# Lecture

# Power Spectral Density Estimation

# EE 570: Location and Navigation

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#### Motivation

Sensors suffer from noise effects that can not be removed through calibration, consquently, 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

#### 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.

## 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

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

Average Power

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

Arbitrary signal x(t)

Total Normalized Energy

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

Normalized Power

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

- 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  $E = \infty$ .

## 1.2 Time Averages

Correlation

For Energy Signals

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

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

For Power Signals

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

For Periodic Signals

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

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## 1.3 Frequency Domain

**Energy Spectral Density** 

Rayleigh's Energy Theorem or Parseval's theorem

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

**Energy Spectral Density** 

$$G(F) \triangleq |X(F)|^2 \tag{9}$$

with units of *volts*<sup>2</sup>-*sec*<sup>2</sup> or, if considered on a per-ohm basis, *watts*-*sec*/*Hz*=*joules*/*Hz* 

#### Power Spectral Density

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

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

## 2 Random Signals and Noise

#### **Basic Definitions**

- Define an experiment with random outcome.
- Mapping of the outcome to a variable ⇒ random variable.
- Mapping of the outcome to a function ⇒ random function.

## 2.1 Statistical Averages

Probability (Cumulative) Distribution Function (cdf)

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

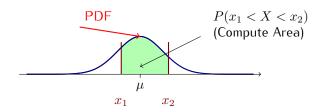
Describes the manner random variables take different values.

#### Probability Density Function (pdf)

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

and

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



#### PDF of Discrete Random Variables

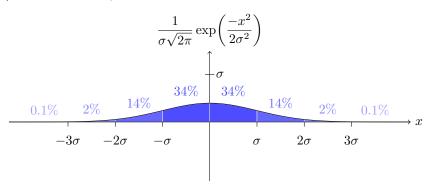
If the random variable X takes a set of discrete values  $x_i$  with probability  $p_i$ , the pdf of X is expressed in terms of Dirac delta functions, i.e.,

$$f_X(x) = \sum_i p_i \delta(x - x_i) \tag{14}$$

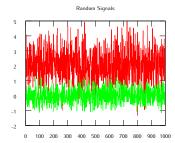
## Gaussian Distribution

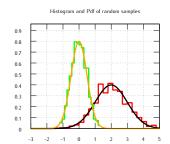
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma_x \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{x - \mu_x}{2\sigma_x^2}\right] \tag{15}$$

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



#### PDF of White Noise





## Mean and Variance

#### Mean of a Discrete RV

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

#### Mean of a Continuous RV

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

#### Variance of a RV

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

#### Covariance and Autocorrelation

Given a two random variables X and Y.

#### Covariance

$$\mu_{XY} = \mathbb{E}\left\{ [X - \bar{x}][Y - \bar{Y}] \right\} = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y] \tag{19}$$

## **Correlation Coefficient**

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\mu_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \tag{20}$$

#### Autocorrelation

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

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#### 2.2 Stochastic Processes

#### Terminology

See Figure 1

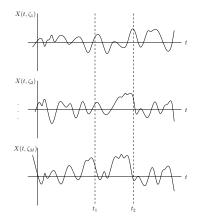


Figure 1: Sample functions of a random process

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

## 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.

#### 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*.

### 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 averging over all time.

## 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

$$S(F) \stackrel{\mathcal{F}}{\longleftrightarrow} \Gamma(\tau)$$
 (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

$$\begin{array}{c}
x(t) \\
\hline
H(F) \\
\end{array}$$

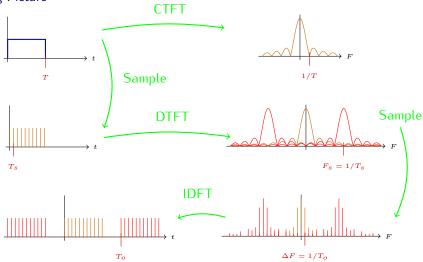
$$S_Y(F) = |H(F)|^2 S_X(F) \tag{23}$$

## **Noise Shaping**

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

# 3 Discrete Signals and Systems

Big Picture



Sampling Remarks

- Must sample more than twice bandwidth to avoid aliasing.
- ullet FFT represents a periodic version of the time domain signal o could have time domain aliasing.

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• Number of points in FFT is the same as number of points in time domain signal.

# 4 Power Spectral Density

## Obtaining PSD for Discrete Signals

What we want is

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

For infinitely long signals.

What we can compute is

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

For finite length signals.

What do we need in an estimate

As  $N \to \infty$  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

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

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

#### Welch Method

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

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

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

#### 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. =  $\frac{1.28L}{2\Delta F}$

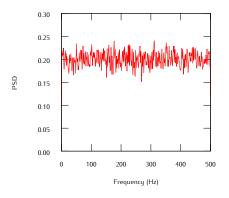
#### pwelch Function

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

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

#### pwelch Function - WGN signal

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



• Variance to high.

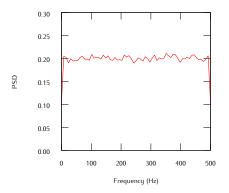
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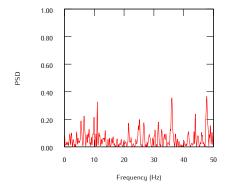
## pwelch Function - WGN signal

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



- Reduced window size.
- Variance is now smaller.

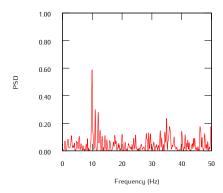
### pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal



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

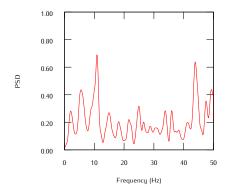
## pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal

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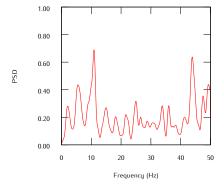
• As expected increasing nFFT does not help.

## pwelch Function - cos + WGN signal



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

## pwelch Function - $\cos + WGN signal$



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

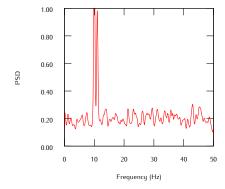
## pwelch Function - $\cos + WGN$ signal

```
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.

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