

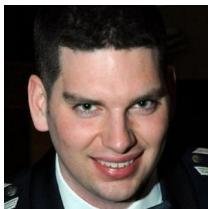
# Singular Values of Random Subensembles of Frame Vectors

Mark Magsino

Ohio State University

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# These are my collaborators.



Dustin Mixon  
Ohio State University



Hans Parshall  
Western Washington University

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- 1 Frame Theory
- 2 Motivating Example: Compressed Sensing
- 3 Singular Values of Random Subensembles

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# Frames are bases with more vectors.

Let's consider  $\mathbb{F}^d$ , where  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ .

- A **basis** for  $\mathbb{F}^d$  is a linearly independent spanning set of  $d$  vectors.
- A **frame** for  $\mathbb{F}^d$  is **any** spanning set of  $n \geq d$  vectors.
- We can think of them as bases with some extra vectors added.
- Extra vectors  $\rightarrow$  no linear independence and redundant
- Linear independence  $\rightarrow$  unique representations

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- Linear independence  $\rightarrow$  unique representations

If frames are redundant and linear independence is nice, **why use frames?**

# Redundancy is the benefit of frames.

Having redundant representations can be useful for a few things:

- Easing losses and noise from transmission
  - ▶ (1, ?, 3)

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Redundant frames ease losses in transmission and can obtain sparse representations. How do we know which ones are good?

# Frames have a reconstruction formula using frame vectors.

## Theorem

Let  $\{v_j\}_{j=1}^n$  be a frame for  $\mathbb{F}^d$  and let  $\mathbf{S}$  be its frame operator. Then,

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^n \langle \mathbf{S}^{-1}v_j, x \rangle v_j, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{F}^d.$$

- Frame operators are linear mappings  $\rightarrow$  it has a matrix form!
- $\mathbf{S}$  is always invertible but matrix inversion can be expensive.
- For orthonormal bases  $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{I}$ .
- Other reconstruction coefficients possible!



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- Other reconstruction coefficients possible!

The inverse of frame operators are needed for the reconstruction formula, but it can be hard to compute. Can we make it easier?

## Tight frames give us good frame operators.

- Let  $\{v_j\}_{j=1}^n$  be a frame for  $\mathbb{F}^d$ . The **frame operator**,  $\mathbf{S} : \mathbb{F}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^d$ , is the linear map

$$\mathbf{S}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \langle v_j, x \rangle v_j.$$

- $\mathbf{S}$  is self-adjoint and positive definite  $\rightarrow \mathbf{S}$  has real and positive eigenvalues.
- A frame is **tight** if all those eigenvalues are the same.
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Tight frames are good for computing. What are the difficulties in computing in practice?

# Extremely high dimensions can still be difficult.

- Inverting  $d \times d$  frame operators is  $O(d^3)$ .
- This seems fine unless  $d$  is **very large**.
  - ▶ Hyperspectral imaging
  - ▶ Video processing
- Inversion computations might still be too slow.
- **Idea:** Can we do more with less by taking well-conditioned subensembles?

# Extremely high dimensions can still be difficult.

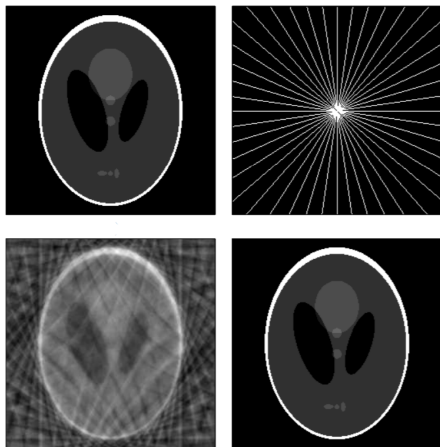
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With very high dimensional data, computation could still be slow. We want to use well-conditioned subensembles but what does that mean?

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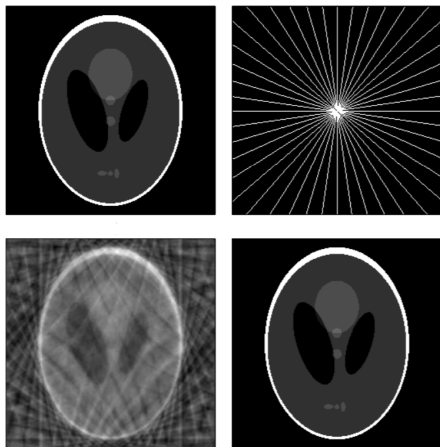
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# We can cheat with low-dimensional signals. <sup>1</sup>



<sup>1</sup>Figure 1 in Candes, Romberg, Tao 2005

# We can cheat with low-dimensional signals. <sup>1</sup>



If we sample images with lots of zeros correctly, we can rebuild them near perfectly, or sometimes perfectly! Why does this work?

<sup>1</sup>Figure 1 in Candes, Romberg, Tao 2005



## We can formulate the problem using frames.

- We wish to measure an image with  $n$  pixels using  $d \ll n$  linear measurements.
- How do we recover the image from our undersampled measurements?

### Problem

Let  $d \ll n$ . Given an  $d \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{F}^d$ , solve

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We are trying to solve a matrix-vector equation that should have many solutions. Why would having lots of zeros make that solution easier to find?

## Solutions with many zeros have few variables.

$$\begin{matrix} y \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} A \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} x \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \end{matrix}$$

- $x$  is secretly a vector of 3 variables.
- 4 equations, 3 unknowns, could be solvable!
- We only know  $y$ ...which  $x_i$  are the variables?

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Our image secretly only has a few variables to solve for but which ones?  
How do we design  $\mathbf{A}$  to account for this?

# RIP accounts for different variable combinations.

## Definition

Let  $k$  be a positive integer and  $\delta > 0$ . An  $d \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  satisfies the  $(k, \delta)$ -restricted isometry property (RIP) if for every vector  $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$  with at most  $k$  nonzero entries

$$(1 - \delta)\|x\|^2 \leq \|\mathbf{A}x\|^2 \leq (1 + \delta)\|x\|^2.$$

- We call  $x$  with this property  $k$ -sparse.
- Mapping  $\mathbf{A}$  to  $k$ -dimensional subspaces is almost an isometry  $\rightarrow$  almost information preserving.
- This requires  $\binom{n}{k}$  checks. This is computationally infeasible...

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RIP matrices scan  $k$ -subspaces nicely, but they're hard to find. Is it worth it?

## RIP quantifies how many zeros is enough.

### Theorem (Candes '08)

Let  $k$  be a positive integer and let  $\delta < \sqrt{2} - 1$ . Suppose  $x'$  is a  $k$ -sparse vector we wish to recover. If  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $(2k, \delta)$ -RIP, then the solution to

$$\operatorname{argmin} \|x\|_1 \quad \text{subject to} \quad y = \mathbf{A}x$$

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RIP matrices are good measurement matrices. If they're hard to check how do people find them?



# Dealing with RIP is a battle between average and worst case performance.

How do people make RIP matrices?

- 1 Random matrices: Works with high probability but you can't be sure...
- 2 Explicit constructions: Can make some guarantees based on dot products between columns but worse performance than random.
- 3 Random subensembles: Check random subensembles to verify RIP with high probability.

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Random ensembles balance explicit constructions and good average vs worst case performance.

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# We can analyze the spectra of random subensembles.

- Given an  $n \times n$  self-adjoint matrix  $Z$  with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$ , the **empirical spectral distribution**,  $\mu_Z$ , is the uniform probability measure over the spectrum of  $Z$ .
- Our  $Z$  will be the frame operator or the Gram matrix of our random subensembles.
- We want to compare to other known distributions associated with random matrices.

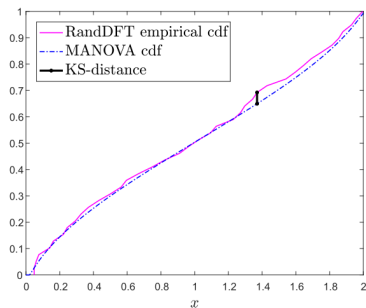
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The empirical spectral distribution allows us to analyze spectra of random subensembles. How do we compare them?

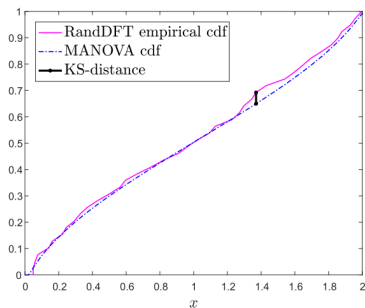
# We can compare using Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance.

- KS distance = largest distance between the two CDFs.
- $X \in \mathbb{F}^{d \times n}$  is our frame.
- $X_K$  in  $\mathbb{F}^{d \times k}$  is our submatrix of  $X$ .
- Compare KS distance of the CDFs of:
  - ▶ ESD of  $X_K X_K^*$
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We can compare distributions with KS distance. What should the limiting distribution be?



## The limiting distribution seems to be Wachter's MANOVA.

Wachter: As  $k/d \rightarrow \beta$  and  $d/n \rightarrow \gamma$ , the ESD of  $\text{MANOVA}(n, d, k, \mathbb{R})$  ensembles converges to the  $\text{MANOVA}(\beta, \gamma)$  distribution with density

$$f_{\beta, \gamma}^{\text{MANOVA}}(x) = \frac{\sqrt{(x - r_-)(r_+ - x)}}{2\beta\pi x(1 - \gamma x)} \cdot I_{(r_-, r_+)}(x) \\ + \left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta} - \frac{1}{\beta\gamma}\right)^+ \cdot \delta\left(x - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right)$$

- $(x)^+ = \max(0, x)$
- $r_{\pm} = (\sqrt{\beta(1 - \gamma)} \pm \sqrt{(1 - \beta\gamma)})^2$
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MANOVA ensembles seem related and their ESD converges to Wachter's distribution. Is there evidence they are related to frame subensembles?

# Evidence shows it really is Wachter's MANOVA.

- $\Delta_{KS}(X_K) = \|F(X_K) - F_{\beta,\gamma}^{MANOVA}\|_{KS}$
- $d/n \rightarrow \gamma = 0.5$
- $k/d \rightarrow \beta = 0.8$
- Graph:  
 $-\frac{1}{2} \ln \mathbb{E}_K(\Delta_{KS}(X_K))$  vs.  $\ln(n)$

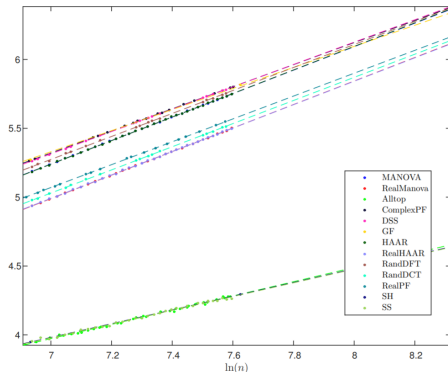


Figure: Haikin, Gavish, Zamir computer simulation (2017)

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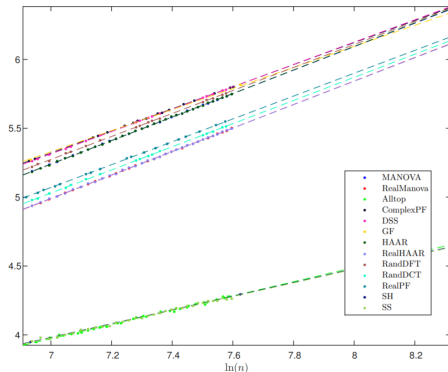


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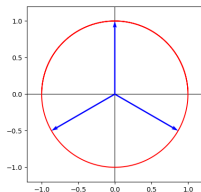
We have numerical evidence of convergence to  $MANOVA(\beta, \gamma)$  for tight frames. Can we prove this for any of them?

# Equiangular tight frames spread information evenly.

Let  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $X \subset \mathbb{F}^d$  be a tight frame of  $n \geq d$  unit vectors.  $X$  is an **equiangular tight frame** if

$$|\langle x_i, x_j \rangle| = \sqrt{\frac{n-d}{d(n-1)}}, \quad i \neq j.$$

- ETFs are the next closest thing to orthonormal bases.
- If we think of ETFs as signal channels, they spread information and prevent interference.

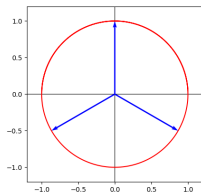


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ETFs spread information well. How should we analyze the spectra of their subensembles?

## We can study frames through its Gram matrix.

Given a frame  $F \in \mathbb{F}^{d \times n}$ , its **Gram matrix**,  $G$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix defined by

$$G_{ij} = \langle x_i, x_j \rangle, \quad i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

In the case of real ETFs we can write

$$G = I + \left( \frac{n-d}{d(n-1)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} S,$$

where the off-diagonal entries of  $S$  consists of  $\pm 1$  and the main diagonal consists of zeros.

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The Gram matrix records information about inner products, but why is  $S$  special?



# ETFs are closely tied to symmetric conference matrices.

An  $n \times n$  matrix,  $S$ , is a **conference matrix** if

- 1  $S_{ii} = 0$ , for every  $i \in [n]$ .
- 2  $S_{ij} \in \{\pm 1\}$ , for every  $i, j \in [n]$  and  $i \neq j$ .
- 3  $S^T S = (n - 1)I$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & + & + & + & + & + \\ + & 0 & + & - & - & + \\ + & + & 0 & + & - & - \\ + & - & + & 0 & + & - \\ + & - & - & + & 0 & + \\ + & + & - & - & + & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Relation with ETFs:** If  $S$  is a symmetric conference matrix, then

$$I + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}}S$$

is the Gram matrix of an ETF of  $n$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{n/2}$ .

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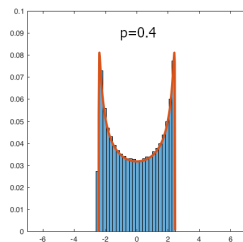
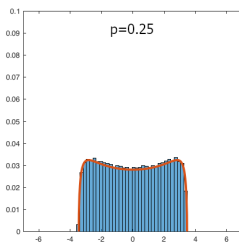
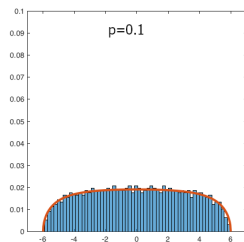
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is the Gram matrix of an ETF of  $n$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{n/2}$ .

Real ETFs of redundancy 2 are closely linked to symmetric conference matrices. What do “typical” ESDs of them look like?

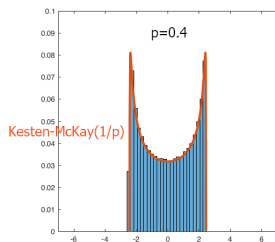
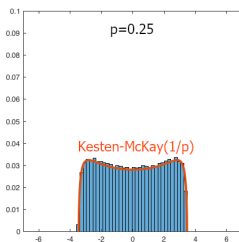
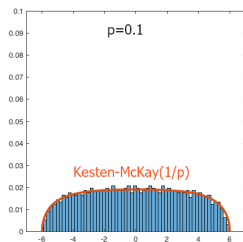
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- Paley conference matrix of order  $n = 10010$
- For each  $p$ :  $I \subset [n]$  where  $i \in I$  with probability  $p$ , independently
- ESD of principal submatrix using  $I$



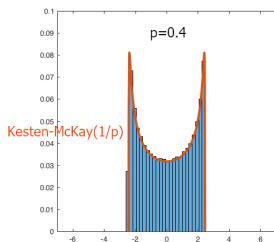
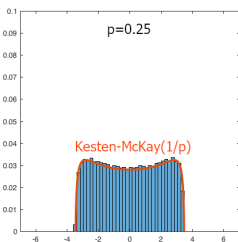
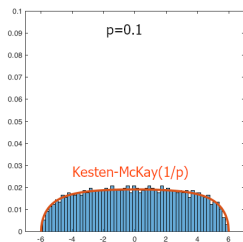
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It seems when we subsample Paley conference matrices, the ESD converges to the Kesten-McKay distribution with parameter  $\nu = 1/p$ . Is this true?

# The spectrum of subensembles of symmetric conference matrices converge to the Kesten-McKay distribution.

A sequence  $\{n_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a **lacunary sequence** if there exists  $\lambda > 1$  so that for each  $i$ ,  $n_{i+1} \geq \lambda n_i$ .

## Theorem (M., Mixon, Parshall (2019))

Fix  $p \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$  and take any lacunary sequence  $L$  for which there exists a sequence  $\{S_n\}_{n \in L}$  of symmetric conference matrices of increasing order  $n$ . Let  $X_n$  be the corresponding random principal submatrix of  $S_n$  where indices are included independently with probability  $p$ . Then, the empirical spectral distribution of  $\frac{1}{p\sqrt{n}}X_n$  converges almost surely to the Kesten-McKay distribution with parameter  $\nu = 1/p$ .

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The spectrum of random subensembles of symmetric conference matrices does indeed converge to the Kesten-McKay distribution. How does the proof work?

# The proof involves probability and combinatorics.

## Proposition

Let  $\{\zeta_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of uniformly subgaussian random probability measures, and let  $\mu$  be a non-random subgaussian probability measure. Suppose that for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  it holds that

①  $\mathbb{E} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^k d\zeta_i(x) \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^k d\mu(x)$ , and

②  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \text{Var} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^k d\zeta_i(x) \right) < \infty$ .

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This theorem uses a lot of ideas from both probability theory and graph theory. How did we end up in the realm of combinatorics?

# Kesten-McKay moments involve Catalan's triangle.

Catalan's triangle is given by

$$C(n, k) := \frac{(n+k)!(n-k+1)}{k!(n+1)!},$$

and the  $n$ -th Catalan number is given by  $C(n, n)$ . The Kesten-McKay moments are given by

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} x^k d\mu_{\nu}(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{k/2} C(k/2 - 1, k/2 - j) \nu^j (\nu - 1)^{k/2-j} & \text{if } k \text{ is even,} \\ 0 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

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The proof involves Catalan numbers, because it naturally arises from the moments of the Kesten-McKay distribution. How far can these ideas go?

# There's more work to be done!

Our result applies to a very specific case: real equiangular tight frames of redundancy 2.

- Can this be extended to other redundancies?
- What about non-equiangular tight frames?

Haikin, Gavish, and Zamir other conjectures:

- Power law for rate of convergence
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- Power law for rate of convergence
- Universality for ETF convergence rate

Our work is only tip of the iceberg. There are many directions this can still go.

## These are some good references.

- Haikin, Zamir, Gavish. "Random subsets of structured deterministic frames have MANOVA spectra."
- M., Mixon, Parshall. "Kesten-McKay law for random subensembles of Paley equiangular tight frames."
- Haikin, Gavish, Mixon, Zamir. "Asymptotic Frame Theory for Analog Coding."

# Thanks for listening! Any questions?

