# Applications of Polynomial Eigenvalue Decomposition to Multichannel Broadband Signal Processing Part 1: Background 

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## Part I: Background

1. Overview
2. What are polynomial matrices \& where do they occur?
3. Basic properties and operations
4. 'Standard' multichannel broadband processing
5. Polynomial matrix formulation of broadband problems
6. Summary

2 Polynomial Matrics: What are they \& where to the arise?

1. Overview
2. What are polynomial matrices \& where do they occur?
2.1 basic definition;
2.2 common occurences:

- MIMO communications: matrices of transfer functions
- filter banks: polyphase analysis and synthesis matrices
- array processing/statistics: space-time covariance matrices

3. Polynomial Matrix Basic Operations and Properties
4. 'Standard' Multichannel Broadband Processing
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### 2.1 What is a Polynomial Matrix?

- A polynomial matrix is a polynomial with matrix-valued coefficients [14, 19], e.g.:

$$
\boldsymbol{A}(z)=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
1 & -1  \tag{1}\\
-1 & 2
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{rr}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right] z^{-1}+\left[\begin{array}{rr}
-1 & 2 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right] z^{-2}
$$

- a polynomial matrix can equivalently be understood a matrix with polynomial entries, i.e.

$$
\boldsymbol{A}(z)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1+z^{-1}-z^{-2} & -1+z^{-1}+2 z^{-2}  \tag{2}\\
-1+z^{-1}+z^{-2} & 2-z^{-1}-z^{-2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- more generally, we will be looking at matrices of (analytic) functions.


## Where Do Polynomial Matrices Arise?

- A multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) system could be made up of a number of finite impulse response (FIR) channels:

- writing this as a matrix of impulse responses:

$$
\mathbf{H}[n]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
h_{11}[n] & h_{12}[n]  \tag{3}\\
h_{21}[n] & h_{22}[n]
\end{array}\right] .
$$

## Transfer Function of a MIMO System

- Example for MIMO matrix $\mathbf{H}[n]$ of impulse responses:




- the transfer function of this MIMO system is a polynomial matrix [21,31]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{H}(z)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{H}[n] z^{-1} \quad \text { or } \quad \boldsymbol{H}(z) \bullet \multimap \mathbf{H}[n] \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Analysis Filter Bank

- Critically decimated $K$-channel analysis filter bank [32, 33, 13]:
- equivalent polyphase representation:




## Polyphase Analysis Matrix

- With the $K$-fold polyphase decomposition of the analysis filters

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{k}(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{K} H_{k, n}\left(z^{K}\right) z^{-n+1} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$



- the polyphase analysis matrix is a polynomial matrix $[33,35]$ :

$$
\boldsymbol{H}(z)=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
H_{1,1}(z) & H_{1,2}(z) & \ldots & H_{1, K}(z)  \tag{6}\\
H_{2,1}(z) & H_{2,2}(z) & \ldots & H_{2, K}(z) \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
H_{K, 1}(z) & H_{K, 2}(z) & \ldots & H_{K, K}(z)
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Synthesis Filter Bank

- Critically decimated $K$-channel synthesis filter bank:
- equivalent polyphase representation [11, 13, 33]:




## Polyphase Synthesis Matrix

- Analoguous to analysis filter bank, the synthesis filters $G_{k}(z)$ can be split into $K$ polyphase components, creating a polyphse synthesis matrix

$$
\boldsymbol{G}(z)=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
G_{1,1}(z) & G_{1,2}(z) & \ldots & G_{1, K}(z)  \tag{7}\\
G_{2,1}(z) & G_{2,2}(z) & \ldots & G_{2, K}(z) \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
G_{K, 1}(z) & G_{K, 2}(z) & \ldots & G_{K, K}(z)
\end{array}\right]
$$

- operating analysis and synthesis back-to-back, perfect reconstruction is achieved if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{G}(z) \boldsymbol{H}(z)=\mathbf{I} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

- i.e. for perfect reconstruction, the polyphase analysis matrix must be invertible:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{G}(z)=\boldsymbol{H}^{-1}(z) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Space-Time Covariance Matrix

- Measurements obtained from $M$ sensors are collected in a vector $\mathbf{x}[n] \in \mathbb{C}^{M}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}[n]=\left[x_{1}[n] \quad x_{2}[n] \ldots x_{M}[n]\right] ; \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

- with the expectation operator $\mathcal{E}\{\cdot\}$, the spatial correlation is captured by $\mathbf{R}=\mathcal{E}\left\{\mathbf{x}[n] \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{H}}[n]\right\} ;$
- for spatial and temporal correlation, we require a space-time covariance matrix $[20,23,33,39,40,45,42]$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{R}[\tau]=\mathcal{E}\left\{\mathbf{x}[n] \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{H}}[n-\tau]\right\} ; \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

- this space-time covariance matrix contains auto- and cross-correlation terms, e.g. for $M=2$

$$
\mathbf{R}[\tau]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\mathcal{E}\left\{x_{1}[n] x_{1}^{*}[n-\tau]\right\} & \mathcal{E}\left\{x_{1}[n] x_{2}^{*}[n-\tau]\right\}  \tag{12}\\
\mathcal{E}\left\{x_{2}[n] x_{1}^{*}[n-\tau]\right\} & \mathcal{E}\left\{x_{2}[n] x_{2}^{*}[n-\tau]\right\}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

## Cross-Spectral Density Matrix

- example for a space-time covariance matrix $\mathbf{R}[\tau] \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ :

- the cross-spectral density (CSD) matrix contains (Laurent) polynomials:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{R}(z)=\sum_{\tau} \mathbf{R}[\tau] z^{-\tau} \quad \text { or short } \quad \boldsymbol{R}(z) \bullet \multimap \mathbf{R}[\tau] . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 3 Polynomial Matrix Basic Operations and Properties

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3. Polynomial Matrix Basic Operations and Properties
3.1 polynomial matrix operations;
3.2 polynomial matrix properties;
3.3 some properties of analytic functions;
3.4 arithmetic operations
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### 3.1 Parahermitian Operator

- A parahermitian operation is indicated by $\{\cdot\}^{\mathrm{P}}$, and compared to the Hermitian transposition of a matrix additionally performs a time-reversal;
- example:

- parahermitian $\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)=\left\{\boldsymbol{A}\left(1 / z^{*}\right)\right\}^{\mathrm{H}}$ :



### 3.2 Parahermitian Property

- A polynomial matrix $\boldsymbol{R}(z)$ is parahermitian if $\boldsymbol{R}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)=\boldsymbol{R}^{\mathrm{H}}\left(1 / z^{*}\right)=\boldsymbol{R}(z)$;
- this is an extension of the symmetric (if $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}$ ) or or Hermitian (if $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{C}$ ) property to the polynomial case:
transposition, complex conjugation and time reversal (in any order) do not alter a parahermitian $\boldsymbol{R}(z)$;
- any CSD matrix is parahermitian;
- example:



$$
=\boldsymbol{R}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)
$$



## Paraunitary Matrices

- Recall that $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}$ (or $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}$ ) is a unitary (or orthonormal) matrix if $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{H}}=\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{H}} \mathbf{A}=\mathbf{I}$;
- in the polynomial case, $\mathbf{A}(z)$ is paraunitary if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{A}(z) \boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)=\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \boldsymbol{A}(z)=\mathbf{I} ; \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

- therefore, if $\boldsymbol{A}(z)$ is paraunitary, then the polynomial matrix inverse is simple:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{A}^{-1}(z)=\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

- example: polyphase analysis or synthesis matrices of perfectly reconstructing (or lossless) filter banks are usually paraunitary.


### 3.3 Matrix-Valued Polynomials and Power Series

- A power series $a(z)$ arises as the $z$-transform

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(z)=\sum_{n} a[n] z^{-n} \quad \text { or } \quad \text { short } \quad a(z) \bullet \multimap a[n], \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

- for $a(z)$ to exist as a power series, $a[n]$ must be causal: $a[n]=0 \forall n<0$; absolutely convergent: $\sum_{n}|a[n]|<\infty$
- absolute convergence implies that $a[n]$ decays at least as fast as an exponential function;
- a polynomial is a power series, but of finite length;
- polynomials or power series can form the entries of a matrix $\boldsymbol{A}(z)$.


## Example of a Power Series

- For the geometric series

$$
a[n]=\left\{\begin{array}{rr}
0, & n<0 \\
\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n}, & n \geq 0
\end{array}\right.
$$

we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n}|a[n]|=1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\cdots \quad=2<\infty \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

- therefore $a[n]$ is an absolutely convergent power series, and $a(z)$ exists as an analytic function;
- here, for $a(z)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(z)=1+\frac{1}{2} z^{-1}+\frac{1}{4} z^{-2}+\frac{1}{8} z^{-3}+\ldots \quad=\frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2} z^{-1}} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

- this looks like the transfer function of a causal infinite impulse response (IIR) filter.


## Laurent Series and Laurent Polynomials

- A Laurent series $a[n]$ is potentially infinite, but can include non-negative terms for both $n \geq 0$ and $n<0$;
- for $a(z) \bullet — a[n]$ to exist, $a[n]$ needs to decay at least exponentially in both positive and negative time direction [1];

- if it possesses finite support, $a(z)$ is a Laurent polynomial.


## Analyticity and Polynomial Approximation

- Absolute convergence of $a[n]$ implies analyticity of $a(z) \bullet —<a[n]$;
- the best approximation of an infinite order, analytic $a(z)$ in the least squares sense is by truncation (power series $\longrightarrow$ polynomial) [9, 10, 42];
- likewise, a Laurent series can be approximated by a polynomial through truncation ( $\longrightarrow$ Laurent polynomial) and an appropriate delay ( $\longrightarrow$ polymomial) [45];

- hence polynomials can typically approximate any general analytic function well, and arbitrarily closely.


## Arithmetic Operations - Attempt of Gaussian Elimination

- System of polynomial equations:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A_{11}(z) & A_{12}(z)  \tag{20}\\
A_{21}(z) & A_{22}(z)
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{l}
X_{1}(z) \\
X_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
B_{1}(z) \\
B_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right]
$$

- modification of 2 nd row (provided no division by spectral zeros):

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11}(z) & A_{12}(z)  \tag{21}\\
A_{11}(z) & \frac{A_{11}(z)}{A_{21}(z)} A_{22}(z)
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{1}(z) \\
X_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
B_{1}(z) \\
\frac{A_{11}(z)}{A_{21}(z)} B_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right]
$$

- upper triangular form by subtracting 1st row from 2nd:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11}(z) & A_{12}(z)  \tag{22}\\
0 & \frac{A_{11}(z) A_{22}(z)-A_{12}(z) A_{21}(z)}{A_{21}(z)}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{l}
X_{1}(z) \\
X_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
B_{1}(z) \\
\bar{B}_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right]
$$

- we end up with rational functions; through delay and truncation, these can be arbitrarily closely approximated by polynomials.

4. 'Standard' Multichannel Broadband Processing
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7. Basic properties and operations
8. 'Standard' Multichannel Broadband Processing
4.1 narrowband vs broadband
4.2 tap delay line processing
4.3 DFT bin-wise processing
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### 4.1 Narrowband vs Broadband

- Assume as source a bandpass signals $u(t)$ of finite bandwidth $\omega_{\mathrm{b}}$ and with centre frequency $\omega_{\mathrm{c}}$ :

- using a baseband representation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(t)=\tilde{u}(t) \cdot \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega_{c} t} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\tilde{u}(t)$ the baseband signal.

## Narrowband Assumption

- Narrowband: propagation delay across the array must be small w.r.t. any changes in the baseband signal $\tilde{u}(t)$ (or of the envelope of $u(t)$ );






## Received Narrowband Array Signal

- An array receives a single modulated bandpass signal $u(t)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x}(t) & =\left[\begin{array}{c}
u\left(t-\tau_{1}\right) \\
\vdots \\
u\left(t-\tau_{M}\right)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\tilde{u}\left(t-\tau_{1}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\tilde{u}\left(t-\tau_{M}\right)
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}}\left(t-\tau_{1}\right)} \\
\vdots \\
\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}}\left(t-\tau_{M}\right)}
\end{array}\right] \\
& \approx \tilde{u}\left(t-\tau_{1}\right) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}} t}\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}} \tau_{1}} \\
\vdots \\
\mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}} \tau_{M}}
\end{array}\right]=\tilde{u}\left(t-\tau_{1}\right) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}} t} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta, \omega_{\mathrm{c}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

- after sampling: $\mathbf{x}[n]=\tilde{u}[n] \cdot \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} \omega_{\mathrm{c}} \tau_{1}} \cdot \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta_{\ell}, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}$;
- for the covariance matrix:

$$
\mathbf{R}=\mathcal{E}\left\{\mathbf{x}[n] \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{H}}[n]\right\}=\mathcal{E}\left\{\tilde{u}[n] \tilde{u}^{*}[n]\right\} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta_{\ell}, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}^{\mathrm{H}}=\sigma^{2} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}^{\mathrm{H}} .
$$

## Narrowband Assumption — Limits

- For $L$ independent source signals, $\mathcal{E}\left\{\tilde{u}_{\ell}[n] \tilde{u}_{k}^{*}[n]\right\}=0$ for $\ell \neq k$;
therefore in the noise-free case:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{R}=\sum_{\ell=1}^{L} \sigma_{\ell}^{2} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta_{\ell}, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}} \mathbf{s}_{\vartheta_{\ell}, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}^{\mathrm{H}} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

- this matrix has rank $L$ as long as the steering vectors $\mathbf{s}_{\vartheta_{\ell}, \Omega_{\mathrm{c}}}$ are linearly independent;
- when is the narrowband assumption violated?
$-\operatorname{rank}\{\mathbf{R}\}>L$ [50];
- signals at opposite ends of the array are no longer fully correlated [7];
- can be tied to performance of processing [8,24,25,36];
- rule of thumb: fractional bandwidth $\omega_{\mathrm{b}} / \omega_{\mathrm{c}}$ exceeds $5 \%$;
- "it's broadband when you need a tap delay line" (John McWhirter).


## Broadband Case

- In the broadband case, the signal $u[n]$ experiences

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$$
\mathbf{x}[n]=u[n] *\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{\tau_{1}}[n]  \tag{25}\\
\vdots \\
f_{\tau_{M}}[n]
\end{array}\right]=u[n] * \mathbf{a}[n]
$$



- $\mathbf{a}[n]$ is a broadband steering vector $[2,3,23,38]$;
- e.g. coherent combining requires explicit (fractional) delay filters; phase shifts are insufficient;
- broadband nature requires a space-time covariance matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{R}[\tau]=\mathcal{E}\left\{\mathbf{x}[n] \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{H}}[n-\tau]\right\}=r_{u u}[\tau] * \mathbf{a}[\tau] * \mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{H}}[-\tau] . \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 4.2 Tap Delay Line Processing

- A window of $T$ samples can be used for filtering each channel [ $6,34,23]$ :

- e.g. implementation of fractional delay filters for coherent signal alignment [18, 27].


## Tap Delay Line and Covariance Matrix

- Spatio-temporal data vector:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\chi}[n]=\left[\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}[n], \quad \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}[n-1], \ldots \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}[n-T+1]\right]^{\mathrm{T}} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

- the associated covariance matrix

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\chi}=\mathcal{E}\left\{\chi[n] \chi^{\mathrm{H}}[n]\right\}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\mathbf{R}[0] & \mathbf{R}[1] & \ldots & \mathbf{R}[T-1]  \tag{28}\\
\mathbf{R}[-1] & \mathbf{R}[0] & & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\
\mathbf{R}[1-T] & \ldots & \ldots & \mathbf{R}[0]
\end{array}\right]
$$

contains samples of the space-time covariance $\mathbf{R}[\tau]$.

## TDL Processing and Challenges

- The selection of $T$ should exceed the coherence time;
- otherwise signal correlations are missed, and the 2nd order statistics may be insufficiently characterised [23];
- with $\mathbf{R}_{\chi}$, we have mixed time and spatial domains;
- eigenvalue decomposition, with partitioning into signal-plus-noise and noise-only subspaces:

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\chi}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\mathbf{Q}_{\mathrm{s}} & \mathbf{Q}_{\mathrm{n}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\mathrm{s}} &  \tag{29}\\
& \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\mathrm{n}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{Q}_{\mathrm{s}}^{\mathrm{H}} \\
\mathbf{Q}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\mathrm{H}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- the number of dominant eigenvalues cannot be used for source enumeration;
- in case of a single source, $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathrm{S}}$ does not represent a steering vector of that source [23].


### 4.3 Processing in DFT Bins

- DFT matrix W applied to each tap delay line yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\xi}[n]=\left(\mathbf{W} \odot \mathbf{I}_{T}\right) \boldsymbol{\chi}[n] ; \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

- covariance matrix:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{R}_{\xi}=\left(\mathbf{W} \odot \mathbf{I}_{T}\right) \mathbf{R}_{\chi}\left(\mathbf{W} \odot \mathbf{I}_{T}\right)^{\mathrm{H}} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

- this matrix is dense; regardless, often only a block-diagonal component is considered, and processing is performed independently in frequency-bins;
- independent DFT-bin processing is inexpensive, but ignores spectral coherence [43] and is suboptimal;
- cross-terms between bins can be introduced to achieve time-domain optimality $[17,28,12,49,47,48]$ but increase computational cost.

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### 5.1 MIMO System Decoupling

- Aim: spatially decouple a channel by appropriate precoding and equalisation;

- narrowband case - SVD [15]:

$$
\mathbf{H}=\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{\mathrm{H}}
$$

- spatial decoupling leads to optimality in various senses [37];
- broadband case [5, 44]:

$$
\boldsymbol{H}(z)=\boldsymbol{U}(z) \boldsymbol{\Sigma}(z) \boldsymbol{V}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)
$$

- diagonalisation for all values of $z$ (or all values on the unit circle) $[20,22,31,30]$.


### 5.2 Broadband Steering Vector

- Assume an array of $M$ sensors, and a single source $u[n]$ :

$$
\mathbf{x}[n]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
a_{1}[n] \\
\vdots \\
a_{M}[n]
\end{array}\right] * u[n]
$$



- it can contain fractional delay filters [18] or general transfer functions;
- set of filters operating on the array signals:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)=\left[w_{1}(z), w_{2}(z), \ldots w_{M}(z)\right] \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Simplistic Beamforming

- Filtering to coherently combine $u[n]$ and to suppress $v[n]$ :

- we want $\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \boldsymbol{a}(z)=1$ and $\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \boldsymbol{b}(z)=0$;
- narrowband case:
- broadband case:

$$
\mathbf{w}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{H}} \\
\mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{H}}
\end{array}\right]^{\dagger}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] ; \quad \boldsymbol{w}(z)=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \\
\mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)
\end{array}\right]^{\dagger}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

### 5.3 Linearly Constrained Minimum Variance Beamforming

- To address unknown interferers, we want to minimize the output power subject to constraints (e.g. in look direction):

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \\
\mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)
\end{array}\right] \boldsymbol{w}(z)=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] ;
$$

- narrowband case [16]:

$$
\min _{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{H}} \mathbf{R w} \quad \text { s.t. } \mathbf{C w}=\mathbf{f} ;
$$




- broadband case [38]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \min _{\boldsymbol{w}(z)} \oint_{|z|=1} \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \boldsymbol{R}(z) \boldsymbol{w}(z) \frac{\mathrm{d} z}{z} \\
& \text { s.t. } \boldsymbol{C}(z) \boldsymbol{w}(z)=\boldsymbol{f}(z)
\end{aligned}
$$

## LCMV Solution

- Narrowband formulation [16]:

$$
\min _{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{H}} \mathbf{R w} \quad \text { s.t. } \mathbf{C w}=\mathbf{f} ;
$$

- narrowband solution:

Capon beamformer [29]:

$$
\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{opt}}=\mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{C}^{\mathrm{H}}\left\{\mathbf{C R}^{-1} \mathbf{C}^{\mathrm{H}}\right\}^{-1} \mathbf{f} ;
$$

- broadband formulation [38]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \min _{\boldsymbol{w}(z)} \oint_{|z|=1} \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \boldsymbol{R}(z) \boldsymbol{w}(z) \frac{\mathrm{d} z}{z} \\
& \text { s.t. } \boldsymbol{C}(z) \boldsymbol{w}(z)=\boldsymbol{f}(z) .
\end{aligned}
$$

- broadband solution:

Capon equivalent [38, 4]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathrm{opt}}(z)= & \boldsymbol{R}^{-1}(z) \boldsymbol{C}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \\
& \left\{\boldsymbol{C}(z) \boldsymbol{R}^{-1}(z) \mathbf{C}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\right\}^{-1} \boldsymbol{f}(z) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6. Summary

- "Polynomial matrices" is simplistic for what potentially are Laurent series; absolute convergence implies analyticity, and arbitrarily close approximations can be obtained by polynomials of sufficient order;
- operations and properties:

|  | real-valued | complex-valued | polynomial |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| transposition | $\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ | $\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{H}}=\left(\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{*}$ | $\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)=\left\{\boldsymbol{A}\left(1 / z^{*}\right)\right\}^{\mathrm{H}}$ |
| energy | orthonormal | unitary | para-unitary |
| $\quad$ preservation | $\mathbf{A}^{-1}=\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ | $\mathbf{A}^{-1}=\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{H}}$ | $\boldsymbol{A}^{-1}(z)=\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)$ |
| structure | symmetric | Hermitian | para-Hermitian |
|  | $\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}=\mathbf{A}$ | $\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{H}}=\mathbf{A}$ | $\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)=\boldsymbol{A}(z)$ |

- using polynomial notation, broadband formulations generally just extend from the narrowband case;
- to access solutions to polynomial matrix formulations, the eigenvalue decomposition of a parahermitian $\boldsymbol{R}(z) \bullet — \mathbf{R}[\tau]$ will be key;
- such an EVD must provide a diagonalisation for every value of $z$ or for every lag $\tau[20,26,39,46,41]$.


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