Efficient Algorithms for Robust One-bit Compressive Sensing

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Abstract
While the conventional compressive sensing assumes measurements of infinite precision, one-bit compressive sensing considers an extreme setting where each measurement is quantized to just a single bit. In this paper, we study the vector recovery problem from noisy one-bit measurements, and develop two novel algorithms with formal theoretical guarantees. First, we propose a passive algorithm, which is very efficient in the sense it only needs to solve a convex optimization problem that has a closed-form solution. Despite the apparent simplicity, our theoretical analysis reveals that the proposed algorithm can recover both the exactly sparse and the approximately sparse vectors. In particular, for a sparse vector with \( s \) nonzero elements, the sample complexity is \( O(s \log n/\epsilon^2) \), where \( n \) is the dimensionality and \( \epsilon \) is the recovery error. This result improves significantly over the previously best known sample complexity in the noisy setting, which is \( O(s \log n/\epsilon^4) \). Second, in the case that the noise model is known, we develop an adaptive algorithm based on the principle of active learning. The key idea is to solicit the sign information only when it cannot be inferred from the current estimator. Compared with the passive algorithm, the adaptive one has a lower sample complexity if a high-precision solution is desired.

1. Introduction
Compressive sensing is designed to recover a sparse signal from a small number of linear measurements (Donoho, 2006; Candes & Tao, 2006). A variant of compressive sensing, named one-bit compressive sensing, has attracted considerable interests over the past few years (Boufounos & Baraniuk, 2008). Unlike the conventional compressive sensing which relies on real-valued measurements, in one-bit compressive sensing, each measurement is quantized to a single bit (e.g., the sign of a measurement). This new setup is appealing because (i) the hardware implementation of one-bit quantizer is low-cost and efficient, (ii) one-bit measurement is robust to nonlinear distortions (Boufounos, 2010), and (iii) in certain situations, for example, when the signal-to-noise ratio is low, one-bit compressive sensing performs even better than the conventional one (Laska & Baraniuk, 2012).

In this paper, we focus on the sample complexity of vector recovery in one-bit compressive sensing, i.e., the number of one-bit measurements that are needed to recover the direction of the target vector \( x^* \), with at most \( \epsilon \) error. Sample complexity of one-bit compressive sensing has been studied extensively in the noiseless case (Plan & Vershynin, 2013a; Jacques et al., 2013; Gopi et al., 2013). When coming to the noisy case (i.e., the output bit is randomly perturbed from the sign of the real-valued measurement), only limited results are available (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b). We address this issue by developing two novel algorithms for robust one-bit compressive sensing that are computationally efficient and demonstrate significantly lower sample complexities than the existing studies. More specifically, the main contributions of this paper are:

\(^1\)Strictly speaking, there are two types of sample complexities in compressive sensing: one holds for a fixed vector and the other holds for all possible vectors (Gopi et al., 2013). In this study, we focus on the sample complexity for a fixed vector.
Unlike previous studies of one-bit compressive sensing that require solving optimization problems (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b), the proposed algorithm has a closed-form solution, making it computationally attractive.

- Our analysis shows that in the case of noisy one-bit measure, the proposed algorithm improves the sample complexity from $O(s \log n / \epsilon^2)$ to $O(s \log n / \epsilon^2)$ when the target signal is an exactly $s$-sparse $n$-dimensional vector.

- We develop a novel adaptive algorithm to further reduce the number of one-bit measurements. When the noisy model is known, the proposed adaptive algorithm improves the sample complexity to $O(\min(s \log n / \epsilon^2, s \sqrt{n} \log n / \epsilon))$ if the target vector is exactly $s$-sparse and to $O(\min(s \log n / \epsilon^2, s \sqrt{m} \log n / \epsilon^2))$ if the target vector is approximately $s$-sparse (i.e., $\|x_s\|_1 / \|x\|_2 \leq \sqrt{3}$).

2. Related Work

One-bit compressive sensing was first introduced in (Boufounos & Baraniuk, 2008), where only the noiseless one-bit measure is considered. Let $U = [u_1, \ldots, u_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a known measurement matrix, and $y = [y_1, \ldots, y_m]^T$ be the $m$-dimensional one-bit measurement, where $y_i = \text{sign}(x_i^T u_i)$. The authors propose to recover the direction of target signal $x_s$ by solving the following optimization problem

$$\min \|x\|_1 \text{ s.t. } y \odot (U^T x) \geq 0, \|x\|_2 = 1 \quad (1)$$

where $\odot$ stands for the element-wise product between two vectors. One problem with (1) is that it requires solving a non-convex optimization problem. A provable optimization algorithm was proposed in (Lasla et al., 2011) to find a stationary point of (1). However, none of these two works provide a formal guarantee on the sample complexity.

In (Jacques et al., 2013), the authors study a similar formulation by replacing $\|x\|_1$ in (1) with $\|x\|_0$, and show a sample complexity of $O(s \log n / \epsilon)$ for recovering the direction of a $s$-sparse vector. However, it remains unsolved as how to efficiently solve the corresponding non-convex optimization problem is unclear. Gopi et al. (2013) developed an efficient two-stage algorithm for one-bit compressive sensing that achieves a sample complexity of $O(s \log n / \epsilon)$.

The first convex formulation for one-bit compressive sensing was proposed in (Plan & Vershynin, 2013a). It solves the following linear programming problem

$$\min \|x\|_1 \text{ s.t. } y \odot (U^T x) \geq 0, \|U^T x\|_1 = m \quad (2)$$

An important property of the formulation in (2) is that it can recover not only the exactly sparse vector but also the approximately sparse vector (i.e., $\|x_s\|_1 / \|x\|_2 \leq \sqrt{3}$). However, a major drawback of this study is the sample complexity, which is $O(s \log^2 n / \epsilon^3)$, exhibits a very high dependence on $1 / \epsilon$.

So far, all the related work discussed above assume the one-bit measure to be perfect (i.e., $y_i = \text{sign}(x_i^T u_i)$). Although several heuristic algorithms (Yan et al., 2012; Movahed et al., 2012; Jacques et al., 2013) were proposed to handle noise in one-bit measure, none of them has theoretical guarantees. The only provable recovery algorithm for robust compressive sensing is given in (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b), where the sparse vector is recovered by solving the following convex optimization problem

$$\max \ x^T U y \text{ s.t. } \|x\|_2 \leq 1, \|x\|_1 \leq \sqrt{s} \quad (3)$$

According to (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b), the above formulation can recover both the exactly sparse and approximately sparse vectors with a sample complexity $O(s \log n / \epsilon^4)$.

Table 1 summarizes the sample complexities of existing results, as well as the two algorithms proposed in this paper.

Besides the vector recovery problem, several algorithms have been developed for recovering the support set of the target vector (Gupta et al., 2010; Haupt & Baraniuk, 2011; Gopi et al., 2013), which is not closely related to our work.

Finally, the idea of adaptive sensing, which uses information gathered from previous measurements to guide the design and selection of the next measurement, has been applied to both conventional compressive sensing (Haupt et al., 2009a,b) and one-bit compressive (Gupta et al., 2010). The general conclusion is that adaptive sensing is helpful in recovering sparse signals when signal-to-noise ratio is low (Malloy & Nowak, 2012).

3. Efficient Algorithms for One-bit Compressive Sensing (CS)

We first introduce notations and assumptions of one-bit compressive sensing. We then present both passive and adaptive algorithms for one-bit compressive sensing, followed by their theoretical guarantees.

3.1. Preliminary

Let $x_s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be a sparse or compressible vector to be recovered. Let $U = [u_1, \ldots, u_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be the random Gaussian matrix used to obtain the binary measurements for $x_s$, and elements of $U$ are i.i.d. standard Gaussian random variables. For each vector $u_i$, we receive a 1-bit measurement $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ from an Oracle. Following (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b), we assume that $y_i$ is drawn...
independently at random satisfying
\[ E[y_i | u_i] = \theta(x_s^\top u_i), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m \] (4)
where \( \theta(z) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [-1, +1] \) is some nonlinear function that can be unknown. In order to capture the relation between \( u_i \) and \( y_i \), following \cite{Plan2013b}, we define \( \lambda \) for \( \theta(z) \) as follows,
\[ \lambda := E_{g \sim N(0,1)}[\theta(g)g] \] (5)
where \( \lambda \) measures how well \( y_i \) is correlated with \( x_s^\top u_i \). We assume \( \lambda > 0 \), implying that a positive correlation between the real-valued measurement and the binary output from \( \theta(\cdot) \).

Since we only receive the sign information about the random measurements, it is impossible to recover the scale of \( x_s \). As a result, we will only consider the recovery of the direction of \( x_s \), and therefore assume \( \|x_s\|_2 = 1 \).

### 3.2. Passive Algorithm for 1-bit CS

The proposed algorithm is inspired by the convex formulation in (3). Instead of having a constraint \( \|x\|_1 \leq \sqrt{s} \) to ensure a sparse solution, we introduce a \( \ell_1 \) regularizer in the objective function, leading to the following optimization problem
\[ \min_{\|x\|_1 \leq 1} \frac{1}{m} x^\top Uy + \gamma \|x\|_1 \] (6)
where \( \gamma > 0 \) is a regularization parameter, whose value will be discussed later. As shown below, the problem in (6) has a closed-form solution.

Define the soft-thresholding operator \cite{Donoho1995, Duchi2009} as
\[ P_\gamma(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } |\alpha| \leq \gamma; \\ \text{sign}(\alpha)(|\alpha| - \gamma), & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \] (7)

We extend the operator \( P_\gamma(\cdot) \) to vectors as
\[ P_\gamma([\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m]^\top) = \left[ P_\gamma(\alpha_1), \ldots, P_\gamma(\alpha_m) \right]^\top. \]

**Lemma 1.** Let \( \tilde{x} \) be the optimal solution of (6). Then, we have
\[ \tilde{x} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \frac{1}{m} Uy \|_\infty \leq \gamma; \\ \frac{1}{\|P_\gamma(\frac{1}{m} Uy)\|_2} P_\gamma(\frac{1}{m} Uy), & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \]

The proof can be found in the supplementary material.

The following theorem provides the recovery rate for the optimal solution to (6).

**Theorem 1.** Assume
\[ \gamma = 2c \sqrt{\frac{t + \log n}{m}} \] (8)
for some constant \( c \). If \( x_s \) is exactly sparse, i.e., \( \|x_s\|_0 \leq s \), with a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-c' t} \), we have
\[ \|\tilde{x} - x_s\|_2 \leq \frac{3\gamma}{\lambda} \sqrt{s \log n} = O \left( \sqrt{s \log n} \right). \]

If \( x_s \) is approximately sparse, i.e., \( \|x\|_1 \leq \sqrt{s} \), with a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-c' t} \), we have
\[ \|\tilde{x} - x_s\|_2 \leq \frac{3\gamma}{\lambda} \sqrt{s \log n} = O \left( \sqrt{s \log n} \right). \]

**Remark** Compared to the result in \cite{Plan2013b}, the proposed algorithm improves the sample complexity from \( O(s \log n/e^2) \) to \( O(s \log n/e^3) \) when recovering an exactly \( s \)-sparse vector from noisy one-bit measurements. In addition, the sample complexity of the proposed algorithm for one-bit compressive sensing matches the minimax rate of conventional compressive sensing \cite{Raskutti2011} for both exactly sparse and approximately sparse vectors. We however emphasize that...
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Algorithm 1 An adaptive algorithm for One-bit Compressive Sensing

1: **Input:** the number of stages \( K \), the initial sample size \( m_1 \), the initial regularizer \( \gamma_1 \), the step size \( \eta \) \in \{2^{1/2}, 2^{1/4}\}.
2: Let \( x_1 \) be any unit vector, \( \delta_1 = 1 \).
3: for \( k = 1 \) to \( K \) do
4: Randomly sample \( m_k \) Gaussian random vectors \( G_k = \{u_{1k}, \ldots, u_{mk}\} \).
5: Divide \( G_k \) into \( A_k \) and \( B_k \) according to (11).
6: For \( u_{ik} \in A_k \), generate the one-bit measurement \( y_{ik} \) from \( \text{sign}(x_1^Tu_{ik}) \).
7: For \( u_{ik} \in B_k \), query the Oracle to obtain the one-bit measurement \( y_{ik} \).
8: \( x_{k+1} = \arg \min_{\|x\|_2 \leq 1} \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} y_{ik}^T x_{ik} + \gamma_k \|x\|_1 \).
9: \( m_{k+1} = 2m_k \), \( \gamma_{k+1} = \gamma_k/\sqrt{2} \), \( \delta_{k+1} = \delta_k/\eta \).
10: end for
11: **Output:** the final solution \( x_{K+1} \).

the guarantee for conventional compressive sensing algorithm does not directly apply to one-bit compressive sensing because \( E[|y_i|] \) is not proportional to \( x_1^Tu_i \). We also note that this sample complexity is better than \( O(n/\epsilon^2) \), which is the optimal rate for binary classification in the noisy setting (Anthony & Bartlett, 1999, Theorem 5.2).

3.3. An Adaptive Algorithm for 1-bit CS

The proposed algorithm aims to explore the idea of active learning (Dasgupta, 2011) to reduce the number of one-bit measurements. The key observation is that after observing certain number of one-bit measurements, we can obtain an intermediate solution \( \hat{x} \) that is reasonably close to the direction of the target vector. As a result, for the sequentially sampled random vector \( u \), we would expect \( \text{sign}(\hat{x}^Tu) = \text{sign}(x_1^Tu) \) if the direction of \( u \) is close to that of \( \hat{x} \) (or \( -\hat{x} \)) and therefore do not need to ask for an one-bit measurement for \( u \). However, it is problematic to directly replace \( y \), the one-bit measurement for \( u \), with \( \text{sign}(\hat{x}^Tu) \) since \( y \) is perturbed by random noise. A similar issue was also raised in (Yang & Hanneke, 2013), where the authors propose to re-noise the data to ensure all the measurements follow the same distribution. In this paper, for the sake of simplicity, we make the following assumption:

**A1:** We assume that for a vector \( u \), if the value of \( \text{sign}(x_1^Tu) \) is provided, we can generate the one-bit measurement \( y \) without querying the Oracle.

One possible noise model is

\[ y = \xi \text{sign}(x_1^Tu), \]

where \( \xi \) is a independent \{−1, 1\} valued random variable with \( \Pr(\xi = -1) = p \), representing random bit flips (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b). It is straightforward to generate the one-bit measurement \( y \) if both \( \text{sign}(x_1^Tu) \) and \( p \) are provided.

The complete procedure is provided in Algorithm 1. Our algorithm is closely related to the epoch gradient algorithm developed for stochastic optimization (Hazan & Kale, 2011). It divides the recovery process into \( K \) stages. At each stage \( k > 1 \), we assume that an approximate solution \( x_k \) is obtained from the previous stage with

\[ \|x_k\|_2 = 1 \text{ and } \|x_k - x_s\|_2 \leq \delta_k. \]

Let \( G_k = \{u_{1k}, \ldots, u_{mk}\} \) be a set of \( m_k \) vectors that are independently sampled from Gaussian distribution. We divide the set \( G_k \) into two subsets:

\[ A_k = \left\{ u_{ik} : x_1^Tu_{ik} > \delta_k \right\}, \]

\[ B_k = \left\{ u_{ik} : x_1^Tu_{ik} \leq \delta_k \right\}. \]

where \( A_k \) includes random vectors whose directions are close to \( x_k \) or \( -x_k \) while \( B_k \) includes those that are far away from \( x_k \) and \( -x_k \). The following Lemma reveals an important property of \( A_k \)

**Lemma 2.** Under the condition in (10), we have

\[ \text{sign}(x_1^Tu) = \text{sign}(x_1^Tu), \forall u \in A_k. \]

Since for any \( u \in A_k \), \( \text{sign}(x_1^Tu) \) can be inferred from \( \text{sign}(x_k^Tu) \), we can skip one-bit measurement for any \( u \in A_k \) and reduce the number of one-bit measurements.

We now discuss the recover property of Algorithm 1. For the case that \( x_1 \) is exactly sparse, we have the following theorem for the adaptive algorithm.

**Theorem 2.** Suppose \( x_1 \) is exactly sparse, i.e., \( \|x_1\|_0 \leq s \), and assumption A1 holds. Let

\[ m_1 = \frac{72c^2s(t + \log n)}{\lambda^2}, \quad \gamma_1 = \frac{\lambda}{3\sqrt{2}s}, \quad \eta = 2^{1/2} \]

where \( c \) is the constant in Theorem 1. Then, with a probability at least 1 - \( K/e^{1-t} \), we have

\[ \|x_{K+1} - \hat{x}\|_2 \leq \delta_{K+1} = \frac{1}{2K^{1/2}}. \]

Furthermore, with a probability at least 1 - \( (e + 1)(K - 1)e^{-t} \), the number of calls to the Oracle \( \sum_{k=1}^{K} |B_k| \) is bounded by

\[ \min \left( 2(K - 1)t + (5\sqrt{m_1}K/2 + 1)m_1 + 2^{K} \right). \]
The above theorem immediately implies the following corollary.

**Corollary 1.** Under the condition in Theorem 2, the recovery rate of the adaptive algorithm is

\[
O\left(\min\left(\frac{s \log n}{m}, \frac{s \sqrt{n} \log n}{m} \epsilon^3\right)\right),
\]

where \( m = \sum_{k=1}^{K} |B_k| \) is the total number of measurements. And thus the sample complexity is

\[
O\left(\min\left(\frac{s \log n}{\epsilon^2}, \frac{s \sqrt{n} \log n}{\epsilon}\right)\right).
\]

**Remark** As a result, the sample complexity of the adaptive algorithm is smaller than that of the passive algorithm, when \( \epsilon \leq O(1/\sqrt{n}) \). Thus, if we want to find a high-precision solution, the adaptive algorithm is preferred.

A similar result can be obtained when \( x_* \) is approximately sparse.

**Theorem 3.** Suppose \( x_* \) is approximately sparse, i.e., \( \|x\|_1 \leq \sqrt{s} \), and assumption A1 holds. Let

\[
m_1 = \frac{72 \epsilon^2 s (t + \log n)}{\lambda^2}, \quad \gamma_1 = \frac{\lambda}{3 \sqrt{2} s}, \quad \eta = 2^{1/4}
\]

where \( c \) is the constant in Theorem 1. Then, with a probability at least \( 1 - Ke^{1-t} \), we have

\[
\|x^* - \hat{x}\|_2 \leq \delta_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2K/4}.
\]

Furthermore, with a probability at least \( 1 - (c + 1)(K - 1)e^{-t} \), the number of calls to the Oracle \( \sum_{k=1}^{K} |B_k| \) is bounded by

\[
\min\left(2(K - 1)t + (3\sqrt{n}2^{3K/4} + 1)m_1, m_1 2^{K}\right).
\]

**Corollary 2.** Under the condition in Theorem 3, the recovery rate of the adaptive algorithm is

\[
O\left(\min\left(\frac{s \log n}{m}, \frac{s \sqrt{n} \log n}{m} \epsilon^3\right)\right),
\]

where \( m = \sum_{k=1}^{K} |B_k| \) is the total number of measurements. And thus the sample complexity is

\[
O\left(\min\left(\frac{s \log n}{\epsilon^2}, \frac{s \sqrt{n} \log n}{\epsilon}\right)\right).
\]

Again, this sample complexity is better than that of the passive algorithm, when \( \epsilon \leq O(1/\sqrt{n}) \).

**Remark** It is interesting to compare our adaptive algorithm with the previous adaptive algorithms in compressive sensing. The main difference is that our algorithm improves the sample complexity with respect to the recovery error, while the existing methods improve the sample complexity respect to the signal-to-noise level (Malloy & Nowak, 2012) or the dynamic range (Gupta et al., 2010).

## 4. Analysis

We here present the proofs of main theorems. The omitted proofs are provided in the supplementary material.

### 4.1. Proof of Theorem 1

The analysis is fundamentally built upon the following observation between \( \frac{1}{m} Uy \) and \( \lambda x_* \).

**Lemma 3.** With a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-t} \), we have

\[
\frac{1}{m} Uy - \lambda x_* \leq c\sqrt{\frac{t + \log n}{m}} \frac{1}{2\gamma}
\]

for some constant \( c > 0 \).

Since \( \hat{x} \) is the optimal solution, we have

\[
-\frac{1}{m} x^T Uy + \gamma \|x^*\|_1 \leq -\frac{1}{m} x^T Uy + \gamma \|x^*\|_1.
\]

Thus,

\[
\gamma \|x^*\|_1 \geq \left( x_* - \hat{x}, \frac{Uy}{m} \right) + \gamma \|\hat{x}\|_1
\]

\[
= \left( x_* - \hat{x}, \lambda x_* \right) + \left( x_* - \hat{x}, \frac{Uy}{m} - \lambda x_* \right) + \gamma \|\hat{x}\|_1
\]

\[
\geq \lambda(1 - \frac{1}{m} x^T Ux_*) - \|x_* - \hat{x}\|_1 \left( \|Uy/m - \lambda x_*\|_\infty \right) + \gamma \|\hat{x}\|_1.
\]

Based on Lemma 3, we have

\[
\lambda(1 - \frac{1}{m} x^T Ux_*) + \gamma \|\hat{x}\|_1 \leq \gamma \|x^*\|_1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \|x_* - \hat{x}\|_1. \quad (12)
\]

First, we consider the case that \( x_* \) is exactly sparse, i.e., \( \|x_*\|_0 \leq s \). Let \( S \) be the support set of \( x_* \) and \( \overline{S} = [n] \setminus S \) be the complement set. We denote by \( P_S(x) \) the sub-vector of \( x \) indexed by the set \( S \), that is

\[
P_S(x) = [x_i : i \in S]^T.
\]

From (12), we have

\[
\lambda(1 - \frac{1}{m} x^T Ux_*) + \gamma \|P_S(\hat{x})\|_1 \leq \|P_S(x^*)\|_1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \|P_S(x_*) - \hat{x}\|_1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \|P_S(\hat{x})\|_1.
\]
Thus,
\[ \lambda(1 - \hat{x}^T x_s) + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| P_S(\hat{x}) \|_1 \]
\[ \leq \gamma \| x_s \|_1 - \gamma \| P_S(\hat{x}) \|_1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| P_S(x_s - \hat{x}) \|_1 \]
\[ \leq \frac{3\gamma}{2} \| P_S(x_s - \hat{x}) \|_2 \]

Then, we have
\[ \| x_s - \hat{x} \|_2 \leq 2(1 - \hat{x}^T x_s) \leq \frac{3\gamma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\| x_s \|_0 \| x_s - \hat{x} \|_2} \]

which implies
\[ \| x_s - \hat{x} \|_2 \leq \frac{3\gamma}{\lambda} \sqrt{\| x_s \|_0 \}. \]

Next, we consider the case that \( x_s \) is approximately sparse, i.e., \( \| x_s \|_1 \leq \sqrt{s} \). From (12), we have
\[ \lambda(1 - \hat{x}^T x_s) \]
\[ \leq \gamma \| x_s \|_1 - \gamma \| \hat{x} \|_1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_s \|_1 \leq \frac{3\gamma}{2} \| x_s \|_1 \]

Thus,
\[ \| x_s - \hat{x} \|_2 \leq 2(1 - \hat{x}^T x_s) \leq \frac{3\gamma}{\lambda} \| x_s \|_1 \].

4.2. Proof of Theorem 2

From the updating rule in our algorithm, it is easy to check that
\[ \delta_k = \frac{1}{2(2k - 1)^{1/2}}, \gamma_k = 2\sqrt{\frac{t + \log n}{m_k}}, \forall k. \]

So, the condition (8) in Theorem 1 is satisfied at each state.

We first consider the first stage. Since \( \| x_1 \|_1 = 1 \) and \( \delta_1 = 1 \), the definitions in (11) ensures \( B_1 = G_1 \). And thus we will query the Oracle to obtain the one-bit measurements for all the elements in \( G_1 \). As a result, we can apply Theorem 1 to bound the recovery error of \( x_2 \). Specifically, with a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-1 - t} \), we have
\[ \| x_2 - \hat{x} \|_2 \leq \frac{3\gamma_1}{\lambda} \sqrt{s} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \delta_2. \]

Thus, the condition in (10) is true for \( k = 2 \). Based on Lemma 2, we can apply Theorem 1 again and get
\[ \| x_3 - \hat{x} \|_2 \leq \frac{3\gamma_2}{\lambda} \sqrt{s} = \frac{3\gamma_1}{\lambda} \sqrt{s} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \delta_2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \delta_3. \]

Repeating the above argument for all the stages, we obtain the first part of the theorem.

Now, we consider bounding the size of \( B_k \). Since \( B_1 = G_1 \), we have
\[ |B_1| = m_1. \]

For \( k = 2 \), we have with a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-1 - t} \), (10) holds. We condition on the event that (10) is true, and proceed by analyzing the distribution of \( x_2^T u_2^2/\| u_2^2 \|_2 \) appears in the definition of \( B_2 \). Since \( u_2^2 \) is a Gaussian random vector, it is known that \( u_2^2/\| u_2^2 \|_2 \) is uniformly distributed on the \( n - 1 \)-sphere (Muller, 1959). Additionally, the distribution of \( x_2^T u_2^2/\| u_2^2 \|_2 \) is characterized by (Cho, 2009)
\[ f(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)\sqrt{n}2^{n/2}}(1-z^2)^{(n-2)/2}, & -1 < z < 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \]

where \( \Gamma(\cdot) \) is the Gamma function. Based on the bound for the ratio of two gamma functions (Luo & Qi, 2012, Equation 2.18), we have
\[ \sqrt{\frac{n}{2} - \frac{1}{4}} \leq \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)} \leq \sqrt{\frac{n}{2} - \frac{1}{2}}. \]

As a result, we have
\[ \Pr\left(\| x_2^T u_2^2/\| u_2^2 \|_2 \| \leq \delta_2 \right) \leq 2\delta_2 f(0) \leq 2\delta_2 \sqrt{\frac{n}{2} - \frac{1}{2}} \leq \sqrt{n\delta_2}. \]

Thus, for each vector \( u_2^2 \), the probability that it belongs to \( B_2 \) is smaller than \( \sqrt{n\delta_2} \). According to the Chernoff bound (Angluin & Valiant, 1979) provided in the supplementary material, we have with a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-t} \),
\[ |B_2| \leq 2E[|B_2|] + 2t \leq 2\sqrt{n\delta_2}m_2 + 2t. \]

Factoring in the conditioned event, which happens with a probability at least \( 1 - e^{-t} \), overall, we get that \( |B_2| < 2\sqrt{n\delta_2} + 2t \) with a probability at least \( 1 - (e + 1)e^{-t} \). Repeating the above argument for all the stages, we have with a probability at least \( 1 - (e + 1)(K - 1)e^{-t} \),
\[ |B_k| \leq 2\sqrt{n\delta_k}m_k + 2t, \forall k = 2, \ldots, K. \]

Thus, the total number of calls to the Oracle is upper bounded by
\[ m_1 + 2(K - 1)t + 2\sqrt{n} \sum_{k=2}^{K} \delta_k m_k \]
\[ = m_1 + 2(K - 1)t + 2\sqrt{n}m_1 \sum_{k=2}^{K} 2^{(k-1)/2} \]
\[ \leq 2(K - 1)t + (5\sqrt{n}2^{K/2} + 1)m_1. \]

On the other hand, we know that the size of \( B_k \) must be smaller than \( m_k \), and thus we also have
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{K} |B_k| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{K} m_k = m_1 \sum_{k=1}^{K} 2^{k-1} \leq m_1 2^K. \]
4.3. Proof of Lemma 3

We need the following lemma on the expectation of $u_i y_i$.

**Lemma 4.**

\[
E[u_i y_i] = \lambda x_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.
\]

Consider the $j$-th element of \(\frac{1}{m} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{y} - \lambda \mathbf{x}_i\), that is,
\[
\left[ \frac{1}{m} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{y} - \lambda \mathbf{x}_i \right]_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i^j y_i - \lambda x_i^j,
\]
where $u_i^j$ and $x_i^j$ are the $j$-th element of $u_i$ and $x_i$, respectively.

Lemma 4 implies $E[u_i^j y_i] = \lambda x_i^j$. From (Vershynin, 2012, Remark 5.18), we have
\[
\left\| u_i^j y_i - \lambda x_i^j \right\|_{\psi_2} \leq 2 \left\| u_i^j \right\|_{\psi_2}
\]
where $\mathbf{X} = \max_{p \geq 1} \left\| \mathbf{X} \right\|_{\psi_2}$ is the sub-gaussian norm of random variable $\mathbf{X}$ (Vershynin, 2012, Definition 5.7). Since $y_i \in \{ \pm 1 \}$, we have
\[
\left\| u_i^j y_i \right\|_{\psi_2} \leq c
\]
where $c > 0$ is an absolute constant, and the last inequality follows from $u_i^j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and (Vershynin, 2012, Example 5.8).

We will use the Hoeffding-type inequality for sub-gaussian random variables given below.

**Lemma 5.** (Vershynin, 2012, Proposition 5.10) Let $X_1, \ldots, X_N$ be independent centered sub-gaussian random variables, and let $K = \max_i \left\| X_i \right\|_{\psi_2}$. Then, for any $\alpha = [\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_N]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and every $t \geq 0$, we have
\[
\text{Pr} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i X_i \geq t \right) \leq \exp \left( 1 - \frac{c t^2}{K^2 \| \alpha \|_2^2} \right)
\]
where $c > 0$ is an absolute constant.

Combining Lemma 5 with (13) and (14), we have with a probability at least $1 - e^{-t}$,
\[
\left| \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i^j y_i - \lambda x_i^j \right| \leq c \sqrt{\frac{t}{m}}
\]
for some constant $c > 0$. We complete the proof by taking the union bound over $j = 1, \ldots, n$.

5. Experiments

In this section, we perform the recovery experiment to verify our theoretical claims. Due to space limitations, we only provide results for the exactly sparse vectors.

Table 2: Running time of each algorithm, when $s = 10$, $n = 1000$, and $m = 1000$. For BIHT and BIHT-\(\ell_2\), there is no formal stopping criterion, and we report the running time after 100 iterations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Passive</th>
<th>BIHT</th>
<th>BIHT-(\ell_2)</th>
<th>Convex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time (s)</td>
<td>1.1e-3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Experimental Setup**

We generate the target vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by drawing its nonzero elements from the standard Gaussian distribution, and then normalize it to have unit length. The locations of the $s$ nonzero elements of $\mathbf{x}_i$ are randomly selected. The elements in the matrix matrix $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ are also drawn from the standard Gaussian distribution. To generate noisy measurements, we choose the observation model in (9), where the sign of $u_i^j \mathbf{x}_j$ is flipped with probability $p = 0.1$. For each setting of $m$, $n$, and $s$, we repeat the recovery experiment for 100 trials, and report the average recovery error.

**The Passive Algorithm**

To apply our passive algorithm, we need to determine the regularization parameter $\gamma$. From (8), we observe that $\gamma$ can be set as $C \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{m}}$ for some constant $C$. Fig. 1 shows how the recovery error of the passive algorithm varies with respect to the value of $C$. From the result, we observe that the best value of $C$ is around 1, and thus we set $\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{m}}$ in the following experiments.

We compare our passive algorithm (Passive) with the following three algorithms.

- Convex: the provable recovery algorithm proposed in (Plan & Vershynin, 2013b), which solves the convex optimization problem in (3);\(^2\)
- BIHT and BIHT-\(\ell_2\): two heuristic algorithms developed in (Jacques et al., 2013).\(^3\)

Fig. 2 plots the recovery error versus the number of measurements $m$ for each algorithm, when $s = 10$ and $n = 1000$. Note that in the conventional compressive sensing, it is not interesting to acquire more measurements that the dimensionality. But in one-bit compressive sensing, it becomes very practical to set $m > n$, since the one-bit measurements can be taken at extremely high rates. From Fig. 2, we observe that Passive and Convex outperform the other two algorithms significantly. The performance of BIHT is very bad, that is because it is very sensitive to noise.

\(^2\)We use the CVX package to solve this optimization problem (Boyd & Vandenberghe, 2004; Grant & Boyd, 2008; 2013).

\(^3\)A matlab implementation can be downloaded from http://perso.uclouvain.be/laurent.jacques/index.php/Main/BIHTDemo.
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Figure 1. The recovery error of the passive algorithm versus to \( C \), when \( \gamma = C \frac{\sqrt{\log n}}{m} \), and \( s = 10 \).

Figure 2. The recovery error of each algorithm versus the number of measurements \( m \), when \( s = 10 \) and \( n = 1000 \).

Figure 3. The recovery error of each algorithm versus the dimensionality \( n \), when \( s = 10 \) and \( m = 1000 \).

Figure 4. The number of measurements required by the passive and adaptive algorithms versus the recovery error, when \( s = 10 \) and \( n = 1000 \).

in the one-bit measurements (Jacques et al., 2013).

We also examine the relation between the recovery error and the dimensionality \( n \) in Fig. 3, where \( s = 10 \) and \( m = 1000 \). We observe that the recovery error increases very slowly with respect to \( n \), which is consistent with the conclusion that the recovery error only has a logarithmic dependence on \( n \). Finally, we would like to emphasize that although the recovery error of Convex is similar to Passive, its computational cost is significantly higher, and the running time of those algorithms can be found in Table 2.

6. Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we develop two efficient algorithms for one-bit compressive sensing. Compared with the existing methods, the proposed algorithms have several important advantages: they can recover both the exactly sparse and approximately sparse vectors; they are robust to the noisy measurements; they are computationally efficient, and they have lower sample complexities in certain scenarios.

Currently, the adaptive algorithm relies on a strong assumption that allows us to generate the one-bit measurement based on the sign of \( x^T u \). In the future, we will investigate how to alleviate this assumption for other observation models by exploring more advanced techniques in active learning.

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