

Lecture 4: Filtered Noise

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ECE 417: Multimedia Signal Processing, Fall 2020

- 1 Review: Power Spectrum and Autocorrelation
- 2 Autocorrelation of Filtered Noise
- 3 Power Spectrum of Filtered Noise
- 4 Auditory-Filtered White Noise
- 5 What is the Bandwidth of the Auditory Filters?
- 6 Auditory-Filtered Other Noises
- 7 What is the Shape of the Auditory Filters?
- 8 Summary

Outline

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Review: Last time

- Masking: a pure tone can be heard, in noise, if there is **at least one** auditory filter through which $\frac{N_k + T_k}{N_k} > \text{threshold}$.
- We can calculate the power of a noise signal by using Parseval's theorem, together with its power spectrum.

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^2[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} R[k] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} R(\omega) d\omega$$

- The inverse DTFT of the power spectrum is the autocorrelation

$$r[n] = \frac{1}{N} x[n] * x[-n]$$

- The power spectrum and autocorrelation of noise are, themselves, random variables. For zero-mean white noise of length N , their expected values are

$$E[R[k]] = \sigma^2$$

$$E[r[n]] = \sigma^2 \delta[n]$$

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Filtered Noise

What happens when we filter noise? Suppose that $x[n]$ is zero-mean Gaussian white noise, and

$$y[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

What is $y[n]$?

Filtered Noise

$$y[n] = h[n] * x[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} h[m]x[n-m]$$

- $y[n]$ is the sum of Gaussians, so $y[n]$ is also Gaussian.
- $y[n]$ is the sum of zero-mean random variables, so it's also zero-mean.
- $y[n] = h[0]x[n] + \text{other stuff}$, and $y[n+1] = h[1]x[n] + \text{other stuff}$. So obviously, $y[n]$ and $y[n+1]$ are not uncorrelated. So $y[n]$ is not white noise.
- What kind of noise is it?

The variance of $y[n]$

First, let's find its variance. Since $x[n]$ and $x[n + 1]$ are uncorrelated, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_y^2 &= \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} h^2[m] \text{Var}(x[n - m]) \\ &= \sigma_x^2 \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} h^2[m]\end{aligned}$$

The autocorrelation of $y[n]$

Second, let's find its autocorrelation. Let's define

$r_{xx}[n] = \frac{1}{N}x[n] * x[-n]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}r_{yy}[n] &= \frac{1}{N}y[n] * y[-n] \\&= \frac{1}{N}(x[n] * h[n]) * (x[-n] * h[-n]) \\&= \frac{1}{N}x[n] * x[-n] * h[n] * h[-n] \\&= r_{xx}[n] * h[n] * h[-n]\end{aligned}$$

Expected autocorrelation of $y[n]$

$$r_{yy}[n] = r_{xx}[n] * h[n] * h[-n]$$

Expectation is linear, and convolution is linear, so

$$E[r_{yy}[n]] = E[r_{xx}[n]] * h[n] * h[-n]$$

Expected autocorrelation of $y[n]$

$x[n]$ is white noise if and only if its autocorrelation is a delta function:

$$E[r_{xx}[n]] = \sigma_x^2 \delta[n]$$

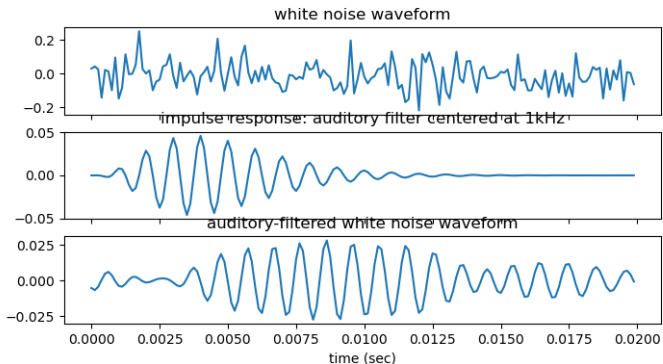
So

$$E[r_{yy}[n]] = \sigma_x^2 (h[n] * h[-n])$$

In other words, $x[n]$ contributes only its energy (σ^2). $h[n]$ contributes the correlation between neighboring samples.

Example

Here's an example. The white noise signal on the top ($x[n]$) is convolved with the bandpass filter in the middle ($h[n]$) to produce the green-noise signal on the bottom ($y[n]$). Notice that $y[n]$ is random, but correlated.



Colors, anybody?

- Noise with a flat power spectrum (uncorrelated samples) is called white noise.
- Noise that has been filtered (correlated samples) is called colored noise.
 - If it's a low-pass filter, we call it pink noise (this is quite standard).
 - If it's a high-pass filter, we could call it blue noise (not so standard).
 - If it's a band-pass filter, we could call it green noise (not at all standard, but I like it!)

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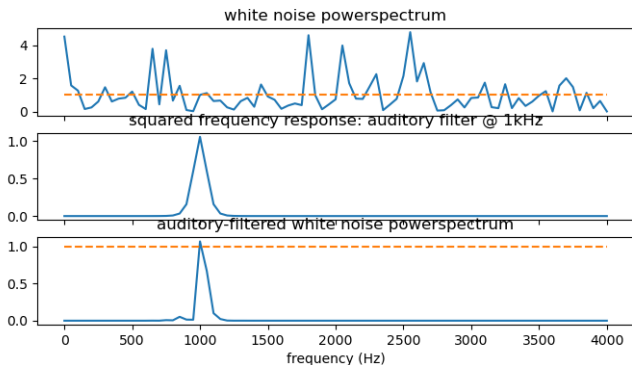
Power Spectrum of Filtered Noise

So we have $r_{yy}[n] = r_{xx}[n] * h[n] * h[-n]$. What about the power spectrum?

$$\begin{aligned} R_{yy}(\omega) &= \mathcal{F}\{r_{yy}[n]\} \\ &= \mathcal{F}\{r_{xx}[n] * h[n] * h[-n]\} \\ &= R_{xx}(\omega) |H(\omega)|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Example

Here's an example. The white noise signal on the top ($|X[k]|^2$) is multiplied by the bandpass filter in the middle ($|H[k]|^2$) to produce the green-noise signal on the bottom ($|Y[k]|^2 = |X[k]|^2|H[k]|^2$).



Units Conversion

The DTFT version of Parseval's theorem is

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_n x^2[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} R_{xx}(\omega) d\omega$$

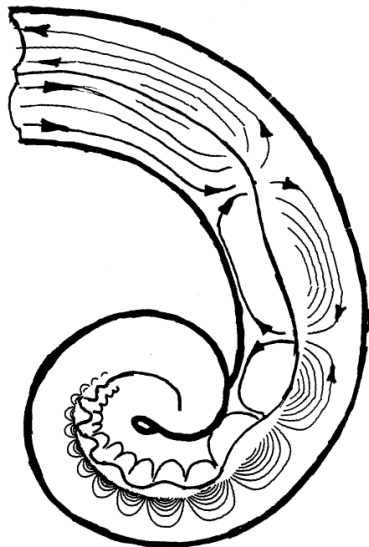
Let's consider converting units to Hertz. Remember that $\omega = \frac{2\pi f}{F_s}$, where F_s is the sampling frequency, so $d\omega = \frac{2\pi}{F_s} df$, and we get that

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_n x^2[n] = \frac{1}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} R_{xx} \left(\frac{2\pi f}{F_s} \right) df$$

So we can use $R_{xx} \left(\frac{2\pi f}{F_s} \right)$ as if it were a power spectrum in continuous time, at least for $-\frac{F_s}{2} < f < \frac{F_s}{2}$.

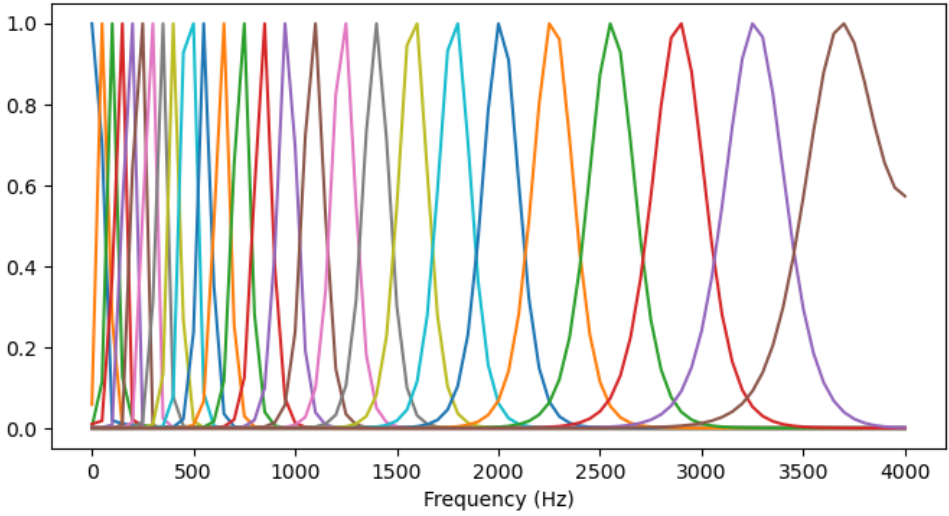
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Dick Lyon, public domain image, 2007. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Cochlea_Traveling_Wave.png

Power spectra of auditory filters spaced 1 ERB apart



The Power of Filtered White Noise

Suppose that $h[n]$ is the auditory filter centered at frequency f_c (in Hertz), and

$$y[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

where $x[n]$ is white noise. What's the power of the signal $y[n]$?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{N} \sum_n y^2[n] &= \frac{1}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} R_{yy} \left(\frac{2\pi f}{F_s} \right) df \\ &= \frac{1}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} R_{xx} \left(\frac{2\pi f}{F_s} \right) |H(f)|^2 df \end{aligned}$$

So the expected power is

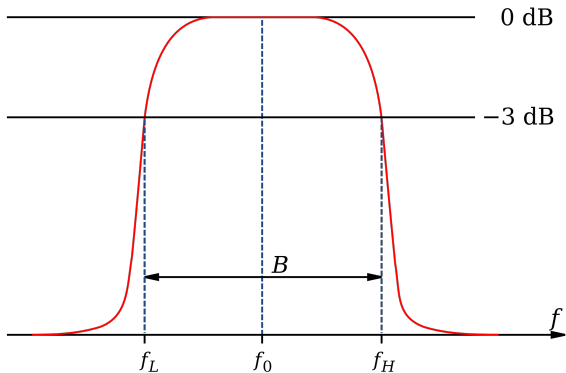
$$E \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_n y^2[n] \right] = \frac{\sigma^2}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} |H(f)|^2 df$$

... so, OK, what is $\int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} |H(f)|^2 df$?

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Bandwidth



By InductiveLoad, public domain image, https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bandwidth_2.svg

Equivalent rectangular bandwidth

Let's make the simplest possible assumption: a rectangular filter, centered at frequency f_c , with bandwidth b :

$$H(f) = \begin{cases} 1 & f_c - \frac{b}{2} < f < f_c + \frac{b}{2} \\ 1 & f_c - \frac{b}{2} < -f < f_c + \frac{b}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

That's useful, because it makes Parseval's theorem very easy:

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} |H(f)|^2 df = \left(\frac{2b}{F_s} \right) \sigma^2$$

Reminder: Fletcher's Model of Masking

Fletcher proposed the following model of hearing in noise:

- 1 The human ear pre-processes the audio using a bank of bandpass filters.
- 2 The power of the noise signal, in the bandpass filter centered at frequency f_c , is N_{f_c} .
- 3 The power of the noise+tone is $N_{f_c} + T_{f_c}$.
- 4 If there is **any** band, k , in which $\frac{N_{f_c} + T_{f_c}}{N_{f_c}} > \text{threshold}$, then the tone is audible. Otherwise, not.

The “Just Noticeable Difference” in Loudness

First, let's figure out what the threshold is. Play two white noise signals, $x[n]$ and $y[n]$. Ask listeners which one is louder.

The “just noticeable difference” is the difference in loudness at which 75% of listeners can correctly tell you that $y[n]$ is louder than $x[n]$:

$$\text{JND} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\sum_n y^2[n] \right) - 10 \log_{10} \left(\sum_n x^2[n] \right)$$

It turns out that the JND is very close to 1dB, for casual listening, for most listeners. So Fletcher's masking criterion becomes:

- If there is **any** band, l , in which $10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{N_{f_c} + T_{f_c}}{N_{f_c}} \right) > 1\text{dB}$, then the tone is audible. Otherwise, not.

Fletcher's Model, for White Noise

- 1 The human ear pre-processes the audio using a bank of bandpass filters.
- 2 The power of the noise signal, in the filter centered at f_c , is $N_{f_c} = 2b\sigma^2/F_s$.
- 3 The power of the noise+tone is $N_{f_c} + T_{f_c}$.
- 4 If there is any band in which $10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{N_{f_c} + T_{f_c}}{N_{f_c}} \right) > 1\text{dB}$, then the tone is audible. Otherwise, not.

... next question to solve. What is the power of the tone?

What is the power of a tone?

A pure tone has the formula

$$x[n] = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \theta), \quad \omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{N_0}$$

Its power is calculated by averaging over any integer number of periods:

$$T_{f_c} = \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{n=0}^{N_0-1} A^2 \cos^2(\omega_0 n + \theta) = \frac{A^2}{2}$$

Power of a filtered tone

Suppose $y[n] = h[n] * x[n]$. Then

$$y[n] = A|H(\omega_0)| \cos(\omega_0 n + \theta + \angle H_{f_c}(\omega_0))$$

And it has the power

$$T_{f_c} = \frac{1}{2} A^2 |H(\omega_0)|^2$$

If we're using rectangular bandpass filters, then

$$T_{f_c} = \begin{cases} \frac{A^2}{2} & f_c - \frac{b}{2} < f_0 < f_c + \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{A^2}{2} & f_c - \frac{b}{2} < -f < f_c + \frac{b}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Fletcher's Model, for White Noise

The tone is audible if there's some filter centered at $f_c \approx f_0$ (specifically, $f_c - \frac{b}{2} < f_0 < f_c + \frac{b}{2}$) for which:

$$1\text{dB} < 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{N_{f_c} + T_{f_c}}{N_{f_c}} \right) = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{\frac{2b\sigma^2}{F_s} + \frac{A^2}{2}}{\frac{2b\sigma^2}{F_s}} \right)$$

Procedure: Set F_s and σ^2 to some comfortable listening level. In order to find the bandwidth, b , of the auditory filter centered at f_0 ,

- 1 Test a range of different levels of A .
- 2 Find the minimum value of A at which listeners can report "tone is present" with 75% accuracy.
- 3 From that, calculate b .

Equivalent rectangular bandwidth (ERB)

Here are the experimental results: The frequency resolution of your ear is better at low frequencies! In fact, the dependence is roughly linear (Glasberg and Moore, 1990):

$$b \approx 0.108f + 24.7$$

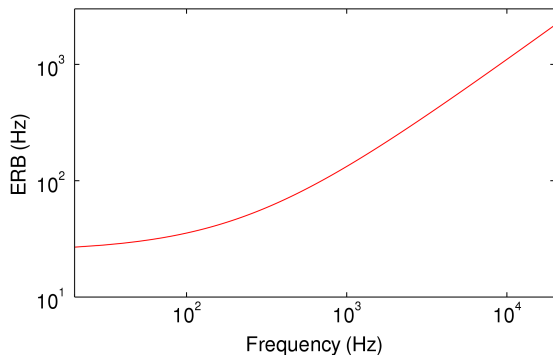
These are often called (approximately) constant-Q filters, because the quality factor is

$$Q = \frac{f}{b} \approx 9.26$$

The dependence of b on f is not quite linear. A more precise formula is given in (Moore and Glasberg, 1983) as:

$$b = 6.23 \left(\frac{f}{1000} \right)^2 + 93.39 \left(\frac{f}{1000} \right) + 28.52$$

Equivalent rectangular bandwidth (ERB)

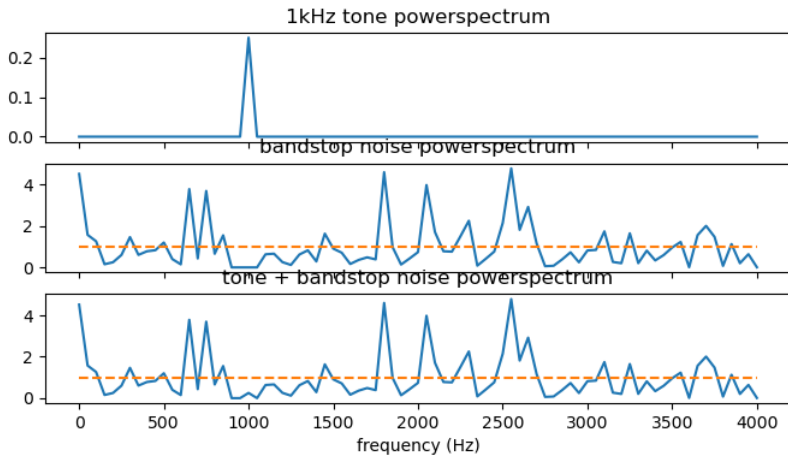


By Dick Lyon, public domain image 2009, https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:ERB_vs_frequency.svg

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What happens if we start with bandstop noise?



The power of bandstop noise

Suppose $y[n]$ is a bandstop noise: say, it's been zeroed out between f_2 and f_3 :

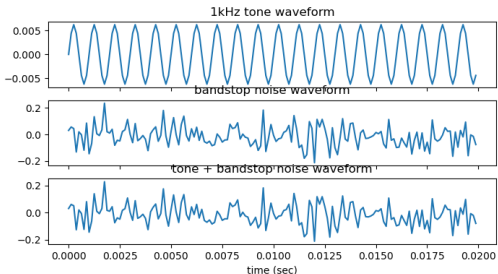
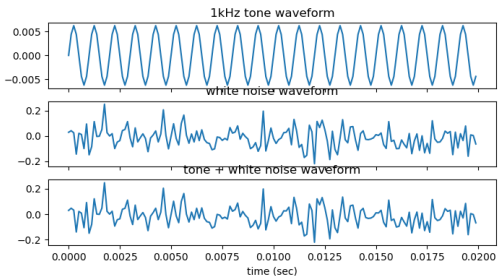
$$E[R_{yy}(\omega)] = \begin{cases} 0 & f_2 < |f| < f_3 \\ \sigma^2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Parseval's theorem gives us the energy of this noise:

$$E \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} y^2[n] \right] = \frac{1}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} R_{yy}(\omega) d\omega \\ \sigma^2 \left(1 - \frac{2(f_3 - f_2)}{F_s} \right)$$

If $f_3 - f_2 \ll \frac{F_s}{2}$, then the power of this noise is almost as large as the power of a white noise signal.

Bandstop noise power \approx White noise power



Auditory-filtered bandstop noise

Now let's filter $y[n]$ through an auditory filter:

$$z[n] = y[n] * h[n]$$

where, again, let's assume a rectangular auditory filter, and let's assume that the whole bandstop region lies inside the auditory filter, so that

$$f_c - \frac{b}{2} < f_3 < f_2 < f_c + \frac{b}{2}$$

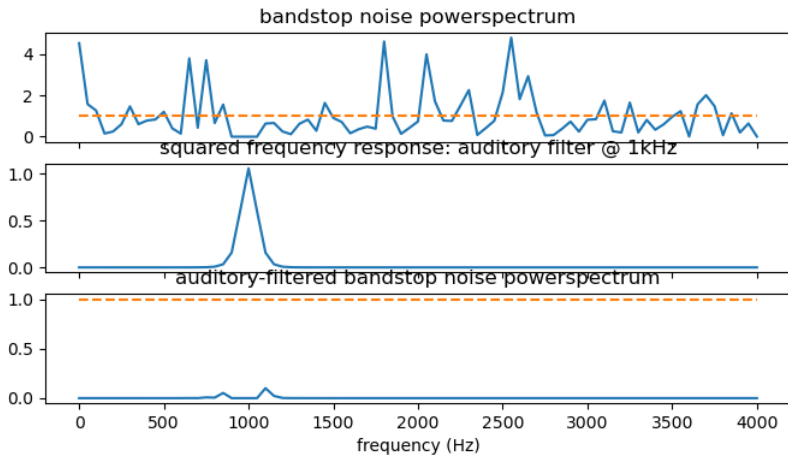
Then we have

$$E[R_{zz}(f)] = E[R_{yy}(f)] |H(f)|^2 = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & f_c - \frac{b}{2} < |f| < f_2 \\ \sigma^2 & f_3 < |f| < f_c + \frac{b}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

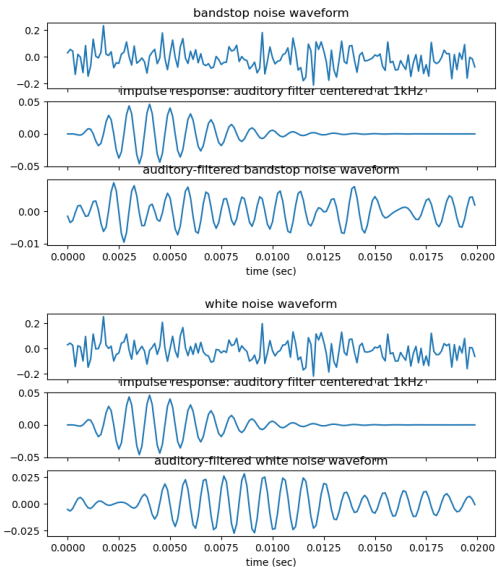
This is nonzero only in two tiny frequency bands:

$$f_c - \frac{b}{2} < |f| < f_2, \text{ and } f_3 < |f| < f_c + \frac{b}{2}.$$

Auditory-filtered bandstop noise



Tiny power spectrum \Rightarrow tiny waveform energy



Outline

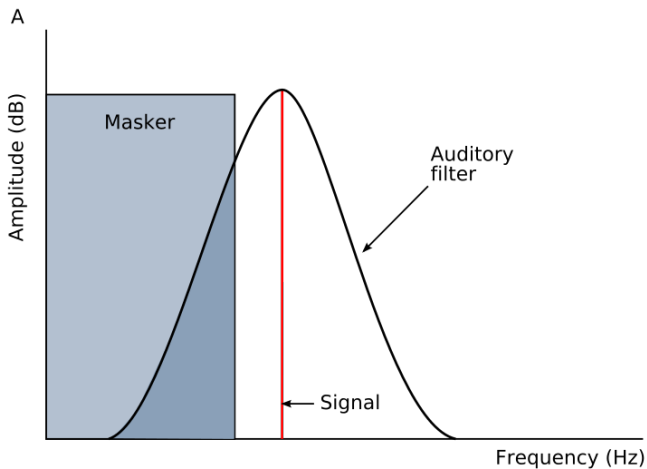
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Lowpass noise

Patterson (1974) measured the shape of the auditory filter using lowpass noise, i.e., noise with the following spectrum:

$$R_{xx}(f) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & -f_1 < f < f_1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Lowpass-filtered noise



By Dave Dunford, public domain image 1010, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:0ff_F_listening.svg

Lowpass noise

Patterson (1974) measured the shape of the auditory filter using lowpass noise, i.e., noise with the following spectrum:

$$R_{xx}(f) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & -f_1 < f < f_1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The power of a lowpass filtered noise, as heard through an auditory filter $H(f)$ centered at f_c , is

$$N(f_c, f_1) = \frac{1}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} R_{xx}(f) |H(f)|^2 df = \frac{\sigma^2}{F_s} \int_{-f_1}^{f_1} |H(f)|^2 df$$

Turning that around, we get a formula for $|H(f)|^2$ in terms of the power, $N(f_c, f_1)$, that gets passed through the filter:

$$|H(f)|^2 = \left(\frac{F_s}{2\sigma^2} \right) \frac{dN(f_c, f_1)}{df_1}$$

The power of lowpass noise

Suppose that we have a tone at $f_0 \approx f_c$, and we raise its amplitude, A , until it's just barely audible. The relationship between the tone power and the noise power, at the JND amplitude, is

$$10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{N(f_c, f_1) + 0.5A^2}{N(f_c, f_1)} \right) = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad N(f_c, f_1) = \frac{0.5A^2}{10^{1/10} - 1}$$

So if we measure the minimum tone amplitude that is audible, as a function of f_c and f_1 , then we get

$$|H(f)|^2 = \left(\frac{1.93F_s}{\sigma^2} \right) \frac{dA(f_c, f_1)}{df_1}$$

... so the shape of the auditory filter is the derivative, with respect to cutoff frequency, of the smallest audible power of the tone at f_c .

Symmetric filters

Using the method on the previous slide, Patterson showed that the auditory filter shape varies somewhat depending on loudness, but the auditory filter centered at f_0 is pretty well approximated as

$$|H(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{(b^2 + (f - f_0)^2)^4}$$

What is the inverse transform of a symmetric filter?

$$|H(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{(b^2 + (f - f_0)^2)^4}$$

Patterson suggested analyzing this as

$$|H(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{(b^2 + (f - f_0)^2)^4} = ||G(f)|^2|^4$$

where

$$|G(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{b^2 + (f - f_0)^2}$$

What is the inverse transform of $|G(f)|$?

First, let's just consider the filter

$$|G(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{b^2 + (f - f_0)^2}$$

The only causal filter with this frequency response is the basic second-order resonator filter,

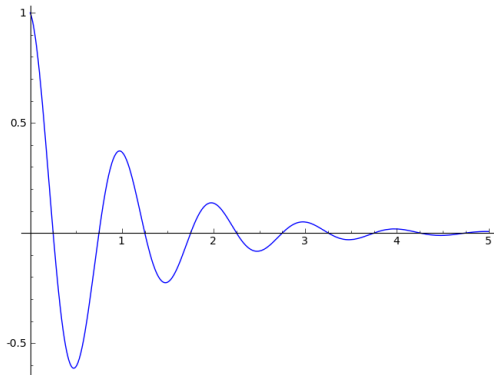
$$G(f) = \frac{2\pi}{2\pi(b - j(f - f_0))}$$

... which is the Fourier transform ($G(f) = \int g(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$) of

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 2\pi e^{-2\pi(b-jf_0)t} & t > 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

What does $g(t)$ look like?

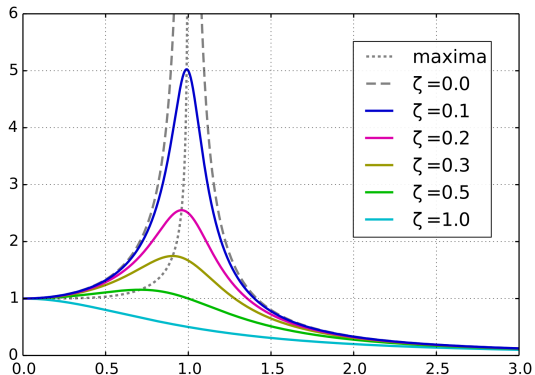
The real part of $g(t)$ is $e^{-2\pi bt} \cos(2\pi f_0 t) u(t)$, which is shown here:



By LM13700, CC-SA3.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:DampedSine.png>

What does $|G(f)|$ look like?

$|G(f)|$ looks like this (the frequency response of a standard second-order resonator filter). It's closest to the olive-colored one:



By Geek3, Gnu Free Documentation License,

https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mplwp_resonance_zeta_envelope.svg

From $G(f)$ to $H(f)$

Patterson suggested analyzing $H(f)$ as

$$|H(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{(b^2 + (f - f_0)^2)^4} = ||G(f)|^2|^4$$

which means that

$$h(t) = g(t) * g(t) * g(t) * g(t)$$

So what is $g(t) * g(t)$?

The self-convolution of an exponential is a gamma

Let's first figure out what is $g(t) * g(t)$, where

$$g(t) = e^{-at} u(t), \quad a = 2\pi(b - jf_0)$$

We can write it as

$$\begin{aligned} g(t) * g(t) &= \int_0^t e^{-a\tau} e^{-a(t-\tau)} d\tau \\ &= e^{-at} \int_0^t e^{-a\tau} e^{+a\tau} d\tau \\ &= te^{-at} u(t) \end{aligned}$$

Repeating that process, we get

$$g(t) * g(t) * g(t) * g(t) \propto t^3 e^{-at} u(t)$$

The Gammatone Filter

Patterson proposed that, since $h(t)$ is obviously real-valued, we should model it as

$$H(f) = \left(\frac{1}{b + j(f - f_0)} \right)^n + \left(\frac{1}{b + j(f + f_0)} \right)^n$$

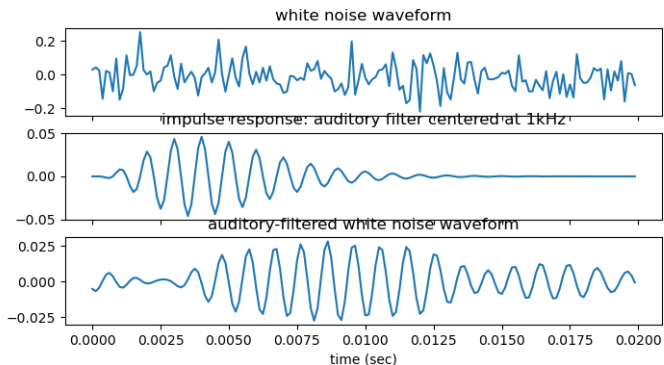
Whose inverse transform is a filter called a **gammatone filter** (because it looks like a gamma function, from statistics, multiplied by a tone):

$$h(t) \propto t^{n-1} e^{-2\pi bt} \cos(2\pi f_0 t) u(t)$$

where, in this case, the order of the gammatone is $n = 4$.

The Gammatone Filter

The top frame is a white noise, $x[n]$. The middle frame is a gammatone filter at $f_c = 1000\text{Hz}$, with a bandwidth of $b = 128\text{Hz}$. The bottom frame is the filtered noise $y[n]$.



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Summary

- Autocorrelation of filtered noise:

$$r_{yy}[n] = r_{xx}[n] * h[n] * h[-n]$$

- Power spectrum of filtered noise:

$$R_{yy}(\omega) = R_{xx}(\omega) |H(\omega)|^2$$

- Auditory-filtered white noise:

$$E \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_n y^2[n] \right] = \frac{\sigma^2}{F_s} \int_{-F_s/2}^{F_s/2} |H(f)|^2 df$$

- Bandwidth of the auditory filters:

$$Q = \frac{f}{b} \approx 9.26$$

- Shape of the auditory filters:

$$|H(f)|^2 = \frac{1}{(b^2 + (f - f_0)^2)^4}, \quad h(t) \propto t^{n-1} e^{-2\pi bt} \cos(2\pi f_0 t) u(t)$$