Math 295 - Topics in Discrete Probability: Random Structures and Algorithms

Taught by David Gamarnik Notes by Dongryul Kim

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;+instructor+;;+meetingtimes+;;+textbook+;;+enrolled+;;+grading+;;+courseassistants+;

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1 September 5, 2018

A graduate-level introductory course in probability will be enough. We will start with large deviations theory. Next we will talk about compressive sensing, using linear programming methods. Then we will dive into the theory of random graphs, discussing configuration models and component structures. We will introduce the differential equations method to analyze some combinatorial optimization problems. The last part of the course will be devoted to the Markov random field, which is a model with great universality. There are going to be five to six homeworks, and a final project done in teams.

1.1 Chernoff bound

If S_n is a random variable, we want to say something about the probability of S_n being unusually large:

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge y) \approx \exp(-\Theta n).$$

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independent identically distributed random variables with $\mathbb{E} X_1 = \mu$. For

$$S_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

and $a > \mu$, we want to estimate $\mathbb{P}(S_n \geq a) \to 0$. By Chebyshev, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \le \frac{\operatorname{Var}(X_1)}{n(a-\mu)^2} = O(n^{-1}).$$

But this is not the correct speed.

Define the moment generating function

$$M(\theta) = \mathbb{E}e^{\theta X_1},$$

defined on the domain

$$D_X = \{\theta : M(\theta) < \infty\}.$$

This is a nonempty interval containing 0. This is because $\theta_1 < \theta_2 < \theta_3$ then $e^{\theta_2 X}$ can be bound by a linear combination of $e^{\theta_1 X}$ and $e^{\theta_3 X}$.

Let $\theta > 0$ be in the domain, so that $M(\theta) < \infty$. Fix $a > \mu = \mathbb{E}X_1$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) = \mathbb{P}(e^{\theta n S_n} \ge e^{\theta n a}).$$

By Markov, we can bound

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \le e^{n\theta a} M^n(\theta) = \left(\frac{M(\theta)}{e^{\theta a}}\right)^n.$$

Now the question is whether we can make the ratio smaller than 1. We know that $M(\theta)$ is differentiable in the interior of D_X . In fact, we have $\dot{M}(\theta) = \mathbb{E} X e^{\theta X}$ by the dominated convergence theorem. Then we can compute

$$\frac{M(\theta)}{e^{\theta a}}\Big|_{\theta=0}=1,\quad \frac{d}{d\theta}\frac{M(\theta)}{e^{\theta a}}\Big|_{\theta=0}=\mu-a<0.$$

This means that there exists a θ' such that $M(\theta') < e^{\theta' a}$. So we get a bound of the form

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n > a) < \lambda^n, \quad \lambda < 1.$$

We can rewrite this bound as

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \le \exp(-n(\theta a - \log M(\theta))).$$

One thing to observe is that we have the freedom to chose $\theta > 0$. So we should use the θ that gives us the best bound. This leads us to the concept of Legendre transformation.

Definition 1.1. We define the **Legendre transformation** as

$$I(a) = \sup(\theta a - \log M(\theta)), \quad I_+(a) = \sup_{\theta \geq 0} (\theta a - \log M(\theta)), \quad I_-(a) = \sup_{\theta \leq 0} (\theta a - \log M(\theta)).$$

This takes values in $\mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$.

Then the Chernoff bound states that

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \le \exp(-nI_+(a)).$$

Actually, we have $I(a) = I_{+}(a)$ if $a > \mu$ and $I(a) = I_{-}(a)$ if $a < \mu$. So we just have

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \le \exp(-nI(a)).$$

But the highlight of large deviations theory is that this is a tight bound. This requires a proof.

Example 1.2. Let us X is exponentially distributed, i.e., $\mathbb{P}(X > t) = e^{-\lambda t}$. Then the moment generating function is

$$D_X = (-\infty, \lambda), \quad M(\theta) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \theta}.$$

Then we have

$$I(a) = a\lambda - 1 - \log \lambda - \log a$$

for all $a > \mu = \lambda^{-1}$.

- **Proposition 1.3.** (1) The Legendre transformation I is convex, nonnegative. Moreover, $I(\mu) = 0$ and it is non-decreasing on $[\mu, +\infty)$, non-increasing on $(-\infty, \mu]$. Finally, $I(a) = I_+(a)$ for all $a \ge \mu$ and $I(a) = I_0(a)$ for all $a \le \mu$.
 - (2) Assume $D_X = \mathbb{R}$, and also that the domain of X is \mathbb{R} , i.e., $\mathbb{P}(X \ge k) > 0$ and $\mathbb{P}(X \le -k) > 0$ for all k. Then there exists a $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$I(a) = \sup_{\theta} (\theta a - \log M(\theta)) = \theta_0 a - \log M(\theta_0).$$

Moreover, θ_0 satisfies the identity $a = \dot{M}(\theta_0)/M(\theta_0)$.

Proof. (1) Convexity can be proved directly. $I(\mu) = 0$ because Jensen's inequality gives $\log \mathbb{E} e^{\theta X} \ge \log e^{\theta \mathbb{E} X} = \theta \mu$. Monotonicity follows from convexity.

Now we want to establish that

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \approx \exp(-nI(a))$$

for $a \geq \mu$. For a fixed $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, what is $\mathbb{P}(S_n \in A)$? Large deviations theory roughly says that we have

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) \approx \exp(-n \inf_{a \in A} I(a)).$$

It just happens to be that when A is an half-line, the a that minimizes I(a) is the endpoint.

We want to prove that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) = -\inf_{a \in A} I(a).$$

This is not true, as formulated. Suppose $X_1 = \pm 1$ and $A = \{0\}$. Then we have $\mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) = 0$ for n odd, and $\mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) = \mathbb{P}(S_n = 0) \approx O(n^{-1/2})$ by the central limit theorem. So the sequence oscillates between 0 and $-\infty$. The topology of the set A matters.

Theorem 1.4 (Cramer's theorem). 1. For a closed set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) \le -\inf_{a \in A} I(a).$$

2. For an open set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) \ge -\inf_{a \in A} I(a).$$

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The setup is that we have independent identically distributed X_1, \ldots, X_n with common $M(\theta) = \mathbb{E}e^{\theta X}$. We wanted to look at

$$S_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

and $\mu = \mathbb{E}X_1$ with $a > \mu$. We showed that

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \ge a) \le \exp(-nI(a)), \quad I(a) = \sup_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}} (\theta a - \log M(\theta)).$$

2.1 Large deviations principle

But our goal is to establish more than this.

Theorem 2.1 (Cramer's theorem). (a) For every closed set $F \subseteq \mathbb{R}$,

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(S_n \in F) \le -\inf_{a \in F} I(a).$$

(b) For every open set $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(S_n \in F) \ge -\inf_{a \in U} I(a).$$

Proof. (a) We can reduce it to the semi-interval case. Define

$$\alpha_{+} = \min\{x \in F \cap (\mu, +\infty)\}, \quad \alpha_{-} = \max\{x \in F \cap (-\infty, \mu)\}.$$

Then we have

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \in F) < \mathbb{P}(S_n > \alpha_+) + \mathbb{P}(S_n < \alpha_-) < \exp(-nI(\alpha_+)) + \exp(-nI(\alpha_-)).$$

(b) This is the clever part, and we introduce the idea of a change of measure, or exponential tilting. For simplicity, assume $M(\theta) < \infty$ for all θ , and also $\mathbb{P}(X \leq -k) > 0$ and $\mathbb{P}(X \geq k) > 0$ for all k. Recall that for all a, there exists a $\theta_0(a)$ such that

$$I(a) = \theta_0 a - \log M(\theta_0), \quad a = \frac{\dot{M}(\theta_0)}{M(\theta_0)}.$$

Fix any small $\epsilon > 0$. We can find $y \in U$ such that

$$I(y) \le \inf_{a \in U} I(a) + \epsilon.$$

Then there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $(y - \delta, y + \delta) \subseteq U$, and we will only look at the probability that the average lands in this interval.

Find θ_0 such that $I(y) = \theta_0 y - \log M(\theta)$. Now we define a new random variable X_{θ_0} defined as

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{\theta_0} \le z) = \frac{\mathbb{E}e^{\theta_0 X} \mathbb{1}_{\{X \le z\}}}{M(\theta_0)}.$$

Intuitively, you're multiplying the measure by $\theta_0 X$ and renormalizing it. The fundamental fact is that the mean of this new distribution is y. This is because if $f_X(t)$ is the density of the original measure, then

$$\mathbb{E}X_{\theta_0} = \frac{1}{M(\theta_0)} \int z e^{\theta_0 z} f_X(z) = \frac{\dot{M}(\theta_0)}{M(\theta_0)} = y.$$

Now, our goal was to give a lower bound for $\mathbb{P}(S_n \in (y - \delta, y + \delta))$. We can do exponential tilting and get

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \in (y - \delta, y + \delta)) = \int_{\left|\frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n} - y\right| < \delta} d\mathbb{P}(x_1) \cdots d\mathbb{P}(x_n)$$

$$= M^n(\theta_0) \int_{\dots} \exp(-\theta_0 (x_1 + \dots + x_n)) \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\exp(\theta_0 x_i)}{M(\theta_0)} d\mathbb{P}(x_i)$$

$$\geq \exp(-\theta_0 y_n - |\theta_0| dn) M^n(\theta_0) \int_{\dots} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\exp(\theta_0 x_i) d\mathbb{P}(x_i)}{M(\theta_0)}$$

$$= \exp(-\theta_0 y_n - |\theta_0| dn) M^n(\theta_0) \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{X_1^{\theta_0} + \dots + X_n^{\theta_0}}{n} - y\right| < \delta\right).$$

This thing on the right hand side is covered by the law of large numbers. So

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(S_n \in (y-\delta, y+\delta)) \ge \theta_0 y + |\theta_0| \delta - \log M(\theta_0) = -I(y) - |\theta_0| \delta.$$

Now we take
$$\delta \to 0$$
.

This is a multidimensional general theory, but let me describe one thing. Consider independent identically distributed $X_1, \ldots, X_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and consider

$$S_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}.$$

Then we should have

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \in A) \approx \exp(-n \inf_{a \in A} I(a)),$$

where

$$I(a) = \sup_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} (\langle \theta, a \rangle - \log \mathbb{E} e^{\langle \theta, X \rangle}).$$

2.2 Linear regression

Let us change gears and discuss applications. Suppose we have a model of the form

$$y = x\beta + w,$$

where y, w are scalars and $x, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$. We are given samples of x, y, and we want to extract β . In the context of regressions, "big data" has a specific meaning.

In the classical setting, p is small or O(1). But in modern applications, p is very large and comparable to (or larger than) sample size n. (Medical history, cholesterol level one minutes ago, two minutes ago, so on.) In the classical case, we can take

$$\hat{\beta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \langle x_i, \beta \rangle)^2.$$

But if p is large, here is a whole space of possible β with zero difference. So it becomes a degenerate system and you don't learn anything.

So we need to something called regularization. This means restricting the possibility of β in some ways. So here is the setup we are interested in. Consider

$$Y = X\beta, \quad Y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p},$$

where $p \gg n$. We have $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ such that $\|\beta\|_0 \leq S$ with s < p, where $\|\beta\|_0$ is the cardinality of i such that $\beta_i \neq 0$. (We also have $\|\beta\|_0 = \lim_{q \to 0} \|\beta\|_q$.) The question is to find β given X and Y.

One possibility is to solve the following problem. Find the vector with the smallest $\|-\|_0$ solving the equation. Then "hope" that this solution $\hat{\beta}_0$ is what we are looking for. The caveat is that this is a very hard problem, because it is non-convex optimization. Indeed, it is NP-hard. So the idea of compressive sensing was instead solve the following:

Minimize
$$\|\beta\|_1$$
 subject to $Y = X\beta$.

This becomes a linear programming problem, and we hope that the answer is what we are looking for. If X satisfies the "Restrictive Isometry Property", then we are good.

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We wanted to see when it is the case when we can recover β from

$$Y = X\beta, \quad X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}, \quad Y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

We introduce some number s < p called **sparsity**, and then we will look for solutions with sparsity s, i.e.,

$$\|\beta\|_0 \leq s$$
.

Given $Y = X\beta$, we want to recover β from (X, Y). The norm $\|\beta\|_0$ is bad, so we instead consider the problem of:

Minimize $||z||_1$ subject to Xz = Y.

3.1 Restricted isometry property

Definition 3.1. We say that X satisfies the **restricted isometry property(RIP)** with $\delta \in (0,1)$ and sparsity s < p, if for every s-sparse $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$,

$$\left| \|X\beta\|_2^2 - \|\beta\|_2^2 \right| \le \delta \|\beta\|_2^2.$$

This means that if you take any s columns in X, then this matrix is an isometry up to a factor.

So the main theorem is the following:

Theorem 3.2. Suppose X is RIP with $\delta = \delta_{2s} < \frac{1}{3}$. Then for every s-sparse $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$, the solution to

Minimize
$$||z||_1$$
 subject to $Xz = X\beta$

is unique and is β .

We will prove this in two steps.

Lemma 3.3. Suppose for all $0 \neq v$ such that Xv = 0, and for all $S \subseteq [p]$ with $|S| \leq s$, it holds that $||v_S||_1 < \frac{1}{2}||v||_1$. Then the unique solution of the above linear programming problem is $z = \beta$. (Here we are only assuming $||\beta||_0 \leq s$.)

Proof. Fix an s-sparse $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$. Consider any $z \neq \beta$ such that $Xz = X\beta$. We want to show that

$$||z||_1 > ||\beta||_1$$
.

(There is no sparsity assumption on z.) Observe that $X(z-\beta)=0$. Let S be the support of β (so that $|S|\leq s$), and consider its complement $S^c=[p]\setminus S$. Then

$$\|(z-\beta)_S\|_1 < \frac{1}{2}\|z-\beta\|_1$$

because $X(z - \beta) = 0$. Then we can write

$$||z - \beta||_1 = ||(z - \beta)_S||_1 + ||(z - \beta)_{S^c}||_1,$$

and this implies

$$||z_S - \beta||_1 = ||(z - \beta)_S||_1 < ||(z - \beta)_{S^c}||_1 = ||z_{S^c}||_1.$$

Then by the triangle inequality,

$$\|\beta\|_1 \le \|z_S - \beta\|_1 + \|z_S\| < \|z_{S^c}\|_1 + \|z_S\|_1 = \|z\|_1.$$

This finishes the proof.

Lemma 3.4. If X is RIP with $\delta_{2s} < \frac{1}{3}$, then any nonzero solution to Xv = 0 satisfies $||v_S||_1 < \frac{1}{2}||v||_1$ for any |S| = s.

Proof. Let

$$\rho = \frac{2\delta_{2s}}{1 - \delta_{2s}} < 1.$$

Therefore it suffices to show that

$$||v||_1 \le \frac{\rho}{2} ||v||_1$$

for all Xv = 0. Moreover, because $||v_S||_1 \le \sqrt{s}||v_S||_2$, it suffices to show that

$$||v_S||_2 \le \frac{\rho}{2\sqrt{s}} ||v||_1.$$

Let $S_0 \subseteq [p]$ be the set of coordinates corresponding to the s largest absolute values, so that $||S_0|| = s$. Likewise, let S_1, S_2, \ldots be the next largest s coordinates. Then we can always write

$$v = v_{S_0} + v_{S_1} + \dots + v_{S_m}$$

and we want to show that

$$||v_{S_0}|| \le \frac{\rho}{2\sqrt{s}} ||v||_1.$$

Because v is in the null space, we have

$$Xv_{S_0} = -\sum_{i=1}^m Xv_{S_i}.$$

By the RIP property, we have

$$||v_{S_0}||_2^2 \le \frac{1}{1 - \delta_{2S}} ||Xv_{S_0}||_2^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \delta_{2s}} \sum_{i=1}^m -\langle Xv_{S_0}, Xv_{S_i} \rangle.$$

Under the assumptions here, the following is true: for all $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^p$ which are disjoint and s-sparse,

$$|\langle Xu, Xv\rangle| \le \delta_{2s} ||u||_2 ||v||_2.$$

So we get

$$||v_{S_0}||_2^2 \le \frac{\delta_{2s}}{1 - \delta_{2s}} \sum_{i=1}^m ||Xv_{S_0}||_2 ||Xv_{S_i}||_2$$

and then

$$||v_{S_0}||_2 \le \frac{\rho}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m ||v_{S_i}||_2.$$

Observe that

$$||v_{S_i}||_2 \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{s}} ||v_{S_{i-1}}||_1$$

because all coordinates of v_{S_i} are smaller than coordinates of $v_{S_{i-1}}$. Now we get

$$||v_{S_0}||_2 \le \frac{\rho}{2\sqrt{s}} \sum_{i=1}^m v_{S_{i-1}} \le \frac{\rho}{2\sqrt{s}} ||v||_1.$$

This finishes the proof.

Next time, we will suppose that $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ consists of independent identical distributions N(0,1). Then we will show that X is RIP provided that $n = \Theta(s \log(p/s))$. The key is the we can allow $n \ll p$. So you can do regression with very little samples.

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