Lecture 16: Linear Prediction

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ECE 401: Signal and Image Analysis, Fall 2020

- Review: All-Pole Filters
- 2 Inverse Filtering
- 3 Linear Prediction
- 4 Finding the Linear Predictive Coefficients
- Summary

Outline

- 1 Review: All-Pole Filters
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All-Pole Filter

An all-pole filter has the system function:

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{(1 - p_1 z^{-1})(1 - p_1^* z^{-1})} = \frac{1}{1 - a_1 z^{-1} - a_2 z^{-2}},$$

so it can be implemented as

$$y[n] = x[n] + a_1y[n-1] + a_2y[n-2]$$

where

$$a_1 = (p_1 + p_1^*) = 2e^{-\sigma_1}\cos(\omega_1)$$

 $a_2 = -|p_1|^2 = -e^{-2\sigma_1}$

Frequency Response of an All-Pole Filter

We get the magnitude response by just plugging in $z=e^{j\omega}$, and taking absolute value:

$$|H(\omega)| = |H(z)|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \frac{1}{|e^{j\omega} - p_1| \times |e^{j\omega} - p_1^*|}$$

Impulse Response of an All-Pole Filter

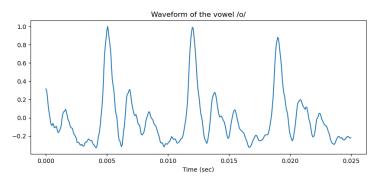
We get the impulse response using partial fraction expansion:

$$h[n] = (C_1 p_1^n + C_1^* (p_1^*)^n) u[n]$$

= $\frac{1}{\sin(\omega_1)} e^{-\sigma_1 n} \sin(\omega_1 (n+1)) u[n]$

Speech is made up of Damped Sinusoids

Resonant systems, like speech, trumpets, and bells, are made up from the series combination of second-order all-pole filters.

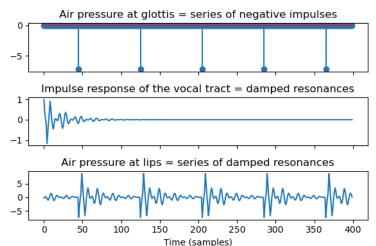


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Speech

Speech is made when we take a series of impulses, one every 5-10ms, and filter them through a resonant cavity (like a bell).



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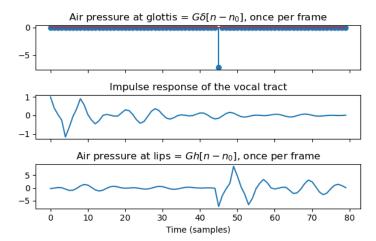
$$S(z) = H(z)E(z) = \frac{1}{A(z)}E(z)$$

where the excitation signal is a set of impulses, maybe only one per frame:

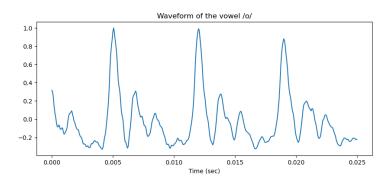
$$e[n] = G\delta[n - n_0]$$

The only thing we don't know, really, is the amplitude of the impulse (G), and the time at which it occurs (n_0) . Can we find out?

Speech: The Model



Speech: The Real Thing



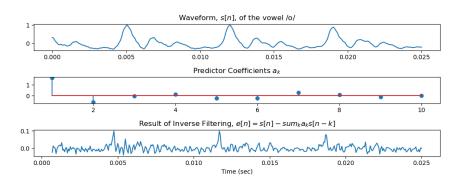
If S(z) = E(z)/A(z), then we can get E(z) back again by doing something called an **inverse filter**:

IF:
$$S(z) = \frac{1}{A(z)}E(z)$$
 THEN: $E(z) = A(z)S(z)$

The inverse filter, A(z), has a form like this:

$$A(z) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k z^{-k}$$

where p is twice the number of resonant frequencies. So if speech has 4-5 resonances, then $p\approx 10$.



This one is an all-pole (feedback-only) filter:

$$S(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k z^{-k}} E(z)$$

That means this one is an all-zero (feedfoward only) filter:

$$E(z) = \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k z^{-k}\right) S(z)$$

which we can implement just like this:

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

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Linear Predictive Analysis

This particular feedforward filter is called **linear predictive** analysis:

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

It's kind of like we're trying to predict s[n] using a linear combination of its own past samples:

$$\hat{s}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k s[n-k],$$

and then e[n], the glottal excitation, is the part that can't be predicted:

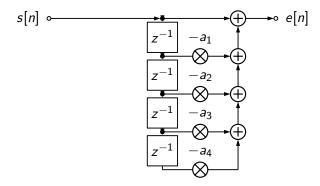
$$e[n] = s[n] - \hat{s}[n]$$

Linear Predictive Analysis

Actually, linear predictive analysis is used a lot more often in finance, these days, than in speech:

- In finance: detect important market movements = price changes that are not predictable from recent history.
- In health: detect EKG patterns that are not predictable from recent history.
- In geology: detect earthquakes = impulses that are not predictable from recent history.
- ... you get the idea...

Linear Predictive Analysis Filter



Linear Predictive Synthesis

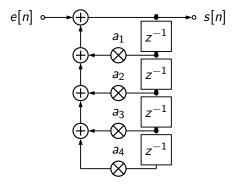
The corresponding feedback filter is called **linear predictive synthesis**. The idea is that, given e[n], we can resynthesize s[n] by adding feedback, because:

$$S(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k z^{-k}} E(z)$$

means that

$$s[n] = e[n] + \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k s[n-k]$$

Linear Predictive Synthesis Filter



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Things we don't know:

- The timing of the unpredictable event (n_0) , and its amplitude (G).
- The coefficients a_k .

It seems that, in order to find n_0 and G, we first need to know the predictor coefficients, a_k . How can we find a_k ?

Let's make the following assumption:

• Everything that can be predicted is part of $\hat{s}[n]$. Only the unpredictable part is e[n].

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- So we define e[n] to be:

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

• ... and then choose a_k to make e[n] as small as possible.

$$a_k = \operatorname{argmin} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^2[n]$$

So we've formulated the problem like this: we want to find a_k in order to minimize:

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2}[n] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(s[n] - \sum_{m=1}^{p} a_{m} s[n-m] \right)^{2}$$

We want to find the coefficients a_k that minimize \mathcal{E} . We can do that by differentiating, and setting the derivative equal to zero:

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{da_k} = 2\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(s[n] - \sum_{m=1}^{p} a_m s[n-m] \right) s[n-k], \text{ for all } 1 \le k \le p$$

$$0 = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} \left(s[n] - \sum_{m=1}^{p} a_m s[n-m] \right) s[n-k], \quad \text{for all } 1 \le k \le p$$

This is a set of p different equations (for $1 \le k \le p$) in p different unknowns (a_k) . So it can be solved.

Autocorrelation

In order to write the solution more easily, let's define something called the "autocorrelation," R[m]:

$$R[m] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s[n]s[n-m]$$

In terms of the autocorrelation, the derivative of the error is

$$0 = R[k] - \sum_{m=1}^{p} a_m R[k-m] \quad \forall \ 1 \le k \le p$$

or we could write

$$R[k] = \sum_{m=1}^{p} a_m R[k-m] \quad \forall \ 1 \le k \le p$$

Matrices

Since we have p linear equations in p unknowns, let's write this as a matrix equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} R[1] \\ R[2] \\ \vdots \\ R[p] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R[0] & R[1] & \cdots & R[p-1] \\ R[1] & R[0] & \cdots & R[p-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R[p-1] & R[p-2] & \cdots & R[0] \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_p \end{bmatrix}$$

where I've taken advantage of the fact that R[m] = R[-m]:

$$R[m] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s[n]s[n-m]$$

Matrices

Since we have p linear equations in p unknowns, let's write this as a matrix equation:

$$\vec{\gamma}=R\vec{a}$$

where

$$\vec{\gamma} = \begin{bmatrix} R[1] \\ R[2] \\ \vdots \\ R[p] \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} R[0] & R[1] & \cdots & R[p-1] \\ R[1] & R[0] & \cdots & R[p-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R[p-1] & R[p-2] & \cdots & R[0] \end{bmatrix}.$$

Matrices

Since we have p linear equations in p unknowns, let's write this as a matrix equation:

$$\vec{\gamma}=R\vec{a}$$

and therefore the solution is

$$\vec{a} = R^{-1} \vec{\gamma}$$

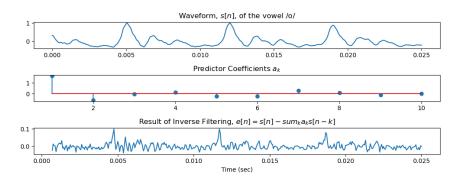
So here's the way we perform linear predictive analysis:

• Create the matrix R and vector $\vec{\gamma}$:

$$\vec{\gamma} = \begin{bmatrix} R[1] \\ R[2] \\ \vdots \\ R[p] \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} R[0] & R[1] & \cdots & R[p-1] \\ R[1] & R[0] & \cdots & R[p-2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R[p-1] & R[p-2] & \cdots & R[0] \end{bmatrix}$$

Invert R.

$$\vec{a} = R^{-1} \vec{\gamma}$$



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which we implement using a feedfoward difference equation, that computes a linear prediction of s[n], then finds the difference between s[n] and its linear prediction:

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

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- So we define e[n] to be:

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• ...and then choose a_k to make e[n] as small as possible.

$$a_k = \operatorname{argmin} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^2[n]$$

which, when solved, gives us the simple equation $\vec{a} = R^{-1} \vec{\gamma}$.