
Chapter - 9: Random Processes

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Basic Concepts

- Analogous to random sequences except the time axis is uncountable

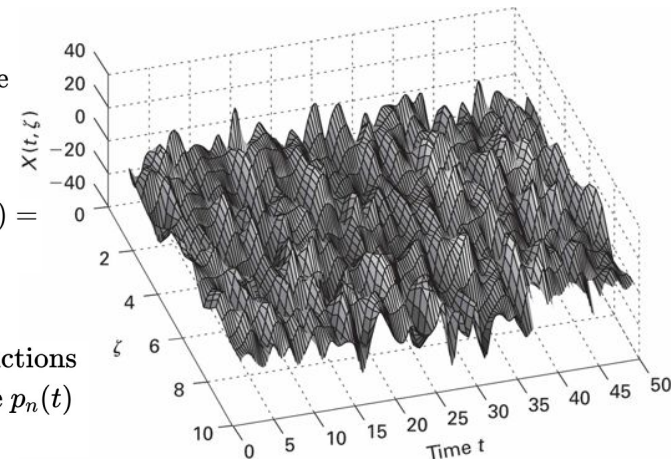
Definition 7.1 – 1 Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space. Then define a mapping X from the sample space Ω to a space of continuous time functions. The elements in this space will be called sample functions. This mapping is called a random process if at each fixed time the mapping is a random variable, that is \dagger , $X(t, \zeta) \in \mathcal{F}$ for each fixed t on the real line $-\infty < t < +\infty$.

- Examples

$X(t, \zeta) = X(\zeta)f(t)$ where X is a random variable and f is a deterministic function of the parameter t . We also write $X(t) = Xf(t)$.

$X(t, \zeta) = A(\zeta) \sin(\omega_0 t + \Theta(\zeta))$ where A and Θ are random variables. We also write $X(t) = A \sin(\omega_0 t + \Theta)$, suppressing the outcome ζ

$X(t) = \sum_n X[n]p_n(t - T[n])$ where $X[n]$ and $T[n]$ are random sequences and the functions $p_n(t)$ are deterministic waveforms that can take on various shapes. For example, the $p_n(t)$ could be an ideal step function.



- Definition: A random process $X(t)$ is statistically specified by its complete set of n th order PDFs (pdf's or PMFs) for all positive integers n , i.e., $F_X(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ for all x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n and for all $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$

Moment Functions

- Mean Function

$$\mu_X(t) \triangleq E[X(t)], \quad -\infty < t < +\infty$$

- Autocorrelation function

$$R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) \triangleq E[X(t_1)X^*(t_2)], \quad -\infty < t_1, t_2 < +\infty$$

- Autocovariance function

$$\begin{aligned} K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) &\triangleq E[X_c(t_1)X_c^*(t_2)] \\ &\triangleq E[(X(t_1) - \mu_X(t_1))(X(t_2) - \mu_X(t_2))^*] \end{aligned}$$

$$K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) - \mu_X(t_1)\mu_X^*(t_2)$$

- Variance Function

$$\sigma_X^2(t) \triangleq K_{XX}(t, t) = E[|X_c(t)|^2]$$

- Power Function

$$R_{XX}(t, t) = E[|X(t)|^2]$$

- Example 9.1-5

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_X(t) &= E[A \sin(\omega_0 t + \Theta)] \\ &= E[A]E[\sin(\omega_0 t + \Theta)] \\ &= \mu_A \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{+\pi} \sin(\omega_0 t + \theta) d\theta \\ &= \mu_A \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) &= E[X(t_1)X^*(t_2)] \\ &= E[A^2 \sin(\omega_0 t_1 + \Theta) \sin(\omega_0 t_2 + \Theta)] \\ &= E[A^2]E[\sin(\omega_0 t_1 + \Theta) \sin(\omega_0 t_2 + \Theta)] = \frac{1}{2}E[A^2] \cos \omega_0(t_1 - t_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = R_{XX}^*(t_2, t_1)$$

$$K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = K_{XX}^*(t_2, t_1)$$

Hermitian Symmetry

Example: Poisson Counting Process

- MGF of a exponential rv $\tau[n] \triangleq T[n] - T[n - 1]$ is

$$M_X(t) = \int_0^\infty e^{tx} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lambda \int_0^\infty e^{(t-\lambda)x} dx = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \quad \text{provided that } |t| < \lambda$$

- Therefore MGF of $T[n]$ is given by $\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}\right)^n$ which is the MGF of Erlang distribution

See example 8.1-11

$$f_T(t; n) = \frac{(\lambda t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \lambda \exp(-\lambda t) u(t)$$

- Now, by construction (bottom rt. figure)

$$P\{N(t) = n\} = P\{T[n] \leq t, T[n+1] > t\}$$

$$\implies P\{N(t) = n\} = P\{T[n] \leq t, \tau[n+1] > t - T[n]\}$$

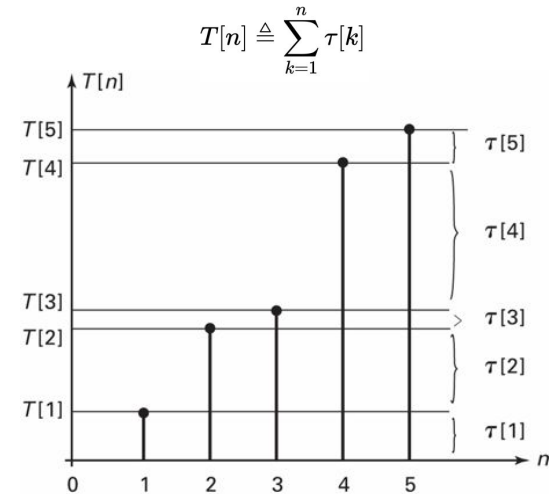
- Using independence and definition of CDF

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^t f_T(\alpha; n) \left[\int_{t-\alpha}^\infty f_\tau(\beta) d\beta \right] d\alpha &= \int_0^t \frac{\lambda^n \alpha^{n-1} e^{-\lambda \alpha}}{(n-1)!} \left(\int_{t-\alpha}^\infty \lambda e^{-\lambda \beta} d\beta \right) d\alpha \cdot u(t) \\ &= \left(\int_0^t \alpha^{n-1} d\alpha \right) \lambda^n e^{-\lambda t} / (n-1)! u(t) \end{aligned}$$

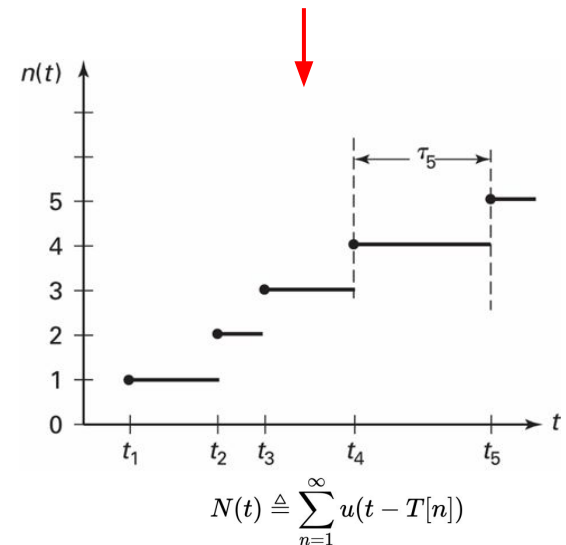
$$P_N(n; t) = \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda t} u(t) \quad \text{for } t \geq 0, \quad n \geq 0$$

λ is the mean arrival rate and $E[N(t)] = \lambda t$

- This yields the PMF of a Poisson counting process



Exponential pdf of inter-arrival time $\tau[n]$ leads to Erlang pdf on total wait (arrival) time $T[n]$ and a Poisson PMF for the count n



$$N(t) \triangleq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u(t - T[n])$$

Independent Increment

- The PMF of the increment in Poisson counting process in (t_a, t_b) is Poisson

$$P[N(t_b) - N(t_a) = n] = \frac{[\lambda(t_b - t_a)]^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda(t_b - t_a)} u(n)$$

- Definition 7.2 – 1 A random process has independent increments when the set of n random variables, $X(t_1), X(t_2) - X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n) - X(t_{n-1})$ are jointly independent for all $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$ and for all $n \geq 1$

- It helps in calculating higher order distributions

$$\begin{aligned} P_N(n_1, n_2; t_1, t_2) &= P[N(t_1) = n_1] P[N(t_2) - N(t_1) = n_2 - n_1] \\ &= \frac{(\lambda t_1)^{n_1}}{n_1!} e^{-\lambda t_1} \frac{[\lambda(t_2 - t_1)]^{n_2 - n_1}}{(n_2 - n_1)!} e^{-\lambda(t_2 - t_1)} u(n_1) u(n_2 - n_1) \\ &= \frac{\lambda^{n_2} t_1^{n_1} (t_2 - t_1)^{n_2 - n_1}}{n_1! (n_2 - n_1)!} e^{-\lambda t_2} u(n_1) u(n_2 - n_1), \quad 0 \leq t_1 < t_2 \end{aligned}$$

- Autocorrelation and Autocovariance using independent increments

$$\begin{aligned} E[N(t_2)N(t_1)] &= E[(N(t_1) + [N(t_2) - N(t_1)])N(t_1)] \\ &= E[N^2(t_1)] + E[N(t_2) - N(t_1)]E[N(t_1)] \\ &= \lambda t_1 + \lambda^2 t_1^2 + \lambda(t_2 - t_1)\lambda t_1 \\ &= \lambda t_1 + \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 = \lambda \min(t_1, t_2) + \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$K_{NN}(t_1, t_2) = \lambda \min(t_1, t_2)$$

Markov Random Process

- Continuous valued (first order) Markov process $X(t)$ is satisfies the conditional pdf

$$f_X(x_n | x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}, \dots, x_1; t_n, \dots, t_1) = f_X(x_n | x_{n-1}; t_n, t_{n-1})$$

- Discrete valued Markov process $X(t)$ satisfies the conditional PMF

$$P_X(x_n | x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1; t_n, \dots, t_1) = P_X(x_n | x_{n-1}; t_n, t_{n-1})$$

- Problem:** Find CDF and pdf of $Z = \min(X, Y)$

$$\begin{aligned} F_Z(z) &\triangleq P[Z \leq z] \\ &= 1 - P[Z > z] \\ &= 1 - P[X > z]P[Y > z] \\ &= 1 - (1 - P[X \leq z])(1 - P[Y \leq z]) \\ &= 1 - (1 - F_X(z))(1 - F_Y(z)) \\ &= F_X(z) + F_Y(z) - F_X(z)F_Y(z). \end{aligned}$$

NOTE: For this condition to be true, both $X > Z$ and $Y > Z$ has to be true

If X and Y are iid exponential rv

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(x) = \alpha \exp(-\alpha x)u(x).$$

We get

$$F_Z(z) = (1 - \exp(-2\alpha z))u(z)$$

$$f_Z(z) = 2\alpha \exp(-2\alpha z)u(z).$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_Z(z) &\triangleq \frac{dF_Z(z)}{dz} \\ &= \frac{d(F_X(z) + F_Y(z) - F_X(z)F_Y(z))}{dz} \\ &= f_X(z) + f_Y(z) - f_X(z)F_Y(z) - F_X(z)f_Y(z). \end{aligned}$$

Multiprocessor Reliability

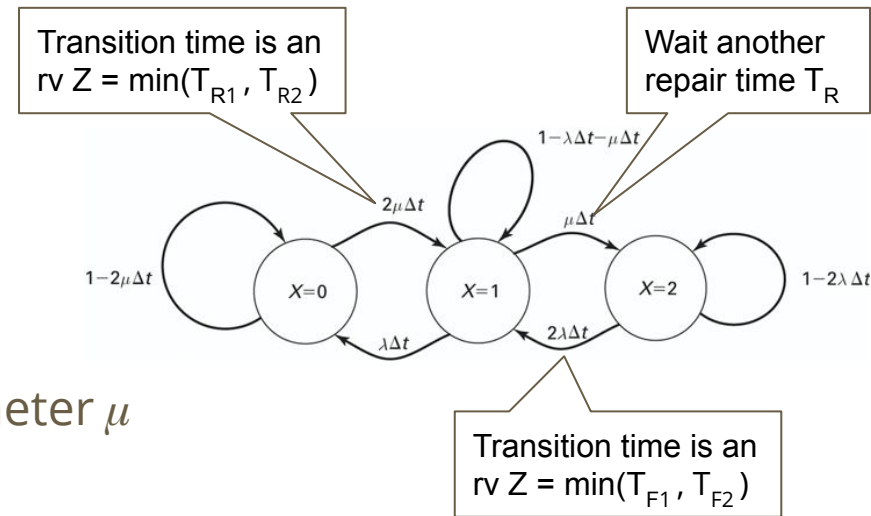
- State $X=0$: Both processor down
- State $X=1$: Either one is down
- State $X=2$: Both are up
- Repair Time is exponential with parameter μ
 - Average time to repair is $1/\mu$
- Failure Time is exponential with parameter λ
 - Average time to repair is $1/\lambda$
 - Inter-transition times are exponentially distributed like the inter-arrival times in Poisson counting process
- Now, the probability of being in $X=2$ at $(t+\Delta t)$ having been in $X=1$ at time t
 - This requires the service time T_s to be within interval $(t, t+\Delta t]$, conditioned on $T_s >$

$$P_2(t + \Delta t) = P_1(t)P[t < T_s \leq t + \Delta t | T_s \geq t]$$

where, $P[t < T_s \leq t + \Delta t | T_s \geq t] = \frac{F_{T_s}(t+\Delta t) - F_{T_s}(t)}{1 - F_{T_s}(t)} = \mu\Delta t + o(\Delta t)$

- The probability of staying in $X=2$ at $t+\Delta t$, having been in state 2

$$P_2(t + \Delta t) = P_2(t)P[T_Z = \min(T_{F_1}, T_{F_2}) > \Delta t] = P_2(t)\{1 - F_{T_Z}(\Delta t)\} = P_2(t)(1 - (1 - e^{-2\lambda\Delta t})) = P_2(t)(1 - 2\lambda\Delta t)$$



NOTE: Sum of probabilities leaving any state is always 1

...contd

- Continuing in similar fashion for other states,

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_0(t + \Delta t) \\ P_1(t + \Delta t) \\ P_2(t + \Delta t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 2\mu\Delta t & \lambda\Delta t & 0 \\ 2\mu\Delta t & 1 - (\lambda + \mu)\Delta t & 2\lambda\Delta t \\ 0 & \mu\Delta t & 1 - 2\lambda\Delta t \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P_0(t) \\ P_1(t) \\ P_2(t) \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{o}(\Delta t)$$

- Rearranging the terms

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_0(t + \Delta t) - P_0(t) \\ P_1(t + \Delta t) - P_1(t) \\ P_2(t + \Delta t) - P_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2\mu & \lambda & 0 \\ 2\mu & -(\lambda + \mu) & 2\lambda \\ 0 & \mu & -2\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P_0(t) \\ P_1(t) \\ P_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \Delta t + \mathbf{o}(\Delta t)$$

- Dividing both sides by $\Delta t \longrightarrow \frac{d\mathbf{P}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}(t)$

- A** is called the **generator matrix** of the Markov chain X

- The solution of the matrix differential equation is given by

$$\mathbf{P}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{P}_0, \quad t \geq 0 \quad \mathbf{P}(0) \triangleq \mathbf{P}_0$$

- We are interested in the steady state probabilities of MC or **AP = 0**, from first and last row

$$\begin{aligned} -2\mu P_0 + \lambda P_1 &= 0 \\ +\mu P_1 - 2\lambda P_2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \longrightarrow P_1 = (2\mu/\lambda)P_0 \text{ and } P_2 = (\mu/2\lambda)P_1 = (\mu/\lambda)^2 P_0$$

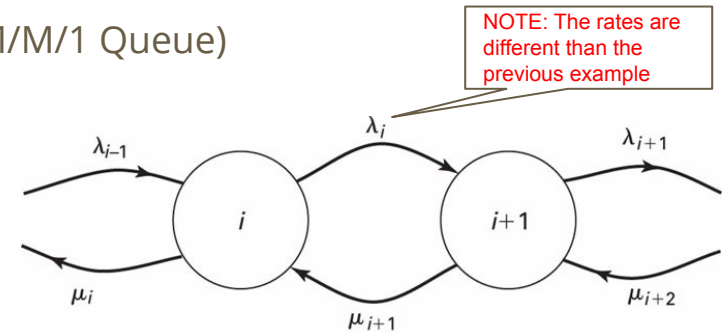
$$P_0 + P_1 + P_2 = 1, \text{ we obtain } P_0 = \lambda^2 / (\lambda^2 + 2\mu\lambda + \mu^2) \text{ and finally } \mathbf{P} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 + 2\mu\lambda + \mu^2} [\lambda^2, 2\mu\lambda, \mu^2]^T$$

Birth-Death Markov Chains

- In MC with only adjacent state transition is called a Birth-Death chain

- Infinite no. of states and Finite number of states (M/M/1 Queue)

- The time between births and time between deaths are exponentially distributed with parameters μ and λ



This model is called M/M/1 queue. See Kendall's notation for queuing models

- We can write $\mathbf{P}(t + \Delta t) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{P}(t)$, where

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda_0 \Delta t & \mu_1 \Delta t & 0 & \cdots & \cdots \\ \lambda_0 \Delta t & 1 - (\lambda_1 + \mu_1) \Delta t & \mu_2 \Delta t & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & \lambda_1 \Delta t & 1 - (\lambda_2 + \mu_2) \Delta t & \mu_3 \Delta t & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

- Rearranging and dividing by Δt $d\mathbf{P}(t)/dt = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}(t)$ and the steady state is given by $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{0}$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_0 & \mu_1 & 0 & \cdots \\ \lambda_0 & -(\lambda_1 + \mu_1) & \mu_2 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & \lambda_1 & -(\lambda_2 + \mu_2) & \mu_3 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{l} P_1 = \rho_1 P_0 \\ P_2 = \rho_2 P_1 = \rho_1 \rho_2 P_0 \\ \vdots \\ P_j = \rho_j P_{j-1} = \rho_j \cdots \rho_2 \rho_1 P_0 \end{array} \quad \text{where } \rho_j \triangleq \lambda_{j-1} / \mu_j, \text{ for } j \geq 1$$

- Assuming that the series converges, we require that $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P_i = 1$. With the notation $r_j \triangleq \rho_j \cdots \rho_2 \rho_1$, and $r_0 = 1$, this means $P_0 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r_i = 1$ or $P_0 = 1 / \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r_i$. Hence the steady-state probabilities for the birth-death Markov chain are given by

$$P_j = r_j / \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r_i, \quad j \geq 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Denominator does not converge there is no steady state.}$$

Finite Capacity Buffer

- If we assume $\mu_i = \mu$ and $\lambda_i = \lambda$ for all i , and the queue length cannot exceed L

- The dynamical equation of the MC is

$$\begin{aligned} dP_0(t)/dt &= -\lambda P_0(t) + \mu P_1(t) \\ dP_1(t)/dt &= +\lambda P_0(t) - (\lambda + \mu)P_1(t) + \mu P_2(t) \\ &\vdots \\ dP_L(t)/dt &= +\lambda P_{L-1}(t) - \mu P_L(t) \end{aligned}$$

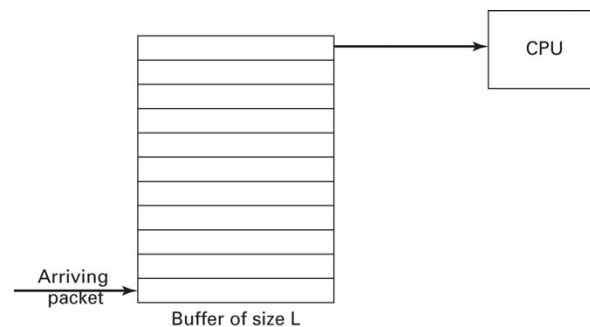
- The steady state solution is therefore,

$$P_i = \rho^i P_0, \text{ for } 0 \leq i \leq L \quad \text{where } \rho \triangleq \lambda/\mu$$

And since

$$\sum_{i=0}^L \rho^i P_0 = 1, \text{ or that } P_0 = (1 - \rho)/(1 - \rho^{L+1})$$

$$P_L = \rho^L (1 - \rho)/(1 - \rho^{L+1})$$



- **Example 9.2-6-** If the buffer is full and τ_s and τ_i is the service time and interarrival time, then prob. of packet loss is

$$\begin{aligned} P[\text{"packet loss"}] &= P[\text{"saturation"} \cap \{\tau_s > \tau_i\}] \\ &= \rho^L (1 - \rho)/(1 - \rho^{L+1}) \times P[\tau_s - \tau_i > 0] = \rho^L (1 - \rho)/(1 - \rho^{L+1}) \times \rho/(1 + \rho) \end{aligned}$$

$P[\tau_s - \tau_i > 0] = \lambda/(\lambda + \mu)$ is given by calculating the pdf of $(\mathbf{Z} = \tau_s - \tau_i)$, which is the difference of two exponential pdf $\tau_s \sim \exp(\mu)$ and $\tau_i \sim \exp(\lambda)$, i.e.

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda\mu}{\lambda + \mu} \begin{cases} e^{-\mu x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ e^{\lambda x} & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- A Markov process random variable $X(t_1), X(t_2), X(t_3)$ at $t_3 > t_2 > t_1$, then C-K equations provide the **conditional pdf** of $X(t_3)$ given $X(t_1)$

$$f_X(x_3, x_1; t_3, t_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x_3 | x_2, x_1; t_3, t_2, t_1) f_X(x_2, x_1; t_2, t_1) dx_2$$

Dividing both sides by $f(x_1; t_1)$, we obtain

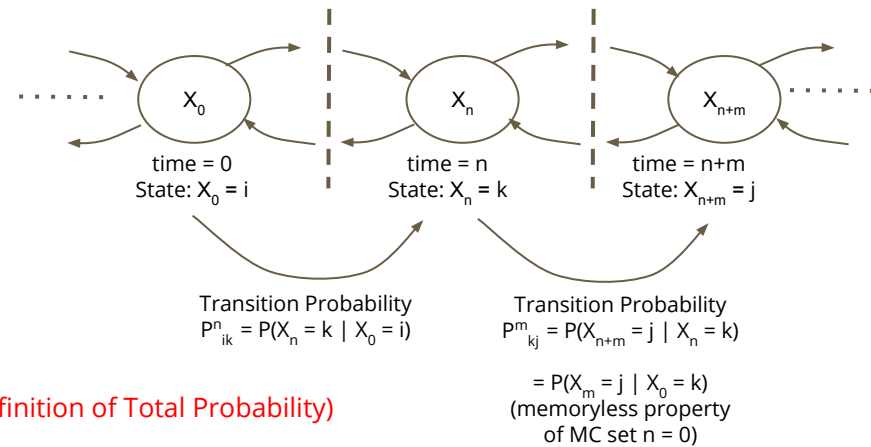
$$f_X(x_3 | x_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x_3 | x_2, x_1) f_X(x_2 | x_1) dx_2$$

Then using the Markov property the above becomes

$$f_X(x_3 | x_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x_3 | x_2) f_X(x_2 | x_1) dx_2$$

- For discrete Markov chains
 - Given $X_0 = i$, $P_{i,k}^n = P(X_n = k | X_0 = i)$ is the probability that the state at time n is k
 - But given, $X_n = k$, the probability that the chain will be in state j at m time units later is $P_{k,j}^m$
 - Therefore, since transitions are independent, we get $P(X_n = k, X_{n+m} = j | X_0 = i) = P_{i,k}^n P_{k,j}^m$
 - Summing over k gives the C-K equations

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- Therefore, we get the following proof

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{i,j}^{n+m} &= P(X_{n+m} = j | X_0 = i) \\
 &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} P(X_{n+m} = j, X_n = k | X_0 = i) && \text{(Using definition of Total Probability)} \\
 &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{P(X_{n+m} = j, X_n = k, X_0 = i)}{P(X_0 = i)} && \text{(Using definition of Conditional Probability)} \\
 &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{P(X_{n+m} = j | X_n = k, X_0 = i) P(X_n = k, X_0 = i)}{P(X_0 = i)} && \text{(Using definition of Jointly Conditional on } X_n \text{ and } X_0) \\
 &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{P(X_n = k, X_0 = i) P_{k,j}^m}{P(X_0 = i)} && \text{(Using Markov Property)} \\
 &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} P_{i,k}^n P_{k,j}^m
 \end{aligned}$$

$P(X_{n+m} = j | X_n = k, X_0 = i) = P(X_{n+m} = j | X_n = k) = \bar{P}(\bar{X}_m = j | X_0 = k) = P_{k,j}^m$

- When $n = m = 1$

$$P_{i,j}^2 = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} P_{i,k} P_{k,j}, i \in \mathcal{S}, j \in \mathcal{S}$$

- Which in the matrix form yields $\mathbf{P}^{(2)} = \mathbf{P}^2$, where $\mathbf{P}^{(n)} = (p_{ij}^n), n \geq 1$
- Similarly, when $n = 1$ and $m = 2$ (3 time steps in future)

$$P_{i,j}^3 = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}} P_{i,k} P_{k,j}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{P}^{(3)} = \mathbf{P} \times \mathbf{P}^{(2)} = \mathbf{P} \times \mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P}^3$$

In general, for $n=1, m=l$

$\mathbf{P} \times \mathbf{P}^l = \mathbf{P}^{l+1}$

Example

- Example: Let $\mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{0}$ if it rains on day i ; otherwise, $\mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{1}$
- Suppose $P_{00} = 0.7$ and $P_{10} = 0.4$. Then $\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}$
- Suppose it rains on Monday. Then the prob that it rains on Friday is $\mathbf{P}_{00}^{(4)}$

$$\mathbf{P}^{(4)} = \mathbf{P}^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5749 & 0.4251 \\ 0.5668 & 0.4332 \end{pmatrix}$$

so that $\mathbf{P}_{00}^{(4)} = \mathbf{0.5749}$

- **NOTE:** To compute power of a matrix - Diagonalize and raise to the power
 - Diagonalize $A = S^{-1}\Lambda S$, where S = matrix with columns are eigenvectors and Λ is a matrix with eigenvalues as diagonals.
 - Then, $A^n = S^{-1}\Lambda^n S$, where $\Lambda^n = \text{diag}(\Lambda_1^n, \Lambda_2^n, \dots, \Lambda_N^n)$

Continuous Time Linear Systems

- **SELF STUDY Section 9.3**
- **It follows the same methodology as random sequences**
- **Pay attention to the conjugate operator**

Useful Classifications

- If X and Y are random processes

(a) Uncorrelated if $R_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = \mu_X(t_1)\mu_Y^*(t_2)$, for all t_1 and t_2

(b) Orthogonal if $R_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = 0$ for all t_1 and t_2 ;

(c) Independent if for all positive integers n , the n th order PDF of X and Y factors, that is,

$$\begin{aligned} F_{XY}(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, \dots, x_n, y_n; t_1, \dots, t_n) \\ = F_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots, t_n) F_Y(y_1, \dots, y_n; t_1, \dots, t_n) \quad \text{for all } x_i, y_i \text{ and for all } t_1, \dots, t_n \end{aligned}$$

- Note: Two processes are orthogonal if they are uncorrelated and at least one has zero mean
- If $R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = 0$ then it is called a orthogonal random process

- $X(t)$ is **Stationarity** if it has the same n^{th} order CDF/PDF as $X(t+T)$

$$F_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots, t_n) = F_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1 + T, \dots, t_n + T)$$

If differentiable then

$$f_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots, t_n) = f_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1 + T, \dots, t_n + T)$$

- Stationary random process implies

$f(x; t) = f(x; t + T)$ for all T implies $f(x; t) = f(x; 0)$ by taking $T = -t$ which in turn implies $E[x(t)] = \mu_X(t) = \mu_X(0)$

Stationarity

- Since the second order density is also shift invariant

$$f(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = f(x_1, x_2; t_1 + T, t_2 + T) \xrightarrow{T = -t_2} f(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = f(x_1, x_2; t_1 - t_2, 0) \longrightarrow E[X(t_1)X^*(t_2)] = R_{XX}(t_1 - t_2, 0)$$

- Therefore, we can write the one-parameter correlation function

$$\begin{aligned} R_{XX}(\tau) &\triangleq R_{XX}(\tau, 0) \\ &= E[X(t + \tau)X^*(t)] \end{aligned}$$

- Definition 7.4 – 3 A random process X is wide-sense stationary (WSS) if $E[X(t)] = \mu_X$, a constant, and $E[X(t + \tau)X^*(t)] = R_{XX}(\tau)$ for all $-\infty < \tau < \infty$, independent of the time parameter t .
- **SELF STUDY Section 9.5 on interaction of WSS random process with linear systems. The discussion follows the same reasoning as in random sequences**

Power Spectral Density

- PSD is defined for WSS and hence for stationary random process
- **Definition** — Let $R_{XX}(\tau)$ be an autocorrelation function. Then we define the power spectral density $S_{XX}(\omega)$ to be its Fourier transform (if it exists), that is,

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

- We can also define Fourier transform of the cross-correlation function, which is called cross power spectral density

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

- Properties of PSD (Also see table 9.5-1)
 1. $S_{XX}(\omega)$ is real-valued since $R_{XX}(\tau)$ is conjugate symmetric.
 2. If $X(t)$ is a real-valued WSS process, then $S_{XX}(\omega)$ is an even function since $R_{XX}(\tau)$ is real and even. Otherwise $S_{XX}(\omega)$ may not be an even function of ω .
 3. $S_{XX}(\omega) \geq 0$ (to be shown in Section in Theorem 9.5 – 1).

Interpretation of PSD

- For a WSS process $X(t)$, consider the finite support segment (to ensure validity and existence of FT) $\longrightarrow X_T(t) \triangleq X(t)I_{[-T,+T]}(t)$

- $I_{[-T,+T]}$ is an indicator function equal to 1 if $-T \leq t \leq T$
- Therefore, FT of $X_T(t)$ is given by

$$FT\{X_T(t)\} = \int_{-T}^{+T} X(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

- The magnitude squared of this random variable is

$$|FT\{X_T(t)\}|^2 = \int_{-T}^{+T} \int_{-T}^{+T} X(t_1)X^*(t_2)e^{-j\omega(t_1-t_2)} dt_1 dt_2$$

- Dividing both sides by $2T$ and taking expectation,

$$\frac{1}{2T} E[|FT\{X_T(t)\}|^2] = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{+T} \int_{-T}^{+T} R_{XX}(t_1 - t_2) e^{-j\omega(t_1-t_2)} dt_1 dt_2$$

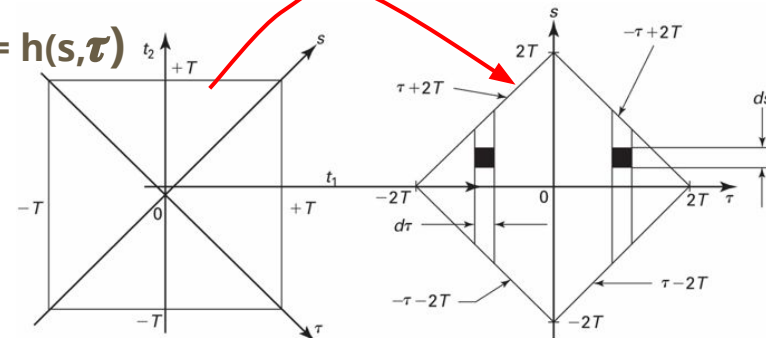
- Define coordinated $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{t}_1 + \mathbf{t}_2$ and $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{t}_1 - \mathbf{t}_2 \rightarrow \mathbf{t}_1 = (\mathbf{s} + \boldsymbol{\tau})/2$ and $\mathbf{t}_2 = (\mathbf{s} - \boldsymbol{\tau})/2$

- Obtained by 45° rotation of t_1-t_2 coordinate system
- The Jacobian for the transform $\mathbf{t}_1 = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$ and $\mathbf{t}_2 = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$

$$\frac{\partial(t_1, t_2)}{\partial(s, \tau)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial t_1}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial t_1}{\partial \tau} \\ \frac{\partial t_2}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial t_2}{\partial \tau} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}$$

The area of integration in the t_1-t_2 plane changes to the diamond shape in the $\mathbf{s}-\boldsymbol{\tau}$ plane.

Then, the line $t_2 = T$ becomes $(s-\tau)/2 = T \rightarrow s = \tau + 2T$ (red arrow)



...contd

- The integral then becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{4T} \iint_{\phi} R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau ds &= \frac{1}{4T} \left\{ \int_{-2T}^0 R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} \left[\int_{-(2T+\tau)}^{2T+\tau} ds \right] d\tau \right\} \\ &+ \frac{1}{4T} \left\{ \int_0^{2T} R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} \left[\int_{-(2T-\tau)}^{2T-\tau} ds \right] d\tau \right\} = \int_{-2T}^{+2T} \left[1 - \frac{|\tau|}{2T} \right] R_{XX}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau \end{aligned}$$

- In the limit $T \rightarrow +\infty$ the integral tends to the def. of PSD

$$S_{XX}(\omega) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} E \left[|FT\{X_T(t)\}|^2 \right]$$

- Therefore, $S_{XX}(\omega)$ is real and non-negative and specifies average power at frequency ω . **See examples 9.5-3, 9.5-4**

- **Theorem:** If $X(t)$ is stationary with $R_{XX}(\tau)$ and psd $S_{XX}(\omega)$, then $S_{XX}(\omega) \geq 0$ and for all $\omega_2 > \omega_1$, $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\omega_1}^{\omega_2} S_{XX}(\omega) d\omega$ the average power in the band (ω_1, ω_2)

- Define a filter with $H(\omega) \triangleq \begin{cases} 1, & \omega \in (\omega_1, \omega_2) \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

- Then when $X(t)$ passes through the filter $S_{YY}(\omega) = \begin{cases} S_{XX}(\omega), & \omega \in (\omega_1, \omega_2) \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$

- Then the average output power of $Y(t)$ is $E[|Y(t)|^2] = R_{YY}(0)$ (This is autocorrelation at 0 shift)

$$R_{YY}(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_{YY}(\omega) d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\omega_1}^{\omega_2} S_{XX}(\omega) d\omega \geq 0$$

Periodic Process

Definition — A random process $X(t)$ is wide-sense periodic if there is a $T > 0$ such that

$$\mu_X(t) = \mu_X(t + T) \text{ for all } t$$

and

$$K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = K_{XX}(t_1 + T, t_2) = K_{XX}(t_1, t_2 + T) \text{ for all } t_1, t_2$$

The smallest such T is called the period. Note that $K_{XX}(t_1, t_2)$ is then periodic with period T along both axes.

- The random complex exponential is an example of Periodic process

(A random complex exponential.) Let $X(t) \triangleq A \exp(j2\pi ft)$ with f a known real constant and A a real-valued random variable with mean $E[A] = 0$ and finite average power $E[A^2]$.

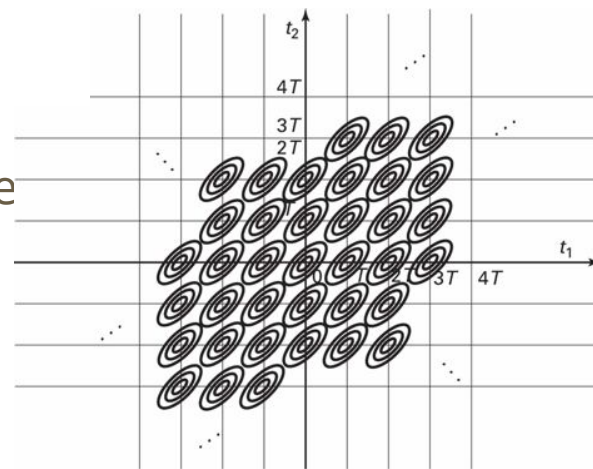
Calculating the mean and correlation of $X(t)$, we obtain

$$E[X(t)] = E[A \exp(j2\pi ft)] = E[A] \exp(j2\pi ft) = 0$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} E[X(t + \tau)X^*(t)] &= E[A \exp(j2\pi f(t + \tau))A \exp(-j2\pi ft)] \\ &= E[A^2] \exp(j2\pi f\tau) = R_{XX}(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

- A periodic process can also be WSS (like above) are called **wide-sense periodic stationary**.
- $K_{XX}(t_1, t_2)$ is doubly periodic with a two dimensional period of (T, T)



Cyclostationarity Process

Definition — A random process $X(t)$ is wide-sense cyclostationary if there exists a positive value T such that

$$\mu_X(t) = \mu_X(t + T) \text{ for all } t$$

$$K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = K_{XX}(t_1 + T, t_2 + T) \text{ for all } t_1 \text{ and } t_2$$

- The covariance function is shift invariant both of its arguments
- **It means statistics are periodic but not the process itself**
- Typically modulated communication signals possess this property.

Consider a random amplitude sinusoid with period T :

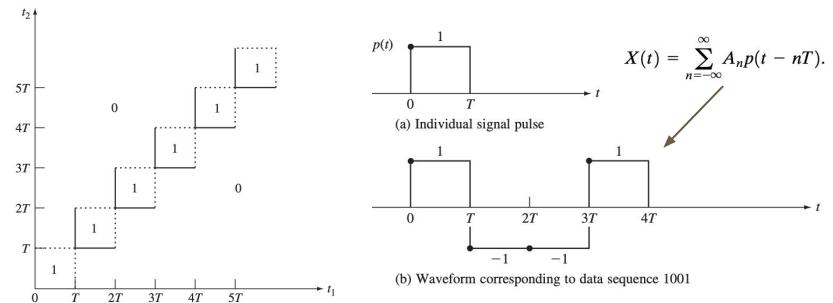
$$X(t) = A \cos(2\pi t/T).$$

Is $X(t)$ cyclostationary? wide-sense cyclostationary?

Consider the joint cdf for the time samples t_1, \dots, t_k :

$$\begin{aligned} P[X(t_1) \leq x_1, X(t_2) \leq x_2, \dots, X(t_k) \leq x_k] \\ &= P[A \cos(2\pi t_1/T) \leq x_1, \dots, A \cos(2\pi t_k/T) \leq x_k] \\ &= P[A \cos(2\pi(t_1 + mT)/T) \leq x_1, \dots, A \cos(2\pi(t_k + mT)/T) \leq x_k] \\ &= P[X(t_1 + mT) \leq x_1, X(t_2 + mT) \leq x_2, \dots, X(t_k + mT) \leq x_k]. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $X(t)$ is a cyclostationary random process and hence also a wide-sense cyclostationary process.



The mean of $X(t)$ is

$$\mu_X(t) = E\left[\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n p(t - nT)\right] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} E[A_n] p(t - nT) = 0$$

since $E[A_n] = 0$. The autocovariance function is

$$\begin{aligned} C_X(t_1, t_2) &= E[X(t_1)X(t_2)] - 0 \\ &= \begin{cases} E[X(t_1)^2] = 1 & \text{if } nT \leq t_1, t_2 < (n+1)T \\ E[X(t_1)]E[X(t_2)] = 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Figure 1.1 shows the autocovariance function in terms of t_1 and t_2 . It is clear that $C_X(t_1 + mT, t_2 + mT) = C_X(t_1, t_2)$ for all integers m . Therefore the process is wide-sense cyclostationary.