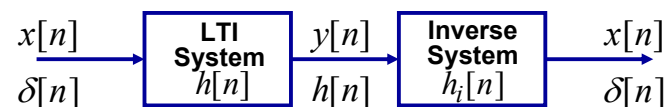


## Lecture 4: Fourier Transforms, Random Signals

School of Electrical and Computer Engineering  
Georgia Institute of Technology  
Summer, 2004

## Inverse Systems

- An inverse system compensates (undoes) the effects of another system.



- The accumulator and first-difference systems are inverses of each other.

$$\Rightarrow h[n] * h_i[n] = \delta[n]$$

- Understanding inverse systems is greatly facilitated by transform methods.

$$(\delta[n] - \delta[n-1]) * u[n] = u[n] - u[n-1] = \delta[n]$$

## Very Useful DTFT Pairs

$$x[n] = \delta[n - n_d] \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = e^{-j\omega n_d}$$

$$x[n] = a^n u[n] \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - ae^{-j\omega}}$$

$$x[n] = 1 \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi\delta(\omega + 2\pi r)$$

$$x[n] = \frac{\sin \omega_c n}{\pi n} \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \begin{cases} 0 & |\omega| < \omega_c \\ 1 & |\omega| > \omega_c \end{cases}$$

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{\sin[(M+1)\omega/2]}{\sin(\omega/2)} e^{-j\omega M}$$

## Fourier Transform Theorems - 1

Sequence	Fourier Transform
$x[n]$	$X(e^{j\omega})$
$y[n]$	$Y(e^{j\omega})$
1. $ax[n] + by[n]$	$aX(e^{j\omega}) + bY(e^{j\omega})$
2. $x[n - n_d]$ ( $n_d$ an integer)	$e^{-j\omega n_d} X(e^{j\omega})$
3. $e^{j\omega_0 n} x[n]$	$X(e^{j(\omega - \omega_0)})$
4. $x[-n]$	$X(e^{-j\omega})$ $X^*(e^{j\omega})$ if $x[n]$ real.
5. $nx[n]$	$j \frac{dX(e^{j\omega})}{d\omega}$
6. $x[n] * y[n]$	$X(e^{j\omega})Y(e^{j\omega})$

## Fourier Transform Theorems - 2

Sequence	Fourier Transform
$x[n]$	$X(e^{j\omega})$
$y[n]$	$Y(e^{j\omega})$

7.  $x[n]y[n] \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\theta})Y(e^{j(\omega-\theta)})d\theta$

Parseval's theorem:

8.  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |X(e^{j\omega})|^2 d\omega$

9.  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]y^*[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\omega})Y^*(e^{j\omega})d\omega$

## DTFT of Sinusoids

- Recall that

$$x[n] = 1 \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi\delta(\omega + 2\pi r)$$

- Also note that

$$x[n]e^{j\omega_0 n} \Leftrightarrow X(e^{j(\omega-\omega_0)})$$

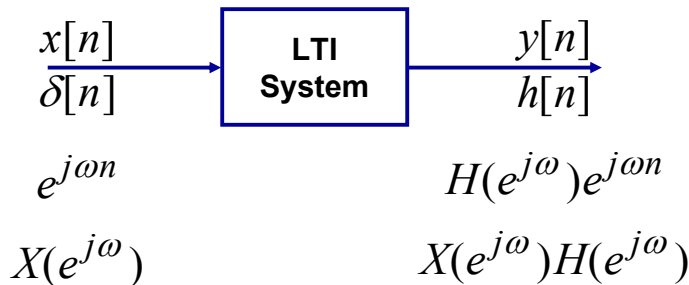
- Therefore

$$e^{j\omega_0 n} \Leftrightarrow \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi\delta(\omega - \omega_0 + 2\pi r)$$

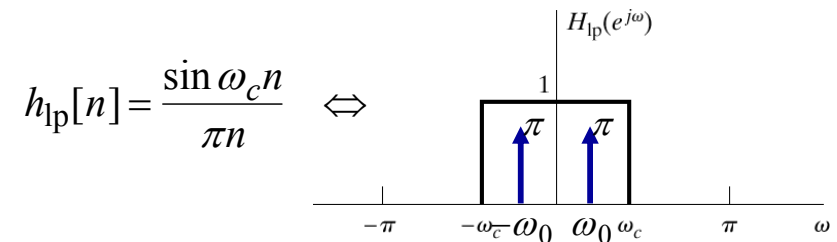
$$\cos\omega_0 n \Leftrightarrow \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \pi\delta(\omega + \omega_0 + 2\pi r) + \pi\delta(\omega - \omega_0 + 2\pi r)$$

## Convolution Theorem

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]h[n-k] \Leftrightarrow Y(e^{j\omega}) = X(e^{j\omega})H(e^{j\omega})$$



## Example 1



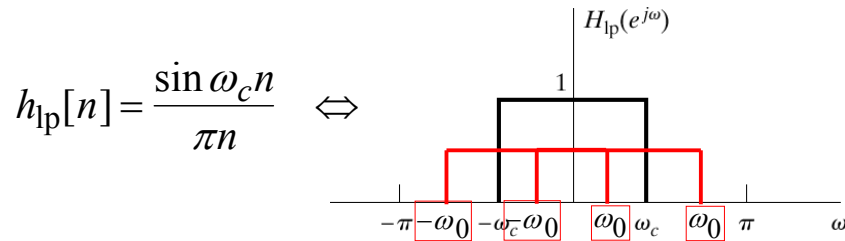
- Find the output when the input is

$$x[n] = \cos\omega_0 n \Leftrightarrow$$

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \pi\delta(\omega + \omega_0 + 2\pi r) + \pi\delta(\omega - \omega_0 + 2\pi r)$$

$$y[n] = \cos\omega_0 n \quad \text{if } \omega_0 < \omega_c$$

## Example 2



- Find the output when the input is

$$x[n] = \frac{\sin(\omega_0 n)}{2\pi n}$$

$$y[n] = \frac{\sin(\omega_0 n)}{2\pi n} \text{ if } \omega_c \approx \omega_0$$

## Frequency Response of a DE

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k Y(e^{j\omega}) e^{-j\omega k} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k X(e^{j\omega}) e^{-j\omega k}$$

$$\left( \sum_{k=0}^N a_k e^{-j\omega k} \right) Y(e^{j\omega}) = \left( \sum_{k=0}^M b_k e^{-j\omega k} \right) X(e^{j\omega})$$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{Y(e^{j\omega})}{X(e^{j\omega})} = \frac{\left( \sum_{k=0}^M b_k e^{-j\omega k} \right)}{\left( \sum_{k=0}^N a_k e^{-j\omega k} \right)}$$

## Frequency Response, continued

- The frequency response of a linear time-invariant system provides a frequency-dependent weighting on the signal.
- The power spectrum of a signal is a manifestation of the energy concentration, per unit time, of the signal at various frequencies.
- An LTI system modifies the power spectrum of the input signal by multiplying it with the frequency-dependent weighting.
- How to compute power spectrum?
  - For a deterministic signal
  - For a random signal

## What is a random signal?

- Many signals vary in complicated and uncertain patterns that cannot be easily described by simple equations.
  - The uncertainty may be caused by interferences such as observation noise or fluctuation in system parameters.
  - It is often convenient and useful to consider such signals as being created or influenced by some sort of random mechanism.
- The mathematical representation of “random signals” involves the concept of a *random process*.

## Random Variables

A (real) random variable is a random event defined on the real line, characterized by a probability assignment (a number between 0 and 1), or a probability distribution

$$P_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = \Pr\{\mathbf{x} \leq x\} = \int_{-\infty}^x p_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta) d\theta$$

where

$p_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = \frac{\partial P_{\mathbf{x}}(x)}{\partial x}$  is the corresponding probability density function, assuming  $P_{\mathbf{x}}$  is differentiable.

## Random Process

- A discrete-time random process is an indexed sequence of random variables  $\{\mathbf{x}_m\}$ ,  $-\infty < m < \infty$  characterized by joint distribution

$$P_{\dots, \mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_{m+1}, \dots}(\dots, x_m, x_{m+1}, \dots) = \Pr\{\dots, \mathbf{x}_m \leq x_m, \mathbf{x}_{m+1} \leq x_{m+1}, \dots\}$$

with “marginal” distribution

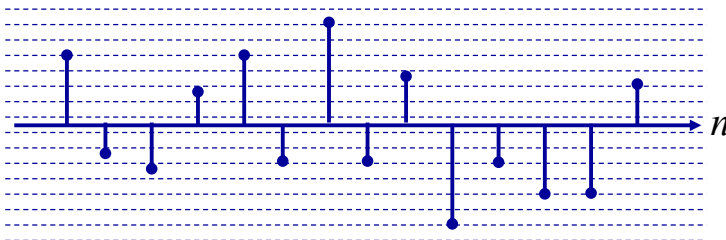
$$P_{\mathbf{x}_m}(x_m, m) = \Pr\{\mathbf{x}_m \leq x_m\} \quad -\infty < m < \infty$$

- Our interest (and ability) in random process is often limited to  $n^{\text{th}}$  order statistics; e.g., 2<sup>nd</sup> order statistics, characterized by the following joint distributions

$$P_{\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_m}(x_k, k, x_m, m) = \Pr\{\mathbf{x}_k \leq x_k \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_m \leq x_m\}, \text{ for all } k \text{ and } m$$

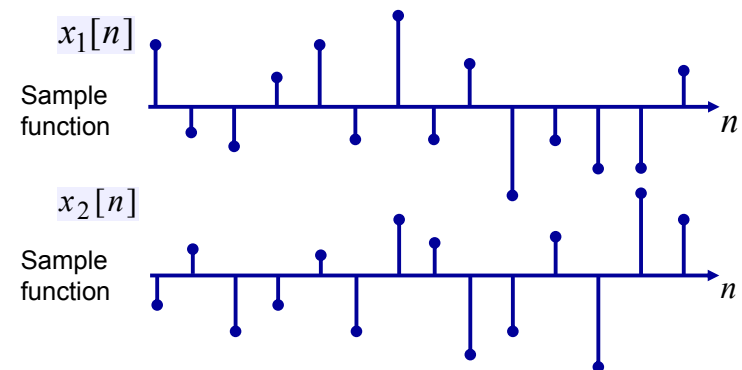
## Histogram

- A histogram shows counts of samples that fall in certain “bins”. If the boundaries of the bins are close together and we use a sample function with many samples, the histogram provides a good estimate of the probability density function of an (assumed) stationary random process.



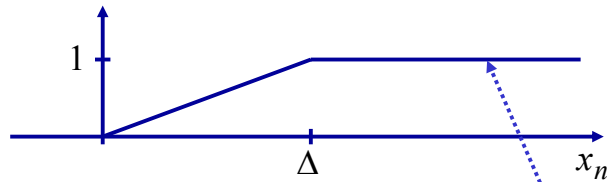
## Ensemble of Sample Functions

- We imagine that there are an infinite set of possible sequences where the value at  $n$  (i.e., a realized observation) is governed by a probability law. We call this set an **ensemble**.

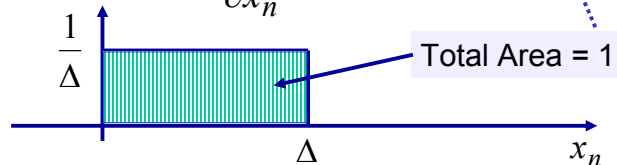


## Uniform Distribution

$$P_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n) = \text{Prob}\{\mathbf{x}_n \leq x_n\}$$



$$p_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n) = \frac{\partial P_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n)}{\partial x_n}$$



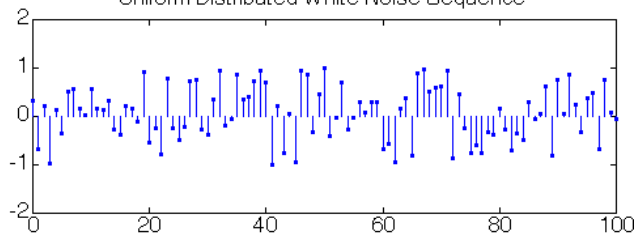
## MATLAB Uniform Simulation

- MATLAB's `rand()` function is useful for such simulations.

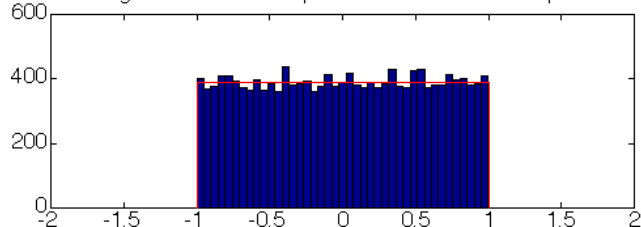
```
>> % set Nplt and N
>> x = 2*(rand(1,N)-0.5); %uniform dist.-1 to 1
>> subplot(211); han=stem(0:Nplt-1,x(1:Nplt));
>> set(han,'markersize',3);
>> subplot(212); hist(x,Nbins); hold on
>> % add theoretical values
>> plot([-1,-1,1,1],N*[0,.5,.5,0]/Nbins,'r');
```

## Uniform Random Process

Uniform Distributed White Noise Sequence



Histogram of 16000 Samples of a White Noise Sequence



## Bernoulli Random Process

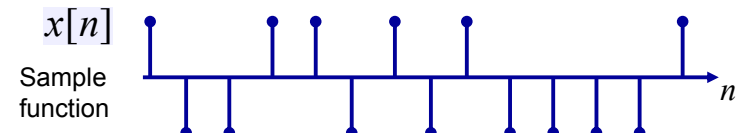
- Suppose that the signal takes on only two different values  $+1$  or  $-1$  with equal probability.

$$P_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n) = 0.5u(x_n + 1) + 0.5u(x_n - 1)$$

$$p_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n) = 0.5\delta(x_n + 1) + 0.5\delta(x_n - 1)$$

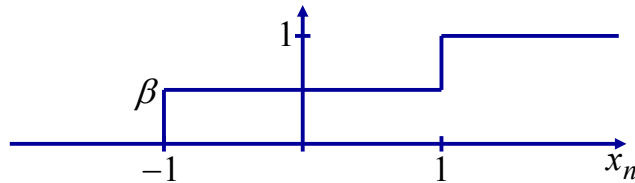
Furthermore, assume that the outcome at time  $n$  is independent of all other outcomes.

$$P_{\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m}(x_n, n, x_m, m) = P_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n)P_{\mathbf{x}_m}(x_m, m)$$

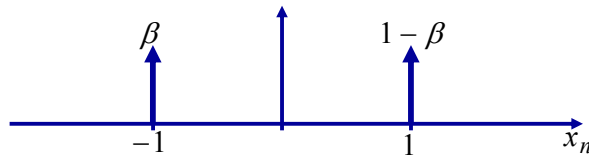


## Bernoulli Distribution

$$P_{x_n}(x_n, n) = \text{Prob}\{\mathbf{x}_n \leq x_n\} = \beta u(x+1) + (1-\beta)u(x-1)$$



$$p_{x_n}(x_n, n) = \frac{\partial P_{x_n}(x_n, n)}{\partial x_n} = \beta\delta(x+1) + (1-\beta)\delta(x-1)$$



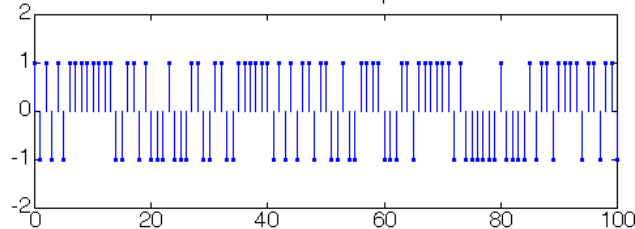
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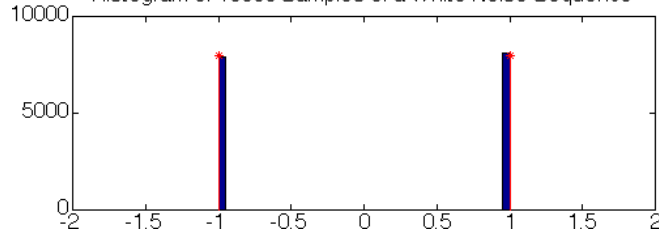
```
>> % set Nplt and N
>> d = rand(1,N); %uniform dist. Between 0 & 1
>> k = find(d>.5); %find +1s
>> x = -ones(1,N); %make vector of all -1s
>> x(k) = ones(1,length(k)); %insert +1s
>> subplot(211); han=stem(0:Nplt-1,x(1:Nplt));
>> set(han,'markersize',3);
>> subplot(212); hist(x,Nbins); hold on
>> stem([-1,1],N* [.5,.5], 'r*'); %add theoretical values
```

## Bernoulli Random Process

Bernoulli Distributed White Noise Sequence with Unit Variance



Histogram of 16000 Samples of a White Noise Sequence



## Averages of Random Processes

- Mean (expected value) of a random process

$$m_{x_n} = E\{x_n\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp_{x_n}(x, n)dx$$

- Expected value of a function of a random process

$$E\{g(x_n)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)p_{x_n}(x, n)dx$$

- In general such averages will depend upon  $n$ . However, for a *stationary random process*, all the first-order averages are the same; e.g.,

$$m_{x_n} = m_x \quad \text{for all } n$$

## More Averages

- Mean-squared (average power)

$$E\{\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^*\} = E\{|\mathbf{x}_n|^2\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 p_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x, n) dx$$

- Variance

$$\text{var}[\mathbf{x}_n] = E\{(\mathbf{x}_n - m_{\mathbf{x}_n})(\mathbf{x}_n - m_{\mathbf{x}_n})^*\} = \sigma_{\mathbf{x}_n}^2$$

$$\text{var}[\mathbf{x}_n] = E\{\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^*\} - |m_{\mathbf{x}_n}|^2 = \sigma_{\mathbf{x}_n}^2$$

$$\text{var}[\mathbf{x}_n] = \sigma_{\mathbf{x}_n}^2 = \text{mean-square} - (\text{mean})^2$$

## Joint Averages of Two R.V.s

- Expected value of a function of two random processes

$$E\{g(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_m)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) p_{\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_m}(x, n, y, m) dx dy$$

- Two random processes are *uncorrelated* if

$$E\{\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{y}_m\} = E\{\mathbf{x}_n\} E\{\mathbf{y}_m\}$$

- Statistical independence implies

$$p_{\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_m}(x, n, y, m) = p_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x, n) p_{\mathbf{y}_m}(y, m)$$

- *Independent* random processes are also *uncorrelated*, but not vice versa

## Correlation Functions

- Autocorrelation function

$$\phi_{xx}[n, m] = E\{\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_m^*\}$$

- Auto-covariance function

$$\gamma_{xx}[n, m] = E\{(\mathbf{x}_n - m_{\mathbf{x}_n})(\mathbf{x}_m - m_{\mathbf{x}_m})^*\}$$

- Cross-correlation function

$$\phi_{xy}[n, m] = E\{\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{y}_m^*\}$$

- Cross-covariance function

$$\gamma_{xy}[n, m] = E\{(\mathbf{x}_n - m_{\mathbf{x}_n})(\mathbf{y}_m - m_{\mathbf{y}_m})^*\}$$

## Stationary Random Processes

- The probability distributions do not change with time.

$$p_{\mathbf{x}_{n+k}}(x_n, n) = p_{\mathbf{x}_n}(x_n, n)$$

$$p_{\mathbf{x}_{n+k}, \mathbf{x}_{m+k}}(x_n, n, x_m, m) = p_{\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m}(x_n, n, x_m, m)$$

- Thus, mean and variance are constant

$$m_x = E\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$$

$$\sigma_x^2 = E\{(\mathbf{x}_n - m_x)(\mathbf{x}_n - m_x)^*\}$$

- And the autocorrelation is a one-dimensional function of the time difference

$$\phi_{xx}[n+m, n] = \phi_{xx}[m] = E\{\mathbf{x}_{n+m} \mathbf{x}_n^*\}$$

## Time Averages

- Time-averages of a random process are random variables themselves.

$$\langle \mathbf{x}_n \rangle = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{n=-L}^L \mathbf{x}_n$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}_{n+m} \mathbf{x}_n^* \rangle = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{n=-L}^L \mathbf{x}_{n+m} \mathbf{x}_n^*$$

- Time averages of a single sample function

$$\langle x[n] \rangle = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{n=-L}^L x[n]$$

$$\langle x[n+m] x^*[n] \rangle = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{n=-L}^L x[n+m] x^*[n]$$

## Ergodic Random Processes

- Time-averages are equal to probability averages

$$\langle \mathbf{x}_n \rangle = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{n=-L}^L \mathbf{x}_n = E\{\mathbf{x}_n\} = m_x$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{x}_{n+m} \mathbf{x}_n^* \rangle &= \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{n=-L}^L \mathbf{x}_{n+m} \mathbf{x}_n^* \\ &= E\{\mathbf{x}_{n+m} \mathbf{x}_n^*\} = \phi_{xx}[m] \end{aligned}$$

- Estimates from a single sample function

$$\hat{m}_x = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} x[n] \quad \hat{\phi}_{xx}[m] = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} x[n+m] x^*[n]$$

## Bernoulli Process Averages

- Mean:  $m_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x[0.5\delta(x+1) + 0.5\delta(x-1)] dx$

$$m_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0.5x\delta(x+1) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0.5x\delta(x-1) dx$$

$$m_x = -0.5 + 0.5 = 0$$

- Variance:

$$\sigma_x^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - m_x)^2 [0.5\delta(x+1) + 0.5\delta(x-1)] dx$$

$$\sigma_x^2 = 0.5 + 0.5 = 1$$

- Autocorrelation: ( $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$  are assumed independent)

$$\phi_{xx}[m] = \sigma_x^2 \delta[m] = \delta[m]$$

## Uniform Process Averages

- Mean:  $m_x = \int_{-1}^1 x(0.5) dx = \frac{1}{4} x^2 \Big|_{-1}^1$

$$m_x = 0.25 - 0.25 = 0$$

- Variance:  $\sigma_x^2 = \int_{-1}^1 (x - m_x)^2 (0.5) dx = \frac{1}{6} x^3 \Big|_{-1}^1$

$$\sigma_x^2 = \frac{1}{6} - \left(-\frac{1}{6}\right) = \frac{1}{3}$$

- Autocorrelation: ( $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$  are assumed independent)

$$\phi_{xx}[m] = \sigma_x^2 \delta[m] = \frac{1}{3} \delta[m]$$



## Properties of the Autocorrelation

- **Definition:**  $\phi_{xx}[m] = E \{ x[n+m]x^*[n] \}$

- **Average power:**

$$\phi_{xx}[0] = E \{ |x[n]|^2 \} = \text{mean - square}$$

- **Symmetry:**  $\phi_{xx}[-m] = \phi_{xx}^*[m]$

$$\phi_{xx}[-m] = \phi_{xx}[m] \quad \text{if } x \text{ is real}$$

- **Shape:**

$$|\phi_{xx}[m]| \leq \phi_{xx}[0] \quad \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \phi_{xx}[m] = |m_x|^2$$