Representation and statistical analyse of signals

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1 Introduction and reminders on random variables

Definition 1.1. Let (Ω, τ, P) be a probability space, where Ω is the sample space, τ is a σ -algebra and P is a probability measure, and the set of instants T (\mathbb{R} or \mathbb{Z}). A (real) stochastic process is the application

$$X: T \times \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$$

 $(t,\omega) \mapsto X(t,\omega).$

- For $\omega = \omega_0$ fixed, $X(t, \omega_0)$ is an ordinary function (trajectory or sample) and, for $t = t_0$ fixed, it is a random variable.
- If $T = \mathbb{R}$, the signal is time continuous and we denote the application $X(t, \omega)$. If $T = \mathbb{Z}$, we have a discrete time signal and we denote $X[k, \omega]$.

Definition 1.2. A σ -algebra on a set Ω is a collection τ of subsets of Ω such that

- 1. It includes the empty set $(\emptyset \in \tau)$;
- 2. It is closed under complement $(A \in \tau \Rightarrow \overline{A} \in \tau)$;
- 3. It is closed under countable union $(A_n \in \tau \Rightarrow \cup_n A_n \in \tau)$.

The pair (Ω, τ) is said to be a measurable space or a Borel space.

Definition 1.3. A probability measure P is an application $P: \tau \to \mathbb{R}$ which respects the Kolmogorov axioms:

- 1. $0 \le P(A) \le 1$
- 2. $P(\Omega) = 1$
- 3. $A_i \cap A_i \Rightarrow P(\cup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$

Definition 1.4. Let (Ω, τ, P) be a probability space and $(\mathbb{R}, \mathfrak{B})$ a measurable space, with \mathfrak{B} the Borel σ -algebra of \mathbb{R}^1 . A <u>real-valued random variable</u> is a measurable function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, which means that $X^{-1}(B) \in \tau \ \forall B \in \mathfrak{B}$ (it relates events with number values). We write the probability of the event x be in the interval B as $Pr\{x \in B\} = P_x(B) = P(X^{-1}(B))$.

Definition 1.5. The cumulative distribution function (CDF) of a real-valued random variable X is the function

$$F_X(x) = Pr\{X(\omega) \le x\} = P_x(]-\infty, x]) = P(X^{-1}(]-\infty, x]).$$

The probability density function (PDF) $p_X(x)$ is

$$p_X(x) = F_X'(x) \Leftrightarrow F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p_X(\xi) d\xi.$$

The expected value of a random variable X whose CDF admits a PDF $p_X(x)$ is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x p_X(x) dx.$$

• Expected value of a function: $\mathbb{E}[f(X(\omega))] = \int f(x)p_X(x)dx = \int f(x)dF_X(x) = \int f(x)dP_X(i)$

Definition 1.6. The characteristic function of a scalar random variable X is 2

$$\phi_X(u) = \mathbb{E}[e^{juX}] = \int e^{juX} p_X(x) dx$$

and the second characteristic function is

$$\psi_X(u) = \ln(\phi_X(u)).$$

¹The Borel σ -algebra on \mathbb{R} is the smallest σ -algebra containing all open sets on \mathbb{R} .

²It is the Fourier transform with sign reversal in the complex exponential.

Theorem 1.1. Let \mathfrak{B} be the Borel σ -algebra of \mathbb{R} and ϕ a positive bounded measure on $(\mathbb{R},\mathfrak{B})$. Then, there exists a unique positive integrable function defined in $g \in L^1$, up to a set of measure zero, and a unique singular measure ϕ_s on $(\mathbb{R},\mathfrak{B})$ such that

$$\phi(B) = \int_B g(x)dx + \phi_s(B), \ \forall B \in \mathfrak{B}.$$

- A measure ϕ_s is said to be singular if $\exists S \in \mathfrak{B}$ with $\mu(S) = 0$ and $\forall B \in \mathfrak{B}, \phi_s(B) = \phi_s(B \cap S)$.
- It is often possible to write

$$\phi(B) = \int \underbrace{g(x) \sum_{k} \mu_k \delta(x - s_k)}_{\text{density of the measure } \phi} dx.$$

• The probability density function is a particular case of such measure:

$$P(B) = \int g(x) \sum_{k} \mu_k \delta(x - s_k) dx.$$

Definition 1.7. A temporal distribution (temporal law) of a random variable X is

$$F_X(x_1,...,x_n,...,t_1,...,t_n,...) = P(X(t_1) \le x_1,...,X(t_n) \le x_n,...)$$

Particular cases:

- An *n*-order distribution (*n*-order law) is $F_X(x_1,...,x_n,...,t_1,...,t_n) = P(X(t_1) \leq x_1,...,X(t_n) \leq x_n)$.
- A first-order distribution is $F_X(x,t) = P(X(t_1) \le x_1) = F_{X(t,\omega)}(x_1)$.

Proposition 1.1. Properties of temporal distributions:

- i. Symmetry: $F_X(x_1,...,x_n,t_1,...,t_n) = F_X(x_n,...,x_1,t_n,...,t_1)$.
- ii. Consistency: $F_X(x_1,...,x_n,...,t_1,...,t_n,...) = F_X(x_1,...,x_n,x_{n+1},...,x_m,t_1,...,t_n,t_{n+1},...,t_m)$.

Definition 1.8. Definitions of equivalence³:

- i. Two signals are said to be wide sense equivalent when they have the same temporal distribution.
- ii. Two random signals $S_1(t,\omega)$ and $S_2(t,\omega)$ are said to be strictly equivalent if $P(S_1(t,\omega) = S_2(t,\omega)) = 1, \forall t$.
- iii. If these two signals are such that $P(S_1(t,\omega) = S_2(t,\omega) \forall t \in T) = 1$, they are indistinguishable.

For example, consider the following signals:

$$S_1 \equiv 0, \quad S_2 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \text{ in a random value in } [0,1] \\ 0 \text{ everywhere else.} \end{array} \right., \quad S_3 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \text{ everywhere if a random value in } [0,1] \text{ is } 0.5 \\ 0 \text{ everywhere, otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$$

 S_1 and S_2 are strictly equivalent, but not indistinguishable. On the other hand, S_1 and S_3 are indistinguishable.

Point processes

Definition 1.9. A <u>point process</u> is a continuous-time distribution of points on T. A counting process $N(t,\omega)$ can be used to count point process as it avoids to be equivalent to a zero process.

Definition 1.10. A Poisson process of intensity λ is a point process which may be defined in several ways:

- 1. It is a process that follows
 - (a) The number of points in non-overlapping intervals are independent: $N(t_k, \omega) N(t_{k-1}, \omega), ..., N(t_1, \omega) N(t_0, \omega)$ are independent $\forall t_0 < ... < t_k$;
 - (b) The probability of having exactly one event in a "small" interval is proportional to the length of the interval: $P(N(t+h) N(t) = 1) = \lambda h + o(h);$
 - (c) The probability of having more than one event in a "small" interval is negligible: P(N(t+h) N(t) > 1) = o(h).
- 2. It is a process that follows

 $^{^3\}mathrm{Presented}$ in a particularity growing order.

(a) The number of points in non-overlapping intervals are independent: $N(t_k, \omega) - N(t_{k-1}, \omega), ..., N(t_1, \omega) - N(t_0, \omega)$ are independent $\forall t_0 < ... < t_k$;

(b)
$$P(N(t+T) - N(t) = k) = e^{-\lambda T} \frac{(\lambda T)^k}{k!}$$

3. The intervals T_i between the occurrence of two events are i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed) with probability density function

$$p(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}, \quad t \ge 0.$$

Reminder:

• Independence: $P(N_1 \cap N_2) = P(N_1)P(N_2)$

• Unorrelation: $\mathbb{E}[N_1 \cap N_2] = \mathbb{E}[N_1]\mathbb{E}[N_2]$

2 Partial characterisation of stochastic processes and temporal properties

Definition 2.1. Important definitions:

	Continuous-time	Discrete-time
First-order moment	$m(t) := \mathbb{E}[X(t,\omega)]$	$m[k] := \mathbb{E}[X[k,\omega]]$
Centred signal	$X_C(t,\omega) := X(t,\omega) - m(t)$	$X_C[k,\omega] := X[k,\omega] - m[k]$
Second-order moment ⁴ or (auto)correlation	$\gamma(t_1, t_2) := \mathbb{E}[X(t_1, \omega)X^*(t_2, \omega)]$	$\gamma[k_1, k_2] := \mathbb{E}[X[k_1, \omega] X^*[k_2, \omega]]$
Covariance	$c(t_1, t_2) := \gamma_{X_C}(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[X_C(t_1)X_C^*(t_2)]$	$c[k_1, t_2] := \gamma_{X_c}[k_1, k_2] = \mathbb{E}[X_C[k_1]X_C^*[k_2]]$
Variance	$\sigma(t) := \sqrt{c(t,t)} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[X_C(t) ^2]}$	$\sigma[k] := \sqrt{c[k,k]} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[X_C[k] ^2]}$
Power	$P(t) := \mathbb{E}[X(t) ^2]$	$P[k] := \mathbb{E}[X[k] ^2]$

Other types of (random) power:

• Random instant power: $|X(t,\omega)|^2$

• Random temporal mean power: $\lim_{T\to\infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} |X(t,\omega)|^2 dt$

Proposition 2.1. Properties:

i.
$$c(t_1, t_2) = \gamma_X(t_1, t_2) - m(t_1)m^*(t_2)$$

ii.
$$\sigma^2(t) = \mathbb{E}[|X(t,\omega)|^2] - |m(t)|^2$$

Definition 2.2. In the vector case, we have the vector of random variables

$$\mathbf{X}(t,\omega) = \begin{bmatrix} X_1(t,\omega) \\ \vdots \\ X_n(t,\omega) \end{bmatrix},$$

the first-order moment

$$\mathbf{m}(t) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}(t,\omega)] = \begin{bmatrix} m_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ m_n(t) \end{bmatrix},$$

the second-order (correlation) matrix

$$\Gamma(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}(t_1, \omega)\mathbf{X}^{\dagger}(t_2, \omega)],$$

the cross-correlation

$$\Gamma_{X_1,X_2}(t_1,t_2) = \mathbb{E}[X_1(t_1)X_2^*(t_2)]$$

and the covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{c}(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{C}}(t_1, \omega)\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{C}}^{\dagger}(t_2, \omega)] = \Gamma(t_1, t_2) - \mathbf{m}(t_1)\mathbf{m}^{\dagger}(t_2).$$

$$m(t_1,...,t_n) = \mathbb{E}[X(t_1),...,X(t_n)], \quad n \ge 3.$$

⁴Generalisation: n-order moment (it is not unique as there is no rule for the application of complex conjugate).

A fact about real random variables The moments are coefficients of a series expansion of the characteristic function ϕ_X . Let $m_n = \mathbb{E}[X^n]$:

$$\phi_X(u) = \mathbb{E}[e^{juX}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_k j^k u^k \frac{X^k}{k!}\right] = \sum_k j^k \frac{u^k}{k!} \mathbb{E}\left[X^k\right] = \sum_k j^k \frac{m_n}{k!} u^k$$

Proposition 2.2. Properties:

- i. The autocorrelation $\gamma(t_1, t_2)$ exists $\forall (t_1, t_2) \in T^2$ if and only if $\gamma(t, t) = \mathbb{E}[|X(t)|^2]$ exists $(< \infty) \ \forall t \in T$.
- ii. The autocorrelation $\gamma(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[X(t_1)X^*(t_2)]$ defines a pseudo inner product.
- iii. The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality holds: $|\gamma(t_1, t_2)|^2 \le \gamma(t_1, t_1)\gamma(t_2, t_2)$.
- iv. Existency of $\gamma(t_1, t_2)$ implies existency of $m(t) = \mathbb{E}[X(t)]$.
- v. $\gamma(t_1, t_2)$ is a non-negative definite function (NND), i.e., $\sum_i \sum_j \lambda_i \lambda_j^* \gamma(t_i, t_j) \geq 0$, $\forall \lambda_i, t_i \in \mathbb{C}^n \times T^n$.

Proof.

- ii. The expectation defines a pseudo inner product: $\langle X, Y \rangle := \mathbb{E}[XY^*]$, i.e., it is symmetric, bilinear and almost surely positive-definite: $\langle X, X \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow P(X = 0) = 1$. We can then define the autocorrelation inner product by setting $X = X(t_1)$ and $Y = X(t_2)$.
- iii. Apply the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to the inner product defined above.

$$\mathbb{E}[XY^*] \le \mathbb{E}[|X|^2]\mathbb{E}[|Y|^2]$$

iv. Apply the expectation Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to X = X(t) and Y = 1:

$$|\mathbb{E}[X(t) \cdot 1]|^2 \le \mathbb{E}[|X(t)^2|]\mathbb{E}[1] = \gamma(t, t).$$

v. Take $Z(t_i) = \sum_i \lambda_i X(t_i)$ and calculate

$$\mathbb{E}[|Z|^2] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum \lambda_i X(t_i)\right) \left(\sum \lambda_j X(t_j)\right)^*\right] = \sum \sum \lambda_i \lambda_j^* \mathbb{E}\left[X(t_i) X^*(t_j)\right] \ge 0.$$

Stationarity

Definition 2.3. A random process X(t) is said to be <u>strict sense stationary</u> (SSS) if its temporal law is invariant by time shift, i.e.

$$F_X(x_1,...,x_n,t_1,...,t_n) = F_X(x_1,...,x_n,t_1+h,...,t_n+h) \quad \forall n \forall x_i \forall t_i \forall h.$$

Definition 2.4. A random process is said to be stationary of order n if its moments up to order n are stationary.

• In particular, a stationary process of order 1 is such that them mean m(t) is constant, i.e.,

$$m(t) = m(t+h) \ \forall t \forall h.$$

• A stationary process of <u>order 2</u> or wide sense stationary (WSS) has m(t) constant and also

$$\gamma(t_1, t_2) = \gamma(t_1 + h, t_2 + h) \ \forall t \forall h.$$

This means that $\gamma(t_1, t_2) = \gamma(t, t + \tau)$ depends only on $\tau = t_2 - t_1$. We can write

$$\gamma(\tau) = \mathbb{E}[X(t+\tau), X^*(t)] = \mathbb{E}[X(t), X^*(t-\tau)].$$

Definition 2.5. Two random processes $X(t,\omega)$ and $Y(t,\omega)$ are said to be <u>jointly stationary</u> (of order 2) if $\begin{bmatrix} X(t,\omega) \\ Y(t,\omega) \end{bmatrix}$ is stationary (of order 2). Then, $\gamma_X = \gamma_X(\tau)$, $\gamma_Y = \gamma_Y(\tau)$, $\gamma_X Y = \gamma_X Y(\tau)$, $m_Y(t) = m_Y$ and $m_Y(t) = m_Y$.

Definition 2.6. A random process $X(t,\omega)$ is said to be cyclostationary if there exists T such that

$$\mathbb{E}[X(t+kT) = \mathbb{E}[X(t)]] \text{ and } \gamma(t_1+kT, t_2+kT) = \gamma(t_1, t_2) \quad \forall k.$$

• If X(t) is cyclostationary, then $Y(t) = X(t + \mathcal{O}(\omega))$, with \mathcal{O} uniformly distributed over [0,T] is stationary.

Properties of WSS signals⁵

Proposition 2.3. Basic properties. Let $X(t,\omega)$ be a random process. Then:

i.
$$\gamma(0) \ge |\gamma(\tau)| \ \forall \tau$$

ii.
$$\gamma(0) = P(t)$$

iii.
$$\gamma(\tau) = \gamma^*(-\tau)$$

Proof.

i. Use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality for expectation inner product:

$$|\mathbb{E}[X(t+\tau)X^*(t)]|^2 \le \mathbb{E}[|X(t+\tau)|^2]\mathbb{E}[|X(t)|^2] \Rightarrow |\gamma(\tau)|^2 \le \gamma(0)\gamma(0) \Rightarrow |\gamma(\tau)| \le \gamma(0).$$

ii. By definition,
$$\gamma(0) = \mathbb{E}[X(t+0)X^*(t)] = \mathbb{E}[|X(t)|^2] = P(t) = P$$
.

iii.
$$\gamma(\tau) = \mathbb{E}[X(t+\tau)X^*(t)] = \mathbb{E}[X(t)X^*(t-\tau)] = \mathbb{E}[X(t-\tau)X^*(t)]^* = \gamma^*(-\tau).$$

Proposition 2.4. Basic properties for vector case:

i.
$$\Gamma(\tau) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}(t+\tau)\mathbf{X}^*(t)] = \Gamma^{\dagger}(-\tau)$$

ii. If $\Gamma(0)$ is hermitian, then it is orthogonally diagonalisable and has real eigenvalues.

Proposition 2.5. Periodicity:

i. If $\gamma(0) = \gamma(\tau_1)$ with $\tau_1 \neq 0$, then γ is τ_1 -periodic.

ii.
$$\gamma(\tau)$$
 is τ_1 -periodic $\Leftrightarrow \gamma(0) = \gamma(\tau_1) \Leftrightarrow P(X(t) = X(t + \tau_1)) = 1$.

Proposition 2.6. If $\gamma(0) = \gamma(\tau_1) = \gamma(\tau_2)$ with $\frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ and $\tau_1, \tau_2 \neq 0$, then $\gamma(\tau) = \gamma$ is constant (as long as γ is continuous).

Proposition 2.7. The autocorrelation $\gamma(\tau)$ is uniformly continuous if and only if $\gamma(\tau)$ is continuous at $\tau = 0$.

Proposition 2.8. For non-WSS case, $\gamma(t_1, t_2) \in C^0$ on the diagonal of T (i.e., $(t, t) \in T^2$) if and only if γ is continuous on every $(t_i, t_j) \in T^2$.

⁵All signals considered in this section are WSS, unless explicitly indicated.