# EE4601 Communication Systems

Week 3

Random Processes, Stationarity, Means, Correlations

#### Random Processes

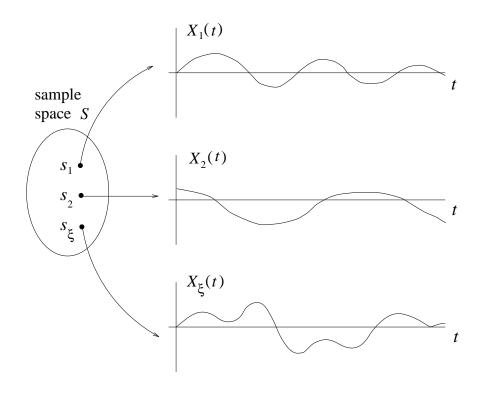
A random process or stochastic process, X(t), is an ensemble of  $\zeta$  sample functions  $\{X_1(t), X_2(t), \dots, X_{\zeta}(t)\}$  together with a probability rule which assigns a probability to any meaningful event associated with the observation of these sample functions.

Suppose the sample function  $X_i(t)$  corresponds to the sample point  $s_i$  in the sample space S and occurs with probability  $P_i$ .

- $\zeta$  may be finite or infinite.
- Sample functions may be defined at discrete or continuous time instants.
  - this defines discrete- or continuous-time random processes.
- Sample function values may take on discrete or continuous values.
  - this defines discrete- or continuous-parameter random processes.

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# Random Processes



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#### Random Processes vs. Random Variables

What is the difference between random variable and processes?

- For a random variable, the outcome of a random experiment is mapped onto a *variable*, e.g., a number.
- For a random processes, the outcome of a random experiment is mapped onto a *waveform* that is a function of time.

Suppose that we observe a random process X(t) at some time  $t_1$  to generate the observation  $X(t_1)$  and that the number of possible sample functions or waveforms,  $\zeta$ , is finite.

If  $X_i(t_1)$  is observed with probability  $P_i$ , then the collection of numbers  $\{X_i(t_1)\}, i$ 1, 2, ...,  $\zeta$  forms a random variable, denoted by  $X(t_1)$ , having the probability distribution  $P_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., \zeta$ .

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#### Random Processes

The collection of n random variables,  $X(t_1), \ldots, X(t_n)$ , has the joint cdf

$$F_{X(t_1),\ldots,X(t_n)}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = P_r(X(t_1) < x_1,\ldots,X(t_n) < x_n)$$
.

A more compact notation can be obtained by defining the vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$$
  
 $\mathbf{X}(t) = (X(t_1), X(t_2), \dots, X(t_n))^T$ 

Then the joint cdf and joint pdf of  $\mathbf{X}(t)$  are, respectively,

$$F_{\mathbf{X}(t)}(\mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{X}(t) \leq \mathbf{x})$$
  
 $p_{\mathbf{X}(t)}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial^n F_{\mathbf{X}(t)}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \cdots \partial x_n}$ 

A random process is **strictly stationary** if and only if the equality

$$p_{\mathbf{X}(t)}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\mathbf{X}(t+\tau)}(\mathbf{x})$$

holds for all sets of time instants  $\{t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n\}$  and all time shifts  $\tau$ .

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## Ensemble and Time Averages

For a random process, we define the following two operators

$$E[\;\cdot\;] \stackrel{\Delta}{=}$$
 ensemble average  $<\;\cdot\;>\;\stackrel{\Delta}{=}\;$  time average

The ensemble mean or ensemble average of a random process X(t) at time t is

$$\mu_X(t) \equiv \mathrm{E}[X(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_{X(t)}(x) dx$$

The time average mean or time average of a random process X(t) is

$$\langle X(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} X(t) dt$$

• In general, the time average mean  $\langle X(t) \rangle$  is also a random variable, because it depends on the particular sample function that is observed for time averaging.

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# Example

Consider the random process shown below.

$$X_{1}(t) = a$$
  $P_{1} = 1/4$ 

$$X_2(t) = 0$$
  $P_2 = 1/2$ 

$$X_3(t) = -a$$
  $P_3 = 1/4$ 

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#### Example

The ensemble mean is

$$E[X(t)] = X_1(t)P_1 + X_2(t)P_2 + X_3(t)P_3$$
  
=  $a \cdot 1/4 + 0 \cdot 1/2 + (-a) \cdot 1/4 = 0$ 

The time average mean is

$$\langle X(t) \rangle = \begin{cases} a & \text{with probability } 1/4 \\ 0 & \text{with probability } 1/2 \\ -a & \text{with probability } 1/4 \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\langle X(t) \rangle$  is a random variable (since it depends on the sample function that is chosen for time averaging, while  $\mathrm{E}[X(t)]$  is just a number (that in the above example is not a function of time t, but in general may a function of the time variable t).

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## Moments and Correlations

 $\mathbf{E}[\ \cdot\ ] = \text{ensemble average operator}.$ 

[Ensemble] Mean:  $\mu_X(t_1) = \mathbb{E}[X(t_1)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X(t_1)}(x) dx$ 

[Ensemble] Variance:  $\sigma_X^2(t_1) = \mathrm{E}[(X(t_1) - \mu_X(t_1))^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_X)^2 f_{X(t_1)}(x) dx$ 

[Ensemble] Autocorrelation:  $\phi_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = E[X(t_1)X(t_2)]$ 

[Ensemble] Autocovariance:

$$\mu_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = \mathrm{E}[(X(t_1) - \mu_X(t_1))(X(t_2) - \mu_X(t_2))]$$
  
=  $\phi_{XX}(t_1, t_2) - \mu_X(t_1)\mu_X(t_2)$ 

If X(t) has zero mean, then  $\mu_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = \phi_{XX}(t_1, t_2)$ .

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## Example

Consider the random process

$$X(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_c t + \Theta)$$

where A and  $f_c$  are constants. The phase  $\Theta$  is assumed to be a uniformly distributed random variable with pdf

$$f_{\Theta}(\theta) = \begin{cases} 1/(2\pi) , & 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi \\ 0 , & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

The ensemble mean of  $X(t_1)$  is obtained by averaging over the pdf of  $\Theta$ :

$$\mu_X(t_1) = \mathcal{E}_{\Theta}[X(t_1)] = \mathcal{E}_{\Theta}[A\cos(2\pi f_c t_1 + \Theta)]$$

$$= \frac{A}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(2\pi f_c t_1 + \theta) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{A}{2\pi} \sin(2\pi f_c t_1 + \theta) \Big|_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$

$$= 0$$

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## Example (cont'd)

The autocorrelation of  $X(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_c t + \Theta)$  is

$$\phi_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = \mathcal{E}_{\Theta}[X(t_1)X(t_2)]$$

$$= \mathcal{E}_{\Theta}[A^2 \cos(2\pi f_c t_1 + \Theta) \cos(2\pi f_c t_2 + \Theta)]$$

$$= \frac{A^2}{2} \mathcal{E}_{\Theta}[\cos(2\pi f_c t_1 + 2\pi f_c t_2 + 2\Theta)] + \frac{A^2}{2} \mathcal{E}_{\Theta}[\cos(2\pi f_c (t_1 - t_2))]$$

But

$$E_{\Theta}[\cos(2\pi f_c t_1 + 2\pi f_c t_2 + 2\Theta)] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(2\pi f_c t_1 + 2\pi f_c t_2 + 2\theta) d\theta$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi} \sin(2\pi f_c t_1 + 2\pi f_c t_2 + 2\theta) d\theta \Big|_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= 0$$

# Example (cont'd)

Also,

$$E_{\Theta}[\cos(2\pi f_c(t_1 - t_2))] = \cos 2\pi f_c(t_1 - t_2)$$

Hence,

$$\phi_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = \frac{A^2}{2} \cos 2\pi f_c(t_1 - t_2)$$
$$= \frac{A^2}{2} \cos 2\pi f_c \tau, \quad \tau = t_1 - t_2$$

The autocovariance of X(t) is

$$\mu_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = \phi_{XX}(t_1, t_2) - \mu_X(t_1)\mu_X(t_2)$$
  
=  $\phi_{XX}(\tau)$ 

since  $\mu_X(t) = 0$ .

## Wide Sense Stationary

A wide sense stationary random process X(t) has the property

$$\mu_X(t) = \mu_X$$
 a constant  
 $\phi_X(t_1, t_2) = \phi_X(\tau)$  where  $\tau = t_2 - t_1$ 

The autocorrelation function only depends on the time difference  $\tau$ .

If a random process is strictly stationary, then it is wide sense stationary. The converse is not true.

strictly stationary  $\longrightarrow$  wide sense stationary

For a Gaussian random process only

strictly stationary  $\longleftrightarrow$  wide sense stationary

The previous example is a wide sense stationary random process.

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# Some Properties of $\phi_{XX}(\tau)$

The autocorrelation function,  $\phi_{XX}(\tau)$ , of a wide sense stationary random process X(t) satisfies the following properties.

- 1.  $\phi_{XX}(0) = E[X^2(t)]$ : total power ac + dc
- 2.  $\phi_{XX}(\tau) = \phi_{XX}(-\tau)$ : even function
- 3.  $|\phi_{XX}(\tau)| \leq \phi_{XX}(0)$ : a variant of the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality. Proof on next slide.
- 4.  $\phi_{XX}(\infty) = E^2[X(t)] = \mu_X^2$ : dc power, if X(t) has no periodic components.
- 5. If  $p_{X(t)}(x) = p_{X(t+T)}(x)$ , i.e., the pdf of X(t) is periodic in t with period T, then  $\phi_{XX}(\tau) = \phi_{XX}(\tau + T)$ . In other words, if  $p_{X(t)}(x)$  is periodic in t with period T, then  $\phi_{XX}(\tau)$  is periodic in  $\tau$  with period T. Such a random process is said to be **periodic wide sense stationary** or **cyclostationary**. Digitally modulated waveforms are cyclostationary random processes.

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# Some Properties of $\phi_{XX}(\tau)$

The inequality  $|\phi_{XX}(\tau)| \leq \phi_{XX}(0)$  can be established through the following steps.

$$0 \leq E[(X(t+\tau) \pm X(t))^{2}]$$

$$= E[X^{2}(t) + X^{2}(t+\tau) \pm X(t+\tau)X(t)]$$

$$= E[X^{2}(t)] + E[X^{2}(t+\tau)] \pm E[X(t+\tau)X(t)]$$

$$= 2E[X^{2}(t)] \pm E[X(t+\tau)X(t)]$$

$$= 2\phi_{XX}(0) \pm 2\phi_{XX}(\tau) .$$

Therefore,

$$\pm \phi_{XX}(\tau) \leq \phi_{XX}(0)$$
$$|\phi_{XX}(\tau)| \leq \phi_{XX}(0) .$$