

# Kernel Reconstruction: an Exact Greedy Algorithm for Compressive Sensing

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**Abstract**—Compressive sensing is the theory of sparse signal recovery from undersampled measurements or observations. Exact signal reconstruction is an NP hard problem. A convex approximation using the  $l_1$ -norm has received a great deal of theoretical attention. Exact recovery using the  $l_1$  approximation is only possible under strict conditions on the measurement matrix, which are difficult to check. Many greedy algorithms have thus been proposed. However, none of them is guaranteed to lead to the optimal (sparsest) solution. In this paper, we present a new greedy algorithm that provides an exact sparse solution of the problem. Unlike other greedy approaches, which are only approximations of the exact sparse solution, the proposed greedy approach, called *Kernel Reconstruction*, leads to the exact optimal solution in less operations than the original combinatorial problem. An application to the recovery of sparse gene regulatory networks is presented.

**Index Terms**—Compressive Sensing; Sparse Recovery; Greedy Algorithms; Gene Regulatory Networks.

## I. INTRODUCTION

We consider the problem of recovering a sparse vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  from under-determined measurements or observations  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $m < n$ ,

$$\mathbf{y} = \Phi \mathbf{x}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\Phi$  is the  $m \times n$  measurement matrix. We assume that  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $k$ -sparse and the matrix  $\Phi$  is full rank. A vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is called  $k$ -sparse if  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \leq k$ , where the  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_0 := |\text{supp}(\mathbf{x})| = \{j : x_j \neq 0\}$ . It has become common to call  $\|\cdot\|$  the  $l_0$ -norm. For  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ ,

$$\Sigma_k = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n : \|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \leq k\} \quad (2)$$

denotes the set of  $k$ -sparse vectors. Inferring the sparse vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is equivalent to solving the  $l_0$ -minimization problem [1]:

$$\min \|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \text{ subject to } \mathbf{y} = \Phi \mathbf{x}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\|\cdot\|_0$  is the number of nonzero elements in the vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . Compressive Sensing (CS) is the theory of reconstructing large dimensional signals from a small number of measurements by taking advantage of the signal sparsity. CS has been widely used and implemented in many applications including computed tomography [1], wireless communication [2], image processing [3] and camera design [4].

Unfortunately, the optimization problem in (3) is NP-hard. It has been shown, however, that if the measurement matrix  $\Phi$  satisfies the *null space property* (NSP), then sparse recovery

is possible via  $l_1$  minimization [5]. The  $l_1$ -minimization approach considers the solution of

$$\min \|\mathbf{z}\|_1 \text{ subject to } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}, \quad (4)$$

which is a convex optimization problem and can be seen as a convex relaxation of (3).

The NSP is difficult to show directly. The *restricted isometry property* (RIP) may be easier to handle. A matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is said to satisfy the RIP of order  $k$  if the smallest number  $\delta_k$  such that

$$(1 - \delta_k) \|\mathbf{z}\|_2^2 \leq \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}\|_2^2 \leq (1 + \delta_k) \|\mathbf{z}\|_2^2, \quad (5)$$

for all  $\mathbf{z} \in \Sigma_k$ , satisfies  $\delta_k \in (0, 1)$ . The RIP implies the NSP as shown in [5]. If  $\Phi$  satisfies the RIP of order  $3k$  with  $\delta_{3k} < 1/3$ , then recovery of all  $k$ -sparse vectors by  $l_1$ -minimization is guaranteed. The RIP is also a difficult condition to check. It can be shown that  $\delta_k$  can be equivalently defined as

$$\delta_k = \max_{T \subset \{1, \dots, n\}, \#T \leq k} \|\mathbf{A}_T^* \mathbf{A}_T - Id\|_2, \quad (6)$$

where  $\mathbf{A}_T$  denotes the column submatrix of  $\mathbf{A}$  corresponding to the columns indexed by  $T$ .

Since both the NSP and RIP conditions are difficult to check, many greedy algorithms have been suggested to infer the sparse signal [6] [7] [8]. In particular, a family of thresholding algorithms has been suggested. The *Hard Thresholding* (HT) algorithm [6] makes an initial guess at the support of  $\mathbf{x}$  and then projects the measurements  $\mathbf{y}$  onto this support. An iterative version called *Iterative Hard Thresholding* (IHT) updates the residual and estimates a new  $\mathbf{x}$  at every iteration until the stopping criterion is satisfied. Another version of lower complexity per iteration has been suggested called *Matching Pursuit* (MP). In particular, the *Orthogonal Matching Pursuit* (OMP) [9] is an iterative greedy algorithm that selects at each step the column which is most correlated with the current residuals. This algorithm estimates the nonzero entries in the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  along with their indices. The combination of the orthogonalization of OMP [9] with the selection of a full candidate support set in HT leads to two-stage greedy algorithms, such as *Compressive Sampling Matching Pursuit* (CoSaMP) [8] and *Subspace Pursuit* (SP)[13]. These two-stage greedy algorithms incorporate a least squares problem in each iteration [10].

The greedy algorithms and the  $\ell_p$ -minimization approaches, for  $0 < p \leq 1$ , have shown good performance in recovering sparse signals. However, none of them guarantees an exact recovery, and error bounds on their approximate solutions are unknown. Moreover, greedy algorithms require a priori knowledge of the exact number  $k$  of nonzero elements in the vector  $x$ . In this paper, we present a new greedy algorithm that guarantees exact recovery of any sparse signal with unknown sparsity level  $k$ .

## II. THE KERNEL RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM

We consider the linear operator  $\Phi : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \text{Range}(\Phi)$ . We have  $\mathbb{C}^n = \text{Range}(\Phi^T) \oplus \text{Ker}(\Phi)$ , where  $\dim(\text{Ker}(\Phi)) = s$ . Let  $x_0 \in \text{Range}(\Phi^T)$  be a particular solution. We have

$$\begin{aligned} y_0 &= P_{\text{Range}(\Phi)} \Phi P_{\text{Range}(\Phi^T)} x_0 \\ \implies x_0 &= (P_{\text{Range}(\Phi)} \Phi P_{\text{Range}(\Phi^T)})^{-1} y_0. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Let  $B = \text{Null}(\Phi)$  be the  $n \times s$  matrix whose columns are the  $s$  vectors that span the subspace  $\text{Ker}(\Phi)$ . A solution of the under-determined problem in (1) can be written as

$$x = x_0 + \sum_{j=1}^s a_j b_j, \quad (8)$$

where  $b_j$ 's are the kernel vectors or the columns of the matrix  $B$ , and the  $a_j$ 's are the coefficients of the linear combination. It is easy to check from Eq. (8) that  $\Phi x = \Phi x_0 = y$ . Writing Eq. (8) in matrix form, we obtain

$$x = x_0 + B a, \quad (9)$$

where  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_s)^T$ . Thus, to find  $x$  we need to compute the vector  $a$ . To do this, we assume that the sparsest solution  $x^*$  contains at least  $s = \dim(\text{Ker}(\Phi))$  zeros, or equivalently that the vector  $x \in \Sigma_{n-s}$ . Since  $\text{rank}(B) = s$ , there exists  $s$  linearly independent rows of  $B$  that span a space that we call  $L$ . Let  $P_s$  be the projection matrix that projects  $x$  onto the space  $L$ . Thus,  $P_s x = 0$ , and  $a$  can be computed as follow

$$\begin{aligned} P_s x &= 0 \\ \iff P_s x_0 + P_s B a &= 0 \\ \implies a &= -(P_s B)^{-1} P_s x_0. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Generically any  $s$  rows of  $B$  will be linearly independent. However, we do not know exactly which entries of  $x$  are equal to zero and thus we do not know which form of  $P_s$  to choose. Therefore, a combinatorial search should be performed in order to find all possible linearly independent rows of  $B$  and find out which basis leads to the sparsest solution.

The computational complexity of the proposed Kernel Reconstruction algorithm is  $\mathcal{O}(n^s)$  since it requires  $\binom{n}{s}$  operations in order to find the  $s$  linearly independent rows of  $B$  corresponding to the exact sparsest solution. As a comparison, the computational complexity of the original  $\ell_0$ -based problem is  $\mathcal{O}(n^k)$  since it requires  $\sum_{\ell=1}^k \binom{n}{\ell}$  operations to find the exact solution. Recall that in order to have an exact solution, we should have  $m \geq k + 1$ . For a full rank matrix  $\Phi$ , we have

$s = n - m$ . Therefore, it is easy to show that  $s \leq n - k - 1$ . Thus, for  $k \geq \lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil$  we have  $\mathcal{O}(n^s) \ll \mathcal{O}(n^k)$ .

KR reconstruction	algorithm:	The is	Kernel summarized	Recon- below.
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Input: The vector  $y_0$  and the full rank matrix  $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m < n$ ) satisfying the under-determined model  $y_0 = \Phi x$ .

- 1 Compute the particular solution  $x_0$  in Eq. (7).
  - 2 Compute  $B = \text{Null}(\Phi)$ .
  - 3 For each  $s$  linearly independent rows of  $B$ , compute  $a$  in Eq. (10), and then the corresponding solution  $x$  in Eq. (8).
  - 4 Choose the sparsest solution  $x$ .
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## III. APPLICATION TO GENE REGULATORY NETWORKS

### A. Simulation results

We compare the proposed KR algorithm to the  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  approaches as well as the Compressive Sampling Matching Pursuit (CoSaMP) greedy algorithm [8]. To this aim, we generate a synthetic model that satisfies Eq. (1) where the entries of  $x$ ,  $y_0$  and the matrix  $\Phi$  are random and normally distributed. In Fig. 1, we plot the percentage error  $\frac{\|x - x^*\|_2}{\|x\|_2}$  versus the number of measurements  $m$  for  $(n, k) = (20, 7)$ . Observe from Fig. 1 that our approach can exactly recover the  $k$ -sparse signal for  $m \geq 7$ . This is there are at least  $s = 13$  zeros in  $x$  for  $m \geq 7$ . For  $m < 7$ , we do not have exact reconstruction because we assume that we have at least  $s = 14$  zeros in  $x$ . One can notice that even for the approximate solution i.e.,  $m < 7$ , the KR algorithm outperforms the other approaches.

### B. Application to Gene Regulatory Networks

In this paper, we model the dynamics of genetic profiles as suggested in [11]. We consider the following linear model for the gene regulatory network,

$$Y = AX, \quad (11)$$

where  $X = [x_1, \dots, x_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ,  $Y = [y_1, \dots, y_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $A = \{a_{ij}\}_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ ,  $n$  is the number of genes,  $m$  is the number of measurements or experiments and  $m < n$ .  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the vector of gene expression measurements (e.g., microarray data) for all  $n$  genes at experiment  $i$ . The entry  $a_{ij}$  of the connectivity matrix  $A$  represents the influence of gene  $j$  on gene  $i$ . The columns  $y_i$  represent the rate of change of the expression of genes and the external perturbations at time  $i$ . Our goal is to estimate the connectivity matrix  $A$ . Genetic regulatory networks are known to be sparse, and thus the connectivity matrix  $A$  is assumed to be sparse.

We use the KR algorithm to infer GRNs. We generate synthetic genomic networks that satisfies the model in (11) with  $n = 10$  genes and varying number of measurements  $m$ . We use a sparse model of the connectivity matrix,  $\|A\|_0 = 0.2n^2$ . The entries of the matrix  $A$  are drawn from a standard normal distribution with zero-mean and unit variance, i.e.,

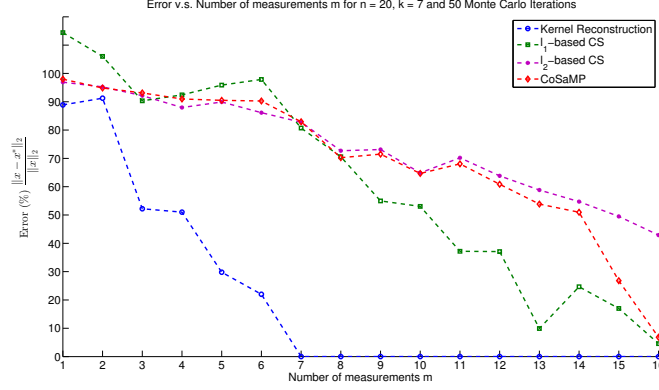


Fig. 1. Performance comparison of Kernel Reconstruction with  $\ell_1, \ell_2$ -based CS and CoSaMP for  $n = 10$  and  $k = 3$

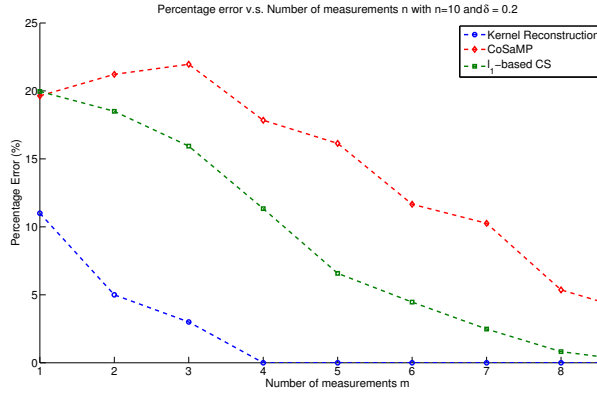


Fig. 2. Percentage error v.s. Number of measurements  $n$  with  $n = 10$  and  $\delta = 0.2$

$a_{i,j} \in \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ . We estimate the entries of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  row by row,

$$\mathbf{Y}(i, :) = \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{X}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (12)$$

where  $\mathbf{Y}(i, :)$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of  $\mathbf{Y}$ . The performance of the algorithm is assessed through the following measure suggested in [12]

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n e_{i,j} \quad \text{with} \quad e_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, & |a_{ij} - \hat{a}_{ij}| > \delta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

where  $a_{ij}$  and  $\hat{a}_{ij}$  denote, respectively, the true and estimated connectivity entries.  $\delta$  is a fixed threshold set to  $\delta = \frac{1}{2} \min_{i,j} |a_{i,j}| \neq 0$ . The percentage error is equal to  $E/n^2$ .

Figure 2 shows the percentage error versus the number of measurements  $m$  for  $n = 10$ -gene networks and  $\|\mathbf{A}\|_0 = 0.2n^2$ . The proposed KR algorithm exactly recovers the network for  $m > 3$ . In particular, the KR algorithm outperforms the CoSaMP greedy algorithm and the  $\ell_1$ -minimization approach for all  $m$ .

In Fig. 3 we visualize the estimated directed networks using the different algorithms. Table I shows the detection of the known interactions in the original network. One can notice that our approach was able to detect all the 9 interactions

in the original network, whereas the  $\ell_1$ -minimization and the CoSaMP approaches have respectively detected 6 and 4 interactions.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

We presented a new algorithm that exactly recovers  $k$ -sparse signals from linear under-determined systems. We assume in our approach that the sparse solution has at least  $s$  zero entries, where  $s$  is the dimension of the kernel of the measurement matrix  $\Phi$ . Although the greedy algorithm that we suggest requires  $\binom{n}{s}$  combinatorial operations to find the optimal solution, it is still computationally less expensive than the  $\ell_0$ -based approach. This combinatorial search is the price to pay for an exact solution (zero error) to be found. Finally, we compared our algorithm to the two  $\ell_p$  approaches and the CoSaMP greedy algorithm [8]. In our future work, we will explore efficient implementations of the proposed kernel reconstruction algorithm, where we can find the optimal kernel basis without enumerating all  $\binom{n}{s}$  basis.

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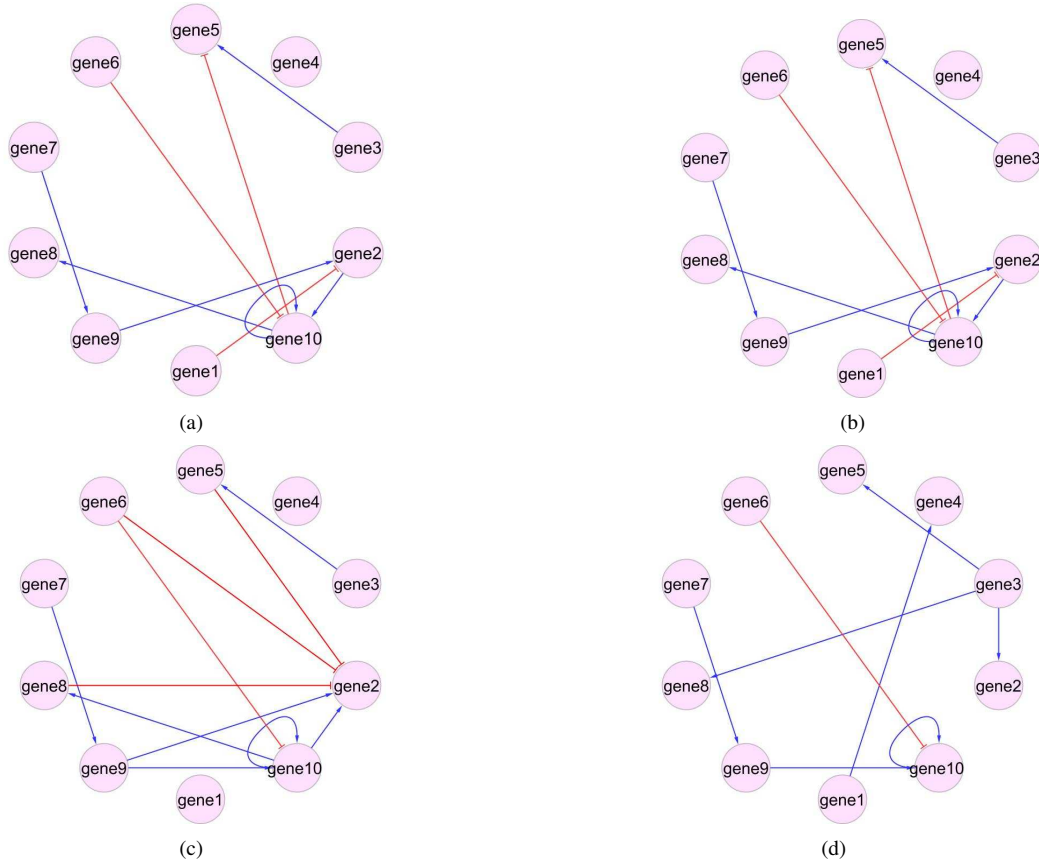


Fig. 3. Inference of a gene regulatory network with  $n = 10$ ,  $m = 5$  and  $\|A\|_0 = 0.1n^2$ . Blue and red edges denote, respectively, positive and negative interactions. (a) Ground truth interactions; (b) Kernel Reconstruction algorithm; (c)  $\ell_1$ -minimization; (d) CoSaMP [8].

TABLE I  
DETECTION PERFORMANCE

	$(g1,g2)$	$(g2,g10)$	$(g3,g5)$	$(g6,g10)$	$(g7,g9)$	$(g9,g2)$	$(g10,g5)$	$(g10,g8)$	$(g10,g10)$
Kernel Reconstruction	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\ell_1$ -minimization	×	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	✓
CoSaMP	×	×	✓	✓	✓	×	×	×	✓

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