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Random Matrix Theory and Wireless Communications

Antonia M. Tulino

*Dept. Ingegneria Elettronica e delle
Telecomunicazioni
Università degli Studi di Napoli "Federico II"
Naples 80125, Italy
atulino@ee.princeton.edu*

Sergio Verdú

*Dept. Electrical Engineering
Princeton University
Princeton, New Jersey 08544, USA
verdu@princeton.edu*

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1

Introduction

From its inception, random matrix theory has been heavily influenced by its applications in physics, statistics and engineering. The landmark contributions to the theory of random matrices of Wishart (1928) [311], Wigner (1955) [303], and Marčenko and Pastur (1967) [170] were motivated to a large extent by practical experimental problems. Nowadays, random matrices find applications in fields as diverse as the Riemann hypothesis, stochastic differential equations, condensed matter physics, statistical physics, chaotic systems, numerical linear algebra, neural networks, multivariate statistics, information theory, signal processing, and small-world networks. Despite the widespread applicability of the tools and results in random matrix theory, there is no tutorial reference that gives an accessible overview of the classical theory as well as the recent results, many of which have been obtained under the umbrella of free probability theory.

In the last few years, a considerable body of work has emerged in the communications and information theory literature on the fundamental limits of communication channels that makes substantial use of results in random matrix theory.

The purpose of this monograph is to give a tutorial overview of ran-

2 Introduction

dom matrix theory with particular emphasis on asymptotic theorems on the distribution of eigenvalues and singular values under various assumptions on the joint distribution of the random matrix entries. While results for matrices with fixed dimensions are often cumbersome and offer limited insight, as the matrices grow large with a given aspect ratio (number of columns to number of rows), a number of powerful and appealing theorems ensure convergence of the empirical eigenvalue distributions to deterministic functions.

The organization of this monograph is the following. Section 1.1 introduces the general class of vector channels of interest in wireless communications. These channels are characterized by random matrices that admit various statistical descriptions depending on the actual application. Section 1.2 motivates interest in large random matrix theory by focusing on two performance measures of engineering interest: Shannon capacity and linear minimum mean-square error, which are determined by the distribution of the singular values of the channel matrix. The power of random matrix results in the derivation of asymptotic closed-form expressions is illustrated for channels whose matrices have the simplest statistical structure: independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) entries. Section 1.3 gives a brief historical tour of the main results in random matrix theory, from the work of Wishart on Gaussian matrices with fixed dimension, to the recent results on asymptotic spectra. Chapter 2 gives a tutorial account of random matrix theory. Section 2.1 focuses on the major types of random matrices considered in the literature, as well on the main fixed-dimension theorems. Section 2.2 gives an account of the Stieltjes, η , Shannon, Mellin, R- and S-transforms. These transforms play key roles in describing the spectra of random matrices. Motivated by the intuition drawn from various applications in communications, the η and Shannon transforms turn out to be quite helpful at clarifying the exposition as well as the statement of many results. Considerable emphasis is placed on examples and closed-form expressions. Section 2.3 uses the transforms defined in Section 2.2 to state the main asymptotic distribution theorems. Section 2.4 presents an overview of the application of Voiculescu's free probability theory to random matrices. Recent results on the speed of convergence to the asymptotic limits are reviewed in Section 2.5. Chapter

3 applies the results in Chapter 2 to the fundamental limits of wireless communication channels described by random matrices. Section 3.1 deals with direct-sequence code-division multiple-access (DS-CDMA), with and without fading (both frequency-flat and frequency-selective) and with single and multiple receive antennas. Section 3.2 deals with multi-carrier code-division multiple access (MC-CDMA), which is the time-frequency dual of the model considered in Section 3.1. Channels with multiple receive and transmit antennas are reviewed in Section 3.3 using models that incorporate nonideal effects such as antenna correlation, polarization, and line-of-sight components.

1.1 Wireless Channels

The last decade has witnessed a renaissance in the information theory of wireless communication channels. Two prime reasons for the strong level of activity in this field can be identified. The first is the growing importance of the efficient use of bandwidth and power in view of the ever-increasing demand for wireless services. The second is the fact that some of the main challenges in the study of the capacity of wireless channels have only been successfully tackled recently. Fading, wideband, multiuser and multi-antenna are some of the key features that characterize wireless channels of contemporary interest. Most of the information theoretic literature that studies the effect of those features on channel capacity deals with linear vector memoryless channels of the form

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n} \quad (1.1)$$

where \mathbf{x} is the K -dimensional input vector, \mathbf{y} is the N -dimensional output vector, and the N -dimensional vector \mathbf{n} models the additive circularly symmetric Gaussian noise. All these quantities are, in general, complex-valued. In addition to input constraints, and the degree of knowledge of the channel at receiver and transmitter, (1.1) is characterized by the distribution of the $N \times K$ random *channel matrix* \mathbf{H} whose entries are also complex-valued.

The nature of the K and N dimensions depends on the actual application. For example, in the single-user narrowband channel with n_T

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and n_R antennas at transmitter and receiver, respectively, we identify $K = n_T$ and $N = n_R$; in the DS-CDMA channel, K is the number of users and N is the spreading gain.

In the multi-antenna case, \mathbf{H} models the propagation coefficients between each pair of transmit-receive antennas. In the synchronous DS-CDMA channel, in contrast, the entries of \mathbf{H} depend on the received signature vectors (usually pseudo-noise sequences) and the fading coefficients seen by each user. For a channel with J users each transmitting with n_T antennas using spread-spectrum with spreading gain G and a receiver with n_R antennas, $K = n_T J$ and $N = n_R G$.

Naturally, the simplest example is the one where \mathbf{H} has i.i.d. entries, which constitutes the canonical model for the single-user narrowband multi-antenna channel. The same model applies to the randomly spread DS-CDMA channel not subject to fading. However, as we will see, in many cases of interest in wireless communications the entries of \mathbf{H} are not i.i.d.

1.2 The Role of the Singular Values

Assuming that the channel matrix \mathbf{H} is completely known at the receiver, the capacity of (1.1) under input power constraints depends on the distribution of the singular values of \mathbf{H} . We focus in the simplest setting to illustrate this point as crisply as possible: suppose that the entries of the input vector \mathbf{x} are i.i.d. For example, this is the case in a synchronous DS-CDMA multiaccess channel or for a single-user multi-antenna channel where the transmitter cannot track the channel.

The empirical cumulative distribution function of the eigenvalues (also referred to as the *spectrum* or empirical distribution) of an $n \times n$ Hermitian matrix \mathbf{A} is denoted by $F_{\mathbf{A}}^n$ defined as¹

$$F_{\mathbf{A}}^n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1\{\lambda_i(\mathbf{A}) \leq x\}, \quad (1.2)$$

where $\lambda_1(\mathbf{A}), \dots, \lambda_n(\mathbf{A})$ are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} and $1\{\cdot\}$ is the indicator function.

¹If $F_{\mathbf{A}}^n$ converges as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then the corresponding limit (asymptotic empirical distribution or asymptotic spectrum) is simply denoted by $F_{\mathbf{A}}(x)$.

Now, consider an arbitrary $N \times K$ matrix \mathbf{H} . Since the nonzero singular values of \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{H}^\dagger are identical, we can write

$$N\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger}^N(x) - Nu(x) = K\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{H}^\dagger\mathbf{H}}^K(x) - Ku(x) \quad (1.3)$$

where $u(x)$ is the unit-step function ($u(x) = 0, x \leq 0; u(x) = 1, x > 0$).

With an i.i.d. Gaussian input, the normalized input-output mutual information of (1.1) conditioned on \mathbf{H} is²

$$\frac{1}{N}I(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}|\mathbf{H}) = \frac{1}{N} \log \det \left(\mathbf{I} + \text{SNR} \mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger \right) \quad (1.4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left(1 + \text{SNR} \lambda_i(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger) \right) \\ &= \int_0^\infty \log(1 + \text{SNR} x) d\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger}^N(x) \end{aligned} \quad (1.5)$$

with the transmitted signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)

$$\text{SNR} = \frac{N\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{x}\|^2]}{K\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{n}\|^2]}, \quad (1.6)$$

and with $\lambda_i(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger)$ equal to the i th squared singular value of \mathbf{H} .

If the channel is known at the receiver and its variation over time is stationary and ergodic, then the expectation of (1.4) over the distribution of \mathbf{H} is the channel capacity (normalized to the number of receive antennas or the number of degrees of freedom per symbol in the CDMA channel). More generally, the distribution of the random variable (1.4) determines the outage capacity (e.g. [22]).

Another important performance measure for (1.1) is the minimum mean-square-error (MMSE) achieved by a linear receiver, which determines the maximum achievable output signal-to-interference-and-noise

²The celebrated log-det formula has a long history: In 1964, Pinsker [204] gave a general log-det formula for the mutual information between jointly Gaussian random vectors but did not particularize it to the linear model (1.1). Verdú [270] in 1986 gave the explicit form (1.4) as the capacity of the synchronous DS-CDMA channel as a function of the signature vectors. The 1991 textbook by Cover and Thomas [47] gives the log-det formula for the capacity of the power constrained vector Gaussian channel with arbitrary noise covariance matrix. In the mid 1990s, Foschini [77] and Telatar [250] gave (1.4) for the multi-antenna channel with i.i.d. Gaussian entries. Even prior to those works, the conventional analyses of Gaussian channels with memory via vector channels (e.g. [260, 31]) used the fact that the capacity can be expressed as the sum of the capacities of independent channels whose signal-to-noise ratios are governed by the singular values of the channel matrix.

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ratio (SINR). For an i.i.d. input, the arithmetic mean over the users (or transmit antennas) of the MMSE is given, as function of \mathbf{H} , by [271]

$$\frac{1}{K} \min_{\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{C}^{K \times N}} \mathbb{E} [\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{M}\mathbf{y}\|^2] = \frac{1}{K} \text{tr} \left\{ \left(\mathbf{I} + \text{SNR} \mathbf{H}^\dagger \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \right\} \quad (1.7)$$

$$= \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{1}{1 + \text{SNR} \lambda_i(\mathbf{H}^\dagger \mathbf{H})} \quad (1.8)$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1 + \text{SNR} x} dF_{\mathbf{H}^\dagger \mathbf{H}}^K(x)$$

$$= \frac{N}{K} \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1 + \text{SNR} x} dF_{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger}^N(x) - \frac{N - K}{K} \quad (1.9)$$

where the expectation in (1.7) is over \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{n} while (1.9) follows from (1.3). Note, incidentally, that both performance measures as a function of SNR are coupled through

$$\text{SNR} \frac{d}{d\text{SNR}} \log_e \det \left(\mathbf{I} + \text{SNR} \mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger \right) = K - \text{tr} \left\{ \left(\mathbf{I} + \text{SNR} \mathbf{H}^\dagger \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \right\}.$$

As we see in (1.5) and (1.9), both fundamental performance measures (capacity and MMSE) are dictated by the distribution of the empirical (squared) singular value distribution of the random channel matrix. In the simplest case of \mathbf{H} having i.i.d. Gaussian entries, the density function corresponding to the expected value of $F_{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger}^N$ can be expressed explicitly in terms of the Laguerre polynomials. Although the integrals in (1.5) and (1.9) with respect to such a probability density function (p.d.f.) lead to explicit solutions, limited insight can be drawn from either the solutions or their numerical evaluation. Fortunately, much deeper insights can be obtained using the tools provided by *asymptotic* random matrix theory. Indeed, a rich body of results exists analyzing the asymptotic spectrum of \mathbf{H} as the number of columns and rows goes to infinity while the aspect ratio of the matrix is kept constant.

Before introducing the asymptotic spectrum results, some justification for their relevance to wireless communication problems is in order. In CDMA, channels with K and N between 32 and 64 would be fairly typical. In multi-antenna systems, arrays of 8 to 16 antennas would be

at the forefront of what is envisioned to be feasible in the foreseeable future. Surprisingly, even quite smaller system sizes are large enough for the asymptotic limit to be an excellent approximation. Furthermore, not only do the averages of (1.4) and (1.9) converge to their limits surprisingly fast, but the randomness in those functionals due to the random outcome of \mathbf{H} disappears extremely quickly. Naturally, such robustness has welcome consequences for the operational significance of the resulting formulas.

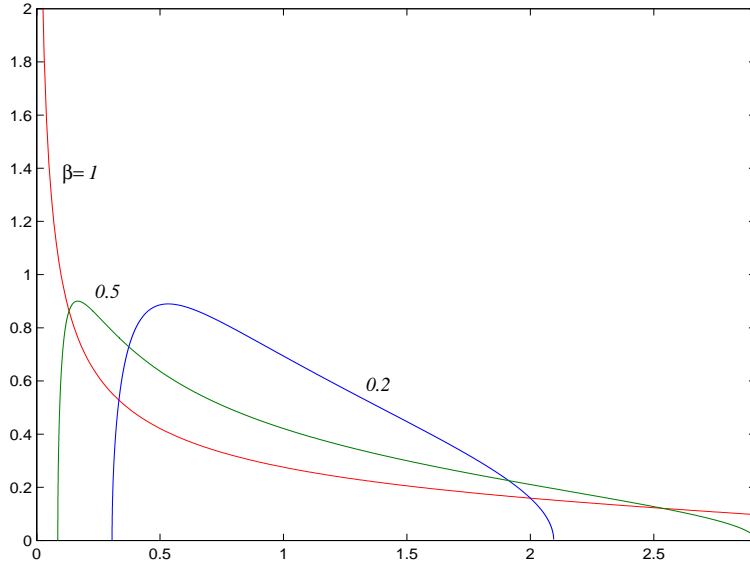


Fig. 1.1 The Marčenko-Pastur density function (1.10) for $\beta = 1, 0.5, 0.2$.

As we will see in Chapter 2, a central result in random matrix theory states that when the entries of \mathbf{H} are zero-mean i.i.d. with variance $\frac{1}{N}$, the empirical distribution of the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{H}^\dagger \mathbf{H}$ converges almost surely, as $K, N \rightarrow \infty$ with $\frac{K}{N} \rightarrow \beta$, to the so-called Marčenko-Pastur law whose density function is

$$f_\beta(x) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta}\right)^+ \delta(x) + \frac{\sqrt{(x-a)^+(b-x)^+}}{2\pi\beta x} \quad (1.10)$$

where $(z)^+ = \max(0, z)$ and

$$a = (1 - \sqrt{\beta})^2 \quad b = (1 + \sqrt{\beta})^2. \quad (1.11)$$

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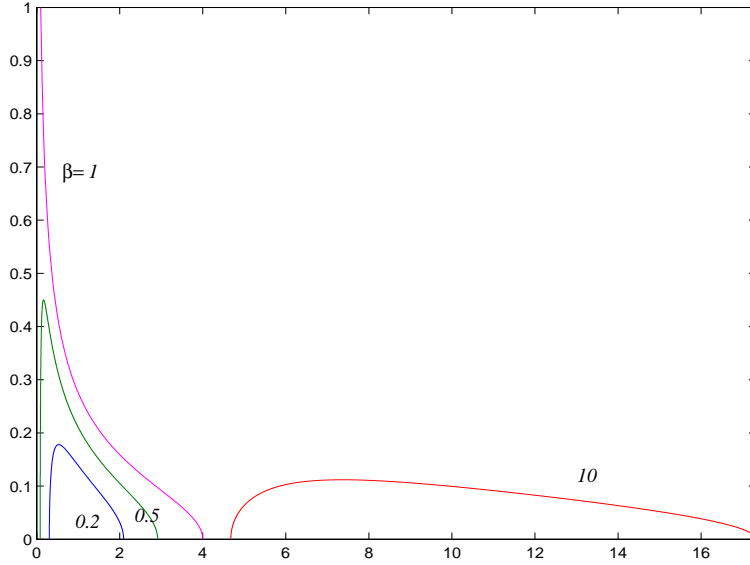


Fig. 1.2 The Marčenko-Pastur density function (1.12) for $\beta = 10, 1, 0.5, 0.2$. Note that the mass points at 0, present in some of them, are not shown.

Analogously, the empirical distribution of the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger$ converges almost surely to a nonrandom limit whose density function is (cf. Fig. 1.2)

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}_\beta(x) &= (1 - \beta) \delta(x) + \beta f_\beta(x) \\ &= (1 - \beta)^+ \delta(x) + \frac{\sqrt{(x-a)^+(b-x)^+}}{2\pi x}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.12)$$

Using the asymptotic spectrum, the following closed-form expressions for the limits of (1.4) [275] and (1.7) [271] can be obtained:

$$(1.13)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{N} \log \det (\mathbf{I} + \text{SNR} \mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger) &\rightarrow \beta \int_a^b \log(1 + \text{SNR} x) f_\beta(x) dx \\ &= \beta \log \left(1 + \text{SNR} - \frac{1}{4} \mathcal{F}(\text{SNR}, \beta) \right) \\ &+ \log \left(1 + \text{SNR} \beta - \frac{1}{4} \mathcal{F}(\text{SNR}, \beta) \right) \\ &- \frac{\log e}{4 \text{SNR}} \mathcal{F}(\text{SNR}, \beta) \end{aligned} \quad (1.14)$$

$$\frac{1}{K} \text{tr} \left\{ \left(\mathbf{I} + \text{SNR} \mathbf{H}^\dagger \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \right\} \rightarrow \int_a^b \frac{1}{1 + \text{SNR} x} f_\beta(x) dx \quad (1.15)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{\mathcal{F}(\text{SNR}, \beta)}{4\beta \text{SNR}} \quad (1.16)$$

with

$$\mathcal{F}(x, z) = \left(\sqrt{x(1 + \sqrt{z})^2 + 1} - \sqrt{x(1 - \sqrt{z})^2 + 1} \right)^2. \quad (1.17)$$

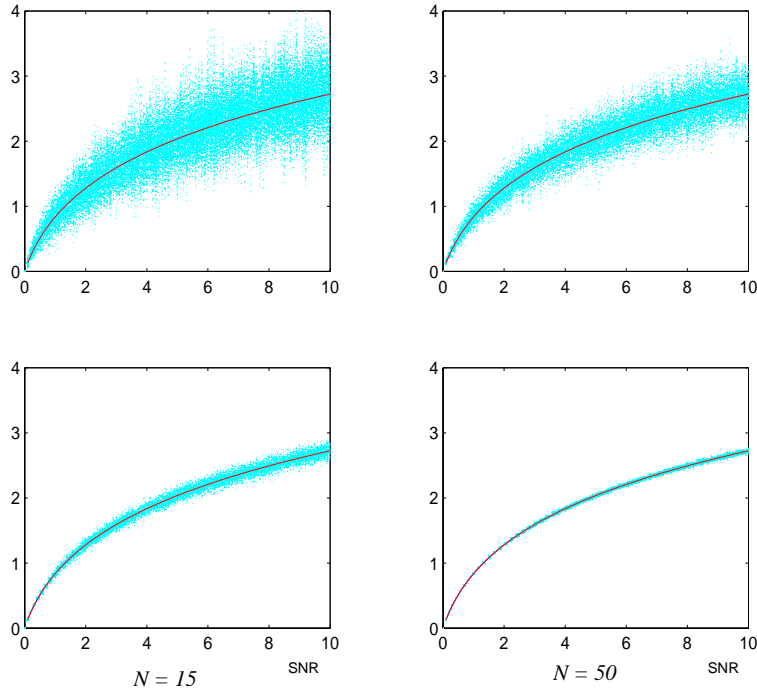


Fig. 1.3 Several realizations of the left-hand side of (1.13) are compared to the asymptotic limit in the right-hand side of (1.13) in the case of $\beta = 1$ for sizes: $N = 3, 5, 15, 50$.

The convergence of the singular values of \mathbf{H} exhibits several key features with engineering significance:

- *Insensitivity* of the asymptotic eigenvalue distribution to the shape of the p.d.f. of the random matrix entries. This property implies, for example, that in the case of a single-user multi-antenna link, the results obtained asymptotically

hold for any type of fading statistics. It also implies that restricting the CDMA waveforms to be binary-valued incurs no loss in capacity asymptotically.³

- *Ergodic* behavior: it suffices to observe a single matrix realization in order to obtain convergence to a deterministic limit. In other words, the eigenvalue histogram of any matrix realization converges almost surely to the average asymptotic eigenvalue distribution. This “hardening” of the singular values lends operational significance to the capacity formulas even in cases where the random channel parameters do not vary ergodically within the span of a codeword.
- *Fast convergence* of the empirical singular-value distribution to its asymptotic limit. Asymptotic analysis is especially useful when the convergence is so fast that, even for small values of the parameters, the asymptotic results come close to the finite-size results (cf. Fig. 1.3). Recent works have shown that the convergence rate is of the order of the reciprocal of the number of entries in the random matrix [8, 110].

It is crucial for the explicit expressions of asymptotic capacity and MMSE shown in (1.14) and (1.16), respectively, that the channel matrix entries be i.i.d. Outside that model, explicit expressions for the asymptotic singular value distribution such as (1.10) are exceedingly rare. Fortunately, in other random matrix models, the asymptotic singular value distribution can indeed be characterized, albeit not in explicit form, in ways that enable the analysis of capacity and MMSE through the numerical solution of nonlinear equations.

The first applications of random matrix theory to wireless communications were the works of Foschini [77] and Telatar [250] on narrow-band multi-antenna capacity; Verdú [271] and Tse-Hanly [256] on the optimum SINR achievable by linear multiuser detectors for CDMA; Verdú [271] on optimum near-far resistance; Grant-Alexander [100],

³The spacing between consecutive eigenvalues, when properly normalized, was conjectured in [65, 66] to converge in distribution to a limit that does not depend on the shape of the p.d.f. of the entries. The universality of the level spacing distribution and other *microscopic (local)* spectral characteristics has been extensively discussed in recent theoretical physics and mathematical literature [174, 106, 200, 52, 54].

Verdú-Shamai [275, 217], Rapajic-Popescu [206], and Müller [185] on the capacity of CDMA. Subsequently, a number of works, surveyed in Chapter 3, have successfully applied random matrix theory to a variety of problems in the design and analysis of wireless communication systems.

Not every result of interest in the asymptotic analysis of channels of the form (1.1) has made use of the asymptotic eigenvalue tools that are of central interest in this paper. For example, the analysis of single-user matched filter receivers [275] and the analysis of the optimum asymptotic multiuser efficiency [258] have used various versions of the central-limit theorem; the analysis of the asymptotic uncoded error probability as well as the rates achievable with suboptimal constellations have used tools from statistical physics such as the replica method [249, 103].

1.3 Random Matrices: A Brief Historical Account

In this subsection, we provide a brief introduction to the main developments in the theory of random matrices. A more detailed account of the theory itself, with particular emphasis on the results that are relevant for wireless communications, is given in Chapter 2.

Random matrices have been a part of advanced multivariate statistical analysis since the end of the 1920s with the work of Wishart [311] on fixed-size matrices with Gaussian entries. The first asymptotic results on the limiting spectrum of large random matrices were obtained by Wigner in the 1950s in a series of papers [303, 305, 306] motivated by nuclear physics. Replacing the self-adjoint Hamiltonian operator in an infinite-dimensional Hilbert space by an ensemble of very large Hermitian matrices, Wigner was able to bypass the Schrödinger equation and explain the statistics of experimentally measured atomic energy levels in terms of the limiting spectrum of those random matrices. Since then, research on the limiting spectral analysis of large-dimensional random matrices has continued to attract interest in probability, statistics and physics.

Wigner [303] initially dealt with an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} whose diagonal entries are 0 and whose upper-triangle entries are independent and take the values ± 1 with equal probability. Through a combinatorial

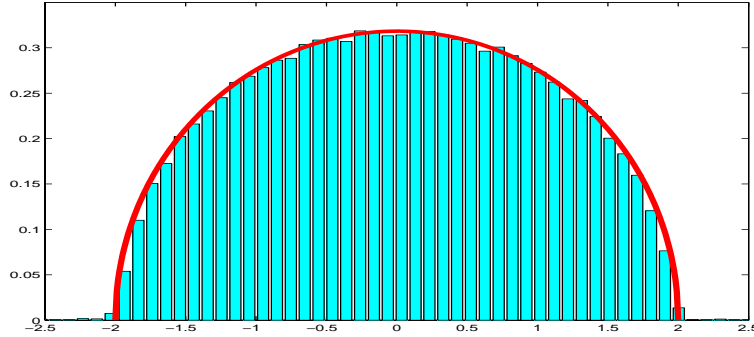


Fig. 1.4 The semicircle law density function (1.18) compared with the histogram of the average of 100 empirical density functions for a Wigner matrix of size $n = 100$.

derivation of the asymptotic eigenvalue moments involving the Catalan numbers, Wigner showed that, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the averaged empirical distribution of the eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\mathbf{A}$ converges to the *semicircle law* whose density is

$$w(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi}\sqrt{4-x^2} & \text{if } |x| \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } |x| > 2 \end{cases} \quad (1.18)$$

Later, Wigner [305] realized that the same result would be obtained if the random selection was sampled from a zero-mean (real or complex) Gaussian distribution. In that case, it is even possible to find an exact formula for the joint distribution of the eigenvalues as a function of n [176]. The matrices treated in [303] and [305] are special cases of Wigner matrices, defined as Hermitian matrices whose upper-triangle entries are zero-mean and independent. In [306], Wigner showed that the asymptotic distribution of any Wigner matrix is the semicircle law (1.18) even if only a unit second-moment condition is placed on its entries.

Figure 1.4 compares the semicircle law density function (1.18) with the average of 100 empirical density functions of the eigenvalues of a 10×10 Wigner matrix whose diagonal entries are 0 and whose upper-triangle entries are independent and take the values ± 1 with equal probability.

If no attempt is made to symmetrize the square matrix \mathbf{A} and all its entries are chosen to be i.i.d., then the eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\mathbf{A}$ are

asymptotically uniformly distributed on the unit circle of the complex plane. This is commonly referred to as Girko's *full-circle law*, which is exemplified in Figure 1.5. It has been proved in various degrees of rigor and generality in [173, 197, 85, 68, 9]. If the off-diagonal entries $A_{i,j}$ and $A_{j,i}$ are Gaussian and pairwise correlated with correlation coefficient ρ , then [238] shows that the eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\mathbf{A}$ are asymptotically uniformly distributed on an ellipse in the complex plane whose axes coincide with the real and imaginary axes and have radius $1 + \rho$ and $1 - \rho$, respectively. When $\rho = 1$, the projection on the real axis of such *elliptic law* is equal to the semicircle law.

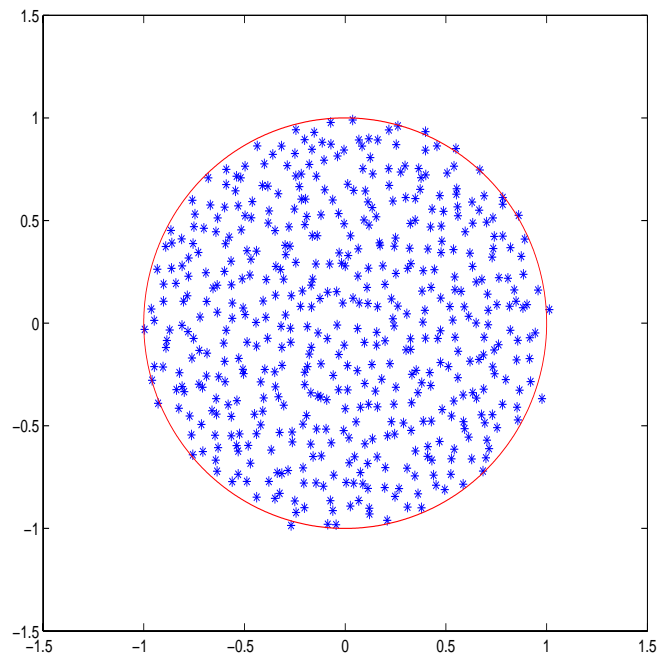


Fig. 1.5 The full-circle law and the eigenvalues of a realization of a matrix of size $n = 500$.

Most of the results surveyed above pertain to the eigenvalues of square matrices with independent entries. However, as we saw in Section 1.2, key problems in wireless communications involve the singular values of rectangular matrices \mathbf{H} ; even if those matrices have independent entries, the matrices $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger$ whose eigenvalues are of interest do not have independent entries.

When the entries of \mathbf{H} are zero-mean i.i.d. Gaussian, $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger$ is commonly referred to as a Wishart matrix. The analysis of the joint distribution of the entries of Wishart matrices is as old as random matrix theory itself [311]. The joint distribution of the eigenvalues of such matrices is known as the Fisher-Hsu-Roy distribution and was discovered simultaneously and independently by Fisher [75], Hsu [120], Girshick [89] and Roy [210]. The corresponding marginal distributions can be expressed in terms of the Laguerre polynomials [125].

The asymptotic theory of singular values of rectangular matrices has concentrated on the case where the matrix aspect ratio converges to a constant

$$\frac{K}{N} \rightarrow \beta \quad (1.19)$$

as the size of the matrix grows.

The first success in the quest for the limiting empirical singular value distribution of rectangular random matrices is due to Marčenko and Pastur [170] in 1967. This landmark paper considers matrices of the form

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}_0 + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{H}^\dagger \quad (1.20)$$

where \mathbf{T} is a real diagonal matrix independent of \mathbf{H} , \mathbf{W}_0 is a deterministic Hermitian matrix, and the columns of the $N \times K$ matrix \mathbf{H} are i.i.d. random vectors whose distribution satisfies a certain symmetry condition (encompassing the cases of independent entries and uniform distribution on the unit sphere). In the special case where $\mathbf{W}_0 = \mathbf{0}$, $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}$, and \mathbf{H} has i.i.d. entries with variance $\frac{1}{N}$, the limiting spectrum of \mathbf{W} found in [170] is the density in (1.10). In the special case of square \mathbf{H} , the asymptotic density function of the singular values, corresponding to the square root of the random variable whose p.d.f. is (1.10) with $\beta = 1$, is equal to the *quarter circle* law:

$$q(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sqrt{4 - x^2}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2. \quad (1.21)$$

As we will see in Chapter 2, in general ($\mathbf{W}_0 \neq \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{T} \neq \mathbf{I}$) no closed-form expression is known for the limiting spectrum. Rather, [170] char-

acterized it indirectly through its Stieltjes transform,⁴ which uniquely determines the distribution function. Since [170], this transform, which can be viewed as an iterated Laplace transform, has played a fundamental role in the theory of random matrices.

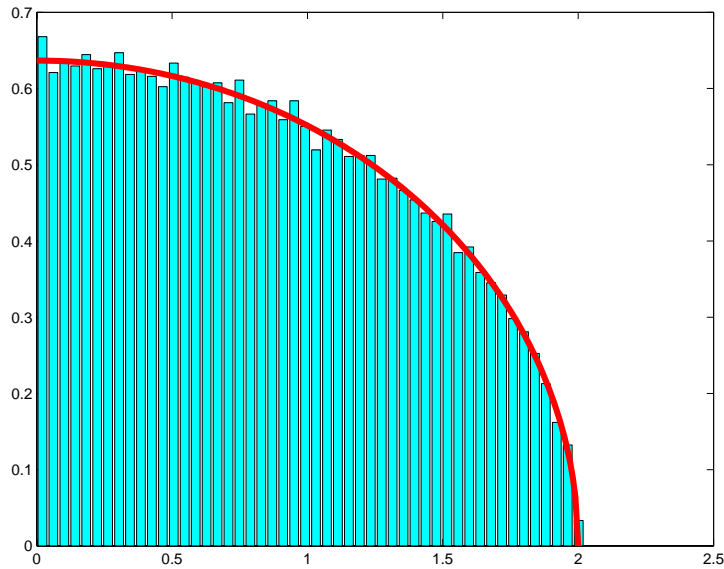


Fig. 1.6 The quarter circle law compared a histogram of the average of 100 empirical singular value density functions of a matrix of size 100×100 .

Figure 1.6 compares the quarter circle law density function (1.21) with the average of 100 empirical singular value density functions of a 100×100 square matrix \mathbf{H} with independent zero-mean complex Gaussian entries with variance $\frac{1}{100}$.

Despite the ground-breaking nature of Marčenko and Pastur’s contribution, it remained in obscurity for quite some time. For example, in 1977 Grenander and Silverstein [101] rediscovered (1.10) motivated by a neural network problem where the entries of \mathbf{H} take only two values. Also unaware of the in-probability convergence result of [170], in 1978 Wachter [296] arrived at the same solution but in the stronger sense of almost sure convergence under the condition that the entries of \mathbf{H} have

⁴The Stieltjes transform is defined in Section 2.2.1. The Dutch mathematician T. J. Stieltjes (1856-1894) provided the first inversion formula for this transform in [246].

uniformly bounded central moments of order higher than 2 as well as the same means and variances within a row. The almost sure convergence for the model (1.20) considered in [170] was shown in [227]. Even as late as 1991, rediscoveries of the Marčenko-Pastur law can be found in the Physics literature [50].

The case where $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{0}$ in (1.20), \mathbf{T} is not necessarily diagonal but Hermitian and \mathbf{H} has i.i.d. entries was solved by Silverstein [226] also in terms of the Stieltjes transform.

The special case of (1.20) where $\mathbf{W}_0 = \mathbf{0}$, \mathbf{H} has zero-mean i.i.d. Gaussian entries and

$$\mathbf{T} = (\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^\dagger)^{-1}$$

where the $K \times m$ matrix \mathbf{Y} has also zero-mean i.i.d. Gaussian entries with variance $\frac{1}{m}$, independent of \mathbf{H} , is called a (central) multivariate F -matrix. Because of the statistical applications of such matrix, its asymptotic spectrum has received considerable attention culminating in the explicit expression found by Silverstein [223] in 1985.

The speed of convergence to the limiting spectrum is studied in [8]. For our applications it is more important, however, to assess the speed of convergence of the performance measures (e.g. capacity and MMSE) to their asymptotic limits. Note that the sums in the right side of (1.4) involve dependent terms. Thanks to that dependence, the convergence in (1.13) and (1.15) is quite remarkable: the deviations from the respective limits *multiplied by N* converge to Gaussian random variables with fixed mean⁵ and variance. This has been established for general continuous functions, not just the logarithmic and rational functions of (1.13) and (1.15), in [15] (see also [131]).

The matrix of eigenvectors of Wishart matrices is known to be uniformly distributed on the manifold of unitary matrices (the so-called *Haar measure*) (e.g. [125, 67]). In the case of $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger$ where \mathbf{H} has i.i.d. non-Gaussian entries, much less success has been reported in the asymptotic characterization of the eigenvectors [153, 224, 225].

For matrices whose entries are Gaussian and correlated according to a Toeplitz structure, an integral equation is known for the Stielt-

⁵The mean is zero in the interesting special case where \mathbf{H} has i.i.d. complex Gaussian entries [15].

Stieltjes transform of the asymptotic spectrum as a function of the Fourier transform of the correlation function [147, 198, 55]. Other results on random matrices with correlated and weakly dependent entries can be found in [170, 196, 146, 53, 199, 145]. Reference [191], in turn, considers a special class of random matrices with dependent entries that falls outside the Marčenko-Pastur framework and that arises in the context of the statistical physics of disordered systems.

Incidentally, another application of the Stieltjes transform approach is the generalization of Wigner's semicircle law to the sum of a Wigner matrix and a deterministic Hermitian matrix. Provided Lindeberg-type conditions are satisfied by the entries of the random component, [147] obtained the *deformed semicircle law*, which is only known in closed-form in the Stieltjes transform domain.

Sometimes, an alternative to the characterization of asymptotic spectra through the Stieltjes transform is used, based on the proof of convergence and evaluation of moments such as $\frac{1}{N} \text{tr}\{(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\dagger)^k\}$. For most cases of practical interest, the limiting spectrum has bounded support. Thus, the moment convergence theorem can be applied to obtain results on the limiting spectrum through its moments [297, 314, 315, 313].

An important recent development in asymptotic random matrix analysis has been the realization that the non-commutative *free probability theory* introduced by Voiculescu [283, 285] in the mid-1980s is applicable to random matrices. In free probability, the classical notion of independence of random variables is replaced by that of “freeness” or “free independence”.

The power of the concept of free random matrices is best illustrated by the following setting. In general, we cannot find the eigenvalues of the sums of random matrices from the eigenvalues of the individual matrices (unless they have the same eigenvectors), and therefore the asymptotic spectrum of the sum cannot be obtained from the individual asymptotic spectra. An obvious exception is the case of independent diagonal matrices in which case the spectrum of the sum is simply the convolution of the spectra. When the random matrices are asymptotically free [287], the asymptotic spectrum of the sum is also obtainable from the individual asymptotic spectra. Instead of convolu-

tion (or equivalently, summing the logarithms of the individual Fourier transforms), the “free convolution” is obtained through the sum of the so-called R-transforms introduced by Voiculescu [285]. Examples of asymptotically free random matrices include independent Gaussian random matrices, and \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{UBU}^* where \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are Hermitian and \mathbf{U} is uniformly distributed on the manifold of unitary matrices and independent of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} .

In free probability, the role of the Gaussian distribution in classical probability is taken by the semicircle law (1.18) in the sense of the free analog of the central limit theorem [284]: the spectrum of the normalized sum of free random matrices (with given spectrum) converges to the semicircle law (1.18). Analogously, the spectrum of the normalized sum of free random matrices with unit rank converges to the Marčenko-Pastur law (1.10), which then emerges as the free counterpart of the Poisson distribution [239, 295]. In the general context of free random variables, Voiculescu has found an elegant definition of free-entropy [288, 289, 291, 292, 293]. A number of structural properties have been shown for free-entropy in the context of non-commutative probability theory (including the counterpart of the entropy-power inequality [248]). The free counterpart to Fisher’s information has been investigated in [289]. However, a free counterpart to the divergence between two distributions is yet to be discovered.

A connection between random matrices and information theory was made by Balian [17] in 1968 considering the inverse problem in which the distribution of the entries of the matrix must be determined while being consistent with certain constraints. Taking a maximum entropy method, the ensemble of Gaussian matrices is the solution to the problem where only a constraint on the energy of the singular values is placed.

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