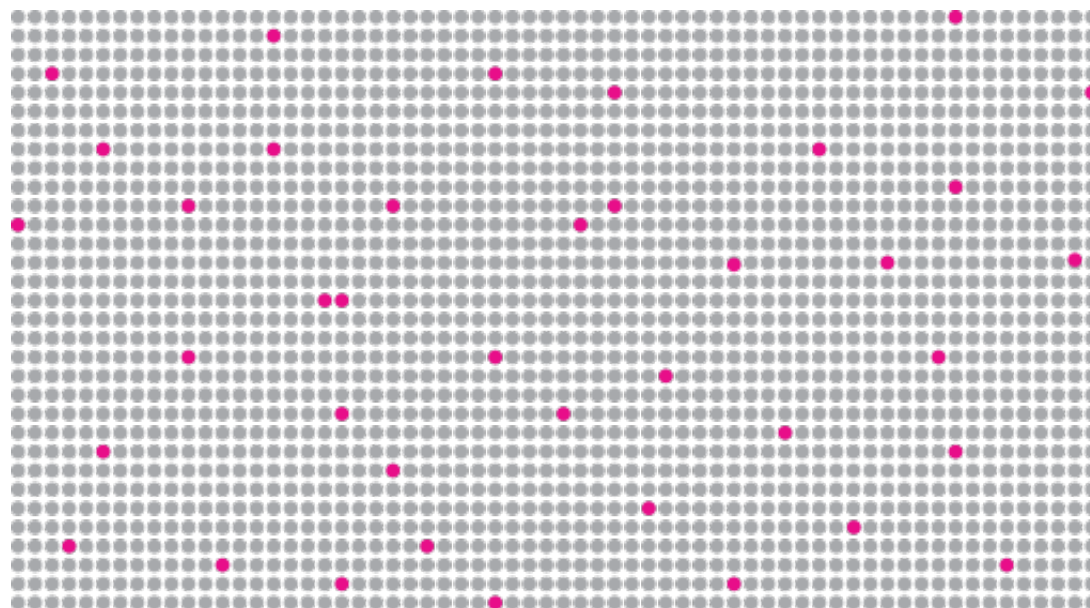
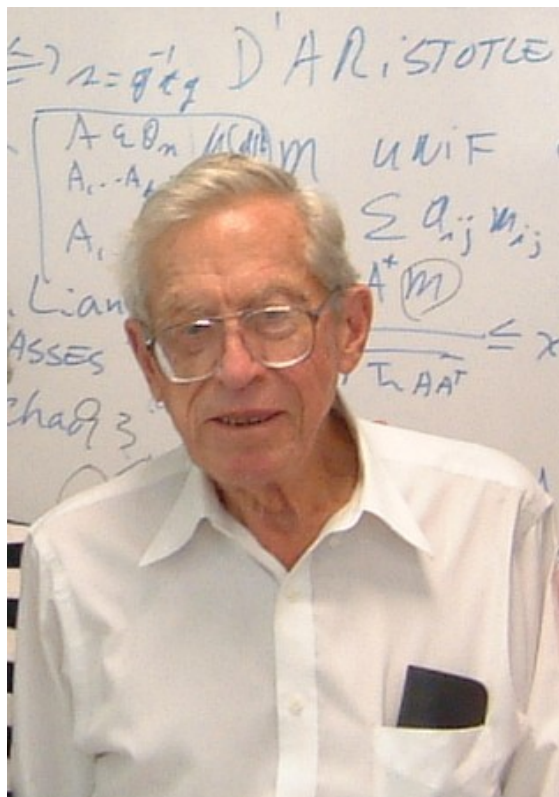


# Steining the Steiner formula



Ivan Nourdin (based on a joint work  
with L. Goldstein and G. Peccati)



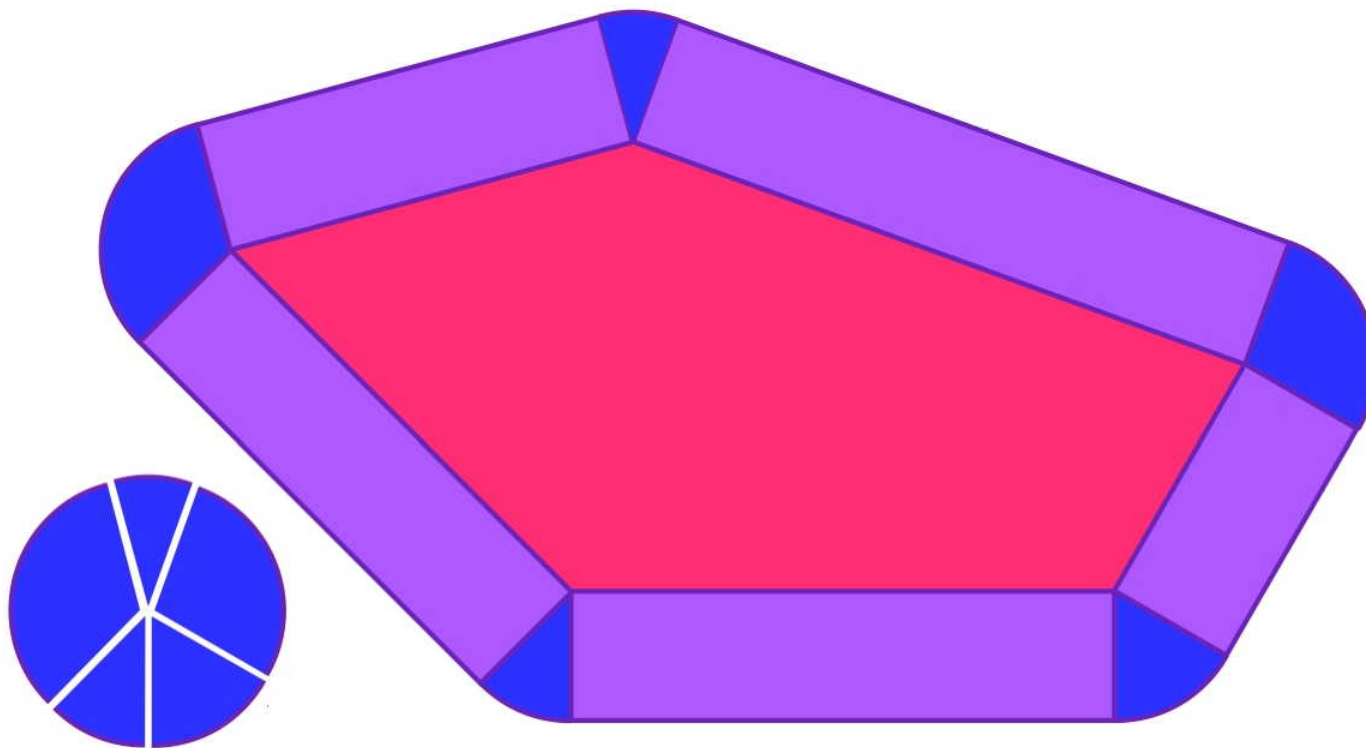
**Stein's method:** If  $F$  is a square integrable real-valued random variable such that  $E[F] = 0$  and if  $N \sim N(0, 1)$ , then

$$d_{TV}(F, N) \leq \sup_{\phi} |E[\phi'(F)] - E[F\phi(F)]|,$$

where the supremum runs over all  $C^1$  functions  $\phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $\|\phi'\|_{\infty} \leq 2$ .

**Steiner formula:** if  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is a convex body, then

$$\text{Vol}(x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \text{dist}^2(x, K) \leq \lambda) = \sum_{k=0}^d \lambda^{d-k} \text{Vol}(B_{d-k}) \mathcal{V}_k(K).$$



- Let  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be unknown, where  $d$  is meant to be large ( $d = 100$ ,  $d = 1000$ ,  $d = 10^6$ , etc.)

**Problem:** We want to *acquire*  $x_0$  with the *smallest* possible number of *linear* measurements.

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- One makes  $m$  linear measurements of  $x_0$ :  $\langle a_1, x_0 \rangle, \dots, \langle a_m, x_0 \rangle$ .
- That is, one observes  $Ax_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , where  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_m \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ .

Notations that will be used throughout the talk:

- $d$  is the ambient dimension
- $m$  is the number of measurements
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$  is the measurement matrix

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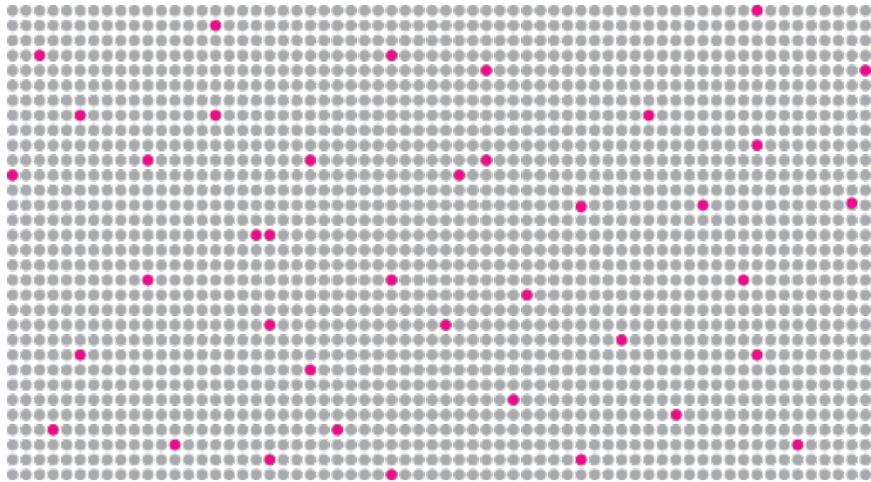
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If  $m \geq d$ , it is a *determined* system, and it is easy.

If  $m < d$ , it is an *undetermined* system, so there is no hope to provide a positive answer.



**Extra assumption:**  $x_0$  is  $s$ -sparse, that is, at most  $s$  of its entries are nonzero. (But, of course, we don't know which ones!)



## Questions:

- is such an assumption realistic in practice?
- what is the gain of doing such an assumption?

## Example 1: pictures taken with smartphones

- Assume  $x_0$  encodes a picture of size  $n \times m$ , e.g.  $n = 2592$ ,  $m = 1944 \Rightarrow d = 5\,038\,848$



- Each entry of  $x_0$  has a value between 0 (black) and 15 (white), depending on the luminosity at the corresponding pixel
- $x_0$  itself is not sparse. But the vector of differences between adjacent elements of  $x_0$  is 416 686-sparse ( $\approx 8\%$ ).

## Example 2: Medical Resonance Imagery



## Example 3: Seismology



## Example 4: High-resolution radar



## Example 5: Analog-to-digital converters

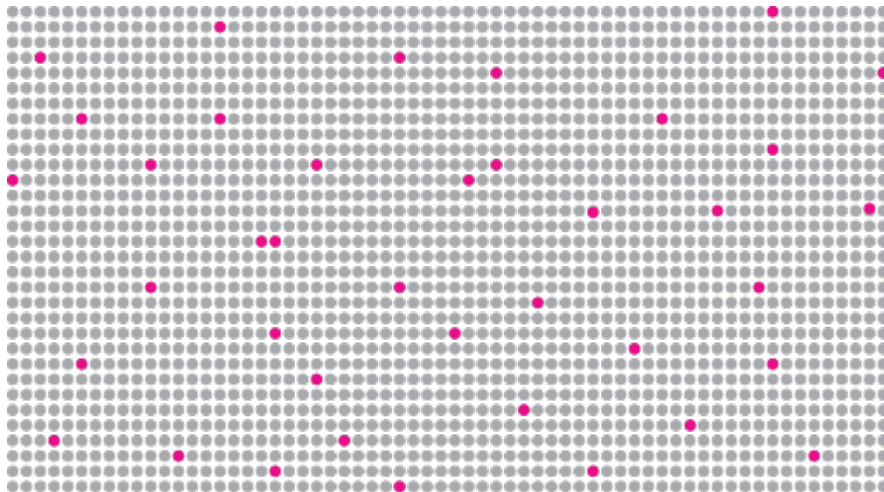


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**Questions:**

- is such an assumption realistic in practice? **YES**
- what is the gain of doing such an assumption?

## What is the gain of assuming sparsity?

- E. Candès, J. Romberg, and T. Tao. “*Robust Uncertainty principles: Exact signal reconstruction from highly incomplete frequency information.*” IEEE Trans. Information Theory, 2006
- D. Donoho. “*Compressed sensing.*” IEEE Trans. Information Theory, 2006

To recover  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  from  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$  and  $Ax_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , let us consider a minimization problem. The following one is, at first glance, the most natural to consider:

$$(P_0) : \quad \min_x \|x\|_0 \quad \text{subject to } Ax = Ax_0,$$

where  $\|x\|_0$  is the cardinality of the support of  $x$ .

Question: Is  $x_0$  the unique solution to  $(P_0)$ ?

Answer: Yes, provided that  $m \geq 2s$  (and that easy-to-check conditions on  $A$  are satisfied)

So, is the problem (already) over?

- In order to solve  $(P_0)$ , we have to consider all the possible supports for  $x_0$  and then to solve the corresponding systems.
- For instance, suppose that  $d = 1000$  and  $s = 10$ . We have to solve  $\binom{1000}{10} \geq 10^{20}$  linear systems of size  $10 \times 10$ . Each such system can be solved in  $10^{-10}$  seconds. Then, the time required to solve  $(P_0)$  is around  $10^{10}$  seconds, i.e., more than...

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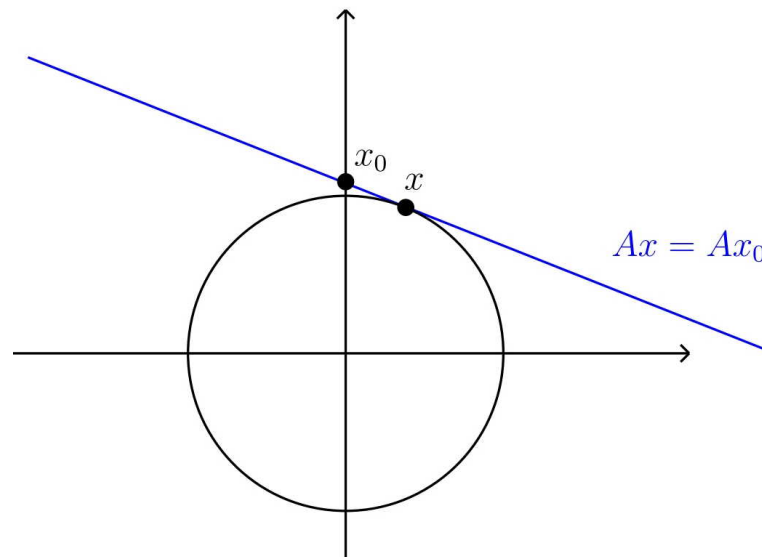
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- What is easy and quick, contrary to  $(P_0)$ , is to solve

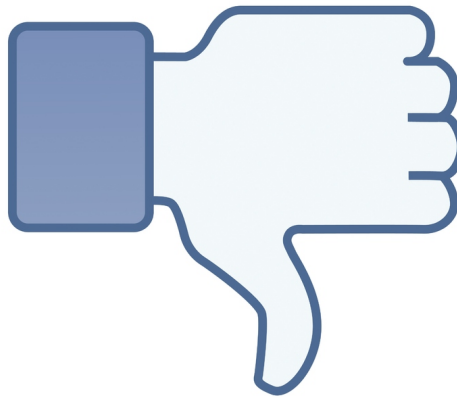
$$(P_2) : \quad \min_x \|x\|_2 \quad \text{subject to } Ax = Ax_0.$$

- Indeed (least square method): one can check that the solution of  $(P_2)$  is explicately given by  $x = A^T(AA^T)^{-1}Ax_0$ .



Unfortunately, especially in high dimension, the solution  $x$  of  $(P_2)$  is likely to be very far away from the expected solution  $x_0$ .

So, despite being easy to implement, this approach is of no help to solve our problem.

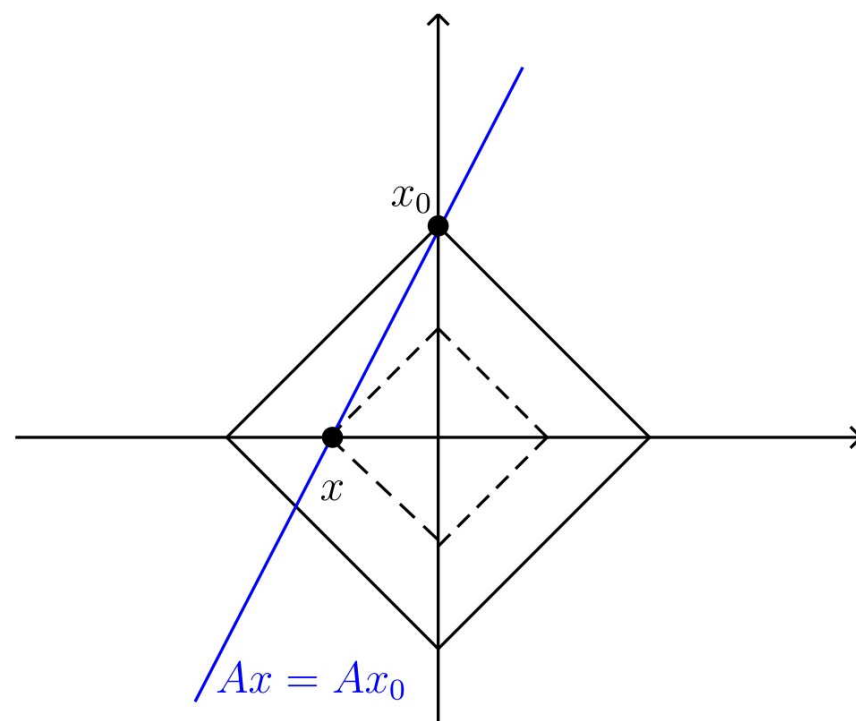
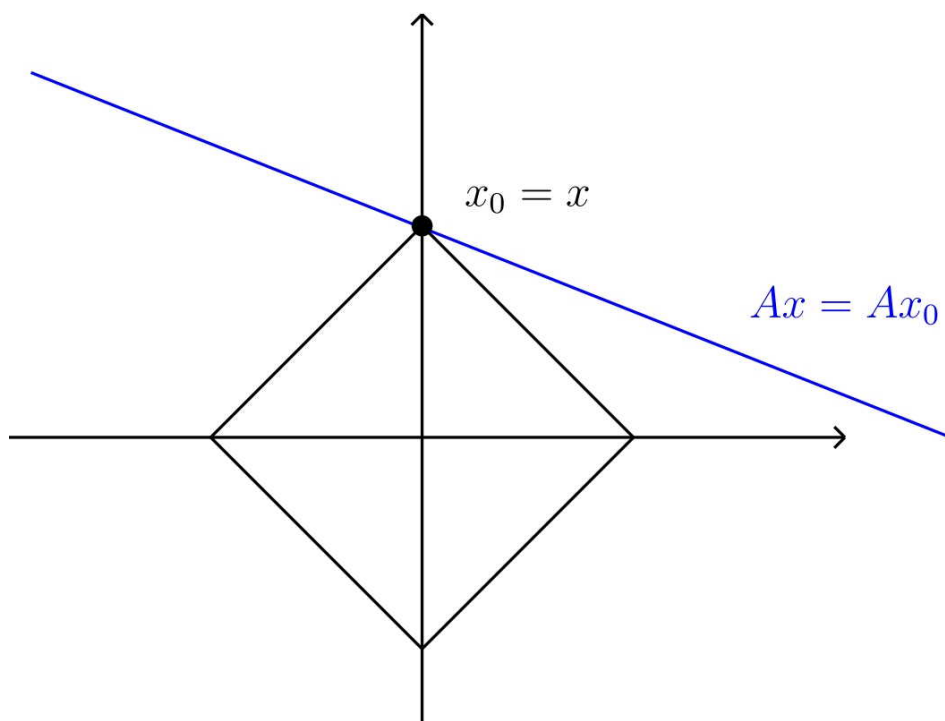


As we will see in a minute, it turns out that a much better idea is to use the  $\ell_1$  norm, that is, to consider

$$(P_1) : \quad \min_x \|x\|_1 \quad \text{subject to } Ax = Ax_0.$$

Nota: the *simplex algorithm*, which is quick and efficient, allows to solve  $(P_1)$  in practice.

Why does  $\ell_1$ -norm sound like a more reasonable candidate?



A famous and representative result in the theory of *compressed sensing* is the following theorem (or “how to solve a deterministic problem by introducing randomness”)

**Theorem** (à la Candès, Romberg and Tao). Assume that the number of measurements  $m$  satisfies  $m \geq 2\beta s \log d + s$ , where  $\beta > 1$  is fixed. Assume that  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$  is *Gaussian*. Finally, let  $x_0$  be an  $s$ -sparse vector of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then, with probability at least

$$1 - \frac{2}{df(\beta, s)},$$

one has that  $x_0$  is the unique minimizer to the program

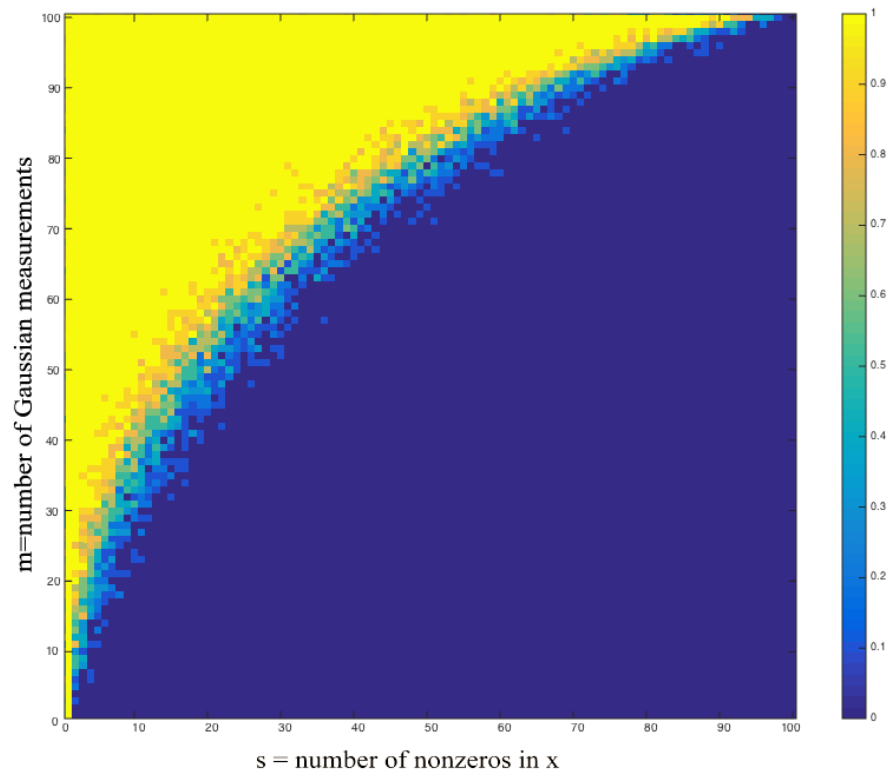
$$(P_1) : \quad \min_x \|x\|_1 \quad \text{subject to } Ax = Ax_0.$$

The fonction  $f$  is given by  $f(\beta, s) = \left[ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{2s} + \beta} - \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{2s}} \right]^2$ . It is increasing in  $s$  (for fixed  $\beta$ ) and in  $\beta$  (for fixed  $s$ ).

## **A classical experiment** (following Donoho and Tanner)

- Fix a large  $d$ , say  $d = 100$ .
- Consider a pair  $(s, m) \in \{1, \dots, d\}^2$  (the values for  $s$  and  $m$  will then vary).
- Pick a  $s$ -sparse vector  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  at random.
- Compute  $Ax_0$  with  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$  a random Gaussian matrix. Apply the simplex algorithm. If you (don't) get  $x_0$ , then consider it is a success (failure).
- For each possible value of  $s$  and  $m$ , repeat this experiment 10 times, and color the point of coordinates  $(s, m)$  with the rule:

10 successes  $\rightarrow$  ● ... 5 successes  $\rightarrow$  ● ... no success  $\rightarrow$  ●



One observes a strong **phase transition**. The equation for the boundary is very close to  $m = s \log(d/s) + s$ .

In order to understand this threshold phenomenon, we will analyze it in a more general framework, following the two references:

- D. Amelunxen, M. Lotz, M.B. McCoy, and J.A. Tropp. **"Living on the edge: phase transitions in convex programs with random data."** *Inform. Inference*, to appear.
- M.B. McCoy and J.A. Tropp. **"From Steiner formulas for cones to concentration of intrinsic volumes"**. *Discrete Comput. Geom.*, 2014.



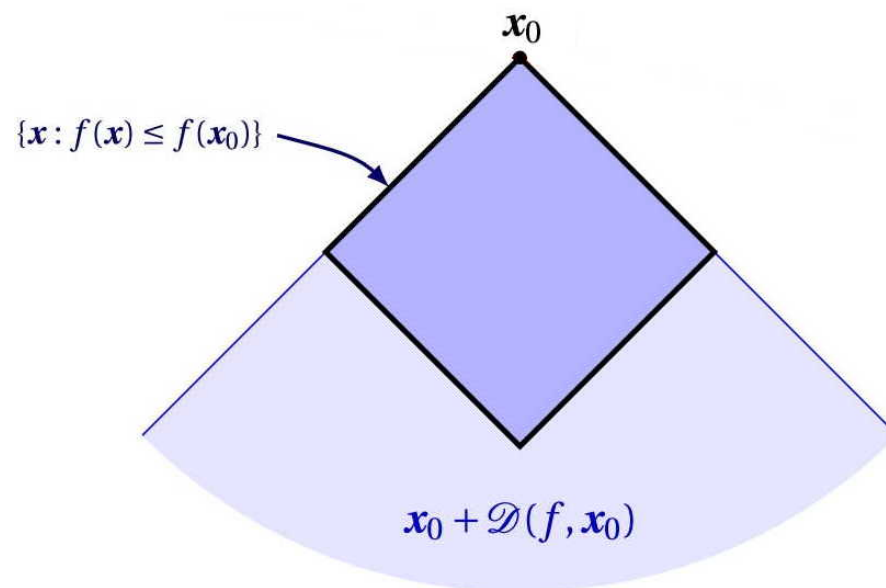
Let  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  be a convex function, let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$  be a Gaussian matrix, and let us consider the minimization problem:

$$(P) : \quad \min_x f(x) \quad \text{subject to } Ax = Ax_0.$$

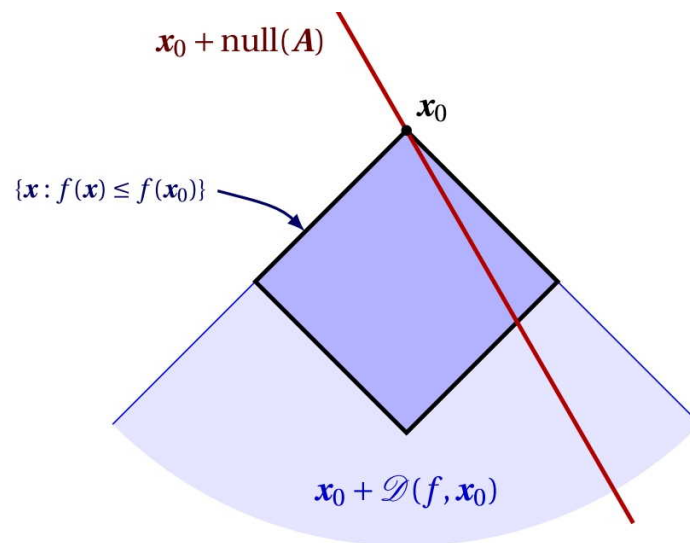
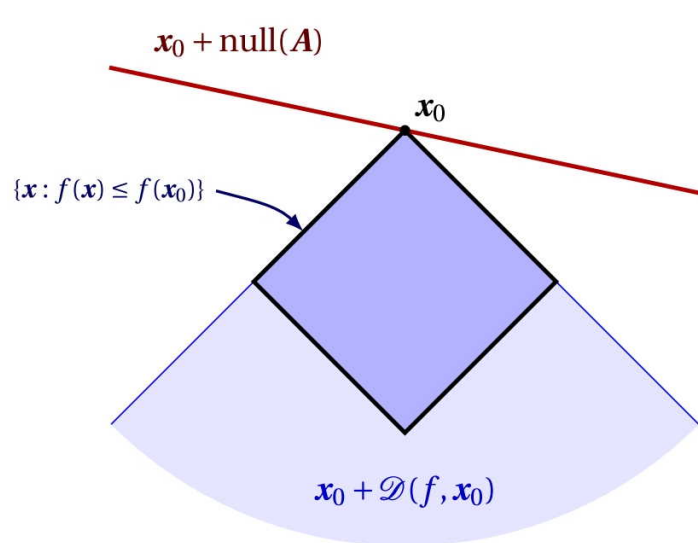
**Goal:** We want to compute  $P(x_0$  is the unique solution of (P)).

**Definition.** The descent cone of  $f$  at  $x_0$  is the cone generated by the perturbations of  $f$  at  $x_0$  that do not increase  $f$ :

$$\mathcal{D}(f, x_0) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists \tau > 0 \text{ s.t. } f(x_0 + \tau y) \leq f(x_0)\}.$$



**Fact 1.** One has that  $x_0$  is the unique solution to  $(P)$  if and only if  $\mathcal{D}(f, x_0) \cap \text{null}(A) = \{0\}$ . ( $\text{null}A = \ker A$ )

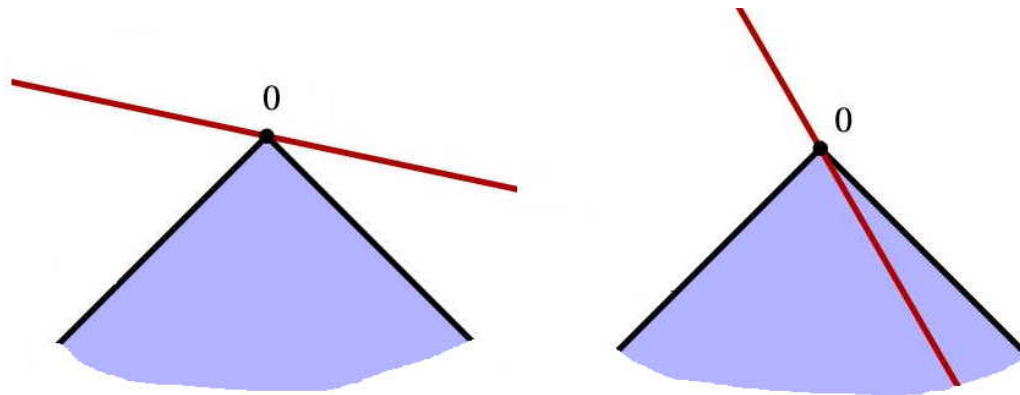


**Fact 2.** Since  $A$  is Gaussian, its law is invariant by any orthogonal transformation. As a result,  $\text{null}(A)$  is distributed as  $QL_{d-m}$ , where  $Q$  is chosen at random in  $O(d)$  and  $L_{d-m} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  stands for any (fixed) subspace of dimension  $d - m$ .

As a consequence of these two facts, we have that

$$P(x_0 \text{ is the unique solution of (P)}) = P(C \cap QL_{d-m} = \{0\}).$$

where  $C$  is the descent cone of  $f$  at  $x_0$ ,  $L_{d-m} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is a (fixed) subspace of dimension  $d-m$ , and  $Q$  is chosen at random in  $O(d)$



The conic version of the Steiner formula reads as follows. If  $C \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is a closed convex cone, then

$$\text{Vol}(x \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1} : \text{dist}^2(x, C) \leq \lambda) = \sum_{k=0}^d \beta_{k,d}(\lambda) v_k(C),$$

where  $\beta_{k,d}(\lambda)$  is an (explicit) quantity only depending on  $\lambda$  (but not on  $C$ ).

The quantities  $\{v_k(C)\}_{k=0,\dots,d}$  are called the *intrinsic volumes* of the cone  $C$ . They are positive and sum to 1.

**Crofton's formula.** Provided  $C$  is not a subspace, one has

$$\begin{aligned} P(C \cap QL_{d-m} \neq \{0\}) &= 2 \sum_{\substack{j=m+1 \\ j-m-1 \text{ even}}}^d v_j(C) \\ &= 2v_{m+1}(C) + 2v_{m+3}(C) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

By playing a little bit with the Crofton's formula, one can show the 'interlacing property':

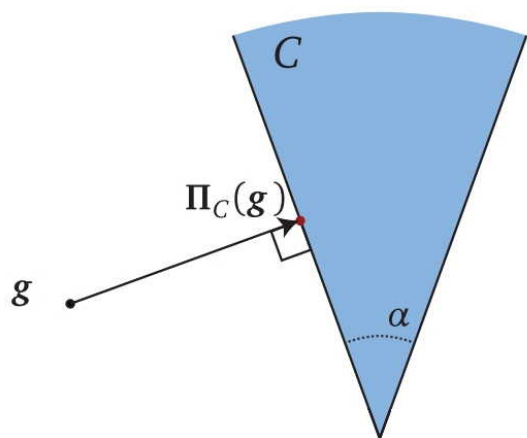
$$P(V_C \leq m - 1) \leq P(C \cap QL_{d-m} = \{0\}) \leq P(V_C \leq m),$$

where the (abstract) random variable  $V_C$  defined as

$$P(V_C = k) = v_k(C), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, d.$$

Thus:  $\boxed{P(x_0 \text{ is the unique solution of (P)}) \approx P(V_C \leq m)}.$

We are now left to study  $P(V_C \leq m)$ . To do so, we shall rely on a last and final ingredient, the *Master Steiner Formula*.



**Master Steiner Formula** (McCoy, Tropp, 2013) Let  $\Pi_C : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow C$  be the projection onto the closed convex cone  $C$ . One has

$$\|\Pi_C(g)\|^2 \stackrel{(\text{law})}{=} \chi_{V_C}^2.$$

**Corollary 1/Definition:** The statistical dimension  $\delta_C$  of a closed convex cone  $C$  is defined as  $E[\|\Pi_C(g)\|^2] = E[V_C]$ .

**Corollary 2:**  $E[e^{\eta V_C}] = E[e^{\xi \|\Pi_C(g)\|^2}]$ , with  $\xi = \frac{1}{2}(1 - e^{-2\eta})$ .

An important consequence of Corollary 2 is the following.

If  $C_d$  is a sequence of closed convex cone of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $E(V_{C_d}) = \delta_{C_d} \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\liminf \text{Var}(V_{C_d})/\delta_{C_d} > 0$  as  $d \rightarrow \infty$ , then

$$\frac{V_{C_d} - \delta_{C_d}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(V_{C_d})}} \rightarrow N(0, 1) \quad \text{iff} \quad \frac{\|\Pi_{C_d}(\mathbf{g})\|^2 - \delta_{C_d}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\|\Pi_{C_d}(\mathbf{g})\|^2)}} \rightarrow N(0, 1).$$



**Theorem** (Goldstein, Nourdin, Peccati). Let  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function and let  $C = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists \tau > 0 \text{ such that } f(x_0 + \tau y) \leq f(x_0)\}$  be the descent cone of  $f$  at  $x_0$ .

Consider the minimization problem

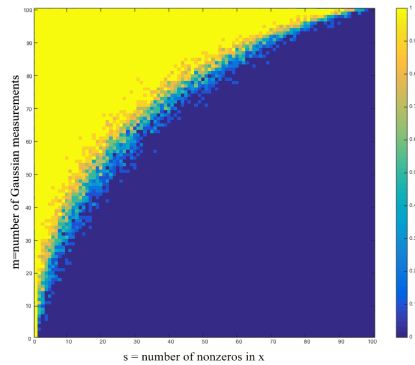
$$(P) : \quad \min_x f(x) \quad \text{subject to } Ax = Ax_0,$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$  is *Gaussian* (all its entries are independent  $N(0, 1)$  random variables) and where  $m = \lfloor \delta_C + t\sqrt{\text{Var}(V_C)} \rfloor$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Suppose that  $E(V_C) = \delta_C \rightarrow \infty$  and that  $\liminf \text{Var}(V_C)/\delta_C > 0$  as  $d \rightarrow \infty$ . Then, as  $d \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$P(x_0 \text{ is the unique solution of (P)}) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^t e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} du.$$

## Reading the phase transition.



For instance, selecting  $m \geq \delta_C + 1.6\sqrt{\text{Var}(V_C)}$ , one has

$$P(x_0 \text{ is the unique solution of (P)}) \geq 0.95.$$

In contrast, for  $m \leq \delta_C - 1.6\sqrt{\text{Var}(V_C)}$ ,

$$P(x_0 \text{ is the unique solution of (P)}) \leq 0.05$$

(*Remark:* A crude bound is  $\text{Var}(V_C) \leq 2\delta_C$ .)

**Theorem** (G.-N.-P., 2014): Let  $C$  be any closed convex cone and let  $\Pi_C$  denote the projection onto  $C$ . One then has, with  $N \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{g} \sim N(0, I_d)$ ,

$$d_{TV} \left( \frac{\|\Pi_C(\mathbf{g})\|^2 - \delta_C}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\|\Pi_C(\mathbf{g})\|^2)}}, N \right) \leq \frac{8}{\sqrt{\delta_C}}.$$