Abstract—A common sparse linear regression formulation is $\ell_1$ regularized least squares, which is also known as least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO). Approximate message passing (AMP) has been proved to asymptotically achieve the LASSO solution when the regression matrix has independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) Gaussian entries in the sense that the averaged per-coordinate $\ell_2$ distance between the AMP iterates and LASSO solution vanishes as the signal dimension goes to infinity before the iteration number. However, in finite dimensional settings, characterization of AMP iterates in the limit of large iteration number has not been established. In this work, we propose an AMP variant by including a parameter that depends on the largest singular value of the regression matrix. The proposed algorithm can also be considered as a primal dual hybrid gradient algorithm with adaptive stepsizes. We show that whenever the AMP variant converges, it converges to the LASSO solution for arbitrary finite dimensional regression matrices. Moreover, we show that our AMP variant is locally stable around the LASSO solution under the condition that the regression matrix is drawn from a continuous distribution. Our local stability result implies that when the regression matrix is large and has i.i.d. random entries, the original AMP, which is a special case of the proposed AMP variant, is locally stable around the LASSO solution.

I. INTRODUCTION

Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) is a common formulation for sparse linear regression, which is defined as the optimization problem:

$$\mathbf{x}^* \in \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N} \{ F(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \|_2^2 + \gamma \| \mathbf{x} \|_1 \} \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times N}$ is the regression matrix, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the data vector, $\gamma > 0$ is the regularization parameter, and $\| \cdot \|_p$, for $p = 1, 2$, denotes the $\ell_p$ norm. While numerous standard convex optimization algorithms such as the class of proximal gradient methods [1]-[4], alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) [5], and primal dual hybrid gradient (PDHG) [6]-[8] can be used to solve (1), it is of both theoretical and practical interest to study approximate message passing (AMP) for solving (1), since AMP was initially introduced by Donoho et al. [9] as a LASSO solver and usually enjoys fast empirical convergence when it converges.

Existing theoretical convergence analyses of standard optimization algorithms and of AMP are considered in different problem settings. Specifically, the quantity of interest to optimization algorithms is usually $\lim_{t \to \infty} \| \mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{x}^* \|_2$, where $\mathbf{x}^t$ is the estimate at the $t^{th}$ iteration of an iterative algorithm, for any fixed and finite $n$ and $N$. It is usually assumed in the AMP framework that the data vector $\mathbf{y}$ is generated according to a linear system, $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{w}$, with some underlying ground-truth $\mathbf{x}_0$ and noise $\mathbf{w}$. Under these assumptions, the analysis of AMP shows that when $\mathbf{A}$ has independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) Gaussian entries, the quantity $\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \| \mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{x}_0 \|_2$ converges to a deterministic number predicted by a scalar recursion referred to as state evolution with probability one [10], this is later extended to a large deviation result [11]. For the class of right-orthogonal invariant random $\mathbf{A}$, vector-AMP [12] (see also orthogonal AMP [13]) also enjoys a rigorous state evolution analysis as $n, N \to \infty$ and $\frac{n}{N} \to c$ for the LASSO problem, Bayati and Montanari [14] have proven the convergence of AMP iterates to the LASSO solution $\mathbf{x}^*$ in the sense that $\lim_{t \to \infty} \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \| \mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{x}^* \|_2 = 0$ with probability one, which has also been extended to a large deviation result in recent work [15]. However, this large deviation result only holds for $t = O \left( \frac{\log N}{\log \log N} \right)$. Therefore, the convergence of AMP for finite $N$ as $t \to \infty$ is still unknown. In fact, using matrices with i.i.d. Gaussian entries and following the calibration method proposed in [14] for choosing the threshold of the soft-thresholding function at each AMP iteration, we performed 2000 trials of Monte Carlo simulations with $N = 2000, n = 1000$, and AMP never converged to the LASSO solution in terms of $\ell_2$ error.

The connection between AMP and standard convex optimization algorithms has enabled the design of AMP variants that have convergence guarantees for more practical settings such as non-Gaussian finite dimensional matrices. Most such results have been developed in a more general algorithmic framework known as generalized AMP (GAMP) [15]. In the context of solving optimization problems, GAMP considers objective functions of the form $\sum_{i=1}^n g((\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})_i) + \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$. Consider now that $\mathbf{A}$ is arbitrary and finite dimensional. When both $g$ and $f$ are quadratic functions, damped GAMP [17], which defines the current iterate as a convex combination of
the current estimate and the iterate from the previous iteration, has global convergence guarantees. When $g$ and $f$ are strictly convex and twice continuously differentiable, assuming that the derivatives of the nonlinear functions used in each GAMP iteration are bounded within the open interval $(0, 1)$, damped GAMP with fixed stepsize [17] is proved to be locally stable around the equilibrium point, and ADMM-GAMP [18], which combines an ADMM inner loop within each GAMP iteration, is guaranteed to achieve global convergence.

The interpretation of AMP as a PDHG algorithm was first mentioned by Rangan et al. [17], which has inspired the current work. The differences between our work and the local stability analysis in [17] are as follows:

- The objective function of LASSO is non-differentiable, hence is not covered in [17].
- Instead of damping the iterates while keeping the stepizes fixed as in [17], we do not make changes to updates of the iterates but design a stepsize updating schedule based on AMP.
- The result in [17] holds only when the stepsize is fixed over all iterations, which loses the main advantage of AMP over standard optimization algorithms for fast convergence, whereas our result allows keeping the structure of the stepsize updating schedule of AMP. Numerical results in Section IV show that the number of iterations required for our algorithm to converge to the LASSO solution is orders of magnitude smaller than widely used optimization algorithms.

II. PROPOSED ALGORITHM

Let $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as

\[ g(u) := \frac{1}{2} \|y - u\|_2^2 \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) := \gamma \|x\|_1, \]

respectively. The idea of the class of PDHG algorithms is to write the minimization problem $\inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \{g(Ax) + f(x)\}$ as a saddle-point problem using the fact that the function $g$ defined above is convex, closed, and proper, thus $g = (g^*)^*$ [19], where $g^*$ is the convex-conjugate of $g$ defined as

\[ g^*(s) := \sup_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{\langle s, u \rangle - g(u)\}. \]  

With $g(Ax) = (g^*)^*(Ax) = \sup_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{\langle Ax, s \rangle - g^*(s)\}$, we obtain the saddle-point problem

\[ \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \sup_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(s, x), \]

where $F(s, x) := \langle s, Ax \rangle - g^*(s) + f(x)$. PDHG solves (4) by alternating between the estimation of $s$ and $x$ as $s^{t+1} = \arg \max_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ F(s, x^t) + \frac{1}{2\tau_s} \|s - s^t\|_2^2 \right\}$ and $x^{t+1} = \arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \left\{ F(s^{t+1}, x) + \frac{1}{2\tau_x} \|x - x^t\|_2^2 \right\}$, respectively, which is equivalent to

\[ s^{t+1} = \arg \min_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ g^*(s) + \frac{1}{2\tau_s} \|s - (s^t + \tau_s^t Ax^t)\|_2^2 \right\}, \]

\[ x^{t+1} = \arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \left\{ f(x) + \frac{1}{2\tau_x} \|x - (x^t - \tau_x^t A^T s^{t+1})\|_2^2 \right\}. \]  

In the above, the stepizes $\tau_s^t$ and $\tau_x^t$ can stay constant for all iterations or be updated at every iteration. One feature of PDHG algorithms is that each equilibrium point is a saddle-point of (4). This can be explained as follows. Let $(\hat{x}, \hat{s}, \hat{\tau}_x, \hat{\tau}_s)$ be an equilibrium point of the algorithm (5), then

\[ 0 \in \partial_u \left( g^*(s) + \frac{1}{2\tau_s} \|s - (\hat{s} + \hat{\tau}_s A\hat{x})\|_2^2 \right) \bigg|_{s = \hat{s}}, \]

\[ 0 \in \partial_x \left( f(x) + \frac{1}{2\tau_x} \|x - (\hat{x} - \hat{\tau}_x A^T\hat{s})\|_2^2 \right) \bigg|_{x = \hat{x}}, \]

where $\partial_u$ denotes sub-differential with respect to $u$. The above implies that $A\hat{x} \in \partial g^*(\hat{s})$ and $-A^T\hat{s} \in \partial f(\hat{x})$, which is the necessary and sufficient condition for $(\hat{x}, \hat{s})$ to be a saddle-point of (4).

The choice of stepizes is crucial for the convergence of an optimization algorithm. AMP can be interpreted as a special case of PDHG with an adaptive stepsize updating schedule [17]. Specifically, let

\[ \tau_s^t = 1 - \frac{1}{\tau_x^t - 1}, \quad \tau_x^{t+1} = 1 + \frac{d^t}{c} \tau_x^t, \]

where $d^t = \|x^{t+1}\|_0/N$ with $\|x^{t+1}\|_0$ (the $\ell_0$ quasi-norm) denoting the number of nonzero coordinates of $x^{t+1}$. By (2) and (3), we have $g^*(s) = \langle y, s \rangle + \frac{1}{2}\|s\|_2^2$. For easy comparison, we use the same notation for the soft-thresholding function (proximal operator for the $\ell_1$-norm) as in [14]. For any $\theta > 0$, $u \in \mathbb{R}^N$, define

\[ \eta(u; \theta) := \arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \|x\|_1 + \frac{1}{2\theta} \|x - u\|_2^2. \]  

Then (5) can be written as

\[ s^{t+1} = \frac{1}{\tau_x^t} (Ax^t - y) + \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\tau_x^t} \right) s^t, \]

\[ x^{t+1} = \eta(x^t - \tau_x^t A^T s^{t+1}; \gamma \tau_x^t). \]

Let $z^t := -\tau_x^t s^{t+1}$ for all $t \geq 1$ and notice from (6) that $(\tau_x^t - 1)/\tau_x^{t+1} = d^t/c$. We can see that (8) matches the AMP algorithm (see [9] and [14]), but with a different choice for the threshold of the soft-thresholding function. We emphasize that the choice of the threshold in [14] does not guarantee that AMP will converge to the LASSO solution for finite dimensional problems, whereas the choice in (8) guarantees that whenever (8) converges, it converges to the LASSO solution for arbitrary finite dimensional $A$.

In many optimization algorithms, the stepsize depends on $\sigma_{\max}(A)$, the largest singular value of $A$, whereas the algorithm defined in (5) with $\tau_s^t$ and $\tau_x^t$ updated according to (6), which is equivalent to AMP (8), does not depend on $\sigma_{\max}(A)$. Therefore, in order to have an algorithm that is more robust than AMP with arbitrary finite dimensional $A$ while retaining the fast convergence of AMP, we introduce a parameter $\epsilon$ that depends on $\sigma_{\max}(A)$ while keeping the general structure of the updating schedule in (6). Specifically, choosing $0 < \epsilon < \min\{1, 4/(\sigma_{\max}(A) + 2)\}$, we modify (6) as

\[ \tau_s^t = \frac{\epsilon}{\tau_x^t - \epsilon}, \quad \tau_x^{t+1} = 1 + \frac{d^t}{c} \tau_x^t. \]  

Such a choice of $\epsilon$ ensures local stability of our proposed algorithm (see Section III). Our proposed AMP variant is...
with the stepsize updating schedule defined in (9). Similar to the derivation of (8) from (5) and (6), we can write the proposed AMP variant as in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Proposed AMP Variant

Input: A, y, 0 < e < min{1, 4/(σ_{max}(A) + 2)}, t_max
Initialization: x^0, s^0, τ^0
for 0 ≤ t ≤ t_max do
    s^{t+1} = \frac{e}{\tau^t} (Ax^t - y) + \left(1 - \frac{e}{\tau^t}\right)s^t
    x^{t+1} = \eta \left(x^t - \frac{\lambda}{\tau^t} A^T s^{t+1}, \gamma \tau^t \right)
    τ^{t+1} = 1 + \frac{d^t}{c^t \tau^t} \quad \text{with} \quad d^t = \|x^{t+1}\|_0/N
end for
Output: x^{t_max}

III. LOCAL STABILITY ANALYSIS

We now study the local stability of Algorithm 1 around its equilibrium point, which is the LASSO solution. We first discuss conditions under which our analysis is valid, and then show that Algorithm 1 is locally stable under these conditions.

A. Assumptions

When Null(A), the null space of A, contains nonzero components, the objective function is not strictly convex in x, hence there may be multiple solutions. Conditions for the uniqueness of the LASSO solution have been studied by Tibshirani [20], which states that a sufficient [20, Lemma 2] and necessary [20, Lemma 16] condition for (1) to ad-

Proposition 1. Consider the LASSO problem defined in (1) and suppose that the conditions of Section III-A are satisfied. Then Algorithm 1 is stable around its equilibrium point with probability one.

Proof. Suppose that G is differentiable around the equilibrium point \( \hat{v} \). Then the local stability of G around \( \hat{v} \) is determined by the largest eigenvalue (in modulus) of the Jacobian matrix J of G evaluated at \( \hat{v} \). The expression for J is

\[
J = \begin{bmatrix}
(1 - \alpha/\tau_2) I_n & (\alpha/\tau_2) A & 0_{n \times 1} \\
(\alpha - \tau_2) D A^T & \hat{D} (I - \alpha A^T A) - \hat{D} A^T & 0_{n \times m} \\
0_{1 \times n} & 0_{1 \times n} & d/c
\end{bmatrix},
\]

where \( \hat{D} \) is a diagonal matrix defined as \( \hat{D}_{ii} = \|x_i\|_1 \neq 0 \), \( I \) is the identity function, \( I_n \) is the n × n identity matrix, and \( 0_{n \times m} \) is an n × m zeros matrix. Below, we show that with an appropriate choice of e, the eigenvalue of J with the largest modulus is within the unit circle of the complex plane.

Let \( \alpha = 1 - e/\tau_2 \) and let |λ| denote the determinant of a matrix A. Then

\[
|J - \lambda I| \equiv (\hat{d}/c - \lambda) \begin{bmatrix}
(\alpha - \lambda) I_n & (\alpha/\tau_2) A \\
(\alpha - \lambda) I_n & \hat{D} - \lambda I_N - \alpha \hat{D} A^T A
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\equiv (\hat{d}/c - \lambda) \begin{bmatrix}
(\alpha - \lambda) I_n & (\alpha/\tau_2) A \\
0_{N \times n} & \hat{D} - \lambda I_N - \alpha \hat{D} A^T A
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
= (\hat{d}/c - \lambda) \begin{bmatrix}
(\alpha - \lambda) \hat{D} - (\alpha - \lambda) I_N + \alpha \hat{D} A^T A
\end{bmatrix},
\]

where step (a) follows by expanding the last row of \( J - \lambda I \), and step (b) follows by subtracting \( \tau_2 \alpha \frac{d}{c} A^T A \) times the first row from the second row and noticing that

\[
\alpha e - \tau_2 \frac{d}{c} \alpha \lambda = e \left(1 + \frac{1}{\alpha - \lambda} \left(\frac{e}{\tau_2} - 1\right)\right) = e \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - \lambda}\right) = -\frac{\alpha e}{\alpha - \lambda}.
\]

To calculate \( (\alpha - \lambda) \hat{D} - (\alpha - \lambda) I_N + \alpha \hat{D} A^T A \), we first introduce some notation. For a matrix B ∈ \( \mathbb{R}^{N \times N} \) and index set \( K \subset \{1, 2, \ldots, N\} \), let \( B_K \in \mathbb{R}^{[K] \times [K]} \) denote the submatrix of B obtained by eliminating the \( i \)-th row and
\(i^{th}\) column of \(B\) for all \(i \notin K\). Moreover, let \(R_K(B)\) (resp. \(C_K(B)\)) denote the submatrix of \(B\) formed by deleting the \(i^{th}\) row (resp. column) of \(B\) for all \(i \notin K\).

Letting \(B = (\lambda - \lambda_1) \hat{D} - (\lambda - \lambda_2) \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \lambda_2 \hat{D} \lambda T A\), we have

\[
R(i) = \begin{cases} 
-\lambda(\lambda - \lambda) e_i^T, & \text{if } i \in K^c \\
(1 - \lambda)(\lambda - \lambda) e_i^T + e\lambda R(i) \lambda^T A, & \text{if } i \in K
\end{cases}
\]

where all but the \(i^{th}\) coordinates of \(e_i \in \mathbb{R}^N\) are zero and the \(i^{th}\) coordinate is 1, and \(K = \{ i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} : \hat{D}_{ii} = 1 \}\). By expanding the \(i^{th}\) row of \(B\) for all \(i \notin K\), we have

\[
|B| = (-\lambda(\lambda - \lambda))^{N(1 - \hat{d})} |(\lambda - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) \lambda N + \lambda \alpha \lambda^T A|_K.
\]

Plugging the above into (12), we have

\[
|J - \lambda I| = \left( \hat{d} - \lambda \right) (\lambda - \alpha)^N(-\lambda(\lambda - \lambda))^{N(1 - \hat{d})} + |(\lambda - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) \lambda N + \lambda \alpha \lambda^T A|_K \\
= (\lambda - \lambda)^N(1 - \hat{d})(\hat{d} - \lambda) \lambda^{N(1 - \hat{d})(\lambda - \lambda)^{N(1 - \hat{d})}} + \lambda \alpha \lambda^T A|_K.
\]

Let \(H = |A^T \lambda^T A|_K\), we now need to solve for \(\lambda\) in the following equation:

\[
|(\lambda - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) \lambda N + \lambda \alpha \lambda^T A| = 0.
\]

First, we check that \(\lambda = 0\) is not a solution to (14). Plugging \(\lambda = 0\) into (14), we have

\[
|\alpha - \lambda| = (\lambda)(1 - \lambda) \lambda N + \lambda \alpha \lambda^T A|_K = \alpha \lambda^T A|_K.
\]

where the last inequality holds because \(e \in (0, 1)\) and \(\hat{d} > 1\), hence \(1 - e/\hat{d} > 0\). Now that \(\lambda \neq 0\), we divide both sides of (14) by \(e \lambda^T A|_K\):

\[
\frac{(\lambda - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) \lambda N + \lambda \alpha \lambda^T A}{\lambda} = 0.
\]

Therefore, \(\lambda\) is a solution to (14) if and only if \(-\lambda - (\lambda - 1) + \alpha \lambda\) is an eigenvalue of \(H\). Let \(\text{sp}(H)\) denote the spectrum (i.e., set of eigenvalues) of \(H\), and define

\[
m = \min_{\lambda \in \text{sp}(H)} \lambda, \quad \text{and} \quad M = \max_{\lambda \in \text{sp}(H)} \lambda.
\]

Note that \(H = |A^T \lambda^T A|_K = |C_K(A)|^T C_K(A)\). By condition of the uniqueness of LASSO solution, we have that \(C = C_K(A)\) is non-singular, hence \(m > 0\). Let \(u = \frac{\alpha - \lambda}{\alpha - \lambda} \lambda + \alpha = 0\).

Let \(b := e \alpha - \alpha - 1\), and solve (17) for \(\lambda\). When \(|b| < 2\sqrt{\alpha}\), we have complex roots \(\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(-b \pm i \sqrt{4\alpha - b^2})\), hence \(|\lambda|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(b^2 + 4\alpha - b^2) = \sqrt{\alpha} < 1\). When \(|b| \geq 2\sqrt{\alpha}\), we have real roots. Define

\[
h_1(b) := \frac{1}{2}(-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4\alpha}), \\
h_2(b) := \frac{1}{2}(-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4\alpha}).
\]

Let \(b := e \alpha - \alpha - 1\), and solve (17) for \(\lambda\). When \(|b| < 2\sqrt{\alpha}\), we have complex roots \(\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(-b \pm i \sqrt{4\alpha - b^2})\), hence \(|\lambda|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(b^2 + 4\alpha - b^2) = \sqrt{\alpha} < 1\). When \(|b| \geq 2\sqrt{\alpha}\), we have real roots. Define

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\]

Note that \(H = |A^T \lambda^T A|_K = |C_K(A)|^T C_K(A)\). By condition of the uniqueness of LASSO solution, we have that \(C_K(A)\) is non-singular, hence \(m > 0\). Let \(u = \frac{\alpha - \lambda}{\alpha - \lambda} \lambda + \alpha = 0\).

Let \(b := e \alpha - \alpha - 1\), and solve (17) for \(\lambda\). When \(|b| < 2\sqrt{\alpha}\), we have complex roots \(\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(-b \pm i \sqrt{4\alpha - b^2})\), hence \(|\lambda|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(b^2 + 4\alpha - b^2) = \sqrt{\alpha} < 1\). When \(|b| \geq 2\sqrt{\alpha}\), we have real roots. Define

\[
h_1(b) := \frac{1}{2}(-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4\alpha}), \\
h_2(b) := \frac{1}{2}(-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4\alpha}).
\]
C. Random Matrices with i.i.d. Entries

In the special case where the matrix \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times N} \) is the upper left corner of a doubly infinite array of i.i.d.
zero-mean random variables with finite fourth moment and is normalized such that the variance is \( 1/n \), the asymptotic
largest singular value of \( C_K(A) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times Nd} \), where \( Nd < n \), is
\[
1 + \sqrt{Nd/n} = 1 + \sqrt{d/c} \quad \text{with probability one} \quad (21).
\]
It follows that the denominator of the upper-bound in (20) is
\[
M + 2(1-\hat{d}/c) = 1 + \hat{d}/c + 2\sqrt{d/c} + 2\hat{d}/c = 3 + 2\sqrt{d/c} - \hat{d}/c.
\]
Let \( x = \hat{d}/c \), hence \( x \in [0, 1] \). Define \( f(x) = 2\sqrt{x} - x \) and notice that \( f \) is monotone increasing on \([0, 1] \). Therefore,
\( f(x) < f(1) = 1 \), which implies that \( M + 2(1-\hat{d}/c) \leq 4 \).
That is, local stability for large zero-mean random matrices with variance \( 1/n \) is guaranteed by setting \( e = 1 \), which,
as mentioned before, makes Algorithm 1 coincide with the original AMP (8), as seen in (9) and (14).

IV. NUMERICAL DEMONSTRATION

To demonstrate the efficiency of our proposed AMP variant, we compare it with the original AMP that uses the calibration
method proposed in (14), a PDHG algorithm with a fixed stepsize that guarantees convergence (see (9)), and a popular
convex optimization algorithm, fast iterative shrinkage and thresholding algorithm (FISTA) (4). Because our proposed
algorithm is inspired by AMP and depends on a parameter \( e \), we call it eAMP and choose \( e \) as the upper bound in (21). In
addition, we include results for eAMP with \( e = 1 \), which is of the same form as AMP but the threshold for the thresholding
function at each iteration is different from that in (14).

In all the simulations, the problem dimension is \( N = 2000 \),
\( n = 1000 \). The data vector \( y \) is obtained by \( y = Ax_0 + w \),
where entries of \( w \) are independent realizations of a Gaussian
distribution with mean zero and variance \( \sigma_w^2 \) and entries
of \( x_0 \) are independent realizations of a Bernoulli(0.1)-
Uniform[-1,1] distribution (i.e., \( X_0 = BU \) with \( B \sim \)
Bernoulli(0.1) and \( U \sim \text{Uniform}[-1,1] \)). The value of \( \sigma_w^2 \)
satisfies \( 10\log_{10} \left( \frac{\|Ax_0\|_2^2}{\sigma_w^2} \right) = 25 \), i.e.,
the signal-to-noise ratio is 25dB. All tested algorithms are initialized with an all-zero vector. Since FISTA and PDHG have
theoretical convergence guarantees, we present their results only for comparison of empirical convergence speed, hence we sometimes stop them early when the convergence speed comparison is clear.

For the first set of simulations, we use matrices \( A \) whose
entries are i.i.d. zero-mean Gaussian, which is the case studied in (14) in the limit as \( N, n \to \infty \). The simulation results are shown in Fig. 2a. We notice that while AMP seems to have
converged, it does not converge to the LASSO solution \( x^* \), whereas eAMP with both choices of \( e \) has converged to the
LASSO solution. Moreover, the empirical convergence speed (in terms of number of iterations) of eAMP is much faster
than that of FISTA or PDHG with our choice of \( e \), though a smaller \( e \) may lead to a slower convergence.

2That is, we have an array \( \{X_{ij}\}, i = 1, 2, \ldots; j = 1, 2, \ldots \) and \( A = (X_{ij}), i = 1, 2, \ldots, n; j = 1, 2, \ldots, N \).

For the second set of simulations, we use matrices \( A \) whose
rows are independent realizations of a zero-mean multivariate
Gaussian distribution, where diagonal entries of the covariance
matrix have value \( 1/n \) and off-diagonal entries have value \( 0.01/n \). The simulation results are shown in Fig. 2b. In this
case, AMP and eAMP with the inappropriate choice of \( e = 1 \)
have diverged, whereas eAMP with \( e \) as the upper bound in (21) has converged to the LASSO solution and requires far
greater iterations than FISTA and PDHG.

While our analysis in Section III only guarantees local stability for eAMP, the encouraging simulation results suggest
that a global convergence result might be possible; we leave the global convergence analysis for future work.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed an AMP variant (Algorithm 1) for solving the LASSO problem (1). Unlike the work in (14)
that analyzes the limiting behavior of AMP iterates as the iteration number goes to infinity for infinite dimensional problems, we focused on finite dimensional problems. Specifically, for any finite dimensional matrix \( A \), whenever our algorithm converges, it converges to the LASSO solution. This is not the case for AMP with finite dimensional \( A \) even when \( A \) has i.i.d. Gaussian entries, as shown in Fig. 2b. The proposed algorithm contains a parameter \( e \) that depends on the largest singular value of \( A \). In Proposition 1 we provided conditions
on \( e \) under which the algorithm is locally stable around the
LASSO solution with probability one when entries of \( A \) are drawn from a continuous distribution. Finally, numerical results showed that the number of iterations required for our
algorithm to converge is orders of magnitude smaller than optimization algorithms such as FISTA (4) and PDHG (8).
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