Matched-field source localization using sparsely-coded machine learning and data-model mixed training

Shougui Cai
College of Information Science and Electronic Eng.
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
shouguicai@zju.edu.cn

ABSTRACT

Source localization is a basic problem in ocean acoustics. There have been many researches on it and the matched-field processing (MFP) is a popularly used approach to solve this problem. However, MFP is sensitive to the mismatch problem and performs well only when the knowledge of ocean environment is accurate. Machine learning learns inference directly from the observation and can be designed to learn a generic model suitable for different scenarios. In this paper, source localization is viewed as a machine learning problem and a prediction model is learned by training a sparsely-coded feedforward neural network with mixed environment model data. Sparsely-coded network is applied to prevent the model from over-learning. Results on SWellEx96 experiment show that the learned model achieves good positioning performances in source range estimation for various sound-speed profiles. Machine learning model is more robust and has potential advantages in underwater source localization, compared with Bartlett matched-field processing.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Computer systems organization \rightarrow Embedded systems; • Networks \rightarrow Network reliability;

KEYWORDS

Machine learning, source localization

1 INTRODUCTION

Matched-field processing (MFP) is a common technique for source localization in an acoustic wave-guide[1–3]. MFP localization matches measured acoustic pressure field data on an array of sensors with a replica field computed by a numerical propagation model for an assumed source range and depth. The processor output is maximum at the true source range and depth. However, MFP requires a pretty good knowledge

Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for third-party components of this work must be honored. For all other uses, contact the owner/author(s).

 $WUWNet'17,\ November\ 2017,\ Halifax,NS,Canada\\ \textcircled{0}\ 2017\ Copyright\ held\ by\ the\ owner/author(s).}$ ACM ISBN 123-4567-24-567/08/06...\$15.00 https://doi.org/10.475/123.4

Wen Xu
College of Information Science and Electronic Eng.
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
wxu@zju.edu.cn

of environment, which means significant errors in the environment model can be introduced into the depth and range localization predictions [4, 5].

Machine learning methods do not require a good a prior information and can implement a required calculation through learning from examples. A well designed structure can learn a generic model that works in different kinds of scenarios. This is meaningful for us to improve the robustness of conventional methods by introducing machine learning methods into underwater acoustics. Machine learning has obtained success in many areas, such as speech recognition, natural language processing and image processing. There are also applications in underwater acoustics. Previous works have used artificial neural networks to classify whale sounds[6], locate targets area[7] and discriminate depth[8]. A notable recent example using machine learning methods in underwater acoustic is the application of nonlinear classification to source localization[9]. There is no discussion on how using machine learning to help solve the mismatch problem in underwater acoustics.

In this paper, the source localization problem is viewed within a machine learning framework. As the sound-speed profile (SSP) in the water layer is the most important parameter needed to be known accurately[10], we primary focus on the SSP mismatch problem. Two different degrees of error (a large one and a slight one) in the knowledge of the soundspeed profile are chose to train and test the model. The large one has significant change in shape, while the slight one just has small shift (within 0.5m/s at the same depth) in sound speed. Effects of such errors on positioning performance for various methods, including Bartlett matched-field processing, matched-covariance estimation (MCE) and feed-forward neural networks based method (FNN), are compared. Treat different SSPs as different application scenes, and then a generic model is learned by data-model mixed training, the trained model is tested on different SSPs. In Niu's work[9], he used a dense neural networks to train his model, the model performs well on the data of Noise09 experiment, which verified that FNN can achieve a good prediction performance when source localization is solved as a classification problem. However, as he said, the FNN classifier will be over-fitting when the SNR of training data is low, i.e. the model accuracy on training set is much lower than test set, and will predict poorly. In order to overcome this problem, a sparsely-coded neural network is used in this paper. Besides, our models are trained and tested on SWell96 experimental and simulated data.

2 SPARSE NEURAL NETWORKS BASED SOURCE LOCALIZATION

In this section, we discuss how to establish a sparsely-coded neural networks for source localization prediction and how to train it with mixed data-mode.

2.1 Neural networks models and function approximation

As we known, neural networks models can be viewed as a mathematical function f. Taking feed-forward neural network (FNN) as an example, it defines a mapping $y = f(x; \theta)$ between the input x and the output y by parameter θ , the parameters are needed to be learned by a rule. Feed-forward networks are typically represented by composing together many different functions. There might have two function f^1 , f^2 connected in a chain[11], to form $f(x) = f^2(f^1(x))$.

2.2 Source localization prediction model

In his paper[9], Niu assumed that there is a deterministic relationship between source range and sample-covariance matrix (SCM) and approximated this relationship by the FNN. Same as Niu did, we also use FNN to approximat the relationship between source range and SCM.

FNN extends linear models to represent nonlinear transformed format $\phi(x)$ of the input x. The transform function ϕ defines a hidden layer $h=\phi(x)$ and can be regarded as providing a set of features describing x, or as providing a new representation for x. The crucial problem here is how to choose the transform function ϕ . As the neuron networks do, we use a linear combination with nonlinear function to fit the basis functions,

$$h = g(W^{(1)}x + b^{(1)}) \tag{1}$$

Neurons between the hidden layer and the output layer are mapped by a linear function,

$$z = W^{(2)T}h + b^{(2)} (2)$$

Then the output of the model is normalized by softmax function, which is a common choice for multi-class classification task[12],

$$p(y_k|x) = softmax(z)_k = \frac{\exp(z_k)}{\sum_j \exp(z_j)}$$
 (3)

where x is the input data, $p(y_k|x)$ is the probability that measured signal x transmitted from position k. W and b in Eq.(1) and Eq.(2) are the parameters needed to learn.

Obviously, a criterion is needed. In most cases, the parametric model defines a distribution $p(y|x;\theta)$ and we can simply use the principle of maximum likelihood to determine parameters in this model,

$$J(\theta) = -E_{x,y \sim p_{data}} \log p_{model}(y|x) \tag{4}$$

As maximum likelihood is a consistent estimation, the model is capable of representing the training data distribution.

2.3 Training the model with sparse constraint and mixed data-model

Two main kinds of regularization methods for neural networks, including weight-level regularization and neuron-level regularization with activation penalty, can help us to solve the over-fitting problem during the model training[11],

$$\tilde{J}(\theta; X, y) = J(\theta; X, y) + \alpha \Omega(\theta) + \beta \Omega(h)$$
 (5)

where $\Omega(\theta)$ is weight decay term, $\Omega(h)$ is penalty on the activations of the units, α, β are hyper parameters that weight the relative contribution of the norm penalty term. Weight decay term penalizes the size of the model parameters, while, the activation penalty term encourages their activations to be sparse.

In practical applications, we not only want the representation to be sparse, but also want the model features to be sparse, the latter saves the storage and calculation on sensor nodes. Thus, we use L_1 -norm to promote sparse neurons activations, and constrain the norm of each column of the weight matrix to prevent any one hidden unit from having very large weights, as the objective function below,

$$\tilde{J}(\theta) = -E_{x,y \sim p_{data}} \log p_{model}(y|x) + \lambda ||h||_{1}$$
s.t.
$$||W_{i}^{(1)}||_{2} \leq C \quad \forall i = 1, \cdots, M$$
(6)

where, M is the number of the neurons in hidden layer, C is the constraint coefficient. When a useful sparse representation is learned, each datum will then be encoded as a sparse code, thus the least possible amount of resource is used to store or transfer the data.

Another strategy used in this paper is training the model with mixed data-model, which can increase the model robustness. When we train the model, the mixed data, i.e. the receive acoustic pressure data computed by various environment models, is combined as the training set.

3 SIMULATION AND EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, the source localization prediction model implemented above is used to learn the source range directly from the data of the SWellEx96 experiment, and the performance of the classifier is compared with the conventional matched-field processing method (MFP) in terms of simulation data and experimental data, respectively. In addition, the influence of SSP mismatch on the performance of FNN classifier is investigated by simulations. The robustness of the classifier is improved by training the model using data sampled under different SSP.

Simulation environment is the widely studied SWell96Ex test, conducted in a shallow water waveguide environment with 216 m in depth. During the experiment, two moving sound sources are deployed in field, including a deep source (J-15) and a shallow source (J-13). In all of the following simulations, the shallow sound source is used, which was towed about 9 m in depth and emitted with 9 frequencies between 109 Hz and 385 Hz.

Matched-field source localization using sparsely-coded machine learning and data-model mixed training

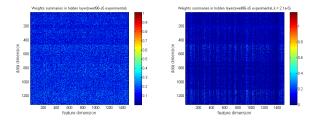


Figure 1: Weights summary in hidden layer (left: no constraint, right: with constraint). Sparse constraint training makes the weight coefficients show group structure, either all zero, or basic is not zero.

3.1 Parameter settings

In simulation part, acoustic data used to train and test the neural network was simulated using kraken[13] with environment model. We use the normalized SCMs of measured pressure at each frequency as model input data. In input layer, number of neurons D is $L^2 \times N_{fre}$ (number of frequency used) and the number of neurons in the output layer (number of classes) is K=300. Simply, the number of neurons in hidden layer is set to be equal to the input layer, i.e. M=D. Fast Fourier transform (FFT) duration is 1-seconds, snapshot N_s for constructing SCMs for input data preprocessing is 10. The number of vertical array elements L is 21, the specific deployment parameters is shown in Fig. 2. The objective function now becomes

$$\tilde{J}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} t_{nk} \ln y_{nk} + \lambda ||h||_{1}$$
 (7)

where t_{nk} and y_{nk} are the practical and the predictive probabilities of the sample data x belonging to the k-th class separately and we choose C=1 here. For the sake of learning speed and sparsity of hidden neurons, ReLU activation[11] was applied in hidden layer. The training set contains 3000 samples sampled uniformly with 1.82-8.65km in range, the test set is another 300 data sampled with the same range. The noise in the simulations is all set to be complex gaussian white noise.

Experimental data is got from SWell96Ex Event S5 vertical line array (VLA) . The array recorded a total of 75 min of data. In order to facilitate processing, 0-50 min data is took as a training set.

Consistent with the simulation part, the trajectory was divided into 300 grids, 25 m each in range. The snapshot is set as 1-second and 3000 acoustic pressure data would be got. Each SCM is averaged at every two snapshots, 2700 of the samples are took as the training set and the remainder as test set.

3.2 The effect of sparse constraint training

Sparsely-coded network efficiently prevents the model from over-learning, i.e. no over-fitting occurs. Besides, the regularization degree on model affects the model accuracy and average activation density of FNN's hidden layer. As the

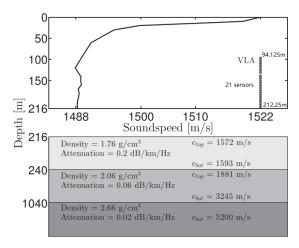


Figure 2: Environment.

coefficient grows, the model accuracy on training set and test set also drops, drops fastly on the training set, while slower on the test set. When the coefficient is too big, the model accuracy on training set becomes much lower than test set, which indicates under-fitting. A good constraint ratio λ is chosen by testing in this paper.

On the other hand, the regularization on neuron-level significantly reduces the average activation density. The order of magnitude drops from 10^3 to 10, which keeps stable. This is good for us to train a sparsely-coded neural network.

Compared to the case of training without sparse constraints, sparsely-coded neural network makes the weight coefficient in the hidden layer show group structure, the element of weight vector is either all zero, or basic is not zero. In our model, we choose $\lambda = 2.1 \times 10^{-5}$, the number of feature vectors in hidden layer reduces from 1500 to 740, as shown in Fig. 1. It can be seen that the relative size of learned weights is related to the frequency, and even at the same frequency, the weight corresponding to real and imaginary parts is also different, as we can see bright and dark strips can be seen distributed along the data dimension in Fig. 1. (when we plot the weights summaries, the data dimension is arranged according to the frequency relationship from 109 Hz to 385 Hz.)

Apart from being beneficial to feature selection, sparse constraint also reduces the activation rate of neurons in the hidden layer. In our model, i.e. the coefficient is 2.1e-5, the average activation neuron number is just 16, which is greatly reduced, the activation rate is only 1.1%. This means, the input 1323-elements SCM data space can be spanned by the 740 feature vectors, and averagely, each data sample can be represented by only 16 feature. To sum up, by using regularization strategy on neural networks, a sparse and low rank model is builded, where the transferred representation is sparse and the rank of learned weight matrix is low. The learned sparse coding model is illustrated in Fig. 3. A sparse vector can be formed by filtering the data

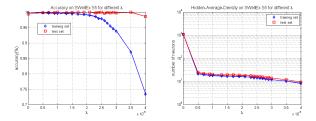


Figure 3: Model accuracy and Average-activationdensity for different λ . Regularization on neuronlevel significantly reduces the average activation density without much loss in model accuracy.

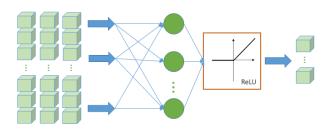


Figure 4: The learned sparse representation model. The learned feature space spans data(scm) space likelihood that few basis functions ϕ explain a given data.

Table 1: Localization accuracy of FNN and MFP on SWell96Ex-S5 data $\,$

Methods	FNN	MCE	Bartlett 1	Bartlett 2
109Hz	89.3%	72.3%	37.7%	3.7%
232Hz	97%	91%	17.7%	4.3%
385 Hz	99.7%	97.7%	14%	0.67%
$109,\!232,\!385 \mathrm{Hz}$	99%	99.7%	40.7%	7.7%

measured in sensor nodes through the pre-trained sparsely-coded neuron networks. This maybe useful for designing a decentralized source localization algorithm.

3.3 Comparison with conventional matched-field processing method

As a comparison, Bartlett processor is used here as a kind of MFP to positioning the source, as Niu did in his work. There are two main kinds of replica-field used in Bartlett processor, one is simulated by kraken (noted as bartlett 2), the other is measurement data (noted as bartlett 1), the same as the training data used in FNN.

The accuracy and absolute mean error of different methods under different frequency are summed in table 1 and table 2. As we can see, whether in single frequency or in multi-frequency, the accuracy of FNN is always better than Bartlett,

Table 2: Absolute mean error of FNN and MFP on SWell96Ex-S5 data(m)

Methods	FNN	MCE	Bartlett 1	Bartlett 2
109Hz	28.1	290.3	852.8	1219.5
232 Hz	7.4	2.5	832.3	832.3
385 Hz	0.08	0.58	1266.7	1756.3
109,232,385Hz	0.25	0.083	477.2	722.9

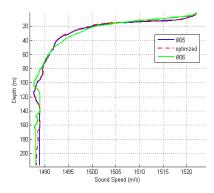


Figure 5: Plots of sound speed profiles.

and not worse than direct data match (noted as MCE), this is more obvious when it comes to the comparison of absolute mean error. The learned sparsely-coded neuron network works better than Bartlett processor in positioning problem.

3.4 The influences of SSP mismatch on FNN classifier

In the MFP method, the model accuracy is heavily affected by the mismatch problem[4, 5, 10]. Fig. 5 gives the FNN positioning results by simulations in different degrees change of SSPs. Herein, the snapshot is 10 and the SNR is 5dB. Comparing to optimized-ssp, the i905-ssp has only a very small change, within 0.5m/s at the same depth. The change in i906-ssp is much significant, which can be seen from the shape in Fig. 4.

The performance curves for FNN, Bartlett and MCE are plotted by 1000 times Monte Carlo simulation. When the change in SSP is relatively small (the up two sub figures), FNN positioning best, followed by MCE and Bartlett worst. When the shape of SSP change (the down two figures), the accuracy order unchanged, but the absolute mean error of FNN becomes bigger than MCE. In conclusion, FNN is also but less sensitive to SSP mismatch than Bartlett.

3.5 Increase model robustness by data-model mixed training

The simulation results show that training the model using data collected from different SSP can significantly improve

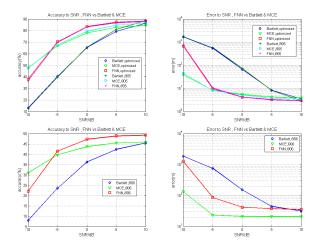


Figure 6: FNN positioning performance curve on simulation data(frequency:109,232,385Hz). FNN is also sensitive to SSP mismatch, but still performs better than MFP.

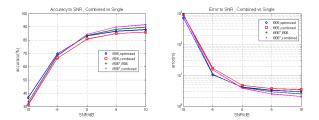


Figure 7: FNN positioning performance curve on simulation data. FNN model robustness can be by significantly improved by data-model mixed training

the robustness of the classifier, which means FNN can learn weights over a set of changing SSP.

As discussed in section 3.4, the FNN is also sensitive to SSP mismatch, but still performs better than Bartlett. When the environment SSP has a big change in the shape (such as from ssp-optimized to ssp-i906), the performance of the estimator drops about 40% in accuracy. In this section, by adding data collected from ssp-i906, the positioning ability of FNN on i906* (which is little changed from i906, for the sake of testing) is as better as before. Although the accuracy for i905 has a little glissade compared with single data training case, the performance for i906 improved. In general, the trained FNN classifier works well on both two different shape SSP. Note that, the legend 'i905,combined' means the model is trained by mixed data collected from ssp-i906 and ssp-optimized, then the model is tested on ssp-i905, rest legends are similar.

4 SUMMARY

It is attractive to see that the sparsely-code neural network efficiently prevents the model from over-learning and predicts accurately on source localization. Combined with data-model mixed training, the model tolerance is obviously increased, and performs well in sound speed profile mismatch case, whether the degree of error in knowledge is slight or large. This ability is far superior to the Bartlett matched-field processing method. It can be said that sparsely-coded neural network trained with mixed data-model has more potential advantages in unstable underwater source localization.

Comparing with dense neural networks, the sparsely-code neural network needs fewer basis functions to span the data space and can make the learned weight coefficient show group structure, which is beneficial to the feature selection. These mean the learned sparsely-code neural network model can be used not only to predict source localization, but also to describe acoustic pressure field data. This paper mainly utilizes the model to predict source localization, the descriptive ability of model need to be further exploited. Besides, the discussion on data-model mixed training method is preliminary and just two degrees of sound-speed profiles mismatch are used to examine the method in this paper. How will the method perform on more degrees of mismatch cases? Whether a strong enough model could be trained to suit for all sound-speed profile mismatch cases? These two questions are valuable research issues and await to be studied. For the aspect of machine learning methods, this paper simply use a fine-tuned feed-forward neural network, it deserves more efforts to apply more complicated machine learning methods, such as convolutional neural networks, recurrent neural networks or other deep neural networks on ocean acoustic source localization.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The work is supported by ...

REFERENCES

- Homer P Bucker. Use of calculated sound fields and matched-field detection to locate sound sources in shallow water. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 59(2):368–373, 1976.
- [2] Arthur B Baggeroer, WA Kuperman, and Henrik Schmidt. Matched field processing: Source localization in correlated noise as an optimum parameter estimation problem. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 83(2):571-587, 1988.
- [3] Arthur B Baggeroer, William A Kuperman, and Peter N Mikhalevsky. An overview of matched field methods in ocean acoustics. *IEEE Journal of Oceanic Engineering*, 18(4):401–424, 1993.
- [4] A Tolstoy. Sensitivity of matched field processing to sound-speed profile mismatch for vertical arrays in a deep water pacific environment. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 85(6):2394-2404, 1989.
- [5] Donald R Del Balzo, Christopher Feuillade, and Mary M Rowe. Effects of water-depth mismatch on matched-field localization in shallow water. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 83(6):2180-2185, 1988.
- [6] Aaron M Thode, Katherine H Kim, Susanna B Blackwell, Charles R Greene Jr, Christopher S Nations, Trent L McDonald, and A Michael Macrander. Automated detection and localization of bowhead whale sounds in the presence of seismic airgun surveys. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 131(5):3726–3747, 2012.
- [7] Ben Zion Steinberg, Mark J Beran, Steven H Chin, and James H Howard Jr. A neural network approach to source localization. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 90(4):2081–2090, 1991.

- [8] John M Ozard, Pierre Zakarauskas, and Peter Ko. An artificial neural network for range and depth discrimination in matched field processing. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 90(5):2658–2663, 1991.
- [9] Haiqiang Niu, Peter Gerstoft, and Emma Reeves. Source localization in an ocean waveguide using supervised machine learning. arXiv preprint arXiv:1701.08431, 2017.
- [10] C Feuillade, DR Del Balzo, and Mary M Rowe. Environmental mismatch in shallow-water matched-field processing: Geoacoustic parameter variability. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 85(6):2354–2364, 1989.
- [11] Ian Goodfellow, Yoshua Bengio, and Aaron Courville. Deep learning. MIT press, 2016.
- [12] Christopher M Bishop. Pattern recognition and machine learning. springer, 2006.
- [13] Michael B Porter. The kraken normal mode program. Technical report, 1992.