Chapter 13 Mean Square Estimation

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<u>13-1 Introduction</u>

Concern:

• To estimate the random process $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$ in terms of another related process $\boldsymbol{x}(\xi)$ for $a \leq \xi \leq b$.

Theorem 13-1 The best linear estimator of s(t) in terms of $\{x(\xi) : a \le \xi \le b\}$, which is of the form

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) = \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t) \boldsymbol{x}(\alpha) d\alpha$$

and which minimizes the MS error $P_t = E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))^2]$, satisfies

$$R_{sx}(t,s) = \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha,t) R_{xx}(\alpha,s) d\alpha \text{ for } a \le s \le b$$

Proof:

$$P_{t} = E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))^{2}]$$

= $E[\boldsymbol{s}^{2}(t)] + \int_{a}^{b} \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)h(\beta, t)E[\boldsymbol{x}(\alpha)\boldsymbol{x}(\beta)]d\alpha d\beta - 2\int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)E[\boldsymbol{s}(t)\boldsymbol{x}(\alpha)]d\alpha$
= $R_{ss}(0) + \int_{a}^{b} \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)h(\beta, t)R_{xx}(\alpha, \beta)d\alpha d\beta - 2\int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)R_{sx}(t, \alpha)d\alpha.$

<u>13-1 Introduction</u>

Under Riemann integrability assumption,

$$\frac{\partial P_t}{\partial h(s,t)} = \underbrace{\left(\int_{a,\beta\neq s}^{b} h(\beta,t) R_{xx}(s,\beta) d\beta + \int_{a,\alpha\neq s}^{b} h(\alpha,t) R_{xx}(\alpha,s) d\alpha + 2h(s,t) R_{xx}(s,s)\right)}_{\text{conceptually}} -2R_{sx}(t,s)$$

$$= 2\int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha,t) R_{xx}(s,\alpha) d\alpha - 2R_{sx}(t,s).$$

Remark

• The minimum MS error is given by:

$$P_t = R_{ss}(0) + \int_a^b h(\alpha, t) \left(\int_a^b h(\beta, t) R_{xx}(\alpha, \beta) d\beta \right) d\alpha - 2 \int_a^b h(\alpha, t) R_{sx}(t, \alpha) d\alpha$$

$$= R_{ss}(0) + \int_a^b h(\alpha, t) R_{sx}(t, \alpha) d\alpha - 2 \int_a^b h(\alpha, t) R_{sx}(t, \alpha) d\alpha$$

$$= R_{ss}(0) - \int_a^b h(\alpha, t) R_{sx}(t, \alpha) d\alpha.$$

Orthogonality of Optimal MS Estimation

Theorem 13-1' Following Theorem 13-1, we also have:

$$E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))\boldsymbol{x}(\xi)] = 0 \text{ for } a \leq \xi \leq b.$$

Proof:

$$E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))\boldsymbol{x}(\xi)] = E[\boldsymbol{s}(t)\boldsymbol{x}(\xi)] - \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)E[\boldsymbol{x}(\alpha)\boldsymbol{x}(\xi)]d\alpha$$
$$= R_{sx}(t,\xi) - \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)R_{xx}(\alpha,\xi)d\alpha$$
$$= R_{sx}(t,\xi) - R_{sx}(t,\xi) = 0.$$

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Orthogonality principle

- Linear estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t)$ that minimizes $E[\langle \boldsymbol{s}(t) \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t), \boldsymbol{s}(t) \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) \rangle] = E[\|\boldsymbol{s}(t) \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t)\|^2]$ should satisfy $E[\langle \boldsymbol{s}(t) \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t), \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) \rangle] = 0.$
- This may not be true for a non-linear estimator! (Note that the linear combination of $\{x(\xi), a \leq \xi \leq b\}$ spans a hyperplane in an inner product space.)

Terminologies

Terminologies. With [a, b] = data interval,

- If $t \in [a, b]$, the estimate operation of $\hat{s}(t)$ is called *smoothing*.
- If t > b and $\boldsymbol{x}(\xi) = \boldsymbol{s}(\xi)$, $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t)$ is called *forward predictor*.
- If t < a and $\boldsymbol{x}(\xi) = \boldsymbol{s}(\xi)$, $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t)$ is called *backward predictor*.
- If $t \notin [a, b]$ and $\boldsymbol{x}(\xi) \neq \boldsymbol{s}(\xi)$, the estimate operation of $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t)$ is called *filtering* and prediction.

Forward Prediction Under Stationarity

Theorem 13-1 The best linear estimator of s(t) in terms of $\{s(\xi) : a \le \xi \le b\}$, which is of the form

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) = \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t) \boldsymbol{s}(\alpha) d\alpha$$

and which minimizes the MS error $P = E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))^2]$, satisfies

$$R_{ss}(t,s) = \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha,t) R_{ss}(\alpha,s) d\alpha \text{ for } a \le s \le b$$

In addition,

$$P_t = R_{ss}(0) - \int_a^b h(\alpha, t) R_{ss}(t, \alpha) d\alpha.$$

• If $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$ is stationary, a = b (i.e., $\xi = a = b$) and $t = a + \lambda$, we have s = a and

$$R_{ss}(\lambda) = h(a, a + \lambda)R_{ss}(0)$$

$$\Rightarrow h(a, a+\lambda) = \frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)} \text{ and } \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(a+\lambda) = \frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)} \boldsymbol{s}(a) \text{ and } P_{a+\lambda} = R_{ss}(0) - \frac{R_{ss}^2(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}$$

Forward Prediction Under Stationarity

Theorem 13-1'

$$E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))\boldsymbol{s}(\xi)] = 0 \text{ for } a \leq \xi \leq b.$$

If $E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))\boldsymbol{s}(\xi)] = 0$ for $\xi < a$, then $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t)$ is the best linear predictor of $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$ in terms of $\{\boldsymbol{s}(\xi), \xi \leq b\}$, although it only uses the information of $\{\boldsymbol{s}(\xi), a \leq \xi \leq b\}$.

If
$$\frac{R_{ss}(v)}{R_{ss}(u)} = \frac{R_{ss}(0)}{R_{ss}(u-v)}$$
 for any $u \ge v$, then for $\xi < a$,

$$E[(\mathbf{s}(t) - \hat{\mathbf{s}}(t))\mathbf{s}(\xi)] = R_{ss}(t-\xi) - \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)R_{ss}(\alpha - \xi)d\alpha$$

$$= R_{ss}(t-\xi) \left(1 - \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)\frac{R_{ss}(\alpha - \xi)}{R_{ss}(t-\xi)}d\alpha\right)$$

$$= R_{ss}(t-\xi) \left(1 - \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t)\frac{R_{ss}(\alpha)}{R_{ss}(t)}d\alpha\right)$$

$$= 0.$$

If, in addition, a = b in the above case, s(t) is named the *wide-sense Markov of* order 1 (i.e., best linear prediction based on **one** point is the best prediction based on the entire past.)

Theorem 13-1 The best linear estimator of s(t) in terms of $\{x_i(\xi) : a \leq \xi \leq b\}_{i=1}^k$, which is of the form

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \int_{a}^{b} h_{i}(\alpha, t) \boldsymbol{x}_{i}(\alpha) d\alpha$$

and which minimizes the MS error $P_t = E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))^2]$, satisfies

$$R_{sx_i}(t,s) = \sum_{\ell=1}^k \int_a^b h_i(\alpha,t) R_{x_\ell x_i}(\alpha,s) d\alpha \text{ for } a \le s \le b \text{ and } 1 \le i \le k.$$

Proof: A different proof is used here. The optimal estimator should satisfy:

$$E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))\boldsymbol{x}_i(\xi)] = 0 \text{ for } a \leq \xi \leq b \text{ and } 1 \leq i \leq k.$$

Hence,

$$R_{sx_i}(t,\xi) = \sum_{\ell=1}^n \int_a^b h_\ell(\alpha,t) R_{x_\ell x_i}(\alpha,\xi) d\alpha.$$

Theorem 13-1 Revisited

Example. If $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$ is real and stationary, a = b, $t = a + \lambda$, $\boldsymbol{x}_1(t) = \boldsymbol{s}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_2(t) = \boldsymbol{s}'(t)$, then

$$\begin{cases} R_{ss}(a+\lambda,a) = h_1(a,a+\lambda)R_{ss}(a,a) + h_2(a,a+\lambda)R_{s's}(a,a) \\ = h_1(a,a+\lambda)R_{ss}(a,a) + h_2(a,a+\lambda)R_{ss'}(a,a) \\ R_{ss'}(a+\lambda,a) = h_1(a,a+\lambda)R_{ss'}(a,a) + h_2(a,a+\lambda)R_{s's'}(a,a) \end{cases}$$

which in turns implies:

$$\begin{cases} R_{ss}(\lambda) = h_1(a, a + \lambda)R_{ss}(0) - h_2(a, a + \lambda)R'_{ss}(0) \\ -R'_{ss}(\lambda) = -h_1(a, a + \lambda)R'_{ss}(0) - h_2(a, a + \lambda)R''_{ss}(0) \end{cases}$$

$$R_{ss'}(t_1, t_2) = \frac{\partial R_{ss}(t_1 - t_2)}{\partial t_2} = -R'_{ss}(t_1 - t_2)$$

and

$$R_{s's'}(t_1, t_2) = \frac{\partial R_{ss'}(t_1, t_2)}{\partial t_1} = -R_{ss}''(t_1 - t_2).$$

Theorem 13-1 Revisited

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} h_1(a, a+\lambda) = h_1(\lambda) = \frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)R_{ss}'(0) + R_{ss}'(\lambda)R_{ss}'(0)}{R_{ss}(0)R_{ss}'(0) + [R_{ss}'(0)]^2} = \frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)} \\ h_2(a, a+\lambda) = h_2(\lambda) = \frac{R_{ss}'(\lambda)R_{ss}(0) - R_{ss}'(0)R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)R_{ss}'(0) + [R_{ss}'(0)]^2} = \frac{R_{ss}'(\lambda)}{R_{ss}'(0)} \end{cases}$$

where it is reasonable to assume that $R'_{ss}(0) = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(a+\lambda) = \frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)} \boldsymbol{s}(a) + \frac{R'_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)} \boldsymbol{s}'(a).$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \Rightarrow P_t \ = \ E[(s(a+\lambda) - \hat{s}(a+\lambda))^2] \\ = \ E[s^2(a+\lambda)] + \left(\frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}\right)^2 E[s^2(a)] + \left(\frac{R'_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)}\right)^2 E[(s'(a))^2] \\ - 2\left(\frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}\right) E[s(a+\lambda)s(a)] - 2\left(\frac{R'_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)}\right) E[s(a+\lambda)s'(a)] \\ + 2\left(\frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}\right) \left(\frac{R'_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)}\right) E[s(a)s'(a)] \\ = \ R_{ss}(0) + \left(\frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}\right)^2 R_{ss}(0) - \left(\frac{R'_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)}\right)^2 R''_{ss}(0) \\ - 2\left(\frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}\right) R_{ss}(\lambda) + 2\left(\frac{R'_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)}\right) R'_{ss}(\lambda) - 2\underbrace{\left(\frac{R_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)}\right)}_{R''_{ss}(0)} \frac{R''_{ss}(\lambda)}{R''_{ss}(0)} R''_{ss}(0) \\ = \ R_{ss}(0) - \frac{R^2_{ss}(\lambda)}{R_{ss}(0)} + \frac{(R'_{ss}(\lambda))^2}{R''_{ss}(0)}. \end{array}$$

Filtering Under Stationarity

Theorem 13-1 The best linear estimator of s(t) in terms of $\{x(\xi) : a \le \xi \le b\}$, which is of the form

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) = \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha, t) \boldsymbol{x}(\alpha) d\alpha$$

and which minimizes the MS error $P_t = E[(\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t))^2]$, satisfies

$$R_{sx}(t,s) = \int_{a}^{b} h(\alpha,t) R_{xx}(\alpha,s) d\alpha \text{ for } a \le s \le b.$$

• If $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ are joint stationary and t = a = b, we have s = t and

$$R_{sx}(0) = h(t,t)R_{ss}(0)$$
$$\Rightarrow h(t,t) = h = \frac{R_{sx}(0)}{R_{ss}(0)} \text{ and } \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t) = \frac{R_{sx}(0)}{R_{ss}(0)}\boldsymbol{x}(t) \text{ and } P_t = R_{ss}(0) - \frac{R_{sx}^2(0)}{R_{ss}(0)}$$

Interpolation

Concern

• To estimate, in the MS sense, $s(t + \lambda)$ in terms of $\{s(t + kT)\}_{k=-N}^{N}$:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t+\lambda) = \sum_{k=-N}^{N} a_k \boldsymbol{s}(t+kT).$$

By using the **orthogonality principle** (and implicitly, the assumption of real s(t)):

$$E\left\{\left[\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda)-\sum_{k=-N}^{N}a_{k}\boldsymbol{s}(t+kT)\right]\boldsymbol{s}(t+nT)\right\}=0,$$

we obtain

$$\sum_{k=-N}^{N} a_k R_{ss}(kT - nT) = R_{ss}(\lambda - nT) \text{ for } -N \le n \le N.$$

In addition,

$$P_t = E\left\{\left[\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda) - \sum_{k=-N}^N a_k \boldsymbol{s}(t+kT)\right] \boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda)\right\} = R_{ss}(0) - \sum_{k=-N}^N a_k R_{ss}(\lambda-kT).$$

Note: If s(t) is complex, we should use $s^*(t + nT)$ and $s^*(t + \lambda)$ instead.

Interpolation

Theorem 10-9 (Stochastic sampling theorem) If s(t) is BL with bandwidth σ , then

$$\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin[\sigma(\lambda - kT)]}{\sigma(\lambda - kT)} \boldsymbol{s}(t+kT) \quad \text{(in the MS sense)},$$

where $T = \pi / \sigma$.

Example. Let $S_{ss}(\omega) = 1$ for $|\omega| < \sigma$ and zero, otherwise. Then,

$$R_{ss}(\tau) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{ss}(\omega) e^{j\omega\tau} d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\sigma}^{\sigma} e^{j\omega\tau} d\omega = \frac{\sin(\tau\sigma)}{\pi\tau}$$

We thus derive for $T\sigma = \pi$ that

$$\sum_{k=-N}^{N} a_k \frac{\sin((kT - nT)\sigma)}{\pi(kT - nT)} = \frac{\sin((\lambda - nT)\sigma)}{\pi(\lambda - nT)} \text{ for } -N \le n \le N$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{k=-N}^{N} a_k \frac{\sin(\pi(k - n))}{\pi(k - n)} = \frac{T\sin(\sigma(\lambda - nT))}{\pi(\lambda - nT)} \text{ for } -N \le n \le N$$

$$\Leftrightarrow a_n = \frac{\sin(\sigma(\lambda - nT))}{\sigma(\lambda - nT)} \text{ for } -N \le n \le N$$

Example for Smoothing

$\mathbf{Concern}$

• To estimate (real WSS) $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$ in terms of $\{\boldsymbol{x}(\xi), -\infty < \xi < \infty\}$ with WSS $\boldsymbol{x}(t) = \boldsymbol{s}(t) + \boldsymbol{v}(t)$.

Using the orthogonality principle:

$$E\left\{\left[\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\alpha, t)\boldsymbol{x}(t-\alpha)d\alpha\right]\boldsymbol{x}(t-\xi)\right\} = 0 \text{ for } -\infty < \xi < \infty,$$

or equivalently,

$$R_{sx}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\alpha, t) R_{xx}(\xi - \alpha) d\alpha$$

This gives that

$$H(\omega;t) = H(\omega) = \frac{S_{sx}(\omega)}{S_{xx}(\omega)}$$

which is named the noncausal Wiener filter.

Assume $\boldsymbol{v}(t)$ is zero-mean and is independent of $\boldsymbol{s}(t)$. Then,

$$R_{sx}(\tau) = E[\boldsymbol{s}(t+\tau)(\boldsymbol{s}(t)+\boldsymbol{v}(t))] = R_{ss}(\tau)$$

$$R_{xx}(\tau) = E[(s(t+\tau) + v(t+\tau))(s(t) + v(t))] = R_{ss}(\tau) + R_{vv}(\tau).$$

Example for Smoothing

In such case, the best filter is:

$$H(\omega) = \frac{S_{ss}(\omega)}{S_{ss}(\omega) + S_{vv}(\omega)},$$

which is real and symmetric (because $R_{ss}(\tau)$ is real and symmetric, and $R_{vv}(\tau)$ is real and symmetric). And

$$P_{t} = E\left\{\left[\boldsymbol{s}(t) - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\alpha, t)\boldsymbol{x}(t-\alpha)d\alpha\right]\boldsymbol{s}(t)\right\}$$

$$= R_{ss}(0) - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\alpha)R_{ss}(\alpha)d\alpha$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{ss}(\omega)d\omega - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\omega)e^{j\omega\alpha}d\omega\right)\left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{ss}(\omega')e^{j\omega'\alpha}d\omega'\right)d\alpha$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{ss}(\omega)d\omega - \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(-\omega')S_{ss}(\omega')d\omega'$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{S_{ss}(\omega)S_{vv}(\omega)}{S_{ss}(\omega) + S_{vv}(\omega)}d\omega.$$

Conclusion: As long as there is no overlap in $S_{ss}(\omega)$ and $S_{vv}(\omega)$, P_t is zero!

The end of Section 13-1 Introduction

<u>13-2 Prediction</u>

Prediction of s[n] in terms of:

- Entire past: $\{s[n-k]\}_{k\geq 1}$
- r-step away past: $\{s[n-k]\}_{k\geq r}$
- Finite past: $\{s[n-k]\}_{r \le k \le N}$
- . . .

Assume throughout Section 13-2 that s[n] is stationary.

Prediction Based on Entire Past

- $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k, n] \boldsymbol{s}[n-k].$
- Orthogonality principle: For all $m \ge 1$,

$$0 = E[(\boldsymbol{s}[n] - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n])\boldsymbol{s}[n-m]] = R_{ss}[m] - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k,n]R_{ss}[m-k]$$

Hence, again under stationarity assumption, h[k, n] = h[k] is invariant in n.

• Therefore, the best prediction filter satisfies:

$$R_{ss}[m] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k] R_{ss}[m-k]$$
 for $m \ge 1$.

This is called the *Wiener-Höpf equation* (in digital form).

Property of Error Process

• $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n]$ is the response of the *predictor filter*

$$H[z] = h[1]z^{-1} + h[2]z^{-2} + \dots + h[k]z^{-k} + \dots$$

due to the input $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$.

• Hence, the error process defined as $\boldsymbol{e}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k]\boldsymbol{s}[n-k]$ is the response of the filter

$$\mathbf{E}[z] = 1 - H[z]$$

due to the input $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$.

- *Claim:* The error process $\boldsymbol{e}[n]$ is white. *Proof:*
 - $-\boldsymbol{e}[n]$ is orthogonal to $\boldsymbol{s}[n-m]$ for all $m \geq 1$.
 - $-\boldsymbol{e}[n-m]$ is a linear combination of $\boldsymbol{s}[n-m-\ell]$ for all $\ell \geq 0$.
 - Hence, $\boldsymbol{e}[n]$ is orthogonal to $\boldsymbol{e}[n-m]$ for all $m \geq 1$, and $R_{ee}[m] = P\delta[m]$, where $P = E[\boldsymbol{e}^2[n]] = E[\boldsymbol{e}[n]\boldsymbol{s}[n]]$ is the minimum MS power. \Box

Property of Error Process

Theorem 13-2 All zeros of E[z] satisfy $|z| \leq 1$.

Proof: If there exists a z_i such that $E[z_i] = 0$ and $|z_i| > 1$, then form a new error filter as:

$$\mathbf{E}_0[z] = \mathbf{E}[z] \frac{1 - z^{-1}/z_i^*}{1 - z_i z^{-1}}.$$

Then, by letting $z_i = |z_i|e^{j\theta_i}$ and $\omega' = \omega - \theta_i$, we have:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_{0}[e^{j\omega}]|^{2} &= |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^{2} \left| \frac{e^{j\omega} - e^{j\theta_{i}}/|z_{i}|}{e^{j\omega} - |z_{i}|e^{j\theta_{i}}|} \right|^{2} = |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^{2} \left| \frac{e^{j\omega'} - 1/|z_{i}|}{e^{j\omega'} - |z_{i}|} \right|^{2} \\ &= |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^{2} \frac{1 - (2/|z_{i}|)\cos(\omega') + 1/|z_{i}|^{2}}{1 - 2|z_{i}|\cos(\omega') + |z_{i}|^{2}} \\ &= |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^{2} \frac{1}{|z_{i}|^{2}} < |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^{2}. \end{split}$$

However,

$$P = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^2 S_{ss}[\omega] d\omega$$

is the minimum MS error that can be achieved, and $E_0[z]$ improves the minimum MS error. Thus, the desired contradiction is obtained.

The z-transform technique cannot be applied to solve the Wiener-Höpf Equation. If

$$R_{sx}[m] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k] R_{xx}[m-k] \text{ for all integer } m,$$

then $H[z] = S_{sx}[z]/S_{xx}[z]$, where

$$S_{xx}[z] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} R_{xx}[k] z^{-k} \quad \text{and} \quad S_{sx}[z] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} R_{sx}[k] z^{-k}$$

However,

$$R_{sx}[m] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k] R_{xx}[m-k] \text{ only for } m \ge 1.$$

Solving Wiener-Höpf Equation Under Regularity ¹³⁻²¹

Solving Wiener-Höpf equation under the assumption that s[n] is stationary and regular

• A regular process can be represented as the response of a causal finite-energy system due to a unit-power white-noise process i[n]. So,

$$\boldsymbol{s}[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k]$$

• Then, $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k] \boldsymbol{s}[n-k]$ can be written as

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} g[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k],$$

for some $\{g[k]\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ that minimizes the MS error.

• The orthogonality principle then gives that for all $m \ge 1$,

$$0 = E\left\{\left(s[n] - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} g[k]i[n-k]\right)i[n-m]\right\}$$

= $R_{si}[m] - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} g[k]R_{ii}[m-k] = R_{si}[m] - g[m],$

which implies $g[m] = R_{si}[m]$.

• By regularity,

$$R_{si}[m] = E[s[n]i[n-m]] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}[k]E\{i[n-k]i[n-m]\} = \mathbb{1}[m].$$

This concludes to the first important result:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k]$$

is the best linear predictor for a regular and stationary process

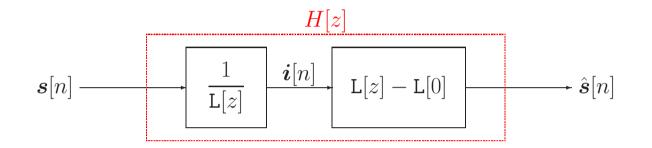
$$\boldsymbol{s}[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{1}[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k] \text{ and } P = \mathbf{1}^{2}[0].$$

• By noting that i[n] is the response of system 1/L[z] due to input s[n], and $\hat{s}[n]$ is the response of system L[z] - 1[0] due to input i[n], we obtain:

$$H[z] = \frac{1}{L[z]}(L[z] - 1[0]) = 1 - \frac{1[0]}{L[z]} = 1 - \frac{\lim_{z \uparrow \infty} L[z]}{L[z]}.$$

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If $S[\omega]$ is a rational spectrum, then L[z] can be obtained as follows.

•
$$S[z] = A((z+z^{-1})/2)/B((z+z^{-1})/2).$$

- Then the roots of S[z] are symmetric with respect to the unit circle.
 So, we can separate them into two groups: Inside group that consists of all roots with |z| < 1, and the outside group that consists of all roots with |z| > 1.
- Form L[z] by the ratio of two polynomials with the inside roots of S[z].

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Example 13-3 (Slide 11-16) $S_{ss}[\omega] = \frac{5 - 4\cos(\omega)}{10 - 6\cos(\omega)}$

Then, $L[z] = \frac{2 - z^{-1}}{3 - z^{-1}}$. In this case,

$$H[z] = 1 - \frac{\lim_{z \uparrow \infty} \mathbf{L}[z]}{\mathbf{L}[z]} = 1 - \frac{2/3}{\frac{2-z^{-1}}{3-z^{-1}}} = 1 - \frac{2 - (2/3)z^{-1}}{2-z^{-1}} = \frac{-(1/6)z^{-1}}{1 - (1/2)z^{-1}}.$$

Consequently,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] - \frac{1}{2}\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n-1] = -\frac{1}{6}\boldsymbol{s}[n-1]$$

or equivalently,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = -\frac{1}{6}\boldsymbol{s}[n-1] + \frac{1}{2}\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n-1].$$

Kolmogorov-Szego MS Error Formula

Appendix 12A A minimum-phase system L[z] satisfies

$$\log \mathbf{l}^2[0] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \log |\mathbf{L}[e^{j\omega}]|^2 d\omega.$$

Kolmogorov and Szego noted from the above result and $S_{ss}(\omega) = |\mathbf{L}[e^{j\omega}]|^2$ that

$$P = \mathbf{l}^2[0] = \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\log|\mathbf{L}[e^{j\omega}]|^2d\omega\right\} = \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\log S_{ss}[\omega]d\omega\right\}.$$

This is named the Kolmogorov-Szego MS Error Formula.

<u>Wide-Sense Markov of Order N</u>

• If $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is an autoregressive (AR) process, then (Slide 11-46)

$$L[z] = \frac{b_0}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_n z^{-N}}.$$

• Then,

$$H[z] = 1 - \frac{\lim_{z \uparrow \infty} \mathbf{L}[z]}{\mathbf{L}[z]} = 1 - \frac{b_0}{\frac{b_0}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_n z^{-N}}} = a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_n z^{-N},$$

which implies

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = -a_1 \boldsymbol{s}[n-1] - \cdots - a_N \boldsymbol{s}[n-N].$$

- Then, $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is called the wide-sense Markov of order N.
 - Best linear prediction based on the past N points is the best prediction based on the entire past.

r-Step Predictor

Concern

• To find the best linear estimator of $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$, in the MS sense, in terms of the *r*-step-away entire past, i.e., $\{\boldsymbol{s}[n-k]\}_{k\geq r}$.

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k]$$

is the best linear r-step predictor for a regular and stationary process

$$s[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{1}[k]i[n-k]$$
 and $P = \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} \mathbf{1}^{2}[k]$

Proof:

- A regular process can be represented as the response of a causal finite-energy system due to a unit-power white-noise process i[n]. So,

$$\boldsymbol{s}[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{1}[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k]$$

– Then, $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} h[k] \boldsymbol{s}[n-k]$ can be written as

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} g[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k],$$

for some $\{g[k]\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ that minimizes the MS error.

– The orthogonality principle then gives that for all $m \ge r$,

$$0 = E\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} g[k]\boldsymbol{i}[n-k]\right)\boldsymbol{i}[n-m]\right\}$$
$$= R_{si}[m] - \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} g[k]R_{ii}[m-k] = R_{si}[m] - g[m],$$

which implies $g[m] = R_{si}[m]$ for $m \ge r$.

- By regularity,

$$R_{si}[m] = E[\mathbf{s}[n]\mathbf{i}[n-m]] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}[k]E\{\mathbf{i}[n-k]\mathbf{i}[n-m]\} = \mathbb{1}[m].$$

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r-Step Predictor

• In addition, it can be derived that

$$H_r[z] = 1 - \frac{1}{L[z]} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} \mathbb{1}[k] z^{-k}.$$

Example 13-4 Suppose $R_{ss}[m] = a^{|m|}$ for 0 < a < 1. Then,

$$S_{ss}[z] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} R_{ss}[m] z^{-m} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a^m (z^{-m} + z^m) - 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - az^{-1}} + \frac{1}{1 - az} - 1 = \frac{1 - a^2}{(1 - az^{-1})(1 - az)}.$$

$$\Rightarrow L[z] = \frac{b}{1 - az^{-1}} = b(1 + az^{-1} + a^2 z^{-2} + \cdots), \text{ where } b = \sqrt{1 - a^2}.$$

$$\Rightarrow H_r[z] = 1 - \frac{1}{L[z]} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} 1[k] z^{-k}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{(1 - az^{-1})}{b} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} ba^k z^{-k}$$

$$= 1 - (1 - az^{-1})(1 + az^{-1} + a^2 z^{-2} + \cdots + a^{r-1} z^{-(r-1)}) = a^r z^{-r}$$

Analog Wiener-Höph Equation

Concern:

• To linearly estimate the random process $\mathbf{s}(t + \lambda)$ in terms of its entire past $\{\mathbf{s}(t - \tau), \tau \ge 0\}$ in the MS sense.

Analog Wiener-Höph equation

• Orthogonality principle:

$$E\left\{\left[\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda) - \int_{0}^{\infty} h(\alpha)\boldsymbol{s}(t-\alpha)d\alpha\right]\boldsymbol{s}(t-\tau)\right\} = 0 \text{ for all } \tau \ge 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \quad R_{ss}(\lambda+\tau) = \int_{0}^{\infty} h(\alpha)R_{ss}(\tau-\alpha)d\alpha \text{ for all } \tau \ge 0$$

The solution of (analog) Wiener-Höph equation is named the *causal Wiener* filter.

Solving Wiener-Höpf equation under the assumption that s(t) is stationary and regular.

• A regular process can be represented as the response of a causal finite-energy system due to a unit-power white-noise process i(t). So,

$$\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda) = \int_0^\infty \mathbf{1}(\alpha) \boldsymbol{i}(t+\lambda-\alpha) d\alpha.$$

• Then,
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t+\lambda) = \int_0^\infty h(\alpha) \boldsymbol{s}(t-\alpha) d\alpha$$
 can be written as

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t+\lambda) = \int_0^\infty g(\alpha) \boldsymbol{i}(t-\alpha) d\alpha,$$

for some $\{g(t)\}_{t\geq 0}$ that minimizes the MS error.

• The orthogonality principle then gives that for all $\tau \ge 0$,

$$0 = E\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda) - \int_0^\infty g(\alpha)\boldsymbol{i}(t-\alpha)d\alpha\right)\boldsymbol{i}(t-\tau)\right\}$$
$$= R_{si}(\lambda+\tau) - \int_0^\infty g(\alpha)R_{ii}(\tau-\alpha)d\alpha,$$

which implies $g(\tau) = R_{si}(\lambda + \tau)$.

• By regularity,

is

$$R_{si}(\lambda+\tau) = E[\boldsymbol{s}(t)\boldsymbol{i}(t-\lambda-\tau)] = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{1}(\alpha)E\{\boldsymbol{i}(t-\alpha)\boldsymbol{i}(t-\lambda-\tau)\}d\alpha = \mathbb{1}(\lambda+\tau).$$

This concludes to the first important result:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}(t+\lambda) = \int_0^\infty \mathbf{1}(\lambda+\alpha)\boldsymbol{i}(t-\alpha)d\alpha = \int_\lambda^\infty \mathbf{1}(\alpha)\boldsymbol{i}(t+\lambda-\alpha)d\alpha$$

the best linear predictor for a regular and stationary process
$$\boldsymbol{s}(t+\lambda) = \int_0^\infty \mathbf{1}(\alpha)\boldsymbol{i}(t+\lambda-\alpha)d\alpha \text{ and } P = \int_0^\lambda \mathbf{1}^2(\alpha)d\alpha.$$

• By noting that $\mathbf{i}(t)$ is the response of system 1/L(s) due to input $\mathbf{s}(t)$, and $\hat{\mathbf{s}}(t+\lambda)$ is the response of system $1(\tau+\lambda)\mathbf{1}\{\tau \geq 0\}$ due to input $\mathbf{i}(t)$, we obtain:

$$H(\omega) = \frac{1}{\mathsf{L}(\omega)} \int_0^\infty \mathbb{1}(\tau + \lambda) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau.$$

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Example 13-5 $R_{ss}(\tau) = 2\alpha e^{-\alpha|\tau|}$ with $0 < \alpha < 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \quad S_{ss}(\omega) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 2\alpha e^{-\alpha|\tau|} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{4\alpha^2}{\alpha^2 + \omega^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad S_{ss}(s) &= \frac{4\alpha^2}{\alpha^2 + \omega^2} \Big|_{\omega = -js} = \frac{4\alpha^2}{\alpha^2 - s^2} = \frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha + s)} \frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha - s)} = \mathbf{L}(s)\mathbf{L}(-s) \\ \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{L}(s) &= \frac{2\alpha}{\alpha + s} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{L}(\omega) &= \frac{2\alpha}{\alpha + j\omega} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{1}(\tau) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{2\alpha}{\alpha + j\omega} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\omega = 2\alpha e^{-\alpha\tau} \mathbf{1}\{\tau \ge 0\} \\ \Rightarrow \quad H(\omega) &= \frac{1}{(\omega)} \int_{0}^{\infty} \mathbf{1}(\tau + \lambda) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{1}{\mathbf{L}(\omega)} \int_{0}^{\infty} 2\alpha e^{-\alpha(\tau + \lambda)} \mathbf{1}\{\tau + \lambda \ge 0\} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau \\ &= \frac{1}{\mathbf{L}(\omega)} e^{-\alpha\lambda} \left(\int_{0}^{\infty} 2\alpha e^{-\alpha\tau} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau \right) = e^{-\alpha\lambda} \\ \Rightarrow \quad h(\tau) &= e^{-\alpha\lambda} \delta(\tau) \\ \Rightarrow \quad \hat{\mathbf{s}}(t + \lambda) &= \int_{0}^{\infty} h(\tau) \mathbf{s}(t - \tau) d\tau = e^{-\alpha\lambda} \mathbf{s}(t). \end{aligned}$$

An alternative way to express Wiener-Höpf equation

- The Wiener-Höpf equation only depends on $R_{ss}(\tau)$; hence, any process with the same autocorrelation function should result in the same predictor.
- (Slide 9-105) Define a process $\boldsymbol{z}(t) = e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}t}$, where $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ has density $A(\boldsymbol{\omega})$. Then,

$$R_{zz}(\tau) = E\left\{e^{j\omega(t+\tau)}e^{-j\omega t}\right\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(\omega)e^{j\omega\tau}d\tau$$

So, $\boldsymbol{z}(t)$ is a process with power spectrum $2\pi A(\omega)$.

• The best-MS linear predictor for $\boldsymbol{z}(t+\lambda)$ in terms of $\{\boldsymbol{z}(t-\tau)\}_{\tau\geq 0}$ is

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{z}}(t+\lambda) = \int_0^\infty h(\alpha) \boldsymbol{z}(t-\alpha) d\alpha = \int_0^\infty h(\alpha) e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}(t-\alpha)} d\alpha = e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega} t} H(\boldsymbol{\omega}),$$

and should satisfy

$$E\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{z}(t+\lambda) - \hat{\boldsymbol{z}}(t+\lambda)\right)\boldsymbol{z}^{*}(t-\tau)\right\} = 0 \text{ for } \tau \geq 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow E\left\{e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}(\lambda+\tau)} - e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}\tau}H(\boldsymbol{\omega})\right\} = 0 \text{ for } \tau \geq 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [A(\boldsymbol{\omega})e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}\lambda}]e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}\tau}d\boldsymbol{\omega} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(\boldsymbol{\omega})H(\boldsymbol{\omega})e^{j\boldsymbol{\omega}\tau}d\boldsymbol{\omega} \text{ for } \tau \geq 0$$

Example 13-5 Revisited. Let's confirm the alternative expression in terms of Example 13-5.

$$S_{zz}(\omega) = 2\pi A(\omega) = \frac{4\alpha^2}{\alpha^2 + \omega^2}$$

Then,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [A(\omega)e^{j\omega\lambda}]e^{j\omega\tau}d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{4\alpha^2}{(\alpha^2 + \omega^2)}e^{j\omega(\lambda + \tau)}d\omega = 2\alpha e^{-\alpha|\tau + \lambda|}$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(\omega)H(\omega)e^{j\omega\tau}d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{4\alpha^2}{(\alpha^2 + \omega^2)}e^{-\alpha\lambda}e^{j\omega\tau}d\omega = 2\alpha e^{-\alpha(|\tau| + \lambda)}$$

 $\Rightarrow |\tau + \lambda| = |\tau| + \lambda, \text{ which is valid only for } \tau \ge \max\{0, -\lambda\} = 0 \text{ (since } \lambda > 0)$ Note that it is erroneous to claim $A(\omega)e^{j\omega\lambda} = A(\omega)H(\omega)$ from

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [A(\omega)e^{j\omega\lambda}]e^{j\omega\tau}d\omega = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(\omega)H(\omega)e^{j\omega\tau}d\tau$$

because the equation holds only for $\tau \geq 0$.

<u>Predictable Processes</u>

Definition (Predictable processes) A process $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is *predictable* if it equals its linear predictor, i.e.,

$$\boldsymbol{s}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k]\boldsymbol{s}[n-k]$$

and there is no MS prediction error.

Formula for predictable processes.

• Let $\mathbf{E}[z] = 1 - H[z] = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k] z^{-k}$. Then, the prediction error equals $P = E[(\mathbf{s}[n] - \hat{\mathbf{s}}[n])\mathbf{s}[n]] = R_{ss}[0] - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} h[k] R_{ss}[k].$

Equivalently, (with WSS property,)

$$P = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}]|^2 S_{ss}[\omega] d\omega.$$

• For predictable processes, P = 0, which indicates from $S_{ss}[\omega] \ge 0$ that

 $S_{xx}[\omega] > 0$ only possibly at those ω 's with $\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega}] = 0$.

As $\mathbf{E}[z]$ is a polynomial of z^{-1} , it follows that for countably many ω_i ,

$$S_{ss}[\omega] = 2\pi \sum_{i} \alpha_i \delta(\omega - \omega_i)$$
 where $\mathbf{E}[e^{j\omega_i}] = 0.$

Predictable Processes

• This concludes that a process $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ that is a sum of exponentials:

$$\boldsymbol{s}[n] = \sum_{i} \boldsymbol{c}_{i} e^{j\omega_{i}n}$$
, where $\{\boldsymbol{c}_{i}\}$ uncorrelated and zero-mean

is predictable, and its prediction filter equals $H[z] = 1 - \mathbf{E}[z]$, where

$$\mathbf{E}[z] = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \left(1 - e^{j\omega_i} z^{-1}\right).$$

FIR Predictors

Concern

- To find the best linear estimator of $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$, in the MS sense, in terms of its N most recent past, i.e., $\{\boldsymbol{s}[n-k]\}_{1 \le k \le N}$.
- This is also named the *forward predictor* of order N.

Yule-Walker equations

• By orthogonality principle,

$$E\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \boldsymbol{s}[n-k]\right) \boldsymbol{s}[n-m]\right\} = 0 \text{ for } 1 \le m \le N.$$

This yields

$$R_{ss}[m] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k R_{ss}[m-k] = 0 \text{ for } 1 \le m \le N$$

or equivalently,

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{ss}[1] \\ R_{ss}[2] \\ \vdots \\ R_{ss}[N] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{ss}[0] & R_{ss}[-1] & \cdots & R_{ss}[1-N] \\ R_{ss}[1] & R_{ss}[0] & \cdots & R_{ss}[2-N] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R_{ss}[N-1] & R_{ss}[N-2] & \cdots & R_{ss}[0] \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_N \end{bmatrix}$$

FIR Predictors

• The MS estimate error is equal to:

$$P_N = E\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \boldsymbol{s}[n-k]\right) \boldsymbol{s}[n]\right\} = R_{ss}[0] - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k R_{ss}[-k].$$

• We can incorporate the above result into the Yule-Walker equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_N & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -a_1 & \cdots & -a_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R_{ss}[0] & R_{ss}[1] & R_{ss}[2] & \cdots & R_{ss}[N] \\ R_{ss}[-1] & R_{ss}[0] & R_{ss}[1] & \cdots & R_{ss}[N-1] \\ R_{ss}[-2] & R_{ss}[-1] & R_{ss}[0] & \cdots & R_{ss}[N-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R_{ss}[-N] & R_{ss}[1-N] & R_{ss}[2-N] & \cdots & R_{ss}[0] \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -a_1 & \cdots & -a_N \end{bmatrix} \mathbb{D}_{N+1}$$

Recall that for a square matrix \mathbb{D} :

$$\mathbb{D} \cdot \mathrm{Adj}(\mathbb{D}) = |A|\mathbb{I},$$

where $D_{i,j}$ is the cofactor of element $d_{i,j}$ in \mathbb{D} (specifically, $D_{i,j} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{i,j}$ and $M_{i,j}$ is the determinant of the matrix by removing those elements at the same row and the same column as $d_{i,j}$), and $\operatorname{Adj}(\mathbb{D}) = [D_{i,j}]^T$.

FIR Predictors

Hence,

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_N & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \operatorname{Adj}(\mathbb{D}_{N+1}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -a_1 & \cdots & -a_N \end{bmatrix} |\mathbb{D}_{N+1}|,$$

which implies $P_N |\mathbb{D}_N| = |\mathbb{D}_{N+1}|.$
• As a result, $P_N = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if for some } k \leq N, \ |\mathbb{D}_k| \neq 0 \text{ and } |\mathbb{D}_{k+1}| = 0 \\ \frac{|\mathbb{D}_{N+1}|}{|\mathbb{D}_N|}, \ |\mathbb{D}_N| \neq 0. \end{cases}$

Final note of the optimal $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^N$

• The optimal a_1 in a system of order N may be different from that in a system of order N + 1. This may cause some scalability problem in implementation.

Example. Suppose $R_{ss}[m] = \rho^{|m|}$ for $m = 0, \pm 1$, and **zero**, otherwise. Then, $a_1 = \rho$ and $P_1 = 1 - \rho^2$ when N = 1. $a_1 = \rho/(1-\rho^2), a_2 = -\rho^2/(1-\rho^2)$ and $P_2 = (1-2\rho^2)/(1-\rho^2)$ when N = 2.

Non-scalable straightforward structure

• The predictor error

$$\boldsymbol{e}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \boldsymbol{s}[n-k]$$

can be obtained by input $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ to the filter $H[z] = 1 - a_1 z^{-1} - \cdots - a_N z^{-N}$.

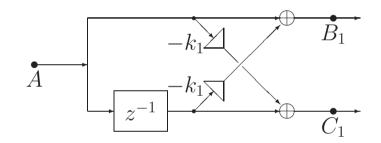
• The filter H[z] can be implemented using the ladder structure as follows.



• This structure is not scalable in coefficients $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^N$ (since coefficients $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^N$ are dependent on N).

Is there a scalable implementation structure?

- Denote the optimal $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^N$ in a system of order N as $\{a_k^{(N)}\}_{k=1}^N$.
- Consider the below lattice structure:



Denote the input at A as $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$.

Denote the outputs at B_1 and C_1 respectively by $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_1[n]$ and $\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_1[n]$. Then,

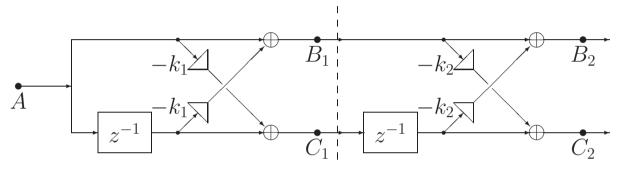
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_1[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - k_1 \boldsymbol{s}[n-1]$$

$$\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_1[n] = -k_1 \boldsymbol{s}[n] + \boldsymbol{s}[n-1]$$

So, the filters for output $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_1[n]$ and output $\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_1[n]$ are

$$\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[z] = 1 - k_{1}z^{-1} \check{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[z] = -k_{1} + z^{-1} = z^{-1}\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[1/z]$$

• Consider the below lattice structure:



Denote the input at A as $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$.

Denote the outputs at B_2 and C_2 respectively by $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_2[n]$ and $\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_2[n]$. Then,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{2}[n] = \hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{1}[n] - k_{2}\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{1}[n-1]$$
$$\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{2}[n] = -k_{2}\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{1}[n] + \check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{1}[n-1]$$

So, the filters for output $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_2[n]$ and output $\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_2[n]$ are

$$\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{2}[z] = \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[z] - k_{2}z^{-1}\check{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[z] \check{\mathbf{E}}_{2}[z] = -k_{2}\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[z] + z^{-1}\check{\mathbf{E}}_{1}[z]$$

• Continuing cascading more "lattices," we obtain

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N}[n] = \hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n] - k_{N}\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n-1]$$

$$\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N}[n] = -k_{N}\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n] + \check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n-1]$$

and

$$\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N}[z] = \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z] - k_{N}z^{-1}\check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z]
\check{\mathbf{E}}_{N}[z] = -k_{N}\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z] + z^{-1}\check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z]$$

Then, $\check{\mathbf{E}}_N[z] = z^{-N} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_N[1/z].$

Proof: Suppose
$$\check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z] = z^{-(N-1)} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[1/z]$$
. Then,

$$z^{-N} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N}[1/z] = z^{-N} \left(\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[1/z] - k_{N} z \check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[1/z] \right)$$

$$= z^{-N} \left(z^{N-1} \check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z] - k_{N} z (z^{N-1} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z]) \right)$$

$$= -k_{N} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z] + z^{-1} \check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z]$$

$$= \check{\mathbf{E}}_{N}[z].$$

• By $\check{\mathbf{E}}_N[z] = z^{-N} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_N[1/z]$, we know that if

$$\hat{\mathsf{E}}_{N}[z] = 1 - a_{1}^{(N)} z^{-1} - \dots - a_{N}^{(N)} z^{-N},$$

then

$$\check{\mathsf{E}}_N[z] = z^{-N} - a_1^{(N)} z^{-(N-1)} - \dots - a_N^{(N)}.$$

In summary,

 $-\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N}[n]$ is the *forward* prediction error for predicting $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ in terms of its most recent N pasts. In other words,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}_{N}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_{k}^{(N)} \boldsymbol{s}[n-k].$$

 $-\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_N[n]$ is the *backward* prediction error for predicting $\boldsymbol{s}[n-N]$ in terms of its most recent N futures. In other words,

$$\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N}[n] = \boldsymbol{s}[n-N] - \check{\boldsymbol{s}}_{N}[n-N] = \boldsymbol{s}[n-N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_{k}^{(N)} \boldsymbol{s}[n-N+k].$$

Derivation of k_N

• From

$$\hat{\mathsf{E}}_{N-1}[z] = 1 - a_1^{(N-1)} z^{-1} - \dots - a_{N-1}^{(N-1)} z^{-(N-1)},$$

and

$$\check{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[z] = \boldsymbol{z}^{-(N-1)} \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{N-1}[1/z],$$

we derive:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathsf{E}}_{N}[z] &= \hat{\mathsf{E}}_{N-1}[z] - k_{N} z^{-1} \check{\mathsf{E}}_{N-1}[z] \\ &= \left(1 - a_{1}^{(N-1)} z^{-1} - \dots - a_{N-1}^{(N-1)} z^{-(N-1)} \right) \\ &- k_{N} \left(z^{-N} - a_{1}^{(N-1)} z^{-(N-1)} - \dots - a_{N-1}^{(N-1)} z^{-1} \right) \\ &= 1 - \left(a_{1}^{(N-1)} - k_{N} a_{N-1}^{(N-1)} \right) z^{-1} - \left(a_{2}^{(N-1)} - k_{N} a_{N-2}^{(N-1)} \right) z^{-2} - \dots \\ &- \left(a_{N-1}^{(N-1)} - k_{N} a_{1}^{(N-1)} \right) z^{-(N-1)} - k_{N} z^{-N}. \end{split}$$

Comparing termwisely with

$$\hat{\mathsf{E}}_{N}[z] = 1 - a_{1}^{(N)} z^{-1} - \dots - a_{N}^{(N)} z^{-N},$$

we yield:

$$a_k^{(N)} = a_k^{(N-1)} - \mathbf{k}_N a_{N-k}^{(N-1)}$$
 for $1 \le k < N$ and $a_N^{(N)} = \mathbf{k}_N$.

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• It remains to solve k_N :

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_N & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -a_1^{(N)} & \cdots & -a_N^{(N)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R_{ss}[0] & R_{ss}[1] & R_{ss}[2] & \cdots & R_{ss}[N] \\ R_{ss}[-1] & R_{ss}[0] & R_{ss}[1] & \cdots & R_{ss}[N-1] \\ R_{ss}[-2] & R_{ss}[-1] & R_{ss}[0] & \cdots & R_{ss}[N-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R_{ss}[-N] & R_{ss}[1-N] & R_{ss}[2-N] & \cdots & R_{ss}[0] \end{bmatrix}$$

implies

$$0 = R_{ss}[N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N)} R_{ss}[N-k] - a_N^{(N)} R_{ss}[0]$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = R_{ss}[N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \left(a_k^{(N-1)} - k_N a_{N-k}^{(N-1)} \right) R_{ss}[N-k] - k_N R_{ss}[0]$$

$$\Rightarrow k_N = \frac{R_{ss}[N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N-1)} R_{ss}[N-k]}{R_{ss}[0] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_{N-k}^{(N-1)} R_{ss}[N-k]} = \frac{1}{P_{N-1}} \left(R_{ss}[N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N-1)} R_{ss}[N-k] \right),$$

where the last step follows from the fact that $R_{ss}[N-k] = R_{ss}[k-N]$ (See Slide 13-39).

• The above (blue-colored) formula gives k_N from known P_{N-1} and $\{a_k^{(N-1)}\}_{k=1}^{N-1}$.

Alternative derivation of k_N in terms of $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_N[n] = \hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n] - k_N \check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n-1]$ (Hence, $E[\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_N[n]\boldsymbol{s}[n]] = E[\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n]\boldsymbol{s}[n]] - k_N E[\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n-1]\boldsymbol{s}[n]]).$

• $P_N = E[\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_N[n]\boldsymbol{s}[n]]$ and $P_{N-1} = E[\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n]\boldsymbol{s}[n]].$

 $\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n-1] = \boldsymbol{s}[(n-1) - (N-1)] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N-1)} \boldsymbol{s}[(n-1) - (N-1) + k]$ $= \boldsymbol{s}[n-N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N-1)} \boldsymbol{s}[n-N+k]$

implies

$$E[\check{\boldsymbol{e}}_{N-1}[n-1]\boldsymbol{s}[n]] = E[\boldsymbol{s}[n-N]\boldsymbol{s}[n]] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N-1)} E[\boldsymbol{s}[n-N+k]\boldsymbol{s}[n]]$$
$$= R_{ss}[N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_k^{(N-1)} S_{ss}[N-k] = k_N P_{N-1}.$$

• Consequently, $P_N = P_{N-1} - k_N (k_N P_{N-1}) = (1 - k_N^2) P_{N-1}$.

Levinson's Algorithm

Concern:

• A recursive algorithm to obtain k_N and MS estimate error P_N .

Levinson's algorithm

- $k_1 = a_1^{(1)} = R_{ss}[1]/R_{ss}[0]$ and $P_1 = (1 k_1^2)R_{ss}[0]$.
- Assume that $\{a_k^{(N-1)}\}_{k=1}^{N-1}$, k_{N-1} and P_{N-1} are known.

Then, it can be derived that

$$k_{N} = \frac{1}{P_{N-1}} \left(R_{ss}[N] - \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a_{k}^{(N-1)} R_{ss}[N-k] \right)$$
$$P_{N} = (1 - k_{N}^{2}) P_{N-1}$$
$$a_{k}^{(N)} = \begin{cases} a_{k}^{(N-1)} - k_{N} a_{N-k}^{(N-1)}, & 1 \le k \le N-1 \\ k_{N}, & k = N \end{cases}$$

Properties of FIR estimator

- $P_1 \ge P_2 \ge \cdots \ge P_N \ge \cdots \ge 0.$
- If $P_N > 0$, then $|k_i| < 1$ for $1 \le i \le N$, and $z_i^{(N)}$ (the root of $\hat{\mathsf{E}}_N[z] = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k^{(N)} z^{-k}$) satisfies $|z_i^{(N)}| < 1$ for $1 \le i \le N$.
- If $P_{N-1} > 0$ and $P_N = 0$, then $|k_i| < 1$ for $1 \le i < N$ and $k_N = 1$, and $|z_i^{(N)}| = 1$ for $1 \le i \le N$, which indicates that $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is predictable and consists of line spectrum.
- If $P = \lim_{N \to \infty} P_N > 0$,

then

$$P = \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\log(S_{ss}[\omega])d\omega\right\} = \mathbf{1}^2[0] = \lim_{N \to \infty}\frac{|\mathbb{D}_{N+1}|}{|\mathbb{D}_N|}.$$

• If $P_{M-1} > P_M$ but $P_M (= P_{M+1} = \cdots) = P$, then $k_i = 0$ for i > M,

and $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is wide-sense Markov of order M.

 $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is autoregressive (AR) if, and only if, it is wide-sense Markov of finite order.

Properties of FIR estimator

Equal predictor of two processes

• Suppose process $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ and $\bar{\boldsymbol{s}}[n]$ have the same autocorrelation function up to order M.

Then, the predictors of these two processes of order M are identical because the predictors only depend on the value of $R_{ss}[m]$ for $|m| \leq M$.

Also, from Levinson's algorithm, we learn that P_M for both processes are the same since $P_M = \prod_{i=1}^M (1 - k_i^2) R_{ss}[0]$.

Kalman Innovations

Define the process $\boldsymbol{i}[n]$ as

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{i}[n] &\triangleq \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}_n[n]}{\sqrt{P_n}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{P_n}} \left(\boldsymbol{s}[n] - \sum_{k=1}^n a_k^{(n)} \boldsymbol{s}[n-k] \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_k^{(n)} \boldsymbol{s}[k] \text{ for some } \{\gamma_k^{(n)} = -a_{n-k}^{(n)}/\sqrt{P_n}\}_{k=0}^{n-1} \text{ and } \gamma_n^{(n)} = 1/\sqrt{P_n}. \end{aligned}$$

By orthogonality principle, $\boldsymbol{i}[n]$ is orthogonal to $\boldsymbol{s}[n-m]$ for $1 \leq m \leq n$; hence, $\underline{\boldsymbol{i}}[n]$ is orthogonal to $\boldsymbol{i}[n-m]$ for $1 \leq m \leq n$, and $E[\boldsymbol{i}^2[n]] = 1$.

For the validity of the underlined statement, we implicitly assume that

$$\boldsymbol{s}[-1] = \boldsymbol{s}[-2] = \cdots = 0.$$

Kalman Innovations

In matrix form,

$$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} eta[0] & eta[1] & \cdots & eta[n] \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0^{(0)} & \gamma_0^{(1)} & \cdots & \gamma_0^{(n)} \\ 0 & \gamma_1^{(1)} & \cdots & \gamma_1^{(n)} \\ dots & dots$$

Remarks

- This is similarly the Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization procedure for $[s[0] \ s[1] \ \cdots \ s[n]]$.
- In terminologies, i[n] is called the *Kalman innovations* of s[n], and Γ_{n+1} is called the *Kalman whitening filter* of s[n].
- It can then be derived:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{s}[0] \ \boldsymbol{s}[1] \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{s}[n] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{i}[0] \ \boldsymbol{i}[1] \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{i}[n] \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \ell_0^{(0)} \ \ell_0^{(1)} \ \cdots \ \ell_0^{(n)} \\ 0 \ \ell_1^{(1)} \ \cdots \ \ell_1^{(n)} \\ \vdots \ \vdots \ \ddots \ \vdots \\ 0 \ 0 \ \cdots \ \ell_n^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{i}[0] \ \boldsymbol{i}[1] \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{i}[n] \end{bmatrix} \mathbb{L}_{n+1}$$

Kalman Innovations

Then, the covariance matrix of $\boldsymbol{s}[n]$ is given by:

$$\mathbb{R}_{n+1} \triangleq E\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{s}[0] \\ \boldsymbol{s}[1] \\ \cdots \\ \boldsymbol{s}[n] \end{bmatrix} \left[\boldsymbol{s}[0] \ \boldsymbol{s}[1] \cdots \boldsymbol{s}[n] \right] \right\} = \mathbb{L}_{n+1}^T \mathbb{L}_{n+1}.$$

Therefore,

$$\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n+1}^T \mathbb{R}_{n+1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n+1} = \mathbb{I}_{n+1},$$

where \mathbb{I}_{n+1} is the identity matrix.

The end of Section 13-2 Prediction