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An Efficient CORDIC Array Structure for the Implementation of Discrete Cosine Transform

Yu Hen Hu and Zhenyang Wu

Abstract—We propose a novel implementation of the discrete cosine transform (DCT) and the inverse DCT (IDCT) algorithms using a CORDIC (COordinate Rotation DIgital Computer)-based systolic processor array structure. First, we reformulate an N -point DCT or IDCT algorithm into a rotation formulation which makes it suitable for CORDIC processor implementation. We then propose to use a pipelined CORDIC processor as the basic building block to construct 1-D and 2-D systolic-type processor arrays to speed up the DCT and IDCT computation. Due to the proposed novel rotation formulation, we achieve 100% processor utilization in both 1-D and 2-D configurations. Furthermore, we show that for the 2-D configurations, the same data processing throughput rate can be maintained as long as the processor array dimensions are increased linearly with N . Neither the algorithm formulation or the array configuration need to be modified. Hence, the proposed parallel architecture is *scalable* to the problem size. These desirable features make this novel implementation compare favorably to previously proposed DCT implementations.

I. INTRODUCTION

In this correspondence, we present an efficient implementation of the discrete cosine transform (DCT) algorithm [1] and its inverse (IDCT) using a CORDIC processor array structure. DCT has been incorporated into image compression standards such as JPEG, MPEG, and CCITT H261. It has also found many applications in speech coding and realization of filter banks for frequency-division and time-division multiplexer (FDM-TDM) systems. Due to its increasing importance, numerous attempts have been made to accelerate the DCT computation in order to facilitate real time, high-throughput implementation [2]. One family of approaches is to derive fast DCT algorithms [7]–[12] by reducing the number of multiplications needed

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in the formulation. Yet another family of approaches [3]–[6] has focused on using hardware implementation of DCT with parallel or pipelined VLSI array structures [13]. While most of these proposed implementations are based on the multiply-and-add-type arithmetic units, some [5] have reported implementations using a special arithmetic unit called CORDIC.

CORDIC (COordinate Rotation DIgital Computer) is a rotation-based arithmetic algorithm which is particularly efficient for the evaluation of fast transformation algorithms such as DFT (discrete Fourier transform), FFT (fast Fourier transform) [15], and DHT (discrete Hartly transform) [16]. In this correspondence, we will propose new formulations of both the DCT and the IDCT algorithms to facilitate very efficient implementation using CORDIC processor array structures. Compared to the previous result [5], our implementations require only local data communication, have simple, regular array structures, and are linearly scalable.

II. VECTOR ROTATION FORMULATION OF DCT AND IDCT ALGORITHM

Given a real-valued sequence $\{x(n); 0 \leq n \leq N-1\}$, the DCT of $\{x(n)\}$ is defined by

$$X(k) = \frac{2}{N} c(k) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{2N} \right] \quad (1)$$

$$0 \leq k \leq N-1$$

and the IDCT of an N -point real-valued sequence $\{X(k); 0 \leq k \leq N-1\}$ is defined by

$$x(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} c(k) X(k) \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{2N} \right], \quad 0 \leq n \leq N-1 \quad (2)$$

where $c(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, and $c(k) = 1$ for $1 \leq k \leq N-1$. Since $\frac{2}{N}$ is a scaling factor which can easily be computed if N is a power of 2, we need only to compute $\tilde{X}(k) = NX(k)/2$. Let us define

$$V(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \exp \left[j \frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{2N} \right], \quad 0 \leq k \leq N-1. \quad (3)$$

Clearly, $\tilde{X}(k) = \text{Re}\{V(k)\}$ for $k \geq 1$, and $\tilde{X}(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}V(0)$. Assuming that N is an even number, our strategy is to decompose $V(k)$ such that

$$V(k) = V_e(k) + V_o(k) \quad (4)$$

where

$$V_e(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} x(2n) \exp \left[j \frac{\pi(4n+1)k}{2N} \right] \quad (5)$$

and

$$V_o(k) = \sum_{m=0}^{N/2-1} x(2m+1) \exp \left[j \frac{\pi(4m+3)k}{2N} \right]. \quad (6)$$

The following relations can be verified easily: $\text{Re}\{V_e(N-k)\} = \text{Im}\{V_e(k)\}$ and $\text{Re}\{V_o(N-k)\} = -\text{Im}\{V_o(k)\}$. Substitute $m =$

$N/2 - n - 1$ into (6), we have

$$\begin{aligned} V_0^*(k) &= \sum_{m=0}^{N/2-1} x(2m+1) \exp\left[-j\frac{\pi(4m+3)k}{2N}\right] \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} x(N-2n-1) \exp[-j\pi k] \exp\left[j\frac{\pi(4n+1)k}{2N}\right]. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Therefore, we have the following DCT computing algorithm:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}(k) + j\hat{X}(N-k) &= V_0(k) + V_0^*(k) \quad 1 \leq k \leq N/2 \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} \{x(2n) + (-1)^k x(N-2n-1)\} \\ &\quad \times \exp\left[j\frac{\pi(4n+1)k}{2N}\right] \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}(0) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \\ &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{N/2-1} [x(2n) + x(N-2n-1)] \exp[j\pi/4] \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

In (8) and (9), the N -point DCT can be obtained using $(N/2)^2 + N/2$ complex number multiplications. In particular, $\hat{X}(k)$ and $\hat{X}(N-k)$ are simultaneously computed as the real part and imaginary part of the results.

Similar to the DCT case, for IDCT we can also decompose $x(n)$ into

$$x(n) = \hat{x}_e(n) + \hat{x}_o(n) \quad (10)$$

where

$$\hat{x}_e(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} c(k) X(2k) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{N}\right] \quad (11)$$

and

$$\hat{x}_o(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} X(2k+1) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)(2k+1)}{2N}\right]. \quad (12)$$

It is not difficult to verify that

$$x(N-n-1) = \hat{x}_e(n) - \hat{x}_o(n). \quad (13)$$

If $N/2$ is also an even number, (11) and (12) can be decomposed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_e(n) &= X(0) \cos[\pi/4] + \sum_{k=1}^{N/4-1} X(2k) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{N}\right] \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^{N/4-1} X(N-2k) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)(N-2k)}{2N}\right] \\ &\quad + X(N/2) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)}{4}\right] \\ &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ X(0) \exp\left[\frac{j\pi}{4}\right] + X(N/2) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)}{4}\right] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{k=1}^{N/4-1} [X(2k) - jX(N-2k)] \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[(-1)^n j \frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{N}\right] \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_o(n) &= \sum_{k=0}^{N/4-1} X(2k+1) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)(2k+1)}{2N}\right] \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=0}^{N/4-1} X(N-2k-1) \\ &\quad \times \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2n+1)(N-2k-1)}{2N}\right] \\ &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{N/4-1} [X(2k+1) - jX(N-2k-1)] \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[(-1)^n j \frac{\pi(2n+1)(2k+1)}{2N}\right] \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

On the other hand, if $N/2$ is an odd number, we decompose (11) and (12) as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_e(n) &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ X(0) \cos[\pi/4] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{k=1}^{(N-2)/4} [X(2k) - jX(N-2k)] \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[j(-1)^n \frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{N}\right] \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_o(n) &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{(N-6)/4} [X(2k+1) - jX(N-2k-1)] \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[j(-1)^n \frac{\pi(2n+1)(2k+1)}{2N}\right] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + X(N/2) \exp\left[j\frac{\pi(2n+1)}{4}\right] \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Substituting the above equations into (10) and (13) yields the inverse DCT algorithm below:

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ X(0) \exp[j\pi/4] + \sum_{k=1}^{N/2-1} [X(k) - jX(N-k)] \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[(-1)^n j \frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{2N}\right] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + X(N/2) \exp\left[j\frac{\pi(2n+1)}{4}\right] \right\} \\ &\quad 0 \leq n \leq \frac{N}{2} - 1 \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

$$\begin{aligned} x(N-n-1) &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ X(0) \exp[j\pi/4] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{k=1}^{N/2-1} (-1)^k [X(k) - jX(N-k)] \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[(-1)^n j \frac{\pi(2n+1)k}{2N}\right] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + (-1)^{N/2} X(N/2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \exp\left[j\frac{\pi(2n+1)}{4}\right] \right\} \\ &\quad 0 \leq n \leq \frac{N}{2} - 1. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

Similar to the DCT formulation, (18) and (19) are computed using complex multiplications. Careful comparison of these two equations

also reveals that $x(N - n - 1)$ can be computed using the same complex multiplication results used to compute $x(n)$. The only difference is in the summation of the final results.

III. CORDIC ARRAY STRUCTURE IMPLEMENTATION OF DCT AND IDCT

Consider the multiplications of two complex numbers $x + jy$ and $r(\cos \theta + j \sin \theta)$. The result, $u + jv$, can be obtained by evaluating the final coordinate after rotating a 2×1 vector $[x \ y]^t$ through an angle θ and then scaled by a factor r . This is accomplished in CORDIC via a three-phase procedure [14]: angle conversion, vector rotation, and scaling:

CORDIC Implementation of Complex Number Multiplication

/* CORDIC angle conversion */

Initialization: $z_0 = \theta$

For $i = 0$ to $b - 1$ Do

$\mu_i = \text{sign}(z_i)$; /* $\mu_i = 1$ if $z_i > 0$,

and

$\mu_i = -1$ if $z_i < 0$. */

$$z_{i+1} = z_i - \mu_i \tan^{-1} 2^{-i}; \quad (20)$$

/* CORDIC vector rotation */

Initialization: $[x_0 \ y_0]^t = [x \ y]^t$.

For $i = 0$ to $b - 1$ Do

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \mu_i y_i 2^{-i} \quad (21a)$$

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \mu_i x_i 2^{-i} \quad (21b)$$

/* Scaling operation */

$$u = \frac{r}{K} x_b; \quad v = \frac{r}{K} y_b \quad (22)$$

During the angle conversion phase, the angle θ is represented as the sum of a nonincreasing sequence of elementary rotation angles $\{\tan^{-1} 2^{-i}; 0 \leq i \leq b - 1\}$ such that

$$\theta = \sum_{i=0}^{b-1} \mu_i \tan^{-1} 2^{-i}. \quad (23)$$

In (23), the set of parameters $\mu_i (= \pm 1)$ constitutes an *implicit representation* of θ , and b is the number of bits in the internal register. In DCT and IDCT, θ is known. Hence, angle conversion can be performed in advance. The scaling factor $K = \prod_{i=0}^{b-1} \cos(\mu_i \tan^{-1} 2^{-i})$ will be a constant and independent of μ_i as long as $|\mu_i| = 1$. Hence K can be computed in advance as well. Moreover, in DCT and IDCT, $r = 1$. Thus, r/K will be a known constant. Multiplication by a known constant can be computed very efficiently using *multiplier recoding* [14].

In view of the efficient implementation of the complex multiplication using a CORDIC processor, Wu *et al.* have proposed [5] a CORDIC-based architecture to implement the DCT algorithm. In this previous implementation, $N/2$ CORDIC rotations are computed in parallel with the *broadcasting* of each input $x(n)$ to all $N/2$ CORDIC processors. The intermediate results are routed to $N/2$ set of dual accumulators via a *globally* interconnected exchange network. The output are computed in parallel once all the input $x(n)$ are fed into the network sequentially. This design is a serial-in-parallel-out computing scheme which requires both global synchronization of $N/2$ CORDIC processors and global interconnections to broadcast the input data and to exchange intermediate results. When N becomes large, it may suffer excessive communication overhead.

Based on the new algorithm developed in (8), (9), (18), and (19), we propose to implement the DCT algorithm using different CORDIC processor array structures. Toward this goal, we first transform the proposed rotation algorithms in Section II into a localized recursive formulation in which no global data communication is needed. Let us define $\phi(n, 0) = \theta(n, 0) = \pi/4$, and for $k \geq 1$

$$\phi(n, k) = \frac{\pi(4n + 1)k}{2N}$$

and

$$\theta(n, k) = \frac{\pi(2n + 1)k}{2N}. \quad (24)$$

Then the locally recursive DCT and IDCT algorithms can be formulated as follows:

Locally Recursive Formulation of the Vector Rotation DCT Algorithm

Initiation: Given $\{x_f(n, 0) = x(2n),$

$x_r(n, 0) = x(N - 2n - 1);$

$0 \leq n \leq N/2 - 1\}$, $V(0, k) = 0,$

for $k = 0$ to $\frac{N}{2},$

for $n = 0$ to $\frac{N}{2} - 1,$

$$V(n + 1, k) = V(n, k) + (x_f(n, k) - (-1)^k x_r(n, k)) \times K \times \exp[j\phi(n, k)] \quad (25)$$

end /* the factor K means the CORDIC scaling operation is not performed now */

$$x_f(n, k + 1) = x_f(n, k); x_r(n, k + 1) = x_r(n, k)$$

Output: $X(k) + jX(N - k) = V(\frac{N}{2}, k)/K$
/* scaling is performed at the end */

end

Locally Recursive Formulation of Vector Rotation IDCT Algorithm

Initiation: $X_f(0, k) = X(k), 0 \leq k \leq N/2,$

$X_r(0, k) = X(N - k), 0 \leq k < N/2,$

$X_r(0, N/2) = 0, U(n, 0) = V(n, 0) = 0.$

for $n = 0$ to $\frac{N}{2} - 1$

for $k = 0$ to $\frac{N}{2} - 1$

$$W(n, k) = (X_f(n, k) + jX_r(n, k)) \times K \times \exp[(-1)^n \theta(n, k)] \quad (26)$$

$$U(n, k + 1) = U(n, k) + \text{Re}\{W(n, k)\} \quad (27a)$$

$$V(n, k + 1) = V(n, k) + (-1)^k \times \text{Re}\{W(n, k)\} \quad (27b)$$

end

$$X_f(n + 1, k) = X_f(n, k),$$

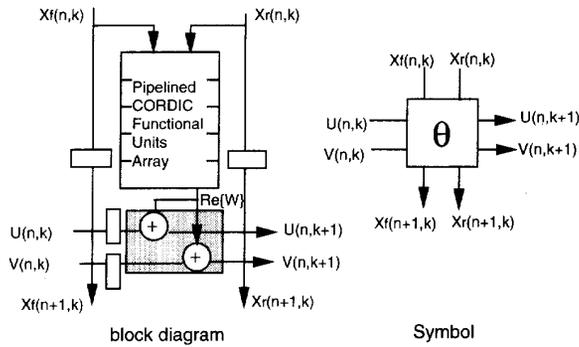
$$X_r(n + 1, k) = X_r(n, k),$$

output: $x(n) = U(n, N/2)/K,$

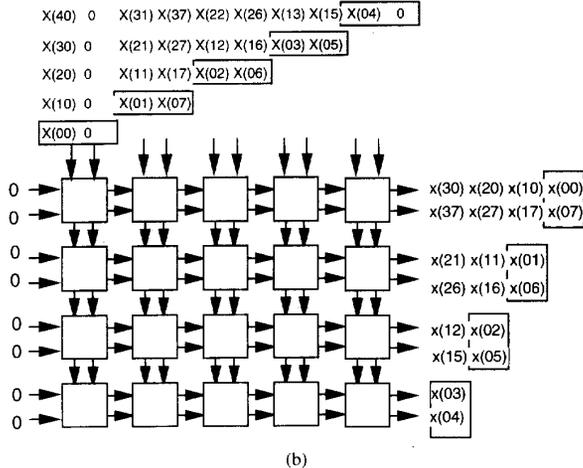
$$x(N - n - 1) = V(n, N/2)/K$$

end

In the k th iteration, there are three types of operations: complex number multiplications, complex number additions, and data transmission. For convenience, we shall use T_{cm} , T_{ca} , and T_r to represent



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3. (a) 2-D pipelined CORDIC processor array for 8-point IDCT; (b) function definition of processing element on pipelined CORDIC processor array. (The input data in the boxes belong to the same set of data. The indices are different from (a). Here, the first index refers to different data sets, the second index is the index within the same data set (8 points). Output scaling processors are not shown.)

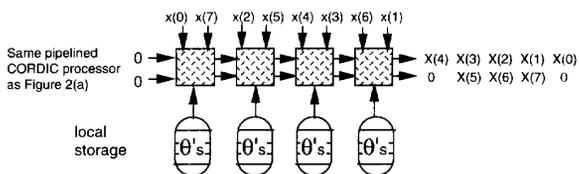


Fig. 4. 1-D pipelined CORDIC processor array for eight-point DCT.

B. 1-D Array Configuration

The 2-D array is a direct implementation of the original data dependency graph. If the data throughput constraint is less demanding, we may devise a 1-D processor array such as depicted in Fig. 4 by projecting the data dependence graph along the vertical direction¹. In this configuration, an N point DCT (or IDCT) can be computed every $NT/2$ time units using $(N/2 + 1)$ pipelined CORDIC processors. Successive iterations can share the same array. Hence, 100% processor utilization is accomplished. A 1-D array for IDCT is depicted in Fig. 5.

¹The systolic array synthesis method of projecting a graph along a specific direction on the index space is described in detail in [13].

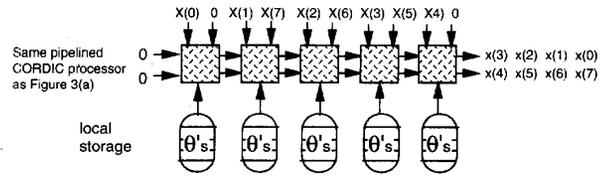


Fig. 5. 1-D pipelined CORDIC processor array for eight-point IDCT.

C. Discussion

- 1) So far, we have neglected the time needed to execute the scaling operation in the CORDIC algorithm. Fortunately, since both DCT and IDCT involve only complex multiplication and accumulation operations, it is *not* necessary to perform the scaling operation after each complex multiplication. Instead, the scaling operation can be accrued and performed only once at the end. Moreover, in our derivation of the DCT algorithm, we have postponed the multiplication of $2/N$. This factor can be combined with the CORDIC scaling factor $1/K$ so that it will not cost any extra computation overhead. We note that this *delayed-scaling* strategy has previously been proposed for FFT implementation [18].
- 2) A brief comparison with other existing results: In [3], the DCT is realized using the inverse DFT (IDFT) algorithm followed by multiplication operations. It requires two types of processors. Both [3] and [5] require approximately twice the number of complex multiplications compared to our algorithm. Chang and Wu [6] derived a 1-D systolic processor array in which each PE contains two real multipliers. Although this structure uses only real multiplications, its throughput rate is slower than our 1-D array, and it needs $N - 1$ PE's to evaluate an N -point DCT. The structure proposed in [4] requires the size of the DCT, N , to be the product of a set of prime numbers. In our formulation, N needs only to be an even number.

IV. CONCLUSION

We have presented novel rotation-based formulations for DCT and IDCT algorithms. These new formulations require $\frac{N}{2}(\frac{N}{2} + 1)$ complex multiplications, and facilitate efficient CORDIC processors implementation. Both 2-D and 1-D pipelined CORDIC array structures have been presented. The proposed parallel structures consist of a locally-connected module configured as a regular array, and are linearly scalable to handle large value of N .

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Unequal-Length Multichannel δ_b -Levinson and Schur Type RLS Algorithms

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Abstract—In this correspondence, δ_b -operator-based unequal-length multichannel Levinson and Schur-type RLS algorithms are developed which have the potential of improved numerical behavior for fast-sampled or ill-conditioned input data. They provide computational improvement over the overparameterization, or the zero padding approach using the existing equal-length multichannel δ_b algorithms when an unequal length multichannel case is considered.

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, δ -operator-based Levinson and Schur algorithms have been developed which show numerical advantages over the traditional q -operator-based algorithms for fast sampled or ill-conditioned data [1]–[3]. The δ_b -operator¹-based Levinson and Schur-type RLS algorithms developed in [3] may be used in on-line adaptive signal processing applications. But only equal length multichannel algorithms have been proposed in [3]. They may be used in unequal

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¹The backward delta operator δ_b is defined as $\delta_b = (1 - q^{-1})/\Delta$ where q^{-1} is the backward shift operator and Δ is a scaling factor.

TABLE I
PRIMARY MODULE OF MULTICHANNEL δ_b -LEVINSON-TYPE RLS ALGORITHM

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_{\mathbf{m}_i}^e(t) &= -\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}^{-1}(t-1)\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}^T(t) \\ \Gamma_{\mathbf{m}_i}^r(t) &= -\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}^{-1}(t)\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t) \\ \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{m}_i}(t) &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t) + \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t)\Gamma_{\mathbf{m}_i}^e(t) \\ \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{m}_i}(t) &= \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t-1) + \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}^T(t)\Gamma_{\mathbf{m}_i}^r(t) \\ \beta_{\mathbf{m}_i}(t) &= \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{m}_i}^T \left[\begin{array}{c} \beta_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] + \left(\mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{m}_i}^T \left[\begin{array}{c} \beta'_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t-1) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \Delta \mathcal{T}_{\mathbf{m}_i}^T \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{0} \\ \beta'_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t-1) \end{array} \right] \right) \Gamma_{\mathbf{m}_i}^e(t) \\ \beta'_{\mathbf{m}_i}(t) &= \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{m}_i}^T \left[\begin{array}{c} \beta'_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t-1) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] - \Delta \mathcal{T}_{\mathbf{m}_i}^T \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{0} \\ \beta'_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t-1) \end{array} \right] \\ &\quad - \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{m}_i}^T \left[\begin{array}{c} \beta_{\mathbf{m}_i, -i}(t) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right] \Gamma_{\mathbf{m}_i}^r(t) \\ \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{m}_i}(t) &= \mathbf{X}_{i,t}^T \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{m}_i, i, t-1} \beta'_{\mathbf{m}_i}(t-1)\end{aligned}$$

length multichannel cases using the overparameterization or the zero padding approach. However, the unequal length multichannel LS algorithms provide computational efficiency over the zero padding approach [4]. In this correspondence, the equal length multichannel δ_b -Levinson and Schur type RLS algorithms in [3] are extended to more general unequal length multichannel cases. It will cover the situation when the channels have unequal order filters. Levinson and Schur-type RLS algorithms have been developed for this situation based on the traditional q -operator [4]. We now develop a δ_b -operator version. A transformation method similar to that of [3] will be used to transform the q -domain algorithms [4] to the δ_b -domain.

Suppose we have k input channels $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_k(t)$ and each channel contains different channel length (order) n_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$. Then, the multichannel forward and backward linear prediction models are

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{e}_{k,t} &= [\mathbf{X}_{k,t}, \mathbf{X}_{n_k, t-1}] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{A}_{n_k}(t) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{X}_{n_k+k, t} \mathcal{T}_{n_k+k}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{A}_{n_k}(t) \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}\quad (1.1)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}_{k,t} &= [\mathbf{X}_{n_k, t}, \mathbf{X}_{k, t-n_k}] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{n_k}(t) \\ \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{X}_{n_k+k, t} \mathcal{S}_{n_k+k}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{n_k}(t) \\ \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}\quad (1.2)$$

and the multiindex \mathbf{n}_k is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{n}_k &= [n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k] \\ \mathbf{n}_k + k &= [n_1 + 1, n_2 + 1, \dots, n_k + 1].\end{aligned}$$

Here \mathcal{T}_{n_k} and \mathcal{S}_{n_k} are the permutation matrices [4], $\mathbf{A}_{n_k}(t)$ and $\mathbf{B}_{n_k}(t)$ are multichannel forward and backward prediction parameter matrices with dimension $(\sum_{i=1}^k n_i) \times k$. The notations in (1.1) and (1.2) are defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}_{k,t} &= [\mathbf{x}_{1,t}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k,t}] \\ \mathbf{X}_{k, t-n_k} &= [\mathbf{x}_{1, t-n_k}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k, t-n_k}] \\ \mathbf{X}_{n_k, t} &= [\mathbf{X}_{n_1, t}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{n_k, t}] \\ \mathbf{X}_{i,t} &= [\mathbf{x}_{i,t}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i, t-n_i+1}].\end{aligned}$$