

## Random processes



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# Outline

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- Random processes
- Mean and autocorrelation functions

# Random processes

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A random process (RP) (or stochastic process) is an infinite indexed collection of random variables  $\{X(t) : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$ , defined over a common probability space

- The index parameter  $t$  is typically time, but can also be others (e.g. a spatial dimension)
- RPs are used to model random experiments that evolve in time
  - Received sequence/waveform at the output of a communication channel
  - Packet arrival times at a node in a communication network
  - Scores of an NBA team in consecutive games
  - Daily price of a stock
  - Winnings or losses of a gambler

# Two ways to view a random process

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A random process can be viewed as a function  $X(t, \omega)$  of two variables, time  $t \in \mathcal{T}$  and the outcome of the underlying random experiment  $\omega \in \Omega$

- For fixed  $t$ ,  $X(t, \omega)$  is a random variable over  $\Omega$
- For fixed  $\omega$ ,  $X(t, \omega)$  is a deterministic function of  $t$ , called a **sample function**

# Discrete time random process

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A random process is said to be *discrete time* if  $\mathcal{T}$  is a countably infinite set, e.g.,

- $\mathcal{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- $\mathcal{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, \dots\}$
- In this case the process is denoted by  $X_n$ , for  $n \in \mathcal{N}$ , a countably infinite set, and is simply an infinite sequence of random variables
- A sample function for a discrete time process is also called a **sample path**

# Continuous time random process

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A random process is *continuous time* if  $\mathcal{T}$  is a continuous set

- Example: sinusoidal signal with random phase

$$X(t) = \alpha \cos(\omega t + \Theta), \quad t \geq 0$$

where  $\Theta \sim \text{Unif}[0, 2\pi]$ , and  $\alpha$  and  $\omega$  are constants

# Specifying a random process

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- We can specify the random process by describing the set of sample functions (sequences, paths) and explicitly providing a probability measure over the set of events (subsets of sample functions)
- This way of specifying a random process has very limited applicability, and is suited only for very simple processes

# Specifying a random process

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- Alternatively, one can specify a random process (directly or indirectly) by specifying all its  $n$ -th order cdfs (pdfs, pmfs), i.e., the joint cdf (pdf, pmf) of the samples

$$X(t_1), X(t_2), \dots, X(t_n)$$

for every order  $n$  and for every set of  $n$  points  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathcal{T}$



# Important classes of random processes

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**I.I.D. process:**  $\{X_n : n \in \mathcal{N}\}$  is an i.i.d. process if the r.v.s  $X_n$  are i.i.d.

- Example (Bernoulli process):  $\{X_n : n \in \mathcal{N}\}$  i.i.d.  $\sim \text{Bern}(p)$
- Example (discrete-time white Gaussian noise):  $X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots$  i.i.d. Gaussian
- Here we specified the  $n$ -th order PMFs (PDFs) of the processes by specifying the first-order PMF (PDF) and stating that the r.v.s are independent

# Random walk

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- Let  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n, \dots$  be i.i.d., where

$$Z_n = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{with prob. } \frac{1}{2} \\ -1 & \text{with prob. } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

- The random walk process is defined by

$$X_0 = 0$$

$$X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i, \quad n \geq 1$$

- The sample path for a random walk is a sequence of integers, e.g.,

$$0, +1, 0, -1, -2, -3, -4, \dots$$

or

$$0, +1, +2, +3, +4, +3, +4, +3, +4, \dots$$

# Markov processes

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- A discrete-time random process  $X_n$  is said to be a Markov process if the process future and past are conditionally independent given its present value
- Mathematically this can be rephrased in several ways. For example, if the r.v.s  $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$  are discrete, then the process is Markov iff

$$p_{X_{n+1}|\mathbf{X}_1^n}(x_{n+1}|x_n, \mathbf{x}_1^{n-1}) = p_{X_{n+1}|X_n}(x_{n+1}|x_n)$$

for every  $n$

# Markov processes

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- I.I.D. processes are Markov
- Random walk is Markov. To see this, observe that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}\{X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | \mathbf{X}^n = \mathbf{x}^n\} &= \mathbb{P}\{X_n + Z_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | \mathbf{X}^n = \mathbf{x}^n\} \\ &= \mathbb{P}\{X_n + Z_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n\} \\ &= \mathbb{P}\{X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n\}\end{aligned}$$

# Independent increment processes

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- A discrete-time random process  $\{X_n : n \geq 0\}$  is said to be independent increment if the increment random variables

$$X_{n_1}, X_{n_2} - X_{n_1}, \dots, X_{n_k} - X_{n_{k-1}}$$

are independent for all sequences of indices such that

$$n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k$$

- Example: Random walk is an independent increment process because

$$X_{n_1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} Z_i, \quad X_{n_2} - X_{n_1} = \sum_{i=n_1+1}^{n_2} Z_i, \quad \dots, \quad X_{n_k} - X_{n_{k-1}} = \sum_{i=n_{k-1}+1}^{n_k} Z_i$$

are independent because they are functions of independent random vectors

# Independent increment processes

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- The independent increment property makes it easy to find the  $n$ -th order pmfs of a random walk process from knowledge only of the first-order pmf
- Example: Find  $\mathbb{P}\{X_5 = 3, X_{10} = 6, X_{20} = 10\}$  for random walk process  $\{X_n\}$

Solution: We use the independent increment property as follows

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}\{X_5 = 3, X_{10} = 6, X_{20} = 10\} \\&= \mathbb{P}\{X_5 = 3, X_{10} - X_5 = 3, X_{20} - X_{10} = 4\} \\&= \mathbb{P}\{X_5 = 3\} \mathbb{P}\{X_5 = 3\} \mathbb{P}\{X_{10} = 4\} \\&= \binom{5}{4} 2^{-5} \binom{5}{4} 2^{-5} \binom{10}{7} 2^{-10} = 3000 \cdot 2^{-20}\end{aligned}$$

# Independent increment processes

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- In general if a process is independent increment, then it is also Markov. To see this let  $X_n$  be an independent increment process and define

$$\Delta \mathbf{X}_1^n = [X_1, X_2 - X_1, \dots, X_n - X_{n-1}]^\top$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_{X_{n+1}|\mathbf{X}_1^n}(x_{n+1} | \mathbf{x}_1^n) \\ &= \mathbb{P}\{X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} \mid \mathbf{X}_1^n = \mathbf{x}_1^n\} \\ &= \mathbb{P}\{X_{n+1} - X_n + X_n = x_{n+1} \mid \Delta \mathbf{X}_1^n = \Delta \mathbf{x}_1^n, X_n = x_n\} \\ &= \mathbb{P}\{X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} \mid X_n = x_n\} \end{aligned}$$

- The converse is not necessarily true, e.g. I.I.D. processes are Markov but not independent increment

# Independent increment processes

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- The independent increment property can be extended to continuous-time processes:

A process  $X(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , is said to be independent increment if  $X(t_1)$ ,  $X(t_2) - X(t_1)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $X(t_k) - X(t_{k-1})$  are independent for every  $0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_k$  and every  $k \geq 2$

- Markovity can also be extended to continuous-time processes:

A process  $X(t)$  is said to be Markov if  $X(t_{k+1})$  and  $(X(t_1), \dots, X(t_{k-1}))$  are conditionally independent given  $X(t_k)$  for every  $0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_k < t_{k+1}$  and every  $k \geq 3$



# Counting processes

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A continuous-time random process  $N(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , is said to be a counting process if  $N(0) = 0$  and  $N(t) = n$ ,  $n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , is the number of events from 0 to  $t$  (hence  $N(t_2) \geq N(t_1)$  for every  $t_2 > t_1 \geq 0$ )

- The events may be:
  - Photon arrivals at an optical detector
  - Packet arrivals at a router
  - Student arrivals at a class

# Poisson process

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The Poisson process is a *counting process* in which the events are “independent of each other”

More precisely,  $N(t)$  is a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda > 0$  if

- $N(0) = 0$
- $N(t)$  is independent increment
- $(N(t_2) - N(t_1)) \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda(t_2 - t_1))$  for all  $t_2 > t_1 \geq 0$

# Poisson process

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To find the  $k$ th order PMF, we use the independent increment property

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P}\{N(t_1) = n_1, N(t_2) = n_2, \dots, N(t_k) = n_k\} \\ &= \mathbb{P}\{N(t_1) = n_1, N(t_2) - N(t_1) = n_2 - n_1, \dots, \\ &\quad N(t_k) - N(t_{k-1}) = n_k - n_{k-1}\} \\ &= p_{N(t_1)}(n_1) p_{N(t_2)-N(t_1)}(n_2 - n_1) \dots p_{N(t_k)-N(t_{k-1})}(n_k - n_{k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

# Poisson process

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- **Merging:** The sum of independent Poisson process is Poisson.
- **Branching:** Let  $N(t)$  be a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$ . We split  $N(t)$  into two counting subprocesses  $N_1(t)$  and  $N_2(t)$  such that  $N(t) = N_1(t) + N_2(t)$  as follows
  - Each event is randomly and independently assigned to process  $N_1(t)$  with probability  $p$ , otherwise it is assigned to  $N_2(t)$
  - Then  $N_1(t)$  is a Poisson process with rate  $p\lambda$  and  $N_2(t)$  is a Poisson process with rate  $(1 - p)\lambda$

# Mean and autocorrelation functions

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- For a random vector  $\mathbf{X}$  the first and second order moments are
  - mean  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}]$
  - correlation matrix  $R_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top}]$
- For a random process  $X(t)$  the first and second order moments are
  - mean function:  $\mu_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[X(t)]$  for  $t \in \mathcal{T}$
  - autocorrelation function:  $R_X(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[X(t_1)X(t_2)]$  for  $t_1, t_2 \in \mathcal{T}$

# Autocovariance function

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- The autocovariance function of a random process is defined as

$$C_X(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E} [(X(t_1) - \mathbb{E}[X(t_1)])(X(t_2) - \mathbb{E}[X(t_2)])]$$

The autocovariance function can be expressed using the mean and autocorrelation functions as

$$C_X(t_1, t_2) = R_X(t_1, t_2) - \mu_X(t_1)\mu_X(t_2)$$

## Example: I.I.D. process

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I.I.D. process  $\{X_n : n \geq 0\}$

$$\mu_X(n) = \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

$$R_X(n_1, n_2) = \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1} X_{n_2}] = \begin{cases} \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] & n_1 = n_2 \\ (\mathbb{E}[X_1])^2 & n_1 \neq n_2 \end{cases}$$

## Example: random phase signal process

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Random phase signal process:  $X(t) = \alpha \cos(\omega t + \Theta)$  with  $\Theta \sim \text{Unif}(0, 2\pi)$

$$\mu_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[\alpha \cos(\omega t + \Theta)] = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \cos(\omega t + \theta) d\theta = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_X(t_1, t_2) &= \mathbb{E}[X(t_1)X(t_2)] \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\alpha^2}{2\pi} \cos(\omega t_1 + \theta) \cos(\omega t_2 + \theta) d\theta \\ &\stackrel{(i)}{=} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\alpha^2}{4\pi} [\cos(\omega(t_1 + t_2) + 2\theta) + \cos(\omega(t_1 - t_2))] d\theta \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{\alpha^2}{2} \cos(\omega(t_1 - t_2))}_{\text{depends only on time difference}} \end{aligned}$$

where (i) follows from the trigonometric identity

$$\cos \alpha \cos \beta = \frac{1}{2} \cos(\alpha + \beta) + \frac{1}{2} \cos(\alpha - \beta)$$



## Example: random walk

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Random walk:  $X_i = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$  with  $Z_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{with prob. } 0.5 \\ -1, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$$\mu_X(n) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n 0 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_X(n_1, n_2) &= \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1} X_{n_2}] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1} (X_{n_2} - X_{n_1} + X_{n_1})] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2] = n_1 \quad \text{assuming } n_2 \geq n_1 \\ &= \min\{n_1, n_2\} \quad \text{in general} \end{aligned}$$

## Example: Poisson process

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Poisson process  $N(t)$  with rate  $\lambda$

$$\mu_N(t) = \lambda t$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_N(t_1, t_2) &= \mathbb{E}[N(t_1)N(t_2)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[N(t_1)(N(t_2) - N(t_1) + N(t_1))] \\ &= \lambda t_1 \times \lambda(t_2 - t_1) + \lambda t_1 + \lambda^2 t_1^2 \quad \text{assuming } t_2 \geq t_1 \\ &= \lambda t_1 + \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 \quad \text{assuming } t_2 \geq t_1 \\ &= \lambda \min\{t_1, t_2\} + \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 \end{aligned}$$

# Gaussian random processes

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- A Gaussian random process (GRP) is a random process  $X(t)$  such that

$$[X(t_1), X(t_2), \dots, X(t_n)]^\top$$

is a GRV for all  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathcal{T}$

- Since the joint PDF for a GRV is specified by its mean and covariance matrix, a GRP is specified by its mean  $\mu_X(t)$  and autocorrelation  $R_X(t_1, t_2)$  functions

# Gauss-Markov process

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Let  $Z_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , be an i.i.d. process with  $Z_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

The Gauss-Markov process is a first-order autoregressive process defined by

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= Z_1 \\ X_n &= \alpha X_{n-1} + Z_n, \quad n > 1, \end{aligned}$$

where  $|\alpha| < 1$

# Gauss-Markov process

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This process is a GRP, since  $X_1 = Z_1$  and  $X_k = \alpha X_{k-1} + Z_k$  where  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots$  are i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \alpha^{n-2} & \alpha^{n-3} & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ \alpha^{n-1} & \alpha^{n-2} & \cdots & \alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ Z_2 \\ Z_3 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is a linear transformation of a GRV and is therefore a GRV

# Gauss Markov process

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## Mean functions:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_X(n) &= \mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[\alpha X_{n-1} + Z_n] \\ &= \alpha \mathbb{E}[X_{n-1}] + \mathbb{E}[Z_n] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[X_{n-1}] = \alpha^{n-1} \mathbb{E}[Z_1] = 0\end{aligned}$$

# Gauss Markov process

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**Autocorrelation function:** for  $n_2 > n_1$  we write

$$X_{n_2} = \alpha^{n_2-n_1} X_{n_1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n_2-n_1-1} \alpha^i Z_{n_2-i}$$

Thus

$$R_X(n_1, n_2) = \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1} X_{n_2}] = \alpha^{n_2-n_1} \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2] + 0,$$

since  $X_{n_1}$  and  $Z_{n_2-i}$  are independent, zero mean for  
 $0 \leq i \leq n_2 - n_1 - 1$

Next, to find  $\mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2]$ , consider

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X_1^2] &= \sigma^2 \\ \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2] &= \mathbb{E}[(\alpha X_{n_1-1} + Z_{n_1})^2] = \alpha^2 \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1-1}^2] + \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

# Gauss Markov process

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Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2] - \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \alpha^2} &= \alpha^2 \left( \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1-1}^2] - \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \alpha^2} \right) \\ \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2] - \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \alpha^2} &= (\alpha^2)^{n_1-1} \left( \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] - \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \alpha^2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

A little algebra gives

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n_1}^2] = \frac{1 - \alpha^{2n_1}}{1 - \alpha^2} \sigma^2$$

Finally the autocorrelation function is

$$R_X(n_1, n_2) = \alpha^{|n_2 - n_1|} \frac{1 - \alpha^{2\min\{n_1, n_2\}}}{1 - \alpha^2} \sigma^2$$



# Reference

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- [1] "*Lecture notes for Statistical Signal Processing*," A. El Gamal.