# Adaptive Signal Processing

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- Thank you for the feedback on the teaching evaluation
- Logistics for next lectures

Date	Lecture	Lecture Topic	Reading
6-Aug	10	Adaptive signal processing	
8-Aug	11	The discrete Fourier transform (DFT)	8.1-8.7
13-Aug	12	Spectrum analysis with the DFT	10.1 - 10.6
15-Aug	13	Review and conclusions	

- $\blacktriangleright$  HW6 will be assigned today and covers primarily lectures 10 and 11
- > You can choose to take the final exam on either 8/16 or 8/17

## Outline

Theory

The adaptive linear combiner and its performance surface Adaptation algorithms

Application examples Linear equalization Noise canceling Inverse control

## The adaptive linear combiner



We would like to *tune* the weights  $w_1, \ldots, w_M$  to minimize the error  $\epsilon_k$  according to some performance metric.

In this lecture we will address the following questions:

- 1. What is the best set of weights  $w_1^\star, \ldots, w_M^\star$ ?
- 2. How to adapt the weights  $w_1, \ldots, w_M$  to approximately achieve  $w_1^{\star}, \ldots, w_M^{\star}$ ?

## The mean square error

The mean-square error (MSE) is a convenient and sensible performance metric

$$MSE = \xi = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_k^2)$$
 (by definition)  
$$= \mathbb{E}((d_k - X_k^T W)^2)$$
 (as  $\varepsilon_k = d_k - X_k^T W$ )  
$$= \mathbb{E}(d_k^2) - 2 \mathbb{E}(d_k X_k^T) W + W^T \mathbb{E}(X_k X_k^T) W$$

The MSE is a quadratic function of the weights. There's only one minimum.



## The performance surface

$$MSE = \xi = \mathbb{E}(d_k^2) - 2 \mathbb{E}(d_k X_k^T) W + W^T \mathbb{E}(X_k X_k^T) W$$

To ease the notation we make a few definitions

 $P \equiv \mathbb{E}(d_k X_k)$  (Cross-correlation between input and desired response)  $R \equiv \mathbb{E}(X_k X_k^T)$  (Autocorrelation matrix)

More explicitly:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}(d_k x_{1k}) \\ \mathbb{E}(d_k x_{2k}) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}(d_k x_{Mk}) \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad R = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}(x_{1k} x_{1k}) & \mathbb{E}(x_{1k} x_{2k}) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(x_{1k} x_{nk}) \\ \mathbb{E}(x_{2k} x_{1k}) & \mathbb{E}(x_{2k} x_{2k}) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(x_{2k} x_{nk}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}(x_{nk} x_{1k}) & \mathbb{E}(x_{nk} x_{2k}) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(x_{nk} x_{nk}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Substituting  $P = \mathbb{E}(d_k X_k)$  and  $R = \mathbb{E}(X_k X_k^T)$  in our equation for the MSE results in

$$MSE = \xi = \mathbb{E}(d_k^2) - 2P^T W + W^T R W$$

The minimum of the quadratic function is where the first derivative is zero:

$$\frac{d}{dW}MSE = 0 \implies W^* = R^{-1}P \qquad (Wiener solution)$$

The **Wiener solution** is the set of weights  $W^*$  that minimize the MSE.

At the Wiener solution, the MSE is minimum

$$MSE|_{W=W^{\star}} = \xi_{min} = E(d_k^2) - P^T R^{-1} P$$
 (Minimum MSE)

At the Wiener solution, the error is **orthogonal** to the input. In statistical terms, the error is **uncorrelated** to the input.

$$\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_k X_k)\Big|_{W=W^{\star}} = 0 \qquad \qquad \text{(orthogonality principle)}$$

This property is known as the **orthogonality principle**, and it is true for all least-squares solution.

## An FIR filter as a linear combiner

The input to the adaptive linear combiner is  $X = [x[n], x[n-1], \dots, x[n-M+1]]^T$ 



The resulting FIR filter has coefficients  $\{w_1, \ldots, w_M\}$ .

The optimal filter coefficients are given by the Wiener solution

$$W^{\star} = R^{-1}P$$

And we can compute the vector  $\boldsymbol{P}$  and matrix  $\boldsymbol{R}$  as we did before

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}(d[n]x[n]) \\ \mathbb{E}(d[n]x[n-1]) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}(d[n]x[n-N]) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}(x[n]x[n]) & \mathbb{E}(x[n]x[n-1]) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(x[n]x[n-N]) \\ \mathbb{E}(x[n-1]x[n]) & \mathbb{E}(x[n-1]x[n-1]) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(x[n-1]x[n-N]) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}(x[n-N]x[n]) & \mathbb{E}(x[n-N]x[n-1]) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(x[n-N]x[n-N]) \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall that the autocorrelation function is defined by

$$\phi_{xx}[m] = \mathbb{E}(x[n+m]x^*[n])$$

Now we're just writing it in matrix form

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{xx}[0] & \phi_{xx}[1] & \dots & \phi_{xx}[N] \\ \phi_{xx}[1] & \phi_{xx}[0] & \dots & \phi_{xx}[N-1] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_{xx}[N] & \phi_{xx}[N-1] & \dots & \phi_{xx}[0] \end{bmatrix}$$

In Matlab:

>> phi\_xx = xcorr(x, x, N)
>> R = toeplitz(phi\_xx(N+1:end))

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## Adaptation algorithms



**Problem:** We know that  $W^* = R^{-1}P$ , but in practice, R and P are either unknown or hard to compute/estimate. How can we find some W such that  $W \approx W^*$ ?

- 1. Newton's method
- 2. Steepest descent
- 3. The least-mean squares (LMS) algorithm

## Adaptation algorithms: Newton's method

 $W \leftarrow W - \mu R^{-1} \nabla$  (adaptation equation)

where  $\mu$  is the adaptation constant, and  $\nabla$  is the gradient of the MSE, i.e.,  $\nabla \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial W}$ MSE.



 $R^{-1}$  scales and directs the step to  $W^*$ . Convergence happens in one step! **Problem:** requires knowledge of R and  $\nabla$ .

## Adaptation algorithms: steepest descent



(adaptation equation)

- $\blacktriangleright$  W is adapted in the direction of **steepest descent** of the gradient
- Must estimate the gradient  $\nabla$  somehow.

The **least mean squares (LMS)** algorithm is a form of steepest descent where the gradient is estimated from the **instantaneous error** 

$$\varepsilon_n^2 = (d_n - X_n^T W)^2$$
 (instantaneous error)

$$\hat{\nabla} = \frac{\partial \varepsilon_n}{\partial W} = 2(d_n - X_n^T W) X_n = 2\varepsilon_n X_n \qquad (\text{gradient estimate})$$

 $W \leftarrow W + 2\mu e_n X_n$  (LMS weight update)

Gradient estimate is very noisy, but on average the weights *generally* move to the Wiener solution.

The LMS algorithm:

Initialize the weights to some value  $W \leftarrow W_0$ For each input and desired response pair  $(X_n, d_n)$ : Compute the output  $y_n = X_n^T W$ Compute the instantaneous error  $e_n = (d_n - y_n)$ Update the weights:  $W \leftarrow W + 2\mu e_n X_n$ 

end

If X is complex, then the adaptation equation changes slightly  $W \leftarrow W + 2\mu e_n X_n^*$ .

## Learning curve

- $\blacktriangleright$  The learning curve is a plot of the average MSE  $\mathbb{E}(e_n^2)$  over time.
- ► To obtain an empirical learning curve, we run the LMS algorithm N times with different weight initializations.
- ▶ For each run, we obtain a MSE curve  $MSE^{(1)}, \ldots, MSE^{(N)}$  i.e.,  $MSE^{(i)} = e_n^2$ .
- Then we average the result

$$\mathbb{E}(\xi_k^2) \approx \frac{\mathrm{MSE}^{(1)} + \ldots + \mathrm{MSE}^{(N)}}{N}$$
(1)

▶ The learning curve is a sum of decaying exponentials with time constants

$$( au_{MSE})_n pprox rac{1}{4\mu\lambda_n}$$
 iterations

(Steepest descent & LMS)

where  $\lambda_n$  is the *n*th eigenvalue of matrix *R*.

## Learning curve

### Example of learning curve



# Stability of the LMS algorithm

- The constant  $\mu > 0$  is known as the **adaptation constant**.
- If  $\mu$  is too small, the algorithm will take too long to converge (small steps).
- If  $\mu$  is too large, the algorithm can become unstable.
- It can be shown that stability is guarantee if

$$0 < \mu < \frac{1}{\text{trace}R}$$
 (stability condition)

where trace is the sum of all elements in the main diagonal of a matrix.

▶ When applying the LMS algorithm to determine the coefficients of an *M*th-order FIR filter we have that  $traceR = (M + 1)\phi_{xx}[0]$ .

## Excess noise and misadjustment

Error in the gradient estimate leads to excess MSE



(definition)

For the LMS algorithm:

 $M = \mu \operatorname{trace}(R)$ 

## Parameters to tune

- Number of weights
- Adaptation constant  $\mu$

## What to look for

- Minimum MSE: is the number of weights high enough?
- ▶ Time constants: how fast will the adaptive algorithm reach the minimum MSE?
- Excess MSE or misadjustment: how oscillatory are the solutions produced by the adaptive algorithm near the optimal solution?

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## Linear equalization with decision-directed learning



## Eye diagram before and after equalization



Figure 1: (a) Before and (b) after equalization.

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## Noise canceling



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# Examples of noise canceling applications

Canceling 60Hz interference from biological signals.



## Examples of noise canceling applications



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## Inverse control

 In control problems we would like to make a plant (a system) respond to a given command and produce a desired output (e.g., setting the room temperature, controlling the blood pressure of a patient, etc)



- We use adaptive filters for two basic operations in control problems
  - Plant identification
  - Plant inversion

## Basic operations: plant identification

The adaptive filter models the plant



## Basic operations: plant inverse

The adaptive filter models the inverse of the plant



We need to consider what happens if the plant is **non-minimum phase**. That is, if it has zeros outside the unit circle (unstable inverse).

- For any discrete-time system H(z), we can write  $H(z) = H_{min}(z)H_{ap}(z)$ , where  $H_{min}(z)$  is a minimum phase system, and  $H_{ap}(z)$  is an all-pass system.
- The adaptive filter will converge to  $H_{min}^{-1}(z)$ , and it'll not compensate for phase distortion (and delay) due to  $H_{ap}(z)$ .

# Summary

- > The linear combiner is the basis of adaptive systems and adaptive filtering
- ▶ We use the mean square error (MSE) as the performance metric
- ▶ The Wiener solution is the optimal set of weights that minimizes the MSE
- The LMS algorithm is a simple way to train the adaptive filter to approximate the Wiener solution
- ▶ The LMS algorithm uses the instantaneous error to obtain an estimate of the gradient
- > This estimate is very noisy, but on average it converges to the Wiener solution
- ▶ We adjust the adaption constant to control how fast the LMS algorithm converges and how noisy the solutions near the Wiener solution (excess noise and misadjustment)