

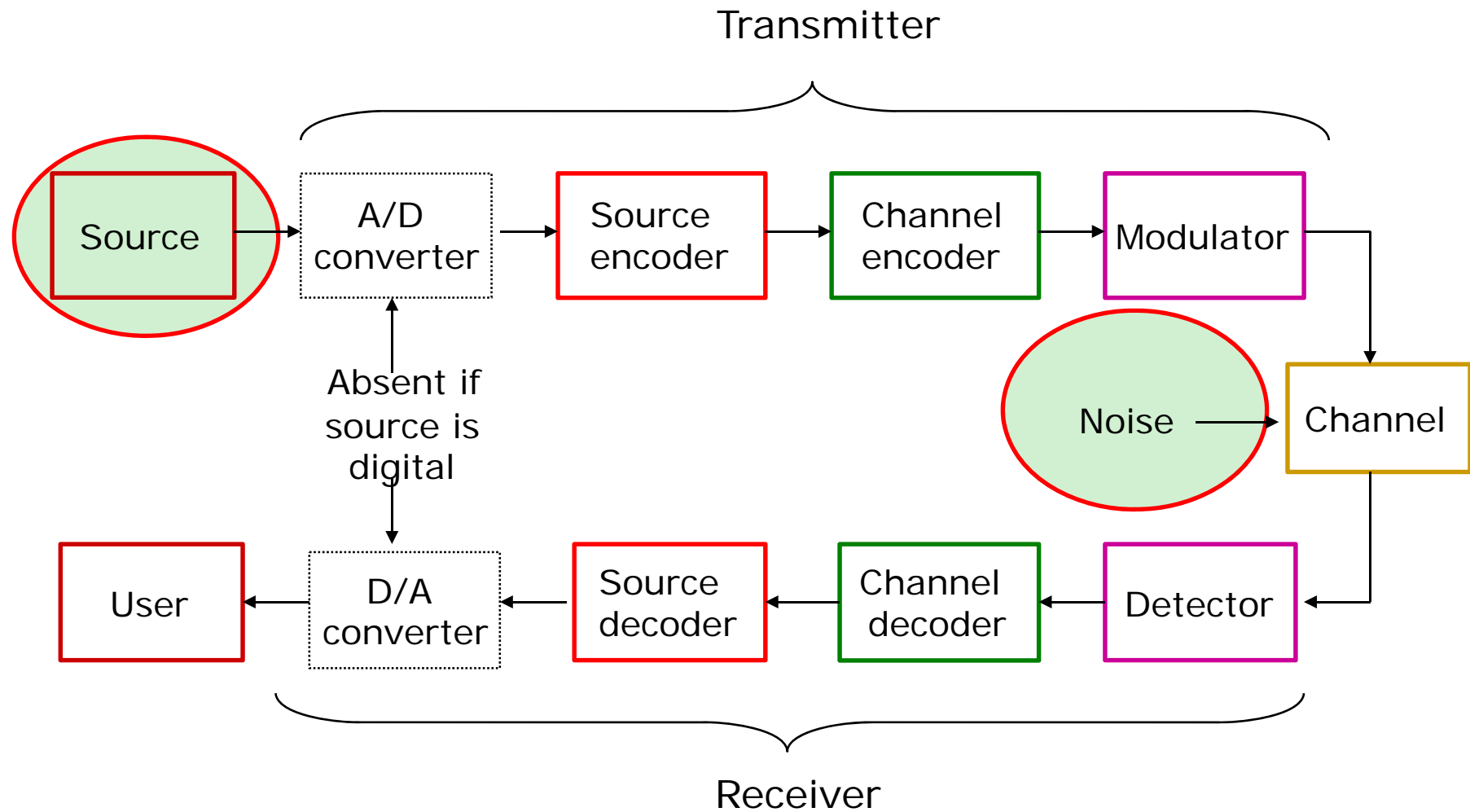


EE140 Introduction to Communication Systems

Lecture 3

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ShanghaiTech University, Fall 2022

Architecture of a (Digital) Communication System



Contents

- Random signals
 - Review of probability and random variables
 - Random processes: basic concepts
 - Gaussian white processes

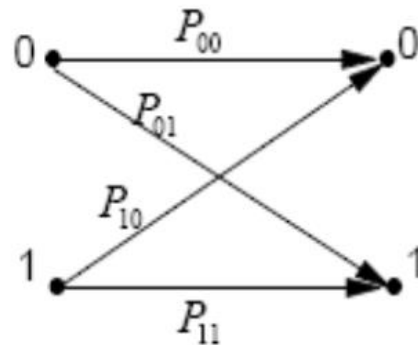
Probability

- Consider a binary communication system

prior

$$P(0) = 0.3$$

$$P(1) = 0.7$$



$$P_{01} = P(\text{receive 1} \mid \text{sent 0}) = 0.01$$

$$P_{00} = P(\text{receive 0} \mid \text{sent 0}) = 0.99$$

$$P_{10} = P(\text{receive 0} \mid \text{sent 1}) = 0.1$$

$$P_{11} = P(\text{receive 1} \mid \text{sent 1}) = 0.9$$

Maximum posterior probability estimates

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P(\text{send 0} \mid \text{receive 1}) = ? \\ P(\text{send 1} \mid \text{receive 1}) = ? \\ P(\text{send 1} \mid \text{receive 0}) = ? \\ P(\text{send 0} \mid \text{receive 0}) = ? \end{array} \right.$$

argmax $P(X=x \mid Y=y)$

$$= \frac{P(X=x, Y=y)}{P(Y=y)}$$

Conditional Probability

- Consider two events A and B
- Conditional probability $P(A|B)$
- Joint probability

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{P(AB)} &= P(A \cap B) \\ &= P(B)P(A|B) = \underline{P(A)P(B|A)}\end{aligned}$$

- A and B are said statistically **independent** iff

$$\underline{P(AB) = P(A)P(B)} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{P(A|B)} = P(A) \\ P(B|A) = P(B) \end{array} \right.$$

Law of Total Probability

- Let A_j , $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ be mutually exclusive events with

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j \text{ and } \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = S$$

- For any event B , we have

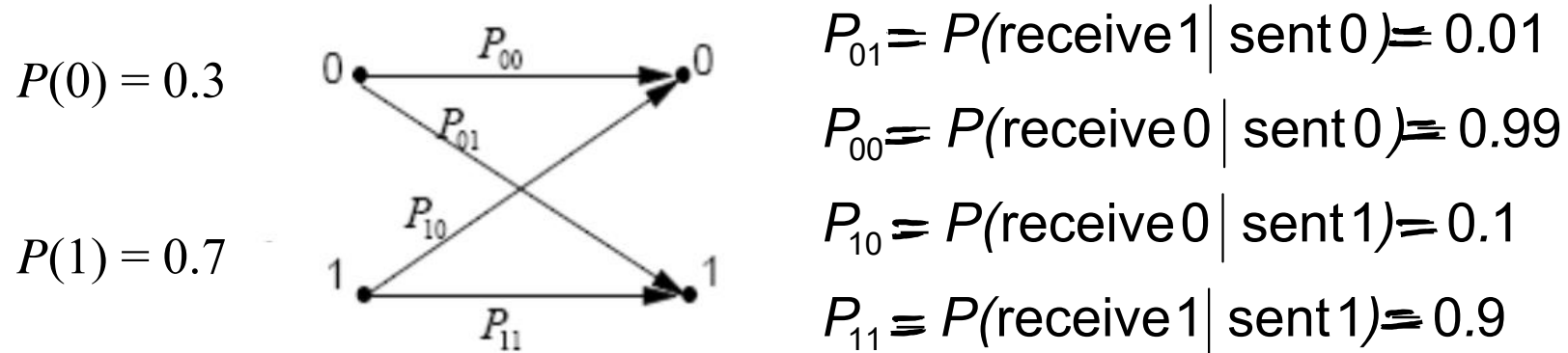
$$P_B = \sum_{j=1}^n P(B \cap A_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n P(B/A_j)P(A_j) \quad \text{Venn diagram}$$

- Bayes' Theorem

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_i|B) &= \frac{P(A_i, B)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n P(B|A_j)P(A_j)} \end{aligned}$$

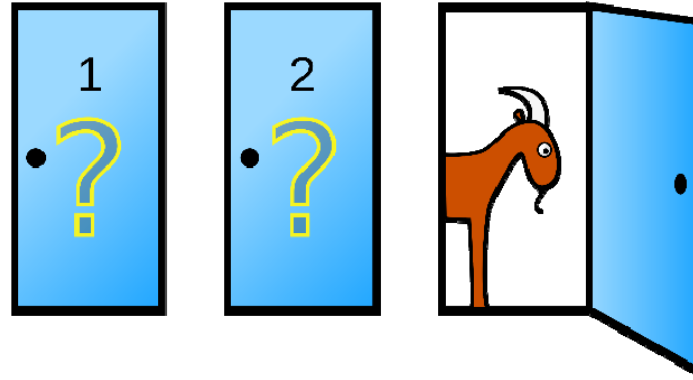
Example

- Consider a binary communication system



- What is the probability that the output of this channel is 1? $P(Y=1) = P(Y=1 \mid X=0)P(X=0) + P(Y=1 \mid X=1)P(X=1)$
- Assuming that we have observed a 1 at the output, what is the probability that the input to the channel was a 1? $P(X=1 \mid Y=1) = \frac{P(Y=1 \mid X=1)P(X=1)}{P(Y=1)}$

Game



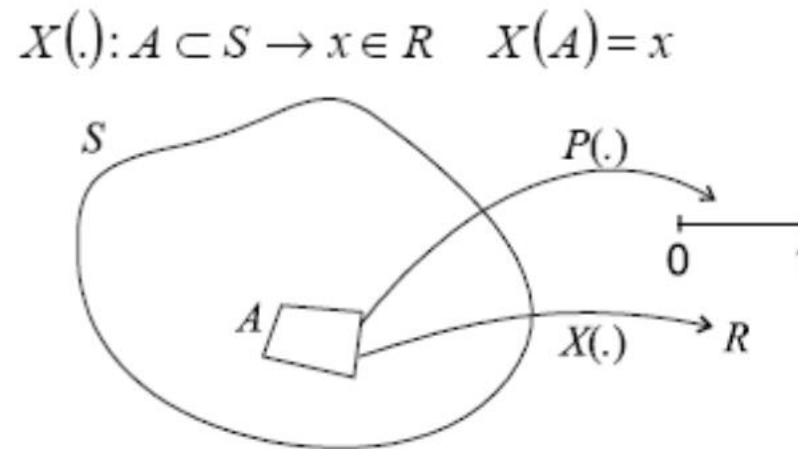
In search of a new car, the player picks a door, say 1. The game host then opens one of the other doors, say 3, to reveal a goat and offers to let the player switch from door 1 to door 2.

Random Variables (r.v.)

- A r.v. is a mapping from the sample space S to the set of real numbers.

$$X(.) : A \in S \rightarrow x \in R$$

$$X(A) \equiv x$$



- A r.v. may be
 - Discrete-valued: range is finite (e.g. $\{0,1\}$), or countable infinite (e.g. $\{1,2,3 \dots\}$)
 - Continuous-valued: range is uncountable infinite (e.g. R)

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

- The CDF of a r.v. X , is

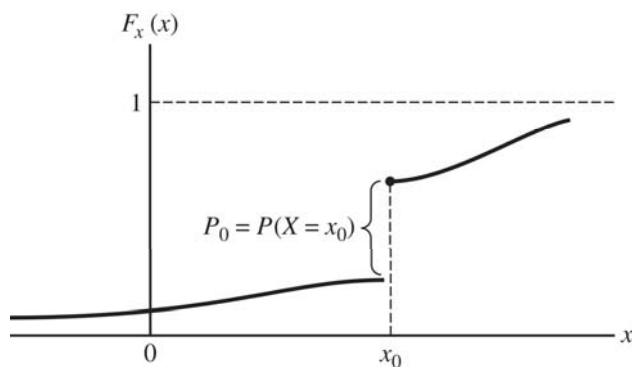
$$F_X(x) \triangleq P(X \leq x)$$

- Key properties of CDF

- $0 \leq F_X(x) \leq 1$ with $F_X(-\infty) = 0$, $F_X(\infty) = 1$

- $F_X(x)$ is a non-decreasing function of x

- $F_X(x_1 < X \leq x_2) = F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1)$



Probability Density Function (PDF)

- The PDF, of a r.v. X , is defined as

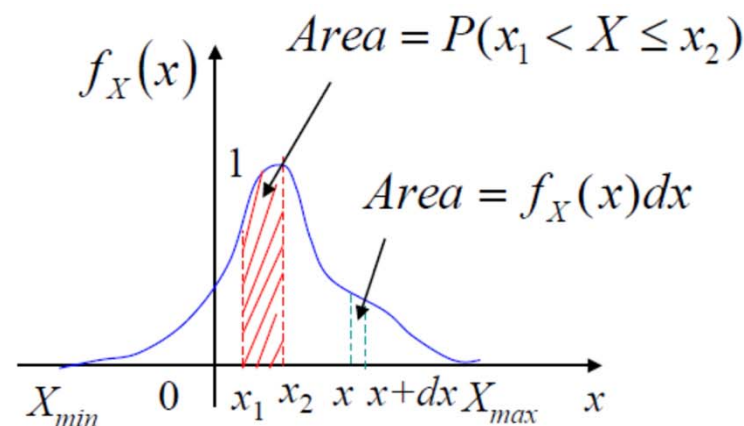
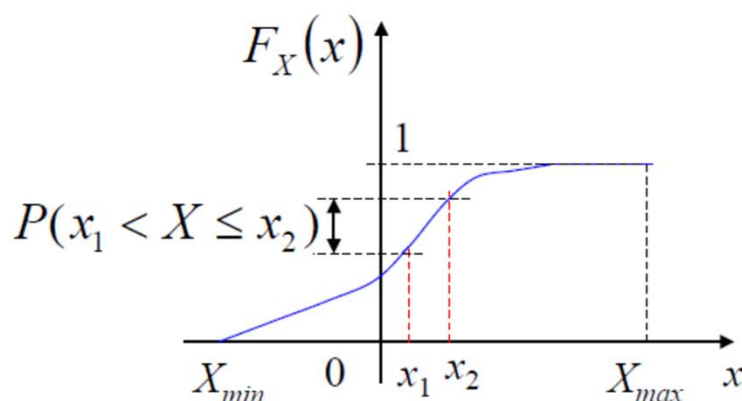
$$\underline{f_X(x)} \triangleq \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x) \quad \text{or} \quad F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(y) dy$$

- Key properties of PDF

1. $f_X(x) \geq 0$

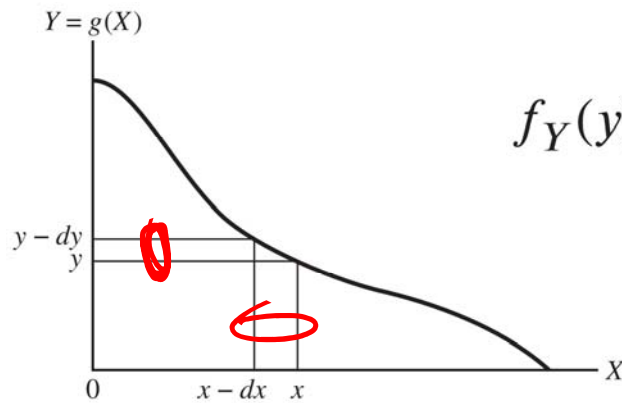
2. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$

3. $P(x_1 < X \leq x_2) = F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_X(x) dx$



Transformation of R.V.

- The PDF of a function of X , $Y = g(X)$
- Monotonic transformation: ~~↑~~ ~~↓~~

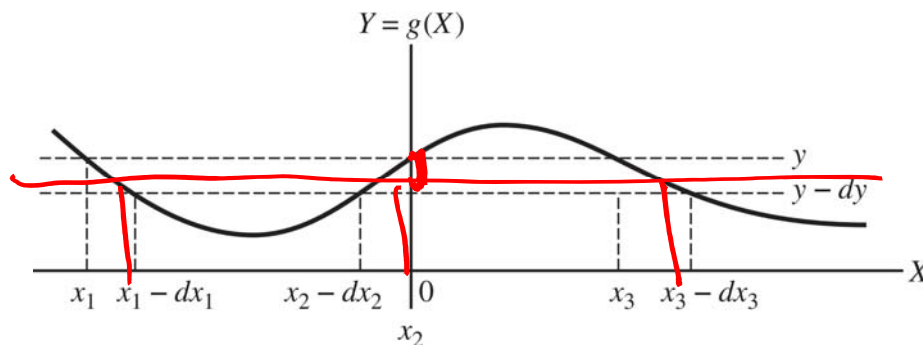


$$f_Y(y) = f_X(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|_{x=g^{-1}(y)}$$

$$f_Y(y) dy = f_X(x) dx$$

$$f_Y(y) = \left[f_X(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| \right]_{x=g^{-1}(y)}$$

- Nonmonotonic transformation:



$$f_Y(y) = \sum_{i=1}^N f_X(x_i) \left| \frac{dx_i}{dy} \right|_{x_i=g_i^{-1}(y)}$$

Exercise

- Suppose that X is a Gaussian random variable with zero mean and unit variance. Let

$$\underline{Y = aX^3 + b, \quad a > 0}$$

- Determine the PDF of Y $f_Y(y) = \left[f_X(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| \right] \quad x = \underline{\left(\frac{y-b}{a} \right)^{1/3}}$

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{1}{3a\sqrt{2\pi} [(y-b)/a]^{2/3}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y-b}{a} \right)^{2/3}}$$

Statistical Averages

- Consider a discrete r.v. which takes on the possible values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M with respective probabilities

$$P_1, P_2, \dots, P_M$$

- The mean or expected value of X is

$$m_x = \bar{X} = E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^M x_i P_i$$

- If X is continuous, then

$$m_x = E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

- Average of a function of a r.v. $Y = g(X)$.

$$E[Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_Y(y) dy \quad \overline{g(X)} \triangleq E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx$$

- This is the first moment of X .

Moment

- The n^{th} moment of X

$$E[X^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f_X(x) dx$$

- When $n = 2$, we have the mean-square value of X

$$\underline{E[X^2]} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f_X(x) dx$$

- n^{th} central moment

$$\underline{E[(X - E[X])^n]} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^n f_X(x) dx$$

- At $n=2$, we have the variance

$$\sigma_x^2 = E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2 - 2E[X]X + E[X]^2] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

- σ_x is called the standard deviation, the average distance from the mean, a measure of the concentration of X around the mean.

Some Useful Distribution: Bernoulli Distribution

- A discrete r.v. taking two possible values, $X = 1$ or $X = 0$, with probability mass function (pmf)

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} p(x) = P(X = x) \\ = \begin{cases} 1 - p, x = 0 \\ p, x = 1 \end{cases} \end{array} \right.$$

- Often used to model binary data

Some Useful Distribution: Binomial Distribution

- A discrete r.v. taking the sum of n-independent Bernoulli r.v. , i.e.

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{where} \quad p_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1-p, & x=0 \\ p, & x=1 \end{cases}$$

- The PMF is given by

$$p_Y(k) = \binom{n}{k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{n-k} \quad \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

- That is, the probability that $Y = k$ is the probability that k of the X_i are equal to 1 and $n-k$ are equal to 0.
- Expectation and variance:

$$\bar{K} = E[K] = np(p+q)^\ell = \underline{np} \quad \sigma_K^2 = E[K^2] - E^2[K] = \underline{npq}$$

Example

- Suppose that we transmit a 31-bit long sequence with error correction capability up to 3 bit errors
- If the probability of a bit error is $p = 0.001$, what is the probability that this sequence is received in errors?

$$P(\text{sequence error}) = 1 - P(\text{correct sequence})$$

$$= 1 - \sum_{i=0}^3 \binom{31}{i} (0.001)^i (0.999)^{31-i} \approx \underline{3.10^{-8}}$$

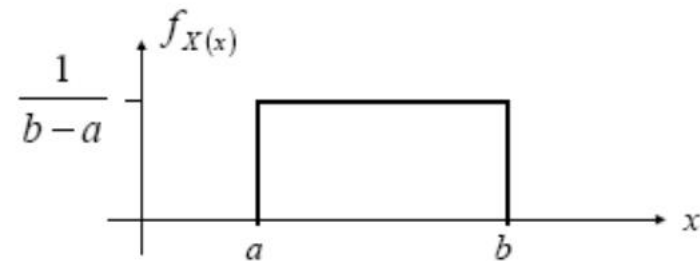
- If no error correction is used, the error probability is

$$P_e = 1 - \underline{0.999^{31}} \approx \underline{0.0305}$$

Some useful distribution: Uniform Distribution

- A continuous r.v. taking values between a and b with equal probabilities
- The PDF is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



- The random phase of a sinusoid is often modeled as a uniform r.v. between 0 and 2π .

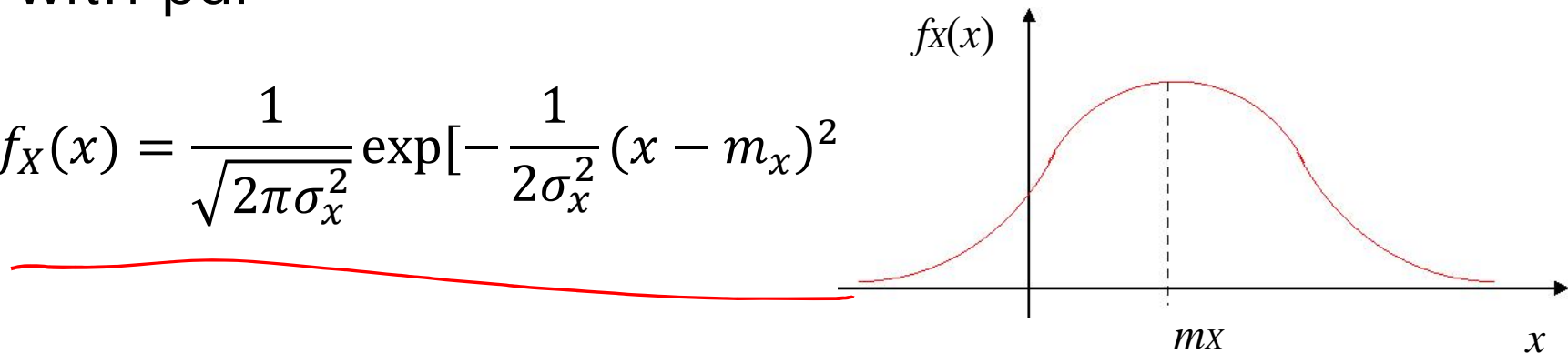
$$\sin(2\pi f_c t + \phi) \quad \phi \in \mathcal{U}[0, 2\pi]$$

↑

Some Useful Distribution: Gaussian Distribution

- Gaussian or normal distribution is a continuous r.v. with pdf

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_x^2} (x - m_x)^2\right]$$



- A Gaussian r.v. is completely determined by its mean and variance, and hence usually denoted as

$$x \sim N(m_x, \sigma_x^2)$$

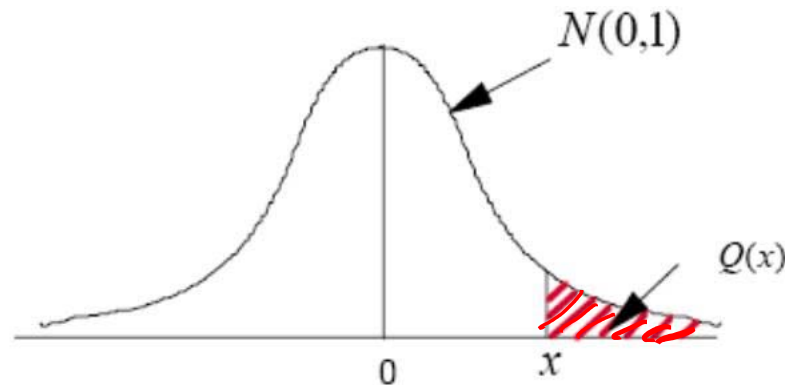
- By far the most important distribution in communications

The Q-Function

- The Q-function is a standard form to express error probabilities without a closed form

$$Q(x) = \int_x^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{u^2}{2}\right) du$$

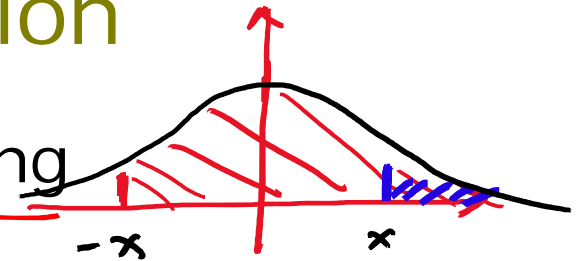
- The Q-function is the area under the tail of a Gaussian pdf with mean 0 and variance 1



Extremely important in error probability analysis!!!

More about Q-Function

- Q-function is monotonically decreasing
- Some features



$$Q(-\infty) = 1$$

$$Q(0) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$Q(\infty) = 0$$

$$Q(-x) = 1 - Q(x)$$

- Craig's alternative form of Q-function (IEEE MILCOM'91)

$$Q(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2 \sin^2 \theta}\right) d\theta, x \geq 0$$

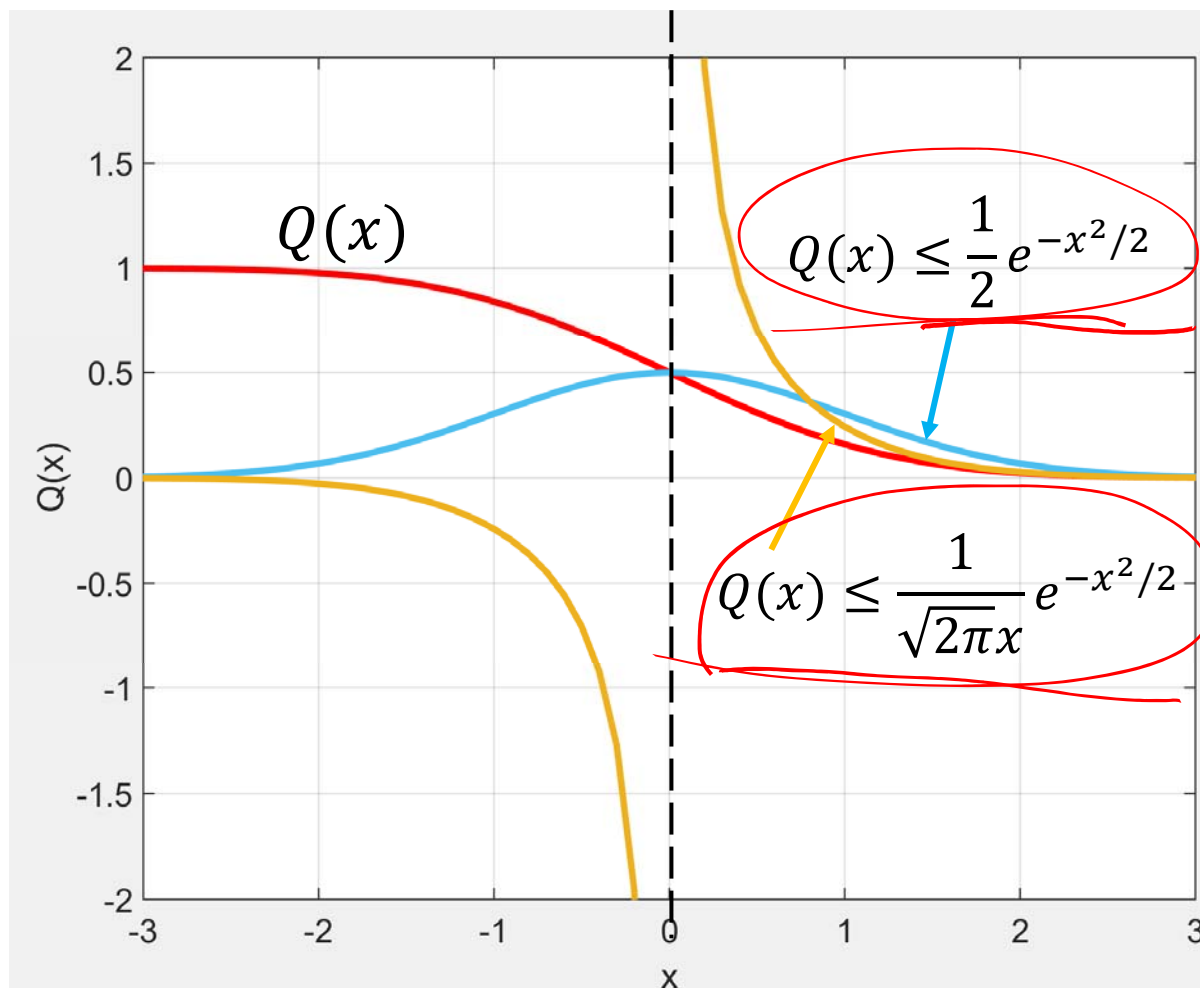
- Upper bound

$$Q(x) \leq \frac{1}{2} e^{-x^2/2}$$

- If we have a Gaussian variable $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$P(X > x) = Q\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

More about Q-Function



Joint Distribution

- Consider 2 r.v.'s X and Y , joint distribution function is defined as

$$F_{XY}(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$$

and joint PDF

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 F_{XY}(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y}$$

- Key properties of joint distribution

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy = 1$$

$$P(x_1 < X \leq x_2, y_1 < Y \leq y_2) = \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy$$

Joint Distribution (cont'd)

- Marginal distribution

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x, -\infty < Y < \infty) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^x f_{XY}(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha d\beta$$

$$F_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha d\beta$$

- Marginal density

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, \beta) d\beta, \quad f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(\alpha, y) d\alpha$$

- X and Y are said to be **independent** iff

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} F_{XY}(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y) \\ f_{XY}(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \\ f_{X|Y}(x|y) = f_X(x), f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_Y(y) \end{array} \right.$$

A Linear Combination of N R.V.s

- Average of a linear combination of N r.v.s

$$\underline{E \left[\sum_{i=1}^N a_i X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i E[X_i]}$$

- Variance of a linear combination of **independent** r.v.s

$$\underline{\text{var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N a_i X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i^2 \text{var} \{X_i\}}$$

- The pdf of the sum of two independent r.v.s

$$\underline{Z = X + Y} \quad f_Z(z) = f_X(x) * f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(z-u) f_Y(u) du$$

Correlation of the R.V.

- Correlation of the two r.v. X and Y is defined as

$$R_{xy} = E[XY] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xy f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy$$

- Correlation of the two centered r.v. $X - E[X]$ and $Y - E[Y]$, is called the covariance of X and Y

$$\sigma_{XY} = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = 0$$

- The correlation coefficient of X and Y

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

$0 \leq |\rho| \leq 1$
 $\rho = 0 \Rightarrow E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]$

- If $\rho_{XY} = 0$, i.e., $E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]$, then X and Y are called uncorrelated.

$$|\rho| = 1 \Rightarrow$$

Correlation (cont'd)

- If X and Y are independent, then they are uncorrelated.

$$\text{Independent} \rightarrow E[XY] = E[X]E[Y] \rightarrow \rho_{XY} = 0.$$

- The converse is not true (except for the Gaussian case)

Joint Gaussian Random Variables

- x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are jointly Gaussian iff

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} (\det(\mathbf{C}))^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})}{2} \right]$$

- \mathbf{x} is a column vector $\mathbf{x} \triangleq (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$
- \mathbf{m} is the vector of the means $\mathbf{m} \triangleq (m_1, \dots, m_n)^T$
- \mathbf{C} is the $n \times n$ covariance matrix

$$C = [C_{i,j}], C_{i,j} = E[(X_i - m_i)(X_j - m_j)]$$

Two-Variate Gaussian PDF

- Given two r.v.s: X_1 and X_2 that are joint Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned}
 C &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{E[(X_1 - m_1)^2]}{E[(X_1 - m_1)(X_2 - m_2)]} & \frac{E[(X_1 - m_1)(X_2 - m_2)]}{E[(X_2 - m_2)^2]} \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_1, x_2) = & \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left[\frac{(x_1 - m_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} - \frac{2\rho(x_1 - m_1)(x_2 - m_2)}{\sigma_1\sigma_2} \right. \right. \\
 & \left. \left. + \frac{(x_2 - m_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \right] \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Two-Variate Gaussian (cont'd)

- For uncorrelated X_1 and X_2 , i.e. $\rho = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2) &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(x_1 - m_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(x_2 - m_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \right] \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} e^{-(x_1 - m_1)^2 / 2\sigma_1^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_2} e^{-(x_2 - m_2)^2 / 2\sigma_2^2} \\ &= \underline{p(x_1)p(x_2)} \end{aligned}$$



X_1 and X_2 are independent!

- If X_1 and X_2 are Gaussian and uncorrelated, then they are independent.

Some Properties of Jointly Gaussian r.v.s

- If n random variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are jointly Gaussian, then any set of them is also jointly Gaussian. In particular, all individual r.v.s are Gaussian.
- Jointly Gaussian r.v.s are completely characterized by the mean vector and the covariance matrix, i.e. the second-order properties.
- Any linear combination of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n is a Gaussian r.v.

Law of Large Numbers

- Consider a sequence of r.v. X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n
- Let $Y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$
- If X 's are uncorrelated with the same mean and variance
- Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|Y - m_X| \geq \varepsilon) = 0, \forall \varepsilon > 0$$

the sample average converges to the expected value!

Central Limit Theorem

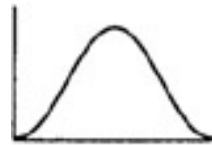
- If x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are **i.i.d.** random variables with common mean m_x and common variance σ_x^2 then $y \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ converges to $N(m_x, \frac{\sigma_x^2}{n})$

the sum of many i.i.d random variables converges to a Gaussian random variable

- Thermal noise results from the random movement of many electrons – it is well modeled by a Gaussian distribution.

Example

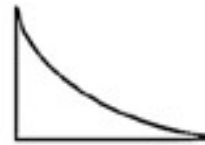
(a)
Normal



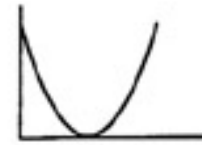
(b)
Uniform



(c)
Exponential



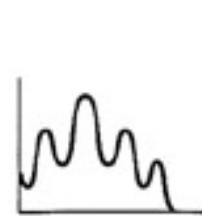
(d)
Parabolic



Parent Population



Sampling Distributions of x for $n = 2$



Sampling Distributions of x for $n = 5$

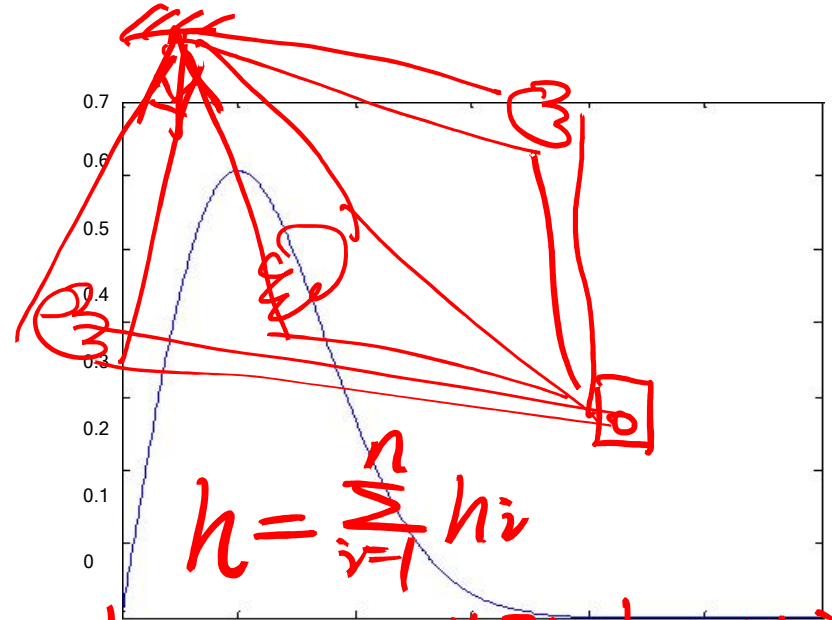


Sampling Distributions of x for $n = 30$

Some useful distribution: Rayleigh Distribution

- PDF

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{\alpha^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\alpha^2}\right), & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



$n \rightarrow \infty \quad h \sim \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \quad \underline{h} = x + jy$

- Rayleigh distributions are frequently used to model fading for non-line of sight (NLOS) signal transmission

- Very important for mobile and wireless communications

$|h| \sim \text{Rayleigh}$
 $\angle h \sim \text{uniform } [0, 2\pi]$

Exercise

- Let $\underline{Z} = \underline{X} + j\underline{Y}$, where x and Y are i.i.d. Gaussian random variables with mean 0 and variance σ^2
- Show that the magnitude of Z follows Rayleigh distribution and its phase follows a uniform distribution.

$$\underline{(u, v)} = g(\underline{x, y}) \quad f(u, v) = \left[f(x, y) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| \right]_{(x, y)=g^{-1}(u, v)}$$

$$R = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2} \quad \Theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{Y}{X} \right)$$

$$f(x, y) = f(x) f(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\underline{X} = R \cos \Theta = g_1^{-1}(R, \Theta)$$

$$\underline{Y} = R \sin \Theta = g_2^{-1}(R, \Theta)$$

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r$$

$$f_{R\Theta}(r, \theta) = \frac{r e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2}}{2\pi\sigma^2} \quad 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$$

$$f_R(r) = \frac{r}{\sigma^2} e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2}, \quad 0 \leq r < \infty$$



Thanks for your kind attention!

Questions?