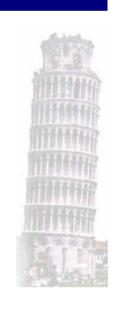
STATISTICAL SIGNAL PROCESSING



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Course Outline

COURSE OUTLINE

- Discrete representation of continuous-time signals
- Introduction to discrete-time random processes
- Estimation of deterministic parameters
- Estimation of random parameters (Bayesian estimation)
- Modeling and identification of discrete-time random processes
- Smoothing, filtering, and prediction of random signals
- Power spectrum estimation (parametric and nonparametric)
- Basic concepts of Time-Frequency Analysis

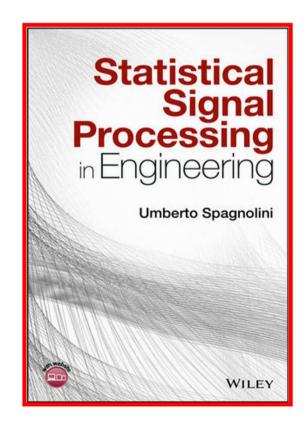
EXAM OPERATING METHOD

- Written and oral exam
- Exam enrollment: on-line via the website <u>esami.unipi.it</u>



Course Textbooks

- COURSE TEXTBOOKS:
- U. Spagnolini: *Statistical Signal Processing in Engineering, Wiley.* ISBN: 978-1-119-29397-2. First published:15 December 2017.
- Material provided by the instructor (vugraphs + Matlab code)

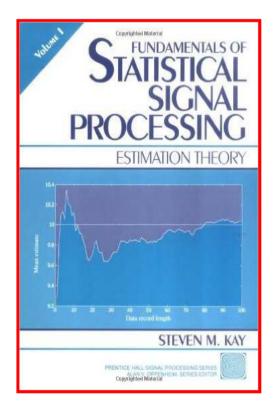


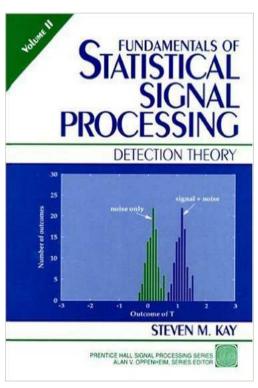


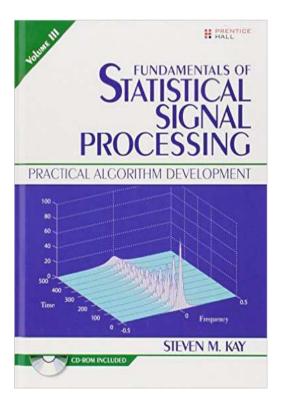
Course Textbooks

■ COURSE TEXTBOOKS:

S. Kay: Fundamentals of Statistical Signal Processing, Volume 1: Estimation Theory, Prentice Hall, 1993.







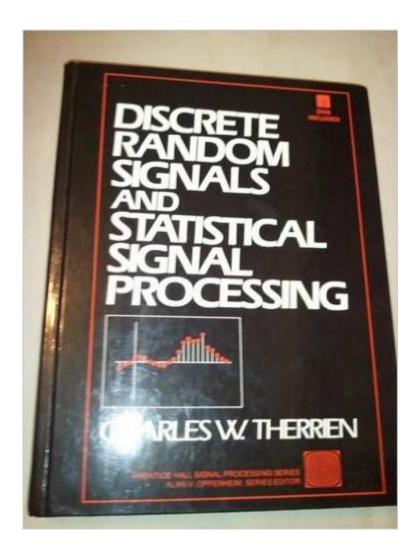


Course Textbooks

- ANOTHER EXCELLENT BOOK:
- Charles. W. Therrien:

Discrete Random Signals and Statistical Signal Processing

Prentice Hall, 1992.







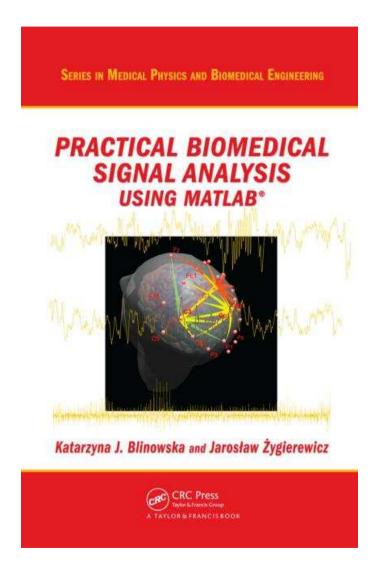
For further studies

- **FOR FURTHER STUDIES:**
- Katarzyn J. Blinowska, Jaroslaw Zygierewicz

Practical Biomedical Signal Analysis Using MATLAB®

2011, CRC Press

Series: <u>Series in Medical Physics</u> and Biomedical Engineering







- A signal is a physical quantity that can carry information.
- Physical and biological signals may be classified as <u>deterministic</u> or <u>stochastic</u>. The stochastic signal contrary to the deterministic one cannot be described by a mathematical function.

Examples of biomedical signals:

- electroencephalogram (EEG), electrocorticogram (ECoG), eventrelated potential (ERP), electrocardiogram (ECG), heart rate variability signal (HRV), electromyograms (EMG), electroenterograms (EEnG), and electrogastrograms (EGG).
- Magnetic fields connected with the activity of brain (MEG) and heart (MCG).
- Acoustic signals: phonocardiograms (PCG) and otoacoustic emissions (OAE).



- In nature, most of the signals of interest are some physical values changing in time and/or space.
- These signals are continuous in time and in space.
- On the other hand, we use computers to store and analyze the data.
- To adapt the natural continuous data to the digital computer systems <u>we need</u> to digitize them.
- The most typical way to achieve this is to **sample** the physical values in certain moments in time and places in space and assign them a numeric value with a finite precision.
- Analog-to-Digital Conversion (ADC) is made of two processes:
 - **sampling** (selecting discrete moments in time), and
 - **quantization** (assigning a value of finite precision to an amplitude).

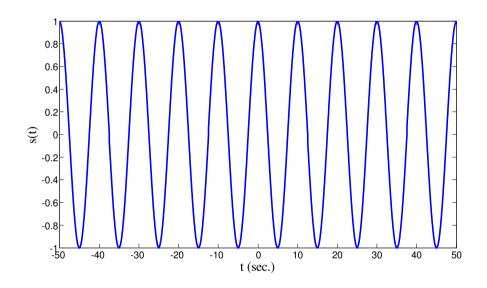


Example: sinusoidal signal

Analytical expression:

$$s(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}$$

Graphical representation:



Fourier Analysis: Discrete representation (in the frequency domain) of a <u>finite-power periodic continuous-time signal</u> is possible by resorting to the Fourier Series (FS):

$$s(t) \stackrel{FS}{\Leftrightarrow} S_k, \qquad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$



■ Discrete representation of a continuous-time signal, periodic of T_0 , having finite power P_s , is possible by resorting to the **Fourier Series**:

$$s(t) = s(t - T_0) \quad \forall t, \quad P_s \triangleq \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} |s(t)|^2 dt < +\infty$$

Synthesis Equation

Analysis Equation

$$S(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} S_k \cdot e^{j2\pi \frac{k}{T_0}t} \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad S_k = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} S(t) \cdot e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{T_0}t} dt$$

■ The Fourier Series (FS) S_k provides a (frequency-domain) discrete representation of the continuous-time signal s(t).



- We can use this discrete representation to calculate some signal parameters of interest (**Bessel-Parseval formula**):
- Power of s(t): $P_s \triangleq \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} |s(t)|^2 dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} |S_k|^2$
- Cross-power between s(t) and x(t): $P_{sx} \triangleq \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} s(t) x^*(t) dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} S_k X_k^*$
- Angle between s(t) and x(t):

$$\theta \triangleq Angle(s(t), x(t)) \rightarrow \cos \theta \triangleq \frac{\text{Re}\{P_{sx}\}}{\sqrt{P_s P_x}} \in [-1, 1]$$

- $\cos \theta = 0 \ (P_{sx} = 0) \rightarrow s(t) \ \text{and} \ x(t) \ \text{are orthogonal}$
- $\cos \theta = \pm 1 \rightarrow s(t)$ and x(t) are **colinear**



- If the signal is bandlimited, the number of non-zero coefficients is finite.
- As an example:

$$s(t) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_0 t + \theta\right) \quad \stackrel{FS}{\Leftrightarrow} \quad S_k = \begin{cases} \frac{A}{2}e^{j\theta}, & k = 1\\ \frac{A}{2}e^{-j\theta}, & k = -1\\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

Power of s(t): $P_s = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} |s(t)|^2 dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} |S_k|^2 = 2\left(\frac{A}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{A^2}{2}$

Bessel-Parseval equality



The Fourier Series representation is also useful to find the output y(t) of a **linear time-invariant (LTI) system** when the input is a finite-power periodic signal s(t):

$$y(t) = s(t) \otimes h(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad Y_k = S_k \cdot H\left(\frac{k}{T_0}\right)$$
 convolution integral algebraic product

- h(t) = impulse response of the LTI system
- \vdash H(f) = FT[h(t)] frequency response of the LTI system



- Another example of discrete representation: **bandlimited finite-energy aperiodic signals**.
- We know from the Sampling Theorem (Shannon Theorem, 1949) that signals in this class can be represented in terms of its temporal samples via the following Whittaker-Shannon interpolation formula:

$$s(t) = 2BT_c \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} s(kT_c) \cdot \operatorname{sinc}(2B(t-kT_c)), \text{ where } \operatorname{sinc}(x) \triangleq \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi x}$$

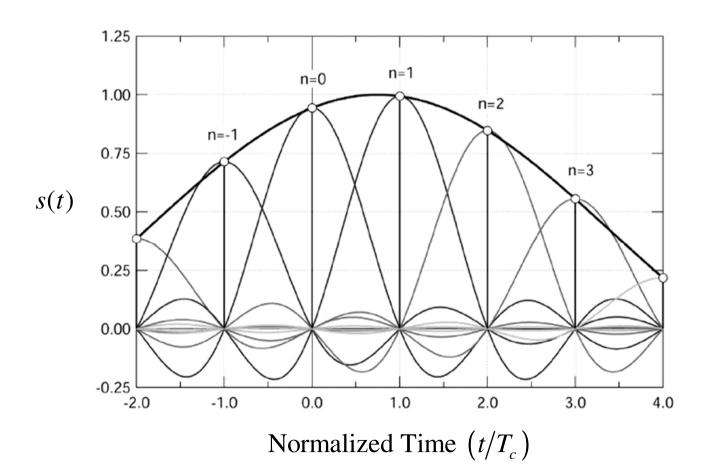
- \blacksquare B is the bandwidth of s(t) and T_c is the sampling interval.
- Perfect reconstruction of the signal s(t) in terms of its samples is possible <u>if and only if</u> sampling satisfies the **Nyquist condition**: $T_c \le 1/(2B)$.

$$s(t) \iff s(kT_c)$$

$$t \in \mathbb{R} \qquad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

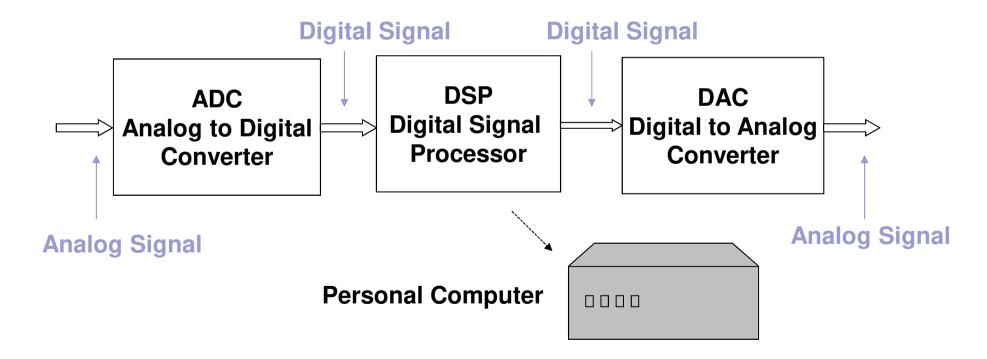


$$s(t) = 2BT_c \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} s(kT_c) \cdot \operatorname{sinc}(2B(t - kT_c)), \quad T_c = \frac{1}{2B}$$





- Discrete representation of continuous-time signals.
- Discrete representation is useful for storing and processing the signals of interest → processing can be done digitally, by using a dedicated microprocessor, i.e. a **Digital Signal Processor (DSP)**.





Note that in both cases, the signal of interest is represented as a <u>linear</u> combination of some predefined continuous-time functions (**signal expansion**):

$$s(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_k \cdot \varphi_k(t)$$

For finite-power periodic signals:

$$S_k \triangleq S_k = FS\{s(t)\}, \quad \varphi_k(t) \triangleq e^{j2\pi \frac{k}{T_0}t}, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

For bandlimited finite-energy aperiodic signals:

$$s_k \triangleq \frac{2BT_c}{\sqrt{2B}} s(kT_c), \quad \varphi_k(t) \triangleq \sqrt{2B} \operatorname{sinc}(2B(t-kT_c)), \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$



■ This approach can be generalized beyond the FS or the Sampling Theorem results: **Generalized Fourier Analysis** or **Basis Expansion**, sometimes called **Karhunen-Loéve (KL) Expansion** or **Karhunen-Loéve Transform (KLT)**:

$$s(t) = \sum_{k = -\infty}^{+\infty} s_k \cdot \varphi_k(t) \quad \stackrel{Basis}{\iff} \quad s_k$$

$$t \in \mathbb{R} \qquad \qquad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

- The $\{\phi_k(t)\}$'s are a set of predefined deterministic continuous-time signals called "basis" (or dictionary). Usually (but not always), they are orthonormal functions.
- The discrete representation of the continuous-time signal s(t) is provided by the so-called **image** vector **s** (in general, infinite dimensional), whose components are the discrete values $\{s_k\}$, i.e. the coefficients of the linear combination:

$$s(t) \stackrel{Basis}{\iff} \mathbf{s} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdots & s_{-1} & s_0 & s_1 & \cdots \end{bmatrix}^T$$
 image vector



If the $\{\phi_k(t)\}$'s are **orthonormal functions**, i.e.

$$\|\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{k}(t)\|_{2} = \sqrt{\left(\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{k}(t), \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{k}(t)\right)} = 1, \qquad \left(\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{k}(t), \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{i}(t)\right) = \delta_{k,i} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = i \\ 0, & k \neq i \end{cases}$$

→ the elements of the **image** vector **s** can be derived as the **scalar product** (orthogonal projection) between the signal and the base functions:

$$s_k = (s(t), \varphi_k(t)), \forall k$$

For example, for **finite energy signals**, the scalar product can be defined as the cross-energy between the two signals and the Euclidean norm induced by the scalar product is the square root of the energy:

$$(s(t), x(t)) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)x^{*}(t)dt = E_{sx}, \qquad ||s(t)||_{2} \triangleq \sqrt{(s(t), s(t))} = \sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |s(t)|^{2}} dt = \sqrt{E_{s}}$$



Once we have defined the **scalar product** and the **norm** (induced by the scalar product), we can also define a **distance** between two signals:

$$d(s(t), x(t)) \triangleq ||s(t) - x(t)||_2 = \sqrt{(s(t) - x(t), s(t) - x(t))}$$

For **finite power periodic signals**, the scalar product can be defined as the cross-power between the two signals and the Euclidean norm induced by the scalar product is the square root of the power:

$$(s(t), x(t)) \triangleq \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} s(t) x^*(t) dt = P_{sx}$$

$$||s(t)||_2 \triangleq \sqrt{(s(t), s(t))} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} |s(t)|^2 dt} = \sqrt{P_s}$$

$$d(s(t), x(t)) \triangleq ||s(t) - x(t)||_2 = \sqrt{(s(t) - x(t), s(t) - x(t))}$$



- **Proof** of the result: $s_k = (s(t), \varphi_k(t)), \forall k$
- Assumption: the $\{\varphi_k(t)\}$'s are orthonormal functions: $(\varphi_i(t), \varphi_k(t)) = \delta_{i,k}$

$$(s(t), \varphi_k(t)) = \left(\sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i \cdot \varphi_i(t), \varphi_k(t)\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i \cdot (\varphi_i(t), \varphi_k(t))$$

$$= \sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i \cdot \delta_{i,k}$$

$$= s_k$$

This proof makes use of the known property of the scalar product that:

$$(a \cdot s(t) + b \cdot q(t), \varphi_{k}(t)) = a \cdot (s(t), \varphi_{k}(t)) + b \cdot (q(t), \varphi_{k}(t))$$



- Important: if the signals are expanded on an orthonormal basis, the scalar product between two signals and their norms can be obtained by processing the image vectors as well.
- Proof:

$$s(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_k \cdot \varphi_k(t), \quad x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_k \cdot \varphi_k(t)$$

$$(s(t), x(t)) = \left(\sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i \cdot \varphi_i(t), \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_k \cdot \varphi_k(t)\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i x_k^* \cdot (\varphi_i(t), \varphi_k(t))$$

$$= \sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i x_k^* \delta_{i,k}$$

$$= \sum_{i=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_i x_i^* = \mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{s} \equiv \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{x} \equiv (\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x})$$



Hence, whatever is the definition of scalar product we adopt, we have:

$$(s(t), x(t)) = (\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x})$$

If we assume x(t)=s(t), we also get:

$$\|s(t)\|_2^2 = (s(t), s(t)) = (\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{s}^H \mathbf{s} = \|\mathbf{s}\|_2^2$$

- In summary: if the signals are expanded on an orthonormal basis, the scalar product between two signals and their norms can be obtained by processing the image vectors instead of processing the continuous-time signals.
- The Bessel-Parseval equality for the Fourier series is a particular case of this result:

$$||s(t)||_{2}^{2} = \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{-T_{0}/2}^{T_{0}/2} |s(t)|^{2} dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} |S_{k}|^{2} = ||\mathbf{s}||_{2}^{2}$$



- In all practical applications, we observe the signal on a <u>limited time interval</u>.
- If we assume as t=0 the initial observation time and we denote by T the length of the observation interval, we have that the signal is of finite duration T and we are interested on the discrete representation of s(t) for $t \in [0,T)$.
- \blacksquare Since the signal has finite duration T, its energy is finite, but the bandwidth is theoretically infinite, e.g.

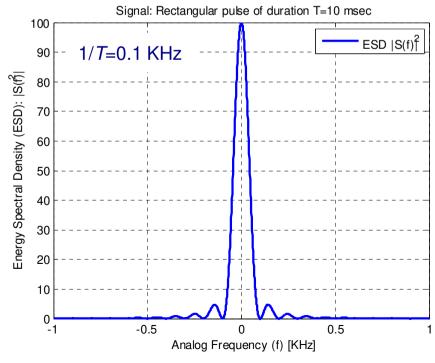
$$s(t) = A \cdot rect \left(\frac{t - T/2}{T} \right)$$

$$\updownarrow$$

$$S(f) = AT \cdot \operatorname{sinc} \left(fT \right) e^{-j\pi fT}$$

Energy Spectral Density (ESD):

$$ESD(f) = |S(f)|^2 = A^2T^2 \cdot \operatorname{sinc}^2(fT)$$



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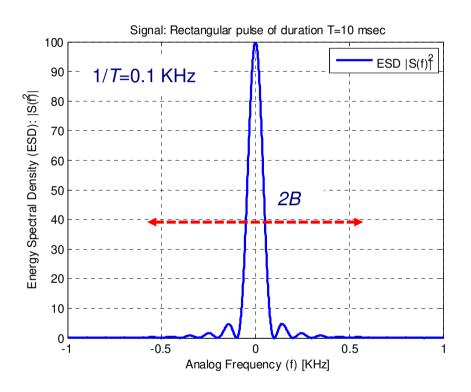
Energy of the signal:

$$E_{s} = \int_{0}^{T} |s(t)|^{2} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |S(f)|^{2} df$$

■ However, even if s(t) is theoretically infinite-bandwidth, most of the energy is contained within a limited bandwidth B:

$$E_{B} = \int_{-B}^{B} |S(f)|^{2} df = 2 \int_{0}^{B} |S(f)|^{2} df$$







To represent in discrete form a continuous-time signal observed in [0,T) we can apply the following result: It can be proved that if we choose B large enough, such that $N=T/T_c=2BT>>1$, then:

for
$$t \in [0,T)$$
 $\rightarrow s(t) \cong \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} s\left(\frac{k}{2B}\right) \cdot \operatorname{sinc}\left(2B\left(t - \frac{k}{2B}\right)\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} s_k \cdot \varphi_k(t)$

where:
$$\varphi_k(t) \triangleq \sqrt{2B} \operatorname{sinc}\left(2B\left(t - \frac{k}{2B}\right)\right), \quad s_k \triangleq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2B}} s\left(\frac{k}{2B}\right), \quad 0 \leq k \leq N - 1$$

Basis:
$$\Psi = \left\{ \varphi_k(t) = \sqrt{2B} \operatorname{sinc} \left(2B \left(t - \frac{k}{2B} \right) \right) \right\}_{k=0}^{N-1}, \quad \left(\varphi_k(t), \varphi_i(t) \right) = \delta_{k,i}$$

$$s(t) \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{s} = \begin{bmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & \cdots & s_{N-2} & s_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}^T$$



The approximation should be interpreted as follows → if we define the "error" signal as:

$$s_{\Delta}(t) \triangleq s(t) - \hat{s}(t) = s(t) - \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} s\left(\frac{k}{2B}\right) \cdot \operatorname{sinc}\left(2B\left(t - \frac{k}{2B}\right)\right)$$

$$E_s \triangleq \int_0^T |s(t)|^2 dt \quad \text{[Energy of } s(t)\text{]}$$

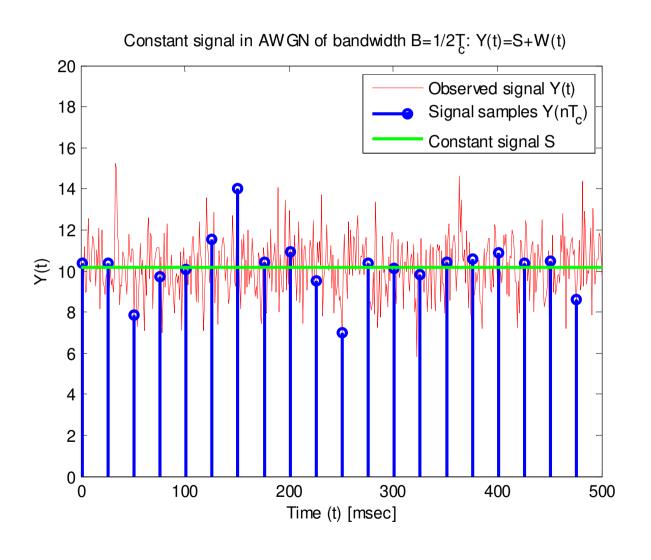
$$E_{\Delta} \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |s_{\Delta}(t)|^2 dt$$
 [Energy of $s_{\Delta}(t)$]

If B is large enough, such that
$$N = \frac{T}{T_c} = 2BT \gg 1$$

then $E_{\Delta} \le \alpha E_s$ with $\alpha \ll 1$

In this case, we say that X(t) has *essential* bandwidth B at level α and B is the *essential* bandwidth at level α of the signal X(t).





$$T = 500 m \text{sec}$$

$$T_c = \frac{1}{2B} = 25 m \text{sec}$$

$$N = 2BT = 20$$



The Discrete Karhunen-Loève Transform (DKLT)

The Discrete Karhunen-Loéve Transform (DKLT)



- The tendency nowadays is to sample the signal as soon as possible in the processing chain and perform all the processing digitally.
- If T is the observation interval and B the bandwidth of the signal (i.e of the antialiasing filter that is at the input of the Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC)), we have seen that if the sampling interval is such that $T_c \le 1/(2B)$ and $N = T/T_c >> 1$, then we have:

$$X(t) \cong 2BT_c \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(kT_c) \cdot \operatorname{sinc}(2B(t-kT_c)), \quad t \in [0,T)$$

$$\Psi = \left\{ \varphi_k(t) = \sqrt{2B} \operatorname{sinc} \left(2B \left(t - kT_c \right) \right) \right\}_{k=0}^{N-1}, \qquad N = \frac{T}{T_c}$$

$$X(t) \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{X} = \frac{2BT_c}{\sqrt{2B}} \left[X(0) X(T_c) \cdots X((N-1)T_c) \right]^T$$



If we select the **Nyquist sampling interval** $T_c = 1/(2B)$, we have:

$$\Psi = \left\{ \varphi_k(t) = \sqrt{2B} \operatorname{sinc} \left(2B \left(t - \frac{k}{2B} \right) \right) \right\}_{k=0}^{N-1}, \qquad N = \frac{T}{T_c} = 2BT$$

The finite-energy (because of the finite duration *N*) discrete-time signal we obtain by sampling is:

$$\mathbf{X} = [X[0] \ X[1] \ \cdots \ X[N-1]]^T$$
, where $X[n] \triangleq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2B}} X \left(\frac{n}{2B}\right)$

N=2BT>>1 is the dimension of the image vector **X** and we also say that *N* is the <u>dimension</u> of the continuous-time signal X(t).



In many cases, it can be useful to expand the discrete-time signal obtained by sampling into a set of deterministic <u>discrete-time orthonormal</u> <u>basis</u> functions as follows:

$$X[n] = \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \alpha_i \varphi_i[n], \qquad n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1; \quad K \le N$$

The basis is orthonormal if :
$$(\varphi_i[n], \varphi_k[n]) = \delta_{i,k} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = i \\ 0, & k \neq i \end{cases}$$
 inner product between two basis functions

Note that if K < N the expansion represents a **data compression**:

$$\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\Psi}{\Leftrightarrow} \mathbf{\alpha}$$
 $N \times 1 \qquad K \times 1$



In the case of finite duration *N*, *i.e.* finite-energy, discrete-time signals, the **inner product** and the induced **Euclidean norm** can be defined as follows:

$$(s[n], x[n]) \triangleq \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} s[n]x^*[n] = E_{sx} \quad (cross - energy)$$

$$||s[n]||_{2} \triangleq \sqrt{(s[n], s[n])} = \sqrt{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |s[n]|^{2}} = \sqrt{E_{s}} \quad (\sqrt{energy})$$

The coefficients in the expansion are derived as the inner product between X[n] and the basis functions:

$$\alpha_i = (X[n], \varphi_i[n]) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \varphi_i^*[n] = \varphi_i^H \mathbf{X}, \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots, K-1.$$



- **Proof** of the result: $\alpha_i = (X[n], \varphi_i[n]) \quad \forall k$
- Assumption: the $\{\varphi_k[n]\}$'s are orthonormal functions: $(\varphi_k[n], \varphi_i[n]) = \delta_{k,i}$

$$(X[n], \varphi_i[n]) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \varphi_i^*[n]$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \alpha_k \varphi_k[n] \varphi_i^*[n]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \alpha_k \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \varphi_k[n] \varphi_i^*[n]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \alpha_k \cdot (\varphi_k(t), \varphi_i(t))$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \alpha_k \cdot \delta_{k,i}$$

$$= \alpha_i$$



Problem: Which is the choice of the basis that makes the coefficients α_i uncorrelated? Remember that if X(t) is a random process the coefficients are r.v.'s.

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X[0] & X[1] & \cdots & X[N-1] \end{bmatrix}^T$$

 $N \times 1$

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_0 \ \alpha_1 \ \cdots \ \alpha_{K-1}]^T$$

 $K \times 1$

$$\mathbf{\phi}_i = \left[\boldsymbol{\varphi}_i[0] \ \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i[1] \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i[N-1] \right]^T$$

 $N\times 1$

$$\rightarrow (\varphi_k[n], \varphi_i[n]) = (\varphi_k, \varphi_i) = \varphi_i^H \varphi_k = \delta_{i,k}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi} = [\mathbf{\phi}_0 \quad \mathbf{\phi}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{\phi}_{K-1}], \quad \text{if } K = N \quad \to \text{unitary matrix} \quad \mathbf{\Phi}^{-1} = \mathbf{\Phi}^H$$



- Which is the choice of the basis that makes the coefficients α_i uncorrelated?
- Assume K=N and, without loss of generality, also that $E\{X[n]\}=0 \rightarrow E\{\alpha_i\}=0$.

$$X[n] = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \alpha_i \varphi_i[n], \qquad n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \alpha_i \varphi_i = \mathbf{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \mathbf{\Phi}^H \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{\Phi}^H \mathbf{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi} \colon E\left\{\boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{H}\right\} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{0}^{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{1}^{2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{N-1}^{2} \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \text{ where } \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{i}^{2} \triangleq E\left\{\left|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{i}\right|^{2}\right\}$$
and $E\left\{\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{i}\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{k}^{*}\right\} = 0 \text{ if } i \neq k$



$$\mathbf{\Phi}: \quad E\left\{\alpha\alpha^{H}\right\} = E\left\{\mathbf{\Phi}^{H}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{H}\mathbf{\Phi}\right\} = \mathbf{\Phi}^{H}E\left\{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{H}\right\}\mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{\Phi}^{H}\mathbf{R}_{X}\mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$$

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{\Phi}^H \mathbf{R}_X \mathbf{\Phi} \implies \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{\Phi}^H = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^H \mathbf{R}_X \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^H \implies \mathbf{R}_X = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{\Phi}^H$$

- Matrix Φ diagonalizes the correlation matrix \mathbf{R}_{χ} \rightarrow the basis that makes the coefficients uncorrelated is obtained from the **Eigenvector-Eigenvalue Decomposition (EVD)** of the correlation matrix \mathbf{R}_{χ} of the random vector $\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \Phi$ is formed by the eigenvectors of \mathbf{R}_{χ} .
- The expansion on this basis is called **Karhunen-Loève expansion** and the vector of coefficients α is called **discrete Karhunen-Loève transform (DKLT)**.



Definition of the correlation matrix \mathbf{R}_{X} of a random vector \mathbf{X} :

$$\mathbf{R}_{X} \triangleq E\left\{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{H}\right\} = E\left\{\begin{bmatrix} X_{1} \\ X_{2} \\ \vdots \\ X_{N} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_{1}^{*} & X_{2}^{*} & \cdots & X_{N}^{*} \end{bmatrix}\right\}$$

$$= E \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \left| X_{1} \right|^{2} & X_{1} X_{2}^{*} & \cdots & X_{1} X_{N}^{*} \\ X_{2} X_{1}^{*} & \left| X_{2} \right|^{2} & \cdots & X_{2} X_{N}^{*} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{N} X_{1}^{*} & X_{N} X_{2}^{*} & \cdots & \left| X_{N} \right|^{2} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$



$$\mathbf{R}_{X} = \begin{bmatrix} E\{|X_{1}|^{2}\} & E\{X_{1}X_{2}^{*}\} & \cdots & E\{X_{1}X_{N}^{*}\} \\ E\{X_{2}X_{1}^{*}\} & E\{|X_{2}|^{2}\} & \cdots & E\{X_{2}X_{N}^{*}\} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E\{X_{N}X_{1}^{*}\} & E\{X_{N}X_{2}^{*}\} & \cdots & E\{|X_{N}|^{2}\} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} E\{|X_{1}|^{2}\} & E\{X_{1}X_{2}^{*}\} & \cdots & E\{X_{1}X_{N}^{*}\} \\ (E\{X_{1}X_{2}^{*}\})^{*} & E\{|X_{2}|^{2}\} & \cdots & E\{X_{2}X_{N}^{*}\} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (E\{X_{1}X_{N}^{*}\})^{*} & (E\{X_{2}X_{N}^{*}\})^{*} & \cdots & E\{|X_{N}|^{2}\} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R}_{X}^{H}$$



If the data vector \mathbf{X} is obtained by sampling a continuous-time wide-sense stationary (w.s.s.) process X(t):

$$X_{i+1} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \end{bmatrix}_{i+1} = X[i] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2B}} X \left(\frac{i}{2B} \right), \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \cdots, N-1$$
 ACF of the w.s.s discrete-time process $X[n]$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_X \end{bmatrix}_{i+1, j+1} = E \left\{ X_{i+1} X_{j+1}^* \right\} = E \left\{ X[i] X^*[j] \right\} = R_X[j-i]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2B} E\left\{X\left(\frac{i}{2B}\right)X^*\left(\frac{j}{2B}\right)\right\} = \frac{1}{2B} R_X\left(\frac{j-i}{2B}\right)$$

$$i, j = 0, 1, 2, \cdots, N-1$$
ACF of the w.s.s. continuous-time process $X(t)$



Hence, if the data vector **X** is obtained by sampling a continuous-time w.s.s. process X(t) with Autocorrelation Function (ACF) $R_X(\tau) = E\{X(t)X^*(t+\tau)\}$, in addition to be Hermitian, the correlation matrix of **X** has a <u>Toeplitz</u> structure:

$$\mathbf{R}_{X} = \frac{1}{2B} \begin{bmatrix} R_{X}(0) & R_{X}\left(\frac{1}{2B}\right) & R_{X}\left(\frac{2}{2B}\right) & \cdots & R_{X}\left(\frac{N-2}{2B}\right) & R_{X}\left(\frac{N-1}{2B}\right) \\ R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{1}{2B}\right) & R_{X}(0) & R_{X}\left(\frac{1}{2B}\right) & \cdots & R_{X}\left(\frac{N-3}{2B}\right) & R_{X}\left(\frac{N-2}{2B}\right) \\ R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{2}{2B}\right) & R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{1}{2B}\right) & R_{X}(0) & \cdots & R_{X}\left(\frac{N-4}{2B}\right) & R_{X}\left(\frac{N-3}{2B}\right) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{N-2}{2B}\right) & R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{N-3}{2B}\right) & R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{N-4}{2B}\right) & \cdots & R_{X}(0) & R_{X}\left(\frac{1}{2B}\right) \\ R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{N-1}{2B}\right) & R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{N-2}{2B}\right) & R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{N-3}{2B}\right) & \cdots & R_{X}^{*}\left(\frac{1}{2B}\right) & R_{X}(0) \end{bmatrix}$$



The discrete Karhunen-Loève transform (DKLT) is a linear whitening (decorrelating) transformation of the original data vector X:

$$\mathbf{X} \overset{DKLT}{\Leftrightarrow} \mathbf{\alpha}$$

$$N \times 1 \qquad N \times 1$$

$$\mathbf{\alpha} = \mathbf{\Phi}^H \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}: \quad E\left\{\boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{H}\right\} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{0}^{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{1}^{2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{N-1}^{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{i}^{2} \triangleq E\left\{\left|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{i}\right|^{2}\right\}$$

In many receivers, the first operation that is performed is a **linear** whitening transformation of the data vector **X**.



- The **DKLT** of the original data vector **X** requires knowledge of the correlation matrix \mathbf{R}_{X} of the random vector **X**, i.e. of the ACF of the w.s.s. process X(t).
- lacktriangledown is obtained from the **Eigenvector-Eigenvalue Decomposition (EVD)** of the correlation matrix $lackbr{R}_X \to \Phi$ is formed by the eigenvectors of $lackbr{R}_X$:

$$\mathbf{R}_{X} = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{\Phi}^{H}$$

In many applications, we do not know a priori the correlation matrix \mathbf{R}_{X} , so we have to estimate it from the data:

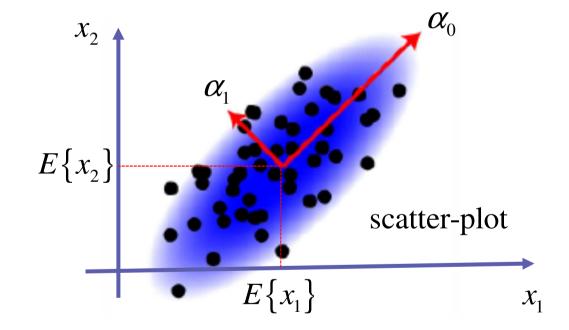
$$\hat{\mathbf{R}}_X \Rightarrow (\hat{\mathbf{\Phi}}, \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}})$$
 from the EVD of $\hat{\mathbf{R}}_X : \hat{\mathbf{R}}_X = \hat{\mathbf{\Phi}} \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}} \hat{\mathbf{\Phi}}^H$

We will see later on how to <u>estimate the correlation matrix</u> of an N-dimensional random vector \mathbf{X} given a number M > N of independent realizations of \mathbf{X} .



- \blacksquare Φ is a unitary matrix and $\alpha = \Phi^H X$ is a linear transformation of the data.
- It is basically a rotation of the reference system in such a way that the components in the new reference system are uncorrelated:
- If X is non-zero mean, we can remove the mean, and Φ is obtained by the EVD of the covariance matrix of vector X.

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{H} \left(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{X} \right)$$



where $\mathbf{m}_{X} \triangleq E\{\mathbf{X}\},\$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}: \quad \mathbf{C}_{X} \triangleq E\left\{ \left(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{X}\right) \left(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{X}\right)^{H} \right\} = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{\Phi}^{H}$$



Important: It is well-known that if the correlation time L of the discrete-time sequence X[n] is much lower than the vector size N, then the matrix Φ that diagonalizes the correlation matrix \mathbf{R}_X is (approximately) the DFT matrix and the DKLT coincides with the (unitary) **Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)**:

$$L \ll N \quad \rightarrow \quad \varphi_i[n] \cong \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{j2\pi \frac{i}{N}n}; \quad i, n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cong IDFT \{ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \mathbf{\Phi}^{H} \mathbf{X} \cong DFT \{ \mathbf{X} \}$$

$$X[n] \cong \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \alpha_{i} e^{j2\pi \frac{i}{N}n} \qquad \alpha_{i} = (X[n], \varphi_{i}[n]) \cong \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] e^{-j2\pi \frac{i}{N}n}$$



$$\mathbf{\Phi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}} & \cdots & e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}(N-1)} \\ 1 & e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}^2} & \cdots & e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}2(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}(N-1)} & \cdots & e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N}(N-1)(N-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^{-1} = \mathbf{\Phi}^H$$
Unitary matrix

DFT matrix $N \times N$

Moreover, if N>>L, the eigenvalues of \mathbf{R}_{\times} are the samples of the Power Spectral Density (PSD):

$$\sigma_i^2 = E\{|\alpha_i|^2\}^{N \gg L} S_X\left(e^{j2\pi \frac{i}{N}}\right) = DFT\{R_X[m]\}, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$$



Proof:

$$\begin{split} \sigma_{i}^{2} &= E\left\{\left|\alpha_{i}\right|^{2}\right\} = E\left\{\alpha_{i}\alpha_{i}^{*}\right\} \\ &= E\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}X[n]\,e^{-j2\pi\frac{i}{N}n}\,\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\sum_{k=0}^{N-1}X^{*}[k]\,e^{j2\pi\frac{i}{N}k}\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}\sum_{k=0}^{N-1}E\left\{X[n]X^{*}[k]\right\}e^{-j2\pi\frac{i}{N}(n-k)} \\ &= \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}\sum_{k=0}^{N-1}R_{X}[n-k]e^{-j2\pi\frac{i}{N}(n-k)} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{m=-(N-1)}^{N-1}\left(N-\left|m\right|\right)R_{X}[m]e^{-j2\pi\frac{i}{N}m} \\ &= \sum_{m=-(N-1)}^{N-1}\left(1-\frac{\left|m\right|}{N}\right)R_{X}[m]e^{-j2\pi\frac{i}{N}m} \quad \overset{N\gg L}{\cong} \quad \sum_{m=-L}^{L}R_{X}[m]e^{-j2\pi\frac{i}{N}m} \\ &= DFT\left\{R_{X}[m]\right\} = S_{X}\left(e^{j2\pi\frac{i}{N}}\right), \quad i=0,1,2,\cdots,N-1 \end{split}$$



- Why is it important to come up with a discrete-representation where the components of the image vector are <u>uncorrelated</u>?
- This can be easily understood if for example the process X(t) is Gaussian. In this case, also the discrete-time process X[n] obtained by sampling is **Gaussian** and, as a consequence, also the image vector α obtained as a linear transformation of the image vector \mathbf{X} .
- We know that for Gaussian random vectors, uncorrelation implies independence (remember that independence always implies uncorrelation, but the reverse is usually not true). Hence, we can easily derive the joint **probability density function (pdf)** of the image vector α as the product of the marginal pdf's of the components of α :

$$f_{\alpha}(\alpha) = \prod_{i=0}^{N-1} f_{\alpha_i}(\alpha_i)$$
, where $N = 2BT$



Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

■ Sometimes the **DKLT** is called **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)** and is used for <u>dimensionality reduction</u> (or <u>redundancy reduction</u>):

$$X[n] = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \alpha_i \varphi_i[n] \cong \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \alpha_i \varphi_i[n]$$

$$X \iff \alpha_{K \times 1}$$

where:

1)
$$\sigma_i^2 \triangleq E\{|\alpha_i|^2\}, \quad \sigma_i^2 \geq \sigma_{i+1}^2 \text{ (decreasing order)}$$

2)
$$E\{\alpha_i \alpha_j^*\} = 0$$
 for $i \neq j$

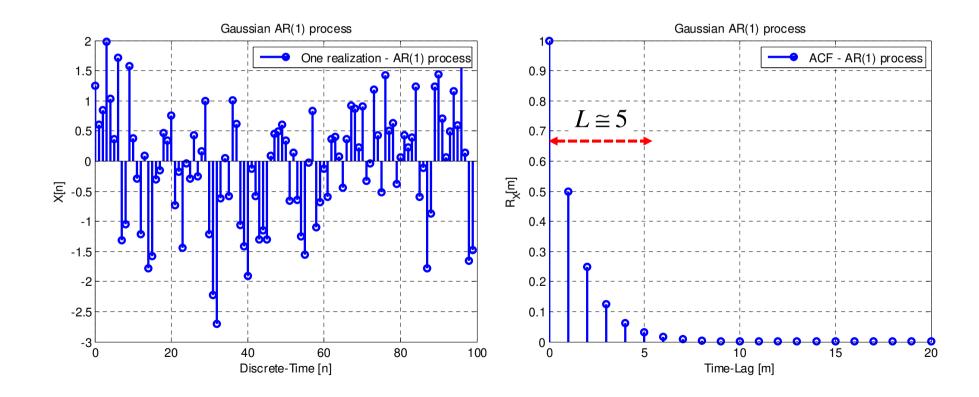
3)
$$K < N$$
 such that $\sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \sigma_i^2 \gg \sum_{i=K}^{N-1} \sigma_i^2$

The best choice of K basis functions (dimensionality reduction) corresponds to the K eigenvectors of \mathbf{R}_{X} with the largest eigenvalues (the <u>principal components</u>).



Example: X[n] random process with autocorrelation function (ACF):

$$R_X[m] = E\{X[n]X^*[n+m]\} = (0.5)^{|m|} \rightarrow L \cong 5 \ll N = 100$$

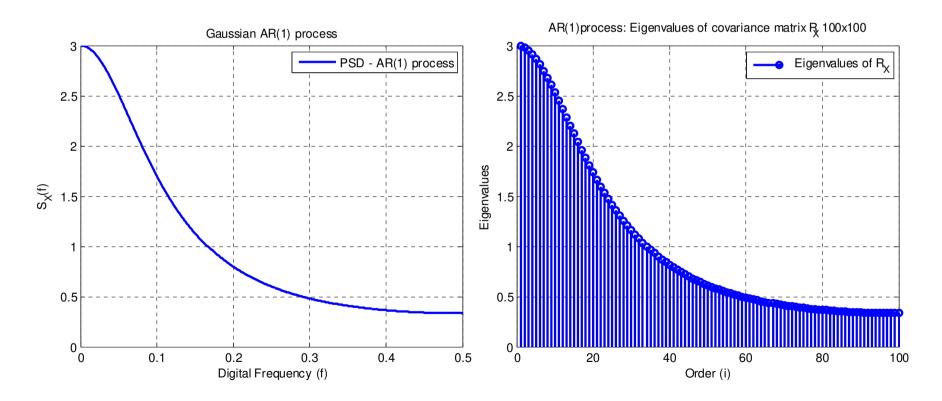




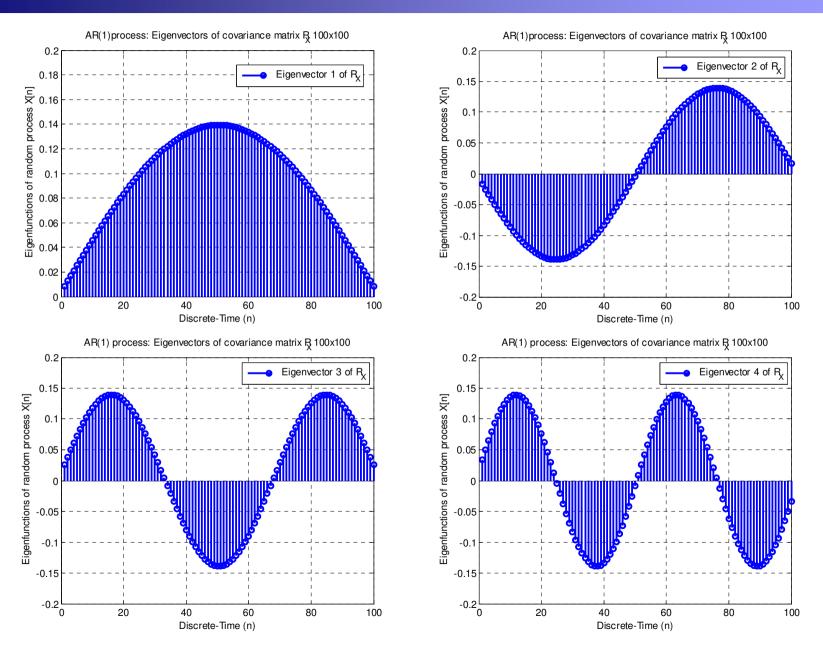


$$S_X\left(e^{j2\pi f}\right) = DTFT\left\{R_X[m]\right\}$$

$$S_X\left(e^{j2\pi f}\right) = DTFT\left\{R_X[m]\right\}$$
 Eigenvalues: $\sigma_i^2 \triangleq E\left\{\left|\alpha_i\right|^2\right\}$ in decreasing order









- **Example**: $X(t) = A\cos\left(2\pi f_0 t + \theta\right) + W(t), \quad t \in [0,T),$ $S_W(f) = \frac{N_0}{2}$ Additive White Gaussian signal of interest s(t) Noise (AWGN)
- A typical problem is to estimate the signal parameters (amplitude and phase) based on the observation of a noise corrupted version of the signal in the interval [0, T).
- The signal frequency f_0 may be a priori known or unknown. Let's assume first that it is <u>a-priori known</u>.
- After anti-aliasing filtering with bandwidth $B=1/(2T_c)$ and ADC:

$$X[n] = A\cos\left(2\pi F_0 n + \theta\right) + W[n], \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$$
where $F_0 \triangleq f_0 T_c \in (0, 1/2), \qquad N = T/T_c = 2BT, \qquad W[n] \in \mathcal{N}\left(0, \sigma_W^2\right)$ III.

■ The noise samples are Independent and Identically distributed (IID).



■ The discrete-time signal obtained by sampling can be expanded on the orthonormal basis functions as follows:

$$X[n] = A\cos(2\pi F_0 n + \theta) + W[n]$$

$$= A\cos(\theta)\cos(2\pi F_0 n) - A\sin(\theta)\sin(2\pi F_0 n) + W[n]$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}}A\cos(\theta)\varphi_0[n] - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}}A\sin(\theta)\varphi_1[n] + W[n]$$

where:

$$\varphi_0[n] \triangleq \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \cos(2\pi F_0 n), \quad \varphi_1[n] \triangleq \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sin(2\pi F_0 n), \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

$$(\varphi_i, \varphi_k) \triangleq \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \varphi_i[n] \varphi_k^*[n] = \delta_{i,k}$$
 (Kronecker's delta) \Leftrightarrow $N \gg 1$



■ In fact, if *N*>>1:

$$(\varphi_0, \varphi_0) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \cos(2\pi F_0 n) \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \cos(2\pi F_0 n) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \cos^2(2\pi F_0 n)$$
$$= \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos(4\pi F_0 n) \right) = 1 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \cos(4\pi F_0 n) \cong 1$$

$$(\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{1}) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sin(2\pi F_{0}n) \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sin(2\pi F_{0}n) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sin^{2}(2\pi F_{0}n)$$
$$= \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos(4\pi F_{0}n)\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \cos(4\pi F_{0}n) \cong 1$$

$$(\varphi_0, \varphi_1) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \cos(2\pi F_0 n) \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sin(2\pi F_0 n) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{2} \sin(4\pi F_0 n)$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sin(4\pi F_0 n) \approx 0$$



- The other *N*-2 orthonormal basis functions should be chosen to be unit-norm and orthogonal to the first two (we do not need to specify them!).
- The discrete-time signal can be expanded by using an orthonormal basis set and the coefficients of the expansion are derived as follows:

$$\alpha_{k} = (X[n], \varphi_{k}[n]) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \varphi_{k}^{*}[n]$$

$$\alpha = [\alpha_{0} \quad \alpha_{1} \quad \cdots \quad \alpha_{N-1}]^{T}$$

$$\alpha_{k} = (X[n], \varphi_{k}[n]) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \varphi_{k}^{*}[n]$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \varphi_{0}[n] - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \varphi_{1}[n] + W[n]) \varphi_{k}^{*}[n]$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \varphi_{0}[n] \varphi_{k}^{*}[n] - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \varphi_{1}[n] \varphi_{k}^{*}[n] + \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W[n] \varphi_{k}^{*}[n]$$



$$\alpha_{k} = \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \delta_{0,k} - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \delta_{1,k} + W_{k}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

where:
$$W_k \triangleq (W[n], \varphi_k[n]) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W[n] \varphi_k^*[n]$$



$$\mathbf{\alpha} = \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \\ -\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} W_0 \\ W_1 \\ W_2 \\ \vdots \\ W_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{E}\{W_k\} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} E\{W[n]\} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_k^*[n] = 0$$

$$E\{W_k\} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} E\{W[n]\} \varphi_k^*[n] = 0$$





$$E\{W_{k}W_{i}^{*}\} = E\left\{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}W[n]\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{k}^{*}[n]\sum_{l=0}^{N-1}W^{*}[l]\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{i}[l]\right\}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} E\{W[n]W^*[l]\} \varphi_i[l] \varphi_k^*[n]$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} \sigma_W^2 \delta[n-l] \varphi_i[l] \varphi_k^*[n]$$

$$= \sigma_W^2 \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \varphi_i[n] \varphi_k^*[n] = \sigma_W^2 \delta_{i,k}$$

$$\Rightarrow W_k \in \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_W^2)$$
 IID, where $\sigma_W^2 = \frac{N_0}{2T_c} = 2B\frac{N_0}{2} = N_0B$



Only the first two components bring information on the amplitude and phase of the useful signal. The other components are **irrelevant**, so we do not need to compute them:

$$\alpha_0 = (X[n], \varphi_0[n]) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \cos(2\pi F_0 n)$$

$$\alpha_1 = (X[n], \varphi_1[n]) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \sin(2\pi F_0 n)$$

This operation is equivalent to the extraction of the **In-phase (I)** and **Quadrature (Q) components**, typically called "**demodulation**", but in digital fashion, after the ADC.



Note that the components of the transformed vector α are uncorrelated:

$$\mathbf{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{N-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \\ -\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} W_0 \\ W_1 \\ W_2 \\ \vdots \\ W_{N-1} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow E\{\mathbf{\alpha}\} = E\{\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{W}\} = \mathbf{s}$$

$$\operatorname{cov}(\alpha_{k},\alpha_{i}) = E\{(\alpha_{k} - s_{k})(\alpha_{i} - s_{i})^{*}\} = E\{W_{k}W_{i}^{*}\} = \sigma_{W}^{2}\delta_{i,k}$$

$$\rightarrow \operatorname{cov}(\alpha_k, \alpha_i) = 0 \text{ for } i \neq k$$





I The correlation matrix of vector α is given by:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\alpha} = E\{\boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{H}\} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{0}^{2} & r_{01} & \cdots & 0 \\ r_{10} & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{1}^{2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{N-1}^{2} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{C}_{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\eta}_{\alpha}^{H} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{W}^{2}\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{s}\mathbf{s}^{H}$$

$$r_{01} = r_{10} = E\{\alpha_1 \alpha_0^*\} = E\{\alpha_1\} E\{\alpha_0^*\} = s_1 s_0^* = -\frac{NA^2}{2} \cos(\theta) \sin(\theta) = -\frac{NA^2}{4} \sin(2\theta)$$

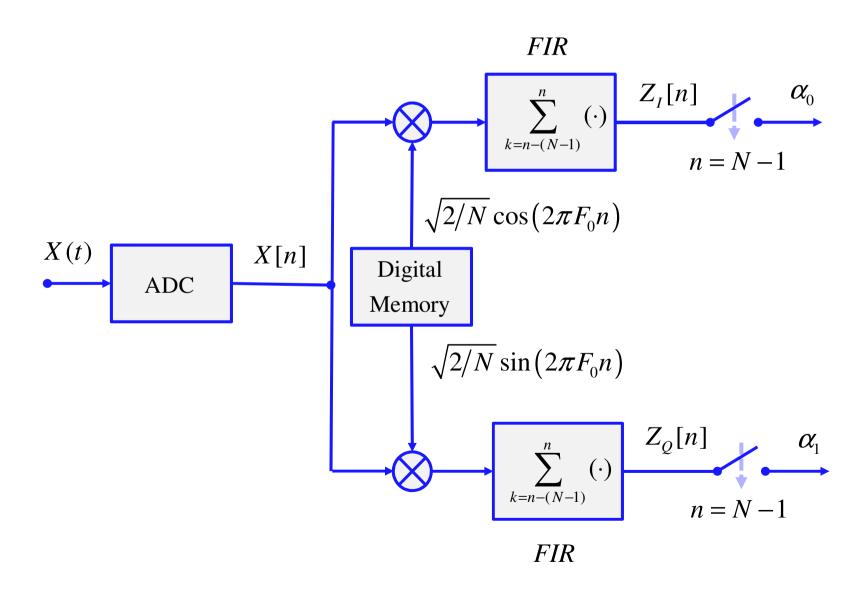
$$\sigma_i^2 = E\{|\alpha_i|^2\} = E\{|s_i + W_i|^2\} = |s_i|^2 + E\{W_i^2\} = |s_i|^2 + \sigma_W^2$$

$$\sigma_0^2 = \frac{NA^2}{2}\cos^2(\theta) + \sigma_W^2, \quad \sigma_1^2 = \frac{NA^2}{2}\sin^2(\theta) + \sigma_W^2, \quad \sigma_i^2 = \sigma_W^2 \text{ for } 2 \le i \le N-1$$



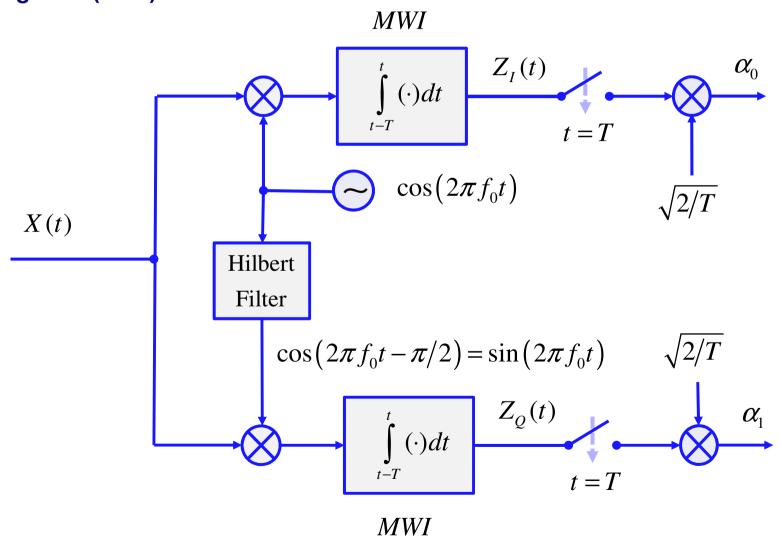


Block diagram where the inner product (correlation) is implemented digitally:





Alternative approach: correlator structure that uses an analog moving window integrator (MWI):





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Typical approach → first sample (ADC conversion) to get a discrete-time signal and then expand it by using the discrete-time orthonormal basis functions:

$$\varphi_0[n] = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}\cos(2\pi F_0 n), \quad \varphi_1[n] = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}\sin(2\pi F_0 n), \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

Only the first two components of the new image vector are **relevant** (i.e. they are the two **principal components**), so the 2D image vector is:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \\ -\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} W_0 \\ W_1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{W}$$



- The components α_0 and α_1 are typically called the **In-phase** (I) and **Quadrature** (Q) components with respect to the frequency f_0 .
- If N=2BT>>1 the two approaches to extract the I & Q components are equivalent from the point of view of **Signal to Noise power Ratio (SNR)**.
- The first approach is usually preferred because more efficient in terms of computational complexity (down-conversion to baseband, i.e. extraction of the I & Q components, is done digitally).
- Let us calculate the *Signal to Noise Ratio* (SNR) for the image vector \mathbf{X} (*Input SNR*) and for the transformed image vector $\mathbf{\alpha}$, after the discrete-time base expansion (*Output SNR*).



Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR) for the image vector X (Input SNR):

$$X[n] = \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \varphi_0[n] - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \varphi_1[n] + W[n]; \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$$

where
$$W[n] \in \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_W^2)$$
 IID, $\sigma_W^2 = N_0 B$, $N = T/T_c = 2BT$

$$\mathbf{X} = \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \mathbf{\varphi}_0 - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \mathbf{\varphi}_1}_{\mathbf{s}_X} + \mathbf{W}_X$$

where
$$\mathbf{W}_{X} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} W[0] & W[1] & \cdots & W[N-1] \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$





$$SNR_{IN} = \frac{E\{\|\mathbf{s}_{X}\|_{2}^{2}\}}{E\{\|\mathbf{W}_{X}\|_{2}^{2}\}} = \frac{\|\mathbf{s}_{X}\|_{2}^{2}}{E\{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W^{2}[n]\}} = \frac{\|\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}}A\cos(\theta)\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{0} - \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}}A\sin(\theta)\boldsymbol{\varphi}_{1}\|_{2}^{2}}{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} E\{W^{2}[n]\}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{NA^{2}}{2}\cos^{2}(\theta)\|\mathbf{\phi}_{0}\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{NA^{2}}{2}\sin^{2}(\theta)\|\mathbf{\phi}_{1}\|_{2}^{2} - 2 \cdot \frac{NA^{2}}{2}\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta)(\mathbf{\phi}_{0},\mathbf{\phi}_{1})}{N\sigma_{W}^{2}}$$

$$=\frac{\frac{NA^2}{2}\cos^2(\theta) + \frac{NA^2}{2}\sin^2(\theta)}{N\sigma_W^2} = \frac{A^2}{2\sigma_W^2}$$

$$SNR_{IN} = \frac{A^2}{2\sigma_W^2}$$





■ Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR) for the transformed image vector α (Output SNR):

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \cos(\theta) \\ -\sqrt{\frac{N}{2}} A \sin(\theta) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} W_0 \\ W_1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{W}, \text{ where } W_k \in \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_W^2), IID$$

$$SNR_{OUT} = \frac{E\left\{ \left\| \mathbf{s} \right\|_{2}^{2} \right\}}{E\left\{ \left\| \mathbf{W} \right\|_{2}^{2} \right\}} = \frac{s_{0}^{2} + s_{1}^{2}}{E\left\{ W_{0}^{2} + W_{1}^{2} \right\}} = \frac{A^{2}N/2}{2\sigma_{W}^{2}} = \frac{A^{2}N/2}{2 \cdot N_{0}B} = \frac{A^{2}T}{2N_{0}} = \frac{E_{s}}{N_{0}}$$

The **Processing Gain (PG)** is the gain in SNR that we achieve thanks to the linear transformation (i.e. the discrete-time base expansion):

$$PG = \frac{SNR_{OUT}}{SNR_{IN}} = \frac{A^2N/2}{2\sigma_W^2} / \frac{A^2}{2\sigma_W^2} = \frac{N}{2}$$



Calculation of these two principal components is equivalent to calculating the **Discrete-Time Fourier Transform (DTFT)** of the observed signal X[n] at the digital frequency F_0 , which is the most powerful frequency component present in the *Signal of Interest* (SoI) s[n] observed in [0,T):

$$\alpha_{0} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \cos(2\pi F_{0}n) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \Re e^{\left\{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] e^{-j2\pi F_{0}n}\right\}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \Re e^{\left\{DTFT\{\mathbf{X}\}\right|_{F=F_{0}}}$$

$$\alpha_{1} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] \sin(2\pi F_{0}n) = -\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \Im \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X[n] e^{-j2\pi F_{0}n} \right\}$$

$$= -\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \Im \left\{ DTFT \left\{ \mathbf{X} \right\} \right|_{F=F_{0}} \right\}$$

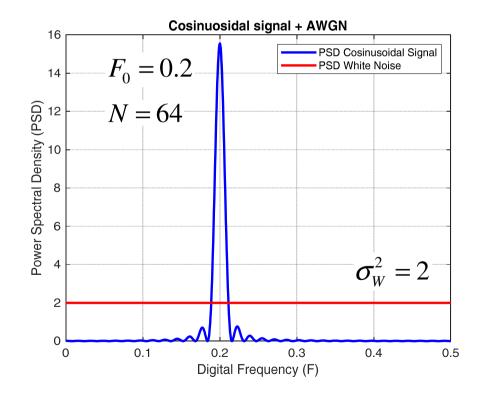




$$X[n] = s[n] + W[n] = A\cos(2\pi F_0 n + \theta) + W[n], \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

$$S(e^{j2\pi F}) = DTFT\{s[n]\} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} s[n]e^{-j2\pi F} \qquad PSD_S(e^{j2\pi F}) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} |S(e^{j2\pi F})|^2$$

$$PSD_{S}\left(e^{j2\pi F}\right) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \left| S\left(e^{j2\pi F}\right) \right|^{2}$$



$$SNR(F) = \frac{PSD_{S}\left(e^{j2\pi F}\right)}{PSD_{W}\left(e^{j2\pi F}\right)}$$

$$F_0 = \arg\max_{F} \left\{ SNR(F) \right\}$$



$$\alpha_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \Re e \left\{ DTFT \left\{ \mathbf{X} \right\} \right|_{F=F_0} \right\}$$

$$\alpha_{1} = -\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \Im m \left\{ DTFT \left\{ \mathbf{X} \right\} \right|_{F=F_{0}} \right\}$$

- The values of the DTFT at frequencies different from F_0 are not relevant, i.e. they do not bring additional useful information about the amplitude and phase of the signal of interest s[n].
- The two principal components α_0 and α_1 contains all the relevant information about the amplitude A and the phase θ of the continuous-time signal of interest s(t). Hence, A and θ can be estimated from α_0 and α_1 .



- This is possible if we know a priori the signal frequency F_0 (remember that the basis functions should be deterministic perfectly known).
- What about if the signal frequency F_0 is also unknown?

We use the FFT to calculate the DTFT of the *N*-dimensional vector **X** at all the discrete frequencies $F_k = k/N$ (or $F_k = k/N_{zp}$ if we use zero-padding) and then we select the two principal components, i.e. the real and imaginary parts of the FFT at the frequency for which the $|FFT|^2$ assumes the greatest value [we will investigate this problem in detail later on].