# Multi-sample Receivers Increase Information Rates for Wiener Phase Noise Channels

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Abstract—A waveform channel is considered where the transmitted signal is corrupted by Wiener phase noise and additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN). A discrete-time channel model is introduced that is based on a multi-sample receiver. Tight lower bounds on the information rates achieved by the multi-sample receiver are computed by means of numerical simulations. The results show that oversampling at the receiver is beneficial for both strong and weak phase noise at high signal-to-noise ratios. The results are compared with results obtained when using other discrete-time models.

# I. INTRODUCTION

Communication systems often suffer from phase noise that arises, e.g., due to the instability of RF oscillators in satellite [1] or microwave links [2]. In optical fiber communication, phase noise arises due to the instability of laser oscillators [3] or due to cross-phase modulation (XPM) in Wavelength-Division-Multiplexing (WDM) systems [4].

The nature of the phase noise depends on the application. A commonly studied *discrete-time* model is

$$Y_k = X_{\text{symb},k} \ e^{j\Theta_k} + Z_k \tag{1}$$

where  $\{Y_k\}$  are the output symbols,  $\{X_{\text{symb},k}\}$  are the input symbols,  $\{\Theta_k\}$  is the phase noise process and  $\{Z_k\}$  is additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN). For example, Katz and Shamai [5] studied the model (1) when  $\{\Theta_k\}$  is independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) according to  $p_{\Theta}(\cdot)$ , when  $\Theta$  is uniformly distributed (called a noncoherent AWGN channel) and when  $\Theta$  has a Tikhonov (or von Mises) distribution (called a partially-coherent AWGN channel). Tikhonov phase noise models the residual phase error in systems with phasetracking devices, e.g., phase-locked loops (PLL) and ideal interleavers/deinterlevers.

Tight lower bounds on the capacities of memoryless noncoherent and partially coherent AWGN channels were computed by solving an optimization problem numerically in [5] and [6], respectively. Dauwels and Loeliger [7] proposed a particle filtering method to compute information rates for discretetime continuous-state channels with memory and applied the method to (1) for Wiener phase noise and autoregressivemoving-average (ARMA) phase noise. Barletta, Magarini and Spalvieri [8] computed lower bounds on information rates for (1) with Wiener phase noise by using the auxiliary channel Gerhard Kramer Institute for Communications Engineering Technische Universität München 80333 Munich, Germany gerhard.kramer@tum.de

technique proposed in [9] and they computed upper bounds in [10]. They also developed a lower bound based on Kalman filtering in [11]. Barbieri and Colavolpe [1] computed lower bounds with an auxiliary channel slightly different from [8].

In this paper, we study a *waveform* channel corrupted by Wiener phase noise and AWGN:

$$r(t) = x(t) \ e^{j\theta(t)} + n(t), \text{ for } t \in \mathbb{R}$$
(2)

where x(t) and r(t) are the transmitted and received signals, respectively, while n(t) and  $\theta(t)$  are the additive and phase noise, respectively. A detailed description of the model is given in Sec. II. This model is reasonable, for example, for optical fiber communication with low to intermediate power and laser phase noise, see [3]. As pointed out in [12], the discrete-time model (1) does not fit the channel (2) because filtering a phasevarying signal with a constant amplitude gives rise to an output with a varying *amplitude*. The effect of filtering persists for phase impairments other than Wiener phase noise, e.g., for XPM in optical fiber [13]. We developed in [12] a discretetime channel model based on a multi-sample receiver, i.e., a filter whose output is sampled multiple times per symbol.

In this paper, we use techniques based on [9] to compute tight lower bounds on the information rates for the multisample receiver introduced in [12]. The paper is organized as follows. The continuous-time model is described in Sec. II and the discrete-time model of the multi-sample receiver is described in Sec. III. We develop a method to compute lower bounds on the information rates of a multi-sample receiver in Sec. IV. In Sec. V, we report the results of numerical simulations and Sec. VI concludes the paper.

# II. CONTINUOUS-TIME MODEL

We use the following notation:  $j = \sqrt{-1}$ , \* denotes the complex conjugate,  $\delta_D$  is the Dirac delta function,  $\lceil \cdot \rceil$  is the ceiling operator. We use  $X^k$  to denote  $(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k)$ . Suppose the transmit-waveform is x(t) and the receiver observes

$$r(t) = x(t) \ e^{j\theta(t)} + n(t) \tag{3}$$

where n(t) is a realization of a white circularly-symmetric complex Gaussian process N(t) with

$$\mathbb{E}[N(t)] = 0$$
  
$$\mathbb{E}[N(t_1)N^*(t_2)] = \sigma_N^2 \ \delta_D(t_2 - t_1).$$
(4)

The phase  $\theta(t)$  is a realization of a Wiener process  $\Theta(t)$ :

$$\Theta(t) = \Theta(0) + \int_0^t W(\tau) d\tau$$
 (5)

where  $\Theta(0)$  is uniform on  $[-\pi,\pi)$  and W(t) is a real Gaussian process with

$$\mathbb{E}[W(t)] = 0$$
  
$$\mathbb{E}[W(t_1)W(t_2)] = 2\pi\beta \ \delta_D(t_2 - t_1).$$
(6)

The processes N(t) and  $\Theta(t)$  are independent of each other and independent of the input.  $N_0 = 2\sigma_N^2$  is the single-sided power spectral density of the additive noise. We define  $U(t) \equiv \exp(j\Theta(t))$ . The autocorrelation function of U(t) is

$$R_U(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}\left[U(t_1)U^*(t_2)\right] = \exp\left(-\pi\beta|t_2 - t_1|\right)$$
(7)

and the power spectral density of U(t) is

$$S_U(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_U(t, t+\tau) \ e^{-j2\pi f\tau} d\tau = \frac{\beta/2}{(\beta/2)^2 + f^2}$$
(8)

The spectrum is said to have a Lorentzian shape. It is easy to show that  $\beta = f_{\text{FWHM}} = 2f_{\text{HWHM}}$  where  $f_{\text{FWHM}}$  is the full-width at half-maximum and  $f_{\text{HWHM}}$  is the half-width at half-maximum. Let T be the transmission interval, then the transmitted waveforms must satisfy the power constraint

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{T}\int_{0}^{T}|X(t)|^{2}dt\right] \leq \mathcal{P}$$
(9)

where X(t) is a random process whose realization is x(t).

## **III. DISCRETE-TIME MODEL**

Let  $(x_{symb,1}, x_{symb,1}, \ldots, x_{symb,n_{symb}})$  be the codeword sent by the transmitter. Suppose the transmitter uses a unit-energy pulse g(t) whose time support is  $[0, T_{symb}]$  where  $T_{symb}$  is the symbol interval. The waveform sent by the transmitter is

$$x(t) = \sum_{m=1}^{n_{\text{symb}}} x_{\text{symb},m} \ g(t - (m-1)T_{\text{symb}}).$$
(10)

Let L be the number of samples per symbol  $(L \ge 1)$  and define the sample interval as

$$\Delta = \frac{T_{\text{symb}}}{L}.$$
 (11)

The received waveform r(t) is filtered using an integrator over a sample interval to give the output signal

$$y(t) = \int_{t-\Delta}^{t} r(\tau) \ d\tau.$$
(12)

The signal y(t) is a realization of Y(t) that is sampled at  $t = k\Delta$ ,  $k = 1, ..., n = n_{symb}L$ , to yield the discrete-time model:

$$Y_k = X_{\text{symb},\lceil k/L\rceil} \Delta \ e^{j\Theta_k} \ F_k + N_k \tag{13}$$

where  $Y_k \equiv Y(k\Delta)$ ,  $\Theta_k \equiv \Theta((k-1)\Delta)$ ,

$$F_{k} \equiv \frac{1}{\Delta} \int_{(k-1)\Delta}^{k\Delta} g\left(\tau - \left(\left\lceil \frac{k}{L} \right\rceil - 1\right) T_{\text{symb}}\right) e^{j(\Theta(\tau) - \Theta_{k})} d\tau$$
(14)

and

$$N_k \equiv \int_{(k-1)\Delta}^{k\Delta} N(\tau) \ d\tau. \tag{15}$$

The process  $\{N_k\}$  is an i.i.d. circularly-symmetric complex Gaussian process with mean 0 and  $\mathbb{E}[|N_k|^2] = \sigma_N^2 \Delta$  while the process  $\{\Theta_k\}$  is the discrete-time Wiener process:

$$\Theta_k = \Theta_{k-1} + W_k \mod 2\pi \tag{16}$$

for k = 2, ..., n, where  $\Theta_1$  is uniform on  $[-\pi, \pi)$  and  $\{W_k\}$  is an i.i.d. real Gaussian process with mean 0 and  $\mathbb{E}[|W_k|^2] = 2\pi\beta\Delta$ , i.e., the probability distribution function (pdf) of  $W_k$  is  $p_{W_k}(w) = G(w; 0, \sigma_W^2)$  where

$$G(w;\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(w-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
(17)

and  $\sigma_W^2 = 2\pi\beta\Delta$ . The random variable  $(W_k \mod 2\pi)$  is a wrapped Gaussian and its pdf is  $p_W(w; \sigma_W^2)$  where

$$p_W(w;\sigma^2) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} G(w - 2i\pi; 0, \sigma^2).$$
 (18)

Moreover,  $\{F_k\}$  and  $\{W_k\}$  are independent of  $\{N_k\}$  but not independent of each other. Finally, equations (9) and (10) imply the power constraint

$$\frac{1}{n_{\text{symb}}} \sum_{m=1}^{n_{\text{symb}}} \mathbb{E}[|X_{\text{symb},m}|^2] \le P = \mathcal{P}T_{\text{symb}}.$$
 (19)

It is convenient to define  $X_k$  as

$$X_k \equiv X(k\Delta) = X_{\text{symb}, \lceil k/L \rceil} \ g\left((k \mod L)\Delta\right).$$
(20)

It follows that  $I(X^{n_{\rm symb}}_{\rm symb};Y^n)=I(X^n;Y^n).$  We define the information rate

$$I(X;Y) = \lim_{n_{\text{symb}}\to\infty} \frac{1}{n_{\text{symb}}} I(X^n;Y^n).$$
(21)

One difficuly in evaluating (21) is that the joint distribution of  $\{F_k\}$  and  $\{W_k\}$  is not available in closed form. Even the distribution of  $F_k$  is not available in closed form (there is an approximation for small linewidth, see (16) in [3]). However, we can numerically compute tight lower bounds on I(X;Y)by using the auxiliary-channel technique described next.

#### **IV. LOWER BOUND**

The Auxiliary-Channel Lower Bound Theorem in [9, Sec. VI] states that for two random variables X and Y, we have

$$I(X;Y) \ge \underline{I}(X;Y) = \mathbb{E}\left[\log\left(\frac{q_{Y|X}(Y|X)}{q_Y(Y)}\right)\right]$$
(22)

where  $q_{Y|X}(\cdot|\cdot)$  is an arbitrary auxiliary channel and

$$q_Y(y) = \sum_{\tilde{x}} p_X(\tilde{x}) q_{Y|X}(y|\tilde{x})$$
(23)

where  $p_X$  is the *true* distribution of X. The distribution  $q_Y(\cdot)$  is thus the output distribution obtained by connecting the true input source to the auxiliary channel. Using this theorem, we can compute a lower bound on I(X; Y) by using the following algorithm [9]:

- 1) Sample a long sequence  $(x^n, y^n)$  according to the *true* joint distribution of  $X^n$  and  $Y^n$ .
- 2) Compute  $q_{Y^n|X^n}(y^n|x^n)$  and

$$q_{Y^n}(y^n) = \sum_{\tilde{x}^n} p_{X^n}(\tilde{x}^n) q_{Y^n|X^n}(y^n|\tilde{x}^n)$$
(24)

where  $p_{X^n}$  is the true distribution of  $X^n$ .

3) Estimate  $\underline{I}(X;Y)$  using

$$\underline{I}(X;Y) \approx \frac{1}{n_{\text{symb}}} \log \left( \frac{q_{Y^n|X^n}(y^n|x^n)}{q_{Y^n}(y^n)} \right)$$
(25)

Auxiliary Channel I: Consider the auxiliary channel

$$\Psi_k = X_k \Delta \ e^{j\Theta_k} + N_k \tag{26}$$

where  $\{\Theta_k\}$  and  $\{N_k\}$  are defined in Sec. III and  $X_k$  is defined by (20). The channel  $\Psi$  is the same as Y in (13) *except* that  $F_k$  is replaced with  $g((k \mod L)\Delta)$ . The channel is described by the conditional distribution  $p_{\Psi^n|X^n}$ 

$$p_{\Psi^n|X^n}(y^n|x^n) = \int_{\theta^n} p_{\Theta^n,\Psi^n|X^n}(\theta^n, y^n|x^n) \ d\theta^n$$
 (27)

where

$$p_{\Theta^{n},\Psi^{n}|X^{n}}(\theta^{n},y^{n}|x^{n})$$

$$=\prod_{k=1}^{n}p_{\Theta_{k}|\Theta_{k-1}}(\theta_{k}|\theta_{k-1}) p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(y_{k}|x_{k},\theta_{k}) \quad (28)$$

with

$$p_{\Theta_k|\Theta_{k-1}}(\theta|\tilde{\theta}) = \begin{cases} p_W(\theta - \tilde{\theta}; \sigma_W^2), & k \ge 2\\ 1/(2\pi), & k = 1 \end{cases}$$
(29)

and

1

$$p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(y|x,\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi \sigma_N^2 \Delta} \exp\left(-\frac{\left|y - x \ e^{j\theta}\right|^2}{\sigma_N^2 \Delta}\right).$$
(30)

The channel  $p_{\Psi^n|X^n}$  has continuous states  $\theta^n$ , which makes step 2 of the algorithm computationally infeasible.

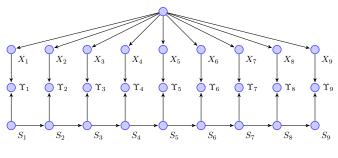


Fig. 1. Bayesian network for  $X^n, S^n, \Upsilon^n$  for n = 9.

*Auxiliary Channel II:* We use the following auxiliary channel for the numerical simulations:

$$\Upsilon_k = X_k \Delta \ e^{jS_k} + N_k \tag{31}$$

which has the conditional probability

$$p_{\Upsilon^n|X^n}(y^n|x^n) = \sum_{s^n \in \mathcal{S}^n} p_{S^n,\Upsilon^n|X^n}(s^n, y^n|x^n)$$
(32)

where S is a *finite* set and

$$p_{S^{n},\Upsilon^{n}|X^{n}}(s^{n},y^{n}|x^{n}) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_{S_{k}|S_{k-1}}(s_{k}|s_{k-1}) p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(y_{k}|x_{k},s_{k})$$
(33)

where

$$p_{S_k|S_{k-1}}(s|\tilde{s}) = \begin{cases} Q(s|\tilde{s}), & k \ge 2\\ 1/|\mathcal{S}|, & k = 1. \end{cases}$$
(34)

Next, we describe our choice of S and  $Q(\cdot|\cdot)$ . We partition  $[-\pi, \pi)$  into S intervals with equal lengths and pick the mid points of these intervals to be the elements of S, i.e., we have

$$S = \{\hat{s}_i : i = 1, \dots, S\}$$
 where  $\hat{s}_i = i\frac{2\pi}{S} - \frac{\pi}{S} - \pi$ . (35)

The state transition probability  $Q(\cdot|\cdot)$  is chosen similar to [8] and [10]:

$$Q(s|\tilde{s}) = \frac{2\pi}{S} \int_{(\phi,\tilde{\phi})\in\mathcal{R}(s)\times\mathcal{R}(\tilde{s})} p_W(\phi-\tilde{\phi};\sigma_W^2) \ d\phi d\tilde{\phi} \quad (36)$$

where  $\mathcal{R}(s) = [s - \pi/S, s + \pi/S)$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{R}(s)$  is the interval whose midpoint is s. The larger S and L are, the better the auxiliary channel (31) approximates the actual channel (13). We remark that even for small S and L, the auxiliary channel gives a *valid* lower bound on I(X; Y).

# A. Computing The Conditional Probability

Suppose the input  $X^n$  has the distribution  $p_{X^n}$ . A Bayesian network for  $X^n, S^n, \Upsilon^n$  is shown in Fig. 1. The probability  $p_{\Upsilon^n|X^n}(y^n|x^n)$  can be computed using

$$p_{\Upsilon^n|X^n}(y^n|x^n) = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \rho_n(s) \tag{37}$$

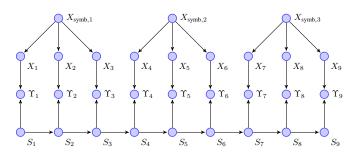


Fig. 2. Bayesian network for  $X^n, S^n, \Upsilon^n$  for n = 9 and L = 3.

where we recursively compute

$$\rho_{k}(s) \equiv p_{S_{k},\Upsilon^{k}|X^{n}}(s, y^{k}|x^{n})$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{=} \sum_{\tilde{s}\in\mathcal{S}} p_{S_{k-1},S_{k},\Upsilon^{k}|X^{n}}(\tilde{s}, s, y^{k}|x^{n})$$

$$\stackrel{(b)}{=} \sum_{\tilde{s}\in\mathcal{S}} \rho_{k-1}(\tilde{s}) \ p_{S_{k},\Upsilon_{k}|S_{k-1},\Upsilon^{k-1},X^{n}}(s, y_{k}|\tilde{s}, y^{k-1}, x^{n})$$

$$= \sum_{\tilde{s}\in\mathcal{S}} \rho_{k-1}(\tilde{s}) \ Q(s|\tilde{s}) \ p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(y_{k}|x_{k}, s)$$

$$(38)$$

with the initial value  $\rho_0(s) = 1/|\mathcal{S}|$ . Step (a) is a marginalization, (b) follows from Bayes' rule and the definition of  $\rho_k$ in (38), while (39) follows from the structure of Fig. 1. We remark that (39) is the same as with independent  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ , e.g., see equation (9) in [14, Sec. IV].

# B. Computing The Marginal Probability

Define  $\mathbf{Y}_m \equiv (Y_{(m-1)L+1}, Y_{(m-1)L+2}, \dots, Y_{(m-1)L+L})$ and  $\mathbf{X}_m \equiv (X_{(m-1)L+1}, X_{(m-1)L+2}, \dots, X_{(m-1)L+L})$ . Suppose the input *symbols* are i.i.d. and  $X_{\text{symb},m} \in \mathcal{X}$  where  $\mathcal{X}$  is a finite set. Therefore,  $p_{X^n}$  has the form

$$p_{X^n}(x^n) = \prod_{m=1}^{n_{\text{symb}}} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}_m).$$
(40)

A Bayesian network for  $X^n, S^n, \Upsilon^n$  is shown in Fig. 2. The probability  $p_{\Upsilon^n}(y^n)$  can be computed using

$$p_{\Upsilon^n}(y^n) = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \psi_{n_{\text{symb}}}(s) \tag{41}$$

where  $\psi_m(s) \equiv p_{S_{mL},\mathbf{Y}^m}(s,\mathbf{y}^m)$  which can be computed using the recursion:

$$\psi_m(s) \tag{42}$$

$$= \sum_{\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathcal{X}_L} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \sum_{\tilde{s} \in \mathcal{S}} \psi_{m-1}(\tilde{s}) p_{S_{mL}, \mathbf{Y}_m | S_{(m-1)L}, \mathbf{X}_m}(s, \mathbf{y}_m | \tilde{s}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}})$$

with the initial value  $\psi_0(s) = 1/|\mathcal{S}|$ . The set  $\mathcal{X}_L$  is

$$\mathcal{X}_L = \{ x \cdot (g(\Delta), g(2\Delta), \dots, g(L\Delta)) : x \in \mathcal{X} \}.$$
(43)

We remark that  $|\mathcal{X}_L| = |\mathcal{X}|$  and not  $|\mathcal{X}|^L$ . Next, we define

$$\chi_{m,L}(s,\tilde{s},\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \equiv p_{S_{mL},\mathbf{Y}_m|S_{(m-1)L},\mathbf{X}_m}(s,\mathbf{y}_m|\tilde{s},\tilde{\mathbf{x}})$$
(44)

for  $s, \tilde{s} \in S$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathcal{X}_L$ . Computing  $\chi_{m,L}(s, \tilde{s}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}})$  is similar to computing  $\rho_n$  (see (39)). Intuitively, this is because a block

of L samples in Fig. 2 has a structure similar to Fig. 1. More precisely,  $\chi_{m,L}(s, \tilde{s}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}})$  can be computed recursively by using

$$\chi_{m,\ell}(s,\tilde{s},\tilde{\mathbf{x}})$$

$$= \sum_{\varsigma \in \mathcal{S}} \chi_{m,\ell-1}(\varsigma,\tilde{s},\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) Q(s|\varsigma) p_{\Psi|X,\Theta} \left( y_{(m-1)L+\ell} | \tilde{x}_{\ell}, s \right)$$
(45)

with the initial value

$$\chi_{m,0}(s,\tilde{s},\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) = \begin{cases} 1, & s = \tilde{s} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(46)

Therefore, computing  $p_{\Upsilon^n}(y^n)$  involves two levels of recursion: 1) recursion over the symbols as described by (42) and 2) recursion over the samples within a symbol as described by (45).

#### V. NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

We use two pulses with a symbol-interval time support:

• A unit-energy square pulse

$$g_1(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_{\text{symb}}}} \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T_{\text{symb}}}\right)$$
(47)

where

A

$$\operatorname{rect}(t) \equiv \begin{cases} 1, & |t| \le 1/2, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(48)

· A unit-energy cosine-squared pulse

$$g_2(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_{\text{symb}}/2}} \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi t}{T_{\text{symb}}}\right) \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T_{\text{symb}}}\right). \quad (49)$$

The first step of the algorithm is to sample a long sequence according to the true joint distribution of  $X^n$  and  $Y^n$ . To generate samples according to the original channel (13), we must accurately represent digitally the continuous-time waveform (3). We use a simulation oversampling rate  $L_{sim} =$ 1024 samples/symbol. After the filter (12), the receiver has Lsamples/symbol distributed according to (13). Next, to choose a proper sequence length, we follow the approach suggested in [9]: for a candidate length, run the algorithm about 10 times (each with a new random seed) and check whether all estimates of the information rate agree up to the desired accuracy. We used  $n_{symb} = 10^4$  unless otherwise stated. We define the signal-to-noise ratio as SNR  $\equiv P/\sigma_N^2 T_{symb} = \mathcal{P}/\sigma_N^2$ .

For efficient implementation of (39),  $p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(\cdot|\cdot,\cdot)$  can be factored out of the summation to yield:

$$p_k(s) = p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(y_k|x_k,s) \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{s}\in\mathcal{S}} \rho_{k-1}(\tilde{s}) \ Q(s|\tilde{s})}_{\tilde{s}\in\mathcal{S}}$$
(50)

Moreover, since  $Q(\cdot|\cdot)$  can be represented by a circulant matrix due to symmetry,  $\rho'_k(\cdot)$  can be computed efficiently using the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). Similarly, the computation of (45) can be done efficiently by factoring out  $p_{\Psi|X,\Theta}(\cdot|\cdot,\cdot)$  and by using the FFT.

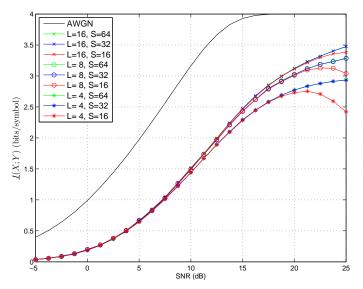


Fig. 3. Lower bounds on rates for 16-QAM, square transmit-pulse and multisample receiver at  $f_{\text{HWHM}}T_{\text{symb}} = 0.125$ .

# A. Excessively Large Linewidth

Suppose  $f_{\rm HWHM}T_{\rm symb} = 0.125$  and the input symbols are independently and uniformly distributed (i.u.d.) 16-QAM. Fig. 3 shows an estimate of  $\underline{I}(X;Y)$  for a square transmit-pulse, i.e.,  $g(t) = g_1(t - T_{symb}/2)$  and an L-sample receiver with L = 4, 8, 16 and S = 16, 32, 64. The curves with S = 64are indistinguishable from the curves with S = 32 over the entire SNR range for all values of L, and hence S = 32 is adequate up to 25 dB. Even S = 16 is adequate up to 20 dB. The important trend in Fig. 3 is that higher oversampling rate L is needed at high SNR to extract all the information from the received signal. For example, L = 4 suffices up to SNR  $\sim 10$  dB, L = 8 suffices up to SNR  $\sim 15$  dB but  $L \ge 16$  is needed beyond that. It was pointed out in [9] that the lower bounds can be interpeted as the information rates achieved by mismatched decoding. For example, I(X;Y) for L=8 and  $S \ge 32$  in Fig. 3 is essentially the information rate achieved by a multi-sample (8-sample) receiver that uses maximumlikelihood decoding for the simplified channel (26) when it is operated in the original channel (13).

Fig. 4 shows an estimate of  $\underline{I}(X; Y)$  for a cosine-squared transmit-pulse, i.e.,  $g(t) = g_2(t - T_{symb}/2)$  and an *L*-sample receiver at L = 4, 8, 16 and S = 16, 32, 64. We find that S = 32 suffices up to  $\sim 25$  dB. We see in Fig. 4 the same trend in Fig. 3: higher *L* is needed at higher SNR. Comparing Fig. 3 with Fig. 4 indicates that the square pulse is better than the cosine-squared pulse for the same oversampling rate *L*.

# B. Large Linewidth

As the linewidth decreases, the benefit of oversampling at the receiver becomes apparant only at higher SNR. For example, for  $f_{\text{HWHM}}T_{\text{symb}} = 0.0125$  and i.u.d. 16-PSK input, Fig. 5 shows an estimate of  $\underline{I}(X;Y)$  for a square transmitpulse and an *L*-sample receiver at L = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16 and

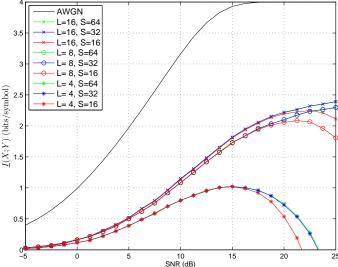


Fig. 4. Lower bounds on rates for 16-QAM, cosine-squared transmit-pulse and multi-sample receiver at  $f_{\rm HWHM}T_{\rm symb} = 0.125$ .

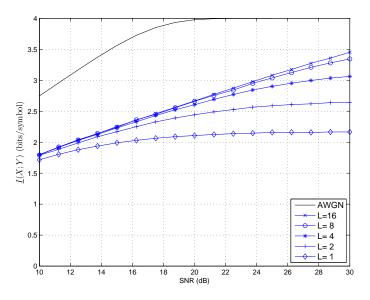


Fig. 5. Lower bounds on rates for 16-PSK, square transmit-pulse and multisample receiver at  $f_{\text{HWHM}}T_{\text{symb}} = 0.0125$ .

S = 64. We see that L = 4 suffices up to SNR ~ 19 dB, L = 8 suffices up to SNR ~ 24 dB and only beyond that  $L \ge 16$  is necessary.

We conclude from Fig. 3–5 that the required L depends on 1) the linewidth  $f_{\text{FWHM}}$  of the phase noise; 2) the pulse g(t); and 3) the SNR.

### C. Comparison With Other Models

We compare the discrete-time model of the multi-sample receiver with other discrete-time models. The simulation parameters for our model (GK) are  $n_{\text{symb}} = 10^4$ , L = 16 (with  $L_{\text{sim}} = 1024$ ) and S = 64 for 16-QAM (S = 128 was too computationally intensive) and S = 128 for QPSK.

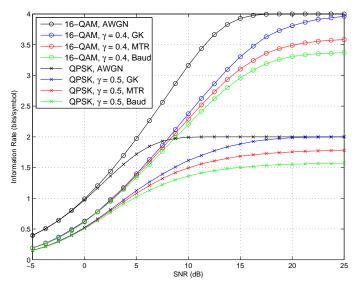


Fig. 6. Comparison of information rates for different models.

In Fig. 6, we show curves for the Baud-rate model used in [1] and [7]–[11]. The model is (1) where the phase noise is a Wiener process whose noise increments have variance  $\gamma^2$ . We set  $\gamma^2 = 2\pi\beta T_{\text{symb}}$ . The simulation parameters for the Baud-rate model are  $n_{\text{symb}} = 10^5$  and S = 128.

We also show curves for the Martalò-Tripodi-Raheli (MTR) model [14] in Fig. 6. For the sake of comparison, we adapt the model in [14] from a square-root raised-cosine pulse to a square pulse and write the "matched" filter output  $\{V_m\}$  as

$$V_m = \sum_{\ell=1}^{L} \Psi_{(m-1)L+1}$$
(51)

where  $m = 1, \ldots, n_{\text{symb}}$  and  $\Psi_k$  is defined in (26). The auxiliary channel is

$$Y_m = X_{\text{symb},m} \ e^{j\Theta_m} + Z_m, \qquad m \ge 1 \tag{52}$$

where the process  $\{Z_m\}$  is an i.i.d. circularly-symmetric complex Gaussian process with mean 0 and  $\mathbb{E}[|Z_m|^2] = \sigma_N^2 T_{\text{symb}}$  while the process  $\{\Theta_m\}$  is a first-order Markov process (not a Wiener process) with a time-invariant transition probability, i.e., for  $k \geq 2$  and all  $\theta_k, \theta_{k-1} \in [-\pi, \pi)$ , we have  $p_{\Theta_k|\Theta_{k-1}}(\theta_k|\theta_{k-1}) = p_{\Theta_2|\Theta_1}(\theta_k|\theta_{k-1})$ . Furthermore, the phase space is quantized to a finite number S of states and the transition probabilities are estimated by means of simulation. The probabilities are then used to compute a lower bound on the information rate. The simulation parameters for the MTR model are  $n_{\text{symb}} = 10^5$ , L = 16 and S = 128.

We see that the Baud-rate and MTR models saturate at a rate well below the rate achieved by the multi-sample receiver. Moreover, the multi-sample receiver achieves the full 4 bits/symbol and 2 bits/symbol of 16-QAM and QPSK, respectively, at high SNR.

# VI. CONCLUSION

We studied a waveform channel impaired by Wiener phase noise and AWGN by evaluating via numerical simulations tight lower bounds on the information rates achieved by a multisample receiver. We found that the required oversampling rate depends on the linewidth of the phase noise, the shape of the transmit-pulse and the signal-to-noise ratio. The results demonstrate that multi-sample receivers increase the information rate for both strong and weak phase noise at high SNR. We compared our results with the results obtained by using other discrete-time models.

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