


ESE 2023: Digital Signal Processing

Lecture 22: April 11, 2023
Adaptive Filters



Example 2:

A sequence $x = \{x[n], n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$ is given; let $X(e^{j\omega})$ be its DTFT.

- (a) Suppose $N = 10$. You want to evaluate both $X(e^{j2\pi 7/12})$ and $X(e^{j2\pi 3/8})$. The only computation you can perform is one DFT, on any one input sequence of your choice. Can you find the desired DTFT values? (*Show your analysis and explain clearly.*)

Example 2:

A sequence $x = \{x[n], n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$ is given; let $X(e^{j\omega})$ be its DTFT.

(b) Suppose N is large. You want to obtain $X(e^{j\omega})$ at the following $2M$ frequencies:

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{M}m, \quad m = 0, 1, \dots, M-1 \quad \text{and} \quad \omega = \frac{2\pi}{M}m + \frac{2\pi}{N}, \quad m = 0, 1, \dots, M-1.$$

Here $M = 2^\mu \ll N = 2^\nu$

A standard radix-2 FFT algorithm is available. You may execute the FFT algorithm *once or more than once*, and *multiplications* and *additions* outside of the FFT are *allowed*, if necessary.

(i) You want to get the $2M$ DTFT values with as few *total multiplications* as possible (*including those in the FFT*). Give explicitly the best method you can find for this, with an estimate of the *total number of multiplications* needed in terms of M and N .

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- (i) You want to get the $2M$ DTFT values with as few *total multiplications* as possible (*including those in the FFT*). Give explicitly the best method you can find for this, with an estimate of the *total number of multiplications* needed in terms of M and N .
- (ii) Does your result change if extra multiplications outside of FFTs are *not* allowed?

Chirp Transform Algorithm



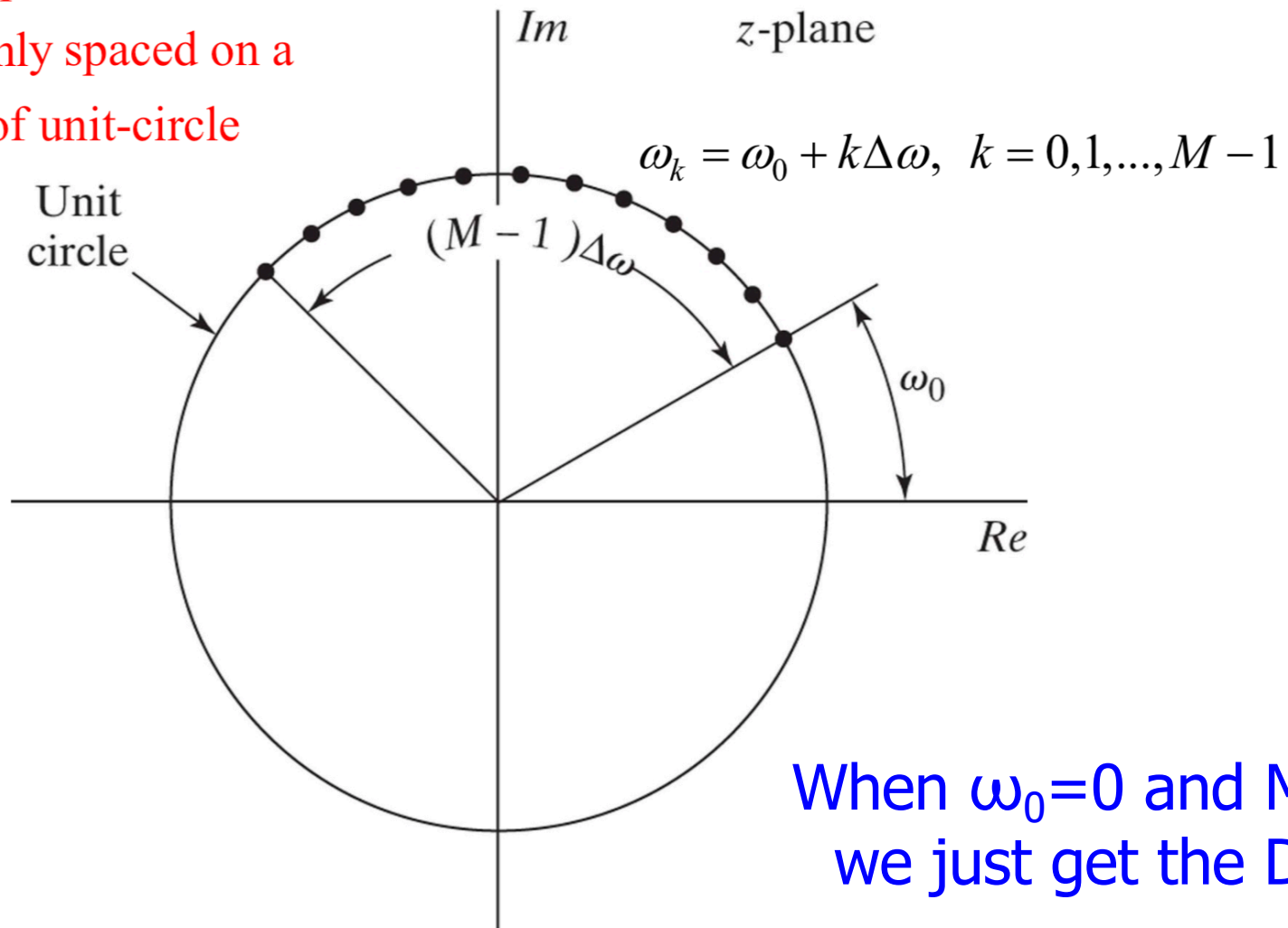
Chirp Transform Algorithm

- ❑ Uses convolution to evaluate the DFT
- ❑ This algorithm is not optimal in minimizing any measure of computational complexity, but it has been useful in a variety of applications, particularly when implemented in technologies that are well suited to doing convolution with a fixed, pre-specified impulse response.
- ❑ The CTA is also more flexible than the FFT, since it can be used to compute *any* set of equally spaced samples of the Fourier transform on the unit circle.



Chirp Transform Algorithm

For M points of DTFT
uniformly spaced on a
sector of unit-circle



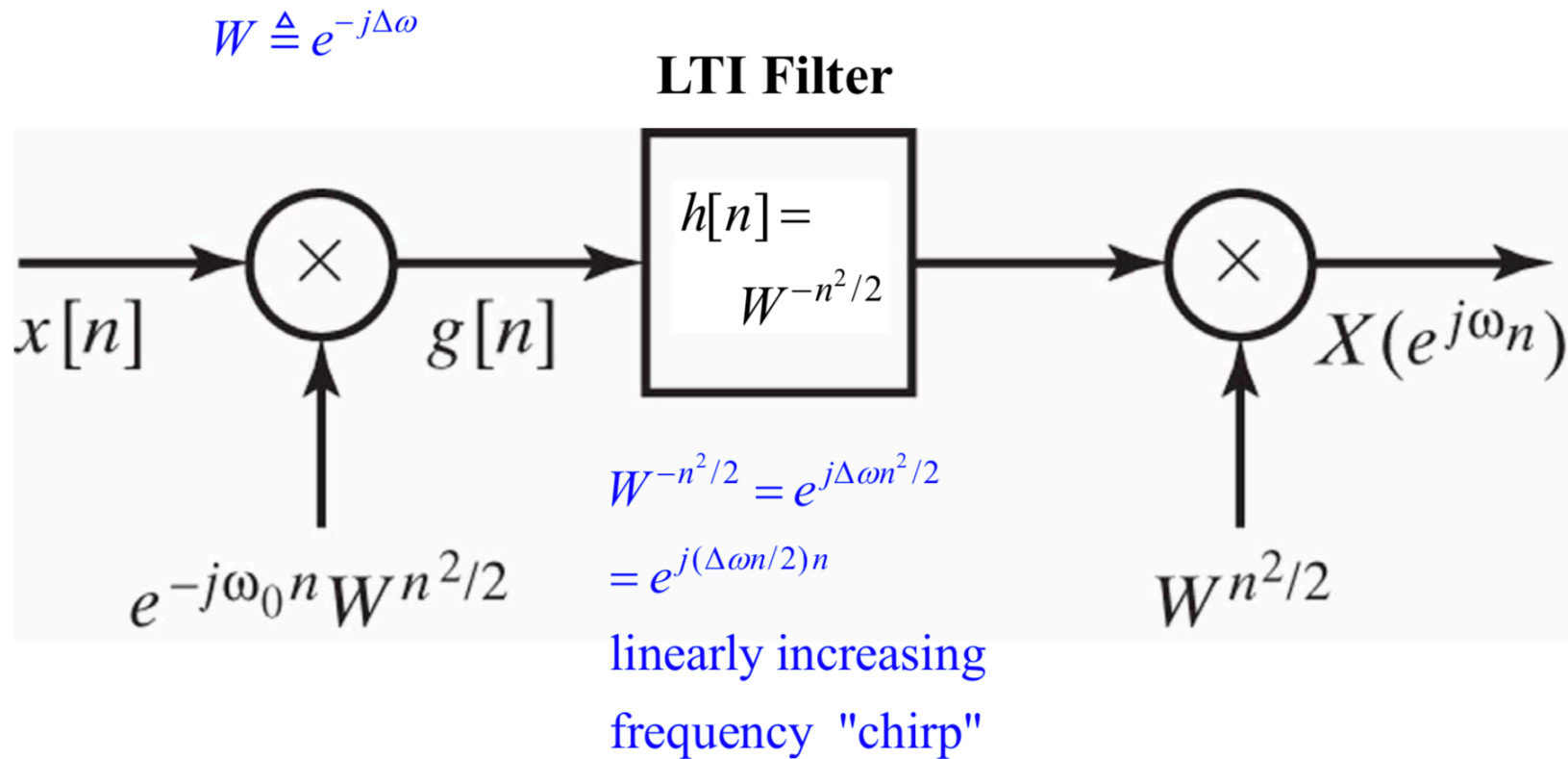
When $\omega_0=0$ and $M=N$,
we just get the DFT



Chirp Transform Algorithm

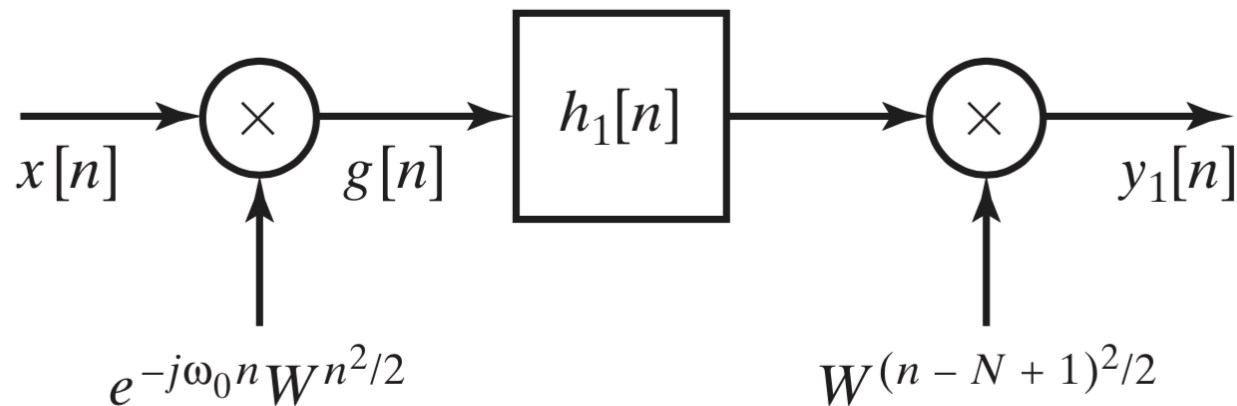
$$X(e^{j\omega_k}) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n]e^{-j\omega_0 n} W^{nk} \quad \forall k = 0, \dots, M-1$$

Chirp Transform Algorithm



Causal FIR CTA

$$h_1[n] = \begin{cases} W^{-(n-N+1)^2/2}, & n = 0, 1, \dots, M + N - 2, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

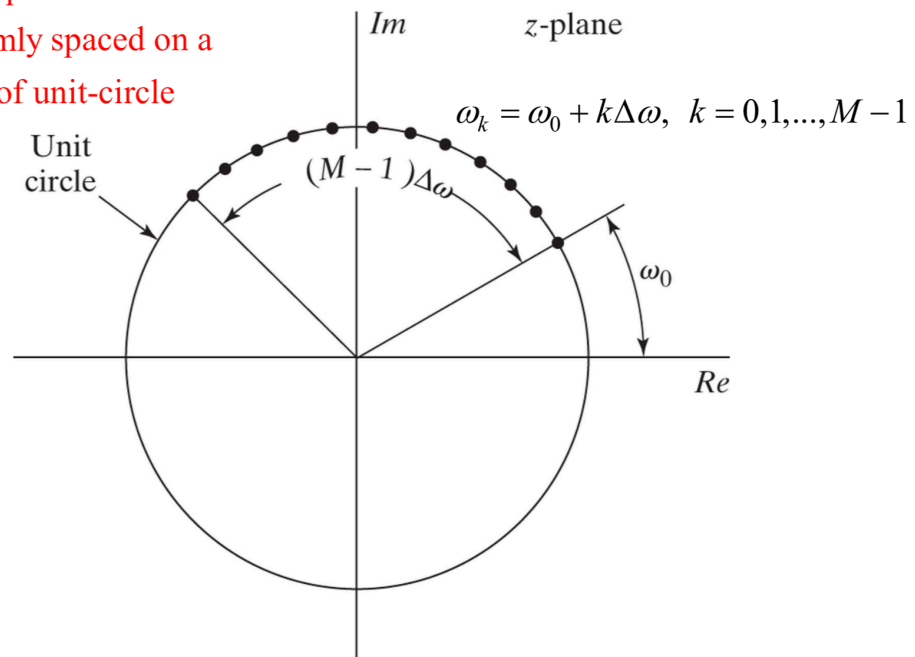


$$X(e^{j\omega_n}) = y_1[n + N - 1], \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, M - 1.$$

Example: Chirp Transform Parameters

- We have a finite-length sequence $x[n]$ that is nonzero only on the interval $n = 0, \dots, 25$, (Length $N=26$) and we wish to compute 16 samples of the DTFT $X(e^{j\omega})$ at the frequencies $\omega_k = 2\pi/27 + 2\pi k/1024$ for $k = 0, \dots, 15$.

For M points of DTFT
uniformly spaced on a
sector of unit-circle



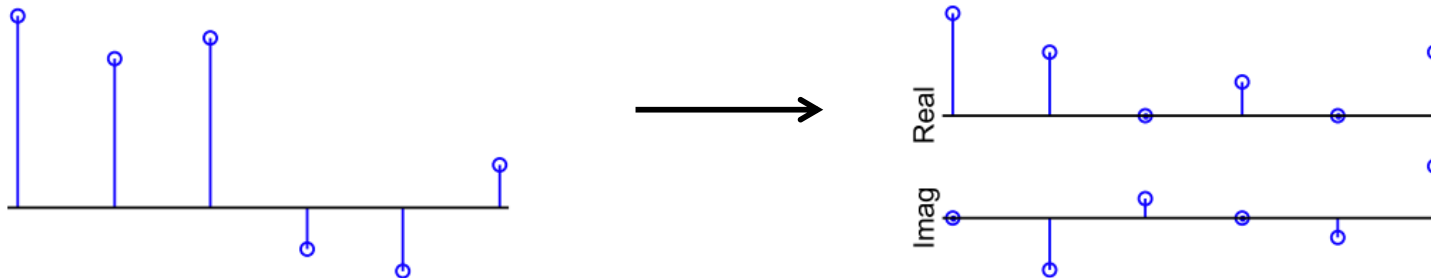


Discrete Cosine Transform

- ❑ Similar to the discrete Fourier transform (DFT), but using only real numbers
- ❑ Widely used in lossy compression applications (eg. Mp3, JPEG)
- ❑ Why use it?

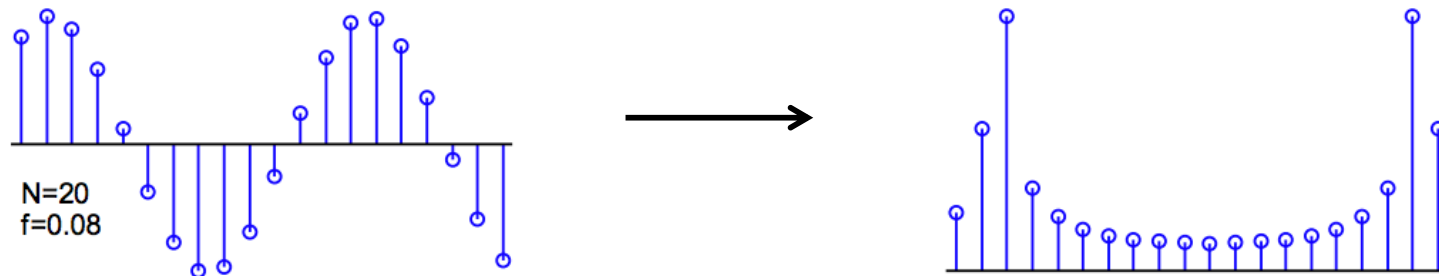
DFT Problems

- ❑ For processing 1-D or 2-D signals (especially coding), a common method is to divide the signal into “frames” and then apply an invertible transform to each frame that compresses the information into few coefficients.
- ❑ The DFT has some problems when used for this purpose:
 - N real $x[n] \leftrightarrow N$ complex $X[k]$: 2 real, $N/2 - 1$ conjugate pairs
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 - DFT is of the periodic signal formed by replicating $x[n]$
 \Rightarrow Spurious frequency components from boundary discontinuity



The Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) overcomes these problems.



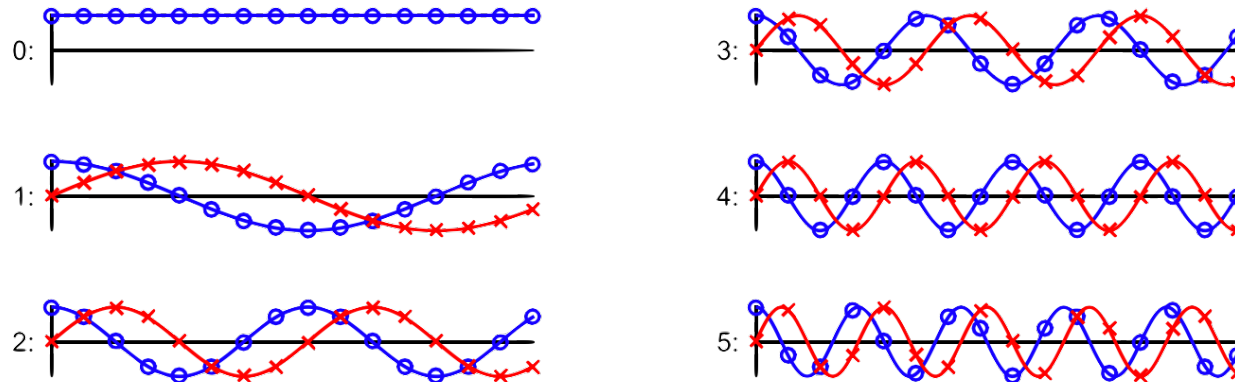
Discrete Cosine Transform

Forward DCT: $X_C[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] \cos \frac{2\pi(2n+1)k}{4N}$ for $k = 0 : N - 1$

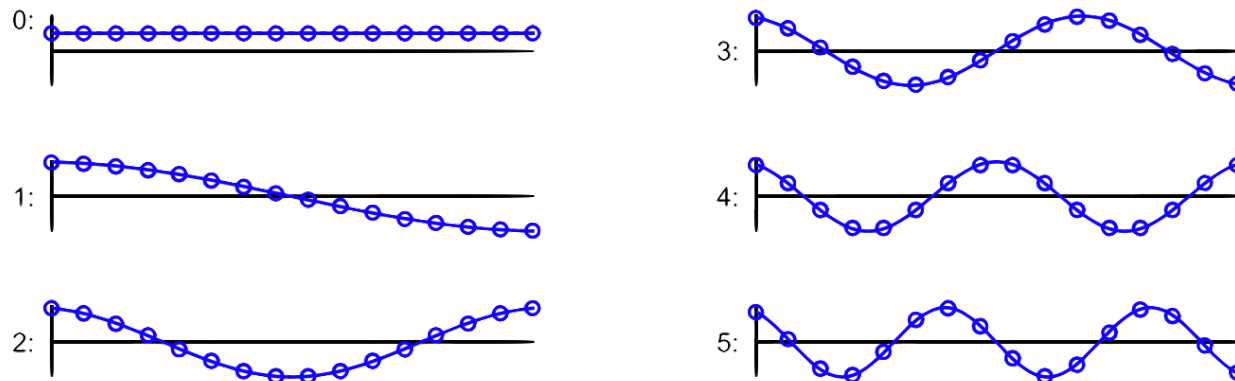
Inverse DCT: $x[n] = \frac{1}{N} X[0] + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} X[k] \cos \frac{2\pi(2n+1)k}{4N}$

Basis Functions

DFT basis functions: $x[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X[k] e^{j2\pi \frac{kn}{N}}$

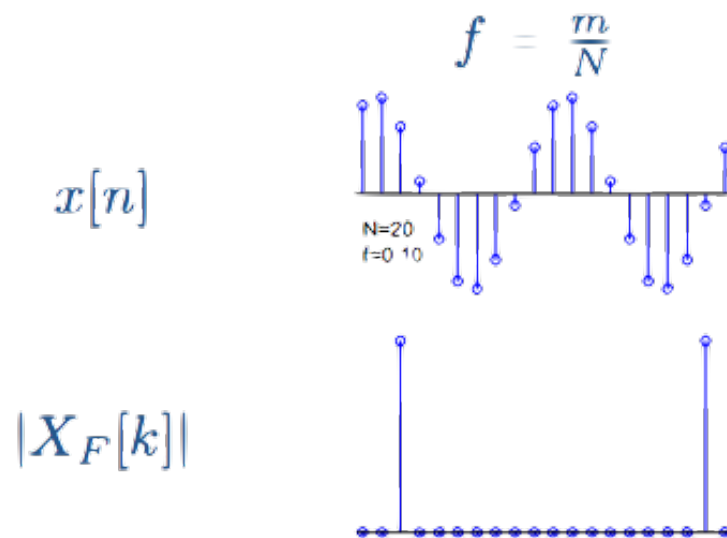


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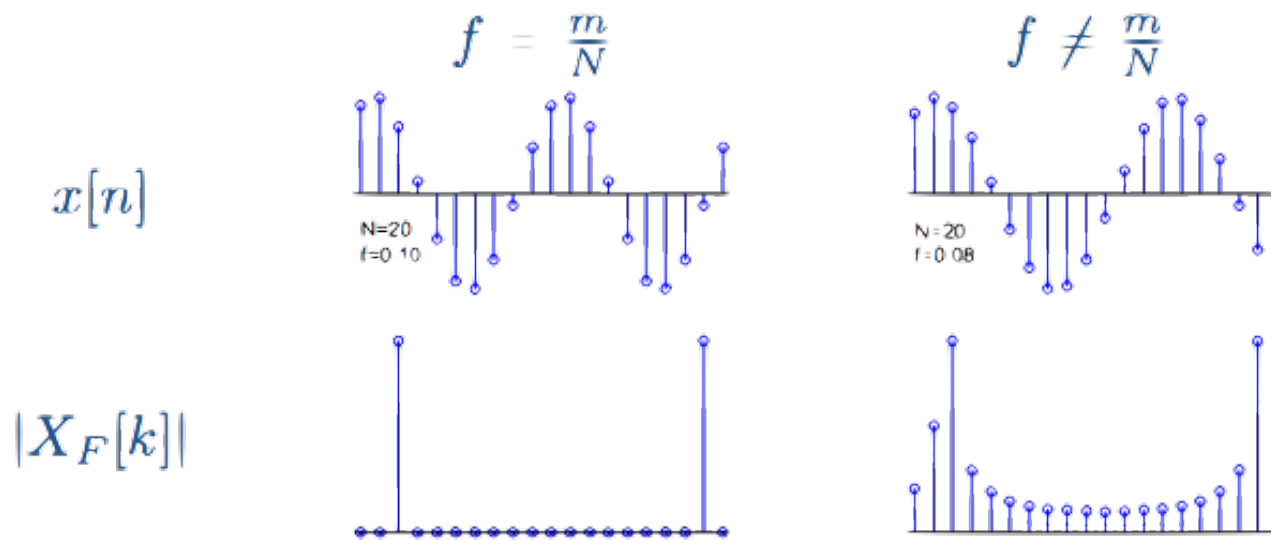




DFT of Sine Wave

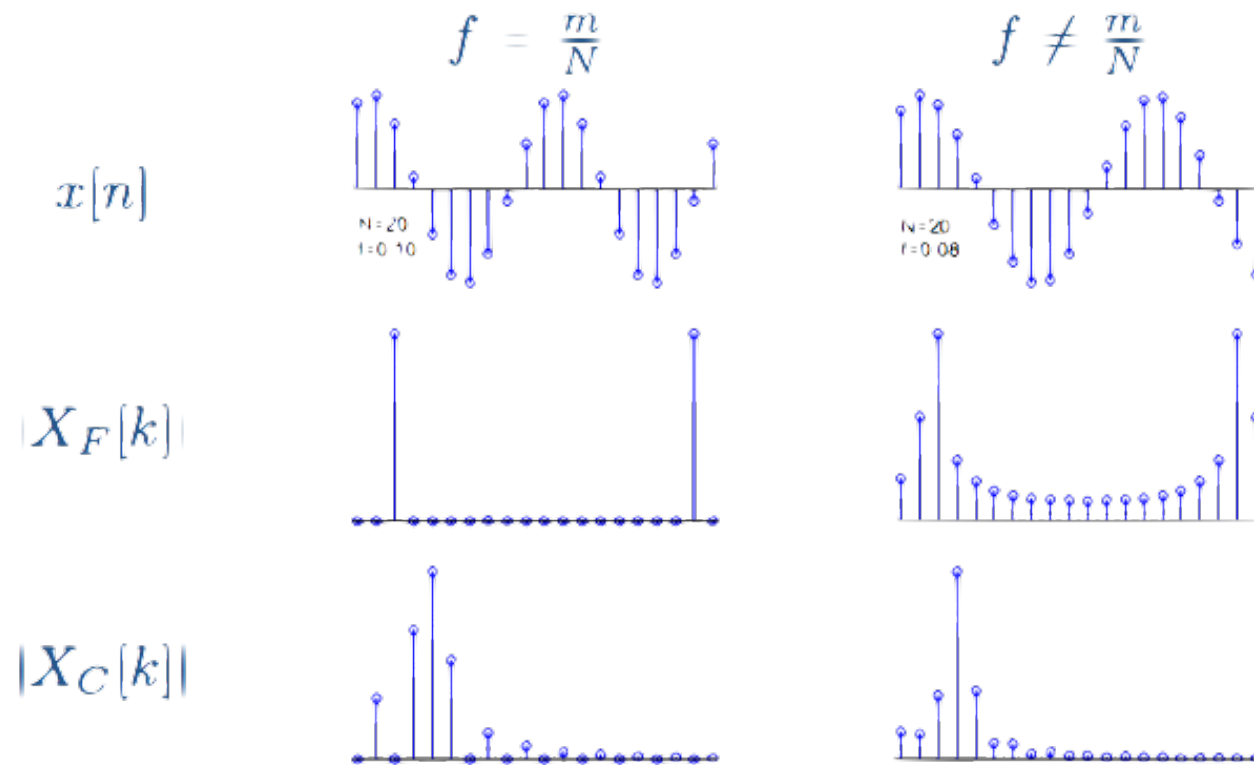


DFT of Sine Wave



DFT: Real \rightarrow Complex; Freq range $[0, 1]$; Poorly localized unless $f = \frac{m}{N}$; $|X_F[k]| \propto k^{-1}$ for $Nf < k \ll \frac{N}{2}$

DCT of Sine Wave



- DFT:** Real \rightarrow Complex; Freq range $[0, 1]$; Poorly localized unless $f = \frac{m}{N}$; $|X_F[k]| \propto k^{-1}$ for $Nf < k \ll \frac{N}{2}$
- DCT:** Real \rightarrow Real; Freq range $[0, 0.5]$; Well localized $\forall f$; $|X_C[k]| \propto k^{-2}$ for $2Nf < k < N$



Adaptive Filters

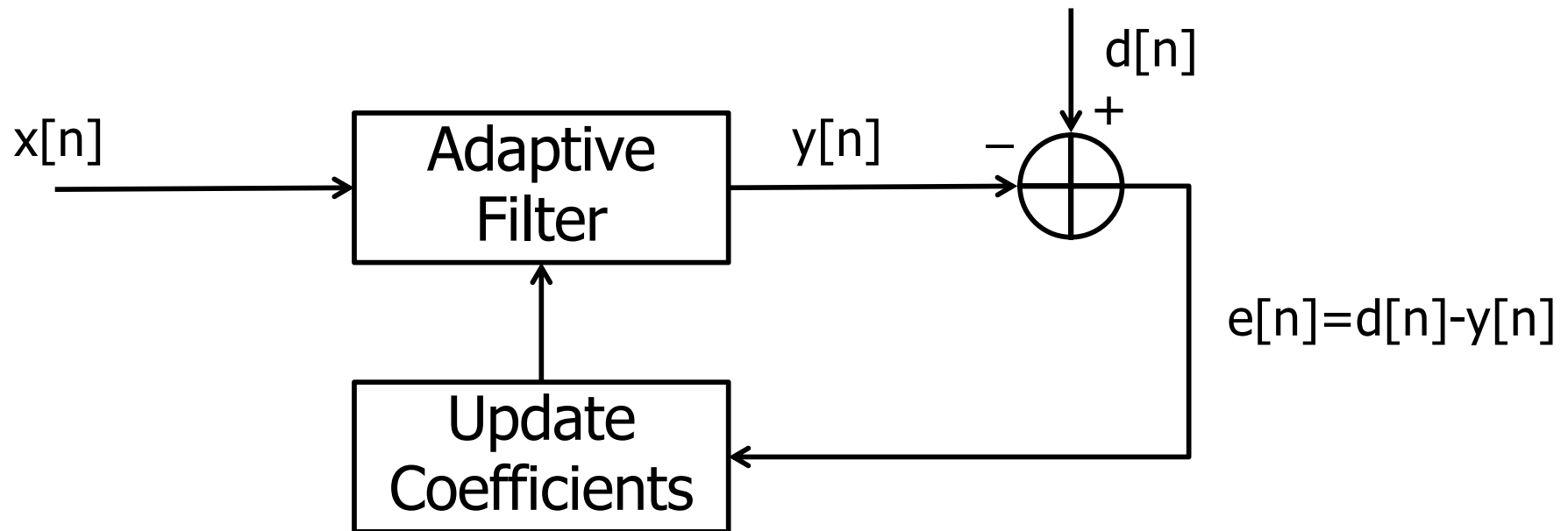


Application Areas

- ❑ Speech coding
- ❑ Speech enhancement (hands-free systems, hearing aids, public address systems)
- ❑ Equalization (sending antennas, radar, loudspeakers)
- ❑ Anti-noise systems (cars and airplanes)
- ❑ Multi-channel signal processing (beamforming, submarine localization, layer of earth analysis)
- ❑ Missile control
- ❑ Medical applications (fetal heart rate monitoring, dialysis)
- ❑ Processing of video signals (cancellation of distortions, image analysis)
- ❑ Antenna arrays

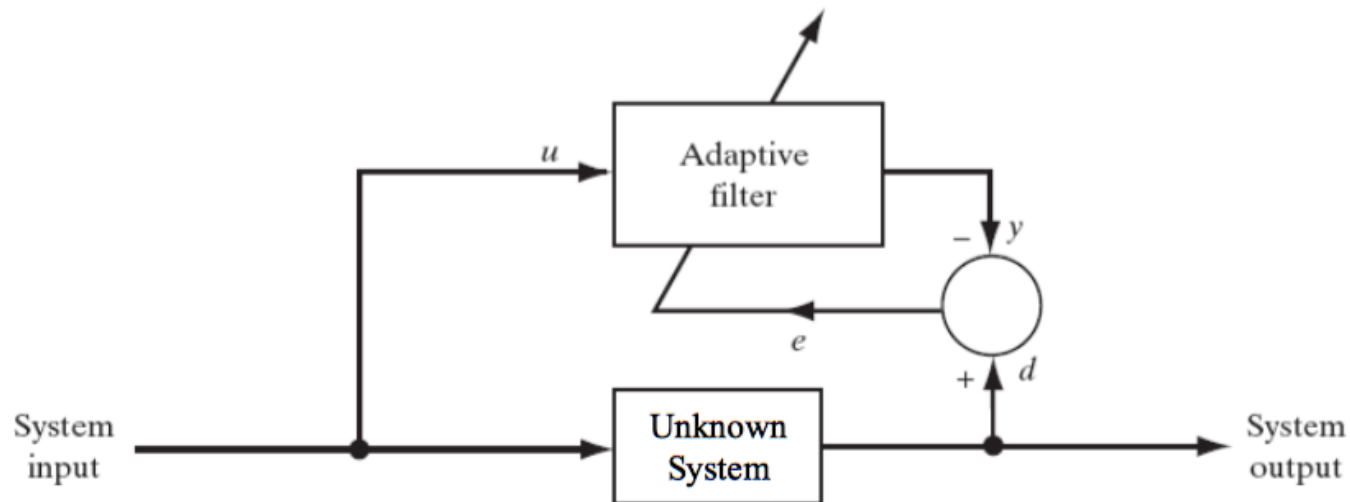
Adaptive Filters

- An adaptive filter is an adjustable filter that processes in time
 - It adapts...



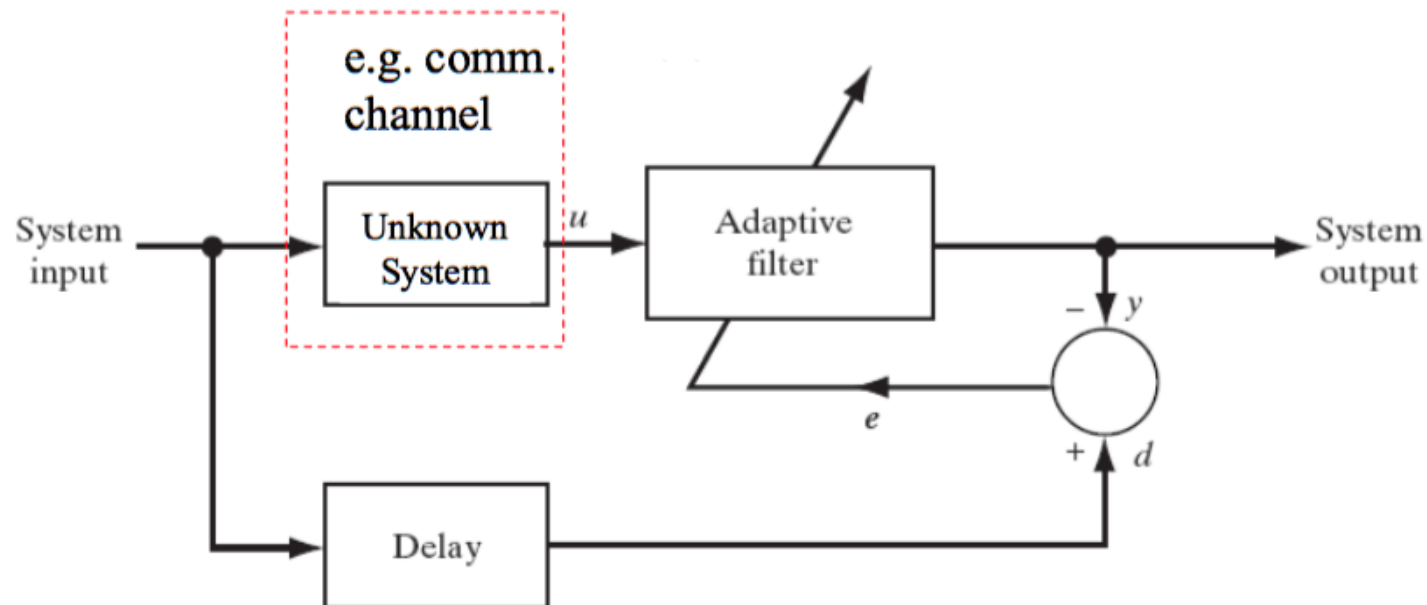
Adaptive Filter Applications

□ System Identification



Adaptive Filter Applications

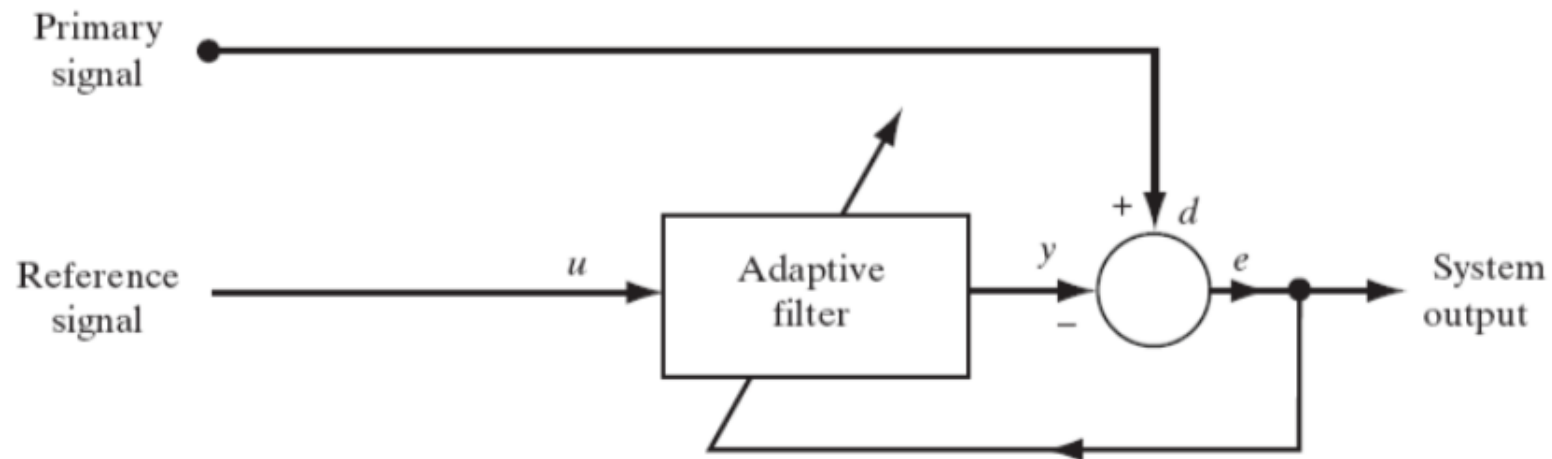
- ❑ Identification of inverse system



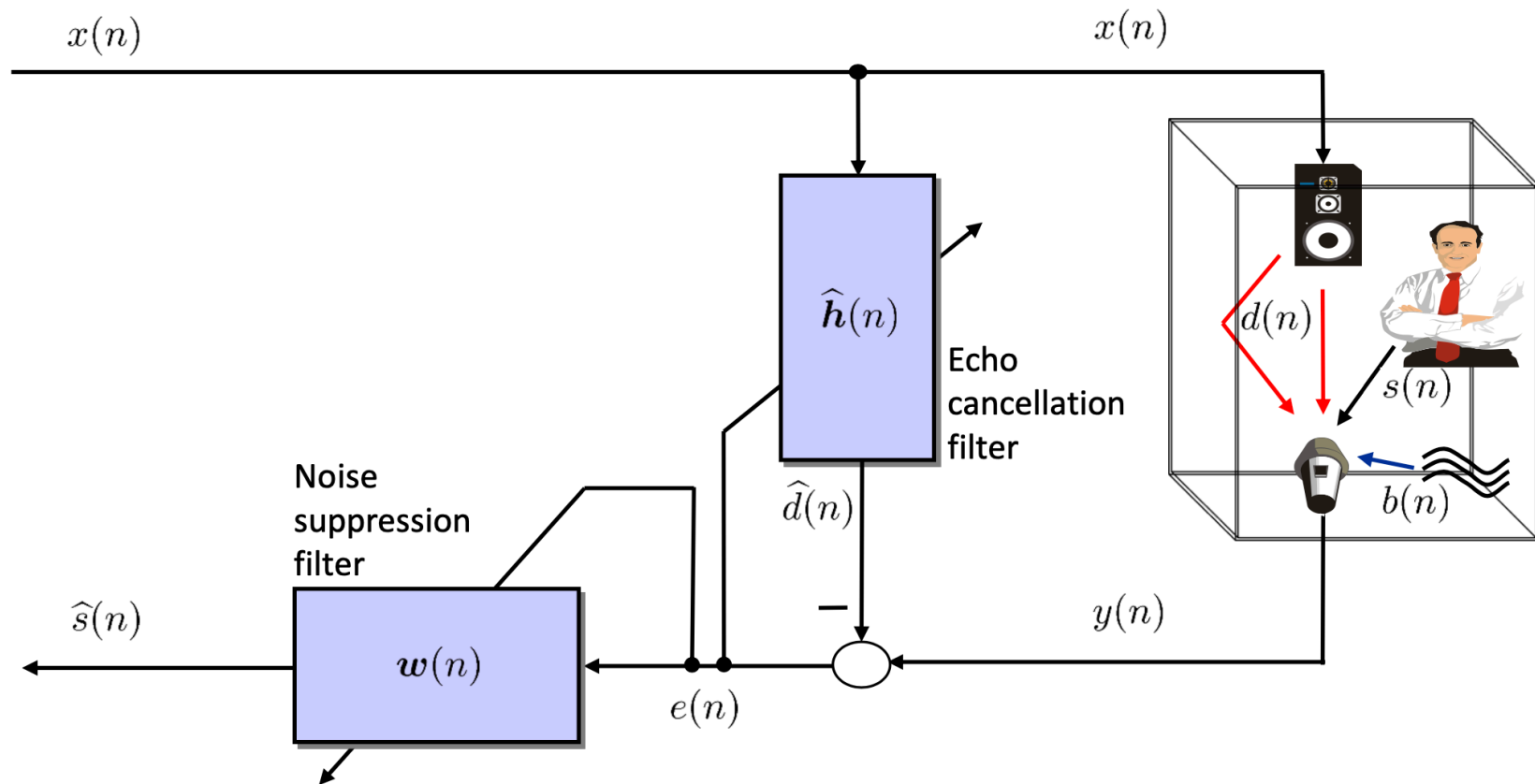


Adaptive Filter Applications

□ Adaptive Interference Cancellation



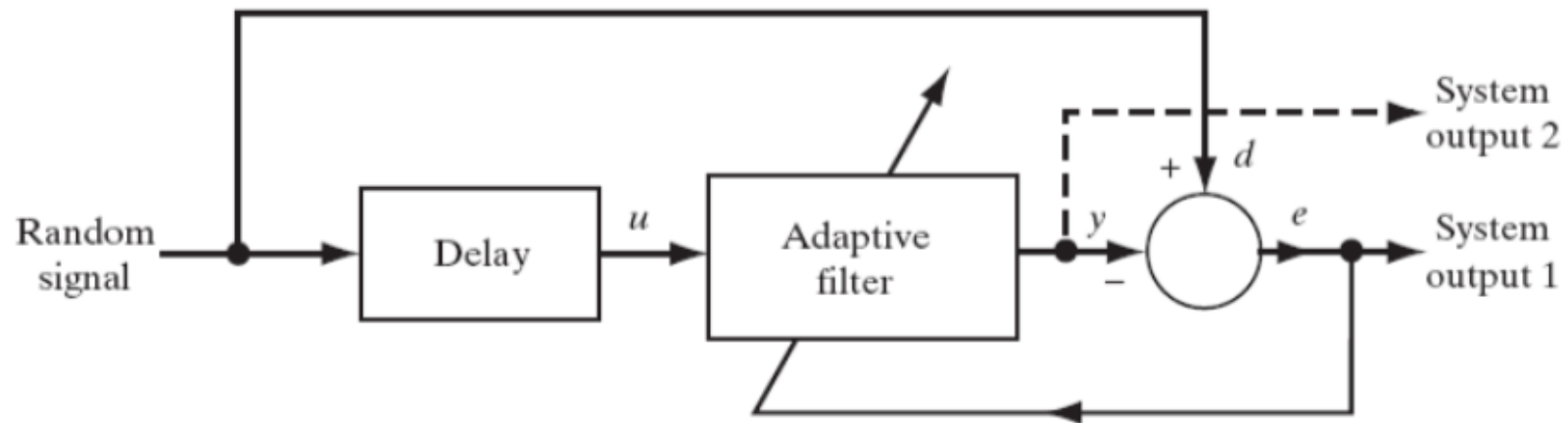
Automotive Hands-Free System





Adaptive Filter Applications

□ Adaptive Prediction



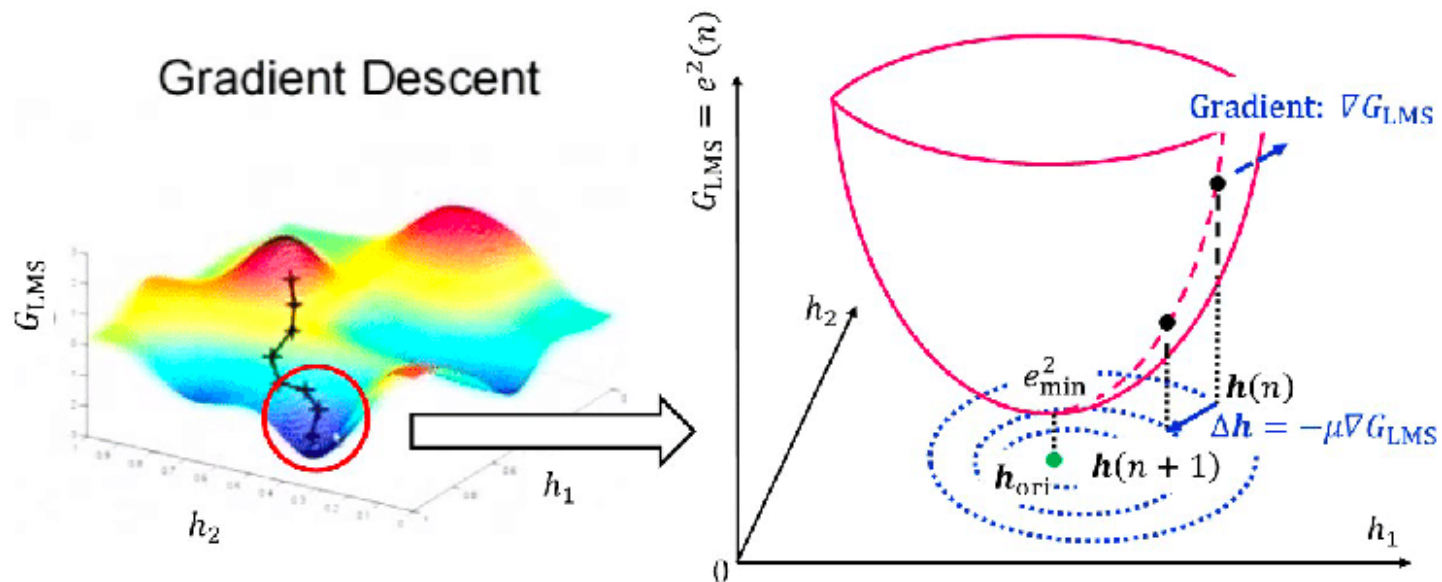


Stochastic Gradient Approach

- ❑ Most commonly used type of Adaptive Filters
- ❑ Define cost function as mean-squared error
 - Eg. Difference between filter output and desired response
- ❑ Based on the method of steepest descent
 - Move towards the minimum on the error surface to get to minimum
 - Requires the gradient of the error surface to be known

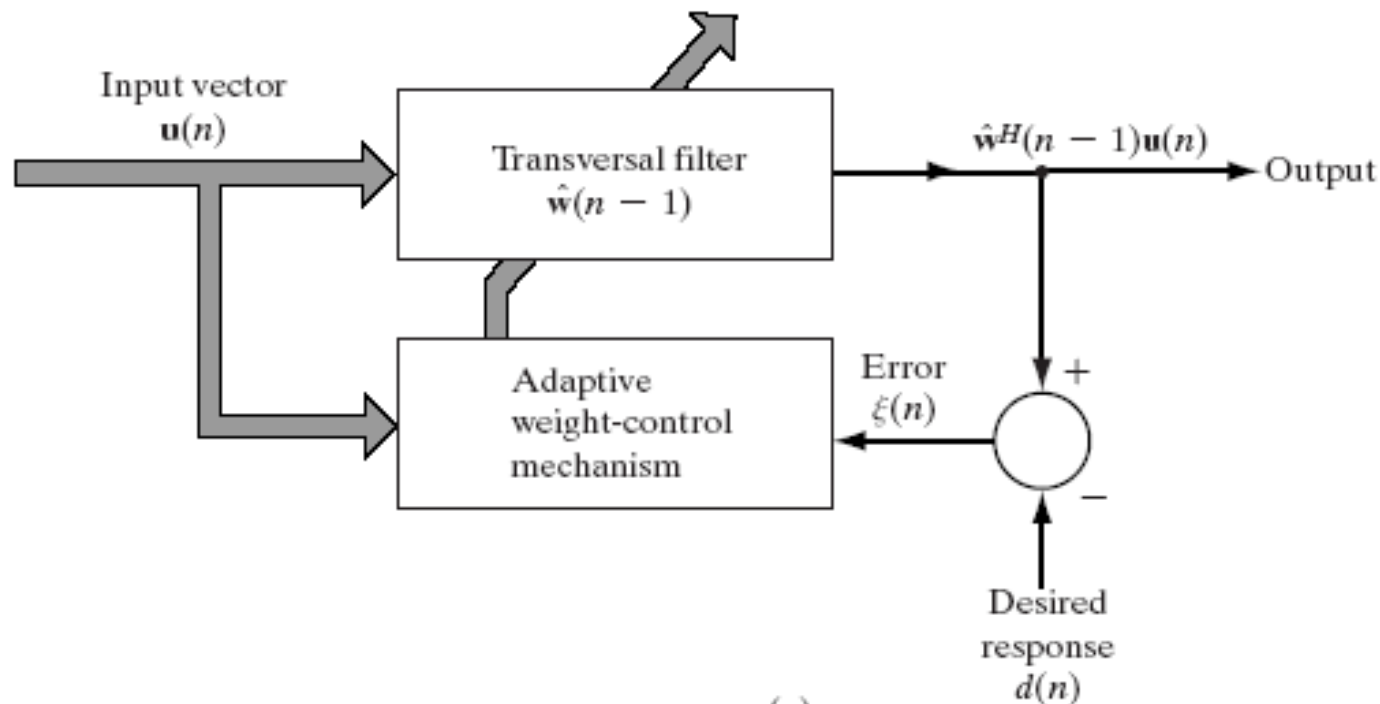
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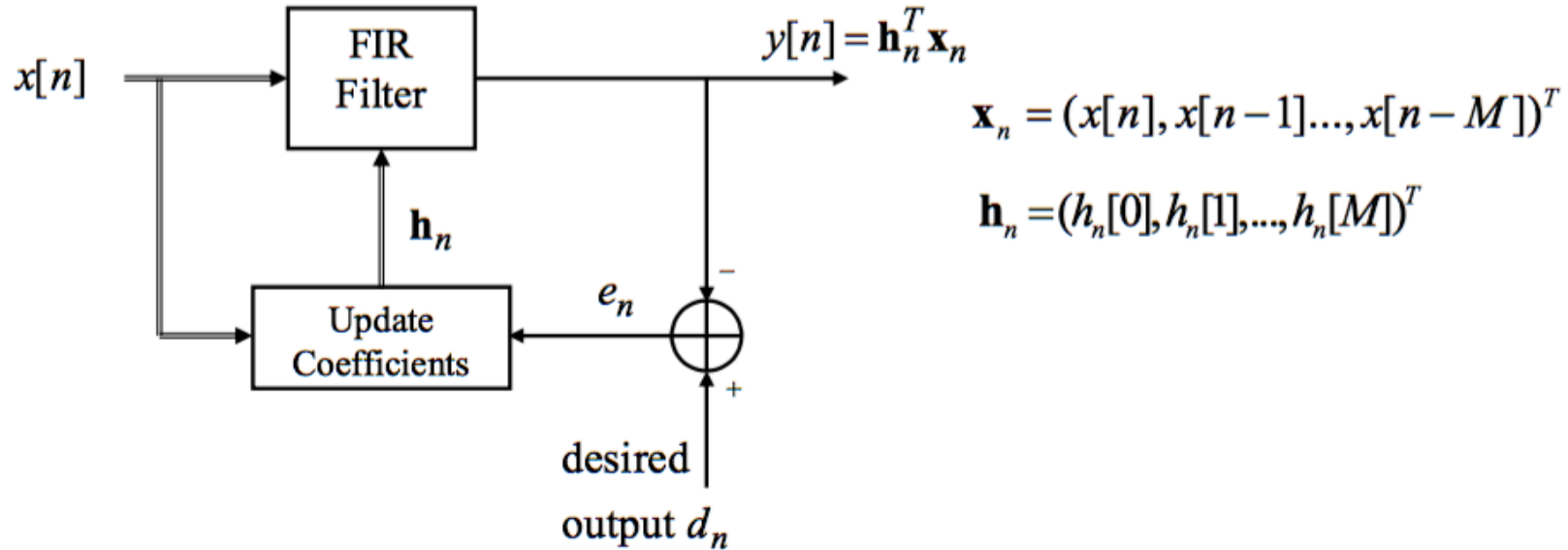


Least-Mean-Square (LMS) Algorithm

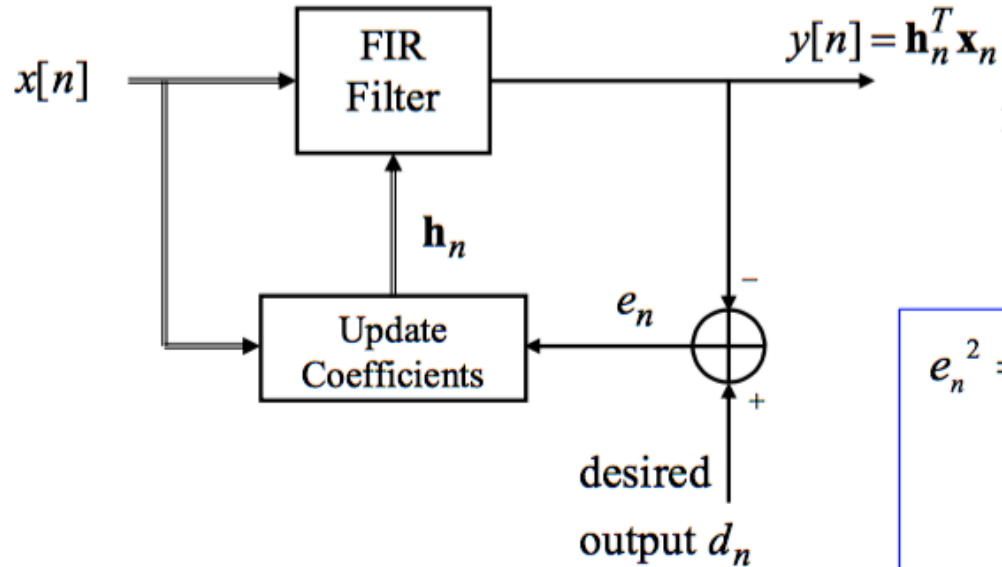
- ❑ The LMS Algorithm consists of two basic processes
 - Filtering process
 - Calculate the output of FIR filter by convolving input and taps
 - Calculate estimation error by comparing the output to desired signal
 - Adaptation process
 - Adjust tap weights based on the estimation error



Adaptive FIR Filter: LMS



Adaptive FIR Filter: LMS

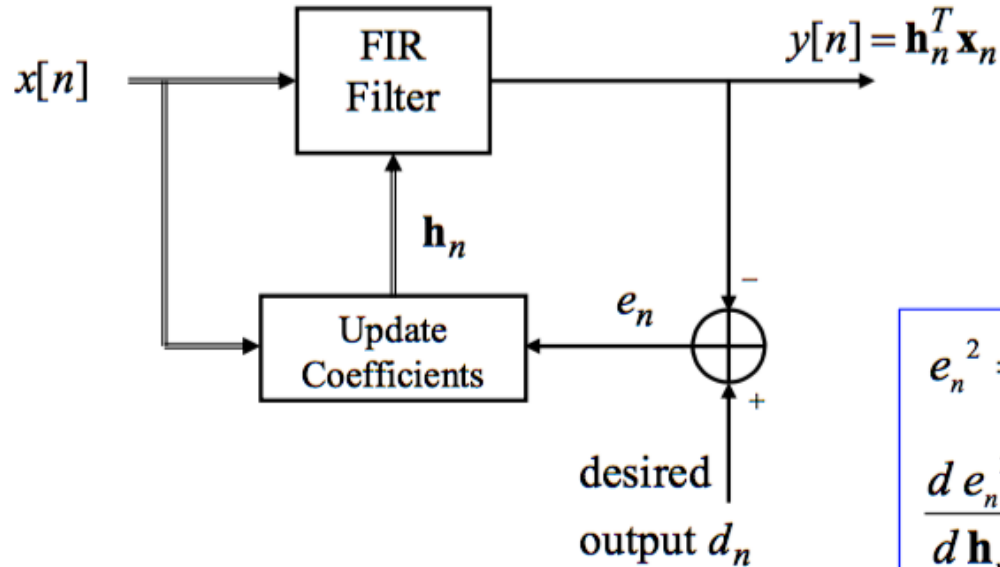


$$\mathbf{x}_n = (x[n], x[n-1], \dots, x[n-M])^T$$

$$\mathbf{h}_n = (h_n[0], h_n[1], \dots, h_n[M])^T$$

$$e_n^2 = (d[n] - y[n])^2 = (d[n] - \mathbf{h}_n^T \mathbf{x}_n)^2$$

Adaptive FIR Filter: LMS



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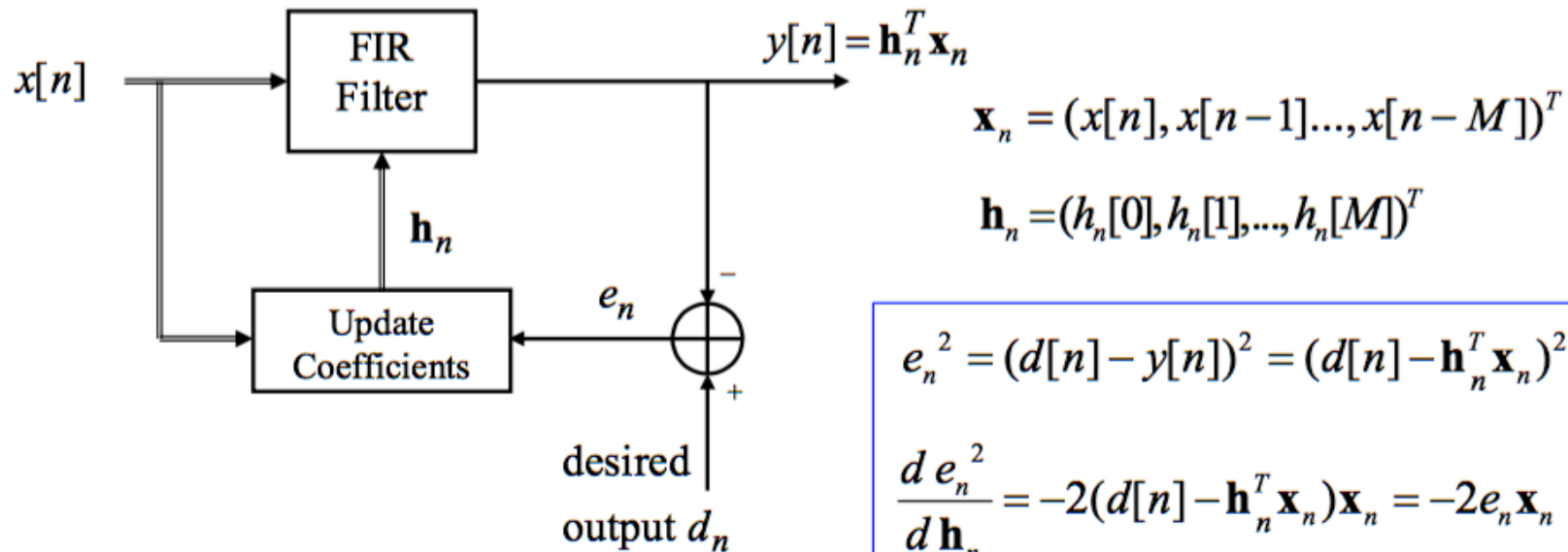
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$$\frac{d e_n^2}{d \mathbf{h}_n} = -2(d[n] - \mathbf{h}_n^T \mathbf{x}_n) \mathbf{x}_n = -2e_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \bar{\mathbf{b}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 + a_4 b_4$$

$$\frac{\partial (a^T b)}{\partial \bar{\mathbf{a}}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial (a^T b)}{\partial a_1} & \frac{\partial (a^T b)}{\partial a_2} & \frac{\partial (a^T b)}{\partial a_3} & \frac{\partial (a^T b)}{\partial a_4} \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} = \bar{\mathbf{b}}$$

Adaptive FIR Filter: LMS



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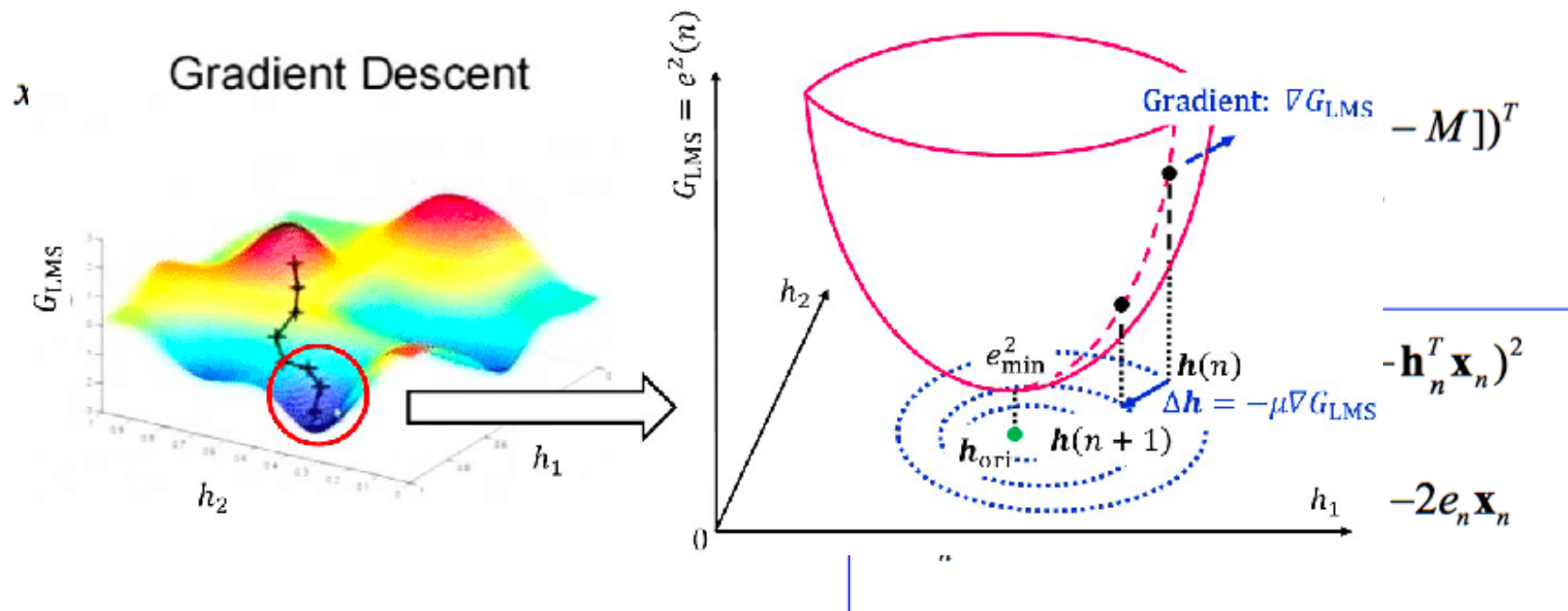
$$\frac{d e_n^2}{d \mathbf{h}_n} = -2(d[n] - \mathbf{h}_n^T \mathbf{x}_n) \mathbf{x}_n = -2e_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

Coefficient Update: Move in direction *opposite* to sign of gradient,
proportional to magnitude of gradient

$$\mathbf{h}_{n+1} = \mathbf{h}_n + 2\mu e_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

Stochastic Gradient Algorithm

Adaptive FIR Filter: LMS



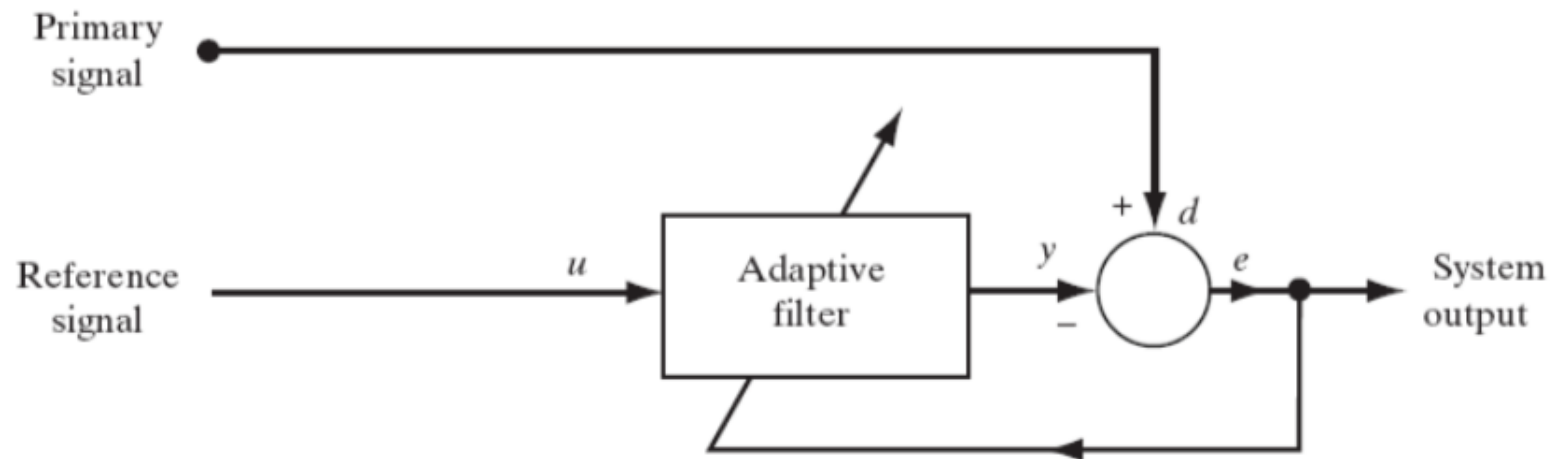
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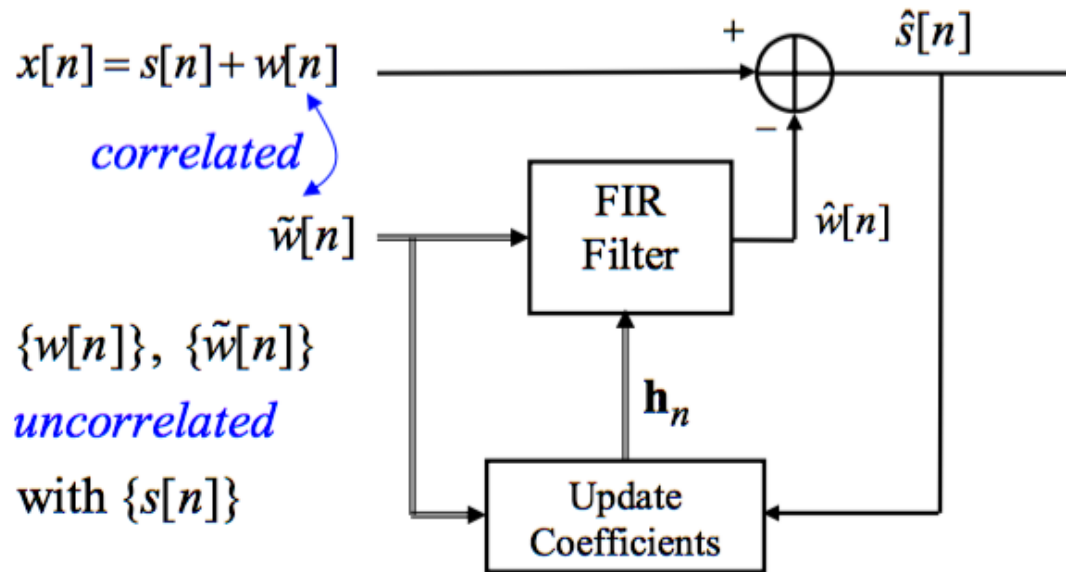
Stochastic Gradient Algorithm

Adaptive Filter Applications

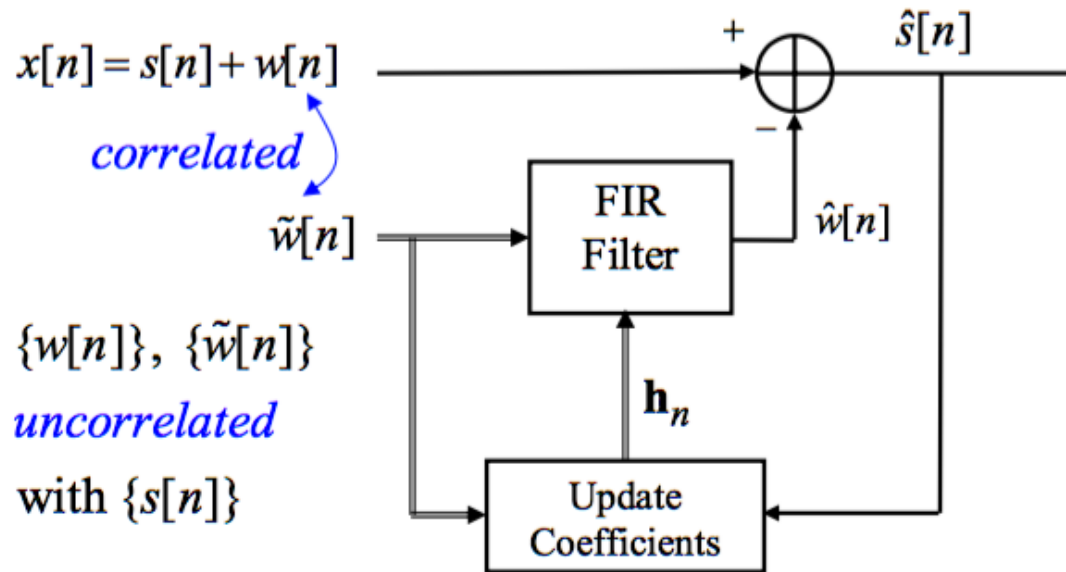
□ Adaptive Interference Cancellation



Adaptive Interference Cancellation

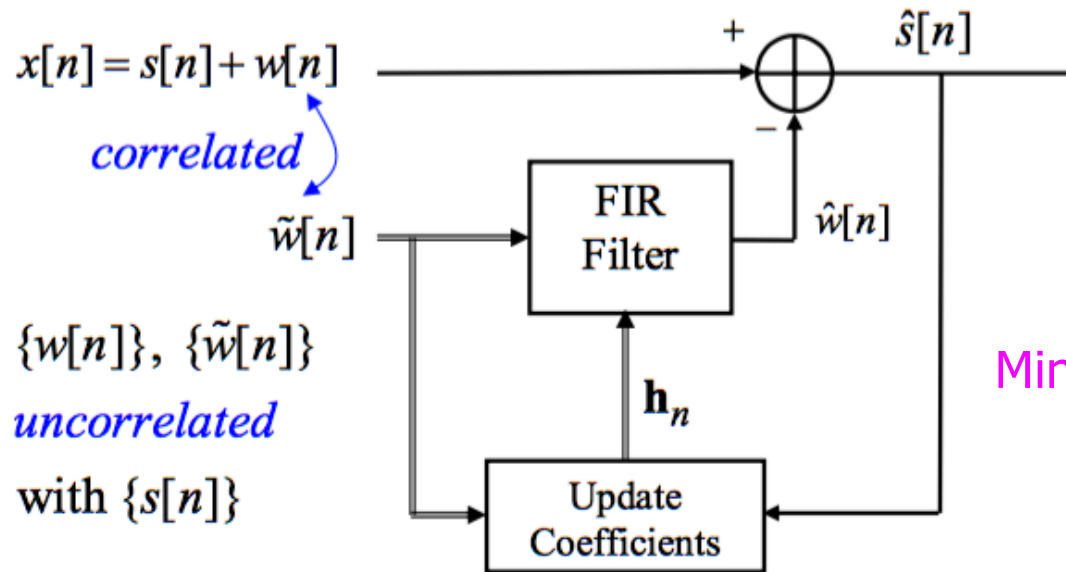


Adaptive Interference Cancellation



$$\begin{aligned}\hat{s}[n] &= s[n] + w[n] - \hat{w}[n] \\ &= s[n] + w[n] - \mathbf{h}_n^T \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n\end{aligned}$$

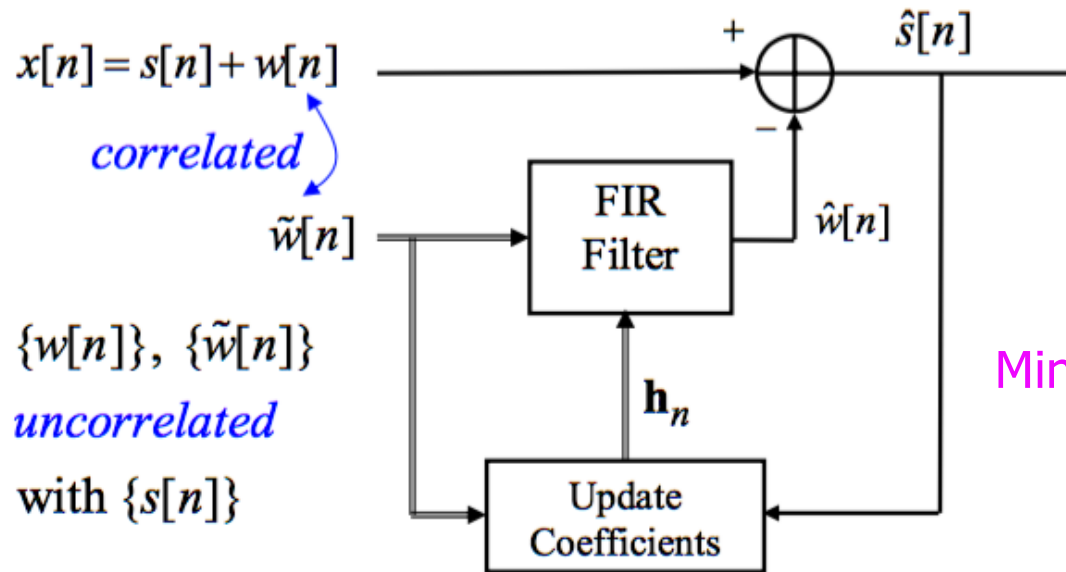
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Minimizing $(\hat{s}[n])^2$ removes noise $w[n]$

Adaptive Interference Cancellation



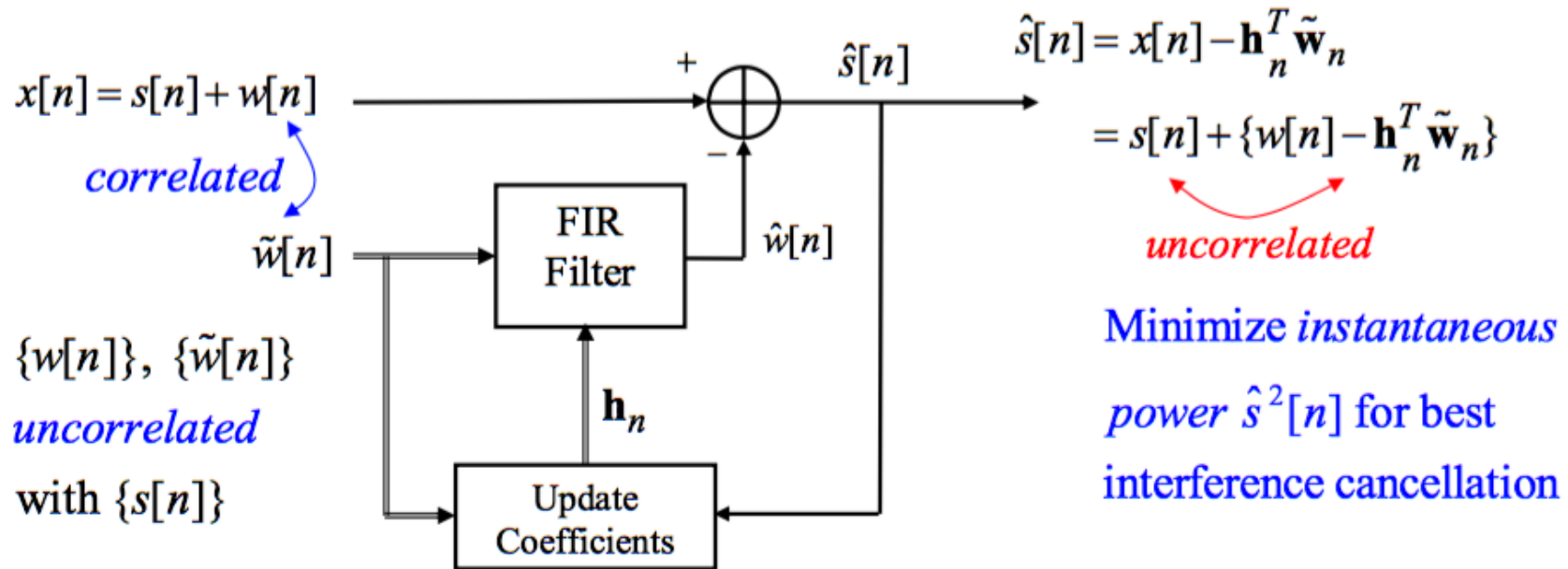
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$$(\hat{s}[n])^2 = (s[n] + w[n] - \mathbf{h}_n^T \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \hat{s}^2[n]}{\partial \mathbf{h}_n} &= 2(s[n] + w[n] - \mathbf{h}_n^T \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n)(-\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n) \\ &= 2\hat{s}[n](-\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n) = -2\hat{s}[n]\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n\end{aligned}$$

Adaptive Interference Cancellation



$$\frac{d(\hat{s}[n])^2}{d\mathbf{h}_n} = -2\hat{s}[n]\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{n+1} = \mathbf{h}_n + 2\mu \hat{s}[n]\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_n$$



Stability of LMS

- ❑ The LMS algorithm is convergent in the mean square if and only if the step-size parameter satisfy

$$0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}}$$

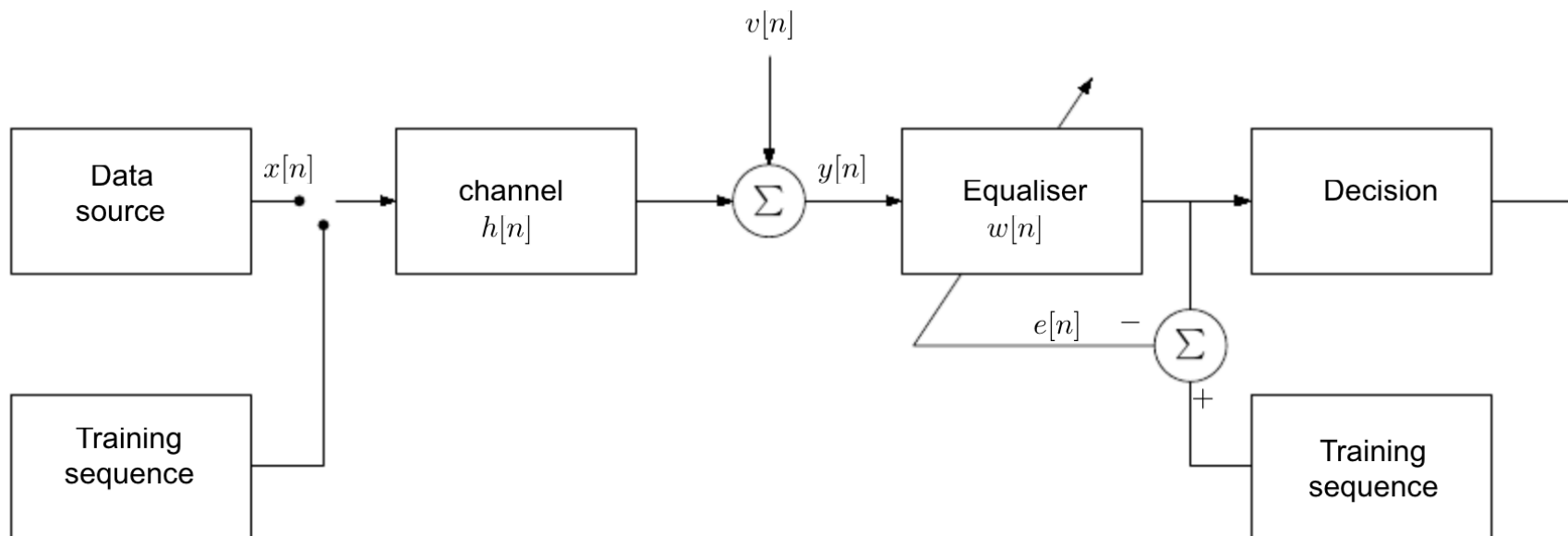
- ❑ Here λ_{\max} is the largest eigenvalue of the correlation matrix of the input data
- ❑ More practical test for stability is

$$0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\text{input signal power}}$$

- ❑ Larger values for step size
 - Increases adaptation rate (faster adaptation)
 - Increases residual mean-squared error



Adaptive Equalization





Big Ideas

- ❑ Adaptive Filters
 - Use LMS algorithm to update filter coefficients
 - Applications like system ID, channel equalization, and signal prediction



Admin

- ❑ Project 2
 - Out after lecture
 - Due 4/26 (last day of classes)
- ❑ Final Exam – 5/1
 - 6-8pm
 - DRLB A2