

CONVERGENCE PROPERTIES OF SOME
ADAPTIVE FILTERING ALGORITHMS

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RESUME

SUMMARY

Le propriétés de convergence d'un algorithme du gradient souple (VLMS) pour un critère de la valeur absolue de l'erreur sont analysées. VLMS vise à minimiser une fonction de l'erreur. Il calcule aussi un estimé du vrai gradient et, par conséquent, est plus performant que l'algorithme du gradient usuel qui minimise la valeur absolue de l'erreur (CLMS). La supériorité de l'algorithme du gradient souple (VLMS) sur l'algorithme usuel (CLMS) pour la prédiction est illustrée par les mesures des gains de prédiction obtenus pour trois séquences de parole différentes.

The convergence properties of a versatile LMS algorithm (VLMS) for an absolute error criterion are analysed. VLMS attempts to minimize an error function and estimates the true gradient. Therefore, outperforms the usual gradient algorithm that minimizes absolute error (CLMS). The superiority of VLMS over CLMS in a prediction mode is illustrated by prediction gain performance measures for speech sentences. Finally, it is shown that for each coefficient 80% of the time, VLMS equations take the depression from CLMS algorithm.

I. INTRODUCTION

Adaptive filters are exploited in numerous applications, e.g. noise cancellation, linear prediction and echo cancellation in communication systems. The most familiar type for the adaptation of the coefficients is the least-mean-square (LMS) algorithm [1,2] that often applied to nonstationary signals. The filter (FIR type) output for a given input sample x_i in a prediction mode is given by,

$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \cdot x_{i-k} \quad (1)$$

The number N of coefficients a_k may be selected according to the value of the k mean-square prediction error, i.e. $\langle (x_i - y_i)^2 \rangle$, where $\langle (\cdot) \rangle$ means time average of (\cdot) . LMS algorithm when minimizing the mean-square prediction error adjusts the value of the k th coefficient a_k at the $(i+1)$ th instant according to

$$a_{i+1,k} = a_{i,k} + h \cdot e_i \cdot x_{i-k} \quad (2)$$

where h controls the predictor's rate of convergence and $e_i = x_i - y_i$ is the prediction error at the i th instant. When the absolute error, instead of mean-square error, is minimized, Equation 2 becomes,

$$a_{i+1,k} = a_{i,k} + h \cdot \text{sgn}(e_i) \cdot x_{i-k} \quad (3)$$

where $\text{sgn}(\cdot)$ denotes the polarity of (\cdot) .

The parameter h is often replaced by $P_i(x)$ where $P_i(x)$ is a function of the power in the speech signal computed over a duration of approximately a pitch period. $P_i(x)$ is expressed by,

$$P_i(x) = \frac{\delta}{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=i-1-M}^{i-1} x_j^2 + B} \quad (4)$$

The denominator of $P_i(x)$ behaves as an automatic gain

control which tends to equalize the adaptation rate of prediction algorithm to the variation in the mean square value σ_x^2 of the speech sequence $\{x_i\}$ computed over the immediate past M samples. Thus when σ_x^2 increases the second term in Equation 2 is reduced and over-corrections of the $a_{i+1,k}$ coefficient avoided, preventing the occurrence of a large prediction error. The constant B in Equation 4 maintains a finite value of $P_i(x)$ during silence intervals. It should be mentioned that when Equation 4 is associated with Equation 3, x_j^2 in $P_i(x)$ is usually replaced by $|x_j|$.

The second algorithm (CLMS) defined by Equation 3 is simple for hardware implementation and studied by Cumiskey [3]. Also, in many applications such as ADPCM codec for speech signals, in the presence of transmission errors, CLMS is less affected than the LMS algorithm. This is because the former one uses the polarity of e_i rather than the actual amplitude of e_i as in the LMS algorithm. However, both algorithms defined by Equations 2,3 have their own disadvantages. For example, the first one has a slow convergence rate and deteriorates rapidly its performance for a small change in an adaptation constant h (or δ in Equation 4). The second one has also a slow convergence rate, but in the prediction context, has less multiplications and more robust to the variations in δ despite the small degradation in the peak prediction gain. In order to improve the prediction gain for wider range of δ , we propose versatile-LMS (VLMS) algorithm that is truly instantaneous [4]. The advantages of VLMS are two-fold. First, it attempts to minimize an error function. This function can be dependent on a variety of criteria such as the modulus of the prediction error, the square of this error, the differential of the error. Secondly, as the algorithm at a given instant computes several errors with respect to pre-selected error function and then picks and chooses the minimum error, it measures the true gradient and therefore outperforms the former ones.

In this article, we analyse the convergence properties of VLMS for an absolute error criterion and further,



we show that for each coefficient 80% of the time VLSM equations take the depression from the CLMS algorithm, i.e., see Equation 3. In order to support our mathematical analysis computer simulations are carried out for various speech sentences with the predictor order of 12.

II. CONVERGENCE OF THE CLMS ALGORITHM

In this section the sequentially updated CLMS algorithm is compared with a modified autocorrelation algorithm in a prediction mode (MAP). MAP is defined by considering a sliding-block autocorrelation predictor (SBAP) whose coefficients are re-calculated from a block of w_B samples every sampling instant using the autocorrelation method. Although SBAP algorithm can not be used in a practical system because of the amount of side information that must be transmitted, it does achieve more accurate predictions than those of LMS or CLMS, and here it is used as a bench-mark.

Figure 1 depicts the adaptation logic of CLMS algorithm.

At the i th sampling instant, SBAP has a set of coefficients \hat{A}_s , and a prediction error, $e_{i,s}$, while CLMS in vector form, represented by

$$\hat{A}_{i+1} = \hat{A}_i + P \cdot \hat{X}_i \text{sgn}(e_i) \quad (5)$$

$P(x)$ is replaced by P , i.e., will be assumed constant over a small number of sampling intervals. The hat ($\hat{\cdot}$) above the symbol means the symbol is a vector, viz.

$$\hat{A}_k^T = [a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_N]$$

$$\hat{X}_i^T = [x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}, \dots, x_{i-N}]$$

where the raised T implies transpose of the vector. The predicted output from CLMS in vector form is,

$$y_i = \hat{A}_i^T \hat{X}_i \quad (6)$$

For SBAP algorithm

$$e_{i,s} = x_i - \hat{A}_s^T \hat{X}_i \quad (7)$$

Hence

$$e_{i,s} - e_i = -(\hat{A}_s - \hat{A}_i)^T \hat{X}_i \quad (8)$$

Now, let \hat{Y}_i be as a difference vector, $(\hat{A}_i - \hat{A}_s)$ and write Equation 5 as

$$\hat{A}_{i+1} - \hat{A}_s = \hat{A}_i - \hat{A}_s + P \cdot \hat{X}_i \text{sgn}(e_i) \quad (9)$$

$$\text{or } \hat{Y}_{i+1} = \hat{Y}_i + P \cdot \hat{X}_i \cdot \text{sgn}(e_i) \quad (10)$$

$$\text{then } e_i = e_{i,s} - \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i \quad (11)$$

and substitution of Equation 11 in Equation 10 yields

$$\hat{Y}_{i+1} = \hat{Y}_i + P \cdot \hat{X}_i \cdot \text{sgn}(e_{i,s} - \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i) \quad (12)$$

The norm of Equation 12 is

$$\|\hat{Y}_{i+1}\|^2 = \|\hat{Y}_i\|^2 + 2P \langle \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i \cdot \text{sgn}(e_{i,s} - \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i) \rangle + P^2 \langle \hat{X}_i^T \{\text{sgn}(e_{i,s} - \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i)\}^2 \hat{X}_i \rangle \quad (13)$$

For $e_{i,s} \ll \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i$, the coefficients of CLMS are not near optimum, with $P \ll 1$, Equation 13 becomes

$$\|\hat{Y}_{i+1}\|^2 \approx \|\hat{Y}_i\|^2 + 2P \hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i \text{sgn}(-\hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i) \quad (14)$$

since $z \cdot \text{sgn}(z) = |z|$, Equation 14 is rewritten as

$$\|\hat{Y}_{i+1}\|^2 = \|\hat{Y}_i\|^2 - 2P |\hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i| \quad (15)$$

Finally, it is obvious that $2P |\hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i|$ is always positive, hence

$$\|\hat{Y}_{i+1}\|^2 < \|\hat{Y}_i\|^2 \quad (16)$$

Consequently, CLMS algorithm converges. Also the convergence is slowed to stop when $|\hat{Y}_i^T \hat{X}_i| \approx |e_{i,s}|$, i.e. Equation 13-14 becomes

$$\|\hat{Y}_{i+1}\|^2 = \|\hat{Y}_i\|^2 \quad (17)$$

Figure 2 shows the variation of prediction (dB) as a function of adaptation parameter δ (taken as a power of 2) for three different speech sentences sampled at 8kHz, bandlimited to 3.4kHz. The value of B in Equation 4 is 0.5 and $M=100$, $N=12$.

III. VLMS ALGORITHM AND ITS PERFORMANCE

In this section, we describe the versatile LMS algorithm which attempts to minimize an error function G . This function can be made dependent on a variety of criteria such as modulus of the prediction error, the square of this error etc. Thus G is a function of the prediction error, e_i . In VLMS, two values of G are formed every sampling instant in the updating of each predictor coefficients. For an N -order predictor, VLMS calculates $2N$ values of G every sampling instant. The values of G used in updating each coefficient at the i th instant are based on two estimates of the prediction error. For each coefficient the difference between the appropriate G values is formed as:-

$$\Delta_{i-1,k} = G_{i-1,2k-1} - G_{i-1,2k}, \quad k=1,2,3,\dots,N \quad (18)$$

Then coefficient adaptation equation at the i th instant is given by

$$a_{i,k} = a_{i-1,k} - P_{i-1}(x) \cdot \Delta_{i-1,k} \cdot k^{-\alpha} \quad (19)$$

The term $k^{-\alpha}$ results in a small modification to the higher order coefficients than to the lower coefficients. Experimental results show that by setting α to a value just less than unity good prediction is obtained. The operation of VLMS algorithm at i th instant is illustrated in Figure 3.

The operation of the predictor employing VLMS algorithm can be explained with the aid of 2nd order predictor ($N=2$).

The second-order VLMS predictor at i th sampling instant forms four predictions $y_{i-1,1}$, $y_{i-1,2}$, $y_{i-1,3}$ and $y_{i-1,4}$ which are generated from x_{i-2} and x_{i-3} .

These intermediary predictions are

$$y_{i-1,1} = (a_{i-1,1} + s_1) \cdot x_{i-2} + a_{i-1,2} \cdot x_{i-3} \quad (20)$$

$$y_{i-1,2} = (a_{i-1,1} - s_1) \cdot x_{i-2} + a_{i-1,2} \cdot x_{i-3} \quad (21)$$

$$y_{i-1,3} = a_{i-1,1} \cdot x_{i-2} + (a_{i-1,2} + s_2) \cdot x_{i-3} \quad (22)$$

$$y_{i-1,4} = a_{i-1,1} \cdot x_{i-2} + (a_{i-1,2} - s_2) \cdot x_{i-3} \quad (23)$$

where s_1 and s_2 are system parameters ($s_2 < s_1$) and defined by

$$s_k = [D \cdot k]^{-\beta} \quad (24)$$

where $D > 1$ and $\beta < 1$. The values of D and β will be subsequently quoted. Notice that s_1 has been added and subtracted from $a_{i-1,1}$ to yield $y_{i-1,1}$ and $y_{i-1,2}$ while a smaller change of $\pm s_2$ has been made to $a_{i-1,2}$ to give $y_{i-1,3}$ and $y_{i-1,4}$. We select the absolute error criterion in order to compare the results with previously described CLMS algorithm. Therefore, we form the moduli of these prediction errors, viz:

$$G_{i-1,j} = |x_{i-1} - y_{i-1,j}|, \quad j=1,2,3,4 \quad (25)$$

and then compute

$$\Delta_{i-1,1} = G_{i-1,1} - G_{i-1,2} \quad (26)$$

$$\Delta_{i-1,2} = G_{i-1,3} - G_{i-1,4} \quad (27)$$

As $G_{i-1,1}$ and $G_{i-1,2}$ are the moduli of the prediction error when $a_{i-1,1}$ is increased and decreased by s_1 respectively, it follows that if $\Delta_{i-1,1} > 0$ then $a_{i-1,1}$ should be decreased and vice versa. Similar remarks apply for $\Delta_{i-1,2}$ and $a_{i-1,2}$. Consequently,

the two coefficients in this example are updated according to Equation 19 and predicted sample is found from Equation 1.

The reason for naming VLMS is now apparent. The coefficients are sequentially updated every sampling instant with respect to pre-selected error function and the predictor estimates the gradient of the fastest descent of the error function with time.

Figure 4 shows the computer simulation results for the same speech sentences used in Section II. The system parameters α, β, B, D are 0.5, 0.5, 0.1 and 10.0 respectively. As can be seen in Figure 4, the variation of prediction gain as a function of δ shows more robust behaviour when compared to Figure 2.

The VLMS algorithm defined by Equation 19 converges as well [4]. As before, we assume $P_{i-1}(x)$ is constant over a small number of sampling intervals and ignore the optimizing term $k^{-\alpha}$. Hence

$$\hat{A}_i = \hat{A}_{i-1} - P_i \hat{A}_i$$

where \hat{A}_i is the vector representation of Equation 18. However, due to space limitations in this paper, we can not show all the necessary steps, interested readers may refer to reference [4].

In the next section, we are to demonstrate the differences between CLMS and VLMS that minimizes the absolute error, $G = |e_i|$. Also this analysis gives insights for the convergence behaviour of VLMS algorithm.

IV. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CLMS AND VLMS ALGORITHMS

In many ways, VLMS algorithm behaves like CLMS algorithm. However, in this section we will show that about 80% of the time, the prediction coefficients resulted from VLMS algorithm are different from those calculated from CLMS algorithm. This procedure can be described as follows:

Using Equation 26 together with Equations 20-23 and 25, we get (N=2)

$$\Delta_{i-1,1} = |x_{i-1}^{-a_{i-1,1}} \cdot x_{i-2}^{-a_{i-1,2}} \cdot x_{i-3}^{-a_{i-1,2}} \cdot s_1 \cdot x_{i-2}| - |x_{i-1}^{-a_{i-1,1}} \cdot x_{i-2}^{-a_{i-1,2}} \cdot x_{i-3}^{-a_{i-1,2}} \cdot x_{i-3} + s_1 \cdot x_{i-2}| \quad (28)$$

and since

$$e_{i-1} = x_{i-1}^{-a_{i-1,1}} \cdot x_{i-2}^{-a_{i-1,2}} \cdot x_{i-3}^{-a_{i-1,2}} \quad (29)$$

Equation 28 is rewritten as

$$\Delta_{i-1,1} = |e_{i-1}^{-s_1 \cdot x_{i-2}}| - |e_{i-1} + s_1 \cdot x_{i-3}| \quad (30)$$

Similarly,

$$\Delta_{i-1,2} = |e_{i-1}^{-s_2 \cdot x_{i-3}}| - |e_{i-1} + s_2 \cdot x_{i-3}| \quad (31)$$

Letting "w" be e_{i-1} and "v" be $s_1 \cdot x_{i-2}$ or $s_2 \cdot x_{i-3}$,

Equation 30 is rewritten as

$$\Delta_{i-1,1} = |w-v| - |w+v| \quad (32)$$

Equation 32 can be analysed with the aid of Figure 5. That is,

In REGION I: $|w-v| - |w+v| = -2v$ (33)

In REGION II: $|w-v| - |w+v| = -2w$ (34)

In REGION III: $|w-v| - |w+v| = 2v$ (35)

In REGION IV: $|w-v| - |w+v| = 2w$ (36)

Hence, in REGION I and III, $|w| > |v|$ and

$$|w-v| - |w+v| = -2v \operatorname{sgn}(w) \quad (37)$$

Similarly, in REGIONS II and IV, $|v| > |w|$ and

$$|w-v| - |w+v| = -2w \operatorname{sgn}(v). \quad (38)$$

Thus Equation 30 yields,

$$\Delta_{i-1,1} = \begin{cases} -2s_1 x_{i-2} \operatorname{sgn}(e_{i-1}), & \text{if } |e_{i-1}| > |s_1 x_{i-2}| \\ -2e_{i-1} \operatorname{sgn}(s_1 x_{i-2}), & \text{if } |s_1 x_{i-2}| > |e_{i-1}| \end{cases} \quad (39)$$

while Equation 31 gives,

$$\Delta_{i-1,2} = \begin{cases} -2s_2 x_{i-3} \operatorname{sgn}(e_{i-1}), & \text{if } |e_{i-1}| > |s_2 x_{i-3}| \\ -2e_{i-1} \operatorname{sgn}(s_2 x_{i-3}), & \text{if } |s_2 x_{i-3}| > |e_{i-1}|. \end{cases} \quad (40)$$

Further, substitution of Equations 39 and 40 in Equation 19, provides the adaptation equations of VLMS. When $|e_{i-1}| > |s_1 x_{i-2}|$ and $|e_{i-1}| > |s_2 x_{i-3}|$, VLMS is defined by (N=2)

$$a_{i,1} = a_{i-1,1} + 2P_{i-1}(x) \cdot s_1 \cdot x_{i-2} \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(e_{i-1}) \quad (41)$$

$$a_{i,2} = a_{i-1,2} + 2P_{i-1}(x) \cdot s_2 \cdot 2^{-\alpha} \cdot x_{i-3} \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(e_{i-1}). \quad (42)$$

Finally, we know that Equation 3 for N=2 corresponds CLMS algorithm and two coefficients at ith instant are given by

$$a_{i,1} = a_{i-1,1} + h \cdot x_{i-2} \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(e_{i-1}) \quad (43)$$

$$a_{i,2} = a_{i-1,2} + h \cdot x_{i-3} \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(e_{i-1}) \quad (44)$$

Thus the basic design of the adaptation process of VLMS with absolute error has no significant departure from CLMS algorithm, if $|e_{i-1}| > |s_1 \cdot x_{i-2}|$ and $|e_{i-1}| > |s_2 \cdot x_{i-3}|$.

However, when the $|s_1 \cdot x_{i-2}| > |e_{i-1}|$ or $|s_2 \cdot x_{i-3}| > |e_{i-1}|$ inequalities are satisfied, VLMS assumes a very different form. That is

$$a_{i,1} = a_{i-1,1} + 2P_{i-1}(x) \cdot e_{i-1} \operatorname{sgn}(s_1 x_{i-2}) \quad (45)$$

$$a_{i,2} = a_{i-1,2} + 2P_{i-1}(x) \cdot 2^{-\alpha} \cdot e_{i-1} \operatorname{sgn}(s_2 x_{i-3}). \quad (46)$$

Equations 45-46 indicate the degeneration from the CLMS algorithm for $k=1,2$.

Although, the above analysis is done for the second-order predictor, it is also valid for Nth order predictor. Figure 6 depicts the simulation results for the percentage of diversions of VLMS algorithm from the CLMS algorithm for the same three speech sentences (a,b,c) with N=12.

As is seen in Figure 6, during the adaptation of $a_{i,1}$ for the three sentences, 90% to 80% of the time, diversions from CLMS algorithm are obtained. Obviously, as we approach lower order prediction coefficients, the percentage is decreased (especially for sentence "c"). This is in agreement with experimental observations which support the importance, in the performance of most algorithms, of the first few prediction coefficients.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Our study of VLMS-versatile LMS that minimizes an error function has shown that VLMS for the same error criterion offers better prediction gain (dB) than Cumiskey's LMS (CLMS) algorithm. This is due to the prediction coefficients converging faster to their optimum value in VLMS. Then, the percentage of the departure of VLMS coefficients from the CLMS algorithm has been studied. In further investigations we hope to exploit the versatility of the VLMS to operate with different error functions and compare the performance to recently proposed dual-sign algorithm [5].

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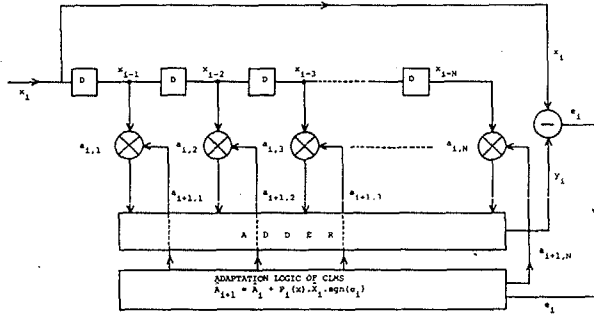


FIGURE 1

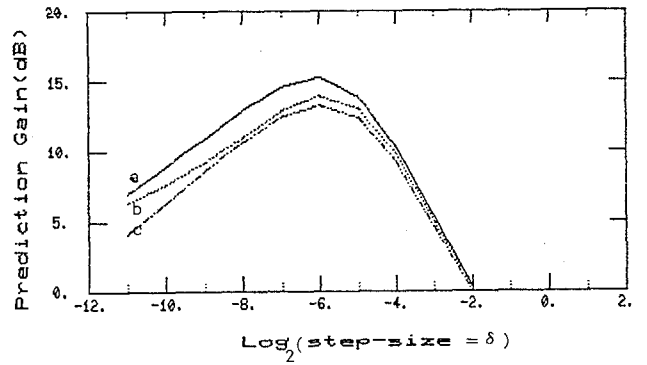


FIGURE 2

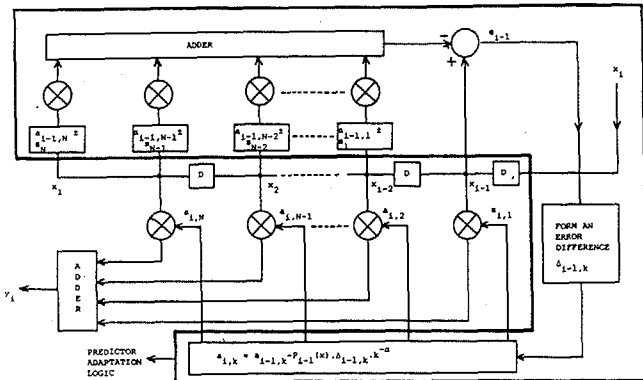


FIGURE 3

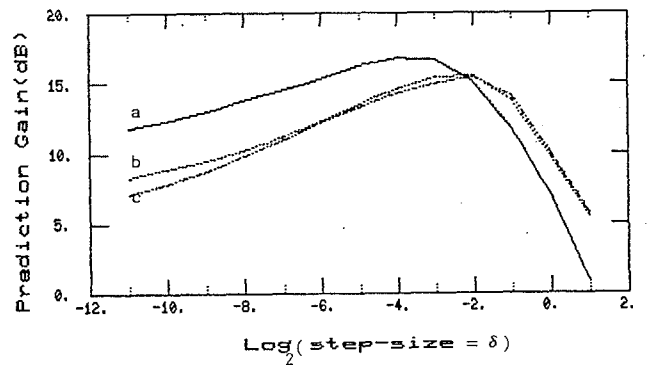


FIGURE 4

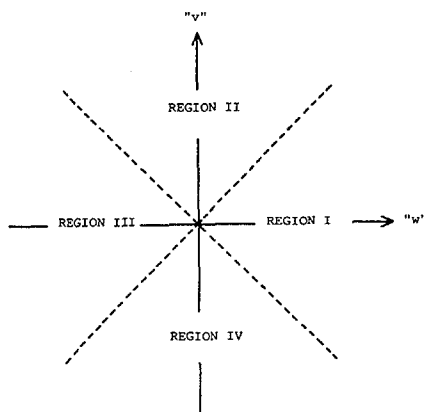


FIGURE 5

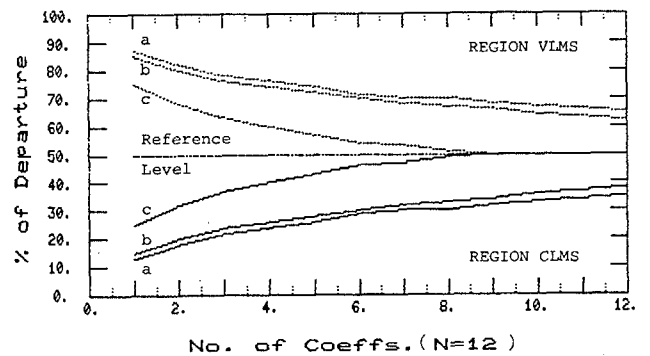


FIGURE 6