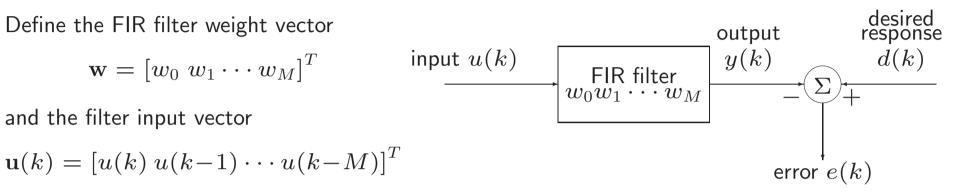
# **Revision of Lecture Seventeen**

- Previous lecture introduces generic structure of adaptive equalisation
  - Adaptive signal processing/filtering: enabling technology for communications
  - Adaptive equalisation is just a particular example
  - Concepts of cost function and optimisation, adaptive FIR filter
- Communications technology is about "Shannon meets Wiener"
- This lecture looks into optimal FIR filter design known as **Wiener filter** or **minimum mean square error** solution
  - This Wiener design embodies most important ideas of adaptive filtering
  - It is most widely used design principle in communication applications
  - It has important influence on new designs



### **Wiener Filters**

• Wiener filter is the optimal FIR filter in the MMSE sense



The actual filter output and the error signal are given by

$$y(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{M} w_i^* u(k-i) = \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{u}(k) \quad e(k) = d(k) - y(k) = d(k) - \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{u}(k)$$

• Assuming the desired signal d(k) and the filter input u(k) are wide-sense stationary, the **optimal** Wiener solution  $\hat{w}$  minimises the MSE

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = E[|e(k)|^2] = E[e(k)e^*(k)]$$

• Define the desired signal power  $\sigma_d^2 = E[|d(k)|^2]$ , the autocorrelations  $\gamma(l) = E[u(k)u^*(k-l)]$ for  $0 \le l \le M$ , and the crosscorrelations  $p(l) = E[d^*(k)u(k-l)]$  for  $0 \le l \le M$ 

# Wiener Filters (continue)

• Since the square error  $|e(k)|^2 = d(k)d^*(k) - d(k)\mathbf{u}^H(k)\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^H\mathbf{u}(k)d^*(k) + \mathbf{w}^H\mathbf{u}(k)\mathbf{u}^H(k)\mathbf{w}$ ,

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{E}[|e(k)|^{2}] = \sigma_{d}^{2} - \mathbf{p}^{H}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^{H}\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{w}^{H}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{w}$$

where

**Electronics and** 

**Computer Science** 

$$\mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} p(0) \\ p(1) \\ \vdots \\ p(M) \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma(0) & \gamma(1) & \cdots & \gamma(M) \\ \gamma^*(1) & \gamma(0) & \cdots & \gamma(M-1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma^*(M) & \gamma^*(M-1) & \cdots & \gamma(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

• For  $\widehat{\mathbf{w}}$  to be a minimum point of  $J(\mathbf{w})$ :

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$$\nabla J(\mathbf{w})|_{\mathbf{w}=\widehat{\mathbf{w}}} = 0$$
 (necessary)  $\left. \frac{\partial^2 J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}^2} \right|_{\mathbf{w}=\widehat{\mathbf{w}}}$  is positive definite (sufficient)

that is,  $-2\mathbf{p} + 2\mathbf{R}\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = 0$  (necessary), and **R** is positive definite (sufficient)

• Necessary condition  $\rightarrow$  Wiener-Hopf equations:  $\mathbf{R}\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{p}$ , which gives the Wiener solution

$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{p}$$

Since this is the only minimum, it is a **global minimum**. Note that the correlation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  is always nonnegative definite. When  ${f R}$  is positive definite, the inverse  ${f R}^{-1}$  exists

## **Orthogonal Principle and MSE surface**

- The Wiener filter error  $\widehat{e}(k) = d(k) \widehat{\mathbf{w}}^H \mathbf{u}(k)$  is orthogonal to the filter input vector:
  - $E[\hat{e}^*(k)\mathbf{u}(k)] = \mathbf{0}$ , and as a consequence, the MMSE filter output  $\hat{y}(k) = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^H \mathbf{u}(k)$  is orthogonal to its error:  $E[\hat{e}^*(k)\hat{y}(k)] = 0$
- The MSE is a bowl-shaped (2(M+1)+1)-dimensional surface ((M+1)+1) in real case)

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \sigma_d^2 - \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{R} \mathbf{w}$$

and has a unique minimum at  $\mathbf{w} = \widehat{\mathbf{w}}$ . Since the MMSE

$$J_{\min} = J(\widehat{\mathbf{w}}) = \sigma_d^2 - \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{p} = \sigma_d^2 - \sigma_{\widehat{y}}^2$$

where  $E[|\widehat{y}(k)|^2] = \sigma_{\widehat{y}}^2 = E[\widehat{\mathbf{w}}^H \mathbf{u}(k) \mathbf{u}^H(k) \widehat{\mathbf{w}}] = \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$ , the MSE for  $\mathbf{w}$  can be written as

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = J_{\min} + (\mathbf{w} - \widehat{\mathbf{w}})^{H} \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w} - \widehat{\mathbf{w}})$$

• The eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{R}$  are the solutions  $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_M$  of  $\det(\mathbf{R} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$ , and the condition number is the ratio of largest eigenvalue to smallest eigenvalue

$$\chi(\mathbf{R}) = rac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}}$$



## **Eigenvalue Spread**

• The ratio  $\chi(\mathbf{R})$  is called **eigenvalue spread**, and it determines the **performance** of an adaptive algorithm

 $\chi(\mathbf{R}) \geq 1$ : If  $\mathbf{R}$  is singular,  $\lambda_{\min} = 0$  and  $\chi(\mathbf{R}) = \infty$ ;  $\mathbf{R}$  is ill conditioned if  $\chi(\mathbf{R})$  is large.

- Example of real channel and modulation with the channel r(k) = 0.5s(k) + 1.0s(k-1) + n(k), the equaliser  $y(k) = w_0 r(k) + w_1 r(k-1) + w_2 r(k-2)$ , and the desired response d(k) = s(k-1), where n(k) is white Gaussian with zero mean and variance  $\sigma_n^2 = 0.25$ , and s(k) is BPSK taking value from  $\{\pm 1\}$
- The auto-correlation matrix and the cross-correlation vector are:

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 0.5 & 0.0 \\ 0.5 & 1.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.0 & 0.5 & 1.5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues and the MMSE error solution are

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_0 &= 1.5 + \sqrt{0.5} \\ \lambda_1 &= 1.5 \\ \lambda_2 &= 1.5 - \sqrt{0.5} \end{aligned} \qquad \hat{\mathbf{w}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6190 \\ 0.1429 \\ -0.0476 \end{bmatrix}$$

The MMSE is  $J_{\rm min}=0.3095$  , and the eigenvalue spread is  $\chi({\bf R})=2.7836$ 



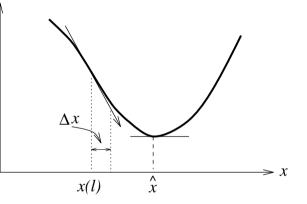
### **Steepest Descent Algorithm**

- There are many reasons for not computing  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$  directly  $\rightarrow$  gradient descent for the MMSE solution
- For function of a scalar variable f(x), noting that negative gradient points "downhill" and starting from an initial guess x(0), we can use: f(x)

$$x(l+1) = x(l) + \Delta x(l) = x(l) + \left(-\mu \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\Big|_{x=x(l)}\right)$$

This iteration loop will leads to  $x(l) \longrightarrow \widehat{x}$  at which point

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}|_{x=\widehat{x}} = 0$$



• For the FIR filter  $y(k) = \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{u}(k)$  with e(k) = d(k) - y(k),

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \sigma_d^2 - \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{R} \mathbf{w} \text{ and } \widehat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$$

- Iteration procedure based on gradient so that  $\mathbf{w}(l) \longrightarrow \widehat{\mathbf{w}}$ , with **Algorithm**:
  - 1. Initial value w(0)

2. 
$$\nabla J(l) = \nabla J(\mathbf{w}(l)) = -2\mathbf{p} + 2\mathbf{R}\mathbf{w}(l)$$

- 3.  $\mathbf{w}(l+1) = \mathbf{w}(l) + \frac{1}{2}\mu(-\nabla J(l)) = \mathbf{w}(l) + \mu(\mathbf{p} \mathbf{R}\mathbf{w}(l))$
- 4. Go back to step 2

# **Analysis of Steepest Descent Algorithm**

- Note that the steepest descent algorithm involves feedback  $e(k) \rightarrow$  stability consideration and the value of  $\mu$  is critical. Also the underlying system is characterised by the eigenvalue spread
- Stability analysis: Necessary and sufficient condition for

$$\lim_{l\to\infty}\mathbf{w}(l)=\widehat{\mathbf{w}}$$

is

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

• Time constant of the algorithm  $\tau_a$  defines how quickly the algorithm converges to a steady-state solution on average. It can be shown that

$$\frac{-1}{\log(|1-\mu\lambda_{\max}|)} \le \tau_a \le \frac{-1}{\log(|1-\mu\lambda_{\min}|)}$$

Note

$$\tau_a \approx \frac{1}{\mu \lambda_{\min}}$$

But

$$\mu \propto \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}} \Rightarrow \tau_a \propto \frac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}} = \chi(\mathbf{R})$$

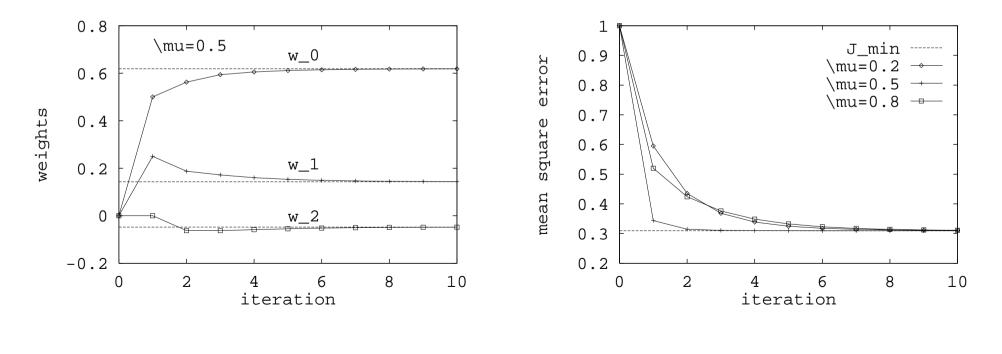
This clearly shows that the eigenvalue spread influences rate of convergence



#### Example

• Example as in Slide 190: The steepest-descent algorithm is used. The step-size parameter  $\mu$  should satisfy

$$0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}} = \frac{2}{1.5 + \sqrt{0.5}}$$
 or  $0 < \mu < 0.9$ 





#### Sample-by-Sample Adaptation

Recall that the steepest descent algorithm can be used to obtain the Wiener (MMSE) solution
 ↓ It requires ensemble averages R and p, usually not available. These statistics may be
 approximated by time-averaging

$$\bar{\gamma}(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} u(k) u^*(k-l) \quad \bar{p}(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} d^*(k) u(k-l)$$

 $\Downarrow$  But u(k) and d(k) can be nonstationary, and it would be better to update the filter as each new data sample is taken

 $\Downarrow$  Many practical applications require extremely fast computation per sample, as sampling rate can be very fast

- These considerations  $\rightarrow$  a **stochastic gradient-based** method
  - Steepest descent method:  $\nabla J(\mathbf{w}(l)) = -2\mathbf{p} + 2\mathbf{R}\mathbf{w}(l)$  with  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{u}(k)\mathbf{u}^{H}(k)]$  and  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{u}(k)d^{*}(k)]$ . All the quantities are deterministic
  - Stochastic gradient-based method: instantaneous "estimates"  $\widetilde{\mathbf{R}}(k) = \mathbf{u}(k)\mathbf{u}^{H}(k)$  and  $\widetilde{\mathbf{p}}(k) = \mathbf{u}(k)d^{*}(k)$  are used to provides gradient of instantaneous squared error  $\widetilde{J}(k) = |e(k)|^{2}$

$$\nabla \widetilde{J}(k) = -2\mathbf{u}(k)d^*(k) + 2\mathbf{u}(k)\mathbf{u}^H(k)\widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k) = -2\mathbf{u}(k)e^*(k)$$

- where  $e(k) = d(k) - \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}^H(k)\mathbf{u}(k)$ . All the quantities are noisy or stochastic



## Least Mean Square Algorithm

- This is probably the simplest adaptive algorithm, involving three steps per cycle:
  - 1. Compute the filter output

$$y(k) = \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}^{H}(k)\mathbf{u}(k)$$

2. Compute the estimation error

$$e(k) = d(k) - y(k)$$

3. Update the tap weights

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k+1) = \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k) + \frac{1}{2}\mu\nabla\widetilde{J}(k) = \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k) + \mu\mathbf{u}(k)e^*(k)$$

• The step size  $\mu$  must be properly chosen, the mean of  $\widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k)$  is:

 $\mathbf{E}[\widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k)]$ 

and the mean square error is:

$$J(k) = \mathbf{E}[|e(k)|^{2}] = \mathbf{E}[|d(k) - \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}^{H}(k)\mathbf{u}(k)|^{2}]$$

- Note  $ilde{\mathbf{w}}(k)$  is stochastic and we have to talk about convergence in mean and/or mean square error
- Surprisingly, this LMS algorithm actually works, but its convergence analysis is extremely difficult
  - Stochastic gradient descent method is a widely used low-complexity optimisation approach

### **Analysis in Stationary Environment**

- Assuming u(k) and d(k) are jointly wide sense stationary and some other simplified assumptions:
  - Convergence in mean:

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \mathbf{E}[\widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k)] = \widehat{\mathbf{w}} \text{ provided that } 0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}}$$

- Convergence in mean square: where  $J(\infty)$   $(> J_{\min})$  is finite,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} J(k) = J(\infty) \text{ if and only if } 0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}} \text{ and } \sum_{i=0}^{M} \frac{\mu \lambda_i}{2(1-\mu\lambda_i)} < 1$$

• Steady state mean square error is given by

$$J(\infty) = \frac{J_{\min}}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \mu \lambda_i / (1 - \mu \lambda_i)}$$

• Excess mean square error is defined as

$$J_{\text{ex}}(\infty) = J(\infty) - J_{\min} = J_{\min} \times \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \mu \lambda_i / (1 - \mu \lambda_i)}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \mu \lambda_i / (1 - \mu \lambda_i)}$$

• Misadjustment is defined by

$$\mathcal{M} = \frac{J_{\text{ex}}(\infty)}{J_{\text{min}}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \mu \lambda_i / (1 - \mu \lambda_i)}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \mu \lambda_i / (1 - \mu \lambda_i)}$$





# Influence of Eigenvalue Spread

• Define the average eigenvalue

$$\lambda_{\rm av} = \frac{1}{M+1} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \lambda_i$$

and the average time constant of the LMS algorithm

$$\tau_{\rm mse,av} = \frac{-1}{2\log(|1-\mu\lambda_{\rm av}|)} \approx \frac{1}{2\mu\lambda_{\rm av}}$$

• If step size is chosen as  $\mu \ll \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}}$ , condition for convergence in mean square becomes:  $0 < \mu < \frac{2}{\sum_{i=0}^{M} \lambda_i}$ . With this choice of  $\mu$ , the misadjustment is approximately by

$$\mathcal{M} \approx \frac{\mu}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \lambda_i = \frac{\mu(M+1)\lambda_{\mathrm{av}}}{2} \approx \frac{M+1}{4\tau_{\mathrm{mse,av}}}$$

- Noting that  $\mathcal{M} \propto \mu$  and  $\tau_{\text{mse,av}} \propto \frac{1}{\mu}$ , a careful trade off is required in choosing  $\mu$ : small  $\mu$  leads to small  $\mathcal{M}$  but large  $\mu$  leads to fast convergence
- Noting that  $\tau_{\text{mse,av}} \approx \frac{1}{\mu \lambda_{\min}} \propto \chi(\mathbf{R})$ , the rate of convergence is determined by the eigenvalue spread: in general, when  $\chi(\mathbf{R})$  is large, the LMS converges slowly
  - LMS works well if  $\chi(\mathbf{R})$  is small, and if  $\chi(\mathbf{R}) = 1$  its convergence performance is as good as recursive least squares algorithm

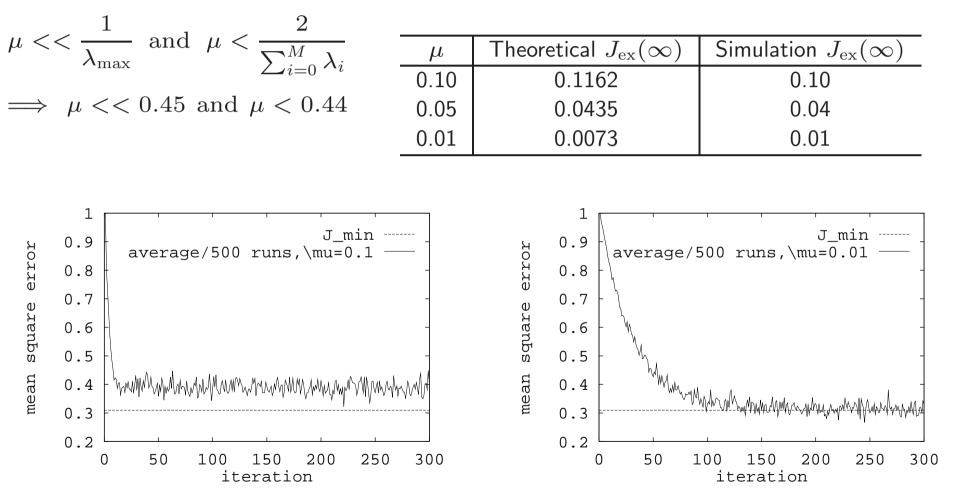


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# Example

• Example as in Slide 190 but the LMS is used is used. In computer simulation,  $E[\tilde{w}(k)]$  and J(k) are approximated using sample averages over 500 different runs





#### Least Squares Estimate

MMSE estimate is based on ensemble average, while least squares estimate relies only on available samples {u(k), d(k)}<sup>K</sup><sub>k=1</sub>: From slide 230, we can express desired output as

$$d^*(k) = \mathbf{u}^H(k)\mathbf{w} + e^*(k)$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} d^*(1) \\ d^*(2) \\ \vdots \\ d^*(K) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}^H(1) \\ \mathbf{u}^H(2) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}^H(K) \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{w} + \begin{bmatrix} e^*(1) \\ e^*(2) \\ \vdots \\ e^*(K) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{d}^* = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{e}^*$$

- From  $\mathbf{U}^{H}\mathbf{d}^{*} = \mathbf{U}^{H}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{U}^{H}\mathbf{e}^{*}$ , since input data are uncorrelated with noise,  $\mathbf{U}^{H}\mathbf{e}^{*} \approx \mathbf{0}$ , LS estimate is given by

$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}}_{ ext{LS}} = \left(\mathbf{U}^{H}\mathbf{U}
ight)^{-1}\mathbf{U}^{H}\mathbf{d}^{*}$$

• Recursive least squares algorithm with forgetting factor  $\lambda$  and initial covariance matrix  $\mathbf{P}(0)$ 

$$\mathbf{k}(k) = \frac{\lambda^{-1} \mathbf{P}(k-1) \mathbf{u}(k)}{1 + \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{u}^{H}(k) \mathbf{P}(k-1) \mathbf{u}(k)}$$
$$e(k) = d(k) - \widehat{\mathbf{w}}^{H}(k-1) \mathbf{u}(k)$$
$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}}(k) = \widehat{\mathbf{w}}(k-1) + \mathbf{k}(k) e^{*}(k)$$
$$\mathbf{P}(k) = \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{P}(k-1) - \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{k}(k) \mathbf{u}^{H}(k) \mathbf{P}(k-1)$$



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### Summary

- Wiener (MMSE) solution:  $\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{p}$ 
  - MSE surface  $J(\mathbf{w}) = \sigma_d^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{w}^H \mathbf{R} \mathbf{w} = J_{\min} + (\mathbf{w} \widehat{\mathbf{w}})^H \mathbf{R} (\mathbf{w} \widehat{\mathbf{w}})$  is quadratic with the MMSE given by  $J_{\min} = \sigma_d^2 \mathbf{p}^H \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$
  - Steepest-descent algorithm and convergence analysis
- The LMS algorithm:

$$y(k) = \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}^{H}(k)\mathbf{u}(k), \ e(k) = d(k) - y(k), \ \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k+1) = \widetilde{\mathbf{w}}(k) + \mu \mathbf{u}(k)e^{*}(k)$$

- Sufficient conditions for stationary convergence of the LMS

$$\mu << rac{1}{\lambda_{\max}} ext{ and } 0 < \mu < rac{2}{\sum_{i=0}^{M} \lambda_i}$$

- Misadjustment and convergence rate of the LMS:

$$\mathcal{M} \approx \frac{\mu}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M} \lambda_i \Longrightarrow \mathcal{M} \propto \mu \qquad \tau_{\mathrm{mse,av}} \approx \frac{1}{2\mu\lambda_{\mathrm{av}}} \Longrightarrow \text{convergence time } \propto \frac{1}{\mu}$$

- Effect of eigenvalue spread: the larger eigenvalue spread, the slower convergence rate of LMS
- Least squares estimate and recursive least squares algorithm

