

# ***Random Processes and Linear Systems***

***MICHAEL ATHANS***

MIT & ISR/IST

Last Revised: October 28, 2001

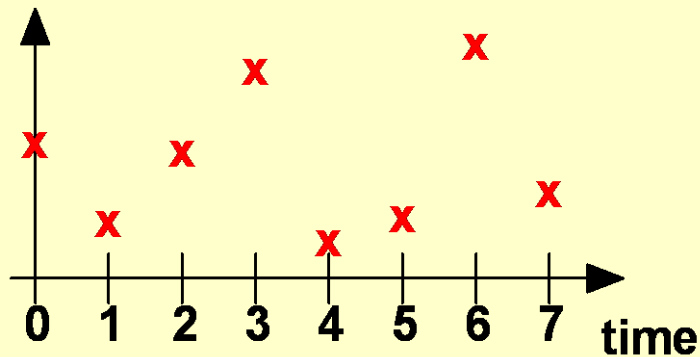
Ref. No. KF #2A

# Theme

- Define the concept of **continuous-time random processes**
  - scalar-valued random processes
  - vector-valued random processes
- Discuss **nonstationary** and **stationary** situations, the nature of the probability density functions (pdf), mean and covariance
  - **nonstationary** means that statistics **change with time**
  - **stationary** means that statistics are **constant over time**
- For stationary random processes we define the “**autocorrelation function**” and the “**power spectral density**”
- Demonstrate how to analyze linear time-invariant (LTI) systems driven by stationary random processes
- Define and discuss a modeling tool, the **continuous-time white noise process**

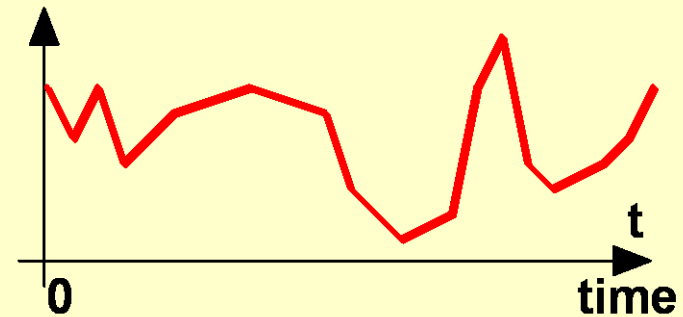
# What Do We Observe?

## DISCRETE-TIME



Random sequence outcome

## CONTINUOUS-TIME

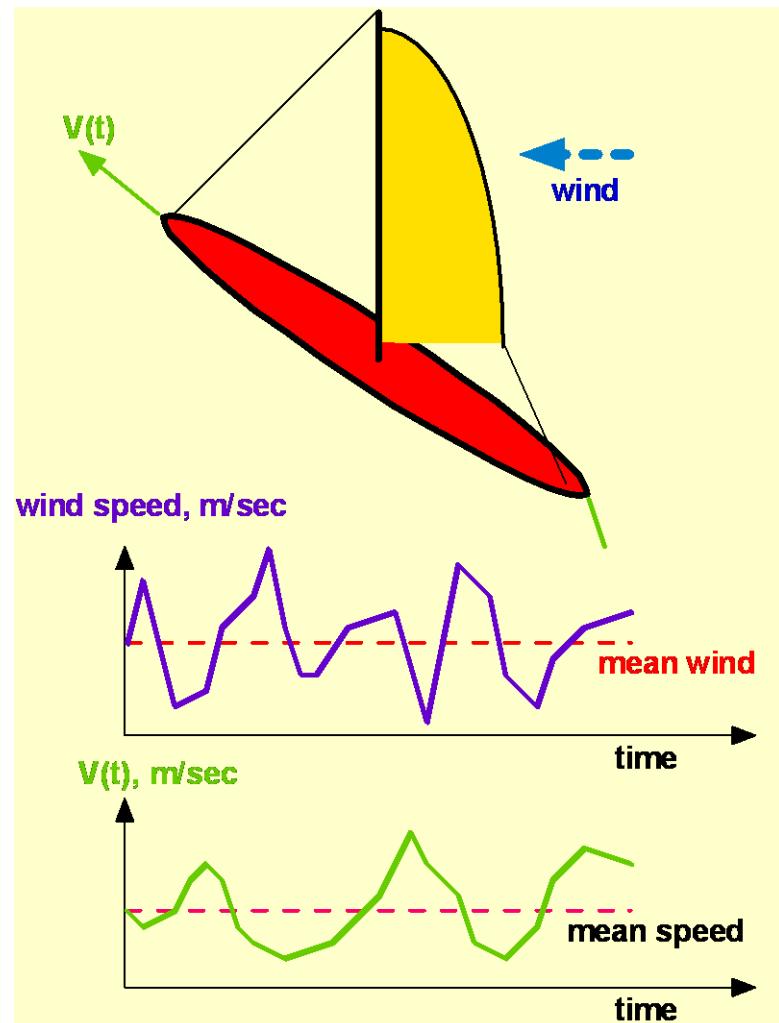


Random process outcome

- Example of random sequence: The numerical outcome of sequentially throwing a die, i.e.  $\{3, 6, 6, 2, 3, 1, 2, 5, 5, 5, \dots\}$
- Example of a random process: Wind disturbances acting on physical systems
- We concentrate on continuous-time random processes (RPs)
- We shall examine random sequences later

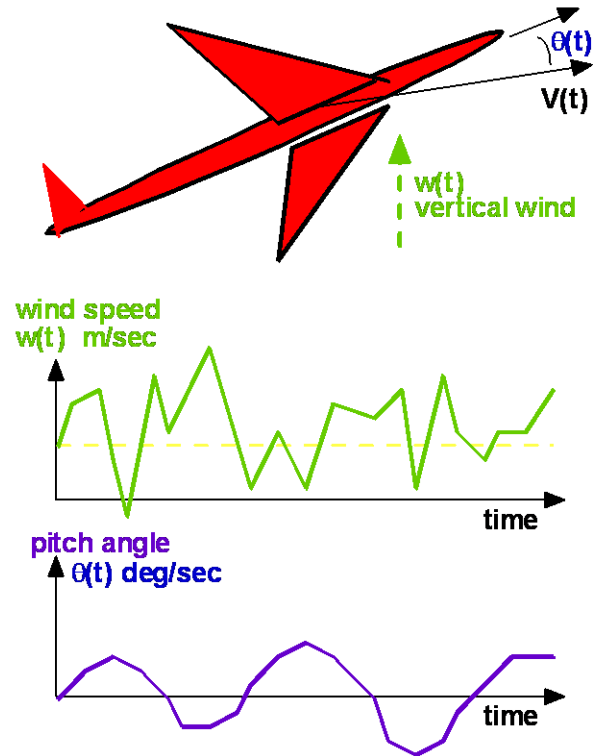
# Example: Sailboat Motion

- Wind speed is an example of a random process. There are random wind speed variations about the mean wind speed.
- The wind speed will influence the speed of the sailboat, so that its velocity will also be a random process
- The sailboat speed will depend on the sailboat dynamics and the randomness of the wind speed

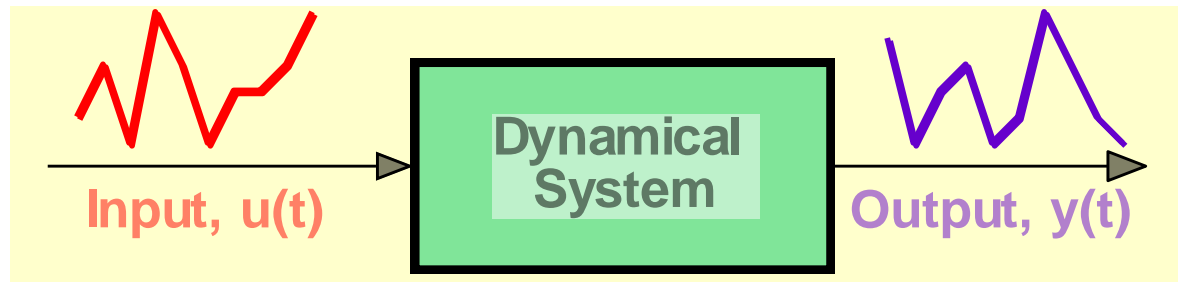


# Example: Aircraft Pitching

- Vertical wind gusts are an example of a random process
- Resulting aircraft pitch angle is also a random process
- Aircraft pitch angle depends on aircraft dynamics influenced by the vertical wind gusts



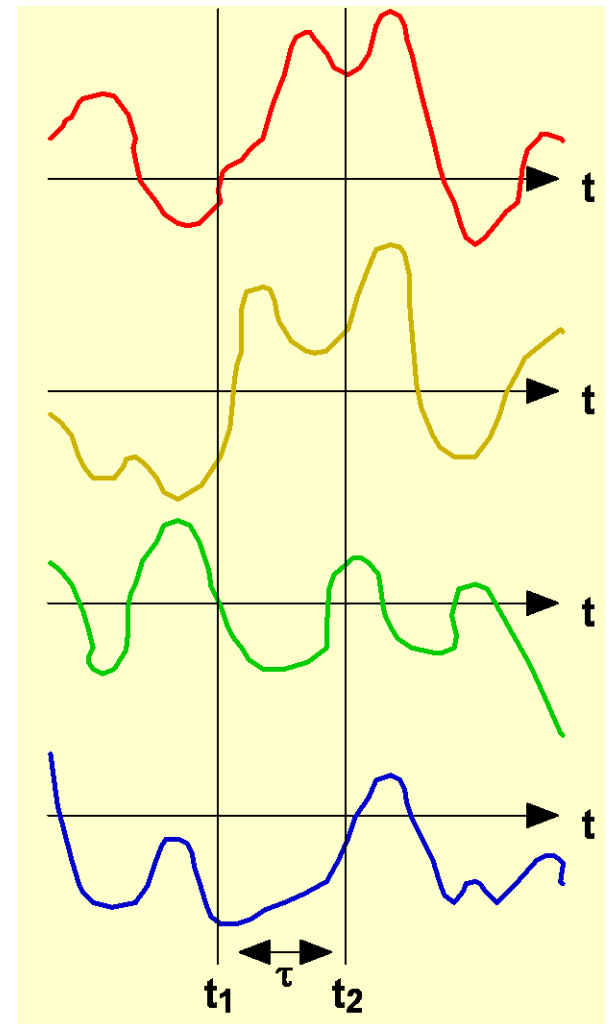
# *Dynamical Systems with Random Inputs*



- We will study how dynamic systems behave when their input,  $u(t)$ , is a random process
- We should expect that the output,  $y(t)$ , will also be a random process
- We must learn how to characterize, in a mathematical framework, random processes
- We must discover how dynamic systems interact with their input random processes and how they generate their output random processes

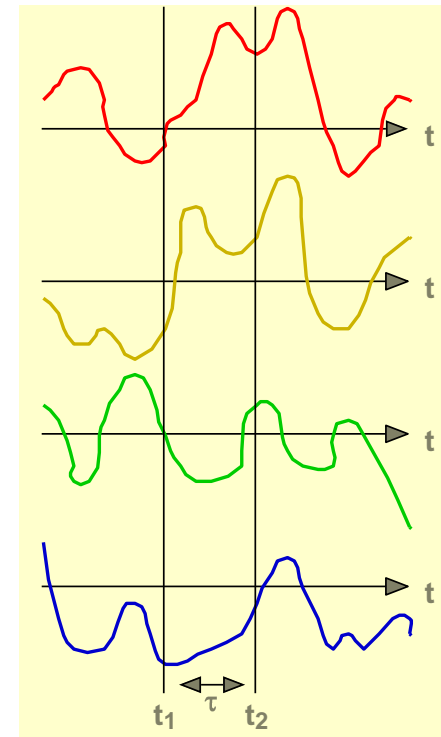
# Continuous-Time Random Processes

- Think of a **random process (RP)** as a collection, or **ensemble**, of time-functions, any one of which may be observed on any trial of an experiment
- Denote the ensemble of functions by  $\{x(t)\}$ , and of any observed member of the ensemble by  $x(t)$
- On repeated trials of experiment, say at times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ ,  $x(t_1)$  and  $x(t_2)$  are **random variables**
- **Example:** the RP may represent the temperature from 9:00 to 10:00 am, on July 13, in Boston (different temperature observed each year)



# Stationary Random Processes

- At time  $t = t_1$ : random variable  $x(t_1) = x_1$ , with pdf  $p(x_1, t_1)$
- At time  $t = t_2$ : random variable  $x(t_2) = x_2$ , with pdf  $p(x_2, t_2)$
- If the statistical properties of the ensemble  $\{x(t)\}$  change with time, then we call the random process "non-stationary", and we write the pdf as  $p(x(t), t)$
- If the statistical properties of the ensemble  $\{x(t)\}$  do not change with time, then we call the random process "stationary", and we write the pdf as  $p(x(t))$





# *Illustration*

- **Non-stationary random process:** the temperature profile, in Boston, on November 28 from 3:00 am to 11:00 pm (it will depend on the time)
- **Stationary random process:** the temperature profile on November 16, in Boston, from 9:00 to 10:00 am

# Statistics of Random Processes

## NONSTATIONARY RANDOM PROCESS

- Time - varying mean:  $m(t)$

$$m(t) \equiv E\{x(t)\} = \int x(t) p(x(t), t) dx(t)$$

- Time - varying variance:  $\sigma^2(t)$

$$\sigma^2(t) \equiv E\{(x(t) - m(t))^2\} = \int (x(t) - m(t))^2 p(x(t), t) dx(t)$$

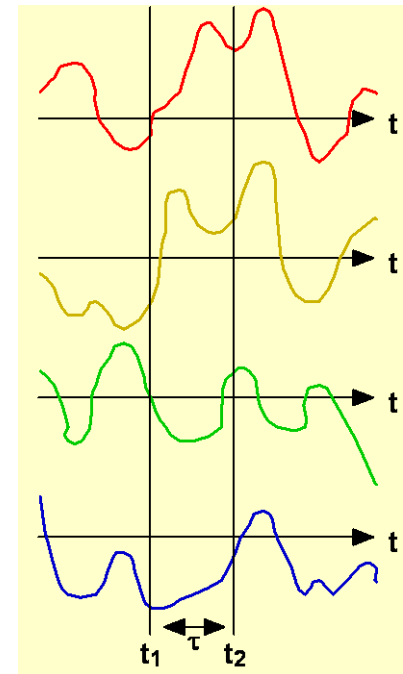
## STATIONARY RANDOM PROCESS

- Constant mean:  $m$

$$m \equiv E\{x(t)\} = \int x(t) p(x(t)) dx(t)$$

- Constant variance:  $\sigma^2$

$$\sigma^2 \equiv E\{(x(t) - m)^2\} = \int (x(t) - m)^2 p(x(t)) dx(t)$$



# Nonstationary Correlation Function

NONSTATIONARY RANDOM PROCESS,  $x(t)$

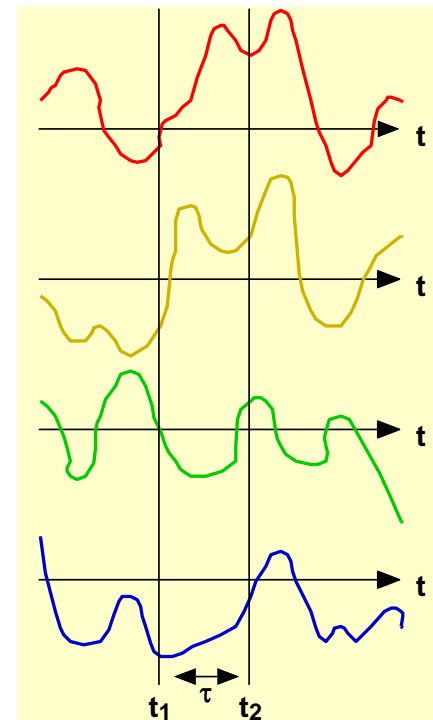
- Time - varying pdf:  $p(x(t), t)$
- Assume:  $E\{x(t)\} = 0 \quad \forall t$
- Consider:  $x_1 \equiv x(t_1), x_2 \equiv x(t_2)$
- The two RVs  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  have a joint density function

$$p(x_1, x_2) = p(x(t_1), t_1; x(t_2), t_2)$$

- The autocorrelation function  $\psi_{xx}(t_1, t_2)$  is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_{xx}(t_1, t_2) &\equiv E\{x(t_1)x(t_2)\} = \\ &= \iint x(t_1)x(t_2)p(x(t_1), t_1; x(t_2), t_2)dx(t_1)dx(t_2)\end{aligned}$$

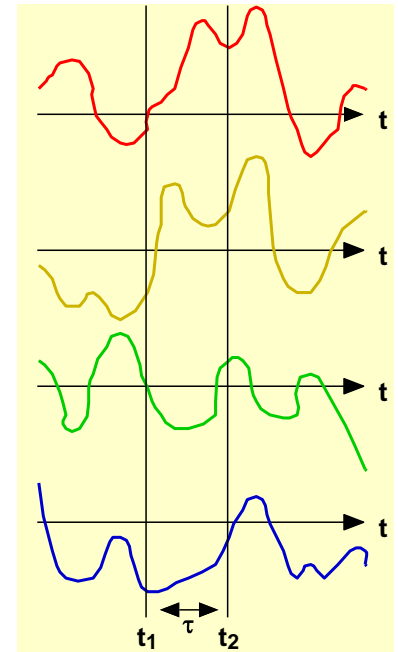
- Note that  $\psi_{xx}(t_1, t_2)$  will depend on the absolute values of time,  $t_1$  and  $t_2$



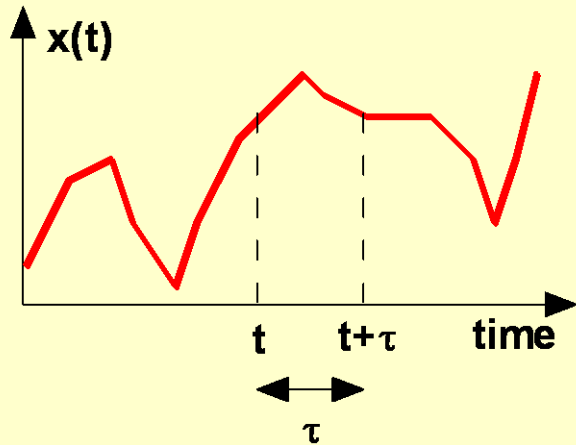
# Stationary Autocorrelation Function

STATIONARY RANDOM PROCESS,  $x(t)$

- Time -independent pdf:  $p(x(t))$
- Assume:  $E\{x(t)\} = 0 \quad \forall t$
- Let  $t_2 = t_1 + \tau$ , and consider  $x_1 \equiv x(t_1)$ ,  $x_2 \equiv x(t_1 + \tau)$
- The two RVs  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  have a joint density function  $p(x_1, x_2, \tau) = p(x(t_1), t_1; x(t_1 + \tau), t_1 + \tau) = p(x(t_1), x(t_1 + \tau), \tau)$  which now only depends on the time - difference  $\tau$
- The autocorrelation function  $\psi_{xx}(\tau)$  is defined by
$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) \equiv E\{x(t)x(t + \tau)\} =$$
$$= \int \int x(t)x(t + \tau)p(x(t), x(t + \tau), \tau)dx(t)dx(t + \tau)$$
- Note that in stationary random processes  $\psi_{xx}(\tau)$  will only depend on the time -interval  $\tau$  and not on the absolute value of time  $t$



# Autocorrelation Function



- Stationary random process,  $x(t)$
- Mean:  $E\{x(t)\} = \bar{x} = \text{constant for all } t$   
Assume  $\bar{x} = 0$  for convenience
- Variance:  $E\{x^2(t)\} = \sigma_{xx}^2 = \text{constant for all } t$

## DEFINITION

- Autocorrelation function of  $x(t)$ :  $\psi_{xx}(\tau)$   
$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) \equiv E\{x(t)x(t+\tau)\}$$
- Autocorrelation function depends only on interval  $\tau$  and not on time  $t$

## PROPERTIES

- $\psi_{xx}(\tau)$  is symmetric, i.e.  
$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) = \psi_{xx}(-\tau)$$
- $$\psi_{xx}(0) = \sigma_{xx}^2$$

# Power Spectral Density (PSD) Function

- Given, zero-mean stationary random process,  $x(t)$ , with autocorrelation function  $\psi_{xx}(\tau)$

## DEFINITION

- The power spectral density (PSD) function  $\phi_{xx}(\omega)$  of  $x(t)$  is the Fourier transform of the autocorrelation function  $\psi_{xx}(\tau)$

$$\phi_{xx}(\omega) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{xx}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

## PSD PROPERTIES

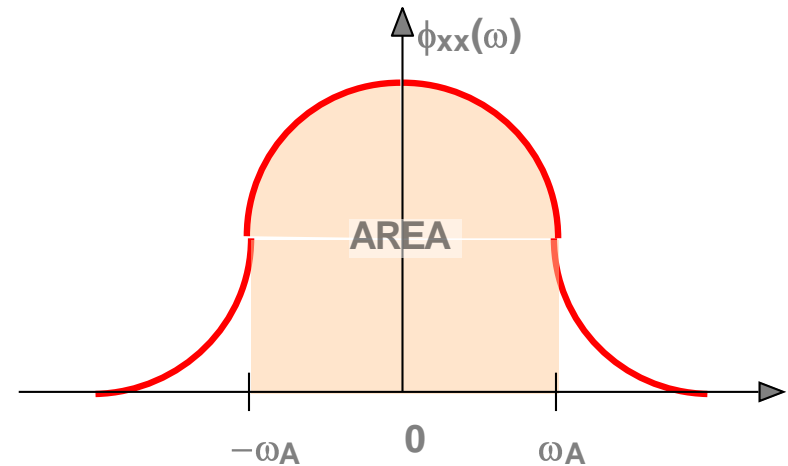
- We can recover the autocorrelation by the inverse Fourier transform

$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_{xx}(\omega) e^{j\omega\tau} d\omega$$

- Note that

$$\phi_{xx}(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{xx}(\tau) d\tau$$

$$\phi_{xx}(\omega) = \phi_{xx}(-\omega)$$



AREA=POWER OF  $x(t)$  IN FREQUENCY RANGE,  $-\omega_A < \omega < \omega_A$

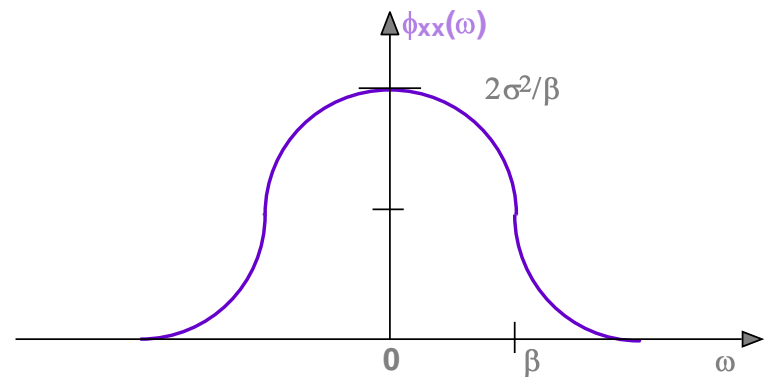
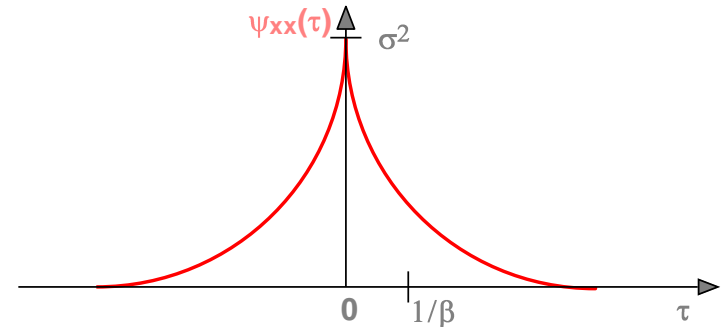
# First-Order Markov Process

- Simplest example of a random process

$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) = \sigma^2 e^{-\beta|\tau|} ; \beta > 0$$

$$\phi_{xx}(\omega) = \frac{2\beta\sigma^2}{\omega^2 + \beta^2}$$

- $\frac{1}{\beta}$  = correlation time-constant
- $\beta$  = bandwidth of PSD



- Note:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \underbrace{\sigma^2 e^{-\beta|\tau|}}_{\psi_{xx}(\tau)} \cdot e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{2\beta\sigma^2}{\omega^2 + \beta^2} = \phi_{xx}(\omega)$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{\frac{2\beta\sigma^2}{\omega^2 + \beta^2}}_{\phi_{xx}(\omega)} \cdot e^{j\omega\tau} d\omega = \sigma^2 e^{-\beta|\tau|} = \psi_{xx}(\tau)$$

# The Ergodic Hypothesis

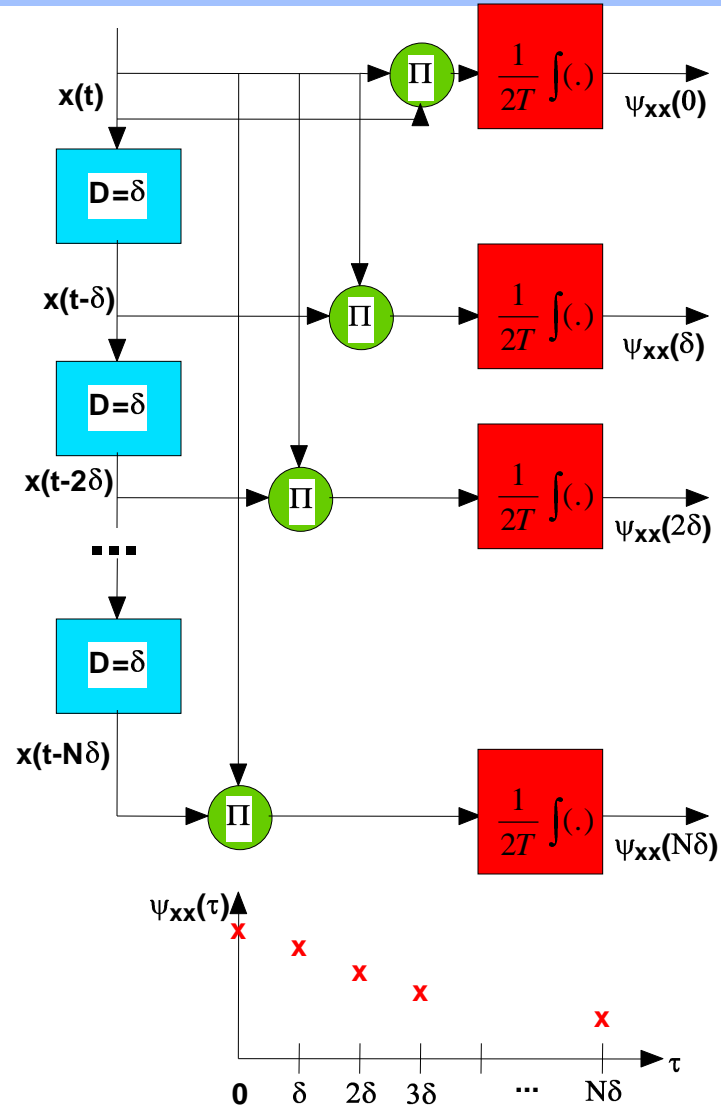
- A stationary random process is *ergodic* if we can calculate its statistics by **averaging over time a single “representative” outcome** (time function)
- “Representative” means that the **time function must reflect all the attributes of the random process** (wiggles etc)
- The set of constant random functions is **not ergodic**, since no outcome is representative

- Mean calculation:  $m \equiv E\{x(t)\} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x(t) dt$
- Variance:  $\sigma_{xx}^2 \equiv E\{(x(t) - m)^2\} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T (x(t) - m)^2 dt$
- Autocorrelation function (with  $m = 0$ ):  
$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) \equiv E\{x(t)x(t+\tau)\} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x(t)x(t+\tau) dt$$



# Calculating Autocorrelation Functions Using Tapped-Delay Lines

- The autocorrelation function can be approximated by using a **tapped-delay line**
- Then, the power spectral density (PSD) function can be approximated using **discrete Fourier transforms (DFT)**

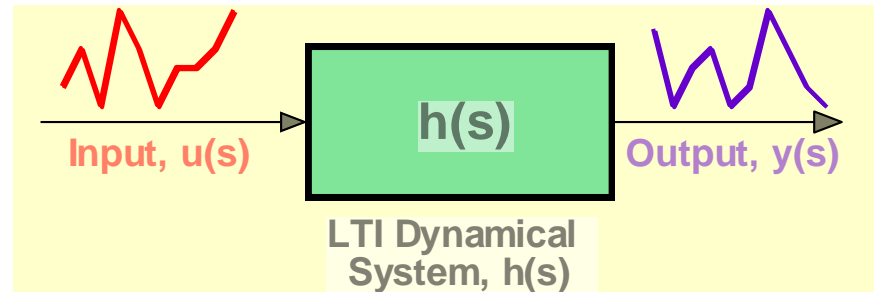


# Stochastic SISO LTI Systems

- Given LTI SISO system

$$y(s) = h(s)u(s)$$

- Assume  $h(s)$  strictly stable
- Random process inputs will generate a random process output
- Want statistical characterization of output random process at steady - state



## PROBLEM

- Given PSD  $\phi_{uu}(\omega)$  of input  $u(t)$
- Find PSD  $\phi_{yy}(\omega)$  of output  $y(t)$

## SOLUTION

$$\phi_{yy}(\omega) = h(j\omega) \cdot h(-j\omega) \phi_{uu}(\omega)$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\phi_{yy}(\omega) = |h(j\omega)|^2 \cdot \phi_{uu}(\omega)$$

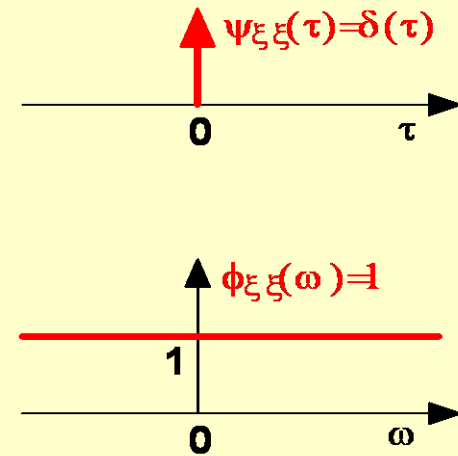
# *Important Remark*

- It is very easy to analyze stochastic LTI systems in the frequency domain
- Very simple algebraic relations linking
  - the PSD of the input random process signal
  - the magnitude of the of the SISO LTI system transfer function as a function of frequencyto the PSD of the (steady-state) output random process
- We can recover statistical time-domain properties (variance, autocorrelation function) of the output random process by the inverse Fourier transform of the output PSD

# Continuous-Time White Noise (WN)

## DEFINITION

- Zero-mean, unit intensity white noise,  $\xi(t)$   
 $E\{\xi(t)\} = 0, \quad cov[\xi(t)\xi(\tau)] \equiv E\{\xi(t)\xi(\tau)\} = \delta(t - \tau)$
- Autocorrelation function of WN is unit impulse  
 $E\{\xi(t)\xi(t + \tau)\} \equiv \psi_{\xi\xi}(\tau) = \delta(\tau)$
- PSD function of WN is constant for all  $\omega$   
 $\phi_{\xi\xi}(\omega) = 1 \quad \forall \omega$



- Continuous-time WN is physical fiction; it is **completely unpredictable**
  - WN has **infinite variance**
  - WN has **zero time-correlation**
  - WN has **infinite power**
- But, very useful in modeling

# WN as Limit of 1st-order Markov Process

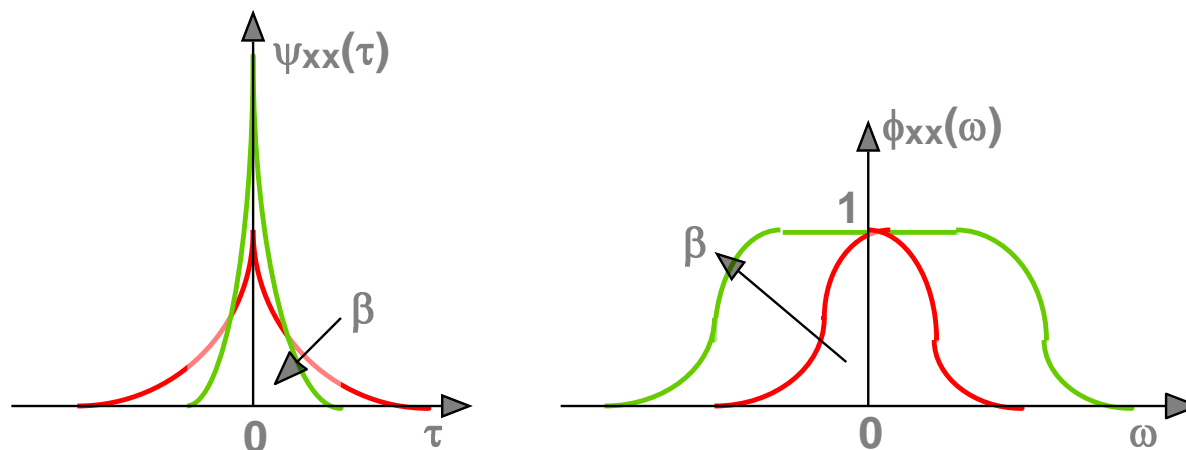
- We can model WN as the limit of a 1st-order Markov process with decreasing correlation time - constant,  $\frac{1}{\beta}$
- Consider the 1st-order Markov random process,  $x(t)$ , with autocorrelation function

$$\psi_{xx}(\tau) = \frac{\beta}{2} e^{-\beta|\tau|} \quad \text{Note that: } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\beta}{2} e^{-\beta|\tau|} d\tau = 1 \quad \forall \beta > 0$$

and associated power spectral density

$$\phi_{xx}(\omega) = \frac{\beta^2}{\omega^2 + \beta^2}$$

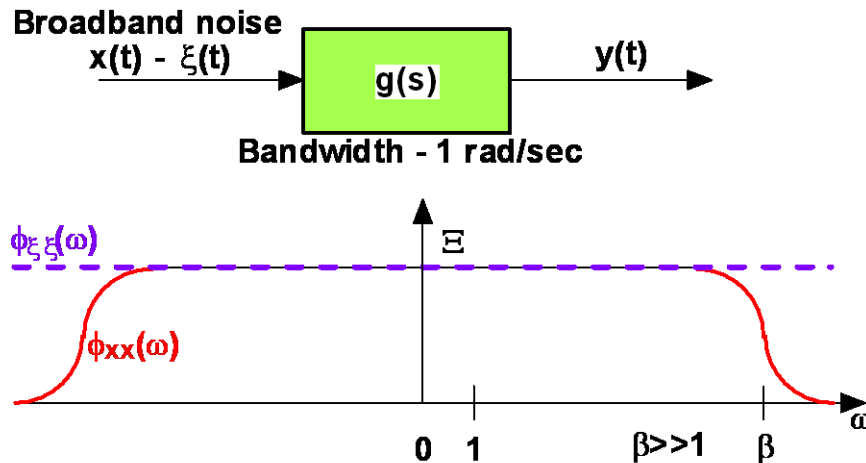
- Then, the unit intensity white noise  $\xi(t)$  is the limiting process as  $\beta \rightarrow \infty$



# Comments on White Noise

- White noise can approximate a “broadband” noise process, with constant power density over a wide frequency-range, and which eventually “rolls-off” at very high frequencies
  - we avoid complex models at these high-frequencies
- Continuous white noise is the “most” unpredictable continuous random process, because of its infinite variance and zero time-correlation
  - one can neither estimate nor predict white noise, even though it has been observed for ever
- Pure continuous-time white noise does not exist in nature
  - remember, it has infinite power
- Also, continuous-time white noise is not an “ordinary” mathematical function, so it is easy to make mistakes using white noise in non-rigorous mathematical proofs
  - it belongs to the so-called class of “distribution functions”
  - nevertheless, it is a very useful modeling tool

# White Noise Can Approximate Broadband Noise



- Broadband noise RP  $x(t)$  has large bandwidth,  $\beta$ , much larger than the bandwidth of the LTI system  $g(s)$
- Can approximate output RP PSD,  $\phi_{yy}(\omega)$ , assuming that input RP  $x(t)$  is white noise

- Exact calculation:

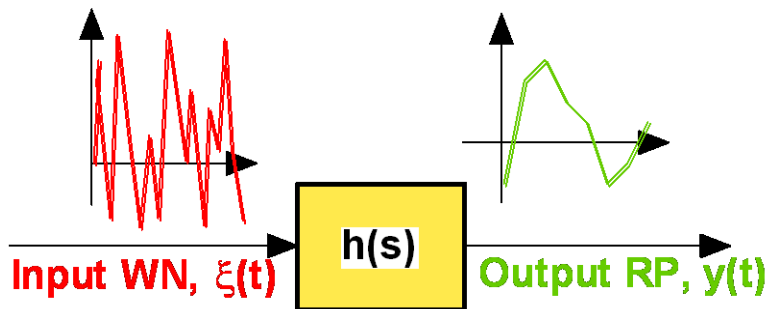
$$\phi_{yy}(\omega) = |g(j\omega)|^2 \phi_{xx}(\omega)$$

- Approximate calculation:

$$\phi_{yy}(\omega) \cong |g(j\omega)|^2 \cdot \Xi$$

valid for  $\beta \gg 1$

# Prewhitening



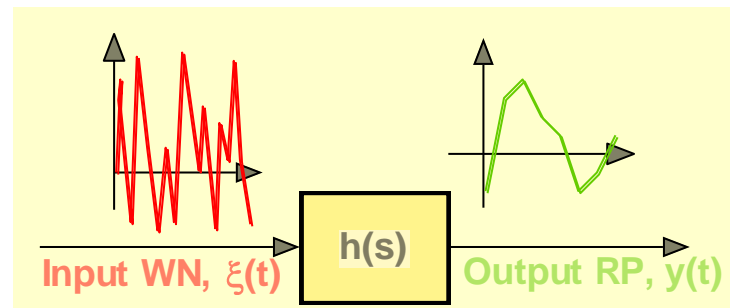
- Input WN,  $\xi(t)$   
 $\psi_{\xi\xi}(\tau) = \delta(\tau); \quad \phi_{\xi\xi}(\omega) = 1$
- Output RP  $y(t)$  has PSD given by  
$$\phi_{yy}(\omega) = h(j\omega)h(-j\omega) = |h(j\omega)|^2 \cdot \underbrace{1}_{\phi_{\xi\xi}(\omega)}$$

- We can **always** model a physical (colored) stationary random process  $y(t)$  as the output of a **fictitious LTI SISO dynamical system**, with transfer function  $h(s)$ , driven by **a fictitious white noise input,  $\xi(t)$**
- This modeling concept is called **“prewhitening”**



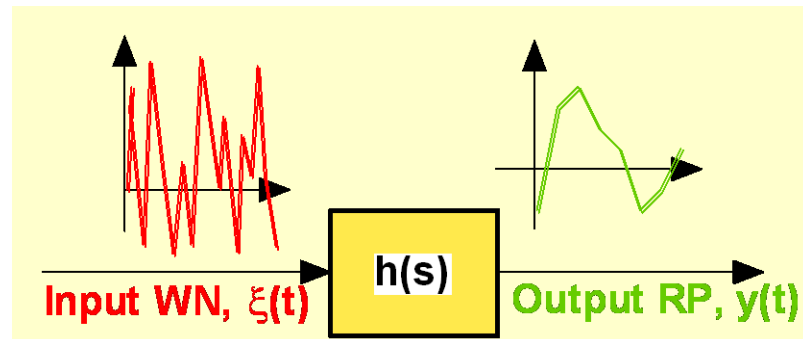
# Modeling Using Prewhitening

- Assume that  $y(t)$  is ergodic RP
- Measure (experimentally) approximate autocorrelation function,  $\psi_{yy}(\tau)$
- Take inverse Fourier transform of  $\psi_{yy}(\tau)$  and determine approximation to the PSD of  $y(t)$ ,  $\phi_{yy}(\omega)$



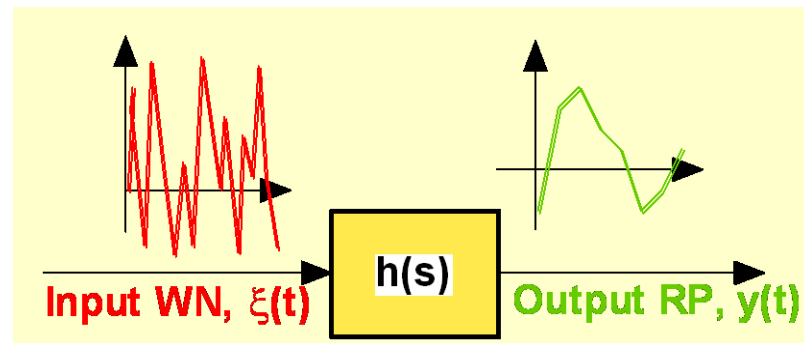
- Find a stable and minimum -phase transfer function,  $h(s)$ , such that its squared frequency-response  $|h(j\omega)|^2$  approximates the PSD, i.e.  
$$|h(j\omega)|^2 \cong \phi_{yy}(\omega)$$
- Determine, if required, a state - space representation for the transfer function  $h(s)$
- Think of  $y(t)$  as the output of the fictitious  $h(s)$  driven by the (also fictitious) unit intensity white noise  $\xi(t)$

# First-Order Example



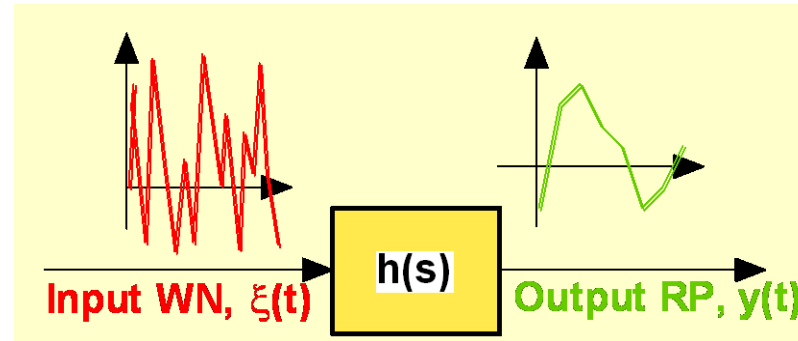
- Variance:  $E \{y^2(t)\} = \sigma^2$
- Autocorrelation function:  $\psi_{yy}(\tau) = \sigma^2 e^{-\beta|\tau|}$
- Power spectral density:  $\phi_{yy}(\omega) = \frac{2\beta\sigma^2}{\omega^2 + \beta^2}$
- Transfer Function:  $h(s) = \frac{\sigma\sqrt{2\beta}}{s + \beta}$
- Ref. [1], p.44

# A Second-Order Example



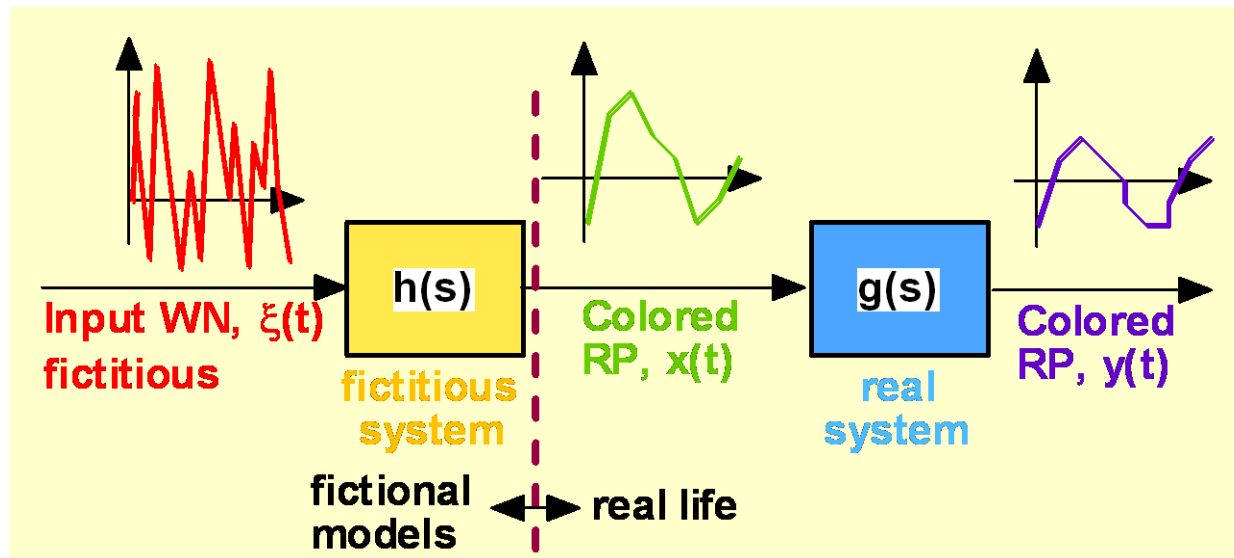
- Variance:  $E\{y^2(t)\} = \sigma^2$
- Autocorrelation function:  $\psi_{yy}(\tau) = \sigma^2 e^{-\beta|\tau|} (1 + \beta|\tau|)$
- Power spectral density:  $\phi_{yy}(\omega) = \frac{4\beta^3\sigma^2}{(\omega^2 + \beta^2)^2}$
- Transfer function:  $h(s) = \frac{2\sigma\beta^{3/2}}{s^2 + \sqrt{2}\beta s + \beta^2}$
- Ref. [1], p.44

# Another Second-Order Example



- Variance:  $E\{y^2(t)\} = \sigma^2$
- Autocorrelation function:  $\psi_{yy}(\tau) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\cos\theta} e^{-\zeta\omega_n|\tau|} \cos(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}\omega_n|\tau| - \theta)$
- Power spectral density:  $\phi_{yy}(\omega) = \sigma^2 \cdot \frac{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}{\omega^4 + 2\omega_n^2(2\zeta^2 - 1)\omega^2 + \omega_n^4}$
- Transfer function:  $h(s) = \sigma \cdot \frac{as + b}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$
- Ref. [8], p. 72

# Modeling Implications



- The output random process,  $y(t)$ , of a “real” system  $g(s)$  to a colored input random process,  $x(t)$ , can also be modeled by the cascaded system  $g(s)h(s)$ , where  $h(s)$  is the “prewhitening” system for the random process  $x(t)$

# Remarks

- Continuous-time random processes are **essential in modeling the impact of random disturbances and “noise” on physical systems**
- It is crucial to appreciate, and fully understand, **the time-domain and frequency-domain properties** of stationary random processes, via the associated autocorrelation and PSD function
- The **power spectral density** of stationary random processes is a very powerful tool when we analyze the input and output signals, of a SISO LTI system, as random processes
- Even though a **physical fiction**, continuous-time white noise is a powerful modeling tool
- All SISO results will be extended to the multi-input multi-output (MIMO) case, fully taking advantage of state-space representations

# Vector Random Processes (VRPs)

- All definitions and results for the scalar case readily extend to the case of vector-valued random processes
- A VRP  $x(t) \in R^n$  is a n-dimensional column vector

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ \dots \\ x_n(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

whose elements,  $x_i(t)$ , are scalar-valued random processes

# PDF and Mean For Nonstationary VRP

- All elements  $x_i(t); i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$  are jointly - distributed RPs
- In the nonstationary case the pdf of the VRP is the scalar - valued function  $p(x(t), t) = p(x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t), t)$

$$\text{with mean } \bar{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1(t) \\ \bar{x}_2(t) \\ \dots \\ \bar{x}_n(t) \end{bmatrix} \equiv E\{x(t)\} = \int x(t) p(x(t), t) dx(t)$$

which is shorthand for

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x}_i(t) &= E\{x_i(t)\} = \\ &= \int \int \dots \int x_i(t) p(x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t), t) dx_1(t) dx_2(t) \dots dx_n(t) \end{aligned}$$



# Covariance Matrix For Nonstationary VRP

- The  $n \times n$  covariance matrix of the nonstationary vector random process  $x(t) \in R^n$  is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma(t) &= \text{cov}[x(t); x(t)] \equiv E \left\{ (x(t) - \bar{x}(t))(x(t) - \bar{x}(t))' \right\} \\ &= \int (x(t) - \bar{x}(t))(x(t) - \bar{x}(t))' p(x(t), t) dx(t) \end{aligned}$$

- The  $n \times n$  covariance matrix is symmetric and positive - semidefinite

$$\Sigma(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11}(t) & \Sigma_{12}(t) & \dots & \Sigma_{1n}(t) \\ \Sigma_{12}(t) & \Sigma_{22}(t) & \dots & \Sigma_{2n}(t) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \Sigma_{1n}(t) & \Sigma_{2n}(t) & \dots & \Sigma_{nn}(t) \end{bmatrix}; \quad \Sigma(t) = \Sigma'(t) \geq 0$$

where, element - by - element,

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_{ij}(t) &= E \left\{ (x_i(t) - \bar{x}_i(t))(x_j(t) - \bar{x}_j(t)) \right\} = \\ &= \int \int \dots \int (x_i(t) - \bar{x}_i(t))(x_j(t) - \bar{x}_j(t)) p(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t), t) dx_1(t) \dots dx_n(t) \end{aligned}$$

# PDF and Mean For Stationary VRP

- All elements  $x_i(t); i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , are jointly - distributed RPs
- In the stationary case the pdf of the VRP is the scalar - valued function,  $p(x(t)) = p(x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t))$ , which does not depend explicitly on time,

$$\text{with mean } \bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1 \\ \bar{x}_2 \\ \dots \\ \bar{x}_n \end{bmatrix} \equiv E\{x(t)\} = \int x(t) p(x(t), t) dx(t) = \text{constant}$$

which is shorthand for

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x}_i &= E\{x_i(t)\} = \\ &= \int \int \dots \int x_i(t) p(x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)) dx_1(t) dx_2(t) \dots dx_n(t) \end{aligned}$$

# Covariance Matrix For Stationary VRP

- The  $n \times n$  covariance matrix of the stationary vector random process  $x(t) \in R^n$  is constant and is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma &= cov[x(t); x(t)] \equiv E \left\{ (x(t) - \bar{x}(t))(x(t) - \bar{x}(t))' \right\} \\ &= \int (x(t) - \bar{x}(t))(x(t) - \bar{x}(t))' p(x(t)) dx(t)\end{aligned}$$

- The  $n \times n$  covariance matrix is symmetric and positive - semidefinite

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} & \dots & \Sigma_{1n} \\ \Sigma_{12} & \Sigma_{22} & \dots & \Sigma_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \Sigma_{1n} & \Sigma_{2n} & \dots & \Sigma_{nn} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \Sigma = \Sigma' \geq 0$$

where, element - by - element,

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma_{ij} &= E \left\{ (x_i(t) - \bar{x}_i(t))(x_j(t) - \bar{x}_j(t)) \right\} = \\ &= \int \int \dots \int (x_i(t) - \bar{x}_i(t))(x_j(t) - \bar{x}_j(t)) p(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)) dx_1(t) \dots dx_n(t)\end{aligned}$$

# Correlation and PSD Matrices

- For stationary zero-mean vector random processes, the correlation matrix is defined by

$$\Psi_{xx}(\tau) \equiv E \{x(t)x'(t + \tau)\}$$

with elements  $\psi_{x_i x_j}(\tau) \equiv E \{x_i(t)x_j(t + \tau)\}$

- The PSD matrix is denoted by  $\Phi_{xx}(\omega)$ , whose elements are computed by the Fourier transform of the associated correlation function

$$\phi_{x_i x_j}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{x_i x_j}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

- Formally,

$$\Phi_{xx}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi_{xx}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau; \quad \Psi_{xx}(\tau) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi_{xx}(\omega) e^{j\omega\tau} d\omega$$

# Vector White Noise

- Nonstationary case:  $\xi(t) \in R^m$  is vector white noise, with
$$E\{\xi(t)\} = 0, \quad cov[\xi(t); \xi(\tau)] \equiv E\{\xi(t)\xi'(\tau)\} = \Xi(t) \cdot \delta(t - \tau)$$
- Stationary case:  $\xi(t) \in R^m$  is vector white noise, with
$$E\{\xi(t)\} = 0, \quad cov[\xi(t); \xi(\tau)] \equiv E\{\xi(t)\xi'(\tau)\} = \Xi \cdot \delta(t - \tau)$$
and correlation matrix  $\Psi_{\xi\xi}(\tau) = \Xi \cdot \delta(\tau)$ and power spectral density matrix  $\Phi_{\xi\xi}(\omega) = \Xi$
- In either case, we refer to  $\Xi(t)$  or  $\Xi$  as the "intensity matrix"
- By the law of large numbers, white noise is gaussian

# Gaussian Vector Random Processes

- In the nonstationary case,  $x(t) \in R^n$ , the gaussian PDF takes the form

$$p(x(t), t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det \Sigma(t)}} \cdot \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (x(t) - \bar{x}(t))' \Sigma^{-1}(t) (x(t) - \bar{x}(t))\right\}$$

- Often, we use the abbreviation  $x(t) \sim N(\bar{x}(t), \Sigma(t))$
- In the stationary case,  $x(t) \in R^n$ , the mean and covariance are constant so that the gaussian PDF takes the form

$$p(x(t)) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \cdot \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (x(t) - \bar{x})' \Sigma^{-1} (x(t) - \bar{x})\right\}$$

- Often, we use the abbreviation  $x(t) \sim N(\bar{x}, \Sigma)$

# ***Remarks on Vector Random Processes***

- We postpone till later the topic of how vector random processes interact with linear dynamic systems
- Such manipulations will require extensive use of state-space methods and models

# References

- [1]. A. Gelb, *Applied Optimal Estimation*, MIT Press, 1974, **Chapter 2**
- [2]. A. Papoulis, *Probability, Random Variables and Stochastic Processes*, McGraw Hill, 1988
- [3]. W.B. Davenport, Jr. and W.L. Root, *An Introduction to Random Signals and Noise*, McGraw Hill, 1958
- [4]. J.H. Laning, Jr. and R.H. Battin, *Random Processes in Automatic Control*, McGraw Hill, 1956
- [5]. F.C. Schweppe, *Uncertain Dynamic Systems*, Prentice Hall, 1973
- [6]. A.H. Jazwinsky, *Stochastic Processes and Filtering Theory*, Academic Press, 1970
- [7]. T. Kailath, *Lectures on Wiener and Kalman Filtering*, Springer-Verlag, 1981
- [8]. M.S. Grewal and A.P. Andrews, *Kalman Filtering: Theory and Practice*, Prentice-Hall, 1993