Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Brief introduction to MATLAB

1.1.1. MATLAB software presentation

MATLAB (MATrix LABoratory) is an interactive software, developed by Math Works Inc. and intended especially for digital signal processing. It is particularly effective when the data format is vector or matrix.

MATLAB integrates digital calculus, data visualization and open environment programming. MATLAB exists under both Windows and UNIX. Many demonstrations are available using the command demo.

This digital simulation software enables a fast and simple visualization of the obtained results.

MATLAB was primarily written in FORTRAN and C. However, MATLAB knows to interpret commands, while a compilation of the source code is required by FORTRAN and C.

MATLAB is especially designed for digital signal processing and for complex digital system modeling and simulation. It is also suitable for processing data series, images or multidimensional data fields.

MATLAB software general structure is provided in Figure 1.1.

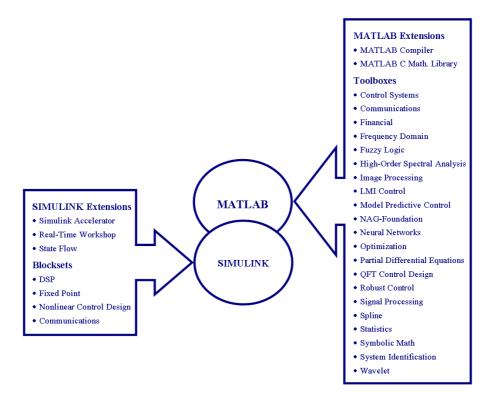


Figure 1.1. MATLAB software general structure

The toolboxes extend the basic MATLAB functions and perform specific tasks corresponding to different digital processing fields, such as image processing, optimization, statistics, system control and identification, neural networks, fuzzy systems, etc.

SIMULINK is an interactive software designed for modeling and simulating continuous-time or discrete-time dynamical systems or hybrid structures containing both analog and digital systems. It makes use of a mathematical equation set and provides a large variety of predefined or user-defined functional blocks.

MATLAB has been developed for several years, especially as a consequence of its use in the academic environment as an excellent education tool in mathematics, engineering and science. In addition, MATLAB has already proven its utility for scientific research and technological development.

In order to run MATLAB, type the command matlab with UNIX shell (if a MATLAB license under UNIX is available) or double click on the MATLAB icon if the operating system is Windows. To exit MATLAB, type exit or quit. If MATLAB is running under UNIX, you may have access to all UNIX commands using just before the symbol! (example: !ls -1).

1.1.2. Important MATLAB commands and functions

who	lists the variables in the current workspace
whos	the same as previous, but lists more information about each variable
what	lists MATLAB-specific files in directory
size	provides the size of a data array
length	provides the size of a data vector
help	displays help text in Command Window
exit, quit	exits from MATLAB

Table 1.1. General commands

dir, chdir, delete, load, save, type	similar to the corresponding DOS commands
pack	consolidates workspace memory

 Table 1.2. Commands related to the workspace

+, -, *, /, ^	usual arithmetical operators
	followed by an arithmetical operator for applying it to each array element
1	Hermitian operator
.1	transpose operator

Table 1.3. Arithmetical operators

<, <=, >, >=	usual relational operators
==	equality operator
~=	inequality operator
&	element-wise logical AND
	element-wise logical OR
~	logical complement (NOT)

 Table 1.4. Relational and logical operators

=	variable assignment operator
,	used to separate the arguments of a function or the elements of a data array
[]	used to build data arrays
()	used in arithmetical expressions
:	used for indexing variables
;	used at the end of a statement to cancel displaying any output
•••	used to continue a command on the next line
%	used to enter a comment

 Table 1.5. Special characters

ans	default name of a variable or a result
eps	spacing of floating point numbers
pi	value of $\pi = 3.14159$
i,j	value of $\sqrt{-1}$
Inf	IEEE arithmetic representation for positive infinity (1/0)
NaN	IEEE arithmetic representation for Not-a-Number (0/0)
nargin	returns the number of function input arguments
nargout	returns the number of function output arguments

 Table 1.6. Special variables and constants

abs	absolute value function
sqrt	square root function
real	real part of a complex variable
imag	imaginary part of a complex variable
angle	returns the phase angles, in radians, of a complex variable
conj	complex conjugate operator
sign	signum function
rem	returns the remainder after division
exp	exponential function
log	natural logarithm function
log10	base 10 logarithm function

 Table 1.7. Elementary mathematical functions

sin, cos, tan, cot, sec	usual trigonometric functions
asin, acos, atan, acot, asec	inverse trigonometric functions
sinh, cosh, tanh, coth, sech	hyperbolic functions
asinh, acosh, atanh, acoth, asech	inverse hyperbolic functions

 Table 1.8. Trigonometric functions

max	largest component
min	smallest component
mean	average or mean value
std	standard deviation
sum	sum of elements
cumsum	cumulative sum of elements
prod	product of elements
cumprod	cumulative product of elements

Table 1.9. Data analysis functions

conv	convolution and polynomial multiplication
deconv	deconvolution and polynomial division
roots	finds polynomial roots
poly	converts roots to polynomial
polyval	evaluates polynomial
residue	partial-fraction expansion (residues)

 Table 1.10. Polynomial related functions

zeros	enables generation of zero arrays
ones	enables generation of ones arrays
rand	enables generation of uniformly distributed random numbers
randn	enables generation of normally distributed random numbers
linspace	enables generation of linearly spaced vectors
logspace	enables generation of logarithmically spaced vector
det	calculates the determinant of a square matrix
norm	calculates matrix or vector norm
inv	calculates matrix inverse
eig	calculates matrix eigenvalues and eigenvectors

 Table 1.11. Vector or matrix related functions

input	gives the user the prompt and then waits for input from the keyboard
ginput	gets an unlimited or a predefined number of points from the current axes and returns their coordinates

 Table 1.12. Input functions

plot	plot vectors or matrices
subplot	create axes in tiled positions
bar	draws a bar graph
hist	draws a histogram graph
polar	makes a plot using polar coordinates
stairs	draws a stairstep graph
stem	plots the data sequence as stems
semilogx, semilogy	semi-log scale plot: a logarithmic (base 10) scale is used for the x-axis or y-axis
loglog	log-log scale plot: a logarithmic (base 10) scale is used for both the x-axis and y-axis
xlabel, ylabel	adds text beside the x-axis or y-axis
title	adds text at the top of the current axes
grid	adds grid lines to the current axes
figure	creates a new figure window
clf	clears current figure
close all	closes all the open figure windows
hold on/off	holds/discards the current plot and all axis properties
axis	controls axis scaling and appearance
legend	puts a legend on the current plot using the specified strings as labels
gtext	allows placing text with mouse
image	displays a matrix as an image

 Table 1.13. 1D and 2D graphical commands

plot3	plot lines and points in 3-D space
mesh/surf	plots a 3-D mesh/colored surface
contour	plots a contour plot of a matrix treating its values as heights above a plane

 Table 1.14. 3D graphical commands

if	conditionally executes statements
else, elseif	used with if command
end	terminates scope of for, while, switch, try and if statements
for	repeats statements a specific number of times
while	repeats statements an indefinite number of times
switch	switches among several cases based on expression
break	terminates execution of while or for loop
return	causes a return to the invoking function or to the keyboard
pause	pauses and waits for the user response

Table 1.15. Control commands

1.1.3. Operating modes and programming with MATLAB

The "online command" default operating mode is available after MATLAB gets started. It displays the prompt >> and then waits for an input command. Running a command usually results in creating one or several variables in the current workspace, displaying a message or plotting a graph. For instance, the following command:

$$v = 0:10$$

creates the variable v and displays its elements on screen. A semicolon has to be added at the end of the statement if it is not necessary to display the result.

The previously typed commands can be recalled with the key \uparrow , while a statement can be modified using the keys \leftarrow and \rightarrow . You may also analyze the effects on the command lines of the following keys: \downarrow , *home, end, esc, del, backspace* and of the following key combinations: $ctrl + \rightarrow$, $ctrl + \leftarrow$, ctrl + k.

Besides the "online command" operating mode, MATLAB can also create script files and function files. Both of these are saved with the extension .m, but the function files accept input arguments and return output arguments and operate on variables within their own workspace.

In order to create a script file you have to select the menu File/New/M-file, while to edit an existing file you have to first select File/Open M-file etc., and then choose the appropriate file. After these commands, an edition session will be open using the

chosen editor from *Edit/View/Edit Preference*. The edited file can be saved with the menu *File/Save As* etc., followed by the file name (with the extension .m).

In MATLAB, many functions are predefined and saved as m-files. Some of them are intrinsic, the others being provided by external libraries (*toolbox*): they cover specific domains such as mathematics, data analysis, signal processing, image processing, statistics, etc.

A function may use none, one or several input arguments and return none, one or several output values. These different cases for a MATLAB function are called:

- one output value and no input argument:

```
variable name = function name
```

– no output value and one input argument:

```
function_name (argument_name)
```

- several output values and several input arguments:

```
[var_1, var_2, ...,var_n] = function_name (arg_1, arg_2, ..., arg_m)
```

For the last case, the first line of the file function_name.m has the following form:

```
- function [var_1, var_2, ...,var_n] = function_name(arg_1, arg_2, ...., arg_m)
```

Usually, the input arguments are not modified, even if their values change during the function execution. In fact, all the variables are local by default. Nevertheless, this rule can be changed using the command: global variable name.

In a MATLAB file, the comment lines have to begin with the symbol %.

The on-line help can be obtained using: help <function_name>. The first lines of the file <function_name>.m beginning with % are then displayed. It is also possible to search all the files containing a given keyword in their help using the command: lookfor <keyword>.

NOTE.— The user-defined MATLAB files are recognized only in the current directory, unlike the original MATLAB functions (*toolbox*, etc.). In order to make available a user-defined file <*file_name.m*> outside the current directory you have to type the command:

```
path(path, '<file_acces_path>/file_name>')
(see help path, help addpath).
```

The data from the current workspace can be saved in a *.mat file using the command save. They can be reloaded using the command load. (Type help save and help load for more information).

Another possibility is to use the same procedure to manage the files as in the C language:

```
fid = fopen('x.dat', 'wb'); fwrite(fid,x,'double'); fclose(fd);
```

MATLAB is also able to manage other file formats, such as postscript.

1.1.4. Example of work session with MATLAB

Format

All the calculations are performed in MATLAB using the format double, but the display format can be controlled using the function format (type help format). Some examples are provided here after:

- format short: scaled fixed point format with 5 digits (default);
- format long: scaled fixed point format with 15 (7) digits for double (simple);
- format short e: floating point format with 5 digits;
- format long e: floating point format with 15 (7) digits for double (simple).

Scalars, vectors, matrices

MATLAB handles only one data type, because all the variables are considered as floating point complex matrices. It is not necessary to declare or to size these matrices before using them. In fact, when a variable is assigned a value, MATLAB replaces the previous value if this variable exists in the work space; otherwise the variable is created and sized properly.

A vector is a one row or a one column matrix, while a scalar is a 1×1 matrix. MATLAB is optimized for matrix calculations. You should try to use matrix operation as much as possible instead of loops in order to save execution time and memory space.

The effectiveness of an algorithm can be measured using the functions flops (number of floating point operations) and etime (elapsed time). Thus, the couple of commands flops (0) and flops inserted just before and after an algorithm code line returns the number of operations required. The function clock yields the present time, while etime (t1,t2) provides the time elapsed between t1 and t2.

```
t = clock;
%Algorithm;
time = etime(clock,t)
```

etime is not an accurate measure of the algorithm effectiveness because the execution speed depends on the CPU.

EXERCISE 1.1.

```
Type a = 3 and then a = 3;
```

What is the signification of the symbol ";"?

There are some predefined variables. For instance $pi = \pi$, while i and j are defined as the square root of -1. Type a = 1+2*i.

Pay attention to the use of these keywords for defining new variables: any assignment replaces the predefined value by the new input (for instance the assignment pi = 3 replaces the value π). Type clear pi to recover the initial value of this variable.

You should avoid assigning i and j other values in a MATLAB program which handles complex numbers.

EXERCISE 1.2.

```
Type i = 2, then a = 1+2*i and finally clear i.
```

clear command allows one or several variables to be removed.

Elementary operations

An operation involving 2 variables is possible only if the corresponding matrix sizes match.

EXERCISE 1.3.

```
Type v = [1 \ 2 \ 3] then v = [1; \ 2; \ 3] and v(1).
```

As opposed to the case of C language, where the array index begins with 0, in MATLAB it begins with 1: see the effect of v(0).

A vector filled with equally spaced values is defined in the following manner: initial_value:increment:final value (for example v = 4:-0.1:3.2).

A matrix can be defined as indicated below:

```
-M = [1 \ 2; \ 3 \ 4];

-N(1,:) = [1 \ 2] \text{ and } N(2,:) = [3 \ 4].

Type M(:,1),M(:,2),N(:,1) and M(:,2).
```

The pointwise operators: ".*", "./" or ".^" are useful for performing matrix operations.

EXERCISE 1.4.

Define the following matrix: $A = [\exp(j) \ 1; \ 2 \ j]$ and see A', A.', A^2, A.^2.

The relational operators: <, <=, >, >= and == compare couples of elements belonging to equal size matrices and return a matrix filled with 1 (true) and 0 (false).

The logical operators such as: &, |, \sim , any or all consider all the non-zero elements as true and return a matrix filled with 0 and 1, according to the logical operation result.

MATLAB has no pointer structures, but it automatically allocates (when using =) and recovers (when using clear) memory space. For example, for solving A*x=y, MATLAB automatically creates a vector for x.

Notice the difference between matrix right division and matrix left division: $X=A\setminus B$ (equivalent to $A^{-1}*B$) is the solution to A*X=B while X=A/B (equivalent to $A*B^{-1}$) is the solution to X*B=A.

EXERCISE 1.5.

```
A = [1 \ 2 \ 1; \ 2 \ 1 \ 3; \ 4 \ 0 \ 5];

Y = [3; \ 2; \ 1];

X = A \setminus Y

Z = A \setminus Y
```

The matrices can be concatenated either line by line or column by column.

```
N = [1 \ 2]; P = [M; N]; then Q = [M'; N'];
```

The inverse submatrix extraction can be performed using brackets as indicated below:

```
Type B=A(1:3,:) and C=A([1 3],:).
```

1.1.5. MATLAB language

MATLAB is a true programming language. However, it is an uncompiled language and thus is not particularly suitable for developing very complex applications. However, it is provided with all the necessary algorithmic structures for rigorous programming.

```
The "for" loops
 for (expression)
      code lines;
 end
The "while" loops
 while (condition)
      code lines;
 end
The "if ... then" loops
 if (condition1)
      code lines;
 else if (condition2)
      code lines;
 else
      code lines;
 end
```

1.2. Solved exercises

EXERCISE 1.6.

Define a 4×3 matrix zero everywhere excepting the first line that is filled with 1.

```
b = ones (1,3); m = zeros (4,3); m(1,:) = b
m =
    1
         1
               1
              0
    0
          0
    0
          0
             0
```

EXERCISE 1.7.

Consider the couples of vectors (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) . Define the vector x so that:

```
 \begin{split} x(j) &= 0 \text{ if } y_1(j) < y_2(j); \\ x(j) &= x_1(j) \text{ if } y_1(j) = y_2(j); \\ x(j) &= x_2(j) \text{ if } y_1(j) > y_2(j). \\ \end{split}  function  \mathbf{x} = \text{vectors}(\mathbf{x}1, \mathbf{y}1, \mathbf{x}2, \mathbf{y}2) \\ \mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{x}1. * [\mathbf{y}1 == \mathbf{y}2] + \mathbf{x}2. * [\mathbf{y}1 > \mathbf{y}2]; \\ \text{vectors}([0\ 1], [4\ 3], [-2\ 4], [2\ 0]) \\ \text{ans} &= \\ -2 \qquad 4 \\ \end{split}
```

EXERCISE 1.8.

Generate and plot the signal: $y(t) = \sin(2\pi t)$ for $0 \le t \le 2$, with an increment of 0.01, then undersample it (using the function decimate) with the factors 2 and 16.

```
t = 0:0.01:2;
y = \sin(2*pi*t);
subplot(311)
plot(t,y);
ylabel('sin(2.pi.t)');
title('Original signal');
t2 = decimate(t, 2);
t16 = decimate(t2,8);
y2 = decimate(y, 2);
y16 = decimate(y2,8);
subplot(312)
plot(t2,y2);
ylabel('sin(2.pi.t)')
title('Undersampled signal with a factor 2');
subplot(313);
plot(t16,y16);
ylabel('sin(2.pi.t)');
xlabel('Time t');
title('Undersampled signal with a factor 16');
```

You can save the figures in *eps* (Encapsulated PostScript) format, which is recognized by many software programs. The command print -eps file_name creates the file *file_name.eps*.

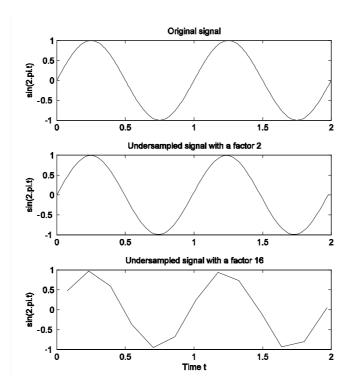


Figure 1.2. Sinusoid waveform corresponding to different sample frequencies

EXERCISE 1.9.

Plot the paraboloid defined by the equation: $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ for $-50 \le x$, $y \le 50$.

```
N = 50; x = -N:N; y = -N:N;
\mbox{\ensuremath{\upselect}{\$}} first solution (to avoid): two nested loops
for k = 1: 2*N+1
    for l = 1: 2*N+1
        z1(k,1) = sqrt(x(k)^2 + y(1)^2);
    end;
end;
figure; meshc(x,y,z1);
xlabel('x'); ylabel('y'); zlabel('z');
fprintf('Type a key to plot the paraboloid using another
method\n'); pause;
% second solution: one loop
z2 = zeros(2*N+1,2*N+1);
```

```
for k = 1: 2*N+1
    z2(k,:) = sqrt(x(k)^2 + y.^2); % pointwise multiplication
for y
end;
figure; meshc(x,y,z2);
xlabel('x'); ylabel('y'); zlabel('z');
fprintf('Type a key to plot the paraboloid using another
method\n'); pause;
% third solution (the best): no loop
xc = x.^2; yc = y.^2;
mx=xc.'*ones(1,2*N+1);
                      % line k of mx filled with the value
xc[k]
my=ones(1,2*N+1).'*yc; % column 1 of my filled with the value
yc[1]
z3 = sqrt(mx + my);
figure; meshc(x,y,z3);
xlabel('x'); ylabel('y'); zlabel('z');
```

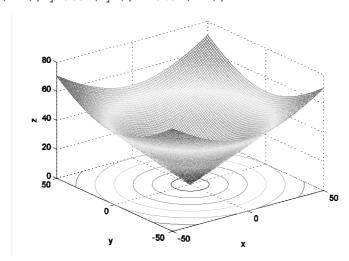


Figure 1.3. Paraboloid plot

EXERCISE 1.10.

1. Generate 1,000 independent values $x_1,...,x_{1,000}$ of a zero-mean random Gaussian variable with variance 4 using the function randon.

Plot the corresponding histogram and calculate the mean and the standard deviation of the generated series using the functions hist, mean and std.

Find out the mean and the standard deviation of the random series $x^2_1, ..., x^2_{1,000}$. Then compare the obtained results with the theoretical results.

```
clear all
n = 1000;
% If X \sim N(m, sigma^2) then Y = (X-m)/sigma \sim N(0,1)
Y=randn(1,n); X=2*Y;
[histoX,bins] = hist(X);
plot(bins, histoX);
xlabel('Bins');
ylabel('Number of values belonging to each bin');
title('Histogram of X using 10 bins');
\mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{\$}}} Find below 2 ways for displaying the results:
% 1) Character chain concatenation:
moyX=num2str(mean(X));
ecartX=num2str(std(X));
varX=num2str(var(X))
fprintf(strcat('\nMean of X
                                       = ',moyX, '\n'));
                                     = ',ecartX, '\n'));
fprintf(strcat('St. dev. of X
fprintf(strcat('Variance of X))
                                     = ',varX, '\n\n'));
% 2) Use of formats, just like in C:
% (type "help format" for more explanations)
fprintf('Mean of X
                             = 2.5f\n', mean(X));
                            = %2.5f\n',std(X));
fprintf('St. dev. of X
fprintf('Variance of X
                             = 2.5f(n', std(X)^2);
Z = X.*X;
fprintf('\nMean of Z
                               = 2.5f\n', mean(Z));
fprintf('St. dev. of Z
                             = 2.5f\n', std(Z));
fprintf('Variance of Z
                             = 2.5f\n', std(Z)^2);
Histogram of X using 10 bins
               300
             돔 <sup>250</sup>
             Number of values belonging to each 20 01 02 05
```

Figure 1.4. Histogram of a Gaussian random variable

2

-4

-2

50

```
Mean of X
                   = 0.0085986
St. dev. of X
                   = 1.963
Variance of X
                   = 3.8533
Mean of X
                   = 0.00860
St. dev. of X
                   = 1.96298
Variance of X
                   = 3.85328
Mean of Z
                   = 3.84950
St. dev. of {\bf Z}
                   = 5.55695
Variance of Z
                   = 30.87972
Var Z - 2*(Var X)^2 = 1.18418
```

2. Use the function rand to generate 1,000 independent values of the random variable X defined by:

$$P(X = -1) = p_0$$
; $P(X = 0) = p_1$; $P(X = 1) = 1 - p_0 - p_1$;

where p_0 and p_1 are the probabilities to be entered by the user.

```
function va_gen(n,po,p1)
help va gen; Y = rand(1,n);
X = -1*[Y < po*ones(1,n)] + 1*[Y > ((po+p1)*ones(1,n))];
\mbox{\ensuremath{\$}} If Y is a uniformly distributed variable between 0 and 1, then the X
current value is obtained from the combination of 2 tests, so that X = -
1*(Y<p0) + 1*(Y>p0+p1):
% - if Y < p0 (this case occurs with the probability p0) then
% the first test is true and the second is false, so X = -1
% - if Y > p0+p1 (this case occurs with the probability 1-p0-p1)
% then the first test is false and the second is true, so X = 1
% - if p0 < Y < p0+p1 (this case occurs with the probability p1)
% then the two tests are false, so X = 0
prob = hist(X,3)/n;
fprintf('\np [X = -1] = %1.4f\n', prob(1));
fprintf('p [X = 1] = %1.4f\n\n', prob(3));
```

When the function va gen is called:

```
va gen(1000,0.1,0.5)
```

it provides the following result:

If Y is a uniformly distributed variable between 0 and 1, then the X current value is obtained from the combination of 2 tests, so that X = -1*(Y < p0) + 1*(Y > p0+p1):

- if Y < p0 (this case occurs with the probability p0) then the first test is true and the second is false, so X=-1
- if Y > p0+p1 (this case occurs with the probability 1-p0-p1) then the first test is false and the second is true, so X=1

```
- if p0 < Y < p0+p1 (this case occurs with the probability p1) then the two tests are false, so X = 0  p \ [X = -1] = 0.1000 \\ p \ [X = 0] = 0.4840 \\ p \ [X = 1] = 0.4160
```

EXERCISE 1.11.

Plot in polar coordinates the poles of the filter having the following transfer function:

$$H(z) = \frac{1}{1 + az^{-1} + bz^{-2}}$$

The values of a and b are entered by the user and the function returns the poles. (use the commands roots and polar).

```
function c = filter_bis(a,b)
c = roots([1 a b]); % Comment: H(z) = poly(c)
fprintf('The poles are:\n'); z1 = c(1,:)
z2 = c(2,:)
if (abs(z1) > 1 | abs(z2) > 1)
    fprintf ('There is at least an instable pole\n');
else
    clf; figure; polar(angle(z1),abs(z1),'r+');
    % Second solution: use zplane
    hold on; polar(angle(z2),abs(z2),'r+');
    legend('Polar plot of H(z) poles',0);
end
```

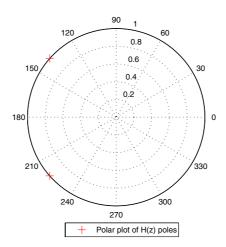


Figure 1.5. Function call example – filter_bis (1.5,1)

```
The poles are:
z1 =
   -0.7500 + 0.6614i
z2 =
   -0.7500 - 0.6614i
```

EXERCISE 1.12.

Generate the signal: $x(t) = A \cdot \sin(2\pi f t + \phi) + b(t)$, t = 0..1024, where ϕ is a uniformly distributed random variable on $[0, 2\pi]$ and b(t) is a white Gaussian noise with mean zero and variance one (use rand and randn). A and f are chosen by the user.

Estimate the mean value, the autocorrelation function (xcorr) and the spectrum of x(t) using the periodogram and the correlogram (use fft and fftshift). Compare the obtained results to the theoretical results. Change A in order to control the SNR.

```
function noisy sin(A,f)
N = 1024;
           % Number of calculated frequencies
nech = 1024; % Number of samples
t = 0:nech;
b = randn(1, nech+1);
phi = 2*pi*rand(1);
x = A*sin(2*pi*f*t+phi)+b;
fprintf('\nMean of x(t) = %2.4f\n', mean(x));
fprintf('Mean of b(t) = 2.4f\n', mean(b));
cx = xcorr(x);
% plot(cx);
% Correlogram based spectrum estimation:
sx correlo = (abs(fft(cx,N))).^2;
sx correlo = sx correlo / max(sx correlo);
% the first N/2 values correspond to 0 <= f < 0.5
% the last N/2 values correspond to 0.5<=f<1 (or -0.5<=f< 1)
sx correlo = fftshift(sx correlo);
% The spectrum is centred around 0:
% the first N/2 values correspond to -0.5 <= f < 0
% the last N/2 values correspond to 0 <= f < 0.5
\ensuremath{\mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{$\%$}}}} Periodogram based spectrum estimation:
sx_periodo = (abs(fft(x,N))).^2;
sx_periodo = sx_periodo / max(sx_periodo);
sx periodo = fftshift(sx periodo);
% SNR estimation for a noisy sinusoid
```

```
vector(1:N) = sx_periodo;
vector(N+1:2*N) = sx_correlo;
plot(-0.5:1/N:0.5-1/N,10*log10(sx correlo(1:N)),'r-',-0.5:1/N:0.5-
1/N,10*log10(sx periodo(1:N)),'b:');
legend('Correlogram', 'Periodogram', 0);
xlabel('Normalized frequency');
ylabel('Magnitude spectrum [dB]');
axis([-0.5 0.5 min(10*log(vector)) 0]);
% 0 dB <=> 10.log10 (Psignal + Pnoise)
% background noise <=> 10.log10 (Pnoise) < 0
% Psignal = \overline{A^2}/(2.N) (periodogram)
% Pnoise = sigma^2 = 1
SNRth = A^2/2;
fprintf('\nSignal SNR = %2.4f dB \n',10*log10(SNRth));
fprintf('\t=>\t Theoretical mean background noise corresponding to the
periodogram estimated spectrum\n');
fprintf('\t in the range [-0.5:\%1.2f] & [\%1.2f:0.5] = \%2.4f dB\n\n', -f-
0.05,0.05+f,-10*log10(N*SNRth/2+1));
background noise1 = mean(10*log10(sx periodo(1:round(N*(0.45-f)))));
background noise2 = mean(10*log10(sx periodo(round(N*(0.65+f)):N)));
mean background noise=mean([background noise1,background noise2]);
fprintf('Mean background noise corresponding to the periodogram estimated
spectrum n';
fprintf('in the range [-0.5:\$1.2f] & [\$1.2f:0.5] = \$2.4f dB\n',-f-0.05,
0.05+f, mean background noise);
fprintf('\t=> Estimated SNR = %2.4f dB \n',10*log10((2/N)*(-1+exp(-1)))
noise_moy*log(10)/10)));
Function call example: noisy sin (2, 0.15)
Mean of x(t) = 0.0529
Mean of b(t) = 0.0499
Signal SNR = 3.0103 dB
      => Theoretical mean background noise corresponding to the periodogram
estimated spectrum in the range
[-0.5:-0.20] & [0.20:0.5] = -30.1072 dB
Mean background noise corresponding to the periodogram estimated spectrum in
the range [-0.5:-0.20] & [0.20:0.5] = -29.7643 dB
      => Estimated SNR = 2.6670 dB
```

The SNR estimation error is related to several odd spectrum values, which lead to a biased mean background noise level.

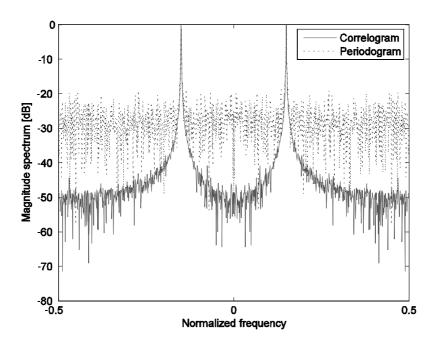


Figure 1.6. Spectral representation of a noisy sinusoidal signal