models may also be justified by virtue of a fundamental theorem of time series analysis, which is discussed next.

## 2.6 WOLD DECOMPOSITION

Wold (1938) proved a fundamental theorem, which states that any stationary discrete-time stochastic process may be decomposed into the sum of a general linear process and a predictable process, with these two processes being uncorrelated with each other. More precisely, Wold proved the following result:

Any stationary discrete-time stochastic process x(n) may be expressed in the form

$$x(n) = u(n) + s(n) \tag{2.54}$$

where

- 1. u(n) and s(n) are uncorrelated processes,
- 2. u(n) is a general linear process represented by the MA model:

$$u(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k^* v(n-k)$$
 (2.55)

with  $b_0 = 1$ , and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |b_k|^2 < \infty,$$

and where v(n) is a white-noise process uncorrelated with s(n); that is,

$$E[v(n)s^*(k)] = 0 for all (n, k)$$

3. s(n) is a predictable process; that is, the process can be predicted from its own past with zero prediction variance.

This result is known as Wold's decomposition theorem. A proof of this theorem is given in Priestley (1981).

According to Eq. (2.55), the general linear process u(n) may be generated by feeding an all-zero filter with the white-noise process v(n) as in Fig. 2.5(a). The zeros of the transfer function of this filter equal the roots of the equation:

$$B(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n^* z^{-n} = 0$$

A solution of particular interest is an all-zero filter that is minimum phase, which means that all the zeros of the polynomial B(z) lie inside the unit circle. In such a case, we may replace the all-zero filter with an equivalent all-pole filter that has the same impulse response  $h_a = b_a^*$ , as in Fig. 2.5(b). This means that except for a predictable component, a stationary discrete-time stochastic process may also be represented as an AR process of the appropriate order, subject to the above-mentioned restriction on B(z). The basic difference between the MA and AR models is that B(z) operates on the input v(n) in the MA model, whereas the inverse  $B^{-1}(z)$  operates on the output u(n) in the AR model.

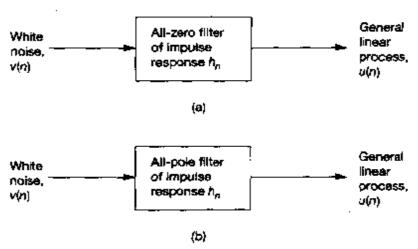


Figure 2.5 (a) Model, based on all-zero filter, for generating the linear process u(n); (b) model, based on all-pole filter, for generating the general linear process u(n). Both filters have exactly the same impulse response.

## 2.7 ASYMPTOTIC STATIONARITY OF AN AUTOREGRESSIVE PROCESS

Equation (2.42) represents a linear, constant coefficient, difference equation of order M, in which v(n) plays the role of input or driving function and u(n) that of output or solution. By using the classical method for solving such an equation, we may formally express the solution u(n) as the sum of a complementary function,  $u_c(n)$ , and a particular solution,  $u_c(n)$ , as follows:

$$u(n) = u_c(n) + u_p(n) (2.56)$$

The evaluation of the solution u(n) may thus proceed in two stages:

1. The complementary function  $u_c(n)$  is the solution of the homogeneous equation

$$u(n) + a_1^*u(n-1) + a_2^*u(n-2) + \cdots + a_M^*u(n-M) = 0$$

In general, the complementary function  $u_c(n)$  will therefore be of the form

$$u_c(n) = B_1 p_1^n + B_2 p_2^n + \dots + B_M p_M^n$$
 (2.57)

where  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_M$  are arbitrary constants, and  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_M$  are roots of the characteristic equation (2.51).

2. The particular solution  $u_p(n)$  is defined by

$$u_p(n) \approx H_G(D)[\nu(n)] \tag{2.58}$$

<sup>&</sup>quot;We may also use the z-transform method to solve the difference equation (2.42). However, for the discussion presented here, we find it more informative to use the classical method