

ECE 5654 Lecture 22

DFE & Adaptive Equalization

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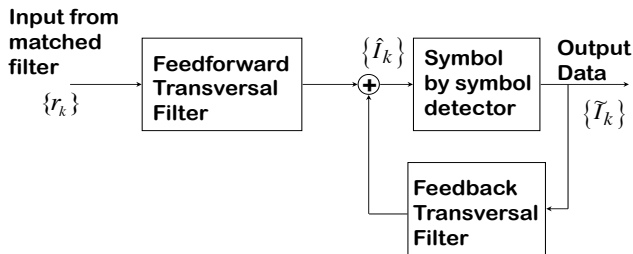
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Learning Objectives

At the end of this lecture, the student should be able to:

- Describe Decision Feedback equalization
- Describe Adaptive Equalization Schemes

Decision Feedback Equalization



- Once the output symbols are estimated, they can be used to help estimate the channel impulse response
- DFE can result in complete elimination of inter-symbol interference provided decisions are correct and the feedback filter is long enough to compensate for the longest ISI
- Feedforward filter can be ZF/MMSE

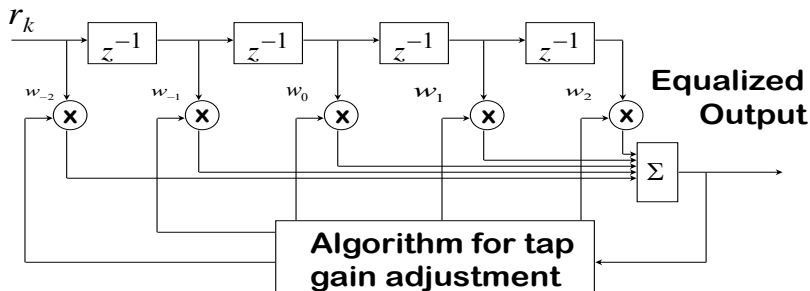
- Input to Feed-forward filter is the received signal sequence
- Feedback filter takes the previously detected symbols as input
- Feedback filter removes that part of ISI caused by the previously detected symbols
- Since the detector feeds hard decisions, DFE is a non-linear equalizer

Adaptive Equalization

- Previously we examined equalizers which can improve performance in ISI channels
- In time varying channels, the optimal equalizer coefficients will vary with time and thus must be constantly estimated and updated
- This update technique is called an adaptive algorithm
- The algorithm used depends both on the minimization criterion and the update approach

Linear Transversal Filter

Unequalized Input



$$r_k = \sum_n I_n h_{k-n} + \nu_k$$

Linear Transversal Filter Equalizer

- Complex samples of the received signal input into the equalizer, i.e., r_k
- Each element z^{-1} represents one sample delay
- $2K + 1$ taps on the equalizer (i.e., $2K + 1$ complex coefficients w_k)
- Equalized output samples: $\hat{l}_k = \sum_{j=-K}^K w_j r_{k-j}$
- Decision is made based on \hat{l}_k

Distortion Criteria

- Choice of tap coefficients depends on choice of decision criteria
- Peak distortion criteria leads to zero-forcing equalizer
- Mean Squared Error (MSE) criteria is much more widely used:
 $E[|(I_k - \hat{I}_k)|^2]$

Summary of **Non Adaptive** MMSE Solution

- MMSE equalizer: select \mathbf{w} to minimize $E[|(I_k - \sum_{j=-K}^K w_j r_{k-j})|^2]$
- The optimal MMSE equalizer selects $\mathbf{w} = [w_{-K} \dots w_0 \dots w_K]^T$ as:

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{R}_{rr}^{-1} \mathbf{d} \quad (1)$$

where

- \mathbf{R}_{rr} is the covariance matrix of the input data, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{R}_{rr} = E[\mathbf{r}\mathbf{r}^T]$$

- \mathbf{d} is the correlation between the received signal and the information sequence

$$\mathbf{d} = E[\mathbf{r}I_k] = \mathbf{h}$$

More on MMSE

- Covariance matrix:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_{rr} &= E[\mathbf{r}\mathbf{r}^T] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} h_i l_{k-K-i} + \nu_{k-K} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} h_i l_{k+K-i} + \nu_{k+K} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} h_i l_{k-K-i} + \nu_{k-K} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} h_i l_{k+K-i} + \nu_{k+K} \end{bmatrix}^T \\ &= \mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T + \frac{N_0}{2}\mathbf{I}\end{aligned}$$

- Cross-correlation vector:

$$\mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{K+1} \\ \vdots \\ h_0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Problems with Non-Adaptive Solution

- The direct solution requires estimation of \mathbf{R}_{rr} and \mathbf{d} followed by inversion of \mathbf{R}_{rr} and multiplication with \mathbf{d}
- This approach is also sometimes called DMI (direct matrix inversion)
- Requires direct computation of a full matrix inversion with every update
- Explicitly makes use of channel parameters which must be estimated
- Combined, this results in a very computationally intense approach, especially in a time varying environment
- Solution: Real-time Adaptive Algorithms
- Least Mean Square (LMS) (Gradient search technique)
- Recursive Least Squares (RLS) (Estimates matrix inverse)

Least Mean Squares (LMS) Algorithm

- We begin with an initial guess for the solution \mathbf{w}_0
- We form a sequence of estimates $\mathbf{w}_0, \mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots$, of the solution to the equation $\mathbf{R}_{rr}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{d}$
- The estimates of solution are found using the [steepest descent method](#)
- Estimates are updated iteratively:

$$\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \mathbf{w}_k - \Delta \cdot \mathbf{G}_k$$

where

- Δ is a small constant to control the step size of the update
- \mathbf{G}_k is the gradient vector of the error (i.e., the derivative of the MSE wrt the coefficients)

$$\mathbf{G}_k = -E[e_k \mathbf{r}_k^*]$$

Gradient Vector in LMS Algorithm

- Calculation of the gradient vector requires knowledge of covariance matrix \mathbf{R}_{rr} and cross-correlation vector \mathbf{d}
- In practice, we use the actual samples as the unbiased estimate of the true gradient
- This is the stochastic version of the method of steepest descent
- The LMS Algorithm:

$$\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \mathbf{w}_k + \Delta \cdot e_k \mathbf{r}_k^*$$

- Note that $e_k \mathbf{r}_k^*$ is the unbiased estimate of the gradient

Interpretation of LMS Algorithm

- Coefficients are adjusted in small steps to reduce the error in the response of the equalizer to the current set of input samples
- Coefficients can be updated after each new sample
- Note that this algorithm implicitly makes use of channel parameters, but only makes use of the received signal samples which we can directly measure
- Error calculation (e_k) requires knowledge of the information symbols I_k , which are in general unknown.
- Thus, we must send a training sequence periodically.

Role of Step Size in LMS Algorithm

- Larger Δ means faster convergence to optimum
- However, Δ cannot be arbitrarily large
- $\Delta < \frac{2}{\lambda_{max}}$, to guarantee convergence of algorithm, where λ_{max} is the largest eigenvalue of the covariance matrix \mathbf{R}_{rr}
- Larger Δ also means that the algorithm will be less likely to finely converge to the optimal solution at the end - sometimes called “excess MSE”
- Too small a choice for Δ may prevent the LMS algorithm from adapting to a rapidly-varying channel

Key Weakness of the LMS Algorithm

- Clearly, a good choice of Δ must be made to avoid too slow initial convergence or poor final convergence and instability
- The same step size Δ must be used for the update of all coefficients, even though some may be more sensitive to instability and others may be more important to update rapidly
- Solution: Recursive Least Squares Algorithm

Recursive Least Squares (RLS) Algorithm

- The RLS algorithm implements the optimal solution $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{R}_{rr}^{-1} \mathbf{d}$ by iteratively estimating \mathbf{R}_{rr} and \mathbf{d} and then using the matrix inversion lemma
- Stochastic estimate of \mathbf{R}_{rr} :

$$\mathbf{R}_k = \alpha \mathbf{R}_{k-1} + \mathbf{r}_k \mathbf{r}_k^\dagger$$

- Matrix Inversion Lemma:

$$(A + UCV)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}$$

- Stochastic inverse using matrix inversion lemma gives:

$$\mathbf{R}_k^{-1} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left(\mathbf{R}_{k-1}^{-1} - \frac{\mathbf{R}_{k-1}^{-1} \mathbf{r}_k \mathbf{r}_k^\dagger \mathbf{R}_{k-1}^{-1}}{\alpha + \mathbf{r}_k^\dagger \mathbf{R}_{k-1}^{-1} \mathbf{r}_k} \right)$$

Recursive Least Squares (RLS) Algorithm

- We then update the weights according to:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{w}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{R}_{k+1}^{-1} \mathbf{d}_{k+1} \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \left(\mathbf{R}_k^{-1} - \mathbf{K}_{k+1} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\dagger \mathbf{R}_k^{-1} \right) (\alpha \mathbf{d}_k + l_k \mathbf{r}_{k+1}^*) \\ &= \mathbf{w}_k + \mathbf{K}_{k+1} \left(l_k - \mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\dagger \mathbf{w}_k \right) \\ &= \mathbf{w}_k + \mathbf{K}_{k+1} e_k\end{aligned}$$

- Here, we have defined

$$\mathbf{K}_{k+1} = \frac{\mathbf{R}_k^{-1} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\alpha + \mathbf{r}_{k+1} \mathbf{R}_k^{-1} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\dagger} = \frac{\mathbf{P}_k \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\alpha + \mathbf{r}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_k \mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\dagger}$$

- This is also known as the Kalman Gain vector
- \mathbf{P}_k is the recursively updated inverse of the correlation matrix

RLS Algorithm

- The recursive method of computing the matrix inversion is at the heart of the RLS algorithm
- The coefficient $0 < \alpha < 1$ is a scalar which we will discuss in a moment
- Rather than minimizing the average mean-square error like the LMS, the RLS algorithm is minimizing the actual squared error for the given data sequence
- The RLS algorithm is an implementation of a more general technique known as Kalman Filtering
- The Kalman gain replaces the fixed step size in updating the equalizer coefficients

Role of the Weighting Factor α

- The weighting factor $0 < \alpha < 1$ determines how quickly older data is discarded from the updated estimate
- Large α means that older data included in the estimate for a longer period of time
- Small α means that older data is discounted quickly

- The RLS algorithm converges faster than the LMS algorithm
- The RLS algorithm is more computationally complex than the LMS algorithm
- Note that the recursive nature of the RLS algorithm is still simpler than a full matrix inversion operation
- Note that the RLS algorithm operates directly on signal samples

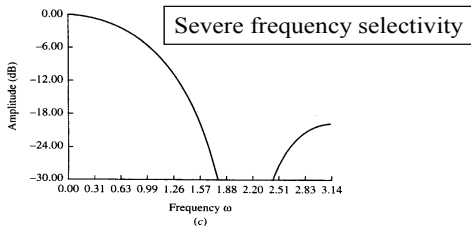
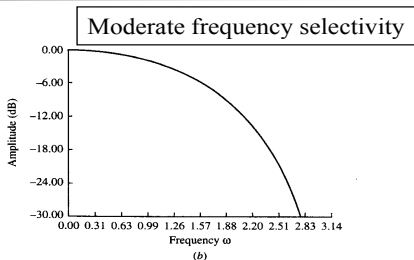
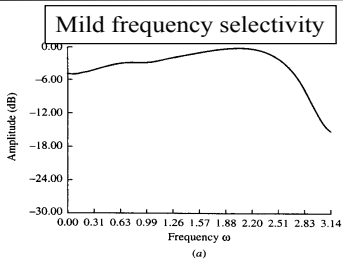
Trained vs. Blind Equalization

- Note that the computation of the error $e_k = I_k - \hat{I}_k$ is required for implementation of these algorithms
- Many systems use initial training sequences for which I_k is known to both transmitter and receiver
- Example: GSM transmits periodic training sequences as part of each signal frame
- Recently, there has been interest in “Blind Equalization” techniques, which require no training at all

Summary of Adaptive Algorithms

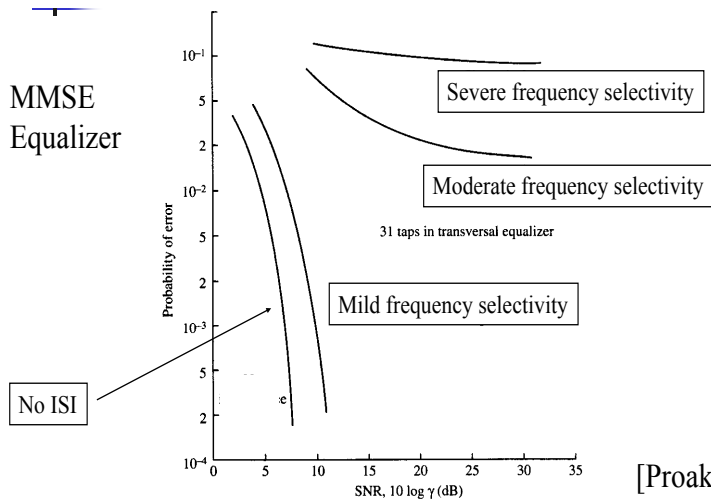
- Two adaptive algorithms were presented to adapt equalizer coefficients
- The LMS algorithm is less complex
- The RLS algorithm converges faster
- User-specified parameters determine the speed of convergence for each of these algorithms

Three Frequency Selective Channels



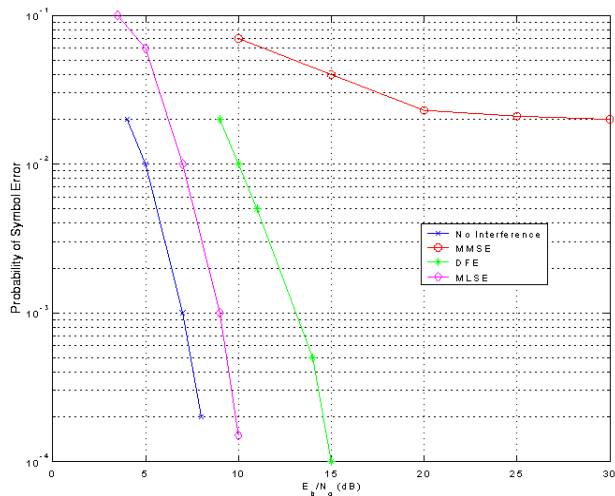
[Proakis 2001]

Performance of Linear Transversal Filter Equalizer



[Proakis 2001]

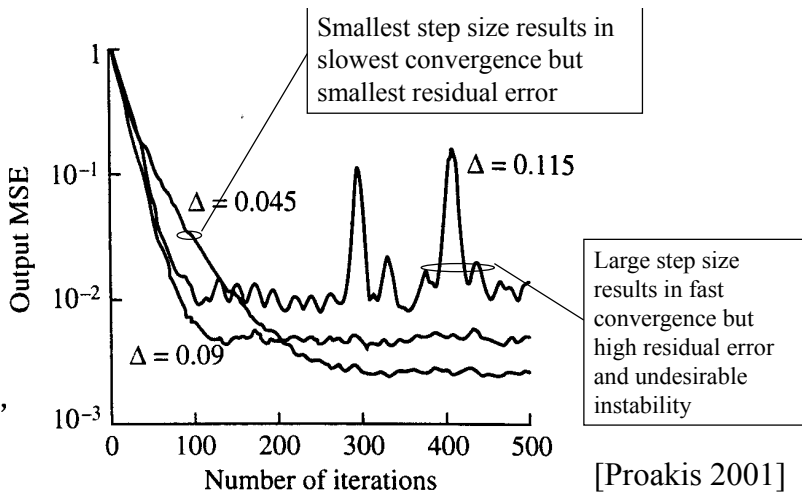
Performance of different Equalizers



Moderate
Frequency
Selectivity

DFE can provide
substantial gains

Effect of Step Size on LMS Algorithm



Convergence Rate of LMS (Gradient) vs RLS (Kalman)

