

# Conjugate Gradient Projection Approach for MIMO Gaussian Broadcast Channels

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**Abstract**—Researchers have recently shown that the dirty-paper coding (DPC) is the optimal transmission strategy for multiple-input multiple-output Gaussian broadcast channels (MIMO BC). Moreover, by the channel duality, the *nonconvex* MIMO BC sum rate problem can be transformed to the *convex* dual MIMO multiple-access channel (MIMO MAC) problem with a sum power constraint. In this paper, we design an efficient algorithm based on conjugate gradient projection (CGP) to solve the MIMO BC maximum sum rate problem. Our proposed CGP algorithm solves the dual sum power MAC problem by utilizing the powerful concept of Hessian conjugate. We also develop a rigorous algorithm to solve the projection problem. We show that CGP enjoys provable convergence, scalability, and efficiency for large MIMO BC systems.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, there is great interest in characterizing the capacity region for multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) broadcast channels (MIMO BC) and MIMO multiple-access channels (MIMO MAC). Most notably, Weigarten *et al.* [1] proved the long-open conjecture that the “dirty paper coding” (DPC) strategy is the capacity achieving transmission strategy for MIMO BC. Moreover, by the channel *duality* between MIMO BC and MIMO MAC established in [2]–[4], it can be shown that the nonconvex MIMO BC sum rate problem can be transformed to the convex dual MIMO MAC problem with a sum power constraint.

However, although the standard interior point convex optimization method can be used to solve the sum power MIMO MAC problem, its complexity is considerably higher than those methods that exploit the special structure of the sum power MIMO MAC problem. Such custom designed algorithms include the minimax method (MM) [5], the steepest descent (SD) method [6], the dual decomposition (DD) method [7], and two iterative water-filling methods (IWFs) [8]. Among these algorithms, MM does not have linear complexity and is more complex than the others. SD and DD have longer running time per iteration than IWFs due to line searches and the inner optimization, respectively. Both IWFs in [8], however, do not scale well as the number of users, denoted by  $K$ , increases. The reason is that in each iteration of IWFs, the most recently updated solution only accounts for a fraction of  $1/K$  in the effective channels’ computation. The authors of [8] proposed a hybrid algorithm as a remedy. But the hybrid algorithm introduces additional implementation complexity and its performance depends on the empirical switch timing,

which, in turn, are problem specific. In addition, one of the IWFs in [8], although converges relatively faster than the other one, requires a storage size for  $K^2$  input covariance matrices. These limitations of the existing algorithms motivate us to design an efficient and scalable algorithm with a modest storage requirement for solving large MIMO BC systems.

Our main contribution in this paper is the design of a fast algorithm based on the Conjugate Gradient Projection (CGP) approach. Our algorithm is inspired by [9], where a gradient projection method was used to solve another nonconvex maximum sum rate problem for single-hop MIMO-based ad hoc networks with mutual interference. However, unlike [9], we use *conjugate* gradient directions instead of gradient directions to eliminate the “zigzagging” phenomenon. Also, we develop a rigorous algorithm to solve the projection problem. This is in contrast to [9], where the way of handling gradient projection is based on heuristic. Our proposed CGP has the following attractive features:

- 1) CGP is extremely fast, and enjoys provable convergence as well as nice scalability. As opposed to IWFs, the number of iterations required for convergence of CGP is insensitive to the increase of the number of users.
- 2) CGP has linear complexity. By adopting the inexact line search method called “Armijo’s Rule,” we show that CGP has a comparable complexity to IWFs per iteration, and requires much fewer iterations for convergence in large MIMO BC systems.
- 3) CGP has a modest memory requirement: It only needs the solution information from the previous step, as opposed to IWF, which requires the solution information from previous  $K - 1$  steps.
- 4) CGP is very intuitive and easy to implement.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we discuss the network model and formulation. Section III introduces the key components in our CGP framework, including conjugate gradient computation and how to perform projection. We analyze and compare the complexity of CGP with other algorithms in Section IV. Numerical results are presented in Section V. Section VI concludes this paper.

## II. SYSTEM MODEL AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

We begin with introducing notation. We use boldface to denote matrices and vectors. For a complex-valued matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}^*$  and  $\mathbf{A}^\dagger$  denotes the conjugate and conjugate transpose of

$\mathbf{A}$ , respectively.  $\text{Tr}\{\mathbf{A}\}$  denotes the trace of  $\mathbf{A}$ . We let  $\mathbf{I}$  denote the identity matrix with dimension determined from context.  $\mathbf{A} \succeq 0$  represents that  $\mathbf{A}$  is Hermitian and positive semidefinite (PSD).  $\text{Diag}\{\mathbf{A}_1 \dots \mathbf{A}_n\}$  represents the block diagonal matrix with matrices  $\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$  on its main diagonal.

Suppose that a MIMO Gaussian broadcast channel has  $K$  users, each of which is equipped with  $n_r$  antennas, and the transmitter has  $n_t$  antennas. The channel matrix for user  $i$  is denoted as  $\mathbf{H}_i \in \mathbb{C}^{n_r \times n_t}$ .

In [2]–[4], [10], it has been shown that the maximum sum rate capacity of MIMO BC is equal to the dirty-paper coding region, which can be computed by solving the optimization problem as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize} && \sum_{i=1}^K \log \frac{\det(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{H}_i (\sum_{j=1}^i \mathbf{\Gamma}_j) \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger)}{\det(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{H}_i (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \mathbf{\Gamma}_j) \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger)} \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbf{\Gamma}_i \succeq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, K \\ & && \sum_{i=1}^K \text{Tr}(\mathbf{\Gamma}_i) \leq P, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{\Gamma}_i \in \mathbb{C}^{n_t \times n_t}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, K$ , are the downlink input covariance matrices,  $P$  represents the maximum transmit power at the transmitter. It is evident that (1) is a nonconvex optimization problem. However, the authors in [2], [4] showed that due to the duality between MIMO BC and MIMO MAC, (1) is equivalent to the following MIMO MAC problem with a sum power constraint:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize} && \log \det \left( \mathbf{I} + \sum_{i=1}^K \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{H}_i \right) \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbf{Q}_i \succeq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, K \\ & && \sum_{i=1}^K \text{Tr}(\mathbf{Q}_i) \leq P, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{Q}_i \in \mathbb{C}^{n_r \times n_r}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, K$  are the uplink input covariance matrices. For convenience, we use the matrix  $\mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{Q}_1 \quad \mathbf{Q}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{Q}_K]$  to denote the set of all uplink input covariance matrices, and let  $F(\mathbf{Q}) = \log \det \left( \mathbf{I} + \sum_{i=1}^K \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{H}_i \right)$  represent the objective function of (2). After solving (2), we can recover the solutions of (1) via appropriate mapping [2].

### III. SOLUTION PROCEDURE

In this paper, we propose an efficient algorithm based on conjugate gradient projection (CGP) to solve (2). CGP utilizes the powerful concept of Hessian conjugate to deflect the gradient direction appropriately so as to achieve the superlinear convergence rate [11]. This is somewhat similar to the well-known quasi-Newton methods (e.g., BFGS method). CGP follows the same idea of gradient projection which was originally proposed by Rosen [12]. During each iteration, CGP projects the conjugate gradient direction to find an improving feasible direction. Its convergence proof can be found in [11]. The framework of CGP for solving (2) is shown in Algorithm 1.

Due to the complexity of the objective function in (2), we adopt an inexact line search method called ‘‘Armijo’s Rule’’ to avoid excessive objective function evaluations, while still enjoying provable convergence [11]. The basic idea of Armijo’s Rule is that at each step of the line search, we sacrifice accuracy for efficiency as long as we have sufficient

### Algorithm 1 Conjugate Gradient Projection Method

#### Initialization:

Choose the initial conditions  $\mathbf{Q}^{(0)} = [\mathbf{Q}_1^{(0)}, \mathbf{Q}_2^{(0)}, \dots, \mathbf{Q}_K^{(0)}]^T$ . Let  $k = 0$ .

#### Main Loop:

1. Calculate the conjugate gradients  $\mathbf{G}_i^{(k)}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .
2. Choose an appropriate step size  $s_k$ . Let  $\mathbf{Q}_i^{\prime(k)} = \mathbf{Q}_i^{(k)} + s_k \mathbf{G}_i^{(k)}$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .
3. Let  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}^{(k)}$  be the projection of  $\mathbf{Q}^{\prime(k)}$  onto  $\Omega_+(P)$ , where  $\Omega_+(P) \triangleq \{\mathbf{Q}_i, i = 1, \dots, K | \mathbf{Q}_i \succeq 0, \sum_{i=1}^K \text{Tr}\{\mathbf{Q}_i\} \leq P\}$ .
4. Choose appropriate step size  $\alpha_k$ . Let  $\mathbf{Q}_i^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{Q}_i^{(k)} + \alpha_k (\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_i^{(k)} - \mathbf{Q}_i^{(k)})$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .
5.  $k = k + 1$ . If the maximum absolute value of the elements in  $\mathbf{Q}_i^{(k)} - \mathbf{Q}_i^{(k-1)} < \epsilon$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, L$ , then stop; else go to step 1.

improvement. According to Armijo’s Rule, in the  $k^{\text{th}}$  iteration, we choose  $\sigma_k = 1$  and  $\alpha_k = \beta^{m_k}$  (the same as in [9]), where  $m_k$  is the first non-negative integer  $m$  that satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} & F(\mathbf{Q}^{(k+1)}) - F(\mathbf{Q}^{(k)}) \geq \sigma \beta^m \langle \mathbf{G}^{(k)}, \bar{\mathbf{Q}}^{(k)} - \mathbf{Q}^{(k)} \rangle \\ & = \sigma \beta^m \sum_{i=1}^K \text{Tr} \left[ \mathbf{G}_i^{\dagger(k)} \left( \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_i^{(k)} - \mathbf{Q}_i^{(k)} \right) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where  $0 < \beta < 1$  and  $0 < \sigma < 1$  are fixed scalars.

Next, we will consider two major components in the CGP framework: 1) how to compute the conjugate gradient direction  $\mathbf{G}_i$ , and 2) how to project  $\mathbf{Q}^{\prime(k)}$  onto the set  $\Omega_+(P) \triangleq \{\mathbf{Q}_i, i = 1, \dots, K | \mathbf{Q}_i \succeq 0, \sum_{i=1}^K \text{Tr}\{\mathbf{Q}_i\} \leq P\}$ .

#### A. Computing the Conjugate Gradients

The gradient  $\bar{\mathbf{G}}_i \triangleq \nabla_{\mathbf{Q}_i} F(\mathbf{Q})$  depends on the partial derivatives of  $F(\mathbf{Q})$  with respect to  $\mathbf{Q}_i$ . By using the formula  $\frac{\partial \ln \det(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{BXC})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = [\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{BXC})^{-1} \mathbf{B}]^T$  [13] and letting  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^K \mathbf{H}_j^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_j \mathbf{H}_j$ ,  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger$ ,  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Q}_i$ , and  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{H}_i$ , we can compute the partial derivative of  $F(\mathbf{Q})$  with respect to  $\mathbf{Q}_i$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial F(\mathbf{Q})}{\partial \mathbf{Q}_i} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{Q}_i} \log \det \left( \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbf{H}_j^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_j \mathbf{H}_j \right) \\ &= \left[ \mathbf{H}_i \left( \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbf{H}_j^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_j \mathbf{H}_j \right)^{-1} \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger \right]^T. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Further, since  $\nabla_z f(z) = 2(\partial f(z)/\partial z)^*$  [14], we have

$$\bar{\mathbf{G}}_i = 2 \left( \frac{\partial F(\mathbf{Q})}{\partial \mathbf{Q}_i} \right)^* = 2 \mathbf{H}_i \left( \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbf{H}_j^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_j \mathbf{H}_j \right)^{-1} \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger. \quad (5)$$

Then, the conjugate gradient direction can be computed as  $\mathbf{G}_i^{(k)} = \bar{\mathbf{G}}_i^{(k)} + \rho_k \mathbf{G}_i^{(k-1)}$ . In this paper, we adopt the Fletcher and Reeves’ choice of deflection [11], which can be computed as

$$\rho_k = \frac{\|\bar{\mathbf{G}}_i^{(k)}\|^2}{\|\bar{\mathbf{G}}_i^{(k-1)}\|^2}. \quad (6)$$

The purpose of deflecting the gradient using (6) is to find  $\mathbf{G}_i^{(k)}$ , which is the Hessian-conjugate of  $\mathbf{G}_i^{(k-1)}$ . By doing this, we can eliminate the “zigzagging” phenomenon encountered in the conventional gradient projection method, and achieve the superlinear convergence rate [11] without actually storing a large Hessian approximation matrix as in quasi-Newton methods.

### B. Performing Projection

In this section, we develop a rigorous algorithm for the problem of projecting the conjugate gradients onto the constraint set in the dual MIMO MAC problem. This is in contrast to the heuristic method in [9], where the authors simply set the first derivative to zero to get the solution when solving the constrained Lagrangian dual of the projection problem.

First, noting from (5) that  $\mathbf{G}_i$  is Hermitian, we have that  $\mathbf{Q}_i^{(k)} = \mathbf{Q}_i^{(k-1)} + s_k \mathbf{G}_i^{(k)}$  is Hermitian as well. Then, the projection problem becomes how to simultaneously project a set of  $K$  Hermitian matrices onto the set  $\Omega_+(P)$ , which contains a constraint on sum power for all users. This is different to [9], where the projection was performed on each individual power constraint. Our approach is to construct a block diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{D} = \text{Diag}\{\mathbf{Q}_1 \dots \mathbf{Q}_K\} \in \mathbb{C}^{(K \cdot n_r) \times (K \cdot n_r)}$ . It is easy to recognize that if  $\mathbf{Q}_i \in \Omega_+(P)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, K$ , we have  $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^K \text{Tr}(\mathbf{Q}_i) \leq P$ , and  $\mathbf{D} \succeq 0$ . In this paper, we use Frobenius norm, denoted by  $\|\cdot\|_F$ , as the matrix distance criterion. The distance between two matrices  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  is defined as  $\|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\|_F = (\text{Tr}[(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})^\dagger(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})])^{\frac{1}{2}}$ . Thus, given a block diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{D}$ , we wish to find a matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}} \in \Omega_+(P)$  such that  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$  minimizes  $\|\tilde{\mathbf{D}} - \mathbf{D}\|_F$ . For more convenient algebraic manipulations, we instead study the following equivalent optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Minimize} && \frac{1}{2} \|\tilde{\mathbf{D}} - \mathbf{D}\|_F^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && \text{Tr}(\tilde{\mathbf{D}}) \leq P, \tilde{\mathbf{D}} \succeq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

In (7), the objective function is convex in  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ , the constraint  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}} \succeq 0$  represents the convex cone of positive semidefinite matrices, and the constraint  $\text{Tr}(\tilde{\mathbf{D}}) \leq P$  is a linear constraint. Thus, the problem is a convex minimization problem and we can exactly solve this problem by solving its Lagrangian dual problem. Associating Hermitian matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  to the constraint  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}} \succeq 0$ ,  $\mu$  to the constraint  $\text{Tr}(\tilde{\mathbf{D}}) \leq P$ , we can write the Lagrangian as

$$\begin{aligned} g(\mathbf{X}, \mu) = & \min_{\tilde{\mathbf{D}}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\tilde{\mathbf{D}} - \mathbf{D}\|_F^2 - \text{Tr}(\mathbf{X}^\dagger \tilde{\mathbf{D}}) \right. \\ & \left. + \mu (\text{Tr}(\tilde{\mathbf{D}}) - P) \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Since  $g(\mathbf{X}, \mu)$  is an unconstrained convex quadratic minimization problem, we can compute the minimizer of (8) by simply setting the derivative of (8) (with respect to  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ ) to zero, i.e.,  $(\tilde{\mathbf{D}} - \mathbf{D}) - \mathbf{X}^\dagger + \mu \mathbf{I} = 0$ . Noting that  $\mathbf{X}^\dagger = \mathbf{X}$ , we have  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}} = \mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}$ . Substituting  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$  back into (8), we have

$$\begin{aligned} g(\mathbf{X}, \mu) = & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{X} - \mu \mathbf{I}\|_F^2 - \mu P + \text{Tr}[(\mu \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X})(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{X} - \mu \mathbf{I})] \\ = & -\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \mu P + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{D}\|_F^2. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Therefore, the Lagrangian dual problem can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize} && -\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \mu P + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{D}\|_F^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbf{X} \succeq 0, \mu \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

After solving (10), we can have the optimal solution to (7) as

$$\tilde{\mathbf{D}}^* = \mathbf{D} - \mu^* \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}^*, \quad (11)$$

where  $\mu^*$  and  $\mathbf{X}^*$  are the optimal dual solutions to Lagrangian dual problem in (10). Although the Lagrangian dual problem in (10) has a similar structure as that in the primal problem in (7) (having a positive semidefinite matrix constraint), we find that the positive semidefinite matrix constraint can indeed be easily handled. To see this, we first introduce Moreau Decomposition Theorem [15] from convex analysis.

*Theorem 1:* (Moreau Decomposition) Let  $\mathcal{K}$  be a closed convex cone. For  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{C}^p$ , the two properties below are equivalent:

- 1)  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2$  with  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in \mathcal{K}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{K}^\circ$  and  $\langle \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \rangle = 0$ ,
- 2)  $\mathbf{x}_1 = p_{\mathcal{K}}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2 = p_{\mathcal{K}^\circ}(\mathbf{x})$ ,

where  $\mathcal{K}^\circ \triangleq \{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{C}^p : \langle \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \leq 0, \forall \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{K}\}$  is called the polar cone of cone  $\mathcal{K}$ ,  $p_{\mathcal{K}}(\cdot)$  represents the projection onto cone  $\mathcal{K}$ .

In fact, the projection onto a cone  $\mathcal{K}$  is analogous to the projection onto a subspace. The only difference is that orthogonal subspaces is replaced by polar cones.

Now we consider how to project a Hermitian matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  onto the positive and negative semidefinite cones. First, we can perform eigenvalue decomposition on  $\mathbf{A}$  yielding  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}_A \text{Diag}\{\lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, n\} \mathbf{U}_A^\dagger$ , where  $\mathbf{U}_A$  is the unitary matrix formed by the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Then, we have the positive semidefinite and the negative semidefinite projections of  $\mathbf{A}$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{A}_+ = \mathbf{U}_A \text{Diag}\{\max\{\lambda_i, 0\}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\} \mathbf{U}_A^\dagger, \quad (12)$$

$$\mathbf{A}_- = \mathbf{U}_A \text{Diag}\{\min\{\lambda_i, 0\}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\} \mathbf{U}_A^\dagger. \quad (13)$$

The proof of (12) and (13) is a straightforward application of Theorem 1 by noting that  $\mathbf{A}_+ \succeq 0$ ,  $\mathbf{A}_- \preceq 0$ ,  $\langle \mathbf{A}_+, \mathbf{A}_- \rangle = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{A}_+ + \mathbf{A}_- = \mathbf{A}$ , and the positive semidefinite cone and negative semidefinite cone are polar cones to each other.

We now consider the term  $\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}$ , which is the only term involving  $\mathbf{X}$  in the dual objective function. We can rewrite it as  $\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} - (-\mathbf{X})$ , where we note that  $-\mathbf{X} \preceq 0$ . Finding a negative semidefinite matrix  $-\mathbf{X}$  such that  $\|\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} - (-\mathbf{X})\|_F$  is minimized is equivalent to finding the projection of  $\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I}$  onto the negative semidefinite cone. From the previous discussions, we immediately have

$$-\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I})_-. \quad (14)$$

Since  $\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} = (\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I})_+ + (\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I})_-$ , substituting (14) back to the Lagrangian dual objective function, we have

$$\min_{\mathbf{X}} \|\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}\|_F = (\mathbf{D} - \mu \mathbf{I})_+. \quad (15)$$

Thus, the matrix variable  $\mathbf{X}$  in the Lagrangian dual problem can be removed and the Lagrangian dual problem can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize } \psi(\mu) \triangleq -\frac{1}{2}\|(\mathbf{D} - \mu\mathbf{I})_+\|_F^2 - \mu P + \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{D}\|_F^2 \\ & \text{subject to } \mu \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Suppose that after performing eigenvalue decomposition on  $\mathbf{D}$ , we have  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{U}^\dagger$ , where  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  is the diagonal matrix formed by the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{U}$  is the unitary matrix formed by the corresponding eigenvectors. Since  $\mathbf{U}$  is unitary, we have  $(\mathbf{D} - \mu\mathbf{I})_+ = \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mu\mathbf{I})_+\mathbf{U}^\dagger$ . It then follows that

$$\|(\mathbf{D} - \mu\mathbf{I})_+\|_F^2 = \|(\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mu\mathbf{I})_+\|_F^2. \quad (17)$$

We denote the eigenvalues in  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  by  $\lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K \cdot n_r$ . Suppose that we sort them in non-increasing order such that  $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \text{Diag}\{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_{K \cdot n_r}\}$ , where  $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_{K \cdot n_r}$ . It then follows that

$$\|(\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mu\mathbf{I})_+\|_F^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{K \cdot n_r} (\max\{0, \lambda_j - \mu\})^2. \quad (18)$$

From (18), we can rewrite  $\psi(\mu)$  as

$$\psi(\mu) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{K \cdot n_r} (\max\{0, \lambda_j - \mu\})^2 - \mu P + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{D}_n\|_F^2. \quad (19)$$

It is evident from (19) that  $\psi(\mu)$  is continuous and (piece-wise) concave in  $\mu$ . Generally, piece-wise concave maximization problems can be solved by using the subgradient method. However, due to the heuristic nature of its step size selection strategy, subgradient algorithm usually does not perform well. In fact, by exploiting its special structure, (16) can be solved efficiently. We can search the optimal value of  $\mu$  as follows: Let  $\hat{I}$  index the pieces of  $\psi(\mu)$ ,  $\hat{I} = 0, 1, \dots, K \cdot n_r$ . Initially we set  $\hat{I} = 0$  and increase  $\hat{I}$  subsequently. Also, we introduce  $\lambda_0 = \infty$  and  $\lambda_{K \cdot n_r + 1} = -\infty$ . We let the endpoint objective value  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_0) = 0$ ,  $\phi^* = \psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_0)$ , and  $\mu^* = \lambda_0$ . If  $\hat{I} > K \cdot n_r$ , the search stops. For a particular index  $\hat{I}$ , by setting

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \psi_{\hat{I}}(\mu) \triangleq \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{\hat{I}} (\lambda_i - \mu)^2 - \mu P \right) = 0, \quad (20)$$

we have

$$\mu_{\hat{I}}^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\hat{I}} \lambda_i - P}{\hat{I}}. \quad (21)$$

Now we consider the following two cases:

- 1) If  $\mu_{\hat{I}}^* \in [\lambda_{\hat{I}+1}, \lambda_{\hat{I}}] \cap \mathbb{R}_+$ , where  $\mathbb{R}_+$  denotes the set of non-negative real numbers, then we have found the optimal solution for  $\mu$  because  $\psi(\mu)$  is concave in  $\mu$ . Thus, the point with zero-value first derivative, if it exists, must be the unique global maximum solution. Hence, we can let  $\mu^* = \mu_{\hat{I}}^*$  and the search is done.
- 2) If  $\mu_{\hat{I}}^* \notin [\lambda_{\hat{I}+1}, \lambda_{\hat{I}}] \cap \mathbb{R}_+$ , we must have that the local maximum in the interval  $[\lambda_{\hat{I}+1}, \lambda_{\hat{I}}] \cap \mathbb{R}_+$  is achieved at one of the two endpoints. Note that the objective value

$\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}})$  has been computed in the previous iteration. This is because from the continuity of the objective function, we have  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}}) = \psi_{\hat{I}-1}(\lambda_{\hat{I}})$ . Thus, we only need to compute the other endpoint objective value  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}+1})$ . If  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}+1}) < \psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}}) = \phi^*$ , then we know  $\mu^*$  is the optimal solution; else let  $\mu^* = \lambda_{\hat{I}+1}$ ,  $\phi^* = \psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}+1})$ ,  $\hat{I} = \hat{I} + 1$  and continue.

Since there are  $K \cdot n_r + 1$  intervals in total, the search process takes at most  $K \cdot n_r + 1$  steps to find the optimal solution  $\mu^*$ . Hence, this search is of polynomial-time complexity  $O(n_r K)$ .

After finding  $\mu^*$ , we can compute  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}^*$  as

$$\tilde{\mathbf{D}}^* = (\mathbf{D} - \mu^*\mathbf{I})_+ = \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mu^*\mathbf{I})_+\mathbf{U}^\dagger. \quad (22)$$

That is, the projection  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$  can be computed by adjusting the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{D}$  using  $\mu^*$  and keeping the eigenvectors unchanged. The projection of  $\mathbf{D}_n$  onto  $\Omega_+(P)$  is summarized in Algorithm 2.

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### Algorithm 2 Performing Projection

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**Initiation:**

1. Construct a block diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{D}$ . Perform eigenvalue decomposition  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{U}^\dagger$ , sort the eigenvalues in non-increasing order.
2. Introduce  $\lambda_0 = \infty$  and  $\lambda_{K \cdot n_r + 1} = -\infty$ . Let  $\hat{I} = 0$ . Let the endpoint objective value  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_0) = 0$ ,  $\phi^* = \psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_0)$ , and  $\mu^* = \lambda_0$ .

**Main Loop:**

1. If  $\hat{I} > K \cdot n_r$ , go to the final step; else let  $\mu_{\hat{I}}^* = (\sum_{j=1}^{\hat{I}} \lambda_j - P) / \hat{I}$ .
2. If  $\mu_{\hat{I}}^* \in [\lambda_{\hat{I}+1}, \lambda_{\hat{I}}] \cap \mathbb{R}_+$ , then let  $\mu^* = \mu_{\hat{I}}^*$  and go to the final step.
3. Compute  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}+1})$ . If  $\psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}+1}) < \phi^*$ , then go to the final step; else let  $\mu^* = \lambda_{\hat{I}+1}$ ,  $\phi^* = \psi_{\hat{I}}(\lambda_{\hat{I}+1})$ ,  $\hat{I} = \hat{I} + 1$  and continue.

**Final Step:** Compute  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$  as  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}} = \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mu^*\mathbf{I})_+\mathbf{U}^\dagger$ .

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## IV. COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

In this section, we compare our proposed CGP with existing methods for solving MIMO BC. Similar to IWFs [8], SD [6], and DD [7], CGP has linear complexity property. Although CGP also needs to compute gradients in each iteration, the computation is much easier than that in SD due to the different perspectives in handling MIMO BC. In this paper, we compare CGP with IWF (Algorithms 1 and 2 in [8]) as IWF has the least complexity among aforementioned algorithms. For convenience, we will refer to Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2 in [8] as IWF1 and IWF2, respectively.

TABLE I  
PER ITERATION COMPLEXITY COMPARISON BETWEEN CGP AND IWFs

	CGP	IWFs
Gradient/Effective Channel	$K$	$2K$
Line Search	$O(mK)$	N/A
Projection/Water-Filling	$O(n_r K)$	$O(n_r K)$
Overall	$O((m+1+n_r)K)$	$O((2+n_r)K)$

To better illustrate the comparison, we list the complexity per iteration for each component of CGP and IWFs in Table I. For both CGP and IWFs, it can be seen that the most time-consuming part (increasing with respect to  $K$ ) is the additions of the terms in the form of  $\mathbf{H}_i^T \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{H}_i$  when computing gradients and effective channels. Since the term

$(\mathbf{I} + \sum_{i=1}^K \mathbf{H}_i^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{H}_i)$  is common to all gradients, we only need to compute this sum once in each iteration. Thus, the number of such additions per iteration for CGP is  $K$ . In IWF1 and IWF2, the number of such additions can be reduced to  $2K$  by a clever way of maintaining a running sum of  $(\mathbf{I} + \sum_{j \neq i}^K \mathbf{H}_j^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_j \mathbf{H}_j)$ . However, the running sum, which requires  $K^2$  additions for IWF1, still needs to be computed in the initialization step.

On the other hand, although the basic ideas of the projection in CGP and water-filling are different, the algorithm structures of them are very similar and they have exactly the same complexity of  $O(n_r K)$ . The only unique component in CGP is the line search step, which has the complexity of  $O(mK)$  (in terms of the additions of  $\mathbf{H}_i^\dagger \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{H}_i$  terms), where  $m$  is the number of trials in Armijo's Rule. Therefore, the overall complexity per iteration for CGP and IWFs are  $O((m+1+n_r)K)$  and  $O((2+n_r)K)$ , respectively. According to our computational experience, the value of  $m$  usually lies within two and four. Thus, when  $n_r$  is large (e.g.,  $n_r \geq 4$ ), the overall complexity per iteration for CGP and IWFs are comparable.

In the next section, however, we will show that the numbers of iterations required for convergence in CGP is much less than that in IWFs for large MIMO BC systems, and it is insensitive to the increase of the number of users. Moreover, CGP has a modest memory requirement: It only requires the solution information from the previous step, as opposed to IWF1, which requires previous  $K-1$  steps. This means that IWF1 requires a storage size for  $K^2$  input covariance matrices.

## V. NUMERICAL RESULTS

We show results for a large MIMO BC system consisting of 100 users with  $n_t = n_r = 4$ . The convergence processes are plotted in Fig. 1. It is observed from Fig. 1 that CGP takes only 29 iterations to converge and it outperforms both IWFs. IWF1's convergence speed significantly drops after its initial improvement. It is also seen that IWF2's performance is inferior to IWF1, and this observation is consistent to the results in [8]. Both IWF1 and IWF2 fail to converge within 100 iterations. The scalability problem for both IWFs is not surprising because for both algorithms, the most recently updated covariance matrices only account for a fraction of  $1/K$  in the effective channels' computation, which means it does not effectively make use of the most recent solution. In all of our numerical examples with different number of users, CGP is found to converge within 30 iterations.

## VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we developed an efficient algorithm based on conjugate gradient projection (CGP) for solving the maximum sum rate problem of MIMO BC. We analyzed its complexity and convergence behavior and showed that CGP enjoys provable convergence, scalability, and efficiency. The attractive features of CGP and encouraging results indicate that CGP is an excellent method for solving the maximum sum rate problem for large MIMO BC systems.

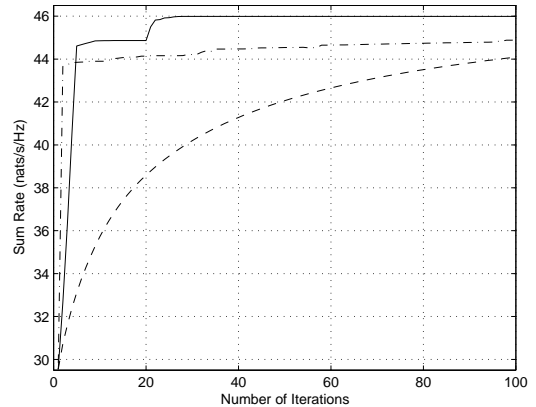


Fig. 1. Comparison in a 100-user MIMO BC channel with  $n_t = n_r = 4$ .

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