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Model-Based Distributed Node Clustering and Multi-Speaker Speech Presence Probability Estimation in Wireless Acoustic Sensor Networks

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Abstract

A great challenge in the wireless acoustic sensor network (WASN) based signal processing is to develop robust speech presence probability (SPP) estimation methods, which can work at each time frame and each frequency band. The knowledge of SPP plays an essential role in speech enhancement and noise estimation. Single channel SPP estimation and centralized multi-channel SPP estimation have been well studied. However, few efforts can be found for the distributed SPP estimation for WASN applications with multiple speakers. Accordingly, this paper presents a distributed model-based SPP estimation method for multi-speaker detection, which does not need any fusion center. A distributed k-means clustering method is first used to cluster the nodes into subnetworks, which target at detecting different speakers. For each node in the subnetwork, the speech and noise power spectral densities (PSD) are estimated locally by using a model-based method, then a distributed SPP estimator is developed in each subnetwork. A distributed consensus method is used to obtain the distributed clustering and the distributed SPP estimation. The results show that the proposed distributed clustering method can assign nodes into subnetworks based on their noisy observations. Moreover, the proposed distributed SPP estimator achieves robust speech detection performance under different noise conditions.

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1 I. INTRODUCTION

2 A wireless acoustic sensor network (WASN) can be formed by microphones, which are
3 randomly placed in the environment. Each node in the WASN can be a single microphone or
4 any conventional microphone array. Compared to conventional microphone arrays, such as
5 linear arrays, circular arrays, spherical arrays, etc., WASNs are more flexible and scalable.
6 Another disadvantage of conventional microphone arrays is that they only sample the sound
7 field locally. When the array is far away from the source signal, the low signal-to-noise
8 ratio (SNR) makes satisfactory signal processing performance hard to achieve. In contrast,
9 WASNs are able to capture more spatial information, since they can physically cover a larger
10 space. However, WASN encounters some difficult challenges. Different nodes have different
11 clocks and dealing with clock skew is a challenging problem. **Meanwhile, the amplitude**
12 **response of the acoustic transfer function between sources and different nodes may be differ-**
13 **ent.** Additionally, the received signal quality, such as the input signal-to-noise ratio (iSNR),
14 is different from node to node, which may dramatically degrade the performance of tradi-
15 tional methods. Another challenge in WASN based signal processing method is to develop
16 in-network processing, which is scalable regarding communication bandwidth requirements
17 and computational complexity (Bertrand, 2011). The development of distributed optimiza-
18 tion methods (Boyd *et al.*, 2006; Zhang and Kwok, 2014; Zhang and Heusdens, 2017) makes
19 WASN more attractive in audio applications. Distributed speech enhancement methods,
20 such as distributed signal estimation (Bertrand and Moonen, 2012; Szurley *et al.*, 2016),
21 distributed Wiener filtering(de la Hucha Arce *et al.*, 2017), distributed maximum SINR
22 filtering(Tavakoli *et al.*, 2017) and distributed minimum-variance beamforming (Markovich-
23 Golan *et al.*, 2015), need to estimate the noise covariance matrix across nodes in order to
24 form the optimal filter. Usually, the estimation of the noise covariance matrix is obtained
25 in a recursive manner, and the updating is performed when the speech is absent. Therefore,
26 speech enhancement algorithms rely on an accurate speech detection method to make the
27 decision on whether the speech signal is present or absent. As the speech signal is always
28 contaminated by noise, robust detection of speech from noisy observations is non-trivial,
29 especially with non-stationary noise. The appearance of multiple speakers in the environ-
30 ment, which is not uncommon in real scenarios, makes the detection even more difficult.
31 In terms of multichannel speech enhancement for different speakers, a source specific SPP

32 needs to be obtained at each time frame and each frequency band. Although single channel
33 SPP estimators and centralized multi-channel SPP estimators have been extensively stud-
34 ied (Gerkmann *et al.*, 2008; Momeni *et al.*, 2014; Souden *et al.*, 2010; Souden *et al.*, 2011;
35 Taseska and Habets, 2014), few references can be found in the distributed case with a WASN
36 (Hamaidi *et al.*, 2017; Hamaidi *et al.*, 2017; Bahari *et al.*, 2017). Besides, most of the exist-
37 ing speech detection methods only work at time segments level (Sohn *et al.*, 1999; Ramirez
38 *et al.*, 2004; Hamaidi *et al.*, 2017; Hamaidi *et al.*, 2017; Bahari *et al.*, 2017), and most are
39 for batch mode case.

40 By using a WASN, the signal processing methods can be developed either in a central-
41 ized or a distributed manner. Unlike centralized solutions, the distributed solutions do
42 not depend on a fusion center. The long distance communication and large communica-
43 tion bandwidth requirements are reduced with distributed solutions in WASN, since each
44 node only need to communicate and exchange information with its neighbours (Bertrand,
45 2011). With the distributed solution, the computational burden is distributed over the
46 WASN, which avoids large amount of data processing in a fusion center (Bertrand, 2011).
47 In (Souden *et al.*, 2011), a multichannel noise tracking method was developed, in which
48 the multichannel speech presence probability (MC-SPP) was estimated. The experiments
49 showed that the speech detection performance becomes better with an increasing number
50 of microphones. Even though the results are promising, the noise tracking method needs
51 careful initialization, and it is difficult to determine the optimal parameters **which are the**
52 **forgetting factors in the updating of the signal statistics and the smoothing parameter of**
53 **MC-SPP**. Moreover, the algorithm only functions in a centralized manner. In (Taseska and
54 Habets, 2014), the MC-SPP estimation is applied in sound extraction by using distributed
55 microphone arrays. However, the proposed algorithm is still a centralized solution. With
56 the objective to develop distributed speech enhancement techniques, a robust distributed
57 SPP estimation at each time frame and each frequency band is needed. In (Hamaidi *et al.*,
58 2017; Bahari *et al.*, 2017), the multi-speaker VAD problem with WASN is formed as a node
59 clustering problem first, and then the VADs for different speakers are obtained at the clus-
60 tered nodes. However, the proposed method needs a distributed eigenvalue decomposition
61 (EVD) to enumerate the source number as well as to obtain the node clustering result, which
62 is computationally expensive, and the distributed EVD only works in the network with a
63 tree topology. **In (Gergen *et al.*, 2015), the authors proposed a node clustering method**

64 based on fuzzy c-Means algorithm with the MFCCs and their modulation spectra of the
65 noisy signal segments as features. The node clustering method was then applied to source
66 separation problem in ad hoc arrays (Gergen *et al.*, 2018). However, a in-network processing
67 derivation is missing. In (Szurley *et al.*, 2016), a topology-independent distributed adaptive
68 node-specific signal estimation (TI-DANSE) algorithm is introduced. Compared to the dis-
69 tributed adaptive node-specific signal estimation (DANSE) (Bertrand and Moonen, 2010;
70 Bertrand and Moonen, 2011; Szurley *et al.*, 2015), the TI-DANSE overcomes the problems
71 of changing topologies and scalability of DANSE method.

72 In (Zhao *et al.*, 2018), we have proposed a distributed solution for a single speaker voice
73 activity detection (VAD). A model-based noise PSD estimation method is first performed at
74 each node locally. Based on the estimated noise PSDs, we apply the generalized likelihood
75 ratio test (GLRT) to obtain a global decision. In this case, we find that the GLRT can be
76 solved by applying distributed consensus methods (Zhao *et al.*, 2018). In this paper, we
77 introduce a distributed model-based node clustering method and a distributed model-based
78 SPP estimation method. The proposed distributed detection method, which is an extension
79 of the distributed VAD method in (Zhao *et al.*, 2018), can get a SPP estimate per time frame
80 and frequency bin for multiple speakers. Furthermore, the model-based SPP estimation
81 method maintains robust detection performance even under non-stationary noise conditions.
82 The network is first divided into subnetworks. Each subnetwork is interested in detecting
83 a certain speaker. For distributed node clustering, we utilize a consensus based distributed
84 k-means type method (Qin *et al.*, 2017) with distributed cluster number enumeration. In
85 the distributed SPP estimation step, the SPP is formulated as a function of generalized
86 likelihood ratio (GLR). In order to obtain the GLR, the noise PSD is estimated at each
87 node locally. We can use any noise PSD estimation method in this step. Conventional
88 PSD estimators such as the minimum statistics (MS) based method (Martin, 2001) and
89 the minimum mean-square error (MMSE) based method (Hendriks *et al.*, 2010; Gerkmann
90 and Hendriks, 2012) are developed to track stationary noise. However, they have limited
91 performance under non-stationary noise conditions. In (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018), a model-based
92 noise PSD estimator was proposed. By using a statistical model to the speech signal and
93 noise signal, the introduced noise estimation method is able to take into account the prior
94 spectral information of speech and different types of noise (Kavalekalam *et al.*, 2018). Due
95 to its robust noise estimation performance with non-stationary noise, we generalize the PSD

96 estimation method introduced in (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018) to WASN in this paper. Based on
 97 the estimated signal PSDs, the SPP estimate can be obtained by using the GLR within
 98 each subnetwork. Under this circumstance, we find that the calculation of the GLR involves
 99 a distributed averaging problem (Zhao *et al.*, 2018), which can be solved by utilizing the
 100 distributed consensus methods, such as the random gossip method (Boyd *et al.*, 2006), the
 101 alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) (Zhang and Kwok, 2014), or the primal-
 102 dual method of multipliers (PDMM) (Zhang and Heusdens, 2017). In the distributed SPP
 103 estimation step, besides taking the inter-band information into account, we further consider
 104 the inter-frame information to improve the detection performance.

105 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II depicts the signal model and
 106 the problem formulation. Section III reviews the centralized detection in WASN. Section IV
 107 introduces the distributed node clustering and the distributed SPP estimation. Section V
 108 reviews the model-based signal statistics estimation method. Experimental results are then
 109 presented in Section VI. Section VII concludes the paper.

110 II. SIGNAL MODEL AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

111 The problem encountered in this paper is to detect the speech signals by using a WASN
 112 with M microphones randomly placed in a room environment, i.e., each node in the WASN
 113 is a single microphone and is interested in a specific speaker. **We have Q different speakers.**
 114 At time t , the signal received at the m th microphone is expressed as

$$y_m(t) = x_m(t) + v_m(t), \quad (1)$$

115 where $x_m(t)$ is the clean speech, $v_m(t)$ is the noise signal, where we consider the interference
 116 signal as part of the noise.

117 A frame of an observed signal at the m th microphone in a vector form is written as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_m(t) &= [y_m(t) \cdots y_m(t - T + 1)]^T \\ &= \mathbf{x}_m(t) + \mathbf{v}_m(t), \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

118 where $\mathbf{x}_m(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}_m(t)$ are speech signal vector and noise signal vector, respectively, which

119 are defined similarly to $\mathbf{y}_m(t)$. As in (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018), we introduce U_x autoregressive
120 (AR) processes to describe the speech signal $\mathbf{x}_m(t)$ and U_v AR processes to describe the noise
121 signal $\mathbf{v}_m(t)$. The excitation variances are assumed to be unknown and the AR spectral
122 envelopes are pre-trained and stored in the speech and noise codebooks. The speech and
123 noise codebooks are trained by using a variation of the LPC-VQ method (Paliwal and
124 Atal, 1998; Gersho and Gray, 2012). By selecting one AR process from the speech codebook
125 and one AR process from the noise codebook as a statistical model $\mathcal{M}_u, u = 1 \dots U$, we
126 have $U = U_x U_v$ statistical models in total. With the statistical model $\mathcal{M}_u, u = 1 \dots U$, the
127 speech signal and the noise signal can be expressed as multivariate Gaussian distributions,
128 i.e.,

$$p(\mathbf{x}_m(t) | \sigma_{x,u}^2, \mathcal{M}_u) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{x,u}^2 \mathbf{Q}_x(\mathbf{a}_u)), \quad (3)$$

129

$$p(\mathbf{v}_m(t) | \sigma_{v,u}^2, \mathcal{M}_u) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{v,u}^2 \mathbf{Q}_v(\mathbf{b}_u)), \quad (4)$$

130 where $\sigma_{x,u}^2$ and $\sigma_{v,u}^2$ represent the excitation variances, and $\mathbf{Q}_x(\mathbf{a}_u)$ and $\mathbf{Q}_v(\mathbf{b}_u)$ are the gain
131 normalized covariance matrixes, $\mathbf{a}_u = [1 \ a_u(1) \ \dots \ a_u(P)]^T$ and $\mathbf{b}_u = [1 \ b_u(1) \ \dots \ b_u(P)]^T$
132 are AR parameters of the speech signal and noise signal, respectively, and P is the AR order.
133 The matrix $\mathbf{Q}_x(\mathbf{a}_u)$ which is the covariance matrix of an AR-process asymptotically behaves
134 as a circulant matrix as frame length goes to infinite (Gray, 2006). Since the frame length
135 T is much larger than the AR order P , it is reasonable to treat $\mathbf{Q}_x(\mathbf{a}_u)$ as a circulant matrix
136 (Srinivasan *et al.*, 2007). A circulant matrix can then be diagonalized by the DFT matrix
137 (Gray, 2006), i.e.,

$$\mathbf{Q}_x(\mathbf{a}_u) = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{D}_x(\mathbf{a}_u) \mathbf{F}^H, \quad (5)$$

138 where \mathbf{F} is the DFT matrix with its (k, t) th element being

$$\mathbf{F}_{k,t} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \exp(j2\pi kt/T), \quad t, k = 0 \dots T - 1, \quad (6)$$

139 and $[\cdot]^H$ denotes the conjugate transpose operator. $\mathbf{D}_x(\mathbf{a}_u)$ is a diagonal matrix which is

140 given by

$$\mathbf{D}_x(\mathbf{a}_u) = (\mathbf{\Lambda}_x^H(\mathbf{a}_u)\mathbf{\Lambda}_x(\mathbf{a}_u))^{-1}, \quad (7)$$

141 where

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}_x(\mathbf{a}_u) = \text{diag} \left(\sqrt{T} \mathbf{F}^H \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_u \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \right). \quad (8)$$

142 The matrix $\mathbf{Q}_v(\mathbf{b}_u)$ can be diagonalized in a similar way (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018). In the
 143 following sections, the detection problem is formed in the frequency domain. The fast
 144 Fourier transform (FFT) length is equal to the frame length.

145 A. The speech presence probability

146 The detection includes two parts. First, we intend to get the node clustered near one
 147 specific speaker, and then the distributed speech detection is introduced within the clustered
 148 nodes for a certain speaker.

149 The problem considered in this section is to develop an SPP estimate per time frame and
 150 frequency band within the clustered nodes which are near a certain speaker. We assume
 151 that the network is divided into Q subnetworks, each subnetwork is represented as a node
 152 cluster $C_q, q = 1 \dots Q$, and the nodes in cluster C_q observe source q as their dominant speech
 153 signal. The collaboration between the nodes within the cluster intends to get the SPP for a
 154 specific speech signal.

155 Mathematically, a speech detector is a two-state model selection problem. At frequency
 156 bin k and time frame n , we have one hypothesis $H_{C_q,0}(k, n)$ denoting that speech from the
 157 q th speaker is absent at the clustered nodes C_q , and one hypothesis $H_{C_q,1}(k, n)$ denoting
 158 that speech is present at the clustered nodes, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} H_{C_q,0}(k, n) : \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) &= \bar{\mathbf{v}}_{C_q}(k, n), \\ H_{C_q,1}(k, n) : \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) &= \bar{\mathbf{x}}_{C_q}(k, n) + \bar{\mathbf{v}}_{C_q}(k, n), \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

159 where

$$\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) = \left[\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q,1}^T(k, n) \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q,2}^T(k, n) \dots \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q,M_q}^T(k, n) \right]^T \quad (10)$$

160 contains the noisy observations in the node cluster C_q , and we have $M = \sum_{q=1}^Q M_q$. Moreover,
 161 $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{C_q}(k, n)$ and $\bar{\mathbf{v}}_{C_q}(k, n)$ are the clean speech vector and the additive noise vector, respectively.
 162 The noisy signal vector at the m_q th node contains the N past time segments as

$$\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q,m_q}(k, n) = [\mathbf{y}_{C_q,m_q}^T(k, n) \dots \mathbf{y}_{C_q,m_q}^T(k, n - N + 1)]^T, \quad (11)$$

163 where $\mathbf{y}_{C_q,m_q}(k, n)$ is a vector of length $2K' + 1$ containing the frequency bands centered at
 164 frequency index k as

$$\mathbf{y}_{C_q,m_q}(k, n) = [Y_{C_q,m_q}(k - K', n) \dots Y_{C_q,m_q}(k + K', n)]^T, \quad (12)$$

165 where $Y_{C_q,m_q}(k, n)$ is the STFT coefficient of the observation signal. **Parameter K' controls**
 166 **the number of frequency bands which are used in the detection.** Thus, $\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q,m_q}(k, n)$ contains
 167 both the inter-frame and inter-band information. For the special case, $K' = 0$ and $N = 1$,
 168 $\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q,m_q}(k, n)$ only has the current band and the current frame information. $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{C_q}(k, n)$ and
 169 $\bar{\mathbf{v}}_{C_q}(k, n)$ are formed in a same way as $\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n)$. The SPP of the q th speaker is defined as

$$p_{C_q}(k, n) \triangleq p(H_{C_q,1}(k, n) | \bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n)). \quad (13)$$

170 In order to compute (13), we use a complex Gaussian statistical model for each noisy signal
 171 STFT coefficient which can be obtained from (3) and (4). This model has been extensively
 172 used in the noise PSD estimation methods (Gerkmann and Hendriks, 2012; Cohen and
 173 Berdugo, 2002; Hendriks *et al.*, 2010). The model is given by

$$p(Y_{C_q,m_q}(k, n) | H_{C_q,0}(k, n)) = \frac{1}{\pi \phi_{V_{C_q,m_q}}(k, n)} \exp \left\{ -\frac{|Y_{C_q,m_q}(k, n)|^2}{\phi_{V_{C_q,m_q}}(k, n)} \right\}, \quad (14)$$

174 and

$$p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k, n) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n)) = \frac{1}{\pi(\phi_{X_{C_q, m_q}}(k, n) + \phi_{V_{C_q, m_q}}(k, n))} \exp \left\{ -\frac{|Y_{C_q, m_q}(k, n)|^2}{\phi_{X_{C_q, m_q}}(k, n) + \phi_{V_{C_q, m_q}}(k, n)} \right\}, \quad (15)$$

175 where $\phi_{X_{C_q, m_q}}(k, n)$ and $\phi_{V_{C_q, m_q}}(k, n)$ are the speech PSD and noise PSD, respectively. In
 176 Section V, the signal PSDs will be estimated by using the model-based method (Nielsen
 177 *et al.*, 2018). We further make the assumption that $Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta)$, $m_q = 1, \dots, M_q$, $\kappa =$
 178 $-K', \dots, K', \eta = 0, \dots, N - 1$ are independent given $H_{C_q, 0}(k, n)$ or $H_{C_q, 1}(k, n)$. Then we have

$$p(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) | H_{C_q, 0}(k, n)) = \prod_{m_q=1}^{M_q} \prod_{\kappa=-K'}^{K'} \prod_{\eta=0}^{N-1} p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 0}(k, n)), \quad (16)$$

179

$$p(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n)) = \prod_{m_q=1}^{M_q} \prod_{\kappa=-K'}^{K'} \prod_{\eta=0}^{N-1} p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n)). \quad (17)$$

180 The GLR is defined as

$$L_G(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n)) = \frac{p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n)) p(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))}{1 - p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n)) p(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n) | H_{C_q, 0}(k, n))}, \quad (18)$$

181 where $p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))$ is a prior SPP. By using Bayes rule, the SPP in (13) can be rewritten
 182 as

$$p_{C_q}(k, n) = \frac{L_G(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n))}{1 + L_G(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n))}. \quad (19)$$

183 In the case of WASN, we can apply a distributed method to solve the two-model selection
 184 problem in (9). In the next section, we first introduce the centralized node clustering and
 185 centralized SPP estimation before discussing their distributed solutions.

186 **III. CENTRALIZED DETECTION IN WASN**

187 The appearance of multiple speakers is not uncommon in real acoustic scenarios. The
 188 WASN based signal processing method gives us an alternative way to solve the multi-speaker
 189 detection problem. The detection contains two steps: the first step is to cluster the nodes
 190 into subnetworks with each of the subnetworks interested in processing the speech signal
 191 from a certain speaker. The second step is to apply the SPP estimation within the clustered
 192 nodes to collaboratively achieve the detection objective for different speakers.

193 **A. Centralized node clustering with source enumeration**

194 We apply a k-means clustering method (Hartigan and Wong, 1979) to get the nodes near
 195 a certain sound source clustered as a subnetwork. We have the number of $U' = U_x + U_v$ AR
 196 spectral envelopes stored in each columns of the matrix $\mathbf{D} = [\mathbf{d}_1 \dots \mathbf{d}_{U'}]$, \mathbf{D} is also called
 197 dictionary or codebook. The AR spectral envelope $\mathbf{d}_{u'} = [d_{u'}(0) d_{u'}(1) \dots d_{u'}(T-1)]^T$, $u' =$
 198 $1 \dots U'$ is obtained as:

$$d_{u'}(k) = \frac{1}{\left| 1 + \sum_{p=1}^P a_{u'}(p) \exp\left(\frac{-j2\pi pk}{T}\right) \right|^2}, \quad (20)$$

199 where $a_{u'}(p)$ is the AR parameter. The feature used in clustering is based on the Itakura-
 200 Saito (IS) divergence between the noisy signal PSD and the PSD of each AR model in the
 201 codebook. It is shown in (Kavalekalam *et al.*, 2019) that the maximum likelihood estimates
 202 of the excitation variances for a given set of speech and noise AR coefficients is equal to
 203 maximising the IS divergence between the modelled spectrum and the noisy signal spectrum.
 204 The feature for the m th node is

$$\check{\mathbf{b}}_m(n) = [D_{\text{IS}}(\phi_{y_m}(n), \mathbf{d}_1) \dots D_{\text{IS}}(\phi_{y_m}(n), \mathbf{d}_{U'})]^T, \quad (21)$$

205 where $D_{\text{IS}}(\phi_{y_m}(n), \mathbf{d}_{u'})$, $u' = 1, \dots, U'$ is the IS divergence, with

$$\phi_{y_m}(n) = \frac{1}{T} [|Y_m(0, n)|^2 \dots |Y_m(T-1, n)|^2] \quad (22)$$

206 being the periodogram spectral estimate of the noisy signal (without loss of generality, we
 207 assume that the FFT length is equal to the signal frame length). The objective of k-means
 208 clustering is to divide the M features $\{\check{\mathbf{b}}_m(n)\}_{m=1}^M$ into Q clusters in which each observation
 209 is assigned to the cluster with the nearest mean. This is achieved by initializing the algorithm
 210 with Q cluster centers first. The clustering result is then obtained by iterating between the
 211 following two steps: 1) feature $\check{\mathbf{b}}_m(n)$ is assigned to its nearest cluster center \mathbf{c}_q ; 2) the
 212 cluster center \mathbf{c}_q is then recomputed as the mean of the data which is assigned to the q th
 213 cluster. Iterating between step 1) and step 2) until convergence gives the final clustering
 214 result. One of the main issues with k-means clustering is to find the proper cluster number
 215 which is usually not available in practice. In the problem encountered in this paper, the
 216 optimal number of cluster reveals the number of sources in the acoustic environment. The
 217 Calinski-Harabasz criterion (Caliński and Harabasz, 1974), which is also called the variance
 218 ratio criterion (VRC), can be utilized as a cluster validity measure to find the optimal
 219 number of clusters. We run the k-means clustering for different cluster numbers Q , and the
 220 optimal Q is then obtained by choosing the one which gives the largest VRC (Caliński and
 221 Harabasz, 1974), i.e.,

$$\text{VRC}(Q) = \frac{\text{BGSS}(M - Q)}{\text{WGSS}(Q - 1)}, \quad (23)$$

222 where BGSS is the between-group (cluster) sum of squares, and WGSS is the within-group
 223 (cluster) sum of squares. These are given by

$$\text{BGSS} = \sum_{q=1}^Q M_q \|\mathbf{c}_q - \mathbf{c}(n)\|^2 \quad (24)$$

224 and

$$\text{WGSS} = \sum_{q=1}^Q \sum_{m=1}^M \mu_{m,q} \|\check{\mathbf{b}}_m(n) - \mathbf{c}_q\|^2, \quad (25)$$

225 where $\mathbf{c}(n) = (1/M) \sum_{m=1}^M \check{\mathbf{b}}_m(n)$ indicates the mean of all the features in the WASN, and

$$\mu_{m,q} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \check{\mathbf{b}}_m(n) \in C_q, q = 1 \dots Q \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (26)$$

226 From the definitions of WGSS and BGSS, we can notice that compact and separated clusters
227 have small WGSS as well as large BGSS which leads to large value of VRC.

228 After the node clustering, the nodes which have their received signal dominated by a
229 certain speaker are clustered as a subnetwork. The collaboration between nodes within the
230 subnetwork achieves the SPP estimate for a certain speaker.

231 B. Centralized SPP estimation

232 As nodes in the network have been clustered into subnetworks by using the method
233 introduced in Section III A, SPP estimation is then applied within each subnetwork to detect
234 a certain speaker. This section formulates the centralized SPP estimation problem in the
235 subnetwork.

236 By taking the logarithm in (18) and with (16), (17), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \ln L_G(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n)) = \\ \sum_{m_q=1}^{M_q} \sum_{\kappa=-K'}^{K'} \sum_{\eta=0}^{N-1} \ln \left[\frac{p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))}{p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 0}(k, n))} \right] + \ln \left[\frac{p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))}{1 - p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

237 (27) shows that the log GLR function is the summation of local information at each node
238 in the subnetwork. By using the centralized method, every node in the network send their
239 local information to a fusion center, the calculation of $\ln L_G(\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{C_q}(k, n))$ and SPP in (19) is
240 then performed in the fusion center.

241 IV. DISTRIBUTED DETECTION IN WASN

242 In Section III, we have introduced the main procedure of detecting a certain speaker in
243 the WASN, but the derivation is carried out in a centralized way. In this section, we will

244 discuss the distributed node clustering and distributed SPP estimation by rewriting them
 245 into averaging problems which can be solved by using distributed optimization.

246 **A. Distributed node clustering**

247 As discussed in Section III A, a k-means algorithm can be used to cluster the nodes
 248 by using the feature of the noisy observation signal at each node. **For applications with**
 249 **a WASN, such as distributed noise reduction and distributed beamforming, a distributed**
 250 **clustering algorithm is needed.** The main issue with the k-means algorithm is to update the
 251 new centers at each iteration. To update the new center, we need to calculate the mean of
 252 the features which are assigned to a certain cluster. This can be obtained by solving the
 253 distributed averaging problem. In order to get the means of the clusters, we need the sum
 254 of the features in each cluster as well as the number of nodes which are assigned to that
 255 cluster. To do that, we introduce a matrix \mathbf{R}_m and a vector \mathbf{r}_m which are held by each node
 256 m . If the feature hold by a certain node is assigned to cluster q , the matrix of size $U' \times Q$
 257 has the following form

$$\mathbf{R}_m = [\mathbf{0} \ \dots \ \check{\mathbf{b}}_m \ \dots \ \mathbf{0}], \quad (28)$$

258 with its q th column being the feature at node m , and the other entries being zeros, where
 259 $\check{\mathbf{b}}_m$ is defined in (21). Moreover,

$$\mathbf{r}_m = [0 \ \dots \ 1 \ \dots \ 0]^T \quad (29)$$

260 is a vector with Q elements with its q th element being 1 and zeros elsewhere. In each
 261 iteration of the k-means clustering, the average of matrix \mathbf{R}_m in the whole network will give
 262 us the scaled sum of the data in each cluster, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{R} &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \mathbf{R}_m \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \left[\sum_{m \in C_1} \check{\mathbf{b}}_m \ \dots \ \sum_{m \in C_Q} \check{\mathbf{b}}_m \right], \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

263 and the average of vector \mathbf{r}_m will have the scaled number of the nodes at each cluster, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r} &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \mathbf{r}_m \\ &= \frac{1}{M} [M_1 \ \dots \ M_Q]^T. \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

264 By dividing the q th column of matrix \mathbf{R} by the q th element of \mathbf{r} gives us the updated center
265 of the q th cluster.

266 Since each update in the k-means clustering iteration can be obtained by calculating
267 averages in the network, we then briefly summarize the solution of averaging problem with
268 distributed optimization in the following part. The network can be described as a graph
269 $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ which has sets of nodes (vertices) \mathcal{V} connected by edges \mathcal{E} . Equations (30) and
270 (31) can be obtained by solving an averaging problem in the graph, i.e.,

$$e_{\text{ave}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} e_i, \quad (32)$$

271 where e_{ave} is the average of the local values e_i , $i = 1, \dots, M$. In (30), the local value e_i is ma-
272 trix \mathbf{R}_m . Similarly, in (31), the local value e_i is vector \mathbf{r}_m . Standard consensus propagation
273 algorithms, such as random gossip (Boyd *et al.*, 2006), ADMM (Zhang and Kwok, 2014) and
274 PDMM (Zhang and Heusdens, 2017), can be used to obtain an estimate of e_{ave} distribut-
275 edly. Since PDMM converges faster than random gossip and ADMM (Zhang and Heusdens,
276 2017), we apply the asynchronous PDMM method in this paper. With the asynchronous
277 updating scheme, only the variables associated with one node in the graph update their
278 estimates while all other variables keep their estimates fixed (Zhang and Heusdens, 2017).
279 The averaging problem in (32) is equivalent to solving a quadratic optimization problem as
280 follows:

$$\min_{\chi_i} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} \frac{1}{2} (\chi_i - e_i)^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \chi_i = \chi_j \quad \forall (i, j) \in \mathcal{E}. \quad (33)$$

281 The optimal solution to (33) is $\chi_1^* = \chi_2^* = \dots = \chi_M^* = e_{\text{ave}}$. With e_i being \mathbf{R}_m in (33),
282 the solution is $\chi_1^* = \dots = \chi_M^* = \mathbf{R}$. Similarly, with e_i being \mathbf{r}_m , the solution to (33)
283 is $\chi_1^* = \dots = \chi_M^* = \mathbf{r}$. The PDMM method first constructs an augmented primal-dual

284 Lagrangian function for the original optimization problem in the graph, and then iteratively
 285 approaches one saddle point of the constructed function (Zhang and Heusdens, 2017). At
 286 iteration $g + 1$, the updating of the asynchronous PDMM to solve the problem in (33) can
 287 be derived as

$$\hat{\chi}_i^{g+1} = \frac{p_i + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} (\gamma_1 \hat{\chi}_j^g + A_{ij} \hat{\lambda}_{j|i}^g)}{1 + |\mathcal{N}_i| \gamma_1} \quad i \in \mathcal{V}, \quad (34)$$

288

$$\hat{\lambda}_{i|j}^{g+1} = \hat{\lambda}_{j|i}^g - \frac{1}{\gamma_2} (A_{ji} \hat{\chi}_j^g + A_{ij} w_i^{g+1}) \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{N}_i, \quad (35)$$

289 where

$$w_i^{g+1} = \frac{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} (\hat{\chi}_j^g + \gamma_2 A_{ij} \hat{\lambda}_{j|i}^g) + \gamma_2 e_i}{|\mathcal{N}_i| + \gamma_2}, \quad (36)$$

290 where \mathcal{N}_i denotes the set of all the neighbouring nodes of node i . In the following of this
 291 paper, the neighbouring nodes of a node are selected as its on-hop neighbours with a certain
 292 maximum communication distance. The auxiliary node variables $\hat{\lambda}_{i|j}$ and $\hat{\lambda}_{j|i}$ are node
 293 related, $\hat{\lambda}_{i|j}$ is owned by node i and it is related to node j . The parameters γ_1 and γ_2 are
 294 primal scalar and dual scalar, respectively. With the averaging problem in (33), the edge-
 295 function is $\chi_i = \chi_j$, the variables A_{ij} and A_{ji} are related to the edge-function which are
 296 $(A_{ij}, A_{ji}) = (1, -1) \quad \forall (i, j) \in \mathcal{E}, i < j$. More details can be found in (Zhang and Heusdens,
 297 2017). The asynchronous PDMM method is briefly reviewed as follows: 1) the estimate of
 298 e_{ave} , i.e., $\hat{\chi}_i$, is initialized as e_i at the i th node; 2) in each time slot, node i is randomly
 299 selected to be active; 3) node i updates its estimate of e_{ave} and the node variables by using
 300 (34) and (35); 4) node i then send $(\hat{\chi}_i, \hat{\lambda}_{i|j})$ to its corresponding one-hop neighbours $j \in \mathcal{N}_i$.
 301 After the convergence of the PDMM, each node will obtain an accurate estimate of the
 302 average. The distributed node clustering based on PDMM is summarized in Algorithm 1.
 303 After applying the distributed node clustering for different cluster number Q , the optimal
 304 value of Q is chosen as the one which gives the largest VRC. It can be noticed from (30) that
 305 $\mathbf{c}(n)$ is actually the sum of each row of matrix \mathbf{R} . Since \mathbf{R} is available at each node after
 306 distributed node clustering, then BGSS can be obtained locally after the k-means clustering
 307 has converged. In (25), the calculation of WGSS is an averaging problem in the WASN
 308

Algorithm 1 Node clustering with distributed k-means

Description:

- 1: Randomly choose data from $e_i, i \in \mathcal{V}$ to initialize the cluster centers at each node.
 - 2: **for** $h = 1 \dots H$
 - 3: Each node assigns its feature $\check{\mathbf{b}}_m$ to the nearest cluster center, and generates \mathbf{R}_m and \mathbf{r}_m based on the local assignment result.
 Apply PDMM to calculate (30) and (31):
 - 4: **for** $g = 1, 2, 3, \dots, G'$
 - 5: Randomly select a node i to active and communicate with its neighbours.
 - 6: Node i updates its estimate $\hat{\chi}_i$ and variable $\hat{\lambda}_{i|j}$ following (34) and (35).
 - 7: Node i sends $(\hat{\chi}_i, \hat{\lambda}_{i|j})$ to its neighbour $j \in \mathcal{N}_i$.
 - 8: **end for**
 - 9: Get \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{r} at each node.
 - 10: Each node updates the cluster centers by using the information in step 9.
 - 11: **end for**
-

309 which can be solved by using the PDMM method.

310 As shown in Algorithm 1, we need to run a distributed averaging at each iteration of
311 the k-means clustering to make the clustering work in a distributed manner. Besides, we
312 also need to select a proper cluster number to obtain the optimal clustering results. This
313 may seem to be time- and communication- consuming at the first glance, but we should
314 notice that as the network is set up, the structure of it will be settled, and in most of the
315 applications the positions of the sound sources will not change very fast. The node clustering
316 does not need to be done very frequently, so the delay caused by the distributed averaging
317 in the clustering step is typically acceptable for a distributed detection system. In the rest
318 of the paper, we assume the acoustic scene does not change much. So the distributed node
319 clustering only need to be performed once before we apply the SPP estimation.

320 B. Distributed SPP estimation in the subnetwork

321 As mentioned in Section III B, the log GLR is a summation of local values. Similar to
322 the distributed node clustering in Section IV A, we can obtain the log GLR by solving the
323 distributed averaging problem (Zhao *et al.*, 2018). To obtain the GLR in (19), we need to

Algorithm 2 Distributed SPP estimation within the subnetwork C_q

Description:

Estimate PSDs at each node in cluster C_q :

- 1: **for** $m_q = 1 \dots M_q$
 - 2: Estimate $\phi_{X_{C_q, m_q}}(k + \kappa, n - \eta)$, $\phi_{V_{C_q, m_q}}(k + \kappa, n - \eta)$, $\kappa = -K', \dots, K'$, $\eta = 0, \dots, N - 1$ using the model-based noise PSD estimator (see Section V).
 - 3: Get the local information in (27), i.e.,

$$e_{m_q} = \sum_{\kappa=-K'}^{K'} \sum_{\eta=0}^{N-1} \ln \left[\frac{p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))}{p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 0}(k, n))} \right].$$
 - 4: **end for**
Apply PDMM to calculate $\ln L_G(\bar{y}_{C_q}(k, n))$:
 - 5: **for** $g = 1, 2, 3, \dots, G'$
 - 6: Randomly select a node i in cluster C_q to active and communicate with its neighbours.
 - 7: Node i updates its estimate $\hat{\chi}_i$ and variable $\hat{\lambda}_{i|j}$ by following (34) and (35),
 - 8: Node i sends $(\hat{\chi}_i, \hat{\lambda}_{i|j})$ to its neighbour j .
 - 9: **end for**
 - 10: Get a global solution of the log GLR at each node in cluster C_q .
 - 11: Calculate SPP of the q th speaker in (19) at each node in cluster C_q .
-

324 first compute

$$e_{m_q} = \sum_{\kappa=-K'}^{K'} \sum_{\eta=0}^{N-1} \ln \left[\frac{p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))}{p(Y_{C_q, m_q}(k + \kappa, n - \eta) | H_{C_q, 0}(k, n))} \right] \quad (37)$$

325 locally at node m_q . The averaging of e_{m_q} within the subnetwork with $\ln \left[\frac{p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))}{1 - p(H_{C_q, 1}(k, n))} \right]$ gives
326 us the log GLR. The PDMM method is applied to obtain (27) distributedly. We summarize
328 the distributed SPP estimation in Algorithm 2.

329 V. MODEL-BASED SIGNAL STATISTICS ESTIMATION

330 In Section II A, the SPP are computed given the PSDs. In practice, however, we need to
331 estimate the signal statistics. We use the noise PSD estimator introduced in (Nielsen *et al.*,
332 2018) which is able to track non-stationary noise. A brief description of the model-based
333 noise estimation method is summarized in this section.

334 As the signal statistics are estimated at each node independently, the cluster index is
335 omitted for clarity from now on. Since the autoregressive (AR) processes are sufficient to
336 model the generation of speech and noise (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018), we use the AR processes to

337 model the speech and noise signals as described in Section II. In practice, the AR-parameters
 338 are pre-trained and stored in speech and noise codebooks. The training of the AR-parameters
 339 is explained in Section VI. Mathematically, the noise PSD mentioned in (14) and (15) at
 340 each node can be defined as (Stoica and Moses, 2005)

$$\phi_{V_m}(k, n) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E} [|V_m(k, n)|^2 | \mathbf{y}_m(t)] . \quad (38)$$

341 The conditional expectation in (38) is the second moment of the density $p(|V_m(k, n)|^2 | \mathbf{y}_m(t))$.
 342 We can get another form of (38) as

$$\phi_{V_m}(k, n) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}^{T \times 1}} |V_m(k, n)|^2 p(\mathbf{v}_m(t) | \mathbf{y}_m(t)) d\mathbf{v}_m(t) \right] . \quad (39)$$

343 To compute the posterior $p(\mathbf{v}_m(t) | \mathbf{y}_m(t))$, we use the statistical models $\{\mathcal{M}_u\}_{u=1}^U$, which
 344 were introduced in Section II to explain the data. These models can be incorporated into
 345 (39). Then the model-based PSD can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{V_m}(k) &\approx \frac{1}{T} \sum_{u=1}^U q(\mathcal{M}_u | \mathbf{y}_m) \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}^{T \times 1}} |V_m(k)|^2 p(\mathbf{v}_m | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) d\mathbf{v}_m \right] \\ &= \sum_{u=1}^U q(\mathcal{M}_u | \mathbf{y}_m) \phi_{V_m}(k | \mathcal{M}_u), \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

346 and the time index is omitted for clarity.

347 The excitation noise variances are treated as unknown random variables with the prior

$$p(\sigma_{x,u}^2 | \mathcal{M}_u) = \text{Inv}\mathcal{G}(\alpha_{x,u}, \beta_{x,u}) \quad (41)$$

348 and

$$p(\sigma_{v,u}^2 | \mathcal{M}_u) = \text{Inv}\mathcal{G}(\alpha_{v,u}, \beta_{v,u}), \quad (42)$$

349 where $\text{Inv}\mathcal{G}[\cdot, \cdot]$ denotes inverse Gamma density.

350 The posteriors which are needed to estimate the noise PSD have no closed-form. The
 351 variational Bayesian (VB) framework (Bishop, 2006; Jordan *et al.*, 1999) can be used to
 352 produce analytical approximation. In (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018), the full joint posterior can be

353 factorised as

$$p(\mathbf{v}_m, \sigma_{x,u}^2, \sigma_{v,u}^2 | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) p(\mathcal{M}_u | \mathbf{y}_m) \approx q(\mathbf{v}_m | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) q(\sigma_{x,u}^2, \sigma_{v,u}^2 | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) q(\mathcal{M}_u | \mathbf{y}_m). \quad (43)$$

354 According to (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018) and its supplementary document, the posterior factor
 355 $q(\mathbf{v}_m | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u)$ is given by

$$q(\mathbf{v}_m | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) = \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u}, \hat{\Sigma}_u), \quad (44)$$

356 where

$$\hat{\Sigma}_u = \left[\begin{array}{c} \check{a}_{x,u} \mathbf{Q}_x^{-1}(\mathbf{a}_u) + \frac{\check{a}_{v,u}}{\check{b}_{v,u}} \mathbf{Q}_v^{-1}(\mathbf{b}_u) \\ \check{b}_{x,u} \end{array} \right]^{-1}, \quad (45)$$

357

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u} = \frac{\check{a}_{x,u}}{\check{b}_{x,u}} \hat{\Sigma}_u \mathbf{Q}_x^{-1}(\mathbf{a}_u) \mathbf{y}_m. \quad (46)$$

358 The scalars $\check{a}_{x,u}$, $\check{b}_{x,u}$, $\check{a}_{v,u}$, and $\check{b}_{v,u}$ are obtained from

$$q(\sigma_{x,u}^2, \sigma_{v,u}^2 | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) = \text{Inv}\mathcal{G}(\check{a}_{x,u}, \check{b}_{x,u}) \text{Inv}\mathcal{G}(\check{a}_{v,u}, \check{b}_{v,u}), \quad (47)$$

359 where

$$\check{a}_{x,u} = \alpha_{x,u} + T/2, \quad (48)$$

360

$$\check{b}_{x,u} = \beta_{x,u} + \left[\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{m,u}^T \mathbf{Q}_x^{-1}(\mathbf{a}_u) \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{m,u} + \text{tr} \left(\mathbf{Q}_x^{-1}(\mathbf{a}_u) \hat{\Sigma}_u \right) \right] / 2, \quad (49)$$

361

$$\check{a}_{v,u} = \alpha_{v,u} + T/2, \quad (50)$$

362

$$\check{b}_{v,u} = \beta_{v,u} + \left[\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u}^T \mathbf{Q}_v^{-1}(\mathbf{b}_u) \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u} + \text{tr} \left(\mathbf{Q}_v^{-1}(\mathbf{b}_u) \hat{\Sigma}_u \right) \right] / 2, \quad (51)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{m,u} = \mathbf{y}_m - \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u}. \quad (52)$$

364 The parameters of the posterior factors are computed iteratively, and the VB framework
 365 guarantees that the algorithm converges. Convergence of the VB algorithm can be controlled
 366 by the variational lower bound \mathcal{L}_u . The posterior model probabilities has the following
 367 relation with the variational lower bound \mathcal{L}_u :

$$q(\mathcal{M}_u|\mathbf{y}_m) \propto \exp(\mathcal{L}_u)p(\mathcal{M}_u), \quad (53)$$

368 where \propto denotes proportional to. The variational lower bound consists of many terms.
 369 For more details, we refer the interested reader to reference (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018) and the
 370 supplementary document. With the model probabilities $\{q(\mathcal{M}_u|\mathbf{y}_m)\}_{u=1}^U$, the models ex-
 371 plaining the data well are given more weight than the other models. Since the posterior
 372 factor $q(\mathbf{v}_m|\mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u)$ is a normal distribution, its second moment is

$$\mathbb{E} [\mathbf{v}_m \mathbf{v}_m^T | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u] = \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u} \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u}^T + \hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_u, \quad (54)$$

373 then we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{T \times 1}} |V_m(k)|^2 p(\mathbf{v}_m | \mathbf{y}_m, \mathcal{M}_u) d\mathbf{v}_m = |\mathbf{f}_k^H \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u}|^2 + \mathbf{f}_k^H \hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_u \mathbf{f}_k, \quad (55)$$

374 where \mathbf{f}_k is the k th column of DFT matrix \mathbf{F} . Inserting (55) in (40), we get a model-averaged
 375 version of the MMSE estimator (Gerkmann and Hendriks, 2012; Hendriks *et al.*, 2010) as

$$\hat{\phi}_{V_m}(k, n) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{u=1}^U q(\mathcal{M}_u | \mathbf{y}_m) \left[|\mathbf{f}_k^H \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{m,u}|^2 + \mathbf{f}_k^H \hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_u \mathbf{f}_k \right]. \quad (56)$$

376 A more detailed derivation of the model-based noise PSD estimation is available in (Nielsen
 377 *et al.*, 2018). The estimated speech PSD can be obtained in a similar way. Inserting (56) and
 378 the speech PSD estimate in (14) and (15), with the distributed estimation of $\ln L_G(\bar{\mathbf{y}}(k, n))$,
 379 the SPP is obtained by using (19).

380 In practice, the speech and noise codebooks are trained by using a variation of the LPC-

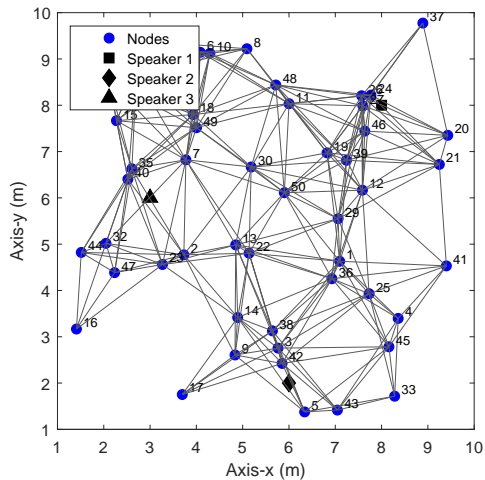


FIG. 1. (Color online) Room setup. The room is of size 10 m \times 10 m \times 3 m. We have 50 nodes randomly placed in the room. The maximum communication distance is set to 2.5 m.

381 VQ method (Paliwal and Atal, 1998; Gersho and Gray, 2012). More specifically, by passing
 382 the training signal as input to the vector quantizer, the linear prediction coefficients, which
 383 are converted into line spectral frequency coefficients are extracted from the windowed frames
 384 of the signal. Once we get the trained AR processes, the spectral envelopes are computed
 385 according to (20).

386 VI. SIMULATIONS

387 In this section, simulations are performed to demonstrate the performance of the dis-
 388 tributed detection in simulated room acoustics. We simulate a room of size 10 m \times 10 m \times 3 m
 389 with the room impulse response (RIR) generated by using the image source model method
 390 (Allen and Berkley, 1979). The reverberation time is $T_{60} \approx 200$ ms. As shown in Fig. 1, we
 391 have 50 nodes (microphones) randomly placed in the room. The solid lines indicate edges,
 392 and the two nodes connected by the edge can communicate with each other. The maximum
 393 communication distance is set to 2.5 m. Three speakers are located at (8 m, 8 m, 1.5 m),
 394 (6 m, 2 m, 1.5 m) and (3 m, 6 m, 1.5 m). The speech signals are scaled to have the same
 395 power before convolving the RIRs. In all the experiments, the speech and noise codebooks
 396 consist of AR vectors of order 14. The AR model order for both the speech and noise signal
 397 was empirically chosen (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018; Kavalekalam *et al.*, 2019). We train a speech
 398 codebook with 64 entries (32 entries for male speakers and 32 for female speakers). The

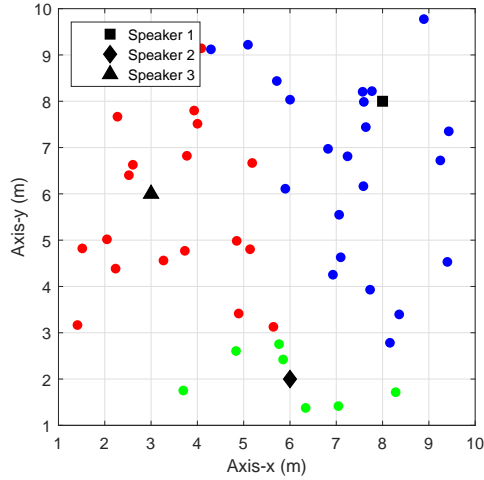


FIG. 2. (Color online) The result of the node clustering when there are three speakers and babble noise as background noise (iSNR = 10 dB). The different colored nodes indicate the divided subnetworks. We set 100 iteration for PDMM.

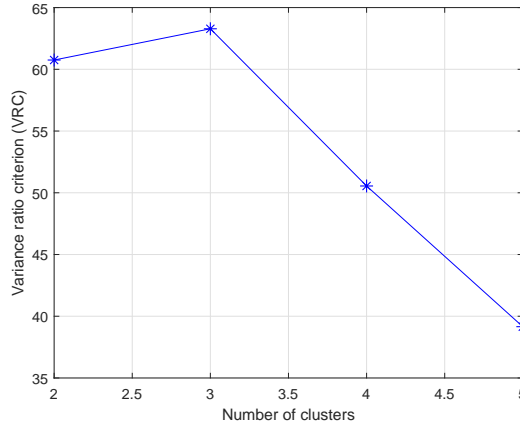


FIG. 3. (Color online) The evaluation result of the distributed k-means clustering for different cluster numbers. We set 100 iteration for PDMM.

399 noise codebook contains 16 entries (4 entries for babble, restaurant, exhibition, and 2 en-
 400 tries for street and station noise, respectively). The speech training data is from the TIMIT
 401 database (Lyons, 1990) and the noise training data is from the AURORA database (Hirsch
 402 and Pearce, 2000). The testing speech is taken from the CHiME corpus (Christensen *et al.*,
 403 2010), and the testing noise is from part of the NOISEX-92 database ,i.e., *babble.wav* and
 404 *factory1.wav*, which is not contained in the training process. All the signals are downsam-
 405 pled to 8 kHz. The noisy signal is transformed into the frequency domain using the STFT,
 406 with a Hanning window of length 256 and a 50% overlap. A 256-point FFT is used to

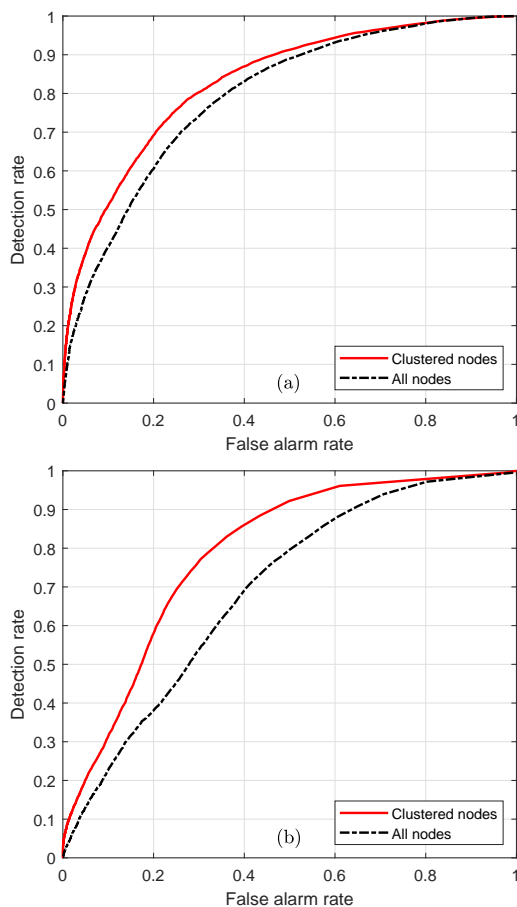


FIG. 4. (Color online) The detection performance for different speakers by using the clustered nodes and all nodes. We set $K' = 1$ and $N = 2$. The iteration number for PDMM is set to 100. (a) The ROC curve for speaker 1. (b) The ROC curve for speaker 2.

407 transform each frame into the STFT domain.

408 The first experiment intends to show the performance of distributed node clustering
 409 method which is introduced in Section IV A. We consider babble noise with 10 dB iSNR
 410 here. The distributed clustering is designed to work in an online way, **but only the result**
 411 **for one frame (256 points with 8 kHz sampling frequency) is shown in Fig. 2.** For a certain
 412 **frame of data, we set 100 iterations for the PDMM.** We see that the nodes near a certain
 413 sound source are clustered together. With the clustered nodes forming a subnetwork which
 414 is interested in a certain speaker, detection is then applied by using the observed signal in
 415 the clustered nodes. We also evaluate the clustering performance by using the variance ratio
 416 criterion, and the result is illustrated in Fig. 3. For the experimental setup in this case,
 417 the optimal clustering number is chosen as 3 which gives the highest VRC. The optimal

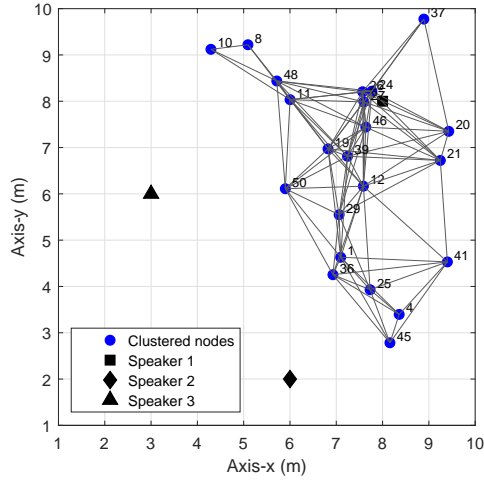


FIG. 5. (Color online) The clustered nodes near speaker 1 and their connection conditions.

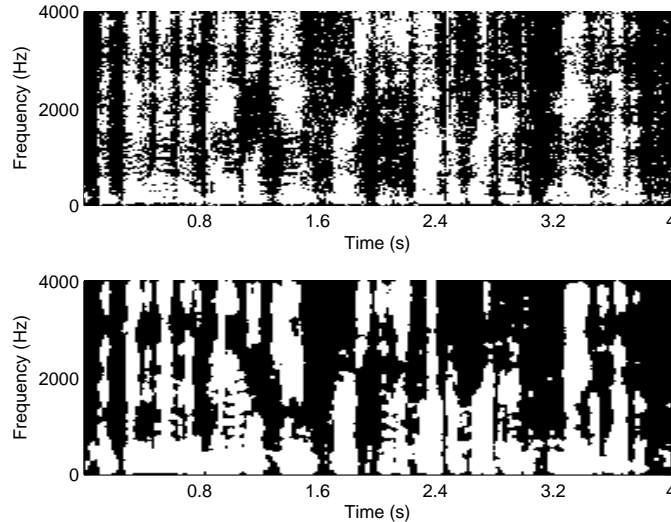


FIG. 6. (Color online) The detection result for speaker 1 with the false alarm rate being 0.2. We set $K' = 1$ and $N = 2$. The iteration number for PDMM is set to 50. The white area indicates speech is present and the dark area indicates speech is absent. The upper figure is the ground truth decision matrix, the lower figure is the detection result we get by using the model-based SPP estimation method.

418 clustering number also reveals the number of sound sources in the environment.

419 Next, we will explain the detection performance. In detection problems, it is common to
 420 utilize the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) to evaluate the performance of a detector.
 421 The second experiment is to study the necessity of applying the nodes clustering before
 422 detection. The background noise is set as babble noise with iSNR being 10 dB. Since the

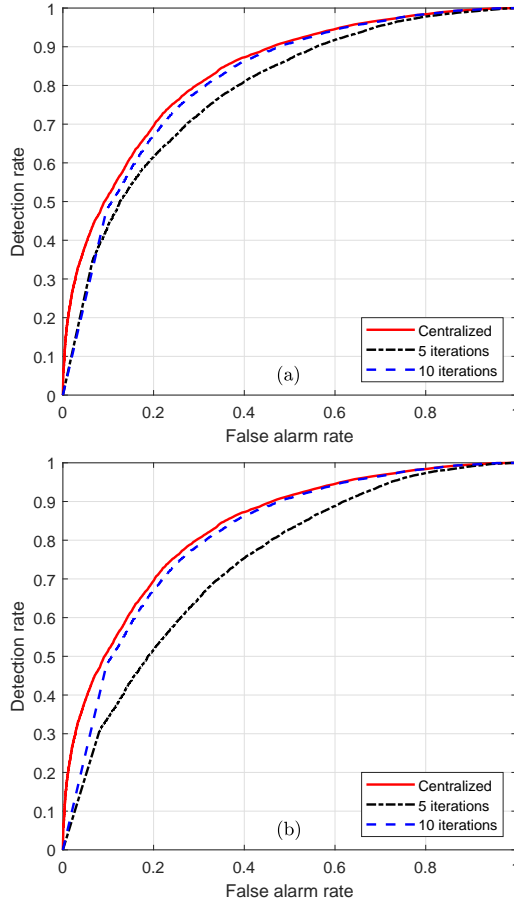


FIG. 7. (Color online) The distributed VAD convergence performance at different nodes near speaker 1. We set $K' = 1$ and $N = 2$. (a) The ROC curve for different PDMM iterations at node 12. (b) The ROC curve for different PDMM iterations at node 25.

423 noise covariance matrix can be updated when a speech signal is absent or the observation
 424 signal is dominated by noise, we set an iSNR threshold to the subband noisy signal to get
 425 a ground truth decision matrix. The desired signal at each subnetwork is the clean speech
 426 received by one of the nodes in each subnetwork. More specifically, the frequency bands with
 427 higher iSNR than the iSNR threshold are marked as speech presence, and the others are
 428 marked as speech absence. For speaker 1, we choose node 39 as the reference node and node
 429 3 is set as the reference node for speaker 2. The iSNR threshold is set to be -5 dB. The prior
 430 SPP is set to be $p(H_1(k, n)) = 0.5$. Figure 4 shows the results of the detection performance
 431 for speaker 1 and speaker 2. We set $K' = 1$ and $N = 2$. We set 100 iterations for PDMM
 432 to make sure that the distributed detection method converges. By means of comparing the
 433 detection performance with subnetwork between using all nodes in the network, the result

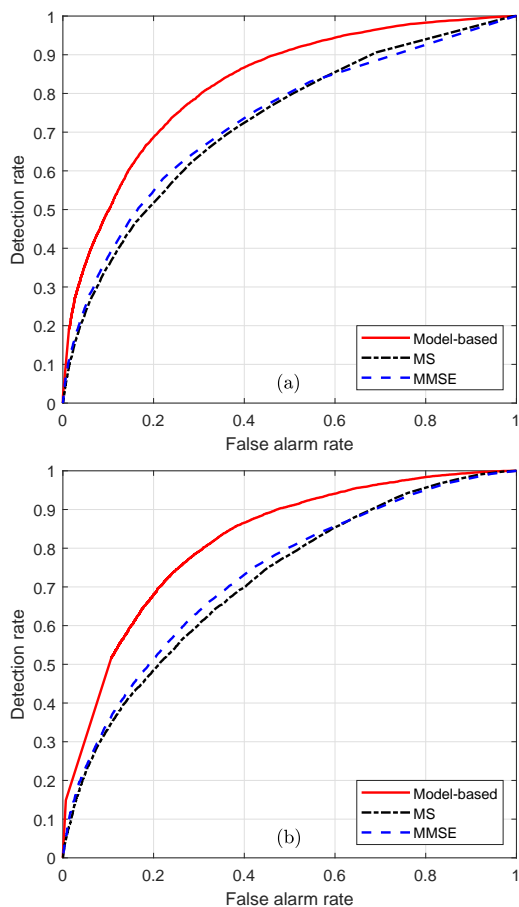


FIG. 8. (Color online) The distributed VAD performance under babble noise condition (iSNR = 10 dB) with different noise PSD estimators at node 25. We set 50 iterations for PDMM. (a) The ROC curve under babble noise. $K' = 0$ and $N = 1$. (b) The ROC curve under babble noise. $K' = 1$ and $N = 2$.

434 shows that the detection can benefit from the node clustering. It is seen that both Fig. 4 (a)
 435 and Fig. 4 (b) that better detection performance can be achieved by using the clustered
 436 nodes. This is simply because the sound propagation attenuation makes the received signal
 437 at the nodes faraway from the interested source contain less useful information of the desired
 438 signal.

439 The next experiment is to study the convergence performance of the distributed detection.
 440 As nodes have been clustered into subnetworks, the distributed detection is applied within
 441 the nodes near a certain speaker. We assume that the acoustic scene does not change
 442 too frequently, the locations of the nodes and sound sources are settled during the whole
 443 procedure of detection, so the same node clustering result is applied for online detection.

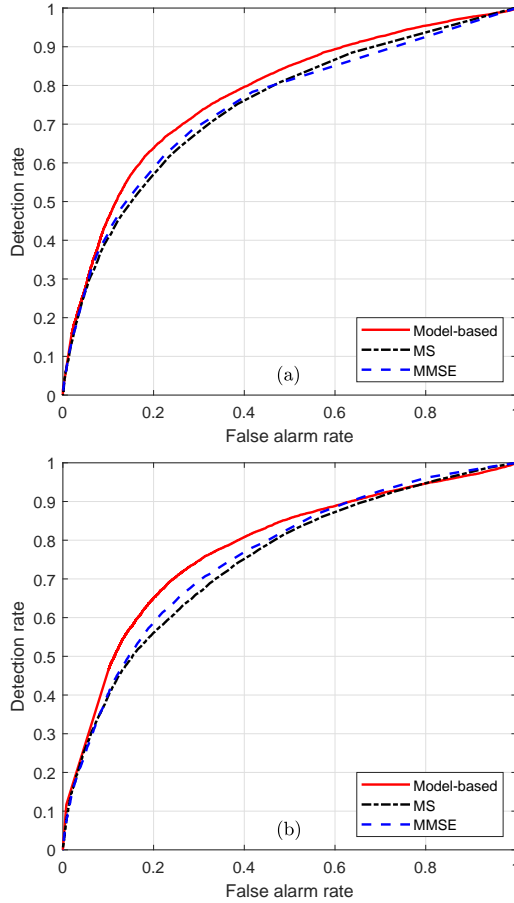


FIG. 9. (Color online) The distributed VAD performance under factory noise condition (iSNR = 10 dB) with different noise PSD estimators at node 25. We set 50 iterations for PDMM. (a) The ROC curve under factory noise. $K' = 0$ and $N = 1$. (b) The ROC curve under factory noise. $K' = 1$ and $N = 2$.

444 We show the clustered nodes and their connection conditions in Fig. 5 for speaker 1. The
 445 detection performance under babble noise condition is shown in Fig. 6. We choose the proper
 446 threshold of GLRT to get 0.2 false alarm rate. We then evaluate the convergence performance
 447 of the distributed detection at different nodes. Babble noise is considered here, inter-band
 448 information and inter-frame information are used in the detection ($K' = 1$, $N = 2$). In the
 449 distributed consensus step, we apply the PDMM method to get the distributed averaging
 450 result. And the corresponding detection results for speaker 1 is illustrated in Fig. 7. Figure 7
 451 (a) plots the ROC curve of the 12th node with different number of iterations of the PDMM,
 452 and Fig. 7 (b) illustrates the performance of the 25th node. We notice from Fig. 7 that the
 453 convergence speed of the distributed detection is different at different nodes. The node with

454 higher iSNR converges faster than the one with lower iSNR. The reason is that the higher
455 iSNR at the nodes near the desired signal will lead to better speech PSD estimate, which
456 will contribute to better detection performance.

457 In the last experiment, the detection performance with different noise estimators is stud-
458 ied for speaker 1. We consider babble noise and factory noise here. The ROC curve at the
459 25th node are plotted in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9. The number of iterations of the PDMM method is
460 set to be 50. The proposed distributed detection is able to maintain robust performance un-
461 der different noise conditions. Moreover, the model-based detection outperforms the MS and
462 MMSE based methods. Furthermore, under the condition that the factory noise informa-
463 tion is not included in the codebook, the model-based method still outperforms the MS and
464 MMSE based methods in detection performance. We also test the detection performance
465 by taking into account different number of time frames and frequency bins. Comparing
466 Fig. 9 (a) and Fig. 9 (b), one can see that the detection performance is improved by using
467 neighbouring frames and frequency bins for different methods.

468 VII. CONCLUSIONS

469 In this paper, we proposed a distributed multi-speaker speech presence probability es-
470 timation method by using WASN. A node clustering was first applied to assign the nodes
471 into subnetworks. We formulated the node clustering as a model-based clustering problem,
472 and a distributed k-means method was used to make the clustering work in a distributed
473 manner. It was noticed from the experimental results that the detector obtained better
474 performance with clustered nodes compared to using the observations from all nodes. We
475 also proposed a distributed detector with WASN. By taking advantage of the model-based
476 noise PSD estimation method, the proposed distributed detection method was able to ob-
477 tain robust performance under non-stationary noise condition. We formed the distributed
478 detector by using the GLRT theory. The global decision was made by considering the likeli-
479 hood functions at all channels in the subnetwork. Finally, the distributed detection can be
480 obtained by solving the distributed averaging problem. We utilized the PDMM as consensus
481 method to obtain the distributed optimization. The proposed detection method does not
482 need any fusion center. We studied the performance of the distributed detection method
483 under different noise conditions. The experimental results showed that the distributed de-

484 tection method converged efficiently to the centralized solution, and the performance was
485 quite robust under different types of non-stationary noise with the appearance of competing
486 speakers.

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