



Random variables

- ► A **random variable** is a variable that holds a value produced by a (partially) random phenomenon (experiment)
- ► Typically denoted as X, Y etc..
- Examples:
 - ▶ The value of a dice
 - The value of the voltage in a circuit
- ▶ We get a single value, but
- ► The opposite = a constant value

Sample space and realizations

- ▶ A realization = a single outcome of the random experiment
- ▶ Sample space Ω = the set of all values that can be taken by a random variable X
 - ▶ i.e. the set of all possible realizations
- ► Example: rolling a dice
 - we might get a realization X = 3
 - but we could have got any value from the sample space

$$\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$$

- ▶ If Ω is a discrete set -> **discrete** random variable
 - Example: value of a dice
- ▶ If Ω is a continuous set -> **continuous** random variable
 - Example: a voltage value

Discrete random variable

For a discrete random variable, the probability that X has x_i is given by the **probability mass function (PMF)** $w(x_i)$

$$w_X(x_i) = P\{X = x_i\}$$

- Example: what is the PMF of a dice?
- ▶ For simplicity we will call it simply the "distribution" of X
- ► The **cumulative distribution function (CDF)** gives the probability that the value of *X* is smaller or equal than the argument *x*_i

$$F_X(x_i) = P\{X \le x_i\}$$

- ▶ In Romanian: "functie de repartitie"
- ► Example: draw the CDF of a dice (= a *staircase* function)

Continuous random variable

▶ The CDF of a continuous r.v. is in the same way:

$$F_X(x_i) = P\{X \le x_i\}$$

The derivative of the CDF is the probability density function (PDF)

$$w_X(x_i) = \frac{dF_X(x_i)}{dx_i}$$

- ► The PDF gives the **probability that the value of** *X* **is in a small vicinity of around** *x*_i
- ▶ Important: the probability that a continuous r.v. *X* is **exactly** equal to a value *x_i* is **zero**
 - because there are an infinity of possibilities (continuous)
 - ▶ That's why we can't define a probability mass function like for discrete

Probability and distribution

Compute probability from PDF (continuous r.v.):

$$P\left\{A \le X \le B\right\} = \int_A^B w_X(x) dx$$

Compute probability from PMF (discrete r.v.):

$$P\left\{A \le X \le B\right\} = \sum_{x=A}^{B} w_X(x)$$

▶ Probability that a r.v. X is between A and B is the area below the PDF

Properties of PDF/PMF/CDF

- ► The CDF is monotonously increasing (non-decreasing)
- ▶ The PDF/PMF are always ≥ 0
- ▶ The CDF starts from 0 and goes up to 1
- ▶ Integral/sum over all of the PDF/PMF = 1
- Some others, mention when needed

Examples

- ► Gaussian PDF
- ► Uniform PDF

Multiple random variables

- Consider a system with two random variables X and Y
- Joint cumulative distribution function:

$$F_{XY}(x_i, y_j) = P\{X \le x_i \cap Y \le y_i\}$$

Joint probability density function:

$$w_{XY}(x_i, y_j) = \frac{\partial^2 P_{XY}(x_i, y_j)}{\partial x \partial y}$$

- ▶ The joint PDF gives the probability that the values of the two r.v. X and Y are in a **vicinity** of x_i and y_i simultaneously
- ► Similar definitions extend to the case of discrete random variables

Random process

- ► A random process = a sequence of random variables indexed in time
- ▶ **Discrete-time** random process f[n] = a sequence of random variables at discrete moments of time
 - e.g.: a sequence 50 of throws of a dice, the daily price on the stock market
- ▶ Continuous-time random process f(t) = a continuous sequence of random variables at every moment
 - e.g.: a noise voltage signal, a speech signal
- ▶ Every sample from a random process is a (different) random variable!
 - e.g. $f(t_0)$ = value at time t_0 is a r.v.

Realizations of random processes

- ▶ A **realization** of the random process = a particular sequence of values
 - e.g. we see a given noise signal on the oscilloscope, but we could have seen any other realization just as well
- ▶ When we consider a random process = we consider the set of all possible realizations
- ► Example: draw on whiteboard

Distributions of order 1 of random processes

- ▶ Every sample $f(t_1)$ from a random process is a random variable
 - with CDF $F_1(x_i; t_1)$
 - with PDF $w_1(x_i; t_1) = \frac{dF_1(x_i; t_1)}{dx_i}$
- ► The sample at time t₂ is a different random variable with possibly different functions
 - with CDF $F_1(x_i; t_2)$
 - with PDF $w_1(x_i; t_2) = \frac{dF_1(x_i; t_2)}{dx_i}$
- ▶ These functions specify how the value of one sample is distributed
- ▶ The index w_1 indicates we consider a single random variable from the process -> distributions of order 1

Distributions of order 2

- ▶ A pair of random variables $f(t_1)$ and $f(t_2)$ sampled from the random process f(t) have
 - ightharpoonup joint CDF $F_2(x_i, x_i; t_1, t_2)$
 - ▶ joint PDF $w_2(x_i, x_j; t_1, t_2) = \frac{\partial^2 F_2(x_i, x_j; t_1, t_2)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$
- ► These functions specify how the pair of values is distributed (are distributions of order 2)
- Marginal integration

$$w_1(x_i; t_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w_2(x_i, x_j; t_1, t_2) dx_j$$

(integrate over one variable -> disappears -> only the other one remains)

Distributions of order n

- Generalize to n samples of the random process
- A set of *n* random variables $f(t_1), ... f(t_n)$ sampled from the random process f(t) have
 - joint CDF $F_n(x_1,...x_n;t_1,...t_n)$
 - ▶ joint PDF $w_n(x_1,...x_n;t_1,...t_n) = \frac{\partial^2 F_n(x_1,...x_n;t_1,...t_n)}{\partial x_1...\partial x_n}$
- ► These functions specify how the whole set of *n* values is distributed (are distributions of order *n*)

Statistical averages

We characterize random processes using statistical / temporal averages (moments)

1. Average value

$$\overline{f(t_1)} = \mu(t_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot w_1(x; t_1) dx$$

2. Average squared value (valoarea patratica medie)

$$\overline{f^2(t_1)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \cdot w_1(x; t_1) dx$$

Statistical averages - variance

3. Variance (= dispersia)

$$\sigma^{2}(t_{1}) = \overline{\{f(t_{1}) - \mu(t_{1})\}^{2}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu(t_{1})^{2} \cdot w_{1}(x; t_{1}) dx$$

▶ The variance can be computed as:

$$\sigma^2(t_1) = \overline{\{f(t_1) - \mu(t_1)\}^2} = \overline{f(t_1)^2 - 2f(t_1)\mu(t_1) + \mu(t_1)^2} = \overline{f^2(t_1)} - \mu(t_1)$$

Statistical averages - autocorrelation

4. The autocorrelation function

$$R_{ff}(t_1, t_2) = \overline{f(t_1)f(t_2)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 x_2 w_2(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) dx_1 dx_2$$

5. The correlation function (for different random processes f(t) and g(t))

$$R_{fg}(t_1, t_2) = \overline{f(t_1)g(t_2)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 y_2 w_2(x_1, y_2; t_1, t_2) dx_1 dy_2$$

- ► Note 1:
 - ightharpoonup all these values are calculated across all realizations, at a single time t_1
 - all these characterize only the r.v. at time t₁
 - ▶ at a different time t_2 , the r. v. $f(t_2)$ is different so all average values might be different

Temporal averages

- What to do when we only have access to a single realization?
- ► Compute values for a single realization $f^{(k)(t)}$, across all time moments
- 1. Temporal average value

$$\overline{f^{(k)}(t)} = \mu^{(k)} = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{T/2}^{T/2} f^{(k)}(t) dt$$

- ▶ This value does not depend on time t
- 2. Temporal average squared value

$$\overline{[f^{(k)}(t)]^2} = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} [f^{(k)}(t)]^2 dt$$

Temporal variance

3. Temporal variance

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{\{f^{(k)}(t) - \mu^{(k)}\}^2} = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} (f^{(k)}(t) - \mu^{(k)})^2 dt$$

▶ The variance can be computed as:

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{[f^{(k)}(t)]^2} - [\mu^{(k)}]^2$$

Temporal autocorrelation

4. The temporal autocorrelation function

$$egin{aligned} R_{\it ff}(t_1,t_2) &= \overline{f^{(k)}(t_1+t)f^{(k)}(t_2+t)} \ \\ R_{\it ff}(t_1,t_2) &= \lim_{T o\infty} rac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f^{(k)}(t_1+t)f^{(k)}(t_2+t) dt \end{aligned}$$

5. The temporal correlation function (for different random processes f(t) and g(t))

$$R_{fg}(t_1, t_2) = \overline{f^{(k)}(t_1 + t)g^{(k)}(t_2 + t)}$$
 $R_{fg}(t_1, t_2) = \lim_{T o \infty} rac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f^{(k)}(t_1 + t)g^{(k)}(t_2 + t)dt$

Stationary random processes

- ▶ All the statistical averages are dependent on the time t₁
 - ightharpoonup i.e. they might be different for a sample at t_2
- ▶ **Stationary** random process = when statistical averages are identical upon shifting the time origin (e.g. delaying the signal
- ► The PDF are identical when shifting the time origin:

$$w_n(x_1,...x_n;t_1,...t_n) = w_n(x_1,...x_n;t_1+\tau,...t_n+=tau)$$

- Strictly stationary / strongly stationary / strict-sense stationary:
 - relation holds for every n
- Weakly stationary / wide-sense stationary:
 - ▶ relation holds only for n = 1 and n = 2 (the most used)

Consequences of stationarity

For n = 1:

$$w_1(x_i; t_1) = w_1(x_i; t_2) = w_1(x_i)$$

► Consequence: the average value, average squared value, variance of a sample are all **identical** for any time *t*

$$\overline{f(t)} = constant, \forall t$$
 $\overline{f^2(t)} = constant, \forall t$
 $\sigma^2(t) = constant, \forall t$

▶ For n = 2:

$$w_2(x_i, x_j; t_1, t_2) = w_2(x_i, x_j; 0, t_2 - t_1) = w_2(x_i, x_2; t_2 - t_1)$$

▶ Consequence: the autocorrelation / correlation functions depend only on the **time difference** t_2-t_1 between the samples, no matter where they are located

$$R_{ff}(t_1, t_2) = R_{ff}(t_2 - t_1) = R_{ff}(\tau)$$

 $R_{fg}(t_1, t_2) = R_{fg}(t_2 - t_1) = R_{fg}(\tau)$

Ergodic random processes

- In practice, we have access to a single realization
- ► **Ergodic** random process = when the temporal averages on any realization are **equal** to the statistical averages
- ▶ We can compute all averages from a single realization
 - ▶ the realization must be very long (length $\to \infty$)
 - a realization is characteristic of the whole process
 - realizations are all similar to the others, statistically
- Most random processes we are about are ergodic and stationary
 - e.g. noises
- Example of non-ergodic process:
 - throw a dice, then the next 50 values are identical to the first
 - a single realization is not characteristic

Practical distributions

- ▶ Some of the most encountered probability density functions:
- ▶ The uniform distribution U[a, b]
 - ▶ insert expression here
- ▶ The normal (gaussian) distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- lacktriangledown has average value μ
- ▶ has variance ("dispersia") σ^2
- ▶ has the familiar "bell" shape
- variance controls width
- narrower = taller, fatter = shorter

Computation of probabilities for normal functions

- We sometimes need to compute \int_a^b of a normal function
- ▶ Use the error function:

$$erf(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^z e^{-t^2} dt$$

▶ The cumulative distribution function of a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$F(X) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + erf(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}))$$

- ► The error function can be simply calculated on Google, e.g. search erf (0.5)
- ► Also, we might need:
 - $ightharpoonup erf(-\infty) = -1$
 - $erf(\infty) = 1$
- Examples at blackboard

Properties of the auto-correlation function

For a stationary random process:

$$R_{ff}(au) = \overline{f(t)f(t+ au)}$$
 $R_{ff}(t_1,t_2) = R_{ff}(au=t_2-t_1)$

- lacktriangleright Is the average value of a product of two samples time au apart
- lacktriangle Depends on a single value au= time difference of the two samples

The Wiener-Khinchin theorem

- Rom: teorema Wiener-Hincin
- The Fourier transform of the autocorr function = power spectral density of the process

$$S_{ff}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{ff}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

$$R_{\rm ff}(au) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{\rm ff}(\omega) {
m e}^{j\omega au} d\omega$$

- ▶ No proof
- The power spectral density
 - tells the average power of the process at every frequency
- ► Some random processes have low frequencies (they vary rather slowly)
- Some random processes have high frequencies (they vary rather fast)

White noise

▶ White noise = random process with autocorr function = a Dirac

$$R_{ff}(\tau) = \delta(\tau)$$

- Any two different samples are not correlated
 - ▶ all samples are absolutely independent one of the other
- Power spectral density = a constant
 - has equal power at all frequencies
- ▶ In real life, power goes to 0 for very high frequencies
 - e.g. samples which are very close are necessarily correlated
 - = limited white noise

Properties of the autocorrelation function

1. Is even