Lecture 2

July 1, 2025

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- One of the most general dependence structures in probability.
- ► Allow relaxing independence assumptions in classical limit theorems.

Partial sums $S_k = \sum_{i=1}^k X_i$ of an iid zero-mean sequence $\{X_k\}$.

$$\mathbb{E}\left(S_{k+1}|X_1,\ldots,X_k\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k+1}X_i|X_1,\ldots,X_k\right)$$

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▶ Theorem 7 (Azuma–Hoeffding). Let $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)^{\top}$ be a random vector and let Z = f(X). Consider the Doob's martingale

$$Y_i := \mathbb{E}_i(Z) := \mathbb{E}(Z|X_1,\ldots,X_i)$$

and let $\Delta_i = Y_i - Y_{i-1}$. Assume that

$$\mathbb{E}_{i-1}\left(e^{\lambda\Delta_i}\right) \leq e^{\sigma_i^2\lambda^2/2}, \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$
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In particular, we have the tail bound

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|Z - \mathbb{E}(Z)| \geq t\right) \leq 2 \exp\left(-rac{t^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

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Repeating the process, we get

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ight) \, = \, \exp\left(rac{\lambda^2\sigma^2}{2}
ight).$$

▶ Taking \mathbb{E}_{n-2} of both sides:

$$\mathbb{E}_{n-2}\left(e^{\lambda S_n}\right) \leq e^{\sigma_n^2 \lambda^2/2} \mathbb{E}_{n-2}(e^{\lambda S_{n-1}}) \leq e^{\lambda S_{n-2}} e^{(\sigma_n^2 + \sigma_{n-1}^2)\lambda^2/2}$$

► Repeating the process, we get

$$\mathbb{E}_0\left(e^{\lambda S_n}\right) \, \leq \, \exp\left(\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2\right) \, = \, \exp\left(\frac{\lambda^2 \sigma^2}{2}\right).$$

▶ Or

$$\mathbb{E}\left(e^{\lambda(Z-\mathbb{E}(Z))}\right) \, \leq \, \exp\left(\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2\right) \, = \, \exp\left(\frac{\lambda^2 \sigma^2}{2}\right).$$

and the claim follows.

Bounded difference inequality

Conditional sub-G. assump. holds under bounded difference property:

```
|f(x_1,\ldots,x_{i-1},x_i,x_{i+1},\ldots,x_n)-f(x_1,\ldots,x_{i-1},x_i',x_{i+1},\ldots,x_n)| \le L_i (2)
```

for all $x_1, \ldots, x_n, x_i' \in \mathcal{X}$ and some constants (L_1, \ldots, L_n) .

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$$\mathbb{P}\left(|f(X) - \mathbb{E}(f(X))| \geq t\right) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^2}\right), \ t \geq 0.$$

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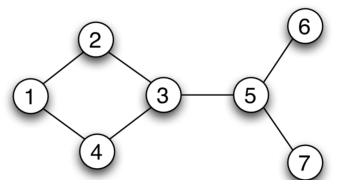
Example. $f(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i, X_i \in [a_i, b_i].$

Clique number of Erdős-Rényi

Let *G* be an undirected graph on *n* nodes.

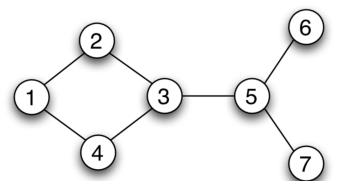
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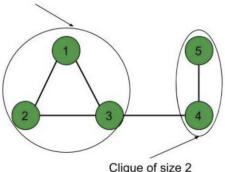


► The edge set is $E(G) := \{\{1,2\},\{1,4\},\{2,3\},\{3,4\},\{3,5\},\{5,6\},\{5,7\}\}.$

► A clique in *G* is a complete (induced) sub-graph.

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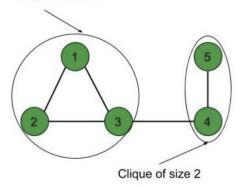
Clique of size 3



Clique of size 2

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Clique of size 3



▶ Clique number of G—denoted as $\omega(G)$ —is the size of the largest clique(s).

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$$|\omega(G) - \omega(G')| \leq 1.$$

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▶ A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is *L*-Lipschitz w.r.t. $\| \cdot \|_2$ if

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- ▶ The function $f:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is not Lipschitz.

▶ Theorem 9 (Gaussian concentration). Let $X \sim N(0, I_n)$ be a standard Gaussian vector and assume that $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is L-Lipschitz w.r.t. the Euclidean norm. Then,

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- Deep result, no easy proof!
- Has far-reaching consequences.

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- ▶ **Proposition 6.** Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ be a random matrix with iid N(0,1) entries. Then,

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▶ It remains to characterize $\mathbb{E}(\sigma_k(X))$.

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- ightharpoonup q = 1 gives the ℓ_1 ball.
- ▶ q = 0 gives the ℓ_0 ball, same as hard sparsity:

$$\|\theta^*\|_0 := |S(\theta^*)|.$$

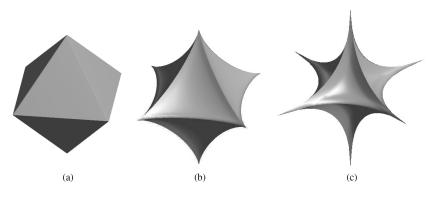


Figure 7.1 Illustrations of the ℓ_q -"balls" for different choices of the parameter $q \in (0, 1]$. (a) For q = 1, the set $\mathbb{B}_1(R_q)$ corresponds to the usual ℓ_1 -ball shown here. (b) For q = 0.75, the ball is a non-convex set obtained by collapsing the faces of the ℓ_1 -ball towards the origin. (c) For q = 0.5, the set becomes more "spiky", and it collapses into the hard sparsity constraint as $q \to 0^+$. As shown in Exercise 7.2(a), for all $q \in (0, 1]$, the set $\mathbb{B}_q(1)$ is star-shaped around the origin.

Compressed sensing or the equation $y = X\theta^*$

▶ When can we solve the equation $y = X\theta^*$?

The classical answer

The classical theory of linear algebra, which we learn as undergraduates, is as follows:

If there are at least as many equations as unknowns $(n \ge d)$, and X has full rank, then the problem is determined or overdetermined, and one can easily solve $y = X\theta$ uniquely (e.g. by gaussian elimination).

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- If there are at least as many equations as unknowns $(n \ge d)$, and X has full rank, then the problem is determined or overdetermined, and one can easily solve $y = X\theta$ uniquely (e.g. by gaussian elimination).
- If there are fewer equations than unknowns (n < d), then the problem is underdetermined even when X has full rank. Knowledge of $y = X\theta$ restricts θ to an (affine) subspace of \mathbb{R}^d , but does not determine θ completely.

Sparse recovery

It is thus of interest to obtain a good estimator for underdetermined problems such as $X\theta^* = y$ in the case in which θ^* is expected to be "spiky" - that is, concentrated in only a few of its coordinates.

Sparse recovery

- lt is thus of interest to obtain a good estimator for underdetermined problems such as $X\theta^* = y$ in the case in which θ^* is expected to be "spiky" that is, concentrated in only a few of its coordinates.
- ▶ A model case occurs when θ^* is known to be *s*-sparse for some $1 \le s \le d$, which means that at most *s* of the coefficients of θ^* can be non-zero.

Sparse recovery

Sparsity is a simple but effective model for many real-life signals. For instance, an image may be many megapixels in size, but when viewed in the right basis (e.g. a wavelet basis), many of the coefficients may be negligible, and so the image may be compressible into a file of much smaller size without seriously affecting the image quality. In other words, many images are effectively sparse in the wavelet basis.

Sparsity helps!

Intuitively, if a signal $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is s-sparse, then it should only have s degrees of freedom rather than d. In principle, one should now only need s measurements or so to reconstruct θ^* , rather than d.

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Such situations can arise in:

Imaging.

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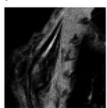
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- Imaging.
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- ► MRI.
- Astronomy.

Sparsity helps

Fully sampled





Sparse reconstruction from under-sampled observations





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- The resulting problem is convex.

► In fact, can be written as a linear program. Notice that the problem is equivalent to

$$\min_{s} \sum_{j=1}^{d} s_{j}$$
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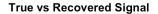
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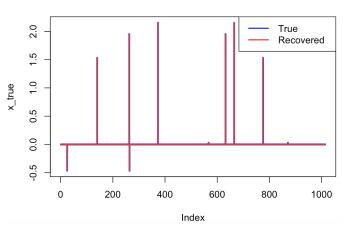
Global solutions can be obtained very efficiently.

Basis pursuit example

```
library(CVXR)
3
   set.seed(123)
   n <- 1014
                    # Signal dimension
   m <- 64 # Number of measurements
   A <- matrix(rnorm(m * n), m, n) # Measurement matrix
   x_true <- rep(0, n)
   x_true[sample(1:n, 10)] <- rnorm(5) # Sparse true signal
   plot(x_true)
   b <- A %*% x true
  x <- Variable(n)
.8 objective <- Minimize(norm1(x))</pre>
 constraints <- list(A %*% x == b)
   problem <- Problem(objective, constraints)</pre>
22 result <- solve(problem)
23 x_est <- result$aetValue(x)</pre>
24
25
26 # Plot results
27 plot(x_true, type = "h", lwd = 3, col = "blue", ylim = range(c(x_true, x_est)),
        main = "True vs Recovered Signal")
29 lines(x_est, type = "h", col = "red", lwd = 2)
30 legend("topright", legend = c("True", "Recovered"), col = c("blue", "red"), lwd = 2)
31
32 mean((x_est - x_true)^2)
```

Basis pursuit example





Terence Tao and Emmanuel Candes have been celebrated for understanding of compressed sensing



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Theorem

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- For any $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with support $\subset S$, the basis pursuit program applied to the data $(X, y = X\theta^*)$ has unique solution $\hat{\theta} = \theta^*$.
- The restricted null space (RNS) property holds, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{C}(S) \cap \ker(X) = \{0\}.$$

Recall that $ker(X) = \{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d : X\theta = 0\}.$

► Consider the tangent cone to the ℓ_1 ball (of radius $\|\theta^*\|_1$) at θ^* :

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$$\begin{aligned} \|\Delta_{\mathcal{S}^c}\|_1 &\leq \sup_{\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{\|\theta_{\mathcal{S}}^*\|_1 - \|\Delta_{\mathcal{S}} + \theta_{\mathcal{S}}^*\|_1\} \\ &= \|\Delta_{\mathcal{S}}\|_1 \end{aligned}$$

by the triangle inequality and setting $\theta_S^* = -\Delta_S$.