

## Adaptive Filter for Noise Canceling

Adaptive signal processing systems have been used in several biomedical applications, such as removal of 60 Hz power line interference, and cancellation of maternal ECG from the ECG of the unborn baby (Widrow et al 1975). These systems are digital filters with coefficients, or "weights" (Stearns, 1988). The driving force for adjusting the weights is the reduction of the mean square error between the desired and the actual response. A special case is the performance feedback, adaptive interference canceling system (fig. 1.23) (Widrow et al., 1975). Consider  $d_k$  and  $x_k$  to be generated by a pressure pulse associated reference (noise) sensor. The subscript  $k$ , following Widrow's notation, denotes time<sup>1</sup> and can range from zero to infinity. The adaptive system seeks to reduce the difference between the pulse signal  $d_k$ , and its own response  $Y_k$ , by updating weights, at each sample time  $k$ , so that the mean square error  $MSE = E[E_k^2] = (1/N) \sum (E_k^2)$  approaches its minimum value. When  $s_k$  and  $n_k$  are uncorrelated, the minimal error is obtained when  $Y_k = n_k$ . Output pulse points, calculated nonrecursively, are given by the error  $E_k$ . Although the use of multiple noise inputs are also possible (Stearns, 1988), only a single noise input is considered here.

The adaptive process, by seeking the minimal mean squared error, amounts to a search for the lowest point on a "performance surface", or "error surface" in multidimensional space. Equations describing the surface can be developed by first defining the correlation functions for the signals in fig. 1:

$$\text{cross correlation } r_{dx}(n) = E [d_k, x_{k+n}] = (1/N) \sum (d_k - x_{k+n}) \quad (17)$$

$$\text{auto correlation } r_{xx}(n) = E [x_k, x_{k+n}] = (1/N) \sum (x_k - x_{k+n}) \quad (18)$$

where  $n$  represents a difference in starting points for correlation of the signals. By definition:

$$r_{xd}(n) = r_{dx}(-n) \quad (19)$$

The MSE can be estimated by assuming fixed filter weights so that  $y_k$  is stationary:

$$MSE = \xi = E [\varepsilon_k^2] = E [(d_k - y_k)^2] \quad (20)$$

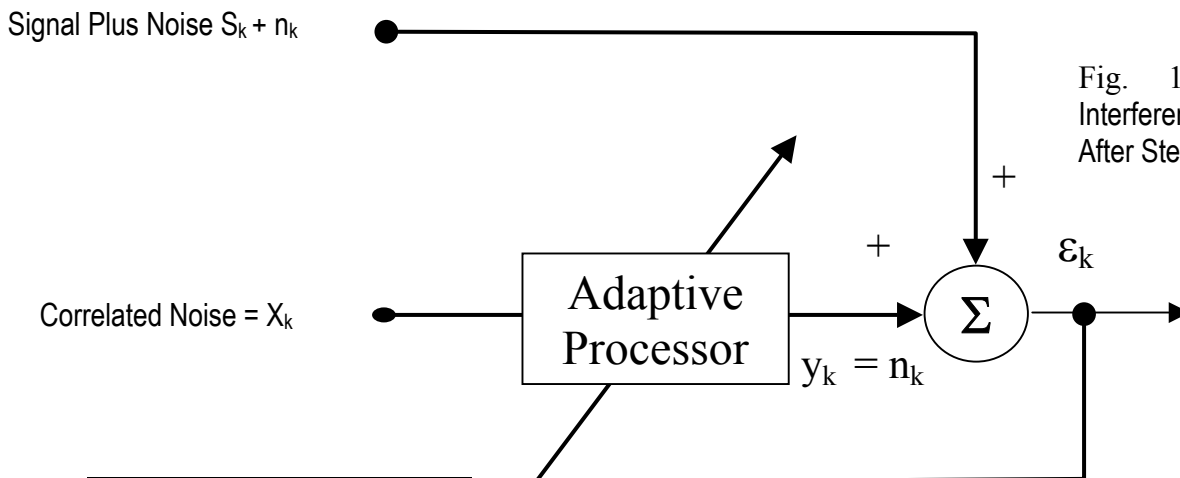


Fig. 1 Method of Adaptive Interference Canceling. After Stearns, 1988.

<sup>1</sup>For instance,  $d_k = d(k) = d(t)$

$$\xi = E [ d_k^2 ] + E [ y_k^2 ] - 2 E [ d_k * y_k ] \quad (21)$$

$$= r_{dd}(0) + r_{yy}(0) - 2 * r_{dy}(0) \quad (22)$$

It would be useful to know the MSE in terms of the correlation functions which pertain to the input signal  $x$ , rather than processed signal  $y$ . The power spectral relationships of the correlation functions can be used. The  $z$ -transform of any correlation function is its corresponding power spectrum (Oppenheim and Schaffer, 1975), e.g.:

$$G_{uv}(z) = \sum r_{uv}(n) * z^{-n} \quad (23)$$

and the inverse  $z$  transform relationship is:

$$r_{uv}(n) = (1/2\pi j) \int G_{uv}(z) * z^n * (dz/z) \quad (24)$$

Using Eq. (1.24) with  $n = 0$  in Eq. (1.22), the MSE is:

$$MSE = r_{dd}(0) + (1/2\pi j) \int [G_{yy}(z) - G_{dy}(z)] (dz/z) \quad (25)$$

The power spectral relationships for fig. 1.23 are (Widrow and Stearns, 1985):

$$G_{yy}(z) = W(z) * W(z^{-1}) * G_{xx}(z) \quad (26)$$

$$G_{dy}(z) = W(z) * W(z^{-1}) * G_{dx}(z) \quad (27)$$

where  $W(z)$  represents the  $z$ -transform of the weight vector. Incorporating Eqs. (1.26) and (1.27) in Eq. (1.25), the expression for MSE is:

$$MSE = r_{dd}(0) + (1/2\pi j) \int [W(z^{-1}) * G_{xx}(z) - 2 * G_{dx}(z)] * W(z) ] (dz/z) \quad (28)$$

Assuming  $W(z)$  is a causal filter with  $n$  weights (Stearns, 1988):

$$W(z) = \sum w_i * z^{-i} \quad (i = 0, L-1) \quad (29)$$

Then:

$$MSE = r_{dd}(0) + \sum \sum w_i w_m r_{xx}(i-m) - 2 \sum w_i r_{xd}(i) \quad \text{for } (i, m = 0, L-1) \quad (30)$$

This is the general expression for the performance surface of a causal FIR adaptive filter with  $L$  weights. The MSE is a quadratic surface because the weights appear only to the first and second degrees in Eq. (1.30). Using the following definitions, which assume a single (noise) input, Eq. (1.30) can be simplified:

$$\text{single input signal: } \mathbf{X}_k = [x_k \ x_{k-1} \ \dots \ x_{k-L+1}]^T \quad (31)$$

$$\text{auto correlation matrix } \mathbf{R} = E[\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{X}_k] \quad (32)$$

$$\text{cross correlation vector: } \mathbf{P} = E[\mathbf{d}_k \mathbf{X}_k] \quad (33)$$

$$= [r_{xd}(0) \ r_{xd}(1) \ \dots \ r_{xd}(L-1)]^T$$

$$\text{weight vector: } \mathbf{W} = [w_0 \ w_1 \ \dots \ w_{L-1}]^T \quad (34)$$

Then Eq. 1.30 can be written equivalently, as:

$$\text{MSE} = r_{dd}(0) + \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{W} - 2 \mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{W} \quad (35)$$

Since the MSE is always positive, the performance surface, being quadratic, must be parabolic, and "concave up" (Stearns, 1988). For stationary signals, the performance surface is thus a parabolic "bowl" in  $L+1$  dimensional space (fig. 2). In typical applications with nonstationary, slowly varying signal statistics, the bowl drifts in space as the signal properties change slowly with time. Adaptation is the process of searching for and continually tracking the bottom of the bowl.

One method to seek the bottom of the weight bowl is to use a gradient (Widrow et al., 1975). Differentiating Eq. 1.35 with respect to the weight vector, the gradient is:

$$\nabla = \partial (\text{MSE}) / \partial \mathbf{W} = \partial (\text{MSE}) / \partial w_0 \ \partial (\text{MSE}) / \partial w_1 \ \dots \ \partial (\text{MSE}) / \partial w_{L-1} \quad (36)$$

$$= 2 \mathbf{R} \mathbf{W} - 2 \mathbf{P}$$

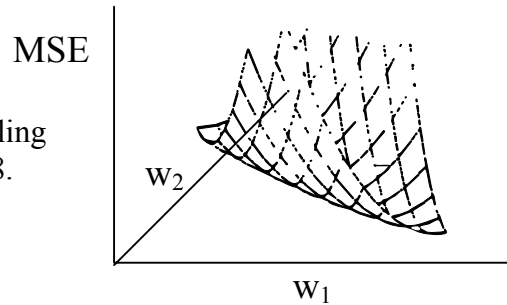


Fig. 2. Example of an interference canceling performance surface. After Stearns, 1988.

Since the bowl is quadratic, the global minimum MSE is obtained when  $\nabla = 0$ . The optimum weight vector,  $\mathbf{W}^*$ , is then obtained:

$$\mathbf{W}^* = \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{W} - (1/2) * \mathbf{R}^{-1} * \nabla \quad (37)$$

The least mean squares (LMS) algorithm of Widrow et al. (1975) is based on Making a local estimate of the gradient  $\nabla$ , and moving incrementally downward toward the bottom of the bowl. Therefore one adaptive cycle consists of determining  $\nabla$  at time  $k$  and making an appropriate adjustment in the weight vector from  $\mathbf{W}_k$  to  $\mathbf{W}_{k+1}$  in order to move toward  $\mathbf{W}^*$  at the bottom of the bowl, which can be written as (Stearns, 1988):

$$\mathbf{W}_{k+1} = \mathbf{W}_k - \mu * \mathbf{R}^{-1} * \nabla_k \quad (38)$$

Where  $\mu$  is a constant and determines the time for convergence. In general the  $\mathbf{R}$  matrix is not known, but it is related to the signal power, and Eq. (1.38) can be approximated as (Stearns, 1988):

$$\mathbf{W}_{k+1} = \mathbf{W}_k + 2 \mu * \varepsilon_k * \mathbf{X}_k * (1/L \sigma^2) \quad (39)$$

for  $0 < \mu < 1$ . This is the LMS algorithm. The input signal power  $\sigma^2$  can be estimated, for instance, by squaring the noise signal and averaging it with an exponential low pass filter and suitably long time constant. Employing one weight, Eq. (1.39) becomes:

$$w_{k+1} = w_k + 2\mu * (d_k - w_k x_k + [LPF[x_k] - LPF [d_k]] * x_k / LPF[x_k^2]) \quad (40)$$

where signal offset  $LPF [x_k] - LPF [d_k]$  is subtracted to provide best signal overlap of pulse signals to noise signals, and the signal power  $\mu$  is estimated by  $LPF [x_k^2]$ . Lin and Chang (1988) implemented the LMS algorithm for processing of the pulmonary artery pressure signal. Low frequency artifact, added to simulate periodic respiration, was removed adaptively to obtain a stable baseline. Addition of more weights was found to enhance accuracy but also prolonged the convergence time.