

# On Approximate Matrix Inversion Methods for Massive MIMO Detectors

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**Abstract**—Massive multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) systems have been proposed to meet the user demands in terms of performance and quality of service (QoS). Due to the large number of antennas, detectors in massive MIMO are playing a crucial role in guaranteeing a satisfactory performance, while their complexity is also being increased. This paper considers several approximate algorithms to avoid direct matrix inversion, namely the Neumann method, the Gauss-Seidel (GS) method, the successive over-relaxation (SOR) method, the Jacobi method, the Richardson method, the optimized coordinate descent (OCD), and the conjugate gradients (CG) method. Also, this paper presents a comparison among the approximate matrix inversion methods and the minimum mean square error (MMSE). Simulation of  $16 \times 128$ , and  $16 \times 32$  MIMO systems shows that a detector based on the GS method outperforms other detectors when the ratio of base station (BS) antennas to user terminal antennas,  $\beta$ , is small. On the other hand, the detector based on the SOR method outperforms the other approximate matrix inversion methods when  $\beta$  is large. In addition, this paper studies and recommends the setting values of relaxation parameter ( $\omega$ ) in the SOR and Richardson methods. It also provides a comparison among the approximate matrix inversion methods in the number of multiplications. Simulation results show that the Neumann method, the OCD method, and the CG method achieve the lowest number of multiplications while the CG method outperforms the Neumann and the OCD methods. This paper also shows that not every iteration improves the performance.

**Index Terms**—Massive MIMO, approximate matrix inversion, MMSE, detection

## I. INTRODUCTION

Year-over-year, mobile data traffic is being increasingly growing. For instance, the mobile data traffic is expected to increase from 7.2 exabytes per month in 2016 to hit 49 exabytes per month by 2021 where 78% of the world's data traffic will be videos [1]. Therefore, the fourth generation (4G) communication systems require an essential improvement to meet the user's demand [2], [3]. Sequentially, fifth generation (5G) wireless communication is currently proposed with higher bandwidth, broader coverage, and ultra-low latency [3]. 5G will be driven largely by several technologies such as massive multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO), internet of things (IoT), millimeter wave (mmWave), device-to-device (D2D) communication and ultra dense networks (UDNs) [4].

MIMO has been successfully implemented in many wireless communication systems, such as the 3G and 4G where up to eight antenna elements have been deployed at the base station.

Massive MIMO is a multiuser communications system that employs a large number of antenna elements to serve simultaneously multiple users with a flexibility to opt what users to schedule for reception at any given time. The massive MIMO system increases the spatial multiplexing gain and the diversity gain by adding massive antennas at the base station (BS) to serve large number of users with relatively simple scheduling and receiver algorithms. However, numerous antennas create new challenges for signal processing in precoding [5], channel estimation [6] and signal detection [7].

Although maximum-likelihood (ML) detector achieves the optimum performance, it is unfeasible for massive MIMO systems because of its exponential complexity. In literature, suboptimal low complexity detectors have been proposed for signal detection in massive MIMO such as neighborhood search algorithms [8], lattice reduction algorithms [9], algorithms based on quadratic programming [10], sphere decoders [11]–[13], successive relaxation detection [14], successive interference cancellation (SIC) [15], graph models and belief propagation [16]. However, numerous antennas require a larger channel matrix to be considered by signal processing, which requires better algorithms and more powerful hardware chips in the physical layer. Matrix inversion is one of the main challenges for massive MIMO precoding and detection. Recently, approximate matrix inversion [14], [17]–[21] has drawn the attention of the research community for its capability of achieving a satisfactory balance between complexity and performance.

In this paper, a comparison between several approximate matrix inversion methods will be provided when the ratio of BS antennas to user terminal antennas ( $\beta$ ) varies. In addition, the contribution of the number of iterations ( $n$ ) in the performance-complexity profile will be discussed. The setting values of the relaxation parameter ( $\omega$ ) in SOR and Richardson methods will be studied and recommended. This paper also compares the performance-complexity profile among the approximate matrix inversion methods.

This paper is organized as follows: Section II presents the ML, MMSE, and detectors based approximate matrix inversion methods. Section III presents the results as well as the discussion. Section IV concludes the paper.

## II. MASSIVE MIMO DETECTOR

Massive MIMO is a multi-user system with  $N$  antennas at the base-station (BS) availing  $K$  single antenna users where  $N \gg K$ . Let  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K]^T$  and  $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N]^T$  where  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  vectors are the transmitted and the received signals respectively. Also  $x_K \in C$  where  $C$  is the modulation alphabet. Elements of the channel matrix ( $\mathbf{H}$ ) are herein assumed to be independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) Gaussian random variables with zero mean and unit variance. The relationship between the input and the output of massive MIMO detector is represented mathematically in

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is the  $N \times 1$  additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) whose entries are i.i.d. However, MIMO signal detection problem is NP-hard optimization problem [22]. An efficient massive MIMO system requires advanced signal detection techniques to achieve a satisfactory balance between the system performance and computational complexity. This section presents the concepts of ML, MMSE, and detectors based on the approximate matrix inversion methods.

### A. Maximum likelihood (ML)

Maximum-likelihood (ML) detector achieves optimal performance but the complexity is exponential in the number of decision variables  $|C|^K$ . ML detector examines all possible signals as illustrated in

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in |C|^K} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \sqrt{\frac{\text{SNR}}{K}} \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} \right\|^2, \quad (2)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  is the estimated received signal and SNR refers to the signal-to-noise ratio. ML detector is unfeasible for massive MIMO systems because it requires an exponential complexity. Therefore, it is mandatory to utilize suboptimal detectors with a reduced complexity in massive MIMO systems. A widely utilized suboptimal detector for massive MIMO is the MMSE.

### B. Minimum Mean Square Estimation (MMSE)

MMSE detector minimizes the mean-square error (MSE) between the transmitted  $\mathbf{x}$  and the estimated signal  $\mathbf{H}^H \mathbf{y}$  [23]. The detected signal can be expressed as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MMSE} = \left( \mathbf{H}^H \mathbf{H} + \frac{K}{\text{SNR}} \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{H}^H \mathbf{y}. \quad (3)$$

MMSE algorithm (3) depends on reduced noise enhancement. However, the complexity of MMSE-based detector is still high for massive MIMO system because the detector involves matrix inversion and computation of Gram matrix with a complexity  $O(N^3)$  and  $O(NK^2)$ , respectively [24]. Thus, approximate matrix inversion methods such as Neumann, GS, SOR, Jacobi, Richardson and OCD methods are needed to reduce the complexity.

### C. Neumann method

In the Neumann method, the Gram matrix  $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{H}^H \mathbf{H}$  has been decomposed into  $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{E}$ , where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the non-diagonal matrix and  $\mathbf{D}$  is the main diagonal matrix [25]. The inverse of Gram matrix can be found as

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-\mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{E})^i \mathbf{D}^{-1}, \quad (4)$$

which converges to the matrix inverse  $\mathbf{G}^{-1}$  if the condition

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} (-\mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{E})^i = 0, \quad (5)$$

is satisfied. In real systems, a sum of finite terms ( $i$ ) is utilized (4) and thus, a fixed number of iterations is performed.

A high precision of the matrix inverse will be achieved by increasing the number of iterations ( $n$ ) in expenses of higher computational complexity. This method suffers from considerable performance loss when the ratio between BS antennas and the user antennas,  $\beta$ , is close to 1.

### D. Successive Over-Relaxation

The detected signal using SOR iteration is described as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)} = \left( \frac{1}{\omega} \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{L} \right)^{-1} \left( \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF} + \left( \left( \frac{1}{\omega} - 1 \right) \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{U} \right) \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)} \right), \quad (6)$$

where  $\omega$  is the relaxation parameter and it plays a crucial role in the convergence and convergence rate. In SOR method, a Gram matrix should be pre-computed and provided as an input which increases the computational complexity [26]. It also has uncertain relaxation parameter  $0 < \omega < 2$ .

### E. Gauss-Seidel Method

GS method is a special case of the SOR method where  $\omega = 1$ . In GS method, any Hermitian positive definite matrix,  $\mathbf{A}$  can be decomposed into  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{L} + \mathbf{U}$  [20] [27], where  $\mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  are the diagonal component, the strictly lower triangular component, and the strictly upper triangular component, respectively. It can be utilized to estimate the transmitted signal vector ( $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ ) [21] as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)} = (\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{L})^{-1} \left( \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF} - \mathbf{U} \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)} \right), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (7)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}$  is the output of matched filtering method. The initial solution  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(0)}$ , can be considered as zero if there is no priori information about its value [27]. It also requires an internal sequential iterations structure, thus, GS is not suitable for parallel implementation [20].

### F. Jacobi Method

Jacobi method determines the solution of a diagonally dominant system as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)} = \mathbf{D}^{-1} \left( \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF} + (\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{A}) \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)} \right), \quad (8)$$

which holds if:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{A})^n = 0. \quad (9)$$

The initial estimation can be identified as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(0)} = \mathbf{D}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}. \quad (10)$$

However, Jacobi method converges slowly, and thus, implying higher latency [28].

### G. Conjugate Gradients Method

The estimated signal ( $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ ) can be obtained using

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n+1)} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)} + \alpha^{(n)} \mathbf{p}^{(n)}, \quad (11)$$

where  $\mathbf{p}^{(n)}$  is the conjugate direction [29] [30] with respect to  $\mathbf{A}$ , i.e.,

$$\left( \mathbf{p}^{(n)} \right)^H \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}^{(j)} = 0, \quad \text{for } n \neq j, \quad (12)$$

and

$$\mathbf{p}^{(n)} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n)} + \frac{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n)}}{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n-1)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n-1)}} \mathbf{p}^{(n-1)}, \quad (13)$$

and  $\alpha^{(n)}$  is a scalar parameter shown as

$$\alpha^{(n)} = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n)}}{\mathbf{A} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n-1)} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{MF}^{(n-1)}}. \quad (14)$$

The CG-based detection algorithm outperforms the NS-based detection scheme in terms of performance and complexity [30] [31]. The CG method requires a large number of iterations and include several divisions [30] [32].

### H. Optimized Coordinate Descent Method

Coordinate descent (CD) obtains an approximate solution of a large number of convex optimization using series of simple, coordinate-wise updates. The estimated solution can be concluded as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k = \left( \|\mathbf{h}_k\|^2 + N_0 \right)^{-1} \mathbf{h}_k^H \left( \mathbf{y} - \sum_{j \neq k} \mathbf{h}_j \mathbf{x}_j \right), \quad (15)$$

where  $N_0$  is the noise variance. In OCD, a preprocessing and algorithm restructuring will be performed to minimize the amount of operations during each iteration.

### I. Richardson Method

It utilizes symmetric matrices defined as positive at their execution and can be slowed as it approaches the exact solution over time. In order to achieve a fast convergence, a relaxation parameter  $\omega$  has been introduced into iterative process and it satisfies  $0 < \omega \leq \frac{2}{\lambda}$  where  $\lambda$  is the largest eigenvalue of the symmetric positive definite matrix  $\mathbf{H}$  [33]. Richardson iteration is described mathematically as

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(n)} + \omega \left( \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{x}^{(n)} \right) \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (16)$$

The initial solution  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  can be identified as  $2K \times 1$  zero vector without loss of generality as no a priori knowledge of the final solution is available [34]. Richardson method requires a large number of iterations [33]. It also has uncertain relaxation parameter  $\omega$  [32], [35]. Table I shows the comparison of computational complexity between several approximate matrix inversion methods. The complexity of all methods will be increased over iterations while the complexity of Neumann method will be increased significantly when  $n \geq 3$ .

Table I  
COMPLEXITY COMPARISON AMONG APPROXIMATE MATRIX INVERSION METHODS

| Method     | Number of multiplications         |
|------------|-----------------------------------|
| Neumann    | $4N^3(n-2) + (2K+1)K^2 + (4N-1)K$ |
| Richardson | $(4N+4n)K^2 + 2KN$                |
| SOR        | $(4N+4n-2)K^2 + 2(N-n+1)K$        |
| GS         | $(4N+4n-2)K^2 + 2(N-2n+1)K$       |
| OCD        | $(8NK+4K)n$                       |
| Jacobi     | $(4N+4n+1)K^2 + 2NK$              |
| CG         | $(N+2K^2)n$                       |

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the performances and the complexity figures of detectors based on the Neumann, GS, SOR, Jacobi, Richardson, OCD and CG will be validated. A comparison among the approximate matrix inversion methods will be provided in BER performance versus the SNR and number of multiplications. In all simulations, we consider the Rayleigh fading channel and the configuration of massive MIMO systems with users and BS antennas are  $16 \times 32$  and  $16 \times 128$  and the modulation scheme is 64QAM.

Figure 1 shows the BER performance of the MMSE algorithm and MMSE utilizing several approximate matrix inversion methods in  $16 \times 128$  MIMO system. It also presents the BER performance when the number of iterations ( $n$ ) vary from 1 until 5. The BER performance of the mentioned methods improved when  $n$  increased. However, when  $n = 1$ , GS achieved the best BER performance while CG has the worst performance. In addition, GS, SOR and OCD achieved the MMSE performance when when  $n = 3$  while CG achieved the same performance when  $n = 4$ . It is also clear that Richardson method outperforms the Neumann and Jacobi methods when  $n \geq 4$ . However, it is known that not every iteration improved the BER performance. For instance, the BER performance of GS, SOR, OCD are not improved when  $n \geq 4$ .

Figure 2 shows the comparison among the approximate matrix inversion methods in  $16 \times 32$  where  $\beta$  is closer to 1. As compared with a MIMO system with a small  $\beta$ , it is clear that more iterations are required to achieve a near MMSE performance. For a small number of iterations ( $n = 1, 2$ ), the detector based on approximate matrix inversion methods provided a low performance. However, the performance of Neumann and Jacobi methods have not been improved over iterations while SOR outperforms the other methods for different iterations and it achieved a near MMSE performance when  $n = 6$ .

The selection of  $\omega$  plays a crucial role in achieving a good BER performance of the SOR and the Richardson based detectors. Figure 3 shows the BER performance of the MMSE signal detection utilizing the SOR algorithm versus  $\omega$  at SNR = 10dB. The BER performance improved when  $\omega$  increased while the best BER performance can be achieved when the value of  $\omega$  is 0.9 then the performance starts to decrease for higher values for all iterations.

Sequentially, Fig. 4 illustrates the BER performance of the MMSE signal detection utilizing the Richardson method

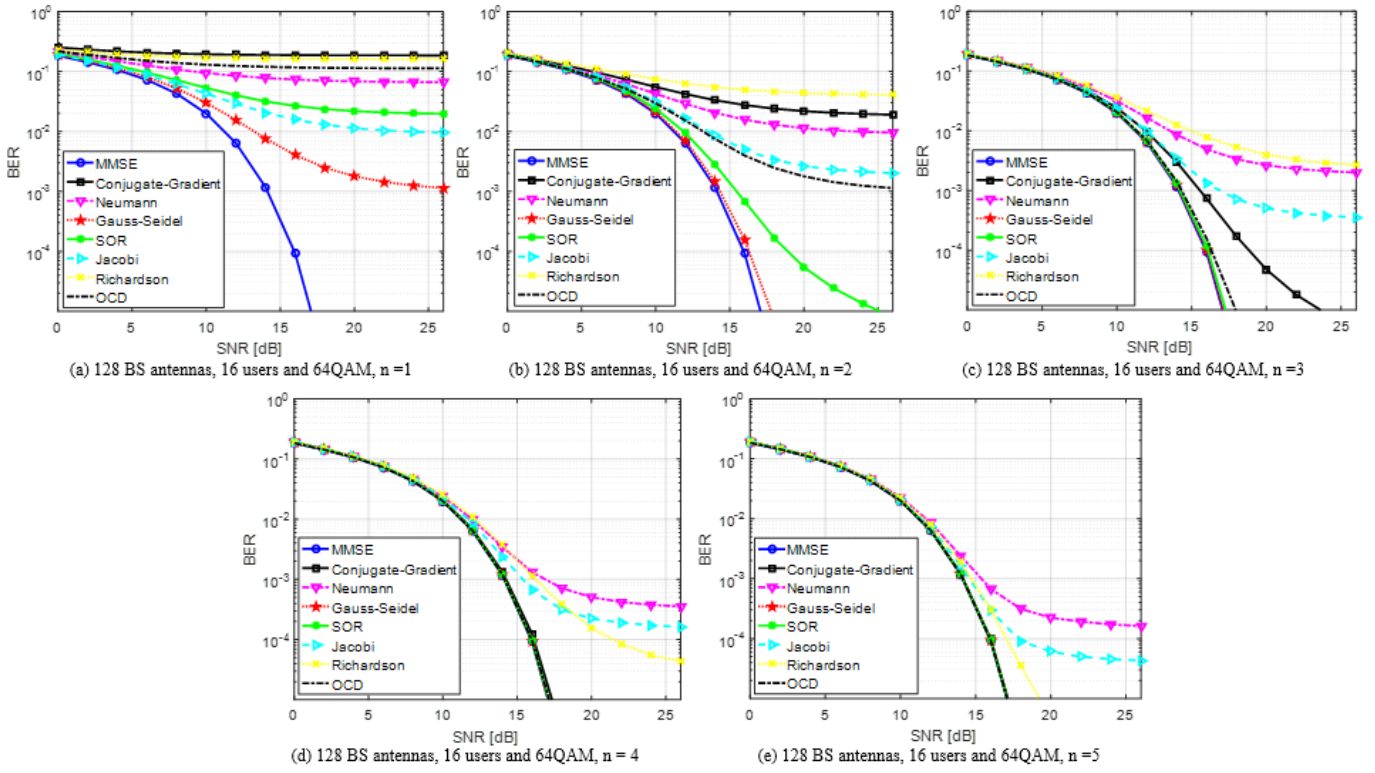


Figure 1. Performances of different approximate detection methods and the exact MMSE for  $16 \times 128$  massive MIMO system

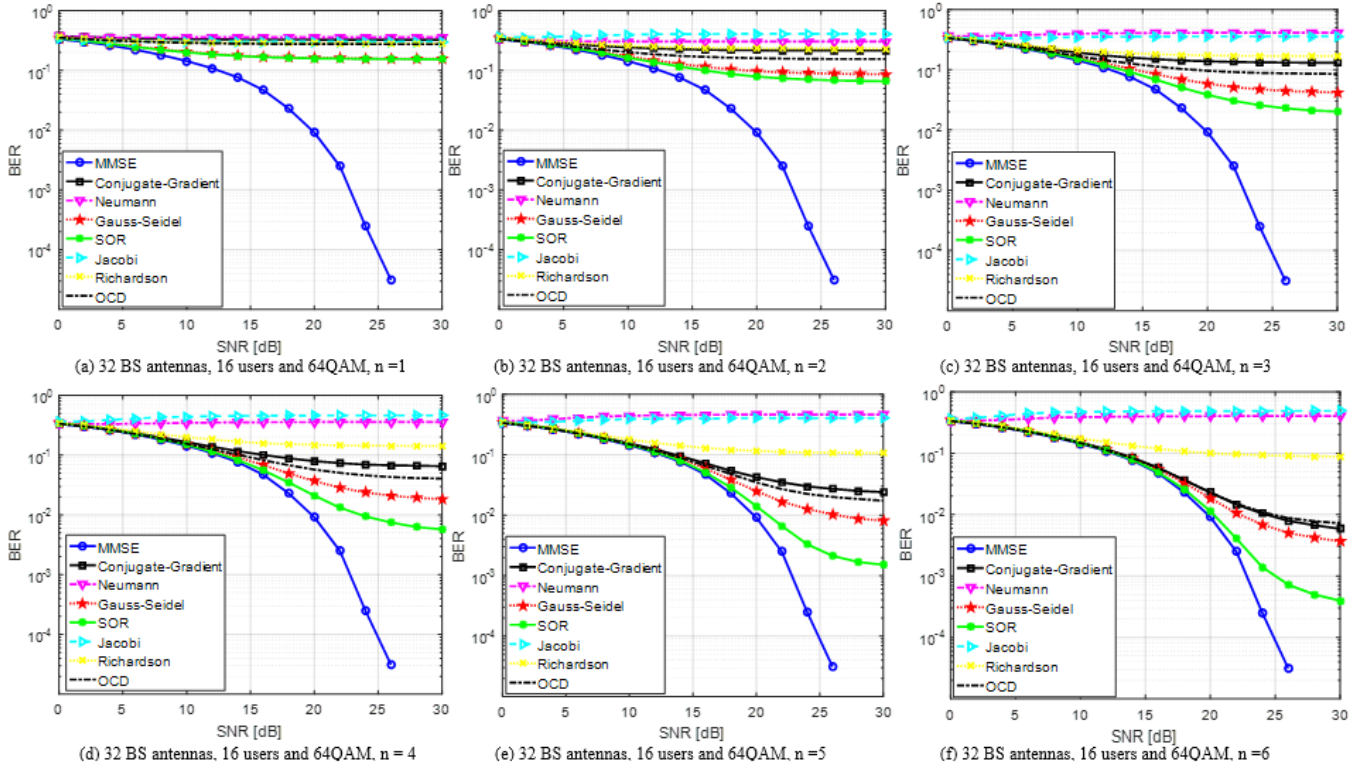


Figure 2. Performance of different approximate detection methods and the exact MMSE for  $16 \times 32$  massive MIMO system

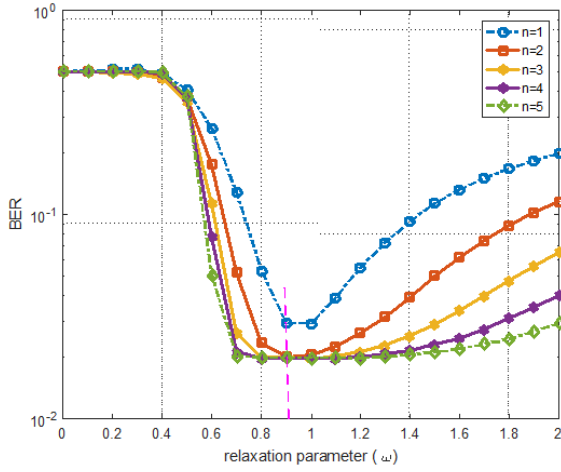


Figure 3. Performance of  $16 \times 128$  MIMO with MMSE detector utilizing SOR versus  $\omega$  with SNR = 10dB

versus  $\omega$  at SNR = 10dB. The best performance have been achieved when  $\omega = \frac{2}{\lambda}$ .

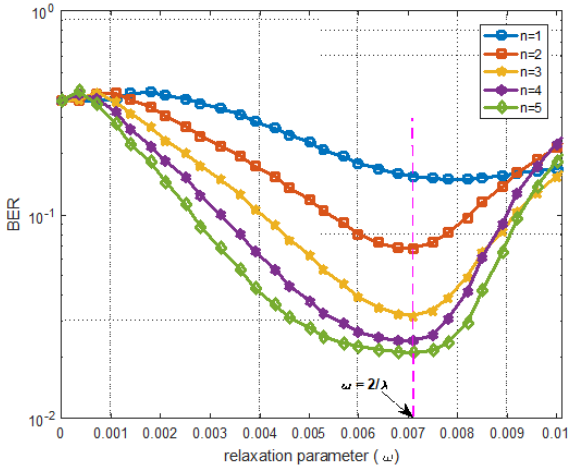


Figure 4. Performances of  $16 \times 128$  MIMO with MMSE detector utilizing Richardson versus  $\omega$  with SNR = 10dB

Figure 5 presents the complexity comparison in the number of multiplications in each iteration as mentioned in Table I. It is clear that detectors based on the Neumann, the CG and the OCD method has the lowest number of multiplications where OCD has the best BER performance among the mentioned methods (Fig. 1 and 2).

Figure 6 shows the required SNR, number of iterations, and the number of multiplication to achieve BER =  $10^{-2}$ . It is clear that the detector based on GS method achieves the BER target at SNR = 14dB with  $n = 1$  and 12dB with  $n = 2$ . In addition, the detector based on Jacobi method achieves the BER target at SNR = 22dB with  $n = 1$ , 14dB with  $n = 2$ , and 12dB with  $n = 3$ . Sequentially, the detector based on OCD and CG methods can achieve the BER =  $10^{-2}$  at 12dB with  $n = 3$  and a small number of multiplications.

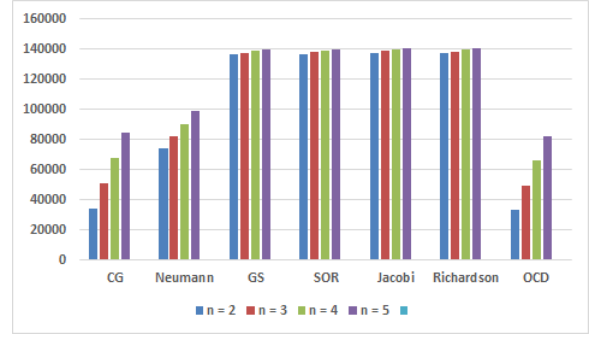


Figure 5. Complexity comparison among different approximate inversion methods in  $16 \times 128$  MIMO

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a comparison between the exact MMSE based MIMO detector and several approximate matrix inversion methods at different number of iterations. The simulation results show that the detector based on the GS method outperformed the other detector when  $\beta$  is small. On the other hand, when  $\beta$  is large, a detector based on the SOR method has achieved the best BER performance. The selection of the relaxation parameter ( $\omega$ ) has been studied for both SOR and Richardson methods. It has been shown that the optimum BER performance can be achieved when  $\omega = \frac{2}{\lambda}$  in the Richardson method. Furthermore, this paper has compared the computational complexity of the approximate inversion methods. The Neumann method, the OCD method, and the CG method have achieved the lowest number of multiplications, while the CG method outperforms the Neumann and the OCD methods.

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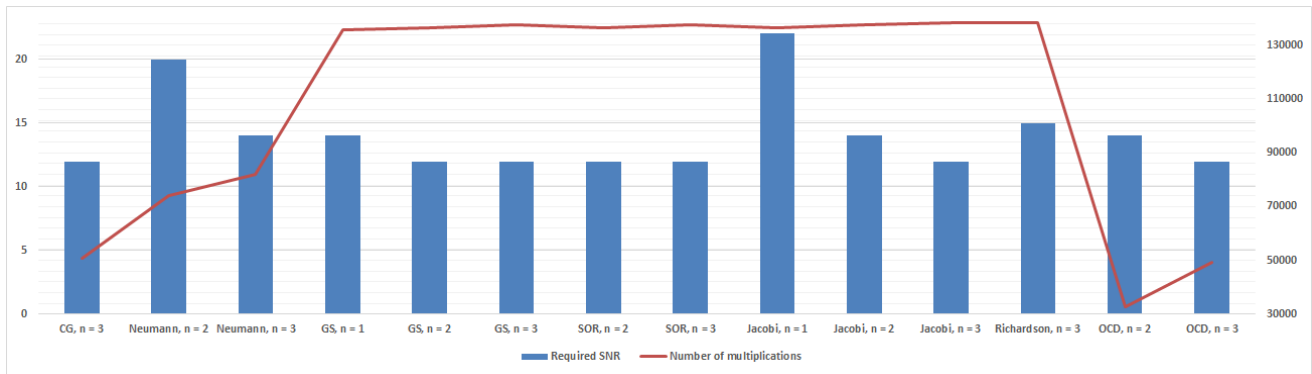


Figure 6. Performance-complexity trade-off to achieve  $\text{BER} = 10^{-2}$  in  $16 \times 128$  MIMO

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