Distributed Data Classification in Sensor Networks

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Abstract

Low overhead analysis of large distributed data sets is necessary for current data centers and for future sensor networks. In such systems, each node holds some data value, e.g., a local sensor read, and a concise picture of the global system state needs to be obtained. To this end, we define the distributed classification problem, in which numerous interconnected nodes compute a classification of their data, i.e., partition these values into multiple collections, and describe each collection concisely.

We present a generic algorithm that solves the distributed classification problem and may be implemented in various topologies, using different classification types. For example, the generic algorithm can be instantiated to classify values according to distance, like the famous k-means classification algorithm.

However, the distance criterion is often not sufficient to provide good classification results. We present an instantiation of the generic algorithm that describes the values as a Gaussian Mixture (a set of weighted normal distributions), and uses machine learning tools for classification decisions.

We prove that any implementation of the generic algorithm converges over any connected topology, classification criterion and collection representation, in fully asynchronous settings.
1 Introduction

To analyze large data sets, it is common practice to employ classification [6]: In classification, the data values are partitioned into several collections, and each collection is described concisely using a summary. This classical problem in machine learning is solved using various heuristic techniques, which typically base their decisions on a view of the complete data set, which is stored in some central database.

However, it is sometimes necessary to perform classification on data sets that are distributed among a large number of nodes. For example, in a grid computing system, load balancing can be implemented by having heavily loaded machines stop serving new requests. But this requires analysis of the load of all machines. If, e.g., half the machines have a load of about 10%, and the other half is 90% utilized, the system’s state can be summarized by partitioning the machines into two collections — lightly loaded and heavily loaded. A machine with 60% load is associated with the heavily loaded collection, and should stop taking new requests. But, if the collection averages were instead 50% and 80%, it would have been associated with the former, i.e., lightly loaded, and would keep serving new requests. Another scenario is that of sensor networks with thousands of nodes monitoring conditions like seismic activity or temperature [1, 17]. In both settings, there are strict constraints on the resources devoted to the classification mechanism. Large-scale computation clouds allot only limited resources to monitoring, so as not to interfere with their main operation, and sensor networks use lightweight nodes with minimal hardware. These constraints render the collection of all data at a central location infeasible, and therefore rule out the use of centralized classification algorithms. In this paper, we address the problem of distributed classification. To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first to address this problem in a general fashion. A more detailed account of previous work appears in Section 2, and a formal definition of the problem appears in Section 3.

A solution to distributed classification ought to summarize data within the network. There exist distributed algorithms that calculate scalar aggregates, such as sum and average, of the entire data set [11, 8]. In contrast, a classification algorithm must partition the data into collections, and summarize each collection separately. In this case, it seems like we are facing a Catch-22 [10]: Had the nodes had the summaries, they would have been able to partition the values by associating each one with the summary it fits best. Alternatively, if each value was labeled a collection identifier, it would have been possible to distributively calculate the summary of each collection separately, using the aforementioned aggregation algorithms.

In Section 4 we present a generic distributed classification algorithm to solve this predicament. Our algorithm captures a large family of algorithms that solve various instantiations of the problem — with different approaches to classification, classifying values from any multidimensional domain and with different data distributions, using various summary representations, and running on arbitrary connected topologies. In our algorithm, all nodes obtain a classification of the complete data set without actually hearing all the data values. The double bind described above is overcome by implementing adaptive compression: A classification can be seen as a lossy compression of the data, where a collection of similar values can be described succinctly, whereas a concise summary of dissimilar values loses a lot of information. Our algorithm tries to distribute the values between the nodes. At the beginning, it uses minimal compression, since each node has only little information to store and send. Once a significant amount of information is obtained, a node may perform efficient compression, joining only similar values. For example, a common approach to classification summarizes each collection by its centroid (average of the values in the collection) and partitions the values based on distance. Such a solution is a possible implementation of our generic algorithm.

Since the summary of collections as centroids is often insufficient in real life, machine learning solutions typically also take the variance into account, and summarize samples as a weighted set of Gaussians (normal distributions), which is called a Gaussian Mixture (GM) [16]. In Section 5, we present a novel distributed classification algorithm that employs this approach, also as an instance of our generic algorithm. The GM
algorithm makes classification decisions using a popular machine learning heuristic, Expectation Maximization (EM) [5]. We present in Section 5.3 simulation results showing the effectiveness of this approach.

The centroids and GM algorithms are but two examples of our generic algorithm; in all instances, nodes independently strive to estimate the classification of the data. This raises a question that has not been dealt with before: does this process converge? One of the main contributions of this paper, presented in Section 6, is a formal proof that indeed any implementation of our generic algorithm converges, s.t. all nodes in the system learn the same classification of the complete data set. We prove that convergence is ensured under a broad set of circumstances: arbitrary asynchrony, an arbitrary connected topology, and no assumptions on the distribution of the values.

Note that in the abstract settings of the generic algorithm, there is no sense in defining the destination classification the algorithm converges to precisely, or in arguing about its quality, since these are application-specific and usually heuristic in nature. Additionally, due to asynchrony and lack of constraints on topology, it is also impossible to bound the convergence time.

In summary, this paper makes the following contributions:

• It formally defines the problem of classification in a distributed environment (Section 3).

• It provides a generic algorithm that captures a range of algorithms solving this problem in a variety of settings (Section 4).

• It provides a novel distributed classification algorithm based on Gaussian Mixtures, which uses machine learning techniques to make classification decisions (Section 5).

• It proves that the generic algorithm converges in very broad circumstances, over any connected topology, using any classification criterion, in fully asynchronous settings (Section 6).

2 Related Work

Kempe et al. [11] and Nath et al. [14] present approaches for calculating aggregates such as sums and means using gossip. These approaches cannot be directly used to perform classification, though this work draws ideas from [11], in particular the concept of weight diffusion, and the tracing of value weights.

In the field of machine learning, classification has been extensively studied for centrally available data sets (see [6] for a comprehensive survey). In this context, parallelization is sometimes used, where multiple processes classify partial data sets. Parallel classification differs from distributed classification in that all the data is available to all processes, or is carefully distributed among them, and communication is cheap.

Centralized classification solutions typically overcome the Catch-22 issue explained in the introduction by running multiple iterations. They first estimate a solution, and then try to improve it by re-partitioning the values to create a better classification. K-means [13] and Expectation Maximization [5] are examples of such algorithms. Datta et al. [4] implement the k-means algorithm distributively, whereby nodes simulate the centralized version of the algorithm. Kowalczky and Vlassis [12] do the same for Gaussian Mixture estimation by having the nodes distributively simulate Expectation Maximization. In contrast to this paper, they require multiple iterations to obtain their estimation, since the entire data set is required for re-partitioning. Moreover, they demonstrate convergence through simulation only, but do not provide a convergence proof.

Haridasan and van Renesse [9] and Sacha et al. [15] estimate distributions in sensor networks by estimating histograms. Unlike this paper, these solutions are limited to single dimensional data values. Additionally, both use multiple iterations to improve their estimations. While these algorithms are suitable for certain distributions, they are not applicable for classification, where, for example, small sets of distant values should not be merged with others. They also do not prove convergence.
3 Model and Problem Definitions

3.1 Network Model

The system consists of a set of \( n \) nodes, connected by communication channels, s.t. each node \( i \) has a set of neighbors \( \text{neighbors}_i \subset \{1, \ldots, n\} \), to which it is connected. The channels form a static directed connected network. Communication channels are asynchronous but reliable links: A node may send messages on a link to a neighbor, and eventually every sent message reaches its destination. Messages are not duplicated and no spurious messages are created.

Time is discrete, and an execution is a series of events occurring at times \( t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \).

3.2 The Distributed Classification Problem

At time 0, each node \( i \) takes an input \( \text{val}_i \) — a value from a domain \( \mathcal{D} \). In all the examples in this paper, \( \mathcal{D} \) is a \( d \)-dimensional Cartesian space \( \mathcal{D} = \mathbb{R}^d \) (with \( d \in \mathbb{N} \)). However, in general, \( \mathcal{D} \) may be any domain.

A weighted value is a pair \( (\text{val}, \alpha) \in \mathcal{D} \times (0, 1] \), where \( \alpha \) is a weight associated with a value \( \text{val} \). We associate a weight of 1 to a whole value, so, for example, \( (\text{val}_i, 1/2) \) is half of node \( i \)'s value. A set of weighted values is called a collection:

**Definition 1 (Collection).** A collection \( c \) is a set of weighted values with unique values. The collection’s weight, \( c.\text{weight} \), is the sum of the value weights: \( c.\text{weight} \triangleq \sum_{\langle \text{val}, \alpha \rangle \in c} \alpha \).

A collection may be split into two new collections, each consisting of the same values as the original collection, but associated with half their original weights. Similarly, multiple collections may be merged to form a new one, consisting of the union of their values, where each value is associated with the sum of its weights in the original collections.

A collection can be concisely described by a summary in a domain \( \mathcal{S} \), using a function \( f \) that maps collections to their summaries: \( f : (\mathcal{D} \times (0, 1])^* \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \). The domain \( \mathcal{S} \) is a pseudo-metric space (like metric, except the distance between distinct points may be zero), with a distance function \( d_\mathcal{S} : \mathcal{S}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \).

A collection \( c \) may be partitioned into several collections, each holding a subset of its values and summarized separately\(^1\). The set of weighted summaries of these collections is called a classification of \( c \). Weighted values in \( c \) may be split among collections, so that different collections contain portions of a given value. The sum of weights associated with a value \( \text{val} \) in all collections is equal to the sum of weights associated with \( \text{val} \) in \( c \). Formally:

**Definition 2 (Classification).** A Classification \( C \) of a collection \( c \) into \( J \) collections \( \{c_j\}_{j=1}^J \) is the set of weighted summaries of these collections: \( C = \{(f(c_j), c_j.\text{weight})\}_{j=1}^J \) s.t.

\[
\forall \text{val} : \sum_{\langle \text{val}, \alpha \rangle \in c} \alpha = \sum_{j=1}^J \left( \sum_{\langle \text{val}, \alpha \rangle \in c_j} \alpha \right).
\]

A classification of a value set \( \{\text{val}_j\}_{j=1}^l \) is a classification of the collection \( \{\langle \text{val}_j, 1 \rangle\}_{j=1}^l \).

The number of collections in a classification is bounded by a system parameter \( k \).

A classification algorithm maintains at every time \( t \) a classification \( \text{classification}_i(t) \), yielding an infinite series of classifications. For such a series, we define convergence:

\(^1\)Note that partitioning a collection is different from splitting it, because, when a collection is split, each part holds the same values.
Definition 3 (Classification Convergence). A series of classifications

\[ \left\{ \left\{ (f(c_j(t)), c_j(t).weight) \right\}_j \right\}_{t=1}^{\infty} \]

converges to a destination classification, which is a set of \( l \) collections \( \{dest_x\}_{x=1}^{l} \), if for every \( t \in 0, 1, 2, \cdots \) there exists a mapping \( \psi_t \) between the \( J_t \) collections at time \( t \) and the \( l \) collections in the destination classification \( \psi_t : \{1, \cdots, J_t\} \rightarrow \{1, \cdots, l\} \), such that:

1. The summaries converge to the collections to which they are mapped by \( \psi_t \):

\[
\max_j \left\{ d_S(f(c_j(t)), f(dest_{\psi_t(j)})) \right\} \xrightarrow{t \to \infty} 0
\]

2. For each collection \( x \) in the destination classification, the relative amount of weight in all collections mapped to \( x \) converges to \( x \)'s relative weight in the classification:

\[
\forall 1 \leq x \leq l : \frac{\sum_{j|\psi_t(j)=x} c_j(t).weight}{\sum_{j=1}^{J_t} c_j(t).weight} \xrightarrow{t \to \infty} \frac{dest_x.weight}{\sum_{y=1}^{l} dest_y.weight}
\]

We are now ready to define the problem addressed in this paper, where a set of nodes strive to learn a common classification of their inputs. As previous works on aggregation in sensor networks [11, 14, 2], we define a converging problem, where nodes continuously produce outputs, and these outputs converge to such a common classification.

Definition 4 (Distributed Classification Problem). Each node \( i \) takes an input \( val_i \) at time 0 and maintains a classification \( classification_i(t) \) at each time \( t \), s.t. there exists a classification of the input values \( \{val_i\}_{i=1}^{n} \) to which the classifications in all nodes converge.

4 Generic Classification Algorithm

We now present our generic algorithm that solves the Distributed Classification Problem. At each node, the algorithm builds a classification, which converges over time to one that describes all input values of all nodes. In order to avoid excessive bandwidth and storage consumption, the algorithm maintains classifications as weighted summaries of collections, and not the actual sets of weighted values. It begins with a classification of its own input value. It then periodically splits its classification into two new ones, which have the same summaries but half the weights of the originals; it sends one classification to a neighbor, and keeps the other. Upon receiving a classification from a neighbor, a node merges it with its own, according to an application-specific merge rule. The algorithm thus progresses as a series of merge and split operations.

In Section 4.1, we present the generic distributed classification algorithm. It is instantiated with a domain \( S \) of summaries used to describe collections, and with application-specific functions that manipulate summaries and make classification decisions. As an in-line example, we present an algorithm that summarizes collections as their centroids — the averages of their weighted values.

In Section 4.2, we enumerate a set of requirements on the functions the algorithm is instantiated with. We then show that in any instantiation of the generic algorithm with functions that meet these requirements, the weighted summaries of collections are the same as those we would have obtained, had we applied the algorithm’s operations on the original collections, and then summarized the results.
4.1 Algorithm

The algorithm maintains at each node an estimate of the classification of the complete set of values. Each collection $c$ is stored as a weighted summary. By slight abuse of terminology, we refer by the term collection to both a set of weighted values $c$, and its summary–weight pair $\langle c.\text{summary}, c.\text{weight} \rangle$.

The algorithm for node $i$ is shown in Algorithm 1 (at this stage, we ignore the parts in dashed frames). The algorithm is generic, and it is instantiated with $S$ and the functions $\text{valToSummary}$, $\text{partition}$ and $\text{mergeSet}$. The functions of the centroids example are given in Algorithm 2. The summary domain $S$ in this case is the same as the value domain, i.e., $\mathbb{R}^d$.

Initially, each node produces a classification with a single collection, based on the single value it has taken as input (Line 2). The weight of this collection is 1, and its summary is produced by the function $\text{valToSummary} : D \to S$, which encapsulates $f$. In the centroids example, the initial summary is the input value (Algorithm 2, $\text{valToSummary}$ function).

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**Algorithm 1:** Generic Distributed Data Classification Algorithm. Dashed frames show auxiliary code:

1. **state**
2.  $\text{classification}_i$, initially $\{(\text{valToSummary}(\text{val}_i), 1) : i \in \mathbb{R}^{1/2}\}$

3. Periodically do atomically
4.  Choose $j \in \text{neighbors}_i$ (Selection has to ensure fairness)
5.  $\text{old} \leftarrow \text{classification}_i$
6.  $\text{classification}_i \leftarrow \bigcup_{c \in \text{old}} \{ \langle c.\text{summary}, \frac{\text{half}(c.\text{weight})}{c.\text{weight}} \cdot c.\text{aux} \rangle \}$
7.  send $(j, \bigcup_{c \in \text{old}} \{ \langle c.\text{summary}, c.\text{weight} - \frac{\text{half}(c.\text{weight})}{c.\text{weight}} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\text{half}(c.\text{weight})}{c.\text{weight}}\right) \cdot c.\text{aux} \rangle \})$

8. Upon receipt of $\text{incoming}$ do atomically
9.  $\text{bigSet} \leftarrow \text{classification}_i \cup \text{incoming}$
10. $M = \text{partition}(\text{bigSet})$
11. $\text{classification}_i \leftarrow 
    \bigcup_{x=1}^{\lvert M \rvert} \{ \langle \text{mergeSet}(\bigcup_{c \in M_x} \{ \langle c.\text{summary}, c.\text{weight} \rangle \}, \sum_{c \in M_x} c.\text{weight} ; \sum_{c \in M_x} c.\text{aux} \rangle \rangle \}$

12. **function** $\text{half}(\alpha)$
13.  return the multiple of $q$ which is closest to $\alpha/2$.

---

A node occasionally sends data to a neighbor (Algorithm 1, Lines 3–7): It first splits its classification into two new ones. For each collection in the original classification, there is a matching collection in each of the new ones, with the same summary, but with approximately half the weight. Weight is quantized, limited to multiples of a system parameter $q$ ($q, 2q, 3q, \cdots$). This is done in order to avoid a scenario where it takes infinitely many transfers of infinitesimal weight to transfer a finite weight from one collection to another (Zeno effect). We assume $q$ is small enough to avoid quantization errors: $q \ll 1/n$. In order to respect the quantization requirement, the weight is not multiplied by exactly 0.5, but by the closest factor for which the resulting weight is a multiple of $q$ (function $\text{half}$ in Algorithm 1). One of the collections is attributed the result of $\text{half}$ and the other is attributed the complement, so that the sum of weights is equal to the original, and system-wide conservation of weight is maintained.
Algorithm 2: Centroid Functions

1 function valToSummary(val)
2 return val

3 function mergeSet(collections)
4 return \left( \sum_{\langle \text{avg}, m \rangle \in \text{collections}} m \right)^{-1} \times \sum_{\langle \text{avg}, m \rangle \in \text{collections}} m \cdot \text{avg}

5 function partition(bigSet)
6 \quad M = bigSet
7 \quad If there are sets in \( M \) with weight \( q \), merge them arbitrarily with others.
8 \quad while |M| > k do
9 \quad \quad Let \( M_x \) and \( M_y \) be (different) elements of \( M \) whose centroids are closest.
10 \quad \quad M = M \setminus \{ M_x, M_y \} \cup (M_x \cup M_y)
11 \quad return M

The node then keeps one of the new classifications, replacing its original one (Line 6), and sends the other to some neighbor \( j \) (Line 7). The selection of neighbors has to ensure fairness in the sense that in an infinite run, each neighbor is chosen infinitely often; this can be achieved, e.g., using round robin. Alternatively, the node may implement gossip communication patterns: It may choose a random neighbor and send data to it (push), or ask it for data (pull), or perform a bilateral exchange (push-pull).

When a message with a neighbor’s classification reaches the node, an event handler (Lines 8–11) is called. It first combines the two classifications of the nodes into a set \( \text{bigSet} \) (Line 9). Then, an application-specific function \( \text{partition} \) divides the collections in \( \text{bigSet} \) into sets \( M = \{ M_x \}_{x=1}^{\|M\|} \) (Line 10). The collections in each of the sets in \( M \) are merged into a single collection, together forming the new classification of the node (Line 11). The summary of each merged collection is calculated by another application-specific function, \( \text{mergeSet} \), and its weight is the sum of weights of the merged collections.

To conform with the restrictions of \( k \) and \( q \), the partition function must guarantee that (1) \( |M| \leq k \); and (2) no \( M_x \) includes a single collection of weight \( q \) (that is, every collection of weight \( q \) is merged with at least one other collection).

Note that the parameter \( k \) forces lossy compression of the data, since merged values cannot later be separated. At the beginning, only a small number of data values is known to the node, so it performs only a few (easy) classification decisions. As the algorithm progresses, the number of samples described by the node’s classification increases. By then, it has enough knowledge of the data set, so as to perform correct classification decisions, and achieve a high compression ratio without losing valuable data.

In the centroids algorithm, the summary of the merged set is the weighted average of the summaries of the merged collections, calculated by the implementation of \( \text{mergeSet} \) shown in Algorithm 2. Merging decisions are based on the distance between collection centroids. Intuitively, it is best to merge close centroids, and keep distant ones separated. This is done greedily by \( \text{partition} \) (shown in Algorithm 2) which repeatedly merges the closest sets, until the \( k \) bound is reached.
4.2 Auxiliaries and Instantiation Requirements

4.2.1 Instantiation Requirements

To phrase the requirements, we describe a collection in \( \langle D, (0, 1) \rangle \) as a vector in the Mixture Space — the space \( \mathbb{R}^n \) (\( n \) being the number of input values), where each coordinate represents one input value. A collection is described in this space as a vector whose \( j \)’th component is the weight associated with \( \text{val}_j \) in that collection. A vector in the mixture space precisely describes a collection. We can therefore view \( f \) as a mapping from mixture space vectors of collections to collection summaries, i.e., \( f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow S \). From this point on, we use \( f \) in this manner.

We define the distance function \( d_M : (\mathbb{R}^n)^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) between two vectors in the mixture space to be the angle between them. Collections consisting of similar weighted values, are close in the mixture space (according to \( d_M \)). Their summaries should be close in the summary space (according to \( d_S \)), with some scaling factor \( \rho \). Formally:

\[
\text{For any input value set, } \exists \rho : \forall v_1, v_2 \in (0, 1]^n : d_S(f(v_1), f(v_2)) \leq \rho \cdot d_M(v_1, v_2).
\]

In the centroids algorithm, we define \( d_S \) to be the \( L^2 \) distance between the centroids of collections. This fulfills requirement R1. We defer the proof of this guarantee to Appendix A.

In addition, operations on summaries must preserve the relation to the collections they describe:

**R2** Samples are mapped by \( f \) to their summaries: \( \forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n : \text{valToSummary}(\text{val}_i) = f(e_i) \).

**R3** Summaries are oblivious to weight scaling: \( \forall \alpha > 0, v \in (0, 1]^n : f(v) = f(\alpha v) \).

**R4** Merging the summarized description of collections is equivalent to merging the collections and then summarizing the result: \( \text{mergeSet} \left( \bigcup_{v \in V} \langle f(v), \|v\|_1 \rangle \right) = f \left( \sum_{v \in V} v \right) \).

4.2.2 A Collection Summary is a Function of its Auxiliary Variable

We show that the weighted summaries maintained by the algorithm to describe collections that are merged and split, indeed do so. To do that, we define an auxiliary algorithm. This is an extension of Algorithm 1 with the auxiliary code in the dashed frames. Collections are now triplets, containing, in addition to the summary and weight, the collection’s mixture space vector \( c.\text{aux} \).

At initialization (Line 2), the auxiliary vector at node \( i \) is \( e_i \) (a unit vector whose \( i \)’th component is 1). When splitting a collection (Lines 6–7), the vector is factored by about \( 1/2 \) (the same ratio as the weight). When merging a set of collections, the mixture vector of the result is the sum of the original collections’ vectors (Line 11).

The following lemma shows that, at all times, the summary maintained by the algorithm is indeed that of the collection described by its mixture vector:

**Lemma 1** (A Summary is a Function of its Vector). The generic algorithm, instantiated by functions satisfying R1–R4, maintains the following invariant:

\[
\forall 1 \leq i \leq n : \forall c \in \text{classification}_i : f(c.\text{aux}) = c.\text{summary}.
\]

The lemma is proven by induction on the algorithm’s progress, where in each step a single operation is performed, and the operations maintain the invariant. The formal proof is deferred to Appendix B.
5 Gaussian Classification

When classifying value sets from a metric space, the centroids solution is seldom sufficient. Consider the example shown in Figure 1, where we need to associate a new value with one of two existing collections. Figure 1a shows the information that the centroids algorithm has for collections $A$ and $B$, and a new value. The algorithm would associate the new value to collection $A$, on account of it being closer to its centroid. However, Figure 1b shows the set of values that produced the two collections. We see that it is more likely that the new value in fact belongs to collection $B$, since it has a much larger variance.

![Figure 1: Associating a new value when collections are summarized (a) as centroids and (b) as Gaussians.](image)

The field of machine learning suggests the heuristic of classifying data using a Gaussian Mixture (a weighted set of normal distributions), allowing for a rich and accurate description of multivariate data. Figure 1b illustrates the summary employed by GM: An ellipse depicts an equidensity line of the Gaussian summary of each collection. Given these Gaussians, one can easily classify the new value correctly.

We present in Section 5.1 the GM algorithm — a new distributed classification algorithm, implementing the generic one by representing collections as Gaussians, and classifications as Gaussian Mixtures. Contrary to the classical machine learning algorithms, ours performs the classification without collecting the data in a central location. Nodes use the popular machine learning tool of Expectation Maximization to make classification decisions (Section 5.2). A taste of the results achieved by our GM algorithm is given in Section 5.3 via simulation. It demonstrates the classification of multidimensional data. More simulation results appear in [7] — an informal publication of the GM algorithm. Note that due to the heuristic nature of EM, the only possible evaluation of our algorithm’s quality is empirical.

5.1 Gaussian Mixture Classification

The summary of a collection is the tuple $(\mu, \sigma)$, comprised of the average of the weighted values in the collection $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (where $D = \mathbb{R}^d$ the value space), and their covariance matrix $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. Together with the weight, a collection is described by a weighted Gaussian, and a classification consists of a weighted set of Gaussians, or a Gaussian Mixture.

The mapping $f$ of a vector is the tuple $(\mu, \sigma)$ of the average and covariance matrix of the collection represented by the normalized vector. We define $d_S$ as in the centroids algorithm. The function `valToSummary(val)` returns a collection with an average equal to `val`, a zero covariance matrix, and a weight of 1. The function `mergeSet` takes a set of weighted summaries and calculates the summary of the merged set. A complete description of the functions, showing they conform to R1–R4, is deferred to Appendix C.
5.2 Expectation Maximization Partitioning

To complete the description of the GM algorithm, we now explain the partition function. When a node has accumulated more than $k$ collections, it needs to merge some of them. In principle, it would be best to choose collections to merge according to Maximum Likelihood, which is defined in this case as follows: We denote a Gaussian Mixture of $x$ Gaussians $x$-GM. Given a too large set of $l \geq k$ collections, an $l$-GM, the algorithm tries to find the $k$-GM probability distribution for which the $l$-GM has the maximal likelihood. However, computing Maximum Likelihood is NP-hard. We therefore instead follow common practice and approximate it with the Expectation Maximization algorithm [13].

5.3 Simulation Results

Due to the heuristic nature of the Gaussian Mixture classification and of EM, the quality of their results is typically evaluated experimentally. In this section, we briefly demonstrate the effectiveness of our GM algorithm through simulation. We demonstrate the algorithm’s ability to classify multidimensional data, which could be produced by a sensor network.

We simulate a fully connected network of 1,000 nodes. The run progresses in rounds, where in each round each node sends a classification to one neighbor. Nodes that receive classifications from multiple neighbors accumulate all the received collections and run EM once for the entire set.

As an example input, we use data generated from a set of three Gaussians in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Values are generated according to the distribution shown in Figure 2a, where the ellipses are equidensity contours of normal distributions. This input might describe temperature readings taken by a set of sensors positioned on a fence located by the woods, and whose right side is close to a fire outbreak. Each value is comprised of the sensor’s location $x$ and the recorded temperature $y$. The generated input values are shown in Figure 2b. We run the GM algorithm with this input until its convergence; $k = 7$ and $q$ is set by floating point accuracy.

The result is shown in Figure 2c. The ellipses are equidensity contours, and the x’s are isolated samples (zero variance). This result is visibly a usable estimation of the input data.

![Figure 2: Gaussian Mixture classification example. The three Gaussians in Figure 2a were used to generate the data set in Figure 2b. The GM algorithm produced the estimation in Figure 2c.](image-url)
6 Convergence Proof

We now prove that the generic algorithm presented in Section 4 solves the distributed classification problem. To prove convergence, we consider a pool of all the collections in the system, including all nodes and communication channels. This pool is in fact, at all times, a classification of the set of all input values. In Section 6.1 we prove that the pool of all collections converges, i.e., roughly speaking, it stops changing. Then, in Section 6.2, we prove that the classifications in all nodes converge to the same destination.

6.1 Collective Convergence

In this section, we ignore the distributive nature of the algorithm, and consider all the collections in the system at time $t$ as if they belonged to a single multiset $pool(t)$. A run of the algorithm can therefore be seen as a series of splits and merges of collections.

To argue about convergence, we first define the concept of collection descendants: for $t_1 \leq t_2$, a collection $c_2 \in pool(t_2)$ is a descendant of a collection $c_1 \in pool(t_1)$ if $c_2$ is equal to $c_1$, or the result of operations on $c_1$. Formally:

**Definition 5** (Collection Genealogy). We recursively define the descendants $desc(A, *)$ of a collection set $A \in pool(t)$. First, at $t$, the descendants are simply $A$. Next, consider $t' > t$.

Assume the $t'$ operation in the execution is splitting (and sending) (Lines 3–7) a set of collections $\{c_x\}_{x=1}^l \subset pool(t'-1)$. This results in two new sets of collections, $\{c_x^1\}_{x=1}^l$ and $\{c_x^2\}_{x=1}^l$, being put in pool($t'$) instead of the original set. If a collection $c_x$ is a descendant at $t'-1$, then the collections $c_x^1$ and $c_x^2$ are descendants at $t'$.

Assume the $t'$ operation is a (receipt and) merge (Lines 8–11), then some $m (1 \leq m \leq k)$ sets of collections $\{M_x\}_{x=1}^m$ are merged and are put in pool($t'$) instead of the merged ones. For every $M_x$, if any of its collections is a descendant at $t'-1$, then its merge result is a descendant at $t'$.

Formally:

$$desc(A, t') \triangleq \begin{cases} A & t' = t \\ desc(A, t'-1) \setminus \{c_x\}_{x=1}^l \cup \bigcup_{x=1}^l \{c_x^1, c_x^2\} | c_x \in desc(A, t'-1) & t' > t, operation t' is split \\ desc(A, t'-1) \setminus \bigcup_{x=1}^m M_x \cup \bigcup_{x=1}^m \{c_x | M_x \cap desc(A, t'-1) \neq \phi\} & t' > t, operation t' is merge \end{cases}$$

By slight abuse of notation, we write $v \in pool(t)$ when $v$ is the mixture vector of a collection $c$, and $c \in pool(t)$; vector genealogy is similar to collection genealogy.

We now state some definitions and the lemmas used in the convergence proof. The proofs of some lemmas are deferred to Appendix D. We prove that, eventually, the descendants of each vector converge (normalized) to a certain destination. To do that, we investigate the angle between a vector $v$ and the $i$’th axis unit vector, which we call the $i$’th reference angle and denote $\phi_i^v$. We denote by $\varphi_{i,\text{max}}(t)$ the maximal $i$’th reference angle over all vectors in the pool at time $t$:

$$\varphi_{i,\text{max}}(t) \triangleq \max_{v \in pool(t)} \phi_i^v.$$

**Lemma 2** (Monotonically Decreasing $\varphi_{i,\text{max}}$). For $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\varphi_{i,\text{max}}(t)$ is monotonically decreasing.
Since the maximal reference angles are bounded from below by zero, Lemma 2 shows that they converge, and we can define
\[
\hat{\varphi}_{i, \text{max}} = \lim_{t \to \infty} \varphi_{i, \text{max}}(t).
\]

By slight abuse of terminology, we say that the \(i\)'th reference angle of a vector \(v \in \text{pool}(t)\) converges to \(\varphi\), if for every \(\varepsilon\) there exists a time \(t'\), after which the \(i\)'th reference angle of all of \(v\)'s descendants is in the \(\varepsilon\) neighborhood of \(\varphi\).

The next lemma shows that there exists a time after which the pool is partitioned into classes, and the vectors from each class merge only with one another. Moreover, the descendants of all vectors in a class converge to the same reference angle.

**Lemma 3 (Class Formation).** For every \(1 \leq i \leq n\), there exists a time \(t_{i, \text{max}}\) and a set of vectors \(V_{i, \text{max}} \subset \text{pool}(t_{i, \text{max}})\) s.t. the \(i\)'th reference angles of the vectors converge to \(\hat{\varphi}_{i, \text{max}}\), and their descendants are merged only with one another.

We next prove that the pool of auxiliary vectors converges:

**Lemma 4 (Auxiliary Collective Convergence).** The set of auxiliary variables in the system converges, i.e., there exists a time \(t\), s.t. the normalized descendants of each vector in \(\text{pool}(t)\) converge to a specific destination vector, and merge only with descendants of vectors that converge to the same destination.

**Proof.** By Lemmas 2 and 3, for every \(1 \leq i \leq n\), there exist a maximal \(i\)'th reference angle, \(\hat{\varphi}_{i, \text{max}}\), a time, \(t_{i, \text{max}}\), and a set of vectors, \(V_{i, \text{max}} \subset \text{pool}(t_{i, \text{max}})\), s.t. the \(i\)'th reference angles of the vectors \(V_{i, \text{max}}\) converge to \(\hat{\varphi}_{i, \text{max}}\), and the descendants of \(V_{i, \text{max}}\) are merged only with one another.

The proof continues by induction. At \(t_{i, \text{max}}\) we consider the vectors that are not in \(\text{desc}(V_{i, \text{max}}, t_{i, \text{max}})\). The descendants of these vectors are never merged with the descendants of the \(V_{i, \text{max}}\) vectors. Therefore, the proof applies to them with a new maximal \(i\)'th reference angle. This can be applied repeatedly, and since the weight of the vectors is bounded from below by \(q\), we conclude that there exists a time \(t\) after which, for every vector \(v\) in the pool at time \(t' > t\), the \(i\)'th reference of \(v\) converges. Denote that time \(t_{\text{conv}, i}\).

Next, let \(t_{\text{conv}} = \max\{t_{\text{conv}, i}| 1 \leq i \leq n\}\). After \(t_{\text{conv}}\), for any vector in the pool, all of its reference angles converge. Moreover, two vectors are merged only if all of their reference angles converge to the same destination. Therefore, at \(t_{\text{conv}}\), the vectors in \(\text{pool}(t_{\text{conv}})\) can be partitioned into disjoint sets s.t. the descendants of each set are merged only with one another and their reference angles converge to the same values. For a class \(x\) of vectors whose reference angles converge to \(\left(\varphi_i^x\right)_{i=1}^n\), its destination in the mixture space is the normalized vector \(\left(\cos \varphi_i^x\right)_{i=1}^n\).

We are now ready to derive the main result of this section.

**Corollary 1.** The classification series \(\text{pool}(t)\) converges.

**Proof.** Lemma 4 shows that the pool of vectors is eventually partitioned into classes. This applies to the weighted summaries pool as well, due to the correspondence between summaries and auxiliaries (Lemma 1).

For a class of collections, define its destination collection as follows: Its weight is the sum of weights of collections in the class at \(t_{\text{conv}}\), and its summary is that of the mixture space destination of the class’s mixture vectors. Using requirement R1, it is easy to see that after \(t_{\text{conv}}\), the classification series \(\text{pool}(*)\) converges to the set of destination collections formed this way.
6.2 Distributed Convergence

We show that the classifications in each node converge to the same classification of the input values.

Lemma 5. There exists a time $t_{\text{dist}}$ after which each node holds at least one collection from each class.

Proof. First note that after $t_{\text{conv}}$, once a node has obtained a collection that converges to a destination $x$, it will always have a collection that converges to this destination, since it will always have a descendant of that collection — no operation can remove it.

Consider a node $i$ that obtains a collection that converges to a destination $x$. It eventually sends a descendant thereof to each of its neighbors due to the fair choice of neighbors. This can be applied repeatedly and show that, due to the connectivity of the graph, eventually all nodes hold collections converging to $x$. $\square$

Boyd et al. [3] analyzed the convergence of weight based average aggregation. The following lemma can be directly derived from their results:

Lemma 6. In an infinite run of Algorithm 1, after $t_{\text{dist}}$, at every node, the relative weight of collections converging to a destination $x$ converges to the relative weight of $x$ (in the destination classification).

We are now ready to prove the main result of this section.

Theorem 1 (Distributed Classification Convergence). Algorithm 1, with any implementation of the functions $\text{valToSummary}$, $\text{partition}$ and $\text{mergeSet}$ that conforms to Requirements R1–R4, solves the Distributed Classification Problem (Definition 4).

Proof. Corollary 1 shows that pool of all collections in the system converges to some classification $\text{dest}$, i.e., there exists mappings $\psi_t$ from collections in the pool to the elements in $\text{dest}$, as in Definition 3. Lemma 5 shows that there exists a time $t_{\text{dist}}$, after which each node obtains at least one collection that converges to each destination.

After this time, for each node, the mappings $\psi_t$ from the collections of the node at $t$ to the $\text{dest}$ collections show convergence of the node’s classification to the classification $\text{dest}$ (of all input values). Corollary 1 shows that the summaries converge to the destinations, and Lemma 6 shows that the relative weight of all collections that are mapped to a certain collection $x$ in $\text{dest}$ converges to the relative weight of $x$. $\square$

7 Conclusion

We presented the problem of distributed data classification, where nodes obtain values and must calculate a classification thereof. We presented a generic distributed data classification algorithm that solves the problem efficiently by employing adaptive in-network compression. The algorithm is completely generic and captures a wide range of algorithms for various instances of the problem. We presented a specific instance thereof — the Gaussian Mixture algorithm, where collections are maintained as weighted Gaussians, and merging decisions are done using the Expectation Maximization heuristic. Finally, we provided a proof that any implementation of the algorithm converges.

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References


A Centroids R1 Compliance

We prove the following claim, showing that the centroids algorithm satisfies R1.

Claim 1. For the centroids algorithm, as described in Section 4, with $d_S$ defined to be the $L_2$ distance between centroids, and for each input value set, there exists a $\rho$ such that the distance between the centroids of collections is smaller than the angle between the vectors that represent them in the mixture Space.

Proof. Let $\rho$ be the maximal $L^2$ distance between values, and let $\tilde{v}$ be the $L_2$ normalized vector $v$. We show that R1 holds with this $\rho$.

\begin{align*}
&d_S(f(v_1), f(v_2)) \leq \\
&\rho \|v_1 - v_2\|_1 \leq \\
&\rho \cdot n^{-1/2}\|\tilde{v}_1 - \tilde{v}_2\|_1 \leq \\
&\rho \|\tilde{v}_1 - \tilde{v}_2\|_2 \leq \\
&\rho \cdot d_M(\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2) = \rho \cdot d_M(v_1, v_2)
\end{align*}

(1) Each value may donate at least $\rho$ the coordinate difference.

(2) The normalization from $L_1$ to $L_2$ may factor each dimension by no less than $n^{-1/2}$.

(3) The $L_1$ norms is smaller than $\sqrt{n}$ times the $L_2$ norm, so a factor of $\sqrt{n}$ is added that annuls the $n^{-1/2}$ factor.

(4) Recall that $d_M$ is the angle between the two vectors. The $L_2$ difference of normalized vectors is smaller than the angle between them.

B Summary and Auxiliary Relation in Algorithm 1

We prove that, at all times, the summary maintained by Algorithm 1 is that of the collection described by its mixture vector:

Lemma 1 (restated) The generic algorithm, instantiated by functions satisfying R1–R4, maintains the following invariant:

$$\forall 1 \leq i \leq n : \forall c \in \text{classification}_i : f(c.\text{aux}) = c.\text{summary}.$$  

Proof. By induction on the states of the system. The system status changes by the two operations send (Lines 3–7) started by a node and receive (Lines 8–11) run by a node due to a message arrival on a communication channel. Due to the atomicity of the operations, we can serialize the transitions of the system, and describe the progress of the algorithm after each transition: $t_0$ (after initialization), then $t_1, t_2, \cdots$. We monitor the collections in the system as a single set, since it is irrelevant which node holds each collection.

Basis Initialization puts at time $t_0$ in node $i$ the $\text{valToSummary}$ of value $i$ and the vector $e_i$. Requirement R2 ensures the invariant holds at this state.

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**Assumption** At state $j - 1$ the invariant holds.

**Step** Transition $j$ may be either send or receive. Each of them removes collections from the set, and produces a collection or two. To prove that at time $t_j$ the invariant holds, we need only show that in both cases the new collection(s) maintain the invariant.

**Send** We show that the mapping holds for the kept collection $c_{\text{keep}}$. A similar proof holds for the sent one $c_{\text{send}}$.

\[
\begin{align*}
  c_{\text{keep}.\text{summary}} \quad \text{Line 6} & \quad = c.\text{summary} \quad \text{Induction assumption} \\
  & \quad = f(c.\text{aux}) \quad \text{R3} \\
  & \quad = f \left( \frac{\text{half}(c.\text{weight})}{c.\text{weight}} \cdot c.\text{aux} \right) \quad \text{Auxiliary line 6} \\
  & \quad = f(c_{\text{keep}.\text{aux}})
\end{align*}
\]

**Receive** We prove that the mapping holds for each of the $m$ produced collections. Each collection $c_x$ is derived from a set $\tilde{M}_x$. $\text{mergeSet}$ takes a set $\tilde{M}_x$, produced by removing the auxiliary variable from the collections.

\[
\begin{align*}
  c_x.\text{summary} \quad \text{Line 11} & \quad = \text{mergeSet}(\tilde{M}_x) \quad \text{Induction assumption} \\
  & \quad = \text{mergeSet} \left( \bigcup_{\langle c'.\text{summary}, c'.\text{weight} \rangle \in \tilde{M}_x} f(c') \right) \quad \text{R4} \\
  & \quad = f \left( \sum_{\langle c'.\text{summary}, c'.\text{weight} \rangle \in \tilde{M}_x} c'.\text{aux} \right) \quad \text{Auxiliary line 11} \\
  & \quad = f(c.\text{aux})
\end{align*}
\]

\[\square\]

**C GM Algorithm Functions**

We specify the functions that implement the Gaussian Mixture algorithm, and show that they conform to Requirements R1–R4.
Let \( v = (v_1, \ldots, v_n) \) be an auxiliary vector; we denote by \( \tilde{v} \) a normalized version thereof:

\[
\tilde{v} = \frac{v}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} v_j}
\]

Recall that \( v_j \) represents the weight of \( val_j \) in the collection. The centroid \( \mu(v) \) and covariance matrix \( \sigma(v) \) of the weighted values in the collection are calculated as follows:

\[
\mu(v) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{v}_j \cdot val_j, \quad \text{and}
\]

\[
\sigma(v) = \frac{1}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \tilde{v}_k^2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{v}_j (val_j - \mu)(val_j - \mu)^T.
\]

We use them to define the mapping \( f \) from the mixture space to the summary space: \( f(v) = (\mu(v), \sigma(v)) \). Note that the use of the normalized vector \( \tilde{v} \) makes both \( \mu(v) \) and \( \sigma(v) \) invariant under weight scaling, thus fulfilling Requirement R3.

We define \( d_S \) as in the centroids algorithm. Namely, it is the \( L^2 \) distance between the centroids of collections. This fulfills requirement R1 (see Appendix A).

The function \( \text{valToSummary} \) returns a collection with an average equal to the value, a zero covariance matrix, and a weight of 1. Requirement R2 is trivially satisfied.

To describe the function \( \text{mergeSet} \) we use the following definitions: Denote the weight, average and covariance matrix of collection \( x \) by \( w_x, \mu_x \) and \( \sigma_x \), respectively. Given the summaries and weights of two collections \( a \) and \( b \), one can calculate the summary of a collection \( c \) created by merging the two:

\[
\mu_c = \frac{w_a}{w_a + w_b} \mu_a + \frac{w_b}{w_a + w_b} \mu_b,
\]

\[
\sigma_c = \frac{w_a}{w_a + w_b} \sigma_a + \frac{w_b}{w_a + w_b} \sigma_b + \frac{w_a \cdot w_b}{(w_a + w_b)^2} \cdot (\mu_a - \mu_b) \cdot (\mu_a - \mu_b)^T.
\]

This merging function maintains the average and covariance of the original values [16], therefore it can be iterated to merge a set of summaries and implement \( \text{mergeSet} \) in a way that conforms to R4.

D  Generic Algorithm Convergence

We prove two lemmas necessary for the convergence proof of Section 6.

D.1  Maximal Reference Angle is Monotonically Decreasing

We prove Lemma 2, showing that the \( i \)'th reference angle is monotonically decreasing (for any \( 1 \leq i \leq n \)). To achieve this, we show that the sum of two vectors has an \( i \)'th reference angle not larger than the larger \( i \)'th reference angle of the two (Lemma 10). The proof considers the 3-dimensional space spanned by the two summed vectors and the \( i \)'th axis. We show in Lemma 8 that it is sufficient to considered the angles of the two vectors in a 2-dimensional space spanned by the two summed vectors, and then show in Lemma 9 that in this space the claim holds. We begin by proving Lemma 7 showing that all the relevant angles are bounded by \( \pi/2 \).
Denote by $\|v\|_p$ the $L^p$ norm of $v$. $\|v\|$ is the Euclidean ($L^2$) norm. $v_1 \cdot v_2$ is the scalar product of the vectors $v_1$ and $v_2$. The angle between two vectors in the mixture space is:

$$\arccos \left( \frac{v_a \cdot v_b}{\|v_a\| \cdot \|v_b\|} \right)$$

**Lemma 7 (Acute Reference Angles).** The reference angles of all collection vectors (for all $1 \leq i \leq n$) and their sums are at most $\pi/2$. Same goes for the angles between the vector and the projection of $e_i$ on their plane.

**Proof.** Consider the angle between a collection vector $v$ and one of the unit vectors (take $e_1$ WLOG). The first element of $v$ is denoted $v[1]$:

$$\varphi = \arccos \left( \frac{v \cdot e_1}{\|v\|_2 \cdot \|e_1\|_2} \right) = \arccos \left( \frac{v[1]}{\|v\|_2} \right).$$

Since $\arccos$ is monotonically decreasing, the vector $\tilde{v}$ with positive coordinates only that maximizes the angle, minimizes the expression $\frac{\tilde{v}[1]}{\|\tilde{v}\|_2}$. This expression is brought to a minimum by a vector such as $\tilde{v} = (0, 1, 0, \cdots, 0)$, and the maximal angle is:

$$\varphi_{\text{max}} = \arccos(0) = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

$v_a$ and $v_b$ are vectors with positive coordinates. $v_c$ is their sum, therefore it too has only positive coordinates. Therefore, according to the above, all three have reference angles not larger than $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

$\varphi_{\tilde{e}}$ is the minimal angle between $e_i$ and a vector on the $XY$ plane, therefore it is smaller than both $\varphi_a$ and $\varphi_b$. Both of these angles are smaller than $\frac{\pi}{2}$, so $0 < \varphi_{\tilde{e}} < \frac{\pi}{2}$.

Finally, we show that for any vector on the plane with a mixing angle $\varphi < \frac{\pi}{2}$, its angle with the projection of $e_i$ is also smaller than $\frac{\pi}{2}$. From Equation 1 we have

$$\tilde{\varphi} = \arccos \left( \frac{\cos \varphi}{\cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}}} \right).$$

Since $\cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}} \leq 1$, we obtain $\frac{\cos \varphi}{\cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}}} \geq \cos \varphi$. Since $\arccos$ is monotonically decreasing, $\tilde{\varphi} \leq \varphi$, and specifically $\tilde{\varphi} \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, the angles of $v_a$, $v_b$ and $v_c$ with the projection of $e_i$ are all not larger than $\frac{\pi}{2}$. We now show that we may prove for 2-dimensions rather than 3:

**Lemma 8 (Reduction to 2 dimensions).** In a 3 dimensional space, let $v_a$ and $v_b$ be two vectors lying on the $XY$ plane with angles not larger than $\pi/2$ with the $X$ axis. Assume $v_a$’s angle with the axis is larger than that of $v_b$. Let $v_c$ be a third vector whose projection on the $XY$ plane is aligned with the $X$ axis, and whose angles with the $X$ and $Z$ axes are not larger than $\pi/2$. Let $v_c = v_a + v_b$. If the angle of $v_c$ with the axis is smaller than that of $v_a$, then $v_c$’s angle with $v_e$ is smaller than that of $v_a$.

**Proof.** Let us express the angle of a vector on the $XY$ plane with $v_e$ using the angle of the vector with the $X$ axis, i.e., with the projection of $v_e$ on the $XY$ plane. Figure 4 shows such a vector $v$.

Denote the end point of the vector by $v$, and the origin by $O$. Construct a perpendicular to the $X$ axis passing through $v$. Denote the point of intersection $\tilde{e}$. From $\tilde{e}$ take a perpendicular to the $XY$ plane, until
intersecting the reference vector. Denote that intersection point \( e \). \( Oe \) is the vector \( e_i \) and \( O\tilde{e} \) is its projection on the \( XY \) axis. This construction is also shown in Figure 4.

\[
\begin{align*}
O\tilde{e} &= |v| \cos \tilde{\phi} \\
O p &= \frac{O\tilde{e}}{\cos \tilde{\varphi}_{\tilde{e}}} = \frac{|v| \cos \tilde{\phi} \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}}}{\cos \tilde{\varphi}_{\tilde{e}}} \\
e\tilde{e} &= O\tilde{e} \tan \varphi_{\tilde{e}} = |v| \cos \tilde{\phi} \tan \varphi_{\tilde{e}} \\
v\tilde{e} &= |v| \sin \tilde{\phi} \\
ve &= \sqrt{e\tilde{e}^2 + v\tilde{e}^2} = \sqrt{(|v| \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}})^2 + (|v| \sin \tilde{\phi})^2}
\end{align*}
\]

Now we can use the law of cosines to obtain:

\[
\varphi = \arccos \left( \frac{Ov^2 + Oe^2 - ve^2}{2 \cdot Ov \cdot Oe} \right) = \arccos (\cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}} \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}})
\]

Both \( \tilde{\varphi} \) and \( \varphi \) are smaller than \( 90^\circ \). (Lemma 7)

Getting back to Equation 1, since \( 0^\circ \leq \tilde{\varphi} \leq 90^\circ \) and \( 0^\circ \leq \varphi_{\tilde{e}} \leq 90^\circ \), we see that \( \varphi \) is monotonically increasing with \( \tilde{\varphi} \). Therefore, if \( \tilde{\varphi}_c < \tilde{\varphi}_a \), and both are smaller than \( 90^\circ \), then:

\[
\begin{align*}
\cos \tilde{\varphi}_a &\leq \cos \tilde{\varphi}_c \\
\cos \tilde{\varphi}_a \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}} &\leq \cos \tilde{\varphi}_c \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}} \\
\arccos (\cos \tilde{\varphi}_a \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}}) &\geq \arccos (\cos \tilde{\varphi}_c \cos \varphi_{\tilde{e}}) \\
\varphi_a &\geq \varphi_c
\end{align*}
\]

We prove our claim, after the reduction to 2 dimensions.

**Lemma 9** (Smaller angle with Projection). Let \( v_a \) and \( v_b \) be two vectors in a two dimensional space, with angles with the \( X \) axis smaller than \( \pi/2 \), s.t. \( v_a \)’s angle with the \( X \) axis is larger. The angle of \( v_c = v_a + v_b \) with the \( X \) axis is not larger than \( v_a \’s \) angle with it.

**Proof.** Lemma 7 shows that both angles are smaller than \( \frac{\pi}{2} \). Figure 3 shows the only two possible cases. It is evident that in both cases the lemma holds. \( \square \)

And now, back to the \( n \) dimensional mixture space.

**Lemma 10** (Decreasing Reference Angle). The sum of two vectors in the mixture space is a vector with a smaller \( i \)’th reference angle than the larger \( i \)’th reference angle of the two, for any \( 1 \leq i \leq n \).

**Proof.** Denote the two vectors \( v_a \) and \( v_b \), and their \( i \)’th reference angles \( \varphi_i^a \) and \( \varphi_i^b \), respectively. Assume WLOG that \( \varphi_i^a \geq \varphi_i^b \).

It is sufficient to prove the above in the 3 dimensional space spanned by \( v_a \), \( v_b \) and \( e_i \). Align the \( XYZ \) axes such that \( v_a \) and \( v_b \) lie on the \( XY \) plane and the projection of \( e_i \) on that plane is aligned with the \( X \) axis. \( v_c \) lies on the \( XY \) plane, as it is a linear combination of two vectors on the plane. Figure 4 shows this space with the vector \( e_i \) and a vector \( v \) on the \( XY \) plane.

It is sufficient to show the angle of \( v_c \) with the projection of the reference vector is smaller than the angle of \( v_a \) with the projection. (Lemma 8)

\( v_c \’s \) angle with the \( X \) axis is smaller than \( v_a \’s \) angle with it. (Lemma 9) \( \square \)
We are now ready to prove the main result of this section.

**Lemma 2 (restated)** For $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\varphi_{i,\text{max}}(t)$ is monotonically decreasing.

**Proof.** The sum of two vectors is a vector with a smaller $i$’th reference angle than the larger of the $i$’th reference angles of the two. (Lemma 10)

If vectors are replaced by their sum and one of them had the maximal reference angle, then according to the above point the maximal reference angle may only decrease. The new reference angle may be the one of the new sum vector, or the one of another vector in the pool.

If vectors are replaced by their sum and none of them had the maximal $i$’th reference angle, then $\varphi_{i,\text{max}}$ is unchanged. Proof is trivial given the above point. \qed

**D.2 Vectors Partitioning and $i$’th Reference Angle Convergence**

We prove Lemma 3, showing that the vectors in the pool are partitioned by the algorithm according to the $i$’th reference angle their descendants converge to (for any $1 \leq i \leq n$). We show that, due to the quantization of weight, a gap is formed between descendants that converge to the maximal reference angle, and those
that do not. We prove that a gap is formed and there are no vectors in it (Lemma 11), and then show that vectors from different sides of the gap are never merged (Lemma 12). We use the following definition:

**Definition 6.** Since the $i$’th maximal reference angle converges (Lemma 10), for every $\varepsilon$ there exists a time $t_\varepsilon$ after which there are always vectors in the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood of $\hat{\varphi}_{i,\text{max}}$. Denote by $q_\varepsilon$ the minimal weight (sum of $L^1$ norms of vectors) ever to be in this neighborhood after $t_\varepsilon$. Such a $q_\varepsilon$ exists because of the quantization of weight.

The following observation immediately follows:

**Observation 1.** For every $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$, the relation $q_{\varepsilon'} \leq q_\varepsilon$ holds. Specifically: $q_\varepsilon - q_{\varepsilon'} = l \cdot q$ with $l \in \{0, 1, \cdots \}$.

We show that a gap is formed in which there are no vectors.

**Lemma 11.** There exists an $\varepsilon$ such that for every $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$ the minimal weights in both neighborhoods of $\hat{\varphi}_{i,\text{max}}$ are the same: $q_\varepsilon = q_{\varepsilon'}$.

**Proof.** Assume for contradiction that this does not hold, so (since Observation 1 showed that $q_{\varepsilon'} \leq q_\varepsilon$), for every $\varepsilon$ there exists an $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$ whose minimal weight is strictly smaller: $q_{\varepsilon'} < q_\varepsilon$.

The algorithm ensures that weights of collections are always multiples of $q$, therefore, for every $\varepsilon$, there exists an $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$ whose minimal weight is smaller by at least $q$: $q_{\varepsilon'} \leq q_\varepsilon - q$.

Let us build a series of $\varepsilon$’s with decreasing matching $q$’s. Choose some $\varepsilon_0$ arbitrarily. For every $i$, define $\varepsilon_i$ such that $q_{\varepsilon_i} \leq q_{\varepsilon_{i-1}} - q$. Such an $\varepsilon_i$ exists according to Statement D.2. If the initial weight in the system is $W$, then after $W \cdot q^{-1} + 1$ steps the minimal weight in the $\varepsilon_{W \cdot q^{-1} + 1}$ neighborhood is negative, which is of course impossible.

We conclude that an $\varepsilon$ as required indeed exists.

And we show a gap exists, s.t. vectors from different sides of it are never merged.

**Lemma 12.** For any given $\varepsilon$, there exists an $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$ such that if a vector $v_{\text{out}}$ lies outside the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood with a reference angle smaller than $\hat{\varphi}_{i,\text{max}} - \varepsilon$, and a vector $v_{\text{in}}$ of weight $w_{\text{in}}$ lies inside the $\varepsilon'$ neighborhood, then their sum $v_c$ lies outside the $\varepsilon'$ neighborhood.

**Proof.** We go through the proof of Lemma 10 in reverse order:

In Lemma 9 it was shown that $\hat{\varphi}_c \leq \hat{\varphi}_a$. Let’s decide to take $\varepsilon' \leq \varepsilon/2$, so we know that the angle between $v_a$ and $v_b$ is at least $\varepsilon/2$. Notice also that the $L^2$ norms of $v_a$ and $v_b$ are bounded between $q$ from below and $\sqrt{s}$ from above. Observing Figure 3 again, we deduce that there is a lower bound on the difference between the angles:

$$\hat{\varphi}_c < \hat{\varphi}_a - x_1$$

We now follow the steps leading to Inequality 2. Due to the previous bound, a bound $x_2$ exists such that

$$\cos \hat{\varphi}_a < \cos \hat{\varphi}_c - x_2.$$ 

Since the reference angles of $v_a$ and $v_b$ are different, at least one of them is smaller than $90^\circ$, therefore $\varphi_{\varepsilon} < 90^\circ$ for any such couple. Therefore, $\cos \varphi_{\varepsilon}$ is a bounded size, and there exists a bound $x_3$ such that

$$\cos \hat{\varphi}_a \cos \varphi_{\varepsilon} < \cos \hat{\varphi}_c \cos \varphi_{\varepsilon} - x_3.$$
This way, even if \( \varphi \) for every \( \text{Lemma 3 (restated)} \)

This allows us to finally deduce that there exists a bound \( x_4 \) such that

\[
\arccos(\cos \varphi_a \cos \varphi_e) > \arccos(\cos \varphi_c \cos \varphi_e) + x_4
\]

\[\varphi_a > \varphi_c + x_4\]

Therefore, for a given \( \varepsilon \), we choose

\[\varepsilon' < \min \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_4}{4}, \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \right\}\]

This way, even if \( \varphi_a = \varphi_{i,\text{max}} + \varepsilon' \), we get that \( \varphi_c < \varphi_{i,\text{max}} - \varepsilon' \), as needed.

We are now ready to prove the main result of this section.

**Lemma 3 (restated)** For every \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), there exists a time \( t_{i,\text{max}} \) and a set of vectors \( V_{i,\text{max}} \subset \text{pool}(t_{i,\text{max}}) \) s.t. the \( i \)'th reference angles of the vectors converge to \( \hat{\varphi}_{i,\text{max}} \), and their descendants are merged only with another.

**Proof.** Choose an \( \varepsilon \) such that for every \( \varepsilon' < \varepsilon \) the minimal weights are the same: \( q_{\varepsilon} = q_{\varepsilon'} \). Such an \( \varepsilon \) exists according to Lemma 11.

We choose a small enough \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \), such that for any two sets \( V_{\text{in}\varepsilon} \) of vectors inside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood and \( V_{\text{out}\varepsilon} \) of vectors outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood (i.e. with reference angles smaller than \( \hat{\varphi}_{i,\text{max}} - \varepsilon \)), their sum \( v = \sum v' \in V_{\text{in}\varepsilon} v' \) is outside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood.

We show such an \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) exists. Denote \( v_{\text{in}\varepsilon} = \sum v' \in V_{\text{in}\varepsilon} v' \) and \( v_{\text{out}\varepsilon} = \sum v' \in V_{\text{out}\varepsilon} v' \). All the \( V_{\text{out}\varepsilon} \) vectors have reference angles outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood, i.e., too small. Therefore (Lemma 10) \( v_{\text{out}\varepsilon} \) is also outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood. \( v_{\text{in}\varepsilon} \) may either be inside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood or outside it. Lemma 12 proves that there exists an \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) s.t. if \( V_{\text{in}\varepsilon} \) is inside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood then the sum \( v \) is outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood. If it is outside, then \( v = v_{\text{in}\varepsilon} + v_{\text{out}\varepsilon} \) is outside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood (Lemma 10 again).

We choose a \( t_{\varepsilon,\text{min}} \) s.t. \( t_{\varepsilon,\text{min}} > t_{\varepsilon} \) and at \( t_{\varepsilon,\text{min}} \) the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood contains a weight \( q_{\varepsilon} = q_{\tilde{\varepsilon}} \). Since \( t_{\varepsilon,\text{min}} > t_{\tilde{\varepsilon}} \), the weight in the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood cannot be smaller than \( q_{\tilde{\varepsilon}} \), therefore the weight is actually in the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood.

We now show that all operations after \( t_{i,\text{max}} \) keep the descendants of the vectors that were in the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood at \( t_{i,\text{max}} \) inside that neighborhood, and never mix them with the other vector descendants, all of which remain outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood.

Send operations (Lines 3–7) do not change the angle of the descendants, therefore maintain the claim.

A receive operation (Lines 8–11) takes vectors at \( t_j \), and sums them to create a new vector in state \( t_{j+1} \). We consider all possible cases and show that either all the merged vectors are from inside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood and the result is in that neighborhood, or all the merged vectors are from outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood and the result is outside of that neighborhood. There is never a merger of vectors from both inside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood and outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood.

1. Two vectors from the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood are summed up, creating a new vector inside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood.

2. Two vectors from \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) are summed up, creating a new vector outside the \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) neighborhood. Impossible: This would leave in the \( \varepsilon' \) neighborhood a weight smaller than \( q_{\tilde{\varepsilon}} \), contradicting Definition 6.

3. Two vectors from outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood are summed up, creating a new vector outside the \( \varepsilon \) neighborhood.
4. Two vectors from outside the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood are summed up, creating a new vector inside the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood. Impossible: the result has a reference angle smaller than those of both vectors, so it too must be outside the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood. (Lemma 10)

5. A vector from outside the $\varepsilon$ neighborhood is added to a vector from inside $\tilde{\varepsilon}$. The result is a vector outside the $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ neighborhood, since this is how $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ was chosen. Contradiction: This would leave in the $\varepsilon'$ neighborhood a weight smaller than $q_{\varepsilon'}$. 

□