

***Analysis and Design of Analog Integrated Circuits***  
***Lecture 13***

***Basics of Noise***

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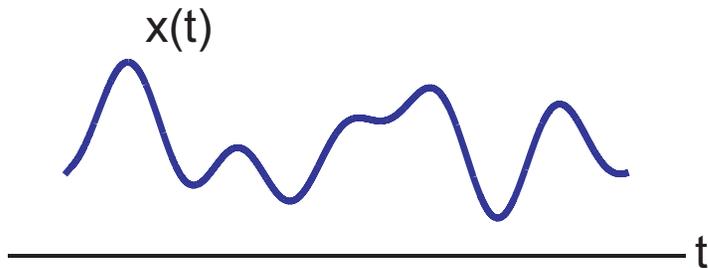
**March 14, 2012**

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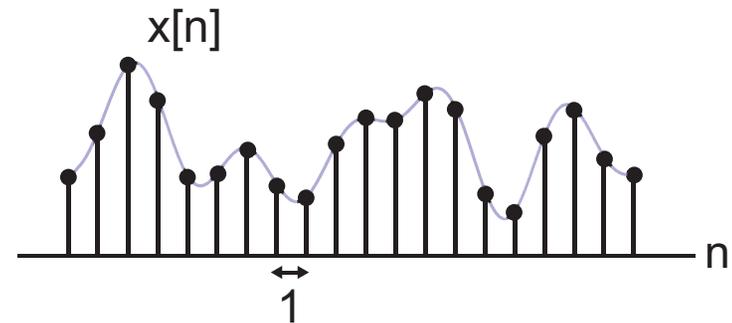
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# Continuous-Time Versus Discrete-Time Signals

Real World Signal

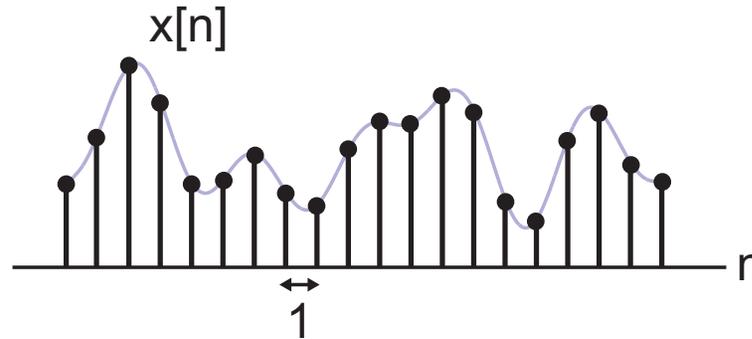


Samples of Real World Signal



- Real world signals, such as acoustic signals from speakers and RF signals from cell phones, are *continuous-time* in nature
- Digital processing of signals requires samples of real world signals, which yields *discrete-time* signals
- Analog circuits are used to sample and digitize real world signals for use by digital processors
- It is useful to study discrete-time signals when examining the issue of noise
  - Many insights can be applied back to continuous-time signals

# Definition of Mean, Power, and Energy



- DC average or mean,  $\mu_x$ , is defined as

$$\mu_x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x[k]$$

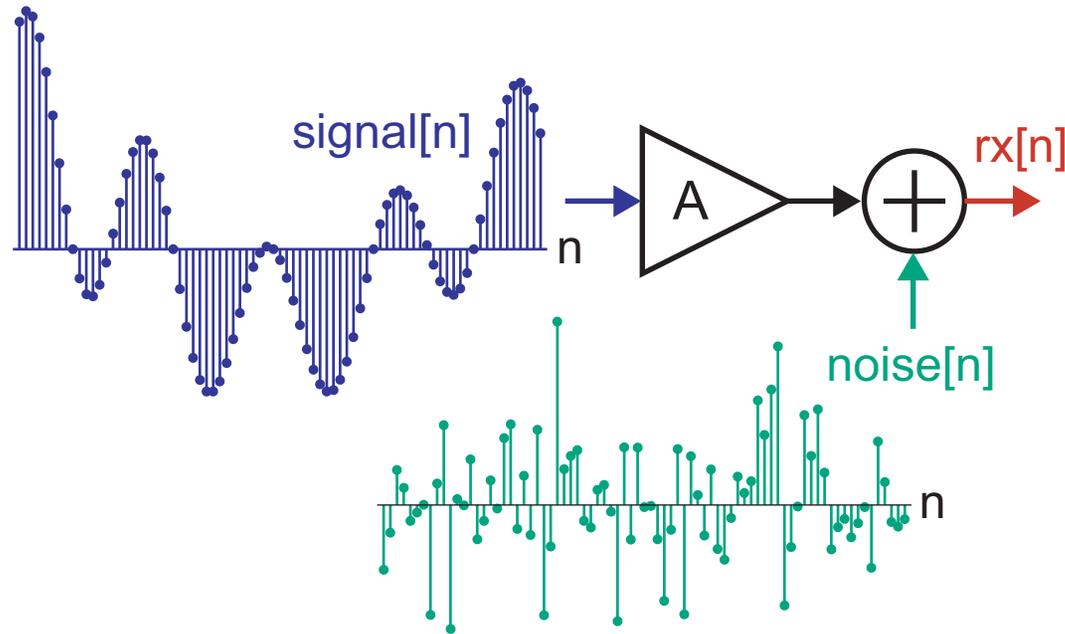
- Power,  $P_x$ , and energy,  $E_x$ , are defined as

$$P_x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x[k]^2 \quad E_x = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x[k]^2$$

- For many systems, we often remove the mean since it is often irrelevant in terms of *information*:

$$\tilde{P}_x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (x[k] - \mu_x)^2 \quad \tilde{E}_x = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (x[k] - \mu_x)^2$$

# Definition of Signal-to-Noise Ratio



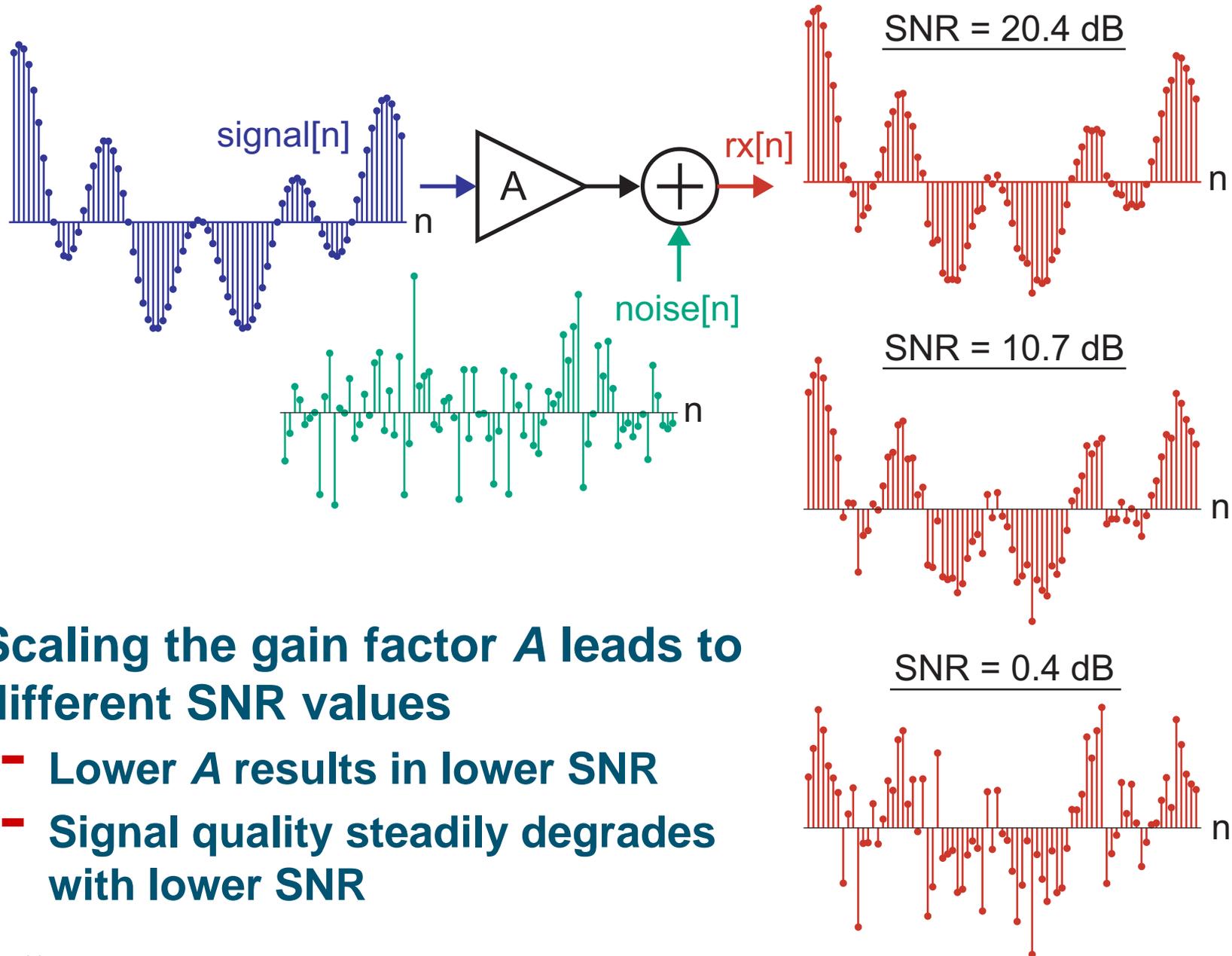
- **Signal-to-Noise ratio (SNR) indicates the relative impact of noise on system performance**

$$\text{SNR} = \frac{\tilde{P}_{\text{signal}}}{\tilde{P}_{\text{noise}}}$$

- **We often like to use units of *dB* to express SNR:**

$$\text{SNR (dB)} = 10 \log \left( \frac{\tilde{P}_{\text{signal}}}{\tilde{P}_{\text{noise}}} \right)$$

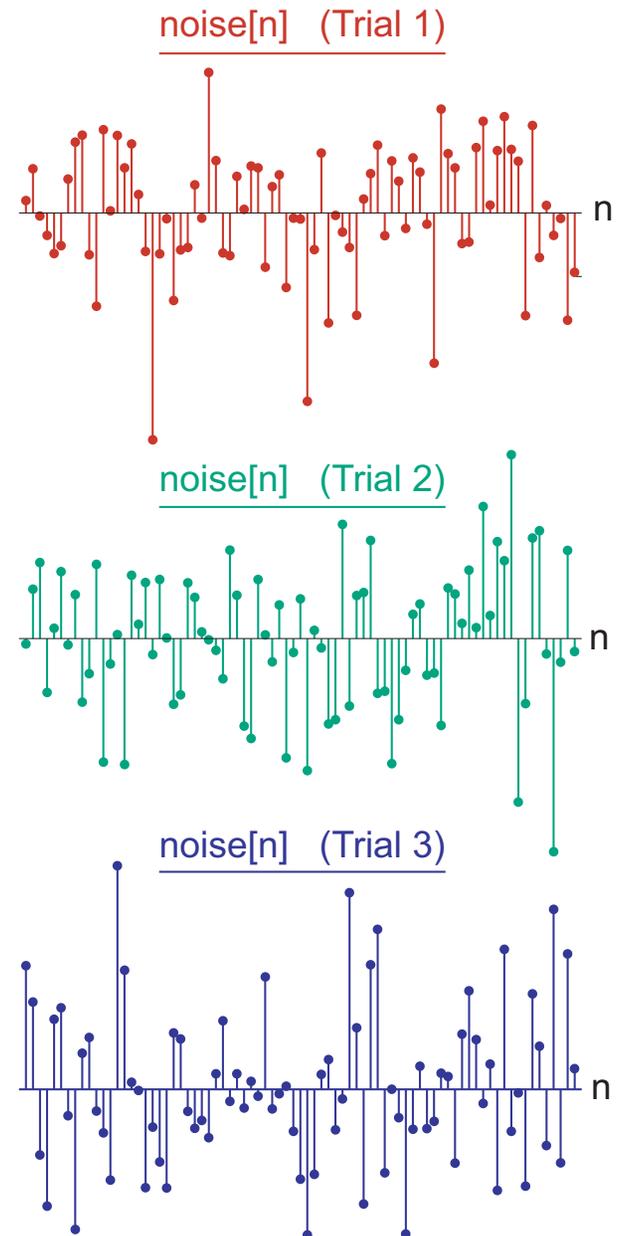
# SNR Example



- **Scaling the gain factor  $A$  leads to different SNR values**
  - Lower  $A$  results in lower SNR
  - Signal quality steadily degrades with lower SNR

# Analysis of Random Processes

- Random processes, such as noise, take on different sequences for different trials
  - Think of trials as different measurement intervals from the same experimental setup
- For a *given* trial, we can apply our standard analysis tools and metrics
  - Fourier transform, mean and power calculations, etc...
- When trying to analyze the *ensemble* (i.e. *all* trials) of possible outcomes, we find ourselves in need of *new* tools and metrics



# Tools and Metrics for Random Processes

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- Assume that random processes we will deal with have the properties of being *stationary* and *ergodic*
  - True for noise in many practical systems
  - Greatly simplifies analysis
- Examine in both time and frequency domains
  - Time domain
    - Introduce the concept of a *probability density function* (PDF) to characterize behavior of signals at a given sample time
    - Use PDF to calculate mean and variance
      - Similar to mean and power of non-random signals
  - Frequency domain
    - We will discuss a more proper framework in the next lecture
    - For now, we will simply use Fourier analysis (i.e., Fast Fourier Transform, *FFT*) on signals from *individual* trials

# Stationary and Ergodic Random Processes

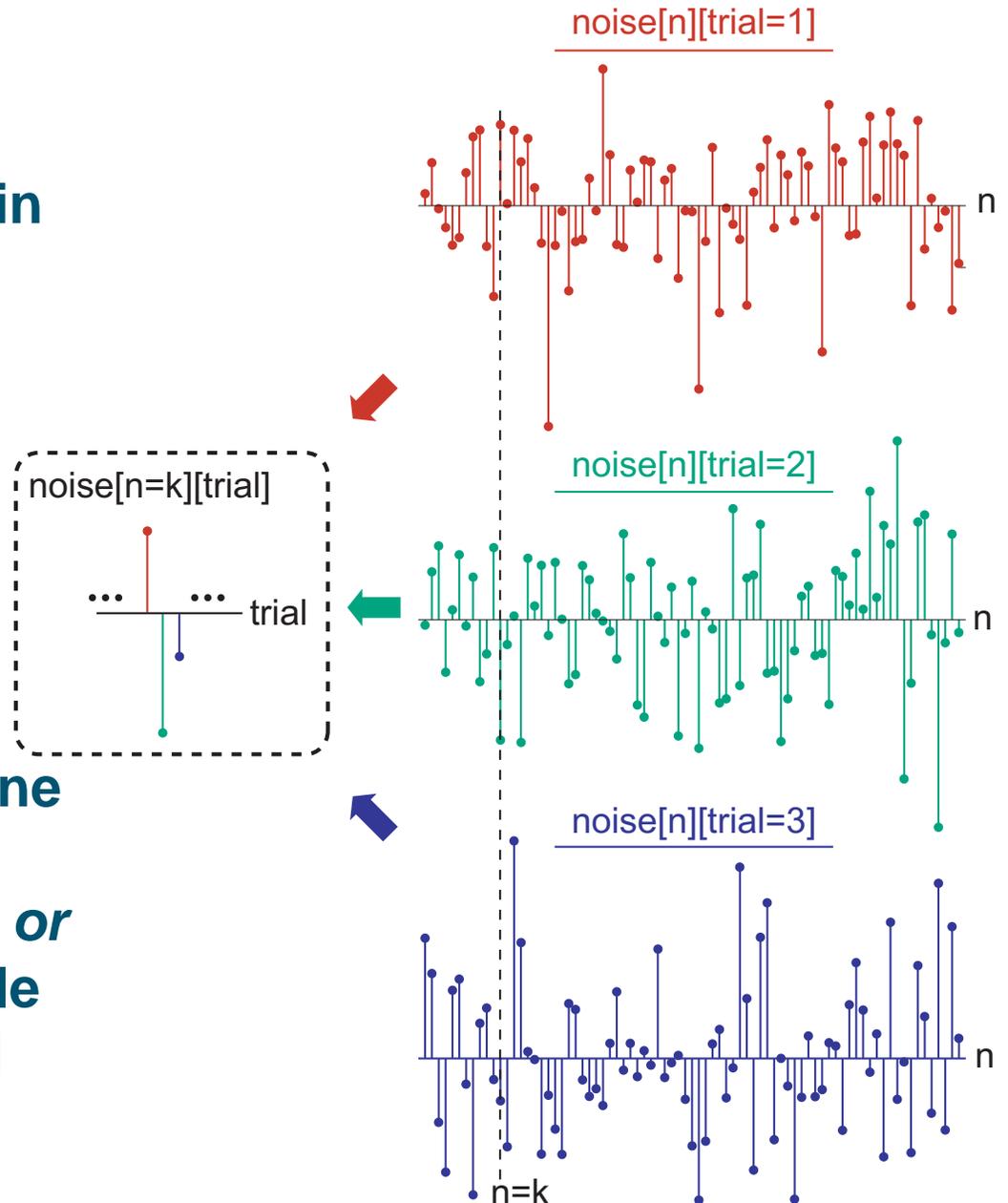
## Stationary

- Statistical behavior is independent of *shifts* in *time* in a given trial:

- Implies  $noise[k]$  is statistically indistinguishable from  $noise[k+N]$

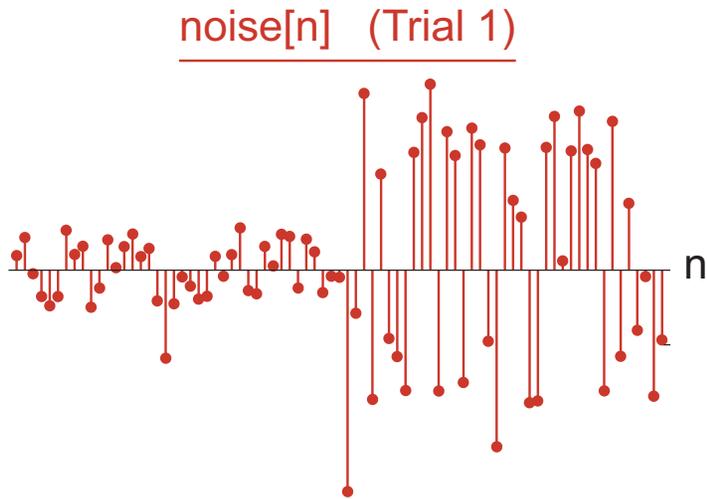
## Ergodic

- Statistical *sampling* can be performed at one sample time (i.e.,  $n=k$ ) across *different* trials, or across different sample times of the *same* trial with no change in the statistical result

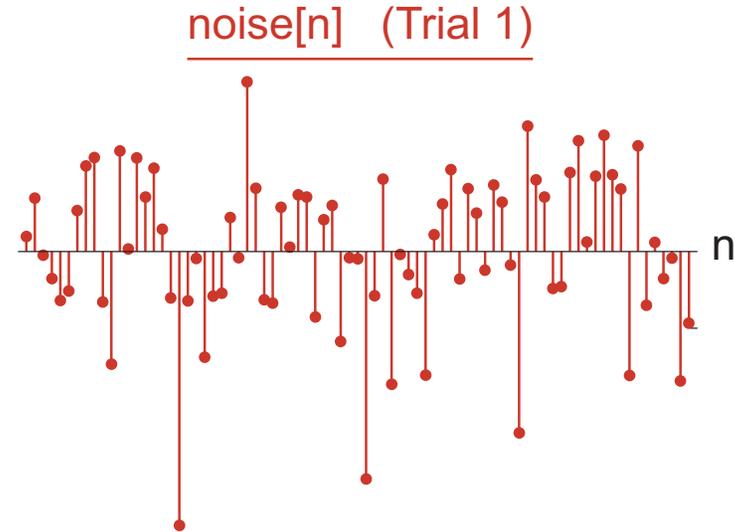


# Examples

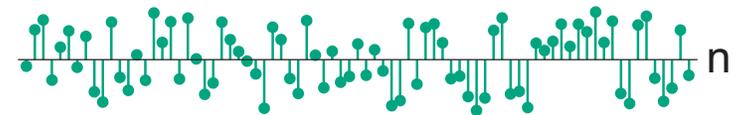
## ■ Non-Stationary



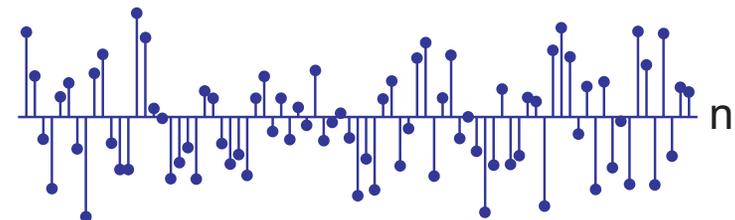
## ■ Stationary, but Non-Ergodic



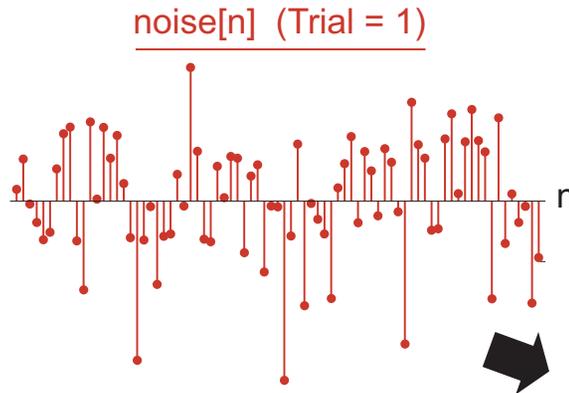
noise[n] (Trial 2)



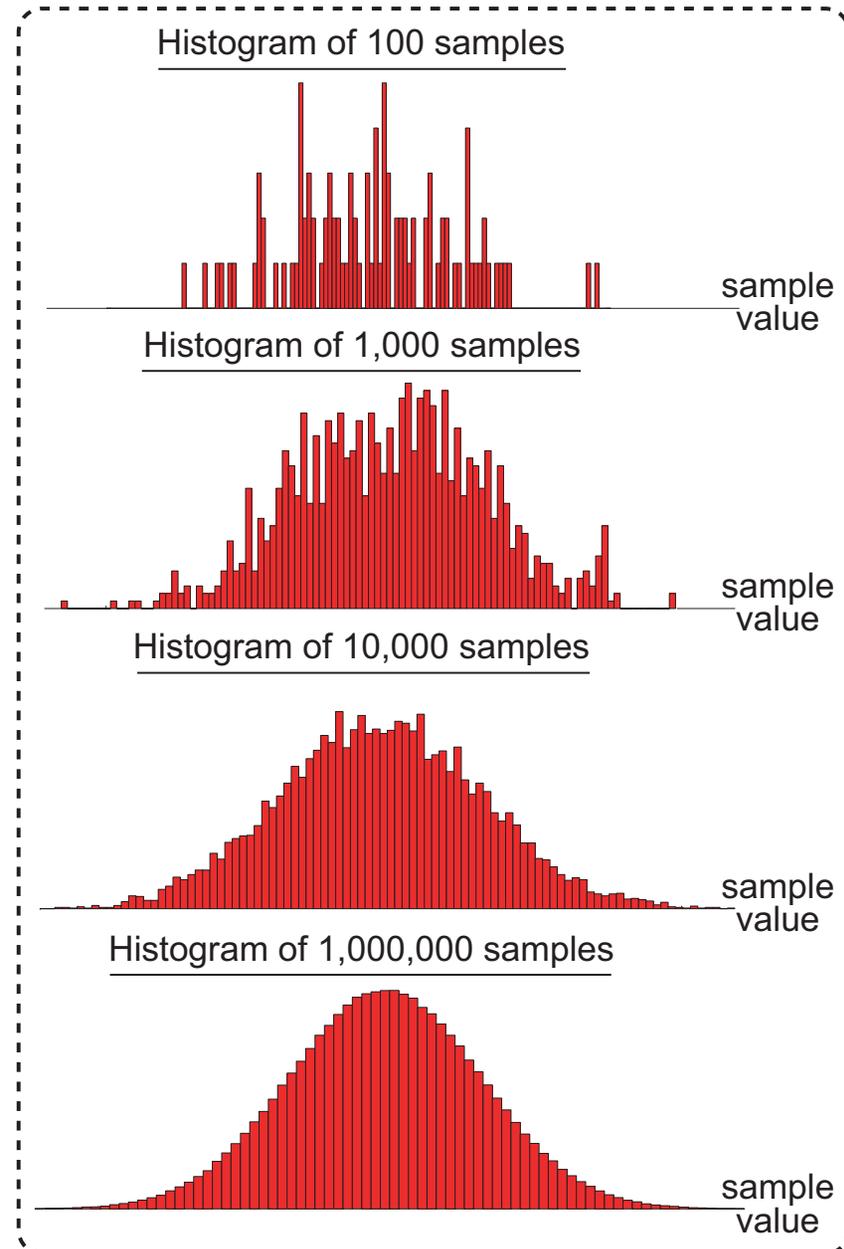
noise[n] (Trial 3)



# Experiment to see Statistical Distribution



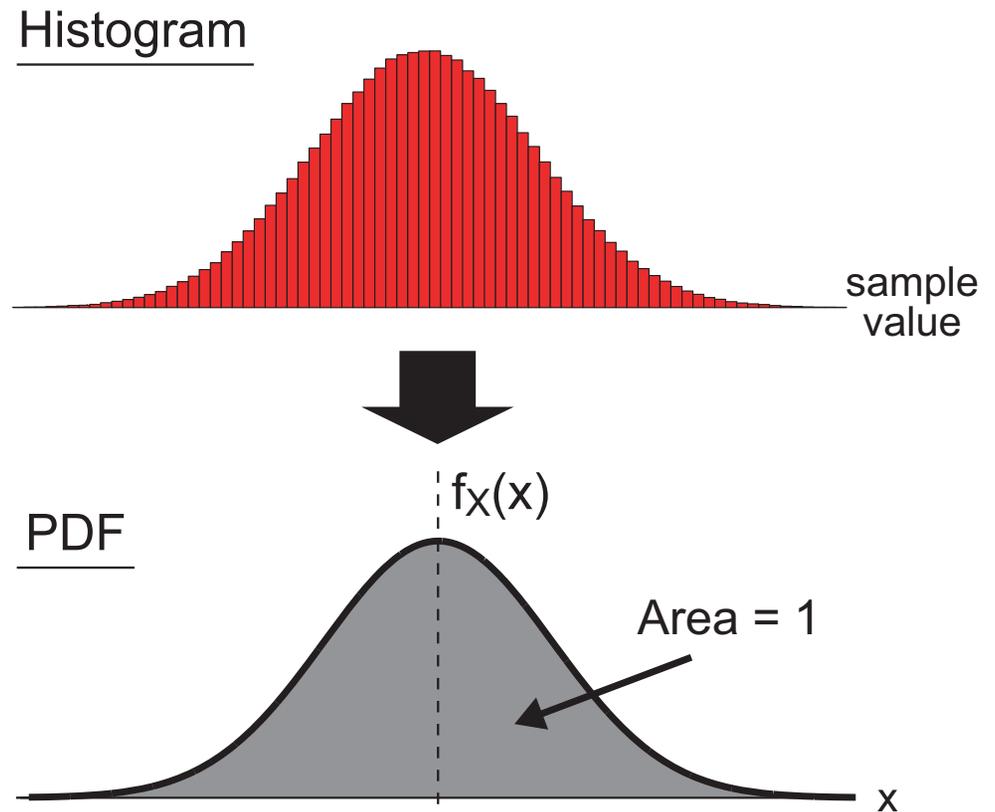
- Create histograms of sample values from trials of increasing lengths
- Assumption of stationarity implies histogram should converge to a shape known as a probability density function (PDF)



# Formalizing the PDF Concept

- Define  $x$  as a random variable whose PDF has the same shape as the histogram we just obtained
- Denote PDF of  $x$  as  $f_X(x)$ 
  - Scale  $f_X(x)$  such that its overall area is 1

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) = 1$$



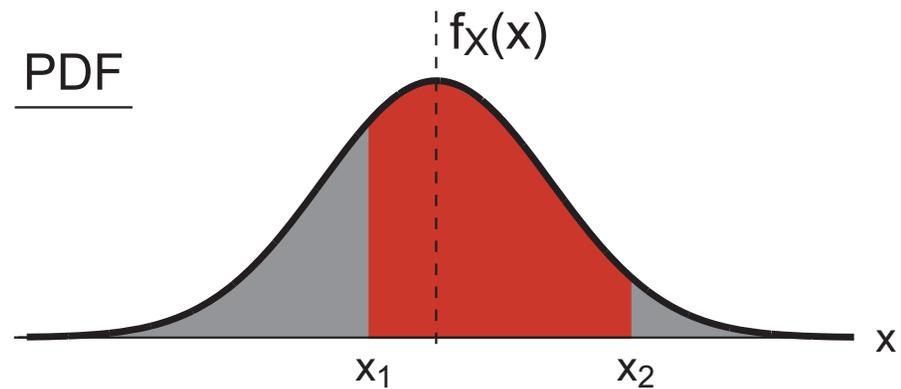
This shape is referred to as a **Gaussian PDF**

# Formalizing Probability

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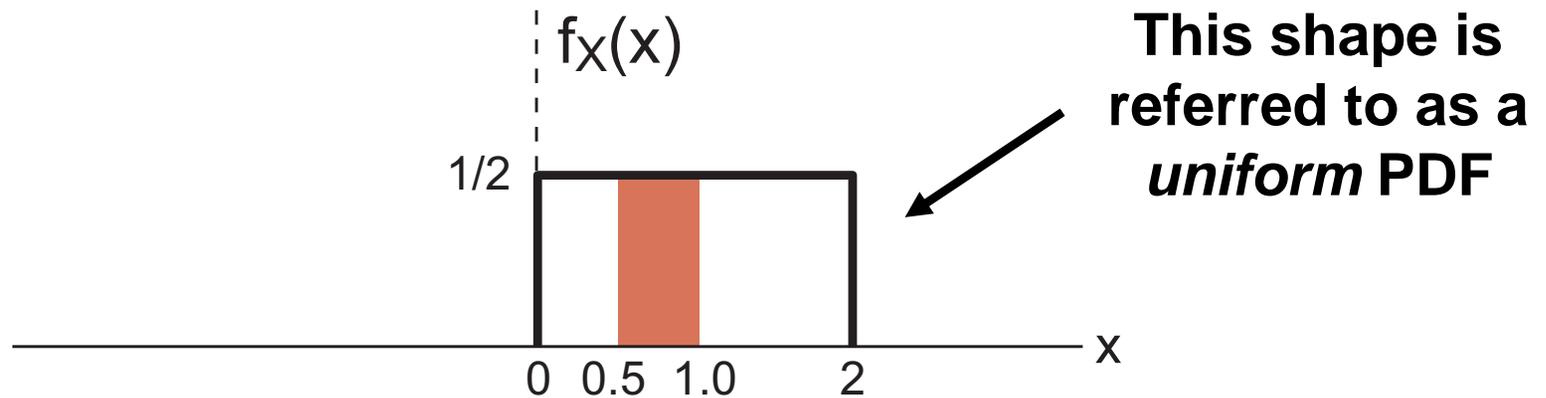
- The *probability* that random variable  $x$  takes on a value in the range of  $x_1$  to  $x_2$  is calculated from the PDF of  $x$  as:

$$\text{Prob}(x_1 \leq x \leq x_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_X(x) dx$$



- Note that probability values are always in the range of 0 to 1
- Higher probability values imply greater likelihood that the event will occur

## Example Probability Calculation



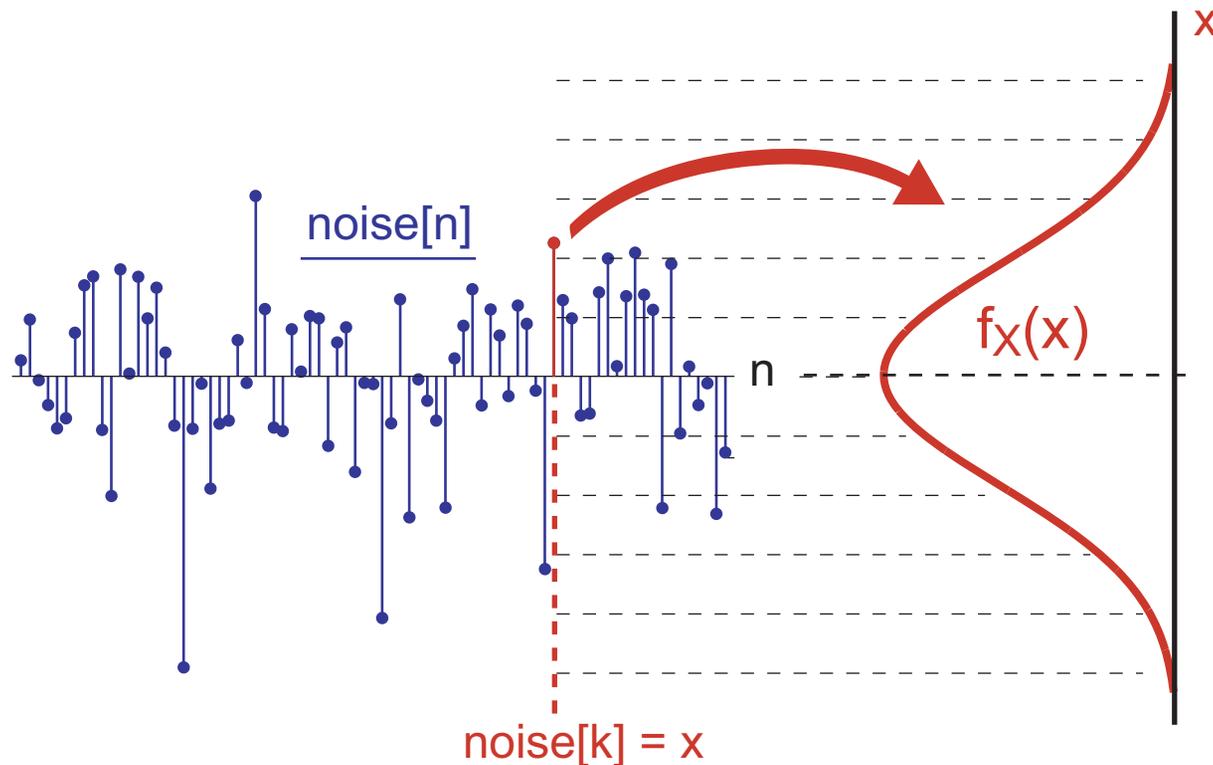
- **Verify that overall area is 1:**

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = \int_0^2 0.5 dx = \boxed{1}$$

- **Probability that  $x$  takes on a value between 0.5 and 1.0:**

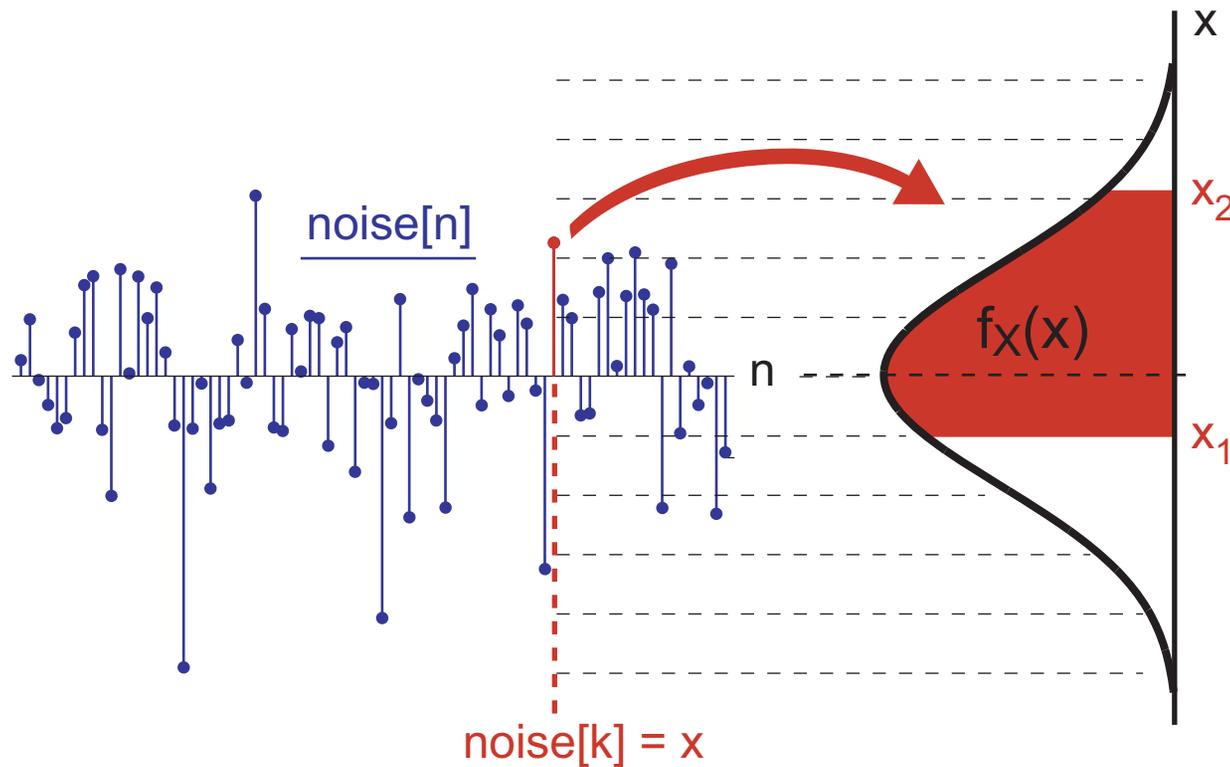
$$\text{Prob}(0.5 \leq x \leq 1.0) = \int_{0.5}^{1.0} 0.5 dx = \boxed{0.25}$$

# Examination of Sample Value Distribution



- Assumption of ergodicity implies the value occurring at a *given* time sample,  $noise[k]$ , across *many different* trials has the *same PDF* as estimated in our previous experiment of *many* time samples and *one* trial
- We can model  $noise[k]$  as the random variable  $x$

# Probability Calculation

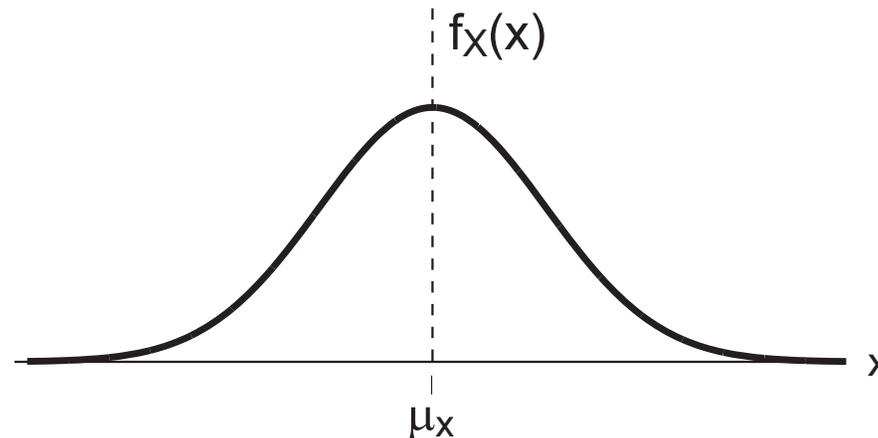


- In a given trial, the *probability* that  $\text{noise}[k]$  takes on a value in the range of  $x_1$  to  $x_2$  is computed as

$$\text{Prob}(x_1 \leq x \leq x_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_X(x) dx$$

# Mean and Variance

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- The mean of random variable  $x$ ,  $\mu_x$ , corresponds to its average value

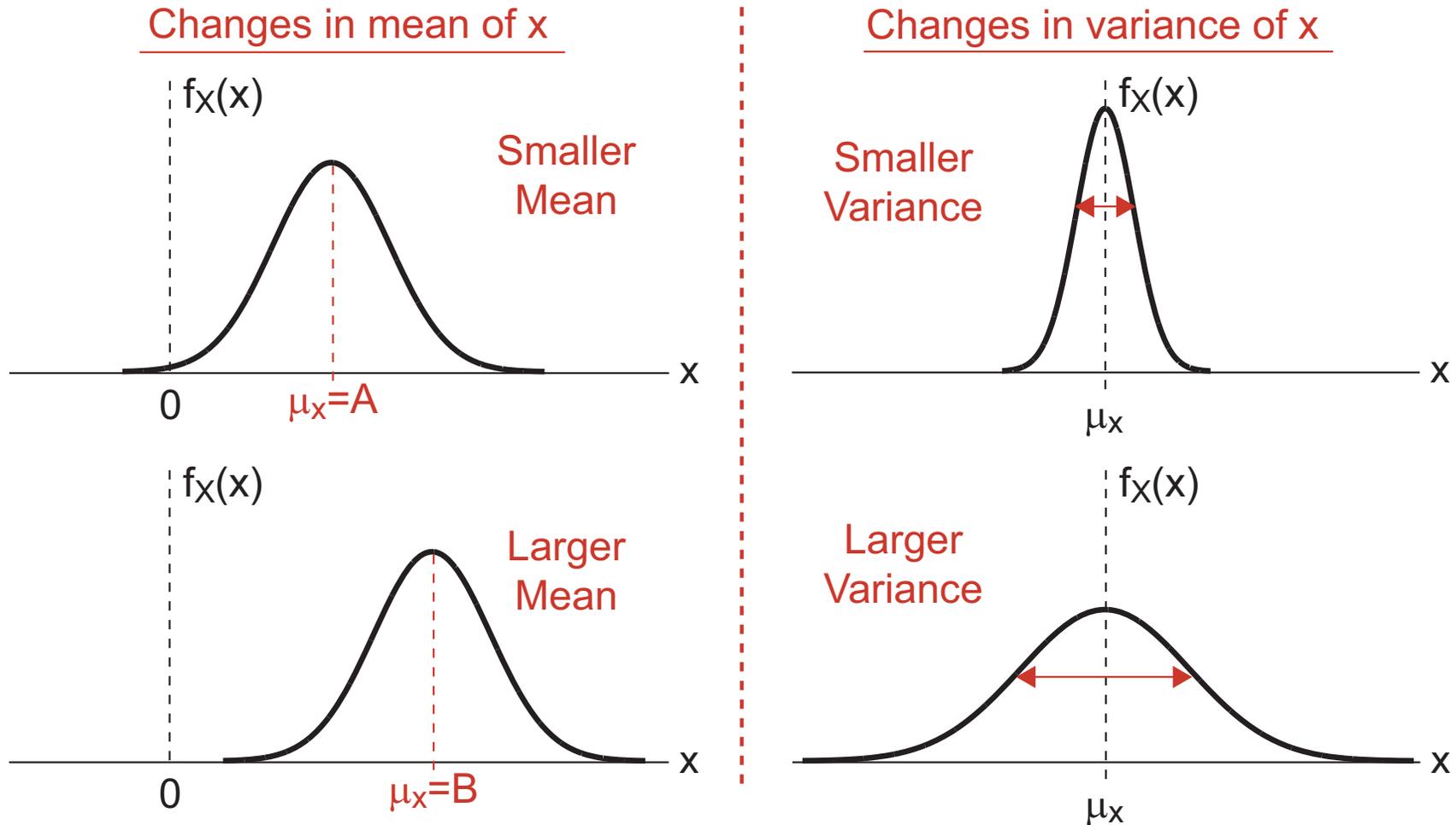
- Computed as 
$$\mu_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

- The variance of random variable  $x$ ,  $\sigma_x^2$ , gives an indication of its variability

- Computed as 
$$\sigma_x^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_x)^2 f_X(x) dx$$

- Similar to power of a signal

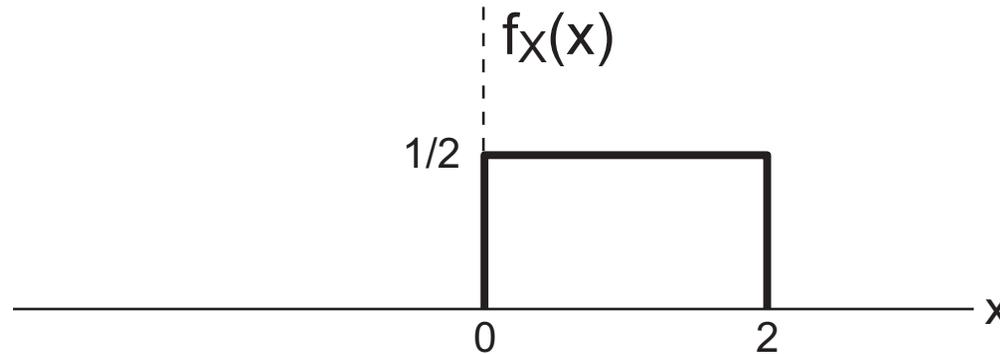
# Visualizing Mean and Variance from a PDF



- Changes in mean shift the *center of mass* of PDF
- Changes in variance narrow or broaden the PDF
  - Note that area of PDF must always remain equal to one

## Example Mean and Variance Calculation

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■ **Mean:**

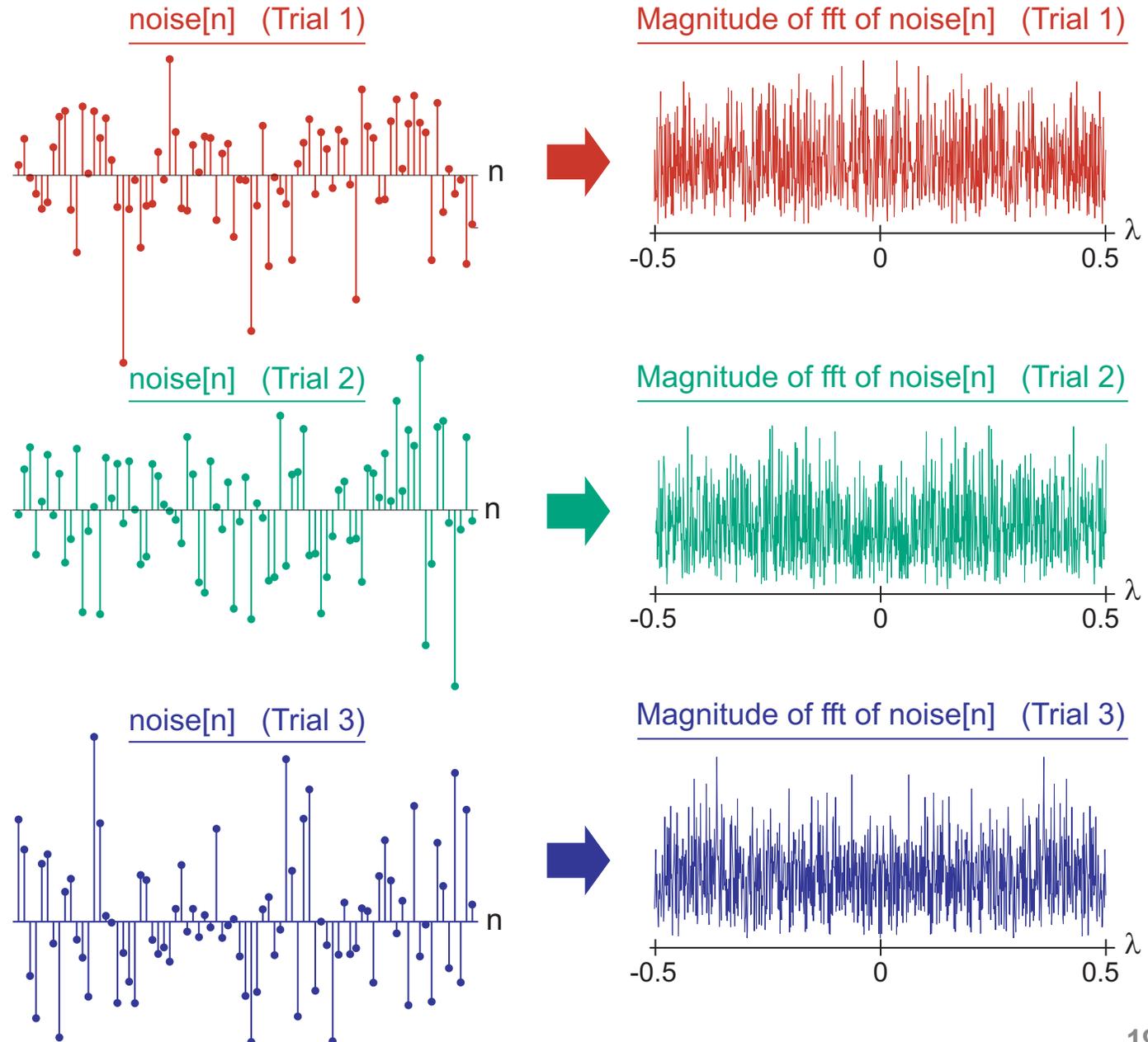
$$\mu_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx = \int_0^2 x \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{4} x^2 \Big|_0^2 = \boxed{1}$$

■ **Variance:**

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_x^2 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_x)^2 f_X(x) dx = \int_0^2 (x - 1)^2 \frac{1}{2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{6} (x - 1)^3 \Big|_0^2 = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \boxed{\frac{1}{3}} \end{aligned}$$

# Frequency Domain View of Random Process

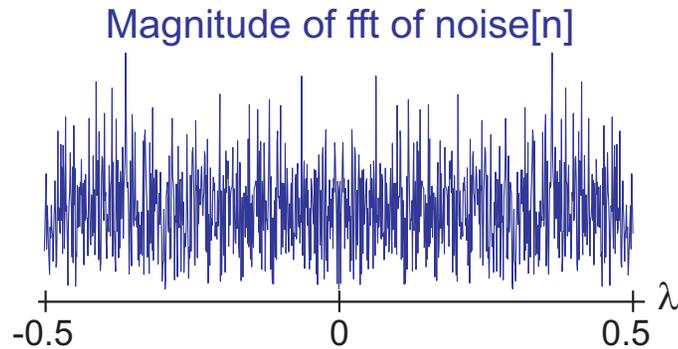
- It is valid to take the *FFT* of a sequence from a given trial
- However, notice that the *FFT* result changes across trials
  - Fourier Transform of a random process is undefined !
  - We need a new tool called spectral analysis



# White Noise

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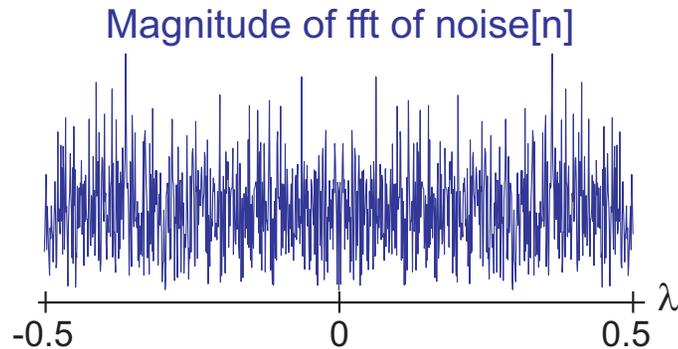
## White Noise



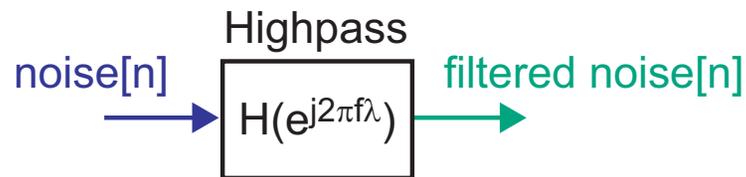
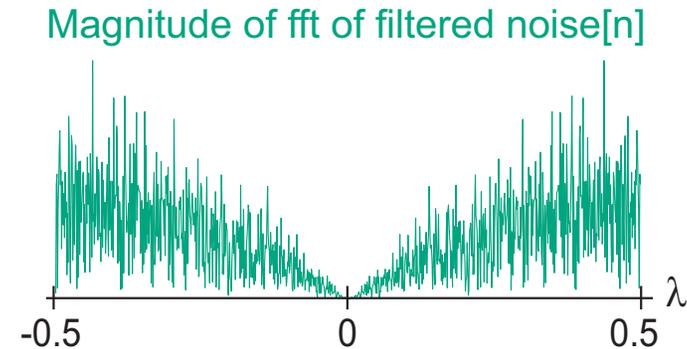
- **When the *FFT* result looks relatively flat, we refer to the random process as being white**
  - **Note: this type of noise source is often used for calibration of advanced stereo systems**

# Shaped Noise

White Noise



Shaped Noise



- **Shaped noise occurs when white noise is sent into a filter**
  - **FFT of shaped noise will have frequency content according to the type of filter**
    - Example: highpass filter yields shaped noise with only high frequency content

# Summary

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- **Discrete-time processes provide a useful context for studying the properties of noise**
  - Analog circuits often convert real world (continuous-time) signals into discrete-time signals
- **Signal-to-noise ratio is a key metric when examining the impact of noise on a system**
- **Noise is best characterized by using tools provided by the study of random processes**
  - We will assume all noise processes we deal with are stationary and ergodic
  - Key metrics are mean and variance
  - Frequency analysis using direct application of Fourier Transforms is fine for one trial, but not valid when considering the ensemble of a random process

**We will consider spectral analysis for continuous-time signals  
in the next lecture**