $\{\delta[t]\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ are independent across time. This leads to

$$\Pr [\theta[p] \notin R_e] \leq 1 - \bar{\eta}^p$$

and

$$\Pr [\theta[pm] \in R_e] = 1 - \Pr [\theta[pm] \notin R_e] \geq 1 - (1 - \bar{\eta}^p)^m$$

for all $m = 1, 2, \ldots$. The lower bound is still valid if we let the sequence progress $\ell$ time steps further, i.e.,

$$\Pr [\theta[pm + \ell] \in R_e] \geq 1 - (1 - \bar{\eta}^p)^m$$

for all $m = 1, 2, \ldots, \ell = 0, \ldots, p - 1$. We complete the proof by letting $m \to \infty$.

**Theorem 7** states that the local random search algorithm in [4, 8] converges in probability, and hence also provides a proof of convergence for the one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming scheme in [8]. In particular, Theorem 7 implies the convergence of the sequence $\{\operatorname{Mag}(\theta[t])\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ in probability. Since the sequence is non-negative and monotonically non-decreasing, we can conclude that $\{\operatorname{Mag}(\theta[t])\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ converges in mean by the Monotone Convergence Theorem [10]. Further, by properly generalizing Proposition 2 it is straightforward to show that any adaptive distributed beamforming scheme that can be reformulated a local random search algorithm and seeks to maximize any objective function that satisfies Property 1 converges in probability.

In Fig. 1 we illustrate the evolution of the sequences generated by the local random search algorithm from different initial points. The initial points are generated randomly from a uniform distribution over $\Theta$. Only three sample paths of the sequence are included in the figure since similar behaviors can be observed for other sample paths. For each iteration, the random perturbation $\delta_i$ for the $i$th transmitter is a uniform random variable over $[-\delta, \delta]$, where $\delta = \pi/30$. Note that we use the same channel coefficients to generate these sequences since the focus here is on the effect of different initial points. In particular, the channel coefficients are randomly generated from i.i.d. $\mathcal{CN}(0, 1)$ in the beginning of the simulation, and remain fixed afterwards.

From the figure, we observe the rapid convergence of the local random search algorithm, irrespective of where it is initialized. We emphasize again that the fast convergence results follow from the two important properties for the function $\operatorname{Mag}(\cdot)$ as discussed in Section IV-A Property 1 guarantees the convergence of the local search algorithm; Property 2 results in multiple global maxima for the function $\operatorname{Mag}(\cdot)$ and hence the fast convergence of the algorithm. The simulations provide a partial validation of our proof since we would expect the convergence to fail from some initial points if there were non-optimal local maxima for $\operatorname{Mag}(\cdot)$. It is to be noted that the convergence of the local random search algorithm does not guarantee that it is the most efficient scheme in terms of the number of function evaluations, and hence the most efficient scheme in terms of energy. However, the algorithm does have a desirable scaling property, i.e., the time required for the algorithm to converge in mean scales linearly with the number of transmitters. This is the topic of the following section.

V. SCALING LAW

Due to the probabilistic nature of the local random search algorithm, we defined convergence in probability in Section IV-B and showed that the local random search algorithm converges. For the analysis of the scaling law, however, we can only show convergence in mean, which is defined as follows:

**Definition 2:** A sequence $\{\theta[t]\}$ generated by a random search algorithm is said to converge in mean if there exists $t_N \geq 0$ such that

$$E[\delta[\pi]]_{t=t_0}^{t} [\operatorname{Mag}(\theta[t])] > \operatorname{Mag}(\theta^*) - \epsilon = \sqrt{P} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i - \epsilon$$

for all $t \geq t_N$, where $a = [a_1, \ldots, a_{n_s}]^T$. That is, $\operatorname{Mag}(\theta[t])$ converges to $\operatorname{Mag}(\theta^*)$ in mean.

In this section, our goal is to find the time required for the local random search algorithm to converge in mean, starting from any initial point. In other words, we are interested in finding the hitting time $\tau$ of the random search algorithm, and determining its behavior as a function of the number of transmitters. Specifically, we derive an upper bound on the hitting time of the local random search algorithm as a function of $n_s$. Note that the study of the hitting time makes sense only if the sequence indeed converges in mean, which we established in Section IV-B.

\footnote{The hitting time in this work is defined as the time required for the algorithm to converge in mean.}
To facilitate analysis, we define the increment function of $\text{Mag}(\cdot)$ at time $\tau$ as

$$I[\tau] = [\text{Mag}(\theta[\tau]) - \text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1])]^+$$

$$= [\text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1] + \delta[\tau]) - \text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1])]^+ \quad (19)$$

where $[x]^+ = \max(x, 0)$. We then rewrite the received signal magnitude function at any given time $k_0 n_s$ as

$$\text{Mag}(\theta[k_0 n_s]) = \sum_{\tau=1}^{k_0 n_s} I[\tau] + \text{Mag}(\theta[0]) =: \sum_{\tau=1}^{k_0 n_s} I[\tau] + c_0$$

where $k_0$ is a positive integer and $c_0 \geq 0$.

From Proposition 2 we have that for any given $\tau$ such that $\theta[\tau - 1] \notin R_e$ and any local random perturbation $\delta[\tau]$, there correspond $\gamma > 0$ and $0 < \eta \leq 1$ such that

$$\Pr[\text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1] + \delta[\tau]) - \text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1]) \geq \gamma] \geq \eta$$

Thus, we have

$$E_{\delta[\tau]\mid a, \theta[\tau - 1]} [I[\tau]] \geq \gamma \Pr[\text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1] + \delta[\tau]) - \text{Mag}(\theta[\tau - 1]) \geq \gamma] \geq \gamma \eta > 0$$

for any $\tau$ such that $\theta[\tau - 1] \notin R_e$. Referring to (19)-(20), we obtain

$$E_{\delta[\tau]\mid a, \theta[\tau - 1]} [\text{Mag}(\theta[k_0 n_s])] = \sum_{\tau=1}^{k_0 n_s} E_{\delta[\tau]\mid a, \theta[\tau - 1]} [I[\tau]] + c_0 \geq k_0 n_s \gamma \eta + c_0 \geq \sqrt{P} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} a_i$$

where the last inequality follows by choosing $k_0 = \left[\frac{1}{\gamma \eta \text{Max}_{n_s} \{a_i\}}\right]$. This implies that the hitting time for the local random search algorithm is at most $k_0 n_s$, from any initial point. Hence, the hitting time for the algorithm scales linearly with the number of transmitters.

In our simulations, we say that the sequence converges to the $\alpha$ fraction of the global maxima if $\text{Mag}(\theta[t]) \geq \alpha \text{Mag}(\theta^*)$. We assume that channel coefficients are i.i.d. complex Gaussian variables $CN(0, 1)$, and use the origin as our initial point. We set $\delta_0 = \pi/90$ for all our simulations. Fig. 2 demonstrates the hitting time required for the adaptive distributed beamforming scheme to converge in a relative sense when $\alpha = 0.5$, $0.7$, and $0.9$. It is clear that the hitting time increases as $\alpha$ increases. The scaling law for the hitting time with respect to $n_s$, however, is the same for all values of $\alpha$. Indeed, we observe linear scaling for all values of $\alpha$. This observation confirms our theoretical analysis. Fig. 3 shows the average convergence time for the adaptive distributed beamforming scheme to within a fraction of the globally maximum value $\alpha \text{Mag}(\theta^*)$, for different values of $\alpha$. It is important to note the difference between the hitting time and the average convergence time. Since our algorithm is probabilistic in nature, the convergence time is essentially a random variable and each run of the algorithm provides a sample for this random variable. Fixing the number of transmitters $n_s$, we obtain the average convergence time by averaging over a hundred samples of this random variable, while the hitting time is obtained by comparing $E[\text{Mag}(\theta[t])]$ with $\alpha \text{Mag}(\theta^*)$. From Fig. 3 we observe the same linear scaling behavior for the average convergence time. We expect this property for the average convergence time can be shown in a similar manner.

**VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND FUTURE WORK**

In this work, we have proposed a framework that allows for a systematic analysis of adaptive distributed beamforming schemes in sensor/relay networks. We used this framework to study the convergence and scaling law of a recently proposed one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming scheme [1]. We first reformulated the one-bit adaptive scheme as a local random search algorithm. This reformulation provided insights into the convergence of the one-bit adaptive scheme, and led us to investigate the fundamental properties for the received signal magnitude function $\text{Mag}(\cdot)$. We identified two important properties of the function that contribute to the rapid convergence of the algorithm. First, all local maxima are global maxima. This prevents any local random search algorithm from being
trapped in non-optimal local maximum points. Secondly, the \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) function is invariant under a common shift to its arguments. This property results in multiple global maximum points for \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) and hence the rapid convergence of the algorithm. Based on these properties, we have shown the convergence of the algorithm, both in probability and in mean. We further provided an upper bound on the hitting time of the algorithm, and demonstrated that the hitting time scales linearly with the number of sensor/relay nodes. This linear scaling is desirable, especially when the network is densely populated. We have also provided simulations that validate our analysis.

It is important to note that the effectiveness of the one-bit adaptive distributed beamforming scheme depends critically on the properties of the function \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \). Maximizing \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \) is equivalent to maximizing the received SNR if there is no error in obtaining the common message, which is true in the training stage since the common message is simply fixed and known to the receiver. On the other hand if adaptation is being performed blindly (without training) it would be necessary to consider the possibility of errors in common message. The corresponding objective function may then not possess the same desirable properties as \( \text{Mag}(\cdot) \), e.g., the objective function may possess local maxima that are not global maxima. Much work needs to be done to understand how our results can be applied in this more complicated scenario. One thing that is clear, however, is that we will need to develop new algorithms that exploit the global structure of the new objective function since local algorithms can be trapped in local maxima. Our general framework for studying adaptive beamforming algorithms is even more useful in this context since it connects the problem to a well-studied field of global optimization algorithms.

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