Random process

- A random process or a stochastic process is a collection of random variables: $\{X_t, t \in T\}$
- ▶ Markov chain is an example. Here $T = \{0, 1, \dots\}$
- ▶ We call *T* the index set.
- Normally, T is either (a subset of) set of integers or an interval on real line.
- We think of the index t as time
- ► Thus a random process can represent the time-evolution of the state of a system or a random signal
- \triangleright We assume T is infinite
- ► The index need not necessarily represent time. It can represent, for example, space coordinates.

- ▶ A random process: $\{X_t, t \in T\}$
- ▶ The set T can be countable e.g., $T = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- ▶ Or, T can be continuous e.g., $T = [0, \infty)$
- These are termed discrete-time or continuous-time processes
- \triangleright The random variables, X_t , may be discrete or continuous
- ► These are termed **discrete-state** or **continuous-state** processes
- ► The Markov chain we considered is a discrete-time discrete-state process

- ▶ A random process: $\{X_t, t \in T\}$
- ▶ We can think of this as a mapping: $X: \Omega \times T \to \Re$
- $lackbox X(\cdot,t)$ is a random variable and $X(\omega,\cdot)$ is a real-valued function over T
- So, we can think of the process also as a collection of time functions.
- lacksquare X can be thought of as a map that associates with each $\omega \in \Omega$ a real-valued function on T.
- ► These functions are called sample paths or paths of the process
- We can view the random process as a collection of random variables, or as a collection of functions
- ▶ We will denote the random variables as X_t or X(t)

- ► A finite collection of random variables is completely specified by its joint distribution
- ▶ How do we characterize a random process?
- We need to specify joint distribution of $X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \cdots X_{t_n}$ for all n and all $t_1, t_2, \cdots t_n \in T$.
- ► The specified distributions should be *consistent* with each other
- One can show this completely specifies the process.
- As we saw, for a Markov chain, π_0 and P together specify all such joint distributions

Distributions of a random process

- ▶ A random process: $\{X_t, t \in T\}$ or $X: \Omega \times T \to \Re$
- ▶ The first order distributions function of *X* is

$$F_X(x;t) = Pr[X_t \le x] = F_{X_t}(x)$$

▶ The second order distribution function of *X* is

$$F_X(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = Pr[X_{t_1} \le x_1, X_{t_2} \le x_2] = F_{X_{t_1} X_{t_2}}(x_1, x_2)$$

- ► This is an abuse of notation!
- First order df is a function from $\Re \times T$ to [0,1]Second order df is a function from $\Re^2 \times T^2$ to [0,1]We are using the same symbol, F_X for all.

Distributions of a random process

- ▶ A random process: $\{X_t, t \in T\}$ or $X: \Omega \times T \to \Re$
- ▶ The first order distributions:

$$F_X(x;t) = Pr[X_t \le x] = F_{X_t}(x)$$

► The second order distributions:

$$F_X(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = Pr[X_{t_1} \le x_1, X_{t_2} \le x_2]$$

ightharpoonup The n^{th} order distributions:

$$F_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots t_n) = Pr[X_{t_i} < x_i, i = 1, \dots, n]$$

- \blacktriangleright When it is a discrete-state process, all X_t would be discrete random variables
- ▶ We can specify distributions through mass functions:

$$f_X(x;t) = Pr[X_t = x] = f_{X_t}(x)$$

$$f_X(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = Pr[X_{t_1} = x_1, X_{t_2} = x_2]$$

$$f_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots t_n) = Pr[X_{t_i} = x_i, i = 1, \dots, n]$$

▶ If all X_t are continuous random variables and if all distributions have density functions, then we denote joint density of X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} by $f_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots t_n)$

- Specifying the n^{th} order distributions for all n separately is not feasible.
- ► Hence one needs some assumptions on the model so that these are specified implicitly.
- ▶ One example is the Markovian assumption.
- ► As we saw, in a Markov chain, the transition probabilities and initial state probabilities would determine all the distributions
- ► Another such useful assumption is what is called a process with independent increments

- A random process $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ is said to be a process with independent increments if for all $t_1 < t_2 \le t_3 < t_4$, the random variables $X(t_2) X(t_1)$ and $X(t_4) X(t_3)$ are independent
- ▶ We take this to also imply $X(t_1)$ is independent of $X(t_2) X(t_1)$ for all $t_1 < t_2$.
- Now suppose this is a discrete-state process.
- ▶ Then we can write n^{th} order pmf's as

$$Pr[X(t_1) = x_1, X(t_2) = x_2, \cdots X(t_n) = x_n]$$

$$= Pr[X(t_1) = x_1, X(t_2) - X(t_1) = x_2 - x_1, \cdots]$$

$$= Pr[X(t_1) = x_1] Pr[X(t_2) - X(t_1) = x_2 - x_1] \cdots$$

$$\cdots Pr[X(t_n) - X(t_{n-1}) = x_n - x_{n-1}]$$

▶ We only need up to second order distributions

- Let $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ be a discrete-state process with independent increments
- ▶ Then we specify $f_X(x;t)$ and another function

$$g(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2) = Pr[X(t_2) - X(t_1) = x_2 - x_1]$$

► Now we can get all distributions as

$$f_X(x_1, \dots, x_n; t_1, \dots t_n)$$

$$= Pr[X(t_i) = x_i, \ i = 1, \dots, n]$$

$$= f_X(x_1; t_1) \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} Pr[X(t_{i+1}) - X(t_i) = x_{i+1} - x_i]$$

$$= f_X(x_1; t_1) \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} g(x_i, x_{i+1}; t_i, t_{i+1})$$

- ▶ $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ is called a Gaussian process if all finite dimensional distributions are Gaussian.
- ▶ Then, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} are jointly Gaussian for all t_1, \dots, t_n
- ► This Gaussian density is completely specified if we know all means and covariances.
- ► Hence all we need are two functions:

$$\eta(t) = E[X(t)], \quad C(t_1, t_2) = Cov(X_{t_1}, X_{t_2})$$

► Another example of how all finite dimensional distributions of a process can be specified.

- ▶ Given a random process $\{X(t), t \in T\}$
- ▶ Its mean or mean function is defined by

$$\eta_X(t) = E[X(t)], \ t \in T$$

▶ We define the autocorrelation of the process by

$$R_X(t_1, t_2) = E[X(t_1)X(t_2)]$$

▶ We define the autocovariance of the process by

$$C_X(t_1, t_2) = E[(X(t_1) - E[X(t_1)])(X(t_2) - E[X(t_2)])]$$

= $R_X(t_1, t_2) - \eta_X(t_1)\eta_X(t_2)$

Stationary Processes

 \blacktriangleright A random process $\{X(t),\ t\in T\}$ is said to be stationary if

for all n, for all t_1, \dots, t_n , for all $x_1, \dots x_n$ and for all τ we have

$$F_X(x_1, \dots, x_n ; t_1, \dots, t_n) = F_X(x_1, \dots, x_n ; t_1 + \tau, \dots, t_n + \tau)$$

- ► For a stationary process, the distributions are unaffected by translation of the time axis.
- ► This is a rather stringent condition and is often referred to as strict-sense stationarity

- ► A homogeneous Markov chain started in its stationary distribution is a stationary process
- As we know, if π_0 is the stationary distribution then π_n is same for all n.
- ► This, along with the Markov condition would imply that shift of time origin does not affect the distributions

$$Pr[X_n = x_0, X_{n+1} = x_1, \dots X_{n+m} = x_m]$$

$$= \pi_n(x_0)P(x_0, x_1) \dots P(x_{m-1}, x_m)$$

$$= \pi_0(x_0)P(x_0, x_1) \dots P(x_{m-1}, x_m)$$

$$= Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1, \dots X_m = x_m]$$

- ▶ Suppose $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ is (strict-sense) stationary
- ► Then the first order distribution is independent of time

$$F_X(x;t) = F_X(x;t+\tau), \ \forall x,t,\tau \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{e.g.}, \quad F_X(x;t) = F_X(x;0)$$

- ▶ This implies $\eta_X(t) = \eta_X$, a constant
- ► The second order distribution has to satisfy

$$F_X(x_1, x_2; t, t + \tau) = F_X(x_1, x_2; 0, \tau), \ \forall x_1, x_2, t, \tau$$

- Hence $F_X(x_1, x_2; t_1, t_2)$ can depend only on $t_1 t_2$
- ► This implies

$$R_X(t, t+\tau) = E[X(t)X(t+\tau)] = R_X(\tau)$$

Autocorrelation depends only on the time difference

▶ The process $\{X(t),\ t\in T\}$ is said to be wide-sense stationary if

$$F_X(x;t) = F_X(x;t+\tau), \ \forall x,t,\tau$$

$$F_X(x_1,x_2;t_1,t_2) = F_X(x_1,x_2;t_1+\tau,t_2+\tau)$$

- ► The process is wide-sense stationary if the first and second order distributions are invariant to translation of time origin
- ▶ This is the definition normally used in mathematics books.

- Let $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ be wide-sense stationary. Then
- 1. $\eta_X(t) = \eta_X$, a constant
- 2. $R_X(t_1, t_2)$ depends only on $t_1 t_2$
- ► In many engineering applications, we call a process wide-sense stationary if the above two hold.
- ► In this course we take the above as the definition of wide-sense stationary process
- ► When the process is wide-sense stationary, we write autocorrelation as

$$R_X(\tau) = E[X(t)X(t+\tau)]$$

- ▶ Let $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ be wide-sense stationary.
- ▶ Then $R_X(t_1, t_2) = E[X_{t_1}X_{t_2}]$ depends only on $t_1 t_2$.
- ▶ So, we represent it as $R_X(\tau)$ where we take $\tau = t_2 t_1$.

$$E[X_{t_1}X_{t_2}] = E[X_{t_2}X_{t_1}] \Rightarrow R_X(\tau) = R_X(-\tau)$$

The autocorrelation function of a wide-sense stationary process is a symmetric function of (single) time variable.

- ▶ Let $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ be wide-sense stationary.
- ▶ Let $E[X(t)] = \eta_r, \forall t$.
- ▶ For any t, $E[X^2(t)] = E[X(t)X(t)] = R_X(0)$.
- ► Hence, $Var(X(t)) = E[X^2(t)] \eta_x^2 = R_X(0) \eta_x^2$
- We also have $Cov(X(t), X(t+\tau)) = C_X(\tau) = R_X(\tau) \eta_x^2$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Var}(X(t) - X(t+\tau)) &=& \mathsf{Var}(X(t)) + \mathsf{Var}(X(t+\tau)) \\ &- 2\mathsf{Cov}(X(t), X(t+\tau)) \end{aligned}$$

$$= 2(R_X(0) - \eta_x^2) - 2(R_X(\tau) - \eta_x^2)$$

This gives: $R_X(0) \ge R_X(\tau)$.

Power Spectral Density

- ▶ Let $\{X(t), t \in T\}$ be wide-sense stationary.
- ▶ Then the Fourier Transform of $R_X(\tau)$ is called the Power Spectral density

$$S_X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_X(\tau) e^{-j2\pi f \tau} d\tau$$

- ▶ Since $R_X(\tau)$ is symmetric, $S_X(f)$ is real.
- ► It plays an important role in analysis of linear systems with random inputs

Ergodicity

- ightharpoonup Suppose X(n) is a discrete-time discrete-state process
- Suppose it is wide-sense stationary. Then $E[X(n)] = \eta_X$ for all n
- ► Ergodicity is the question of

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X(i) \stackrel{?}{=} E[X(n)] = \eta_X$$

- ► The question is : do 'time-averages' converge to 'ensemble-averages'
- ▶ The process is wide-sense stationary and hence all X(i) have the same distribution. Hence it is similar to law of large numbers.
- But, thus is not implied by law of large numbers; X(i) need not be uncorrelated (e.g., Markov chain)

► Ergodicity is a question of whether time-averages converge to ensemble-averages?

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X(i) \stackrel{?}{=} E[X(n)] = \eta_X$$

Or, more generally

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(X(i)) \stackrel{?}{=} E[g(X(n))]$$

- ► We proved that this is true for an irreducible, aperiodic, positive recurrent Markov chain (with a finite state space)
- ► Such Markov chains are called ergodic chains.

► Ergodicity: do time-averages converge to ensemble-averages?

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X(i) \stackrel{?}{=} E[X(n)] = \eta_X$$

Or, more generally

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(X(i)) \stackrel{?}{=} E[g(X(n))]$$

For a continuous time process we can write this as

$$\lim_{\tau \to \infty} \frac{1}{2\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} X(t) dt \stackrel{?}{=} E[X(t)] = \eta_X$$

- ightharpoonup This may be true if correlation between X(i) is 'weak'
- One sufficient condition could be that covariance between X(t) and $X(t+\tau)$ decreases fast with increasing τ .

Define

$$\eta_{\tau} = \frac{1}{2\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} X(t) dt \quad (\tau > 0)$$

- ▶ For each τ , η_{τ} is a rv. We write η for η_{X} .
- ▶ We say the process is mean-ergodic if

$$\eta_{\tau} \stackrel{P}{\to} \eta, \quad \text{as} \quad \tau \to \infty$$

► That is, if

$$\lim_{\tau \to \infty} \Pr\left[|\eta_{\tau} - \eta| > \epsilon \right] = 0, \ \forall \epsilon > 0$$

- Note that $E[\eta_{\tau}] = \eta, \ \forall \tau.$
- ► Hence it is enough if we show

$$\sigma_{\tau}^2 \triangleq E\left[\left(\eta_{\tau} - \eta\right)^2\right] \rightarrow 0$$
, as $\tau \rightarrow \infty$

▶ Let $C_X(t_1, t_2)$ be the autocovariance of the process

$$C_X(t_1, t_2) = E[(X(t_1) - \eta)(X(t_2) - \eta)]$$

- Assuming wide-sense stationarity, $C_X(t_1, t_2) = C_X(t_1 t_2)$
- \blacktriangleright We can get σ_{τ}^2 as

$$\sigma_{\tau}^{2} = E\left[(\eta_{\tau} - \eta)^{2}\right]$$

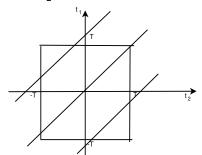
$$= E\left[\frac{1}{2\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} (X(t) - \eta) dt \frac{1}{2\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} (X(t') - \eta) dt'\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} E[(X(t) - \eta)(X(t') - \eta)] dt dt'$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} C_{X}(t - t') dt dt'$$

Let
$$I = \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} C_X(t_1 - t_2) dt_2 dt_1$$

Let $z = t_1 - t_2$. We want to change the integration to be over t_2 and z



Easy to see z goes from -2τ to 2τ When $z \ge 0$, for a given z, t_2 goes from $-\tau$ to $\tau - z$ When z < 0, for a given z, t_2 goes from $-\tau - z$ to τ

Now we get

$$I = \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} C_X(t_1 - t_2) dt_2 dt_1$$

$$= \int_{-2\tau}^{0} \int_{-\tau - z}^{\tau} C_X(z) dt_2 dz + \int_{0}^{2\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau - z} C_X(z) dt_2 dz$$

$$= \int_{-2\tau}^{0} C_X(z) (\tau - (-\tau - z)) dz + \int_{0}^{2\tau} C_X(z) (\tau - z - (-\tau)) dz$$

$$= \int_{-2\tau}^{0} C_X(z) (2\tau + z) dz + \int_{0}^{2\tau} C_X(z) (2\tau - z) dz$$

$$= \int_{-2\tau}^{2\tau} C_X(z) (2\tau - |z|) dz$$

Now we get σ_{τ}^2 as

$$\sigma_{\tau}^{2} = \frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} C_{X}(t - t') dt dt'$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} \int_{-2\tau}^{2\tau} C_{X}(z) (2\tau - |z|) dz$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\tau} \int_{-2\tau}^{2\tau} C_{X}(z) \left(1 - \frac{|z|}{2\tau}\right) dz$$

► Hence, a sufficient condition for $\sigma_{\tau}^2 \to 0$ is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |C_X(z)| \, dz \, < \, \infty$$

► This is a sufficient condition for the process being mean-ergodic

▶ The process is mean-ergodic if

$$\frac{1}{2\tau} \int_{-\tau}^{\tau} X(t) \ dt \stackrel{P}{\to} E[X(t)] = \eta, \quad \text{as } \tau \to \infty$$

A sufficient condition for this is that the covariance between X(t) and X(t+t') should go to zero sufficiently fast with increasing t':

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |C_X(z)| \, dz \, < \, \infty$$

▶ Similar relation holds for discrete time processes also.