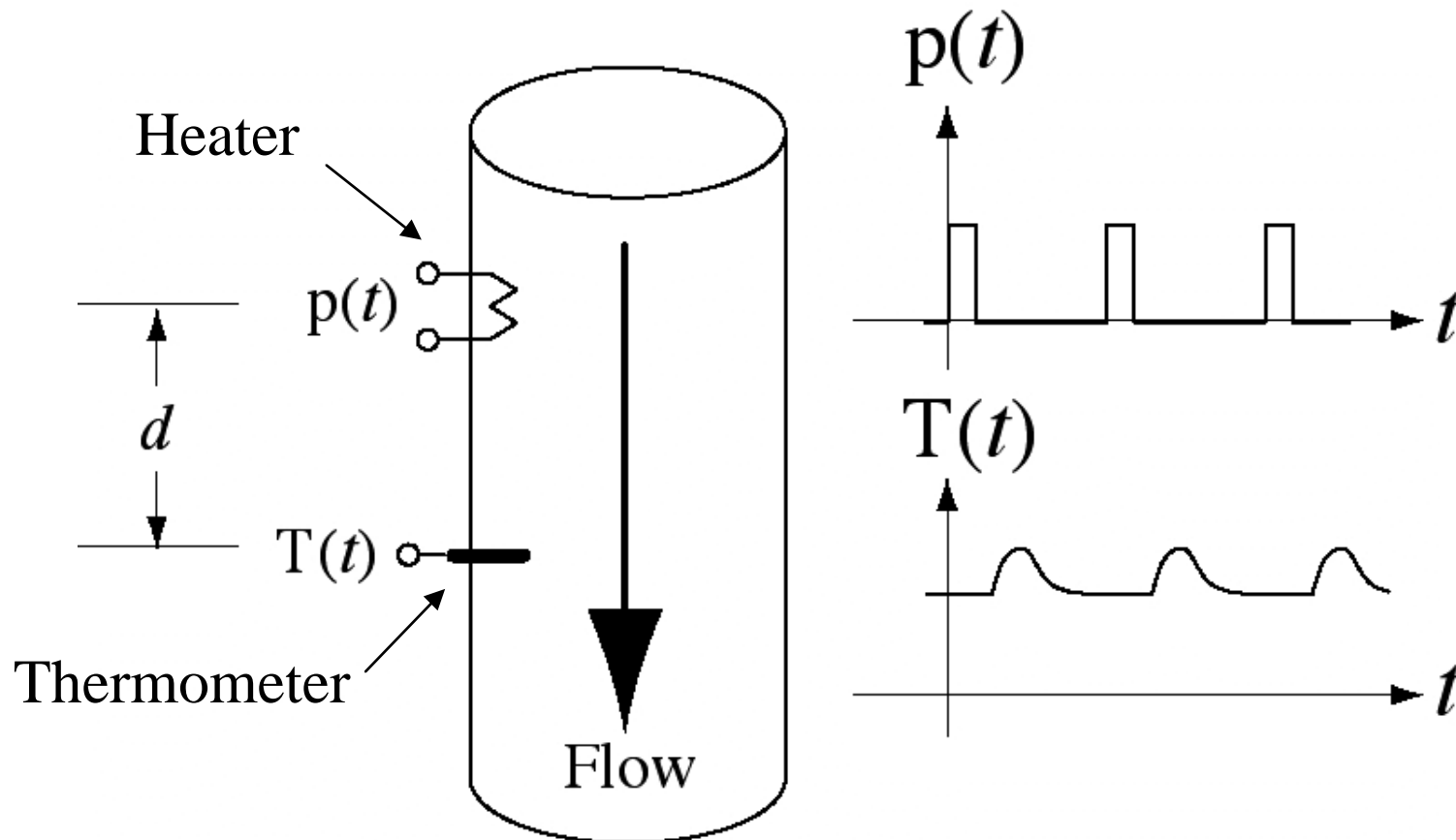


# **Correlation, Energy Spectral Density and Power Spectral Density**

# Introduction

- Relationships between signals can be just as important as characteristics of individual signals
- The relationships between excitation and/or response signals in a system can indicate the nature of the system

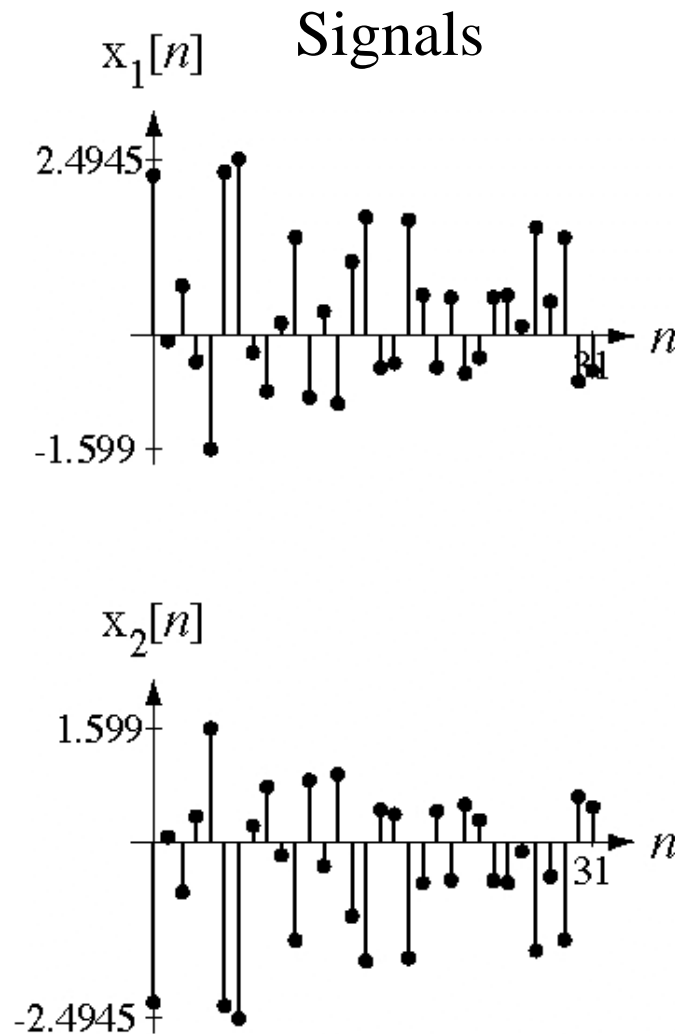
# Flow Velocity Measurement



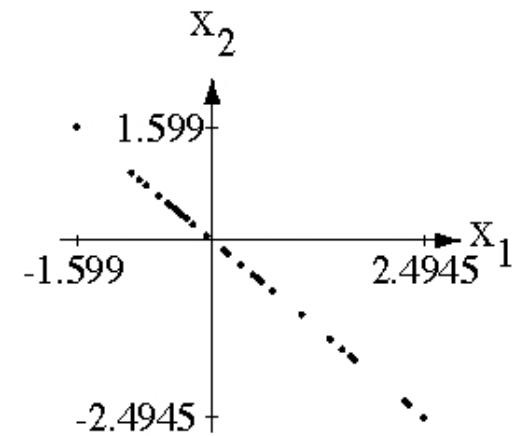
The relative timing of the two signals,  $p(t)$  and  $T(t)$ , and the distance,  $d$ , between the heater and thermometer together determine the flow velocity.

# Correlograms

Two  
Completely  
Negatively  
Correlated  
DT Signals

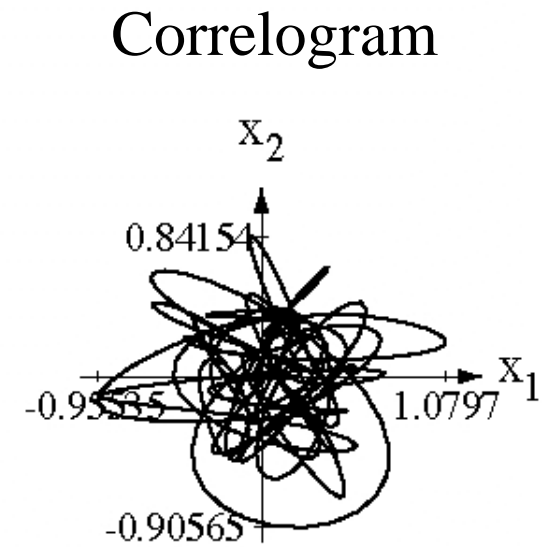
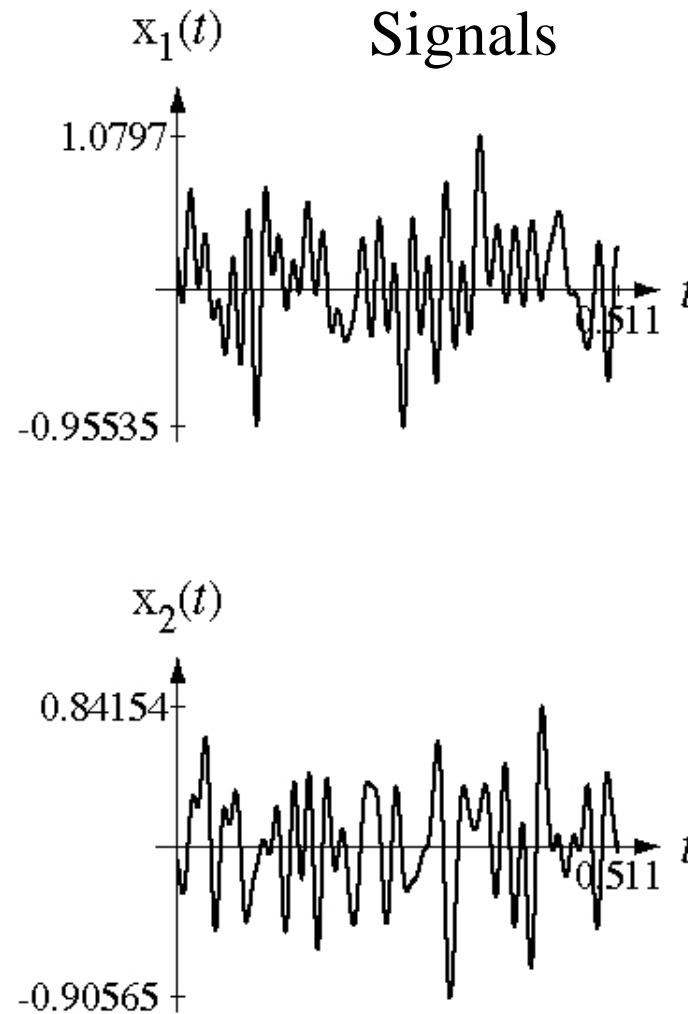


Correlogram



# Correlograms

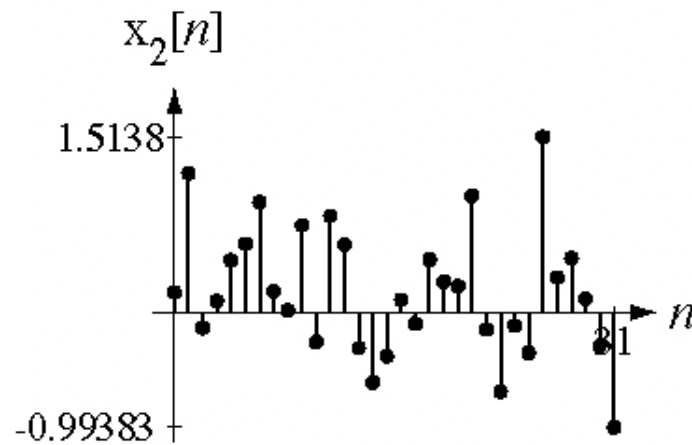
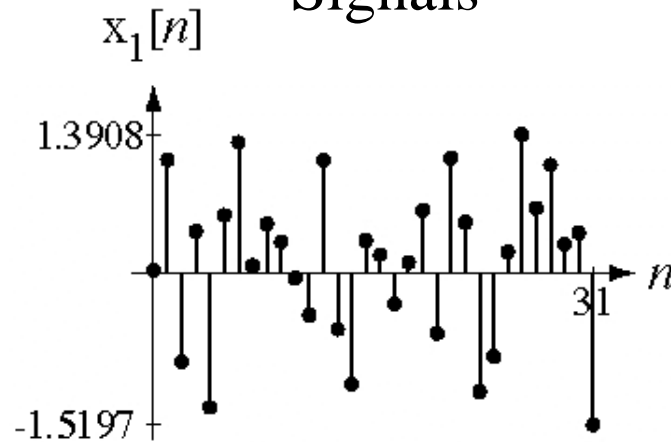
Two  
Uncorrelated  
CT Signals



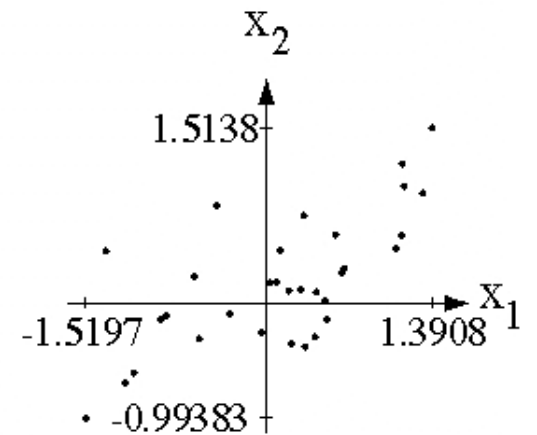
# Correlograms

Two Partially  
Correlated  
DT Signals

Signals

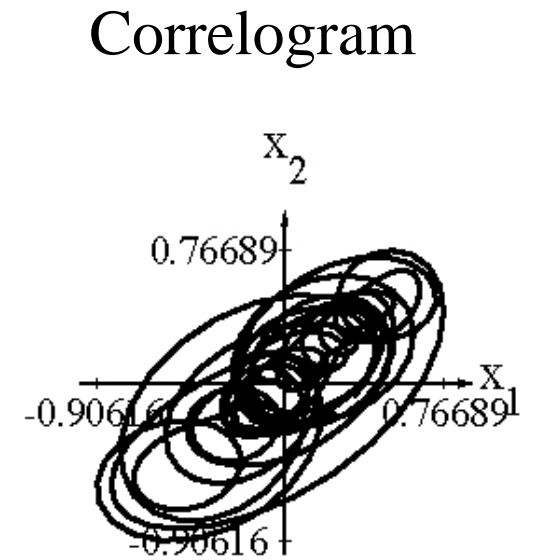
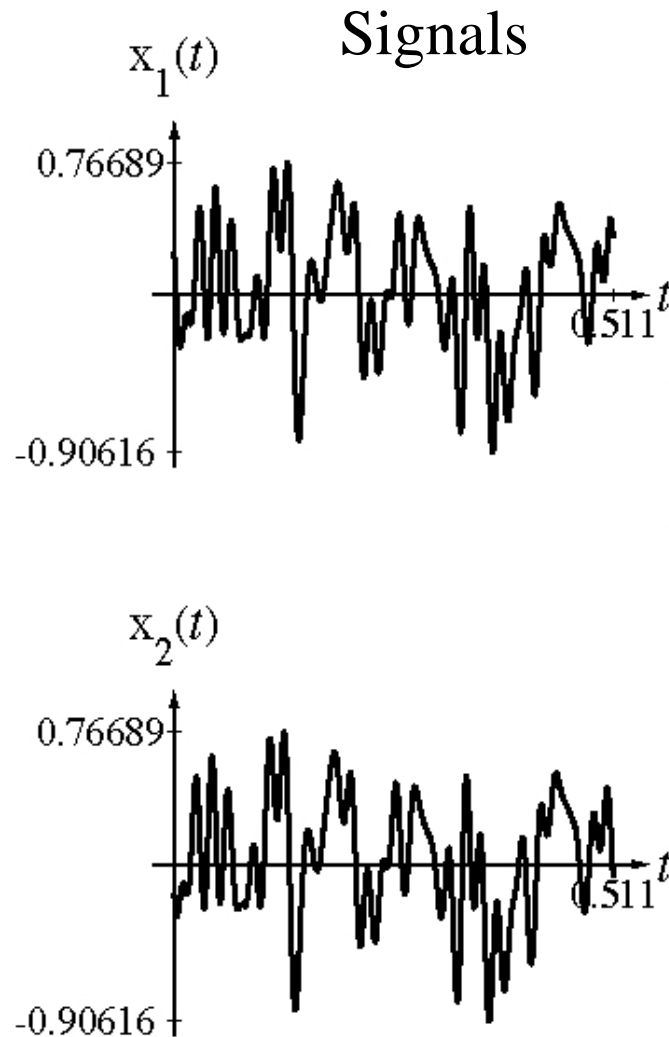


Correlogram



# Correlograms

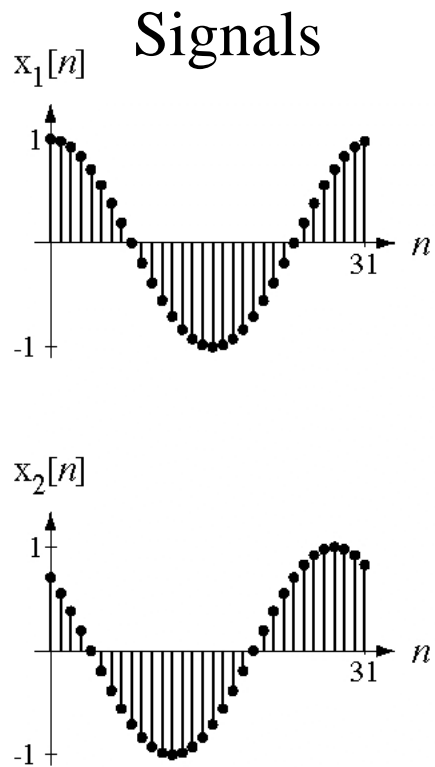
These two CT signals are not strongly correlated but would be if one were shifted in time the right amount



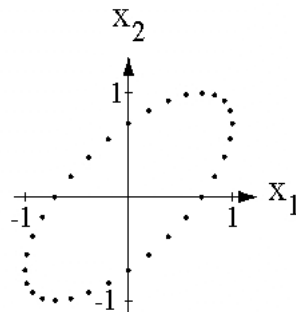
# Correlograms

DT Sinusoids With  
a Time Delay

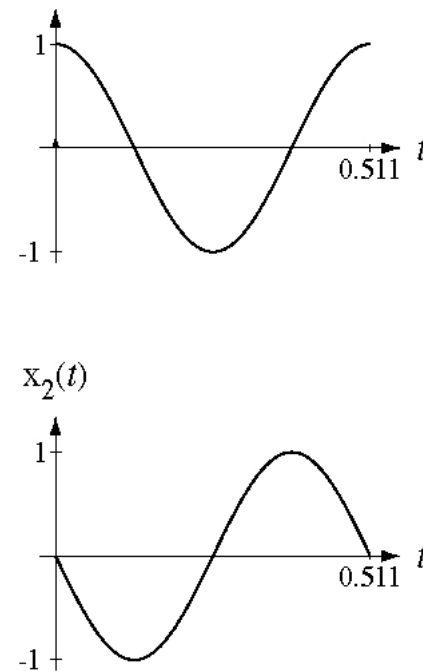
CT Sinusoids With  
a Time Delay



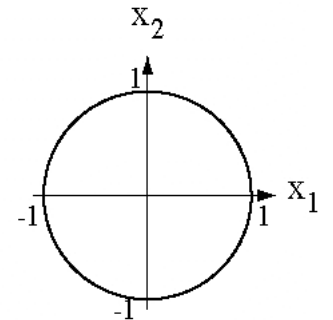
Correlogram



Signals



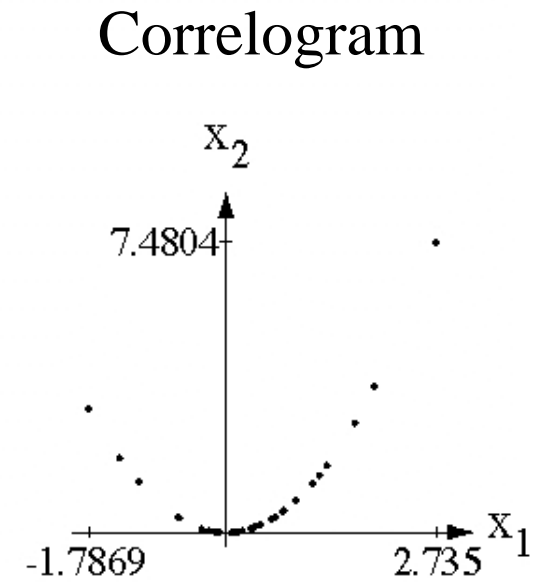
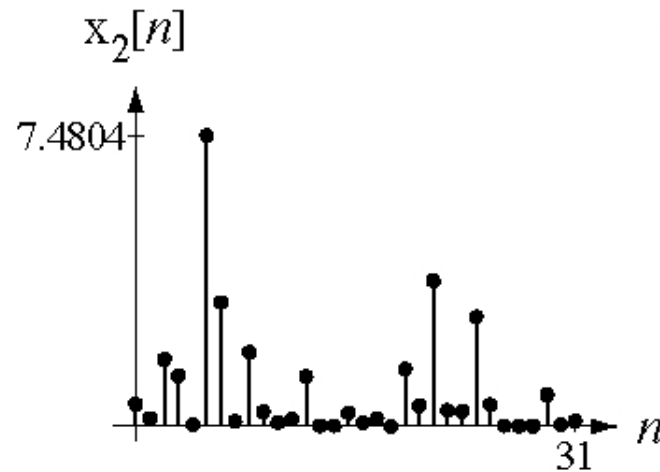
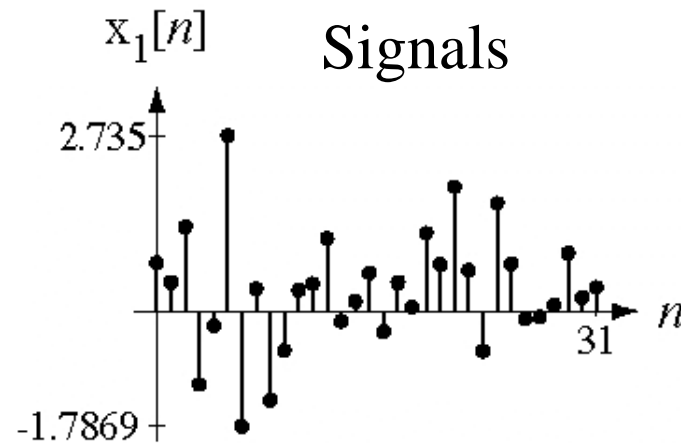
Correlogram





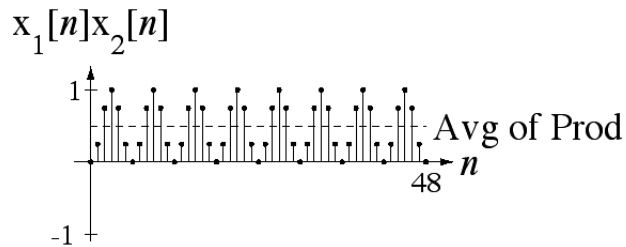
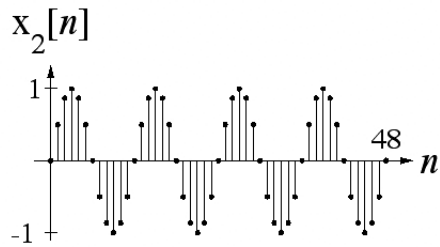
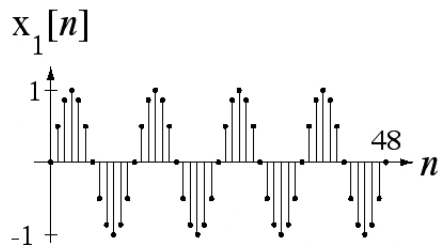
# Correlograms

Two Non-Linearly Related DT Signals

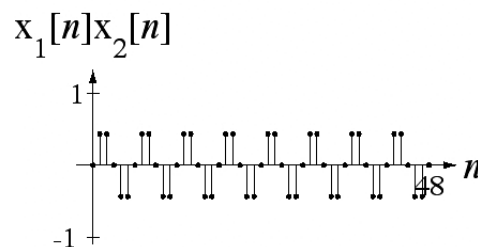
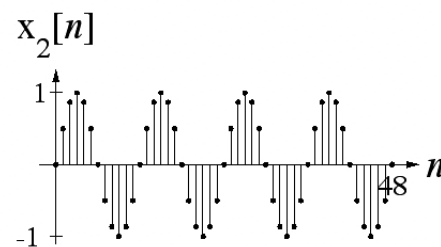
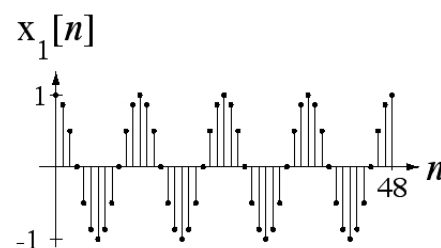


# The Correlation Function

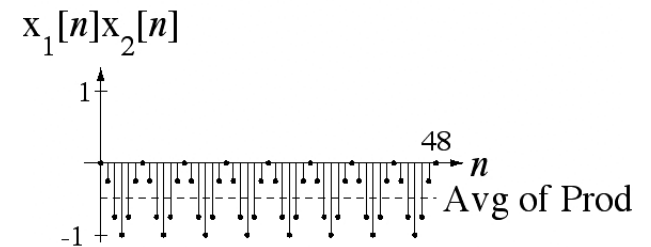
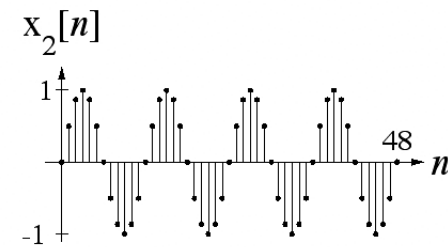
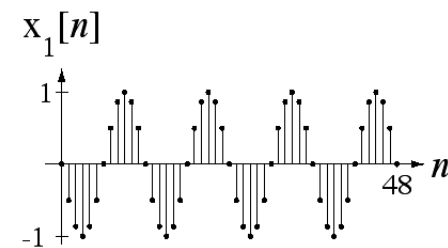
Positively Correlated  
DT Sinusoids with  
Zero Mean



Uncorrelated DT  
Sinusoids with  
Zero Mean

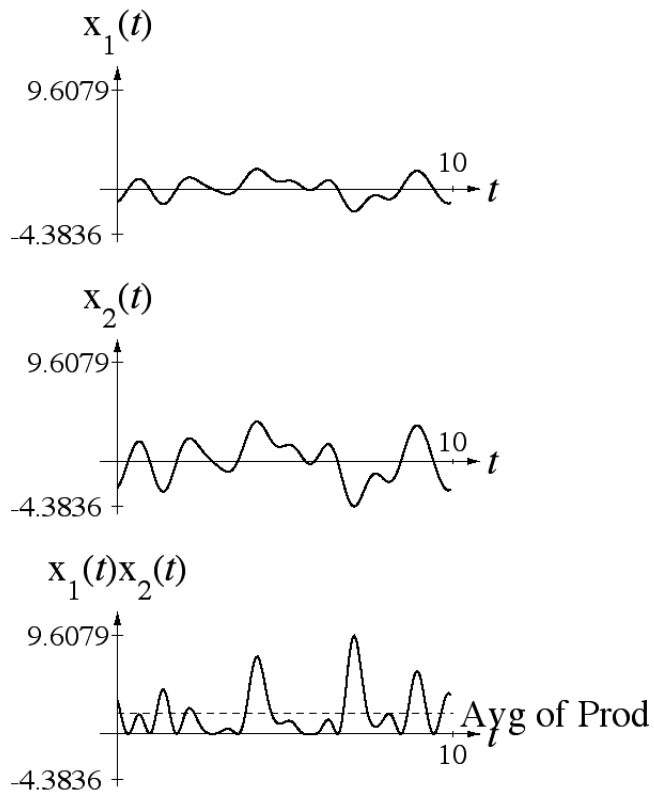


Negatively Correlated  
DT Sinusoids with  
Zero Mean

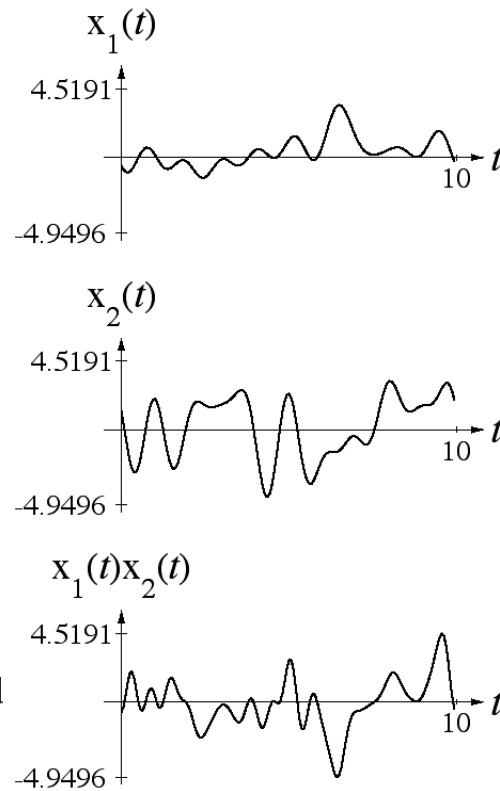


# The Correlation Function

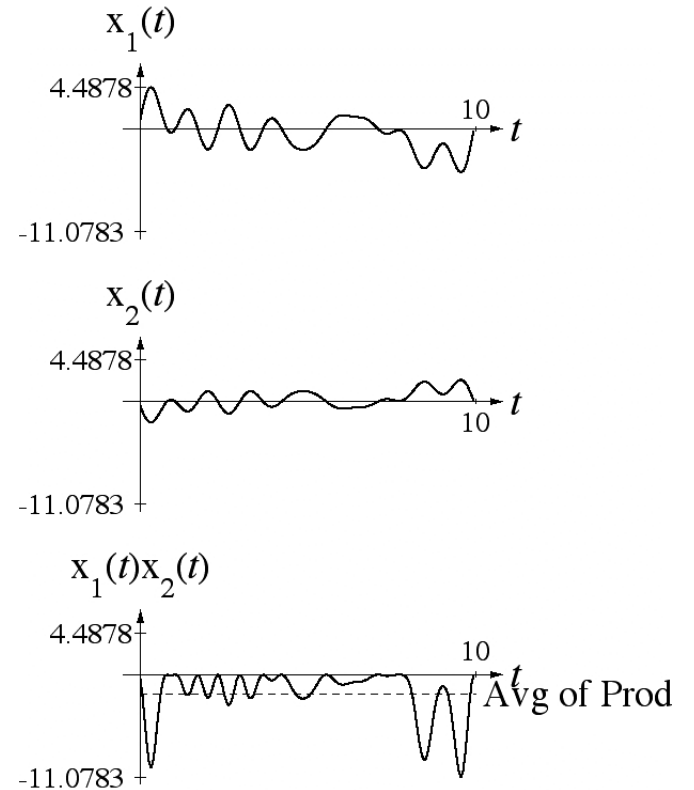
Positively Correlated  
Random CT Signals  
with Zero Mean



Uncorrelated Random  
CT Signals with  
Zero Mean



Negatively Correlated  
Random CT Signals  
with Zero Mean

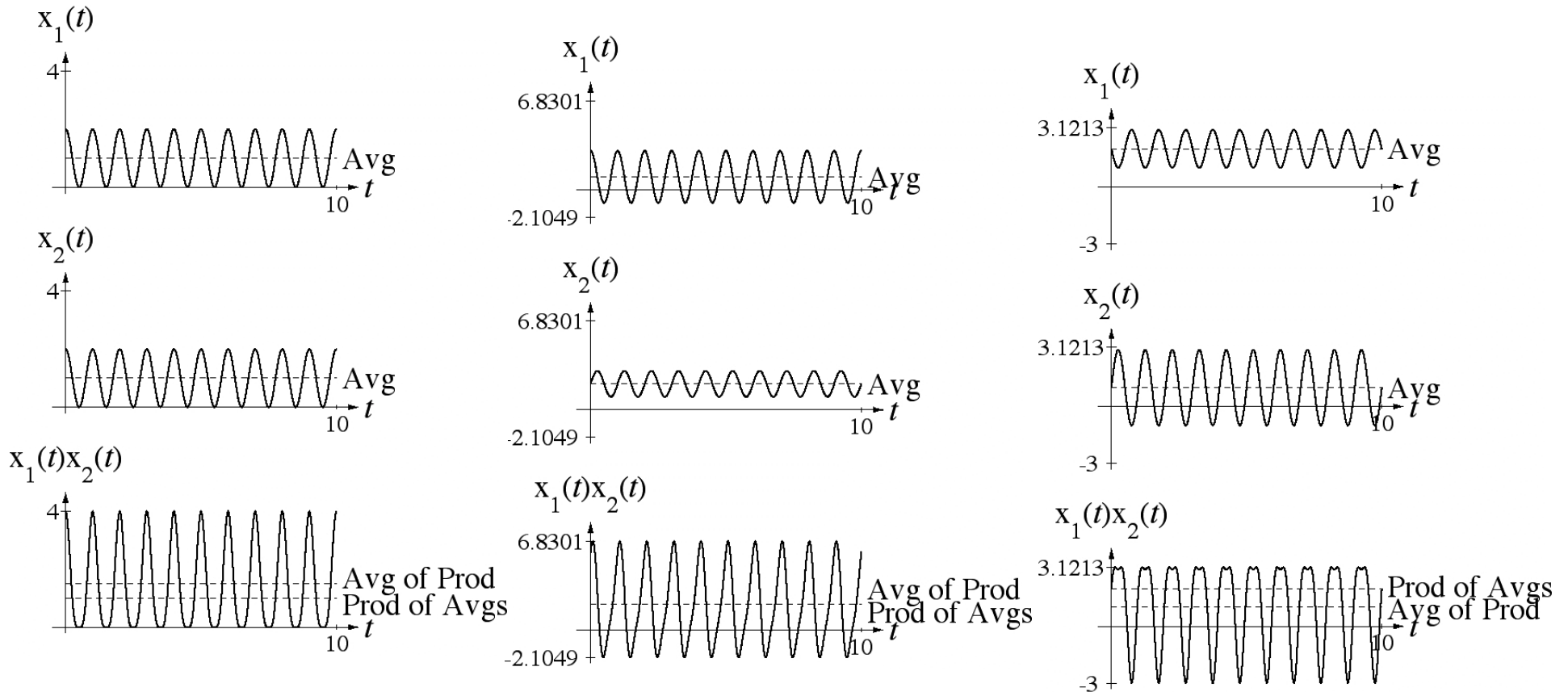


# The Correlation Function

Positively Correlated  
CT Sinusoids with  
Non-zero Mean

Uncorrelated CT  
Sinusoids with  
Non-zero Mean

Negatively Correlated  
CT Sinusoids with  
Non-zero Mean

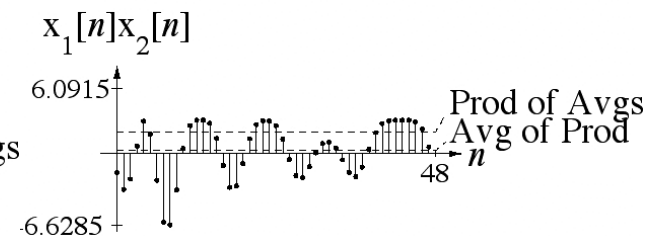
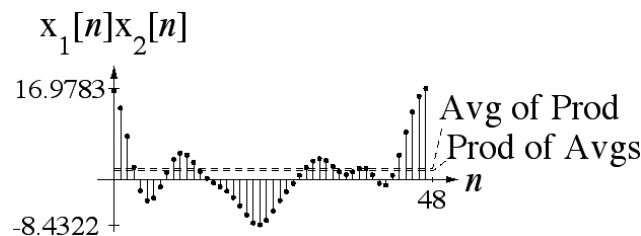
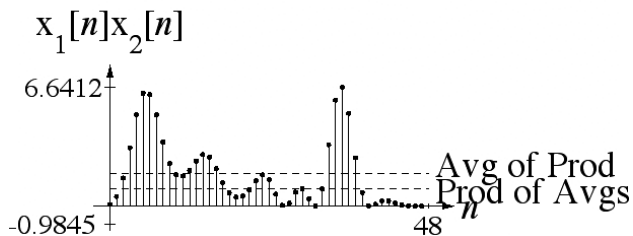
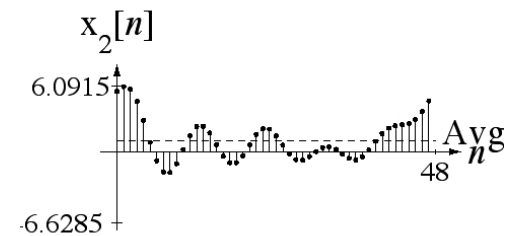
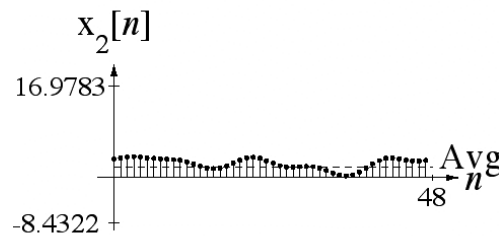
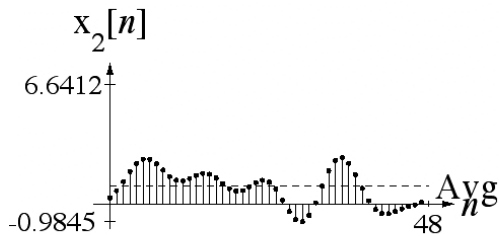
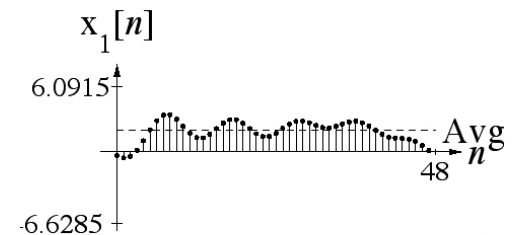
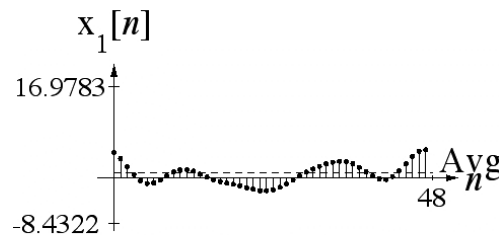
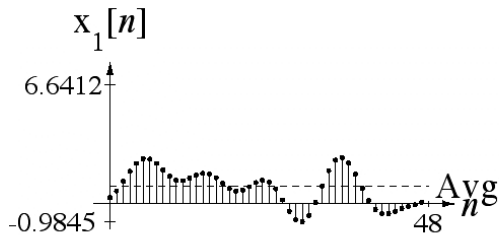


# The Correlation Function

Positively Correlated  
Random DT Signals  
with Non-zero Mean

Uncorrelated Random  
DT Signals with  
Non-zero Mean

Negatively Correlated  
Random DT Signals  
with Non-zero Mean



# Correlation of Energy Signals

The correlation between two energy signals,  $x$  and  $y$ , is the area under (for CT signals) or the sum of (for DT signals) the product of  $x$  and  $y^*$ .

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)y^*(t)dt \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]y^*[n]$$

The correlation *function* between two energy signals,  $x$  and  $y$ , is the area under (CT) or the sum of (DT) that product *as a function of how much  $y$  is shifted* relative to  $x$ .

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)y^*(t+\tau)dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]y^*[n+m]$$

In the very common case in which  $x$  and  $y$  are both real,

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)y(t+\tau)dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]y[n+m]$$

# Correlation of Energy Signals

The correlation function for two real energy signals is very similar to the convolution of two real energy signals.

$$x(t) * y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t - \tau) y(\tau) d\tau \quad \text{or} \quad x[n] * y[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n - m] y[m]$$

Therefore it is possible to use convolution to find the correlation function.

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = x(-\tau) * y(\tau) \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = x[-m] * y[m]$$

It also follows that

$$R_{xy}(\tau) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} X^*(f) Y(f) \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} X^*(F) Y(F)$$

# Correlation of Power Signals

The correlation function between two power signals,  $x$  and  $y$ , is the average value of the product of  $x$  and  $y^*$  as a function of how much  $y^*$  is shifted relative to  $x$ .

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) y^*(t + \tau) dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} x[n] y^*[n + m]$$

If the two signals are both periodic and their fundamental periods have a finite least common period,

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) y^*(t + \tau) dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} x[n] y^*[n + m]$$

where  $T$  or  $N$  is any integer multiple of that least common period. For real periodic signals these become

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) y(t + \tau) dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} x[n] y[n + m]$$



# Correlation of Power Signals

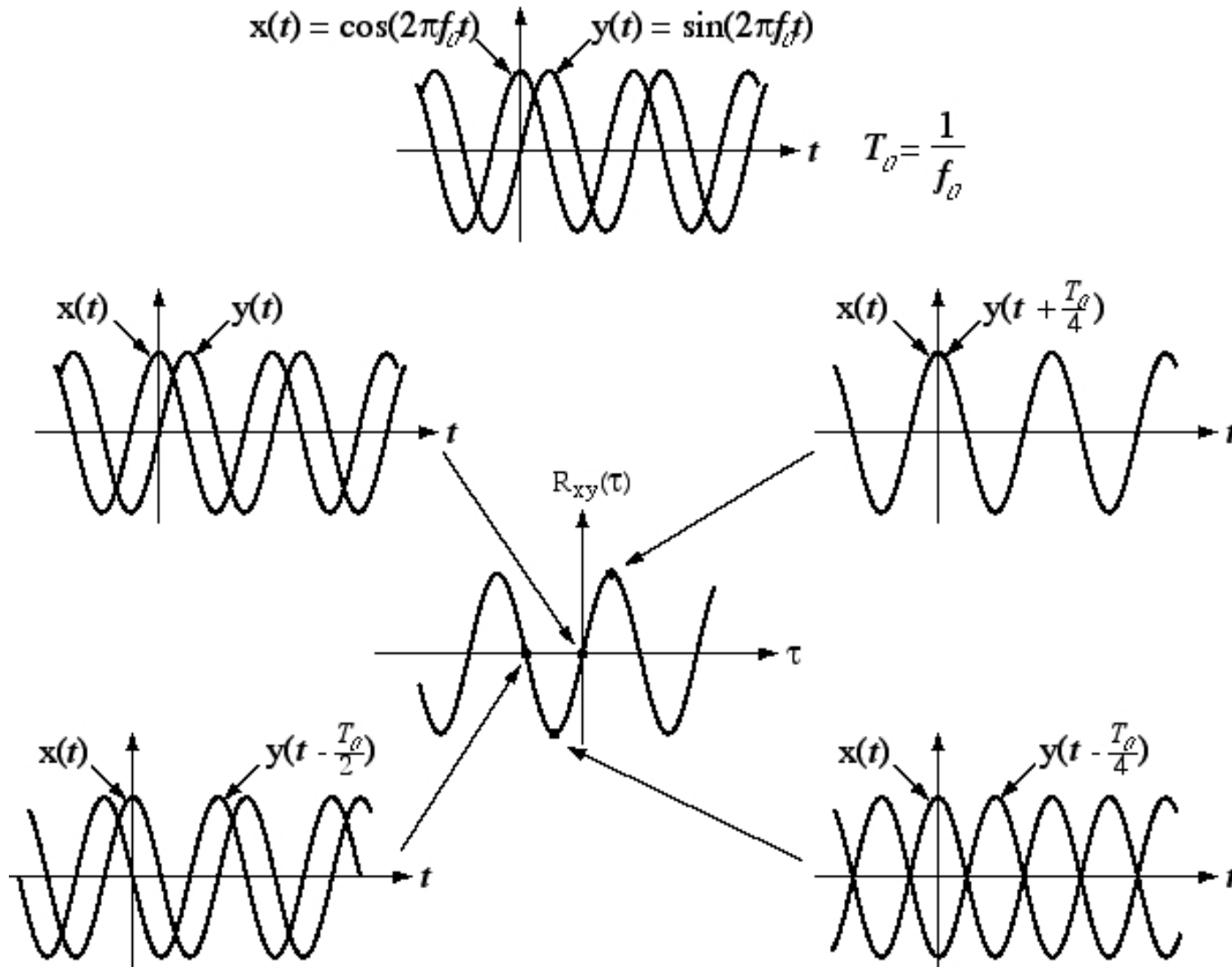
Correlation of real periodic signals is very similar to periodic convolution

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = \frac{x(-\tau) \circledast y(\tau)}{T} \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] = \frac{x[-m] \circledast y[m]}{N}$$

$$R_{xy}(\tau) \xleftrightarrow{FS} X^*[k]Y[k] \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xy}[m] \xleftrightarrow{FS} X^*[k]Y[k]$$

where it is understood that the period of the periodic convolution is any integer multiple of the least common period of the two fundamental periods of  $x$  and  $y$ .

# Correlation of Power Signals



# Correlation of Sinusoids

- The correlation function for two sinusoids of different frequencies is always zero. (pp. 588-589)

# Autocorrelation

A very important special case of correlation is *autocorrelation*. Autocorrelation is the correlation of a function with a shifted version of *itself*. For energy signals,

$$R_{xx}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)x^*(t+\tau)dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xx}[m] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]x^*[n+m]$$

At a shift,  $\tau$  or  $m$ , of zero,

$$R_{xx}(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xx}[0] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2$$

which is the signal energy of the signal. For power signals,

$$R_{xx}(0) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_T |x(t)|^2 dt \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xx}[0] = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} |x[n]|^2$$

which is the average signal power of the signal.

# Properties of Autocorrelation

For real signals, autocorrelation is an even function.

$$R_{xx}(\tau) = R_{xx}(-\tau) \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xx}[m] = R_{xx}[-m]$$

Autocorrelation magnitude can never be larger than it is at zero shift.

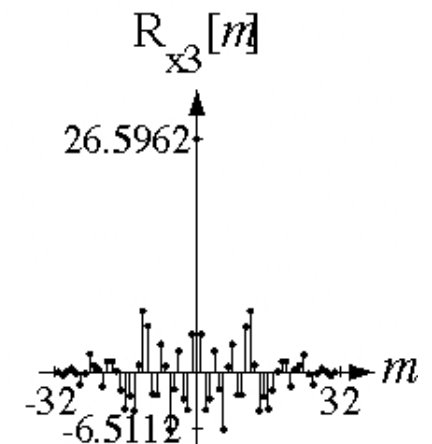
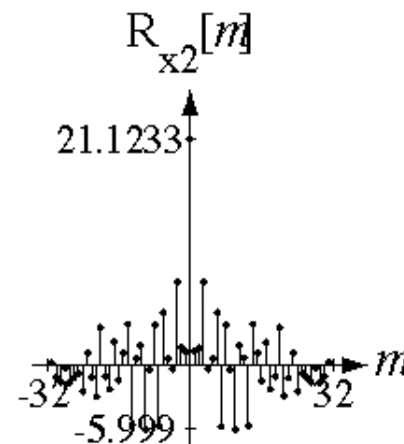
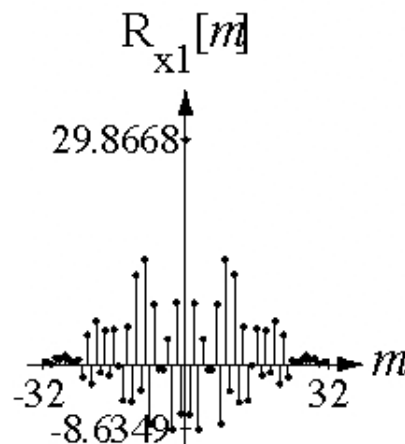
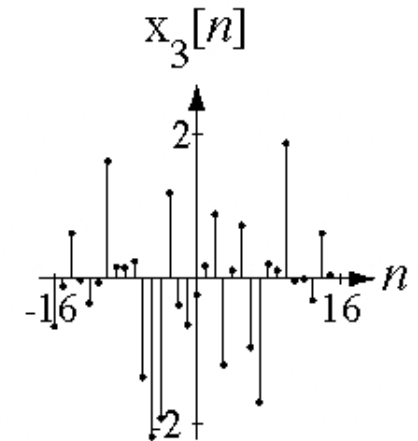
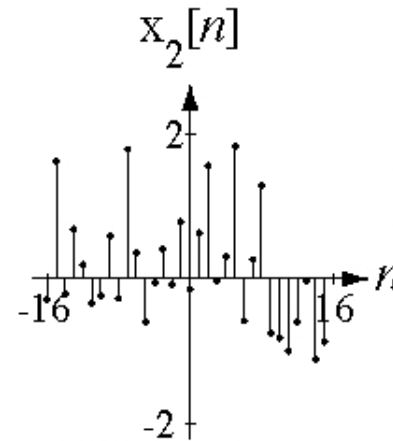
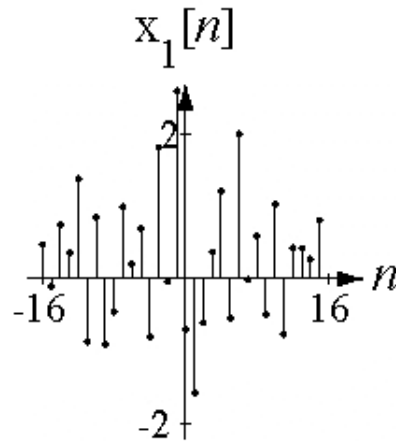
$$R_{xx}(0) \geq |R_{xx}(\tau)| \quad \text{or} \quad R_{xx}[0] \geq |R_{xx}[m]|$$

If a signal is time shifted its autocorrelation does not change.

The autocorrelation of a sum of sinusoids of different frequencies is the sum of the autocorrelations of the individual sinusoids.

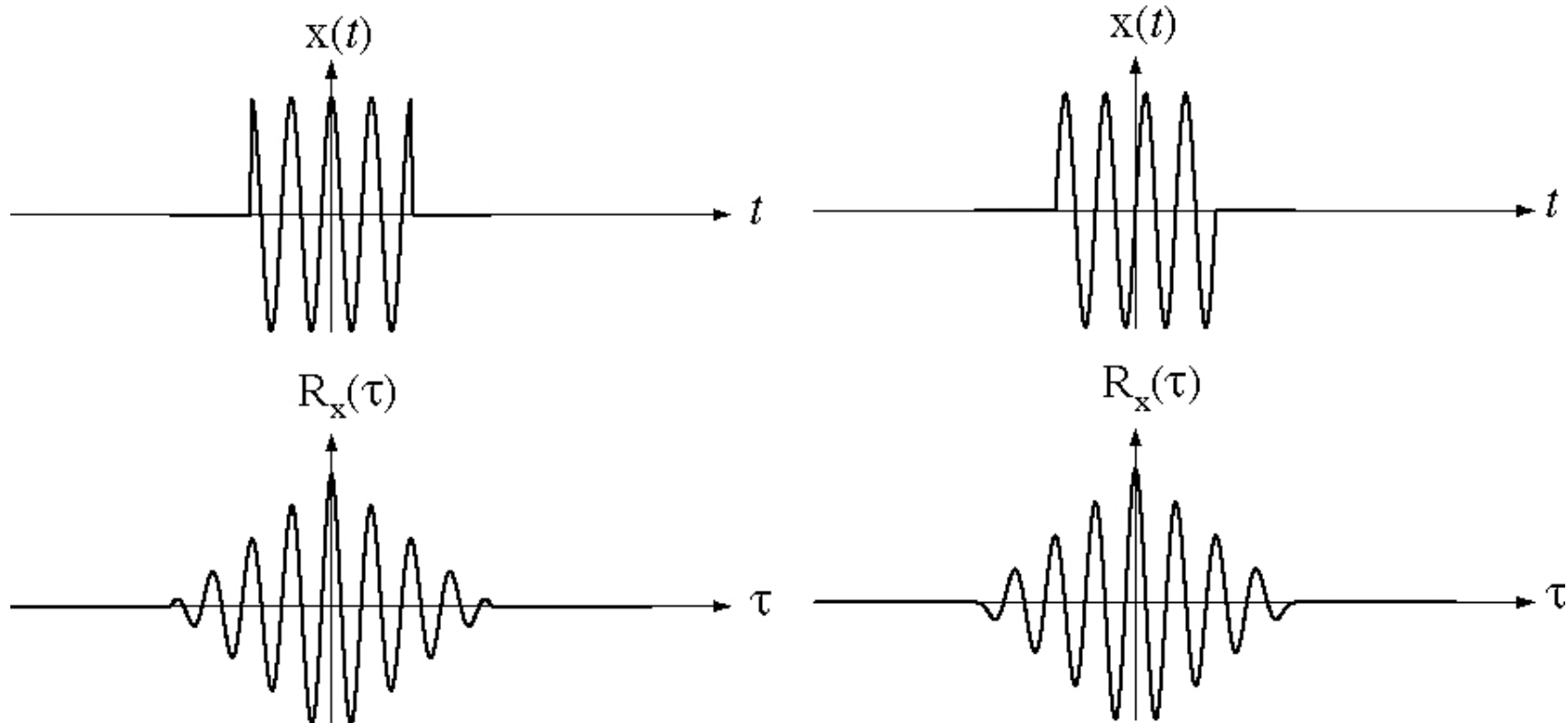
# Autocorrelation Examples

Three different random DT signals and their autocorrelations. Notice that, even though the signals are different, their autocorrelations are quite similar, all peaking sharply at a shift of zero.

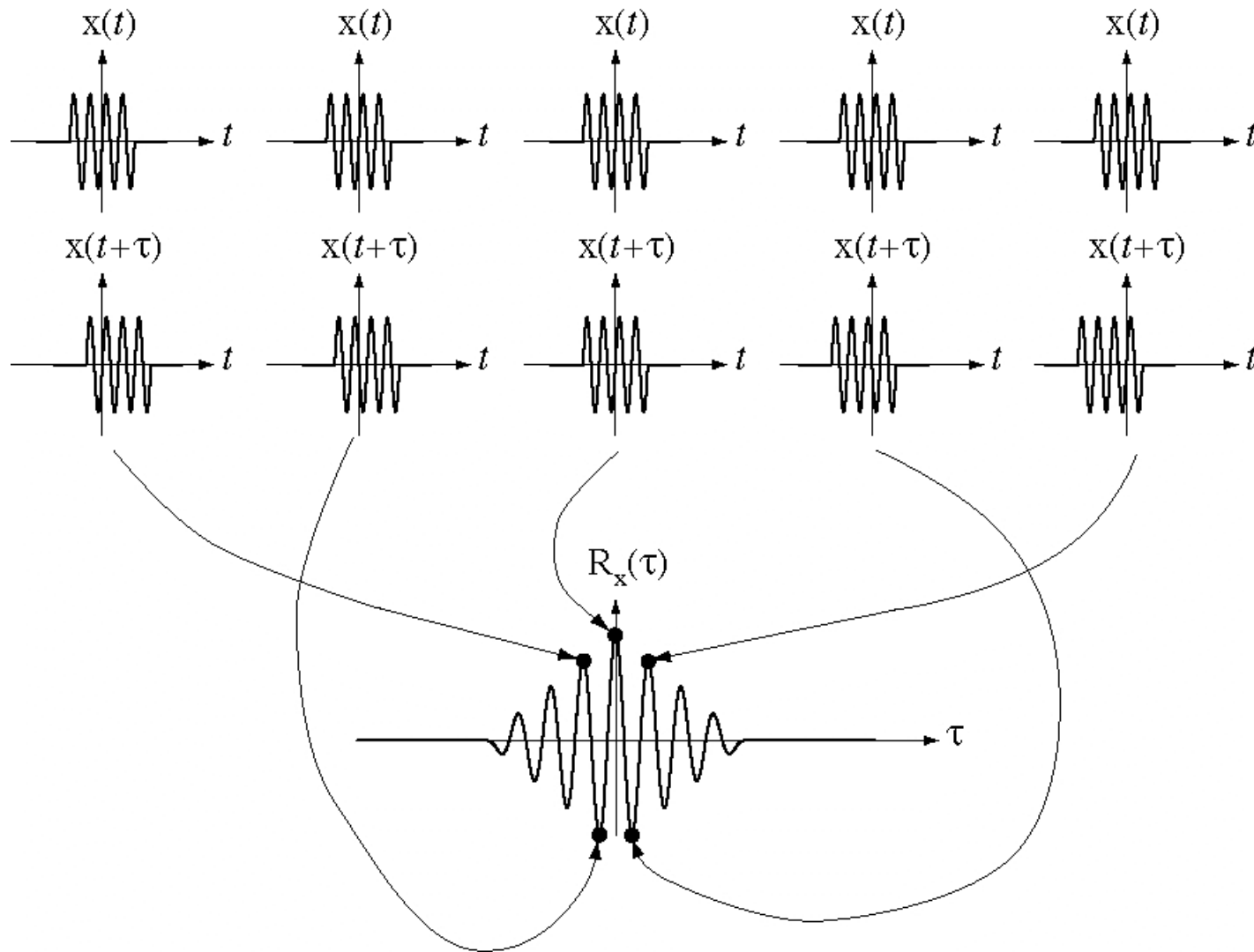


# Autocorrelation Examples

Autocorrelations for a cosine “burst” and a sine “burst”.  
Notice that they are almost (but not quite) identical.



# Autocorrelation Examples



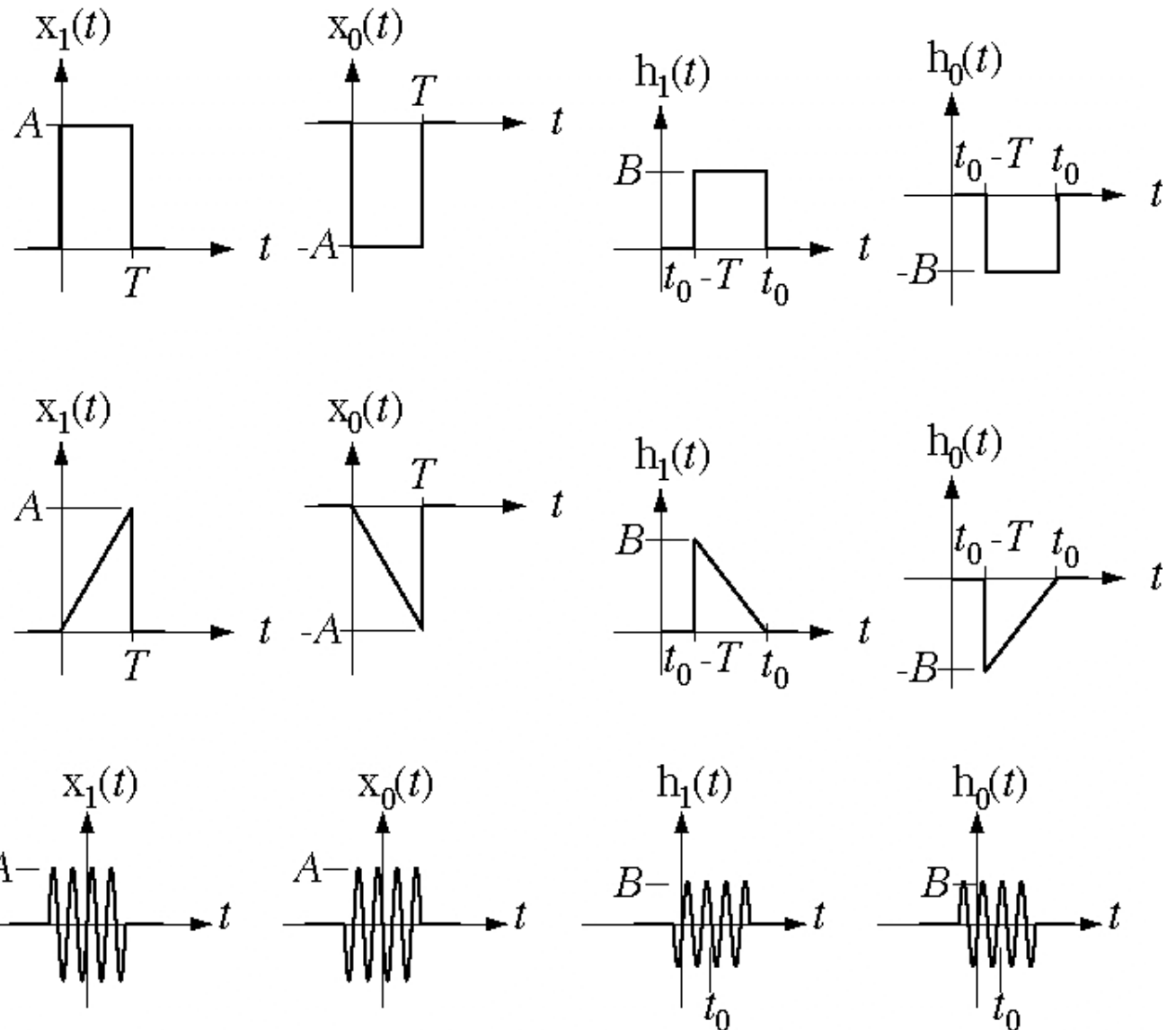


# Matched Filters

- A very useful technique for detecting the presence of a signal of a certain shape in the presence of noise is the *matched filter*.
- The matched filter uses correlation to detect the signal so this filter is sometimes called a *correlation filter*
- It is often used to detect 1's and 0's in a binary data stream

# Matched Filters

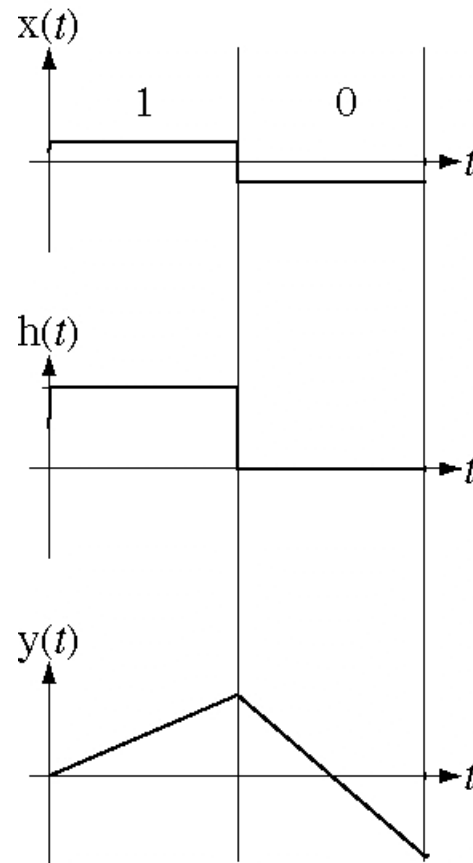
It has been shown that the optimal filter to detect a noisy signal is one whose impulse response is proportional to the time inverse of the signal. Here are some examples of waveshapes encoding 1's and 0's and the impulse responses of matched filters.



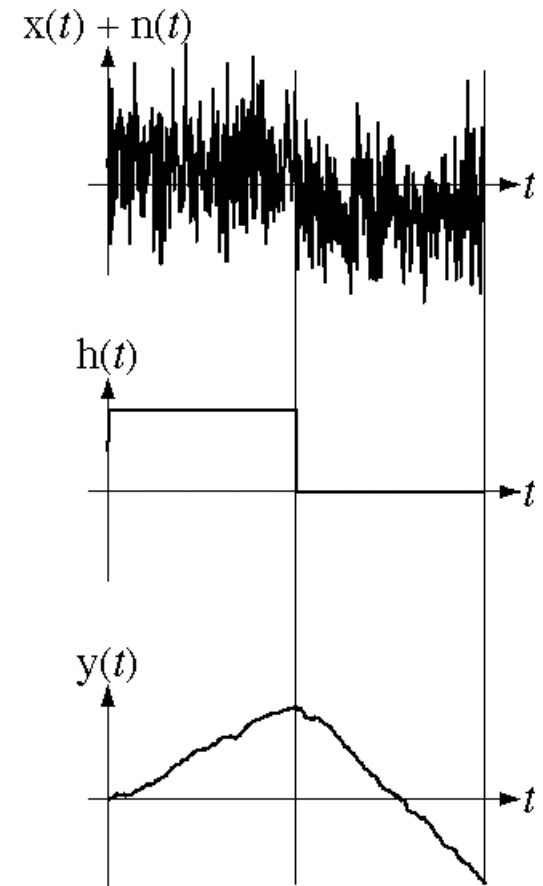
# Matched Filters

Even in the presence of a large additive noise signal this matched filter indicates with a high response level the presence of a 1 and with a low response level the presence of a 0. Since the 1 and 0 are encoded as the negatives of each other, one matched filter optimally detects both.

Noiseless Bits

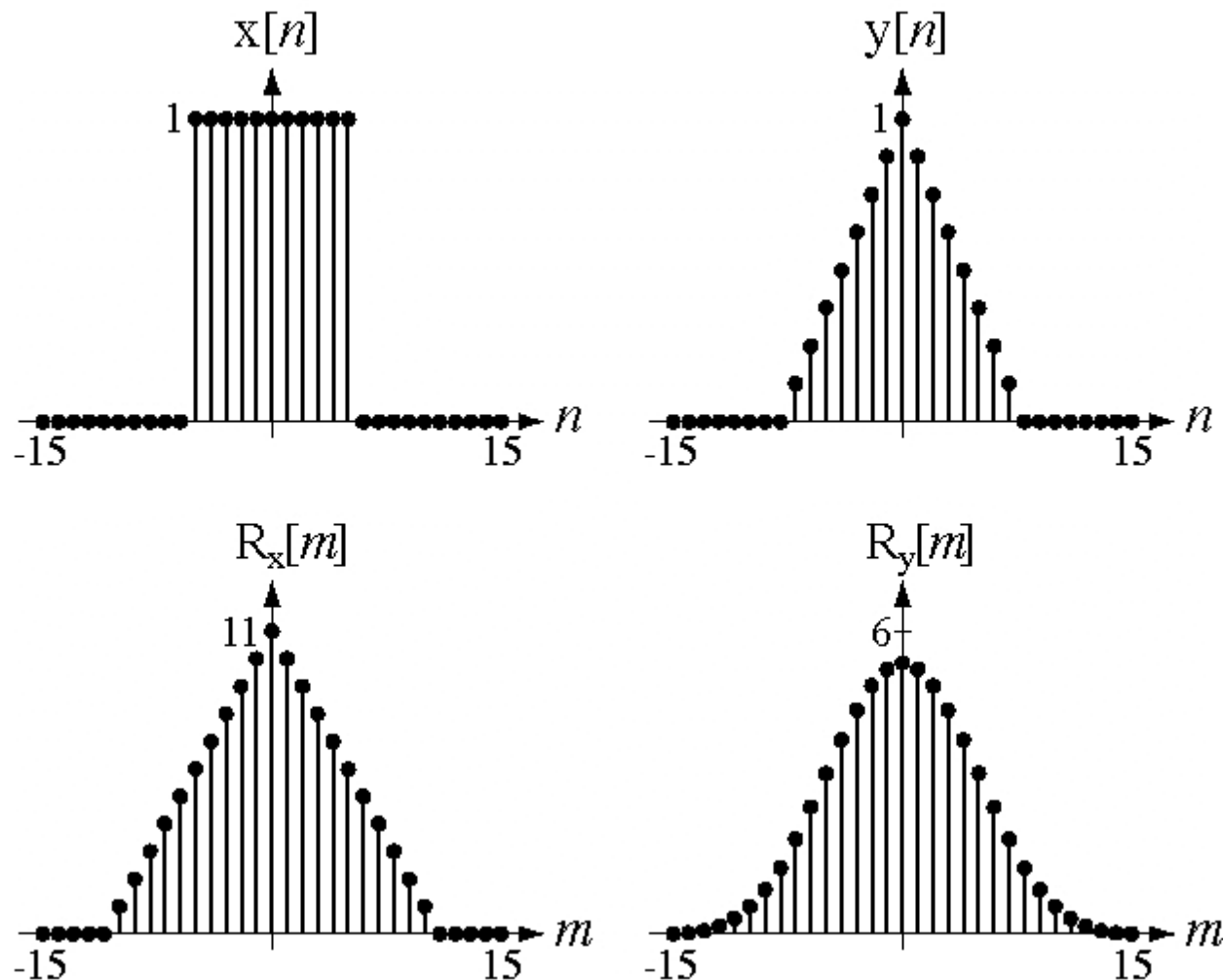


Noisy Bits



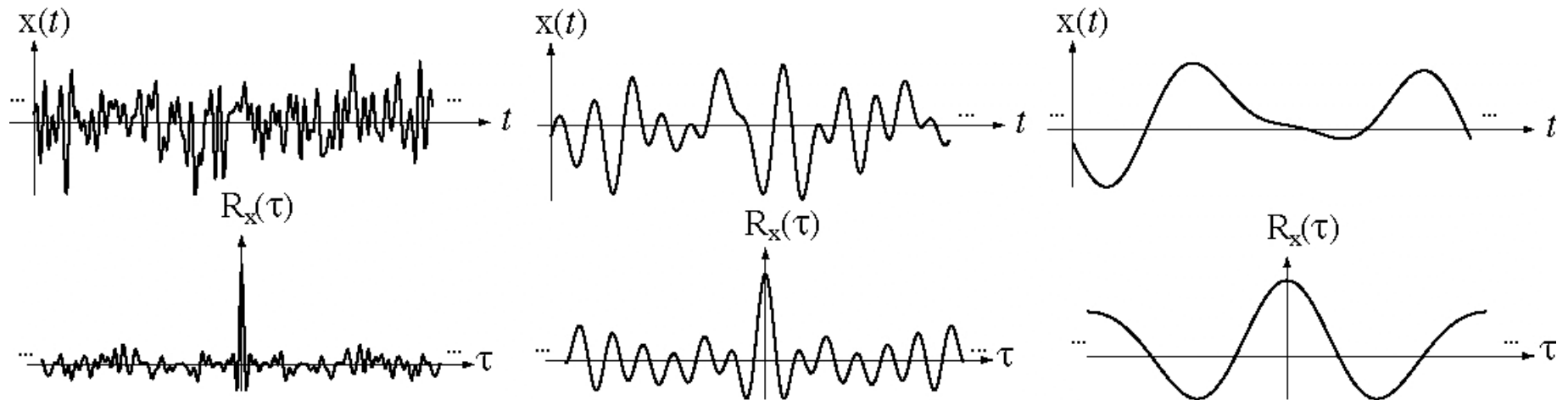
# Autocorrelation Examples

Two familiar DT signal shapes and their autocorrelations.



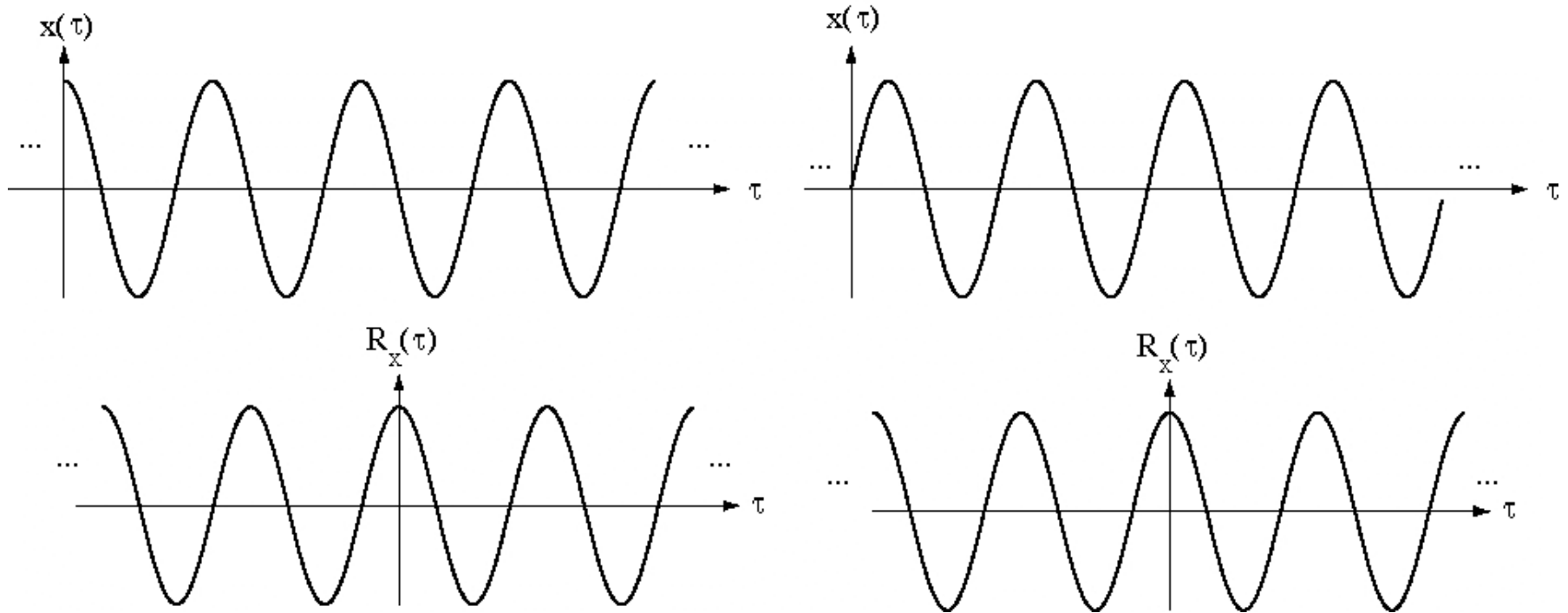
# Autocorrelation Examples

Three random power signals with different frequency content and their autocorrelations.



# Autocorrelation Examples

Autocorrelation functions for a cosine and a sine. Notice that the autocorrelation functions are identical even though the signals are different.



# Autocorrelation Examples

- One way to simulate a random signal is with a summation of sinusoids of different frequencies and random phases
- Since all the sinusoids have different frequencies the autocorrelation of the sum is simply the sum of the autocorrelations
- Also, since a time shift (phase shift) does not affect the autocorrelation, when the phases are randomized the signals change, but not their autocorrelations

# Autocorrelation Examples

Let a random signal be described by

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=1}^N A_k \cos(2\pi f_{0k} t + \theta_k)$$

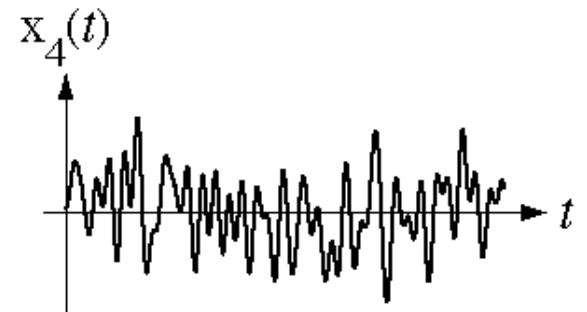
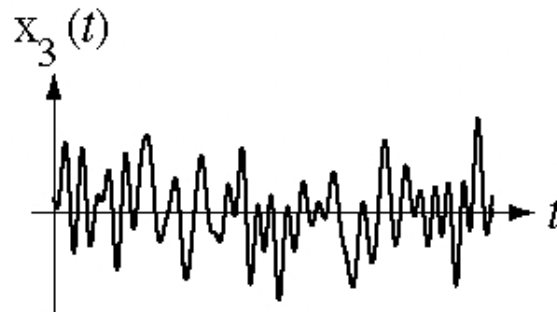
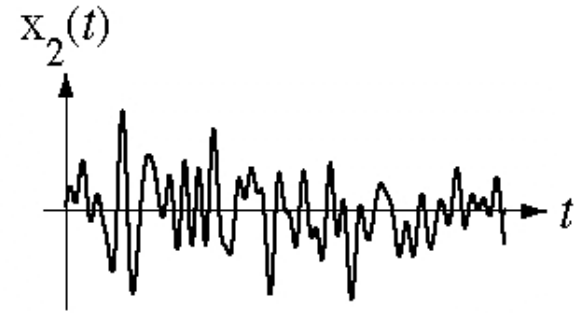
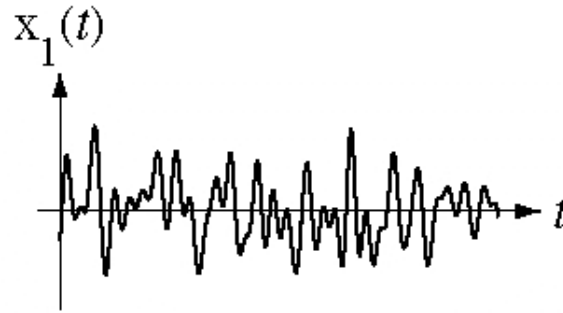
Since all the sinusoids are at different frequencies,

$$R_x(\tau) = \sum_{k=1}^N R_k(\tau)$$

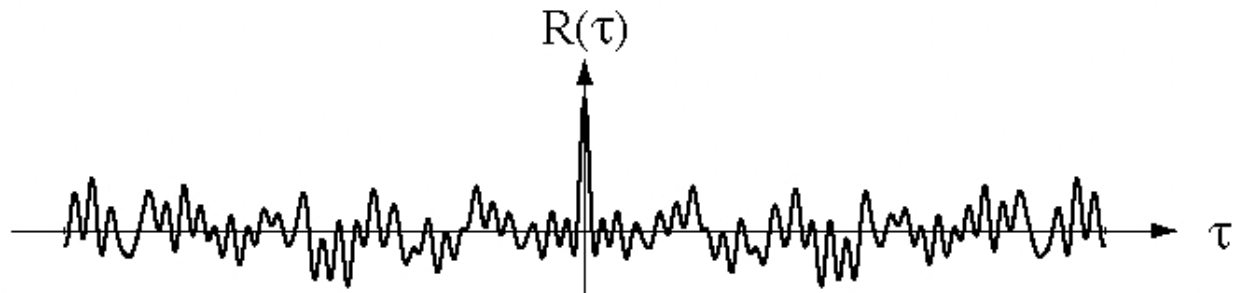
where  $R_k(\tau)$  is the autocorrelation of  $A_k \cos(2\pi f_{0k} t + \theta_k)$ .



# Autocorrelation Examples

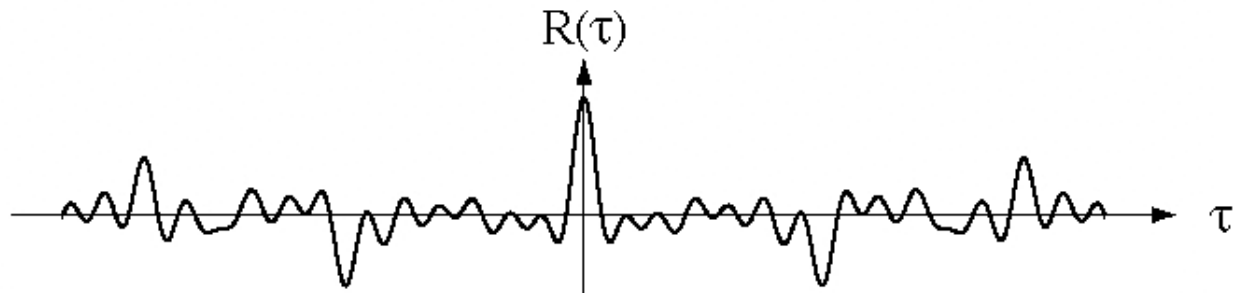
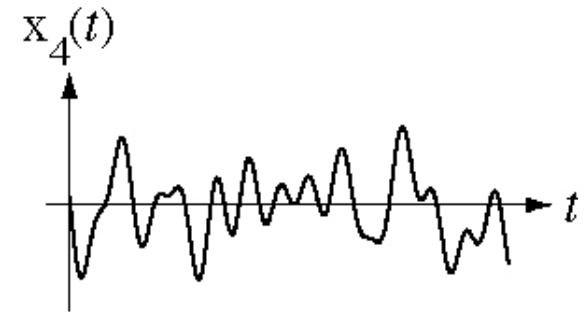
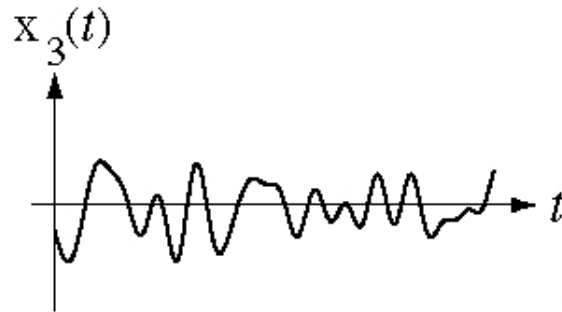
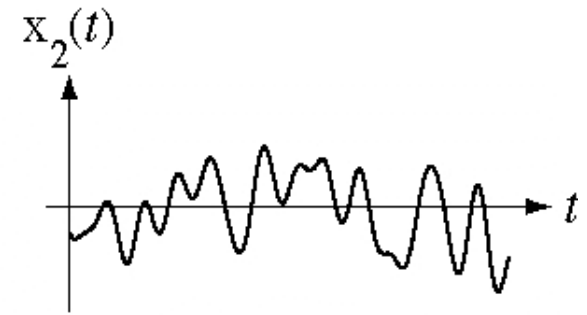
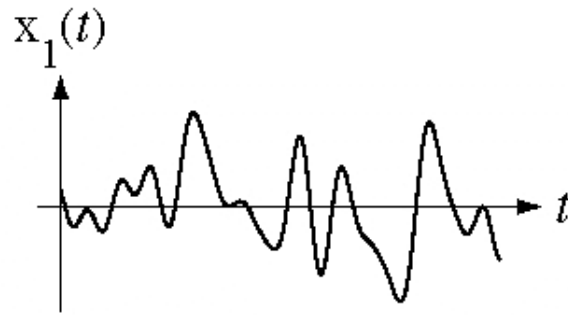


Four Different  
Random Signals  
with Identical  
Autocorrelations



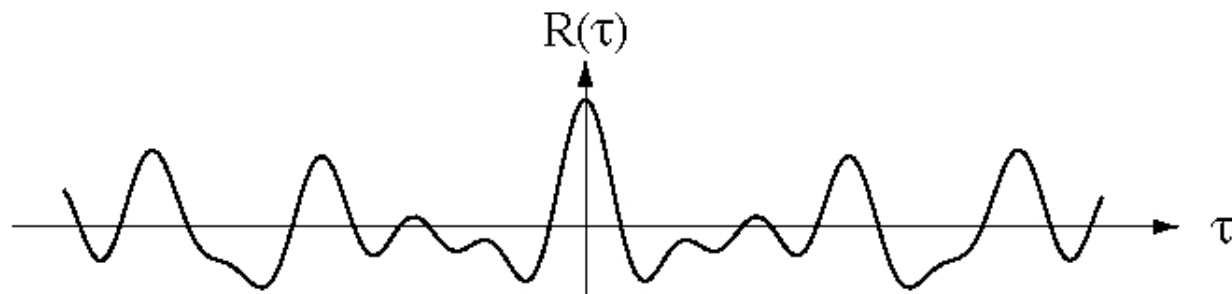
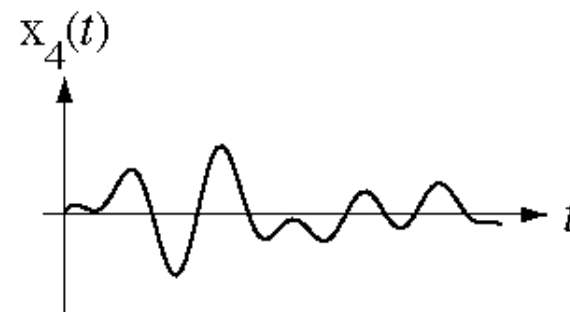
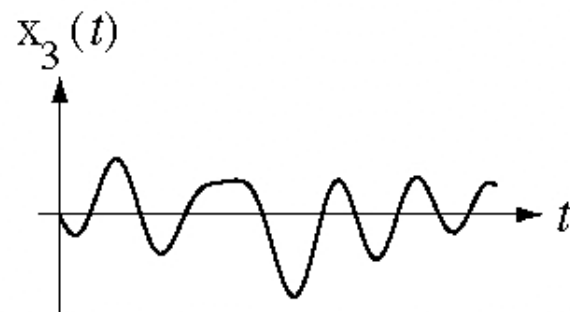
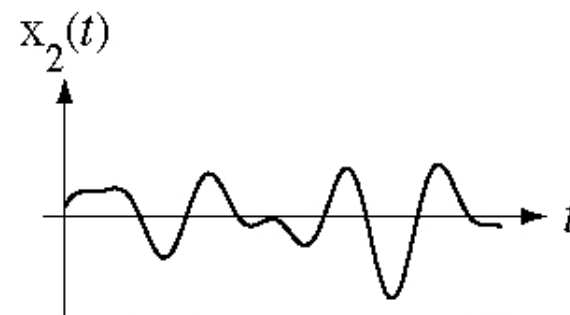
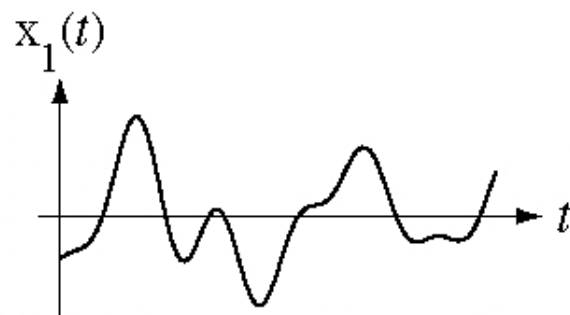
# Autocorrelation Examples

Four Different  
Random Signals  
with Identical  
Autocorrelations

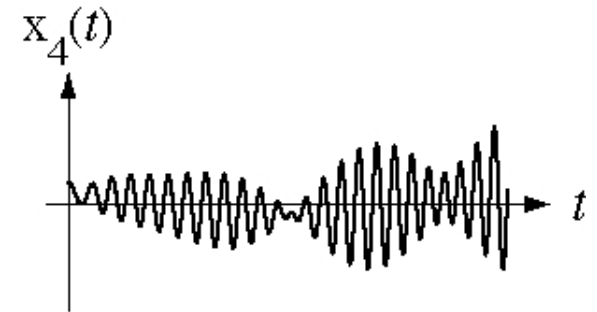
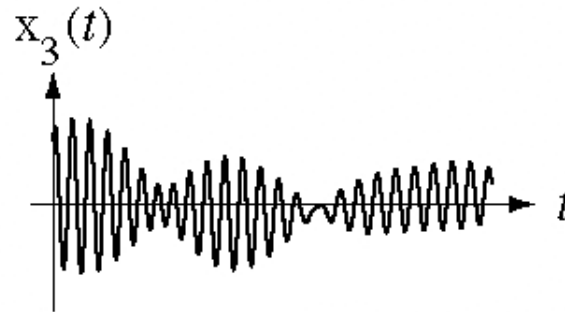
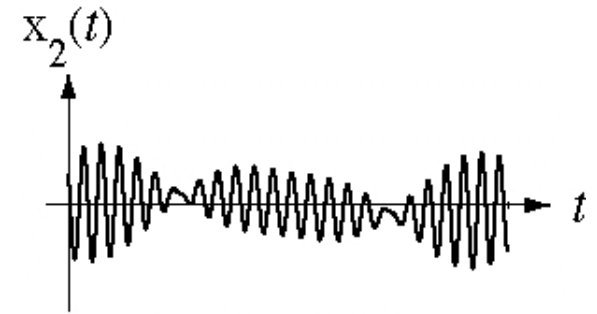
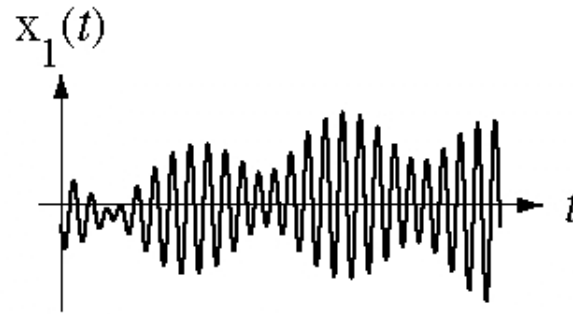


# Autocorrelation Examples

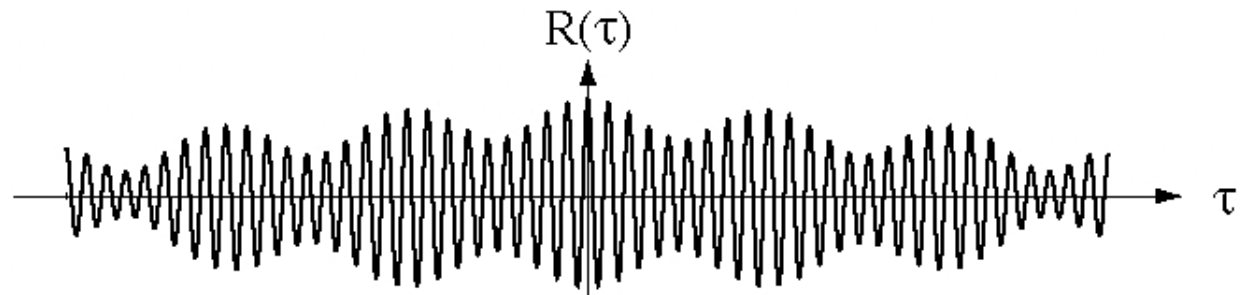
Four Different  
Random Signals  
with Identical  
Autocorrelations



# Autocorrelation Examples

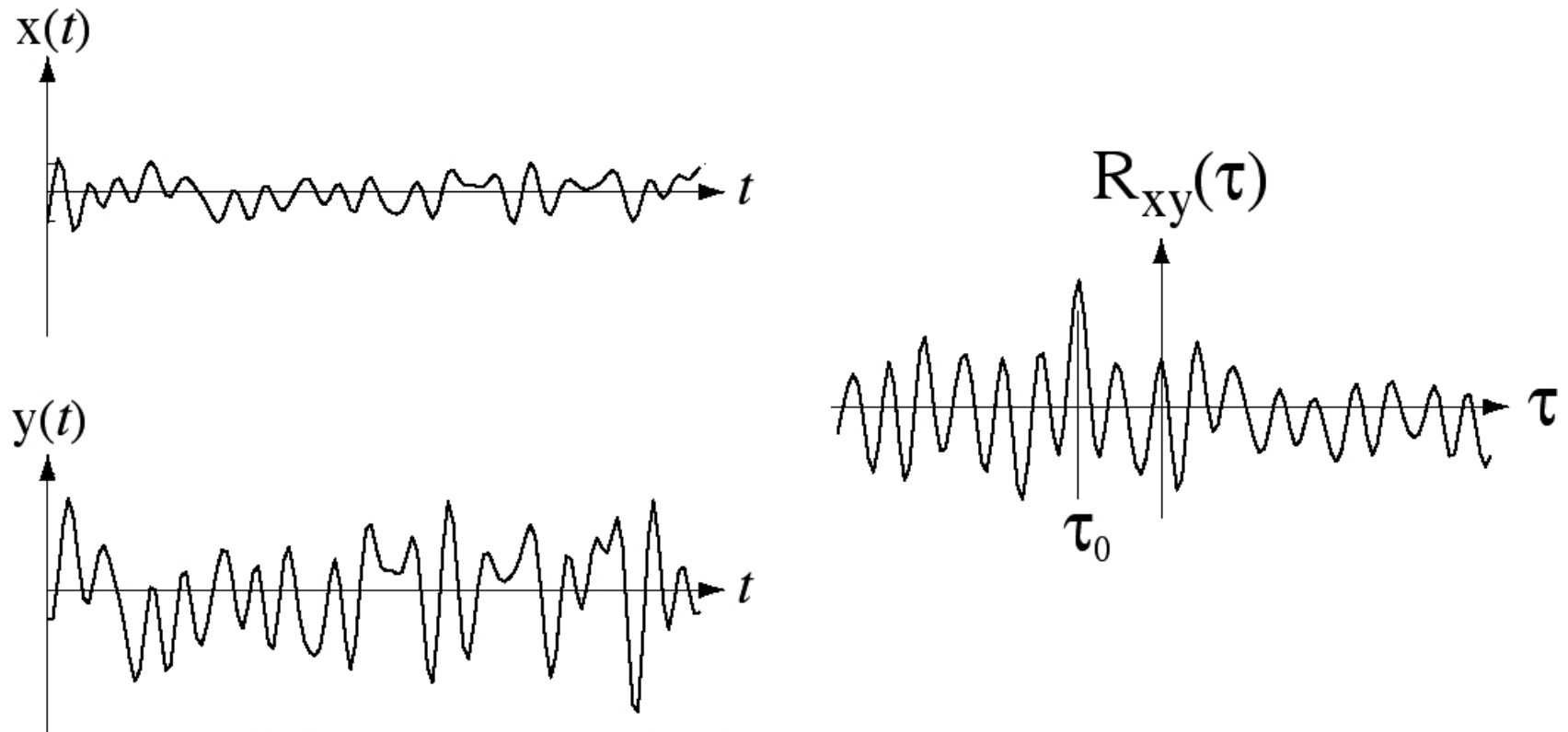


Four Different  
Random Signals  
with Identical  
Autocorrelations



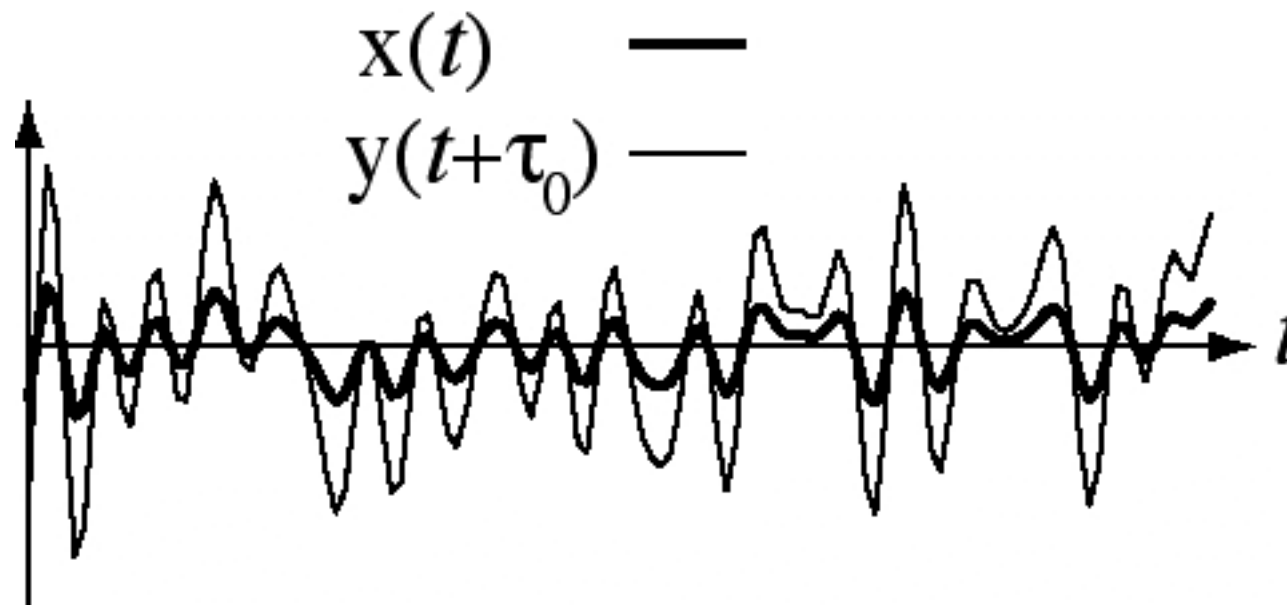
# Cross Correlation

Cross correlation is really just “correlation” in the cases in which the two signals being compared are different. The name is commonly used to distinguish it from autocorrelation.



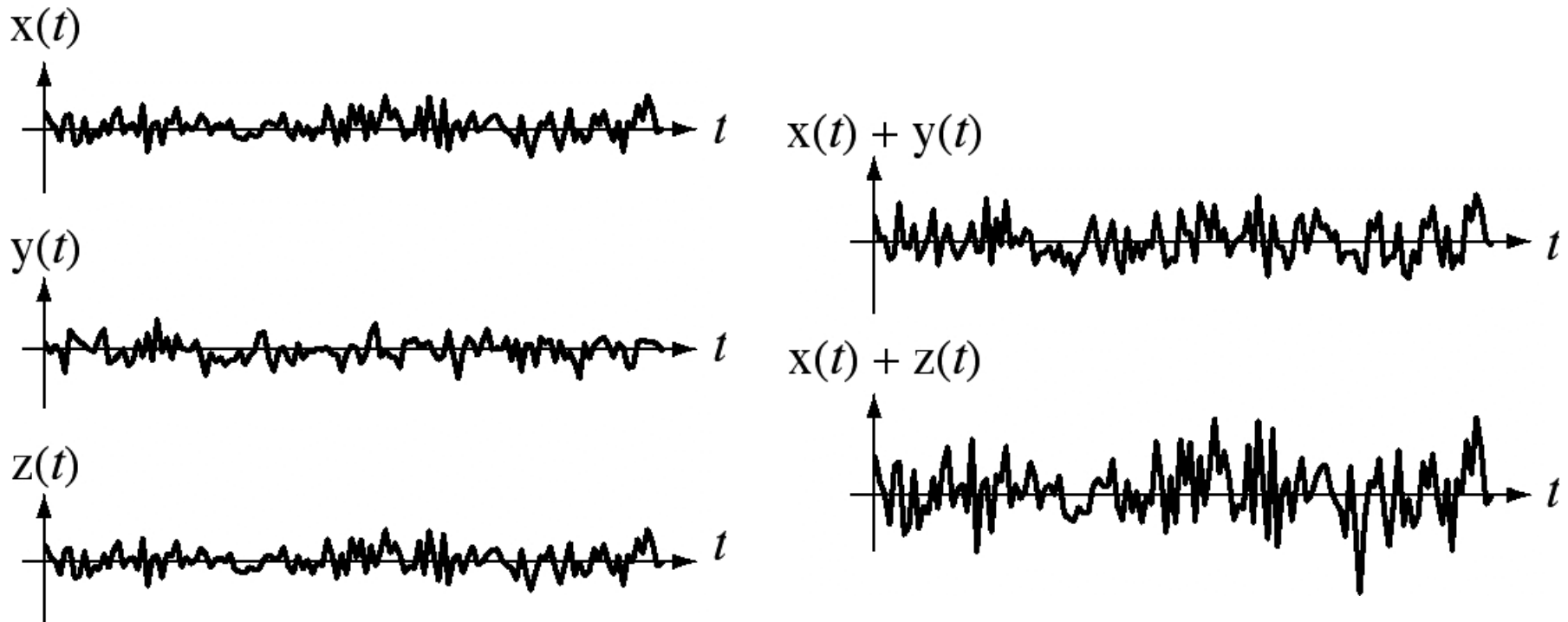
# Cross Correlation

A comparison of  $x$  and  $y$  with  $y$  shifted for maximum correlation.



# Cross Correlation

Below,  $x$  and  $z$  are highly positively correlated and  $x$  and  $y$  are uncorrelated. All three signals have the same average signal power. The signal power of  $x+z$  is greater than the signal power of  $x+y$ .



# Correlation and the Fourier Series

Calculating Fourier series harmonic functions can be thought of as a process of correlation. Let

$$c(t) = \cos(2\pi(kf_0)t) \quad \text{and} \quad s(t) = \sin(2\pi(kf_0)t)$$

Then the trigonometric CTFS harmonic functions are

$$X_c[k] = 2R_{xc}(0) \quad , \quad X_s[k] = 2R_{xs}(0)$$

Also, let

$$z(t) = e^{+j2\pi(kf_0)t}$$

then the complex CTFS harmonic function is

$$X[k] = R_{xz}(0)$$



# Energy Spectral Density

The total signal energy in an energy signal is

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(f)|^2 df \quad \text{or} \quad E_x = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2 = \int_1 |X(F)|^2 dF$$

The quantity,  $|X(f)|^2$ , or  $|X(F)|^2$ , is called the *energy spectral density (ESD)* of the signal,  $x$ , and is conventionally given the symbol,  $\Psi$ . That is,

$$\Psi_x(f) = |X(f)|^2 \quad \text{or} \quad \Psi_x(F) = |X(F)|^2$$

It can be shown that if  $x$  is a real-valued signal that the ESD is even, non-negative and real.

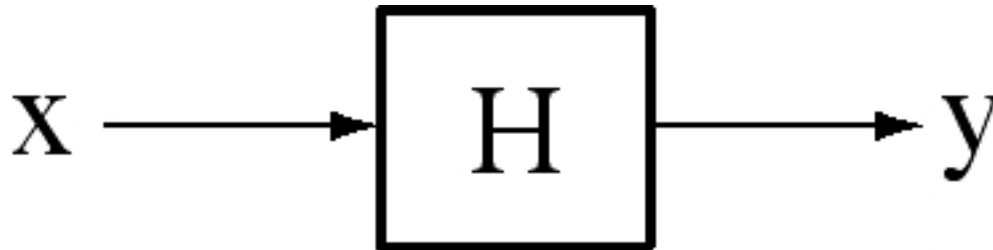
# Energy Spectral Density

Probably the most important fact about ESD is the relationship between the ESD of the excitation of an LTI system and the ESD of the response of the system. It can be shown (pp. 606-607) that they are related by

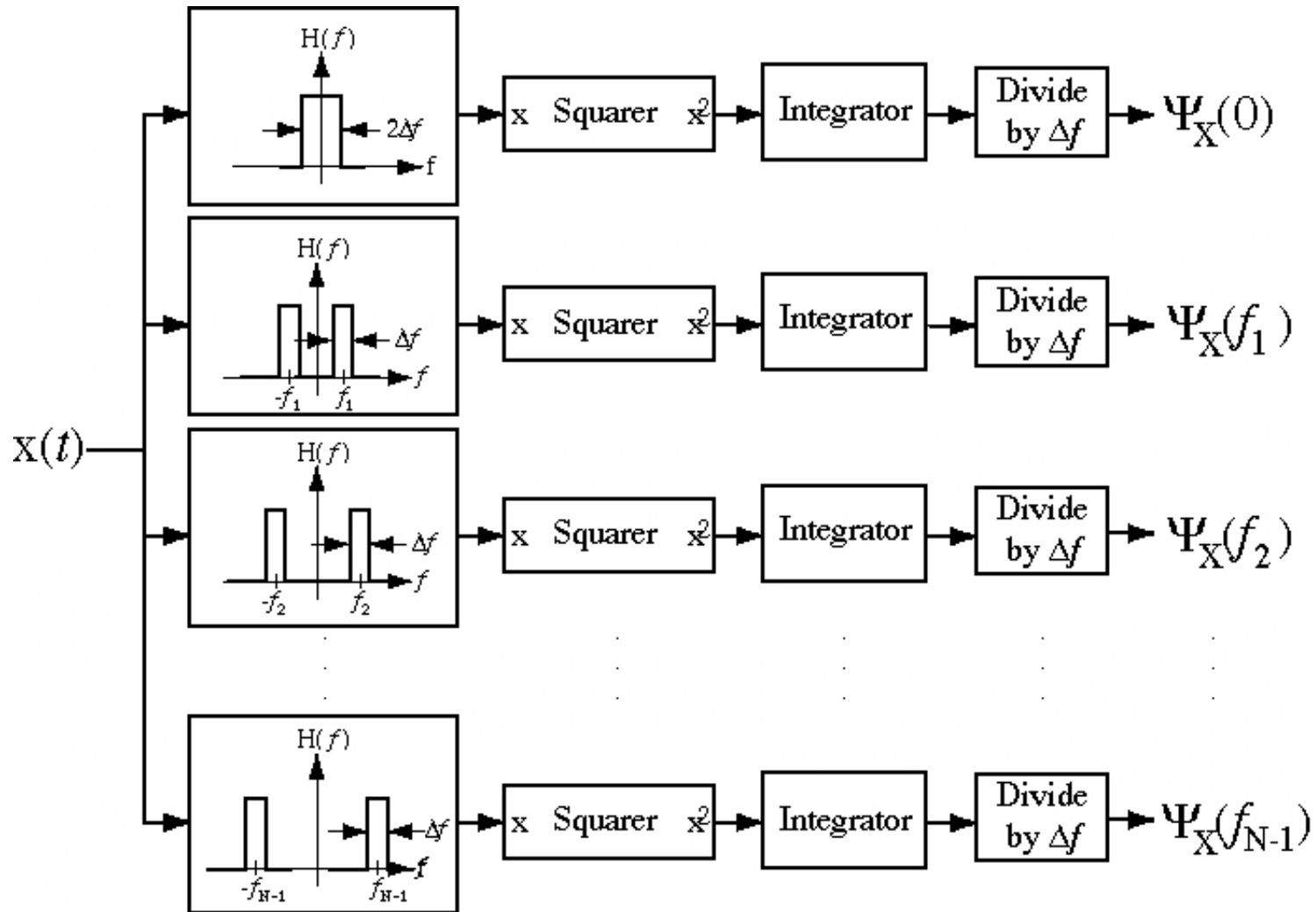
$$\Psi_y(f) = |H(f)|^2 \Psi_x(f) = H(f)H^*(f)\Psi_x(f)$$

or

$$\Psi_y(F) = |H(F)|^2 \Psi_x(F) = H(F)H^*(F)\Psi_x(F)$$



# Energy Spectral Density



# Energy Spectral Density

It can be shown (pp. 607-608) that, for an energy signal, ESD and autocorrelation form a Fourier transform pair.

$$R_x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \Psi_x(f) \quad \text{or} \quad R_x[n] \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \Psi_x(F)$$

# Power Spectral Density

*Power spectral density (PSD)* applies to power signals in the same way that energy spectral density applies to energy signals. The PSD of a signal  $x$  is conventionally indicated by the notation,  $G_x(f)$  or  $G_x(F)$ . In an LTI system,

$$G_y(f) = |H(f)|^2 G_x(f) = H(f)H^*(f)G_x(f)$$

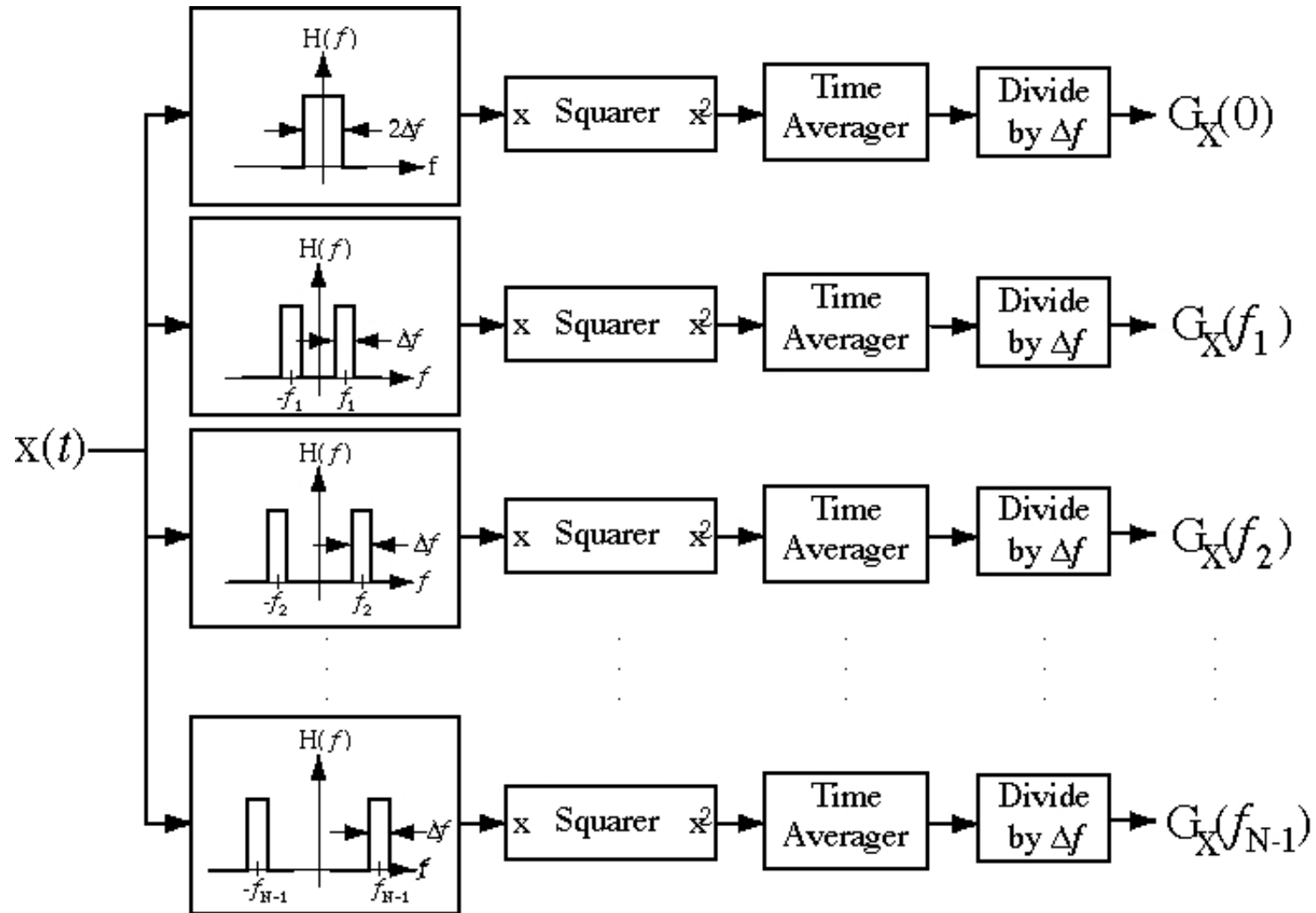
or

$$G_y(F) = |H(F)|^2 G_x(F) = H(F)H^*(F)G_x(F)$$

Also, for a power signal, PSD and autocorrelation form a Fourier transform pair.

$$R(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} [G(f)] \quad \text{or} \quad R[n] \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} G(F)$$

# PSD Concept



# Typical Signals in PSD Concept

