

Computation of Information Rates by Particle Methods

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Abstract—Prior work on the computation of information rates of channels with memory is extended to continuous state spaces by means of sequential Monte-Carlo integration (“particle filtering”).

1 Introduction

We consider the problem of computing the information rate

$$I(X; Y) \triangleq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} I(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \quad (1)$$

between the input process $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots)$ and the output process $Y = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots)$ of a time-invariant discrete-time channel with memory. Let $x_k^n \triangleq (x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)$ and $x^n \triangleq (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. We will assume that there is an ergodic stochastic process $S = (S_0, S_1, S_2, \dots)$ such that

$$p(x^n, y^n, s_0^n) = p(s_0) \prod_{k=1}^n p(x_k, y_k, s_k | s_{k-1}) \quad (2)$$

for all $n > 0$ and with $p(x_k, y_k, s_k | s_{k-1})$ not depending on k .

For *finite* input alphabet \mathcal{X} (= range of X_k) and *finite* state space \mathcal{S} (= range of S_k), a practical method for computing the information rate (1) was proposed in [1] [2] [3]; an alternative approach is presented in [4]. In [5], the approach of [1] [2] [3] was extended to 2-D channels (using generalized belief propagation [6]). In [7], the method of [1] [2] [3] was described in greater generality and extended to the computation of upper and lower bounds on the information rate of very general channels (see also [8] [9]). Another method to compute an upper bound was presented in [10].

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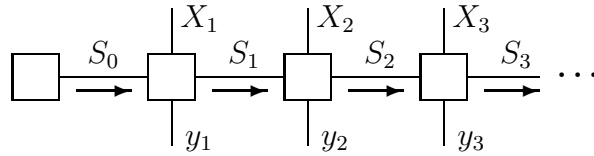


Figure 1: Computation of $p(y^n)$ by message passing through the factor graph of (2).

In this paper, we extend the methods of [1] and [7] to continuous state spaces \mathcal{S} . For the sake of clarity, we will assume that \mathcal{S} is a bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^ν , the ν -dimensional Euclidean space; the input alphabet \mathcal{X} may also be continuous. The key to this extension is the use of sequential Monte-Carlo integration methods (“particle filters”) [11] [12].

This paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we review the basic idea of [1] as presented in [9]. In Section 3, we show how particle methods allow to deal with a continuous state space; in Section 4, we present a numerical example, i.e., a communications channel with phase noise. In Section 5, we offer some concluding remarks.

2 Review of Basic Method

We briefly review the basic idea of [1] as presented in [9]. We first note that, as a consequence of the Shannon-McMillan-Breiman theorem, the sequence $-\frac{1}{n} \log p(X^n)$ converges with probability 1 to the entropy rate $H(X)$, the sequence $-\frac{1}{n} \log p(Y^n)$ converges with probability 1 to the differential entropy rate $h(Y)$, and the sequence $-\frac{1}{n} \log p(X^n, Y^n)$ converges with probability 1 to $H(X) + h(Y|X)$. From these observations, the quantity $I(X; Y) = h(Y) - h(Y|X)$ can be computed as follows:

1. Sample two “very long” sequences x^n and y^n .
2. Compute $\log p(x^n)$, $\log p(y^n)$, and $\log p(x^n, y^n)$. If $h(Y|X)$ is known analytically, then it suffices to compute $\log p(y^n)$.
3. Conclude with the estimate

$$\hat{I}(X; Y) \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \log p(x^n, y^n) - \frac{1}{n} \log p(x^n) - \frac{1}{n} \log p(y^n) \quad (3)$$

or, if $h(Y|X)$ is known analytically, $\hat{I}(X; Y) \triangleq -\frac{1}{n} \log p(y^n) - h(Y|X)$.

The computations in Step 2 can be carried out by forward sum-product message passing through the factor graph of (2), as is illustrated in Fig. 1. (See [13] for an introduction to factor graphs.) If the state space \mathcal{S} is finite, this computation is just the forward sum-product recursion of the BCJR algorithm [14].

Consider, for example, the computation of

$$p(y^n) = \int_{x^n} \int_{s_0^n} p(x^n, y^n, s_0^n) dx^n ds_0^n. \quad (4)$$

(In [1] and [9], the integral (4) is actually a finite sum.) Define the state metric $\mu_k(s_k) \triangleq p(s_k, y^k)$. By straightforward application of the sum-product algorithm [13] we recursively compute the messages (state metrics)

$$\mu_k(s_k) = \int_{x_k} \int_{s_{k-1}} \mu_{k-1}(s_{k-1}) p(x_k, y_k, s_k | s_{k-1}) dx_k ds_{k-1} \quad (5)$$

$$= \int_{x^k} \int_{s_0^{k-1}} p(x^k, y^k, s_0^k) dx^k ds_0^{k-1} \quad (6)$$

for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ with $\mu_0(s_0) \triangleq p(s_0)$. The desired quantity (4) is then obtained as

$$p(y^n) = \int_{s_n} \mu_n(s_n) ds_n, \quad (7)$$

the sum of (or the integral over) all final state metrics.

For large k , the state metrics μ_k computed according to (5) quickly tend to zero. In practice, the recursion (5) is therefore changed to

$$\mu_k(s_k) = \lambda_k \int_{x_k} \int_{s_{k-1}} \mu_{k-1}(s_{k-1}) p(x_k, y_k, s_k | s_{k-1}) dx_k ds_{k-1}, \quad (8)$$

where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots$ are positive scale factors. We will choose these factors such that

$$\int_{s_k} \mu_k(s_k) ds_k = 1 \quad (9)$$

holds for all k , i.e.,

$$\lambda_k^{-1} = \int_{s_k} \int_{x_k} \int_{s_{k-1}} \mu_{k-1}(s_{k-1}) p(x_k, y_k, s_k | s_{k-1}) dx_k ds_{k-1}, \quad (10)$$

$$= \int_{s_k} \int_{x_k} \int_{s_{k-1}} \mu_{k-1}(s_{k-1}) p(x_k, s_k | s_{k-1}) p(y_k | x_k, s_k, s_{k-1}) ds_k dx_k ds_{k-1} \quad (11)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[p(y_k | X_k, S_k, S_{k-1}) | Y^{k-1}], \quad (12)$$

where the expectation is w.r.t. the probability density function (pdf)

$$p(s_{k-1}, s_k, x_k | y^{k-1}) = \mu_{k-1}(s_{k-1}) p(x_k, s_k | s_{k-1}). \quad (13)$$

It then follows that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \log \lambda_k = -\frac{1}{n} \log p(y^n). \quad (14)$$

The quantity $-\frac{1}{n} \log p(y^n)$ thus appears as the average of the logarithms of the scale factors, which converges (almost surely) to $h(Y)$.

If necessary, the quantities $\log p(x^n)$ and $\log p(x^n, y^n)$ can be computed by the same method, see [9].

3 A Particle Method

If both the input alphabet \mathcal{X} and the state space \mathcal{S} are finite sets (and the alphabet of \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{S} is not too large), then the method of the previous section is a practical algorithm. However, we are now interested in the case where \mathcal{S} (and perhaps also \mathcal{X}) is continuous, as stated in the introduction. In this case, the computation of (8) and (12) is a problem.

This problem can be addressed by Monte-Carlo methods known as sequential Monte-Carlo integration (“particle filtering”) [11] [12]. Such algorithms may be viewed as message passing algorithms where the messages (which represent probability distributions) are represented by a list of samples (“particles”) [15]–[19] (see Fig. 2); a list \mathcal{L}_f of N particles representing the pdf $f(x)$ with $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is formally defined as a list of pairs

$$\mathcal{L}_f \triangleq \{(\hat{x}^{(1)}, w^{(1)}), (\hat{x}^{(2)}, w^{(2)}), \dots, (\hat{x}^{(N)}, w^{(N)})\} \triangleq \{(\hat{x}^{(\ell)}, w^{(\ell)})\}_{\ell=1}^N, \quad (15)$$

where $\hat{x}^{(\ell)} \in \mathcal{X}$, the weights $w^{(\ell)}$ are positive real numbers and $\sum_{\ell=1}^N w^{(\ell)} = 1$. In partic-

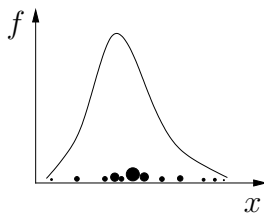


Figure 2: A probability density function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ and its representation as a list of particles.

ular, we will represent the message μ_k by a list of N particles $\{\hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, w_k^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$, and we will represent the distribution $p(s_{k-1}, s_k, x_k | y^{k-1})$ (13) by a list of N (weighted) three-tuples $\{(\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, \hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \hat{x}_k^{(\ell)}), w_{k-1}^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$. The expectation (12) is then approximately computed as an average over those N (weighted) three-tuples:

$$\lambda_k^{-1} \approx \sum_{\ell=1}^N w_{k-1}^{(\ell)} p(y_k | \hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, \hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \hat{x}_k^{(\ell)}). \quad (16)$$

The recursive computation of (8) is accomplished as follows.

1. Begin with a particle list $\{\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, w_{k-1}^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$ that represents μ_{k-1} .
2. Extend each particle $\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}$ to a three-tuple $(\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, \hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \hat{x}_k^{(\ell)})$ by sampling from $p(x_k, s_k | s_{k-1})$, resulting in the particle list $\{(\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, \hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \hat{x}_k^{(\ell)}), w_{k-1}^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$.
3. Compute an estimate of λ_k using (16).
4. Compute the weights w_k :

$$w_k^{(\ell)} = \lambda_k w_{k-1}^{(\ell)} p(y_k | \hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, \hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \hat{x}_k^{(\ell)}). \quad (17)$$

(Note that those weights sum to one.)

5. Drop $\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}$ and $\hat{x}_k^{(\ell)}$ of each three-tuple $(\hat{s}_{k-1}^{(\ell)}, \hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \hat{x}_k^{(\ell)})$; the resulting particle list $\{\hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, w_k^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$ represents μ_k .
6. If the number of “effective” particles $N_{k,\text{eff}}$ in the list $\{\hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, w_k^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$ is “small”, i.e., if

$$N_{k,\text{eff}} \triangleq \frac{1}{\sum_{\ell=1}^N (w_k^{(\ell)})^2} < \varepsilon N, \quad (18)$$

where ε is a positive number (e.g., $\varepsilon = 0.3$), “resample” the list $\{\hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, w_k^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$:

- (a) Draw N samples from the list $\{\hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}\}_{\ell=1}^N$ with probability proportional to $w_k^{(\ell)}$. (If $w_k^{(\ell)}$ is large, the sample $s_k^{(\ell)}$ may be drawn several times, otherwise, it may not be drawn at all.)
- (b) Associate the (uniform) weight $\frac{1}{N}$ to each obtained sample $s_k^{(\ell)}$, resulting in the new list $\{\hat{s}_k^{(\ell)}, \frac{1}{N}\}_{\ell=1}^N$, which represents μ_k .

Some remarks:

- In Step 2 of the above algorithm, one needs to draw samples from $p(x_k, s_k | s_{k-1})$. A closed-form expression for $p(x_k, s_k | s_{k-1})$ is not required for that purpose. The state transitions may for example be described by a stochastic difference equation. The observation model $p(y_k | x_k, s_k, s_{k-1})$, however, has to be available in closed-form (cf. Step 3 and 4).
- Without resampling (Step 6), all but one particle will have negligible weight after a few iterations (“degeneracy”); the resampling step reduces this effect (Step 6) [11] [12].
- It is well known that particle-based estimates of logarithmic Lyapunov exponents (or “log partition functions”, cf. (14) and (16)) are unbiased [20] [21]. The mean square error of those estimates is upper bounded by an expression that is inversely proportional to the number of particles N (for $n > \sqrt{N}$) [22, Theorem 2, Corollary 2]; those two properties carry over to the particle-based estimate $\hat{I}(X, Y)$ (3), since the latter is a linear combination of particle-based estimates of logarithmic Lyapunov exponents.

4 A Numerical Example

We consider the channel

$$Y_k = X_k e^{j\Theta_k} + N_k, \quad (19)$$

where X_k is the complex channel input symbol at time k , Y_k is the corresponding channel output symbol, and N_k is white Gaussian noise with known variance σ_N^2 . For the sake of definiteness, we will assume, first, that the channel input alphabet \mathcal{X} is a 4-PSK constellation, and second, that the channel input process is independently and uniformly distributed (i.u.d.). The phase Θ_k (which takes the role of the channel state S_k) is unknown to the receiver. We consider two dynamical models for the phase:

Random-walk phase model

$$\Theta_k = (\Theta_{k-1} + W_k) \bmod 2\pi, \quad (20)$$

where W_k is white Gaussian noise with known variance σ_W^2 .

ARMA phase model

$$Z_k = \sum_{\ell=1}^{m_a} a_\ell Z_{k-\ell} + \sum_{\ell=0}^{m_b} b_\ell W_{k-\ell}, \quad (21)$$

$$\Theta_k = Z_k \bmod 2\pi, \quad (22)$$

where W_k is white Gaussian noise with known variance σ_W^2 .

This channel models a single-carrier communications system with phase jitter and perfect symbol timing knowledge [23]. The random-walk and ARMA phase noise model is a simple model for phase noise in a free running clock and a phase-locked loop respectively [24] (see also [19, Chapter 2]).

For this channel, the application of the method of Section 3 is straightforward; the results for the random-walk and ARMA phase noise model are shown in Figures 3 and 4 respectively. For these computations, we simulated channel input/output sequences of length n between 10^5 and 10^6 , and we used $N = 10^4$ particles. The numerical results in Figure 3 (for the random-walk phase noise model) were also checked with the auxiliary-channel method of [9] based on a quantization of Θ (with 5000 uniform quantization bins). (Note that the state space in the random-walk phase model is one-dimensional and bounded, and therefore, quantization is feasible; the state space of the ARMA phase model is high-dimensional and quantization is in this case not practical.) The numerical results agree with those in Figure 3 up to the accuracy of the plot. Figure 5 depicts the estimate $\hat{I}(X; Y)$ (for the random-walk phase noise model) as a function of the sequence length n .

5 Conclusion

Using particle methods, we have extended the basic idea of [1] and [9] to channels with a continuous state space. A closed-form expression of the state transition probability is not required. The accuracy of the proposed method depends not only on the length of the simulated sequence (as in [1] [9]), but also on the number of particles.

It should be noted that the proposed method can be used also to compute the auxiliary-channel bounds on the information rate of [9, Section VI].

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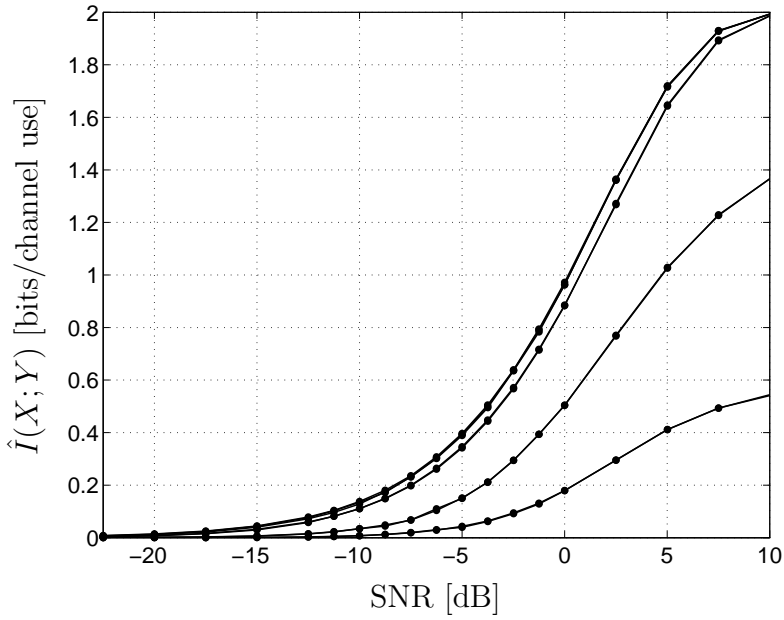


Figure 3: Information rates for the random-walk phase noise channel. From top to bottom: $\sigma_W = 0$ and $\sigma_W = 0.01$ (on top of each other), $\sigma_W = 0.1$, $\sigma_W = 0.5$, and $\sigma_W = 1$.

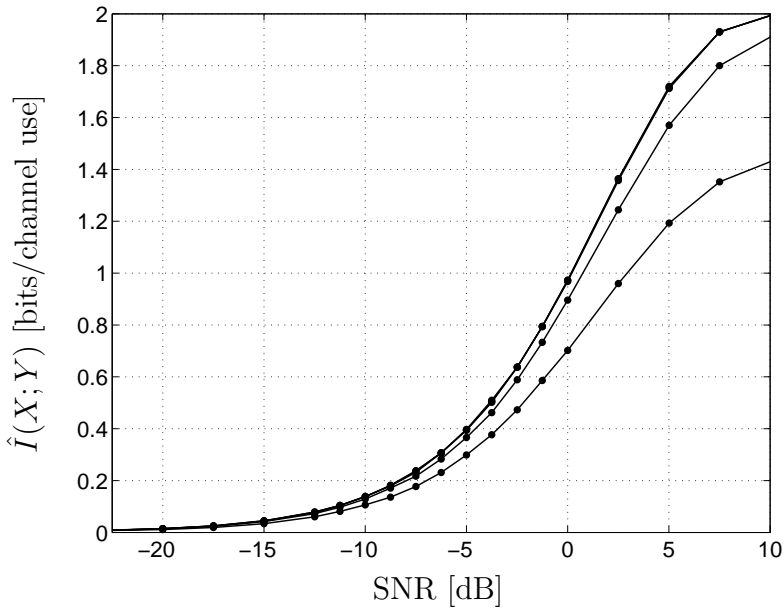


Figure 4: Information rates for the ARMA phase noise channel (with $m_a = 1$, $m_b = 2$, $a_1 = 0.4$, and $(b_0, b_1, b_2) = (0.3, 0.2, 0.1)$, cf. (21)). From top to bottom: $\sigma_W = 0$, $\sigma_W = 0.01$, and $\sigma_W = 0.1$ (on top of each other), $\sigma_W = 0.5$, and $\sigma_W = 1$.

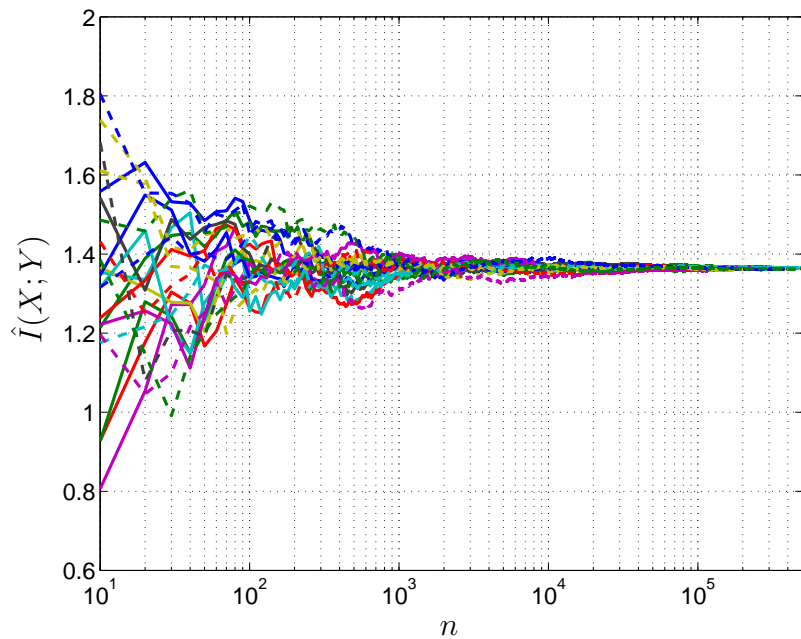


Figure 5: Estimated information rate (for the random-walk phase noise channel) as a function of the sequence length n , for 10 simulation runs of the particle method (dashed lines) and ten runs of the auxiliary-channel method (solid lines), for $\text{SNR} = 10\text{dB}$ and $\sigma_W = 0.5$.