Deep Learning Based Frequency-Selective Channel Estimation for Hybrid mmWave MIMO Systems

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Abstract—Millimeter wave (mmWave) massive multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) systems typically employ hybrid mixed signal processing to avoid expensive hardware and high training overheads. However, the lack of fully digital beamforming at mmWave bands imposes additional challenges in channel estimation. Prior art on hybrid architectures has mainly focused on greedy optimization algorithms to estimate frequency-flat narrowband mmWave channels, despite the fact that in practice, the large bandwidth associated with mmWave channels results in frequency-selective channels. In this paper, we consider a frequency-selective wideband mmWave system and propose two deep learning (DL) compressive sensing (CS) based algorithms for channel estimation. The proposed algorithms learn critical apriori information from training data to provide highly accurate channel estimates with low training overhead. In the first approach, a DL-CS based algorithm simultaneously estimates the channel supports in the frequency domain, which are then used for channel reconstruction. The second approach exploits the estimated supports to apply a low-complexity multi-resolution fine-tuning method to further enhance the estimation performance. Simulation results demonstrate that the proposed DL-based schemes significantly outperform conventional orthogonal matching pursuit (OMP) techniques in terms of the normalized mean-squared error (NMSE), computational complexity, and spectral efficiency, particularly in the low signal-to-noise ratio regime. When compared to OMP approaches that achieve an NMSE gap of $[4-10] \text{dB}$ with respect to the Cramer Rao Lower Bound (CRLB), the proposed algorithms reduce the CRLB gap to only $[1-1.5] \text{dB}$, while significantly reducing complexity by two orders of magnitude.

Index Terms—Deep learning, channel estimation, compressive Sensing, frequency-selective channel, mmWave, MIMO, convolutional neural networks, denoising, sparse recovery

I. INTRODUCTION

Millimeter wave (mmWave) communication has emerged as a key technology to fulfill beyond fifth-generation (B5G) network requirements, such as enhanced mobile broadband, massive connectivity, and ultra-reliable low-latency communications. The mmWave band offers an abundant frequency spectrum (30-300 GHz) at the cost of low penetration depth and high propagation losses. Fortunately, its short-wavelength mitigates these drawbacks by allowing the deployment of large antenna arrays into small form factor transceivers, paving the way for multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) systems with high directivity gains [1]–[4].

Hybrid MIMO structures have been introduced to operate at mmWave frequencies because an all-digital architecture, with a dedicated radio frequency (RF) chain for each antenna element, results in expensive system architecture and high power consumption at these frequencies [2]. In these hybrid architectures, phase-only analog beamformers are employed to steer the beams using steering vectors of quantized angles. The down-converted signal is then processed by low-dimensional baseband beamformers, each of which is dedicated to a single RF chain [5], [6]. The number of RF chains is significantly reduced with this combination of high-dimensional phase-only analog and low-dimensional baseband digital beamformers [6]. Moreover, optimal configuration of the digital/analog precoders and combiners requires instantaneous channel state information (CSI) to achieve spatial diversity and multiplexing gain [7]. However, acquiring mmWave CSI is challenging with a hybrid architecture due to the following reasons [5]: 1) There is no direct access to the different antenna elements in the array since the channel is seen through the analog combining network, which forms a compression stage for the received signal when the number of RF chains is much smaller than the number of antennas, 2) the large channel bandwidth yields high noise power and low received signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) before beamforming, and 3) the large size of channel matrices increases the complexity and overheads associated with traditional precoding and channel estimation algorithms. Therefore, low complexity channel estimation for mmWave MIMO systems with hybrid architecture is necessary.

A. Related Work

Channel estimation techniques typically leverage the sparse nature of mmWave MIMO channels by formulating the estimation as a sparse recovery problem and apply compressive sensing (CS) methods to solve it. Compressive sensing is a general framework for estimation of sparse vectors from linear measurements [8]. The estimated supports of the sparse vectors using CS help identify the indices of sparse vectors from the amplitudes of the non-zero coefficients in the sparse vectors represent the channel gains for each path. Therefore, these supports and amplitudes are key components to be estimated to obtain accurate CSI. Moreover, it has been shown that pilot training overhead can be reduced with compressive estimation, unlike the conventional approaches such as those based on least squares (LS) estimation [6].

Several channel estimation methods based on CS tools that explore the mmWave channel sparsity have been investigated in the literature [6], [9]–[12]. A distributed grid matching pursuit (DGMP) channel estimation scheme is presented in [9], where the dominant entries of the line-of-sight (LoS) channel
path are detected and updated iteratively. In [10], an orthogonal matching pursuit (OMP) channel estimation scheme to detect multiple channel paths support entries is also considered. Likewise, a simultaneous weighted orthogonal matching pursuit (SW-OMP) channel estimation scheme based on a weighted OMP method is developed in [11] for frequency-selective mmWave systems. A sparse reconstruction problem was formulated in [11] to estimate the channel independently for every subcarrier by exploiting common sparsity in the frequency domain. However, such optimization and CS-based channel estimation schemes detect the support indices of the mmWave channel sequentially and greedily, and hence are not globally optimal [12].

Alternatively, deep learning (DL) approaches and data-driven algorithms have recently received much attention as key enablers for beyond 5G networks. Traditionally, signal processing and numerical optimization techniques have been heavily used to address channel estimation at mmWave bands [9]–[12]. However, optimization algorithms often demand considerable computational complexity overhead, which creates a barrier between theoretical design/analysis and real-time processing requirements. Hence, the prior data-set observations and deep neural network (DNN) models can be leveraged to learn the non-trivial mapping from compressed received pilots to channels. DNNs can be used to approximate the optimization problems by selecting the suitable set of parameters that minimize the approximation error. The use of DNNs is expected to substantially reduce computational complexity and processing overhead since it only requires several layers of simple operations such as matrix-vector multiplications. Moreover, several successful DL applications have been demonstrated in wireless communications problems such as channel estimation [13]–[22], analog beam selection [23], [24], and hybrid beamforming [23], [25]–[29]. Besides, DL-based techniques, when compared with other conventional optimization methods, have been shown [14], [27], [28], [30] to be more computationally efficient in searching for beamformers and more tolerant to imperfect channel inputs. In [15], a learned denoising-based approximate message passing (LDAMP) network is presented to estimate the mmWave communication system with lens antenna array, where the noise term is detected and removed to estimate the channel. However, channel estimation for mmWave massive MIMO systems with hybrid architecture is not considered in [15].

Prior work on channel estimation for hybrid mmWave MIMO architecture [15]–[22], [25]–[27], [31]–[34] consider the narrow-band flat fading channel model for tractability, while the practical mmWave channels exhibit the wideband frequency-selective fading due to the very large bandwidth, short coherence time and different delays of multipath [11], [35], [36]. MmWave environments such as indoor and vehicular communications are highly variable with short coherence time [36] which requires channel estimation algorithms that are robust to the rapidly changing channel characteristics. Accordingly, this paper presents combination of DL and CS methods to identify AoA/AoD pairs’ indices and estimate the channel amplitudes for frequency-selective channel estimation of hybrid MIMO systems.

B. Contributions of the Paper

In this paper, we propose a frequency-selective channel estimation framework for mmWave MIMO systems with hybrid architecture. By considering the mmWave channel sparsity, the developed method aims at reaping the full advantages of both CS and DL methods. We consider the received pilot signal as an image, and then employ a denoising convolutional neural network (DnCNN) from [37] for channel amplitude estimation. Thereby, we treat image denoising as a plain discriminative learning problem, i.e., separating the noise from a noisy image by feed-forward convolutional neural networks (CNNs). The main motivations behind using CNNs are twofold: First, deep CNNs have been recognized to effectively extract image features [37]. Second, considerable advances have been achieved on regularization and learning methods for training CNNs, including Rectifier Linear Unit (ReLU), batch normalization, and residual learning [38]. These methods can be adopted in CNNs to speed up the training process and improve the denoising performance. The main contributions of the paper can be summarized as follows:

1) We propose a deep learning compressed sensing channel estimation (DL-CS-CE) scheme for wideband mmWave massive MIMO systems. The proposed DL-CS-based channel estimation (DL-CS-CE) algorithm aims at exploiting the information on the support coming from every subcarrier in the MIMO-OFDM system. It is executed in two steps: channel amplitude estimation through deep learning and channel reconstruction. We train a DnCNN using real mmWave channel realizations obtained from Raymobtime. The correlation between the received signal vectors and the measurement matrix is fed into the trained DnCNN to predict the channel amplitudes. Using the obtained channel amplitudes, the indices of dominant entries of the channel are obtained, based on which the channel can be reconstructed. Unlike the existing work of [9]–[11] that estimates the dominant channel entries sequentially, we estimate dominant entries simultaneously, which is able to save in computational complexity and improve estimation performance.

2) Using the DL-CS-CE for support detection, we propose a refined DL-CS-CE algorithm that exploits the spatially common sparsity within the system bandwidth. A channel reconstruction with a low complexity multi-resolution fine-tuning approach is developed that further improves NMSE performance by enhancing the accuracy of the estimated AoAs/AoDs. The channel reconstruction is performed by consuming a very small amount of pilot training frames, which significantly reduces the training overhead and computational complexity.

3) Simulation results in the low SNR regime show that both proposed algorithms significantly outperform the frequency domain approach developed in [11]. Numerical results also

1 The coherence time is within few milliseconds such as 5 ms when operating at 60 GHz with 1 GHz bandwidth [36].

2 Available at https://www.lasse.ufpa.br/raymobtime/
show that using a reasonably small pilot training frames, leads to substantially low channel estimation errors. The proposed algorithms are also compared with existing solutions by analyzing the trade-off between delivered performance and incurred computational complexity. Our analysis reveals that both proposed channel estimation methods achieve the desired performance at significant lower complexity. The developed approaches are shown to attain an NMSE gap of 1−1.5 dB with the Cramer Rao Lower Bound (CRLB) compared to the 4−10 dB gap attained by the SW-OMP technique, while reducing the computational complexity by two orders of magnitude.

C. Notation and Paper Organization

Bold upper case, bold lower case, and lower case letters correspond to matrices, vectors, and scalars, respectively. Scalar norms, vector L2 norms, and Frobenius norms, are denoted by |∥|, ∥∥2, and ∥∥F, respectively. We use X to denote a set. Ix denotes a X × X identity matrix. E[∥], (·)T, (·), and (∗)T stand for expected value, transpose, complex conjugate, and Hermitian. X(I) stands for the Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse of X. [x]i,j represents i-th element of a vector x. The (i,j)th entry of a matrix X is denoted by [X]i,j. In addition, [X]i,j and [X]i,jΩ denote the j-th column vector of matrix X and the sub-matrix consisting of the columns of matrix X with indices in set Ω. {a} mod b means a modulo b. \( C_N(\mu, C) \) refers to a circularly-symmetric complex Gaussian distribution with mean \( \mu \) and covariance matrix \( C \). The operations vec(X), vec2mat(x, sz), sub2ind(sz, [r,c]), and ind2sub(sz, i) correspond to transforming a matrix into a vector, transforming a vector into a matrix for a defined size (sz), transforming the row r and column c subscripts of a matrix into their corresponding linear index, and transforming the linear index i into its corresponding row and column subscripts for a matrix of a defined size (sz), respectively. X ⊗ Y is the Kronecker product of X and Y. Key model-related notation is listed in Table I.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The system model for the frequency selective mmwave MIMO system is described in Section II. In Section III, the proposed two deep learning-based compressive sensing channel estimation schemes in the frequency domain are introduced. Moreover, complexity analysis in terms of convergence and computational analysis is presented in Section IV. Case studies with numerical results are simulated and analyzed based on the proposed schemes in Section V. Section VI concludes the paper.

II. SYSTEM MODEL AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

This section first provides the system and channel models of frequency-selective hybrid mmWave transceivers. Then, it formulates a sparse recovery problem to estimate the sparse channel in the frequency domain.

| Table I: NOTATION |
| --- |
| **Notation** | **Definition** |
| \( F_{RF} \in \mathbb{C}^{t_r \times t_f} \) | RF analog precoder (time domain (TD)) |
| \( W_{RF} \in \mathbb{C}^{t_f \times t_r} \) | RF analog combiner (TD) |
| \( F_{BB}[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{t_f \times t_n} \) | Baseband digital precoder (frequency domain (FD)) |
| \( W_{BB}[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{t_f \times t_r} \) | Baseband digital combiner (FD) |
| \( s[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times 1} \) | Data symbol vector (FD) |
| \( H[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times M} \) | \( d^k \) delay tap of the channel (TD) |
| \( \Delta_k \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times L} \) | Complex diagonal matrix (time domain) |
| \( A_n \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times L} \) | Receive array steering matrix |
| \( A_T \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times L} \) | Transmit array steering matrix |
| \( H[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times M} \) | Channel at \( k^{th} \) subcarrier (FD) |
| \( \Delta[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times L} \) | Complex diagonal matrix (FD) |
| \( A_n \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times L} \) | Dictionary matrix for receive array response |
| \( A_T \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times L} \) | Dict. matrix for transmit array response |
| \( \Delta[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{G \times G} \) | Path gains sparse matrix of the virtual channel (TD) |
| \( \Delta[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{G \times G} \) | Path gains sparse matrix of the virtual channel (FD) |
| \( \Phi \in \mathbb{C}^{C_r \times N \times G} \) | \( t \) variable |
| \( \Psi \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times G} \) | Measurement matrix |
| \( h^* \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times 1} \) | Sparse vector containing complex channel gains (FD) |
| \( y[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times 1} \) | Received signal (FD) |
| \( c[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times 1} \) | Correlation vector (FD) |
| \( C_k \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times M} \) | Noise covariance matrix of \( y[k] \) |
| \( D_k \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times M} \) | Whitening matrix (upper triangular matrix) |
| \( w_k \in \mathbb{C}^{C \times 1} \) | Whitened received signal (FD) |
| \( y \in \mathbb{C}^{CM \times 1} \) | Whitened measurement matrix |
| \( \mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{C}^{C_r \times N \times G} \) | White, meas. matrix to remove detection uncertainty |
| \( t \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times G} \) | White, meas. matrix for refining |
| \( C_k \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times 1} \) | Input matrix to the DnCNN (FD) |
| \( G_k \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times 1} \) | Output matrix of the DnCNN (FD) |
| \( g[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{C \times 1} \) | Vectorized form of \( G_k \) (FD) |
| \( \xi[k] \in \mathbb{C} \) | \( r^k \) vector of actual channel gains (FD) |
| \( P \in \mathbb{C}^{C \times M \times L} \) | Measurement matrix |
| \( r \in \mathbb{C}^{CM \times 1} \) | Residual vector (FD) |
| \( T \) | Sparse channel support set |
| \( K \) | Subset from total \( K \) subcarriers |

A. System Model

As shown in Fig. 1, we consider an OFDM-based mmWave MIMO link employing a total of \( K \) subcarriers to send \( N_t \) data streams from a transmitter with \( N_r \) antennas to a receiver with \( N_r \) antennas. The system is based on a hybrid MIMO architecture, with \( L_t < N_t \) and \( L_r < N_r \) radio frequency (RF) chains at the transmitter and receiver sides. Following the notation of [11], we define a frequency-selective hybrid precoder \( \mathbf{F}[k] = \mathbf{F}_{RF} \mathbf{F}_{BB}[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times N_t}, k = 0, \ldots, K−1 \), where \( \mathbf{F}_{RF} \) and \( \mathbf{F}_{BB}[k] \) are the analog and digital precoders, respectively. Although, the analog precoder is considered to be frequency-flat, the digital precoder is different for every subcarrier. The RF precoder and combiner are deployed using a fully connected network of quantized phase shifters, as described in [6]. During transmission, the transmitter (TX) first precodes data symbols \( s[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times 1} \) at each subcarrier by applying the subcarrier-dependent baseband precoder \( \mathbf{F}_{BB}[k] \). The symbol blocks are then transformed into the time domain using \( L_t \) parallel \( K \)-point inverse Fast Fourier transform (IFFT). After adding the cyclic prefix (CP), the transmitter employs the subcarrier-independent RF precoder \( \mathbf{F}_{RF} \) to form the transmitted signal. The complex baseband signal at the \( k^{th} \)
A subcarrier can be expressed as
\[ x[k] = F_{RF} F_{BB}[k] s[k], \] (1)
where \( s[k] \) denotes the transmitted symbol sequence at the \( k \)th subcarrier of size \( N_c \times 1 \).

1) Channel Model: We consider a frequency-selective MIMO channel between the transmitter and the receiver, with a delay tap length of \( N_c \) in the time domain. The \( d \)th delay tap of the channel is denoted by an \( N_t \times N_r \) matrix \( H_d, d = 0, 1, \ldots, N_c - 1 \). Assuming a geometric channel model \([11]\), \( H_d \) can be written as
\[
H_d = \sqrt{\frac{N_t N_r}{L_p}} \sum_{l=1}^{L_p} \alpha_{l} p_{RC}(dT_s - \tau_l) a_R(\phi_l) a_T^*(\theta_l),
\] (2)
where \( p_{RC}(\tau) \) is the pulse-shaping filter; \( \alpha_{l} \) is the complex gain of the \( l \)th path; \( \tau_l \) is the delay of the \( l \)th path; \( \phi_l \in [0, 2\pi) \) and \( \theta_l \in [0, 2\pi) \) are the AoA and AoD of the \( l \)th path, respectively; and \( a_R(\phi_l) \in \mathbb{C}^{N_t \times 1} \) and \( a_T(\theta_l) \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times 1} \) are the array steering vectors for the receive and transmit antennas, respectively. Both the transmitter and the receiver are assumed to use Uniform Linear Arrays (ULAs) with half-wavelength separation. An ULA has steering vectors obeying the expressions
\[
[a_T(\theta)]_n = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_r}} e^{j n \pi \sin(\theta)}, \quad n = 0, \ldots, N_r - 1,
\]
\[
[a_R(\phi)]_m = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_t}} e^{j m \pi \cos(\phi)}, \quad m = 0, \ldots, N_t - 1.
\]
The channel can be expressed more compactly in the following form:
\[ H_d = A_R \Delta_d A_T^*, \] (3)
where \( \Delta_d \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times L} \) is diagonal with non-zero complex diagonal entries, and \( A_R \in \mathbb{C}^{N_t \times L} \) and \( A_T \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times L} \) contain the receive and transmit array steering vectors \( a_R(\phi_l) \) and \( a_T(\theta_l) \), respectively. The channel at subcarrier \( k \) can be written in terms of the different delay taps as
\[ H[k] = \sum_{d=0}^{N_c-1} H_d e^{-j \frac{2\pi d k}{N_c}} = A_R \Delta[k] A_T^*, \] (4)
where \( \Delta[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times L} \) is diagonal with non-zero complex diagonal entries such that \( \Delta[k] = \sum_{d=0}^{N_c-1} \Delta_d e^{-j \frac{2\pi d k}{N_c}}, k = 0, \ldots, K - 1 \).

2) Extended Virtual Channel Model: According to \([2]\), we can further approximate the channel \( H_d \) using the extended virtual channel model as
\[ H_d \approx \tilde{A}_R \Delta_d^v \tilde{A}_T^*, \] (5)
where \( \Delta_d^v \in \mathbb{C}^{G_t \times G_t} \) corresponds to a sparse matrix that contains the path gains in the non-zero elements. Moreover, the dictionary matrices \( \tilde{A}_T \) and \( \tilde{A}_R \) contain the transmitter and receiver array response vectors evaluated on a grid of size \( G_t \gg L \) for the AoA and a grid of size \( G_r \gg L \) for the AoD, i.e., \( \theta_l \in \{0, \frac{2\pi}{G_r}, \ldots, \frac{2\pi(G_r-1)}{G_r} \} \) and \( \phi_l \in \{0, \frac{2\pi}{G_t}, \ldots, \frac{2\pi(G_t-1)}{G_t} \} \), respectively:
\[
\tilde{A}_T = [a_T(\theta_1) \ldots a_T(\theta_{G_r})],
\]
\[
\tilde{A}_R = [a_R(\phi_1) \ldots a_R(\phi_{G_t})].
\] (6)
Since we have few scattering clusters in mmWave channels, the sparse assumption for \( \Delta_d^v \in \mathbb{C}^{G_t \times G_t} \) is commonly accepted. To help expose the sparse structure, we can express the channel at subcarrier \( k \) in terms of the sparse matrices \( \Delta_d^v \) and the dictionaries as follows:
\[ H[k] \approx \tilde{A}_R \left( \sum_{d=0}^{N_c-1} \Delta_d^v e^{-j \frac{2\pi d k}{N_c}} \right) \tilde{A}_T \approx \tilde{A}_R \Delta^v[k] \tilde{A}_T. \] (7)
where \( \Delta^v[k] = \sum_{d=0}^{N_c-1} \Delta_d^v e^{-j \frac{2\pi d k}{N_c}}, k = 0, \ldots, K - 1 \), is a \( G_t \times G_t \) complex sparse matrix containing the channel gains of the virtual channel.

3) Signal Reception: Considering that the receiver (RX) applies a hybrid combiner \( W[k] = W_{RF} W_{BB}[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times N_t} \), the received signal at subcarrier \( k \) can be expressed as
\[ y[k] = W_{BB}[k] W_{RF}^* H[k] F_{RF} F_{BB}[k] s[k] + W_{BB}^* [k] W_{RF}^* n[k], \] (9)
where \( n[k] \sim C\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I) \) corresponds to the circularly symmetric complex Gaussian distributed additive noise vector. The received signal model in (9) corresponds to the data transmission phase. As explained in Section III, during the channel acquisition phase, frequency-flat training precoders and combiners will be considered to reduce complexity.

B. Problem Formulation

During the training phase, transmitter and receiver use a training precoder \( F_{tr}^{(m)} \in \mathbb{C}^{N_t \times L_t} \) and a training combiner \( W_t^{(m)} \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times L_t} \) for the \( m \)th pilot training frame, respectively. The precoders and combiners considered in this phase are frequency-flat to keep the complexity of the sparse recovery algorithms low. The transmitted symbols are assumed to satisfy \( \mathbb{E}\{s^{(m)}[k] s^{(m')*[k]}\} = \frac{1}{N_s} I_{N_s} \), where \( P \) is the total transmitted power and \( N_s = L_t \). The transmitted symbol
\[ s^{(m)}[k] \] is decomposed as \( s^{(m)}[k] = q^{(m)} t^{(m)}[k] \), with \( q^{(m)} \in \mathbb{C}^{L_t \times 1} \) is a frequency-flat vector and \( t^{(m)}[k] \) is a pilot symbol known at the receiver. This decomposition is used to reduce computational complexity since it allows simultaneous use of the \( L_t \) spatial degrees of freedom coming from \( L_t \) RF chains and enables channel estimation using a single subcarrier-independent measurement matrix. Moreover, each entry in \( F^{(m)}_{tr} \) and in \( W^{(m)}_{tr} \) are normalized such that their squared-modulus would be \( \frac{1}{N_t} \) respectively. Then, the received samples in the frequency domain for the \( m \)-th training frame can be expressed as:

\[
y^{(m)}[k] = W^{(m)*}_{tr} H[k] F^{(m)}_{tr} q^{(m)} t^{(m)}[k] + n^{(m)}[k],
\]

where \( H[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{N_r \times N_t} \) denotes the frequency-domain MIMO channel response at the \( k \)-th subcarrier and \( n^{(m)}[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{L_r \times 1} \), \( n^{(m)}[k] = W^{(m)*}_{tr} n^{(m)}[k] \), represents the frequency-domain combined noise vector received at the \( k \)-th subcarrier. The average received SNR is given by \( SNR = \frac{P}{\sigma^2} \). Furthermore, the channel coherence time is assumed to be larger than the frame duration and that the same channel can be considered for several consecutive frames.

1) Measurement Matrix: In order to apply sparse reconstruction with a single subcarrier-independent measurement matrix, we first remove the effect of the scalar \( t^{(m)}[k] \) by multiplying the received signal by \( t^{(m)}[k]^{-1} \). Using the following property \( \text{vec}(\mathbf{AXC}) = (\mathbf{C}^T \otimes \mathbf{A}) \text{vec}(\mathbf{X}) \), the vectorized received signal is given by:

\[
\text{vec}(y^{(m)}[k]) = (q^{(m)T} F^{(m)}_{tr} W^{(m)*}_{tr}) \text{vec}(H[k]) + n^{(m)}[k].
\]

The vectorized channel can be expressed as:

\[
\text{vec}(H[k]) = (\bar{\mathbf{A}}_T \otimes \bar{\mathbf{A}}_R) \text{vec}(\Delta^\nu[k]).
\]

Furthermore, we define the measurement matrix \( \Phi^{(m)} \in \mathbb{C}^{L_r \times N_{t,\mathcal{F}}} \):

\[
\Phi^{(m)} = (q^{(m)T} F^{(m)}_{tr} W^{(m)*}_{tr})
\]

and the dictionary \( \Psi \in \mathbb{C}^{N_{t,\mathcal{F}} \times G_t G_r} \) as:

\[
\Psi = (\bar{\mathbf{A}}_T \otimes \bar{\mathbf{A}}_R).
\]

Then, the vectorized received pilot signal \( L_r \times 1 \) at the \( m \)-th training frame symbol can be written as:

\[
\text{vec}(y^{(m)}[k]) = \Phi^{(m)} \Psi h^\nu[k] + n^{(m)}[k],
\]

where \( h^\nu[k] = \text{vec}(\Delta^\nu[k]) \in \mathbb{C}^{G_t G_r \times 1} \) is the sparse vector containing the complex channel gains. Moreover, we use several training frames to get enough measurements and accurately reconstruct the sparse vector \( h^\nu[k] \), especially in the very-low SNR regime. Therefore, when the transmitter and receiver communicate during \( M \) training steps using different pseudorandomly built precoders and combiners, (15) can be extended to \( M \) received signals given by:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
y^{(1)}[k] \\
\vdots \\
y^{(M)}[k]
\end{bmatrix} = 
\begin{bmatrix}
\Phi^{(1)} \\
\vdots \\
\Phi^{(M)}
\end{bmatrix}
^T 
\Psi h^\nu[k] + 
\begin{bmatrix}
n^{(1)}[k] \\
\vdots \\
n^{(M)}[k]
\end{bmatrix}. 
\]

Hence, the vector \( h^\nu[k] \) can be estimated by solving the sparse reconstruction problem as done in [11],

\[
\min ||h^\nu[k]| | \text{ subject to } ||y[k] - \Phi \Psi h^\nu[k]||^2_2 < \epsilon,
\]

where \( \epsilon \) represents a tunable parameter defining the maximum error between the reconstructed channel and the received signal. In realistic scenarios, the sparsity (number of channel paths) is usually unknown, therefore the choice of \( \epsilon \) is critical to solve (17) and estimate the sparsity level. The choice of this parameter is explained in Section III-D.

Interestingly, the matrices in (8) exhibit the same sparse structure for all \( k \), since the AoA and AoD do not change with frequency in the transmission bandwidth. This is an interesting property that can be leveraged when solving the compressed channel estimation problem defined in (17). Moreover, we denote the supports of the virtual channel matrices \( \Delta^\nu_d \) as \( \mathcal{T}_0, \mathcal{T}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{T}_{N_c-1} \). Then, knowing \( h^\nu[k] = \text{vec}(\Delta^\nu[k]) \), with \( \Delta^\nu[k] = \sum_{d=0}^{N_c-1} \Delta^\nu_d e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N_c}d} \), \( k = 0, \ldots, K-1 \), the supports of \( h^\nu[k] \) are defined as

\[
\text{supp}(h^\nu[k]) = \bigcup_{d=0}^{N_c-1} \text{supp}(\text{vec}(\Delta^\nu_d)), \quad k = 0, \ldots, K-1, \quad (18)
\]

where the union of the supports of the time-domain virtual channel matrices is due to the additive nature of the Fourier transform. Therefore, as shown in (18), where the union is independent of the subcarrier \( k \), \( \Delta^\nu[k] \) has the same supports for all \( k \).

2) Correlation Matrix: To estimate multi-path components of the channel, i.e., AoAs/AoDs and channel gains, we first need to compute the atom, which is defined as the vector that produces the largest sum-correlation with the received signals in the measurement matrix. The sum-correlation is especially considered as the support of the different sparse vectors is the same over the \( K \) subcarriers. The correlation vector \( c[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{G_t G_r} \) is given by:

\[
c[k] = \Psi^* y[k],
\]

where \( \Psi \in \mathbb{C}^{M L_r \times G_t G_r} \), \( y = \Phi \Psi \) represents the equivalent measurement matrix which is the same \( \forall k \) and \( y[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{M L_r \times 1} \) is the received signal for a given \( k \), \( k = 0, \ldots, K-1 \).

One can note that if there exists a correlation between noise components, the atom estimated from the projection in (19) might not be the correct one. In order to compensate for this error in estimation, we consider the noise covariance matrix when performing the correlation step. In particular, we consider two arbitrary (hybrid) combiners \( W_{tr}^{(m)(i)} \), \( W_{tr}^{(m)(j)} \in \mathbb{C}^{N_{t,\mathcal{F}} \times L_r} \) for two arbitrary training steps \( i, j \) and a given subcarrier \( k \). Hence, the combined noise at a given training step \( i \) and subcarrier \( k \) is represented as \( n_i^{(i)}[k] = W_{tr}^{(i)} n_i^{(i)}[k] \), with \( n_i^{(i)}[k] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I_{L_r}) \), which results in noise cross-covariance matrix given by \( \mathbb{E}(n_i^{(i)}[k] n_j^{(j)}[k]) = W_i^{(i)} \sigma^2 \delta[i - j] W_j^{(j)} \).

We can further write the noise covariance matrix of \( y[k] \) as a block diagonal matrix \( C_w \in \mathbb{C}^{M L_r \times M L_r} \):

\[
C_w = \text{blkdiag}\{W_{tr}^{(1)} \otimes W_{tr}^{(1)}, \ldots, W_{tr}^{(M)} \otimes W_{tr}^{(M)}\}. \quad (20)
\]

Moreover, Cholesky factorization can be used to factorize \( C_w \) into \( C_w = D_w^T D_w \), where \( D_w \in \mathbb{C}^{M L_r \times M L_r} \) is an upper triangular matrix. Then, by taking into consideration the noise covariance matrix, the correlation step is given by:

\[
c[k] = Y_w^* y[k],
\]

where \( Y_w \in \mathbb{C}^{M L_r \times G_t G_r} \) represents the whitened measurement matrix given by \( Y_w = D_w^T Y \). And, the \( M L_r \times 1 \) whitened received signal \( y_w[k] \) is given by...
Separate L and a ReLU. The final convolutional layers are followed by batch-normalization (BN) first.

### III. DEEP LEARNING AND COMPRESSIVE-SENSING BASED CHANNEL ESTIMATION (DL-CS-CE)

To solve the CS channel estimation problem formulated above, this section proposes two DL-based algorithms. Both leverage the common support between the channel matrices for every subcarrier and provide different complexity-performance trade-offs. The former simultaneously estimate the support using an offline-trained DnCNN and then reconstruct the channel. On the other hand, the latter applies further fine-tuning to accurately estimate the AoAs and AoDs with higher resolution dictionary matrices while keeping computational complexity low.

#### A. Offline Training and Online Deployment of DnCNN

Before delving into the proposed solutions’ details, let us first provide insights into the considered DnCNN architecture as well as its offline training and online deployment.

1) **DnCNN Architecture**: Fig. 2 illustrates the network architecture of the DnCNN denoiser that consists of $L_C$ convolutional (Conv) layers. Each layer uses $C_{CL}[l]$ different $D_x^{(l)} \times D_y^{(l)} \times D_z^{(l)}$ filters. The first convolutional layer is followed by a rectified linear unit (ReLU). The succeeding $L_C-2$ convolutional layers are followed by batch-normalization (BN) and a ReLU. The final $L_C$th convolutional layer uses one separate $D_x^{(L_C)} \times D_y^{(L_C)} \times D_z^{(L_C)}$ filter to reconstruct the signal. Here, $D_x^{(l)}$, $D_y^{(l)}$ and $D_z^{(l)}$ are the convolutional kernel dimensions, and $C_{CL}[l]$ is the number of filters in the $l$th layer.

We present three pseudo-color images of the noisy channel, residual noise, and estimated output channel in Fig. 2. The DnCNN considers the amplitude of the correlation $G_t \times G_t$ matrix, i.e.,

$$C_\alpha[k] = \text{vec2mat}(\{C[k]\}, [G_t, G_t]), \forall k,$$

as input and produces residual noise as an output, rather than estimated channel amplitudes, where we define a $G_t \times G_t$ matrix of channel amplitudes as

$$G[k] = |\Delta^v[k]| \in \mathbb{R}^{G_t \times G_t}, \forall k.$$  

The DnCNN aims to learn a mapping function $F(C_\alpha[k]) = G[k]$ to predict the latent clean image from noisy observation $C_\alpha[k]$. We adopt the residual learning formulation to train a residual mapping $R(C_\alpha[k]) \approx V$ where $V$ is the residual noise, and then we have $G[k] = C_\alpha[k] - R(C_\alpha[k])$. Instead of learning a mapping directly from a noisy image to a denoised image, learning the residual noise is beneficial [37], [38]. Furthermore, the averaged mean squared error between the desired residual images and estimated ones from noisy input is adopted as the loss function to learn the trainable parameters $\Theta$ of the DnCNN. This loss function is given by

$$\ell(\Theta) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|R(C_\alpha[k] \ast \Theta) - (C_\alpha[k] - G[k] \ast \Theta)\|^2_F,$$  

where $(C_\alpha[k], G[k])_i^{N}$ represents $N$ noisy-clean training patch pairs. This method is also known as residual learning [38] and renders the DnCNN to remove the highly structured natural image rather than the unstructured noise. Consequently, residual learning improves both the training times and accuracy of a network. In this way, combining batch normalization and residual learning techniques can accelerate the training speed and improve the denoising performance. Besides, batch normalization has been shown to offer some merits for residual learning, such as alleviating internal covariate shift problem in [20], [37].

2) **Offline Training of the DnCNN**: During offline training of the DnCNN, the dataset of $C_\alpha[k], \forall k$ and $G[k], \forall k$ is generated based on the realistic Raymobeight dataset for mmWave...
frequency selective channel environment\textsuperscript{3}. With the mmWave channel amplitude in (23) and the correlation of the received signals and the measurement matrix in (22), the training data of $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ and $\mathbf{G}[k]$ can be obtained. In particular, the process to obtain $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ and $\mathbf{G}[k]$ involves the following four steps: i) generation of channel matrices based on the mmWave channel model from the Raymobtime dataset ii) obtaining $\mathbf{G}[k]$ based on (23); iii) computing the whitened received signal vector $\mathbf{y}_w[k] \forall k$; and iv) acquiring the amplitudes of the correlation vector $\mathbf{c}[k]$ and transforming it into a matrix form $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ as per (22).

3) Online Deployment of the DnCNN: During the on-line deployment of the DL-CS-CE, we obtain the measured received signal $\mathbf{y}_w[k]$ from the realistic mmWave channel environments. We compute $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ based on (22), which is then fed to the offline-trained DnCNN. Then, the trained DnCNN would predict $\hat{\mathbf{G}}[k]$, from which we can estimate the supports of $\Delta^\alpha[k]$. An interesting and noteworthy issue is that we can feed the trained DnCNN a subset $K_p$ of $K$ subcarriers of the amplitudes of the correlation matrices $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$, to eventually estimate the support of $\Delta^\alpha[k]$, since as shown in Section II-B1 $\Delta^\alpha[k]$ have the same support for all $k$. In particular, the support can be estimated if a small number of subcarriers $K_p \ll K$ is used instead. This will eliminate the need for computing $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ for all subcarriers and eventually reduce the overall computational complexity at the cost of a negligible performance degradation. By leveraging from triangle inequality, $||\mathbf{y}[k]||_2^2 \leq ||\mathbf{\Phi h}_k[k]||_2^2 + ||\mathbf{n}_k[k]||_2^2$, such that the $K_p$ selected signals are expected to exhibit the strongest channel response. Therefore, the $K_p$ subcarriers having largest $\ell_2$-norm will be exploited to derive an estimate of the support of the already defined sparse channel matrix $\Delta^\alpha[k]$, $k = 0, \ldots, K - 1$.

\textsuperscript{3}Raymobtime is developed based on collecting realistic datasets collected by ray-tracing and realistic 3D scenarios that considers mobility, time, frequency, and space. Available at https://www.lasse.ufpa.br/raymobtime/

B. Algorithm 1: DL-CS-CE

The state-of-the-art sparse channel estimation schemes \cite{11, and references therein} depend on greedy algorithms to detect the supports sequentially, which naturally yield suboptimal solutions. This motivated us to exploit the neural networks to estimate all supports simultaneously rather than sequentially. The algorithmic implementation of the proposed DL-CS-CE solution is presented in Algorithm 1. After initialization steps between lines 1-3 and the computation of the whitened equivalent observation matrix in line 4, DL-CS-CE is structured based on three main procedures:

- Estimation of the channel amplitudes by using an offline-trained DnCNN,
- Sorting the estimated channel amplitudes in descending order to select the supports of dominant entries,
- Reconstruction of the channel according to the selected indices, which are explained in the sequel.

1) Strongest Subcarriers Selection: This procedure is represented in lines 8-11 of Algorithm 1, where the algorithm iteratively finds a subset $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathcal{K}$ containing the $K_p$ strongest subcarriers which are expected to exhibit the strongest channel response as explained in Section III-A3.

2) Amplitude Estimation: As depicted in Fig. 3, the lines 13 and 14 of Algorithm 1 first compute the correlation vector as per (21) and then create the DnCNN input $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ by putting correlation vectors into a matrix form as per (22), respectively. In line 15, the offline trained DnCNN is used as the kernel of the channel amplitude estimation to obtain the DnCNN output $\hat{\mathbf{G}}[k]$ of size $G_t \times G_r$, which is the estimate of $\mathbf{G}[k]$ given in (23). It is worth noting that we only use a subset $\mathcal{K}$ of the correlation matrices $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k] \forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ as an input to the DnCNN. In line 16, the output channel amplitude estimation matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}[k]$ is then vectorized into the following $G_tG_r \times 1$ vector...
Algorithm 1 DL-CS-CF

Input: $\mathbf{y}[k]$, $\Phi$, $\Psi$, $\mathbf{A}_T$, $\mathbf{A}_R$, $\mathbf{K}_p$, $\epsilon$
1: $\mathbf{y}_w[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{D}_w \mathbf{y}[k]$ $\forall k$
2: $r[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{y}_w[k]$ $\forall k$
3: $T, K \leftarrow \{0\}$
4: $\mathbf{Y}_w \leftarrow \mathbf{D}_w^\dagger \Phi^\dagger$
5: $K \leftarrow$ FIND STRONGEST SUBCARRIERS ($\mathbf{y}[k]$)
6: $\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k] \leftarrow$ ESTIMATE AMPLITUDES ($\mathbf{Y}_w$, $r[k]$, $K$, $T$)
7: $H[k] \leftarrow$ RECONSTRUCT CHANNEL ($\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k]$)
return $H[k]$

8: procedure FIND STRONGEST SUBCARRIERS($\mathbf{y}[k]$)
9: for $i = 1: K_p$ do
10: $K = K \cup \text{arg max } ||\mathbf{y}[k]||^2_k$
11: end for
return $K$
end procedure

12: function ESTIMATE AMPLITUDES($\mathbf{Y}_w$, $r[k]$, $K$, $T$)
13: $c[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{Y}_w^\dagger r[k]$, $k \in K$ $/$ as per (21)
14: $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k] \leftarrow \text{vec2mat}(\{c[k]\}, [G_T, G_r])$ $/$ as per (22)
15: $\hat{\mathbf{G}}[k] \leftarrow$ Online $\mathbf{C}_\alpha[k]$ $/$ [c.f. Fig. 3.b]
16: $\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k] \leftarrow \text{vec}(\hat{\mathbf{G}}[k])$ $/$ as per (25)
17: return $\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k]$, $\forall k \in K$
end function

18: procedure RECONSTRUCT CHANNEL($\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k]$, $\forall k$)
19: MSE $\leftarrow \infty$
20: $i \leftarrow 1$
21: $\mathbf{I} \leftarrow$ INDEXSORTDESCEND ($\sum_{k \in K} |\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k]|$)
22: while MSE $> \epsilon$ & $i \leq L_g G_r$ do
23: $\hat{T} \leftarrow \hat{T} \cup I(i)$
24: $\hat{\xi}[k] \leftarrow \left(\mathbf{Y}_w, \hat{T}\right)^\dagger \mathbf{y}_w[k]$, $\forall k$
25: $r[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{y}_w[k] - [\mathbf{Y}_w, \hat{T}] \hat{\xi}[k]$, $\forall k$
26: MSE $\leftarrow \frac{1}{K_M L} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |r[k]|^2$
27: $i \leftarrow i + 1$
end while
28: $\tilde{L} \leftarrow i$ $/$ Estimate # paths [c.f. Section III-D]
29: $\tilde{h}^\dagger[k] \leftarrow$ per (29).
30: $\text{vec}\{\Delta^\dagger[k]\} \leftarrow \tilde{h}^\dagger[k]$\n31: $\text{vec}\{H[k]\} \leftarrow (\mathbf{A}_T \otimes \mathbf{A}_R) \text{vec}\{\Delta^\dagger[k]\}$
32: return $H[k]$
end procedure

form
$\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k] = \text{vec}(\hat{\mathbf{G}}[k])$, $\forall k \in K$ (25)

where the indices of the maximum amplitudes of $\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k]$ will be exploited for support detection.

3) Multicarrier Channel Reconstruction: This procedure corresponds to the last block depicted in the last stage of the block diagram in Fig. 3.b. It detects supports by iteratively updating residual until the MSE falls below a predetermined threshold, $\epsilon$. After initialization steps in lines 19 and 20, line 19 first sums the amplitudes of predicted $\hat{\mathbf{g}}[k]$ over the subcarriers $k \in K$ as the supports are the same for all $k$ [c.f. Section II-B1]. Then, INDEXSORTDESCEND function sorts the sum vector in descending order and return corresponding index set $\mathbf{I}$, $[\mathbf{I}] = G_T G_r$. Thereafter, the while loop between lines 22 and 28 follows the below steps until the termination condition is satisfied:

Line 23 updates the detected support set $\hat{T}$ by adding the $i^{th}$ element of ordered index set $\mathbf{I}$. Then, line 24 projects the input signal $\mathbf{y}_w[k]$ onto the subspace given by the detected support $\hat{T}$ using Weighted Least-Squares (WLS) $\left(\left[\mathbf{Y}_w, \hat{T}\right]^\dagger\right)^\dagger$, which is followed by residual update and MSE computation in lines 25 and 26, respectively. It is also worth noting that $\left(\left[\mathbf{Y}_w, \hat{T}\right]^\dagger\right)^\dagger$ corresponds to a WLS estimator, with the corresponding weights given by the inverse noise covariance matrix. Lastly, line 26 increments the loop index $i$ for the next iteration. The final value of $i = |\hat{T}|$ provides us with one of the key parameters: $L$, the estimate of the sufficient number of paths that guarantees MSE$>\epsilon$, i.e., $L$. Thereby, it is closely tied with the choice of $\epsilon$, which will be explained in details in Section III-D. We should also note that the while loop is terminated by the MSE$>\epsilon$ condition almost all the time since $G_T G_r \gg L$ as shown in Table II.

Since the support of sparse channel vectors is already estimated by $\hat{T}$, the measurement matrix can now be defined as $[\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}} \in \mathbb{C}^{ML \times \hat{T}}$ such that $[\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}} = [\Phi \mathbf{\Psi}_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}}]$. Hence, the received signal model for the $k^{th}$ subcarrier can be rewritten as

$\mathbf{y}[k] = [\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}} \hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k] + \mathbf{n}_k[k]$, (26)

where $\mathbf{n}_k[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{ML \times 1}$ represents the residual noise after estimating the channel support and $\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k] \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times 1}$ is the vector containing the channel gains to be estimated after sparse recovery. If the support estimation is accurate enough, $\mathbf{n}_k[k]$ will be approximately similar to the post-combining noise vector $\mathbf{n}_k[k]$ [11]. It is important to remark that the indices obtained by the trained DnCNN may be different from the actual channel support. In this case, the support detected $\hat{T}$ may also be different from the actual support. Likewise, the channel gains to be estimated $\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k]$, can also be different from actual vector, $\mathbf{\xi}[k] = \text{vec}(\text{diag}(\Delta[k]))$.

The mathematical model in (26) is usually considered as the General Linear Model (GLM), where the solution of $\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k]$ for real parameters is provided in [39]. For the case with complex-valued parameters, the solution is straightforward and given by

$\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k] = \left([\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}} \mathbf{C}_w^{-1} [\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}}\right)^{-1} [\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}} \mathbf{C}_w^{-1} \mathbf{y}[k]$, (27)

which can be further reduced to

$\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k] = \left([\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}}^\dagger \mathbf{C}_w^{-1} [\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}}\right)^{-1} [\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}, \hat{T}}^\dagger \mathbf{C}_w^{-1} \mathbf{y}[k]$. (28)

Therefore, $\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k]$ is considered as the Minimum Variance Unbiased (MVU) estimator for the complex parameter vector $\hat{\mathbf{\xi}}[k]$, $k = 0, \ldots, K-1$. Hence, it is unbiased and attains the Cramér-Rao Lower Bound (CRLB) if the support is correctly estimated [11].

This assumption holds since mmWave channels are known to have limited number of paths.

This is considered as Cramér-Rao Lower Bound of a Genie-aided estimation problem, in which the estimator knows the location of the nonzero taps i.e., $\mathbf{\tau}$, as if a Genie has aided the estimator with the location of the taps [40].
Once all the supports are detected, line 29 computes the sparse channel vector $\mathbf{h}^r[k]$ where its non-zero elements are obtained according to

$$
|\tilde{\mathbf{H}}^R[k]|_F = \left(\mathbf{T}_{\text{w}}, \tau\right)^T \mathbf{y}_w[k].
$$

Finally, line 32 reconstructs the channel based on (12) as follows

$$
\text{vec}\{\tilde{\mathbf{H}}[k]\} = (\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_T \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{A}}_R) \text{vec}\{\tilde{\mathbf{\Delta}}^v[k]\},
$$

such that vec\{\tilde{\mathbf{\Delta}}^v\}[k] = \mathbf{h}^r[k].

C. Algorithm 2: Refined DL-CS-CE

The sparsity of $\mathbf{h}^v[k]$ can be impaired by channel power leakage caused by the limited resolution of the chosen dictionary matrices [41]. Although the DL-CS-CE provides reasonable AoD/AoA estimates, the adopted virtual quantized dictionary matrices may not obtain the exact AoDs/AoAs that really lies in the off-grid regions of the dictionary. In this section, we combat this issue by developing a method to obtain more accurate AoDs/AoAs. This new procedure is called refined DL-CS-CE and improves NMSE performance of Algorithm 1 while reducing the incurring computational complexity at the same time.

Using the superscript $r$ for referring to the refining phase, we consider higher resolution refining dictionary matrices $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_R$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_T$ with grid sizes $G^r_t$ and $G^r_i$, respectively. Based on this notation, the refined DL-CS-CE summarized in Algorithm 2 follows the same implementation as that of Algorithm 1 except some technical differences during the channel reconstruction stage, on which we focus our attention in the sequel.

Multicarrier Channel Reconstruction and Refinement: The while loop between lines 22 and 29 refines the path components by iterative projections. In line 23, the detected support $\mathcal{I}(i)$ is first transformed into column and row indices of a $G_t \times G_i$ matrix representing the indices $(i^d_{\text{AoA}}, i^i_{\text{AoD}})$ of the detected AoAs and AoDs in the original lower resolution dictionary matrices $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_R$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_T$, respectively. In line 24, a multi-resolution fine-tuning method is applied to enhance the resolution of the detected AoAs and AoDs. The refining procedure consists of two steps as shown between lines 36 and 39 of Algorithm 2. In what follows, these steps are explained based on the column index set notation $\Omega_{K,q}$, where $K \in \{A,D\}$ represents arrival or departure, and $q \in \{d,r\}$ refer to detection or refinement, respectively.

1) The first step starts with line 36 which refine the angle components with the highest number of antennas. For instance, let’s assume that $N_c > N_t$. By increasing the resolution of $\hat{\theta}_l$ to $G^r_t \gg G_t$, the maximum projection along the refined receiving array steering matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_R$, while the corresponding AoD $\theta_l$ is fixed, can be expressed as

$$
i^v_{\text{AoA}} \leftarrow \text{arg max}_i \left[ \sum_{k \in K} \left( \left( \mathbf{T}_{\text{w},i}^r \right)^* \mathbf{y}_w[k] \right) \right]_i,
$$

where $\mathbf{T}_{\text{w},i}^r$ is an $ML_t \times G^r_t G_i$ matrix such that $\mathbf{T}_{\text{w},i}^r = \mathbf{F}_w(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_T \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_R)$, and $[\mathbf{T}_{\text{w},i}^r]_j$ is an $ML_r \times G^r_t$ sub-matrix with the column index set defined as $\Omega_{\text{t,}d} = \{i^d_{\text{AoD}} : i^r_{\text{AoA}}\}$; $i^r_{\text{AoA}}$ corresponds to the index of the previously detected AoD before refining. Then, line 37 continues with the remaining angle by increasing the resolution of $\hat{\theta}_l$ to $G^r_i \gg G_i$. Similar to (31), the maximum projection along the refined transmit array steering matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_T$, while the corresponding obtained refined AoA $\phi_l$ is fixed, can be

| Algorithm 2 Refined DL-CS-CE |
|-------------------------------|
| **Input:** $\mathbf{y}[k], \Phi, \Psi, \tilde{\mathbf{A}}_T, \tilde{\mathbf{A}}_R, \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_T, \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_R, K_p, \epsilon$ |
| **1:** $\mathbf{y}[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{D}_w^r \mathbf{y}[k]$ $\forall k$ |
| **2:** $\mathbf{r}[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{y}_w[k]$ $\forall k$ |
| **3:** $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{K} \leftarrow \{\emptyset\}$ |
| **4:** $\Phi_{w} = \mathbf{D}_w^r \Phi$ |
| **5:** $\Psi \leftarrow (\mathbf{\tilde{A}}^r_T \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_R)$ // For Detection |
| **6:** $\mathbf{Y}_w \leftarrow \mathbf{D}_w^r \mathbf{\Phi} \Psi$ |
| **7:** $\Psi^r \leftarrow (\mathbf{\tilde{A}}^r_T \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^r_R)$ // For Refining |
| **8:** $\mathbf{Y}_w^r \leftarrow \mathbf{D}_w^r \mathbf{\Phi} \Psi^r$ |
| **9:** $\mathcal{K} \leftarrow \text{FIND STRONGEST SUBCARRIERS} (\mathbf{y}[k])$ |
| **10:** $\mathbf{g}[k] \leftarrow \text{ESTIMATE AMPLITUDES} (\mathbf{Y}_w^r, \mathbf{r}[k], \mathcal{K})$ |
| **11:** $\mathbf{H}[k] \leftarrow \text{RECONSTRUCT CHANNEL & REFINISH}(\mathbf{g}[k])$ |
| **12:** **procedure** FInd STRONGEST SUBCARRIERS($\mathbf{y}[k]$) |
| **13:** Lines 9-10 in Algorithm 1 |
| **14:** **end procedure** |
| **15:** **procedure** ESTIMATE AMPLITUDES($\mathbf{Y}_w^r, \mathbf{r}[k], \mathcal{K}$) |
| **16:** Lines 13-16 in Algorithm 1 |
| **17:** **end procedure** |
| **18:** **procedure** RECONSTRUCT CHANNEL & REFINISH($\mathbf{g}[k]$) |
| **19:** $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow \text{INDEXSORTDESCEND} (\sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} |\mathbf{g}[k]|)$ |
| **20:** $\text{MSE} \leftarrow \infty$ |
| **21:** $i \leftarrow 1$ |
| **22:** while $\text{MSE} > \epsilon \& \ i \leq G_t G_i$ do |
| **23:** $(i^d_{\text{AoA}}, i^i_{\text{AoD}}) \leftarrow \text{ind2sub}((G_t, G_i), \mathcal{I}(i))$ |
| **24:** $\mathbf{\hat{T}} \leftarrow \text{REFINE} (i^d_{\text{AoA}}, i^i_{\text{AoD}})$ |
| **25:** $\mathbf{\hat{x}} \leftarrow \left( \mathbf{\mathbf{T}}_{w,\tau}^r \right)^T \mathbf{y}_w[k], \forall k$ |
| **26:** $\mathbf{r}[k] \leftarrow \mathbf{y}_w[k] - \mathbf{Y}_w^r \mathbf{\hat{x}}[k], \forall k$ |
| **27:** $\text{MSE} \leftarrow \frac{1}{KML_r} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \mathbf{r}[k] \mathbf{r}[k]^T$ |
| **28:** $i \leftarrow i + 1$ |
| **29:** **end while** |
| **30:** $\hat{\mathcal{T}} \leftarrow i$ // Estimate # paths [c.f. Section III-D] |
| **31:** $\mathbf{h}^v[k] \leftarrow \text{per in (29)}$ |
| **32:** $\text{vec}\{\tilde{\mathbf{\Delta}}^v[k]\} \leftarrow \mathbf{h}^v[k]$ |
| **33:** $\text{vec}\{\mathbf{H}[k]\} \leftarrow \Psi^r \text{vec}\{\tilde{\mathbf{\Delta}}^v[k]\}.$ |
| **34:** **return** $\mathbf{H}[k]$ |
| **35:** **procedure** REFINE($i^d_{\text{AoA}}, i^i_{\text{AoD}}$) |
| **36:** $i^v_{\text{AoA}} \leftarrow \text{per in (31)}$ |
| **37:** $i^v_{\text{AoD}} \leftarrow \text{per in (32)}$ |
| **38:** $i^v_{\text{AoA}}^* \leftarrow \text{per in (34)}$ |
| **39:** $i^v_{\text{AoD}}^* \leftarrow \text{per in (32)}$ by using $i^v_{\text{AoA}}^*$ instead of $i^v_{\text{AoA}}$ |
| **40:** $j^* \leftarrow \text{sub2ind}([G_t G_i, [i^v_{\text{AoA}}^*, i^v_{\text{AoD}}^*]])$ |
| **41:** $\mathbf{\hat{T}} \leftarrow \mathbf{\hat{T}} \cup j^*$ |
| **42:** **return** $\mathbf{\hat{T}}$ |
expressed as
\[
\hat{i}_{\text{AoA}} = \arg \max_i \left\{ \sum_{k \in K} \left| \left( \mathbf{Y}_w^T : \Omega_{\text{AoA}} \right)^* \mathbf{y}_w[k] \right| \right\},
\]
where \( \mathbf{Y}_w^T = \Phi_w \mathbf{A}_T \mathbf{A}_R \), and \( \mathbf{Y}_w^T : \Omega_{\text{AoA}} \) is an \( MLr \times G_\ell^I \) matrix such that \( \mathbf{Y}_w^T \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{A}_T \mathbf{w} \mathbf{G}_\ell = \mathbf{G}_\ell \mathbf{G}_\ell^I \mathbf{G}_\ell^I \). This assumption holds for large enough values of \( \ell \).

D. Estimation of The Sufficient Number of Paths

After estimating the channel amplitudes using the trained DnCNN, it is necessary to determine the sufficient support indices representing the number of paths needed to reconstruct the channel. To solve this detection problem, some prior information is needed to compare the received signals \( \mathbf{y}[k] \) with the reconstructed signals \( \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k] = [\mathbf{Y}]_{\hat{T}} \mathbf{x}[k] \). For instance, the noise variance is assumable to be known at the receiver in which the receiver can accurately estimate the noise variance before the training stage takes place. Hence, the received signal \( \mathbf{y}[k] \) can be approximately modeled as \( \mathbf{y}[k] \approx \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k] + \mathbf{n}_c[k] \), since \( \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k] \) is an estimate of the mean of \( \mathbf{y}[k] \).

The estimation of the noise variance can be formulated as a Maximum-Likelihood estimation problem [11], [39]:
\[
\hat{\sigma}^2_{\text{ML}} = \arg \max_{\sigma^2} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}, \sigma^2),
\]
where \( \mathbf{y} \triangleq \text{vec} \{ \mathbf{y}[0], \ldots, \mathbf{y}[K-1] \} \) represents the complete received signal, \( \mathbf{x}_\text{rec} \triangleq \text{vec} \{ \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[0], \ldots, \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[K-1] \} \) is the complete reconstructed signal, and \( \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}, \sigma^2) \) denotes the log likelihood function of \( \mathbf{y} \). This log likelihood function is given by
\[
\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}, \sigma^2) = -K MLr \ln \sigma^2 \mathbf{y}_w[k] - \ln \text{det} \{ \mathbf{C}_w \} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (\mathbf{y}[k] - \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k])^* \mathbf{C}_w^{-1} (\mathbf{y}[k] - \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k]).
\]

The ML estimator of the noise variance is then obtained by taking partial derivative with respect to \( \sigma^2 \) where \( \partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}, \sigma^2)/\partial \sigma^2 = 0 \). Hence, \( \hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 \) is given by
\[
\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{K MLr} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (\mathbf{y}[k] - \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k])^* \mathbf{C}_w^{-1} (\mathbf{y}[k] - \mathbf{x}_\text{rec}[k])
\]
where the \( MLr \times 1 \) vector \( \mathbf{r}[k] \triangleq \mathbf{y}_w[k] - \mathbf{D}_w^* \mathbf{x}_\text{rec} \) is the residual. One can note that \( \mathbf{r}[k] \) can also be expressed as \( \mathbf{r}[k] = (\mathbf{I}_{MLr} - \mathbf{P}) \mathbf{y}_w[k] \), where \( \mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{C}^{MLr \times MLr} \) represents the projection matrix given by \( \mathbf{P} = [\mathbf{Y}_w^T \mathbf{Y}_w]^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_w^T \).

Therefore, for a sufficient number of iterations, \( L \) sufficient paths are expected to be detected as those \( L \) paths correspond to the dominant \( L \) entries of \( \sum_{k \in K} \mathbf{h}^*[k] \). Moreover, the detection process is achieved when the estimated noise variance becomes equal to the true noise variance of the received signal by setting \( \epsilon \) to \( \sigma^2 \) in (17).

IV. CONVERGENCE AND COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

In this section, we analyze the convergence of the proposed algorithms to a local optimum, which is then followed by their step-by-step computational complexity analysis.

A. Convergence Analysis

We assume that the dictionary sizes \( G_t \) and \( G_r \) are large enough\(^6\) to have coarsely quantized AoAs/AoDs are accurately estimated. For the sake of simplicity, we build the convergence analysis based on the notation for Algorithm 1 to analyze the convergence, which is also applicable for Algorithm 2. In order to ensure convergence to a local optimum, the energy of the residual computed at the \( n + 1 \)th iteration should be strictly smaller than that of the previous \( n \)th iteration, i.e.,
\[
\| \mathbf{r}^{(n+1)}[k] \|^2 < \| \mathbf{r}^{(n)}[k] \|^2, \quad k = 0, \ldots, K - 1.
\]
Noting that the residual computation for SW-OMP in [11] and proposed algorithms are identical as they follow the same analysis, the residual for a given iteration \( n \) is expressed as
\[
\mathbf{r}^{(n)}[k] = (\mathbf{I}_{MLr} - \mathbf{P}^{(n)}) \mathbf{y}_w[k],
\]
where \( \mathbf{P}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{C}^{MLr \times MLr} \) corresponds to a projection matrix given by \( \mathbf{P}^{(n)} \trianglerighteq [\mathbf{Y}_w, \mathbf{F}^{(n)}, \mathbf{Y}_w, \mathbf{F}^{(n)}]^T \). It is worth mentioning that the residual \( \mathbf{r}^{(n)}[k] \) is the vector resulting from projecting \( \mathbf{y}_w[k] \) onto the subspace orthogonal to the column space of \( [\mathbf{Y}_w, \mathbf{F}^{(n)}] \). Moreover, we can use the projection onto the column space of \( [\mathbf{Y}_w, \mathbf{F}^{(n)}] \) to rewrite the condition in (38) as follows
\[
\| \mathbf{P}^{(n+1)} \mathbf{y}_w[k] \|_2^2 > \| \mathbf{P}^{(n)} \mathbf{y}_w[k] \|_2^2.
\]
Following the notation used in Algorithm 1, the term inside the \( \ell_2 \)-norm on the left side of (40) can be expressed as
\[
\mathbf{P}^{(n+1)} \mathbf{y}_w[k] = \left[ [\mathbf{Y}_w, \mathbf{F}^{(n)}] \right] (\mathbf{y}_w[k], \hat{\mathbf{p}}^{(n+1)*})^T \times \left[ [\mathbf{Y}_w, \mathbf{F}^{(n)}] \right] (\mathbf{y}_w[k], \hat{\mathbf{p}}^{(n+1)*})^T \mathbf{y}_w[k],
\]
where \( \hat{\mathbf{p}}^{(n+1)*} \) is the estimate for the support index found during the \( n + 1 \)th iteration, such that \( \hat{\mathbf{p}}^{(n+1)*} \notin \mathcal{T}^{(n)} \).

\(^6\)This assumption holds for large enough values of \( M \) and \( K \) [6].
Table III: Online Computational Complexity of Algorithm 1.

| Operation | Complexity |
|-----------|------------|
| $K_p \times c[k] = \mathbf{Y}_w r[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t M_L)$ |
| Estimation using DnCNN | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t M_L)$ |
| $\max_p \sum_{k \in K} |h^v[k]|$ | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t L)$ |
| $(K) \times x_p[k] = \left(\mathbf{Y}_w^r, r\right)^T y_u[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(2L^2 L_r M + L^3)$ |
| $(K) \times r[k] = y_u[k] - \left[\mathbf{Y}_w^r, r\right] \xi[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(K L_r M L)$ |
| MSE = $\frac{1}{N_{M_{CL}}} \sum_{k=0}^{K} r^2[k] r[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(K L_r M L)$ |
| **Overall** | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t M_L)$ |

Table IV: Online Computational Complexity of Algorithm 2.

| Operation | Complexity |
|-----------|------------|
| $K_p \times c[k] = \mathbf{Y}_w r[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t M_L)$ |
| Estimation using DnCNN | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t M_L)$ |
| $\max_p \sum_{k \in K} |h^v[k]|$ | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t L)$ |
| $\arg \max_i \sum_{k \in K} \left| \left(\mathbf{Y}_w^i, \omega \right)^* y_u[k] \right|_2$ | $\mathcal{O}(K_p M_L G_t L)$ |
| $\arg \max_i \sum_{k \in K} \left| \left(\mathbf{Y}_w^i, \omega \right)^* y_u[k] \right|_2$ | $\mathcal{O}(K_p M_L G_t L)$ |
| $(K) \times x_p[k] = \left(\mathbf{Y}_w^r, r\right)^T y_u[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(2L^2 L_r M + L^3)$ |
| $(K) \times r[k] = y_u[k] - \left[\mathbf{Y}_w^r, r\right] \xi[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(K L_r M L)$ |
| MSE = $\frac{1}{N_{M_{CL}}} \sum_{k=0}^{K} r^2[k] r[k]$ | $\mathcal{O}(K L_r M L)$ |
| **Overall** | $\mathcal{O}(K_p G_r G_t G_t L L)$ |

Table V: Online Computational Complexity of SW-OMP [11].

By using the formula for the inverse of a $2 \times 2$ block matrix (from Appendix 8B in [39]), the projection matrix $P^{(n+1)}$ can be recursively written as a function of $P^{(n)}$ as

$$
P^{(n+1)} = P^{(n)} + \frac{\left(\mathbf{I}_{M_L} - P^{(n)}\right)\left[\mathbf{Y}_w, \beta^{(n+1)}\right]^T \left[\mathbf{I}_{M_L} - P^{(n)}\right]^{-1}\left[\mathbf{I}_{M_L} - P^{(n)}\right]^{-1} \left[\mathbf{Y}_w, \beta^{(n+1)}\right]}{\Delta P^{(n+1)}}
$$

(42)

with $\Delta P^{(n+1)} \in \mathbb{C}^{M_L \times M_L}$ is another projection matrix that considers the relation between the projections at the $n^\text{th}$ and $n+1^\text{th}$ iterations. The equation in (42) can be easily shown to fulfill the orthogonality principle, i.e., $P^{(n+1)} \Delta P^{(n+1)} = 0$. The left-handed term in (40) then can be expressed as

$$
||P^{(n+1)} y_u[k]||^2 \leq ||P^{(n)} y_u[k] + \Delta P^{(n+1)} y_u[k]||^2 \\
= ||P^{(n)} y_u[k]||^2 + ||\Delta P^{(n+1)} y_u[k]||^2,
$$

(43)

which satisfies the triangle equality. Moreover, $\Delta P^{(n+1)}$ is idempotent [39] in which, using straight-forward linear algebraic manipulations, it is easy to show that $\Delta P^{(n+1)} = (\Delta P^{(n+1)})^2$. Hence, the eigen values of $\Delta P^{(n+1)}$ are either 0 or 1, thereby, $||P^{(n+1)} y_u[k]||^2 > ||P^{(n)} y_u[k]||^2$. Since the condition in (40) is satisfied, the proposed algorithms are therefore guaranteed to converge to a local optimum. Moreover, Table II shows the average number of sufficient iterations $|\bar{T}| = \bar{L}$ for a range of SNR values. The results in the table confirms that the proposed support detection method using the trained DnCNN needs few iterations to converge.

B. Computational Analysis

The computational complexity for Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2 are provided in Table III and Table IV, respectively. For comparison purposes, the overall computational complexity of SW-OMP [11] benchmark is also provided in Table V. Since some steps can be performed before running the channel estimation algorithms, we will distinguish between online and offline operations. For instance, the matrices $\mathbf{Y}_w = \mathbf{D}_w^i \mathbf{Y}_w^i$ and $\mathbf{Y}_w^i$ can be computed offline before explicit channel estimation.

Besides, the computational complexity of the proposed DnCNN arises from both online deployment and offline training. Although the online complexity is easier to compute, the offline training complexity is still an open issue due to a more involved implementation of the backpropagation process during training [42]. Therefore, we only consider the complexity of the online deployment which is based on simple matrix-vector multiplications.

For a deep neural network with $L_C$ convolutional layers [43], the total time complexity is of given by

$$
\mathcal{O} \left( \sum_{l=1}^{L_C} D_x^{(l)} D_y^{(l)} D_z^{(l)} b_x^{(l)} b_y^{(l)} c_{CL}^{(l)} c_{CL}^{(l)} \right)
$$

(44)

where $D_x^{(l)}$, $D_y^{(l)}$ and $D_z^{(l)}$ are the convolutional kernel dimensions, $b_x^{(l)}$ and $b_y^{(l)}$ are the dimensions of the $l^{th}$ convolutional layer output; and $c_{CL}^{(l)}$ is the number of filters in the $l^{th}$ layer. We should also note that DL enjoys the advantages of graphics processing units (GPUs) and parallel processing, and hence, the overall time complexity is dominated by the analytical operations performed in the proposed algorithms.

Moreover, we observe that the overall computational complexity of DL-CS-CE is lower than SW-OMP specially for small grid sizes (for instance, when $G_r$ and $G_t$ are twice the size of the transmit and receive antennas). Moreover, when the refined algorithm is applied with the new refining higher resolution $G_t^r$ and $G_r^r$, the computational complexity is still less than that of SW-OMP applied with the same higher resolution grid sizes applied ($G_t^r$ and $G_r^r$). In Section V-D, we compare the computation times of the proposed methods with that of SW-OMP.

Table VI: Simulation Parameters

| Parameter                  | Value     |
|----------------------------|-----------|
| Total size of dataset      | 10,000    |
| Total number of subcarriers ($K$) | 16        |
| Subset number of subcarriers ($K_p$) | $K/4$    |
| Operating frequency        | 60 GHz    |
| Number of TX (RX) antennas $N_t$ ($N_r$) | 16(64)   |
| Number of TX (RX) RF chains $L_t$ ($L_r$) | 2(1)    |
| Grid size of TX (RX) detecting dictionary steering vectors $G_t^r$ ($G_r^r$) | $2N_t(2N_r)$ |
| Grid size of TX (RX) refining dictionary steering vectors $G_t^r$ ($G_r^r$) | $8N_t(8N_r)$ |
| Channel paths $L$          | 16        |
| Number of delay taps of the channel $N_t$ | 16        |
| Distribution of AoAs/AoDs  | $l(0, \pi)$ |
V. SIMULATION RESULTS

This section evaluates the performance of the proposed algorithms and compares empirical results with benchmark frequency-domain channel estimation algorithms, including SW-OMP [11]. The results are obtained through extensive Monte Carlo simulations to evaluate the average normalized mean squared error (NMSE), and the ergodic rate as a function of SNR and the number of training frames $M$. The simulations are performed based on realistic channel realizations from Raymobtime channel datasets.

The main parameters used for system configuration are as follows. The phase-shifters used in both the transmitter and the receiver are assumed to have $N_Q$ quantization bits, so that the entries of the training vectors $\mathbf{f}^{(m)}_{tr}$, $\mathbf{w}^{(m)}_{tr}$, $m = 1, 2, \ldots, M$ are drawn from the set $\mathcal{A} = \{0, \frac{2\pi}{2^Q}, \ldots, \frac{2\pi(2^{Q_0}-1)}{2^Q}\}$. The number of quantization bits is set to $N_Q = 2$. The band-limiting filter $p_{\text{rc}}(t)$ is assumed to be a raised-cosine filter with roll-off factor of 0.8.

The DnCNN adopted in this work has $L_C = 3$ convolutional layers. The first convolutional layer uses $c_{CL}^1$ filters. The succeeding convolutional layer uses 64 different $3 \times 3 \times 1$ filters. The final convolutional layer uses one separate $3 \times 3 \times 64$ filter. Moreover, we divide the dataset into the training set and the validation set randomly, where the size of the training set is 70% of the total set and the validation set is the other 30%. We adopt the adaptive moment estimation (Adam) optimizer to train the DnCNN. The DnCNN is trained for 10 epochs, where 256 mini-batches are utilized in each epoch. The learning rate is set to 0.01. The training process terminates when the validation accuracy does not improve in ten consecutive iterations.

Unless stated explicitly otherwise, the default system parameters used throughout the experimental simulations are summarized in Table VI, where $U(\cdot, \cdot)$ represents the uniform distribution.

A. Comparison of the Normalized Mean Squared Errors

One of the key performance metrics for the channel estimate $\hat{\mathbf{H}}[k]$ is the NMSE, which is expressed for a given realization as

$$\text{NMSE} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \| \hat{\mathbf{H}}[k] - \mathbf{H}[k] \|^2_F}{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \| \mathbf{H}[k] \|^2_F}. \quad (45)$$

The NMSE is considered our baseline metric to compute the proposed algorithms’ performance and will be averaged over many channel realizations. The normalized CRLB (NCRLB), from which the supports are perfectly estimated [11], is also provided to compare each algorithm’s average performance with the lowest achievable NMSE.

We compare the average NMSE versus SNR obtained for the different channel estimation algorithms in Figs. 4 for a practical SNR range of $-15$ dB to 5 dB and three different lengths of training frames $M = \{100, 80, 60\}$. It is worth noting that the choice of the SNR range is based on the fact that the SNR expected in mmWave communication systems is in the order of $-20$ dB up to 0 dB. Using a large number of training frames $M$ increases performance at the cost of

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Note: Table VI and other detailed parameters are not visible in the image, but it's clear the author is referring to specific tables and figures for comparison metrics.
both higher overhead and computational complexity since the complexity of estimating the support, channel gains, and noise variance grows linearly with $L_i M$.

In Fig. 4, DL-CS-CE with refining performs the best, achieving NMSE values very close to the NCRLB (around 1dBi gap). The performance difference between SW-OMP and proposed algorithms is noticeable, which comes from the fact that SW-OMP estimates the mmWave channel dominant entries sequentially rather than at a single shot. The DL-CS-CE obviously deliver an NMSE lower than that of SW-OMP by $-3$ dB. The refined DL-CS-CE achieves even lower NMSE values below $-10$ dB especially for low SNR values such as SNR = $-15$ dB whereas SW-OMP with higher resolution grid sizes achieves NMSE around $-3$ dB and $-4$ dB for SNR = $-15$ dB.

In Fig. 5, we compare the NMSE of the DL-CS-CE with $G_t = 2N_t$ and $G_t = 2N_t$ and the refined DL-CS-CE with refining grid sizes $G_t^r = \{2N_t, 4N_t, 8N_t, 16N_t\}$ and $G_t^r = \{2N_t, 4N_t, 8N_t, 16N_t\}$. It is obvious from Fig. 5 that setting the dictionary sizes to twice the number of antennas at transmitter and receiver is not enough to estimate the exact AoDs/AoAs that lie in the off grid regions of the dictionary. At this very point, the refining method introduced in Algorithm 2 is shown to greatly enhance the NMSE performance especially for the low SNR regime, at the cost of increased computational complexity as the refining resolution increases as shown in Table IV. Hence, a trade-off exists between attaining good NMSE performance and keeping the computational complexity order low. However, even with the proposed refining approach, the complexity remains lower than that of SW-OMP for the same high resolution dictionary matrices by at least two orders of magnitude. For instance, by taking $M = 100, K_p = K/4, G_t^r = 2N_t$, and $G_t^r = 8N_t$, the complexity order of SW-OMP is $O(K(G_t^r N_t) M L_t L) = O(6.7 \times 10^9)$, while the complexity order of the refined DL-CS-CE is $O(K_p G_t^r M L_t L) = O(1.3 \times 10^7)$. Moreover, Fig. 5 shows that as the refining resolution increases (i.e., $G_t^r > 8N_t$, $G_t^r > 8N_t$), the NMSE enhancement becomes gradual as no further gains are attained from further refinement.

B. Comparisons for the Probability of Successful Support Estimation for L Paths

In Fig. 6, we compare the successful support detection probability versus SNR for the proposed DnCNN-based amplitude estimation and that of SW-OMP. It can be seen that the proposed DnCNN outperforms SW-OMP over the whole SNR range as the trained DnCNN can efficiently denoise the correlated input image and obtain a sparse matrix of the channel amplitudes. From this denoised sparse matrix, the indices of the supports (i.e., dominant entries of the obtained sparse matrix) are detected. Moreover, we show that when we set $K_p \ll K$, the support detection is not affected, since as shown in Section II-B1 $\lambda[k]$ have the same support for all $k$. Therefore, we can reduce computational complexity since there is no need to compute the correlation step (given in (21)) for all subcarriers. Thus, a smaller subset of subcarriers can also provide a high probability of correct support detection.

C. Spectral Efficiency Comparison

Another key performance metric is the spectral efficiency, which is computed by assuming fully-digital precoding and combining. In this way, using estimates for the $N_s$ dominant left and right singular vectors of the channel estimate gives $K$ parallel effective channels $H_{\text{eff}}[k] = [U[k]]^* H[k] [V[k]]$ for $k = 1, \ldots, N_s$. Accordingly, the average spectral efficiency can be expressed as

$$ R = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N_s} \log_2 \left(1 + \frac{\text{SNR}}{N_t} \lambda_n(H_{\text{eff}}[k])^2 \right), \quad (46) $$

with $\lambda_n(H_{\text{eff}}[k])$, $n = 1, \ldots, N_s$ the eigenvalues of each effective channel $H_{\text{eff}}[k]$.

In Fig. 7, we show the achievable spectral efficiency as a function of the SNR for the different channel estimation algorithms. The proposed DL-CS-CE approach provides at least 3.6% performance improvement over the SW-OMP.
Fig. 7: Spectral efficiency vs. SNR ($N_t = 16$, $N_r = 64$, $K = 16$, $M = 100$).

Fig. 8: Spectral efficiency vs. $M$ training lengths ($N_t = 16$, $N_r = 64$, $K = 16$, SNR = $\{-15, 0\}$ dB).

The refined DL-CS-CE provides near-optimal achievable rates with at least 12.6% performance improvement over the other schemes. The spectral efficiency gap of the different schemes is smaller than that of the NMSE gap, since the NMSE performance is much more sensitive to the success rate of the sparse recovery. However, the spectral efficiency performance is determined by the beamforming gain and is less sensitive to the success rate of the sparse recovery.

In Fig. 8, we show the achievable spectral efficiency as a function of different training lengths for the proposed schemes under different SNRs. We observe that using $M > 40$ frames does not significantly improve performance, which leverages the robustness of the two proposed approaches. Simulations also show that near-optimal achievable rates can be achieved by using a reasonable number of frames, i.e., $60 \leq M \leq 100$. Therefore, with the proposed schemes, we can save in training overhead.

### Table VII: Average Running Time for $M = 100$ and SNR = $-5$ dB

| Algorithm                          | Run time [seconds] |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| DL-CS-CE $G_r = 2N_t$ and $G_t = 2N_t$ | 0.144               |
| Refined DL-CS-CE $G_r = 2N_t$ and $G_t = 2N_t$ | 0.201               |
| Refined DL-CS-CE $G_r = 8N_t$ and $G_t = 8N_t$ | 0.404               |
| SW-OMP for grids $G_r = 2N_t$ and $G_t = 2N_t$ | 0.25                |
| SW-OMP for grids $G_r = 8N_t$ and $G_t = 8N_t$ | 0.97                |

### D. Time Complexity Analysis

Table VII shows online estimation stage computational times of the proposed frameworks and SW-OMP [11]. SW-OMP is the slowest to solve the inherent optimization problem, especially for high-resolution dictionary matrices. The running time of the DL-CS-CE without refining exhibits shorter computational times than the SW-OMP algorithm. However, for fair comparison when refining is applied, we compare the running time of the refined DL-CS-CE with higher resolution SW-OMP where $G_r = G'_r = 8N_t$ and $G_t = G'_t = 8N_t$, and it is shown that the refined DL-CS-CE takes less time to perform the channel estimation. Hence, we conclude that the proposed DL-CS-CE frameworks are computationally efficient and tolerant, especially for higher resolution dictionary matrices.

### VI. Conclusion

In this work, we have proposed two DL-CS-based frequency-selective channel estimation approaches for milliWave wideband communication systems under hybrid architectures. The developed algorithms are based on joint-sparse recovery to exploit information on the common basis shared for every subcarrier. Compared to the state-of-the-art channel estimation techniques that estimate supports iteratively, the proposed solutions reduce computational complexity and estimation error by detecting all supports simultaneously. Simulation results have shown that the DL-CS-CE and the refined DL-CS-CE schemes have better channel estimation performance than existing schemes using a reasonably small training length and low complexity order. It has also been shown that a small number of subcarriers are sufficient for successful support detection during the deep learning prediction phase. Thus, the proposed schemes are able to attain good NMSE performance with low computational complexity.

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