

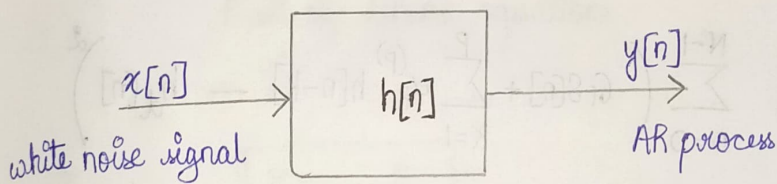
## Assignment - 4

J. Kalyan Raman

17EE35004

### Levinson Durbin Algorithm to calculate LPC :

LD algorithm is used most commonly to estimate the all-pole AR model parameters, because the design equations used to obtain the best-fit AR model are simpler than those used for MA or ARMA modelling.



consider a general all-pole filter :  $H(\bar{z}) = \frac{Y(\bar{z})}{X(\bar{z})}$   
(order P).

$$\frac{Y(\bar{z})}{X(\bar{z})} = \frac{G}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^P a_k^{(P)} \bar{z}^{-k}}$$

applying inverse  $\bar{z}$  transform, we get.

$$y[n] = G x[n] + \sum_{k=1}^P a_k^{(P)} y[n-k]$$

Now we want to obtain a filter T.F to an arbitrary desired filter T.F :  $H_d(\bar{z})$ . This is done by minimizing the average square error between magnitude of frequency response of desired filter  $H_d(e^{j\omega})$  and all pole filter  $H(e^{j\omega})$

$$e^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |H(e^{j\omega}) - H_d(e^{j\omega})|^2 d\omega$$

applying Parseval's theorem:

$$e^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (h[n] - h_d[n])^2$$

Since  $h[n]$  is impulse response of system response to  $\delta[n]$

$$h[n] = G \cdot \delta[n] + \sum_{k=1}^P \alpha_k^{(p)} \cdot h[n-k]$$

$$\Rightarrow e^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left( G \delta[n] + \sum_{k=1}^P \alpha_k^{(p)} \cdot h[n-k] - h_d[n] \right)^2$$

for error to be minimum:

$$\frac{de^2}{d\alpha_k} = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} 2 \left( G \delta[n] + \sum_{l=1}^P \alpha_l^{(p)} \cdot h[n-l] - h_d[n] \right) \cdot h[n-k] = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left( G \delta[n] \cdot h[n-k] + \sum_{l=1}^P \alpha_l^{(p)} \cdot h[n-l] \cdot h[n-k] \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} h_d[n] \cdot h[n-k]$$

Since system is causal,  $G_i$  won't enter solution.

$$\sum_{k=1}^P \alpha_k^{(P)} \cdot \left( \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} h[n-k] \cdot h[n-k]}{N} \right) = \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} h_d[n] \cdot h[n-k]}{N}$$

$$\text{let } \phi_{yy}[m] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} h[n] \cdot h[n-m] = \phi[m]$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\sum_{k=1}^P \alpha_k^{(P)} \cdot \phi[k-k] = \phi[k]}$$

for  $k=1, 2, \dots, P$ .

$P$  set of linear equations.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{R \underline{\alpha} = \underline{P}}$$

where  $R = \begin{bmatrix} \phi[0] & \phi[1] & \dots & \phi[P-1] \\ \phi[1] & \phi[0] & \dots & \phi[P-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \phi[P-1] & \phi[P-2] & \dots & \phi[0] \end{bmatrix}$

$$\underline{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_P \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi[1] \\ \phi[2] \\ \vdots \\ \phi[P] \end{bmatrix}$$

\* a direct solution is given by [Complexity:  $O(N^3)$ ]

$\underline{\alpha} = R^{-1} \underline{P}$ , but it is tough to compute inverse for large number. So instead we

But in this algorithm, we find solution in a recursive method to reduce the complexity.

The basic idea of the recursion is to find the solution  $\underline{\alpha}_{p+1}$  for the  $(p+1)^{\text{st}}$  order case from the solution  $\underline{\alpha}_p$  for the  $p^{\text{th}}$  order case.

$$R_{p+1} = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & \phi[p] \\ & & & & \phi[p-1] \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & \phi[1] \\ \hline \phi[p] & \phi[p-1] & \dots & \phi[1] & \phi[0] \end{bmatrix}$$

let  $\underline{p} = \underline{q}$

~~$\underline{p}$~~

$$\underline{\alpha}_{p+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\alpha}_p \\ \phi[p+1] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \underline{p}_+ = \begin{bmatrix} \phi[p] \\ \phi[p-1] \\ \vdots \\ \phi[1] \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\Rightarrow R_{p+1} = \begin{bmatrix} R_p & \underline{p}_p \\ \underline{p}_p^T & \phi[0] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\alpha}_{p+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\alpha}_p \\ \underline{\alpha}_{p+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\alpha}_p \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\epsilon}_p \\ k_{p+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\underline{\epsilon}_p$  is correction term

$k_{p+1}$  is new  $\underline{\alpha}_{p+1} \rightarrow$  reflection coefficients

$$\therefore R_{p+1} \cdot \underline{\alpha}_{p+1} = \underline{a}_{p+1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_p & \underline{p}_p \\ \underline{p}_p^T & \phi[0] \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\alpha}_p \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\epsilon}_p \\ k_{p+1} \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{a}_p \\ \phi[p+1] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_p \underline{\alpha}_p + R_p \underline{\epsilon}_p + \underline{p}_p \cdot k_{p+1} = \underline{a}_p$$

and

$$\underline{p}_p^T \underline{\alpha}_p + \underline{p}_p^T \underline{\epsilon}_p + \phi[0] k_{p+1} = \phi[p+1]$$

On simplifying and approximating.

$$\underline{\epsilon}_p = -k_p \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + k_p \cdot \bar{\underline{p}}_p$$

$$k_{p+1} = \frac{-\phi[p+1] - \underline{p}_p^T \underline{\alpha}_p}{\underline{\epsilon}_p}$$

where  $E_p = (1 - k_p)^2 E_{p-1}$

$$E_0 = \sigma^2[0]$$

∴ Recursion algorithm is as follows.

$$E_0 = \sigma^2[0]$$

$$k_i = \frac{-\sigma^2[i] - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \alpha_j^{(i-1)} \cdot \sigma^2[i-j]}{E_{i-j}} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq P$$

$$\alpha_i^{(i)} = k_i$$

$$\alpha_j^{(i)} = \alpha_j^{(i-1)} + k_i \cdot \alpha_{i-j}^{(i-1)} \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, i-1$$

$$E_i = (1 - k_i^2) E_{i-1}$$

after  $P$  steps, we arrive at  $P^{\text{th}}$  order estimate.

here 
$$E_P = \left[ \prod_{i=1}^P (1 - k_i^2) \right] E_0 = \left[ \prod_{i=1}^P (1 - k_i^2) \right] \sigma^2[0]$$

gives the estimate of variance of  $x[n]$ .

Reflection  
coefficients

$\phi[0], k_1, k_2, \dots, k_p$

Interconversion

AR parameters

$a[1], a[2], \dots, a[p], \sigma^2$

Step  
Down

Note:

→ For all pole AR process generator to be stable, the poles must all lie inside unit circle in the Z-plane.

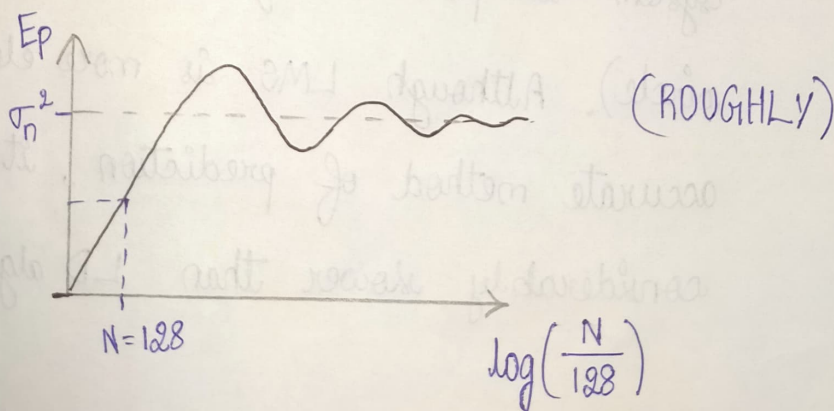
Time

→ Complexity of LD algorithm is  $O(N^2)$

Space Complexity is  $O(N)$

RESULTS:

→ For lower length, the estimation is too weak, but as length increases the estimation is becoming more perfect.



## Comparison of LD with other algorithms:

→ LD v/s Cholesky decomposition:

- \* The Cholesky decomposition is a method used to find the inverse of matrix which has Hermitian Symmetry.

Computational Complexity , Space

LD -  $O(N^2)$  ,  $O(N)$

Cholesky -  $O(N^3)$  ,  $O(N^2)$

- \* LD exploits the fact that LPC analysis has Toeplitz Symmetry.

→ LD v/s LMS algorithm.

- \* LMS algo is an adaptive filter technique. But it does not guarantee minimum phase systems and stability while LD does. (minimum phase system - all poles and zeros lie within unit circle). Although LMS is more elegant and accurate method of prediction, it is considerably slower than LD algorithm.



## MATLAB CODE :

### RTSP\_Assg\_3\_17EE35004.m :

```
%% Levinson Durbin Recursive algorithm
% LD algorithm is used for Linear prediction filter coefficients
clc;
clear;

%% Initialization of global parameters
P = 3;                % order of filter used
max_len = 20;         % maximum length of white noise signal
var = 1;              % variance of white noise signal

% Poles of the filter
% All poles are chosen to be within unit circle for STABILITY
p1 = 0.4;
p2 = 0.5;
p3 = 0.6;

% Finding filter coefficients as per given poles
a1 = -(p1+p2+p3);
a2 = (p1*p2+p2*p3+p3*p1);
a3 = -p1*p2*p3;

% AR parameters found by designed LD algorithm
alpha = zeros(max_len,P+1);
% AR parameters found by matlab inbuilt function
alpha1 = zeros(max_len,P+1);

% reflection coefficients in designed LD algorithms
k = zeros(max_len,P);
% reflection coefficients in matlab inbuilt function
k1 = zeros(max_len,P);

% variance estimate in designed LD algorithm
err = zeros(max_len,1);
% variance estimate in matlab inbuilt function
err1 = zeros(max_len,1);

% Loop running across all possible lengths
for n = 1:1:max_len

    N = 128*2^(n-1);          % length of signal
    v = wgn(N,1,10*log10(var)); % noise signal with given specs
    u1 = zeros(1,N+3)';

    for i = 1:1:N
        % code for AR process generation
        u1(i+3) = -a1*u1(i+2)-a2*u1(i+1)-a3*u1(i)+v(i);
    end

    u = u1(4:N+3);

    Rx = zeros(P+1,1); % Autocorrelation sequence
```

```

for i=1:P+1
    for j=i+1:N+1
        Rx(i) = Rx(i) + u(j-1)*u(j-i);
    end
    Rx(i) = Rx(i)/(N-i+1);
end

temp = zeros(P,P); % temporary filter coefficients variable
E = zeros(P+1,1); % temporary variance collecting variable
sum = 0; % used to execute the vector product

% i=0 : zero level iteration
E(1) = Rx(1); % initializing estimate
k(n,1) = -Rx(2)/Rx(1); % first reflection coefficient
temp(1,1) = k(n,1);
E(2) = (1-(k(n,1))^2)*E(1); % first level variance estimate

% Iteration or LD recursion
for i = 2:1:P

    sum = 0;
    for j=1:1:i-1
        % dot product of autocorrelation seq and filter coefficients
        sum = sum + temp(i-1,j)*Rx(i+1-j);
    end

    k(n,i) = -(Rx(i+1)+sum)/E(i); % finding new reflection coefficient

    temp(i,i) = k(n,i); % assigning it to next order filter coefficient

    for j=1:1:i-1
        % updating lower order filter coefficients
        temp(i,j) = (temp(i-1,j) + k(n,i)*temp(i-1,i-j));
    end

    E(i+1) = (1-((k(n,i))^2))*E(i); % updating variance estimate

end

alpha(n,:) = [1,temp(3,:)]; % final filter coefficients solution
err(n) = E(P+1); % final variance estimate

% using matlab inbuilt levinson durbin function
[alpha1(n,:),err1(n),k1(n,:)] = levinson(Rx,3);

end

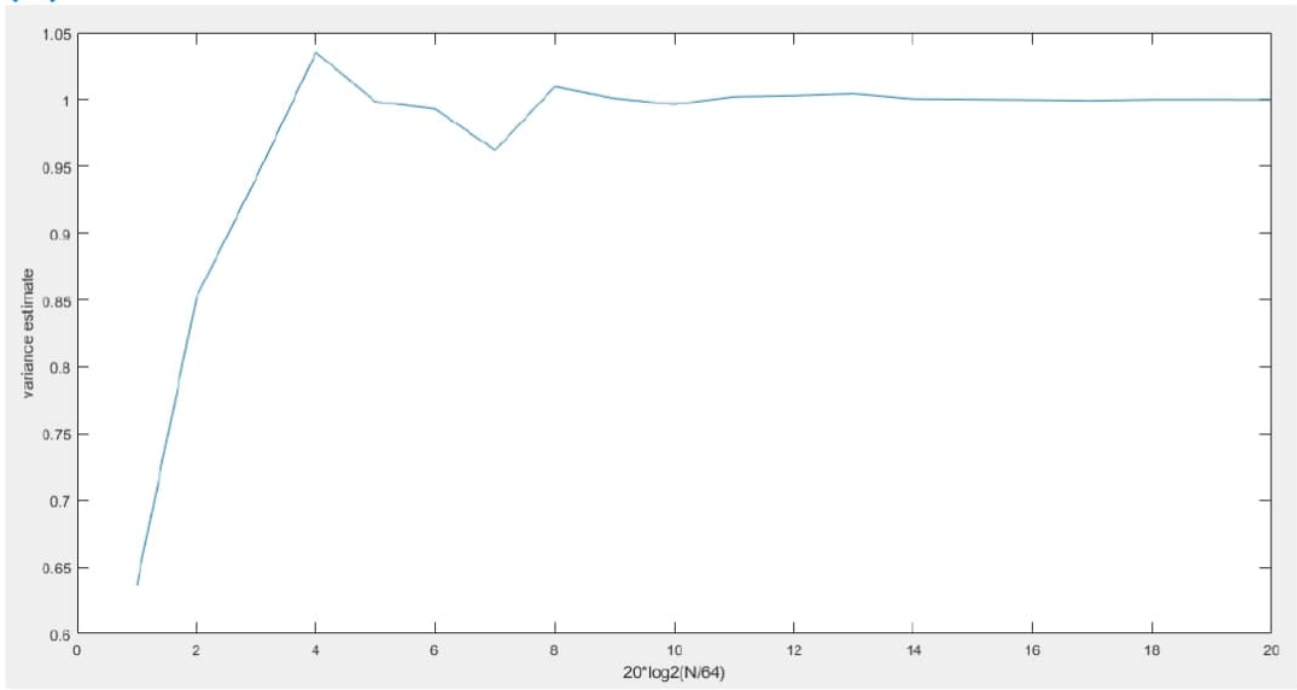
%% Plotting the results

figure;
plot(1:1:max_len,err);
xlabel('20*log2(N/64)');
ylabel('variance estimate');

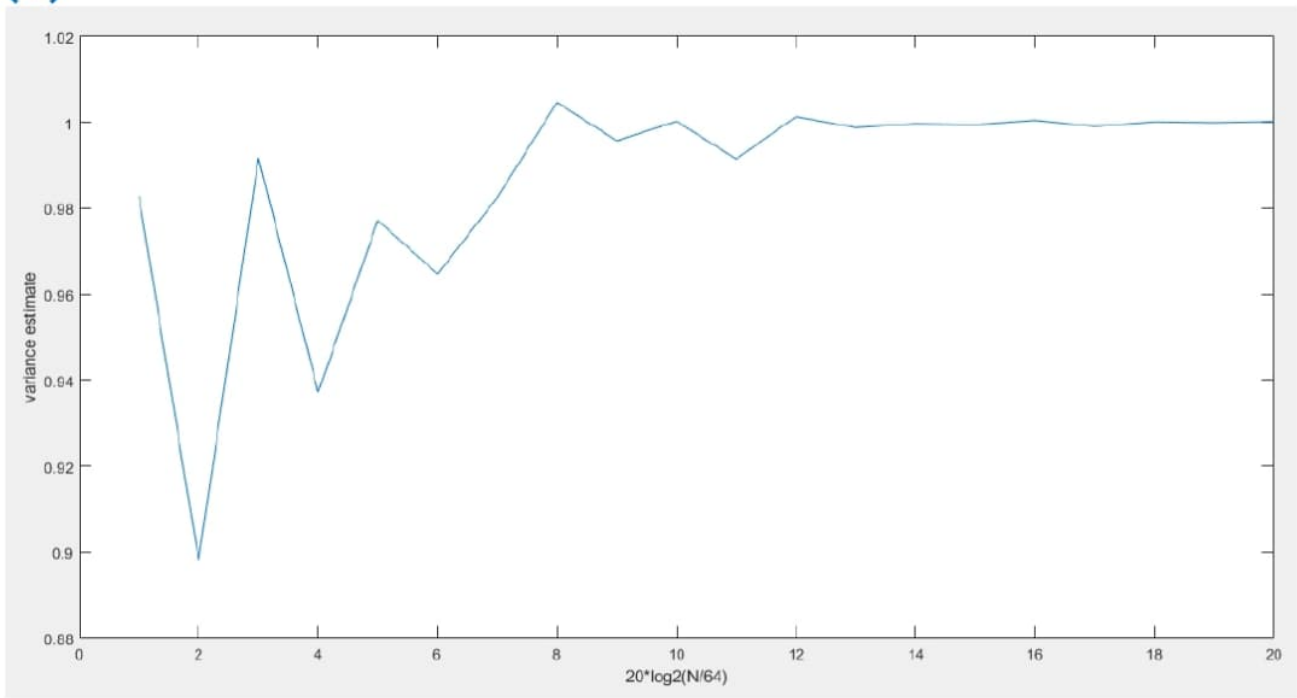
```

Plot results :

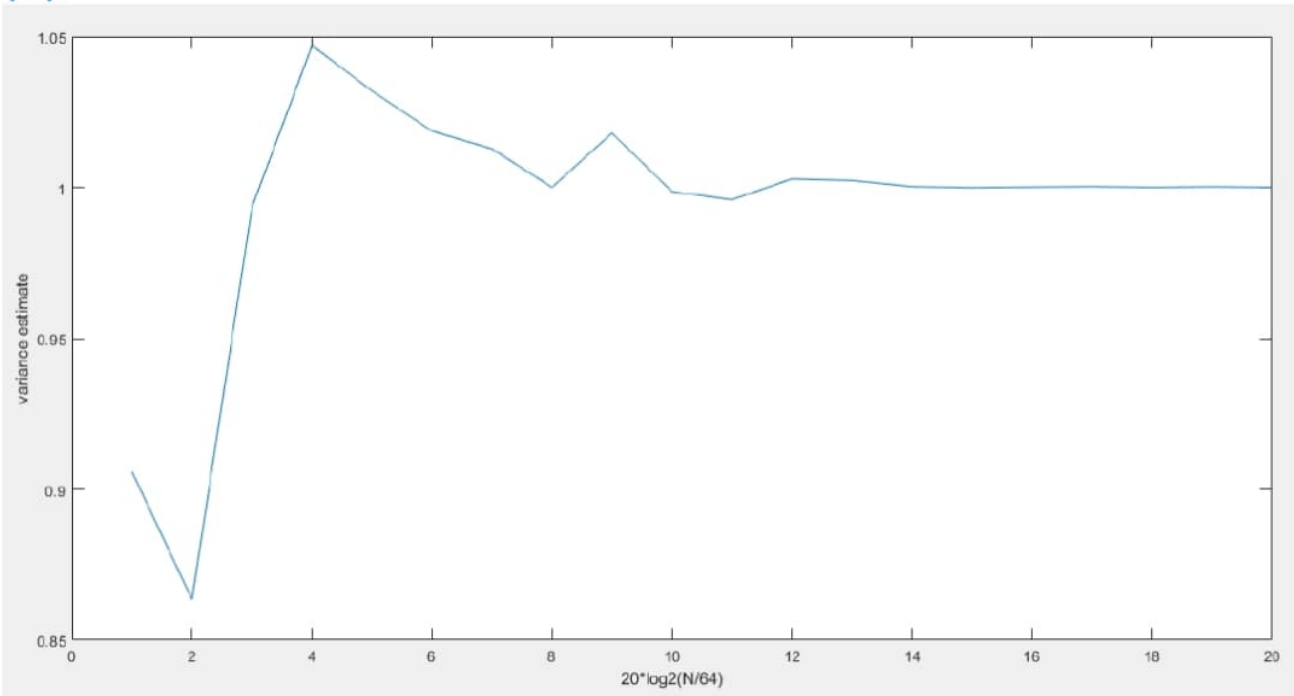
(a)



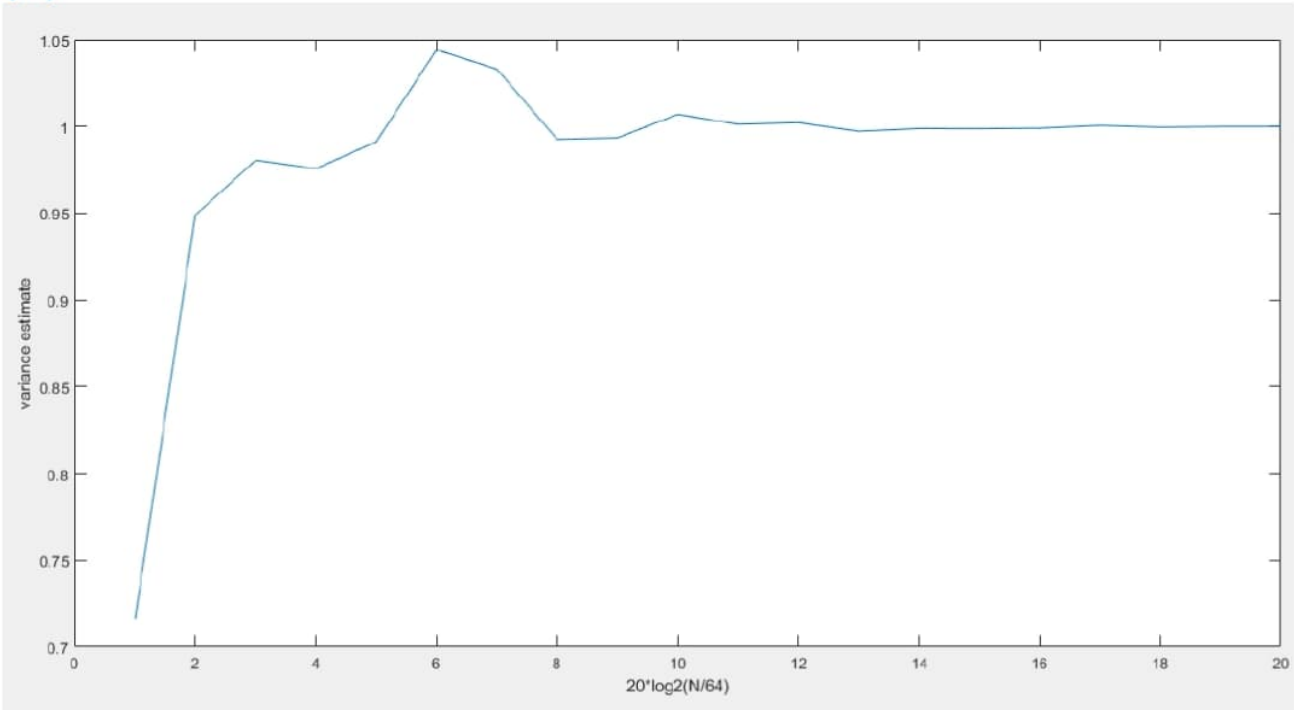
(b)



(c)



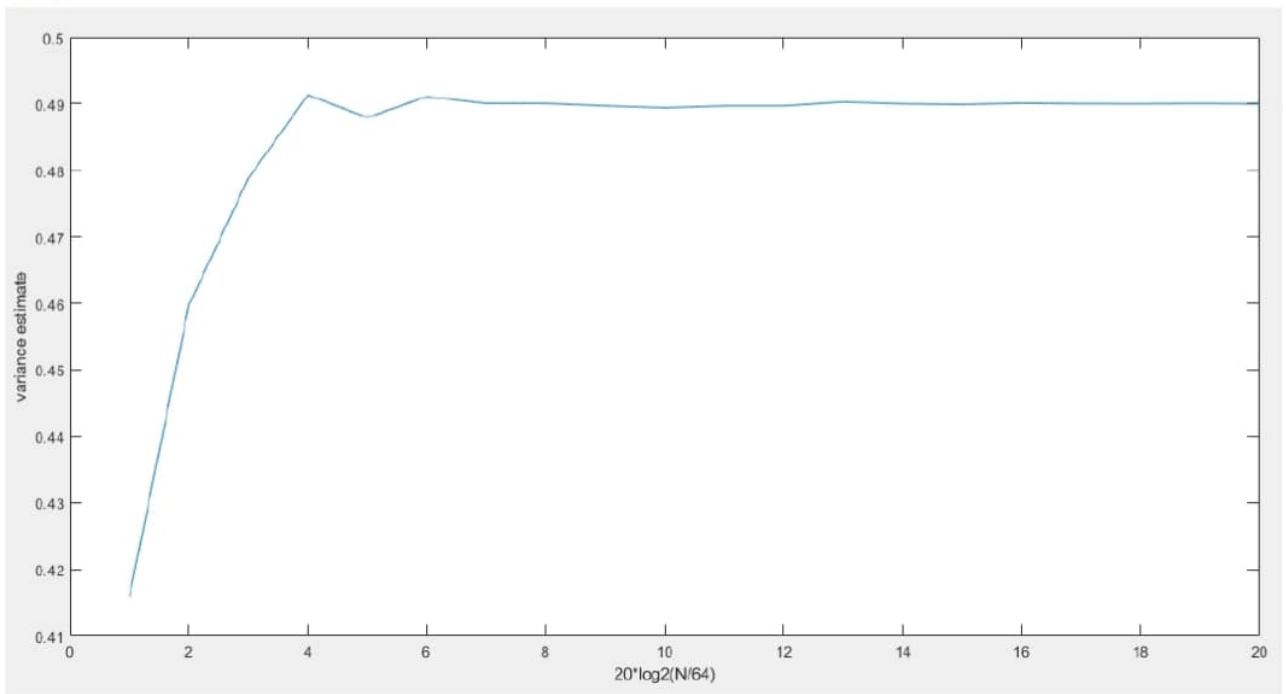
(d)





This experiment is done multiple times and plot shows the average of variance estimate of each experiment to detect the statistical behaviour of variance estimate of LD algorithm:

(a) 50 times



(b) 100 times

