

Basics of signal processing (3)

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Material for this section of the course

- Matlab notebooks available here:
 - https://drive.matlab.com/sharing/d5ad1819-5e50-442a-81fc-6017505d91f3
 - NEng_1920_02_Stats.mlx (cont'd)
 - NEng_1920_03_Spectr.mlx
- Not a textbook, but readings for those who want to have some context:
 - Steven W. Smith
 The Scientist and Engineer's Guide to Digital Signal Processing
 https://www.dspguide.com/pdfbook.htm

Neuroengineering - Statistics, Probability and Noise

Signal can be entirely deterministic, or they can be known only by means of their statistical properties. We will introduce a number measurements to characterize both types of signals.

Probability theory deals with the mathematical modeling of random variables (numbers) and processes (signals). Statistics deals with the description of empirical observations, and with the estimation of the (usually unknown) parameters of the mathematical models of the variables and processes. (stochastic signals)

Fundamental to several analysis algorithms, the Central Limit Theorem states the relevance of Normal (Gaussian) distributions in empirical sciences

See also https://www.dspguide.com/pdfbook.htm, Chapter 2

Basic measures for signal characterization

Mean:

$$\overline{X} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i \to \mu_X$$

Average Rectified Value (ARV):

$$ARV_X = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |x_i|$$

Root Mean Square (RMS):

$$RMS_X = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i^2}$$

Average deviation:

$$AD_X = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |x_i - \bar{X}|$$

Variance σ^2 and Standard deviation (SD, σ):

$$s_X^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (x_i - \bar{X})^2 \to \sigma_X^2$$

$$s_X = \sqrt{\sigma_X^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (x_i - \overline{X})^2} \stackrel{\sim}{\to} \sigma_X$$

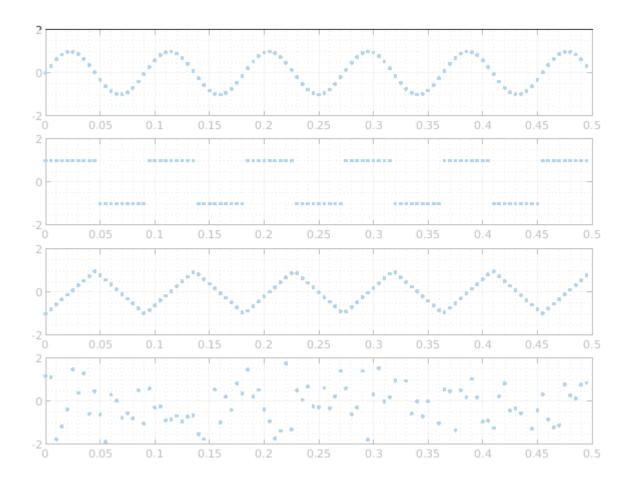
Note that when a signal has zero mean, $RMS_X \cong \sigma_X^2$, and $ARV_X \cong AD_X$

We introduce here four signals that we will analize in the following:

- 1. sinewave
- 2. square wave
- 3. triangular wave
- 4. gaussian white noise

The first three are deterministic waveforms, oscillating at fundamental frequency F_0 . The last one is a stochastic signal, characterized by having incorrelated samples (whiteness, i.e. no statistical prediction can be made on the value of a specific sample by knowing the value of the others) and gaussian distribution of the sample values (see below).

```
sinewave = @(t, f0) sin(2*pi*f0*t);
squarewave = @(t, f0) square(2*pi*f0*t);
triangwave = @(t, f0) sawtooth(2*pi*f0*t,1/2); % triangular wave
gwnoise = @(t, dummy) randn(size(t));
                                           % gaussian white noise
F 0 = 11; %Hz, fundamental frequency of waveforms
NUM POINTS = 100;
t = 0.005 *(0:NUM_POINTS-1)'; % s, time axis
wavenames = ["sine" "square" "triangle" "noise"];
waves = {sinewave(t,F_0), squarewave(t,F_0), triangwave(t,F_0), gwnoise(t,NaN)};
linetype = ".";
figure(1)
clf
tiledlayout(length(waves),1, "TileSpacing","none", "Padding","none");
for ii = 1:length(waves)
   nexttile
   plot(t, waves{ii}, linetype)
   ylim([-2 2])
   grid on
   grid minor
end
```



Intermezzo -- Audio representation

```
F_0_audio = 400; % Hz
F_samp_audio = 8000; % Samples/second, S/s
t_audio = (0:F_samp_audio-1)' / F_samp_audio; % s
fun = gwnoise;
audio_wave = fun(t_audio,F_0_audio);
% audiowrite("wave.wav", audio_wave, F_samp_audio);
filename = regexprep(string(func2str(fun)),"@?\([^\)]*\)","_");
audiowrite(filename+".wav", audio_wave, F_samp_audio);
```

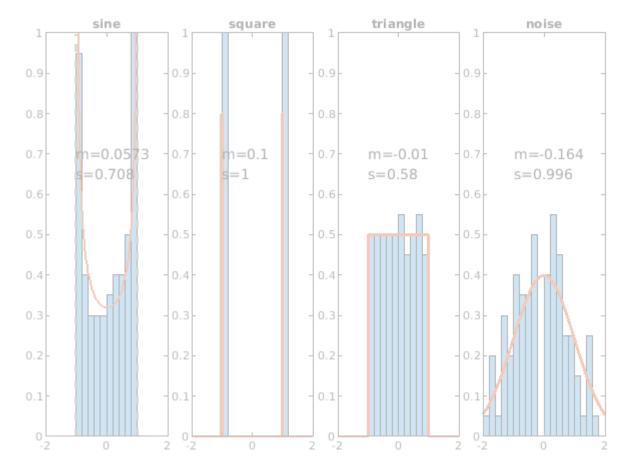
Warning: Data clipped when writing file.

We want to characterize here how the samples are distributed on the vertical axis: the central tendency (mean), the dispersion (standard deviation), the shape of the distribution (probability density function, pdf).

Note that we have perfect knowledge of the mathematical model we used to generate the determinist and stochastic signals. Nevertheless, even for deterministic signals there are sources of non-deterministic outcome (e.g. finite number and uncontrolled position of time samples) which make the empiric and ideal results to overlap only in part.

As for the stochastic signal, each time we repeat this simulation, we obtain different values of mean, standard deviation, and histogram. We can only assess the compatibility of empirical observations with the mathematical model in a statistical sense.

```
INFTY = .8; EPS = .01;
normal_pdf = @(x,m,s) (2*pi*s^2)^(-1/2) .* exp(-(x-m).^2./(2*s^2));
% these are the pdf's of the mathematical model we used to generate the
% waveforms.
pdfs = {
    @(a) 1./(pi*(1-a.^2).^(1/2))
    @(a) INFTY * double(abs(abs(a)-1) < EPS) % should be a Dirac's delta
    @(a) 1/2 * double(abs(a) <= 1) % uniform
    Q(a) normal_pdf(a,0,1)
    };
figure(2)
clf
tiledlayout(1, length(waves), "TileSpacing", "none", "Padding", "none");
for ii = 1:length(waves)
    nexttile
    histogram(waves{ii}, linspace(-2,2,21), ...
        "Normalization", "pdf" ...
       )
    hold on
    fplot(pdfs{ii}, [-2 2], "LineWidth",2)
    hold off
    xlim([-2 2])
    ylim([0 1])
    title(wavenames{ii})
    m_x = mean(waves{ii});
    s_x = std(waves{ii});
    text(-1, .70, "m="+sprintf("%.3g",m_x))
    text(-1, .65, "s="+sprintf("%.3g",s_x))
end
```



True standard deviation of sinewave

True standard deviation of triangle wave

---- 29/04/2020 ----

^^^^^

Central limit theorem (CLT)

When N independent and identically distributed random variables X_i are averaged, the resulting variable $Z = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i$ tends toward a **normal distribution** even if the original variables themselves are not normally distributed. (*Normal distributions are sometimes called Gaussian distributions*.)

The mean of Z equals the mean of X_i , the variance decreases by a factor N, the standard deviation by a factor \sqrt{N} :

$$\mu_Z = \mu_X$$

$$\sigma_Z^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sigma_X^2$$

$$\sigma_Z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sigma_X$$

To visualize the consequences of the CLT, we first show the amplitude distribution of a (uniformly distributed) white noise, and its standard deviation. By design, the expected value of this noise's mean and standard deviation are respectively:

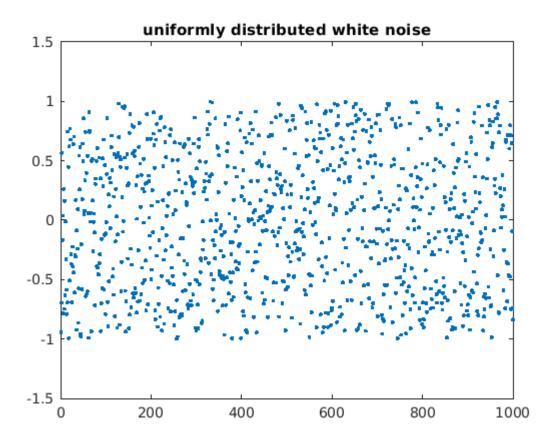
 $\mu_X = 0$ (We will later manipulate the expected mean, by adding a small "useful" signal to this noise.)

$$\sigma_X = \frac{2}{\sqrt{12}} \cong 0.57735$$

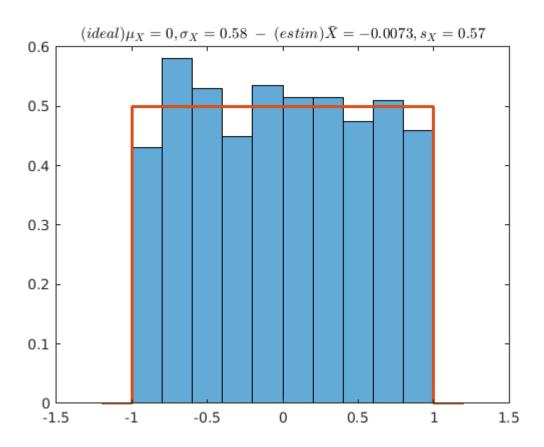
N.B. when we estimate these parameters from empirical data we can only approach the modelled values.

```
SIGNAL_LEN = 1000;
SIGNAL_AMPLITUDE = 0;  % amplitude of the "useful" signal
signal = SIGNAL_AMPLITUDE * sin(2*pi*(1:SIGNAL_LEN)'/SIGNAL_LEN);
uwnoise = -1 + 2*rand(SIGNAL_LEN,1);  % uniform white noise (N.B. uniform, non gaussian)
var_x = signal + uwnoise;

figure(3)
clf
plot(var_x, '.')
ylim([-1.5 1.5])
title ("uniformly distributed white noise")
```



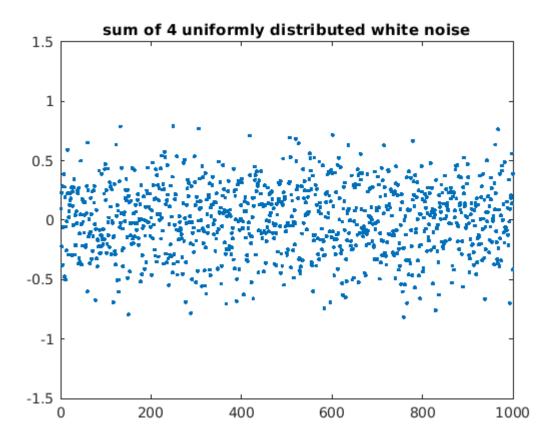
```
figure(4)
clf
histogram(uwnoise, "Normalization","pdf")
hold on
fplot(@(x) 1/2 * double(abs(x)<1), [-1.2 1.2], "LineWidth",2)
hold off
m_x = mean(uwnoise);
s_x = std(uwnoise);
titlestr = "$"+...
    "(ideal) \mu_X=0, \sigma_X="+sprintf("%.2g", 2/sqrt(12)) + "\;-\;" + ...
    "(estim) \bar{X}="+sprintf("%.2g", m_x)+", s_X="+sprintf("%.2g", s_x) + ...
    "$";
title(titlestr, "Interpreter","latex")</pre>
```



generate N independent copies of the sample, and take their average

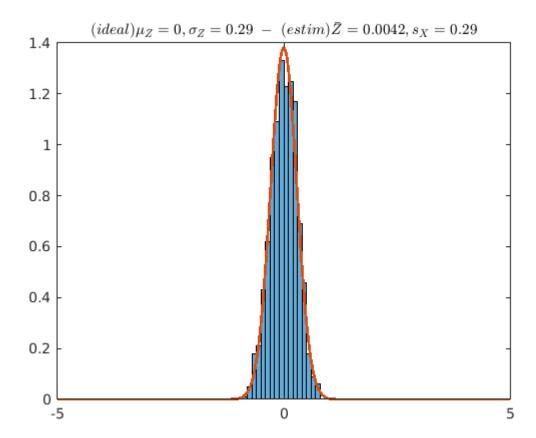
```
N=4;
noise_copies = -1 + 2*rand(SIGNAL_LEN,N);
vars_xi = signal + noise_copies;
var_z = mean(vars_xi, 2);

figure(5)
clf
plot(var_z, '.')
ylim([-1.5 1.5])
title ("sum of "+ N +" uniformly distributed white noise")
```



```
figure(6)
clf
histogram(var_z-signal, "Normalization","pdf")
hold on
fplot(@(x) normal_pdf(x,0,(1/sqrt(N) * 2/sqrt(12))), "LineWidth",2)
hold off
m_z = mean(var_z-signal);
s_z = std(var_z-signal);
title("\sigma_Z="+sprintf("%.2g", s_z))

titlestr = "$"+...
    "(ideal) \mu_Z=0, \sigma_Z="+sprintf("%.2g", (1/sqrt(N) * 2/sqrt(12))) + "\;-\;" + ...
    "(estim) \bar{Z}="+sprintf("%.2g", m_z)+", s_X="+sprintf("%.2g", s_z) + ...
    "$";
title(titlestr, "Interpreter","latex")
```



Neuroengineering - Spectral analysis

or integral

Fourier Analysis, i.e. decomposition of signals into sum of sinewaves. Since each sinewave carries power at exactly one frequency, the decomposition can be used to analyze the signal in the frequency domain. Specifically Discrete Fourier Transform can be used to transform the (time-limited and sampled) time-domain representation of a signal into its (bandwidth limited an sampled) representation in the frequency domain.

DISCRETE FOURIER TRANSFORM

Using the <u>DFT</u> to analyze the spectral content of a (stochastic) signal may limit the ability to interpret the results. Specific techniques are commonly in use:

- Zeropadding and windowing are techniques aimed at compensating the effect on the spectrum of a limited number of samples in the time domain (low resolution, sidelobes)
- Power Spetral Density (PSD) can be estimated techniques such as the *averaged periodogram* which limit the variability of the power estimate at the expense of a loss of spectral resolution.

See also:

- Semmlow, Biosignal and medical image processing, Chapter 3
- (https://www.dspguide.com/pdfbook.htm, Chapters 6 and 31)

A sinewave is a function of time, with parameters: frequency f, amplitude A, and initial phase ϕ

```
amplitude
sinewave = @(t, f,A,phi) A * cos(2*pi*f*t + phi);
t = (0:.005:1)'; % seconds

f = 1; % Hz
A = 1;
phi = 0 * pi; % radians

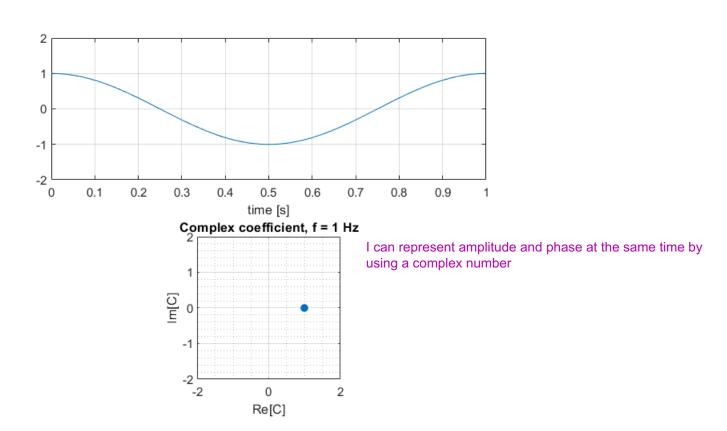
figure(1)
clf
subplot 211
plot(t, sinewave(t, f,A,phi))
xlim([0 1])
ylim([-2 2])
grid on
xlabel("time [s]")
```

```
C = Ae^{j\phi} \Leftrightarrow A = |C|, \phi = \angle C
```

```
C = A*exp(lj*phi); % Complex amplitude
subplot 212
plot(real(C), imag(C), '.', 'MarkerSize', 20)

axis square equal
xlim([-2 2])
ylim([-2 2])
grid on; grid minor
title("Complex coefficient, f = " + f + " Hz")
```

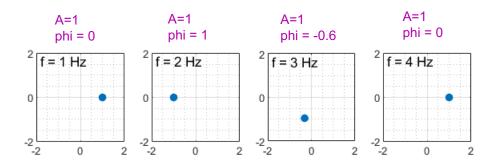
```
xlabel("Re[C]")
ylabel("Im[C]")
```

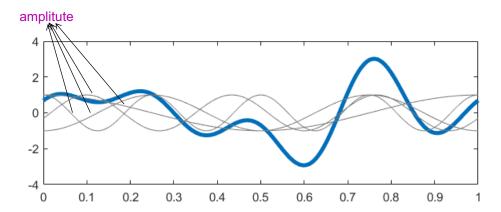


Sinewaves can be composed to create more complex waveforms:

```
f1 = 1; % Hz
ff = f1 .* [1 2 3 4];
CC(1) = 1 * exp(1j * 0 * pi);
CC(2) = 1 * exp(1j * 1 * pi);
CC(3) = 1 * exp(1j * -0.6 * pi);
CC(4) = 1 * exp(1j * 0 * pi);
waveform = @(t) \dots
    sinewave(t, ff(1), abs(CC(1)), angle(CC(1))) + ...
    sinewave(t, ff(2), abs(CC(2)), angle(CC(2))) + ...
    sinewave(t, ff(3), abs(CC(3)), angle(CC(3))) + ...
    sinewave(t, ff(4), abs(CC(4)), angle(CC(4)));
figure(2)
clf
for k=1:4
    subplot(2,4,k)
    plot_complex_coefficient(CC(k), ff(k));
end
```

```
subplot(2,1,2)
plot(t, waveform(t), "Linewidth", 3)
hold on
for k=1:4
    plot(t, sinewave(t, ff(k), abs(CC(k)), angle(CC(k))), "Color", "#808080");
end
hold off
```





Decompose and reconstruct arbitrary waveforms

Discrete Fourier Transform: X[m] = DTF(x[n]) the square brackets indicate that x is not a continuous signal but sampled length of frequency domain signal x[n] is the value of each sample

Transformation from time (N real samples, taken every $1/f_s$ seconds) to frequency domain (N complex samples,

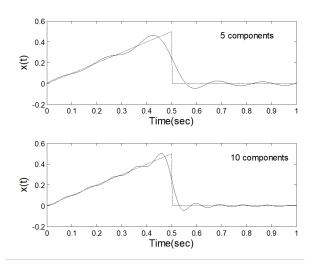
spanning $[0,f_s)$ Hz): FFT - Fast Fourier Transform - is a numerical optimization of the DFT

$$X[m] = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x[n]e^{-j2\pi mn/N}$$

Antitransformation from frequency to time domain:

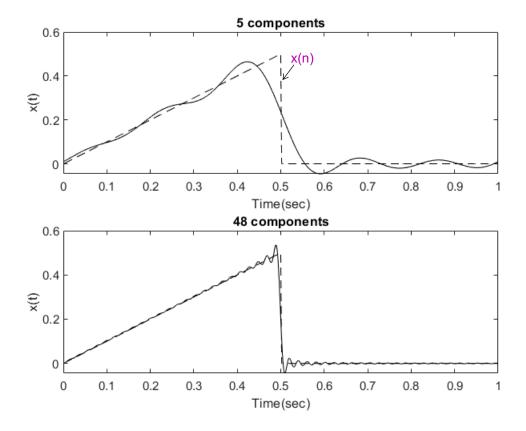
$$x[m] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} X[m] e^{+j2\pi mn/N}$$

Demonstration -- decompose and reconstruct a ramp.



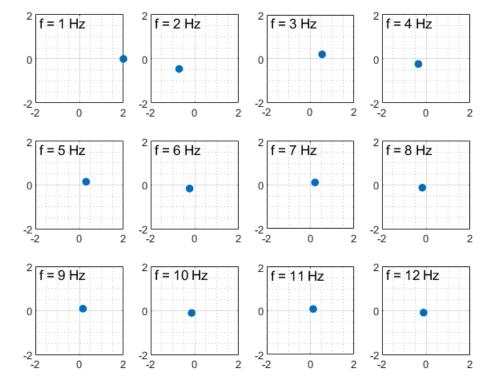
```
% Example 3.2 Perform a discrete Fourier series analysis on
% the triangular waveform defined by the equation given
% (modified to use complex coefficients)
% clear all; close all;
fs = 500;
                     % Sampling frequency
Tt = 1;
                     % Total time
N = Tt*fs;
                     % Determine N
                     % Fundamental frequency
f1 = 1/Tt;
t = (1:N)/fs;
                     % Time vector
% Construct waveform
                     % Constuct waveform
x = zeros(1,N);
x(1:N/2) = t(1:N/2);
% Fourier decomposition
% a0 = 2*mean(x); % Calculate a(0).
X = fft(x); this is the real transformation
                                        here we compute the DFT
fft_magnitude = abs(X);
X_mag0 = fft_magnitude(1); % remove DC, and pick only the first 10 components
X_{mag} \leftarrow fft_{magnitude}(2:N/2); % remove DC, and pick only the first 10 components
                                   we compute the magnitude and the angle of the complex signal X
fft angle = angle(X);
X_{phase} \leftarrow fft_{angle(2:N/2)};
X_phase = unwrap(X_phase);
                                % Compenstes for shifts > 2 pi
% Reconstructions
x1 = zeros(1,N);
                            % Add in DC term
x1 = x1 + X mag0/N;
for m = 1:5
    f(m) = m*f1;
                         % Sinusoidal frequencies
    x1 = x1 + 2/N * X_mag(m)*cos(2*pi*f(m)*t + X_phase(m)); % Eq. 3.15
end
subplot(2,1,1);
plot(t,x1,'k'); hold on;
plot(t,x,'--k');
                      % Plot reconstructed and original waveform
xlabel('Time(sec)','FontSize',14);
ylabel('x(t)', 'FontSize', 14);
title('5 components', 'FontSize', 12);
```

```
x2 = zeros(1,N);
NUM_COMPONENTS = 48;
x2 = x2 + X_mag0/N;
                            % Add in DC term
for m = 1:NUM_COMPONENTS
    f(m) = m*f1;
                        % Sinusoidal frequencies
    x2 = x2 + 2/N * X_mag(m)*cos(2*pi*f(m)*t + X_phase(m));
end
                          % Add in DC term
% x2 = x2 + a0/2;
subplot(2,1,2);
plot(t,x2,'k'); hold on
plot(t,x,'--k');
                     % Plot reconstructed and original waveform
xlabel('Time(sec)','FontSize',14);
ylabel('x(t)','FontSize',14);
title(sprintf('%d components', NUM_COMPONENTS),'FontSize',12);
```



Display ther first 12 complex coefficients (note the arbitrary scale factor)

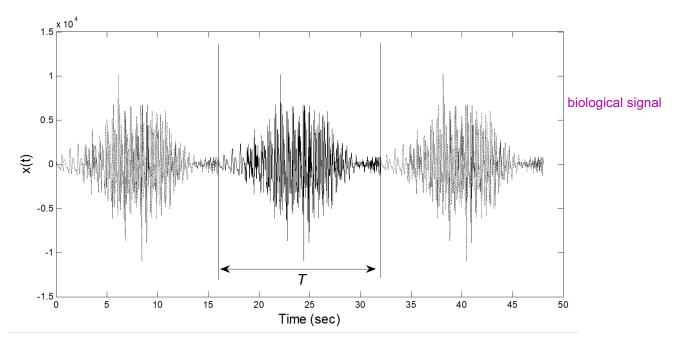
```
figure(3)
clf
for k = 1:12
    subplot(3,4, k)
    SCALE_FACTOR = 2/max(X(2:13)); % arbitrary scaling, for display purposes only
    plot_complex_coefficient(X(k+1)*SCALE_FACTOR, f(k));
end
```



Magnitude and phase plots

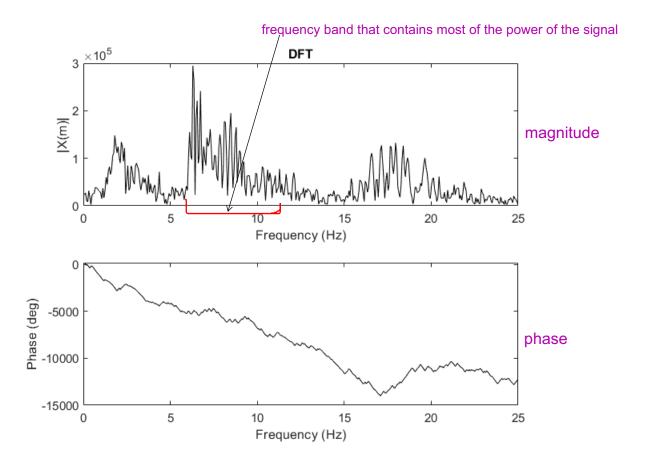
Representation in the frequency domain is mathematically equivalent to the time-domain representation.

We still have to find a way to represent complex numbers. The most useful choice is to use two plots, one for the magnitude and one for the (unwrapped) phase.



```
% Example 3.1 Use Fourier series analysis to generate the magnitude and
 phase plot of the ECG signal originally shown in Figure 2.16 and repeated below.
% clear all; close all;
fs = 50;
                       % Sample frequency
load eeg data
N = length(eeg); % Get N
% ...
figure(4);
N2 = round(N/2);
f = (1:N2)*fs/(2*N2);
X = fft(eeg);
X_mag = abs(X);
X_{phase} = angle(X);
X_phase = X_phase*360/(2*pi); % Convert phase to deg.
subplot(2,1,1);
plot(f, X_mag(1:N2), 'k');
                                  % Plot magnitude spectrum
xlabel('Frequency (Hz)','FontSize',14);
ylabel('|X(m)|','FontSize',14); title('DFT')
subplot(2,1,2);
plot(f,X_phase(1:N2),'k');
                          % Plot phase spectrum
xlabel('Frequency (Hz)', 'FontSize',14);
ylabel('Phase (deg)',/FontSize',14);
```

if we use "k." we obtain another type of graph with points



Detecting narrowband signal in wideband noise (sinewayes are the most narrow -band signal, white noise is the most wide-band signal)
The function sig_noise() generates data consisting of sinusoids and noise useful in evaluating spectral analysis algorithms.

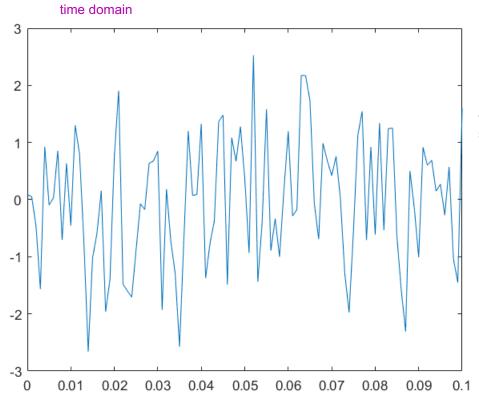
The calling structure for sig noise used in this example is:

```
this generates N samples of white noise on top of which there is a sinewave at
[x,t] = sig_noise([f],[SNR],N);
                                           frequency n and the amplitude is such that it achieves a specified SNR
```

where fs pecifies the frequency of the sinusoid(s) in Hz, N is the number of points, and SNR specifies the desired noise in dB associated with the sinusoid(s). If f is a vector, multiple sinusoids are generated.

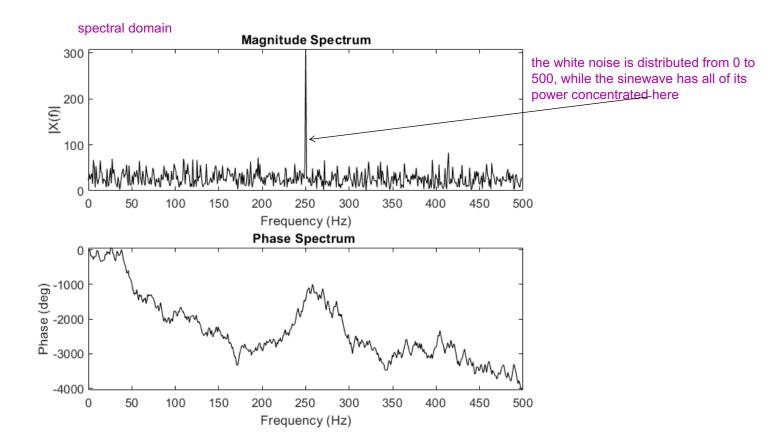
```
Example 3.3 Determine the magnitude and phase spectrum of a noisy
  First generates a waveform consisting of a single sine in noise,
      then calculates the magnitude and phase spectum from the FFT and plot
  clear all; close all;
N = 1024;
                          % Data length
N2 = 511;
                          % Valid spectral points
fs = 1000;
                          % Sample frequency (assumed by sig_noise)
[x,t] = sig_noise(250,-7,N); % Get data (250 Hz sin plus white noise)
figure(5)
                        the fact that SNR is negative, it means that the amplitude of the sinewave is almost 10
clf
                        times time lower than the amplitude of the noise
plot(t,x)
xlim([0, 0.1])
```

(SNR is the ratio of the amplitude/power of signal over noise, expressed in dB) SNR/dB = 20 * log 10 (A_signal / A_noise) = 10 * log_10 (P_signal / P_noise)



the signal is sintetized by adding some white noise to sinewave

```
X = fft(x);
                 % Calculate FFT
                    % Compute magnitude spectrum
X_{mag} = abs(X);
Phase = unwrap(angle(X));  % Phase spectrum unwraped
Phase = Phase*360/(2*pi); % Convert phase to deg
f = (0:N-1)*fs/N;
                     % Frequency vector
figure(6)
clf
subplot(2,1,1);
title('Magnitude Spectrum', 'FontSize', 12);
xlabel('Frequency (Hz)','FontSize',14);
ylabel('|X(f)|','FontSize',14);
subplot(2,1,2);
title('Phase Spectrum ','FontSize',12);
xlabel('Frequency (Hz)','FontSize',14);
ylabel('Phase (deg)','FontSize',14);
```



Zero padding

Duality in time vs. frequency domain

Higher sampling rate in t ⇔ Broader spectrum in f

Longer signal in t ⇔ Higher resolution in f

Zeropadding (i.e. adding a row of zeros at the end of the signal) allows to increase (artificially) the spectral resolution.