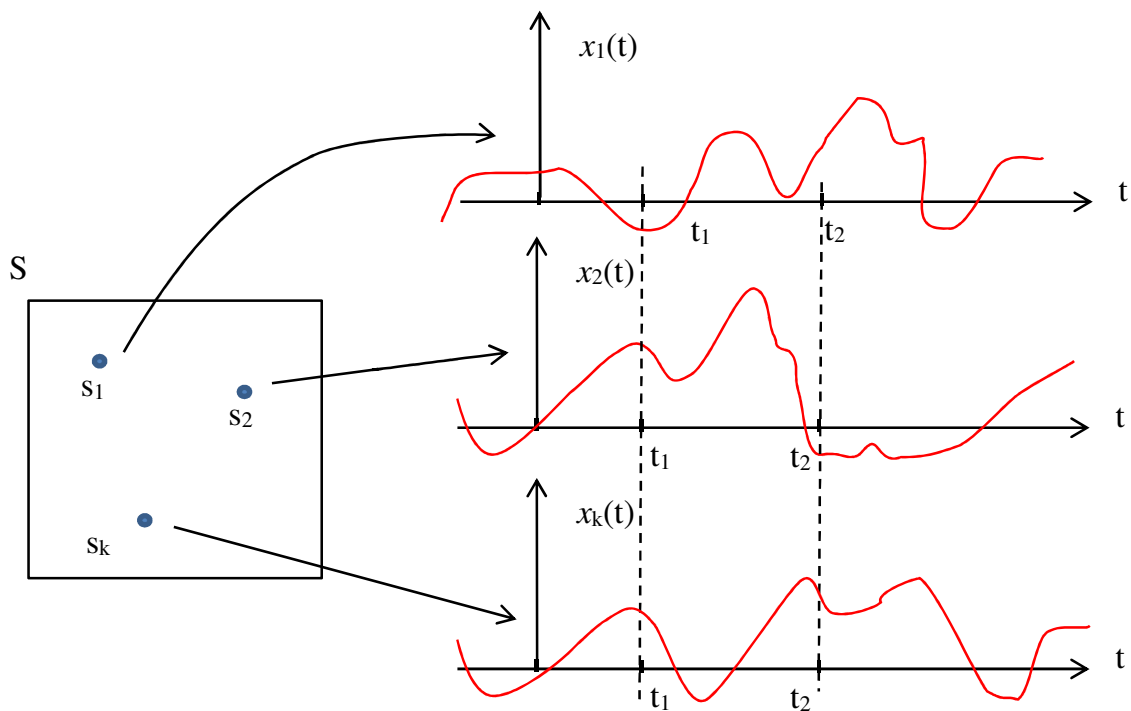

Chapter 10

Random Processes

1. Introduction

- In chapter 2, we have defined a random variable X as a mapping of the elements of the sample space S into points on the real axis.
- For random processes, the sample space could map into a family of time functions. That is if every outcome S is a function of time. This will lead to the concept of a random process
- **Definition of a random process:** A random process $X(t)$ is an mapping of the elements of the sample space into functions of time. Each element of the sample space is associated with a time function as shown below.



- Associating a time function to each element of the sample space results in a family of time functions called the **ensemble**.

Example 1

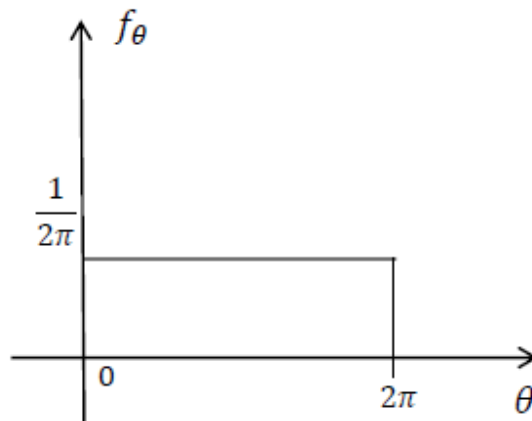
Consider a random process $X(t) = A\cos(\omega t + \theta)$, where θ is a random variable uniformly distributed between 0 and 2π .

Show some sample functions of this random process.

What could we say on the type function above if for example we fix the phase $\theta = \pi/4$

Solution:

$$f_{\theta}(\theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} & 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

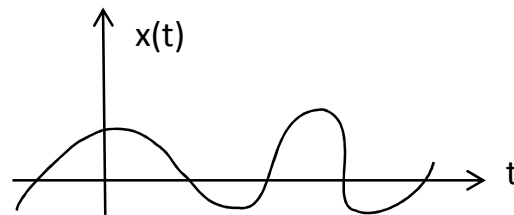


- Sample functions of this r.p. are cosine functions with frequency ωt and different phase shifts when t is fixed.
- Fixing θ and varying t results in a deterministic time function.

2. Classification of random processes

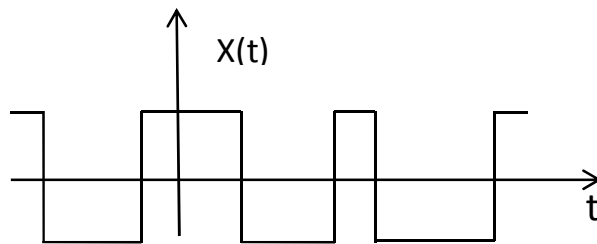
2.1 Continuous random process

- In this case, both $X(t)$ and t have continuous values



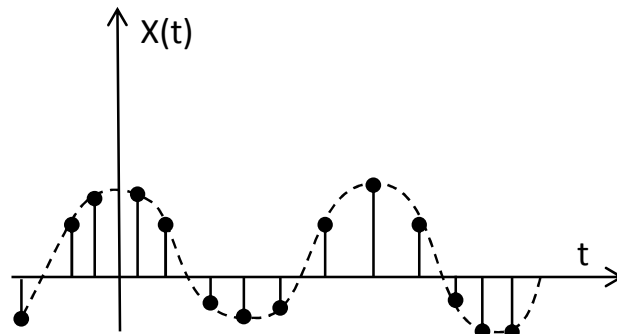
2.2 Discrete random process

- $X(t)$ assumes a discrete set of values while time t is continuous



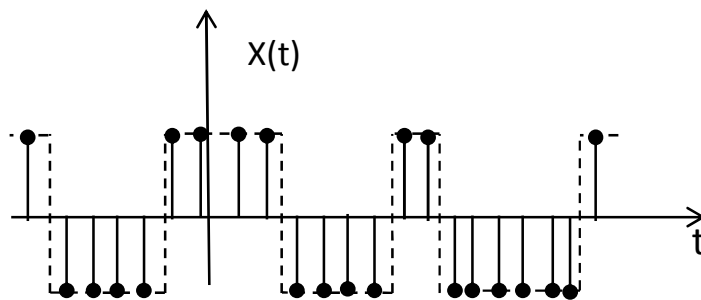
2.3 Continuous random sequence

- $X(t)$ assumes a continuous set of values while time t is discrete



2.4 Discrete random sequence

- Both $X(t)$ and t assumes a discrete set of values



- Fixing the time t , the random process $X(t)$ becomes a random variable. In this case, the techniques we use with random variables apply.

- We can characterize a random process by the first order distribution as:

$$F_X(x; t) = P[X(t_0) \leq x]$$

- The first order density function for all possible values of t is given by:

$$f_X(x; t) = \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x; t)$$

- The second order distribution function is the joint distribution of the two random variables $X(t_1)$ and $X(t_2)$ for each t_1 and t_2 . It is given by:

$$F_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = P[X(t_1) \leq x_1 \text{ and } X(t_2) \leq x_2]$$

- The second order density function is given by:

$$f_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} F_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2)$$

Deterministic and Nondeterministic Process:

- A r.p. (random process) is called **deterministic** if future values of any sample functions can be predicted from past values. For example:

$$X(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta)$$

Here, A , θ , ω_0 (or all) may be r.v.s.

- A r.p. is called **nondeterministic** if future values of any sample function cannot be predicted exactly from past values.

3. Independence and stationarity

- In many problems of interest the first and second order statistics may be necessary to characterize a random process.
- The **mean value** (in general function of time) of a random process $X(t)$ is given by:

$$E[X(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f_X(x; t) dx$$

- The **autocorrelation function** is defined by:

$$R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = E[X(t_1)X(t_2)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 x_2 f_{X_2 X_1}(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) dx_1 dx_2$$

3.1 Statistical Independence:

Two random processes $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$ are **statistically independent** if the random variable group $X(t_1), \dots, X(t_N)$ is independent of the group $Y(t_1), \dots, Y(t_M)$ for any choice of

$t_1, \dots, t_N, t_1, \dots, t_M$:

$$f_{X,Y}(x_1, \dots, x_N, y_1, \dots, y_M; t_1, \dots, t_N, t_1, \dots, t_M)$$

$$= f_X(x_1, \dots, x_N, t_1, \dots, t_N) \cdot f_Y(y_1, \dots, y_M, t_1, \dots, t_M)$$

3.2 First-order stationary processes:

- A random process is called **first order stationary in the strict sense** if the first-order density function does not change with a shift in time :

$$f_X(x_1; t_1) = f_X(x_1; t_1 + \Delta) \quad \text{where} \quad \Delta \text{ is any real number}$$

- This means that $f_X(x_1, t_1)$ is independent of t_1 and the process mean value $E[X(t)]$ is constant:

$$E[X(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x; t) dx = \text{constant}$$

3.3 Second-order stationary process

- A random process is **second order stationary in the strict sense** if the first and second order density functions stratify:

$$f_X(x_1; t_1) = f_X(x_1; t_1 + \Delta) \quad (1)$$

$$f_X(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = f_X(x_1, x_2; t_1 + \Delta, t_2 + \Delta) \quad (2)$$

- This means that f_X is a function of time difference $t_2 - t_1$ and not absolute time.
- A second-order stationary process is also first-order stationary
- For second-order stationary random process , the autocorrelation function is a function of time differences and not absolute time :

$$\tau = t_2 - t_1$$

$$R_{XX}(t, t + \tau) = E[X(t)X(t + \tau)] = R_{XX}(\tau)$$

3.4 Wide sense stationary random process

- As the basic conditions for strict sense stationary process are usually difficult to verify (equations (1) and (2))
- We often resort to a weaker definition of stationarity known as wide sense stationary.

- Thus, when the autocorrelation function $R_{XX}(t_1, t_2)$ of the random process $X(t)$ varies only with the time difference $|t_1 - t_2|$ and the mean $E[X(t)]$ is constant then $X(t)$ is said to be wide sense stationary. That is:

$$(1) E[X(t)] \equiv \text{constant}$$

$$(2) R_{XX}(t + \tau, t) = R_{XX}(\tau)$$

- A strict sense stationary process is wide sense stationary process but the inverse is not true.

Example 2

Consider a random process $X(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \theta)$, where θ is a random variable uniformly distributed between 0 and 2π . Is the process stationary in the wide sense?

Solution:

$$E[X(t)] = \int_0^{2\pi} A \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{A}{2\pi} \sin(\omega_0 t + \theta) \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 0$$

$$R_{XX}(t, t + \tau) = E[X(t)X(t + \tau)]$$

$$= E[A \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) A \cos(\omega_0 t + \omega_0 \tau + \theta)] . \text{ We have:}$$

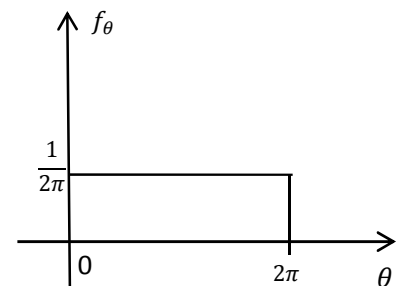
$$\cos u \cos v = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(u - v) + \cos(u + v)]$$

$$= \frac{A^2}{2} E[\cos(\omega_0 \tau) + \cos(2\omega_0 t + \omega_0 \tau + 2\theta)]$$

$$= \frac{A^2}{2} \cos(\omega_0 \tau) + \frac{A^2}{2} E[\cos(2\omega_0 t + \omega_0 \tau + 2\theta)]$$

$$= \frac{A^2}{2} \cos(\omega_0 \tau) = R_{XX}(\tau)$$

$X(t)$ is wide-sense stationary r.p.



3.5 Jointly wide-sense stationary:

- For two random processes $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$, we say they are jointly wide-sense stationary if each process is wide-sense stationary and:

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = E[X(t)Y(t + \tau)] = R_{XY}(\tau) \Rightarrow \text{function of time difference only.}$$

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = E[X(t_1)Y(t_2)] \text{ Represents the } \textit{cross-correlation} \text{ function of } X(t) \text{ and } Y(t) .$$

- We also define the *auto-covariance* function by:

$$C_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = E[\{X(t_1) - m_X(t_1)\}\{X(t_2) - m_X(t_2)\}]$$

- The *cross-covariance* function is defined by:

$$C_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = E[\{X(t_1) - m_X(t_1)\}\{Y(t_2) - m_Y(t_2)\}]$$

3.6 N-order and strict-sense stationary:

- A random process is strict stationary to order N if the N -th order density function is invariant to time origin shift:

$$f_X(x_1, \dots, x_N; t_1, \dots, t_N) = f_X(x_1, \dots, x_N; t_1 + \Delta, \dots, t_N + \Delta)$$

for all t_1, \dots, t_N and Δ .

3.7 Time averages and ergodicity

- The **time average** of a quantity $[.]$ is defined as:

$$A[.] = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T [.] dt$$

Where A is used to denote the time average as E for statistical averages.

- Here, we are interested in:
 - ✓ Mean value of a sample function:

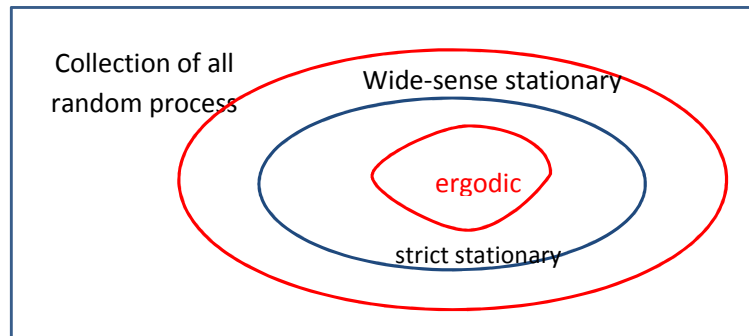
$$\bar{x} = A[x(t)] = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x(t) dt$$

- ✓ Time auto correlation function:

$$\mathcal{R}_{XX}(\tau) = A[x(t)x(t + \tau)] = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x(t)x(t + \tau) dt$$

- Ergodic process:** A random process $X(t)$ is said to be ergodic if the time averages \bar{x} and $\mathcal{R}_{XX}(\tau)$ equal the statistical averages \bar{X} and $R_{XX}(\tau)$. In other words, time averages equal the corresponding statistical averages.
 - ✓ **Ergodicity in the mean:** A random process that satisfies $\bar{x} = \bar{X}$, i.e, time average equals the ensemble average, is called mean-ergodic random process.

- ✓ **Ergodicity in the autocorrelation:** A random process that satisfies $\mathcal{R}_{XX}(\tau) = R_{XX}(\tau)$ is called autocorrelation-ergodic.



Example 3:

Let two random processes given by:

$$I(t) = X \cos wt + Y \sin wt$$

$$Q(t) = X \cos wt - Y \cos wt$$

Where X and Y are two random variables with zero mean, uncorrelated, and each has a variance equal to σ^2 . Find the cross-correlation function between $I(t)$ and $Q(t)$

Solution:

We have $E[X] = E[Y] = 0$

X and Y are uncorrelated $\Rightarrow E[XY] = 0$

Variance = $E[X^2] = E[Y^2] = \sigma^2$

$$R_{IQ}(t_1, t_2) = E[I(t_1) Q(t_2)]$$

$$= E[(X \cos wt_1 + Y \sin wt_1)(Y \cos wt_2 - X \cos wt_2)]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= E[XY](\cos wt_1 \cos wt_2 - \sin wt_1 \cos wt_2) + E[Y^2] \sin wt_1 \cos wt_2 - E[X^2] \cos wt_1 \cos wt_2 \\
 &= \sigma^2 \cos wt_2 (\sin wt_1 - \cos wt_1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $\tau = t_2 - t_1 \Rightarrow t_2 = t_1 + \tau$

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = \sigma^2 \cos w(t + \tau) [\sin wt - \cos wt]$$

Example 4:

Let $X(t)$ a random process with: $X(t) = A \cos(w_0 t + \theta)$

Where A and w_0 are constants and θ is random variable uniformly distributed in the interval $[0, 2\pi]$.

Is $X(t)$ ergodic in the mean and autocorrelation function?

Solution:

We found that $E[X(t)] = 0 = \bar{X}$

$$R_{XX}(\tau) = \frac{A^2}{2} \cos(w_0 \tau)$$

where τ is a constant

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Now, } \bar{x} &= A[x(t)] = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T A \cos(w_0 t + \theta) dt \\
 &= \frac{A}{w_0} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \sin(w_0 t + \theta) \Big|_{-T}^T = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$\bar{X} = \bar{x} \Rightarrow X(t)$ is ergodic in the mean.

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_{XX}(t, t + \tau) &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T A \cos(w_0 t + \theta) \cdot A \cos(w_0(t + \tau) + \theta) dt \\
 &= \frac{A^2}{2} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T [\cos(w_0 \tau) + \cos(2w_0 t + w_0 \tau + 2\theta)] dt
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{A^2}{2} \cos(w_0\tau) \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T dt = \frac{A^2}{2} \cos(w_0\tau) = R_{XX}(\tau)$$

$\mathcal{R}_{xx}(\tau) = R_{xx}(\tau) \Rightarrow X(t)$ is ergodic in the autocorrelation

4. Spectral characteristics

- In the previous chapter we introduced random processes and presented the related temporal characteristics.
- In this chapter we will present another aspect for representing random processes in the frequency domain.
- In this chapter, we assume that the random processes are wide sense stationary.

5. Power spectral density

5.1 Deterministic signals

- We know that the Fourier transform of a deterministic signal $s(t)$ is given by:

$$S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

- $S(\omega)$ is called sometimes the spectrum of $s(t)$.
- In going from the time domain description $s(t)$ to the frequency domain $S(\omega)$ no information about the signal is lost.
- Which means that $S(\omega)$ forms a complete description of $s(t)$ and vice-versa.
- The signal $s(t)$ can be obtained using the inverse Fourier transform:

$$s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Or

$$s(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(f) e^{j2\pi f t} df$$

5.2 Random process

- If the random process $X(t)$ is stationary in the wide sense, then the power spectral density $S_{XX}(\omega)$ can be expressed as the Fourier transform of the autocorrelation function $R_{XX}(\tau)$:

$$S_{XX}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

Or

$$S_{XX}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j2\pi f\tau} d\tau$$

- As for deterministic signals, the autocorrelation function $R_{XX}(\tau)$ can be obtained from the power spectral density $S_{XX}(f)$ using the inverse Fourier transform:

$$R_{XX}(\tau) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_{XX}(\omega) e^{j\omega\tau} d\omega$$

Or

$$R_{XX}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_{XX}(f) e^{j2\pi f\tau} df$$

- The transformation $R_{XX}(\tau) \leftrightarrow S_{XX}(\omega)$ is sometimes called the **Wiener-Kinchin** relations.
- The **average power** is given by:

$$P_{XX} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_{XX}(f) df$$

$$P_{XX} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_{XX}(\omega) d\omega$$

- Note also the P_{XX} is given by:

$$P_{XX} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} E[X^2(t)] dt$$

5.3 Proprieties of the power density spectrum

- The power spectrum density has several proprieties:

- ✓ $S_{XX}(\omega) \geq 0$
- ✓ $S_{XX}(-\omega) = S_{XX}(\omega)$ for $X(t)$ real
- ✓ $S_{XX}(\omega)$ is real
- ✓ $P_{XX} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_{XX}(\omega) d\omega = \langle E[X^2(t)] \rangle$

Example 4

Let $X(t)$ be a wide sense stationary process with autocorrelation function

$$R_{XX}(\tau) = \begin{cases} A(1 - \frac{|\tau|}{T}) & -T \leq \tau \leq T \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Where $T > 0$ and A are constants.

Determine the power spectrum density.

Solution:

$$S_{XX}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \int_{-T}^{+T} A(1 - \frac{|\tau|}{T}) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

We have

$$\int_{-T}^{+T} A e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = -\frac{A}{j\omega} e^{-j\omega\tau} \Big|_{-T}^T = \frac{2A}{\omega} \sin(\omega T)$$

$$\text{And } \int_{-T}^{+T} A \frac{|\tau|}{T} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{A}{T} 2 \int_0^T \tau e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

We have,

$$\int x e^{cx} dx = e^{cx} \left[\frac{x}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{A}{T} 2 \int_0^T \tau e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{2A}{T\omega^2} [1 - (1 - j\omega T)e^{-j\omega T}]$$

$$S_{XX}(\omega) = \frac{2A}{\omega} \sin(\omega T) + \frac{2A}{T\omega^2} [1 - (1 - j\omega T)e^{-j\omega T}]$$

Fourier Transform of some common functions:

$x(t)$	$X(f)$	$X(\omega)$
$\delta(t)$	1	1
1	$\delta(f)$	$2\pi\delta(\omega)$
$\delta(t - t_0)$	$e^{-j2\pi ft_0}$	$e^{-j\omega t_0}$
$e^{j2\pi ft}$	$\delta(f - f_0)$	$2\pi\delta(\omega - \omega_0)$
$\cos(2\pi f_0 t)$	$\frac{1}{2}[\delta(f - f_0) + \delta(f + f_0)]$	$\pi[\delta(\omega - \omega_0) + \delta(\omega + \omega_0)]$
$\sin(2\pi f_0 t)$	$\frac{1}{2j}[\delta(f - f_0) - \delta(f + f_0)]$	$-j\pi[\delta(\omega - \omega_0) - \delta(\omega + \omega_0)]$
$rect(t)$	$\text{sinc}(f)$	$\text{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right)$
$\text{sinc}(t)$	$rect(f)$	$rect\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right)$
$\Lambda(t)$	$\text{sinc}^2(f)$	$\text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right)$
$\text{sinc}^2(t)$	$\Lambda(f)$	$\Lambda\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right)$
$e^{-\alpha t}u(t), \alpha > 0$	$\frac{1}{\alpha + j2\pi f}$	$\frac{1}{\alpha + j\omega}$
$te^{-\alpha t}u(t), \alpha > 0$	$\frac{1}{(\alpha + j2\pi f)^2}$	$\frac{1}{(\alpha + j\omega)^2}$
$e^{-\alpha t }, \alpha > 0$	$\frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha^2 + (2\pi f)^2)}$	$\frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha^2 + \omega^2)}$
$e^{-\pi t^2}$	$e^{-\omega^2}$	$e^{-\omega^2}$
$\text{sgn}(t)$	$\frac{1}{j\pi f}$	$\frac{2}{j\omega}$
$u(t)$	$\frac{1}{2}\delta(f) + \frac{1}{j2\pi f}$	$\pi\delta(\omega) + \frac{1}{j\omega}$
$\frac{d}{dt}\delta(t)$	$j2\pi f$	$j\omega$
$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT_0)$	$\frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(f - \frac{n}{T_0}\right)$	$\frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(\omega - \frac{2\pi n}{T_0}\right)$