Extension of Wirtinger's Calculus in RKH Spaces and the Complex Kernel LMS

A unified framework for complex signal processing in RKHS

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Outline

- Signal Processing with Kernels
 - Preliminaries
 - Kernel LMS
- Wirtinger's Calculus
 - The Complex Case: Wirtinger's Calculus
 - Wirtinger's Calculus in complex RKHS
- Complex Kernel LMS
 - Formulation
 - Sparsification
 - Experiments

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This procedure is equivalent with a non linear processing in F.

Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces.

Consider a linear class \mathcal{H} of real valued functions f defined on a set X (in particular \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space), for which there exists a function $\kappa: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ with the following two properties:

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- **①** For every $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\kappa(\cdot, x)$ belongs to \mathcal{H} .

$$f(x) = \langle f, \kappa(\cdot, x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \text{ for all } f \in \mathcal{H}, x \in \mathcal{X}.$$
 (1)

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$$\mathcal{X} \ni \mathbf{X} \to \Phi(\mathbf{X}) := \kappa(\cdot, \mathbf{X}) \in \mathcal{H}$$

$$\mathcal{X} \ni \mathbf{y} \to \Phi(\mathbf{y}) := \kappa(\cdot, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{H},$$

then the inner product in \mathcal{H} is given as a function computed on \mathcal{X} :

$$\kappa(x, y) = \langle \kappa(\cdot, y), \kappa(\cdot, x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$
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- Different types of nonlinearities can be treated in a unified way.

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 - Develop the Algorithm in \mathcal{X} .
 - Express it, if possible, in inner products.
 - Replace inner products with kernel evaluations according to the kernel trick.
- Work directly in the RKHS, assuming that the data have been mapped and live in the RKHS H, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{X} \ni \mathbf{X} \to \Phi(\mathbf{X}) := \kappa(\cdot, \mathbf{X}) \in \mathcal{H}.$$

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• In a typical LMS filter the goal is to learn a linear input output mapping $f: X \to \mathbb{R}: f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$, so that to minimize the square error $E[|d(n) - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}(n)|^2]$.

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- Using the derivative of the cost, the gradient descent update rule becomes: $\mathbf{w}(n) = \mathbf{w}(n-1) + \mu \mathbf{e}(n)\mathbf{x}(n)$.
- The desired output becomes $\hat{d}(n) = \mathbf{w}(n-1)^T \mathbf{x}(n) = \mu \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} e(k) \mathbf{x}(k)^T \mathbf{x}(n)$.

• In Kernel LMS, firstly we transform the input space to a RKHS \mathcal{H} to obtain the sequence:

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- We apply the LMS procedure to the sequence of examples minimizing the cost function $E[|d(n) \langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}(n)), \mathbf{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}|^2]$, where now $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{H}$.

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- Using the derivative in the RKHS the update rule for the KLMS becomes: $\mathbf{w}(n) = \mathbf{w}(n-1) + \mu \mathbf{e}(n)\Phi(\mathbf{x}(n))$.

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- We apply the LMS procedure to the sequence of examples minimizing the cost function $E[|d(n) \langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}(n)), \mathbf{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}|^2]$, where now $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{H}$.
- Using the derivative in the RKHS the update rule for the KLMS becomes: $\mathbf{w}(n) = \mathbf{w}(n-1) + \mu \mathbf{e}(n)\Phi(\mathbf{x}(n))$.
- The filter output of the KLMS is: $\hat{d}(n) = \langle \mathbf{x}(n), \mathbf{w}(n-1) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \mu \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} e(k) \frac{\kappa(\mathbf{x}(k), \mathbf{x}(n))}{\kappa(\mathbf{x}(k), \mathbf{x}(n))}$.

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An operator $T: \mathcal{H} \to F$ is said to be Fréchet differentiable at f_0 , if there exists $u \in \mathcal{H}$ such that the limit

$$\lim_{\|h\|_{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow 0} \frac{T(\textit{f}_0 + h) - T(\textit{f}_0) - \langle \textit{u}, \textit{h} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}}{\|\textit{h}\|_{\mathcal{H}}} = 0.$$

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We say that *f* is differentiable at *x* iff the following limit exists:

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We will say that f is differentiable in the complex sense at c (or that it has complex derivative at c), iff the limit

$$\lim_{z\to c}\frac{f(z)-f(c)}{z-c}$$

exists.

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- Complex differentiability is a very strict notion.
- In complex signal processing we often encounter functions (e.g., the cost functions, which are defined in R) that ARE NOT complex differentiable.
- Example: $f(z) = |z|^2 = zz^*$.
- In these cases one has to express the cost function in terms of its real part f_r and its imaginary part f_i , and use real derivation with respect to f_r , f_i .

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- It is based on simple rules and principles.
- These rules bear a great resemblance to the rules of the standard complex derivative.

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The ℝ-derivative:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial y} \right),$$

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• The \mathbb{R} -derivative:

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The conjugate ℝ-derivative:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial y} \right).$$

Simple Rules

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- It can be proved that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$ can be easily evaluated as the standard complex derivative taken with respect to z (thus treating z^* as a constant).
- Similarly $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*}$ can be easily evaluated as the standard complex derivative taken with respect to z^* (thus treating z as a constant).

Examples

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- Let $f(z) = |z|^2 = zz^*$. Then $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = z^*$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*} = z$.

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- The main rules and principles are similar.
- In order to extend it to a complex RKHS (where the dimensionality can be infinite), we need to employ the notion of Fréchet differentiability.

• Consider a complex RKHS \mathbb{H} and a complex operator $T = T_r + iT_i$, where T_r, T_i are defined on \mathbb{H} .

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- We can define the respective \mathbb{R} -derivative and conjugate \mathbb{R} -derivative of T as follows:

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- R-derivative:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{f}}\mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\nabla_{r} T_{r} + \nabla_{i} T_{i} \right) + \frac{i}{2} \left(\nabla_{r} T_{i} - \nabla_{i} T_{r} \right).$$

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● conjugate R-derivative:

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Rules and Properties

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- $\bullet (\nabla_{f^*} T)^* = \nabla_f T^*.$

Any gradient descent based algorithm minimizing a real valued operator T(f) is based on the update scheme:

$$\mathbf{f}_n = \mathbf{f}_{n-1} - \mu \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{f}^*} \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{f}_{n-1}).$$

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Remark: We have used f in place of w (used before) to stress the fact that the RKHS \mathbb{H} can be of infinite dimension.

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Mapping to the complex RKHS

• Consider the sequence of examples $(z(1), d(1)), (z(2), d(2)), \dots (z(N), d(N)),$ where $d(n) \in \mathbb{C}$ and $z(n) \in \mathbb{C}^{\nu}$

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- Let $\mathbf{z}(n) = \mathbf{x}(n) + i\mathbf{y}(n), \, \mathbf{x}(n), \, \mathbf{y}(n) \in \mathbb{R}^{\nu}.$

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- Let $\mathbf{z}(n) = \mathbf{x}(n) + i\mathbf{y}(n), \, \mathbf{x}(n), \, \mathbf{y}(n) \in \mathbb{R}^{\nu}.$
- We map the points z(n) to the complex RKHS \mathbb{H} an appropriate complex mapping Φ .

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$$\Phi(\mathbf{z}(n)) = \Phi(\mathbf{z}(n)) + i\Phi(\mathbf{z}(n))$$

= $\kappa \left((\mathbf{x}(n), \mathbf{y}(n))^T, \cdot \right) + i \cdot \kappa \left((\mathbf{x}(n), \mathbf{y}(n))^T, \cdot \right),$

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- The latter choice has been used in this work, using the real gaussian kernel. This is because the behavior of such kernels is well understood in SP applications.
- Note that when complexified real kernels are employed, the complex kernel LMS CANNOT be derived by applying the standard kernel trick on the complex LMS (details in the paper).

• We apply the complex LMS to the transformed data:

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- We apply the complex LMS to the transformed data: $(\Phi(z(1)), d(1)), (\Phi(z(2)), d(2)), \dots (\Phi(z(N)), d(N)).$
- The objective of CKLMS is to minimize

$$E[|e(n)|^2] = E[|d(n) - \langle \Phi(\mathbf{z}(n), \mathbf{f} \rangle_{\mathbb{H}}^2],$$

at each instance n.

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where f(n) denotes the estimate at iteration n.

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$$f(n) = f(n-1) + \mu e(n)^* \Phi(z(n))$$

$$= f(n-2) + \mu e(n-1)^* \Phi(z(n-1))$$

$$+ \mu e(n)^* \Phi(z(n))$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n e(k)^* \Phi(z(k)).$$

The filter output at iteration *n* becomes:

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$$\begin{split} \hat{d}(n) = & \langle \mathbf{\Phi}(\mathbf{z}(n)), \mathbf{w}(n-1) \rangle_{\mathbb{H}} \\ = & \mu \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} e(k) \langle \mathbf{\Phi}(\mathbf{z}(n)), \mathbf{\Phi}(\mathbf{z}(k)) \rangle_{\mathbb{H}} \\ = & 2\mu \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} e(k) \kappa(\mathbf{z}(n), \mathbf{z}(k)) \\ = & 2\mu \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \Re[e(n)] \kappa(\mathbf{z}(n), \mathbf{z}(k)) + 2\mu \cdot i \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \Im[e(n)] \kappa(\mathbf{z}(n), \mathbf{z}(k)), \end{split}$$

Outline

- Signal Processing with Kernels
 - Preliminaries
 - Kernel LMS
- Wirtinger's Calculus
 - The Complex Case: Wirtinger's Calculus
 - Wirtinger's Calculus in complex RKHS
- 3 Complex Kernel LMS
 - Formulation
 - Sparsification
 - Experiments

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- Results: Increasing memory and computational requirements.
- A sparse solution is needed.
- Any sparsification algorithm can be employed. Details are given in the paper.

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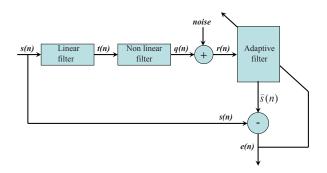


Figure: The equalization problem.

•
$$t(n) = (-0.9 + 0.8i) \cdot s(n) + (0.6 - 0.7i) \cdot s(n-1)$$

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- $q(n) = t(n) + (0.1 + 0.15i) \cdot t^2(n) + (0.06 + 0.05i) \cdot t^3(n)$
- $s(n) = 0.70(\sqrt{1 \rho^2}X(n) + i\rho Y(n))$, where X(n) and Y(n) are gaussian random variables.

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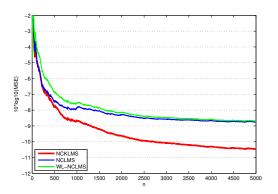
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 - 1 This input is circular for $\rho = \sqrt{2}/2$
 - **2** highly non-circular if ρ approaches 0 or 1.

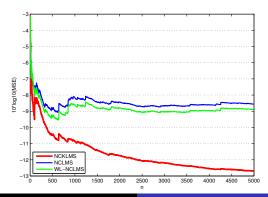
Circular Data

Learning curves for KNCLMS ($\mu = 1/2$), NCLMS ($\mu = 1/16$) and WL-NCLMS ($\mu = 1/16$) (filter length L = 5, delay D = 2) in the nonlinear channel equalization, for the **circular** input case.



Non Circular Data

Learning curves for KNCLMS ($\mu = 1/2$), NCLMS ($\mu = 1/16$) and WL-NCLMS ($\mu = 1/16$) (filter length L = 5, delay D = 2) in the nonlinear channel equalization, for the **non-circular** input case ($\rho = 0.1$).





Main contributions of this work:

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- The development of the Complex Kernel LMS algorithm as a particular example.
 - Experiments verify that CKLMS gives significantly better results compared to CLMS and WL-CLMS for nonlinear channels.