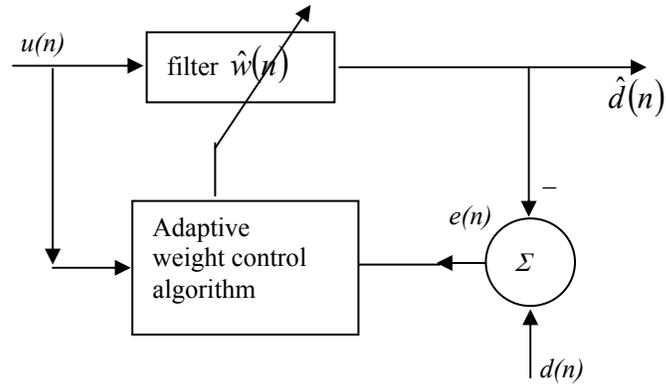
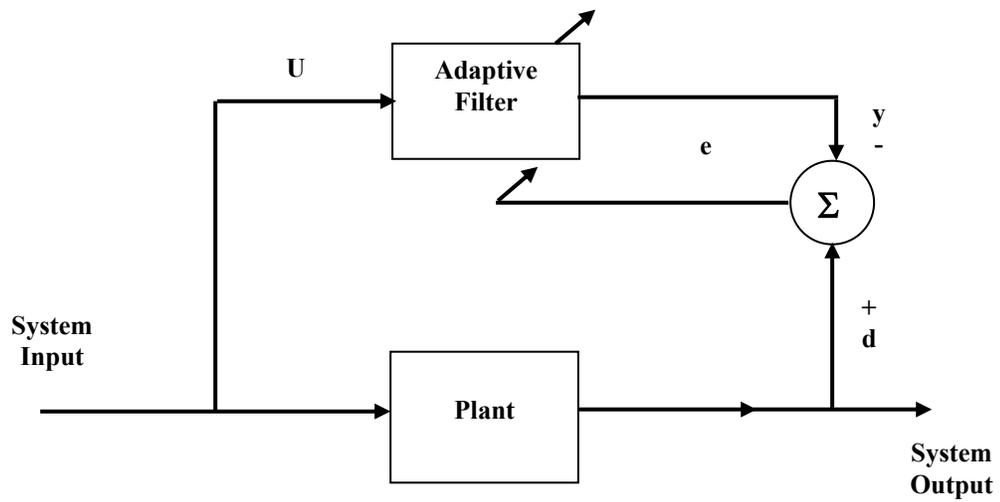


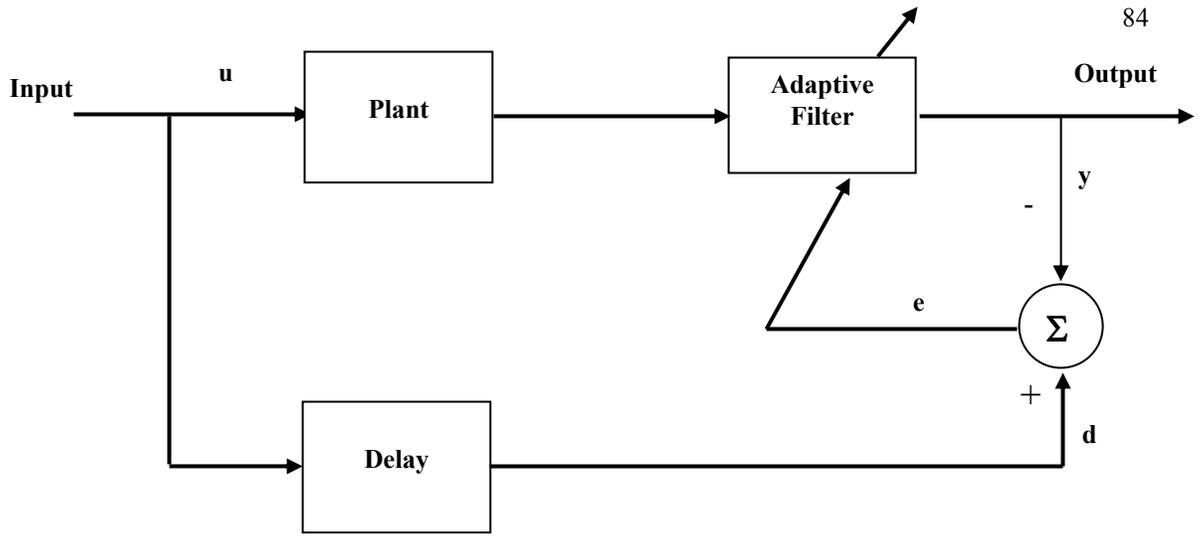
Adaptive Filter Theory



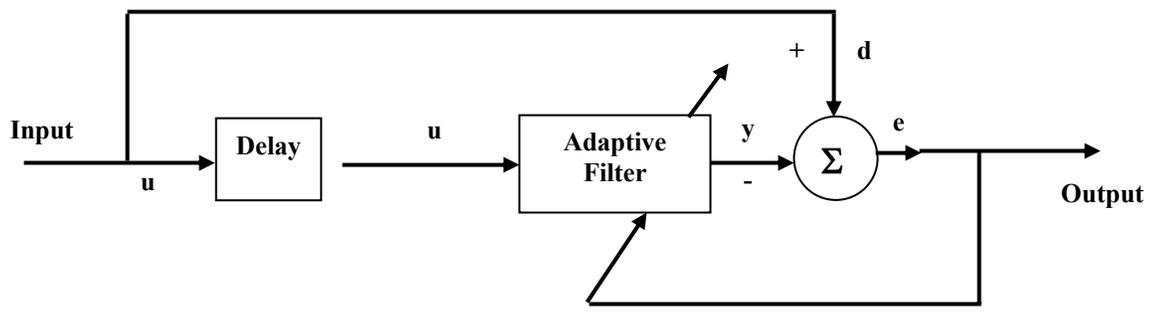
APPLICATION OF ADAPTIVE FILTERS



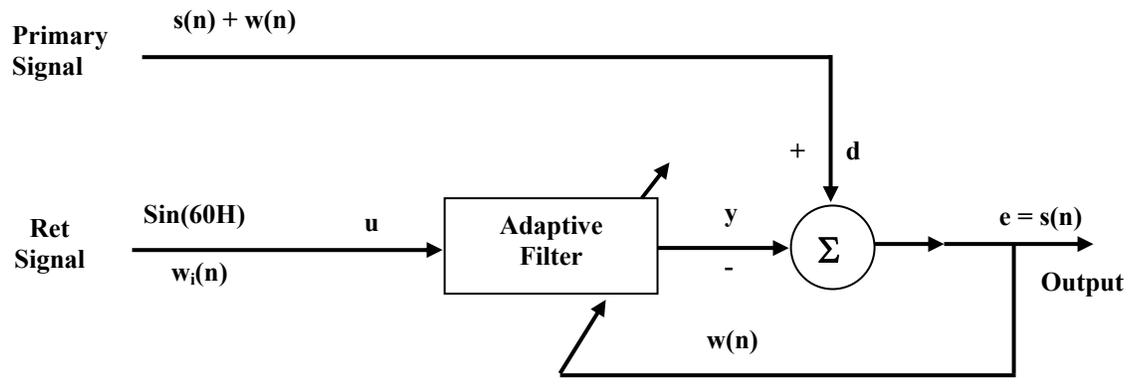
a) Identification



b) Inverse Modelling

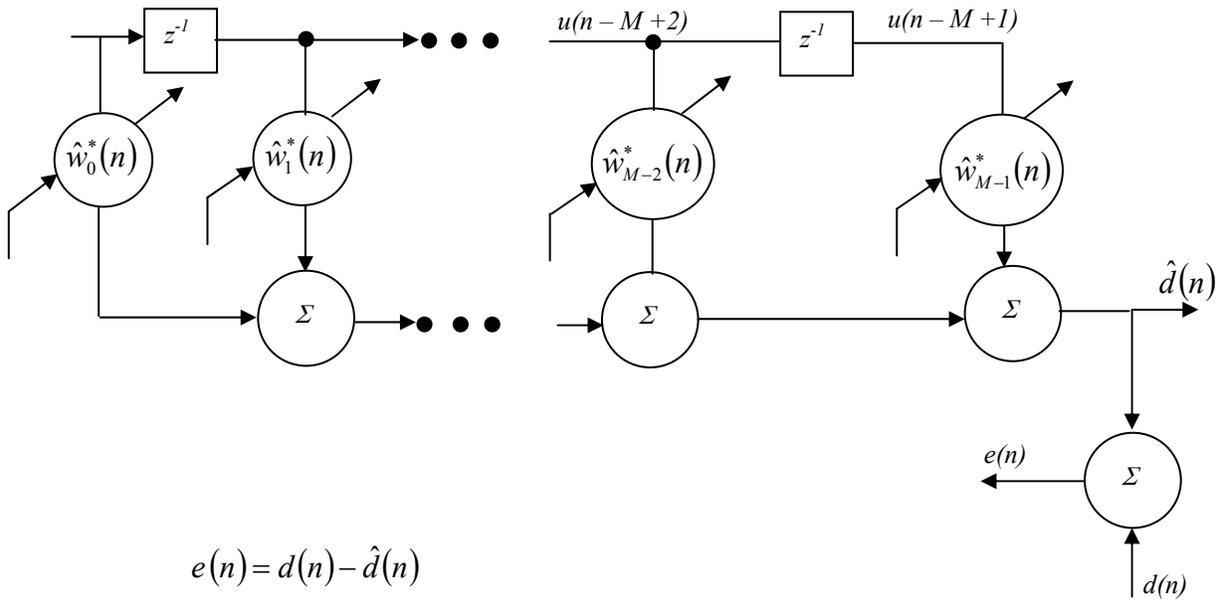


c) Prediction



d) Interference Cancellation

Least-Mean-Square (LMS) Adaptation Algorithm:



$$e(n) = d(n) - \hat{d}(n)$$

$$\hat{d}(n) = \hat{\underline{w}}^H(n) \cdot \underline{u}(n) \quad \hat{\underline{w}}(n) = [\hat{w}_0(n), \hat{w}_1(n), \dots, \hat{w}_{M-1}(n)]^T$$

* H is the Hermitian Transposition $\underline{u}(n) = [u(n), u(n-1), \dots, u(n-M+1)]^T$

Cost function is defined as $J(n) = E\{|e(n)|^2\}$.

By taking the gradient vector (similar to Wiener-Hopf Equations) we will have:

$$\nabla J(n) = -2\underline{\gamma}_{ud} + 2\underline{\Gamma}_{uu} \cdot \underline{w}(n),$$

where $\underline{\gamma}_{ud} = E\{\underline{u}(n) \cdot d^*(n)\}$ $d(n)$ is a sample
 $\underline{\Gamma}_{uu} = E\{\underline{u}(n) \cdot \underline{u}^H(n)\}$ $\underline{u}(n)$ is a $M \times 1$ vector

The simplest choice of estimators for $\underline{\Gamma}_{uu}$ and $\underline{\gamma}_{ud}$ is to use instantaneous estimates that are based on sample values of the tap-weight input vector ($\underline{u}(n)$) and desired response as defined below.

$$\hat{\underline{\Gamma}}_{uu}(n) = \underline{u}(n) \cdot \underline{u}^H(n) \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\underline{\gamma}}_{du}(n) = \underline{u}(n) \cdot d^*(n)$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\nabla} J(n) = -2\underline{u}(n) \cdot d^*(n) + 2\underline{u}(n) \underline{u}^H(n) \cdot \hat{\underline{w}}(n)$$

Minimizing this gradient vector by steepest-descent algorithm, leads to a recursive equation for updating the tap-weight vector:

$$\hat{\underline{w}}(n+1) = \hat{\underline{w}}(n) + \mu \underline{u}(n) \left[\underbrace{d^*(n) - \underline{u}^H(n) \cdot \hat{\underline{w}}(n)}_{e^*(n) \text{ (a scalar)}} \right]$$

What is the steepest-Descent Algorithm?

Steepest-Descent Algorithm is one of the oldest methods of optimization. To find the minimum value of the Mean-Squared error, J_{min} , this algorithm suggests:

- 1) Begin with an initial value $\underline{w}(0)$ for the tap-weight vector, to provide an initial guess for minimum point of the error performance surface. $\underline{w}(0)$ is usually set equal to the null vector.
- 2) Using the initial guess, $\underline{w}(0)$, compute the gradient vector, $\nabla J(n)$ as the following

$$\text{let } \underline{w}(n) = [\alpha_0(n) + j\beta_0(n), \alpha_1(n) + j\beta_1(n), \dots, \alpha_{M-1}(n) + j\beta_{M-1}(n)]^T$$

$$\text{Then } \nabla J(n) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J(n)}{\partial \alpha_0(n)} + j \frac{\partial J(n)}{\partial \beta_0(n)} \\ \frac{\partial J(n)}{\partial \alpha_1(n)} + j \frac{\partial J(n)}{\partial \beta_1(n)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J(n)}{\partial \alpha_{M-1}(n)} + j \frac{\partial J(n)}{\partial \beta_{M-1}(n)} \end{bmatrix} = -2\gamma_{-du}(n) + 2\Gamma_{uu}(n) \cdot \underline{w}(n).$$

- 3) Compute the next guess at the tap-weight vector $\hat{\underline{w}}(n)$ by making a change in the initial or present guess in a direction opposite to that of the gradient vector.

$\underline{w}(n+1) = \underline{w}(n) + \frac{1}{2} \mu \cdot (-\nabla J(n))$, where μ is a positive real-valued constant. The factor $\frac{1}{2}$ is used merely for the purpose of canceling a factor 2 that appears in the formula for $\nabla J(n)$.

$$\underline{w}(n+1) = \underline{w}(n) + \mu [\gamma_{-ud}(n) - \Gamma_{uu}(n) \underline{w}(n)] \text{ or}$$

$$\hat{\underline{w}}(n+1) = \hat{\underline{w}}(n) + \mu [\underline{u}(n) \cdot d^*(n) - \underline{u}(n) \underline{u}^H(n) \cdot \hat{\underline{w}}(n)] = \hat{\underline{w}}(n) + \mu \cdot \underline{u}(n) \cdot e^*(n)$$

We observe that μ controls the size of incremental correction applied to the tap-weight vector as we proceed from one iteration cycle to the next.

How μ should be chosen?

Stability and convergence analysis of the Steepest-Descent Algorithm, gives the criterion that μ

must satisfy this condition: $0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\lambda_{max}}$, where λ_{max} is the largest eigen value of the correlation

matrix $\underline{\Gamma}$ of the input. In practical applications that knowledge of $\underline{\Gamma}$ and λ_{max} is not available, μ is

chosen as $0 < \mu < \frac{2}{tr[\underline{\Gamma}]}$. $tr[\underline{\Gamma}]$ is the trace of matrix $\underline{\Gamma}$: $tr[\underline{\Gamma}] = \sum_{i=1}^M \lambda_i$. We may go one step

further by noting that the auto-correlation matrix $\underline{\Gamma}$ is not only positive definite, but also a

Toeplitz matrix with its main diagonal equal to $\gamma(0)$. Since $\gamma(0) = \sigma_u^2$ is itself equal to mean-squared value of the input at each of the M taps of the filter, then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}[\Gamma] &= M \cdot \gamma_{uu}(0) = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} E[u(n-k)]^2 \\ &= \text{tap - input power} \end{aligned}$$

Notes:

With a small value of μ , adaptation is slow, but the MSE after adaptation is small too. On the other hand, when μ is large, the adaptation is relatively fast but at the cost of an increase in MSE after adaptation. Thus, μ may be viewed as the “memory” of the LMS algorithm.

Summary of the LMS Algorithm

Parameters: $M = \#$ of taps

$\mu =$ step-size parameter

$$0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\text{tap - input power}} = \frac{2}{\sum_{k=0}^{M-1} E[u(n-k)]^2}$$

Initialization: $\hat{\underline{w}}(0) = \underline{0}$ unless there is a prior knowledge.

Given: $\underline{u}(n) = M$ - by -1 tap input vector at time n .

$d(n) =$ desired response time at n

To be computed:

$\hat{\underline{w}}(n+1) =$ estimate of tap-weight vector at time $n + 1$

Computation:

$$e(n) = d(n) - \hat{\underline{w}}^H(n) \cdot \underline{u}(n)$$

$$\hat{\underline{w}}(n+1) = \hat{\underline{w}}(n) + \mu \underline{u}(n) \cdot e^*(n)$$

Normalized LMS Algorithm

The normalized LMS algorithm may be viewed as the solution to a constrained optimization (minimization) problem. Specifically the problem of interest may be stated as follows:

Given the tap-input vector $\underline{u}(n)$ and the desired response $d(n)$, determine the tap-weight vector $\hat{\underline{w}}(n+1)$ so as to minimize the squared Euclidean norm of the change, $\delta \hat{\underline{w}}(n+1) = \hat{\underline{w}}(n+1) - \hat{\underline{w}}(n)$ subject to the constraint: $\hat{\underline{w}}^H(n+1) \underline{u}(n) = d(n)$.

Lagrange multipliers are used to solve this problem, and the result is called Normalized LMS Algorithm.

Summary of Normalized Algorithm

M = # of taps

$\hat{\mu}$ = adaptation constant, $0 < \hat{\mu} < 2$

a = a small positive constant

Initialization: $\hat{\mathbf{w}}(0) = \mathbf{0}$

Given: $\mathbf{u}(n)$: M by 1 tap-input vector at time n

$d(n)$: desired response at time n

Compute:

$$e(n) = d(n) - \hat{\mathbf{w}}^H(n) \mathbf{u}(n)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}(n+1) = \hat{\mathbf{w}}(n) + \frac{\hat{\mu}}{a + \|\mathbf{u}(n)\|^2} \cdot \mathbf{u}(n) e^*(n)$$

As you see, $\hat{\mu}$ is divided by the norm of $\mathbf{u}(n)$ and hence, the name “Normalized”. In case of having very small input, numerical difficulties may arise due to the division to $\|\mathbf{u}(n)\|^2$, then we may define $\mu(n) = \frac{\hat{\mu}}{\|\mathbf{u}(n)\|^2}$ and in this light Normalized LMS may be viewed as LMS with a

time-varying step-size parameter. The rate of convergence of the Normalized LMS is faster than the conventional LMS Algorithm.

Recursive Least Squares Algorithm (RLS)

$$e(i) = d(i) - \underline{w}^H(n) \cdot \underline{u}(i) \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

$$\underline{u}(i) = [u(i), u(i-1), \dots, u(i-M+1)]^T$$

$$\underline{w}(n) = [w_0(n), w_1(n), \dots, w_{M-1}(n)]^T$$

Note that here the tap-weights of the filter remain fixed during the observation interval $1 \leq i \leq n$

for which the cost function $\varepsilon(n)$ is defined as: $\varepsilon(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda^{n-i} |e(i)|^2$ where λ is a positive constant

close to but less than 1. When $\lambda = 1$, we have the ordinary method of least squares. λ is called the “forgetting factor”. The optimum value of the tap-weight vector $\hat{\underline{w}}(n)$, for which the cost function $\varepsilon(n)$ attains its minimum value is defined by the normal equations as the following:

$$\underline{\phi}(n) \cdot \hat{\underline{w}}(n) = \underline{z}(n), \quad (\Rightarrow \hat{\underline{w}}(n) = \underline{\phi}^{-1}(n) \cdot \underline{z}(n))$$

where $\underline{\phi}(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda^{n-i} \underline{u}(i) \underline{u}^H(i)$ M by M correlation Matrix

and $\underline{z}(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda^{n-i} \underline{u}(i) d^*(i)$ M by 1 cross-correlation vector

Taking the term corresponding to $i = n$ from $\underline{\phi}(n)$ equation, it can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\phi}(n) &= \lambda \left[\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-i-1} \underline{u}(i) \underline{u}^H(i)}_{\underline{\phi}(n-1)} \right] + \underline{u}(n) \underline{u}^H(n) \\ &\Rightarrow \underline{\phi}(n) = \lambda \underline{\phi}(n-1) + \underline{u}(n) \underline{u}^H(n) \end{aligned}$$

With the same method $\underline{z}(n)$ can also be written as

$$\underline{z}(n) = \lambda \underline{z}(n-1) + \underline{u}(n) d^*(n)$$

Matrix Inversion Lemma

Let A and B be positive definite M -by- M matrices related by $A = B^{-1} + CD^{-1}C^H$, where D is another positive definite N -by- M matrix and C is a M -by- N matrix. Then according to this, Lemma: $A^{-1} = B - BC(D + C^H BC)^{-1} C^H B$.

Now let $A = \underline{\phi}(n)$, $B = \lambda \underline{\phi}(n-1)$, $C = \underline{u}(n)$ $D = I$, then the $\underline{\phi}^{-1}(n)$ can be found. Let $P = \underline{\phi}^{-1}(n)$.

Then

$$\underline{P}(n) = \lambda^{-1} \underline{P}(n-1) - \lambda^{-1} \underline{K}(n) \underline{u}^H(n) \underline{P}(n-1),$$

where

$$\underline{K}(n) = \frac{\lambda^{-1} \underline{P}(n-1) \underline{u}(n)}{1 + \lambda \underline{u}^H(n) \underline{P}(n-1) \underline{u}(n)}$$

Continuing working on these equations leads to RLS Algorithm:

RLS Algorithm

M = number of taps and λ = forgetting factor ≤ 1

Given $u(n)$: M -by-1 tap-input vector

$d(n)$: desired response.

Initialize: $\underline{P}(0) = \sigma^{-1} \cdot I$, σ = small positive constant (i.e. 0.25)

$$\underline{\hat{w}}(0) = \underline{0}$$

For each instant of time, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{K}(n) &= \frac{\lambda^{-1} \underline{P}(n-1) \underline{u}(n)}{1 + \lambda^{-1} \underline{u}^H(n) \cdot \underline{P}(n-1) \underline{u}(n)} \\ e(n) &= d(n) - \underline{\hat{w}}^H(n-1) \cdot \underline{u}(n) \\ \underline{\hat{w}}(n) &= \underline{\hat{w}}(n-1) + \underline{K}(n) e^*(n) \\ \underline{P}(n) &= \lambda^{-1} \underline{P}(n-1) - \lambda^{-1} \underline{K}(n) \cdot \underline{u}^H(n) \cdot \underline{P}(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

A few key features of the RLS Algorithm

- The mean of the learning curve of the RLS algorithm converges in about $2M$ iterations, where M is the number of taps of the filter. Therefore, the RLS convergence rate is much faster than that of LMS Algorithm.
- As the number of iterations, n , approaches infinity, the mean-squared error of RLS approaches a final value equal to the variance σ^2 of the measurement error. In other words, in theory, RLS algorithm produce zero error as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- Convergence of the RLS algorithm in the mean-squared sense is independent of the eigen value spread of the correlation matrix of the input vector.