

# Lecture

## Power Spectral Density Estimation

EE 451: Digital Signal Processing

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### Motivation

Sensors suffer from noise effects that can not be removed through calibration, consequently, we need to

- understand the nature of the noise
- be able to extract parameters from actual data
- develop models to mimic noise in simulation to provide performance capabilities

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### Purpose

Estimate the distribution of power in a signal. Unfortunately, truth and what is practical cause a problem.

### Truth

- Infinitely long.
- Continuous in time and value.
- Provides true distribution of power.

### Practice

- Finite length.
- Discrete in time and value.
- Only approximation of distribution of power.

### Let's make it more interesting

The signal is stochastic in nature.

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## 1 Review Material

### 1.1 Signal Classification

#### Energy and Power

Assume the voltage across a resistor  $R$  is  $e(t)$  and is producing a current  $i(t)$ . The instantaneous power per ohm is  $p(t) = e(t)i(t)/R = i^2(t)$ .

#### Total Energy

$$E = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T i^2(t) dt \quad (1)$$

## Average Power

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T i^2(t) dt \quad (2)$$

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## Arbitrary signal $x(t)$

### Total Normalized Energy

$$E \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt \quad (3)$$

### Normalized Power

$$P \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt \quad (4)$$

- $x(t)$  is an *energy signal* iff  $0 < E < \infty$ , so that  $P = 0$ .
- $x(t)$  is a *power signal* iff  $0 < P < \infty$ , so that  $E = \infty$ .

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## 1.2 Time Averages

### Correlation

#### For Energy Signals

$$\phi(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)x(t+\tau) dt \quad (5)$$

Provides a measure of similarity or coherence between a signal and a delayed version of itself. Note that  $\phi(0) = E$

#### For Power Signals

$$R(\tau) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x(t)x(t+\tau) dt \quad (6)$$

#### For Periodic Signals

$$R(\tau) = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{T_0} x(t)x(t+\tau) dt \quad (7)$$

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## 1.3 Frequency Domain

### Energy Spectral Density

#### Rayleigh's Energy Theorem or Parseval's theorem

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(F)|^2 dF \quad (8)$$

### Energy Spectral Density

$$G(F) \triangleq |X(F)|^2 \quad (9)$$

with units of  $\text{volts}^2\text{-sec}^2$  or, if considered on a per-ohm basis,  $\text{watts-sec/Hz} = \text{joules/Hz}$

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### Power Spectral Density

$$P = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(F) dF = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt \quad (10)$$

where we define  $S(F)$  as the power spectral density with units of  $\text{watts/Hz}$ . Note that  $R(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(F) dF$ .

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## 2 Random Signals and Noise

### Basic Definitions

- Define an *experiment* with random *outcome*.
- Mapping of the outcome to a variable  $\Rightarrow$  random variable.
- Mapping of the outcome to a function  $\Rightarrow$  random function.

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### 2.1 Statistical Averages

#### Probability (Cumulative) Distribution Function (cdf)

$$F_X(x) = \text{probability that } X \leq x = P(X \leq x) \quad (11)$$

Describes the manner random variables take different values.

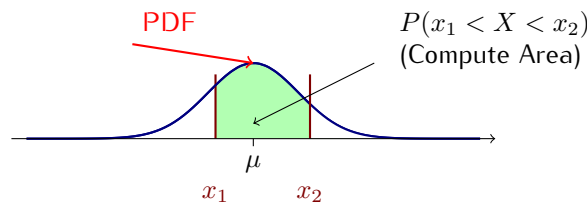
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#### Probability Density Function (pdf)

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} \quad (12)$$

and

$$P(x_1 < X \leq x_2) = F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_X(x) dx \quad (13)$$



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#### PDF of Discrete Random Variables

If the random variable  $X$  takes a set of discrete values  $x_i$  with probability  $p_i$ , the pdf of  $X$  is expressed in terms of Dirac delta functions, i.e.,

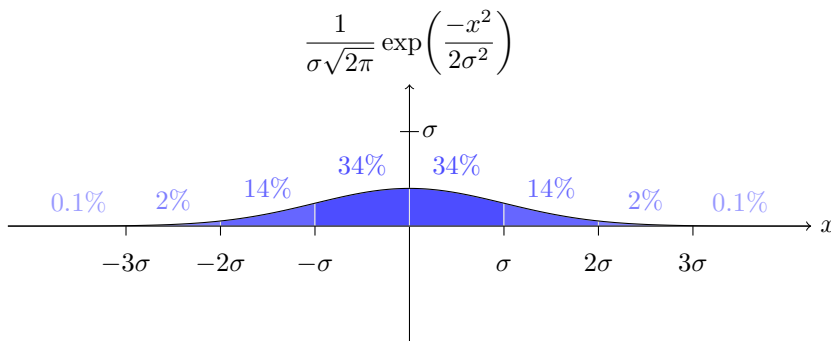
$$f_X(x) = \sum_i p_i \delta(x - x_i) \quad (14)$$

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#### Gaussian Distribution

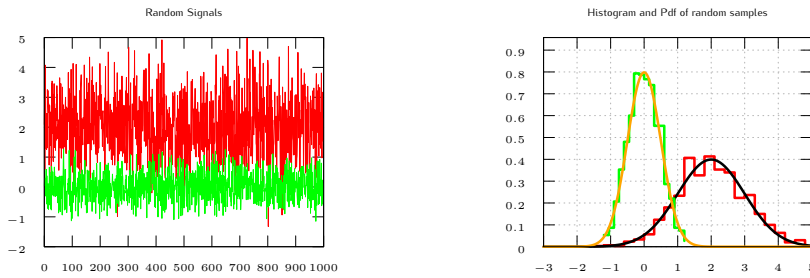
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma_x \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[ -\frac{x - \mu_x}{2\sigma_x^2} \right] \quad (15)$$

For example if  $\sigma_x = \sigma$  and  $\mu_x = 0$



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## PDF of White Noise



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## Mean and Variance

### Mean of a Discrete RV

$$\bar{X} = \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{j=1}^M x_j P_j \quad (16)$$

### Mean of a Continuous RV

$$\bar{X} = \mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx \quad (17)$$

### Variance of a RV

$$\sigma_X^2 \triangleq \mathbb{E} \{ [X - \mathbb{E}(X)]^2 \} = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}^2[X] \quad (18)$$

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## Covariance and Autocorrelation

Given a two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ .

### Covariance

$$\mu_{XY} = \mathbb{E} \{ [X - \bar{x}][Y - \bar{Y}] \} = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y] \quad (19)$$

### Correlation Coefficient

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\mu_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \quad (20)$$

### Autocorrelation

$$\Gamma_X(\tau) = \mathbb{E}[X(t)X(t + \tau)] \quad (21)$$

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## 2.2 Stochastic Processes

### Terminology

See Figure 1

- $X(t, \zeta_i)$ : sample function.
- The governing experiment: random or stochastic process.
- All sample functions: ensemble.
- $X(t_j, \zeta)$ : random variable.

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### Strict Sense Stationarity

If the joint pdfs depend only on the time difference regardless of the time origin, then the random process is known as *stationary*.

For stationary process means and variances are independent of time and the covariance depends only on the time difference.

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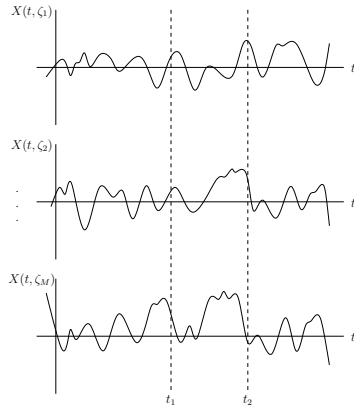


Figure 1: Sample functions of a random process

### Wide Sense Stationarity

If the joint pdfs depends on the time difference but the mean and variances are time-independent, then the random process is known as *wide-sense-stationary*.

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### Ergodicity

If the time statistics equals ensemble statistics, then the random process is known as *ergodic*.

Any statistic calculated by averaging of all members of an ergodic ensemble at a fixed time can also be calculated by using a single representative waveform and averaging over all time.

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## 2.3 Correlation and Power Spectral Density

### Power Spectral Density

Given a sample function  $X(t, \zeta_i)$  of a random process, we obtain the power spectral density by

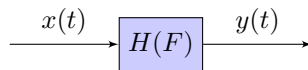
$$S(F) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \Gamma(\tau) \quad (22)$$

i.e., for a wide sense stationary signal, the power spectral density and autocorrelation are Fourier transform pairs.

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## 2.4 Input-Output Relationship of Linear Systems

### Input-Output Relationship of Linear Systems



$$S_Y(F) = |H(F)|^2 S_X(F) \quad (23)$$

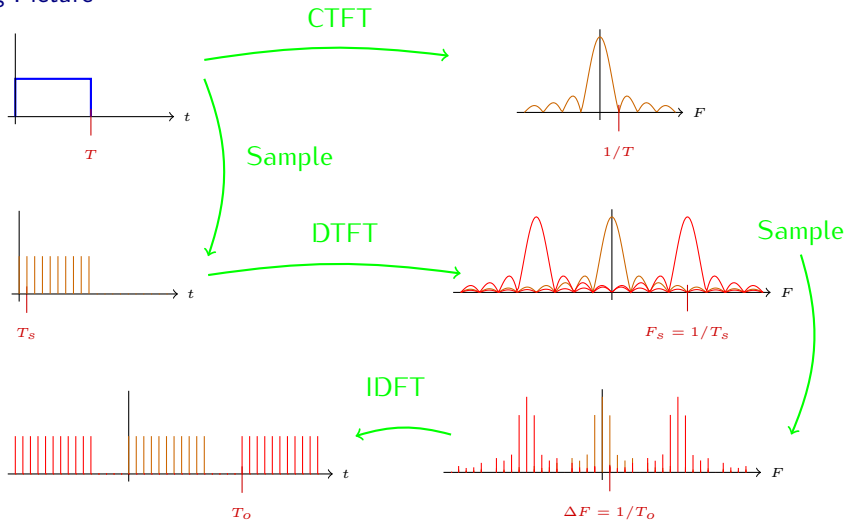
### Noise Shaping

If  $x(t)$  is white noise, we can design the filter  $h(t)$  to “shape” the noise.

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### 3 Discrete Signals and Systems

#### Big Picture



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#### Sampling Remarks

- Must sample more than twice bandwidth to avoid aliasing.
- FFT represents a periodic version of the time domain signal → could have time domain aliasing.
- Number of points in FFT is the same as number of points in time domain signal.

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### 4 Power Spectral Density

#### Obtaining PSD for Discrete Signals

##### What we want is

$$\Gamma_X(\tau) = \mathbb{E}[X(t)X(t + \tau)] \xrightarrow{\text{CTFT}} S_X(F)$$

For infinitely long signals.

##### What we can compute is

$$\gamma_X(m) = \mathbb{E}[X(n)X(n + m)] \xrightarrow{\text{DFT}} P_X(f)$$

For finite length signals.

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#### What do we need in an estimate

As  $N \rightarrow \infty$  and in the mean squared sense

##### Unbiased

Asymptotically the mean of the estimate approaches the true power.

##### Variance

Variance of the estimate approaches zero.

Resulting in a consistent estimate of the power spectrum.

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## Possible PSD Options

### Periodogram

computed using  $1/N$  times the magnitude squared of the FFT

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[P_X(f)] = S_X(f)$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{var}[P_X(f)] = S_X^2(f)$$

### Welch Method

computed by segmenting the data (allowing overlaps), windowing the data in each segment then computing the average of the resultant periodogram

$$\mathbb{E}[P_X(f)] = \frac{1}{2\pi MU} S_X(f) \otimes W(f)$$

$$\text{var}[P_X(f)] \approx \frac{9}{8L} S_X^2(f)$$

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### Welch Method

Assuming data length  $N$ , segment length  $M$ , Bartlett window, and 50% overlap

- FFT length =  $M = 1.28/\Delta f = 1.28F_s/\Delta F$
- Resulting number of segments =  $L = \frac{2N}{M}$
- Length of data collected in sec. =  $\frac{1.28L}{2\Delta F}$

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### pwelch Function

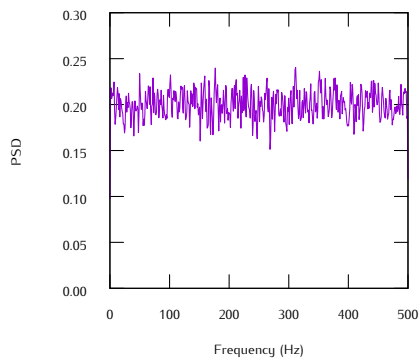
```
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,window,noverlap,...  
               nfft,fs,'range')
```

You can use `[]` in fields that you want the default to be used.

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### pwelch Function - WGN signal

```
Fs = 1000;  
x = sqrt(0.1*Fs)*randn(1,100000);  
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,1024,[],[],Fs,'onesided');
```

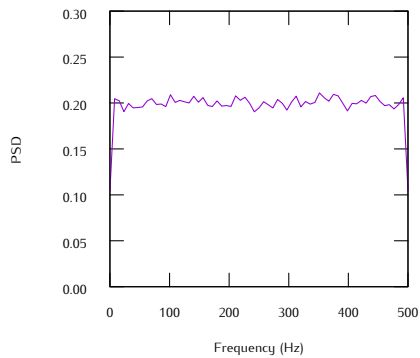


- Variance to high.

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### pwelch Function - WGN signal

```
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,128,[],[],Fs,'onesided')
```

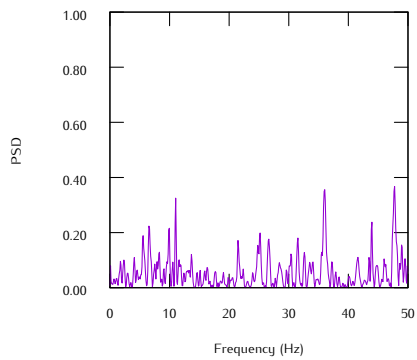


- Reduced window size.
- Variance is now smaller.

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### pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal

```
Fs = 100; t = 0:1/Fs:5;  
x = cos(2*pi*10*t)+cos(2*pi*11*t)+...  
    sqrt(0.1*Fs)*randn(1,length(t));  
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,1024,[],[],Fs,'onesided');
```



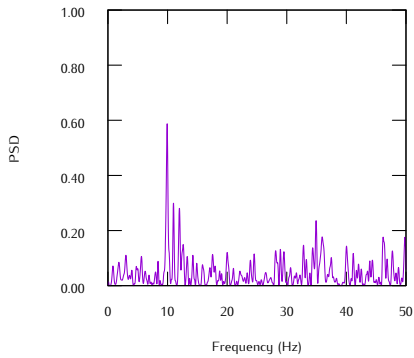
- Window larger than length of data.
- Frequency components can't be resolved.
- Variance high.

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### pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal

```
Fs = 100; t = 0:1/Fs:5;  
x = cos(2*pi*10*t)+cos(2*pi*11*t)+...  
    sqrt(0.1*Fs)*randn(1,length(t));  
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,1024,[],4096,Fs,'onesided');
```





- As expected increasing `nFFT` does not help.

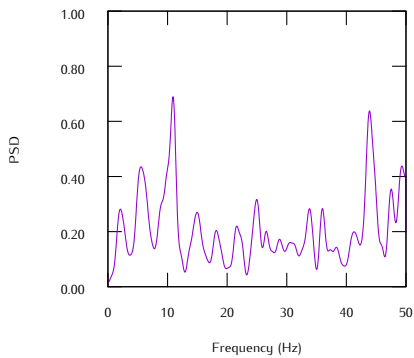
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#### pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal

```

Fs = 100;    t = 0:1/Fs:5;
x = cos(2*pi*10*t)+cos(2*pi*11*t)+...
    sqrt(0.1*Fs)*randn(1,length(t));
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,128,[],4096,Fs,'onesided');

```



- Decreasing the window size decreases the variance.
- Still can't resolve the two frequencies.

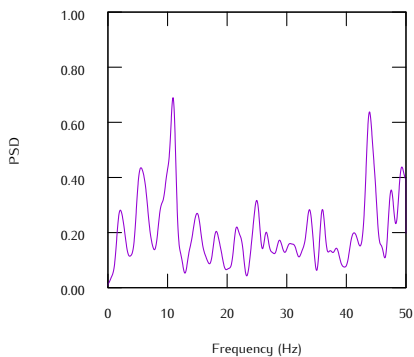
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#### pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal

```

Fs = 100;    t = 0:1/Fs:50;
x = cos(2*pi*10*t)+cos(2*pi*11*t)+...
    sqrt(0.1*Fs)*randn(1,length(t));
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,128,[],4096,Fs,'onesided');

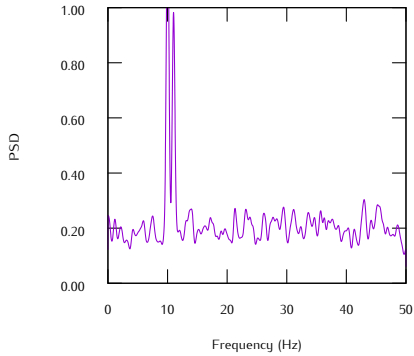
```



- Length of data sequence must be increased.
- Still can't resolve the two frequencies as the window size is too small.

### pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal

```
Fs = 100;    t = 0:1/Fs:50;  
x = cos(2*pi*10*t)+cos(2*pi*11*t)+...  
    sqrt(0.1*Fs)*randn(1,length(t));  
[Pxx,f] = pwelch(x,256,[],4096,Fs,'onesided');
```



- Now we can resolve the two frequencies.

### Spectral Estimation - Remarks

- The length of the data sequence determines the maximum resolution that can be observed.
- Increasing the window length of each segment in the data increases the resolution.
- Decreasing the window length of each segment in the data decreases the variance of the estimate.
- `nFFT` only affects the amount of details shown and not the resolution.