

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL TO ‘STATISTICAL AND COMPUTATIONAL TRADE-OFFS IN ESTIMATION OF SPARSE PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS’

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1. Ancillary results. We collect here various results used in the proofs in Appendices A, B and C in the main document Wang, Berthet and Samworth (2015).

PROPOSITION 1. *Let $P \in \text{RCC}_p(n, \ell, C)$ and suppose that $\ell \log p \leq n$. Then*

$$\mathbb{E} \sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| \leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\log p}\right) C \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log p}{n}}.$$

PROOF. By setting $\delta = p^{1-t}$ in the RCC condition, we find that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| \geq C \max\left\{\sqrt{\frac{t\ell \log p}{n}}, \frac{t\ell \log p}{n}\right\}\right) \leq \min(1, p^{1-t})$$

for all $t \geq 0$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| &= \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| \geq s\right) ds \\ &\leq C \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log p}{n}} + C \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log p}{n}} \int_1^{\frac{n}{\ell \log p}} \frac{1}{2} p^{1-t} t^{-1/2} dt + C \frac{\ell \log p}{n} \int_{\frac{n}{\ell \log p}}^\infty p^{1-t} dt \\ &\leq C \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log p}{n}} \left\{1 + \int_1^\infty p^{1-t} dt\right\} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{\log p}\right) C \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log p}{n}}, \end{aligned}$$

as required. □

LEMMA 2. *Let $\epsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, let $\ell \in \{1, \dots, p\}$ and let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ be a symmetric matrix. Then there exists $\mathcal{N}_\epsilon \subseteq B_0(\ell)$ with cardinality at most $\binom{p}{\ell} \pi \ell^{1/2} (1 - \epsilon^2/16)^{-(\ell-1)/2} (2/\epsilon)^{\ell-1}$ such that*

$$\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |u^\top A u| \leq (1 - 2\epsilon)^{-1} \max_{u \in \mathcal{N}_\epsilon} |u^\top A u|.$$

PROOF. Let $\mathcal{I}_\ell := \{I \subseteq \{1, \dots, p\} : |I| = \ell\}$, and for $I \in \mathcal{I}_\ell$, let $B_I := \{u \in B_0(\ell) : u_{I^c} = 0\}$. Thus

$$B_0(\ell) = \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{I}_\ell} B_I.$$

For each $I \in \mathcal{I}_\ell$, by Lemma 10 of [Kim and Samworth \(2014\)](#), there exists $\mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon} \subseteq B_I$ such that $|\mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon}| \leq \pi \ell^{1/2} (1 - \epsilon^2/16)^{-(\ell-1)/2} (2/\epsilon)^{\ell-1}$ and such that for any $x \in B_I$, there exists $x' \in \mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon}$ with $\|x - x'\| \leq \epsilon$. Let $u_I \in \operatorname{argmax}_{u \in B_I} |u^\top A u|$ and find $v_I \in \mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon}$ such that $\|u_I - v_I\| \leq \epsilon$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |u_I^\top A u_I| &\leq |v_I^\top A v_I| + |(u_I - v_I)^\top A v_I| + |u_I^\top A (u_I - v_I)| \\ &\leq \max_{u \in \mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon}} |u^\top A u| + 2\epsilon |u_I^\top A u_I|. \end{aligned}$$

Writing $\mathcal{N}_\epsilon := \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{I}_\ell} \mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon}$, we note that \mathcal{N}_ϵ has cardinality no larger than $\binom{p}{\ell} \pi \ell^{1/2} (1 - \epsilon^2/16)^{-(\ell-1)/2} (2/\epsilon)^{\ell-1}$ and that

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |u^\top A u| &= \max_{I \in \mathcal{I}_\ell} \sup_{u \in B_I} |u^\top A u| \leq (1 - 2\epsilon)^{-1} \max_{I \in \mathcal{I}_\ell} \max_{u \in \mathcal{N}_{I,\epsilon}} |u^\top A u| \\ &= (1 - 2\epsilon)^{-1} \max_{u \in \mathcal{N}_\epsilon} |u^\top A u|, \end{aligned}$$

as required. \square

LEMMA 3 (Variant of the Gilbert–Varshamov Lemma). *Let $\alpha, \beta \in (0, 1)$ and $k, p \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $k \leq \alpha\beta p$. Writing $\mathcal{S} := \{x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^\top \in \{0, 1\}^p : \sum_{j=1}^p x_j = k\}$, there exists a subset \mathcal{S}_0 of \mathcal{S} such that for all distinct $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^\top, y = (y_1, \dots, y_p)^\top \in \mathcal{S}_0$, we have $\sum_{j=1}^p \mathbb{1}_{\{x_j \neq y_j\}} \geq 2(1 - \alpha)k$ and such that*

$$\log |\mathcal{S}_0| \geq \rho k \log(p/k),$$

where $\rho := \frac{\alpha}{-\log(\alpha\beta)} (-\log \beta + \beta - 1)$.

PROOF. See [Massart \(2007, Lemma 4.10\)](#). \square

Let P and Q be two probability measures on a measurable space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$. Recall that if P is absolutely continuous with respect to Q , then the Kullback–Leibler divergence between P and Q is $D(P\|Q) := \int_{\mathcal{X}} \log(dP/dQ) dP$, where dP/dQ denotes the Radon–Nikodym derivative of P with respect to Q . If P is not absolutely continuous with respect to Q , we set $D(P\|Q) := \infty$.

LEMMA 4 (Generalised Fano's Lemma). *Let P_1, \dots, P_M be probability distributions on a measurable space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$, and assume that $D(P_i \| P_j) \leq \beta$ for all $i \neq j$. Then any measurable function $\hat{\psi} : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, M\}$ satisfies*

$$\max_{1 \leq i \leq M} P_i(\hat{\psi} \neq i) \geq 1 - \frac{\beta + \log 2}{\log M}.$$

PROOF. See [Yu \(1997, Lemma 3\)](#). □

LEMMA 5. *Suppose that $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and that $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P$. Let $\Sigma := \int_{\mathbb{R}^p} xx^\top dP(x)$ and $\hat{\Sigma} := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i X_i^\top$. If $V(u) := \mathbb{E}\{(u^\top X_1)^2\}$ and $\hat{V}(u) := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (u^\top X_i)^2$ for $u \in B_0(2)$, then*

$$\|\hat{\Sigma} - \Sigma\|_\infty \leq 2 \sup_{u \in B_0(2)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)|.$$

PROOF. Let e_r denote the r th standard basis vector in \mathbb{R}^p and write $X_i = (X_{i,1}, \dots, X_{i,p})^\top$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|\hat{\Sigma} - \Sigma\|_\infty &= \max_{r,s \in \{1, \dots, p\}} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{i,r} X_{i,s}) - \mathbb{E}(X_{1,r} X_{1,s}) \right| \\ &\leq \max_{r,s \in \{1, \dots, p\}} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} e_r + \frac{1}{2} e_s \right)^\top X_i \right\}^2 - \mathbb{E} \left[\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} e_r + \frac{1}{2} e_s \right)^\top X_1 \right\}^2 \right] \right| \\ &\quad + \max_{r,s \in \{1, \dots, p\}} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} e_r - \frac{1}{2} e_s \right)^\top X_i \right\}^2 - \mathbb{E} \left[\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} e_r - \frac{1}{2} e_s \right)^\top X_1 \right\}^2 \right] \right| \\ &\leq 2 \sup_{u \in B_0(2)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)|, \end{aligned}$$

as required. □

Recall the definition of the Graph Vector distribution $\text{GV}_p^g(\pi_0)$ from the proof of [Theorem 6](#) in the main document [Wang, Berthet and Samworth \(2015\)](#).

LEMMA 6. *Let $g = (g_1, \dots, g_p)^\top \in \{0, 1\}^p$, and let Y_1, \dots, Y_n be independent random vectors, each distributed as $\text{GV}_p^g(\pi_0)$ for some $\pi_0 \in (0, 1/2]$. For any $u \in B_0(\ell)$, let $V(u) := \mathbb{E}\{(u^\top Y_1)^2\}$ and $\hat{V}(u) := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (u^\top Y_i)^2$. Then for every $1 \leq \ell \leq 2/\pi_0$, every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and every $\delta > 0$,*

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| \geq 750 \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}}, \frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n} \right\} \right] \leq \delta.$$

In other words, $\text{GV}_p^g(\pi_0) \in \text{RCC}_p(\ell, 750)$ for all $\pi_0 \in (0, 1/2]$ and $\ell \leq 2/\pi_0$.

PROOF. We can write

$$Y_i = \xi_i \{(1 - \epsilon_i)R_i + \epsilon_i(g + \tilde{R}_i)\},$$

where ξ_i , ϵ_i and R_i are independent, where ξ_i is a Rademacher random variable, where $\epsilon_i \sim \text{Bern}(\pi_0)$, where $R_i = (r_{i1}, \dots, r_{ip})^\top$ has independent Rademacher coordinates, and where $\tilde{R}_i = (\tilde{r}_{i1}, \dots, \tilde{r}_{ip})^\top$ with $\tilde{r}_{ij} := (1 - g_j)r_{ij}$. Thus, for any $u \in B_0(\ell)$, we have

$$(u^\top Y_i)^2 = (1 - \epsilon_i)(u^\top R_i)^2 + \epsilon_i(u^\top g)^2 + \epsilon_i(u^\top \tilde{R}_i)^2 + 2\epsilon_i(u^\top \tilde{R}_i)(u^\top g).$$

Hence, writing $S := \{j : g_j = 1\}$,

$$\begin{aligned} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| &\leq \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \epsilon_i)(u^\top R_i)^2 - (1 - \pi_0) \right| + \frac{(u^\top g)^2}{n} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \pi_0) \right| \\ &\quad + \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i (u^\top \tilde{R}_i)^2 - \pi_0 \|u_{S^c}\|_2^2 \right| + \left| \frac{2u^\top g}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i (u^\top \tilde{R}_i) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \epsilon_i) \{(u^\top R_i)^2 - 1\} \right| + \frac{1 + (u^\top g)^2 + \|u_{S^c}\|_2^2}{n} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \pi_0) \right| \\ (1) \quad &\quad + \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \{(u^\top \tilde{R}_i)^2 - \|u_{S^c}\|_2^2\} \right| + \left| \frac{2u^\top g}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i (u^\top \tilde{R}_i) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

We now control the four terms on the right-hand side of (1) separately. For the first term, note that the distribution of R_i is subgaussian with parameter 1. Writing $N_\epsilon := \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$, it follows by the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 1(i) in Wang, Berthet and Samworth (2015) that for any $s > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbb{P} \left(\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \epsilon_i) \{(u^\top R_i)^2 - 1\} \right| \geq 2s \right) \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left\{ \mathbb{P} \left(\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{1}{n - N_\epsilon} \sum_{i: \epsilon_i=0} \{(u^\top R_i)^2 - 1\} \right| \geq \frac{2ns}{n - N_\epsilon} \mid N_\epsilon \right) \right\} \\ &\leq e^9 p^\ell \mathbb{E} \left[\exp \left\{ -\frac{n \left(\frac{ns}{n - N_\epsilon} \right)^2}{4 \left(\frac{ns}{n - N_\epsilon} \right) + 32} \right\} \right] \leq e^9 p^\ell \exp \left(-\frac{ns^2}{4s + 32} \right). \end{aligned}$$

We deduce that for any $\delta > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbb{P} \left(\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \epsilon_i) \{(u^\top R_i)^2 - 1\} \right| \geq 16 \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}}, \frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n} \right\} \right) \\ (2) \quad &\leq e^9 \delta. \end{aligned}$$

For the second term on the right-hand side of (1), note first that for any $u \in B_0(\ell)$, we have by Cauchy–Schwarz that

$$(u^\top g)^2 \leq \|u_S\|_0 \|u_S\|_2^2 \leq \|u_S\|_0 \leq \ell.$$

We deduce using Bernstein’s inequality for Binomial random variables (e.g. [Shorack and Wellner, 1986](#), p. 855) that for any $s > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P} \left\{ \sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \frac{1 + (u^\top g)^2 + \|u_{S^c}\|_2^2}{n} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \pi_0) \right| \geq s \right\} \\ & \leq \mathbb{P} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \pi_0) \right| \geq \frac{s}{3\ell} \right\} \leq 2 \exp \left(-\frac{ns^2}{18\ell^2\pi_0 + 2s\ell} \right) \\ & \leq 2 \max \left\{ \exp \left(-\frac{ns^2}{(19 + \sqrt{37})\ell^2\pi_0} \right), \exp \left(-\frac{ns}{(1 + \sqrt{37})\ell} \right) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

By assumption, $\ell\pi_0 \leq 2$. Hence, for any $\delta > 0$,

$$(3) \quad \mathbb{P} \left\{ \sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \frac{1 + (u^\top g)^2 + \|u_{S^c}\|_2^2}{n} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \pi_0) \right| \geq (1 + \sqrt{37}) \max \left(\sqrt{\frac{\ell \log(1/\delta)}{n}}, \frac{\ell \log(1/\delta)}{n} \right) \right\} \leq 2\delta.$$

The third term on the right-hand side of (1) can be handled in a very similar way to the first. We find that for every $\delta > 0$,

$$(4) \quad \mathbb{P} \left(\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \{ (u^\top \tilde{R}_i)^2 - \|u_{S^c}\|_2^2 \} \right| \geq 16 \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}}, \frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n} \right\} \right) \leq e^9 \delta.$$

For the final term, by definition of \tilde{R}_i , we have for any $u \in B_0(\ell)$ that

$$\left| \frac{2u^\top g}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i (u^\top \tilde{R}_i) \right| \leq \frac{2\ell^{1/2}}{n} \left| \sum_{j:g_j=0} u_j \sum_{i:\epsilon_i=1} r_{ij} \right| \leq \frac{2\ell}{n} \max_{j:g_j=0} \left| \sum_{i:\epsilon_i=1} r_{ij} \right|.$$

Hence by Hoeffding's inequality, for any $s > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\left\{\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{2u^\top g}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i(u^\top \tilde{R}_i) \right| \geq s\right\} &\leq \mathbb{E}\left\{\mathbb{P}\left(\max_{1 \leq j \leq p} \left| \sum_{i: \epsilon_i=1} r_{ij} \right| \geq \frac{ns}{2\ell} \mid N_\epsilon\right)\right\} \\ &\leq 2p\mathbb{E}\left\{\exp\left(-\frac{n^2 s^2}{8\ell^2 N_\epsilon}\right)\right\} \leq 2p \inf_{t>0} \left\{\exp\left(-\frac{n^2 s^2}{8\ell^2 t}\right) + \mathbb{P}(N_\epsilon > t)\right\} \\ &\leq 2p \inf_{t>0} \left\{\exp\left(-\frac{n^2 s^2}{8\ell^2 t}\right) + \exp\left(-t \log \frac{t}{n\pi_0} + t - n\pi_0\right)\right\}, \end{aligned}$$

where the final line follows by Bennett's inequality (e.g. [Shorack and Wellner, 1986](#), p. 440). Choosing $t = \max(e^2 n\pi_0, \frac{ns}{2^{3/2}\ell})$, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\left\{\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{2u^\top g}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i(u^\top \tilde{R}_i) \right| \geq s\right\} \\ \leq 2p \max\left\{\exp\left(-\frac{ns^2}{8e^2\ell^2\pi_0}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{ns}{2^{3/2}\ell}\right), 2\exp\left(-\frac{ns}{2^{3/2}\ell}\right)\right\} \\ \leq 4p \max\left\{\exp\left(-\frac{ns^2}{16e^2\ell}\right), \exp\left(-\frac{ns}{2^{3/2}\ell}\right)\right\}. \end{aligned}$$

We deduce that for any $\delta > 0$,

$$(5) \quad \mathbb{P}\left[\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} \left| \frac{2u^\top g}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i(u^\top \tilde{R}_i) \right| \geq 4e \max\left\{\sqrt{\frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}}, \frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}\right\}\right] \leq 4\delta.$$

We conclude from (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5) that for any $\delta > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\sup_{u \in B_0(\ell)} |\hat{V}(u) - V(u)| \geq 750 \max\left\{\sqrt{\frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}}, \frac{\ell \log(p/\delta)}{n}\right\}\right] \leq \delta,$$

as required. \square

LEMMA 7. *Let $v = (v_1, \dots, v_p)^\top \in B_0(k)$ and let $\hat{v} = (\hat{v}_1, \dots, \hat{v}_p)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^p$ be such that $\|\hat{v}\|_2 = 1$. Let $S := \{j \in \{1, \dots, p\} : v_j \neq 0\}$. Then for any $\hat{S} \in \operatorname{argmax}_{1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_k \leq p} \sum_{r=1}^k |\hat{v}_{j_r}|$, we have*

$$L(\hat{v}, v)^2 \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} v_j^2.$$

PROOF. By the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality, and then by definition of \hat{S} ,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - L(\hat{v}, v)^2 &= \left(\sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} \hat{v}_j v_j + \sum_{j \in S \cap \hat{S}} \hat{v}_j v_j \right)^2 \\ &\leq \left(2 \sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} \hat{v}_j^2 + \sum_{j \in S \cap \hat{S}} \hat{v}_j^2 \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} v_j^2 + \sum_{j \in S \cap \hat{S}} v_j^2 \right) \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{j \in \hat{S} \setminus S} \hat{v}_j^2 + \sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} \hat{v}_j^2 + \sum_{j \in S \cap \hat{S}} \hat{v}_j^2 \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} v_j^2 \right) \leq 1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \in S \setminus \hat{S}} v_j^2, \end{aligned}$$

as required. \square

LEMMA 8. *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ be a symmetric matrix. Let $A^{(r)}$ be the principal submatrix of A obtained by deleting the r th row and r th column of A . If A has a unique (up to sign) leading eigenvector v , then*

$$\lambda_2(A) \leq \lambda_1(A^{(r)}) \leq \lambda_1(A) - v_{1,r}^2(\lambda_1(A) - \lambda_2(A))$$

PROOF. The first inequality in the lemma is implied by Cauchy’s Interlacing Theorem (see, e.g. [Horn and Johnson \(2012, Theorem 4.3.17\)](#)). It remains to show the second inequality. Let $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_d$ be eigenvalues of A (counting multiplicities), and v_1, \dots, v_d be unit-length eigenvectors of A such that $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$ and $v_i^\top v_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1(A^{(r)}) &= \max_{\substack{\|u\|_2=1 \\ u_r=0}} u^\top A u = \max_{\substack{\|u\|_2=1 \\ u_r=0}} u^\top \left(\sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i v_i v_i^\top \right) u \\ &\leq \max_{\substack{\|u\|_2=1 \\ u_r=0}} \left\{ (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) u^\top v_1 v_1^\top u + \lambda_2 u^\top \left(\sum_{i=1}^d v_i v_i^\top \right) u \right\} \\ &\leq \max_{\substack{\|u\|_2=1 \\ u_r=0}} (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) |u^\top v_1|^2 + \lambda_2 \\ &\leq (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)(1 - v_{1,r}^2) + \lambda_2 \\ &= \lambda_1 - v_{1,r}^2(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2), \end{aligned}$$

where we used Cauchy–Schwarz inequality in the penultimate line. \square

Recall the definition of the total variation distance d_{TV} given in the proof of Theorem 6 in the main document [Wang, Berthet and Samworth \(2015\)](#).

LEMMA 9. *Let X and Y be random elements taking values in a measurable space (F, \mathcal{F}) , and let (G, \mathcal{G}) be another measurable space.*

(a) *If $\phi : F \rightarrow G$ is measurable, then*

$$d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(\phi(X)), \mathcal{L}(\phi(Y))) \leq d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X), \mathcal{L}(Y)).$$

(b) *Let Z be a random element taking values in (G, \mathcal{G}) , and suppose that Z is independent of (X, Y) . Then*

$$d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X, Z), \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)) = d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X), \mathcal{L}(Y)).$$

PROOF. (a) For any $A \in \mathcal{G}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbb{P}\{\phi(X) \in A\} - \mathbb{P}\{\phi(Y) \in A\}| &= |\mathbb{P}\{X \in \phi^{-1}(A)\} - \mathbb{P}\{Y \in \phi^{-1}(A)\}| \\ &\leq d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X), \mathcal{L}(Y)). \end{aligned}$$

Since $A \in \mathcal{G}$ was arbitrary, the result follows.

(b) Define $\phi : F \times G \rightarrow F$ by $\phi(w, z) := w$. Then ϕ is measurable, and using the result of part (a),

$$\begin{aligned} d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X), \mathcal{L}(Y)) &= d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(\phi(X, Z)), \mathcal{L}(\phi(Y, Z))) \\ &\leq d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X, Z), \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)). \end{aligned}$$

For the other inequality, let \mathcal{A} denote the set of subsets A of $\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G}$ with the property that given $\epsilon > 0$, there exist sets $B_{1,F}, \dots, B_{n,F} \in \mathcal{F}$ and disjoint sets $B_{1,G}, \dots, B_{n,G} \in \mathcal{G}$ such that, writing $B := \cup_{i=1}^n (B_{i,F} \times B_{i,G})$, we have $\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A \Delta B) < \epsilon$ and $\mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A \Delta B) < \epsilon$. Here, the binary operator Δ denotes the symmetric difference of two sets, so that $A \Delta B := (A \cap B^c) \cup (A^c \cap B)$. Note that $\mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. Now suppose $A \in \mathcal{A}$ so that, given $\epsilon > 0$, we can find sets $B_{1,F}, \dots, B_{n,F} \in \mathcal{F}$ and disjoint sets $B_{1,G}, \dots, B_{n,G} \in \mathcal{G}$ with the properties above. Observe that we can write

$$B^c = \bigcup_{I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}} \left(\bigcap_{i \in I} B_{i,F}^c \times \bigcap_{i \in I} B_{i,G} \cap \bigcap_{i \in I^c} B_{i,G}^c \right).$$

For each $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$, the sets $\cap_{i \in I} B_{i,F}^c$ belong to \mathcal{F} , and $\{\cap_{i \in I} B_{i,G} \cap \cap_{i \in I^c} B_{i,G}^c : I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}\}$ is a family of disjoint sets in \mathcal{G} . Moreover,

$$\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A^c \Delta B^c) = \mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A \Delta B) < \epsilon,$$

and similarly $\mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A^c \Delta B^c) < \epsilon$. We deduce that $A^c \in \mathcal{A}$. Finally, if (A_n) is a disjoint sequence in \mathcal{A} , then let $A := \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$, and given $\epsilon > 0$, find

$m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A \setminus \cup_{i=1}^m A_i) < \epsilon/2$ and $\mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A \setminus \cup_{i=1}^m A_i) < \epsilon/2$. Now, for each $i = 1, \dots, m$, find sets $B_{i1,F}, \dots, B_{in_i,F} \in \mathcal{F}$ and disjoint sets $B_{i1,G}, \dots, B_{in_i,G} \in \mathcal{G}$ such that, writing $B_i := \cup_{j=1}^{n_i} (B_{ij,F} \times B_{ij,G})$, we have $\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A_i \Delta B_i) < \epsilon/(2m)$ and $\mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A_i \Delta B_i) < \epsilon/(2m)$. It is convenient to relabel the sets $\{(B_{ij,F}, B_{ij,G}) : i = 1, \dots, m, j = 1, \dots, n_i\}$ as $\{(C_{1,F}, C_{1,G}), \dots, (C_{N,F}, C_{N,G})\}$, where $N := \sum_{i=1}^m n_i$. This means that we can write

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^m B_i = \bigcup_{k=1}^N (C_{k,F} \times C_{k,G}) = \bigcup_{K \subseteq \{1, \dots, N\}, K \neq \emptyset} \left(\bigcup_{k \in K} C_{k,F} \times \bigcap_{k \in K} C_{k,G} \cap \bigcap_{k \in K^c} C_{k,G}^c \right).$$

Now, for each non-empty subset K of $\{1, \dots, N\}$, the set $\cup_{k \in K} C_{k,F}$ belongs to \mathcal{F} , and $\{\bigcap_{k \in K} C_{k,G} \cap \bigcap_{k \in K^c} C_{k,G}^c : K \subseteq \{1, \dots, N\}, K \neq \emptyset\}$ is a family of disjoint sets in \mathcal{G} . Moreover,

$$\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A \Delta \cup_{i=1}^m B_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A_i \Delta B_i) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon,$$

and similarly, $\mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A \Delta \cup_{i=1}^m B_i) < \epsilon$. We deduce that $A \in \mathcal{A}$, so \mathcal{A} is a σ -algebra containing $\mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{G}$, so \mathcal{A} contains $\mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G}$.

Now suppose that $A \in \mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{G}$. By the argument above, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exist sets $B_{1,F}, \dots, B_{n,F} \in \mathcal{F}$ and disjoint sets $B_{1,G}, \dots, B_{n,G} \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A \Delta \cup_{i=1}^n (B_{i,F} \times B_{i,G})) < \epsilon/2$ and $\mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A \Delta \cup_{i=1}^n (B_{i,F} \times B_{i,G})) < \epsilon/2$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} & |\mathbb{P}((X, Z) \in A) - \mathbb{P}((Y, Z) \in A)| \\ & \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbb{P}(X \in B_{i,F}, Z \in B_{i,G}) - \mathbb{P}(Y \in B_{i,F}, Z \in B_{i,G})| + \epsilon \\ & = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(Z \in B_{i,G}) |\mathbb{P}(X \in B_{i,F}) - \mathbb{P}(Y \in B_{i,F})| + \epsilon \leq d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X), \mathcal{L}(Y)) + \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Since $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\epsilon > 0$ were arbitrary, we conclude that

$$d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X, Z), \mathcal{L}(Y, Z)) \leq d_{\text{TV}}(\mathcal{L}(X), \mathcal{L}(Y)),$$

as required. \square

2. A brief introduction to computational complexity theory.

The following is intended to give a short introduction to notions in computational complexity theory referred to in [Wang, Berthet and Samworth](#)

(2015). A good reference for further information is [Arora and Barak \(2009\)](#), from which much of the following is inspired.

A *computational problem* is the task of generating a desired output based on a given input. Formally, defining $\{0, 1\}^* := \cup_{k=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\}^k$ to be the set of all finite strings of zeros and ones, we can view a computational problem as a function $F : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\{0, 1\}^*)$, where $\mathcal{P}(A)$ denotes the power set of a set A . The interpretation is that $F(s)$ describes the set of acceptable output strings (solutions) for a particular input string s .

Loosely speaking, an *algorithm* is a collection of instructions for performing a task. Despite the widespread use of algorithms in mathematics throughout history, it was not until 1936 that Alonzo Church and Alan Turing formalised the notion by defining notational systems called the λ -calculus and Turing machines respectively ([Church, 1936](#); [Turing, 1936](#)). Here we define an algorithm to be a *Turing machine*:

DEFINITION 1. A Turing machine M is a pair (Q, δ) , where

- Q is a finite set of states, among which are two distinguished states q_{start} and q_{halt} .
- δ is a ‘transition’ function from $Q \times \{0, 1, \sqcup\}$ to $Q \times \{0, 1, \sqcup\} \times \{L, R\}$.

A Turing Machine can be thought of as having a reading head that can access a tape consisting of a countably infinite number of squares, labelled $0, 1, 2, \dots$. When the Turing machine is given an input $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$, the tape is initialised with the components of s in its first $|s|$ tape squares (where $|\cdot|$ denotes the length of a string in $\{0, 1\}^*$) and with ‘blank symbols’ \sqcup in its remaining squares. The Turing machine starts in the state $q_{\text{start}} \in Q$ with its head on the 0th square and operates according to its transition function δ . When the machine is in state $q \in Q$ with its head over the i th tape square that contains the symbol $a \in \{0, 1, \sqcup\}$, and if $\delta(q, a) = (q', a', L)$, the machine overwrites a with a' , updates its state to q' , and moves to square $i - 1$ (or to square $i + 1$ if the third component of the transition function is R instead of L). The Turing machine stops if it reaches state $q_{\text{halt}} \in Q$ and outputs the vector of symbols on the tape before the first blank symbol. If the Turing machine M terminates (in finitely many steps) with input s , we write $M(s)$ for its output.

We say an algorithm (Turing machine) M *solves a computational problem* F if M terminates for every input $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$, and $M(s) \in F(s)$. A computational problem is *solvable* if there exists a Turing machine that solves it. It turns out that other notions of an algorithm (including Church’s λ -calculus and modern computer programming languages) are equivalent in the sense

that the set of solvable problems is the same.

A *polynomial time algorithm* is a Turing machine M for which there exist $a, b > 0$ such that for all input strings $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$, M terminates after at most $a|s|^b$ transitions. We say a problem F is *polynomial time solvable*, written $F \in \mathbf{P}$, if there exists a polynomial time algorithm that solves it¹.

A *nondeterministic Turing machine* has the same definition as that for a Turing machine except that the transition function δ becomes a set-valued function $\delta : Q \times \{0, 1, \sqcup\} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \{0, 1, \sqcup\} \times \{L, R\})$. The idea is that, while in state q with its head over symbol a , a nondeterministic Turing machine replicates $|\delta(q, a)|$ copies of itself (and its tape) in the current configuration, each exploring a different possible future configuration in the set $\delta(q, a)$. Each replicate branches to further replicates in the next step. The process continues until one of its replicates reaches the state q_{halt} . At that point, the Turing machine replicate that has halted outputs its tape content and all replicates stop computation. A *nondeterministic polynomial time algorithm* is a nondeterministic Turing machine M_{nd} for which there exist $a, b > 0$ such that for all input strings $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$, M_{nd} terminates after at most $a|s|^b$ steps. (We count all replicates of M_{nd} making one parallel transition as one step.) We say a computational problem F is *nondeterministically polynomial time solvable*, written $F \in \mathbf{NP}$, if there exists a nondeterministic polynomial time algorithm that solves it².

Clearly $\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{NP}$, but it is not currently known if these classes are equal. It is widely believed that $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, and many computational lower bounds for particular computational problems have been proved conditional under this assumption. Working under this hypothesis, a common strategy is to relate the algorithmic complexity of one computational problem to another. We say a computational problem F is *polynomial time reducible* to another problem G , written as $F \leq_{\mathbf{P}} G$, if there exist polynomial time algorithms M_{in} and M_{out} such that $M_{\text{out}} \circ G \circ M_{\text{in}}(s) \subseteq F(s)$. In other words, $F \leq_{\mathbf{P}} G$ if we can convert an input of F to an input of G through M_{in} , and translate every solution of G back to a solution for F through M_{out} .

DEFINITION 2. *A computational problem G is NP-hard if $F \leq_{\mathbf{P}} G$ for all $F \in \mathbf{NP}$. It is NP-complete if it is in NP and is NP-hard.*

¹In fact, some authors write FP (short for ‘Functional Polynomial Time’) for the class we have denoted as \mathbf{P} here. The notation \mathbf{P} is then reserved for the subset of computational problems consisting of so-called *decision problems* F , where $F(s) \in \{\{0\}, \{1\}\}$ for all $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$.

²Again, some authors write FNP for the class we have denoted as \mathbf{NP} here.

Karp (1972) showed that a large number of natural computational problems are NP-complete, including the Clique problem mentioned in Section 4. The Turing machines and nondeterministic Turing machines introduced above are both non-random. In some situations (e.g. statistical problems), it is useful to consider random procedures:

DEFINITION 3. A probabilistic Turing machine M_{pr} is a triple (Q, δ, X) , where

- Q is a finite set of states, among which are two distinguished states q_{start} and q_{halt} .
- δ is a transition function from $Q \times \{0, 1, _ \} \times \{0, 1\}$ to $Q \times \{0, 1, _ \} \times \{L, R\}$.
- $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots)$ is an infinite sequence of independent Bern(1/2) random variables.

In its t th step, if a probabilistic Turing machine M_{pr} is in state q with its reading head over symbol a , and $\delta(q, a, X_t) = (q', a', L)$, then M_{pr} overwrites a with a' , updates its state to q' and moves its reading head to the left (or to the right if $\delta(q, a, X_t) = (q', a', R)$). A *randomised polynomial time algorithm* is a probabilistic Turing machine M_{pr} for which there exist $a, b > 0$ such that for any $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$, M_{pr} terminates in at most $a|s|^b$ steps. We say a computational problem F is *solvable in randomised polynomial time*, written as $F \in \text{BPP}$, if, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a randomised polynomial time algorithm $M_{\text{pr}, \epsilon}$ such that $\mathbb{P}(M_{\text{pr}, \epsilon}(s) \in F(s)) \geq 1 - \epsilon$.

In the above discussion, the classes P, NP, BPP are all defined through worst-case performance of an algorithm, since we require the time bound to hold for every input string s . However, in many statistical applications, the input string s is drawn from some distribution \mathcal{D} on $\{0, 1\}^*$, and it is the average performance of the algorithm, rather than the worst case scenario, that is of more interest. We say such a random problem is solvable in randomised polynomial time if, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a randomised polynomial time algorithm $M_{\text{pr}, \epsilon}$ such that, when $s \sim \mathcal{D}$, independent of X , we have $\mathbb{P}(M_{\text{pr}, \epsilon}(s) \in F(s)) \geq 1 - \epsilon$. Note that the probability here is taken over both the randomness in s and the randomness in X . Similar to the non-random cases, we can talk about randomised polynomial time reduction. If M_F is a randomised polynomial time algorithm for a computational problem F , then $M_{\text{out}} \circ M_F \circ M_{\text{in}}$ is a potential randomised polynomial time algorithm for another problem G for suitably constructed randomised polynomial time algorithms M_{in} and M_{out} . One such construction is the key to the proof of Theorem 6 in the main document Wang, Berthet and Samworth (2015).

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