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Room Impulse Response Estimation using Sparse Online Prediction and Absolute Loss

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Abstract
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ROOM IMPULSE RESPONSE ESTIMATION USING SPARSE ONLINE PREDICTION AND ABSOLUTE LOSS

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ABSTRACT

The need to accurately and efficiently estimate room impulse responses arises in many acoustic signal processing applications. In this work, we present a general family of algorithms which contain the conventional normalized least mean squares (NLMS) algorithm as a special case. Specific members of this family yield estimates which are robust both to different noise models and choice of parameters. We demonstrate the merits of our approach to accurately estimate sparse room impulse responses in simulations with speech signals.

1. INTRODUCTION

Many acoustic signal processing systems rely upon the reliable estimation of a linear impulse response. For example, in acoustic echo cancellation, the goal is to estimate the room impulse response in order to effectively compensate for echoes and reverberation. The transfer function of the room is modeled as a linear time-invariant system with a memory size $M$, with a true room impulse response denoted by $h \in \mathbb{R}^M$. An acoustic source signal is represented as a discrete time signal $s$, whose latest $M$ tap values are given by $s_i = [s_i, s_{i-1}, \ldots, s_{i-M+1}]^T$. The acoustic system then measures the signal $x$, which is given by the convolution of the source signal $s$ with the room impulse response $h$ corrupted by noise $n$: $x_i = \sum_{r=0}^{M-1} h_{r}s_{i-r} + n_i = h \cdot s_i + n_i$. To effectively predict and cancel any room effects in $x$, the room impulse response $h$ needs to be estimated from these observations.

In the machine learning community, similar problems arise in the context of online prediction problems. In such problems the learner is exposed to an input vector $s_i$ and is required to make a prediction $\hat{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}$. The learner then receives the correct response $x_i$ and suffers a nonnegative loss $\ell(x_i, \hat{x}_i)$, whereby the learner iteratively updates his prediction function. Much prior work in machine learning has focused on linear prediction functions of the form $\hat{x}_i = w_i \cdot s_i$. In this work, we show how techniques from these approaches can be applied to the problem of estimating impulse responses in signal processing. In particular, we demonstrate the utility of incorporating different divergences and loss functions for robustly estimating sparse room impulse responses.

2. ALGORITHMS

The popular normalized least mean squares (NLMS) algorithm (see e.g. in [1]) can be viewed as a solution of the following optimization problem,

$$w_{i+1} = \arg \min_{w} \frac{1}{2} \|w - w_i\|^2 + C(x_i - w \cdot s_i)^2,$$ (1)

whose solution is given by:

$$w_{i+1} = w_i + \frac{1}{2 + \|s_i\|^2}(x_i - w_i \cdot s_i)s_i.$$ (2)

For convenience, we will also refer to the parameter $\gamma = 1/C$ later when describing the NLMS algorithm.

We investigate a broad class of algorithms which contain NLMS as special case. In particular, we consider update rules of the form:

$$w_{i+1} = \arg \min_{w} D_F(w \| w_i) + C\ell(x_i, w \cdot s_i),$$ (3)

where $D_F$ is a divergence, $\ell$ is a loss function and $C > 0$. The new estimate $w_{i+1}$ thus optimizes two opposing terms. The first term tries to keep the new estimate $w_{i+1}$ as close as possible to the current estimate $w_i$. The second term focuses solely on the loss achieved by the estimate on the latest portion of the signal. The constant $C$ encapsulates the tradeoff between these two terms. In the following, we further investigate specific choices for both the divergence $D_F$ and the loss function $\ell$.

The algorithmic framework of Eq. (3) has previously been analyzed for several different loss functions and divergences. For example, [2] presents a general framework for classification and regression, in which the algorithms optimize an epsilon-insensitive loss function with Euclidean distance to measure divergence. In other work, a squared loss function has been used in conjunction with $p$-norm divergences [3].

2.1. Bregman Divergences

A Bregman divergence is defined via a strictly convex function $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on a closed convex set $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. A Bregman function $F$ needs to satisfy a set of specific constraints [4]. We further impose that $F$ is continuously differentiable on all points of $\mathcal{X}_{\text{int}}$ (the interior of $\mathcal{X}$) which is assumed to be nonempty. The Bregman divergence that is associated with $F$, applied to $w \in \mathcal{X}$ and $h \in \mathcal{X}_{\text{int}}$ is then defined to be

$$D_F(w \| h) \overset{\text{def}}{=} F(w) - F(h) - \nabla F(h) \cdot (w - h).$$ (4)

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\( \mathcal{D}_F \) measures the difference between two functions evaluated at \( w \). The first is the function \( F \) itself and the second is the first-order Taylor expansion of \( F \) derived at \( h \). Note that \( \mathcal{D}_F (\| \cdot \|) \) is convex in its first argument since \( F \) is a convex function. The divergences we employ are defined via a single scalar convex function \( f \) such that \( F(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\| w \|) \), where \( \| w \| \) is the \( l \)-th coordinate of \( w \).

The resulting Bregman divergence between \( w \) and \( h \) is then given by: \( \mathcal{D}_F (w\| h ) = \sum_{i=1}^n D_f ([w_i]\| [h_i]) \).

In this paper, we focus on two commonly used divergences. The first is the function \( F(x) = \alpha + \alpha^\ast = \min_{j} |x_i - \hat{x}_i| / \|s_i\|^2 \), where \( \alpha, \alpha^* \geq 0 \) are the Lagrange multipliers.

Since the objective is strictly convex and the constraints are linear, there is a unique solution to Eq. (6). To characterize the solution \( w_{i+1} \), we consider the dual form of Eq. (6):

\[
\mathcal{L}(w; \alpha, \alpha^*, \beta, \beta^*) = \mathcal{D}_F (w\| w_i ) + C \xi + C^\ast \xi^* - \beta \xi - \beta^* \xi^* \tag{7}
\]

\[
+ \alpha [-\xi - x_i + w \cdot s_i] + \alpha^* [-\xi^* + x_i - w \cdot s_i]
\]

where \( \alpha, \alpha^*, \beta, \beta^* \geq 0 \) are the Lagrange multipliers. Taking the derivative of \( \mathcal{L} \) with respect to \( w \), we have \( \nabla \mathcal{L}(w) = \nabla \mathcal{D}_F (w_i ) + (\alpha - \alpha^*)s_i \), so that

\[
w = (\nabla \mathcal{L})^{-1} (\nabla \mathcal{L}(w_i ) + (\alpha - \alpha^*)s_i)
\]

where \( \nabla \mathcal{L}^{-1} (\cdot) \) is the component-wise inverse of \( \nabla \mathcal{L} (\cdot) \). From convexity, this inverse is well-defined since \( \nabla \mathcal{L} \) is strictly monotone. When the Euclidean divergence is used, \( \nabla \mathcal{L}(\cdot) \) is the identity function and the update is given by the linear combination of \( w_i \) and \( s_i \). In contrast, for the relative entropy divergence, the gradient and its inverse are given by component-wise log and exp functions, respectively. In this case, the \( l \)-th component of \( w \) is determined by the multiplicative form:

\[
[w_i] = [w_i] \exp ((\alpha - \alpha^*)[s_i])
\]

where \( [w_i] \) is the \( l \)-th component of \( w \).

Taking derivatives of \( \mathcal{L} \) with respect to \( \xi \) and \( \xi^* \), and because \( \beta, \beta^* \geq 0 \), the Lagrange parameters are constrained to be \( 0 \leq \alpha, \alpha^* \leq C \). The Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions [8] give conditions for optimality in terms of the primal and dual variables:

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha [-\xi - x_i + w \cdot s_i] &= 0 \tag{8} \\
\alpha^* [-\xi^* + x_i - w \cdot s_i] &= 0 \\
(C - \alpha) \xi &= 0 \\
(C - \alpha^*) \xi^* &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

We first show that the solution can always be chosen such that either \( \alpha = 0 \) or \( \alpha^* = 0 \). Assuming that both \( \alpha > 0 \) and \( \alpha^* > 0 \). From the first KKT condition we get \( x_i - w \cdot s_i = -\xi \leq 0 \) and from the second KKT condition we get \( x_i - w \cdot s_i = \xi^* \geq 0 \). Combining the last two equalities yield \( x_i - w \cdot s_i = 0 \). Therefore we get \( \xi = \xi^* = 0 \). By setting \( \xi = \xi^* = 0 \) in Eq. (7) we get that the Lagrangian of \( L \) is Eq. (7) only a function of the difference \( \alpha - \alpha^* \), and not each of them independently. As a consequence, we can again always set at least one of the dual parameters to zero, i.e. either \( \alpha = 0 \) or \( \alpha^* = 0 \). We thus define \( \tau = \alpha + \alpha^* \) and rewrite the update rule:

\[
w = (\nabla \mathcal{L})^{-1} (\nabla \mathcal{L}(w_i ) + \tau (x_i - \hat{x}_i) s_i ) \tag{9}
\]

A similar argument shows that either \( \xi = 0 \) or \( \xi^* = 0 \). If \( \xi > 0 \) then \( \alpha = C > 0 \) and \( \alpha^* = 0 < \xi^* \). As a consequence, we see that the loss is given by \( \xi = \xi^* = |x_i - w_{i+1} \cdot s_i| \).

The solution for \( \tau \) exhibits several distinct regimes. Like NLMS, if \( x_i = w_{i} \cdot s_i \) there is no loss and no update will be required: \( w_{i+1} = w_i \). In this case \( \tau = \alpha = \alpha^* = 0 \). When both \( \alpha < \alpha^* < C \), then \( 0 < \tau < C \). In this case \( \xi = \xi^* = 0 \) and so \( |x_i - w_{i+1} \cdot s_i| = 0 \). In other words, there is no loss on the current measurement after the update is performed. On the other hand, consider the situation when \( \tau = C \), i.e. either \( \alpha = C \) or \( \alpha^* = C \), and so either \( \xi > 0 \) or \( \xi^* > 0 \). Then \( |x_i - w_{i+1} \cdot s_i| > 0 \), and the loss on the current measurement is non-zero even after \( w_{i+1} \) is updated. The resulting update is then analogous to stochastic gradient algorithms with a fixed learning rate \( C \).

For Euclidean distance, the solution can be expressed analytically as:

\[
\tau = \alpha + \alpha^* = \min \left\{ \frac{|x_i - \hat{x}_i|}{\| s_i \|^2}, C \right\} \tag{10}
\]
where $\alpha = 0$ if $x_i - \hat{x}_i < 0$, and $\alpha^* = 0$ if $x_i - \hat{x}_i > 0$. For more general divergences, there may not be a closed form solution to the optimal $\tau$. In that case, a binary search algorithm on the interval $[0, C]$ may be used to find an approximate solution up to tolerance level $\delta$ in time proportional to $\log_2(C/\delta)$.

2.4. Averaging

One common procedure is to use the latest $w_i$ to estimate the true room impulse response. Other alternatives were described and analyzed in [9]. In this more general formulation, the estimate of $h$ at time $i$ is a function of all the previous vectors $w_1 \ldots w_i$. In particular, one option is to use a filtered average of this sequence rather than just its last element. A theoretical analysis shows that with i.i.d. assumptions over the input sequence, the average estimate, $\bar{w}_i = \frac{1}{i} \sum_{j=1}^{i} w_i$, is optimal, in the sense that with high probability the loss suffered over new sequences will be small. This last equation can easily be computed recursively, with a time complexity proportional to the length $M$. For room impulse response estimation, i.i.d. assumptions do not necessarily hold since $s_i$ and $s_{i-1}$ are statistically dependent. However, the noise is i.i.d. and if the SNR is low, then the data is approximately i.i.d. In the next section we show how averaging may be used to improve the room impulse response estimation.

3. EXPERIMENTS

We demonstrate the utility of the algorithmic approach described above for echo cancellation. In acoustic echo cancellation, adaptive filtering is typically used to estimate the transfer function between a speaker and a microphone present in a room. The adaptive filter estimates the combination of the speaker and microphone characteristics along with the room impulse response. To apply the algorithm to this problem, we assume that the speaker and microphone characteristics are already known, and only the unknown and possibly changing room impulse response needs to be estimated.

In our simulations, an 18 second segment of 291,200 samples of human speech sampled at 16 kHz is used as the source signal, concatenated for long time convergence estimates. The room is simulated by a room impulse response $h$ that is computed from a source image model [10]. The speech source signal is convolved with this room impulse response and corrupted with noise to generate the target signal $x$. The sparse nature of the impulse response motivates the use of divergences in algorithms that can robustly estimate the underlying $h$.

We investigated three different i.i.d. noise models at four different signal-to-noise ratios (SNR): $0, -20, -40, -60$ dB. The first noise model which we will refer to as Normal is i.i.d. Gaussian noise with zero mean and different variances corresponding to the SNR ratio. The second noise model is a Sparse noise model generated from a binary random variable analogous to a heads/tails coin flip at each discrete time step. If the result is heads, an i.i.d. Gaussian noise is then added to the measurement as in the Normal noise model. Otherwise, no noise is added. In other words, the signal is corrupted by additive Gaussian noise for only a fraction of the time steps, and this fraction was varied between 5–50%. The last noise model is generated by corrupting the signal with Uniform distributed noise with various mean values.

We evaluated three algorithms: the conventional normalized least mean square (NLMS) algorithm with $\gamma = 1$ and two adaptive filters based on the absolute loss. The first adaptive filter called Eu$_1$ uses the Euclidean distance and the second called RE$_1$ uses the Relative-Entropy. All three algorithms were evaluated using the latest $w_i$ estimate (last), as well as an averaged estimate $\bar{w}_i$ (average) as described in Sec. 2.4.

We use the closed form solution for NLMS and Eu$_1$, and a binary search with a tolerance level $\delta = 10^{-10}$ for RE$_1$. The first two algorithms are initialized with zero coefficients $w_1 = 0$ and the RE$_1$ algorithm with a uniform vector where all the components equal $10^{-3}$. The $C$ parameter used in Eu$_1$ and RE$_1$ is set using a previous analysis of similar classification algorithms [11]. This analysis indicates that the value of the parameter should be above and close to $1/R^2$, where $R$ is the radius of the ball that contains all the signal segments of length $M$, so that $R = \max_i ||x_i||_p$. We use the first 125 ms of the signal to estimate $C$. For the Eu$_1$ algorithm we set $p = 2$ and get $C = 10^{-3}$, and for the RE$_1$ algorithm set $p = 1$ and get $C = 10^{-2}$.

The results are summarized in Fig. 1, which contains eight plots. The four columns show the results for the SNR levels: $-60$dB (left), $-40$, $-20$, 0dB (right). The top row summarizes the results for the Normal noise model and the bottom for the Sparse model where only $5\%$ of the features are contaminated with noise. The normalized misalignment of the filter estimates:

$$E = \log_{10} \left( \frac{||w - h||_2^2}{||h||_2^2} \right),$$

is used to evaluate the error of the estimated room impulse response. Each of the eight plots shows the resulting error from the different algorithms: NLMS, Eu$_1$ and RE$_1$ where each can be used with only the current estimate (last) and the averaged estimate (averaged).

We first focus on the performance of the algorithms with no averaging. At low noise levels all algorithms recover the room impulse response with a satisfactory misalignment of less then $-30$dB. The NLMS and Eu$_1$ achieve even smaller misalignment of about $-45$dB when the noise level is very small ($-60$dB). However, the situation is completely different at higher noise levels. In this case, NLMS is not able to recover the room impulse response. Furthermore, the accuracy of its estimates suffers from high variability. On the other hand, algorithms which employ the absolute loss do much more favorably. At noise level of $-0$dB the Eu$_1$ recovers the impulse response at a level of $-8$dB and the RE$_1$ at a level better than $-13$dB for the Normal noise model, and $-19$dB for Eu$_1$ and $-25$dB for RE$_1$ for the Sparse model.

We see that for very low noise levels, the averaged estimation is worse than the last estimation. The gap ranges from about $-3$dB for the RE$_1$ algorithm to about $-20$dB for NLMS. As the noise level increases this gap reduces. At a noise level of $-20$dB the averaged estimation is better for NLMS by at least 3dB, and competitive with the two other algorithms. In all cases, the averaged estimation is robust as indicated by the low variance in the estimation error. These results agree with the intuition that averaging should improve results if the input vectors are i.i.d. as in the high noise regime.

We verify the method of choosing the $C$ parameter described above by enumerating over a wide range of $C$ values. Surprisingly our method for choosing $C$ is quite accurate as the best values are indeed close to the values obtained from theoretical arguments. For Eu$_1$ the estimate favors low noise levels. At high noise levels, lower values of $C$ yield the best performance. The situation is reversed for the RE$_1$ algorithm. Values of $C = 10^{-2}$ obtained by theory is best for high levels of noise, and larger values of $C$ are better for low noise levels.

We evaluated NLMS by setting the value of $\gamma = 1/C = 10^{4.3}$ as obtained by theory. This value improves the performance of the

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algorithm for high values of noise, but significantly deteriorates for low noise levels. Examining the best value of $\gamma$ for each noise level, we observed that it ranges over almost five orders of magnitude $10^0$ to $10^{-4}$. This range is much smaller and is only about one order of magnitude for $\text{Eu}_1$ and RE$_1$. These algorithms seem to be more invariant to the noise level, and depend more on the characteristic radius $R$ of the signal. In contrast, NLMS is much more sensitive to fine tuning this parameter according to the noise level.

Finally, in the case of sparse noise, NLMS performed significantly worse than the two other absolute-loss algorithms. The gap in performance is at least 10dB for normalized misalignment.

4. CONCLUSION

We presented an algorithm for adaptive filtering based on ideas borrowed from the machine learning approach to regression. Our system contains three main components: alternative divergence functions to measure the difference between two impulse response vectors (relative entropy vs. Euclidian), robust loss function (absolute loss vs. Euclidian) and averaging. The experimental results indicate the usefulness of the approach, especially for high noise levels with outliers. Currently, we are investigating other choices for the Bregman divergence and the loss functions which will perform even better in these acoustic signal processing tasks.

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5. REFERENCES


