Channel Gain Cartography for Cognitive Radios
Leveraging Low Rank and Sparsity

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Abstract—Channel gain cartography aims at inferring the channel gains between two arbitrary points in space based on the measurements (samples) of the gains collected by a set of radios deployed in the area. Channel gain maps are useful for various sensing and resource allocation tasks essential for the operation of cognitive radio networks. In this work, the channel gains are modeled as the tomographic accumulations of an underlying spatial loss field (SLF), which captures the attenuation in the signal strength due to the obstacles in the propagation path. In order to estimate the map accurately with a relatively small number of measurements, the SLF is postulated to have a low-rank structure possibly with sparse deviations. Efficient batch and online algorithms are derived for the resulting map reconstruction problem. Comprehensive tests with both synthetic and real datasets corroborate that the algorithms can accurately reveal the structure of the propagation medium, and produce the desired channel gain maps.

Index Terms—Channel gain cartography, cognitive radio, low rank and sparse models, RF tomography.

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, it has been recognized that the licensed RF spectrum is often severely under-utilized depending on the time and location of communication, in spite of the evident scarcity of the spectral resources due to the growing use of wireless devices [2]. Cognitive radios (CRs) aim to mitigate this issue by opportunistically utilizing the unused licensed spectrum through spectrum sensing and dynamic spectrum access. RF cartography is an instrumental concept for such CR tasks [3]. Based on the measurements collected by spatially distributed CR sensors, RF cartography constructs the maps over the space, time, and frequency, portraying the RF landscape in which the CR network is deployed. Notable RF maps that have been proposed include the power spectral density (PSD) maps, which acquire the ambient interference power distribution, revealing the crowded regions that CR transceivers need to avoid [4]; and the channel gain (CG) maps, which capture the channel gains between any two points in space, allowing CR networks to perform accurate spectrum sensing and aggressive spatial reuse [5].

The present work focuses on channel gain cartography. Prior works capitalized on experimentally validated notion of a spatial loss field (SLF) [6], which expresses the shadow fading over an arbitrary link as the weighted integral of the underlying attenuation that the RF propagation experiences due to the blocking objects in the path. Linear interpolation techniques such as kriging were employed to estimate the shadow fading based on spatially correlated measurements, and the spatio-temporal dynamics were tracked using Kalman filtering approaches [5], [7]. It is worth noting that SLF reconstruction is tantamount to the radio tomographic imaging (RTI), useful in a wide range of applications, from locating survivors in rescue operations to environmental monitoring [8], [9], [10]. The method in [8] captures the variation of the propagation medium by taking SLF differences at consecutive time slots into consideration. To cope with multipath fading in a cluttered environment, multiple channel measurements were utilized to enhance localization accuracy in [11]. However, the methods in [8], [11] do not reveal static objects in the imaging area. In contrast, a method to track moving objects using a dynamic SLF model, as well as identifying the static ones, was reported in [10]. Exploiting the sparse occupancy of the monitored area by the target objects, sparsity-leveraging algorithms for constructing obstacle maps were developed [12], [13], [14]. Our work adopts a related data model, but mainly focuses on the channel gain map construction for CR applications.

Although more sophisticated methodologies for channel modeling do exist [15], [16], the computational cost and requirements on various structural/geometric prior information may hinder their use in CR applications. On the other hand, the SLF model has been experimentally validated [6], as well as in the present work through a real tomographic imaging example. Our proposed approach provides a computationally efficient solution, by capitalizing on the inherent structure of measurement data, rather than relying heavily on the physics of RF propagation.

Our work interpolates the channel gains based on the SLF reconstructed from a small number of measurements using a low-rank and sparse matrix model. The key idea is to postulate that the SLF has a low-rank structure potentially corrupted by sparse outliers. Such a model is particularly appealing for urban and indoor propagation scenarios, where regular placement of buildings and walls renders a scene inherently of low rank, while sparse outliers can pick up the artifacts that do not conform to the low-rank model. While it is true that urban and indoor environments have distinct profiles due to the different scales and density of obstacles, our data model
can capture the structural regularity of obstacles, possibly at different scales, as validated through synthetic and real data examples in Section V. The sparse term helps robustify this model by filtering out the measurements that do not conform to the low-rank structure. This is essentially the idea behind robust principal component analysis [17], which is a powerful data model that has been used widely.

In fact, since the shadow fading samples are modeled as linear tomographic measurements of the SLF, the map recovery task reduces to an instance of compressive principal component pursuit (CPCP) [18]. In general, the CPCP problem recovers the low-rank and sparse matrices from a small set of linearly projected measurements. Our algorithms are applicable to this general problem class.

We develop efficient batch and online algorithms for the map estimation task, suitable for CR network implementation. By replacing the nuclear norm-based regularizer with a bi-factorization surrogate, a block coordinate descent (BCD) algorithm becomes available to avoid costly singular value decomposition (SVD) per iteration. Although the resulting optimization problem is non-convex, the batch solver can attain the global optimum under appropriate conditions. For the online algorithm, a stochastic successive upper-bound minimization strategy is adopted, leading to a stochastic gradient descent (SGD) update rule, which enjoys low computational complexity. The itertes generated by the online algorithm are provably convergent to the stationary point of the batch problem.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II, the system model and problem statement are provided. The map reconstruction problem is formulated and its efficient batch solution method is derived in Section III. An online algorithm is developed through a stochastic approximation, and its convergence is established in Section IV. Results from numerical tests using both synthetic and real datasets are presented in Section V, and the conclusions are offered in Section VI.

Notations: Bold uppercase (lowercase) letters denote matrices (column vectors). Calligraphic letters are used for sets; $\mathbb{I}_n$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. $0_n$ denotes an $n \times 1$ vector of all zeros, and $0_{n \times n}$ an $n \times n$ matrix of all zeros. Operators $(\cdot)^T$, $\text{tr}()$, and $\sigma_i(\cdot)$ represent the transposition, trace, and the $i$-th largest singular value of a matrix, respectively; $\cdot$ is used for the cardinality of a set, and the magnitude of a scalar. $\mathbb{R} \geq 0$ signifies that $\mathbb{R}$ is positive semidefinite. The $\ell_1$-norm of $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is $\|x\|_1 := \sum_{i,j=1}^n |X_{ij}|$. The $\ell_\infty$-norm of $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is represented by $\|x\|_\infty := \max_{i,j=1} \{ |X_{ij}| \}$. For two matrices $X,Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the inner product is $\langle X,Y \rangle := \text{tr}(X^T Y)$. The Frobenius norm of matrix $Y$ is $\|Y\|_F := \sqrt{\text{tr}(Y^T Y)}$. The spectral norm of $Y$ is $\|Y\|_* := \max_{|x|=1} \|Yx\|_2$, and $\|Y\|_* := \sum_{i} \sigma_i(Y)$ is the nuclear norm of $Y$. For a function $h: \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the directional derivative of $h$ at $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ along a direction $D \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is denoted as $h'(X; D) := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} [h(X + tD) - h(X)]/t$.

II. System Model and Problem Statement

Consider a set of $N_c$ CRs deployed over a geographical area represented by a two-dimensional plane $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $x_{\eta}^{(t)} \in \mathcal{A}$ denote the position of CR $n \in \{1,2,\ldots,N\}$ at time $t$. By exchanging pilot sequences, the CR nodes can estimate the channel gains among them. A typical channel gain between nodes $n$ and $n'$ can be modeled as the product of pathloss, shadowing, and small-scale fading. By averaging out the effect of the small-scale fading, the averaged channel gain measurement over a link $(n,n')$ at time $t$, denoted by $G(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)})$, can be represented (in dB) as

$$G(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)}) = G_0 - \gamma 10 \log_{10} ||x_{\eta}^{(t)} - x_{\eta'}^{(t)}|| + s(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)})$$

where $G_0$ is the path gain at unit distance: $||x_{\eta}^{(t)} - x_{\eta'}^{(t)}||$ is the distance between nodes $n$ and $n'$; $\gamma$ is the pathloss exponent; and $s(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)})$ is the attenuation due to the shadow fading. By subtracting the known pathloss component in (1), the noisy shadowing measurement

$$\hat{s}(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)}) = s(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)}) + \epsilon(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)})$$

is obtained, where $\epsilon(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)})$ denotes the measurement noise. Let $M^{(t)}$ be the set of links, for which channel gain measurements are made at time $t$, and collect those measurements in vector $\hat{s}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{|M^{(t)}|}$. The goal of channel gain cartography is to predict the channel gain between arbitrary points $x, x' \in \mathcal{A}$ at time $t$, based on the known nodal positions $\{x_{\eta}^{(t)}\}$ and the channel gain measurements collected up to time $t$, that is, $\{\hat{s}(x_{\eta}^{(t)}, x_{\eta'}^{(t)})\}_{\eta'=1}^N$.

In order to achieve this interpolation, the structure of shadow fading experienced by co-located radio links will be leveraged. To this end, a variety of correlation models for shadow fading have been proposed [6], [19], [20]. In particular, the models in [5], [6], [9], [10] rely on the so-called spatial loss field (SLF), which captures the attenuation due to obstacles in the line-of-sight propagation.

Let $f : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote the SLF, which captures the attenuation at location $x \in \mathcal{A}$, and $w(x,x',\hat{x})$ is the weight function modeling the influence of the SLF at $\hat{x}$ to the shadowing experienced by link $x$-$x'$. Then, $s(x,x')$ is expressed as [21]

$$s(x,x') = \int_{\mathcal{A}} w(x,x',\hat{x}) f(\hat{x}) d\hat{x}.$$  

The normalized ellipse model is often used for the weight function, with $w$ taking the form [8]

$$w(x,x',\hat{x}) := \begin{cases} 
1/\sqrt{d(x,x')} & \text{if } d(x,\hat{x}) + d(x',\hat{x}) < d(x,x') + \delta \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}$$

where $d(x,x') := ||x-x'||$ is the distance between positions $x$ and $x'$, and $\delta > 0$ is a tunable parameter. The value of $\delta$ is commonly set to half the wavelength to assign non-zero weights only within the first Fresnel zone. The integral in (3) can be approximated by

$$s(x,x') \approx \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} \sum_{j=1}^{N_y} w(x,x',\hat{x}_{i,j}) f(\hat{x}_{i,j})$$

where $\{\hat{x}_{i,j}\}_{i=1,j=1}^{N_x,N_y}$ are the pre-specified grid points over $\mathcal{A}$. Let matrix $F \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x \times N_y}$ denote the SLF, sampled by the $N_x$-by-$N_y$ grid. Similarly, the weight matrix $W_{xx'}$ corresponding
to link $x-x'$ is constructed. The shadow fading over link $x-x'$ in (5) can then be expressed as a linear projection of the SLF given by

$$ s(x, x') \simeq (W_{xx'}, F) = \text{tr}(W_{xx'}^T F). $$

(6)

The goal is to form an estimate $\hat{F}(t)$ of $F(t)$ at time $t$, based on $\{x_n^{(t)}\}$ and $\{\tilde{s}(t)^c\}_{t=1}^T$. Once $\hat{F}(t)$ is obtained, the shadowing and the overall channel gain across any link $x-x'$ at time $t$ can be estimated via (6) and (1) as

$$ \tilde{s}(x^{(t)}, x'^{(t)}) = \langle W_{xx'}, \hat{F}(t) \rangle $$

(7)

$$ \hat{G}(x^{(t)}, x'^{(t)}) = G_0 - \gamma 10 \log_{10} \|x^{(t)} - x'^{(t)}\| + \tilde{s}(x^{(t)}, x'^{(t)}). $$

(8)

The number of unknown $F(t)$ entries is less than $N_x N_y$, while the number of measurements is $O(t N^2)$, provided that the SLF remains invariant for $t$ slots. If the number of entries to be estimated in $F(t)$ is larger than the number of measurements, the problem is underdetermined and cannot be solved uniquely. To overcome this and further improve the performance even in the overdetermined cases, a priori knowledge on the structure of $F(t)$ will be exploited next to regularize the problem.

III. CHANNEL GAIN PREDICTION USING LOW RANK AND SPARSITY

A. Problem formulation

The low-rank plus sparse structure has been advocated in various problems in machine learning and signal processing [17], [22], [23]. Low-rank matrices are effective in capturing slow variation or regular patterns, and sparsity is instrumental for incorporating robustness against outliers. Inspired by these, we postulate that $F$ has a low-rank-plus-sparse structure as

$$ F = L + E $$

(9)

where matrix $L$ is low-rank, and $E$ is sparse. This model is particularly attractive in urban or indoor scenarios where the obstacles often possess regular patterns, while the sparse term can capture irregularities that do not conform to the low-rank model.

Redefine $W_{nn'}^{(t)} := W_{x_n x_{n'}}^{(t)}$ and $\tilde{s}_{nn'}^{(t)} := \tilde{s}(x_n^{(t)}, x_{n'}^{(t)})$ for brevity. Toward estimating $F(t)$ that obeys (9), consider the cost

$$ c(t)(L, E) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(n,n') \in \mathcal{M}(t)} \left( \langle W_{nn'}, L + E \rangle - \tilde{s}_{nn'}^{(t)} \right)^2 $$

(10)

1 Prompted by [11], the benefit of multi-channel diversity for RTI may be incorporated in the present framework. Suppose $K$ channels $\mathcal{K}_{nn'}^{(t)}$ are available to sensors $n$ and $n'$ at time $t$, and let $s_{nn', k}^{(t)}$ denote the noisy measurement including fading over link $x_n - x_{n'}$ at time $k \in \mathcal{K}_{nn'}^{(t)}$. Construct a new measurement as $s_{nn'}^{(t)} = \phi(s_{nn', 1}^{(t)}, s_{nn', 2}^{(t)}, \ldots, s_{nn', K}^{(t)})$, where $\phi(\cdot)$ is a channel selection function [11]. By replacing $s_{nn'}^{(t)}$ in (10) with $s_{nn', k}^{(t)}$, the multiple channel measurements can be incorporated without altering the method. However, the dynamic channel availability and multi-channel measurements will increase algorithm complexity. On the other hand, it is not clear whether such a multi-channel approach can be adopted for estimating any channel gain over multiple frequency bands, and constitutes a future research direction.

which fits the shadowing measurements to the model. Then, with $T$ denoting the total number of time slots taking measurements, we adopt the following optimization criterion

$$ \min_{L, E \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x \times N_y}} \sum_{t=1}^T \beta T^{-\tau} \left[ c(t)(L, E) + \lambda \|L\|_n + \mu \|E\|_1 \right] $$

(11)

where $\beta \in (0, 1]$ is the forgetting factor that can be optionally put in to weigh the recent observations more heavily. The nuclear norm regularization term promotes a low-rank $L$, while the $\ell_1$-norm encourages sparsity in $E$. Parameters $\lambda$ and $\mu$ are appropriately chosen to control the effect of these regularizers. Conditions for exact recovery through a related convex formulation in the absence of measurement noise can be found in [18].

Problem (11) is convex, and can be tackled using existing efficient solvers, such as the interior-point method. Once the optimal $\hat{L}$ and $\hat{E}$ are found, the desired $\hat{F}$ is obtained as $\hat{F} = \hat{L} + \hat{E}$. However, the general-purpose optimization packages tend to scale poorly as the problem size grows. Specialized algorithms developed for related problems often employ costly SVD operations iteratively [18]. Furthermore, such an algorithm might not be amenable for an online implementation. Building on [24] and [25], an efficient solution is proposed next with reduced complexity.

B. Efficient batch solution

Without loss of generality, consider replacing $L$ with the low-rank product $PQ^T$, where $P \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x \times \rho}$ and $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y \times \rho}$, and $\rho$ is a pre-specified overestimate of the rank of $L$. It is known that (e.g., [25])

$$ \|L\|_n = \min_{P, Q} \frac{1}{2} \left( \|P\|_F^2 + \|Q\|_F^2 \right) $$

subject to $L = PQ^T$.

(12)

Thus, a natural re-formulation of (11) is (see also [24])

$$ \min_{P, Q, E} f(P, Q, E) := \sum_{t=1}^T \beta T^{-\tau} \left[ c(t)(PQ^T, E) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \left( \|P\|_F^2 + \|Q\|_F^2 \right) + \mu \|E\|_1 \right] $$

(13)

$$ \min_{P, Q, E} \sum_{t=1}^T \beta T^{-\tau} \left[ c(t)(PQ^T, E) + \lambda \|PQ^T\|_n + \mu \|E\|_1 \right] $$

(14)

since the search space is reduced by the reparameterization $L = PQ^T$ with $\rho \leq \min\{N_x, N_y\}$. Now (12) implies that
the minimum of (14) is no larger than that of (P2). However, the inequality is tight since the objectives of (P1) and (P2) are identical for $E : = \hat{E}$, $P : = \hat{U} \Sigma^{1/2}$, and $Q : = \hat{V} \Sigma^{1/2}$, where $L = U \Sigma V^T$ is the SVD. Consequently, (P1) and (P2) have identical costs at the minimum.

Although (P1) is a convex optimization problem, (P2) is not. Thus, in general, one can obtain only a locally optimal solution of (P2), which may not be the globally optimal solution of (P1). Interestingly, under appropriate conditions, global optimality can be guaranteed for the local optima of (P2), as claimed in the following proposition.

**Proposition 1:** If $[P, Q, E]$ is a stationary point of (P2), $\beta : = \sum_{\tau=1}^T \beta^{T-\tau}$, and $||f(PQ\tau, E)|| \leq \lambda \beta$ with

\[
\hat{f}(L, \hat{E}) : = \sum_{\tau=1}^T \beta^{T-\tau} \sum_{(n, n') \in M(\tau)} \left( (W_{nn'}^{(\tau)} L + \hat{E}) - \hat{s}_{nn'}^{(\tau)} \right) W_{nn'}^{(\tau)}
\]

then $\{ \hat{L} : = \hat{P} Q \hat{T}, \hat{E} : = \hat{E} \}$ is a globally optimal solution to (P1).

**Proof:** See Appendix A.

A stationary point of (P2) can be obtained through a block coordinate-descent (BCD) algorithm, where the optimization is performed in a cyclic fashion over one of $\{E, P, Q\}$ with the remaining two variables fixed. In fact, since the term $\mu ||E||_1$ is separable in the individual entries as well, the cyclic update can be stretched all the way up to the individual entries of $E$ without affecting convergence [26]. The proposed solver entails an iterative procedure comprising three steps per iteration $k = 1, 2, \ldots$

[S1] **Update $E$:**

\[
E[k + 1] = \arg \min_E \sum_{\tau=1}^T \beta^{T-\tau} \left[ \sum_{(n, n') \in M(\tau)} c_{\tau}(\hat{P} [k] Q^T [k], E) + \mu ||E||_1 \right]
\]

[S2] **Update $P$:**

\[
P[k + 1] = \arg \min_P \sum_{\tau=1}^T \beta^{T-\tau} \left[ \sum_{(n, n') \in M(\tau)} c_{\tau}(P Q^T [k], E[k + 1]) + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||P||_F^2 \right]
\]

[S3] **Update $Q$:**

\[
Q[k + 1] = \arg \min_Q \sum_{\tau=1}^T \beta^{T-\tau} \left[ \sum_{(n, n') \in M(\tau)} c_{\tau}(P [k + 1] Q^T [k], E[k + 1]) + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||Q||_F^2 \right]
\]

To update each block variable, the cost in (P2) is minimized while fixing the other block variables to their up-to-date iterates.

To detail the update rules, let $\mathcal{W}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s \times |M(\tau)|}$ be a matrix with columns equal to $\text{vec} \left( W_{nn'}^{(\tau)} \right)$ for $(n, n') \in M(\tau)$, where $\text{vec}()$ produces a column vector by stacking the columns of a matrix one below the other (\text{vec}(\cdot) denotes the reverse process). Define $\mathcal{W}_i : = \left[ \sqrt{\beta^{T-1}} \mathcal{W}_i^{(1)} \cdots \sqrt{\beta} \mathcal{W}_i^{(T)} \right]$, $\mathcal{S}_i : = \left[ \sqrt{\beta^{T-1}} \mathcal{S}_i^{(1)} \cdots \sqrt{\beta} \mathcal{S}_i^{(T)} \right]^T$, and $\mathcal{E} : = \text{vec}(E)$. Then, one can write $\sum_{\tau=1}^T \beta^{T-\tau} c_{\tau}(PQ^T, E) = ||W^T \text{vec}(PQ^T + E) - \mathcal{S}||_F^2$. Let $e_l$ denote the $l$-th entry of $e$, and $e_{-l}$ represent the replica of $e$ without its $l$-th entry. Similarly, let $\omega^T_l$ denote the $l$-th row of the matrix $\mathcal{W}$, and $\mathcal{W}_{-l}$ denote the matrix $\mathcal{W}$ with its $l$-th row removed. The soft-thresholding function $\text{soft}_\theta(x; \mu)$ is defined as

\[
\text{soft}_\theta(x; \mu) : = \text{sgn}(x) \max\{0, |x| - \mu\}.
\]

Minimization in [S1] proceeds sequentially over the individual entries of $e$. At iteration $k$, each entry is updated via

\[
e_l[k + 1] = \arg \min_{e_l} \frac{1}{2} \| e_l - \hat{s}_l[k] \|_2^2 + \mu \beta \| e_l \|_1,
\]

where $\hat{s}_l[k] : = s_l - W^T \text{vec}(P[k] Q^T [k]) - W^T e_{-l}$. The closed-form solution for $e_l$ is obtained as

\[
e_l[k + 1] = \frac{\text{soft}_\theta(\omega_l^T \hat{s}_l[k]; \mu \beta)}{||\omega_l||_2^2}.
\]

Matrices $P$ and $Q$ are similarly updated over their rows through [S2] and [S3]. Let $p_i$ be the $i$-th row of $P$, transposed to a column vector, i.e., $P_i : = [p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_N]^T$.

Define $\mathcal{W}_i^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{|M(\tau)| \times N_s}$ to be the matrix whose rows are the $i$-th rows of $\{W_{nn'}^{(\tau)}((n, n') \in M(\tau))$ denoted as $\tilde{w}_i^{(n, n')}^{(\tau)}$, and $\hat{s}_l[i] \in \mathbb{R}^{M(\tau)}$ a vector with entries equal to

\[
\hat{s}_l^{(n, n'), i} : = \hat{s}_l^{(n, n')} - \langle W_l^{(n, n')}, e[k + 1] \rangle - \sum_{j \neq i} \tilde{w}_i^{(n, n'), j} Q[k] p_j
\]

for $(n, n') \in M(\tau)$. Define also $\mathcal{W}_i : = [\sqrt{\beta^{T-1}} \mathcal{W}_i^{(1)} \cdots \sqrt{\beta} \mathcal{W}_i^{(T)}]^T$ and $\hat{s}_l[i] : = [\sqrt{\beta^{T-1}} \hat{s}_l^{(1)} \cdots \sqrt{\beta} \hat{s}_l^{(T)}]^T$. Then, $p_i$ is updated by solving a ridge-regression problem as

\[
p_i[k + 1] = \left[ \mathcal{Q}^T [k] \mathcal{W}_i \mathcal{W}_i \mathcal{Q} [k] + \lambda \mathcal{I} \right]^{-1} \mathcal{Q}^T [k] \mathcal{W}_i \hat{s}_l[i]
\]

which involves matrix inversion of dimension only $\rho$-by-$\rho$. Likewise, let $q_i$ denote the $i$-th row of $Q$, transposed to a column vector, i.e., $Q_i : = [q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_N]^T$. Define also $\mathcal{W}_i : = [\sqrt{\beta^{T-1}} \mathcal{W}_i^{(1)} \cdots \sqrt{\beta} \mathcal{W}_i^{(T)}]^T$ and $\hat{s}_l[i] : = [\sqrt{\beta^{T-1}} \hat{s}_l^{(1)} \cdots \sqrt{\beta} \hat{s}_l^{(T)}]^T$, where $\mathcal{W}_i^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M(\tau)| \times N_s}$ is the matrix whose rows are the transpositions of the $i$-th columns of $\{W_{nn'}^{(\tau)}((n, n') \in M(\tau))$, denoted as $\tilde{w}_i^{(n, n')}^{(\tau)}$, and $\hat{s}_l[i] \in \mathbb{R}^{M(\tau)}$, has entries

\[
\hat{s}_l^{(n, n'), i} : = \hat{s}_l^{(n, n')} - \langle W_l^{(n, n')}, e[k + 1] \rangle - \sum_{j \neq i} \tilde{w}_i^{(n, n'), j} P[k + 1] q_j
\]

for $(n, n') \in M(\tau)$. The update for $q_i$ is then given by solving another ridge regression problem to obtain

\[
q_i[k + 1] = \arg \min_{q_i} \frac{1}{2} \| \mathcal{W}_i \mathcal{Q} [k + 1] q_i - \hat{s}_l[i] \|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda \beta}{2} ||q_i||_2^2
\]
TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BATCH SOLVER OF (P2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Initialize $E[1] := 0_{N_x \times N_y}$, $P[1]$ and $Q[1]$ at random.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>For $k = 1, 2, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[S1] Update $E_k$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Set $e = \text{vec}(E[k])$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>For $l = 1, 2, \ldots N_y$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Set $\tilde{s}<em>l[k] := s - W^T \text{vec}(P[k]Q^T[k]) - W</em>{T,l} e_{l-1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$e_{l+1} = \text{soft}^{-1}(\text{vec}(\tilde{s}_l[k]); \mu \beta_l)/|\omega_l|_2^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Next $l$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Set $E[k+1] = \text{unvec}(e_{k+1})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>[S2] Update $P[k]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>For $i = 1, 2, \ldots, N_x$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Set $W_i$ and $s_i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>$p_i[k+1] = \left[P^T[k] W_i^T W_i Q[k] + \lambda_i \beta_i I_p \right]^{-1} (Q^T[k] W_i^T \tilde{s}_i)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Next $i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>$P[k+1] = [p_1[k+1], p_2[k+1], \ldots, p_{N_x}[k+1]]^T$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>[S3] Update $Q[k]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>For $i = 1, 2, \ldots, N_y$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Set $W_i$ and $s_i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>$q_i[k+1] = \left[P^T[k+1] W_i^T W_i P[k+1] + \lambda_i \beta_i I_q \right]^{-1} \times (P^T[k+1] W_i^T \tilde{s}_i)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Next $i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>$Q[k+1] = [q_1[k+1], q_2[k+1], \ldots, q_{N_y}[k+1]]^T$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Next $k$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

whose solution can also be closed form by

$$q_i[k+1] = \left[P^T[k+1] W_i^T W_i P[k+1] + \lambda_i \beta_i I_q \right]^{-1} \times (P^T[k+1] W_i^T \tilde{s}_i)$$

which again involves matrix inversion of dimension $\rho$-by-$\rho$. The overall algorithm is tabulated in Table I.

Although the proposed batch algorithm exhibits low computational and memory requirements, it is not suitable for online processing, since (13) must be re-solved every time a new set of measurements arrive, incurring major computational burden. Thus, the development of an online recursive algorithm is well motivated.

IV. ONLINE ALGORITHM

A. Stochastic approximation approach

In practice, it is often the case that a new set of data becomes available sequentially in time. Then, it is desirable to have an algorithm that can process the newly acquired data incrementally and refine the previous estimates, rather than recomputing the batch solution, which may incur prohibitively growing computational burden. Furthermore, when the channel is time-varying due to, e.g., mobile obstacles, online algorithms can readily track such variations.

Stochastic approximation (SA) is an appealing strategy for deriving online algorithms [27], [28]. Recently, techniques involving minimizing majorized surrogate functions were developed to handle nonconvex cost functions in online settings [24], [29], [30], [31]. An online algorithm to solve a dictionary learning problem was proposed in [30]. A stochastic gradient descent algorithm was derived for subspace tracking and anomaly detection in [24]. Here, an online algorithm for the CPCP problem is developed. The proposed approach employs quadratic surrogate functions with diagonal weighting so as to capture disparate curvatures in the directions of different block variables.

For simplicity, let the number of measurements per time slot $t$ be constant $M := |M(t)|$ for all $t$. Define $X := (P, Q, E) \in X' \subset \mathbb{R}^{(N_x \times \rho)} \times \mathbb{R}^{(N_y \times \rho)} \times \mathbb{R}^{(N_z \times \rho)}$, where $X'$ is a compact convex set, and $X'$ a bounded open set, and $\xi(t) := \{x_m^t\}_{m=1}^M \subset \Xi$, where $\Xi$ is assumed to be bounded. Define with slight abuse of notation

$$g_1(X, \xi(t)) = g_1(P, Q, E, \xi(t)) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m=1}^M \left(\langle W_m^T, PQ^T + E \rangle - s_m^t \right)^2$$

$$g_2(X) = g_2(P, Q, E) := \lambda_2 \left(\|P\|_F^2 + \|Q\|_F^2\right) + \mu_1 \|E\|_1.$$  

A quadratic surrogate function for $g_1(X, \xi(t))$ is then constructed as

$$\tilde{g}_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) := g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) + \langle P - P^{(t-1)}, \nabla_P g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) \rangle + \frac{\eta_P(t)}{2} \|P - P^{(t-1)}\|_F^2$$

$$+ \langle Q - Q^{(t-1)}, \nabla_Q g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) \rangle + \frac{\eta_Q(t)}{2} \|Q - Q^{(t-1)}\|_F^2$$

$$+ \langle E - E^{(t-1)}, \nabla_E g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) \rangle + \frac{\eta_E(t)}{2} \|E - E^{(t-1)}\|_F^2$$

where $\eta_P(t)$, $\eta_Q(t)$, and $\eta_E(t)$ are positive constants, and with $\tilde{f}_m(t)(P, Q, E) := \langle W_m^T, PQ^T + E \rangle - s_m^t$ it can be readily verified that

$$\nabla_P g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) = \sum_{m=1}^M \tilde{f}_m(t)(P^{(t-1)}, Q^{(t-1)}, E^{(t-1)}) W_m^T Q^{(t-1)}$$

$$\nabla_Q g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) = \sum_{m=1}^M \tilde{f}_m(t)(P^{(t-1)}, Q^{(t-1)}, E^{(t-1)}) W_m^T P^{(t-1)}$$

$$\nabla_E g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi(t)) = \sum_{m=1}^M \tilde{f}_m(t)(P^{(t-1)}, Q^{(t-1)}, E^{(t-1)}) W_m^T.$$  

Let us focus on the case without the forgetting factor, i.e., $\beta = 1$. A convergent SA algorithm for (P2) is obtained by considering the following surrogate problem

$$\text{P3:} \min_X \frac{1}{t} \sum_{\tau=1}^t \tilde{g}_1(X, X^{(\tau-1)}, \xi^{(\tau)}) + g_2(X)$$

In fact, solving (P3) yields a stochastic gradient descent (SGD) algorithm. In particular, since variables $P$, $Q$, and $E$ can be
separately optimized in (P3), the proposed algorithm updates the variables in parallel in each time slot $t$ as

$$P^{(t)} = \arg\min_P \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ (P - P^{(t-1)}), \nabla_P g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \right] + \frac{\eta^{(t)}_P}{2} ||P - P^{(t-1)}||_F^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||P||_F^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)

$$Q^{(t)} = \arg\min_Q \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ (Q - Q^{(t-1)}), \nabla_Q g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \right] + \frac{\eta^{(t)}_Q}{2} ||Q - Q^{(t-1)}||_F^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||Q||_F^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (31)

$$E^{(t)} = \arg\min_E \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ (E - E^{(t-1)}), \nabla_E g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \right] + \frac{\eta^{(t)}_E}{2} ||E - E^{(t-1)}||_F^2 + \mu ||E||_1$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)

By checking the first-order optimality conditions, and defining $\eta^{(t)}_P := \sum_{t=1}^T \eta_P^{(t)}$ and $\eta^{(t)}_Q := \sum_{t=1}^T \eta_Q^{(t)}$, the update rules for $P$ and $Q$ are obtained as

$$P^{(t)} = \frac{1}{\eta^{(t)}_P} \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ \eta^{(t)}_P P^{(t-1)} - \nabla_P g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \right]$$ \hspace{1cm} (33)

$$Q^{(t)} = \frac{1}{\eta^{(t)}_Q} \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ \eta^{(t)}_Q Q^{(t-1)} - \nabla_Q g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \right]$$ \hspace{1cm} (34)

which can be written in recursive forms as

$$P^{(t)} = P^{(t-1)} - \frac{1}{\eta^{(t)}_P} \left( \nabla_P g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + \lambda P^{(t-1)} \right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (35)

$$Q^{(t)} = Q^{(t-1)} - \frac{1}{\eta^{(t)}_Q} \left( \nabla_Q g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + \lambda Q^{(t-1)} \right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (36)

Due to the non-smoothness of $||E||_1$, the update for $E$ proceeds in two steps. First, an auxiliary variable $Z^{(t)}$ is introduced, which is computed as

$$Z^{(t)} = \frac{1}{\eta^{(t)}_E} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^t \eta^{(k)}_E E^{(k-1)} - \nabla_E g_1 (X^{(k-1)}, \xi^{(k)}) \right]$$ \hspace{1cm} (37)

By defining $\eta^{(t)}_E := \sum_{t=1}^T \eta^{(t)}_E$, matrix $Z^{(t)}$ can be obtained recursively as

$$Z^{(t)} = \frac{1}{\eta^{(t)}_E} \left[ \eta^{(t)}_E E^{(t-1)} + \eta^{(t)}_E (t-1) Z^{(t-1)} - \nabla_E g_1 (X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \right]$$ \hspace{1cm} (38)

Then, $E^{(t)}$ is updated as

$$E^{(t)} = \text{soft-th} (Z^{(t)}; \mu t / \eta^{(t)}_E)$$ \hspace{1cm} (39)

The overall online algorithm is listed in Table II.

**Remark 1 (Computational complexity).** In the batch algorithm of Table I, the complexity orders for computing the updates for each of $p_i$ and $q_i$ are $O(N_p MT)$ and $O(N_q MT)$, respectively, due to the computation of $W^T s_i$ and $W_i^T s_i$. Thus, the complexity orders for updating $P$ and $Q$ per iteration $k$ are both $O(N_p N_q MT)$. The update of $e_t$ incurs complexity $O(MT)$ for computing $\omega^T s_i$. Thus, the complexity order for updating $E$ per iteration $k$ is $O(N_p N_q MT)$. Accordingly, the overall per-iteration complexity of the batch algorithm becomes $O(N_p N_q MT)$. On the other hand, the complexity of the online algorithm in Table II is dominated by the gradient computations, which require $O(N_p N_q M)$. Since $\rho$ is smaller than $N_p$ and $N_q$, and the per-iteration complexity does not grow with $T$, the online algorithm has a much more affordable complexity than its batch counterpart, and it is scalable for large network scenarios.

**B. Convergence**

The iterates $\{X^{(t)}\}_{t=1}^\infty$ generated from the algorithm in Table II converge to a stationary point of (P2), as asserted in the following proposition. First define

$$C_t (X) := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T [g_t (X, \xi^{(t)}) + g_2 (X)]$$ \hspace{1cm} (40)

$$\tilde{C}_t (X) := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T [\tilde{g}_t (X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + g_2 (X)]$$ \hspace{1cm} (41)

$$C(X) := \mathbb{E}_\xi [g_1 (X, \xi) + g_2 (X)]$$ \hspace{1cm} (42)

Note that $C_t (X)$ is essentially identical to the cost of (P2). Furthermore, the minimizer of $C_t (X)$ approaches that of $C(X)$ when $t \to \infty$, provided $\xi$ obeys the law of large numbers, which is clearly the case when e.g., $\{\xi^{(t)}\}$ is i.i.d.

Assume that $\nabla_P g_1 (\cdot, Q, E, \xi)$, $\nabla_Q g_1 (\cdot, P, E, \xi)$, and $\nabla_E g_1 (P, Q, \cdot, \xi)$ are Lipschitz with respect to $P$, $Q$, and $E$, respectively, with constants $L_P$, $L_Q$, and $L_E$, respectively (which will be shown in Appendix B). Furthermore, let $\bar{\alpha}_{\eta} (t) := (\sum_{t=1}^T (\eta^{(t)}_E + \lambda))^{-1}$ for $i \in \{P, Q\}$, and $\bar{\alpha}_{\eta} (t) := (\eta^{(t)}_E + \lambda)^{-1}$ denote step sizes.

**Proposition 2:** If (a1) $\{\xi^{(t)}\}_{t=1}^\infty$ is an independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) random sequence; (a2) $\{X^{(t)}\}_{t=1}^\infty$ are in a compact set $X$; (a3) $\Xi$ is bounded; (a4) For
\( i \in \{P, Q, E\} \), \( \bar{\eta}_i^{(t)} \geq ct \forall t \) for some \( c \geq 0 \); and (a5) \( c' \geq \eta_i^{(t)} \geq \frac{L_i^2}{L_{\min}} \forall t \) for some \( c' > 0 \) and \( L_{\min} := \min\{L_P, L_Q, L_E\} \), then the iterates \( \{\mathbf{X}^{(t)}\}_{t=1}^\infty \) generated by the algorithm in Table II converge to the set of stationary points of (P2) with \( \beta = 1 \), i.e.,

\[
\lim \inf_{t \to \infty} \mathbf{X}^{(t)} - \bar{\mathbf{X}} = 0 \quad \text{a.s.} \tag{43}
\]

where \( \bar{\mathbf{X}} \) is the set of stationary points of \( C(\mathbf{X}) \).

Proof: See Appendix B.

V. NUMERICAL TESTS

Performance of the proposed batch and online algorithms was assessed through numerical tests using both synthetic and real datasets. A few existing methods were also tested for comparison. The ridge-regularized least-squares (LS) scheme estimates the SLF as \( \text{vec}(\mathbf{F}) = (\mathbf{W}^\top \mathbf{W} + \omega \mathbf{C}_f^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{W}\bar{s} \), where \( \mathbf{C}_f \) is the spatial covariance matrix of the SLF, and \( \omega \) is a regularization parameter [8], [11], [21]. The total variation (TV)-regularized LS scheme in [32] was also tested, which solves \( \min_{\mathbf{F}} \|\mathbf{W} \mathbf{F} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \omega (\sum_{i=1}^{N_x} \sum_{j=1}^{N_y} |f_{i+1,j} - f_{i,j}| + \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} \sum_{j=1}^{N_y} |f_{i,j+1} - f_{i,j}|) \) where \( \mathbf{F} := \text{vec}(\mathbf{F}) \) and \( f_{i,j} \) corresponds to the \((i,j)\)-th element of \( \mathbf{F} \). Finally, the LASSO estimator was obtained by solving (P1) with \( \lambda = 0 \).

A. Test with synthetic data

Random tomographic measurements were taken by sensors deployed uniformly over \( \mathcal{A} := [0.5, 0.45] \times [0.5, 0.45] \), from which the SLF with \( N_x = N_y = 40 \) was reconstructed. Per-time slot, 10 measurements were taken, corrupted by zero-mean white Gaussian noise with variance \( \sigma^2 = 0.1 \). The regularization parameters were set to \( \lambda = 0.05 \) and \( \mu = 0.01 \) through cross-validation by minimizing the normalized error \( \|\mathbf{F} - \mathbf{F}_0\|_F / \|\mathbf{F}_0\|_F \), where \( \mathbf{F}_0 \) is the ground-truth SLF depicted in Fig. 1. Other parameters were set to \( \rho = 13, \beta = 1, \) and \( \delta = 0.06 \); while \( \mathbf{C}_f = \mathbf{1}_{N_x \times N_y} \) and \( \omega = 0.13 \) were used for the ridge-regularized LS.

To validate the batch algorithm in Table I, two cases were tested. In the first case, the measurements were generated for \( T = 130 \) time slots using \( N = 52 \) sensors, while in the second case, \( T = 260 \) and \( N = 73 \) were used. As a comparison, the accelerated proximal gradient (APG) algorithm was also derived for (P1) [33]. Note that the APG requires the costly SVD operation of an \( N_x \times N_y \) matrix per iteration, while only the inversion of a \( \rho \)-by-\( \rho \) matrix is necessary in the proposed BCD algorithm. Fig. 2 shows the SLFs reconstructed by APG and BCD algorithms for the two cases. Apparently, the reconstructed SLFs capture well the features of the ground-truth SLF in Fig. 1. Note that (P2) is underdetermined when \( T = 130 \) since the total number of unknowns in (P2) is 2,640 while the total number of measurements is only 1,300. This verifies that the channel gain maps can be accurately interpolated with a small number of measurements by leveraging the attributes of the low rank and sparsity. Fig. 3(a) shows the convergence of the BCD and APG algorithms. The cost of (P2) from the BCD algorithm converges to that of (P1) from APG after \( k = 550 \) iterations, showing that the performance of solving (P1) directly is achievable by the proposed algorithm solving (P2) instead. This can also be corroborated from the reconstructed SLFs in Fig. 2 as well.

Table III lists the reconstruction error when \( T = 130 \) and the per-iteration complexity of the batch algorithms. It is seen that the proposed method outperforms benchmark algorithms in terms of the reconstruction error. Note that the ridge-regularized LS has a one-shot (non-iterative) complexity of \( O((N_x N_y)^3) \), but its reconstruction capability is worse than the proposed algorithm as the true SLF is not smooth.

To test robustness of the proposed algorithm against imprecise CR location estimates, the reconstruction error versus the maximum sensor location error is depicted in Fig. 3(b). To reconstruct \( \mathbf{F} \) matrix, \( \mathbf{W} \) was computed via a set of erroneous sensor locations \( \mathbf{x}_{i}^{(t)} \) obtained by adding uniformly random perturbations to true locations \( \mathbf{x}_{i}^{(t)} \). It is seen that the SLF could be accurately reconstructed when the location error was small.

The numerical tests for the online algorithm were carried out with the same parameter setting as the batch experiments with \( N = 317 \). Fig. 3(c) depicts the evolution of the average cost in (40) for two sets of values for \( (\bar{\eta}_P^{(t)}, \bar{\eta}_Q^{(t)}, \bar{\eta}_E^{(t)}) \). The green dotted curve corresponds to using \( \bar{\eta}_P^{(t)} = \bar{\eta}_Q^{(t)} = \bar{\eta}_E^{(t)} = 300 \), while the blue solid curve is for \( \bar{\eta}_P^{(t)} = \bar{\eta}_Q^{(t)} = 300, \) and \( \bar{\eta}_E^{(t)} = 10 \). It can be seen that the uniform step sizes for all variables result in convergence rate that is slower than that with the disparate step sizes. Fig. 4 shows the SLFs reconstructed.
Fig. 3. SLF reconstruction using the batch and online algorithms. (a) Cost versus iterations (batch). (b) Reconstruction error versus CR location error (batch). (c) Average cost over time slots (online).

TABLE III
RECONSTRUCTION ERROR AT $T = 130$ AND COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY PER ITERATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Proposed (BCD)</th>
<th>Ridge-regularized LS</th>
<th>Total variation (ADMM)</th>
<th>LASSO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$|\hat{F}_0 - F|_F / |F_0|_F$</td>
<td>0.1064</td>
<td>0.1796</td>
<td>0.1196</td>
<td>0.1828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity per iteration</td>
<td>$O(N_x N_y MT)$</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>$O((N_x N_y)^2 + (N_x N_y)^2 MT)$</td>
<td>$O(N_x N_y MT)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4. SLFs reconstructed by the online algorithm. (a) and (b) correspond to using $\hat{\eta}_Q^{(1)} = \hat{\eta}_Q^{(2)} = 300$ and $\hat{\eta}_E^{(1)} = 10$. (c) and (d) use $\hat{\eta}_Q^{(1)} = \hat{\eta}_Q^{(2)} = \hat{\eta}_E^{(1)} = 300$.

via the online algorithm at $t = 1,000$ and $t = 5,000$ using the two choices of step sizes. It can be seen that for a given time slot $t$, flexibly choosing the step sizes yields much more accurate reconstruction. As far as reconstruction error, the online algorithm with disparate step sizes yields $6.3 \times 10^{-2}$ at $t = 5,000$, while its batch counterpart has $2.4 \times 10^{-2}$. Although slightly less accurate SLF is obtained by the online algorithm, it comes with greater computational efficiency.

To assess the tracking ability of the online algorithm, the slow channel variation was simulated. The measurements were generated using the SLF in Fig. 1 with three additional objects slowly moving in the rate of unit pixel width per 70 time slots. Fig. 5 depicts instances of the true and reconstructed SLFs at $t = 2,400$ and $t = 3,200$, respectively, obtained by the online algorithm. The moving objects are marked by the red circles. It is seen that the reconstructed SLFs correctly capture the moving objects, while the stationary objects are estimated more clearly as $t$ increases.

Fig. 5. (a) and (b) are true SLFs; (c) and (d) show reconstructed SLFs at different time slots.

Fig. 6. Configuration of the testbed.

B. Test with real data

To validate the performance of the proposed framework for SLF and channel gain map estimation in realistic scenarios,
real received signal strength (RSS) measurements were also processed. The data were collected by a set of $N = 20$ sensors deployed in the perimeter of a square-shaped testbed as shown in Fig. 6, where the crosses indicate the sensor positions. Data collection was performed in two steps [21]. First, free-space measurements were taken to obtain estimates of the path gain $G_0$ and the pathloss exponent $\gamma$ via least-squares. The estimated $\gamma$ was approximately 2, and $G_0$ was found to be 75. Then, tomographic measurements were formed with the artificial structure shown in Fig. 6. For the both measurements, 100 measurements were taken per time slot, in the 2.425 GHz frequency band, across 24 time slots. The shadowing measurements were obtained by subtracting the estimated pathloss from the RSS measurements.

The SLFs of size $N_x = N_y = 61$ were reconstructed by the proposed batch algorithm. The regularization parameters were set to $\lambda = 4.5$ and $\mu = 3.44$, which were determined by cross-validation. The parameter $\delta$ in (4) was set to 0.2 feet to capture the non-zero weights within the first Fresnel zone, and $\rho = 10$ and $\beta = 1$ were used.

For comparison, the ridge-regularized LS estimator was also tested. To construct $C_f$, the exponential decay model in [6] was used, which models the covariance between points $x$ and $x'$ as $C_f(x, x') = \sigma_s^2 e^{-\frac{k(\kappa) \rho}{\omega}}$, where $\sigma_s^2$ and $\kappa > 0$ are model parameters. In our tests, $\sigma_s^2 = \kappa = 1$, and $\omega = 79.9$ were used.

The SLF, shadow fading map, and channel gain map reconstructed by the proposed BCD algorithm are depicted in Fig. 7. The shadow fading and channel gain maps portray the gains in dB between any point in the map and the fixed CR location at $(10.2, 7.2)$ (marked by the cross). Fig. 8 shows the results from the ridge-regularized LS estimation. It can be seen from Fig. 7(a) and Fig. 8(b) that the proposed low-rank plus sparse model produces a somewhat sharper SLF image than the ridge-regularized LS approach. Although the latter yields a smooth SLF image, it produces more artifacts near the isolated block and the boundary of the SLF. Such artifacts may lead to less accurate shadowing and channel gain maps. For instance, Fig. 7(b) and Fig. 8(b) both show that the shadow fading is stronger as more building material is crossed in the communication path. However, somewhat strong attenuations are observed near the cinder block location and the interior of the oriented strand board (OSB) wall only in Fig. 8(b), which seems anomalous.

The online algorithm was also tested with the real data. Parameters $\eta_p^{(t)} = \eta_q^{(t)} = 620$ and $\eta_r^{(t)} = 200$ were selected, and $6 \times 10^5$ measurements were uniformly drawn from the original dataset with replacement to demonstrate the asymptotic performance. Fig. 9 depicts the reconstructed SLF, shadow fading and channel gain maps obtained from the online algorithm. It can be seen that the SLF shown in Fig. 9(a) is close to that depicted in Fig. 7(a). Similar observations can be made for the shadow fading and channel gain maps as well. Thus, the online algorithm is a viable alternative to the batch algorithm with reduced computational complexity, and affordable memory requirement.

Channel gain estimation performance of the proposed algorithms was assessed via 5-fold cross-validation. Let $\hat{g}_{\text{test}}$ and $\hat{g}_{\text{est}}$ denote RSS measurement vectors in the test set and its estimate, respectively. Prediction performance is measured by the normalized mean-square error (NMSE) $\|\hat{g}_{\text{test}} - \tilde{g}_{\text{test}}\|^2 / \|\hat{g}_{\text{test}}\|^2$. Fig. 10(a) displays the NMSE of batch algo-
A low-rank plus sparse matrix model was proposed for channel gain cartography, which is instrumental for various CR spectrum sensing and resource allocation tasks. The channel gains were modeled as the sum of the distance-based pathloss and the tomographic accumulation of shadowing due to the underlying SLF. The SLF was postulated to have a low-rank structure corrupted by sparse outliers. Efficient batch and online algorithms were derived by leveraging a bifactor-based characterization of the matrix nuclear norm. The algorithms enjoy low computational complexity and a reduced memory requirement, without sacrificing the optimality, with provable convergence properties. Tests with both synthetic and real measurement datasets corroborated the claims and showed that the algorithms could accurately reveal the structure of the propagation medium.

VI. CONCLUSION

A low-rank plus sparse matrix model was proposed for channel gain cartography, which is instrumental for various CR spectrum sensing and resource allocation tasks. The channel gains were modeled as the sum of the distance-based pathloss and the tomographic accumulation of shadowing due to the underlying SLF. The SLF was postulated to have a low-rank structure corrupted by sparse outliers. Efficient batch and online algorithms were derived by leveraging a bifactor-based characterization of the matrix nuclear norm. The algorithms enjoy low computational complexity and a reduced memory requirement, without sacrificing the optimality, with provable convergence properties. Tests with both synthetic and real measurement datasets corroborated the claims and showed that the algorithms could accurately reveal the structure of the propagation medium.

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APPENDIX

A. Proof of Proposition 1

A stationary point \( \bar{P}, \bar{Q} \) and \( \bar{E} \) of (P2) must satisfy the following first-order optimality conditions [34]

\[
0_{N_x \times N_y} \in \partial_E f(\bar{P}, \bar{Q}, \bar{E}) = \begin{cases}
\bar{f}(\bar{P} \bar{Q}^T, \bar{E}) + \mu \bar{\beta} \left[ \text{sgn}(\bar{E}) + \bar{E} \right] \circ \bar{E} = 0, & \|\bar{E}\|_\infty \leq 1 \end{cases}
\]

\[
\nabla_P f(\bar{P}, \bar{Q}, \bar{E}) \circ \bar{E} = \bar{f}(\bar{P} \bar{Q}^T, \bar{E}) + \lambda \bar{\beta} \bar{P} = 0_{N_x \times \rho}
\]

\[
\nabla_Q f(\bar{P}, \bar{Q}, \bar{E}) = \bar{P}^T \bar{f}(\bar{P} \bar{Q}^T, \bar{E}) + \lambda \bar{\beta} \bar{Q}^T = 0_{\rho \times N_y}
\]

where \( \circ \) denotes the element-wise (Hadamard) product. Through post-multiplying (45) by \( \bar{P}^T \) and premultiplying (46) by \( \bar{Q} \), one can see that

\[
\bar{f}(\bar{P} \bar{Q}^T, \bar{E}) = -\mu \bar{\beta} (\text{sgn}(\bar{E}) + \bar{E})
\]

\[
\text{tr} \left( \bar{f}(\bar{P} \bar{Q}^T, \bar{E}) \bar{Q} \bar{P}^T \right) = -\lambda \bar{\beta} \text{tr}(\bar{P} \bar{Q}^T) = -\lambda \bar{\beta} \text{tr}(\bar{Q} \bar{Q}^T).
\]

Define now \( \kappa(\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2) := \frac{1}{2} (\text{tr}(\bar{R}_1) + \text{tr}(\bar{R}_2)) \), and consider the following convex problem

\[
\min_{\bar{L}, \bar{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x \times N_y}, \bar{R}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x \times N_x}, \bar{R}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y \times N_y}} \sum_{\tau = 1}^{T} \beta^{T-\tau} c(\tau)(\bar{L}, \bar{E}) + \lambda \bar{\beta} \kappa(\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2) + \mu \bar{\beta} \|\bar{E}\|_1
\]

subject to \( \bar{R} := \begin{bmatrix} \bar{R}_1 & \bar{L} \\ \bar{L}^T & \bar{R}_2 \end{bmatrix} \succeq 0 \)

which is equivalent to (P1). Equivalence can be easily inferred by minimizing (P4) with respect to \( \{\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2\} \) and noting an alternative characterization of the nuclear norm given by [35]

\[
\|\bar{L}\|_* = \min_{\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2} \kappa(\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2)
\]

subject to \( \bar{R} \succeq 0 \).
\[ M \in \mathbb{R}^{(N_s+N_c) \times (N_s+N_c)} \] associated with the conic constraint in (48), the Lagrangian is first formed as
\[
\mathcal{L}(L, E, R_1, R_2; M) = \sum_{\tau=1}^{T} \beta^{\tau-\tau} e^{(\tau)}(L, E) + \lambda \beta \kappa(R_1, R_2) + \mu \beta \|E\|_1 - \langle M, R \rangle. \tag{50}
\]
For notational convenience, partition \( M \) as
\[
M := \begin{pmatrix} M_1 & M_2 \\ M_4 & M_3 \end{pmatrix}
\]
(51)
in accordance with the block structure of \( R \) in (48), where \( M_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s \times N_s} \) and \( M_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s \times N_s} \). The optimal solution to (P4) must satisfy: (i) the stationarity conditions
\[
\nabla \mathcal{L}(L, E, R_1, R_2; M) = f(L, E) - M_2 - M_4^T = 0 \tag{52}
\]
and (ii) complementary slackness condition \( \langle M, R \rangle = 0 \); (iii) primal feasibility \( R \succeq 0 \); and (iv) dual feasibility \( M \succeq 0 \).

Using the stationary point \( P, Q \) and \( E \) of (P2), construct a candidate solution for (P4) as \( L := PP^T, E := E, R_1 := PP^T \), and \( R_2 := QQ^T \), as well as \( M_1 := \lambda \beta I_{N_s} \), \( M_2 := \frac{1}{\beta} f(PQ^T, E) \), \( M_3 := \lambda \beta I_{N_s} \), and \( M_4 := \lambda \beta I_{N_s}^T \). After substituting these into (52)–(55), it can be readily verified that condition (i) holds. Condition (ii) also holds since
\[
\langle M, R \rangle = \langle M_1, R_1 \rangle + \langle M_2, L \rangle + \langle M_3, R_2 \rangle + \langle M_4, L^T \rangle = \frac{\lambda \beta}{2} \text{tr}(PP^T + QQ^T) + \text{tr}(f(PQ^T, E)Q^T)
\]
(56)
where the last equality follows from (47). Condition (iii) is met since \( R \) can be rewritten as
\[
R = \begin{pmatrix} PP^T & PQ^T \\QP^T & QQ^T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P \\ Q \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P^T \\ Q^T \end{pmatrix} \succeq 0. \tag{57}
\]
For (iv), according to the Schur complement condition for positive semidefinite matrices, \( M \succeq 0 \) holds if and only if
\[
M_3 - M_1 M_1^{-1} M_2 \succeq 0 \tag{58}
\]
which is equivalent to \( \lambda_{\text{max}}(M_1^2 M_2) \leq (\lambda \beta)^2/2 \), or \( \|f(PQ^T, E)\| \leq \lambda \beta \).

\section{Proof of Proposition 2}

The proof uses the technique similar to the one employed in [30], where the convergence of online algorithms for optimizing objectives involving non-convex bilinear terms and sparse matrices was established in the context of dictionary learning.

In order to proceed with the proof, three lemmas are first established. The first lemma concerns some properties of \( g(X, \xi^{(t)}) := g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}) + g_2(X) \), and \( g(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) := g_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + g_2(X) \). \hfill \( \blacksquare \)

\subsection*{Lemma 2:}

If the assumptions (a1)–(a5) in Proposition 2 hold, then
\[(p1) \ g_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \text{ majorizes } g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}), \quad i.e., \ g_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \geq g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}) \forall X \in \mathcal{X}'; \]
\[(p2) \ \hat{g}_1 \text{ is locally tight, i.e.,} \ \hat{g}_1(X^{(t-1)}, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) = g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}); \]
\[(p3) \ \nabla \hat{g}_1(X^{(t-1)}, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) = \nabla g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}); \]
\[(p4) \ \hat{g}_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) := \hat{g}_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + g_2(X) \text{ is uniformly strongly convex in } X, \ \forall (X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \times \Xi, \text{ it holds that} \]
\[
\hat{g}(X + D, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) - \hat{g}(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \geq \hat{g}(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}; D) + \zeta ||D||_F^2
\]
where \( \zeta > 0 \) is a constant and \( \hat{g}'(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}; D) \) is a directional derivative of \( \hat{g} \) at \( X \) along the direction \( D \). \hfill \( \blacksquare \)

\[ (p5) \ g_1 \text{ and } \hat{g}_1, \text{ their derivatives, and their Hessians are uniformly bounded}; \]
\[ (p6) \ g_2 \text{ and its directional derivative } g'_2 \text{ are uniformly bounded; and} \]
\[ (p7) \text{ there exists } \hat{g} \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } ||\hat{g}(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})|| \leq \hat{g}. \]
\textbf{Proof:} For (p1), let us first show that \( \nabla P g_1(P, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) \), \( \nabla Q g_1(P, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) \), and \( \nabla E g_1(P, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) \) are Lipschitz continuous for \( X := (P, Q, E) \in \mathcal{X}' \) and \( \xi^{(t)} \in \Xi \). For arbitrary \( X_1 := (P_1, Q_1, E_1), X_2 := (P_2, Q_2, E_2) \in \mathcal{X}' \), the variation of \( \nabla g_1 \) in (26) can be bounded as
\[
||\nabla P g_1(P_1, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) - \nabla P g_1(P_2, Q, E, \xi^{(t)})||_F
\]
(59)
where (i) and (ii) are due to the triangle and Cauchy-Schwarz inequalities, respectively. Since \( \mathcal{X}' \) and \( \Xi \) are assumed to be bounded, \( \sum_{m=1}^{M} ||W_{m}||_F^2 \) is bounded. Therefore, there exists a positive constant \( L_P \) such that
\[
||\nabla P g_1(P_1, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) - \nabla P g_1(P_2, Q, E, \xi^{(t)})||_F \leq L_P ||P_1 - P_2||_F \tag{59}
\]
meaning that \( \nabla P g_1(P, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) \) is Lipschitz continuous with constant \( L_P \). Similar arguments hold for \( \nabla Q g_1(P, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) \) and \( \nabla E g_1(P, Q, E, \xi^{(t)}) \) as well, with Lipschitz constants \( L_Q \) and \( L_E \), respectively. Then, upon defining \( ||X||_\Delta := \sqrt{L_P^2 ||P||_F^2 + L_Q^2 ||Q||_F^2 + L_E^2 ||E||_F^2} \), it is easy to verify
\[
||\nabla g_1(X_1, \xi^{(t)}) - \nabla g_1(X_2, \xi^{(t)})||_F \leq ||X_1 - X_2||_\Delta. \tag{60}
\]
On the other hand, the proof of the Descent Lemma [36] can be adapted to show
\[
g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}) - g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \leq (X - X^{(t-1)}, \nabla g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})) + \int_0^1 ||X - X^{(t-1)}||_F \\
\times ||\nabla g_1(X^{(t-1)} + \alpha(X - X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})) - \nabla g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})||_F d\alpha. \tag{61}
\]
Note that
\[
||X||_F \leq \frac{1}{L_{\min}} ||X||_\Delta \tag{62}
\]
where \(L_{\min} := \min\{L_P, L_Q, L_E\} \). Then, substitution of (60) into (61) with \(X_1 = X^{(t-1)} + \alpha(X - X^{(t-1)})\) and \(X_2 = X^{(t-1)}\) yields
\[
g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + (X - X^{(t-1)}, \nabla g_1(X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})) + \frac{1}{2L_{\min}} ||X - X^{(t-1)}||^2_\Delta \geq g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}) \tag{63}
\]
which completes the proof by the construction of \(\tilde{g}_1\), provided that \(\eta_i^{(t)} \leq L_i^2/L_{\min}\) for all \(i \in \{P, Q, E\}\).

To show (p2) and (p3), let us first denote
\[
\nabla g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}) = \left(\nabla_P g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}), \nabla_Q g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}), \nabla_E g_1(X, \xi^{(t)})\right) \tag{64}
\]
\[
\nabla \tilde{g}_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) = \left(\nabla_P g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}), \nabla_P g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}), \nabla_Q g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}), \nabla_E g_1(X, \xi^{(t)}) + \eta^{(t)}_E T(r - E^{(t-1)})\right) \tag{65}
\]
Then, it suffices to evaluate \(\tilde{g}_1(X, \xi^{(t)})\) and \(\nabla \tilde{g}_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})\) at \(X^{(t-1)}\) to see that (p2) and (p3) hold.

To show (p4), let us first find \(\tilde{g}_1\) and \(g_2\). Along a direction \(D := (D_P, D_Q, D_E) \in \mathcal{X}'\), it holds that \(\tilde{g}_1'(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}, D) = (\nabla \tilde{g}_1'(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}))\) since \(\tilde{g}_1\) is differentiable. Similarly, \(g_2'(X, D) = \lambda(P, D_P) + (Q, D_Q) + \mu h'(E, D_E)\) where \(h'(E) := ||E||_1, d_E := \text{vec}(D_E)\) with its \(l\)-th entry being \(d_{E,l}\) and
\[
h'(E, D_E) := \lim_{t \to 0^+} \frac{h(E + tD_E) - h(E)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0^+} \frac{\sum_{i, |e_i| \neq 0} (|e_i + td_{E,l}| - |e_i|) + \sum_{l, e_l = 0} |d_{E,l}|}{t} = \sum_{l, |e_l| \neq 0} |e_l| d_{E,l} + \sum_{l, e_l = 0} |d_{E,l}|. \tag{66}
\]
On the other hand, the variation of \(\tilde{g}\) can be written as
\[
\tilde{g}(X + D, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) - \tilde{g}(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) = \tilde{g}'_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}, D) + \sum_{i \in \{P, Q, E\}} \frac{\eta_i^{(t)}}{2} ||D_i||_F^2 + g_2(X + D) - g_2(X). \tag{67}
\]
Note that \(\sum_{i} \frac{\eta_i^{(t)}}{2} ||D_i||_F^2 \geq \frac{L_{\min}}{2} ||D||_F^2\) since \(\eta_i^{(t)} \geq L_i^2/L_{\min}\) by algorithmic construction. Furthermore, \(g_2(X + D) \geq g_2(X, D)\) since \(g_2\) is convex [37]. Then, the variation of \(\tilde{g}\) in (67) can be lower-bounded as
\[
\tilde{g}(X + D, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) - \tilde{g}(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) \geq \tilde{g}'(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}, D) + \frac{L_{\min}}{2} ||D||_F^2. \tag{68}
\]
where \(\tilde{g}'(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}, D) = \tilde{g}'_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}, D) + g_2'(X, D)\). Therefore, (p4) holds for a positive constant \(\zeta \leq L_{\min}\).

By the compactness of \(\mathcal{X}\) and boundedness of \(E\) by (a3), (p5) is automatically satisfied since \(g_1\) and \(g_2\) are continuously twice differentiable in \(X\) [31]. In addition, one can easily show (p6) since \(g_2\) and \(g_2'\) are also uniformly bounded by the compactness of \(\mathcal{X}\).

Let \(K_1\) and \(K_2\) denote constants where \(|\tilde{g}_1| \leq K_1\) and \(|g_2| \leq K_2\), respectively, by (p5) and (p6). Then, (p7) readily follows since
\[
|\tilde{g}(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})| = |g_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)}) + g_2(X)| \leq |g_1(X, X^{(t-1)}, \xi^{(t)})| + |g_2(X)| \leq K_1 + K_2 := \tilde{g}. \tag{69}
\]

The next lemma asserts that a distance between two subsequent estimates asymptotically goes to zero, which will be used to show \(\lim_{t \to \infty} C_{1,t}(X^{(t)}) - C_{1,t}(X^{(0)}) = 0\), almost surely.

**Lemma 3:** If (a2)-(a5) hold, then \(||X^{(t+1)} - X^{(t)}||_F = \mathcal{O}(1/t)\).

**Proof:** See [31, Lemma 2]. A proof of Lemma 3 is omitted to avoid duplication of the proof of [31, Lemma 2]. Hence, it suffices to mention that Lemma 2 guarantees the formulation of the proposed work satisfying the general assumptions on the formulation in [31].

Lemma 3 does not guarantee convergence of the iterates to the stationary point of (P2). However, the final lemma asserts that the overestimated cost sequence converges to the cost of (P2), almost surely. Before proceeding to the next lemma, let us first define
\[
C_{1,t}(X) := \frac{1}{t} \sum_{\tau = 1}^t g_1(X, \xi^{(\tau)}) \tag{70}
\]
\[
\hat{C}_{1,t}(X) := \frac{1}{t} \sum_{\tau = 1}^t \tilde{g}_1(X, X^{(\tau-1)}, \xi^{(\tau)}) \tag{71}
\]
and \(C_{2}(X) := g_2(X)\). Note also that \(\hat{C}_{t}(X) - C_{1,t}(X) = C_{1,t}(X) - C_{1,t}(X)\).

**Lemma 4:** If (a1)-(a5) hold, \(\hat{C}_{1,t}(X^{(t)})\) converges almost surely and \(\lim_{t \to \infty} C_{1,t}(X^{(t)}) = C_{1,t}(X^{(t)}) = 0\), almost surely.

**Proof:** See [31, Lemma 1]. A proof of Lemma 4 is omitted to avoid duplication of the proof of [31, Lemma 1]. Instead, a sketch of the proof is following. It is firstly shown that the sequence \(\{\hat{C}_{1,t}(X^{(t)})\}_{t=1}^{\infty}\) follows a quasi-martingale process and converges almost surely. Then, the lemma on positive converging sums (see [30, Lemma 8]) and Lemma 3 are used to claim that \(\lim_{t \to \infty} C_{1,t}(X^{(t)}) = 0\), almost surely.
The last step of the proof for Proposition 2 is inspired by [31]. Based on Lemma 4, it will be shown that the sequence \( \{ \nabla C_{1,t}(X(t)) - \nabla C_{1,t}(X(t)) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) goes to zero, almost surely. Together with \( C'_2 \), it follows that \( \lim_{t \to \infty} C'_2(X(t); D) \geq 0 \) a.s. by algorithmic construction, implying convergence of a sequence \( \{ X(t) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) to the set of stationary points of \( C(X) \).

By the compactness of \( X \), it is always possible to find a convergent subsequence \( \{ X(t) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) to a limit point \( X \in X \). Then, by the strong law of large numbers [38] under (a1) and equicontinuity of a family of functions \( \{ C_{1,t}(\cdot) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) due to the uniform boundedness of \( \nabla g_1 \) in (p5) [39], upon restricting to the subsquence, one can have

\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} C_{1,t}(X(t)) = E[\xi | g_1(X, \xi) = : C_1(X). \quad (72)
\]

Similarly, a family of functions \( \{ C_{1,t}(\cdot) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) is equicontinuous due to the uniform boundedness of \( \nabla g_1 \) in (p5). Furthermore, \( \{ C_{1,t}(\cdot) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) is pointwise bounded by (a1)–(a3). Thus, Arzelà-Ascoli theorem (see [39, Cor. 2.5] and [40]) implies that there exists a uniformly continuous function \( C_1(X) \) such that \( \lim_{t \to \infty} C_{1,t}(X) = C_1(X) \neq X \in X \) and after restricting to the subsequence

\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} C_{1,t}(X(t)) = C_1(X). \quad (73)
\]

Furthermore, since \( g_1(X, X(t-1), \xi(t)) \geq g_1(X, \xi(t)) \) as in (p1), it follows that

\[
\tilde{C}_{1,t}(X) - C_1(t) \geq 0 \quad \forall X. \quad (74)
\]

By letting \( t \to \infty \) on (74) and combining Lemma 4 with (72) and (73), one deduces that

\[
\tilde{C}_{1}(X) - C_1(X) = 0, \quad \text{a.s.} \quad (75)
\]

meaning that \( \tilde{C}_{1,t}(X) - C_1(t) \) takes its minimum at \( X \) and

\[
\nabla \tilde{C}_{1}(X) - \nabla C_1(X) = 0, \quad \text{a.s.} \quad (76)
\]

by the first-order optimality condition.

On the other hand, the fact that \( X(t) \) minimizes \( \tilde{C}_{1}(X) \) by algorithmic construction and \( g'_2 \) exists (so does \( C'_2 \)), yields

\[
\tilde{C}_{1,t}(X(t)) + C_2(X(t)) \leq \tilde{C}_{1,t}(X(t)) + C_2(X(t)) \quad \forall X, \quad (77)
\]

and \( \lim_{t \to \infty} \tilde{C}_{1,t}(X(t)) + C_2(X(t)) \leq \lim_{t \to \infty} \tilde{C}_{1,t}(X(t)) + C_2(X(t)) \quad \forall X \in X \), which implies

\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} \nabla \tilde{C}_{1,t}(X(t); D) + C'_2(X(t); D) \geq 0 \quad \forall D. \quad (78)
\]

Using the result in (76), (78) can be re-written as

\[
\langle \nabla C_1(X), D \rangle + C'_2(X; D) \geq 0 \quad \forall D, \quad \text{a.s. or}
\]

\[
C'(X; D) \geq 0 \quad \forall D, \quad \text{a.s.} \quad (79)
\]

Thus, the subsequence \( \{ X(t) \}_{t=1}^{\infty} \) asymptotically coincides with the set of stationary points of \( C(X) \).}

**REFERENCES**


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