

Applications of Polynomial Eigenvalue Decomposition to Multichannel Broadband Signal Processing, Part II: Eigenvalue Decomposition

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Part II: Eigenvalue Decomposition



- 1. Overview
- 2. Analytic eigenvalue decomposition
- 3. Polynomial eigenvalue decomposition
- 4. Time domain algorithms
- 5. DFT domain algorithms
- 6. Summary

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2. Analytic Eigenvalue Decomposition

1. Overview

- 2. Analytic eigenvalue decomposition
 - 2.1 ordinary EVD
 - 2.2 existence of an analytic EVD
 - $2.3\,$ some properties of the analytic EVD
- 3. Polynomial eigenvalue decomposition
- 4. Time domain algorithms
- 5. DFT domain algorithms
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2.1 Ordinary Eigenvalue Decomposition

 For a Hermitian matrix R = R^H, we know that an eigenvalue decomposition (EVD) R = QΛQ^H exists [27, 30];



• for eigenvalues $\Lambda = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_M\}$ and eigenvectors $\mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_M]$:

$$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{q}_m = \lambda_m \mathbf{q}_m$$

- eigenvalues $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$;
- eigenvectors can be chosen as orthonormal, but may have an arbitary phase shift: $\mathbf{q}'_m = e^{j\varphi}\mathbf{q}_m$ is also an eigenvector;
- ► in case of an algebraic multiplicity C: \u03c6_m = \u03c6_{m+1} = \u03c6 = \u03c6_{m+C-1}, only a C-dimensional subspace is defined, within which the eigenvectors can form an arbitrary orthonormal basis, with any unitary V:

$$[\mathbf{q}'_m, \ldots \mathbf{q}'_{m+C-1}] = [\mathbf{q}_m, \ldots \mathbf{q}_{m+C-1}] \mathbf{V}.$$
(1)

2.2 Existence of an Analytic EVD on a Real Interval

- A standard EVD can diagonalise R(z) •—• R[τ] only for one specific value of z or of τ, respectively;
- Franz Rellich (1939, [50]) for a self-adjoint, analytic $\mathbf{R}(t) = \mathbf{R}^{\mathrm{H}}(t)$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$:

 $\boldsymbol{R}(t) = \boldsymbol{Q}(t)\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(t)\boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{H}}(t) ;$

- Q(t) and $\Lambda(t)$ can be chosen analytic;
- similarly for an arbitrary (i.e. not necessarily Hermitian or square) analytic matrix, de Moor & Boyd (1989, [21]) and Bunse-Gerstner (1991, [7]) established an analytic SVD.







Analyticity of $\boldsymbol{R}(z)$

• The analyticity of $\mathbf{R}(z) \bullet - \circ \mathcal{E} \{ \mathbf{x}[n] \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{H}}[n-\tau] \}$ can be tied to a source model [47, 66]





- ▶ the innovation filters $F_{\ell}(z)$, $\ell = 1, ..., L$ describe the spectral shape of the L contributing source signals;
- ▶ a convolutive mixing system $H(z) : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}^{M \times N}$ models the transfer paths between the *L* sources and *M* sensors;
- if $F_{\ell}(z)$ and H(z) are stable and causal, then $R(z) = H(z)F(z)F^{P}(z)H^{P}(z)$ is analytic.

Analytic EVD on the Unit Circle

- Analyticity of $\mathbf{R}(z)$ permits a restricted evaluation on the unit circle $z = e^{j\Omega}$;
- due to Rellich [50]:

$$\boldsymbol{R}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega}) = \boldsymbol{Q}(\Omega) \; \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(\Omega) \; \boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{H}}(\Omega) \; ,$$

- unfortunately, while analytic in $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}$, $\Lambda(\Omega)$ and $Q(\Omega)$ can be $2\pi L$ -periodic, with some $L \in \mathbb{Z}$ [67, 5];
- example [18, 55, 67]:



while cos(Ω/2) is analytic in Ω, a fractional delay z^{-1/2} is not analytic: its time domain equivalent decays too slowly [35].



(2)

Non-Existence of an Analytic EVD of $\boldsymbol{R}(z)$

- ▶ The case L > 1 can be tied to multiplexing operation [67];
- ► assume $\mathbf{x}[n]$ is *L*-fold demultiplexed, $\mathbf{R}(z) \bullet - \circ \mathcal{E} \{ \mathbf{x}[n] \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{H}}[n-\tau] \};$
- *R*(z) will be pseudo-circulant [58] with modulated eigenvalues [67, 5];
- $Q(\Omega)$ and $\Lambda(\Omega)$ will be $2\pi L$ -periodic;
- as such, we can only find an analytic EVD if R(z) is L-fold oversampled [67]:

$$\boldsymbol{R}(z^L) = \boldsymbol{Q}(z)\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)\boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) . \qquad (3)$$





Return to Example

▶ The previous example of $\mathbf{R}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 + z^{-1}; 1 + z & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ arises from the following arrangement with uncorrelated $v[n] \in \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$:



• therefore we require oversampling by L = 2:

$$\mathbf{R}(z^2) = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ z & -z \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} z + 2 + z^{-1} \\ & -z + 2 - z^{-1} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & z^{-1} \\ 1 & -z^{-1} \end{array} \right] ;$$

if linked to block filtering, R(z) is pseudo-circulant [57], but this property may be obscured by paraunitary operations [67].



Analytic EVD of a Parahermitian Matrix



For an analytic parahermitian matrix R(z), z ∈ C, that is not connected to multiplexing, we can find [66, 67]

$$\boldsymbol{R}(z) = \boldsymbol{Q}(z) \ \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z) \ \boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) , \qquad (4)$$

with analytic factors;

▶ $m{Q}(z) = [m{q}_1(z), \dots, m{q}_M(z)]$ must be paraunitary [57, 59], such that

$$\boldsymbol{Q}(z)\boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) = \boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\boldsymbol{Q}(z) = \mathbf{I}; \qquad (5)$$

- $\Lambda(z) = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1(z), \dots, \lambda_M\}$ must be diagonal and parahermitian;
- ▶ the parahermitian property implies that on the unit circle, $\lambda(e^{j\Omega}) = \lambda(z)|_{z=e^{j\Omega}} \in \mathbb{R}$.

2.3 Properties: Uniqueness and Ambiguities

▶ For the analytic EVD [66, 67, 5]



(6)

$$oldsymbol{R}(z) = oldsymbol{Q}(z) \cdot oldsymbol{\Lambda}(z) \cdot oldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) \ ;$$

- the eigenvalues in $\Lambda(z)$ are unique up to a permutation;
- ▶ if eigenvalues are distinct, then eigenvectors are unique up to an allpass filter $\psi_{\ell}(z)$;
- with $\Psi(z) = \operatorname{diag}\{\psi_1(z), \ldots, \psi_M(z)\}$,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{R}(z) &= \mathbf{Q}(z)\mathbf{\Psi}(z)\mathbf{\Lambda}(z)\mathbf{\Psi}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\\ &= \mathbf{Q}(z)\mathbf{\Lambda}(z)\mathbf{\Psi}(z)\mathbf{\Psi}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\\ &= \mathbf{Q}(z)\mathbf{\Lambda}(z)\mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z) ; \end{split}$$

► an analytic allpass \u03c6_m(z) does not affect analyticity, but will affects the support of Q[n] \u03c6—• Q(z).

Properties: Support of EVD Factors



• Given an arbitrary parahermitian $\mathbf{R}(z) \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$;

~

• eigenvalues $\gamma_{1,2}(z)$ can be directly computed in the z-domain as the roots of

$$\det\{\gamma(z)\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{R}(z)\} = \gamma^2(z) - T(z)\gamma(z) + D(z) = 0$$

• determinant $D(z) = det\{\mathbf{R}(z)\}$ and trace $T(z) = trace\{\mathbf{R}(z)\};$

this leads to

$$\gamma_{1,2}(z) = \frac{1}{2}T(z) \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{T(z)T^{\rm P}(z) - 4D(z)}$$
; (7)

▶ awkward: $T(z)T^{P}(z) - 4D(z) = S(z)S^{P}(z)$ is parahermitian, but so must be the result of the square root.

Exact Calculation cont'd

• Maclaurin series: for every root of S(z),

-

$$\sqrt{1 - \beta z^{-1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \xi_n \beta^n z^{-n}$$
(8)
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}} = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \xi_n \alpha^n z^{-n}\right)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \chi_n \alpha^n z^{-n}$$
(9)

with coefficients [6]

$$\xi_n = (-1)^n \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ n \end{pmatrix} = \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} - i \end{pmatrix}, \qquad (10)$$
$$\chi_n = (-1)^n \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ n \end{pmatrix} = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n!} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} + i \end{pmatrix}. \qquad (11)$$



Maclaurin Series

• Coefficients ξ_n and χ_n for $n = 0 \dots 50$ [66]:



- these coefficients additionally dampen a geometric series;
- only if S(z) has double zeros (and double poles) is a polynomial (rational) solution possible;
- ▶ in general, the result are transcendental eigenvalues.



Numerical Example



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Example from Icart & Comon (2012, [29]):

$$\mathbf{R}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2z + 6 - 2z^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

- (top) solution on unit circle;
- (middle) coefficients of analytic eigenvalues;
- (bottom) decay of coefficients;
- solution generally can be transcendental, i.e. neither finite nor rational.

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3. Polynomial Eigenvalue Decomposition

1. Overview

- 2. Analytic eigenvalue decomposition
- 3. Polynomial eigenvalue decomposition
 - 3.1 spectral majorisation
 - 3.2 relation to analytic EVD
 - 3.3 numerical example
- 4. Time domain algorithms
- 5. DFT domain algorithms
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3.1 Polynomial EVD and Spectral Majorisation

 Polynomial EVD or McWhirter decomposition [37] of the CSD matrix

$$\boldsymbol{R}(z) \approx \boldsymbol{U}(z) \; \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(z) \; \boldsymbol{U}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)$$
 (12)

- ▶ with paraunitary, polynomial U(z), s.t. U(z)U^P(z) = I;
- diagonal Laurent polynomial matrix

$$\Gamma(z) = \operatorname{diag}\{\gamma_1(z), \ldots, \gamma_M(z)\}, \quad (13)$$

- approximation sign due to restriction to polynomials [29];
- ▶ the eigenvalues are spectrally majorised [56], i.e. on the unit circle must satisfy

 $\gamma_m(\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{j}\Omega}) \ge \gamma_{m+1}(\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{j}\Omega}), \qquad \forall \Omega, \quad m = 1, \dots (M-1).$ (14)





Polynomial Eigenvalues and Spectral Majorisation

► Example for polynomial eigenvalues $\gamma_m[\tau] \circ - \bullet \gamma_m(e^{j\Omega})$ of a 3×3 matrix:







3.2 Relation to Analytic EVD

- If the analytic eigenvalues do not intersect on the unit circle, then analytic EVD and polynomial EVD (with sufficiently high order) are 'identical';
- the polynomial EVD has a strict ordering of eigenvalues;
- specific polynomial/analytic eigenvector solution may differ — recall the allpass ambiguity;





- if analytic eigenvalues intersect, then the solutions of analytic EVD and polynomial EVD differ;
- we explore by way of an example ...





3.3 Numerical Example



▶ We pick our own eigenvalues (order 2) and eigenvectors (order 1):

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{\Lambda}(z) &= \left[\begin{array}{cc} z+3+z^{-1} & \\ & -jz+3+jz^{-1} \end{array} \right] \\ \mathbf{Q}(z) &= \left[\mathbf{q}_1(z), \, \mathbf{q}_2(z) \right] & \text{ with } & \mathbf{q}_{1,2}(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \pm z^{-1} \end{array} \right] \; ; \end{split}$$

• parahermitian matrix $\boldsymbol{R}(z) = \boldsymbol{Q}(z) \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z) \boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)$:

$$\boldsymbol{R}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1-j}{2}z + 3 + \frac{1+j}{2}z^{-1} & \frac{1+j}{2}z^2 + \frac{1-j}{2} \\ \frac{1+j}{2} + \frac{1-j}{2}z^{-2} & \frac{1-j}{2}z + 3 + \frac{1+j}{2}z^{-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$





- Analytic (and therefore infinitely differentiable) eigenvalues λ_m(e^{jΩ});
 - smooth Hermitian angles

$$\begin{array}{l} \cos\varphi_m = \\ | \boldsymbol{q}_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}0}) \cdot \boldsymbol{q}_m(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega}) |. \end{array}$$

Numerical Example — Ideal Spectral Majorisation







- Analytic eigenvalues are permuted where they intersect;
- resulting spectrally majorised eigenvalues are piecewise analytic but not differentiable;
- corresponding eigenvectors are piecewise analytic but not continuous.



4. Time Domain Algorithms



- 1. Overview
- 2. Analytic eigenvalue decomposition
- 3. Polynomial eigenvalue decomposition
- 4. Time domain algorithms
 - 4.1 iterative PEVD approaches
 - 4.2 second order sequential best rotation (SBR) algorithm
 - 4.3 sequential matrix diagonalisation algorithm
 - 4.4 comparison
- 5. DFT domain algorithms
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4.1 Iterative PEVD Approach

- Second order sequential best rotation (SBR2, McWhirter 2007, [37, 47, 49, 60]) Strategy (Strategy and Strategy and Stra
- iterative approach based on an elementary paraunitary operation:

-(0)

$$S^{(0)}(z) = R(z)$$

:
$$S^{(i+1)}(z) = \left\{ H^{(i+1)}(z) \right\}^{P} S^{(i)}(z) H^{(i+1)}(z)$$

- ► H⁽ⁱ⁾(z) is an elementary paraunitary operation, which at the *i*th step eliminates the largest off-diagonal element in s⁽ⁱ⁻¹⁾(z);
- stop after I iterations:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}(z) = \boldsymbol{S}^{(I)}(z)$$
 , $\hat{\boldsymbol{U}}(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{I} \boldsymbol{H}^{(i)}(z)$

sequential matrix diagonalisation (SMD) [10, 11, 8, 13, 12, 9, 19, 16, 15, 17, 48, 44] will follow the same scheme.

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Elementary Paraunitary Operation



An elementary paraunitary matrix [57] is defined as

$$\boldsymbol{H}^{(i)}(z) = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{v}^{(i)} \mathbf{v}^{(i),\mathrm{H}} + z^{-1} \mathbf{v}^{(i)} \mathbf{v}^{(i),\mathrm{H}} \qquad , \quad \|\mathbf{v}^{(i)}\|_2 = 1$$

we utilise a different definition:

$$\boldsymbol{H}^{(i)}(z) = \boldsymbol{D}^{(i)}(z) \mathbf{Q}^{(i)}$$

• $D^{(i)}(z)$ is a delay matrix:

$$D^{(i)}(z) = \operatorname{diag}\{1 \ \dots \ 1 \ z^{-\tau} \ 1 \ \dots \ 1\}$$

▶ $\mathbf{Q}^{(i)}(z)$ is a Givens rotation.

• At iteration *i*, consider $S^{(i-1)}(z) \circ - \bullet S^{(i-1)}[\tau]$





4.2 Sequential Best Rotation Algorithm (McWhirter [37])
▶ D̃⁽ⁱ⁾(z)S⁽ⁱ⁻¹⁾(z)D⁽ⁱ⁾(z)



4.2 Sequential Best Rotation Algorithm (McWhirter [37])
▶ D̃⁽ⁱ⁾(z) advances a row-slice of S⁽ⁱ⁻¹⁾(z) by T



 \blacktriangleright the off-diagonal element at -T has now been translated to lag zero





- 4.2 Sequential Best Rotation Algorithm (McWhirter [37])
 - ▶ $\mathbf{D}^{(i)}(z)$ delays a column-slice of $S^{(i-1)}(z)$ by T





 \blacktriangleright the off-diagonal element at -T has now been translated to lag zero





• the step $\tilde{D}^{(i)}(z)S^{(i-1)}(z)D_{(i)}(z)$ has brought the largest off-diagonal elements to lag 0.



> Jacobi step to eliminate largest off-diagonal elements by $\mathbf{Q}^{(i)}$





 \blacktriangleright iteration *i* is completed, having performed

$$\boldsymbol{S}^{(i)}(z) = \boldsymbol{Q}^{(i)} \boldsymbol{D}^{(i)}(z) \boldsymbol{S}^{(i-1)}(z) \tilde{\boldsymbol{D}}^{(i)}(z) \tilde{\boldsymbol{Q}}^{(i)}(z)$$





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SBR2 Outcome

- At the *i*th iteration, the zeroing of off-diagonal elements achieved during previous steps may be partially undone;
- the algorithm has proven convergence, transfering energy onto the main diagonal at every step (McWhirter 2007);
- \blacktriangleright after I iterations, we reach an approximate diagonalisation

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}(z) = \boldsymbol{S}^{(L)}(z) = \hat{\boldsymbol{U}}^{\mathrm{P}}(z)\boldsymbol{R}(z)\hat{\boldsymbol{U}}(z)$$

 \hat{I}

with

$$oldsymbol{U}(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} oldsymbol{D}^{(i)}(z) oldsymbol{Q}^{(i)}$$

the factors may require trimming of trailing zeros or very small coefficients [26, 54, 13, 14, 32].





SBR2 — Givens Rotation

- A Givens rotation eliminates the maximum off-diagonal element once brought the lag-zero matrix;
- > note I: in the lag-zero matrix, one column and one row are modified by the shift:



- note II: a Givens rotation only affects two columns and two rows in every matrix;
- Givens rotation is relatively low in computational cost!

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4.3 Sequential Matrix Diagonalisation (SMD, [48])

- Main idea the zero-lag matrix is diagonalised in every step;
- ▶ initialisation: diagonalise R[0] by EVD and apply modal matrix to all matrix coefficients → S⁽⁰⁾;
- at the *i*th step as in SBR2, the maximum element (or column with max. norm) is shifted to the lag-zero matrix:



- an EVD is used to re-diagonalise the zero-lag matrix;
- a full modal matrix is applied at all lags more costly than SBR2.



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4.4 Comparison: SBR2/SMD Convergence

Measuring the remaining normalised off-diagonal energy over an ensemble of space-time covariance matrices:





SBR2/SMD Application Cost 1

Ensemble average of remaining off-diagonal energy vs. order of paraunitary filter banks to decompose 4x4 matrices of order 15:





SBR2/SMD Application Cost 2

Ensemble average of remaining off-diagonal energy vs. order of paraunitary filter banks to decompose 8x8 matrices of order 63:





5. DFT Domain Algorithms

1. Overview

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- 5.1 analytic eigenvalue extraction
- 5.2 analytic eigenvector extraction
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5.1 Analytic Eigenvalue Extraction

Idea for DFT-based algorithms: calculate an EVD in every DFT bin;



- spectral coherence must be re-established across bins;
- we exploit that the solution must be analytic,
 - i.e. infinitely differentiable;
- we first extract eigenvalues, which are less volatile under perturbation [30];



Analytic Eigenvalue Extraction Algorithm I

Bin-wise EVD yields:

$$\boldsymbol{R}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k}) = \mathbf{Q}_k \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k \mathbf{Q}_k^{\mathrm{H}} = \underbrace{\mathbf{Q}_k \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k \mathbf{P}_k}_{\boldsymbol{Q}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k})} \cdot \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k \mathbf{P}_k}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k})} \cdot \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k^{\mathrm{H}} \mathbf{Q}_k^{\mathrm{H}}}_{\boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{H}}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k})}$$



- for distinct eigenvalues: Ψ_k is a diagonal matrix that accounts for the phase ambiguity of eigenvectors;
- ► in case of a C-fold algebraic multiplicity: Ψ_K is block diagonal, with a C × C unitary matrix accounting for eigenvectors forming an arbitrary basis within a C-dimensional subspace;
- ▶ a predecessor algorithm [55] can fail on this;



Analytic Eigenvalue Extraction Algorithm II

To find the smoothest association of M functions across K frequency bins, we compare the power in the p-th derivative of a Dirichlet interpolation [65, 73, 70]



- for an exhaustive search, there would be $M!^{K-1}$ associations to check;
- a Viterbi-type scheme operates iteratively across bins [76], and only retains viable associations [71, 72];
- ▶ DFT length K can be increased until a criterion based on time-domain aliasing is met.

5.2 Analytic Eigenvector Extraction

From the eigenvalue extraction, the correct association across frequency bins defines P_k [68]:

$$\boldsymbol{R}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k}) = \boldsymbol{\mathbf{Q}}_k \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k \boldsymbol{\mathbf{Q}}_k^{\mathrm{H}} = \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\mathbf{Q}}_k \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k \boldsymbol{\mathbf{P}}_k}_{\boldsymbol{Q}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k})} \cdot \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\mathbf{P}}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k \boldsymbol{\mathbf{P}}_k}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k})} \cdot \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\mathbf{P}}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k^{\mathrm{H}} \boldsymbol{\mathbf{Q}}_k^{\mathrm{H}}}_{\boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{H}}(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j}\Omega_k})}$$

- for the eigenvalue extraction, it remains to find the correct phase adjustment Ψ_k;
- again the smoothness of a Dirichlet interpolation can lead to the analytic solution;
- example: M = 3 components of one eigenvector with different Ψ_k.





Analytic Eigenvector Extraction Algorithm

- The main task for the extraction of analytic eigenvectors is the adjustment of a smooth phase progression Ψ_k across bins;
- this problem is NP hard [51], but the specific smoothness cost function possesses for a sufficient DFT size — stationary points that are approximately separated by a modulation [69];

• cut through cost function ξ_p for powers of different derivatives p:



 an iterative algorithm is proven to converge [70], increasing the DFT length until a reconstruction error is minimised;



5.3 Comparison — SMD Algorithm Example





- $\mathbf{R}(z): \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}^{4 \times 4}$ of order 47;
- SMD algorithm [48] yields approximate spectral majorisation [38];
- Hermitian angles of eigenvectors to a reference vector indicate approximation of piecewise analytic functions.

Analytic EVD Extraction Example





- same matrix, but utilising analytic eigen-value [71] and -vector extraction [69];
- extracted analytic EVD factors are close to ground truth;
- lower order compared to SMD result.

Comparison — Ensemble Results





- ensemble results over matrices with different ground truth, and for various orders;
- above: application cost

 the order of the extracted paraunitary matrices, required
 e.g. for a subspace projection;
- below: execution time of the algorithms.

6. Summary

An analytic EVD exists in almost all cases — when data is not multiplexed;



- spectral majorisation in the EVD is desirable in coding or communications applications;
- the PEVD is supported by a number of well-established algorithms [20, 37, 47];
- analytic EVD algorithms are useful where low-order factors or low-perturbed subspace methods matter;
- if a space-time covariance matrix is estimated from limited data [22, 23, 24, 33], timeand DFT-domain algorithms target the same factors (within the allpass ambiguity of the eigenvectors) with probability one [34].
- algorithms find applications in coding [47, 74], angle of arrival estimation [2, 1, 28, 61], beamforming [3, 4, 42, 62], subspace detection [45, 46, 63], speech enhancement [43, 41], communications [39, 40, 53, 52] and others [64, 75];
- extension to other decompositions, such as e.g. SVD [25, 31, 36, 37, 70] or QRD [19, 25, 70].

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