Digital Communications and Laboratory
First Homework

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Problem 1

Autocorrelation estimation

Periodogram

An estimate of the statistical power of $\{x(k)\}$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{M}_x &= \frac{1}{K}\sum_{k=0}^{K-1}|x(k)|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{KT_c}\int_{-\frac{1}{2T_c}}^{\frac{1}{2T_c}}|\tilde{\mathcal{X}}(f)|^2 df\end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

An estimator of the PSD is given by

$$\mathcal{P}_{PER}(f) = \frac{1}{KT_c}|\tilde{\mathcal{X}}(f)|^2 \tag{2}$$

To compute the Fourier transform, we use `fft` function of MATLAB.
Since the transform is taken on a finite number of samples and uses by default a rectangular windows, this is a biased estimator.

Welch Periodogram

The main idea behind the Welch periodogram is to compute periodograms over different windows of the input signal and to average them.
Given an input signal of K samples, different subsequences of consecutive D samples are extracted. Notice that two following subsequences, $x^{(s)}$ and $x^{(s+1)}$, may overlap by S samples. The number of subsequences is

$$N_s = \left\lfloor \frac{K-D}{D-S} + 1 \right\rfloor \tag{3}$$

The Welch periodogram is computed as

$$\mathcal{P}_{WE}(f) = \frac{1}{N_s}\sum_{s=0}^{N_s-1}\mathcal{P}_{PER}^{(s)}(f) \tag{4}$$

where $\mathcal{P}_{PER}^{(s)}(f)$ is the periodogram computed for $x^{(s)}$ as (2) using an Hamming window of size $D = 70$ samples and overlap of size $S = 35$ samples.

Blackman and Tukey Correlogram

This estimator uses the autocorrelation unbiased estimation $\{\hat{\mathtt{r}}_x(n)\}, n = -L, \ldots, L$. Since the autocorrelation estimate is unbiased, also the estimator is unbiased.

$$\mathcal{P}_{BT}(f) = T_c\sum_{n=-L}^{L}\mathtt{w}(n)\hat{\mathtt{r}}_x(n)e^{-j2\pi f n T_c} \tag{5}$$

where `w` is a window of length $2L+1$. For this estimator, we used an Hamming window.

AR Model

One last method for estimating the PSD of a signal is using an AR model of order N to describe the process.
In this model, the process is assumed to be generated by

$$x(k) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n x(k-n) + w(k) \tag{6}$$

where w is supposed to be white noise with variance σ_w^2.
This equation is equivalent to the scheme in Figure 1, where w is filtered by an FIR filter with transfer function $H_{AR}(z) = A^{-1}(z)$, where $A(z) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n z^{-n}$.

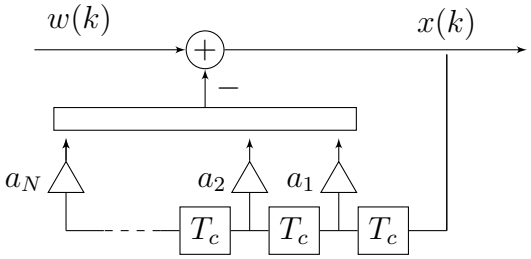


Figure 1. AR model

The z-transform of the autocorrelation sequence of x is given by

$$P_x(z) = \frac{\sigma_w^2}{A(z)A^*\left(\frac{1}{z^*}\right)} \tag{7}$$

hence the PSD of x is the Fourier transform of $P_x(z)$:

$$\mathcal{P}_x(f) = P_z(e^{j2\pi f T_c}) = \frac{T_c \sigma_w^2}{|\mathcal{A}(f)|^2} \tag{8}$$

The coefficients $a_1, a_2, ..., a_N$ can be computed using the Yule-Walker equations. Given the autocorrelation matrix

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathtt{r}_x(0) & \mathtt{r}_x(-1) & \cdots & \mathtt{r}_x(-N+1) \\ \mathtt{r}_x(1) & \mathtt{r}_z(0) & \cdots & \mathtt{r}_x(-N+2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathtt{r}_x(N-1) & \mathtt{r}_x(N-2) & \cdots & \mathtt{r}_x(0) \end{bmatrix} \tag{9}$$

and $\mathbf{r} = [\mathtt{r}_x(1), \mathtt{r}_x(2), \mathtt{r}_x(N)]^T$ the vector $\mathbf{a}$ of the coefficients of the AR model is given by

$$\mathbf{R}\,\mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{r} \tag{10}$$

If $\mathbf{R}$ admits inverse (matrix is not ill conditioned), we obtain

$$\mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{R}^{-1}\,\mathbf{r} \tag{11}$$

The variance σ_w^2 of the white noise $w(k)$ is then

$$\sigma_w^2 = \mathtt{r}_x(0) + \mathbf{r}^H \mathbf{a} \tag{12}$$

In our homework, we checked that the autocorrelation matrix $\mathbf{R}$ is indeed well conditioned, hence the solution does make sense.

Problem 2

Problem 3

Optimal predictor

The coefficients for the optimal error predictor are given by $\mathbf{c} = -\mathbf{a}$, where the vector $\mathbf{a}$ is given by the coefficients of the AR model.

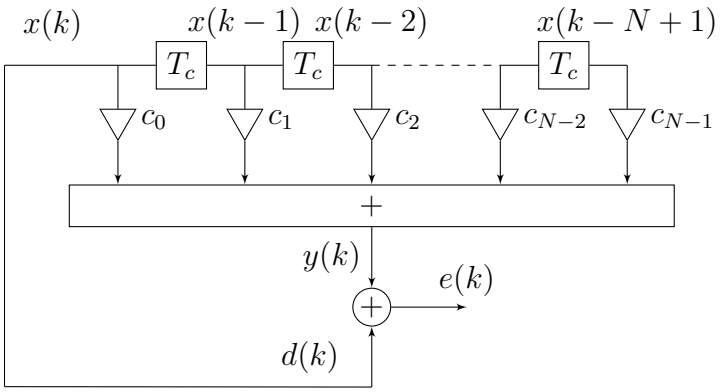


Figure 2. Wiener filter

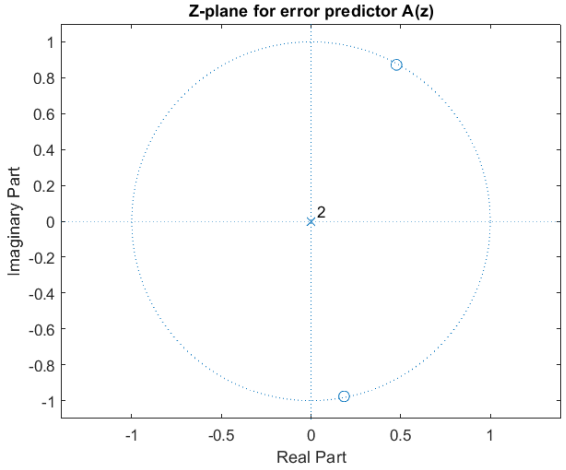


Figure 3. Z-plane for the error predictor A(z)

As we can see in Figure 3, the presence of zeros close the unit circle is a rough indicator of "discrete" frequency components.
The phase (normalized over 2π) of those zeros does determine the frequency of the discrete component.
In Table 1 the zeros of the transfer function $A(z)$ are reported, along with their magnitude and phase.

Zero	Real part	Imaginary part	Magnitude	Normalized frequency
z_1	0.4766	0.8718	0.9936	0.1704
z_2	0.1845	-0.9762	0.9936	-0.2203

Table 1. Zeros of A(z)

Problem 4

Least Mean-Square algorithm

Given a signal $x(k)$, wide sense stationary, with zero mean, let $\mathbf{x}^T(k-1)$ be the vector $[x(k-1), x(k-2), \ldots, x(k-N)]$. The one-step predictor of order N tries to estimate the value of $x(k)$ given $\mathbf{x}^T(k-1)$.
This problem can be solved considering $\mathbf{x}^T(k-1)$ the input of a Wiener filter of order N and $x(k)$ the reference signal. Then the Wiener-Hopf equation computes the optimal coefficients of the filter with

$$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{c}_{opt} = \mathbf{r} \tag{13}$$

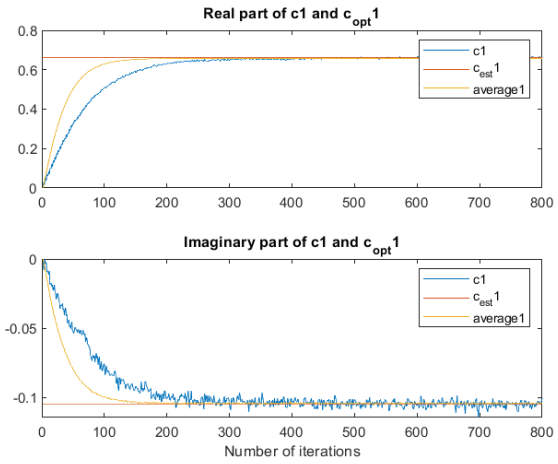
The LMS algorithm is a version of the steepest descent algorithm which provides an iterative method to approximate the optimal Wiener-Hopf solution, without knowing the autocorrelation matrix $\mathbf{R}$ and the vector $\mathbf{r}$.
The LMS algorithm updates the coefficients of the Wiener filter at each iteration k with the equation

$$\mathbf{c}(k+1) = \mathbf{c}(k) + \mu e(k)\mathbf{x}^*(k-1) \tag{14}$$

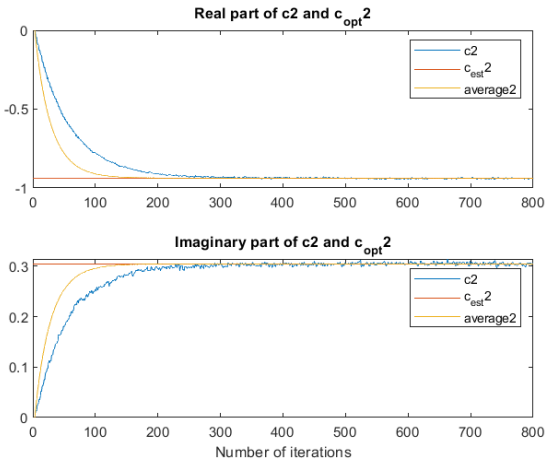
where $e(k)$ is the estimation error between the reference signal $x(k)$ and the filter prediction $y(k)$.
Besides the filter order N, LMS relies on the update coefficient: $\mu = \frac{\tilde{\mu}}{N r_x(0)}$.
For convergence, it must hold $0 < \tilde{\mu} < 2$.
At each step, the algorithm computes $y(k) = \mathbf{x}^T(k-1)\mathbf{c}(k)$ and $e(k)$, then it updates the coefficients using Equation (14).

Implementation and results

At the beginning, we decided to initialize the Wiener filter coefficients to zero and the input signal before $k = 0$ to zero: $\mathbf{c}(0) = \mathbf{0}$, $x(k) = 0, \forall\, k < 0$.
Applying the algorithm on a single realization of the process we obtained a grassy behavior of the coefficients and the error.
Using $k_{max} = 800$ and update coefficient $\tilde{\mu} = 0.05$ resulted in convergence.
Then we applied the LMS over 300 different realizations of the signal and took the average value for coefficients and error for each iteration. The behavior is much smoother than in the previous analysis, especially for $|e(k)|^2$.
In Figure 5 it is shown the behavior of coefficients c_i, $i = 1, 2$, their mean and the mean across 300 realizations, as the number of iterations k increases.
In Figure 6 it is shown the behavior of the cost function $J(k) = E\left[|e(k)|^2\right]$ and its optimal solution J_{min} across 300 realizations, as the number of iterations k increases.

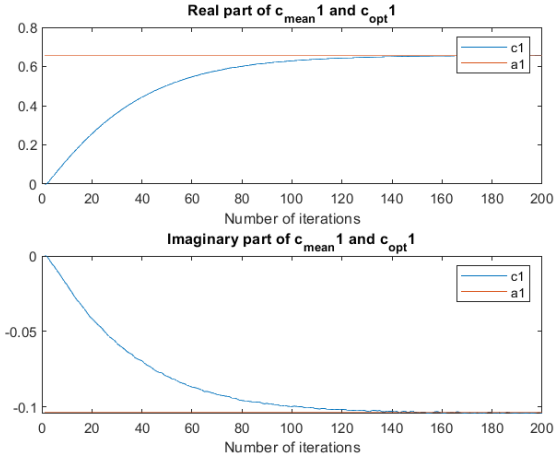


(a) Real and imaginary part of c_1

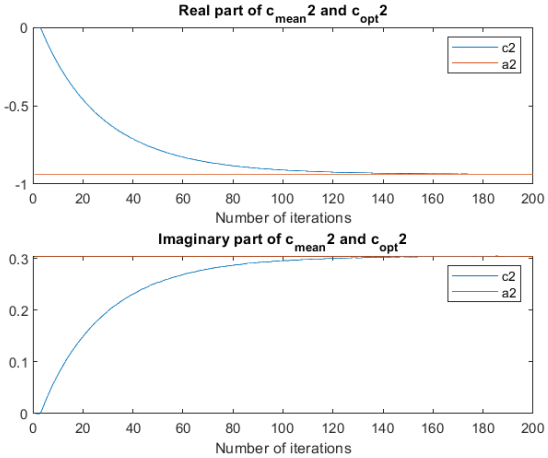


(b) Real and imaginary part of c_2

Figure 4. Coefficients for one realization



(a) Real and imaginary part of c_1



(b) Real and imaginary part of c_2

Figure 5. Coefficients by averaging over 300 realizations

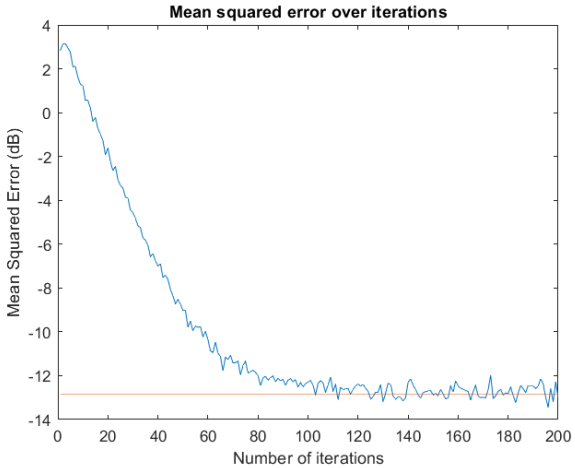


Figure 6. Mean squared error by averaging over 300 realizations