

# Successive Hypothesis Testing Based Sparse Signal Recovery and Its Application to MUD in Random Access

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**Abstract**—Based on successive hypothesis testing, we propose an approach for sparse signal recovery and apply it to random access to detect multiple block-sparse signals over frequency-selective fading channels. By introducing the sparsity variable, the proposed approach decides the presence or absence of the signal in each stage. To mitigate the error propagation, adaptive ordering is also employed as a greedy algorithm. From simulation results, it is shown that the proposed approach performs better than the block orthogonal matching pursuit algorithm, which is a well-known greedy compressive sensing algorithm for compressive random access.

**Index Terms**—Random access, sparse signal recovery.

## I. INTRODUCTION

FOR machine-type communications (MTC), random access has been considered in [1] and [2]. In random access, where the active devices cannot be known in advance, the notion of compressive sensing (CS) [3], [4] has been applied to multiuser detection (MUD) by exploiting the sparsity of active devices [5], [6]. The CS-based MUD approaches in [7]–[9] can not only detect the signals from active devices over frequency-selective fading channels, but also estimate their channel state information. As a result, the approaches in [7]–[9] could be well suited to MTC where devices of short packets want to transmit their signals over frequency-selective fading channels with low signaling overhead.

Since there are low-complexity approaches to recover sparse signals in CS such as greedy algorithms, we may readily develop low-complexity CS-based MUD approaches for random access. For example, the orthogonal matching pursuit (OMP) algorithm [10], which is a well-known greedy algorithm, can be used [7]. A key feature of the OMP algorithm is successive interference cancellation (SIC), which is also employed for multiple input multiple output (MIMO) detection [11], [12].

As shown in [7], MUD in random access over frequency-selective fading channels can be carried out via block-sparse

signal recovery. For this MUD, we propose an approach based on successive hypothesis testing to decide the presence or absence of a signal in each stage using the sparsity variable. There are similar approaches based on Bayesian hypothesis testing for correlated signals [13]–[15], while no correlation of signals is considered in this letter. The main advantages of the proposed approach are that 1) it does not require the knowledge of the number of active signals; 2) it can take into account the prior information of the activity of signals. For a better performance by mitigating the error propagation, adaptive ordering is also employed, which results in a greedy algorithm similar to the OMP algorithm. The proposed approach is applied to random access and shown to have a better performance than a well-known CS greedy algorithm based on OMP from simulation results.

*Notation:* The superscripts  $T$  and  $H$  denote the transpose and complex conjugate, respectively. The  $\ell$ -norm of a vector  $\mathbf{a}$  is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{a}\|_\ell$  (if  $\ell = 2$ , the norm is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{a}\|$  without the subscript).  $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$  denotes the statistical expectation.  $\mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})$  represents the distribution of circularly symmetric complex Gaussian (CSCG) random vectors with mean vector  $\mathbf{a}$  and covariance matrix  $\mathbf{R}$ .

## II. CS-BASED DETECTION IN RANDOM ACCESS

In this letter, we mainly focus on MUD in random access over frequency-selective fading channels. Suppose that there are multiple devices for random access in a single-carrier system with cyclic-prefix (CP). As in [7], for random access, we assume that each device has a unique signature sequence. The set of signature sequences is given by  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_L\}$ , where  $\mathbf{c}_l \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times 1}$  denotes the  $l$ th signature sequence, which is assigned to the  $l$ th device. We assume that only few devices become active at a time, while all the devices are synchronized. Denote by  $l(m)$  the index of the  $m$ th active device and by  $M (\leq L)$  the number of active devices. The  $q$ th received signal at the access point (AP) after removing CP becomes

$$y_q = \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} h_{l(m),p} c_{l(m),(q-p)_N} + n_q, \quad q = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (1)$$

where  $h_{l,p}$  is the channel impulse response (CIR) from device  $l$  to the AP,  $P$  is the length of CIR, and  $n_q \sim \mathcal{CN}(0, N_0)$  is the background noise. Here,  $\mathbf{c}_l = [c_{l,0} \dots c_{l,N-1}]^T$  represents the  $l$ th sequence in  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $(x)_N = x \pmod{N}$ . Let  $\mathbf{y} = [y_0 \dots y_{N-1}]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{n} = [n_0 \dots n_{N-1}]^T$ , and denote by  $\mathbf{C}_l$

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80 the  $N \times N$  circulant matrix of  $\mathbf{c}_l$ . From (1), we have

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{m=1}^M \mathbf{C}_{l(m);P} \mathbf{h}_{l(m)} + \mathbf{n} \quad (2)$$

81 where  $\mathbf{C}_{l;P}$  represents the submatrix of  $\mathbf{C}_l$  obtained by tak-  
82 ing the first  $P$  columns,  $\mathbf{h}_l = [h_{l,0} \dots h_{l,P-1}]^T$ , and  $\mathbf{n} \sim$   
83  $\mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, N_0 \mathbf{I})$  is the background noise vector. Let  $\Psi_l = \mathbf{C}_{l;P}$   
84 and  $\Psi = [\Psi_1 \dots \Psi_L] \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times PL}$ . Then, (2) becomes

$$\mathbf{y} = \Psi \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{n} \quad (3)$$

85 where the  $l$ th  $P \times 1$  submatrix of  $\mathbf{s}$  is given by  $\mathbf{s}_l$ , which is  
86 found as

$$\mathbf{s}_l = \begin{cases} \mathbf{h}_{l(m)}, & l \in \{l(1), \dots, l(M)\}; \\ \mathbf{0}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

87 The sparse signal  $\mathbf{s}$  is a concatenation of  $L$  subvectors of size  
88  $P \times 1$  as  $\mathbf{s} = [\mathbf{s}_1^T \mathbf{s}_2^T \dots \mathbf{s}_L^T]^T$  and the (block) sparsity [16] is  
89 given by  $\|\mathbf{s}\|_{2,0} = \sum_{l=1}^L \mathbb{1}(\|\mathbf{s}_l\|_2 > 0)$ , where  $\mathbb{1}(\cdot)$  is the indica-  
90 tor function. Throughout the letter, we consider the block-sparse  
91 signal model in (3). Although it has been derived for random  
92 access over frequency-selective fading channels, it can also be  
93 a generic model for block-sparse signal recovery in [16].

94 In conventional MUD [17],  $\mathbf{s}$  in (3) can be estimated under  
95 the assumption that all the signals are present (or all the devices  
96 are active). However, in random access, only few elements of  
97  $\mathbf{s}$  are nonzero. To take into account the sparsity of active de-  
98 vices, in [5] [6], low-complexity CS algorithms are considered  
99 for MUD from  $\mathbf{y}$  when  $P = 1$  (i.e., flat fading channels). For  
100 the case of  $P \geq 1$ , in [7] and [8], it is noted that the chan-  
101 nel estimation has to be considered in conjunction with block-  
102 sparse signal recovery. Thus, in [7], the block-OMP (BOMP)  
103 algorithm, which is proposed in [16], is applied to MUD so that  
104 the AP can not only detect the active devices, but also estimate  
105 the nonzero channel vectors of the active devices.

106 It is important to note that the approaches in [7] and [8] for  
107 MUD in random access differ from conventional MTC random  
108 access such as the random access channel procedure [1], which  
109 is used to establish connections, not to transmit data sequences.  
110 The approaches in [7] and [8], which are often called compres-  
111 sive random access schemes, are one-shot transmission schemes  
112 that aim to transmit short packets without any handshaking  
113 procedure.

114 In compressive random access, under a frequency-selective  
115 fading environment (i.e.,  $P > 1$ ), we can consider the block-  
116 coherence of  $\Psi$  [16] when a CS algorithm is used to recover  $\mathbf{s}$ .  
117 The block-coherence of  $\Psi$  (where the norm of any column is  
118 normalized to be unity) is defined as [16]

$$\mu_B(\Psi) = \frac{1}{P} \max_{l \neq m} \rho(\Psi_l^H \Psi_m)$$

119 where  $\rho(\mathbf{X}) = \lambda_{\max}^{1/2}(\mathbf{X}^H \mathbf{X})$ . Here,  $\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{B})$  denotes the largest  
120 eigenvalue of the positive-semidefinite matrix  $\mathbf{B}$ . In general,  
121 the performance of CS algorithms can be better as the block-  
122 coherence decreases. Thus, noting that the  $p$ th column of  $\Psi_l =$   
123  $\mathbf{C}_{l;P}$  can be obtained by circular shifts of the first column or  
124  $\mathbf{c}_l$ , we may use Zadoff-Chu [18] or Alltop sequences for  $\mathcal{C}$  so  
125 that  $\Psi$  has a small block-coherence. In particular, with a prime

number  $N \geq 5$ , if  $\mathbf{c}_l$  s are orthogonal Alltop sequences [19], i.e., 126

$$[\mathbf{c}_l]_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{j \frac{2\pi}{N} (n^3 + (l-1)n)}, \quad n = 0, \dots, N-1; \quad l = 1, \dots, L, \quad (4)$$

the block-coherence  $\Psi$  becomes  $\rho_B(\Psi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ . 127

Note that the block-sparsity in (3) differs from that in [13] 128  
(which is the first work that uses Bayesian hypothesis testing for 129  
sparse recovery) [14], [15] where the lengths of  $\mathbf{s}_l$  s are random 130  
and correlated, while it is the same as that in [16] where the 131  
length of  $\mathbf{s}_l$  is fixed and known. The approaches in [14] and [15] 132  
assume a Markov chain for the activity of the elements of  $\mathbf{s}$ , and 133  
employ Bayesian hypothesis testing for sparse recovery. Thus, 134  
those approaches are attractive when the structure of block- 135  
sparse signals is not known. On the other hand, in our model, the 136  
structure of block-sparse signals is known as mentioned ear- 137  
lier. In addition, since the activity of device is independent, the 138  
Bayesian hypothesis testing approaches in [14] and [15] are not 139  
suitable for the MUD in compressive random in this letter. In 140  
some applications, however, the activity of devices can be cor- 141  
related (in some wireless sensor networks, where sensors are to 142  
detect spatial information), the correlated source model in [20], 143  
[14], and [15] could be considered for compressive random ac- 144  
cess, which is beyond the scope of this letter. 145

### III. SUCCESSIVE SPARSE-SIGNAL DETECTION APPROACH 146 WITH A PREDETERMINED ORDER 147

As mentioned earlier, the BOMP algorithm can be considered 148  
to recover the block-sparse signal  $\mathbf{s}$  with known<sup>1</sup> block-sparsity. 149  
However, in this section, we propose a different approach to 150  
recover the block-sparse signal  $\mathbf{s}$  that does not require the block- 151  
sparsity. This approach is based on a low-complexity approach 152  
studied for MIMO detection [12]. 153

Let  $\mathbf{a}_l$  be the unknown channel vector for the  $l$ th active device. 154  
Then, (3) becomes 155

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{l=1}^L \Psi_l \mathbf{a}_l u_l + \mathbf{n} \quad (5)$$

where  $u_l$  is the sparsity variable and  $u_l \in \{0, 1\}$ . If the  $l$ th device 156  
is inactive,  $u_l = 0$ . 157

Throughout the letter, we consider the following assumptions. 158

A1)  $\mathbf{a}_l$  and  $u_l$  are independent, and  $\{\mathbf{a}_l\}$  are mutually 159  
independent zero-mean CSCG random vectors (i.e., 160  
Rayleigh multipath fading channels are assumed) and 161  
 $\{u_l\}$  are also mutually independent. 162

A2) The covariance matrix of  $\mathbf{a}_l$  is known at the AP. In 163  
addition,  $\Pr(u_l = 1) = \mathbb{E}[u_l] = \bar{u}_l$  is known. 164

Due to the sparsity, we expect that  $\Pr(u_l = 1) \ll \Pr(u_l = 0)$ . 165  
Under A1) and A2), we propose an algorithm based on suc- 166  
cessive hypothesis testing to recover the sparse signal when the 167  
detection order is given in this section. For convenience, we 168  
detect the signal in the increasing order. In Section IV, we will 169  
consider adaptive order. 170

Let  $\mathbf{v}_m = \sum_{l=m+1}^L \Psi_l \mathbf{a}_l u_l + \mathbf{n}$ . Under A1) and A2), we as- 171  
sume  $\mathbf{v}_m \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_m)$ , where 172

$$\mathbf{R}_m = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{v}_m \mathbf{v}_m^H] = \sum_{l=m+1}^L \Psi_l \mathbf{G}_l \Psi_l^H \bar{u}_l + N_0 \mathbf{I}. \quad (6)$$

<sup>1</sup>It is also possible to apply the BOMP algorithm without knowing the block-  
sparsity using some (*ad hoc*) termination conditions.

173 Here,  $\mathbf{G}_l = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}_l \mathbf{a}_l^H]$ . When  $m = 1$ , we consider the hypothesis  
174 testing for  $u_m = u_1$  with the following likelihood function:

$$f(\mathbf{y} | u_1) = \begin{cases} C_0 e^{-(\mathbf{y} - \Psi_1 \mathbf{v}_1)^H \mathbf{R}_1^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \Psi_1 \mathbf{v}_1)}, & \text{if } u_1 = 1; \\ C_0 e^{-\mathbf{y}^H \mathbf{R}_1^{-1} \mathbf{y}}, & \text{if } u_1 = 0 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

175 where  $C_0$  is the normalization constant. Then, the maximum a  
176 posteriori probability decision on  $u_1$  becomes

$$\hat{u}_1 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \Pr(u_1 = 1 | \mathbf{y}) > \Pr(u_1 = 0 | \mathbf{y}); \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

177 where  $\Pr(u_1 | \mathbf{y}) = C_1 f(\mathbf{y} | u_1) \Pr(u_1)$ . Here,  $C_1$  is constant.  
178 Since  $\mathbf{v}_1$  is not available, we can replace  $f(\mathbf{y} | u_1 = 1)$  with  
179  $\max_{\mathbf{v}_1} f(\mathbf{y} | u_1 = 1, \mathbf{v}_1) = f(\mathbf{y} | u_1 = 1, \hat{\mathbf{v}}_1)$ , where

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1 = (\Psi_1^H \mathbf{R}_1^{-1} \Psi_1)^{-1} \Psi_1^H \mathbf{R}_1^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

180 is the maximum likelihood (ML) estimate of  $\mathbf{v}_1$ .

181 Once  $\hat{u}_1$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1$  are found, the signal from the first device  
182 can be subtracted as  $\mathbf{y}_{(1)} = \mathbf{y}_{(0)} - \Psi_1 \hat{\mathbf{v}}_1 \hat{u}_1$ , where  $\mathbf{y}_{(0)} = \mathbf{y}$ .  
183 In general, we have

$$\mathbf{y}_{(m)} = \mathbf{y}_{(m-1)} - \Psi_m \hat{\mathbf{v}}_m \hat{u}_m, \quad (9)$$

184 which is the SIC that is used for MIMO detection except for the  
185 sparsity variable. Then, from  $\mathbf{y}_{(m-1)}$ ,  $\hat{u}_m$  can be obtained as

$$\hat{u}_m = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \lambda_m > \tau_m; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

186 where  $\lambda_m = \ln \frac{f(\mathbf{y}_{(m-1)} | u_m = 1, \hat{\mathbf{v}}_m)}{f(\mathbf{y}_{(m-1)} | u_m = 0)}$ ,  $\tau_m = \ln \frac{\Pr(u_m = 0)}{\Pr(u_m = 1)}$ , and

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_m = (\Psi_m^H \mathbf{R}_m^{-1} \Psi_m)^{-1} \Psi_m^H \mathbf{R}_m^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{(m-1)}.$$

187 The proposed approach to detect sparse signals based on suc-  
188 cessive hypothesis testing is referred to as the successive sparse  
189 signal detection (SSSD) approach in this letter. While this ap-  
190 proach is similar to an approach in [11] and [12], which is called  
191 V-BLAST, due to SIC, the main difference from V-BLAST is  
192 the decision on the presence or absence of the signal in each  
193 stage to take into account the sparsity of activity, which is in  
194 (10). Note that the SSSD approach also suffers from the error  
195 propagation due to SIC.

196 In summary, the SSSD approach performs successive hypoth-  
197 esis testing for the presence or absence of each block-signal (of  
198 length  $P$ ). If the signal is detected, we perform the ML estima-  
199 tion of the block-signal and its ML estimate is subtracted from  
200 the received signal for the next hypothesis testing. There are  
201 some key features of the SSSD approach. It can have different a  
202 prior probability of the presence of the signal,  $\Pr(u_l)$ , and does  
203 not require to know the number of signals, or sparsity. Thus, it  
204 can be applied to the case where  $M$  is random (and even  $M$  is  
205 not sparse).

#### 206 IV. SUCCESSIVE SPARSE-SIGNAL DETECTION APPROACH 207 WITH AN ADAPTIVE ORDER

208 It is well known that V-BLAST can have a better performance  
209 if the detection order can be adaptively decided at the cost of  
210 increasing complexity to mitigate the error propagation [21]. In  
211 this section, we propose an ordered SSSD approach.

In order to derive the SSSD approach with adaptive order, let  
 $\mathcal{L}(0) = \{1, \dots, L\}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_{(0)} = \mathbf{y}$ , and

$$\mathbf{R}_{(0)} = \sum_{l=1}^L \Psi_l \mathbf{G}_l \Psi_l^H \bar{u}_l + N_0 \mathbf{I}.$$

The index for the stage of the successive detection is denoted  
by  $t$  in a pair of round brackets, i.e.,  $(t)$ .

Let  $t = 1$ . In order to decide the presence or absence of the  
signal vector to be detected at the  $(t)$ th stage, we need to per-  
form the hypothesis testing for all  $l \in \mathcal{L}(t-1)$ . To this end,  
we consider the following log-likelihood ratio (LLR) of the  $l$ th  
signal vector:

$$\lambda_{l,(t)} = \ln \frac{f(\mathbf{y}_{(t-1)} | u_l = 1, \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{l,(t-1)})}{f(\mathbf{y}_{(t-1)} | u_l = 0)}, \quad l \in \mathcal{L}(t-1)$$

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{l,(t-1)} = \left( \Psi_l^H \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1} \Psi_l \right)^{-1} \Psi_l^H \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{(t-1)}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)} = \mathbf{R}_{(t-1)} - \Psi_l \mathbf{G}_l \Psi_l^H. \quad (11)$$

Here,  $\mathbf{R}_{(t)} = \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}(t)} \Psi_l \mathbf{G}_l \Psi_l^H \bar{u}_l + N_0 \mathbf{I}$ .

After some manipulations, we can show that

$$\lambda_{l,(t)} = \mathbf{y}_{(t-1)}^H \mathbf{W}_{l,(t-1)} \mathbf{y}_{(t-1)}, \quad (12)$$

where

$$\mathbf{W}_{l,(t-1)} = \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1} \Psi_l (\Psi_l^H \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1} \Psi_l)^{-1} \Psi_l^H \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1}.$$

The signal to be decided can be chosen as follows:

$$l^*(t) = \underset{l \in \mathcal{L}(t)}{\operatorname{argmax}} |\lambda_{l,(t)} - \tau_l| \quad (13)$$

which has the largest gap from  $\tau_l$ . Then, the corresponding  
sparsity variable can be decided by

$$\hat{u}_{l^*(t)} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \lambda_{l^*(t),(t)} > \tau_l; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

Once the presence of the  $l^*(t)$ th signal is decided, this signal  
can be subtracted and  $\mathcal{L}(t)$  can be updated as follows:

$$\mathbf{y}_{(t)} = \mathbf{y}_{(t-1)} - \Psi_{l^*(t)} \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{l^*(t)} \hat{u}_{l^*(t)}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(t) = \mathcal{L}(t-1) \setminus l^*(t). \quad (15)$$

The resulting approach is referred to as the ordered SSSD  
approach, which is also a greedy algorithm as the BOMP  
algorithm. The main difference from the BOMP algorithm is  
the decision step with the sparsity variable in (14), where the  
decision of the absence of signal is also made. In the BOMP  
algorithm, the matching pursuit is carried out only for active  
signals (or devices). On the other hand, in the ordered SSSD  
approach the matching pursuit is carried out for both active and  
inactive signals using the LLR as in (13) in the ordered decision,  
which could result in a better performance.

The computational complexity of the SSSD approach can be  
low if some key matrices are obtained in advance. For example,  
 $\mathbf{R}_{(t)}$  and  $\mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}$  can be found in advance as they depend only  
on  $\Psi_l$  and  $\mathbf{G}_l$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{W}_{l,(t-1)}$  can be computed in advance  
and stored. In this case, the complexity mainly depends on find-  
ing  $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{l,(t-1)}$  with precomputed  $(\Psi_l^H \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1} \Psi_l)^{-1} \Psi_l^H \mathbf{R}_{l,(t-1)}^{-1}$   
in (11) and  $\lambda_{l,(t)}$  in (12), which is  $O(L^2)$ . Consequently, we

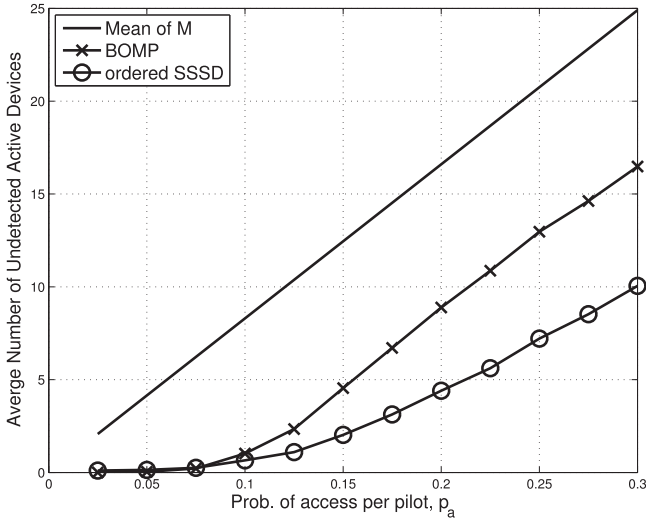


Fig. 1. Average number of undetected active devices for various values of  $p_a$  when  $N = 83$ ,  $L = N$ ,  $P = 6$ , and  $\text{SNR} = 10$  dB.

247 can see that the complexity of the ordered SSSD approach is  
248 comparable to that of the BOMP algorithm.

249

## V. SIMULATION RESULTS

250 In this section, we present simulation results for random access  
251 when  $s_l = a_l u_l$ . We consider A1) and A2) to generate the  
252 channel vectors with  $\mathbb{E}[\|a_l\|^2] = 1$ . Thus, we consider Rayleigh  
253 multipath fading channels. For  $\mathcal{C} = \{c_l\}$ , we use Alltop sequences  
254 in (4). In addition, we assume  $\Pr(u_l = 1) = p_a$  for all  
255  $l$ , where  $p_a$  is the probability of access per device. The signal-  
256 to-noise ratio (SNR) is defined as  $\text{SNR} = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\|a_l\|^2]}{N_0} = \frac{1}{N_0}$ . For  
257 performance comparisons, we consider the BOMP algorithm  
258 with known  $M$ . Note that in [7], the BOMP algorithm is employed  
259 for CS-based MUD.

260 Fig. 1 shows the average number of undetected active devices  
261 for various values of  $p_a$  when  $N = 83$ ,  $L = N$ ,  $P = 6$ , and  
262  $\text{SNR} = 10$  dB. Note that the mean of  $M$  grows linearly with  
263  $p_a$  as  $\mathbb{E}[M] = Lp_a$ . The ordered SSSD approach outperforms  
264 BOMP for all  $p_a$ .

265 Fig. 2 shows the average number of undetected active devices  
266 for different SNRs when  $N = 83$ ,  $L = N$ ,  $P = 6$ , and  
267  $p_a \in \{0.1, 0.2\}$ . We can observe that when  $p_a$  is low, the BOMP  
268 algorithm and the SSSD approach perform well at high SNR.  
269 However, when  $p_a$  is not low (e.g.,  $p_a = 0.2$ ), the SSSD  
270 approach can provide a reasonably good performance (i.e., a small  
271 number of undetected active devices) at high SNR, but the  
272 BOMP algorithm cannot.

273 In Fig. 3(a) and (b), we show the average number of undetected  
274 active devices for various values of  $P$  (with fixed  $L = N$ )  
275 and  $L$  (with fixed  $P = 6$ ), respectively, when  $N = 83$ ,  $p_a = 0.1$ ,  
276 and  $\text{SNR} = 20$  dB. We can see that the performance is degraded  
277 as  $P$  increases in both BOMP and (ordered) SSSD. While the  
278 number of undetected active devices can increase with  $L$  for  
279 fixed  $p_a$ , in Fig. 3(b), we see that the growth rate of the average  
280 number of undetected active devices of SSSD is slower than that  
281 of BOMP. In any cases, we can see that the SSSD approach  
282 outperforms the BOMP algorithm. In particular, for a large  $P$   
283 (e.g.,  $P = 10$ ), the SSSD approach can be about three times

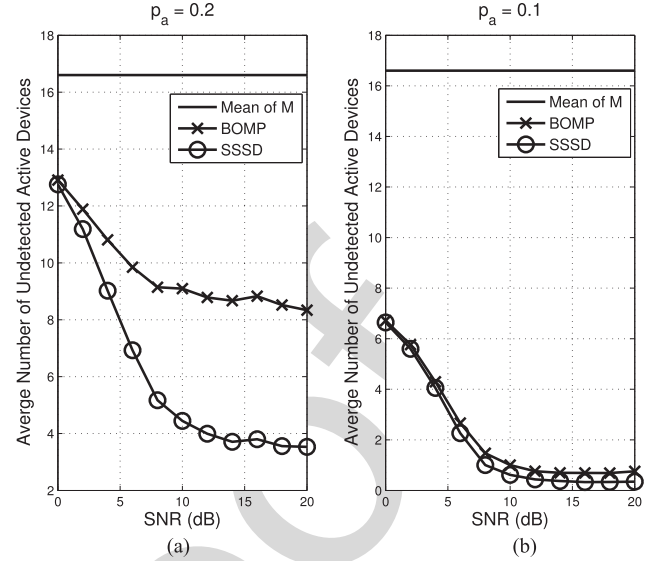


Fig. 2. Average number of undetected active devices for different SNRs when  $N = 83$ ,  $L = N$ , and  $P = 6$ . (a)  $p_a = 0.2$ ; (b)  $p_a = 0.1$ .

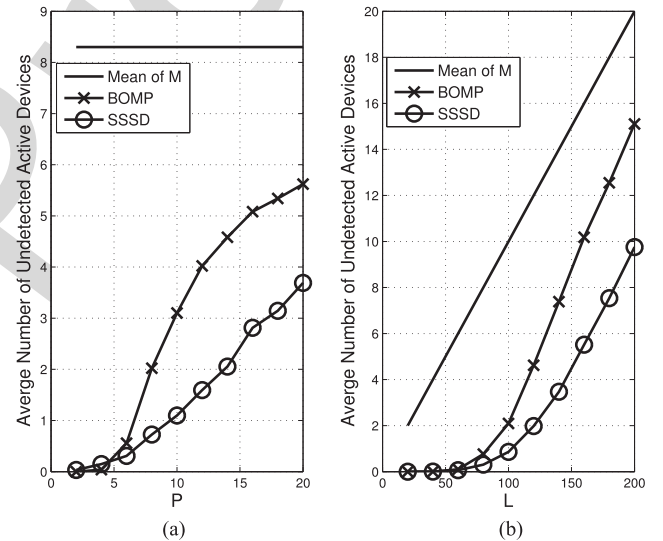


Fig. 3. Performance of BOMP and ordered SSSD when  $N = 83$ ,  $p_a = 0.1$ , and  $\text{SNR} = 20$  dB. (a) Average number of undetected active devices versus  $P$  with  $L = N$ . (b) Average number of undetected active devices versus  $L$  with  $P = 6$ .

284 better than the BOMP algorithm in terms of the average number  
285 of undetected active devices.

## VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

286  
287 In this letter, we proposed an approach for sparse signal recovery  
288 based on successive hypothesis testing. The proposed approach  
289 was applied to random access to detect multiple signals from active  
290 devices and to estimate their CIRs over frequency-selective fading  
291 channels. In the proposed approach, i.e., the ordered SSSD approach,  
292 since the matching pursuit has been carried out for both active and  
293 inactive signals in the ordered decision, we could achieve a better  
294 performance than the BOMP algorithm. We also showed that the  
295 complexity of the ordered SSSD approach is comparable to that of  
296 the BOMP algorithm.

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