

ENEE630 Part-3

Part 3. Spectrum Estimation

3.1 Classic Methods for Spectrum Estimation

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Acknowledgment: ENEE630 slides were based on class notes developed by Profs. K.J. Ray Liu and Min Wu. The slides were made by Prof. Min Wu, with updates from Mr. Wei-Hong Chuang. *Contact: minwu@eng.umd.edu*



Logistics

- Last Lecture: lattice predictor
 - correlation properties of error processes
 - joint process estimator in lattice
 - inverse lattice filter structure
- Today:
 - Spectrum estimation: background and classical methods
- Homework set

Summary of Related Readings on Part-II

2.1 Stochastic Processes and modeling

Haykin (4th Ed) 1.1-1.8, 1.12-1.14

Hayes 3.3 – 3.7 (3.5); 4.7

2.2 Wiener filtering

Haykin (4th Ed) Chapter 2

Hayes 7.1, 7.2, 7.3.1

2.3-2.4 Linear prediction and Levinson-Durbin recursion

Haykin (4th Ed) 3.1 – 3.3

Hayes 7.2.2; 5.1; 5.2.1 – 5.2.2, 5.2.4– 5.2.5

2.5 Lattice predictor

Haykin (4th Ed) 3.8 – 3.10

Hayes 6.2; 7.2.4; 6.4.1

Summary of Related Readings on Part-III

Overview Haykins 1.16, 1.10

3.1 Non-parametric method

Hayes 8.1; 8.2 (8.2.3, 8.2.5); 8.3

3.2 Parametric method

Hayes 8.5, 4.7; 8.4

3.3 Frequency estimation

Hayes 8.6

Review

- On DSP and Linear algebra: Hayes 2.2, 2.3
- On probability and parameter estimation: Hayes 3.1 – 3.2

Spectrum Estimation: Background

- Spectral estimation: determine the power distribution in frequency of a random process
 - E.g “Does most of the power of a signal reside at low or high frequencies?” “Are there resonances in the spectrum?”
- Applications:
 - Needs of spectral knowledge in spectrum domain non-causal Wiener filtering, signal detection and tracking, beamforming, etc.
 - Wide use in diverse fields: radar, sonar, speech, biomedicine, geophysics, economics, ...
- Estimating p.s.d. of a w.s.s. process is equivalent to estimate autocorrelation at all lags





Spectral Estimation: Challenges

- When a limited amount of observation data are available
 - Can't get $r(k)$ for all k and/or may have inaccurate estimate of $r(k)$
 - Scenario-1: transient measurement (earthquake, volcano, ...)
 - Scenario-2: constrained to short period to ensure (approx.) stationarity in speech processing

$$\hat{r}(k) = \frac{1}{N-k} \sum_{n=k+1}^N u[n]u^*[n-k], \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, M$$

- Observed data may have been corrupted by noise

Spectral Estimation: Major Approaches

- 
 - No assumptions on the underlying model for the data
 - Periodogram and its variations (averaging, smoothing, ...)
 - Minimum variance method
- 
 - ARMA, AR, MA models
 - Maximum entropy method
- 
 - For harmonic processes that consist of a sum of sinusoids or complex-exponentials in noise
- 

Example of Speech Spectrogram

UMCP ENEE408G Slides (created by M. Wu © 2002)

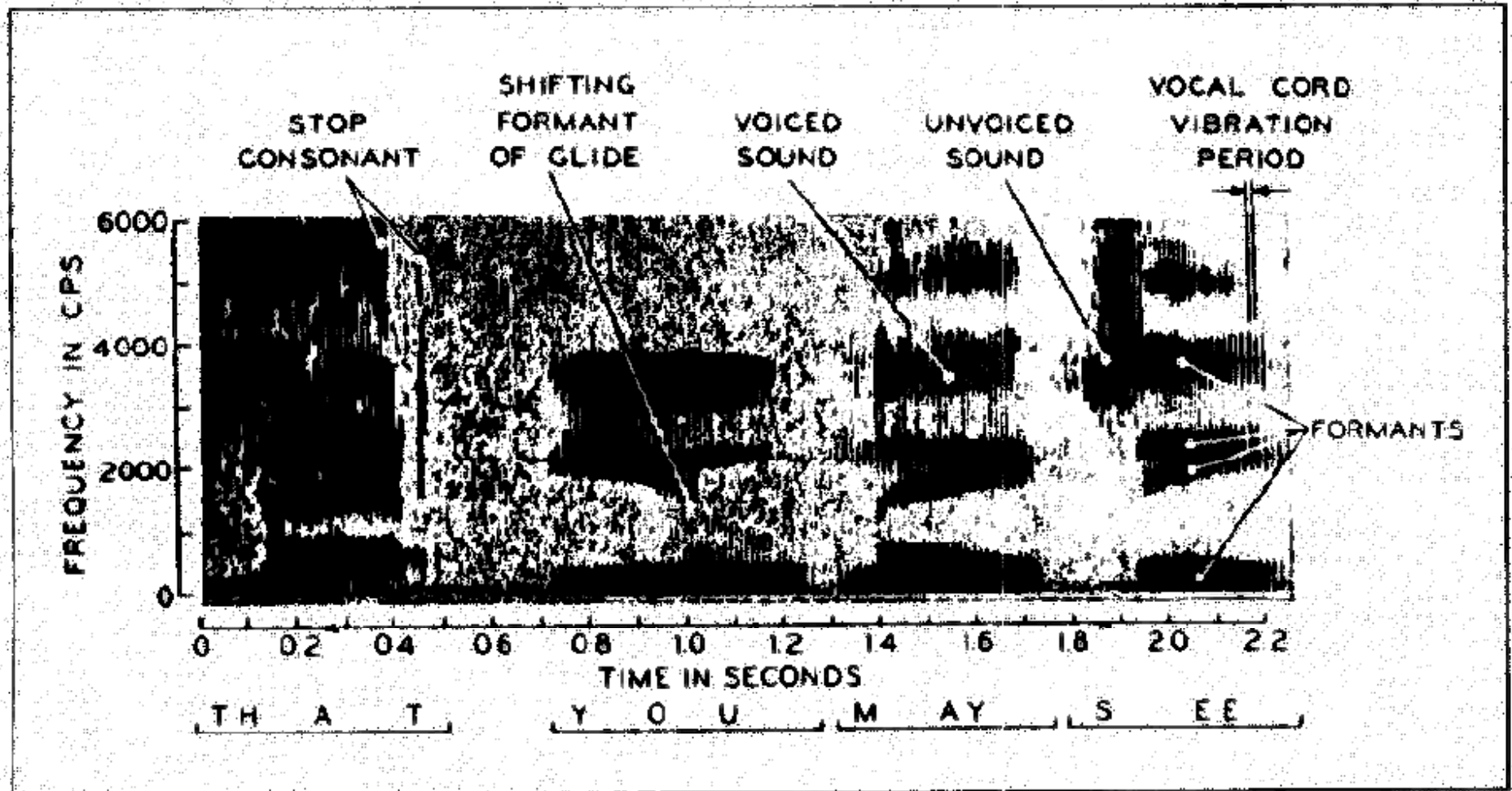
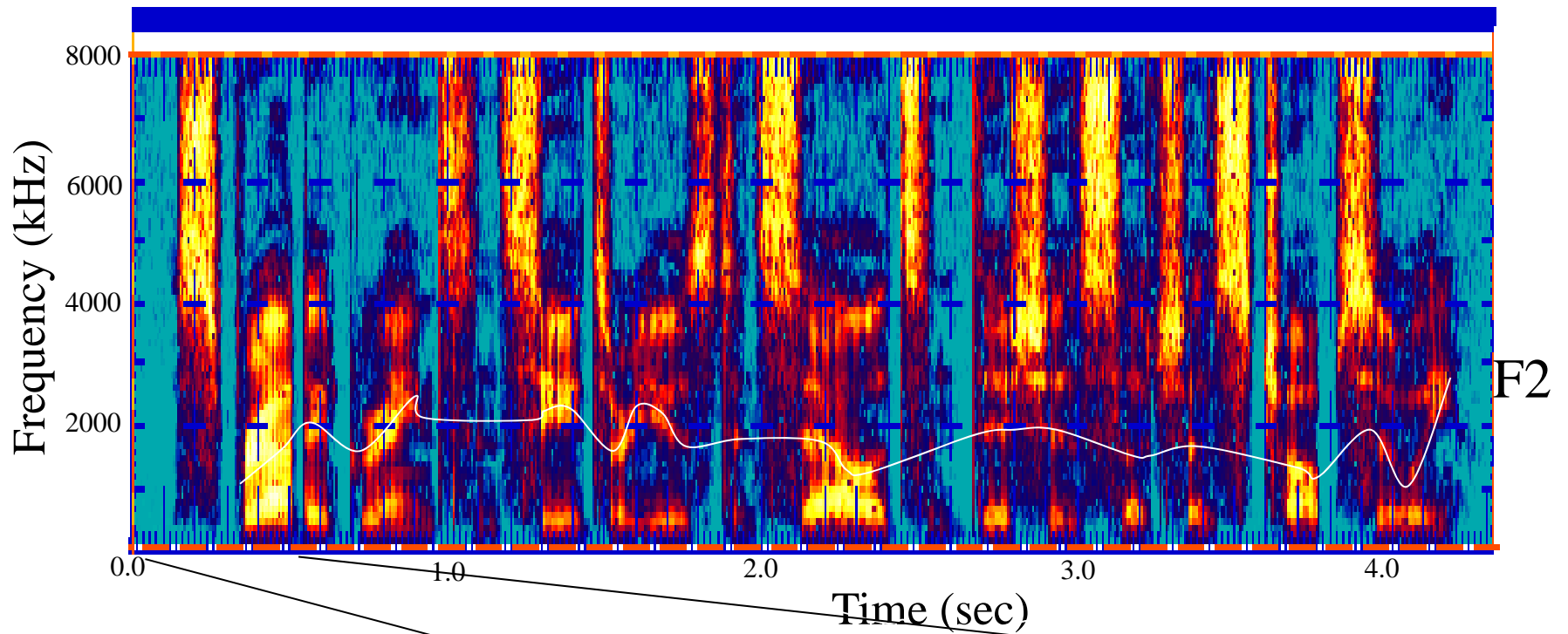


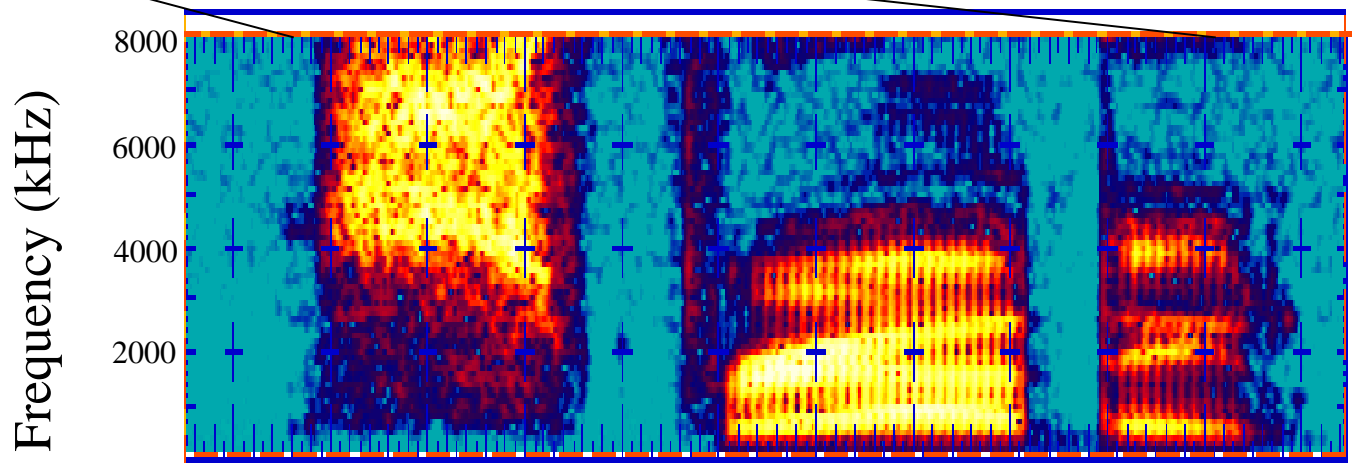
Figure 3 of SPM May'98 Speech Survey

“Sprouted grains and seeds are used in salads and dishes such as chop suey”

UMCP ENEE408G Slides (created by Carol Espy-Wilson © 2004)



“Sprouted”




fricative stop consonant glide vowel stop consonant vowel

Section 3.1 Classical Nonparametric Methods

Recall: given a w.s.s. process $\{x[n]\}$ with

$$\begin{cases} E[x[n]] = m_x \\ E[x^*[n]x[n+k]] = r(k) \end{cases}$$

The power spectral density (p.s.d.) is defined as


$$-\frac{1}{2} \leq f \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{(or } \omega = 2\pi f : -\pi \leq \omega \leq \pi)$$

As we can take DTFT on a specific realization of a random process,
What is the relation between the DTFT of a specific signal and the
p.s.d. of the random process?



Ensemble Average of Squared Fourier Magnitude

- p.s.d. can be related to the ensemble average of the squared Fourier magnitude $|X(\omega)|^2$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Consider } P_M(f) &\stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{1}{2M+1} \left| \sum_{n=-M}^M x[n] e^{-j2\pi f n} \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2M+1} \sum_{n=-M}^M \sum_{m=-M}^M x[n] x^*[m] e^{-j2\pi f (n-m)} \end{aligned}$$

Ensemble Average of $P_M(f)$

$$\begin{aligned} E[P_M(f)] &= \frac{1}{2M+1} \sum_{n=-M}^M \sum_{m=-M}^M r(n-m) e^{-j2\pi f(n-m)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2M+1} \sum_{k=-2M}^{2M} (2M+1-|k|) r(k) e^{-j2\pi f k} \end{aligned}$$

- Now, what if M goes to infinity?

P.S.D. and Ensemble Fourier Magnitude

If the autocorrelation function decays fast enough s.t.

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |k| r(k) < \infty \quad (\text{i.e., } r(k) \rightarrow 0 \text{ rapidly for } k \uparrow)$$

then $\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} E[P_M(f)] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} r(k) e^{-j2\pi f k} = P(f)$
p.s.d.

Thus



3.1.1 Periodogram Spectral Estimator

(1) This estimator is based on (**)

Given an observed data set $\{x[0], x[1], \dots, x[N-1]\}$, the periodogram is defined as

$$\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f) = \frac{1}{N} \left| \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-j2\pi f n} \right|^2$$

An Equivalent Expression of Periodogram

The periodogram estimator can be given in terms of $\hat{r}(k)$

$$\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f) = \sum_{k=-(N-1)}^{N-1} \hat{r}(k) e^{-j2\pi fk}$$

where $\hat{r}(k) =$

- The quality of the estimates for the higher lags of $r(k)$ may be poorer since they involve fewer terms of lag products in the averaging operation

Exercise: to show this from the periodogram definition in last page

(2) Filter Bank Interpretation of Periodogram

For a particular frequency of f_0 :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f_0) &= \frac{1}{N} \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{-j2\pi f_0 k} x[k] \right|^2 \\ &= \left[N \cdot \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h[n-k] x[k] \right|^2 \right]_{n=0}\end{aligned}$$

where

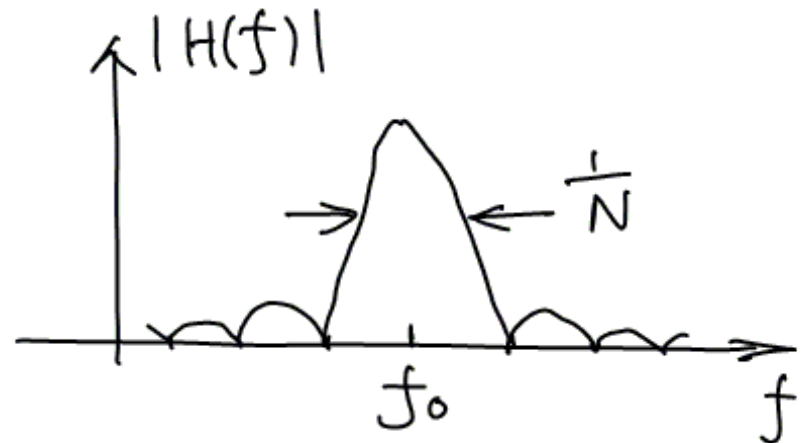
$$h[n] =$$


- Impulse response of the filter $h[n]$: a windowed version of a complex exponential

Frequency Response of $h[n]$

$$H(f) = \frac{\sin N\pi(f - f_0)}{N \sin \pi(f - f_0)} \exp[j(N-1)\pi(f - f_0)]$$

sinc-like function centered at f_0 :



Periodogram: Filter Bank Perspective

- Can view the periodogram as an estimator of power spectrum that has a built-in filterbank
 - The filter bank ~ a set of bandpass filters

$$\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f_0) = \left[N \cdot \left| \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h[n-k]x[k] \right|^2 \right]_{n=0}$$

E.g. White Gaussian Process

[Lim/Oppenheim Fig.2.4]

Periodogram of zero-mean white Gaussian noise using N-point data record: N=128, 256, 512, 1024

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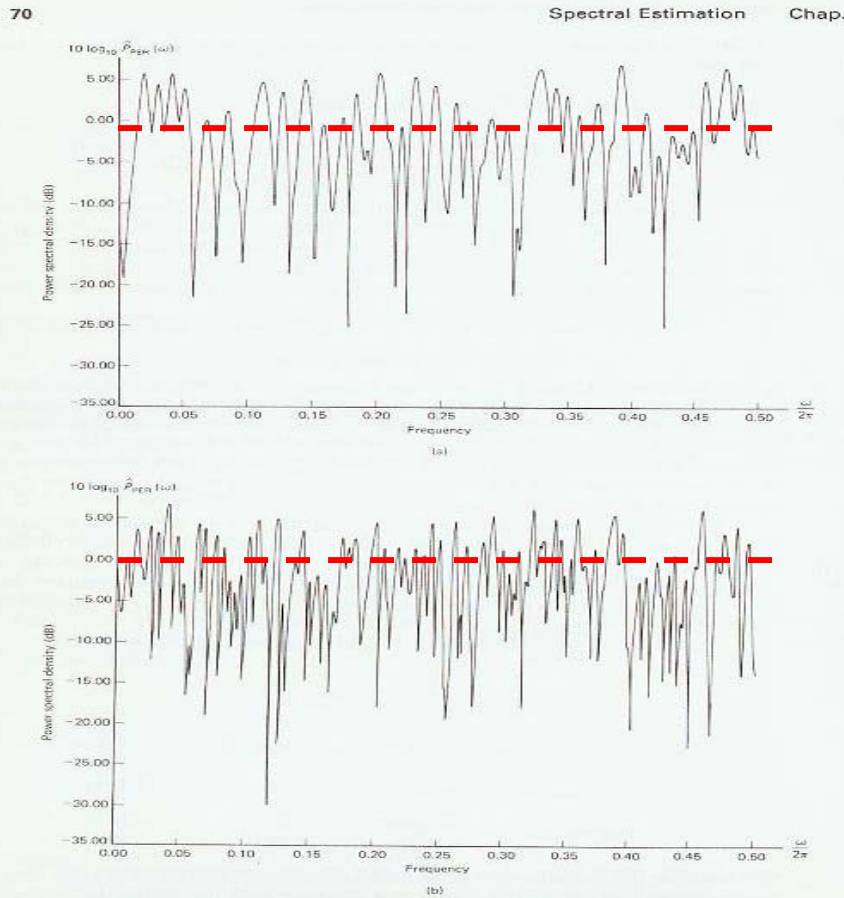


Figure 2.4 Illustration of the inconsistency of the periodogram for white Gaussian noise ($\sigma^2 = 1$). (a) $N = 128$, (b) $N = 256$, (c) $N = 512$, (d) $N = 1024$.

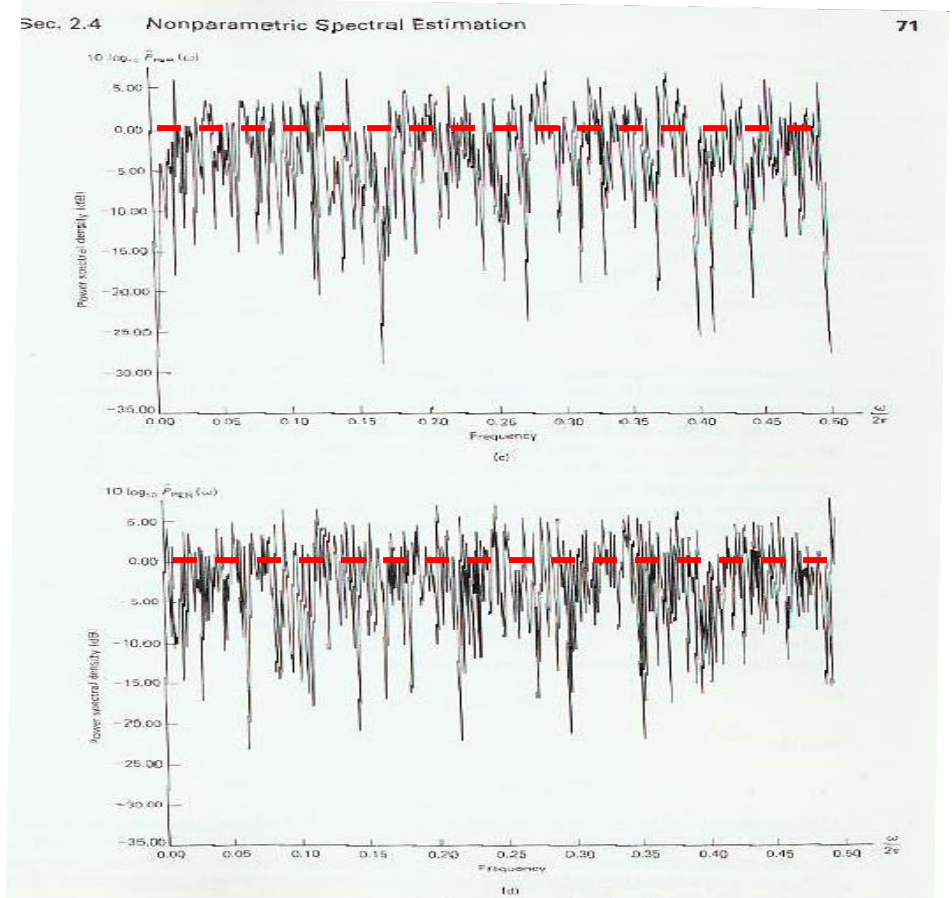


Figure 2.4 (cont.)

- The random fluctuation (measured by variance) of the periodogram does not decrease with increasing N
 → periodogram is not a consistent estimator

(3) How Good is Periodogram for Spectral Estimation?

If $N \rightarrow \infty$, will $\hat{P}_{\text{PER}} \rightarrow \text{p.s.d. } P(f)$?

- Estimation: Tradeoff between bias and variance

$$E(\hat{\theta}) \neq \theta$$
$$E[|\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})|^2] = ?$$

- For white Gaussian process, we can show that at $f_k = k/N$

$$\Rightarrow E[\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f_k)] = P(f_k), \quad k=0, 1, \dots, N/2$$
$$\text{Var}[\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f_k)] = \begin{cases} P^2(f_k), & k=1, \dots, \frac{N}{2}-1 \\ 2P^2(f_k), & k=0, \frac{N}{2} \end{cases} \propto P^2(f_k)$$

Performance of Periodogram: Summary

- The periodogram for **white Gaussian** process is an **unbiased** estimator but **not consistent**
 - The variance does not decrease with increasing data length
 - Its standard deviation is as large as the mean (equal to the quantity to be estimated)
- **Reasons for the poor estimation performance**
 - Given N real data points, the # of unknown parameters $\{P(f_0), \dots, P(f_{N/2})\}$ we try to estimate is $N/2$, i.e. proportional to N
- **Similar conclusions can be drawn for processes with arbitrary p.s.d. and arbitrary frequencies**
 - Asymptotically unbiased (as N goes to infinity) but inconsistent

3.1.2 Averaged Periodogram

- As one solution to the variance problem of periodogram
 - Average K periodograms computed from K sets of data records

$$\hat{P}_{\text{AV PER}}(f) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{m=0}^{K-1} \hat{P}_{\text{PER}}^{(m)}(f)$$

where

$$\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}^{(m)}(f) = \frac{1}{L} \left| \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} x_m[n] e^{-j2\pi fn} \right|^2$$

And the K sets of data records are

$$\{x_0[0], \dots, x_0[L-1]; x_1[n], 0 \leq n \leq L-1; \dots$$

$$\{x_{K-1}[n-1], 0 \leq n \leq L-1\}$$

Performance of Averaged Periodogram

- If K sets of data records are uncorrelated with each other, we have: $(f_i = i/L)$

$\hat{P}_{PER}^{(m)}(f)$ i.i.d. ($m=0,1, \dots, L-1$) for white Gaussian process

$$\Rightarrow \text{Var}[\hat{P}_{AVPER}(f)] = \infty \frac{1}{K} P^2(f_i)$$

Practical Averaged Periodogram

- Usually we partition an available data sequence of length N
 - into K non-overlapping blocks, each block has length L (i.e. $N=KL$)

i.e.
$$x_m[n] = x[n + mL], \quad \begin{array}{l} n = 0, 1, \dots, L-1 \\ m = 0, 1, \dots, K-1 \end{array}$$

- Since the blocks are contiguous, the K sets of data records may not be completely uncorrelated
 - Thus the variance reduction factor is in general less than K
- Periodogram averaging is also known as the **Bartlett's method**

Averaged Periodogram for Fixed Data Size

- Given a data record of fixed size N , will the result be better if we segment the data into more and more subrecords?

We examine for a real-valued stationary process:

$$E \left[\hat{P}_{\text{AV PER}} (f) \right] = E \left[\frac{1}{K} \sum_{m=0}^{K-1} \hat{P}_{\text{PER}}^{(m)} (f) \right] = E \left[\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}^{(0)} (f) \right]$$

identical distribution for all m

Note

$$\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}^{(0)} (f) = \sum_{l=-(L-1)}^{L-1} \hat{r}^{(0)} (l) e^{-j2\pi fl}$$

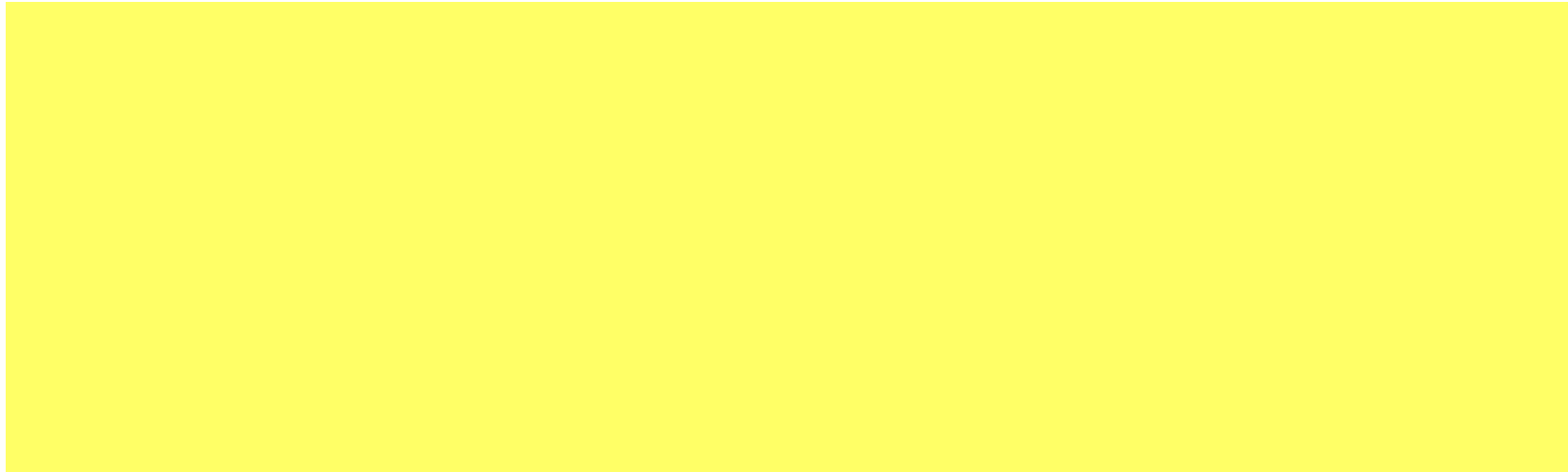
where

$$\hat{r}^{(0)} (l) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1-|l|} x[n] x[n + |l|]$$



an equivalent expression to definition in terms of $x[n]$

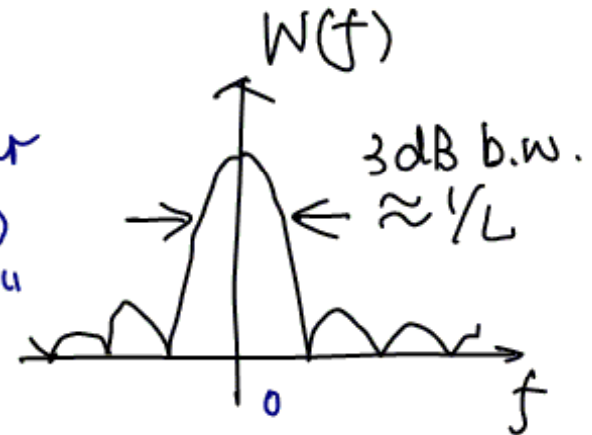
Mean of Averaged Periodogram



$$W[k] = \begin{cases} 1 - |k|/L & \text{for } |k| \leq L-1 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

"triangular
(Barlett)
window"

$$\Rightarrow W(f) = \frac{1}{L} \left(\frac{\sin \pi f L}{\sin \pi f} \right)^2$$



Mean of Averaged Periodogram (cont'd)

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{P}_{\text{AV PER}}(f)] &= \text{DTFT}[\{w[k]r(k)\}]_f && \text{multiplication in time} \\ &= \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} W(f - \eta)P(\eta)d\eta && \downarrow \\ &\neq P(f) && \text{convolution in frequency} \end{aligned}$$

- **Biased estimate** (both averaged and regular periodogram)
 - The **convolution with the window** function $w[k]$ lead to the mean of the averaged periodogram **being smeared** from the true p.s.d

Non-parametric Spectrum Estimation: Recap

- **Periodogram**

- Motivated by relation between p.s.d. and squared magnitude of DTFT of a finite-size data record
- Variance: won't vanish as data length N goes infinity ~ “inconsistent”
- Mean: asymptotically unbiased w.r.t. data length N in general
 - ◆ *equivalent to apply triangular window to autocorrelation function*
(*windowing in time gives smearing/smoothing in freq domain*)
 - ◆ *unbiased for white Gaussian*

- **Averaged periodogram**

- Reduce variance by averaging K sets of data record of length L each
- Small L increases smearing/smoothing in p.s.d. estimate thus higher bias → *equiv. to triangular windowing*

- **Windowed periodogram:** generalize to other symmetric windows

Case Study on Non-parametric Methods

- Test case: a process consists of narrowband components (sinusoids) and a broadband component (AR)

- $x[n] = 2 \cos(\omega_1 n) + 2 \cos(\omega_2 n) + 2 \cos(\omega_3 n) + z[n]$

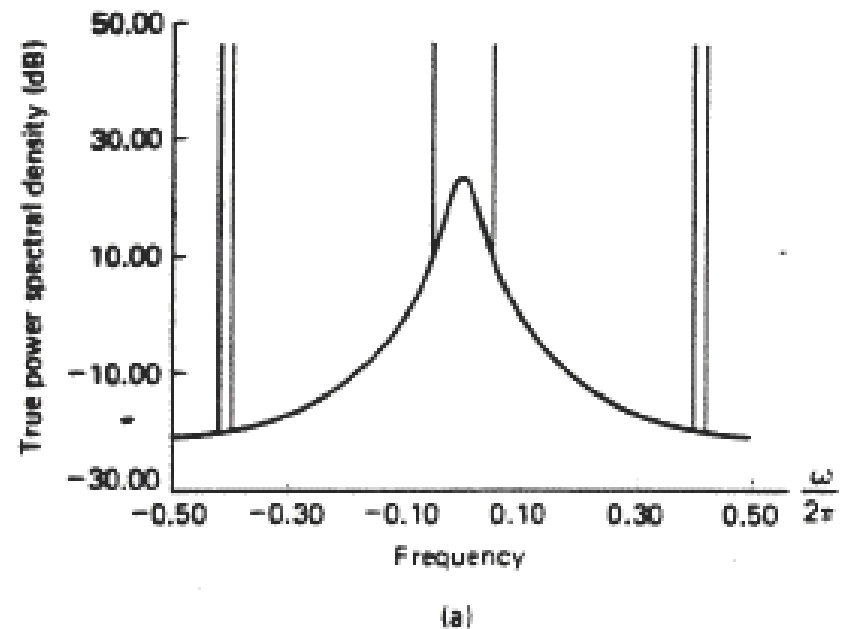
- where $z[n] = -a_1 z[n-1] + v[n]$, $a_1 = -0.85$, $\sigma^2 = 0.1$

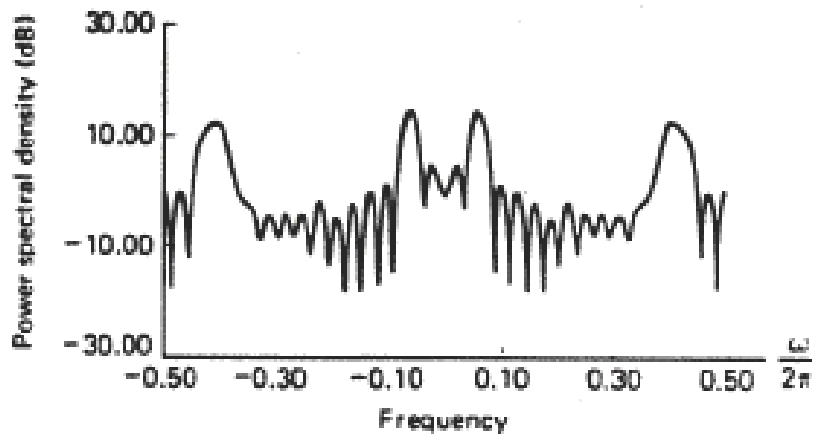
- $\omega_1/2\pi = 0.05$, $\omega_2/2\pi = 0.40$, $\omega_3/2\pi = 0.42$

- $N=32$ data points are available
→ periodogram resolution $f = 1/32$

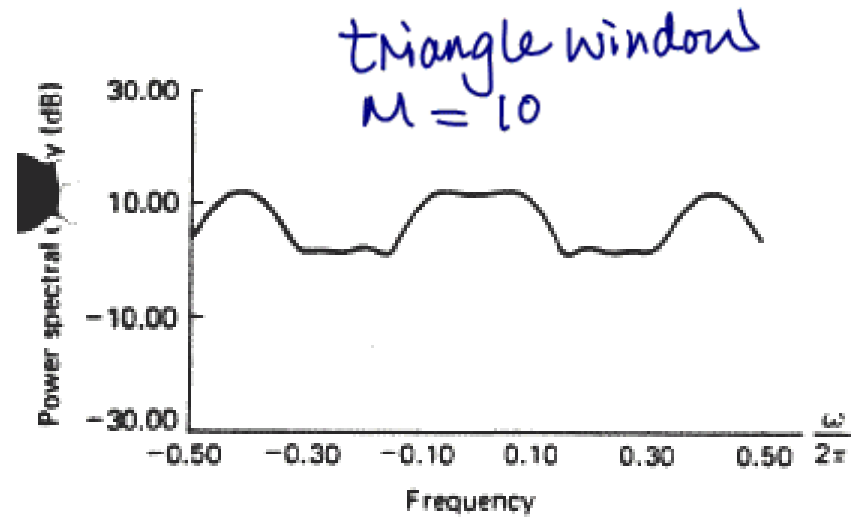
- Examine typical characteristics of various non-parametric spectral estimators

(Fig.2.17 from Lim/Oppenheim book)

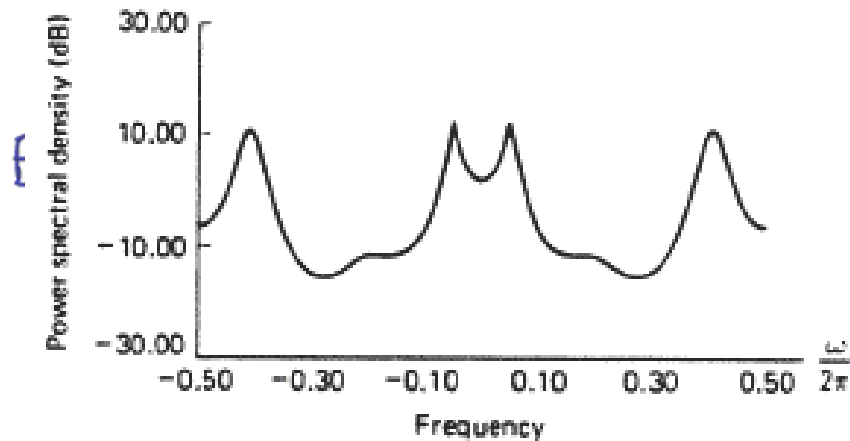




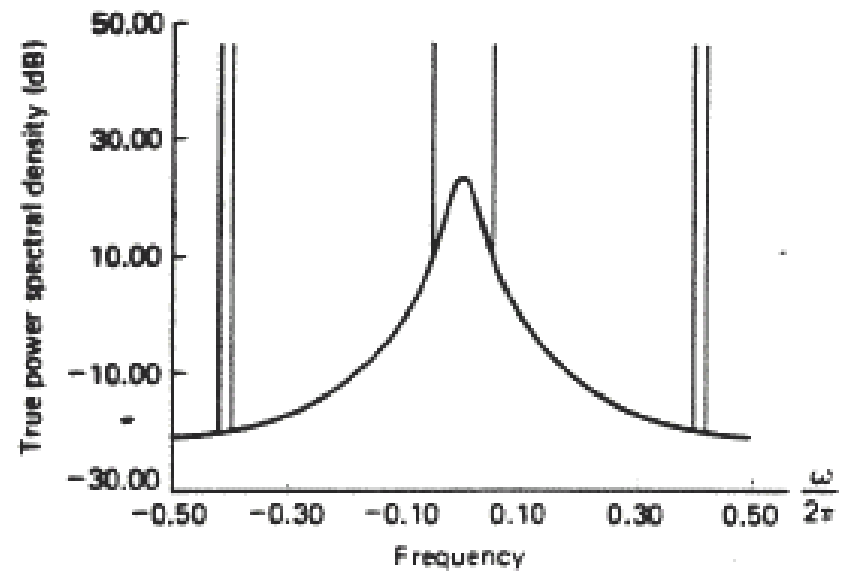
(b) Periodogram



(c) Blackman-Tukey



(d) Minimum variance spectral estimator



true p.s.d.

(a)

3.1.3 Periodogram with Windowing

- Review and Motivation

The periodogram estimator can be given in terms of $\hat{r}(k)$

$$\hat{P}_{\text{PER}}(f) = \sum_{k=-(N-1)}^{N-1} \hat{r}(k) e^{-j2\pi fk}$$

where $\hat{r}(k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1-k} x^*[n]x[n+k]$; $\hat{r}(-k) = \hat{r}^*(k)$
for $k \geq 0$

- The higher lags of $r(k)$, the poorer estimates since the estimates involve fewer terms of lag products in the averaging operation

- Solution: weigh the higher lags less

- Trade variance with bias

Windowing

- Use a window function to weigh the higher lags less

i.e.
$$\hat{P}_{\text{win}}(f) = \sum_{k=-(N-1)}^{N-1} W[k] \hat{r}(k) e^{-j2\pi f k}$$

where $W[k]$ is a "lag window" with properties of:

① $0 \leq W[k] \leq W[0] = 1$

$w(0)=1$ preserves variance $r(0)$

② $W[-k] = W[k]$ symmetric

③ $W[k] = 0$ for $|k| > M$ where $M \leq N-1$

④ $W(f)$ must be chosen to ensure $\hat{P}_{\text{win}}(f) \geq 0$

- Effect: periodogram smoothing

- Windowing in time \Leftrightarrow Convolution/filtering the periodogram
- Also known as the Blackman-Tukey method

Common Lag Windows

- Much of the art in non-parametric spectral estimation is in choosing an appropriate window (both in type and length)

TABLE 2.1 COMMON LAG WINDOWS

Name	Definition	Fourier Transform
Rectangular	$w(k) = \begin{cases} 1, & k \leq M \\ 0, & k > M \end{cases}$	$W(\omega) = W_R(\omega) = \frac{\sin \frac{\omega}{2}(2M+1)}{\sin \omega/2}$
Bartlett	$w(k) = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{ k }{M}, & k \leq M \\ 0, & k > M \end{cases}$	$W(\omega) = W_R(\omega) = \frac{1}{M} \left(\frac{\sin M\omega/2}{\sin \omega/2} \right)^2$
Hanning	$w(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi k}{M}, & k \leq M \\ 0, & k > M \end{cases}$	$W(\omega) = \frac{1}{4} W_R(\omega - \pi/M) + \frac{1}{2} W_R(\omega) + \frac{1}{4} W_R(\omega + \pi/M)$
Hamming	$w(k) = \begin{cases} 0.54 + 0.46 \cos \frac{\pi k}{M}, & k \leq M \\ 0, & k > M \end{cases}$	$W(\omega) = 0.23 W_R(\omega - \pi/M) + 0.54 W_R(\omega) + 0.23 W_R(\omega + \pi/M)$
Parzen	$w(k) = \begin{cases} 2 \left(1 - \frac{ k }{M}\right)^3 - \left(1 - 2 \frac{ k }{M}\right)^3, & k \leq M/2 \\ 2 \left(1 - \frac{ k }{M}\right)^3, & \frac{M}{2} < k \leq M \\ 0, & k > M \end{cases}$	$W(\omega) = \frac{8}{M^3} \left(\frac{3}{2} \frac{\sin^4 M\omega/4}{\sin^4 \omega/2} - \frac{\sin^4 M\omega/4}{\sin^2 \omega/2} \right)$

Table 2.1 common lag window (from Lim-Oppenheim book)

Discussion: Estimate $r(k)$ via Time Average

- Normalizing the sum of $(N-k)$ pairs

by a factor of $1/N$? v.s. by a factor of $1/(N-k)$?

Biased (low variance)

Unbiased (may not non-neg. definite)

$$\hat{\Gamma}_1(k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1-k} X[n+k] X^*[n]; \quad \hat{\Gamma}_2(k) = \frac{1}{N-k} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1-k} X[n+k] X^*[n]$$

$$E(\hat{\Gamma}_1(k)) =$$

$$E(\hat{\Gamma}_2(k)) =$$

- Hints on showing the non-negative definiteness: using $\hat{r}_1(k)$ to construct correlation matrix

- For $\hat{r}_2(k)$: HW#8

3.1.4 Minimum Variance Spectral Estimation (MVSE)

- Recall: filter bank perspective of periodogram
 - The periodogram can be viewed as estimating the p.s.d. by forming a bank of narrowband filters with sinc-like response
 - The high sidelobe can lead to “leakage” problem:
 - ◆ *large output power due to p.s.d outside the band of interest*
- MVSE designs filters to minimize the leakage from out-of-band spectral components
 - Thus the shape of filter is dependent on the frequency of interest and data adaptive
(unlike the identical filter shape for periodogram)
 - MVSE is also referred to as the Capon spectral estimator

Main Steps of MVSE Method

- Design a bank of bandpass filters $H_i(f)$ with center frequency f_i so that
 - Each filter rejects the maximum amount of out-of-band power
 - And passes the component at frequency f_i without distortion
- Filter the input process $\{x[n]\}$ with each filter in the filter bank and estimate the power of each output process
- Set the power spectrum estimate at frequency f_i to be the power estimated above divided by the filter bandwidth

Formulation of MVSE

The MVSE designs a filter $H(f)$ for each frequency of interest f_0

minimize the output power



(i.e., to pass the components at f_0 w/o distortion)



Deriving MVSE Solutions

Solution of MVSE (cont'd)

The optimal filter:

$$\underline{h} = \frac{(R^T)^{-1} \underline{e}}{\underline{e}^H (R^T)^{-1} \underline{e}}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \underline{h}^H R^T \underline{h} = \underline{h}^H \lambda R^T (R^T)^{-1} \underline{e} \\ &= \lambda \underline{h}^H \underline{e} = \lambda = \frac{1}{\underline{e}^H (R^T)^{-1} \underline{e}} \end{aligned}$$

MVSE: Summary

If choosing the bandpass filters to be FIR of length p , its 3dB-b.w. is approximately $1/p$

Thus the MVSE is

$$\hat{P}_{MV}(f) = \frac{p}{\underline{e}^H (\hat{R}^T)^{-1} \underline{e}}$$

(i.e. normalize by filter b.w.)

\hat{R} is $p \times p$

correlation matrix

$$\underline{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \exp(j2\pi f) \\ \vdots \\ \exp(j2\pi f(p-1)) \end{bmatrix}$$

- MVSE is a **data adaptive estimator** and provides **improved resolution over periodogram**
 - Also referred to as “**High-Resolution Spectral Estimator**”
 - Does **not assume a particular underlying model** for the data

Recall: Case Study on Non-parametric Methods

- Test case: a process consists of narrowband components (sinusoids) and a broadband component (AR)

$$- x[n] = 2 \cos(\omega_1 n) + 2 \cos(\omega_2 n) + 2 \cos(\omega_3 n) + z[n]$$

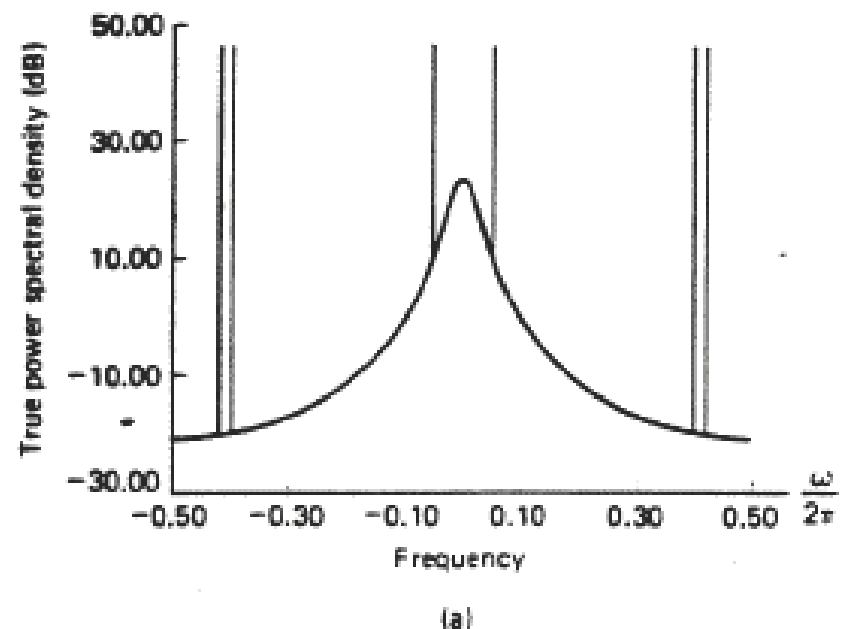
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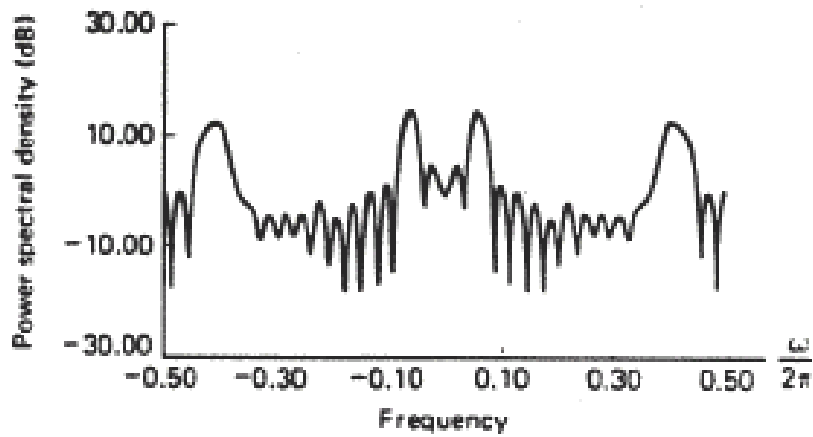
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- N=32 data points are available
→ periodogram resolution $f = 1/32$

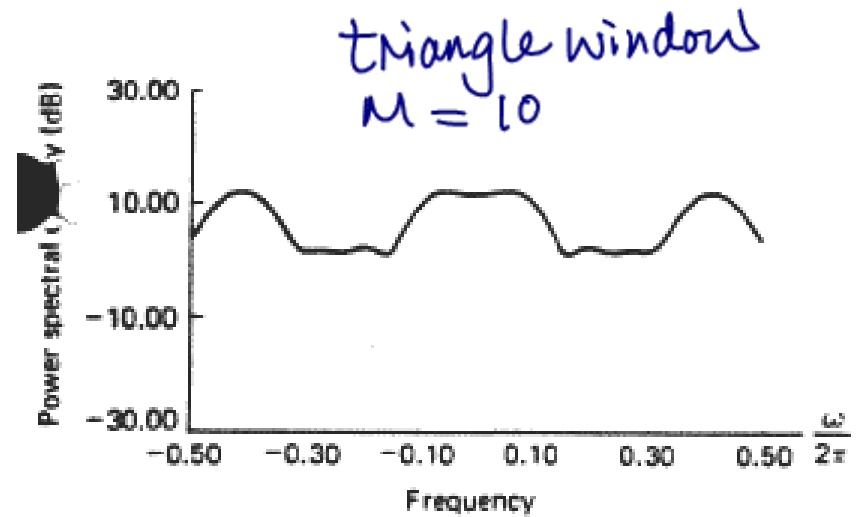
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(Fig.2.17 from Lim/Oppenheim book)

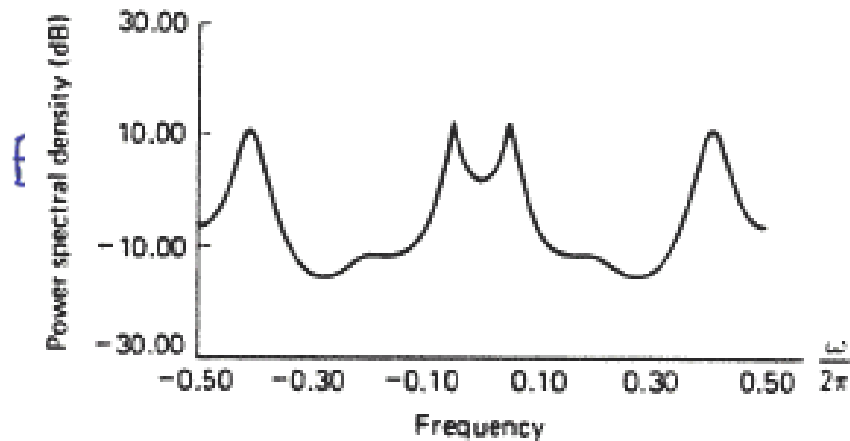




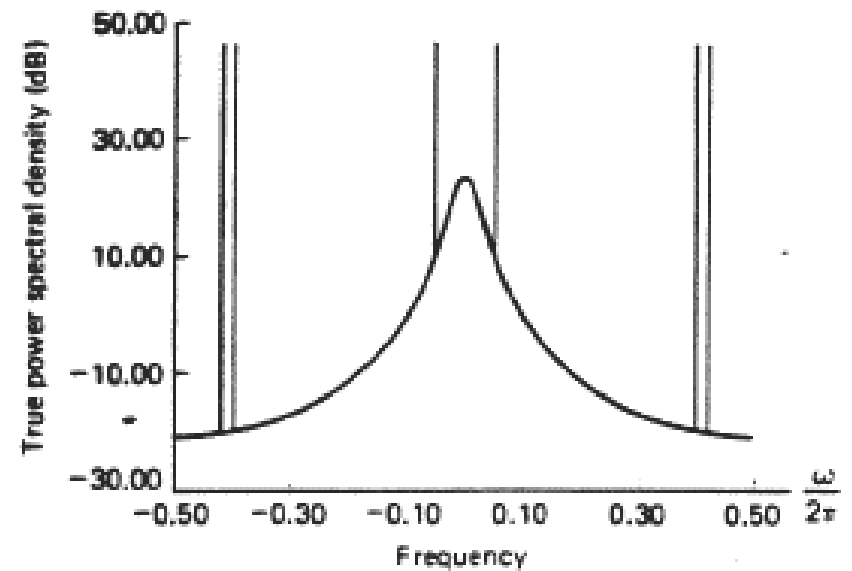
(b) Periodogram



(c) Blackman-Tukey



(d) Minimum variance spectral estimator



true p.s.d.

(a)



Deriving MVSE Solutions

Output Power From $H(f)$ filter

From the filter bank perspective of periodogram:

$$H(f) = \sum_{n=-(N-1)}^0 h[n] e^{-j2\pi fn}$$

Thus

$$\rho = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{k=-(N-1)}^0 h[k] e^{-j2\pi fk} \sum_{l=-(N-1)}^0 h^*[l] e^{j2\pi fl} P(f) df$$

Equiv. to filter $r(k)$
with $\{ h(k) \otimes h^*(-k) \}$
and evaluate at
output time $k=0$

Matrix-Vector Form of MVSE Formulation

Define

$$\underline{h}^* \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} h[0] \\ h[-1] \\ \vdots \\ h[-(N-1)] \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \rho = \underline{h}^H R^T \underline{h}$$

$$[h[0], h[-1], \dots, h[-(N-1)]] \begin{bmatrix} r(0) & r(-1) & \dots \\ r(1) & r(0) & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h^*[0] \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{e} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{j2\pi f_0} \\ \vdots \\ e^{j2\pi(N-1)f_0} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{The constraint can be written in vector form as } \underbrace{\underline{h}^H \underline{e}}_{H(f_0)} = 1$$

Solution of MVSE

$$J \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underline{h}^H R^T \underline{h} + \text{Re} \left[2\lambda(1 - \underline{h}^H \underline{e}) \right]$$

- Use Lagrange multiplier approach for solving the constrained optimization problem
 - Define **real-valued** objective function s.t. the stationary condition can be derived in a simple and elegant way based on the theorem for complex derivative/gradient operators

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\underline{h}, \lambda} J &= \underline{h}^H R^T \underline{h} + \lambda(1 - \underline{h}^H \underline{e}) + \left[\lambda(1 - \underline{h}^H \underline{e}) \right]^* \\ &= \underline{h}^H R^T \underline{h} + \lambda(1 - \underline{h}^H \underline{e}) + \lambda^*(1 - \underline{e}^H \underline{h}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{either } \nabla_{\underline{h}^*} J = 0 \Rightarrow R^T \underline{h} - \lambda \underline{e} = 0$$

$$\text{or } \nabla_{\underline{h}} J = 0 \Rightarrow \left(\underline{h}^H R^T \right)^T - \lambda^* \underline{e}^* = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(R^T \right)^H \underline{h} - \lambda \underline{e} = 0 \Rightarrow R^T \underline{h} - \lambda \underline{e} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \underline{h} &= \lambda \left(R^T \right)^{-1} \underline{e} \text{ and } \underline{h}^H \underline{e} = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda = \frac{1}{\underline{e}^H \left(R^T \right)^{-1} \underline{e}} \\ \underline{h} = \frac{\left(R^T \right)^{-1} \underline{e}}{\underline{e}^H \left(R^T \right)^{-1} \underline{e}} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$