

技術報告書

Johnson Noise 온도계의 디지털 신호처리
- **Johnson Noise** 의 시계열 분석

(Digital Signal Processing for the Johnson Noise Thermometry
- A Time Series Analysis of the Johnson Noise)

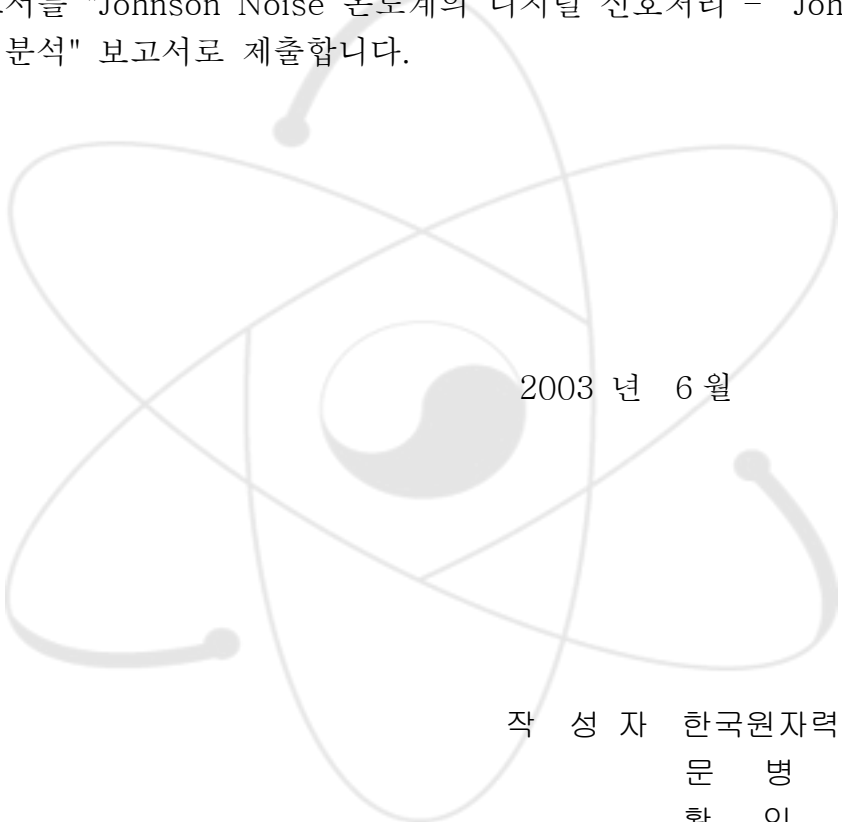
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이 보고서를 "Johnson Noise 온도계의 디지털 신호처리 - Johnson Noise의 시계열 분석" 보고서로 제출합니다.



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요 약 문

이 보고서에서는 첫째, 진폭, 주기, 및 위상이 각각 난수인 단일주기 신호들의 합으로부터 생성된 Random 신호는 Continuous Markov Process 를 형성하고 따라서 Gaussian White Noise 가 됨을 보였다. 이 Random 신호를 사용한 Simulation 을 통하여 Johnson Noise 온도계를 원자로 냉각재 온도측정에 사용할 경우 측정값의 상대오차가 0.14%미만인 매우 정확한 온도 값 측정이 가능함을 확인하였다. 물론, FPGA 등을 사용함으로써 충분히 빠른 시간 내에 Johnson Noise 의 통계처리가 가능하다는 전제에서이다. 둘째, Band-Pass Filter 를 거친 Johnson Noise 의 지정된 Filter Band 에 대한 최적의 Sampling Rate 결정에 관한 내용을 기술하였다. 또한, Johnson Noise 의 Linearity 문제와 온도에 따라 상대오차가 어떻게 변화하는지에 대한 분석 결과를 기술하였다.

셋째, 아주 단순한 전기회로로부터 장시간 동안 취득한 일련의 Johnson Noise 신호에 대한 분석 결과를 기술하였다. 취득한 데이터에는 약간의 Channel Noise 가 포함되어 있으며 이같이 Channel Noise 가 포함된 상태에서도 Continuous Markov Process 또는 Gaussian White Noise 의 성질은 유지가 됨을 확인하였다. 넷째, 온도의 값이 변화하고 있을 때 Long-term Average 또는 Moving Average 사용으로 인하여 발생하는 Time Lag 문제 해결을 위한 알고리즘에 대하여 기술하였다. 이 알고리즘은 Haar Wavelet 을 기반으로 하여 작성된 것으로 Long-Term Average 대신 Wavelet 을 사용한 근사값을 취함으로써 Time Lag 을 현격히 줄인 것이다.

SUMMARY

In this report, we first proved that a random signal obtained by taking the sum of a set of single frequency signals with random amplitude, random frequency, and random phase, generates a continuous Markov process and hence it is a Gaussian white noise. We used this random signal to simulate the Johnson noise and verified that the Johnson noise thermometry can be used to improve the measurements of the reactor coolant temperature within an accuracy of below 0.14%, provided that the necessary computation speed can be achieved by using FPGA's. Secondly, by using this random signal we determined the optimal sampling rate when the frequency band of the Johnson noise signal is given. Also the results of our examination on how good the linearity of the Johnson noise is and how large the relative error of the temperature could become when the temperature increases are described.

Thirdly, the results of our analysis on a set of the Johnson noise signal blocks taken from a simple electric circuit are described. We showed that the properties of the continuous Markov process are satisfied even when some channel noises are present. Finally, we describe the algorithm we devised to handle the problem of the time lag in the long-term average or the moving average in a transient state. The algorithm is based on the Haar wavelet and is to estimate the transient temperature that has much smaller time delay. We have shown that the algorithm can track the transient temperature successfully.

Chapter 1. Introduction

Johnson noise thermometry is one of the unconventional methods used for an accurate temperature measurement [1], by which one can establish thermodynamic temperature scale up to 1000°C with an accuracy of 0.2%. During the past 30 years, there have been many studies and experimental implementations for application of the noise thermometers for hostile environments [2] such as space applications and high temperature reactors. Temperature measurements in space nuclear reactors [3] require an accuracy of 1 to 2% at temperatures up to about 1400K for about 10 years and the Johnson noise thermometry is believed to be able to provide this performance with measurement uncertainty reduced to 0.2% [4]. For high temperature gas reactors, there have been studies on Johnson noise thermometry for reliable in-core temperature measurements [5]. For nuclear power plant applications, ORNL reports that they performed tests in two operating reactors: Diablo Canyon and Sequoyah to obtain inaccuracies of less than 0.1% for ideal situations and 0.5-1% at the ends of long extension cables [6].

In this report, we describe the results of a statistical analysis performed as a part of the design work for a digital signal processing system to be used for a Johnson noise thermometry. The Johnson noise [7] is a synonym of the “thermal noise” generated by thermal agitation of electrons in a conductor and is known to be a result of the Brownian motion of ionized molecules within a resistance [8]. The noise power P in watts is given by $P = kT\Delta f$, where k is Boltzman’s constant in joules per kelvin, T is the conductor temperature in kelvins, and Δf is the bandwidth in hertz. The thermal noise power has the property that it is equal throughout the frequency spectrum, depending only on k and T and hence it can be used to measure the temperature.

A random noise with its autocorrelation function zero everywhere but at 0, is called a white noise and the Johnson noise has the same property so that ‘white noise’ is another synonym of the Johnson noise, and we use this fact to study the Johnson noise statistically by generating random signals. We also examined a large set of Johnson noise signal blocks taken from a simplest electric circuit to see whether the signal blocks satisfy the properties of the Johnson noise even when some channel noise is present. Note that the data blocks taken from experiments must contain some channel noise and there is no way that we can pick out the Johnson noise alone.

There are a few different methods in implementing the Johnson noise thermometry. We will be using the correlation voltage method that is based on the correlation of signals from two different channels. The sensor signals will pick up noises in the long cables from the amplifiers to the A/D converter. If we take the expected value or the average of the correlation of the same signal through

two different channels, however, the contribution by the noise will average out (in long term averages). Note that the correlation of these two signals is the same as the power of the sensor signal and that it is the autocorrelation of the sensor signal itself. Recall that the average of the signal power is a multiple of the temperature and by the Parseval's theorem, the average of the signal power is equal to the average of the cross product for the Fourier transforms of the two channel signals.

We will be using this cross power spectral density to remove the amplifier noises and other EMI noises picked up earlier and will apply a nonlinear gain correction by using the calibration signal. Finally, we will apply a moving average algorithm to improve the accuracy of the temperature for the steady state case and will apply a Haar wavelet approximation to determine the temperature when the temperature is in a transient state.

1. Correlation Voltage Method for Johnson Noise Thermometry

If a sensor resistor is connected directly across the inputs of two high-input-impedance voltage amplifiers, the output of each of the two amplifiers will consist of the sum of two parts, a noise voltage caused by the sensor and a noise voltage caused by that amplifier (and no contribution from the other amplifier). Thus the outputs of the two amplifiers are partially correlated because they both amplify the sensor voltage noise and partially uncorrelated because each independently generates its own noise. The outputs of two amplifiers can be written in the forms,

$$v_{01}(t) = A_1[v_s(t) + v_{a1}(t)], \quad v_{02}(t) = A_2[v_s(t) + v_{a2}(t)]$$

where A_1 and A_2 are the voltage gains of the two amplifiers, v_{a1} and v_{a2} , are the equivalent input noise voltage of the two amplifiers and v_s is the noise voltage of the sensor resistor. The product of the two amplifier output voltages is then

$$v_{01}(t)v_{02}(t) = A_1A_2[v_s(t) + v_{a1}(t)][v_s(t) + v_{a2}(t)]$$

or equivalently,

$$v_{01}(t)v_{02}(t) = A_1A_2[v_s^2(t) + v_s(t)v_{a1}(t) + v_s(t)v_{a2}(t) + v_{a1}(t)v_{a2}(t)] \quad \text{-----} \quad (1)$$

Since the amplifier noise voltages are uncorrelated with zero mean, the expected value (in practical terms, the long-term time average) of their product will be zero. Also the sensor noise voltage and the amplifier noise voltages are uncorrelated with zero mean and the expected value of their product is zero. Therefore,

$$E[v_{01}(t)v_{02}(t)] = A_1A_2E[v_s^2(t)]$$

where "E(.)" mean "the expected value of". Since the temperature of the sensor is proportional to

the mean-squared noise voltage (which is the same as the expected value of the square of the noise voltage), the temperature can be computed from the Nyquist equation,

$$\bar{v}_s^2 = 4\kappa TR\Delta f = E[v_s^2(t)] = \frac{E[v_{01}(t)v_{02}(t)]}{A_1A_2}$$

or

$$T = \frac{E[v_{01}(t)v_{02}(t)]}{4A_1A_2\kappa R\Delta f}$$

where T is the temperature of the sensor in kelvins, k is Boltzmann's constant, $1.38 \times 10^{-23} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K}}$, R is the resistance of the sensor in ohms and Δf is the equivalent noise bandwidth of the measurement system.

The main advantage of the correlated voltage method is that the noise contributions of the two amplifiers do not have to be known to eliminate their effect. However, any external noise signal that gets into both amplifiers will be correlated at the output of the amplifiers and will cause a positive error in the measured temperature. If the external noise signal is narrowband (which is almost always the case) then digital signal processing can identify this type of interference and eliminate it.

A disadvantage of the correlated voltage method is that a separate measurement of the sensor resistance is needed. This measurement is however easy to make with high accuracy if it is done at DC using the 4-wire technique. It should be pointed out here that the R in the Nyquist equation is, strictly speaking, not the DC resistance of the sensor but the real part of the sensor impedance in whatever frequency band the measurement is made. If the measurement of the sensor noise is made in a bandwidth that is centered at a high frequency, the real part of the sensor impedance in that bandwidth may not be the same as the DC resistance. (For typical platinum resistance thermometers the difference between the DC resistance and the real part of the sensor impedance is negligible from dc to beyond 1 MHz.) At higher frequencies care must be taken to ensure that the resistance measured is the same as the real part of the impedance in the frequency range used.

2. Statistical Error Estimate of the Johnson Noise Thermometry

The material in this section is taken from a preprint material written by Professor Mike Roberts of University of Tennessee in May 2002. In this section, we derive an estimate for the uncertainty of the measurement of temperature based solely on the statistical properties of the resistor noise and ignoring the effects of amplifier noise. Of course the amplifier has significant noise that cannot simply be neglected. But this analysis will serve as a starting point for the more general analysis which includes the effects of amplifier noise.

Digital measurement of signal characteristics begins with sampling the signal. If the white noise of the resistor could be band limited and sampled at the Nyquist rate without noise, its mean-squared value could be directly estimated from the samples and knowledge of the bandwidth. (Actually, the signal could be sampled below the Nyquist rate. All that is important in the following statistical analysis is that the samples be independent. However if the signal is sampled below the Nyquist rate the noise and narrowband interference will both be aliased and that complicates some of the later analysis involving the CPSD.) If N independent samples are taken, an unbiased estimate of the mean-squared resistor noise voltage is

$$\bar{v}_R^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^N v_R^2[n]$$

where $v_R[n]$ is the “ n th” sample of the resistor’s open-circuit noise voltage. (The divisor is N instead of $N-1$ in this case because the mean value is known apriori to be zero and therefore a degree of freedom is not lost in trying to estimate the mean from the set of N data.) This can be rewritten as

$$\bar{v}_R^2 = \frac{E(v_R^2)}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{v_R^2[n]}{E(v_R^2)} = \frac{E(v_R^2)}{N} \chi^2(N) \quad \text{-----} \quad (2)$$

where $\chi^2(N)$ is the “chi-square” random variable defined by

$$\chi^2(N) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2$$

where the x_i ’s are Gaussian distributed and independent with a mean of μ and a standard deviation of σ . Therefore, $\frac{N\bar{v}_R^2}{E(v_R^2)}$ is chi-squared. The mean and variance of $\chi^2(N)$ are

$$E[\chi^2(N)] = N \text{ and } \text{Var}[\chi^2(N)] = 2N$$

from which we have

$$E\left[\frac{N\bar{v}_R^2}{E(v_R^2)}\right] = N \text{ and } \text{Var}\left[\frac{N\bar{v}_R^2}{E(v_R^2)}\right] = 2N$$

It is immediately evident from the left-hand equation that $E[\bar{v}_R^2] = E[v_R^2]$, that is, estimate of the mean-squared voltage is unbiased. Using the property of random variables that $\text{Var}[ax] = a^2\text{Var}(x)$, we have

$$\text{Var}[\bar{v}_R^2] = 2 \frac{(E[v_R^2])^2}{N}$$

The variance, $\text{Var}[\bar{v}_R^2]$ of the estimate \bar{v}_R^2 , the mean-squared noise voltage can be used to estimate the standard deviation of the estimate of the mean-squared voltage, $\sigma_{\bar{v}_R^2}$. The standard deviation of the estimate of the mean-squared voltage is

$$\sigma_{\bar{v}_R^2} = \sqrt{\text{Var}[\bar{v}_R^2]} = \sqrt{2 \frac{(E[v_R^2])^2}{N}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} E[v_R^2]$$

and, dividing both sides by the estimate of the mean-squared voltage,

$$\frac{\sigma_{\bar{v}_R^2}}{E[v_R^2]} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} E[v_R^2]}{E[\bar{v}_R^2]} \cong \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \quad \text{-----} \quad (3)$$

(The approximation is good for large values of N .) This final result simply says that (for large N) the fractional standard deviation of the estimate of the mean-squared, open-circuit noise voltage is simply $\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}$ where N is the number of independent samples from which the mean-squared, open-circuit noise voltage is estimated.

In the following sections, we prove that the above are indeed true for experimental data sets taken from a very simple electric circuit and also for the random signals are of the form $\sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} \text{Sin}(2\pi f_{\alpha} t + \omega_{\alpha})$ with a_{α} being a random number in $[0,1]$, f_{α} a random integer in $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$, and ω_{α} a random number in $[0, 2\pi]$.

Chapter 2. Determination of the Sampling Time

In this chapter, we describe how an optimal sampling rate is determined for the bandpass filtered Johnson noise in a fixed frequency band. The Johnson noise is filtered so that the low frequency noise such as the AC noise and the high frequency noise such as the EMI noise are eliminated. To study the relation between the frequency band and the corresponding optimal sampling time, we used a random signal obtained by summing single frequency signals whose amplitudes, frequencies and the phase angles are random. We start with proving that such a random signal is a Gaussian white noise.

1. A Gaussian White Noise Generator

In this section, we show that the bandpass filtered signals of the form $\sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} \text{Sin}(2\pi f_{\alpha} t + b_{\alpha})$ where a_{α} being a random number in $[0,1]$, f_{α} a random integer in a given frequency band, and b_{α} a random number in $[0,2\pi]$, generate Gaussian white noise signals and hence they are adequate for simulating continuous Markov processes. We apply the results to the fluctuation-dissipation formula for the Johnson noise and show that the probability distribution for the long term average of the power of the Johnson noise is a χ^2 distribution and that the relative error of the long-term average is $\sqrt{2/N}$ where N is the number of blocks used in the average.

The fluctuation-dissipation formula is given by

$$V(t) = (2kTR)^{\frac{1}{2}} \Gamma(t) \quad \text{-----} \quad (1)$$

where $V(t)$ is the fluctuating Johnson electromotive force, T is the absolute temperature, R is the resistance, and $\Gamma(t)$ is the Gaussian white noise. It can be derived from the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Langevin equation [10]

$$-RI(t) + V(t) - L \frac{dI(t)}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{-----} \quad (2)$$

The general form of the Langevin equation is used not only for the Johnson noise, but also for the general continuous Markov processes including the Brownian motion.

It is well known that the fluctuation-dissipation formula (1) can be used to determine a highly accurate temperature (2) be a statistical analysis of the Gaussian white noise $\Gamma(t)$. There are various Monte-Carlo simulation codes [11] including the MCNP4B code [12] and the EGS4 code [13] to simulate the behavior of electrons but they do not generate time sequence outputs. By using

these codes, one can compute the sums of energy deposits and hence the number of electrons produced while they pass through the material but not the time sequence outputs from a bulk of input particles passing through the material simultaneously.

We show in the following how to generate a time sequence of a Gaussian white noise and describe how these sequences can be used to satisfy the statistical properties of the Johnson noise which is the expectation value of $V^2(t)$ in the relation (1).

A random signal is a Gaussian white noise by definition if it is normally distributed with a zero mean and if the samples at two different times are uncorrelated. In practical applications, the signal is given as a finite number of discrete sampled points and hence its Fourier transform must be finite, i.e. only a finite number of points are used. Note that if K is the number of sampled points, then there can be at most $K/2$ frequencies with nonzero amplitudes by the Nyquist theorem. Thus, the Gaussian white noise that we are concerned here must be in a frequency band. A typical example of the frequency band is 3×2^{15} cycles/sec to 1.2×2^{20} cycles/sec.

We will show in the following that the random signal $\Gamma(t) = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \sin(2\pi f_k t + b_k)$ where a_k being a random number in $[0,1]$, f_k a random integer in $[f_L, f_U]$ for some positive integers f_L , f_U , and b_k a random number in $[0, 2\pi]$, generates a Gaussian white noise, i.e. it satisfies $E(\Gamma(t)) = 0$ and $E(\Gamma(t)\Gamma(t')) = \delta(t - t')$.

Let $\Omega = \{\Gamma(t_k | k=1,2,\dots,M)\}$ where $t_k = k/M$ and let X_n be a random sample of the N points from Ω . Then we have the following.

Lemma 1. Let X_n be as defined above, then the random variable $v = \sum_{k=1}^N X_k$ is normally distributed.

Proof. Let μ and σ be the mean and the standard deviation of Ω . Then from the definition of Ω , it is clear that μ and σ are finite. Since X_n 's are samples of a fixed size N from Ω , the central limit theorem can be applied to conclude that v is normally distributed. Q.E.D.

Lemma 2. Let X be a random variable with $X = r \sin \theta$ where $r \in [0,1]$, $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ are random numbers, i.e. both r and θ are uniformly distributed. The the expectation value of X is zero.

Proof. Let $r_n = n\Delta r$, $\theta_n = n\Delta\theta$, $X_n = r_n \sin\theta_n$ with $\Delta r = 1/N$ and $\Delta\theta = 2\pi/N$ and let $A_n = \{(r, \theta) \mid r_n < r \leq r_n + \Delta r, \theta_n < \theta \leq \theta_n + \Delta\theta\}$. Then we have $p((r, \theta) \in A_n) = p(r_n < r \leq r_n + \Delta r) \times p(\theta_n < \theta \leq \theta_n + \Delta\theta) = \Delta r \times \frac{\Delta\theta}{2\pi}$. Thus, we have $E(X) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N p((r, \theta) \in A_n) X_n$ which is equal to $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N r_n \sin\left(\theta_n \frac{\Delta r \Delta\theta}{2\pi}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^1 \int_0^{2\pi} r \sin\theta dr d\theta = 0$. Q.E.D.

Lemma 3. If a_k and b_k are random numbers in $[0,1]$ and $[0,2\pi]$ respectively, then for any

$$\varepsilon > 0, \text{ we have } \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} p\left(\left|\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \sin(b_k)\right| > \varepsilon\right) = 0.$$

Proof. Let $X = a \sin(b)$ and $X_k = a_k \sin(b_k)$ for $k=1,2,\dots,N$. Then by Lemma 2, we have $E(X)=0$ and hence using the weak law of large numbers, we have the

$$p\left(\left|\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \sin(b_k)\right| > \varepsilon\right) \text{ approaches to } 0. \text{ Q.E.D.}$$

Lemma 4. If f is an integer, $t_k = kh$ with $h = \frac{1}{M}$, then we have $\sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \sin(2\pi f t_k + b) = \sin(b)$.

Proof. Let $z_0 = e^{ib}$, $w = e^{i2\pi fh}$, and $z_k = e^{i(2\pi f t_k)}$. Then we have $z_k = z_0 w^k$ and hence

$$\sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \sin(2\pi f t_k + b) = \text{Im}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{M-1} z_k\right) \text{ which is equal to } \text{Im}\left(z_0 \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} w^k\right) = \text{Im}\left(\frac{z_0(1-w^M)}{1-w}\right). \text{ Now, note}$$

that $w^M = e^{i2\pi f M h} = e^{i2\pi f} = w$ and hence the sum equals $\text{Im}(z_0) = \sin(b)$. Q.E.D.

Theorem 1. Let $\Gamma(t)$ be as defined above and let $t_k = \frac{k}{M}$. Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} p\left(\left|\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \Gamma(t_k)\right| > \varepsilon\right) = 0 \text{ and hence } E(\Gamma(t)) = 0.$$

Proof. Recall that we have $\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \Gamma(t_k) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^M a_j \sin(2\pi f_j t_k + b_j) \right\}$ and the sum is equal to

$\sum_{j=1}^M \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \text{Sin}(2\pi f_j t_k + b_j) \right\}$. Now, by Lemma 4, we have $\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \text{Sin}(2\pi f_j t_k + b_j) = \text{Sin}(b)$ and hence

$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \Gamma(t_k) = \sum_{j=1}^M \text{Sin}(b_j)$. Now, the first part of the theorem follows from Lemma 3 and the second

part is trivial. Q.E.D.

To verify the above theorem, we computed a random signal $\Gamma(t)$, which is a sum of a 2^{11} single frequency signals for 2^{18} blocks of 1,024 points. When the mean and standard deviations are computed for 2^6 , 2^{10} , 2^{14} , and 2^{18} blocks, we obtain the results shown in Table 2-1. Fig.2-1 and fig.2-2 show how the signal values change as the number of blocks increases with the averages.

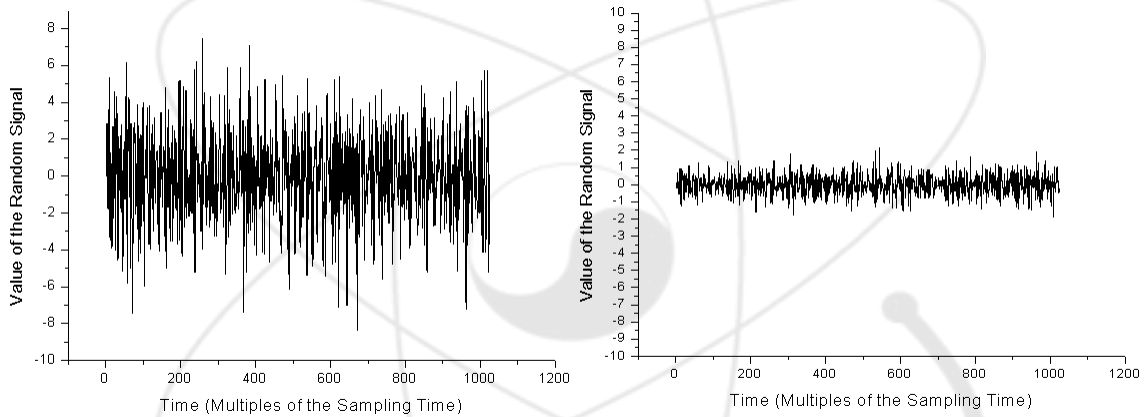


fig.2-1. Sample random Signal (Avg. of 2^6 and 2^{10} blocks)

Next, we consider the correlation coefficient between v_N and w_N where v_N and w_N are samples of size N taken at different times. Recall that the temperature is assumed to be constant so that the squared lengths of the vectors v_N and w_N must be the same and hence if the correlation coefficient approaches zero, then so will the cross product sum.

Table 2-1. Mean and Sigma vs Number of Blocks Used (Sum of 2^{11} Frequencies)

No of Blocks	Mean	Sigma	Ratio of Mean	Ratio of Sigma
64	0.004266	2.407210	1.00000	1.00000
1,024	0.001196	0.597664	0.28036	0.24828
16,384	0.000362	0.141919	0.08486	0.05896
262,144	-0.000014	0.003166	-0.00328	0.00132

Lemma 5. Let $N=2^n$ for some positive integer $n \geq 3$, $h = \frac{1}{N}$, $t_k = kh$ and let f be a random integer in $[1, 2^{n-1}]$. Then we have $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Cos}(4\pi f t_k) = 0$ and $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Sin}(4\pi f t_k) = 0$.

Proof. First, consider the case of $f=1$, where we have $\theta_k = \frac{4\pi k}{2^n}$ for $k=1,2,\dots,2^{n-1}$. These θ_k 's can be identified as points on the unit circle in equal angular intervals and they will fill the whole circle. Therefore, we must have $\sum_{k=1}^{2^{n-1}} \text{Cos}(4\pi f t_k) = 0$ and hence we have $\sum_{k=1}^{2^n} \text{Cos}(4\pi f t_k) = 0$.

Next, we consider the case of $f \neq 1$. Note that if f is an odd integer, then $\theta_k = \frac{4\pi f k}{2^n}$, $k=1,2,\dots,2^{n-1}$ covers all of the points corresponding to $\frac{4\pi k}{2^n}$, $k=1,2,\dots,2^{n-1}$. In general, we may write $f = 2^m f_1$ where f_1 is an odd integer. Note that we have $m \leq n-2$, and hence the same holds in this case also. An exactly the same proof for $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Sin}(4\pi f t_k) = 0$ is omitted. Q.E.D.

Theorem 2. Let a_j , f_j , and b_j be random numbers in the intervals defined above and let $\Gamma(t) = \sum_{j=1}^M a_j \text{Sin}(4\pi f_j t + b_j)$. If $t' = t + \tau$ for some $\tau > 0$, then $\text{Lim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{p} \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \Gamma(t_k) \Gamma(t_k + \tau) > \varepsilon \right) = 0$.

Proof. Let $c_j = 2\pi f_j \tau + b_j$, then we have $\Gamma(t + \tau) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N a_j \text{Sin}(2\pi f_j t + c_j)$. By exchanging the order of sums, the sum $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \Gamma(t_k) \Gamma(t_k + \tau)$ becomes

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^M a_i a_j \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Sin}(2\pi f_i t_k + b_i) \text{Sin}(2\pi f_j t_k + c_j) \right\}$$

Now, the product of the two sine functions inside the sum can be expanded to obtain the following four terms;

- (1) $\text{Cos}(b_i) \text{Cos}(c_j) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Sin}(2\pi f_i t_k) \text{Sin}(2\pi f_j t_k),$
- (2) $\text{Cos}(b_i) \text{Sin}(c_j) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Sin}(2\pi f_i t_k) \text{Cos}(2\pi f_j t_k),$
- (3) $\text{Sin}(b_i) \text{Cos}(c_j) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Cos}(2\pi f_i t_k) \text{Sin}(2\pi f_j t_k),$

$$(4) \sin(b_i)\sin(c_j) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \cos(2\pi f_i t_k) \cos(2\pi f_j t_k)$$

Note that as $N \rightarrow \infty$, the sum in (1) approaches to $\int_0^1 \{\cos(2\pi(f_i - f_j)t) - \cos(2\pi(f_i + f_j)t)\} dt$

which is zero unless $i=j$. The same holds for all of the other three sums. Thus, the first term becomes $\sum_{i=1}^M a_i^2 \cos(b_i)\cos(c_i) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \sin^2(2\pi f_i t_k) = \sum_{i=1}^M a_i^2 \cos(b_i)\cos(c_i) \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{k=1}^N (1 - \cos(4\pi f_i t_k))$.

Now, the sum of the Cosine terms becomes zero by Lemma 5, and hence the sum becomes $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^M a_i^2 \cos(b_i)\cos(c_i)$. Applying the same procedure, one can easily verify that the sums (2) and

(3) become zero, and the fourth term becomes $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^M a_i^2 \sin(b_i)\sin(c_i)$. Therefore, by adding the

two nonzero terms and using the relation $c_i = b_i + 2\pi f_i \tau$, we obtain $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^M a_i^2 \cos(2\pi f_i \tau)$. Finally,

one can prove that $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} p\left(\left|\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^M a_i^2 \cos(2\pi f_i \tau)\right| > \varepsilon\right) = 0$ by applying an argument similar to the one

in the proof of Lemma 3. Q.E.D.

Sample calculation results are shown in Table 2-2 and in fig.2-2.

**Table 2-2. Correlation Between Different Sample Blocks
(Sum of 2^{11} Single Freq. Signals)**

No of Bloc	ρ	Relative ρ	$\sqrt{\frac{64}{N}}$
64	0.02838	1.0000	1.0000
4,096	0.00045	0.0159	0.1250
262,144	0.00004	0.0015	0.0156

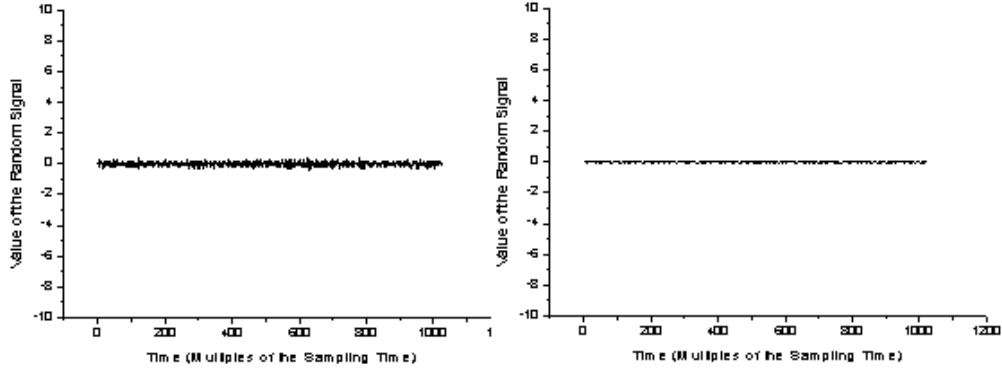


fig.2-2. Sample Random Signal (Avg. of 2^{14} and 2^{18} Blocks)

2. Statistical Analysis on the Gaussian White Noise Signal

In this section, we assume that the temperature T is constant and will consider N blocks of samples each consisting of the K sample points. Let $v_n = (v_{n1}, v_{n2}, \dots, v_{nK})$ be the n th block of points sampled from the Johnson noise and let

$$w^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N v_n^2 \quad \text{-----} \quad (3)$$

Note that we have $E[v_n] = 0$ for all $n=1, 2, \dots, N$ since v_n is sampled from a Gaussian white noise and that $E[v_n^2] = E[v_m^2]$ for all n, m . This follows from the assumption that the temperature is constant.

Lemma 6. Let μ be the expectation value of v_n^2 , i.e. $E[v_n^2] = \mu$, then the variance of v_n is $\frac{K\mu}{K-1}$ and hence $\sigma(v_n) = \sqrt{\frac{K\mu}{K-1}}$.

Proof. Note that $\text{Var}(v_n) = \frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{k=1}^K (v_{nk} - E[v_n])^2 = \frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{k=1}^K v_{nk}^2$ which is equal to $\frac{K}{K-1} E[v_n^2] = \frac{K}{K-1} \mu$. Q.E.D.

Lemma 7. Let $\psi = \frac{1}{v} \sum_{n=1}^N v_n^2$ with $v^2 = \text{Var}(v_n)$, then the probability distribution of ψ is Chi-square and $\psi = \frac{(K-1)Nw^2}{K\mu}$.

Proof. Recall that we have $E[v_n] = E[v_m]$ for all n, m and hence we have $\text{Var}(v_n) = \text{Var}(v_m)$ which follows from $\text{Var}(v_n) = \frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{k=1}^M (v_n - 0)^2$. Since v_n 's are normally distributed and ψ is a sum of the squares of the standard normally distributed random variables, the probability distribution of ψ must be a Chi-square. Note that $w^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N v_n^2$ can be written as $\frac{\nu}{N} \psi$ and hence we have $\psi = \frac{N}{\nu} w^2$ from which the result follows using Lemma 5. Q.E.D.

Theorem 3. Let N be a fixed positive integer and let w^2 be as defined above. Then we have $\frac{\sigma(w^2)}{E(w^2)} = \sqrt{\frac{2K}{N(K-1)}}$, an approximation of which is $\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}$ for large K 's.

Proof. First, note that $E(\psi) = \frac{(K-1)N}{K\mu} E[w^2] = \frac{(K-1)N}{K}$. Since ψ is a Chi-square distribution, we have $\text{Var}(\psi) = 2E[\psi]$. Now, using the property that $\text{Var}(au) = a^2 \text{Var}(u)$ for any constant a , we have $\text{Var}(\psi) = \left(\frac{(K-1)N}{K\mu}\right)^2 \text{Var}(w^2)$ which must be equal to $\frac{2(K-1)N}{K}$. Therefore, we have $\text{Var}(w^2) = \frac{2K}{N(K-1)} \mu^2$ from which we obtain $\frac{\text{Var}(w^2)}{(E[w^2])^2} = \frac{2K}{N(K-1)}$. Q.E.D.

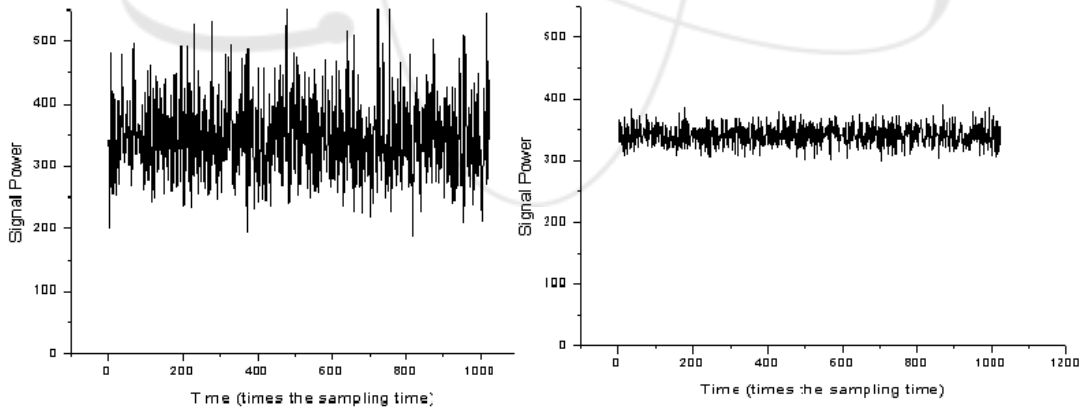


Fig.2-3. Signal Power of Sample Random Signals (Avg. of 2^6 and 2^{10} Blocks)

To verify that the above is true for the bandpass filtered random signals, we computed the signals, each of which is a sum of the 2^{11} random single frequency signals for $N=2^8, 2^{10}, 2^{12}, 2^{14}$. A summary of the results is shown in Table 2-3 and Table 2-4. The column with 'Relative Error'

shows the ratio of the sigma over the mean and it can be seen that as the number of blocks increases by a factor of 16, the relative error decreases by a factor of 4 which is what is expected from Theorem 2. Table 2-3 shows the case of the sums of 2^{12} single frequency random signals.

**Table 2-3. Relative Error vs Number of Blocks Used for Average
(Sum of 2^{11} Single Freq. Signals)**

No of Blocks	Mean	Sigma	Relative Error
64	340.802	58.702	0.17225
1,024	341.129	15.005	0.04399
16,384	341.309	3.7120	0.01088
262,144	341.298	0.7850	0.00230

**Table 2-4. Relative Error vs Number of Blocks Used for Average
(Sum of 2^{12} Single Freq. Signals)**

No of Blocks	Mean	Sigma	Relative Error
64	685.194	124.93	0.18233
1,024	682.232	30.456	0.04664
16,384	682.104	7.2090	0.01057
262,144	682.708	1.7760	0.00260

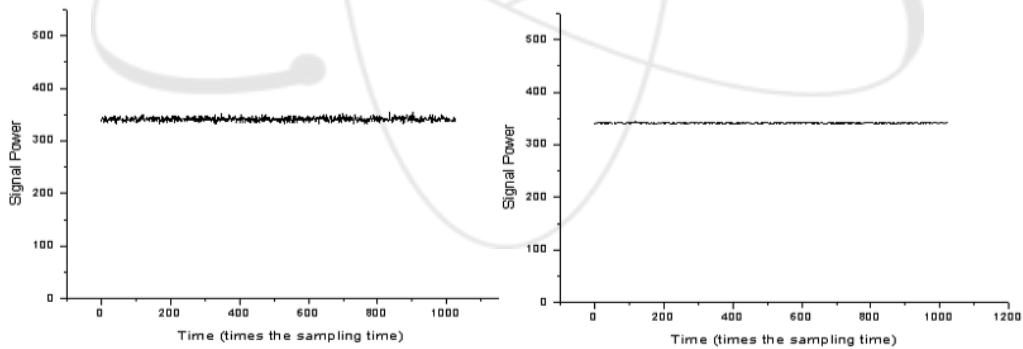


fig.2-4. Signal Power of Sample Random Signal (Avg. of 2^{14} and 2^{15} Blocks)

3. Sampling Time and the Frequency Band

In this section, we describe how we determine an optimal sampling rate when a bandpass filtered random noise is given. We assume that the signal blocks are of size 1,024 points and this will be the size we will be using in our digital signal processing algorithm. Note that we need to use the Fourier transformation of the signal blocks so that not only the EMI noises are eliminated but also the power spectral density of the signal needs can be computed. Recall that a constant multiple of an average of the power spectral density will be used as our temperature.

First, we consider how the frequency band for filtering the noise data and the necessary sampling time are determined. Ideally, the thermometer should have as wide a bandwidth as possible not only to keep the measurement times short but also to increase the accuracy. If we take a shorter sampling time, then we will have more accurate temperature during the same time interval since our temperature value will be computed by taking the average of long-term fluctuating values. But there are practical limitations. The upper bound of the frequency range is required to eliminate the high frequency EMI associated with AM radio transmissions. The lower bound is set to reduce the EMI due to low frequency magnetic fields, particularly associated with the power supplies. A survey by D. white et al. [8] shows that the typical frequency range used is from a few kilohertz to one megahertz. The size of the frequency band and the number of points in the sampling block determine the resolution of the Fourier transformation.

We assume that the number of sample points in a block of samples is 1024 points. This limitation comes from the fact that the FFT algorithm we will be using for a set of 1024 points requires 6M gates while the FPGA board we designed initially has only 15M gates. First, we consider the case where the sampling time is 16MHz, i.e. $h = \frac{1}{2^{24}}$ sec, which is practically the fastest rate currently, considering the fact that 12 Bit A/D conversion must be used. Note that there must be more than two points, i.e. three or more points in one period of a signal so that the amplitude of the signal after the Fourier transformation is properly reflected in the frequency domain. Thus, if we require four points to be the minimum, then the signal with $4h = \frac{1}{2^{22}}$ sec as one cycle time will have the minimum period and hence the maximum frequency of 2^{22} (4MHz). In a set of 1024 sample data, there will be 256 cycles for these signals of frequency 2^{22} (4MHz). Therefore, the amplitudes after FFT of frequencies corresponding to 257 through 512 are wasted. For the lower limit, note that input signals of frequency 2^{17} (128kHz) will be transformed to 8 since there are 8 cycles of such signals in 1024h second time period.

However, the signals we get from the preamplifiers fabricated by Oak ridge National Laboratory initially have frequencies below 1.5MHz and the amplitudes of the frequencies in the range 100kHz to 1.2MHz can be read properly after nonlinear gain correction. Thus, we decided to lower the sampling period to $h = \frac{1}{3 \times 2^{20}}$ sec. Note that for signals of frequency 1.2MHz, one period

will be $\frac{1}{1.2 \times 2^{20}}$ sec, which is 2.5h. Therefore, two or more points will be sampled from each cycle.

Now, consider signals of frequency 3kHz= 3×2^{10} cycles/sec whose period will be $\frac{1}{3 \times 2^{10}}$ sec. One

block of 1024 sample points will correspond to a time interval of length $2^{10} h = \frac{1}{3 \times 2^{10}}$ sec, which is

the same as the one cycle length of 3kHz signals, and hence 3kHz signals will be transformed to 1 by the Fourier transformation.

Thus, if we take 3×2^5 kHz =96kHz be the lower bound of the filter, then the lower bound 96kHz will be transformed to 32 while the upper bound 1.2MHz will be transformed to about 410. Therefore, we will be using the frequency range [32, 410]. Fig.2-5 shows the power spectral density of a sample Johnson noise signal filtered in the range $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$. Note that the values of the spectral density near 32 and 410 are smaller than those at interior points. In the next section, we consider the energy leakage problem at the boundary frequencies 32 and 410.

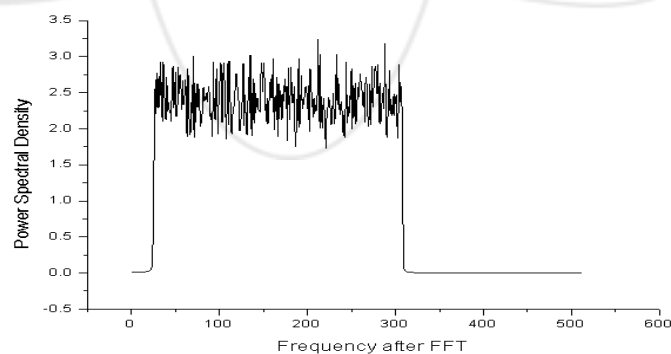


fig.2-5. Power Spectral Density of a Sample Johnson Noise

4. Energy Leakage Problem at Boundary Frequencies

Since the signals are windowed by a frequency band, the power of the original sequence $\{x(i)\}$ concentrated at a single frequency will spread by the window into the entire frequency range, which is called energy leakage. The left hand side graph of fig.2-6 shows an example of the Fourier transform of $\{x(i) = \text{Sin}(2\pi f t_i) | i = 1, 2, \dots, 1024\}$ with $f = 3 \times 2^{16} - 3 \times 2^9$ and $t_i = \frac{i-1}{3 \times 2^{20}}$. Recall that the signals with frequency 3×2^{10} will be transformed to 1 and hence signals with frequency 3×2^{16} will be transformed to 64 and the Fourier transformation of the signal with single frequency $3 \times 2^{16} - 3 \times 2^9$ will have the mean at 63.5 as shown in fig.2-6.

As described earlier, the temperature will be computed by a constant multiple of the average of the cross power density spectrum in the frequency domain. Since only the frequencies in a fixed range of frequencies will pass through the band pass filter described above and the Fourier transformation of the single frequency signals in the band will mostly spread, there will be “energy leakages”. To determine how much of the power will be “leaked out” at the boundary frequencies, we computed the following:

- (1) Take a signal $f(t) = \text{Sin}(2\pi\omega t)$ with the frequency ω in the interval $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$ and Compute $f_i = f(t_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, 1024$ with $t_i = \frac{i}{3 \times 2^{20}}$
- (2) Compute the Fourier transformation of $\{f_i | i = 1, 2, \dots, 1024\}$ to obtain $\{g_i | i = 1, 2, \dots, 1024\}$ where g_i are the magnitude of the complex numbers
- (3) Considering $\{g_i^2 | i = 1, 2, \dots, 1024\}$ as a probability distribution, compute the mean and sigma of this distribution
- (4) Repeat the above process for all the frequencies ranging from 3×2^{15} to 1.2×2^{20} and plot how the means are distributed.

The result of calculation is shown in the right hand side graph of fig.2-6, where the sigma values ranges from 0.3 to 1.0 with the mean at 0.669. Note that we may take $0.669 + 3 \times 0.234 = 1.339$ as the maximum span of the “leakage” and hence if any of the frequencies in the range $[34, 408]$ will not have any ‘leakage’. Note that the leaked out energy at 34 will be at 33 or below and hence the average of the power spectral density at interior points will be proportional to the temperature. This fact will be reflected in our digital signal processing algorithm.

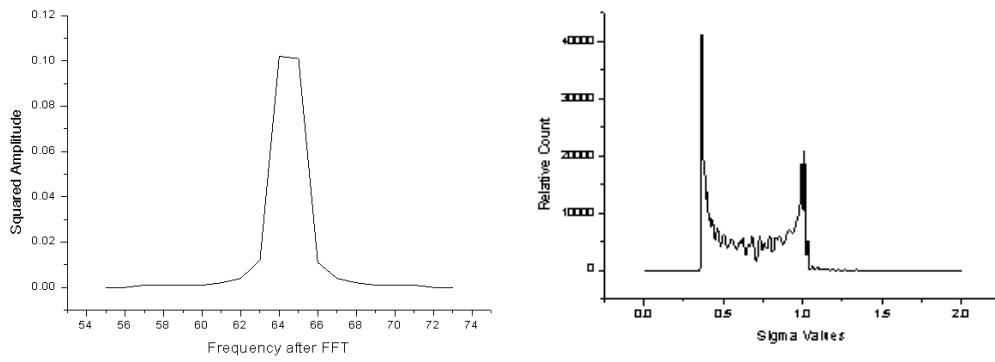
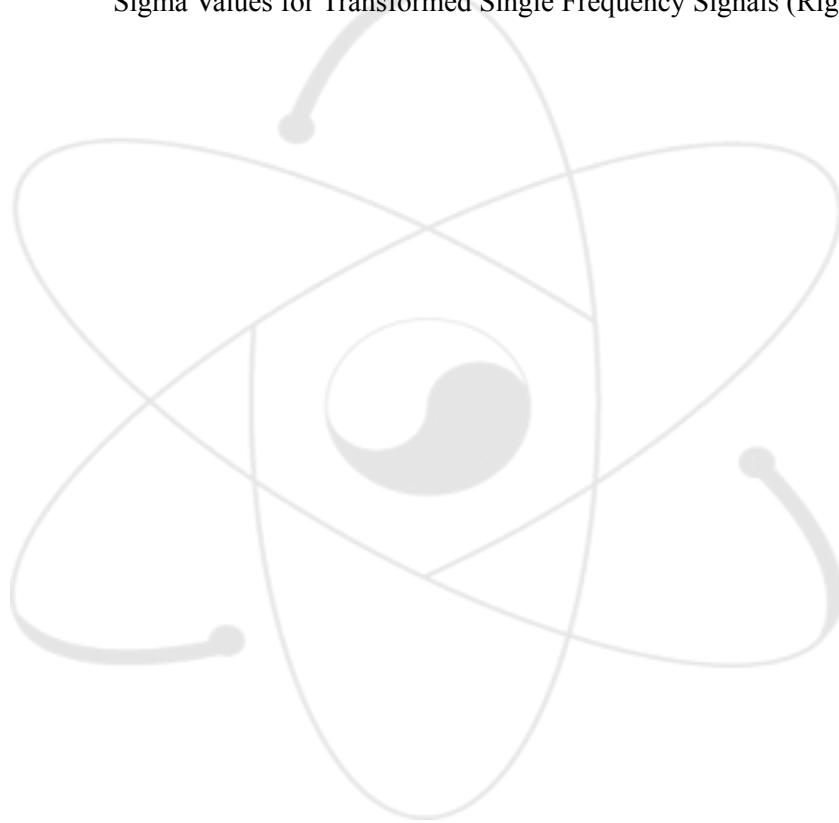


fig.2-6. Transformed Freq. Distribution for a Single Freq. Input (Left) and Sigma Values for Transformed Single Frequency Signals (Right)



Chapter 3. Linearity of the Noise Thermometry

In this chapter, we will show that the Johnson noise and the channel noise picked up in the long signal cables are uncorrelated, i.e. the correlation coefficient approaches to zero as the number of blocks used in the average increases. We also show that any pair of blocks of Johnson noise samples are uncorrelated, and hence the temperature or equivalently, the average of the power spectral density is linear. Let v_1 and v_2 be the Johnson noise signals taken at the same temperature T and at different times. Suppose that we have $v_1 + v_2$ as a Johnson noise signal at some other time, then we would expect that the signal corresponds to the temperature $2T$. This follows from

$$E[(v_1 + v_2)^2] = E[v_1^2] + E[v_2^2] + 2E[v_1 v_2] \approx E[v_1^2] + E[v_2^2]$$

1. Correlation between the Channel Noise and the Johnson Noise

In this section, we consider the effect of the noise picked up in the long channel cables from the amplifier to the A/D converter where the temperature is calculated. As described in Chapter 2, if we let the signals from the two channels be $\phi = \{\phi_i | i=1,2,\dots,N\}$ and $\varphi = \{\varphi_i | i=1,2,\dots,N\}$, and write $\phi_i = x_i + \varepsilon_{1i}$ and $\varphi_i = x_i + \varepsilon_{2i}$, where $x = \{x_i | i=1,2,\dots,N\}$ is the sensor signal without the channel noise and $\varepsilon_{1i}, \varepsilon_{2i}$ being the channel noise signals, then the expectation value of the product of two signals ϕ and φ can be written

$$E(\phi\varphi) = E((x + \varepsilon_1)(x + \varepsilon_2)) = E(x^2) + E(x\varepsilon_2) + E(\varepsilon_1 x) + E(\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2) \quad \text{-----} \quad (4)$$

In the following, we will examine how large are the values $E(x\varepsilon_2)$, $E(\varepsilon_1 x)$, and show that $E(\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2)$ approach to zero faster than the rate $\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}$ which is the relative error for $E(x^2)$. We will assume that the channel noises are of the same form as the Johnson noise except that the channel noise is not filtered and that they are sums of much less number of single random frequency signals.

For the signal x , we used signals of the form $x(t) = \sum a \times \sin(2\pi ft + b)$ with the amplitude a being a random number in $[0,1]$, the phase angle b also a random number in $[0,2\pi]$, and the frequency f is a random integer in $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$. For the sampling time, we use $h = \frac{1}{3 \times 2^{20}}$ so that

$x_i = f\left(\frac{i}{3 \times 2^{20}}\right)$, for $i=1,2,\dots,1024$. As described earlier in Chapter 2, the number of terms in the sum of $f(t)$ determines the temperature so that smaller number of terms will correspond to a lower temperature. The left hand side graph of fig.3-1 shows the power of a signal

$\{x_i | i=1,2,\dots,1024\}$ obtained from sums of 4096 random single frequency signals after taking the average of 64 blocks. For the channel noise signals $\{y_i | i=1,2,\dots,1024\}$, we used the similar function $f(t)$ with the number of added single frequency signals range from 1 to 64, and 1000 to 1200. The right hand side graph of fig.3-1 shows the power of a noise signal obtained by averaging 64 noise signals each with a single frequency, a sum of two single frequencies, a sum of three single frequencies, and so forth. When the correlation coefficient c between the two sequences $\{x_i\}$ and $\{y_i\}$ are computed,

$$c = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sqrt{\sum x_i^2 \sum y_i^2}}$$

we find that c ranges from 0.028 to 0.038 while mean of the signal powers range from 675 to 686. When average of 4096 blocks (see fig.3-3) is taken, the correlation coefficient decreases to 0.00004 while the signal power remains to be the same. When the noise is a sum of 2^{15} random single frequency signals, the correlation coefficient is found to be around 0.0006 that is still far below the desired relative error for the signal power, i.e. $\sqrt{\frac{2}{4096}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{64} = 0.022$. Therefore, we may consider the random noise signals and the sensor signals are uncorrelated.

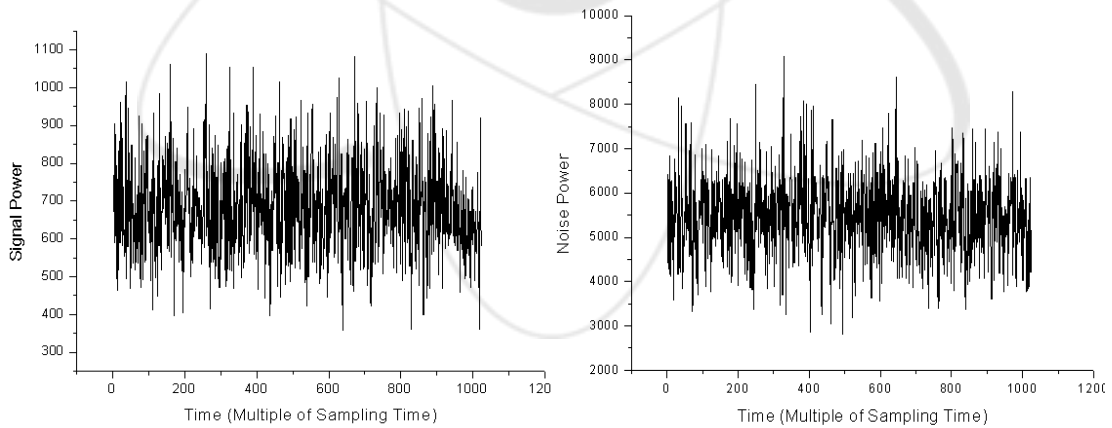


fig.3-1. Signal Power of a Sample Voltage Signal and Power of a Sample Noise Signal (Avg. of 64Blocks)

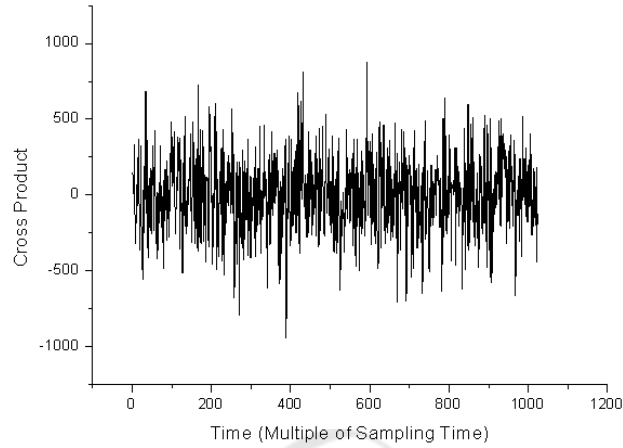


fig.3-2. Cross Product of a Sample Noise and the Sensor Signal
(Avg. of 64Blocks – Correlation Coefficient is 0.03)

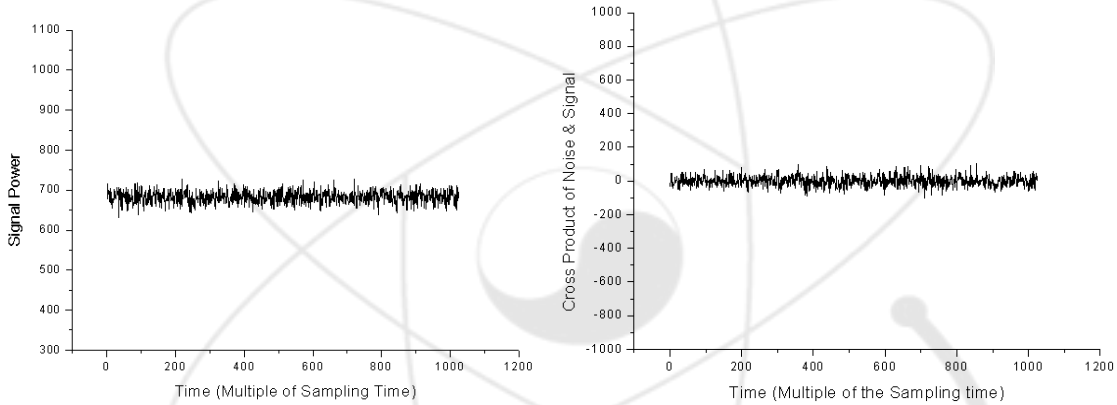


fig.3-3. Signal Power (left) and Cross Product of Noise and the Signal (right)
(Average of 4096Blocks – Corr. Coeff. is 0.0006)

2. Correlation Between Different Sets of Sensor Signals

In this section we consider the correlation coefficients between the different pairs of sensor signal blocks sampled at different times. We restrict our attention to only random signals corresponding to the same temperature, i.e. the sums of the same number of single frequency random signals. Let $x = \{x_i | i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ and $y = \{y_i | i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ be two different sets of sampled signals with $N=1024$. We would like to estimate $E[(x + y)^2] - (E[x^2] + E[y^2]) = 2E[xy]$ so that $E[(x + y)^2] \approx (E[x^2] + E[y^2])$. The graphs shown in fig.3-4, fig.3-5, fig.3-6 show the computed results for random signals obtained by taking sums of 2048 single frequency random signals.

As can be seen in the graphs, the correlation coefficient

$$\gamma = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M x_i y_i}{\sqrt{\sum x_i^2 \sum y_i^2}} = \frac{M \times E[xy]}{M \times \sqrt{E[x^2]E[y^2]}} = \frac{E[xy]}{\sqrt{E[x^2]E[y^2]}} \approx \frac{E[xy]}{\sqrt{E[x^2]}}$$

gets reduced from 0.02838 for 64 block averages to 0.00045 for 64×64 block averages, and to 0.000043 for 64×64×64 block averages. Note that the ratio of this reduction is smaller than the ratio of the square root of the number of blocks and hence we may consider that two different pairs of sample signal blocks are uncorrelated.

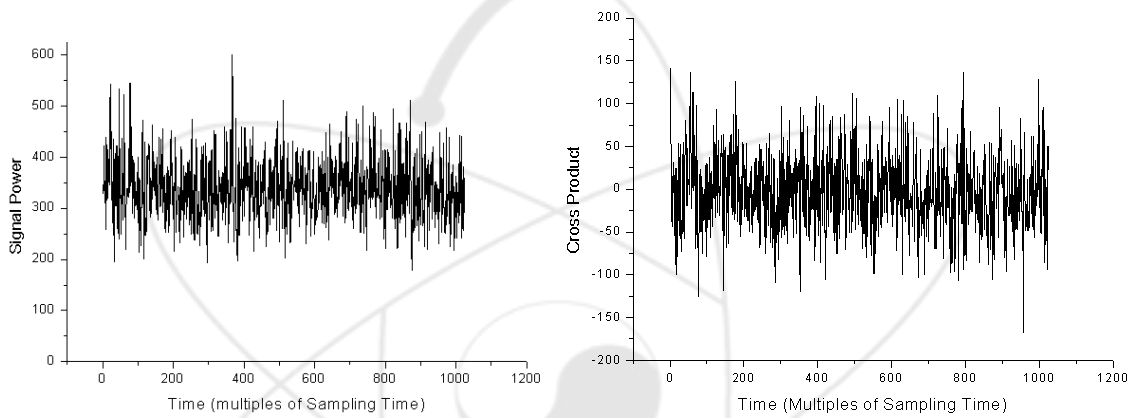


fig.3-4. Signal Power (left) and Cross Product of two Signals (right)
(Average of 64 Blocks – Corr. Coeff. is 0.02838)

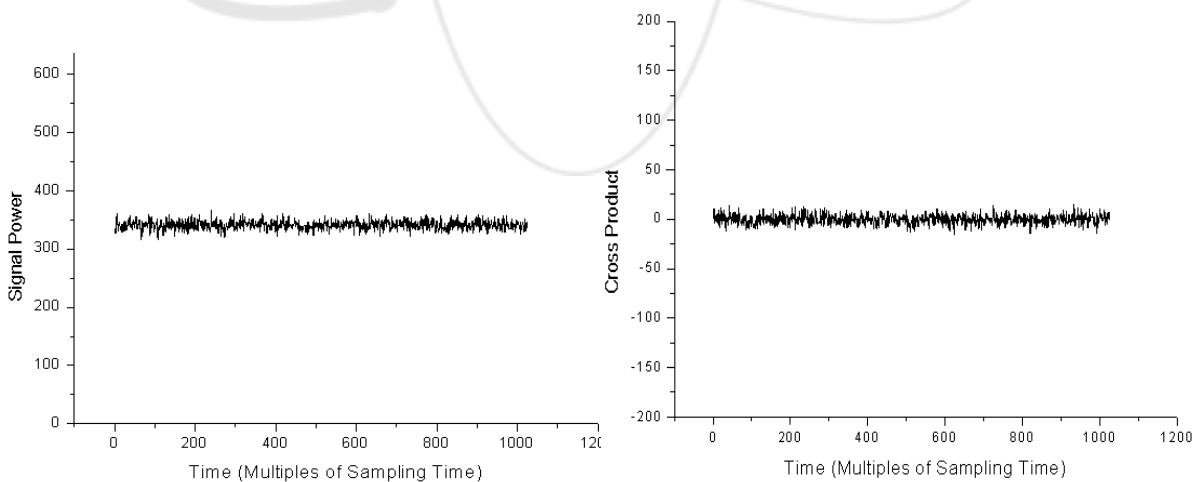


fig.3-5. Signal Power (left) and Cross Product of two Signals (right)
(Average of 4096 Blocks – Corr. Coeff. is 0.00045)

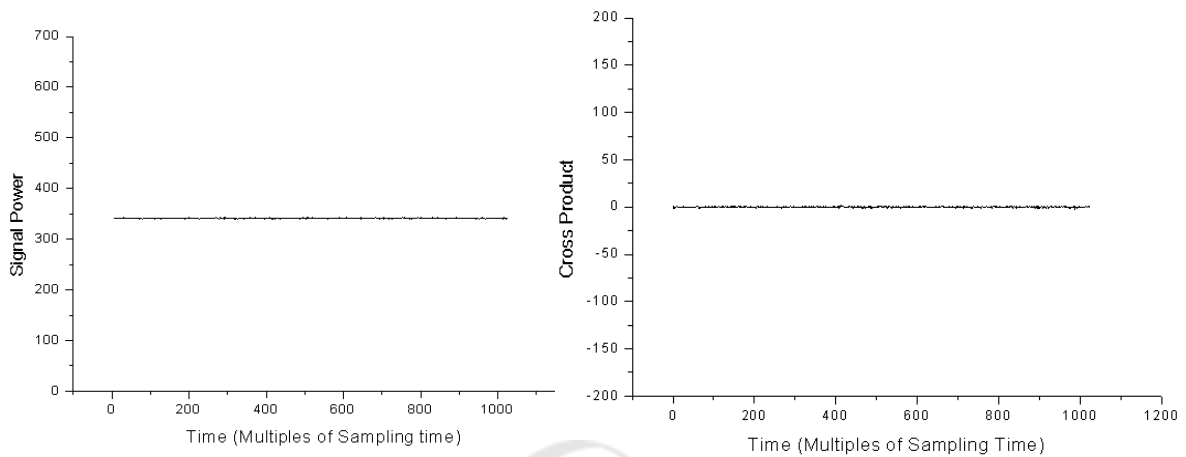


fig.3-6. Signal Power (left) and Cross Product of two Signals (right)
(Average of 262,144 Blocks – Corr. Coeff. is 0.00004324)

3. Linearity of the Processed Signal Power

In this section, we study how the signal power or equivalently the power spectral density increases as the number of random signals summed to form the Johnson noise increases. We performed calculations for the functions obtained by summing 2^{11} , 2^{12} , ..., 2^{18} single frequency random signals with the frequencies in the range $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$. Table 1 shows a summary of the results where the first two rows are the means and the sigmas of the averaged signal power while the remaining two rows are for the power spectral density.

Table 3-1. Average of Signal Power and Power Spectrum Density

No of Signals	2^{11}	2^{12}	2^{13}	2^{14}	2^{15}	2^{16}	2^{17}	2^{18}
Sigma(SP)	341.129	682.232	1365.417	2732.603	5468.062	10914.70	21800.38	43663.86
Sigma(SP)	15.005	30.456	58.799	122.948	233.322	445.624	889.649	1797.51
Mean(PSD)	0.45116	0.90241	1.80599	3.61388	7.23178	14.43632	28.83659	57.74675
Sigma(PSD)	0.01536	0.03250	0.06013	0.12422	0.22321	0.46009	0.95255	2.00390

The computed results in Table 3-1 are drawn by graphs shown in fig.3-7. The left hand side graph of fig.3-7 shows the means of the signal power in the middle curve that is almost a straight line. The two other curves surrounding the middle curve are drawn so that they reflect the one-sigma band. Similarly, the right hand side graph of fig.3-7 is drawn for the power spectral density in Table 3-1. Fig.3-8 is another schematic illustration of the linearity shown in Table 3-1 with the Gaussian functions center at the means and with the sigmas as the standard deviations.

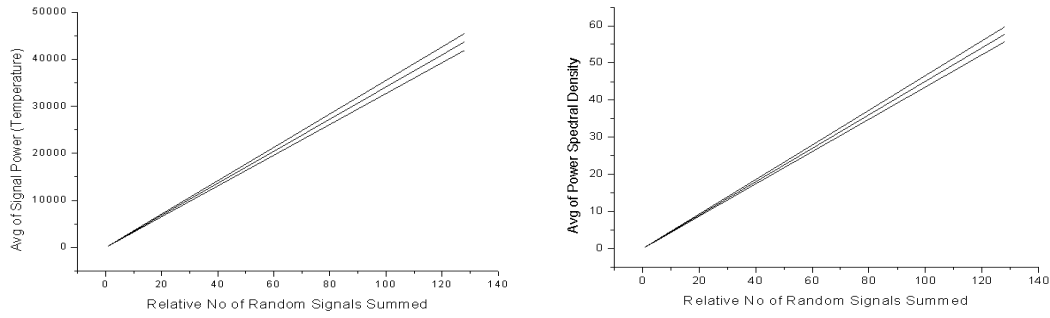


Fig.3-7. Linearity of Johnson Noise Signals with One Sigma Band -1
(Average of 1024 Blocks)

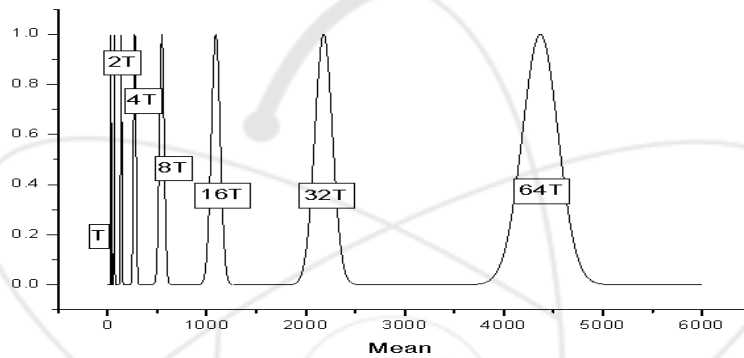


Fig.3-8. Linearity of Johnson Noise Signals with One Sigma Band -2

4. Analysis of Experimental Data Sets

In this section, we describe the results of our studies on the statistical properties of thermal noise, or equivalently of a continuous stochastic random process, using a series of sample data sets taken from an electric circuit. We describe the results of our analyses on how the theoretical error estimate in terms of the number of blocks used in taking the average compared with the one from the actual measured noise containing some channel noise and how accurate the Johnson noise thermometry can be with the given set of electronic equipments that are being used

Fig.3-9 shows an example of the power of the noise signal obtained by taking the average of 8 blocks and fig.3-10 shows its equivalent in the frequency domain. Similarly, fig.3-11 shows an example of 64 block averages and its Fourier transform is in shown in fig.3-12. The mean and sigma for the average of 8 blocks are 1.465 and 0.604 respectively so that the ratio is 0.410, while for the average of 64 blocks in fig.3; they are 1.402 and 0.202 with the ratio of 0.144. Hence, the relative error reduces from 41.0% to 14.4% as the number of blocks increases from 8 to 64. For the

corresponding power spectral density shown in fig.3-10, the average and sigma are 1.478 and 0.622 so that the ratio becomes 0.420 for the average of 8 blocks. For the average of 64 blocks shown in fig.3-12, they are 1.410 and 0.198 so that the ratio is 0.141.

Figures fig.3-13 through fig.3-21 show examples of the averaged signal power and their Fourier transforms, where the number of blocks in taking the averages increases from 256 to 65,536. As can be seen from these figures, the relative error $\frac{\mu}{\sigma}$ decreases as the number of blocks increases. Table 3-2 shows a summary of the computed results of the minimum and maximum of the relative errors for the different set of blocks. The results are compared with $\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}$ in (3) of Chapter 1. Note that the experimental results are very close to the theoretical estimates. A summary of the computed results is shown in fig.3-23.

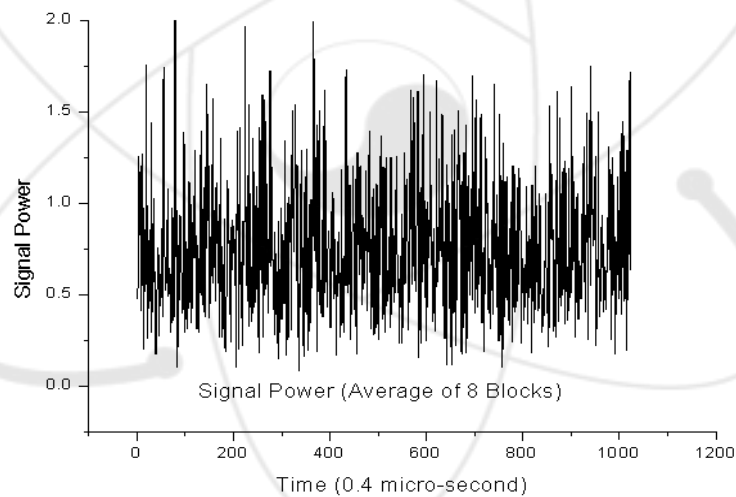


fig.3-9. Power of Johnson noise plus channel noise (average of 8 blocks)

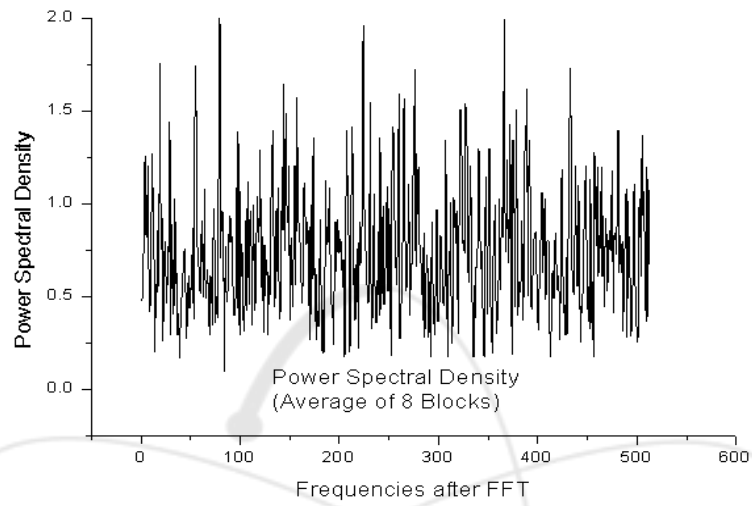


fig.3-10. Power spectral density of Johnson noise plus channel noise (average of 8 blocks)

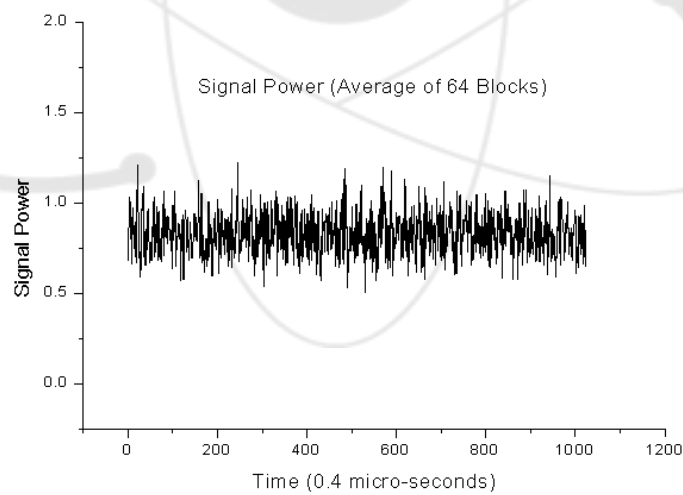


fig.3-11. Power of Johnson noise plus channel noise (average of 64 blocks)

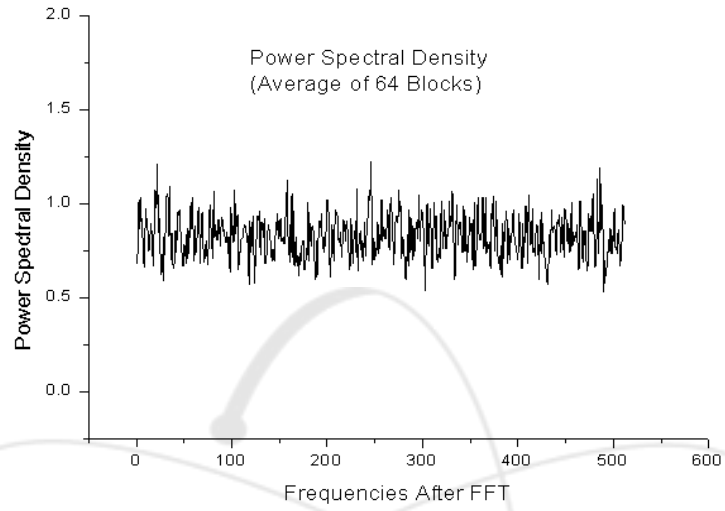


fig.3-12. Spectral power density of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 64 blocks)

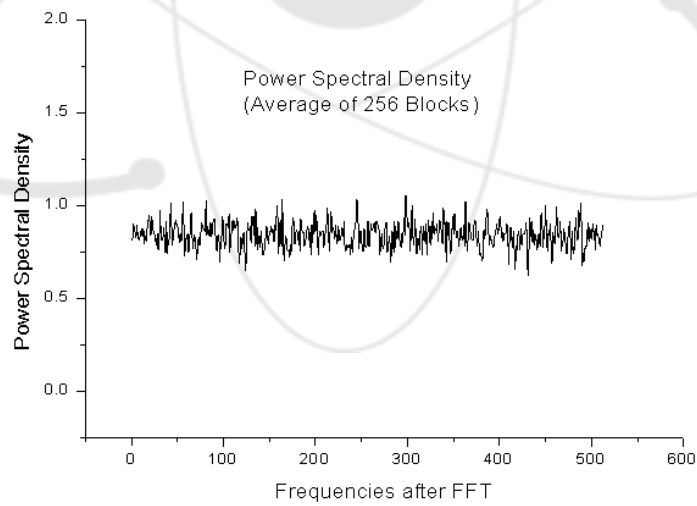


fig.3-13. Spectral power density of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 256 blocks)

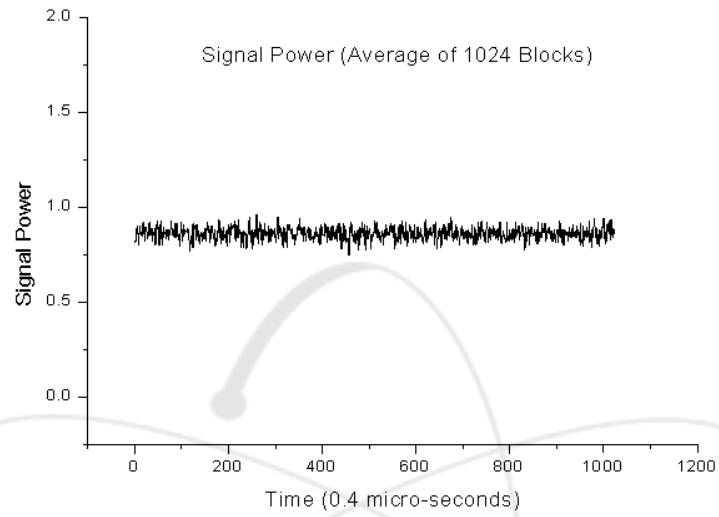


fig.3-14. Power of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 1024 blocks)

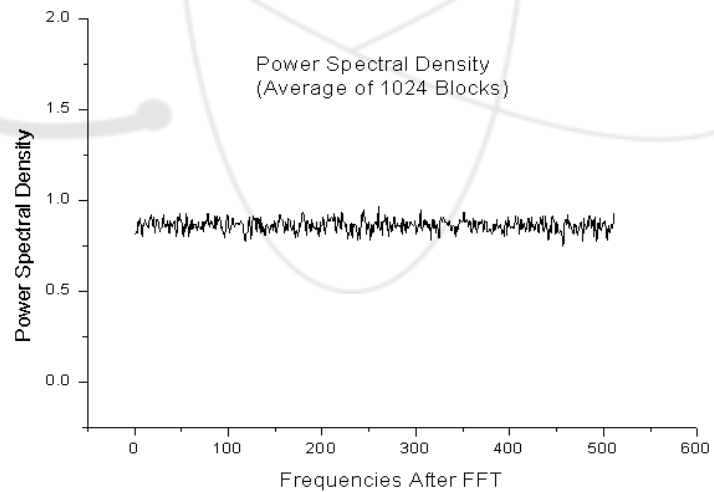


fig.3-15. Spectral power density of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 1024 blocks)

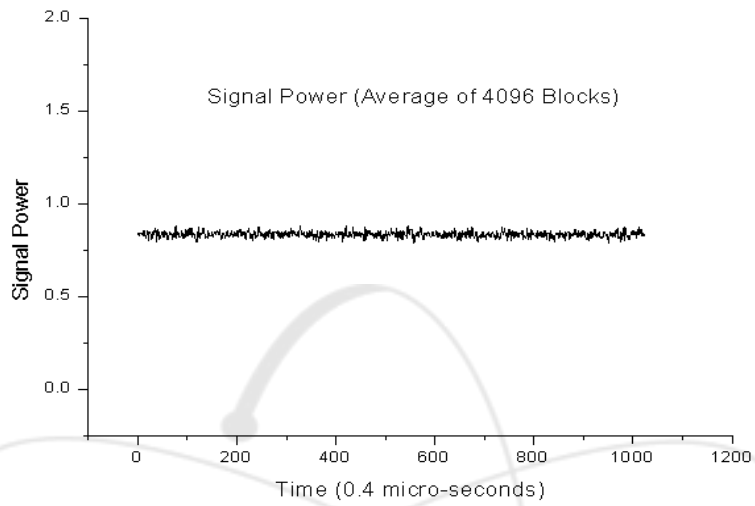


fig.3-16. Power of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 4096 blocks)

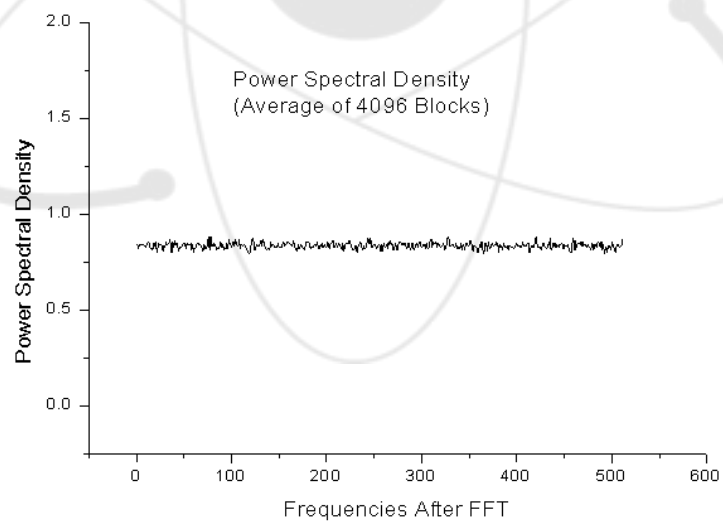


fig.3-17. Spectral power density of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 4096 blocks)

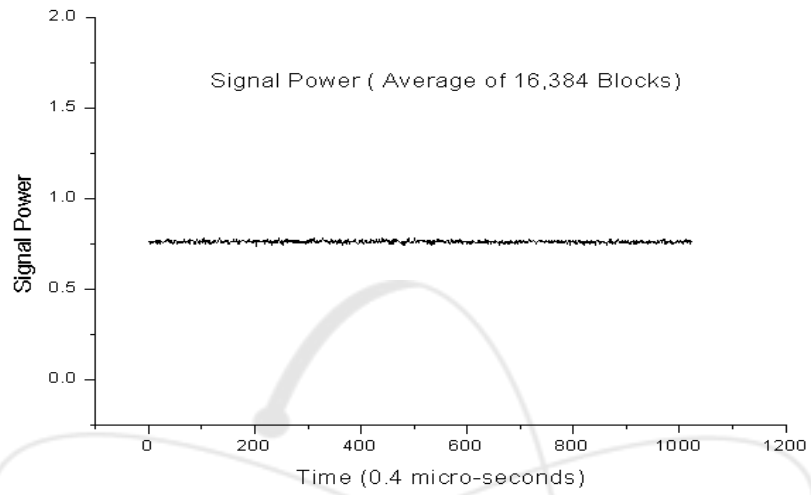


fig.3-18. Power of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 16,384 blocks)

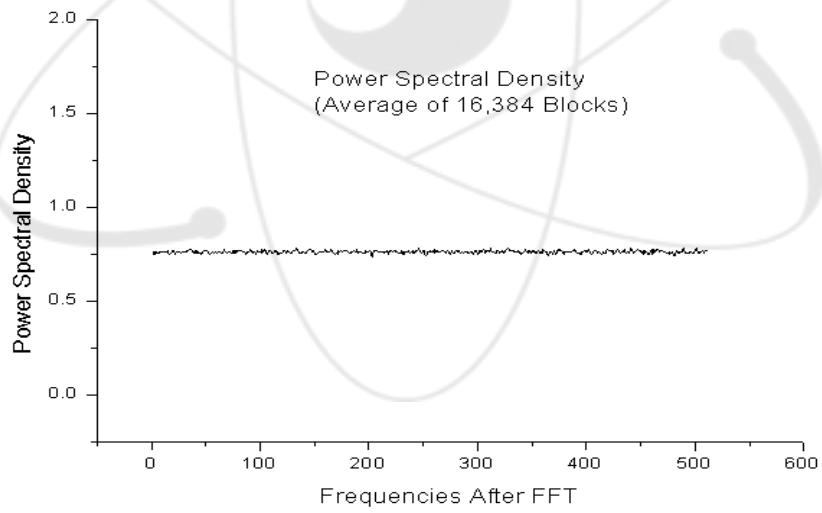


fig.3-19. Spectral power density of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 16,384 blocks)

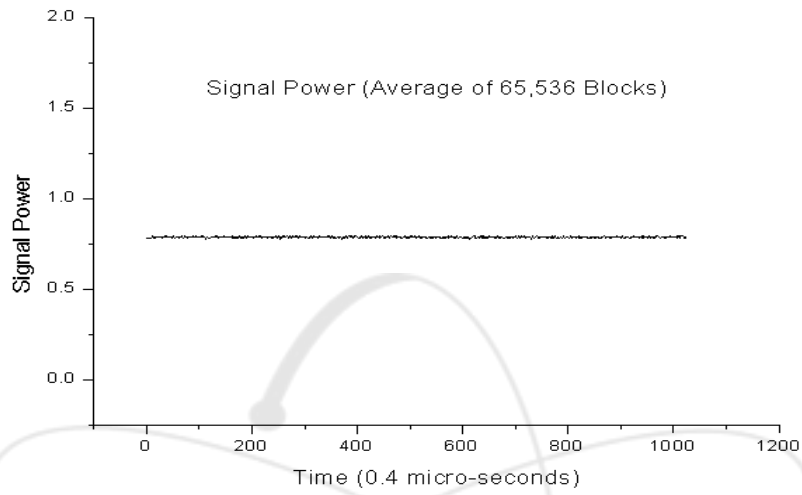


fig.3-20. Power of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 65,536 blocks)

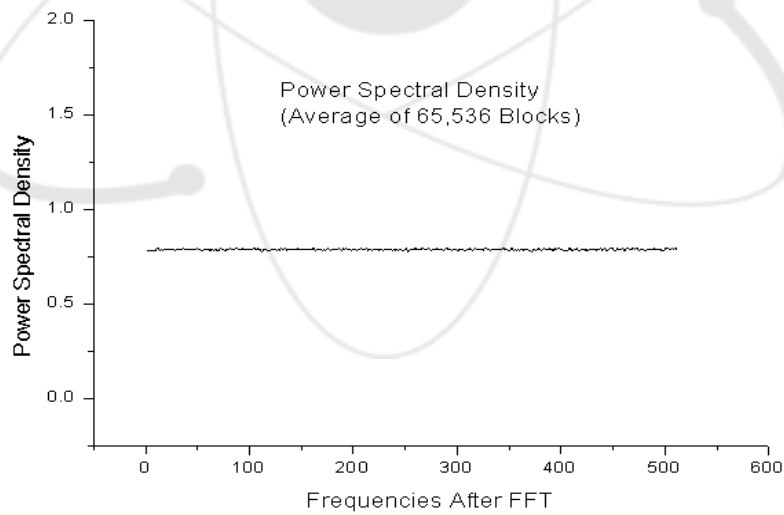


fig.3-21. Spectral power density of Johnson noise plus channel noise
(average of 65,536 blocks)

Table 3-2. Relative Error

No of Blocks	64	256	1024	4096	16384	65536
Min.	.1273	.0716	.0374	.0184	.0099	.0053
Max.	.1622	.0845	.0438	.0228	.0106	.0053
Avg.	.1448	.0781	.0406	.0206	.0103	.0053
Estim.	.1768	.0884	.0442	.0221	.0110	.0055

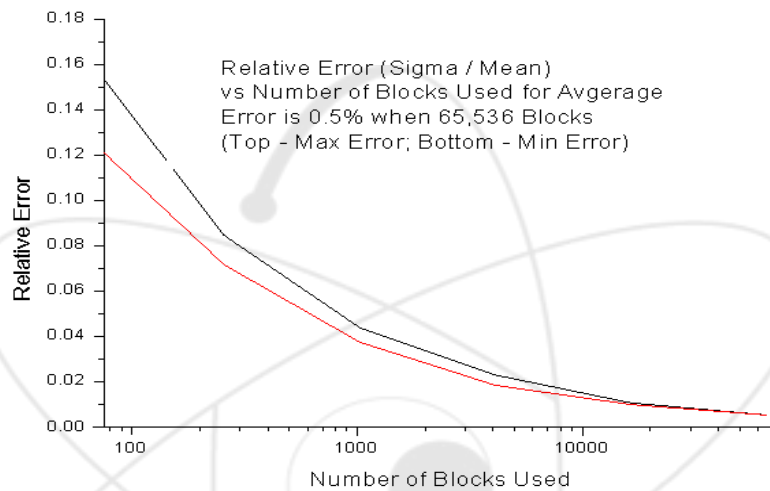


fig.3-22. Relative error of Johnson noise as the number of blocks increases
(Top curve – maximum error, bottom curve – minimum error)

As can be seen in the last column of Table3-2 and in fig.3-20 and fig.3-21, the relative error for the average of 65,536 blocks is 0.53% which is nearly the same as the theoretical estimate of 0.55%. By comparing the numbers in the last two rows, we conclude that if we had used enough data blocks so that we could have taken an average of $4 \times 65,536$ blocks, then we should be able to get 0.28%. We also conclude that the Johnson noise signal blocks satisfy the properties of the continuous Markov process even in the presence of some channel noise.

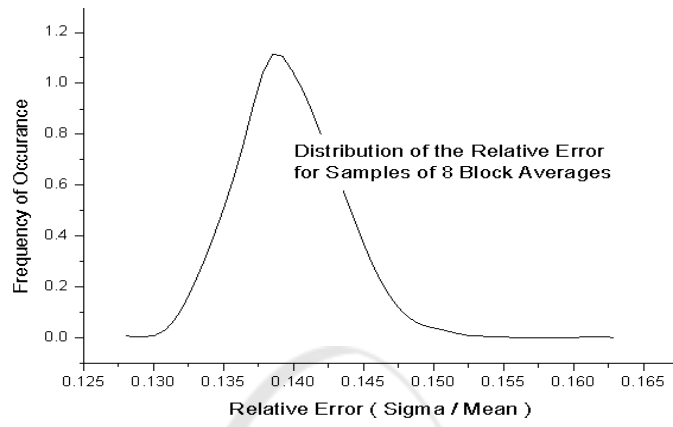


fig-3-23. Distribution of the relative error for the averages of 64 blocks



Chapter 4. Handling the Transient Temperature

1. Measurement Uncertainty

In this section, we describe the results of calculations performed to verify the error estimates (3) described in Chapter 1 and the results of an analysis to determine the amount of changes expected by replacing the averages by the moving averages. The two graphs in Fig.4-1 and the two graphs in fig.4-3 show an example on how the signal power changes as the number of blocks used in taking the averages increases. All of the two graphs in fig.4-1 and the two graphs in fig.4-3 show a random signal obtained by taking a sum of 1,024 single frequency signals with frequencies in the range $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$. The first graph in fig.4-1 is obtained by taking an average of 64 blocks, the second is an average of 1,024 blocks, the first in fig.4-3 is an average of 2^{14} blocks, and the second in fig.10 is an average of 2^{18} blocks. Each of the blocks consists of 1,024 sampled points and each point is sampled at $\frac{1}{3 \times 2^{20}}$ sec intervals. The two figures fig.4-2 and fig.4-3 show the corresponding power spectral density curves.

Table 4-1. Relative Error vs the Number of Blocks used for Averages (Sum of 2^{11} random signals)

No of Blocks	Average of Signal Power			Average of Spectral Power Density		
	Mean	Sigma	Sigma/Mean	Mean	Sigma	Sigma/Mean
64	340.802	58.702	0.17225	0.45070	0.06156	0.13658
1024	341.129	15.005	0.04399	0.45150	0.01515	0.03356
16384	341.309	3.7120	0.01088	0.45171	0.00396	0.00867
262144	341.298	0.7850	0.00230	0.45168	0.00122	0.00270

Table 4-2. Relative Error vs the Number of Blocks used for Averages (Sum of 2^{12} random signals)

No of Blocks	Average of Signal Power			Average of Spectral Power Density		
	Mean	Sigma	Sigma/Mean	Mean	Sigma	Sigma/Mean
64	685.194	124.93	0.18233	0.90625	0.12115	0.13367
1024	682.232	30.456	0.04664	0.90335	0.03092	0.03428
16384	682.104	7.209	0.01057	0.90268	0.00822	0.00911
262144	682.703	1.776	0.00260	0.90348	0.00316	0.00350

Table 4-1 shows a summary of the calculated results for random noise signals that are sums of 2,048 single frequency signals. A total of 262,144 blocks of 1,024 points each are generated and the means and sigmas for 64 blocks, 16×64 blocks, $16 \times 16 \times 64$ blocks, $16 \times 16 \times 16 \times 64$ blocks are shown. The relative errors defined as the ratio of sigma over the mean are shown in column 4 for the signal power, and in column 7 for the power spectral density. One can draw a conclusion from

these ratios that the relation (3) in Chapter 1 is true. It is apparent from Table 4-2 that the same holds for the case when the noise signals are sums of 4,096 single frequency signals.

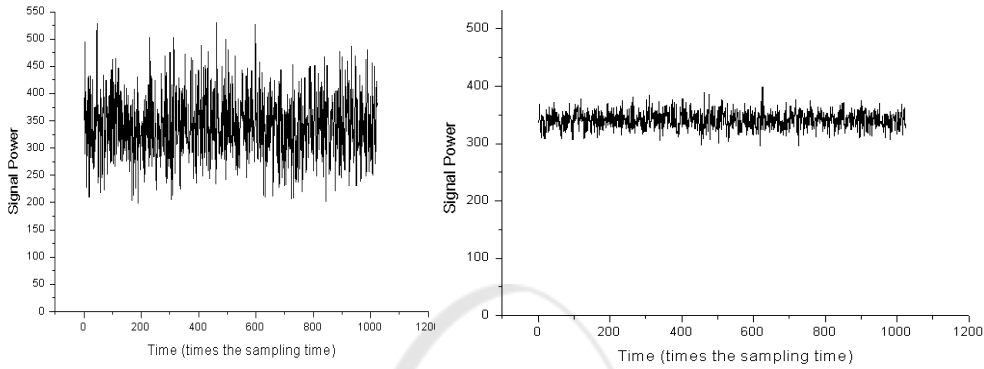


Fig.4-1. Signal Power (Left - Average of 2^6 Blocks; $\mu = 340.802, \sigma = 58.702$
Right - Average of 2^{10} Blocks; $\mu = 341.129, \sigma = 15.005$)

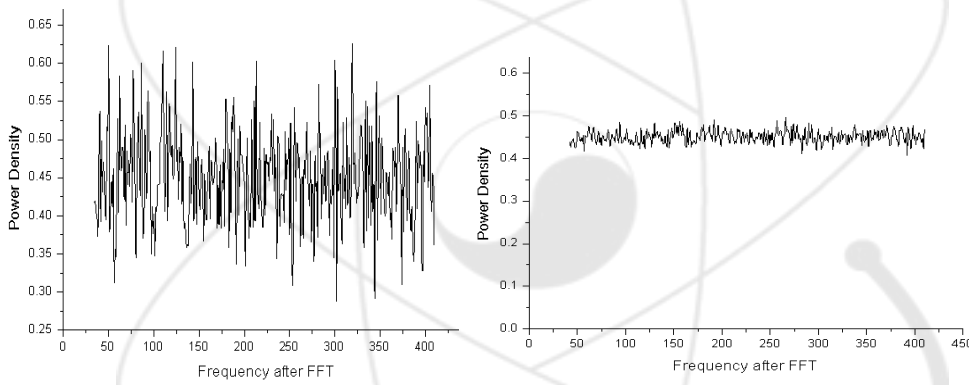


Fig.4-2. Power Density Spectrum (Left - Avg. of 2^6 Blocks; $\mu = 0.45070, \sigma = 0.06156$
Right - Avg. of 2^{10} Blocks; $\mu = 0.45116, \sigma = 0.01536$)

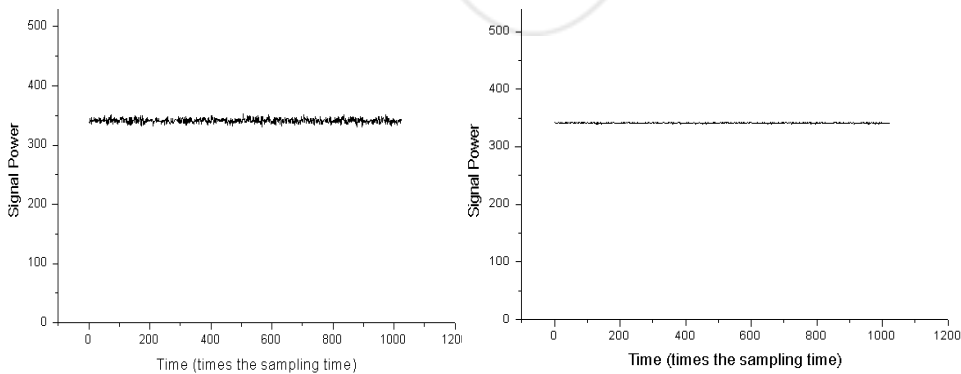


Fig.4-3. Signal Power (Left - Average of 2^{14} Blocks; $\mu = 341.309, \sigma = 3.712$
Right - Average of 2^{18} Blocks; $\mu = 341.298, \sigma = 0.785$)

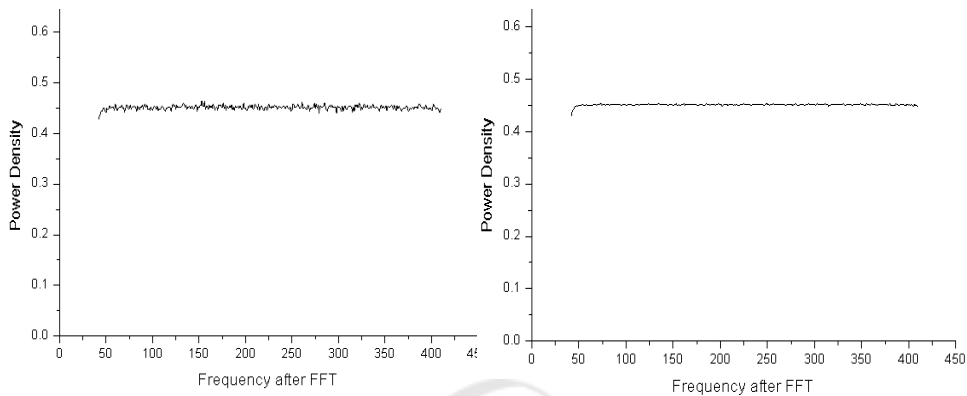


Fig.4-4. Power Density Spectrum (Left – Avg. of 2^{14} Blocks ; $\mu = 0.45144, \sigma = 0.00458$
 Right –Avg. of 2^{18} Blocks; $\mu = 0.45141, \sigma = 0.00271$)

The following four figures from fig.4-5 through fig.4-8 show another example of a random signal obtained by taking a sum of 2,048 single frequency signals with frequencies in the range $[3 \times 2^{15}, 1.2 \times 2^{20}]$. It is a sum of twice the number of single frequency signals used in the example shown in fig.4-1 through fig.4-4. The first graph in fig.4-5 is obtained by taking an average of 64 blocks, the second is an average of 1,024 blocks, the first in fig.4-7 is an average of 2^{14} blocks, and the second in fig.4-7 is an average of 2^{18} blocks. The two figures fig.4-6 and fig.4-8 show the corresponding power spectral density curves. Once again, we see that the relation (3) in Chapter 1 works well with this example.

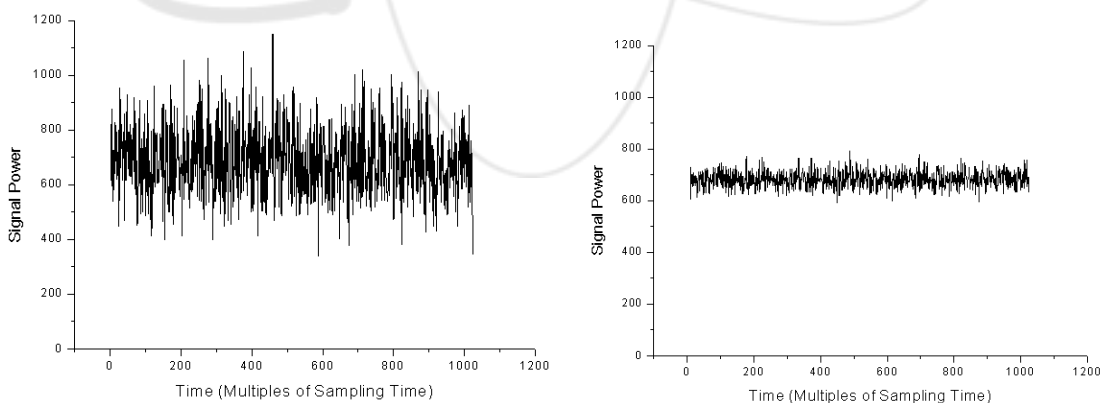


Fig.4-5. Signal Power (Left - Average of 2^6 Blocks ; $\mu = 685.194, \sigma = 124.93$
 Right –Average of 2^{10} Blocks; $\mu = 682.232, \sigma = 30.456$)

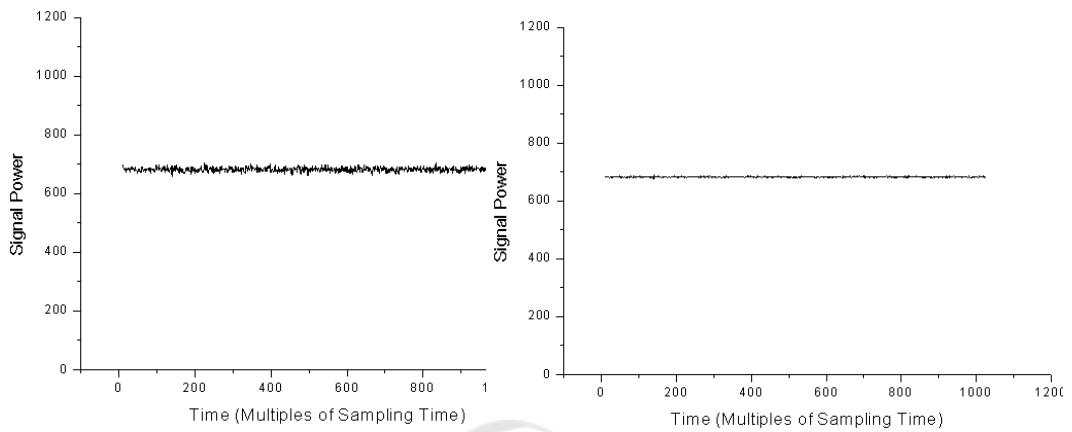


Fig.4-6. Signal Power (Left – Avg. of 2^{14} Blocks ; $\mu = 682.104, \sigma = 7.209$
 Right – Avg. of 2^{18} Blocks ; $\mu = 682.703, \sigma = 1.776$)

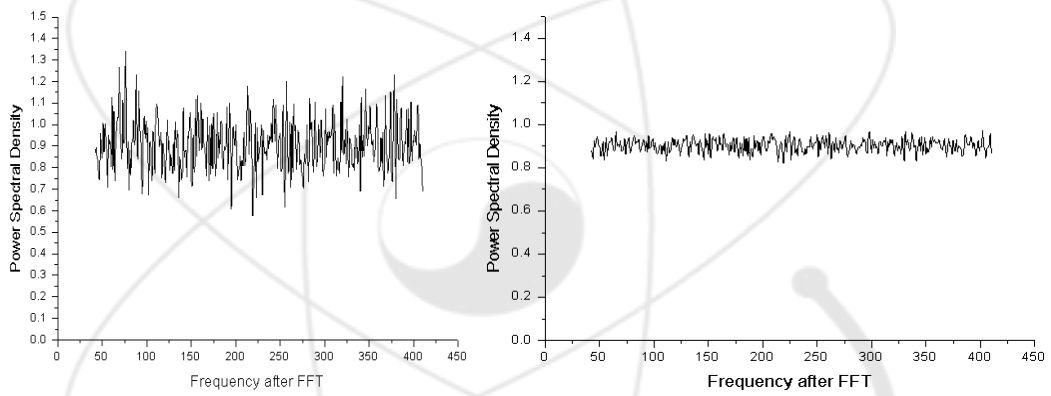


Fig.4-7. Power Density Spectrum (Left – Avg. of 2^8 Blocks ; $\mu = 0.90625, \sigma = 0.12115$
 Right – Avg. of 2^{10} Blocks ; $\mu = 0.90335, \sigma = 0.03092$)

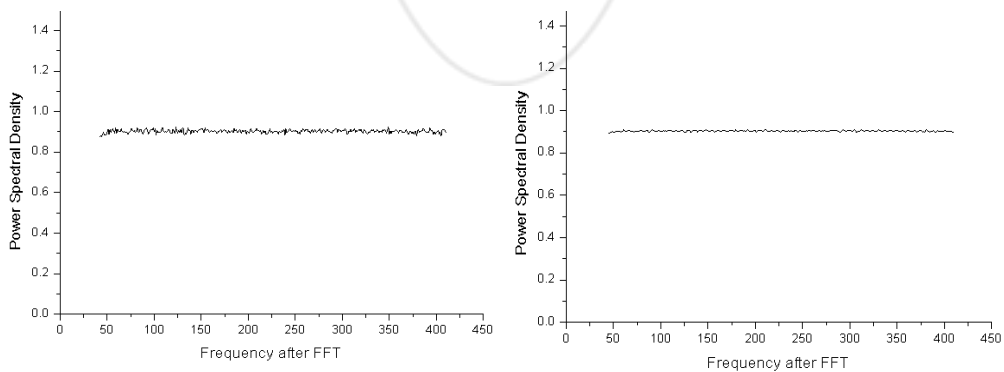


Fig.4-8. Power Density Spectrum (Left – Avg. of 2^{14} Blocks ; $\mu = 0.90268, \sigma = 0.00822$
 Right – Avg. of 2^{18} Blocks ; $\mu = 0.90348, \sigma = 0.00316$)

2. Moving Averages

We consider the problem of replacing the averages by the moving averages. As seen above, the high accuracy of the Johnson noise thermometer is achieved through taking a long average of the signal power. To obtain an accuracy of 0.28%, however, one quarter of a million blocks of samples are needed to be averaged so that a storage of $250,000 \times 1,024$ floating numbers (1GB) are needed to store the power spectral density obtained through FFT. To avoid this large storage area and to avoid the necessary I/O time, one must use a moving average algorithm.

Assume that we want to take an average of N terms in a time sequence $\{x_n\}$. Let a_{m-1} be the moving average using the values up through x_{m-1} . Then with the value x_m , the new average a_m will be computed by $a_m = (1-h)a_{m-1} + hx_m$, where $h = \frac{1}{N}$. Repeating the same, the next average is computed as $a_{m+1} = (1-h)^2 a_{m-1} + h(1-h)a_m + hx_{m+1}$. In general, we have

$$a_N = a_0 + h \sum_{i=1}^N (1-h)^{i-1} x_{N+1-i}$$

To compute how large is the contribution by $\{x_{-i} | i = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, we assume that the temperature is steady, i.e. $x_i = x_j$ for all i and j . Then the multiplier in the sum of the last N terms will be

$$h \sum_{i=1}^N \gamma^{i-1} = 1 - \gamma^N, \text{ where } \gamma = 1 - h.$$

Therefore, the remaining sum will be $\gamma^N = \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)^N$ whose limit as $N \rightarrow \infty$ is $e^{-1} = 0.36787944$. The results of sample calculations for $N=2^{10}$, 2^{16} , 2^{20} are; when $N=2^{10}$ we have $\gamma^N = 0.3677$, $\gamma^{5N} = 0.00672$, $\gamma^{6N} = 0.000247$, and when $N=2^{16}$, we have $\gamma^N = 0.3679$, $\gamma^{5N} = 0.00674$, $\gamma^{6N} = 0.000248$, and they are almost the same for $N=2^{20}$. The coefficients of x_N , $x_{N-2^{13}}$, $x_{N-2 \times 2^{13}}$, $x_{N-7 \times 2^{13}}$, $x_{N-8 \times 2^{13}}$ are found to be $0.152588E-4$, $0.118835E-4$, $0.104872E-4$, $0.925489E-5$, $0.816740E-5$, $0.720770E-5$, $0.636077E-5$, and $0.561472E-5$ respectively. The ratio of the $65,536^{\text{th}}$ coefficient relative to the most recent is 0.3678822 , i.e. about 36%. Thus, we conclude that if we use four to five times larger number of blocks, then we can achieve nearly the same accuracy by using the moving averages provided that the temperature is steady.

A sample calculated result is shown in fig.4-9. The left hand side graph shows the signal power for a sum of 2^{11} random single frequency signals and it corresponds to the right hand side graph of fig.4-1. We can say that the means and sigmas are the same and the slight difference comes from the fact that the temperature is measured at different times. The right hand side graph of fig.4-9 corresponds to the right side graph of fig.4-3. Note that the sigma in fig.4-3 is 0.785 while the

sigma in fig.4-9 is 1.645 about twice of the one in fig.4-3. Therefore, we need to take moving averages about 4 times more blocks than the case of ordinary averages, which is what we have claimed above.

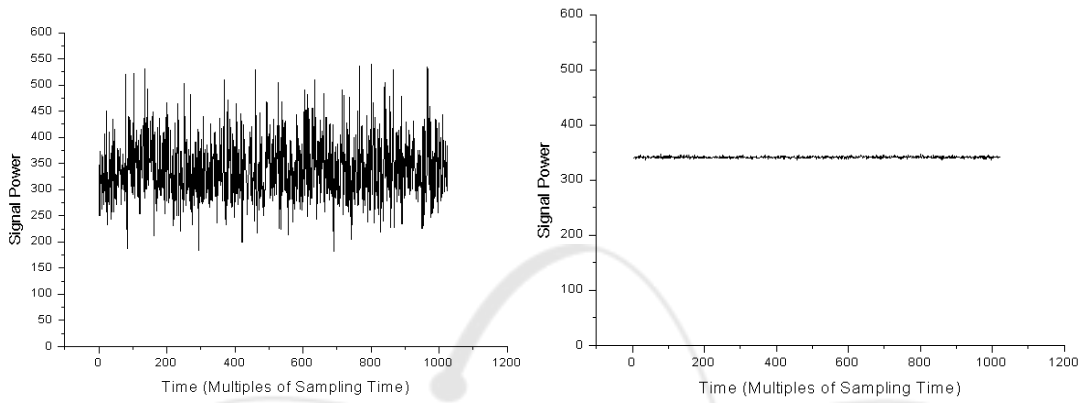


Fig.4-9. Signal Power (Left - Average of 2^6 Blocks ; $\mu = 341.346, \sigma = 59.138$
 Right -Moving Avg. of 2^{18} Blocks; $\mu = 341.349, \sigma = 1.645$)

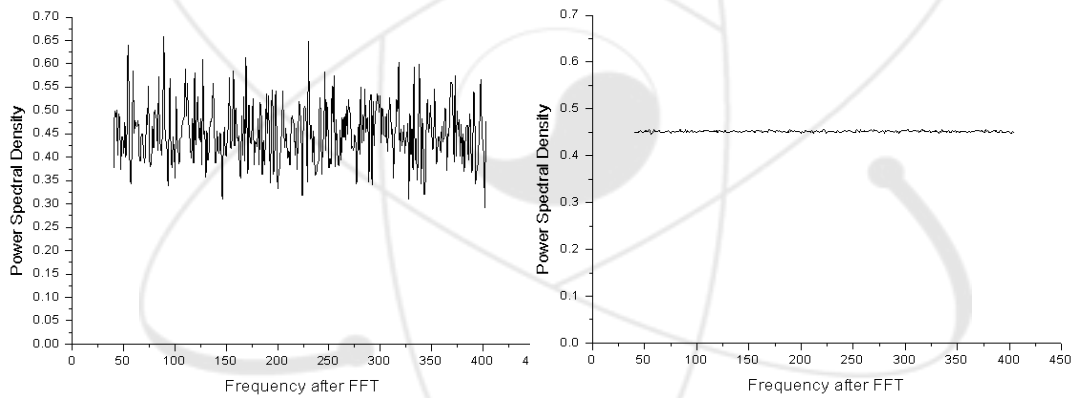


Fig.4-10. Power Density Spectrum (Left - Avg. of 2^6 Blocks ; $\mu = 0.451840, \sigma = 0.06324$
 Right -Moving Avg. of 2^{18} Blocks; $\mu = 0.45181, \sigma = 0.00191$)

3. Handling the Transient Temperature by the Haar Wavelet

In this section, we describe how the multi-resolution analysis using the Haar wavelet can be used to compute the transient temperature where the long-term average is not appropriate due to the increase or decrease of the temperature value. We show that the approximation based on the Haar wavelet picks up a trend curve when it is applied to a band pass filtered sinusoidal signal. Hence, the temperature trend can be determined from the Haar approximation of the power of the Johnson noise.

In the following, we consider the multi-resolution analysis (MRA) [14,15] of a function to be a successive approximation of the function, and similarly we will consider the discrete wavelet transformation (DWT) of a function to be a successive approximation of the function based on the wavelet. The Haar wavelet decomposition of a continuous function $f(t)$ on $[0,1]$ is defined[17] as follows; Let $x_i = ih, I=0,1,2,\dots, 2^n$ where $h = 2^{-n}$ and let

$$f_k(t) = 2^k \int_{2^{-k}\ell}^{2^{-k}(\ell+1)} f(\tau) d\tau, \quad 2^{-k}\ell \leq t \leq 2^{-k}(\ell+1) \quad \text{-----} \quad (1)$$

for $\ell = 0,1,2,\dots, 2^k - 1$. Note that the function $f_k(t)$ is constant on every subinterval of length 2^{-k} starting from 0. Let the scaling function of the Haar wavelet be

$$\varphi(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq t \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{-----} \quad (2)$$

If we define

$$c(k, \ell) = 2^k \int_{2^{-k}\ell}^{2^{-k}(\ell+1)} f(t) dt \quad \text{-----} \quad (3)$$

Then the function $f_k(t)$ can be written as

$$f_k(t) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{2^k} c(k, \ell) \varphi(2^k t - \ell) \quad \text{-----} \quad (4)$$

and it is routine to check that the multi-resolution relation [16] becomes

$$c(k-1, \ell) = \frac{1}{2} (c(k, 2\ell) + c(k, 2\ell+1)) \quad \text{-----} \quad (5)$$

For the wavelet transformation, we define

$$g_{k-1}(t) = f_{k-1}(t) - f_k(t) \quad \text{-----} \quad (6)$$

and the Haar wavelet $\psi(t)$ as $\psi(t) = \phi(2t) - \phi(2t-1)$. Then we can write

$$g_{k-1}(t) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{2^k} d(k-1, \ell) \psi(2^k t - \ell) \quad \text{-----} \quad (7)$$

where the coefficients satisfy

$$d(k-1, \ell) = \frac{1}{2}(c(k, 2\ell+1) - c(k, 2\ell)) \quad \text{-----} \quad (8)$$

In the following, we prove that the approximation of a sinusoidal signal in a fixed frequency band by the 4th step of the multi-resolution analysis using the Haar wavelet reduces the amplitude of the oscillation to less than 15% of the original.

Lemma 8. Let m and N be positive integers such that N is divisible by 256, i.e. $N=256N_1$. If $\frac{3}{16} \leq \frac{m}{N} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and if $m = m_0N_1 + m_1$ where $0 \leq m_1 < N_1$, then we have $48 \leq m_0 \leq 127$.

Proof. From $\frac{3}{16} \leq \frac{m_0N_1 + m_1}{2^8 N_1} < \frac{1}{2}$, we have $3 \times 2^4 N_1 \leq m_0N_1 + m_1 < 2^8 N_1$. Hence, by dividing the above by N_1 , we obtain $3 \times 2^4 \leq m_0 + \frac{m_1}{N_1} < 2^8$. Now, note that $0 \leq \frac{m_1}{N_1} < 1$ and hence $3 \times 2^4 \leq m_0 + \frac{m_1}{N_1}$ if and only if $48 \leq m_0$. Q.E.D.

Next, we define $S(\ell) = \frac{1}{16} \sum_{k=1}^{16} k^\ell \sin\left(\frac{mk\pi}{128}\right)$ and $C(\ell) = \frac{1}{16} \sum_{k=1}^{16} k^\ell \cos\left(\frac{mk\pi}{128}\right)$, for $\ell = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, then by direct calculations, we have the following.

Lemma 9. If $S(\ell)$ and $C(\ell)$ are as defined above, then for all integers m with $48 \leq m \leq 127$, we have $|S(0)|, |C(0)| \leq 0.1$, $|S(1)|, |C(1)| \leq 1.0$, $|S(2)|, |C(2)| \leq 15$, $|S(3)|, |C(3)| \leq 250$, and $|S(4)|, |C(4)| \leq 4000$.

Lemma 10. If $0 \leq x < 0.5$, then $\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} \leq \frac{x^n}{n!} (1 + 3x)$.

Theorem 3. If m and N are positive integers with $N = 256N_1$ and if $\frac{3}{16} \leq \frac{m}{N} \leq \frac{1}{2}$, then we have $\left| \frac{1}{16} \sum_{k=1}^{16} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi mk}{N}\right) \right| \leq 0.15$.

Proof. Let $m = m_0N_1 + m_1$ and write $\sin\left(\frac{2\pi mk}{N}\right)$ as $\sin\left(\frac{\pi m_0 k}{128} + \frac{\pi m_1 k}{128N_1}\right)$. Note that we have $48 \leq m_0 \leq 127$ by Lemma 8. Let $\alpha = \frac{\pi m_0}{128}$ and $\beta = \frac{\pi m_1}{128N_1}$, then $\beta \leq \frac{1}{40}$. Now, using

$\sin(\alpha k + \beta k) = \sin(\alpha k)\cos(\beta k) + \cos(\alpha k)\sin(\beta k)$ which is equal to

$$\sin(\alpha k) \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{\ell} \frac{(\beta k)^{2\ell}}{(2\ell)!} + \cos(\beta k) \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{\ell} \frac{(\beta k)^{2\ell+1}}{(2\ell+1)!}.$$

Therefore, we can write

$$\left| \frac{1}{16} \sum_{k=1}^{16} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi mk}{N}\right) \right| \leq |C(0)| + |S(1)| + \frac{\beta^2}{2!} |C(2)| + \frac{\beta^3}{3!} |S(3)| + \frac{\beta^4}{4!} |C(4)| + \left| \sum_{\ell=5}^{\infty} \frac{(\beta k)^{\ell}}{(2\ell)!} \right|.$$

Now, by using Lemma 9 and Lemma 10, it is routine to check that the last sum is less than or equal to 0.15. Q.E.D.

Corollary 1. If $f(t)$ is a signal with mean zero, sampled at a rate of N samples per second, band pass filtered with lower limit greater than $\frac{3}{16}N$ and upper limit frequency below $\frac{N}{2}$, then the maximum amplitude of the 4th step Haar approximation of $f(t)$ is below 15% of the original amplitude.

Fig.18 shows an example of a stationary Johnson noise signal power and its approximation, where the oscillating curve with the larger amplitude is the original and the curve in the middle is the approximated. Fig.19 shows an example where the temperature is increasing.

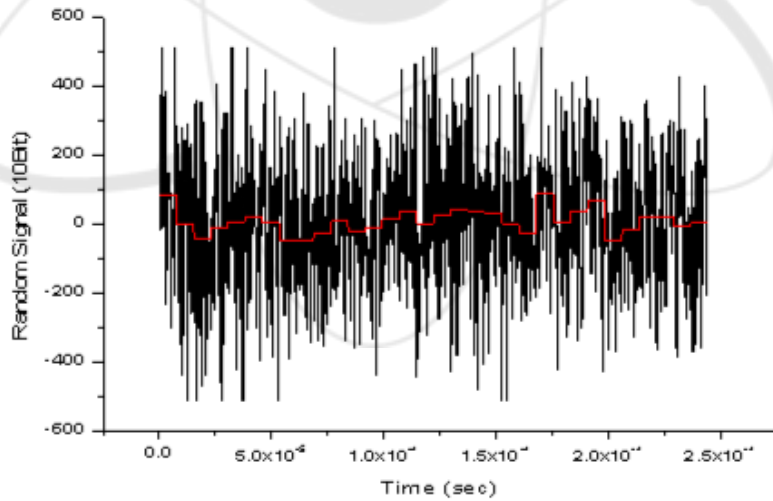


fig.4-11. Stationary Johnson Noise Signal Power with an Haar Approximation

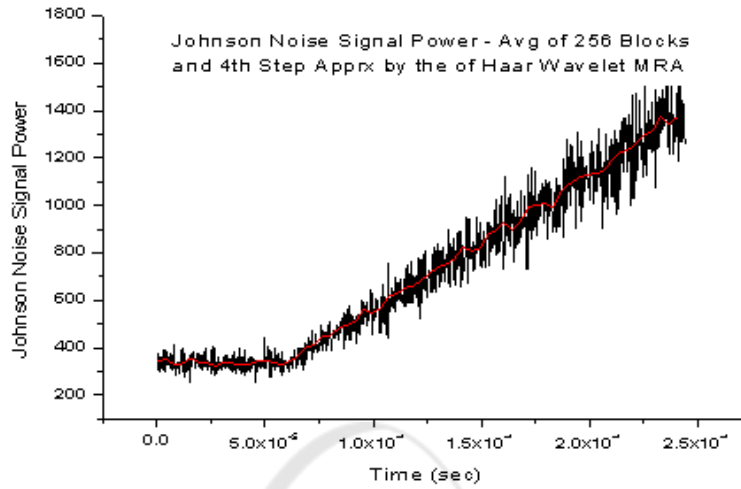
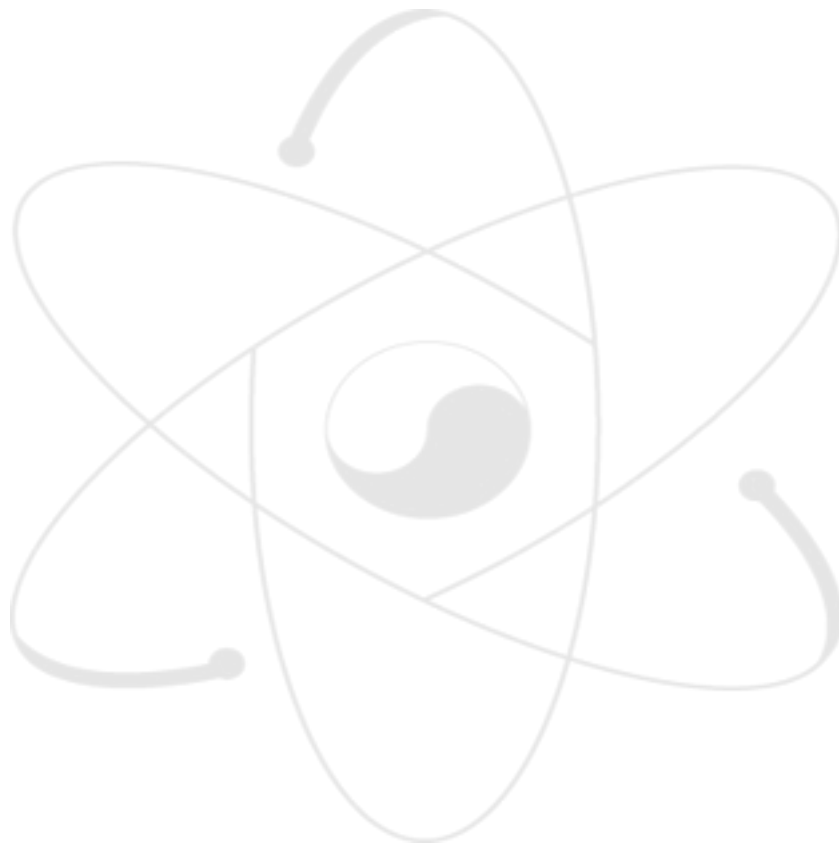


fig.4-12. Transient Johnson Noise Signal Power with an Haar Approximation

4. Accuracy vs the Processing Time

In this section, we consider how much time is needed to compute the long-term averages of the cross- power spectral density. Assume that we need an accuracy of 0.28% that is equal to $\sqrt{\frac{2}{250000}}$ so that the number of blocks required is one quarter of a million by (3). We further assume that the sampling rate is $\frac{1}{2^{24}}$ sec, which is practically the fastest A/D conversion time currently assuming that 12bit accuracy is used. The largest number of blocks that can be sampled in 1 second would then be 2^{14} so that sampling 2^{18} blocks (one quarter of a million blocks) would require 16seconds. On the other hand, for the process time whose major component is the FFT algorithm, we need to compute the time required to do one FFT algorithm. To do an FFT of 1024 points, one can count easily that there are 75,796 multiplications or divisions, 95,282 additions or subtractions, and 20,480 evaluations of the Cosine or Sine function. With a 2.8GHz Pentium-IV processor using FORTRAN, one can perform 10^8 multiplications, 44×10^8 additions, about 10^7 evaluations of the Sine or Cosine function separately with no type conversions of variables such as from integer to real is used. Therefore, using these one can compute that an FFT takes $20,480 \times 10^{-7} + 75,796 \times 10^{-8} + 95,282 \times 10^{-8} / 4.4 = 0.00302$ sec, so that about 330 FFT's can be performed in 1 second. In our development, we will be using Xilinx gate arrays so that more FFT's can be performed in 1 second. How many FFT's can be done in 1 second will depend not only on the number of gates used but also on the type of gate arrays. Note that no matter how fast the

FPGA's would do the FFT, the limit of 16 seconds sampling time would still be there. However, for nuclear power plant applications, the maximum RCS temperature change during the normal operation is 27°C/hr ($0.008^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{sec}=0.48^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{Min}$) due to the operation limit specified in the technical specification. Note that 0.48°C is below 0.28% of 310°C and hence the change in 1 minute is within the accuracy range of our Johnson noise thermometer.



Chapter 5. Conclusion

We have shown that a random signal of the form $\sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} \text{Sin}(2\pi f_{\alpha} t + b_{\alpha})$ where a_{α} being a random number in $[0,1]$, f_{α} a random integer in a given frequency band, and b_{α} a random number in $[0,2\pi]$, generates a continuous Markov process and hence it is a Gaussian white noise so that the Johnson noise can be simulated using the random signal. Through a statistical analysis on this continuous Markov process, we verified that the Johnson noise thermometry can be used to improve the measurements of the reactor coolant temperature within an accuracy of below 0.14%, provided that the necessary computation speed can be achieved by using FPGA's. Using this random signal, we were able to determine the optimal sampling rate assuming the frequency band of the Johnson noise signal is given. Also we were able to see how good the linearity of the Johnson noise is and how large the relative error of the temperature would become when the temperature increases.

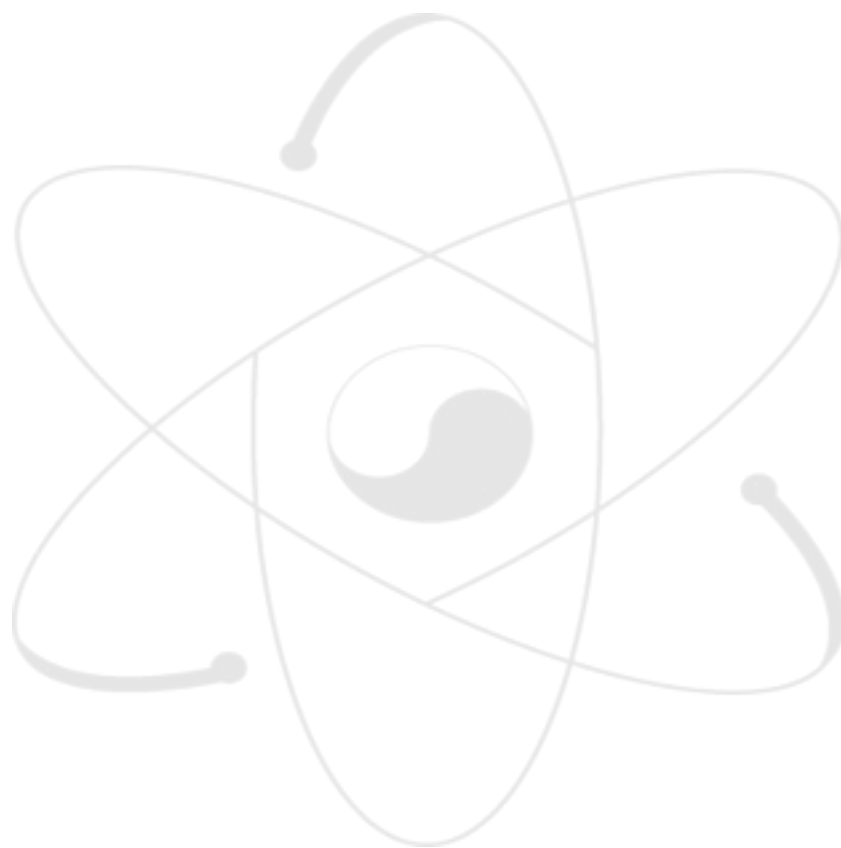
We have also verified through experiments that the Johnson noise satisfies the properties of the continuous Markov process even in the presence of some channel noise. Thus, we do not have to eliminate the channel noise. Instead, the channel noise must be lowered to a level of the desired accuracy, i.e. the ratio between the channel noise power and the signal power must be maintained within the desired accuracy of say 0.14%.

Finally, we examined how to handle the problem of the long-term average or the moving average in a transient state. Note that the long-term average of the Johnson noise power will make the measured temperature change very slowly. Assuming that we sample 4 million points per second, we need 64 seconds to take 250,000 blocks of 1,024 points which is equivalent to 0.28% accuracy. Thus, we devised an algorithm based on the Haar wavelet to estimate the transient temperature that has much smaller time delay and have shown that the algorithm will track the ambient temperature successfully.

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Attachment 1. Program for Generating Noise Signals

```
C
C      WRITTEN BY B.S.MOON, NOV.30, 2002
C
      PROGRAM RANDFN
      COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
      COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
      DIMENSION XREAL(1024), AMPL(1024), XIMAG(1024)
      DIMENSION CUMVAL2(1024,16,16,16), CUMFRQ2(377,16,16,16)
      DIMENSION VALINT3(1024,16,16), FRQINT3(377,16,16)
      DIMENSION VALINT2(1024,16), FRQINT2(377,16)
      DIMENSION VALINT1(1024), FRQINT1(1024)
      CHARACTER*8 BUF
      DATA PI / 3.141592653589 /

C
C      THE ABOVE DIMENSION MUST BE GREATER THAN or EQUAL THE VALUE OF 'N'
C      N IS THE NUMBER OF DATA POINTS; MUST BE OF 2**NU
C      NU IS LOG ( BASE 2 ) OF N = GAMMA IN BRIGHAM'S TEXT BOOK
C
      OPEN( 6,FILE='V1801A.DAT')
      OPEN( 7,FILE='F1801A.DAT')
      OPEN( 8,FILE='S1801A.DAT')

      OPEN(16,FILE='V1802A.DAT')
      OPEN(17,FILE='F1802A.DAT')

      OPEN(26,FILE='V1803A.DAT')
      OPEN(27,FILE='F1803A.DAT')

      OPEN(36,FILE='V1804A.DAT')
      OPEN(37,FILE='F1804A.DAT')

      OPEN(99,FILE='DEBUG.DAT')

      NU      = 10                ! USED TO BE 10
      STIME   = 1./ (3* 2.**20)   ! SAMPLING TIME
      TIMES   = 0.                ! START TIME

      N       = 2.**NU
      ITEMPR  = 2**18             ! DETERMINES TEMPERATURE

      ILOW    = 3 * 2**15        ! LOWER BOUND FREQ
      IUPP    = 1.2* 2**20       ! UPPER BOUND FREQ

      DO 100 J = 1, 1024
      XJ(J) = (J-1) * STIME
100      CONTINUE
C
C      GENERATE THE SEED FOR RANDOM NUMBERS
C
      CALL TIME ( BUF )
10      WRITE(99,10) BUF
      FORMAT( A8 )
      REWIND 99
```



```

C
    READ(99,20) I HOUR, MIN, I SEC
20    FORMAT(I2,1X,I2,1X,I2)

        ISTART = I HOUR*3600 + MIN*60 + I SEC
        CALL SEED( ISTART )

C
        DO 9900 LOOPL = 1, 1    !16
        DO 9000 LOOPM = 1, 1    ! 16
        DO 8000 LOOPS = 1, 16
            DO 7000  INDX = 1, 64

C
C    INITIALIZE THE ARRAY
C
        DO 200 J = 1, N
            XREAL(J) = 0
            XIMAG(J) = 0
200    CONTINUE

C    GENERATE THE RANDOM SIGNAL DATA AND COMPUTE FORURIER TRANSFORM
C    VMAG2 COMPUTED BY GENFUN
C    FMAG2 COMPUTED BY FFT
C
        CALL GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL )
        CALL  FFT  ( XREAL )
        PRINT *, LOOPL, LOOPM, LOOPS, INDX

C
C    COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF CROSS POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY
C
        SUM2 = 0
        DO 500 K = 1, 1024
            SUM2 = SUM2 + VMAG2(K)
500    CONTINUE
        VMEAN2 = SUM2 / 1024

        SUM4 = 0
        DO 550 K = 1, 1024
            SUM4 = SUM4 + ( VMAG2(K) - VMEAN2) **2
550    CONTINUE
        VSIGMA = SQRT( SUM4 / 1023 )

        SUM2 = 0
        DO 600 K = 34, 410
            SUM2 = SUM2 + FMAG2(K)    ! FMAG2 IS COMPUTED IN FFT
600    CONTINUE
        FMEAN2 = SUM2 / 377

C
        SUM4 = 0
        DO 650 K = 34, 410    ! 1, 512
            SUM4 = SUM4 + ( FMAG2(K) - FMEAN2) **2
650    CONTINUE
        FSIGMA = SQRT( SUM4 / 376 )

C
        WRITE(6,50) LOOPL,LOOPM,LOOPS,INDX,VMEAN2,VSIGMA
C        WRITE(7,50) LOOPL,LOOPM,LOOPS,INDX,FMEAN2,FSIGMA

50    FORMAT( 4I4, 2E15.8 )

```

```

C
C SAVE THE COMPUTED RESULTS FOR LONG AVERAGES
C
      DO 700 K = 1, 1024
          CUMVAL2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL) =
700      1      CUMVAL2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL) + VMAG2(K) / 64
          CONTINUE

      DO 750 K = 1, 377
          CUMFRQ2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL) =
750      1      CUMFRQ2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL) + FMAG2(K+ 33) / 64
          CONTINUE

7000      CONTINUE
C
C SAVE THE RESULTS & COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF 1024 BLOCKS
C
      IF ( LOOPS .EQ. 1 .AND. LOOPM .EQ. 1 .AND.
1          LOOPL .EQ. 1) THEN
          WRITE(6,60) ( CUMVAL2(K,1,1,1), K=1,1024 )
          WRITE(7,65) ( CUMFRQ2(K,1,1,1), K=1, 377 )
          ENDIF
60      FORMAT( 8F9.3 )
65      FORMAT( 8F9.5 )

      CALL STAT(CUMVAL2(1,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL),1024,VMEAN2,VSIGMA)
C          SUM2V = 0
C          DO 1200 K = 1, 1024
C              SUM2V = SUM2V + CUMVAL2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL)
C1200      CONTINUE
C          VMEAN2 = SUM2V / 1024

C          SUM4V = 0
C          DO 1250 K = 1, 1024
C              SUM4V = SUM4V+(CUMVAL2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL)-VMEAN2)**2
C1250      CONTINUE
C          VSIGMA = SQRT( SUM4V / 1023 )
C
C          FREQUENCY DOMAIN
C
      CALL STAT(CUMFRQ2(1,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL),377,FMEAN2,FSIGMA)
C          SUM2F = 0
C          DO 1300 K = 1, 377
C              SUM2F = SUM2F + CUMFRQ2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL)
C1300      CONTINUE
C          FMEAN2 = SUM2F / 377

C          SUM4F = 0
C          DO 1350 K = 1, 377
C              SUM4F = SUM4F+(CUMFRQ2(K,LOOPS,LOOPM,LOOPL)-FMEAN2)**2
C1350      CONTINUE
C          FSIGMA = SQRT( SUM4F / 376 )

      WRITE(8,90) LOOPS, VMEAN2, VSIGMA, FMEAN2, FSIGMA
90      FORMAT( I5, 4E15.8 )
8000      CONTINUE          ! END OF LOOPS
C
C COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C

```

```

                DO 2100 K = 1, 1024
                    VALINT3(K,LOOPM,LOOPL) = 0
2100          CONTINUE

                DO 2500 L = 1, 16          ! L=LOOPS
                DO 2200 K = 1, 1024
                    VALINT3(K,LOOPM,LOOPL) = VALINT3(K,LOOPM,LOOPL) +
1              CUMVAL2(K,L,LOOPM,LOOPL) / 16
2200          CONTINUE
2500          CONTINUE
C
                DO 2600 K = 1, 377
                    FRQINT3(K,LOOPM,LOOPL) = 0
2600          CONTINUE

                DO 2800 L = 1, 16          ! L=LOOPS
                DO 2700 K = 1, 377
                    FRQINT3(K,LOOPM,LOOPL) = FRQINT3(K,LOOPM,LOOPL) +
1              CUMFRQ2(K,L,LOOPM,LOOPL) / 16
2700          CONTINUE
2800          CONTINUE

                IF ( LOOPM .EQ. 1 .AND. LOOPL .EQ. 1 ) THEN
                CALL STAT ( VALINT3, 1024, VMEAN, VSIGMA )
                CALL STAT ( FRQINT3, 377, FMEAN, FSIGMA )
                WRITE(16,60) VMEAN, VSIGMA
                WRITE(16,60) ( VALINT3(K,1,1), K=1,1024 )
                WRITE(17,65) FMEAN, FSIGMA
                WRITE(17,65) ( FRQINT3(K,1,1), K=1, 377 )
                ENDIF

9000          CONTINUE ! END OF LOOPM
C
C          COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
                DO 3100 J = 1, 1024
                    VALINT2(J,LOOPL) = 0
3100          CONTINUE

                DO 3500 K = 1, 16          ! L=LOOPS
                DO 3200 J = 1, 1024
                    VALINT2(J,LOOPL) = VALINT2(J,LOOPL) +
1              VALINT3(J,K,LOOPL) / 16
3200          CONTINUE
3500          CONTINUE
C
                DO 3600 K = 1, 377
                    FRQINT2(K,LOOPL) = 0
3600          CONTINUE

                DO 3800 K = 1, 16          ! L=LOOPS
                DO 3700 J = 1, 377
                    FRQINT2(J,LOOPL) = FRQINT2(J,LOOPL) +
1              FRQINT3(J,K,LOOPL) / 16
3700          CONTINUE
3800          CONTINUE

                IF ( LOOPL .EQ. 1 ) THEN
                CALL STAT ( VALINT2, 1024, VMEAN, VSIGMA )

```

```

CALL STAT ( FRQINT2, 377, FMEAN, FSIGMA )
WRITE(26,60) VMEAN, VSIGMA
WRITE(26,60) ( VALINT2(K,1), K=1,1024 )
WRITE(27,65) FMEAN, FSIGMA
WRITE(27,65) ( FRQINT2(K,1), K=1, 377 )
ENDIF

9900 CONTINUE ! END OF LOOPL
C
C COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
DO 4100 J = 1, 1024
VALINT1(J) = 0
4100 CONTINUE

DO 4500 K = 1, 16
DO 4200 J = 1, 1024
VALINT1(J) = VALINT1(J) + VALINT2(J,K) / 16
4200 CONTINUE
4500 CONTINUE
C
DO 4600 K = 1, 377
FRQINT1(K) = 0
4600 CONTINUE

DO 4800 K = 1, 16
DO 4700 J = 1, 377
FRQINT1(J) = FRQINT1(J) + FRQINT2(J,K) / 16
4700 CONTINUE
4800 CONTINUE

CALL STAT ( VALINT1, 1024, VMEAN, VSIGMA )
CALL STAT ( FRQINT1, 377, FMEAN, FSIGMA )
WRITE(36,60) VMEAN, VSIGMA
WRITE(36,60) ( VALINT1(K), K=1,1024 )
WRITE(37,65) FMEAN, FSIGMA
WRITE(37,65) ( FRQINT1(K), K=1, 377 )

STOP
END

SUBROUTINE FFT( XREAL )
COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
DIMENSION XREAL(1), AMPL(1024), XIMAG(1024)
DATA PI / 3.141592653589 /

C
C BOX #2 IN FIG. 8.6
C
N2 = N / 2
NU1 = NU - 1
K = 0

C
C BOX #4, #5, #6
C
DO 300 L = 1, NU

100 CONTINUE

```

```

DO 200 I = 1, N2
    DIVIDE = 2.**NU1
    J = K / DIVIDE
    ARG = 2*PI * IBITR(J,NU) / N
    C = COS(ARG)
    S = SIN(ARG)
    K1 = K + 1
    K1N2 = K1 + N2
    TREAL = XREAL(K1N2) * C + XIMAG(K1N2) * S
    TIMAG = XIMAG(K1N2) * C - XREAL(K1N2) * S
    XREAL(K1N2) = XREAL(K1) - TREAL
    XIMAG(K1N2) = XIMAG(K1) - TIMAG
    XREAL( K1) = XREAL(K1) + TREAL
    XIMAG( K1) = XIMAG(K1) + TIMAG
    K = K + 1
200 CONTINUE
C
    K = K + N2
    IF (K .LT. N ) GO TO 100
    K = 0
    NU1 = NU1 - 1
    N2 = N2 / 2
300 CONTINUE
C
C
C
    DO 500 K = 1, N
        J = K - 1
        I = IBITR(J,NU) + 1
        IF ( I .LE. K ) GO TO 500
        TREAL = XREAL(K)
        TIMAG = XIMAG(K)
        XREAL(K) = XREAL(I) / DIVIDE
        XIMAG(K) = XIMAG(I) / DIVIDE
        XREAL(I) = TREAL / DIVIDE
        XIMAG(I) = TIMAG / DIVIDE
500 CONTINUE
C
C DIVIDE BY 2**NU TO OBTAIN PROPER AMPLITUDE
C
    DIVIDE = 2.**NU
    SUM2 = 0
    DO 600 K = 1, N
        XREAL(K) = XREAL(K) / DIVIDE
        XIMAG(K) = XIMAG(K) / DIVIDE
        FMAG2(K) = XREAL(K)**2 + XIMAG(K)**2
600 CONTINUE

    RETURN
    END

C
C TO GENERATE DATA FOR TESTING FFT ALGORITHM
C

```

```

SUBROUTINE GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL )

COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
DIMENSION XREAL(1)
REAL RAND

DATA TWOPI / 6.283185307 /
F(X) = AMPL * SIN( WN1*X + ALPH )

C

DO 1000 LOOP = 1, ITEMPR

RAND1 = RAND ( )
RAND2 = RAND ( )
RAND3 = RAND ( )

AMPL = RAND1
MEGA = RAND2 * (IUPP - ILOW) + ILOW
WN1 = TWOPI * MEGA
ALPH = RAND3 * TWOPI

C
C COMPUTE THE XREAL DATA ARRAY
C
DO 200 J = 1, N
XJJ = XJ(J)
XREAL(J) = XREAL(J) + F( XJJ )
200 CONTINUE
C
1000 CONTINUE
C
C COMPUTE THE CROSS PRODUCT OF XREAL WITH ITSELF
C
DO 2000 J = 1, N
VMAG2(J) = XREAL(J) * XREAL(J)
2000 CONTINUE

RETURN
END

C
C REVERSE THE BIT STRING
C

```

```

                FUNCTION IBITR( J, NU )
                DATA JSAVE / 0 /
C
C  INITIALIZE VARIABLES
C
                J1 = J
                IBITR = 0
C
                DO 100 I = 1, NU
                J2 = J1 / 2
                IBITR = IBITR * 2 + (J1 - 2*J2 )
                J1 = J2
100          CONTINUE

                RETURN
                END
C
                SUBROUTINE STAT ( ARRAY, LENGTH, AMEAN, SIGMA )
                DIMENSION ARRAY(1)
C
C  COMPUTE THE MEAN
C
                SUM1 = 0
                DO 200 J = 1, LENGTH
                SUM1 = SUM1 + ARRAY(J)
200          CONTINUE
                AMEAN = SUM1 / LENGTH
C
C  COMPUTE THE STANDARD DEVIATION
C
                SUM2 = 0
                DO 300 J = 1, LENGTH
                SUM2 = SUM2 + ( ARRAY(J) - AMEAN )**2
300          CONTINUE
                SIGMA = SQRT ( SUM2 / (LENGTH-1) )

                RETURN
                END

```

Attachment 2. Program for Testing the Moving Average Algorithm

```
C
C      TO TEST THE MOVING AVERAGE ALGORITHM
C      WRITTEN BY B.S.MOON, APR.16, 2003
C
          PROGRAM MAVG
          COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
          COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
          DIMENSION XREAL(1024), AMPL(1024), XIMAG(1024)
          DIMENSION CUMVAL2(1024), CUMFRQ2(365)

          CHARACTER*8 BUF
          DATA PI / 3.141592653589 /

C
C      THE ABOVE DIMENSION MUST BE GREATER THAN or EQUAL THE VALUE OF 'N'
C      N IS THE NUMBER OF DATA POINTS; MUST BE OF 2**NU
C      NU IS LOG ( BASE 2 ) OF N = GAMMA IN BRIGHAM'S TEXT BOOK
C
          OPEN( 6,FILE='V1101M.DAT')
          OPEN( 7,FILE='F1101M.DAT')
          OPEN( 8,FILE='S1101M.DAT')

          OPEN(16,FILE='V1102M.DAT')
          OPEN(17,FILE='F1102M.DAT')

          OPEN(26,FILE='V1103M.DAT')
          OPEN(27,FILE='F1103M.DAT')

          OPEN(36,FILE='V1104M.DAT')
          OPEN(37,FILE='F1104M.DAT')

          OPEN(99,FILE='DEBUG.DAT')

          NU      = 10                ! USED TO BE 10
          STIME = 1./ (3.* 2.**20)    ! SAMPLING TIME
          TIMES = 0.                  ! START TIME

          N      = 2.**NU
          ITEMPR = 2.**11             ! DETERMINES TEMPERATURE
          FACTR  = 1./ 2.**16        ! MOVING AVERAGE

          ILOW  = 3 * 2.**15         ! LOWER BOUND FREQ
          IUPP  = 1.2* 2.**20       ! UPPER BOUND FREQ

          DO 100 J = 1, 1024
             XJ(J) = (J-1) * STIME
100      CONTINUE
C
C      GENERATE THE SEED FOR RANDOM NUMBERS
```



```

C
          CALL TIME ( BUF )
          WRITE(99,10) BUF
10      FORMAT( A8 )
          REWIND 99
C
          READ(99,20) I HOUR, MIN, ISEC
20      FORMAT(I2,1X,I2,1X,I2)

          ISTART = I HOUR*3600 + MIN*60 + ISEC
          CALL SEED( ISTART )
C
          DO 9900 LOOPL = 1, 16
          DO 9000 LOOPM = 1, 16
          DO 8000 LOOPS = 1, 16
          DO 7000  INDX = 1, 64
C
C      INITIALIZE THE ARRAY
C
          DO 200 J = 1, N
          XREAL(J) = 0
          XIMAG(J) = 0
200      CONTINUE
C
C      GENERATE THE RANDOM SIGNAL DATA AND COMPUTE FORURIER TRANSFORM
C      VMAG2 COMPUTED BY GENFUN
C      FMAG2 COMPUTED BY FFT
C
          CALL GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL )
          CALL  FFT  ( XREAL )
          PRINT *, LOOPL, LOOPM, LOOPS, INDX
C
C      COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF CROSS POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY
C
          SUM2 = 0
          DO 500 K = 1, 1024
          SUM2 = SUM2 + VMAG2(K)
500      CONTINUE
          VMEAN2 = SUM2 / 1024

          SUM4 = 0
          DO 550 K = 1, 1024
          SUM4 = SUM4 + ( VMAG2(K) - VMEAN2) **2
550      CONTINUE
          VSIGMA = SQRT( SUM4 / 1023 )

          SUM2 = 0
          DO 600 K = 40, 404
          SUM2 = SUM2 + FMAG2(K)      ! FMAG2 IS COMPUTED IN FFT
600      CONTINUE

```

```

                                FMEAN2 = SUM2 / 365
C
                                SUM4 = 0
                                DO 650 K = 40, 404          ! 1, 512
                                    SUM4 = SUM4 + ( FMAG2(K) - FMEAN2) **2
650    CONTINUE
                                FSIGMA = SQRT( SUM4 / 364 )

C                                WRITE(6,50)  LOOPL,LOOPM,LOOPS,INDX,VMEAN2,VSIGMA
C                                WRITE(7,50)  LOOPL,LOOPM,LOOPS,INDX,FMEAN2,FSIGMA
50    FORMAT( 4I4, 2E15.8 )
C
C  SAVE THE COMPUTED RESULTS FOR LONG AVERAGES
C
IF ( LOOPS .EQ. 1 .AND. LOOPM .EQ. 1
1    .AND. LOOPL.EQ.1 ) THEN
    DO 710 K = 1, 1024
        CUMVAL2(K) = CUMVAL2(K) + VMAG2(K) / 64
710    CONTINUE
C
        DO 720 K = 1, 365
            CUMFRQ2(K) = CUMFRQ2(K) + FMAG2(K+39) / 64
720    CONTINUE
C
ELSE
    DO 760 K = 1, 1024
        CUMVAL2(K) =
760    CUMVAL2(K) * (1-FACTR) + VMAG2(K) * FACTR
        CONTINUE

        DO 780 K = 1, 365
            CUMFRQ2(K) =
780    CUMFRQ2(K) * (1-FACTR) + FMAG2(K+39) * FACTR
        CONTINUE
    ENDIF

7000    CONTINUE
C
C  SAVE THE RESULTS & COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF 1024 BLOCKS
C
                                IF ( LOOPS .EQ. 1 .AND. LOOPM .EQ. 1 .AND.
1    LOOPL .EQ. 1) THEN
                                    WRITE(6,60)  ( CUMVAL2(K), K=1,1024 )
                                    WRITE(7,65)  ( CUMFRQ2(K), K=1, 365 )
                                    ENDIF
60    FORMAT( 8F9.3 )
65    FORMAT( 8F9.5 )

                                CALL STAT(CUMVAL2,1024,VMEAN2,VSIGMA)
C

```

```

C   FREQUENCY DOMAIN
C
          CALL STAT(CUMFRQ2,365,FMEAN2,FSIGMA)

          WRITE(8,90)  LOOPS, VMEAN2, VSIGMA, FMEAN2, FSIGMA
90    FORMAT( I5, 4E15.8 )

8000          CONTINUE          ! END OF LOOPS
C
C   COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          IF (LOOPM .EQ. 1 .AND. LOOPL .EQ. 1) THEN

          WRITE(16,60)  VMEAN2, VSIGMA
          WRITE(16,60)  ( CUMVAL2(K), K=1,1024 )
          WRITE(17,65)  FMEAN2, FSIGMA
          WRITE(17,65)  ( CUMFRQ2(K), K=1, 365 )
          ENDIF

9000          CONTINUE  ! END OF LOOPM
C
C   COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          IF ( LOOPL .EQ. 1 ) THEN

          WRITE(26,60)  VMEAN2, VSIGMA
          WRITE(26,60)  ( CUMVAL2(K), K=1,1024 )
          WRITE(27,65)  FMEAN2, FSIGMA
          WRITE(27,65)  ( CUMFRQ2(K), K=1, 365 )
          ENDIF

9900          CONTINUE          ! END OF LOOPL
C
C   COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          WRITE(36,60)  VMEAN2, VSIGMA
          WRITE(36,60)  ( CUMVAL2(K), K=1,1024 )
          WRITE(37,65)  FMEAN2, FSIGMA
          WRITE(37,65)  ( CUMFRQ2(K), K=1, 365 )

          STOP
          END

          SUBROUTINE FFT( XREAL )
          COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
          COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
          DIMENSION XREAL(1), AMPL(1024), XIMAG(1024)
          DATA  PI / 3.141592653589 /

C
C   BOX #2 IN FIG. 8.6

```

```

C
      N2 = N / 2
      NU1 = NU - 1
      K = 0
C
C   BOX #4, #5, #6
C
      DO 300 L = 1, NU

100    CONTINUE

      DO 200 I = 1, N2
          DIVIDE = 2.**NU1
          J = K / DIVIDE
          ARG = 2*PI * IBITR(J,NU) / N
          C = COS(ARG)
          S = SIN(ARG)
          K1 = K + 1
          K1N2 = K1 + N2
          TREAL = XREAL(K1N2) * C + XIMAG(K1N2) * S
          TIMAG = XIMAG(K1N2) * C - XREAL(K1N2) * S
          XREAL(K1N2) = XREAL(K1) - TREAL
          XIMAG(K1N2) = XIMAG(K1) - TIMAG
          XREAL( K1) = XREAL(K1) + TREAL
          XIMAG( K1) = XIMAG(K1) + TIMAG
          K = K + 1
200    CONTINUE
C
          K = K + N2
          IF (K .LT. N ) GO TO 100
          K = 0
          NU1 = NU1 - 1
          N2 = N2 / 2
300    CONTINUE
C
C
C
      DO 500 K = 1, N
          J = K - 1
          I = IBITR(J,NU) + 1
          IF ( I .LE. K ) GO TO 500
          TREAL = XREAL(K)
          TIMAG = XIMAG(K)
          XREAL(K) = XREAL(I) / DIVIDE
          XIMAG(K) = XIMAG(I) / DIVIDE
          XREAL(I) = TREAL / DIVIDE
          XIMAG(I) = TIMAG / DIVIDE
500    CONTINUE
C
C   DIVIDE BY 2.**NU TO OBTAIN PROPER AMPLITUDE
C

```

```

        DIVIDE = 2.**NU
        SUM2 = 0
    DO 600 K = 1, N
        XREAL(K) = XREAL(K) / DIVIDE
        XIMAG(K) = XIMAG(K) / DIVIDE
        FMAG2(K) = XREAL(K)**2 + XIMAG(K)**2
600    CONTINUE

        RETURN
        END

C
C   TO GENERATE DATA FOR TESTING FFT ALGORITHM
C
        SUBROUTINE GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL )

        COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
        COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
        DIMENSION XREAL(1)
        REAL RAND

        DATA TWOPI / 6.283185307 /
        F(X) = AMPL * SIN( WN1*X + ALPH )

C
        DO 1000 LOOP = 1, ITEMPR

        RAND1 = RAND ( )
        RAND2 = RAND ( )
        RAND3 = RAND ( )

        AMPL = RAND1
        MEGA = RAND2 * (IUPP - ILOW) + ILOW
        WN1 = TWOPI * MEGA
        ALPH = RAND3 * TWOPI

C
C   COMPUTE THE XREAL DATA ARRAY
C
        DO 200 J = 1, N
            XJJ = XJ(J)
            XREAL(J) = XREAL(J) + F( XJJ )
200    CONTINUE
C
1000   CONTINUE
C
C   COMPUTE THE CROSS PRODUCT OF XREAL WITH ITSELF
C
        DO 2000 J = 1, N

```

```

                VMAG2(J) = XREAL(J) * XREAL(J)
2000    CONTINUE

                RETURN
                END

C
C  REVERSE THE BIT STRING
C
                FUNCTION IBITR( J, NU )
                DATA JSAVE / 0 /

C
C  INITIALIZE VARIABLES
C
                J1 = J
                IBITR = 0

C
                DO 100 I = 1, NU
                J2 = J1 / 2
                IBITR = IBITR * 2 + (J1 - 2*J2 )
                J1 = J2
100    CONTINUE

                RETURN
                END

C
                SUBROUTINE STAT ( ARRAY, LENGTH, AMEAN, SIGMA )
                DIMENSION ARRAY(1)

C
C  COMPUTE THE MEAN
C
                SUM1 = 0
                DO 200 J = 1, LENGTH
                SUM1 = SUM1 + ARRAY(J)
200    CONTINUE

                AMEAN = SUM1 / LENGTH

C
C  COMPUTE THE STANDARD DEVIATION
C
                SUM2 = 0
                DO 300 J = 1, LENGTH
                SUM2 = SUM2 + ( ARRAY(J) - AMEAN )**2
300    CONTINUE

                SIGMA = SQRT ( SUM2 / (LENGTH-1) )

                RETURN
                END

```

Attachment 3. Program for Long-Term Averages of Measured Data

C

C TO STUDY THE CHANNEL NOISES ARE ELIMINATED BY CPSD

C WRITTEN BY B.S.MOON, APR.2, 2003

C

```
PROGRAM NOISE
COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, PMAG(1024)
DIMENSION XREAL(1024), YREAL(1024)
DIMENSION CUMVAL2(1024,10000),CUMVALF(1024,10000)
DIMENSION CUMPRD2(1024,10000)
DIMENSION VALINT3(1024), VALINTF(1024), PRDINT3(1024)
DIMENSION VTEMP(1024,64), FTEMP(1024,64), PTEMP(1024,64)
DIMENSION VALINT1(1024), PRDINT1(1024), CORR(64)
DIMENSION VT(1024), FT(1024), PT(1024)
CHARACTER*8 BUF
DATA PI / 3.141592653589 /
```

C

C THE ABOVE DIMENSION MUST BE GREATER THAN or EQUAL THE VALUE OF 'N'

C N IS THE NUMBER OF DATA POINTS; MUST BE OF 2**NU

C NU IS LOG (BASE 2) OF N = GAMMA IN BRIGHAM'S TEXT BOOK

C

```
OPEN( 6,FILE='V12X2N.DAT')
OPEN( 7,FILE='P12X2N.DAT')

OPEN(16,FILE='V12Y2N.DAT')
OPEN(17,FILE='P12Y2N.DAT')
OPEN(18,FILE='S12Y2N.DAT')

OPEN(99,FILE='DEBUG.DAT')

NU    = 10                ! USED TO BE 10
STIME = 1./ (3* 2.**19)    ! SAMPLING TIME - 1.5M
TIMES = 0.                ! START TIME

N     = 2.**NU
ITEMPR = 2.**12          ! DETERMINES TEMPERATURE
```

```
ILOW = 3 * 2**15        ! LOWER BOUND FREQ
IUPP = 1.2* 2**20       ! UPPER BOUND FREQ
NLOOPS = 64 * 16       ! @@@@
```

```
DO 100 J = 1, 1024
```

```
XJ(J) = (J-1) * STIME
```

100

```
CONTINUE
```

C

C GENERATE THE SEED FOR RANDOM NUMBERS

C

```

        CALL TIME ( BUF )
        WRITE(99,10) BUF
10     FORMAT( A8 )
        REWIND 99
C
        READ(99,20) I HOUR, MIN, ISEC
20     FORMAT(I2,1X,I2,1X,I2)

        ISTART = I HOUR*3600 + MIN*60 + ISEC
        CALL SEED( ISTART )
C
        DO 8000 LOOPS = 1, NLOOPS
            DO 7000  INDX = 1, 64
C
C     INITIALIZE THE ARRAY
C
        DO 200 J = 1, N
            XREAL(J) = 0
            YREAL(J) = 0
200     CONTINUE
C
C     GENERATE THE RANDOM SIGNAL DATA AND COMPUTE FOURIER TRANSFORM
C     VMAG2 COMPUTED BY GENFUN
C     FMAG2 COMPUTED BY FFT
C
        CALL GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL, 1 )

        NOISEF = LOOPS + 2**15      !CHANNEL NOISE
        CALL GENFUN ( NOISEF, YREAL, 2 ) !GENERATE FMAG2
C
C     COMPUTE THE PRODUCT
C
        DO 400 J = 1, 1024
            PMAG(J) = XREAL(J) * YREAL(J)
400     CONTINUE

        PRINT *, LOOPS, INDX
C
C     COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF CROSS POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY
C     FOR XREAL ARRAY FIRST
C
        CALL STAT ( VMAG2, 1024, VMEANX, VSIGX )
        CALL STAT ( FMAG2, 1024, VMEANY, VSIGY )
        CALL STAT (  PMAG, 1024, PMEAN, PSIGMA )

        DIVIDE = SQRT( VMEANX * VMEANY )
        CORRC  = ABS( PMEAN / DIVIDE )
C
C     WRITE(8,50)  LOOPS,INDX,VMEANX,VSIGX,
C     1           VMEANY,VSIGY,PMEAN,CORRC
50     FORMAT( 2I4, 6E12.6)

```



```

CORR(INDX) = CORRC
C
C  SAVE THE COMPUTED RESULTS FOR LONG AVERAGES
C
      DO 700 K = 1, 1024
      VTEMP(K,INDX) = VMAG2(K)
      FTEMP(K,INDX) = FMAG2(K)
      PTEMP(K,INDX) = PMAG (K)
700    CONTINUE

7000   CONTINUE
C
C  SAVE THE RESULTS & COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF 1024 BLOCKS
C
      DO 750 K = 1, 64
      DO 750 J = 1, 1024
      CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) = CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) + VTEMP(J,K)
      CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) = CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) + FTEMP(J,K)
      CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) = CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) + PTEMP(J,K)
750    CONTINUE

      DO 760 J = 1, 1024
      CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) = CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) / 64
      CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) = CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) / 64
      CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) = CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) / 64
760    CONTINUE

      IF ( LOOPS .EQ. 1 ) THEN
      WRITE(6,60) ( CUMVAL2(K,1), K=1,1024 )
      WRITE(7,60) ( CUMVALF(K,1), K=1,1024 )
      WRITE(7,65) ( CUMPRD2(K,1), K=1,1024 )
      ENDIF
60     FORMAT( 5E15.8 )
65     FORMAT( 5E15.8 )
C
C  COMPUTE AVERAGE OF THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
C
      SUM = 0
      DO 7100 J = 1, 64
      SUM = SUM + CORR(J)
7100   CONTINUE
C
      DO 7200 J = 1, 1024
      VT(J) = CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS)
      FT(J) = CUMVALF(J,LOOPS)
      PT(J) = CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS)
7200   CONTINUE
C
      RATIO = SUM / 64
      CALL STAT ( VT, 1024, VMEAN2, VSIGMA )

```

```

CALL STAT ( FT, 1024, FMEAN2, FSIGMA )

C
C  FREQUENCY DOMAIN
C
          CALL STAT( PT, 1024, PMEAN, PSIGMA )

          WRITE(18,90) LOOPS,VMEAN2,VSIGMA,FMEAN2,FSIGMA,PMEAN,RATIO
90      FORMAT( I5, 6E12.5 )

8000      CONTINUE      ! END OF LOOPS
C
C  COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          DO 2100 K = 1, 1024
              VALINT3(K) = 0
              VALINTF(K) = 0
              PRDINT3(K) = 0
2100      CONTINUE

          DO 2500 K = 1, 1024
              DO 2200 L = 1, NLOOPS      ! L=LOOPS
                  VALINT3(K) = VALINT3(K) + CUMVAL2(K,L)
                  VALINTF(K) = VALINTF(K) + CUMVALF(K,L)
                  PRDINT3(K) = PRDINT3(K) + CUMPRD2(K,L)
2200      CONTINUE
2500      CONTINUE
C
          DO 2700 K = 1, 1024
              VALINT3(K) = VALINT3(K) / NLOOPS
              VALINTF(K) = VALINTF(K) / NLOOPS
              PRDINT3(K) = PRDINT3(K) / NLOOPS
2700      CONTINUE

          CALL STAT ( VALINT3, 1024, VMEAN, VSIGMA )
          CALL STAT ( VALINTF, 1024, FMEAN, FSIGMA )
          CALL STAT ( PRDINT3, 1024, PMEAN, PSIGMA )
          WRITE(16,60)    VMEAN, VSIGMA
          WRITE(16,60)    ( VALINT3(K), K=1,1024 )
          RATIO = ABS( PMEAN ) / SQRT( VMEAN*FMEAN )
          WRITE(17,65)    FMEAN, FSIGMA, PMEAN, RATIO
          WRITE(17,65)    ( PRDINT3(K), K=1,1024 )

9000      CONTINUE      ! END OF LOOPM
C
C  COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          STOP
          END
C

```

```

C      TO GENERATE DATA FOR TESTING FFT ALGORITHM
C
          SUBROUTINE GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL, INDIC )

          COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
          COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
          DIMENSION XREAL(1)
          REAL RAND

          DATA TWOPI / 6.283185307 /
          F(X) = AMPL * SIN( WN1*X + ALPH )

C
          DO 100 J = 1, 1024
              XREAL(J) = 0
100      CONTINUE
C
          DO 1000 LOOP = 1, ITEMPR

              RAND1 = RAND ( )
              RAND2 = RAND ( )
              RAND3 = RAND ( )

              AMPL = RAND1
              MEGA = RAND2 * (IUPP - ILOW) + ILOW
              WN1 = TWOPI * MEGA
              ALPH = RAND3 * TWOPI

C
C      COMPUTE THE XREAL DATA ARRAY
C
              DO 200 J = 1, N
                  XJJ = XJ(J)
                  XREAL(J) = XREAL(J) + F( XJJ )
200      CONTINUE
C
1000     CONTINUE
C
C      COMPUTE THE CROSS PRODUCT OF XREAL WITH ITSELF
C
          IF ( INDIC .EQ. 1 ) THEN

              DO 2000 J = 1, N
                  VMAG2(J) = XREAL(J) * XREAL(J)
2000     CONTINUE

              ELSE

              DO 3000 J = 1, N
                  FMAG2(J) = XREAL(J) * XREAL(J)
3000     CONTINUE

              ENDIF
          RETURN
          END

```

```

C
C REVERSE THE BIT STRING
C
      FUNCTION IBITR( J, NU )
      DATA JSAVE / 0 /
C
C INITIALIZE VARIABLES
C
      J1 = J
      IBITR = 0
C
      DO 100 I = 1, NU
      J2 = J1 / 2
      IBITR = IBITR * 2 + (J1 - 2*J2 )
      J1 = J2
100 CONTINUE
      RETURN
      END
C
      SUBROUTINE STAT ( ARRAY, LENGTH, AMEAN, SIGMA )
      DIMENSION ARRAY(1)
C
C COMPUTE THE MEAN
C
      SUM1 = 0
      DO 200 J = 1, LENGTH
      SUM1 = SUM1 + ARRAY(J)
200 CONTINUE
      AMEAN = SUM1 / LENGTH
C
C COMPUTE THE STANDARD DEVIATION
C
      SUM2 = 0
      DO 300 J = 1, LENGTH
      SUM2 = SUM2 + ( ARRAY(J) - AMEAN )**2
300 CONTINUE
      SIGMA = SQRT ( SUM2 / (LENGTH-1) )
      RETURN
      END

```

Attachment 4. Program for Testing the Channel Noise after CPDS

C

C TO STUDY THE CHANNEL NOISES ARE ELIMINATED BY CPSD

C WRITTEN BY B.S.MOON, APR.2, 2003

C

```
PROGRAM NOISE
COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, PMAG(1024)
DIMENSION XREAL(1024), YREAL(1024)
DIMENSION CUMVAL2(1024,10000),CUMVALF(1024,10000)
DIMENSION CUMPRD2(1024,10000)
DIMENSION VALINT3(1024), VALINTF(1024), PRDINT3(1024)
DIMENSION VTEMP(1024,64), FTEMP(1024,64), PTEMP(1024,64)
DIMENSION VALINT1(1024), PRDINT1(1024), CORR(64)
DIMENSION VT(1024), FT(1024), PT(1024)
CHARACTER*8 BUF
DATA PI / 3.141592653589 /
```

C

C THE ABOVE DIMENSION MUST BE GREATER THAN or EQUAL THE VALUE OF 'N'

C N IS THE NUMBER OF DATA POINTS; MUST BE OF 2**NU

C NU IS LOG (BASE 2) OF N = GAMMA IN BRIGHAM'S TEXT BOOK

C

```
OPEN( 6,FILE='V12X2N.DAT')
```

```
OPEN( 7,FILE='P12X2N.DAT')
```

```
OPEN(16,FILE='V12Y2N.DAT')
```

```
OPEN(17,FILE='P12Y2N.DAT')
```

```
OPEN(18,FILE='S12Y2N.DAT')
```

```
OPEN(99,FILE='DEBUG.DAT')
```

```
NU = 10 ! USED TO BE 10
```

```
STIME = 1./ (3* 2.**19) ! SAMPLING TIME - 1.5M
```

```
TIMES = 0. ! START TIME
```

```
N = 2.**NU
```

```
ITEMPR = 2**12 ! DETERMINES TEMPERATURE
```

```
ILOW = 3 * 2**15 ! LOWER BOUND FREQ
```

```
IUPP = 1.2* 2**20 ! UPPER BOUND FREQ
```

```
NLOOPS = 64 * 16 ! @@@@
```

```
DO 100 J = 1, 1024
```

```
XJ(J) = (J-1) * STIME
```

100

```
CONTINUE
```

C

C GENERATE THE SEED FOR RANDOM NUMBERS

C

```

        CALL TIME ( BUF )
        WRITE(99,10) BUF
10      FORMAT( A8 )
        REWIND 99
C
        READ(99,20) I HOUR, MIN, ISEC
20      FORMAT(I2,1X,I2,1X,I2)

        ISTART = I HOUR*3600 + MIN*60 + ISEC
        CALL SEED( ISTART )
C
        DO 8000 LOOPS = 1, NLOOPS
            DO 7000  INDX = 1, 64
C
C      INITIALIZE THE ARRAY
C
        DO 200 J = 1, N
            XREAL(J) = 0
            YREAL(J) = 0
200      CONTINUE
C
C      GENERATE THE RANDOM SIGNAL DATA AND COMPUTE FORURIER TRANSFORM
C      VMAG2 COMPUTED BY GENFUN
C      FMAG2 COMPUTED BY FFT
C
        CALL GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL, 1 )

        NOISEF = LOOPS + 2**15      !CHANNEL NOISE
        CALL GENFUN ( NOISEF, YREAL, 2 ) !GENRATE FMAG2
C
C      COMPUTE THE PRODUCT
C
        DO 400 J = 1, 1024
            PMAG(J) = XREAL(J) * YREAL(J)
400      CONTINUE

        PRINT *, LOOPS, INDX
C
C      COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF CROSS POWER SPECTRAL DENSITY
C      FOR XREAL ARRAY FIRST
C
        CALL STAT ( VMAG2, 1024, VMEANX, VSIGX )
        CALL STAT ( FMAG2, 1024, VMEANY, VSIGY )
        CALL STAT (  PMAG, 1024, PMEAN, PSIGMA )

        DIVIDE = SQRT( VMEANX * VMEANY )
        CORRC  = ABS( PMEAN / DIVIDE )
C
C      WRITE(8,50)  LOOPS,INDX,VMEANX,VSIGX,
C      1            VMEANY, VSIGY, PMEAN, CORRC
50      FORMAT( 2I4, 6E12.6)

```

```

CORR(INDX) = CORRC
C
C  SAVE THE COMPUTED RESULTS FOR LONG AVERAGES
C
      DO 700 K = 1, 1024
      VTEMP(K,INDX) = VMAG2(K)
      FTEMP(K,INDX) = FMAG2(K)
      PTEMP(K,INDX) = PMAG (K)
700   CONTINUE

7000  CONTINUE
C
C  SAVE THE RESULTS & COMPUTE MEAN AND SIGMA OF 1024 BLOCKS
C
      DO 750 K = 1, 64
      DO 750 J = 1, 1024
      CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) = CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) + VTEMP(J,K)
      CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) = CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) + FTEMP(J,K)
      CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) = CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) + PTEMP(J,K)
750   CONTINUE

      DO 760 J = 1, 1024
      CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) = CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS) / 64
      CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) = CUMVALF(J,LOOPS) / 64
      CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) = CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS) / 64
760   CONTINUE

      IF ( LOOPS .EQ. 1 ) THEN
      WRITE(6,60) ( CUMVAL2(K,1), K=1,1024 )
      WRITE(7,60) ( CUMVALF(K,1), K=1,1024 )
      WRITE(7,65) ( CUMPRD2(K,1), K=1,1024 )
      ENDIF
60    FORMAT( 5E15.8 )
65    FORMAT( 5E15.8 )
C
C  COMPUTE AVERAGE OF THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
C
      SUM = 0
      DO 7100 J = 1, 64
      SUM = SUM + CORR(J)
7100  CONTINUE
C
      DO 7200 J = 1, 1024
      VT(J) = CUMVAL2(J,LOOPS)
      FT(J) = CUMVALF(J,LOOPS)
      PT(J) = CUMPRD2(J,LOOPS)
7200  CONTINUE
C
      RATIO = SUM / 64
      CALL STAT ( VT, 1024, VMEAN2, VSIGMA )

```

```

CALL STAT ( FT, 1024, FMEAN2, FSIGMA )

C
C  FREQUENCY DOMAIN
C
          CALL STAT( PT, 1024, PMEAN, PSIGMA )

          WRITE(18,90) LOOPS,VMEAN2,VSIGMA,FMEAN2,FSIGMA,PMEAN,RATIO
90      FORMAT( I5, 6E12.5 )

8000      CONTINUE      ! END OF LOOPS
C
C  COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          DO 2100 K = 1, 1024
              VALINT3(K) = 0
              VALINTF(K) = 0
              PRDINT3(K) = 0
2100      CONTINUE

          DO 2500 K = 1, 1024
              DO 2200 L = 1, NLOOPS      ! L=LOOPS
                  VALINT3(K) = VALINT3(K) + CUMVAL2(K,L)
                  VALINTF(K) = VALINTF(K) + CUMVALF(K,L)
                  PRDINT3(K) = PRDINT3(K) + CUMPRD2(K,L)
2200      CONTINUE
2500      CONTINUE
C
          DO 2700 K = 1, 1024
              VALINT3(K) = VALINT3(K) / NLOOPS
              VALINTF(K) = VALINTF(K) / NLOOPS
              PRDINT3(K) = PRDINT3(K) / NLOOPS
2700      CONTINUE

          CALL STAT ( VALINT3, 1024, VMEAN, VSIGMA )
          CALL STAT ( VALINTF, 1024, FMEAN, FSIGMA )
          CALL STAT ( PRDINT3, 1024, PMEAN, PSIGMA )
          WRITE(16,60)    VMEAN, VSIGMA
          WRITE(16,60)    ( VALINT3(K), K=1,1024 )
          RATIO = ABS( PMEAN ) / SQRT( VMEAN*FMEAN )
          WRITE(17,65)    FMEAN, FSIGMA, PMEAN, RATIO
          WRITE(17,65)    ( PRDINT3(K), K=1,1024 )

9000      CONTINUE      ! END OF LOOPM
C
C  COMPUTE INTERMEDIATE MEAN AND SIGMA & SAVE THE FINAL RESULTS
C
          STOP
          END
C

```



```

C      TO GENERATE DATA FOR TESTING FFT ALGORITHM
C
      SUBROUTINE GENFUN ( ITEMPR, XREAL, INDIC )

      COMMON NU, N, NFREQ, XJ(1024), VMAG2(1024), FMAG2(1024)
      COMMON / SAVE / ILOW, IUPP, STIME, TIMES, CUMX(1024)
      DIMENSION XREAL(1)
      REAL RAND

      DATA TWOPI / 6.283185307 /
      F(X) = AMPL * SIN( WN1*X + ALPH )

C
      DO 100 J = 1, 1024
      XREAL(J) = 0
100    CONTINUE
C
      DO 1000 LOOP = 1, ITEMPR

      RAND1 = RAND ( )
      RAND2 = RAND ( )
      RAND3 = RAND ( )

      AMPL = RAND1
      MEGA = RAND2 * (IUPP - ILOW) + ILOW
      WN1 = TWOPI * MEGA
      ALPH = RAND3 * TWOPI

C
C      COMPUTE THE XREAL DATA ARRAY
C
      DO 200 J = 1, N
      XJJ = XJ(J)
      XREAL(J) = XREAL(J) + F( XJJ )
200    CONTINUE
C
1000    CONTINUE
C
C      COMPUTE THE CROSS PRODUCT OF XREAL WITH ITSELF
C
      IF ( INDIC .EQ. 1 ) THEN
      DO 2000 J = 1, N
      VMAG2(J) = XREAL(J) * XREAL(J)
2000    CONTINUE
      ELSE
      DO 3000 J = 1, N
      FMAG2(J) = XREAL(J) * XREAL(J)
3000    CONTINUE
      ENDIF
      RETURN
      END

```

```

C
C REVERSE THE BIT STRING
C
      FUNCTION IBITR( J, NU )
      DATA JSAVE / 0 /
C
C INITIALIZE VARIABLES
C
      J1 = J
      IBITR = 0
C
      DO 100 I = 1, NU
      J2 = J1 / 2
      IBITR = IBITR * 2 + (J1 - 2*J2)
      J1 = J2
100 CONTINUE
      RETURN
      END
C
      SUBROUTINE STAT ( ARRAY, LENGTH, AMEAN, SIGMA )
      DIMENSION ARRAY(1)
C
C COMPUTE THE MEAN
C
      SUM1 = 0
      DO 200 J = 1, LENGTH
      SUM1 = SUM1 + ARRAY(J)
200 CONTINUE
      AMEAN = SUM1 / LENGTH
C
C COMPUTE THE STANDARD DEVIATION
C
      SUM2 = 0
      DO 300 J = 1, LENGTH
      SUM2 = SUM2 + ( ARRAY(J) - AMEAN )**2
300 CONTINUE
      SIGMA = SQRT ( SUM2 / (LENGTH-1) )
      RETURN
      END

```

서 지 정 보 양 식

수행기관보고서번호	위탁기관보고서번호	표준보고서번호	INIS 주제코드
KAERI/ TR-2762 /2004			
제목 / 부제	Johnson Noise 온도계의 디지털 신호처리 - Johnson Noise의 시계열 분석		
연구책임자 및 부서명	문 병 수(계측제어 인간공학 연구부)		
연구자 및 부서명	황인구, 정종은, 권기춘(계측제어 인간공학 연구부)		
Roger A. Kisner, David E. Holcomb (Oak Ridge national Laboratory)			
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페이지 83 p.	도표	있음(O), 없음()	크기 Cm.
참고사항			
공개여부	공개(O), 비공개()	보고서종류	기술보고서
비밀여부	대외비 (), __ 급비밀		
연구위탁기관	과학기술부	계약번호	
초록 (15-20줄내외)	<p>이 보고서에서는 첫째, 단일주기 신호들의 합으로부터 생성된 Random 신호가 Continuous Markov Process 를 형성하며 따라서 Gaussian White Noise 가 됨을 보였다. 이 Random 신호를 사용한 Simulation 을 통하여 Johnson Noise 온도계를 원자로 냉각재 온도측정에 사용할 경우 측정값의 상대오차가 0.14%미만인 매우 정확한 온도 값 측정이 가능함을 확인하였다. 둘째, Band-Pass Filter 를 거친 Johnson Noise 의 지정된 Filter Band 에 대한 최적의 Sampling Rate 결정에 관한 내용을 기술하였다. 또한, Johnson Noise 의 Linearity 문제와 온도에 따라 상대오차가 어떻게 변화하는지에 대한 분석 결과를 기술하였다. 셋째, 아주 단순한 전기회로로부터 장시간 동안 취득한 일련의 Johnson Noise 신호에 대한 분석 결과를 기술하였다. 취득한 데이터에는 약간의 Channel Noise 가 포함되어 있으며 이같이 Channel Noise 가 포함된 상태에서도 Continuous Markov Process 또는 Gaussian White Noise 의 성질은 유지가 됨을 확인하였다. 넷째, 온도의 값이 변화하고 있을 때 Long-term Average 또는 Moving Average 사용으로 인하여 발생하는 Time Lag 문제 해결을 위한 알고리즘에 대하여 기술하였다. 이 알고리즘은 Haar Wavelet 을 기반으로 하여 작성된 것으로 Long-Term Average 대신 Wavelet 을 사용한 근사값을 취함으로써 Time Lag 을 현격히 줄인 것이다.</p>		
주제명키워드 (10단어내외)	Johnson Noise Thermometry; Random Noise; Channel Noise; Haar Wavelet; Gaussian White Noise; Continuous Markov Process; Moving Average; Accuracy; Cross Power Spectral Density; Correlated Voltage		

BIBLIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SHEET							
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Abstract (15-20 Lines)		In this report, we first proved that a random signal obtained by taking the sum of a set of single frequency signals generates a continuous Markov process. We used this random signal to simulate the Johnson noise and verified that the Johnson noise thermometry can be used to improve the measurements of the reactor coolant temperature within an accuracy of below 0.14%. Secondly, by using this random signal we determined the optimal sampling rate when the frequency band of the Johnson noise signal is given. Also the results of our examination on how good the linearity of the Johnson noise is and how large the relative error of the temperature could become when the temperature increases are described. Thirdly, the results of our analysis on a set of the Johnson noise signal blocks taken from a simple electric circuit are described. We showed that the properties of the continuous Markov process are satisfied even when some channel noises are present. Finally, we describe the algorithm we devised to handle the problem of the time lag in the long-term average or the moving average in a transient state. The algorithm is based on the Haar wavelet and is to estimate the transient temperature that has much smaller time delay. We have shown that the algorithm can track the transient temperature successfully.					
Subject Keywords (About 10 words)		Johnson Noise Thermometry; Random Noise; Channel Noise; Haar Wavelet; Gaussian White Noise; Continuous Markov Process; Moving Average; Accuracy; Cross Power Spectral Density; Correlated Voltage					