A Large Deviations Result for Aggregation of Independent Noisy Observations

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Abstract—Sensing and aggregation of noisy observations should not be considered as separate issues. The quality of collective estimation involves a difficult tradeoff between sensing quality which increases by increasing the number of sensors, and aggregation quality which typically decreases if the number of sensors is too large. We examine a strategy for optimal aggregation for an ensemble of independent sensors with constrained system capacity. We show that in the large capacity limit larger scale aggregation always outperforms smaller scale aggregation at higher noise levels, while below a critical value of noise, there exist moderate scale aggregation levels at which optimal estimation is realized.

I. INTRODUCTION

This letter presents results which give a new perspective on the growing field of sensory data aggregation by clarifying fundamental principles of large-scale aggregation. Examples of large scale aggregation of observations include astronomical observations [1], biological sensing [2], early detection of natural disasters such as earthquakes, tidal waves and floods [3] and wireless sensor networks [4]. Errors in observations can be reduced by collecting observation data from more sensors. However, collecting data from many sensors usually involves some cost in terms of system resources, resulting in fundamental tradeoffs [5]. The theoretical understanding of these tradeoffs in natural and engineered systems is now a high priority.

An important fundamental problem in this field is the problem of aggregating independent observations of the same phenomenon with a resource constraint. Previous works have analyzed the tradeoff behavior between aggregate data rate and sensing error from the fundamental view of information theory. The analysis has been extended to include the situation where arbitrarily large numbers of samples can be collected by reducing the data aggregated from each sample using lossy data compression. However, so far results have only been obtained for the fundamental information theoretic bounds with infinitely many sensors [6], [2], or specific situations in which the number of sensors is fixed [8]. The previous works do not include the situation where the number of observations can be varied, and thus the results are not sufficient to support our understanding and design of real world systems.

In this paper we introduce a modification of the common basic model for data aggregation with compression which makes it more tractable and amenable to analysis when the number of sensors can vary. Specifically, we consider independent decompression of each observation in a discrete version of the CEO problem [6]. We show that this model reveals a new property, the existence of noise threshold beyond which large scale aggregation is superior to lossless aggregation with no compression. This can be seen as a manifestation of “more is different” in sensor networks [9]. Moreover, we show that universal results for scaling behavior of collective estimation error can be obtained by considering asymptotic behavior when the system capacity diverges to infinity.

In this paper, we consider a fundamental formulation of the problem with only one information source and suppose that all sensors are symmetrical, i.e., exchangeable with respect to their contributions to the final result of aggregation. This allows us to treat the problem in terms of the theory of large deviations. The paper is divided into 5 sections. Section II presents our system model. Section III briefly summarizes our main result. The proof for the proposition, however, is postponed until the following Section IV. Discussions are given in Section V.

II. SYSTEM MODEL

Now we start by introducing our system model for large-scale aggregation of independent noisy observations. Notice that we explicitly consider a capacity constraint. This section briefly summarizes the optimal strategy for the case of redundantly observing a Bernoulli(1/2) sequence with very many sensors.

A. Ensemble of Independent Sensors

We consider that an observer is interested in observing a purely random source $X$, the state of which can be represented by a series of Ising variables $X_\mu$ and their realizations are explicitly denoted by the lower case letters $x_\mu = \pm 1$. We assume that this observer can not directly observe the source. Instead, he deploys a collection of $L$ sensors, labeled by an index $a$, to independently observe the source and report the results of their observations over a communication network. Assuming a certain level of environmental noise, the individual
observations $Y_x(a)$ could be different for each sensor. We define a common level of noise $p \in [0, 1/2]$ for our observations

$$\langle \delta(X_\mu, -Y_\mu(a)) \rangle = p$$

with Kronecker’s delta $\delta$, where the bracket $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes the expectation of an argument.

Then we suppose that each sensor can compress (i.e., lossy encode) if necessary, its sensor readings $y(a) = (y_1(a), \cdots, y_M(a))$ into a codeword $z(a) = (z_1(a), \cdots, z_N(a))$ independently. In this paper, we assume that the codeword is represented by a series of Ising variables $Z(a)$ and thus their realizations are restricted to $z_i(a) = \pm 1$. Furthermore, assume that the codewords themselves can not share any information about their observations. That is, they are not permitted to communicate with each other to decide what to send beforehand. As a result, the observer must collect their observations before reporting to the observer, then they would be best reproducible for any given pairs. With this Hamming distortion constraint, the lower bound on the rate $R(D)$ required to describe a variable $Y_x(a)$ is given by

$$R(D) = 1 - H_2(D)$$

where $H_2(D)$ denotes the binary entropy function [10]. This is called the rate distortion function for the Bernoulli$(1/2)$ source.

The observer then collects all the transmitted information $z_\nu(a)$ to calculate the estimate $\hat{x}_\mu$ for the $\mu$th symbol of the unknown $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_M)$. To go further, we now restrict ourselves to the case of

$$\langle \delta(Y_\mu(a), -\hat{Y}_\mu(a)) \rangle = D$$

That is, every variable $\hat{Y}_\mu(a)$ in the reproductions is expected to have the same error probability $D$. Notice also that the three variables $X_\mu$, $Y_\mu(a)$, and $\hat{Y}_\mu(a)$ form a Markov chain, when the best estimator for $X_\mu$ is $\hat{Y}_\mu(a)$ if $0 \leq p, D < 1/2$ holds. Then it is straightforward to get, independently,

$$\langle \delta(X_\mu, -\hat{Y}_\mu(a)) \rangle = \rho$$

where

$$\rho = p(1 - D) + (1 - p)D$$

represents the combined error probability for replacing the original $x_\mu$ by the available symbols $\hat{Y}_\mu(a)$. In other words, the error indicator function $\delta(X_\mu, -\hat{Y}_\mu(a))$ reduces to the Bernoulli random variable that takes the value 1 with probability $\rho$ for $a = 1, \cdots, L$.

C. Bayes Optimal Estimator

Now let us consider the most probable realization of $X_\mu$ given a set of evidences $\hat{y}_\mu = (\hat{y}_\mu(1), \cdots, \hat{y}_\mu(L))$. Since $\delta(X_\mu, -\hat{Y}_\mu(a))$ obeys the Bernoulli statistics, it is easy to see that the majority vote procedure gives the best strategy [11]. That is, the optimal estimator should be a mapping

$$\hat{X}_\mu = \text{sgn}\left\{ \sum_{a=1}^{L} \hat{Y}_\mu(a) \right\}.$$

Then overall error probability for the estimate $\hat{x}_\mu$ is minimized. The probability of getting more errors than $L/2$ out of $L$ Bernoulli trials is given by

$$P(X_\mu \neq X_\mu) = \langle \delta(X_\mu, -\hat{X}_\mu(a)) \rangle = \begin{cases} \sum_{l=\frac{L}{2}+1}^{L} Q_p(l|L), & (L \text{ is odd}) \\ \sum_{l=\frac{L}{2}+1}^{L} Q_p(l|L) + \frac{1}{2}Q_p\left(\frac{L}{2}|L\right), & (L \text{ is even}) \end{cases}$$

where

$$Q_p(l|L) = \binom{L}{l} p^l (1-p)^{L-l}$$

denotes the binomial distribution. In principle, we may choose whatever value of $L$ which is compatible with the sum rate constraint of $LR \leq C$. To minimize the error probability for
the estimator $\hat{X}_\mu$, however, we should use the largest possible value. Hereafter we assume that $L$ denotes the largest possible value. In particular, suppose that the sensors do not encode their observations. Instead, each sensor simply sends the whole information of the noisy $Y_\mu(a)$. Then, the error probability for the estimator $\hat{X}_\mu$ reduces to

$$P(X_\mu \neq \hat{X}_\mu) = \begin{cases} \sum_{l=\frac{C}{2}+1}^{C} Q_p(l|C), & (C \text{ is odd}) \\ \sum_{l=\frac{C}{2}+1}^{C} Q_p(l|C) + \frac{1}{2} Q_p(0|C), & (C \text{ is even}) \end{cases}.$$ 

III. STATEMENT OF RESULTS

An exact formula on the optimal data rate for individual sensors is presented in this section. By using the notion of large deviations an optimality measure for the data aggregation tasks is introduced. Numerical analysis of our exact result provides insights on the nature of large-scale aggregation in sensing systems, natural or engineered.

A. Optimality Measure

Assume that a network capacity $C$ is given. Consider that the common data rate $R$ is first allocated to all the sensors. The number of sensors $L$ is thus determined as the maximum value of $L$ satisfying the sum rate constraint $RL \leq C$. In our system model, it is obvious to say that $P(X_\mu \neq \hat{X}_\mu) \to 0$ as $C \to \infty$. As is shown in Section IV, it is not hard to refine the above statement of convergence and to prove that

$$P(X_\mu \neq \hat{X}_\mu) \to 0 \text{ exponentially fast as } C \to \infty.$$ 

By analogy with large deviation theory [12], we define the exponential rate of decay by

$$I_p(R) = -\lim_{C \to \infty} \frac{1}{C} \ln P(X_\mu \neq \hat{X}_\mu) \quad (0 < R \leq 1).$$

The decay rate $I_p(R)$ describes the limiting behavior of the system from a macroscopic level, on which the rate $R$ could be used as a control parameter [13]. The case of $R = 1$ reduces to a naive aggregation scheme in which the sensors just send their noisy observations to the observer. For this smallest aggregation, we aggregate data from only $L = C$ sensors. Hereafter, we call this scheme the level-1 aggregation. For a given $R > 0$, the level-$R$ aggregation is defined in which every sensor encodes its observations at the rate of $R$ independently. As an extension of the definition of $I_p(R)$ for $R > 0$, we could naturally define the level-0 decay rate as

$$I_p(0) = -\lim_{C \to \infty} \frac{1}{C} \lim_{R \to 0} \ln P(X_\mu \neq \hat{X}_\mu).$$

B. Large Deviations Result

Assume that $D(R)$ denotes the distortion rate function, which is the inverse function of $R(D)$. Suppose that 

$$\rho_p(R) = p(1 - D(R)) + (1 - p)D(R).$$

Then, for $0 < R \leq 1$, the main result of this paper is given below.

Proposition 1: We have

$$I_p(R) = -\frac{1}{R} \left\{ \ln 2 + \frac{\ln \rho_p(R)}{2} + \frac{\ln(1 - \rho_p(R))}{2} \right\}. \quad (1)$$

The maximum of $I_p(R)$ is of great interest from an engineering point of view. That is, we prefer larger values of $I_p(R)$. Therefore, we examine the optimal levels defined by $R^* = \arg\max_{0 \leq R \leq 1} I_p(R)$. The optimal aggregation, for a given $p$, is called the level-$R^*$ aggregation.

C. Numerical Findings

We now examine the behavior of formula (1) which gives the optimal levels $R^*$ for the noise $p$. As is seen in Fig. 1 the optimal aggregation scale diverges, i.e., the optimal data rate $R^*$ per sensor diverges for noise levels larger than the critical point $p_0 = 0.211$. In this noisy region, we want the system to be as large as possible. The larger the system we have, the smaller the error probability. By definition, the optimal aggregation is said to be level-0. In contrast, we can always find the non-zero optimal levels below $p_0$. In particular, if the noise level is below $p_1 = 0.024$, our investigations indicate that the level-1 aggregation is optimal. Moderate aggregation levels could be optimal in the intermediate noise levels between the two critical points. It is also worth noticing that the behavior of $R^*$ of $p$ is reminiscent of that of order parameters at a continuous phase transition in statistical mechanics [14]. The analytical results presented here are also consistent with numerical simulations for the system size $C = 50$, as shown in Fig. 3.

Since the optimal levels $R^*$ are unique values for each noise $p$, we can plot the optimal decay rate $I_p(R^*)$ as is given in Fig. 2. The optimal rate $I_p(R^*)$ describes the limiting behavior of the smallest error probability $P(X_\mu \neq \hat{X}_\mu)$ in terms of macroscopic variables. Clearly, it is a strongly decreasing function of the noise $p$.
Since every sensor can achieve the optimal rate \( R^* \) at the noise level \( p \), which is given by the optimal data rate \( R^* \) per sensor. For comparison, the dashed line represents the smallest decay rate \( I_p(R^1) \) which is given by the most pessimistic value \( R^3 \).

Fig. 2. Maximum and minimum decay rates for vanishing error probability of final decision. The solid line denotes the largest decay rate \( I_p(R^*) \) at the noise level \( p \), which is given by the optimal data rate \( R^* \) per sensor. For comparison, the dashed line represents the smallest decay rate \( I_p(R^1) \) which is given by the most pessimistic value \( R^3 \).

IV. ANALYSIS

This section is devoted to present the large deviations analysis which gives Proposition \( ^{[1]} \) and to describe briefly how it relates to the previous work by using the Gaussian approximation \( ^{[13]} \). Numerical experiments support our recent result.

A. Gaussian approximation

For sufficiently large \( L \), the binomial distribution \( Q_p(l|L) \) is well approximated by the Gaussian distribution \( N(Lp, Lp(1-p)) \) with mean \( Lp \) and variance \( Lp(1-p) \) \( ^{[15]} \). Changing the variable

\[
s = \frac{l - Lp}{\sqrt{Lp(1-p)}}
\]

enables us to use a naive approximation to get

\[
P(X_{\mu} \neq \hat{X}_{\mu}) \approx \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \frac{ds}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-s^2/2},
\]

where we denote, respectively,

\[
\lambda_1 = \frac{1/2 - \rho}{\sqrt{\rho(1-\rho)}} \sqrt{L}, \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{1 - \rho}{\sqrt{\rho(1-\rho)}} \sqrt{L}.
\]

Since every sensor can achieve the optimal rate \( R(D) \), we may evaluate the number of sensors \( L \) as \( C/R(D) \).

Assume that \( D(R) \) denotes the distortion rate function, which is the inverse function of \( R(D) \). Suppose that \( \alpha(p, R) = (1-2p)(1-2D(R)) \) for \( 0 \leq p < 1/2 \) and \( 0 < R \leq 1 \). Together with an identity

\[
\frac{1}{2} - \rho = (1-2p) \left( \frac{1}{2} - D \right),
\]

we have estimated the rate function as

\[
I_p(R) = \begin{cases} 
(1 - 2p)^2 \ln 2 / 2R(1 - \alpha(p, R))(1 + \alpha(p, R)) & (0 < R \leq 1) \\
\alpha(p, R)^2 & (R = 0)
\end{cases}
\]

However numerical evidence does not support the above formula, i.e., the Gaussian approximation \( ^{[15]} \). This motivates us to apply the standard large deviation analysis, as shown below.

B. Large Deviation Analysis

Write the error indicator function \( \delta(X_{\mu}, \hat{Y}_{\mu}(\alpha)) \) as \( Z_{\mu}(\alpha) \). For a given \( \mu \), this is a Bernoulli random variable that takes the value 1 with probability

\[
\rho = p(1-D) + (1-p)D
\]

for \( a = 1, \ldots, L \). Consider the sample average defined to be

\[
M_{\mu} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{a=1}^{L} Z_{\mu}(\alpha) .
\]

Since the expectation \( \langle Z_{\mu}(\alpha) \rangle = \rho \) is finite, we know that \( M_{\mu} \) is approaching \( \rho \) by the law of large numbers. However the value of interest is the error probability \( P(X_{\mu} \neq \hat{X}_{\mu}) \) for the majority vote procedure, which is identical to \( P(M_{\mu} \geq 1/2) \).

For \( 0 \leq \rho < 1/2 \) and \( |\rho - 1/2| > 0 \), the vanishing \( P(M_{\mu} \geq 1/2) \) is called a large deviation probability.

Consider the rate function of \( Z_{\mu}(\alpha) \). Since \( Z_{(1)}, Z_{(2)}, \ldots, Z_{(\mu)} \) are the \( L \) independent Bernoulli(\( \rho \)) random variables, the Legendre transform gives the rate function \( I_p^{(1)}(z) \) for the sample average \( M_{\mu} \) as

\[
I_p^{(1)}(z) = z \ln \frac{z}{\rho} + (1-z) \ln \frac{1-z}{1-\rho}
\]

for \( 0 < z < 1 \) and \( \infty \) otherwise \( ^{[14]} \). Since the number of sensors \( L \) is given by \( C/R \), changing the variable

\[
C = LR
\]

yields

\[
I_{p,R}^{(1)}(z) = \frac{1}{R} \left\{ z \ln \frac{z}{\rho_p(R)} + (1-z) \ln \frac{1-z}{1-\rho_p(R)} \right\}.
\]

Since the set \( A_{\mu} = \{ M_{\mu} \geq 1/2 \} \) is closed and does not contain \( \rho \), the large deviation property tells that

\[
\lim_{C \to \infty} \frac{1}{C} \ln P(A_{\mu}) = - \min_{z \in A_{\mu}} I_{p,R}^{(1)}(z) .
\]

Then it is an easy matter to check that

\[
\min_{z \in A_{\mu}} I_{p,R}^{(1)}(z) = I_{p,R}^{(1)}(1/2) = - \frac{1}{R} \left\{ \ln 2 + \ln \rho_p(R) + \ln(1-\rho_p(R)) \right\} .
\]

Write \( I_p(R) = I_{p,R}^{(1)}(1/2) \) for the convenience. For a given \( R \) we conclude that

\[
I_p(R) = - \lim_{C \to \infty} \frac{1}{C} \ln P(A_{\mu}) .
\]

This completes the proof for Proposition \( ^{[1]} \).
Fig. 3. The solid line denotes the optimal data rate $R^*$ given by the large deviation analysis, while the dashed line represents the same value calculated by the Gaussian approximation in the prior work. The circles indicate the numerical experiments for $C = 50$.

V. DISCUSSION

It has been shown that the optimal aggregation for an ensemble of independent sensors exhibits a critical behavior of the data rate per sensor $R = C/L$ with respect to the external noise level $p$. The simple analytic model shows that in the high noise region beyond a critical value of noise $p_0$, the data rate $R$ should converge to zero in order to reduce collective estimation error. This means that we should deploy very many sensors $L \gg C$ in the large $C$ limit. In contrast, if the noise level is lower than the critical point, the data rate $R$ should take a positive value. In this case, the number of sensors scales as $L = O(C)$. Numerical evidence supports our large deviation analysis for the optimality measure.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was in part supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) of Japan, under the Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Areas, 18079015.

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