



Département de Mathématiques d'Orsay



Estimator Selection in High-Dimensional Settings

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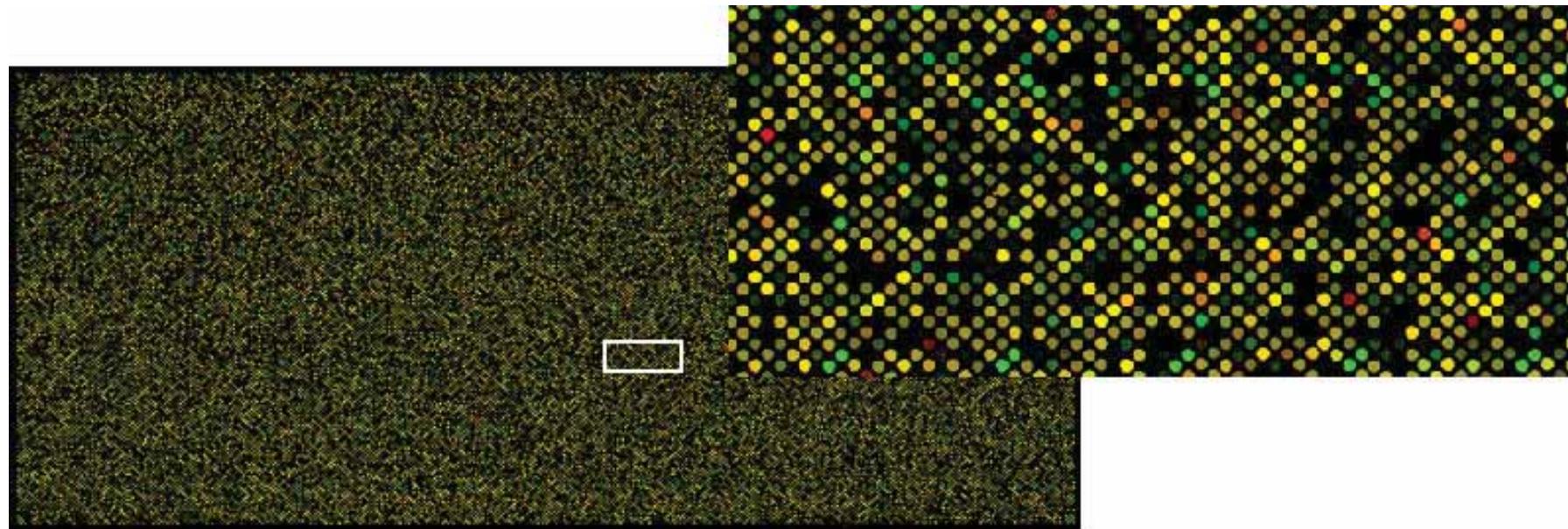
Big Data?

Big Data?

“Wide” Data

High-dimensional data

- ▶ **Biotech data** : Biotech devices can sense up to tens of thousands of "features" $\gg n = \text{number of "individuals"}$.
- ▶ **Images** : medical images, massive astrophysic images, video surveillance images, etc. Each image is made of thousands up to millions of pixels or voxels.
- ▶ **Consumers preferences data** : websites and loyalty programs collect huge amounts of informations on the preferences and the behaviors of customers. Ex: recommendation systems for movies, books, musics.
- ▶ **Business data** : optimal exploitation of internal and external data (logistic and transportation, insurance, finance, etc)
- ▶ **Crowdsourcing data** : massive online participative data sets (recorded by volunteers). Ex: eBirds collects online millions of bird counts across Northern America.



Whole Human Genome Microarray covering over 41,000 human genes and transcripts on a standard 1" x 3" glass slide format.

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Blessing?

- 😊 we can sense thousands of variables on each "individual" : potentially we will be able to scan every variables that may influence the phenomenon under study.
- 😢 the curse of dimensionality : separating the signal from the noise is in general almost impossible in high-dimensional data and computations can rapidly exceed the available resources.

Curse 1 : fluctuations cumulate

Exemple : linear regression $Y = \mathbf{X}\beta^* + \varepsilon$ with $\text{cov}(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2 I_n$.

The Least-Square estimator $\hat{\beta} \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \|Y - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2$ has a risk

$$\mathbb{E} [\|\hat{\beta} - \beta^*\|^2] = \operatorname{Tr} \left((\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \right) \sigma^2.$$

Illustration :

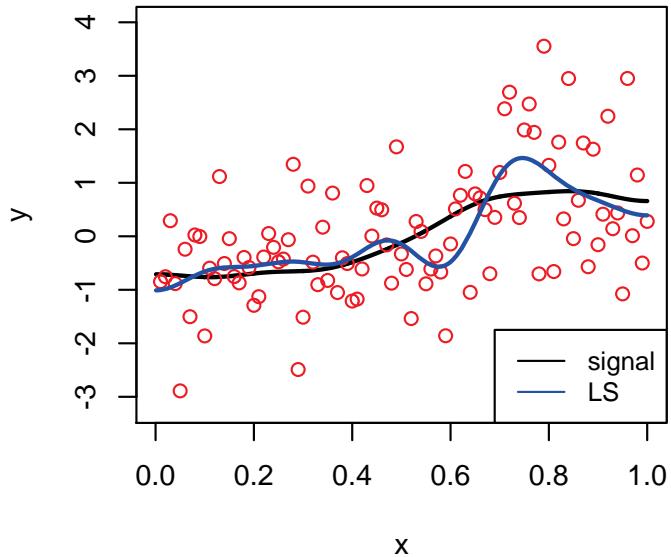
$$Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^* \cos(\pi j i / n) + \varepsilon_i = f_{\beta^*}(i/n) + \varepsilon_i, \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n,$$

with

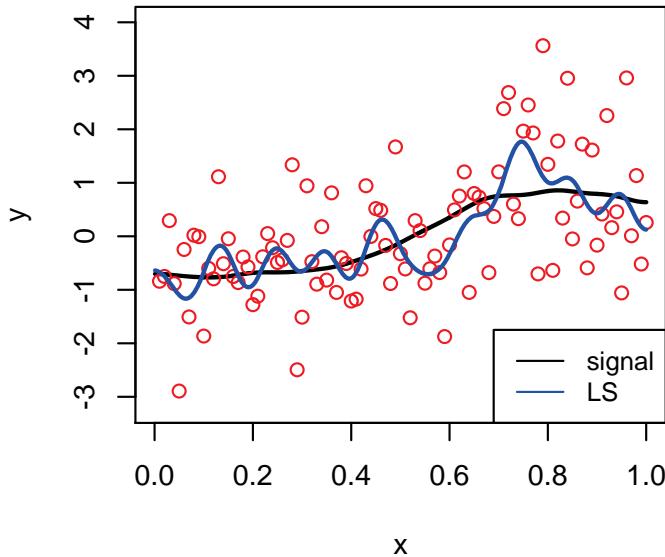
- ▶ $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n$ i.i.d with $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ distribution
- ▶ β_j^* independent with $\mathcal{N}(0, j^{-4})$ distribution

Curse 1 : fluctuations cumulate

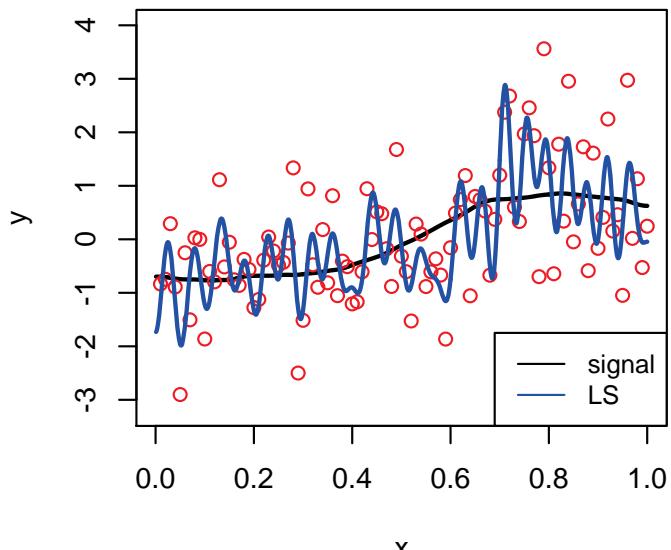
p = 10



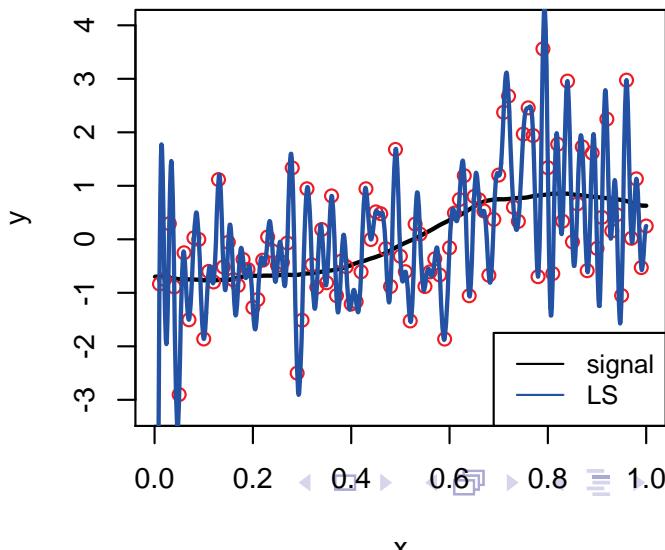
p = 20



p = 50



p = 100



Curse 2 : locality is lost

Observations $(Y_i, X^{(i)}) \in \mathbb{R} \times [0, 1]^p$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Model: $Y_i = f(X^{(i)}) + \varepsilon_i$ with f smooth.

Local averaging: $\hat{f}(x) = \text{average of } \{Y_i : X^{(i)} \text{ close to } x\}$

Curse 2 : locality is lost

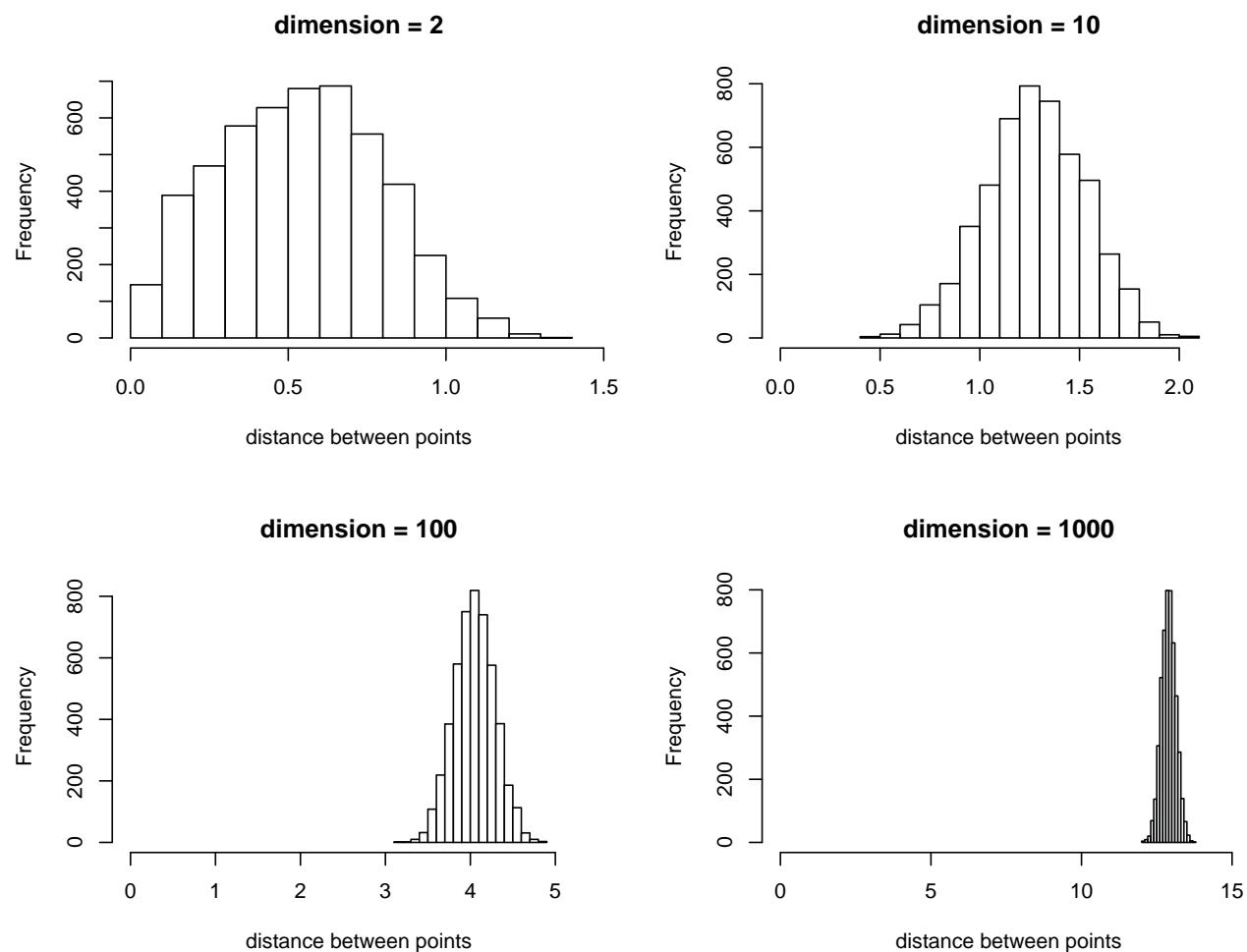


Figure: Histograms of the pairwise-distances between $n = 100$ points sampled uniformly in the hypercube $[0, 1]^p$, for $p = 2, 10, 100$ and 1000 .

Curse 2 : locality is lost

Number n of points x_1, \dots, x_n required for covering $[0, 1]^p$ by the balls $B(x_i, 1)$:

$$n \geq \frac{\Gamma(p/2 + 1)}{\pi^{p/2}} \underset{p \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \left(\frac{p}{2\pi e}\right)^{p/2} \sqrt{p\pi}$$

p	20	30	50	100	200
n	39	45630	$5.7 \cdot 10^{12}$	$42 \cdot 10^{39}$	larger than the estimated number of particles in the observable universe

Some other curses

- ▶ Curse 3 : an accumulation of rare events may not be rare (false discoveries, etc)
- ▶ Curse 4 : algorithmic complexity must remain low

Low-dimensional structures in high-dimensional data

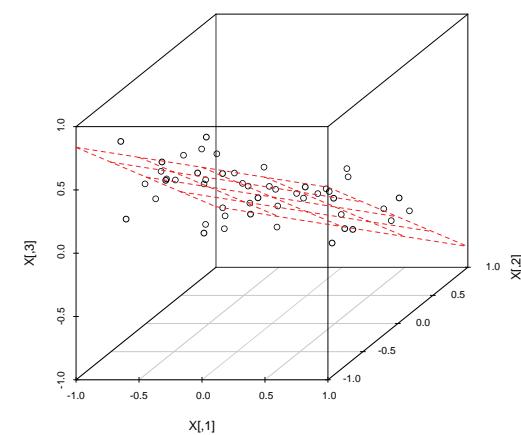
Hopeless?

Low dimensional structures : high-dimensional data are usually concentrated around low-dimensional structures reflecting the (relatively) small complexity of the systems producing the data

- ▶ geometrical structures in an image,
- ▶ regulation network of a "biological system",
- ▶ social structures in marketing data,
- ▶ human technologies have limited complexity, etc.

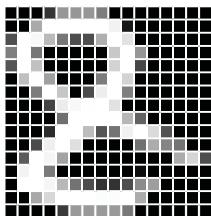
Dimension reduction :

- ▶ "unsupervised" (PCA)
- ▶ "estimation-oriented"

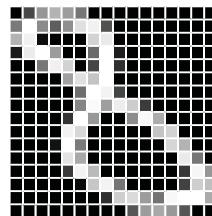


PCA in action

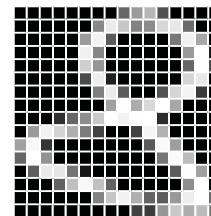
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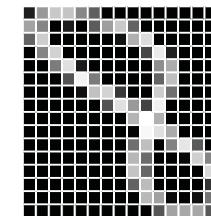
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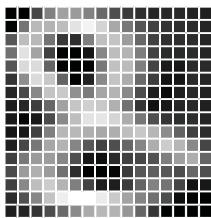
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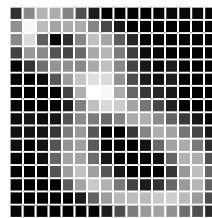
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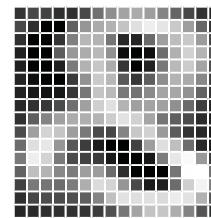
projected image



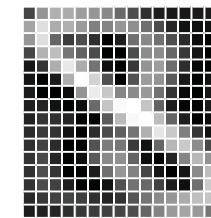
projected image



projected image



projected image



MNIST : 1100 scans of each digit. Each scan is a 16×16 image which is encoded by a vector in \mathbb{R}^{256} . The original images are displayed in the first row, their projection onto 10 first principal axes in the second row.

"Estimation-oriented" dimension reduction

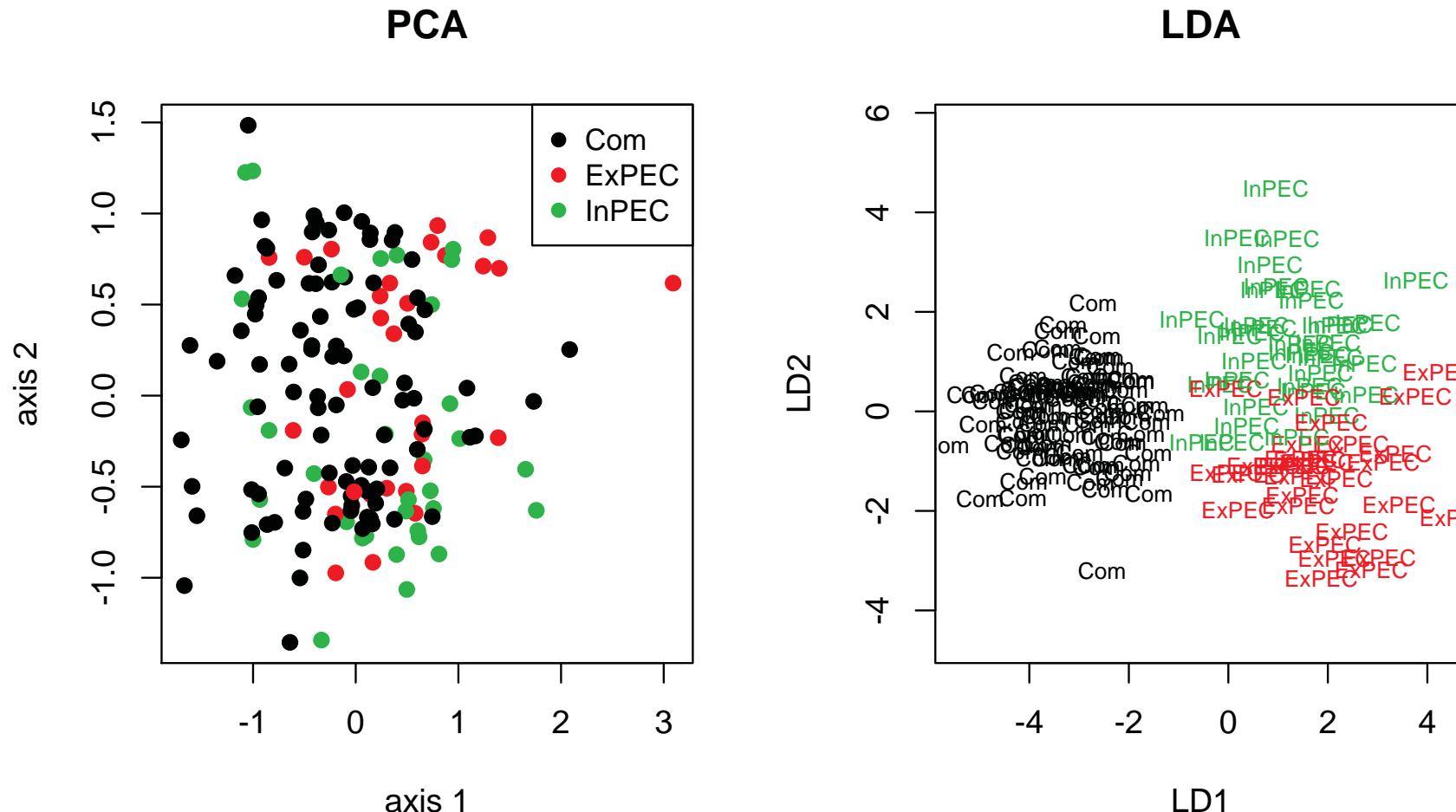


Figure: 55 chemical measurements of 162 strains of *E. coli*.

Left : the data is projected on the plane given by a PCA.

Right : the data is projected on the plane given by a LDA.

A paradigm shift

Classical statistics:

- ▶ a small number p of parameters
- ▶ a large number n of observations.

High-dimensional data:

- ▶ a huge number p of parameters
- ▶ a sample size n with $n \asymp p$ or $n \ll p$.

classical asymptotic analyses do not fit!

Statistical setting:

- ▶ either $n, p \rightarrow \infty$ with $p \sim g(n)$ (yet sensitive to g)
- ▶ or treat n and p as they are (yet analysis is more involved)

Central issue:

identify (at least approximately) the low-dimensional structures

Estimator selection

Unknown structures

- ▶ the low-dimensional structures are unknown
- ▶ the "class" of hidden structures is possibly unknown
 - ▶ various sparsity patterns
 - ▶ smoothness
 - ▶ low-rank
 - ▶ etc

Strong effort

For each "class" of structures, many computationally efficient estimators adapting to the hidden structures have been developed

Estimator selection

Difficulties

- ▶ No procedure is universally better than the others
- ▶ A sensible choice of the tuning parameters usually depends on some unknown characteristics of the data (sparsity, smoothness, variance, etc)

Estimator selection / aggregation

needed for

- ▶ adapting to the possibly unknown "classes" of structures
- ▶ choosing the best among several estimators
- ▶ tuning parameters

Ideal objective

- ▶ Select the "best" estimator among a collection $\{\hat{f}_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda\}$.

1- a simple setting

Regression framework

Regression setting

- ▶ $Y_i = F(x_i) + \varepsilon_i$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$, with $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n$ i.i.d.
- ▶ $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma^2 = \text{var}(\varepsilon_i)$ are unknown
- ▶ we want to estimate F or $f^* = (F(x_1), \dots, F(x_n))$

Ex 1: sparse linear regression

- ▶ $F(x) \approx \langle \beta^*, \phi(x) \rangle$ with β^* "sparse" in some sense and $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{R}^p$ with possibly $p > n$

Ex 2: non-parametric regression

- ▶ $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is smooth

A plethora of estimators

For each "class" of structures, there is a strong effort for developing computationally efficient estimators which adapt to the hidden structures

Sparse linear regression

- ▶ Coordinate sparsity: Lasso, Dantzig, Elastic-Net, Exponential-Weighting, Random Forest, etc.
- ▶ Structured sparsity: Group-lasso, Fused-Lasso, Hierarchical-Group Lasso, Bayesian estimators, etc

Non-parametric regression

- ▶ Spline smoothing, Nadaraya kernel smoothing, kernel ridge estimators, nearest neighbors, L^2 -basis projection, Sparse Additive Models, etc

Important practical issues

Which class of structures?

- ▶ coordinate sparse linear regression?
- ▶ group-sparse linear regression?
- ▶ smoothing?

Which estimator should be used?

- ▶ Sparse regression: Lasso? Exponential-Weighting?
Random-Forest?
- ▶ Non-parametric regression: Kernel regression? (which kernel?)
Spline smoothing?

Which "tuning" parameter?

- ▶ which penalty level for the lasso?
- ▶ which bandwidth for kernel regression?
- ▶ etc

A simple example

Model

$$Y = \mathbf{X}\beta^* + \varepsilon$$

Scale-invariance

An estimator $(Y, \mathbf{X}) \rightarrow \hat{\beta}(Y, \mathbf{X})$ is scale invariant if

$$\hat{\beta}(sY, \mathbf{X}) = s\hat{\beta}(Y, \mathbf{X}).$$

Lasso estimator

$$\hat{\beta}_\lambda = \operatorname*{argmin}_\beta \left\{ \|Y - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + 2\lambda\|\beta\|_1 \right\}, \quad \lambda > 0$$

is not scale-invariant

$$\hat{\beta}_\lambda(sY, \mathbf{X}) = s\hat{\beta}_{\lambda/s}(Y, \mathbf{X}).$$

A simple example

The compatibility constant

$$\kappa[S] = \min_{u \in \mathcal{C}(S)} \left\{ |S|^{1/2} \|\mathbf{X}u\|_2 / \|u_S\|_1 \right\},$$

where $\mathcal{C}(S) = \{u : \|u_{S^c}\|_1 < 4\|u_S\|_1\}$.

Theorem (Koltchinskii, Lounici, Tsybakov)

Assumptions

- ▶ $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
- ▶ columns of \mathbf{X} with norm 1

Then, for $\lambda = 3\sigma\sqrt{2\log(p) + 2L}$ with probability at least $1 - e^{-L}$

$$\|\mathbf{X}(\widehat{\beta}_\lambda - \beta^*)\|^2 \leq \inf_{\beta \neq 0} \left\{ \|\mathbf{X}(\beta - \beta^*)\|^2 + \frac{18\sigma^2(L + \log(p))}{\kappa[\text{supp}(\beta)]^2} |\beta|_0 \right\}$$

Selection strategies

Resampling strategies

- ▶ V -fold Cross-Validation
- ▶ and many others

Complexity penalization

- ▶ Penalized log-likelihood (AIC, BIC, etc)
- ▶ LinSelect
- ▶ pairwise comparison : Goldenshluger-Lepski's method,
Birgé-Baraud's method

Some specific strategies

- ▶ Square-root / scaled (group-)Lasso

Principle of complexity penalization

Model

$$Y = f^* + \varepsilon$$

Typical selection criterion

$$\hat{\lambda} \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\lambda} \left\{ \|Y - \hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 + \text{pen}(\lambda) \right\}$$

Main issue

To shape $\lambda \rightarrow \text{pen}(\lambda)$ in order to have

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\|f^* - \hat{f}_{\hat{\lambda}}\|^2 \right] \leq C \min_{\lambda} \mathbb{E} \left[\|f^* - \hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 \right] + \text{something small}$$

Principle of complexity penalization

If $\hat{\lambda} \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\lambda} \left\{ \|Y - \hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 + \operatorname{pen}(\lambda) \right\}$ then

$$\|f^* - \hat{f}_{\hat{\lambda}}\|^2 \leq \|f^* - \hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 + 2\langle \varepsilon, f^* - \hat{f}_\lambda \rangle + \operatorname{pen}(\lambda) + 2\langle \varepsilon, \hat{f}_{\hat{\lambda}} - f^* \rangle - \operatorname{pen}(\hat{\lambda}).$$

Which penalty $\operatorname{pen}(\lambda)$?

Find $\operatorname{pen}(\lambda)$ such that there exist some $\{Z_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ fulfilling for some $a < 1$, $c \geq 0$

- ▶ $\mathbb{E} [\sup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} Z_\lambda] \leq c\sigma^2$
- ▶ $2\langle \varepsilon, \hat{f}_\lambda - f^* \rangle - \operatorname{pen}(\lambda) \leq a\|\hat{f}_\lambda - f^*\|^2 + Z_\lambda, \quad \text{for all } \lambda \in \Lambda.$

Hence

$$(1 - a)\mathbb{E} [\|f^* - \hat{f}_{\hat{\lambda}}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E} [\|f^* - \hat{f}_\lambda\|^2] + \operatorname{pen}(\lambda) + c\sigma^2$$

Principle of complexity penalization

Since

$$2\langle \varepsilon, \hat{f}_\lambda - f^* \rangle \leq a \|\hat{f}_\lambda - f^*\|^2 + a^{-1} \left\langle \varepsilon, \frac{\hat{f}_\lambda - f^*}{\|\hat{f}_\lambda - f^*\|} \right\rangle$$

the penalty must control the fluctuations of

$$\left\langle \varepsilon, \frac{\hat{f}_\lambda - f^*}{\|\hat{f}_\lambda - f^*\|} \right\rangle.$$

Concentration inequalities help!

Back to the simple example

Restricted eigenvalue

For $k^* = n/(3 \log(p))$ we set $\phi_* = \sup \{\|Xu\|_2/\|u\|_2 : u \text{ } k^*\text{-sparse}\}$

Theorem

(Y. Baraud, C.G, S. Huet, N. Verzelen + T. Sun, C-H. Zhang)

If we assume that

- ▶ $|\beta^*|_0 \leq C_1 \kappa^2 [\text{supp}(\beta^*)] \times \frac{n}{\phi_* \log(p)},$

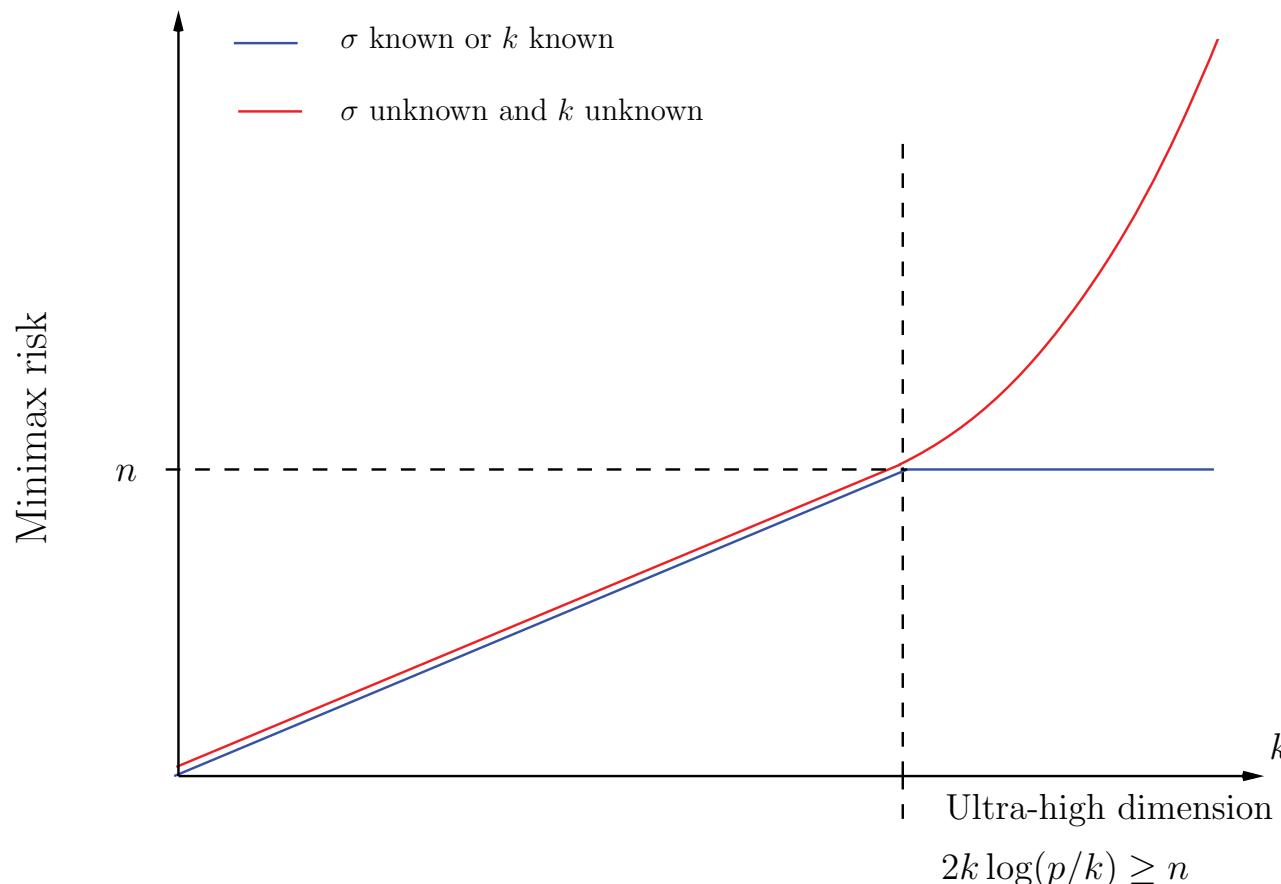
then there is a selection criterion such that with high probability,

$$\|\mathbf{X}(\hat{\beta} - \beta^*)\|_2^2 \leq C \inf_{\beta \neq 0} \left\{ \|\mathbf{X}(\beta^* - \beta)\|_2^2 + C_2 \frac{\phi_* |\beta|_0 \log(p)}{\kappa^2 [\text{supp}(\beta)]} \sigma^2 \right\}$$

Impact of the unknown variance?

Case of coordinate-sparse linear regression (N. Verzelen)

k -sparse signal $f^* = \mathbf{X}\beta^*$



Minimax prediction risk over k -sparse signal as a function of k

2- a more complex setting

Joint work with François Roueff and Andrés Sanchez-Perez.

Another strategy

Issue

The analysis of the fluctuations of the estimators can be intractable in some settings

Example

Non-linear estimators for Time Varying AutoRegressive processes

$$X_t = \sum_{j=1}^d \theta_j(t) X_{t-j} + \xi_t$$

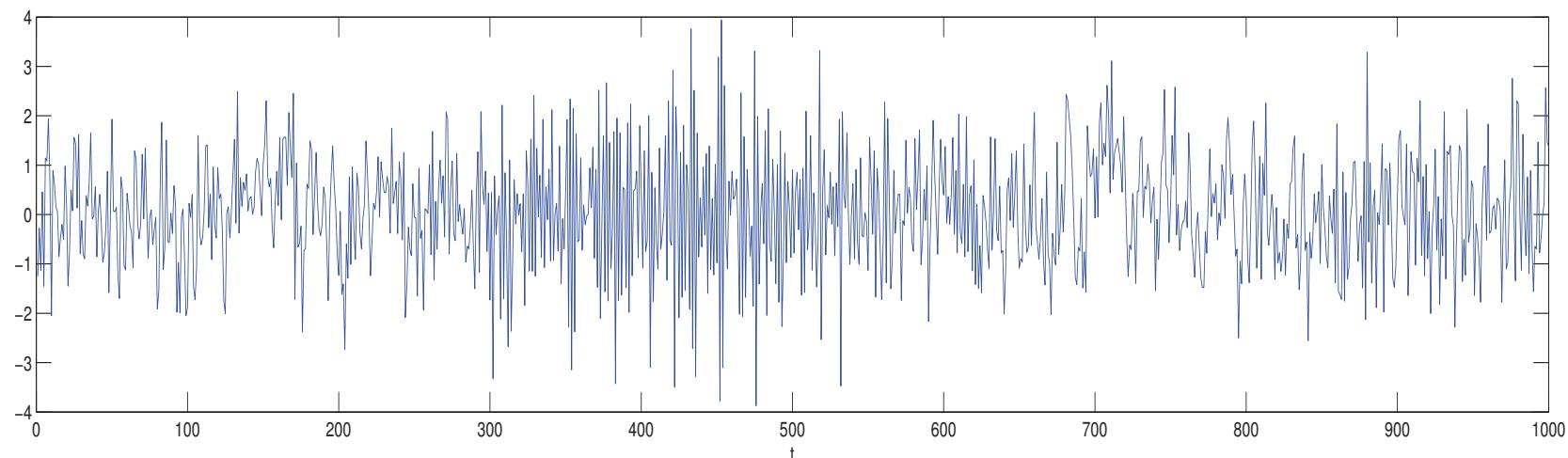


Figure: A TVAR process

Estimation for TVAR

Notations

$\mathbf{X}_{t-1} = (X_{t-1}, \dots, X_{t-d})$ and $\theta_{t-1} = (\theta_1(t), \dots, \theta_d(t))$ so that

$$X_t = \langle \theta_{t-1}, \mathbf{X}_{t-1} \rangle + \xi_t$$

Normalized Least Mean Squares estimators (NLMS)

$\widehat{X}_t^{(\lambda)} = \langle \widehat{\theta}_{t-1}^{(\lambda)}, \mathbf{X}_{t-1} \rangle$ where for $\lambda > 0$

$$\widehat{\theta}_t^{(\lambda)} = \widehat{\theta}_{t-1}^{(\lambda)} + \lambda \left(X_t - \langle \widehat{\theta}_{t-1}^{(\lambda)}, \mathbf{X}_{t-1} \rangle \right) \frac{\mathbf{X}_{t-1}}{1 + \lambda \|\mathbf{X}_{t-1}\|_2^2}.$$

Optimality

Moulines, Priouret and Roueff (2005) have shown some optimality of $\widehat{\theta}^{(\lambda)}$ for a suitable λ depending on some unknown quantities.

Estimator selection

How to choose λ ?

Hard to quantify precisely the fluctuations of a TVAR...

A strategy

Use some technics from individual sequence forecasting.

Individual sequence model

The observations x_1, x_2, \dots are deterministic!

A simple result (1)

Observations

x_1, x_2, \dots with values in $[-B, B]$

Predictors

$\hat{x}_t^{(\lambda)}$ for $\lambda \in \Lambda$, with values in $[-B, B]$.

Aggregation

$$\hat{x}_t = \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} w_\lambda(t) \hat{x}_t^{(\lambda)} \quad \text{with } w_\lambda(t) \propto \pi_\lambda e^{-\eta \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} (x_s - \hat{x}_s^{(\lambda)})^2}$$

where π is a probability distribution on Λ

A simple result (2)

Theorem (Catoni 97)

For $\eta = 1/(8B^2)$ we have

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (x_t - \hat{x}_t)^2 \leq \min_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \left\{ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (x_t - \hat{x}_t^{(\lambda)})^2 + \frac{8B^2}{T} \log(\pi_\lambda^{-1}) \right\}$$

proof

$x \rightarrow \exp(-x^2)$ is concave on $[-2^{-1/2}, 2^{-1/2}]$.

Issues

- ▶ Some processes like TVAR are not bounded
- ▶ Even if a process is bounded by some B , the choice $\eta \asymp B^{-2}$ can be suboptimal

Extension to unbounded stochastic settings

Sublinear model
 $(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies

$$|X_t| \leq \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} A_t(j) Z_{t-j} ,$$

- $Z_t \geq 0$, independent

- $A_t(j) \geq 0$ and $A_* := \sup_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} A_t(j) < \infty$.

(1)

Examples of sublinear processes (1)

Linear processes with time varying coefficients

$$X_t = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} a_t(j) \xi_{t-j} ,$$

- ▶ $(\xi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ independents, standardized,
- ▶ $(a_t(j))_{t,j}$ satisfies (1) with $A_t(j) = |a_t(j)|$.

Classical assumption :

$$\sup_{T \geq 1} \sup_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{t=1}^T |a_{t,T}(j) - a(t/T, j)| < \infty .$$

where $u \rightarrow a(u, j)$ is smooth.

Examples of sublinear processes (2)

TVAR model

$\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d) : (-\infty, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma : (-\infty, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$,
 $(\xi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$ independents, $\mathbb{E}[\xi_t] = 0$, $\mathbb{E}[\xi_t^2] = 1$.

1. For all $t \leq T$,

$$X_{t,T} = \sum_{j=1}^d \theta_j \left(\frac{t-j}{T} \right) X_{t-j,T} + \sigma \left(\frac{t}{T} \right) \xi_t .$$

2.

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{t \leq T} \mathbb{P}(|X_{t,T}| > M) = 0 .$$

Examples of sublinear processes (2)

Regularity-stability condition

$$\theta \in \mathcal{C}(\beta, R, \delta, \sigma_-, \sigma_+) = \left\{ (\theta, \sigma) : (-\infty, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \times [\sigma_-, \sigma_+] : \theta \in \Lambda_d(\beta, R) \cap s_d(\delta) \right\},$$

where

- ▶ $\Lambda_d(\beta, R) = \left\{ f : (-\infty, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d, \sup_{s \neq s'} \frac{|f^{(\lceil \beta \rceil - 1)}(s) - f^{(\lceil \beta \rceil - 1)}(s')|}{|s - s'|^{\beta + 1 - \lceil \beta \rceil}} \leq R \right\}$
- ▶ $s_d(\delta) = \left\{ \theta : (-\infty, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d, \Theta(z; u) \neq 0, \forall |z| < \delta^{-1}, u \in [0, 1] \right\}$
where $\Theta(z; u) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^d \theta_j(u) z^j$.

Examples of sublinear processes (2)

Proposition

If $(\theta, \sigma) \in \mathcal{C}(\beta, R, \delta, 0, \sigma_+)$, for $\delta \in (0, 1)$

$$X_{t,T} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{t,T}(j) \sigma\left(\frac{t-j}{T}\right) \xi_{t-j},$$

where for any $\rho \in (\delta, 1)$, $\exists \bar{K} = \bar{K}(\rho, \delta, \beta, R) > 0$ such that,
 $\forall t \leq T$ and $j \geq 0$,

$$|a_{t,T}(j)| \leq \bar{K} \rho^j.$$

Hence

$$\sup_t \sum_{j \geq 0} |a_{t,T}(j) \sigma(t - j/T)| \leq \frac{\bar{K} \sigma_+}{1 - \rho}.$$

Sublinearity of the predictors

L -Lipschitz predictors

- ▶ $L = (L_s)_{s \geq 1}$ non-negative with

$$L_* = \sum_{j \geq 1} L_j < \infty .$$

- ▶ A predictor \hat{X}_t of X_t from $(X_s)_{s \leq t-1}$ is L -Lipschitz if

$$|\hat{X}_t| \leq \sum_{s \geq 1} L_s |X_{t-s}| .$$

Risk bound with p -th moment

Theorem (C.G., F. Roueff, A. Sanchez-Perez)

If $m_p := \sup_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{E}[Z_t^p] < \infty$, $p \geq 2$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} [(\hat{X}_t - X_t)^2] &\leq \min_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \left\{ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} [(\hat{X}_t^{(\lambda)} - X_t)^2] + \frac{\log(\pi_\lambda^{-1})}{T\eta} \right\} \\ &\quad + T (8\eta)^{p/2-1} A_*^p (1 + L_*)^p m_p . \end{aligned}$$

Choice of η

For $\pi_\lambda = |\Lambda|^{-1}$, the optimal choice is

$$\eta = \frac{1}{8^{1-2/p} (1 + L_*)^2 A_*^2 m_p^{2/p}} \left(\frac{\log |\Lambda|}{T^2} \right)^{2/p},$$

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X}_t - X_t)^2 \right] \leq \inf_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X}_t^{(\lambda)} - X_t)^2 \right] + C_1 \frac{\log(|\Lambda|)^{1-2/p}}{T^{1-4/p}}$$

with $C_1 = 2 \times 8^{(p-2)/p} (1 + L_*)^2 A_*^2 m_p^{2/p}$.

Risk bound with exponential moment

Theorem (C.G., F. Roueff, A. Sanchez-Perez)

If

1. $\phi(\zeta) := \sup_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{E}[e^{\zeta Z_t}] < \infty$, for some $\zeta > 0$,

2. $\pi_\lambda = |\Lambda|^{-1}$

3.

$$\eta = \frac{\zeta^2}{8(A^*)^2(L_* + 1)^2} \max \left\{ 2, \log \left(\frac{T^2 \phi(\zeta)}{8 \log N} \right) \right\}^{-2}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X}_t - X_t)^2 \right] &\leq \min_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X}_t^{(\lambda)} - X_t)^2 \right] \\ &\quad + C_2 \frac{\log |\Lambda|}{T} \max \left\{ 2, \log \left(\frac{T^2 \phi(\zeta)}{8 \log |\Lambda|} \right) \right\}^2 \end{aligned}$$

with $C_2 = 16A_*^2(1 + L_*)^2\zeta^{-2}$.

Conclusion

Corollary

The estimator \widehat{X} built from the aggregation of the $\widehat{X}^{(\lambda)}$ adapts to the regularity of θ

Caveat

The choice of η depends on a moment of ξ_t (exponential moment or p -th moment). Yet, an upper-bound is enough.

$$d = 3, T = 1000, \sigma = 1, \delta = 0.5, N = 7$$

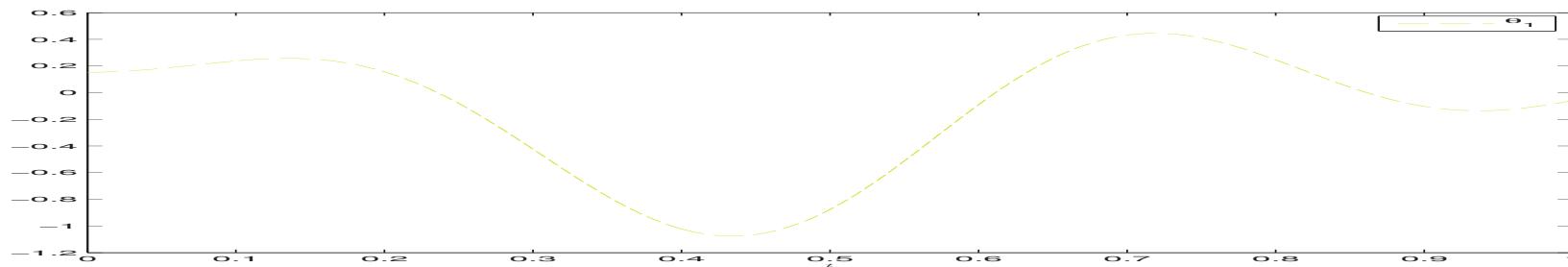


Figure: θ_1

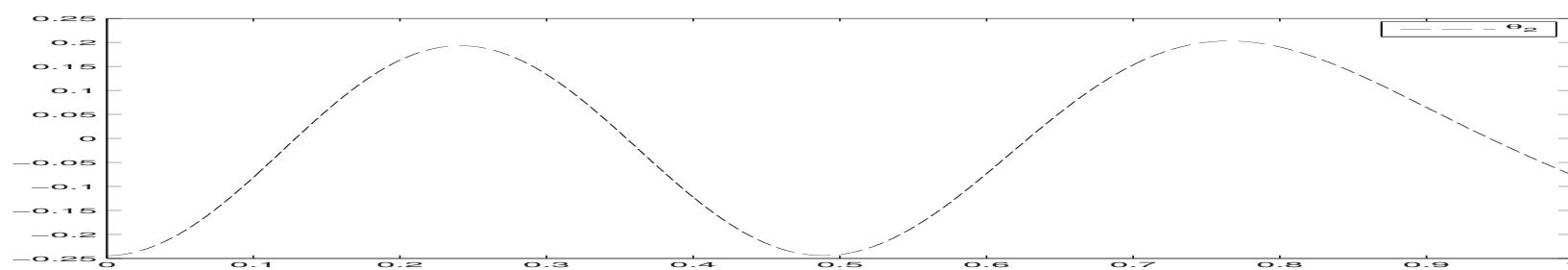


Figure: θ_2

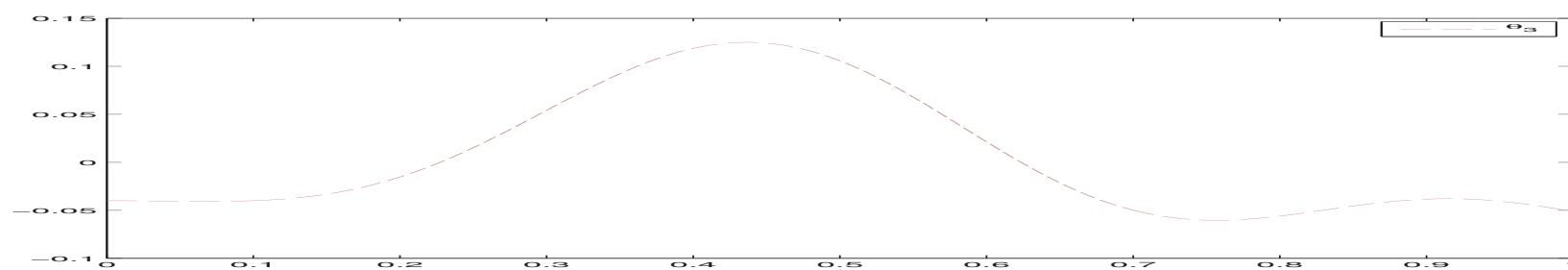


Figure: θ_3

Processes and estimation

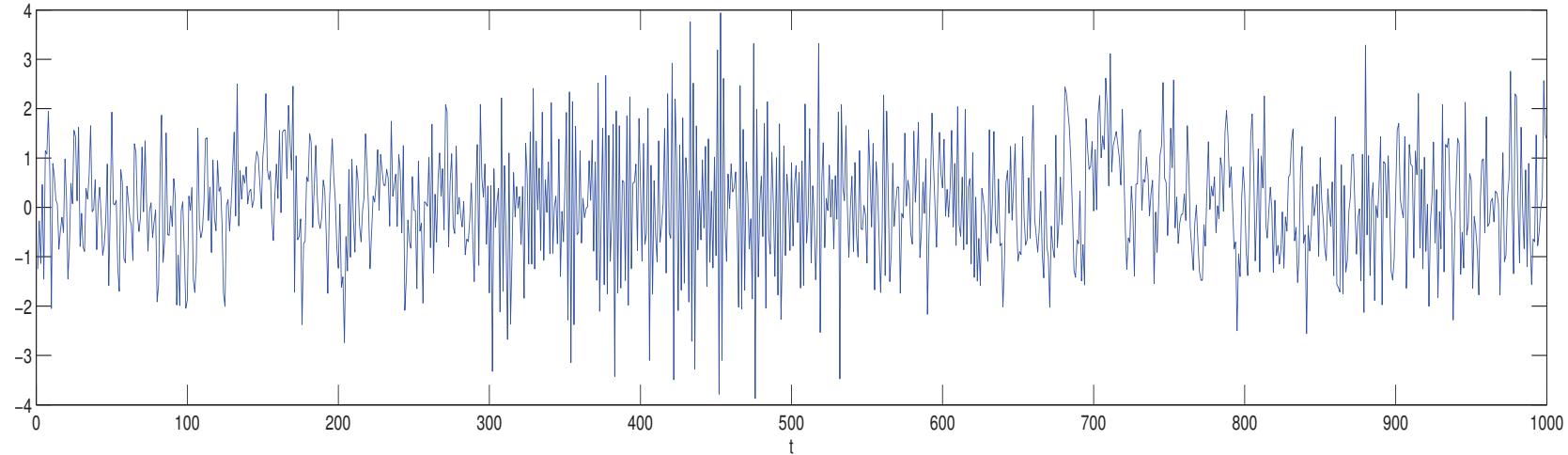


Figure: A TVAR process

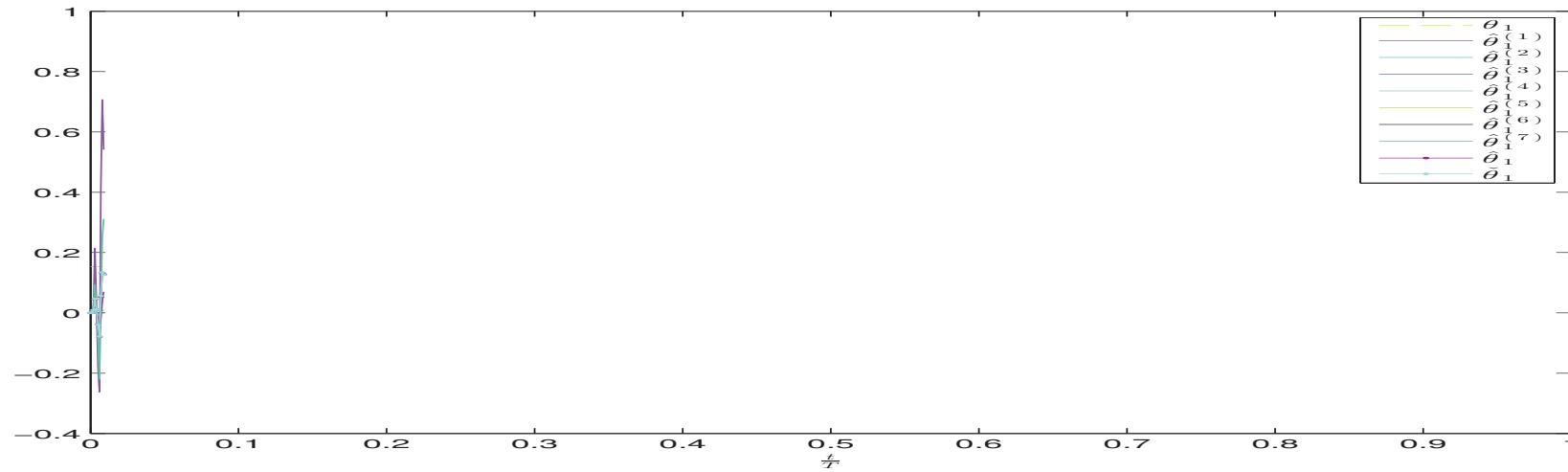


Figure: NLMS estimators for θ_1

Processes and estimation

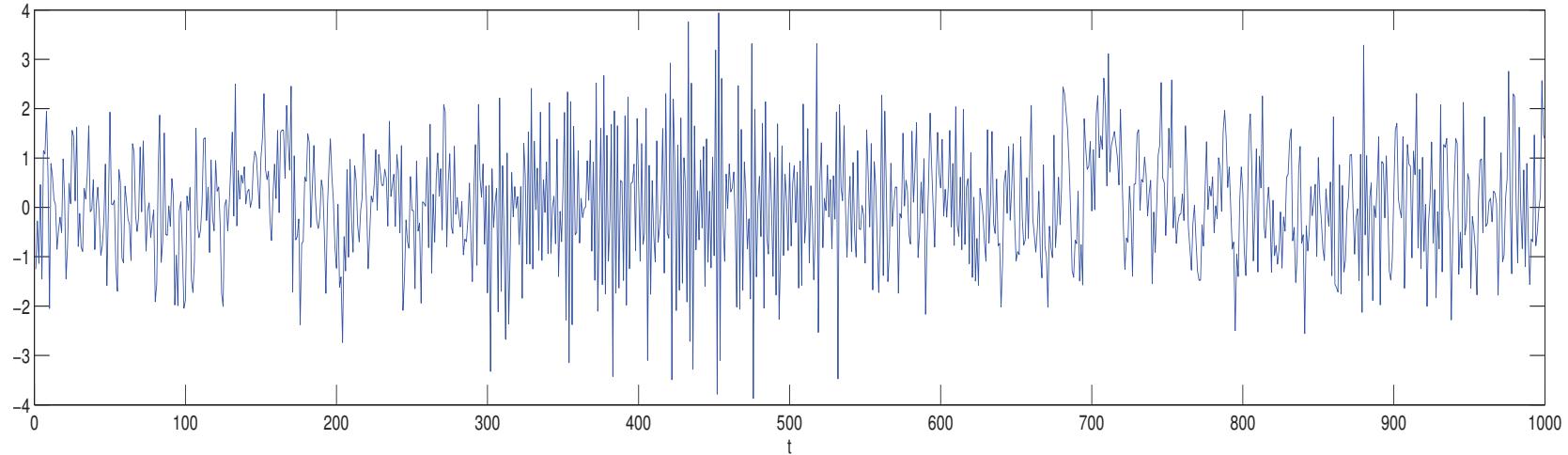


Figure: A TVAR process

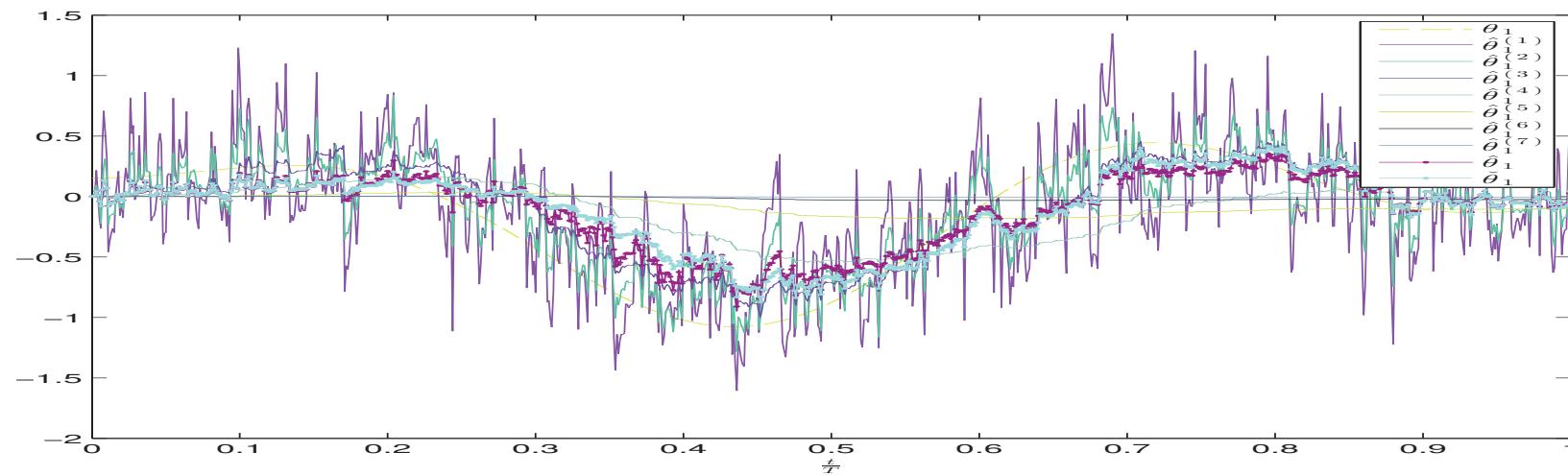


Figure: NLMS estimators for θ_1

Estimation

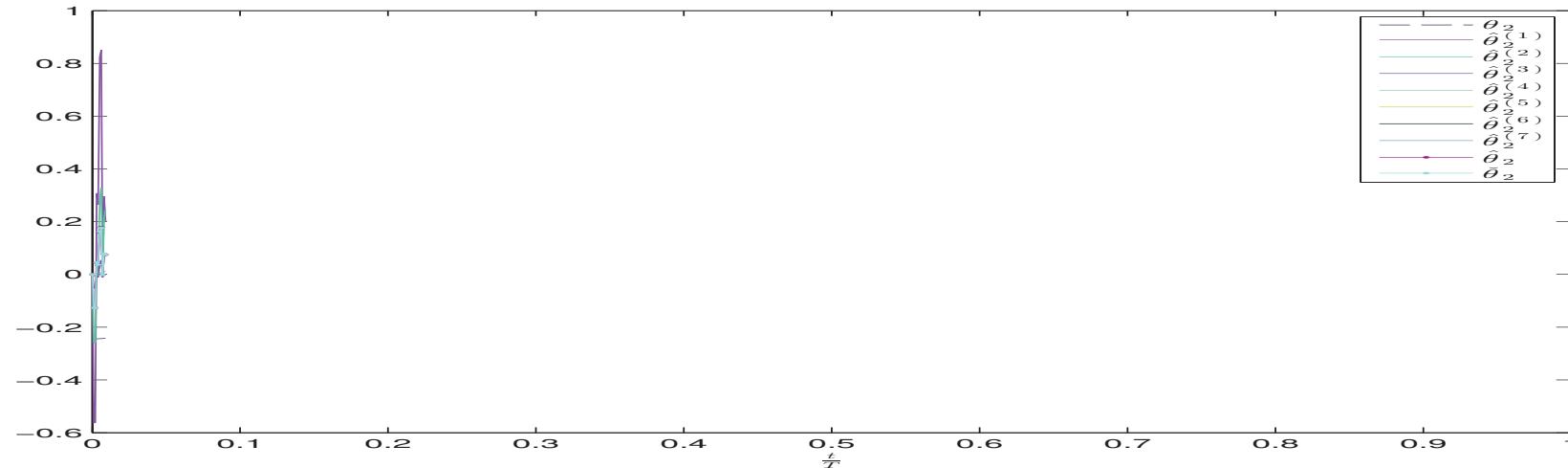


Figure: NLMS estimators for θ_2

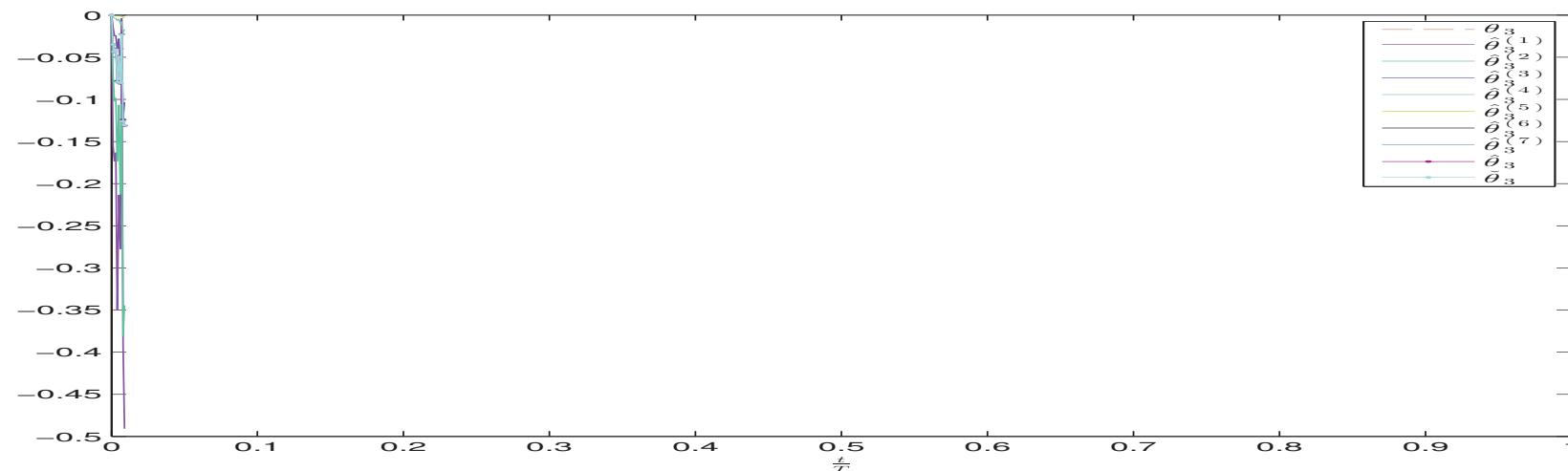


Figure: NLMS estimators for θ_3

Estimation

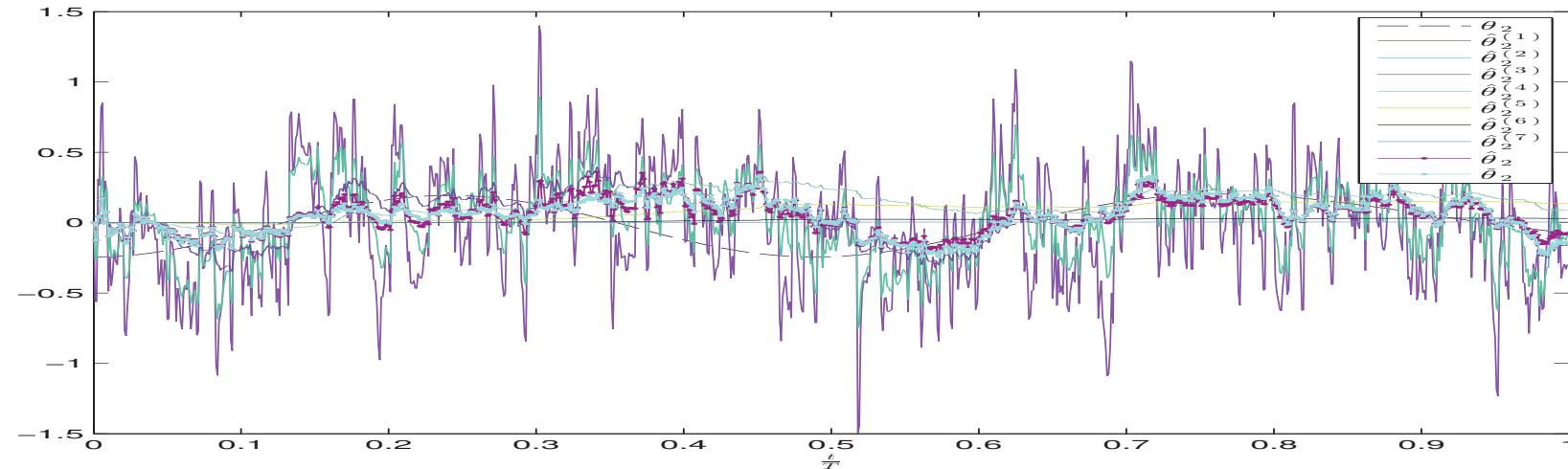


Figure: NLMS estimators for θ_2

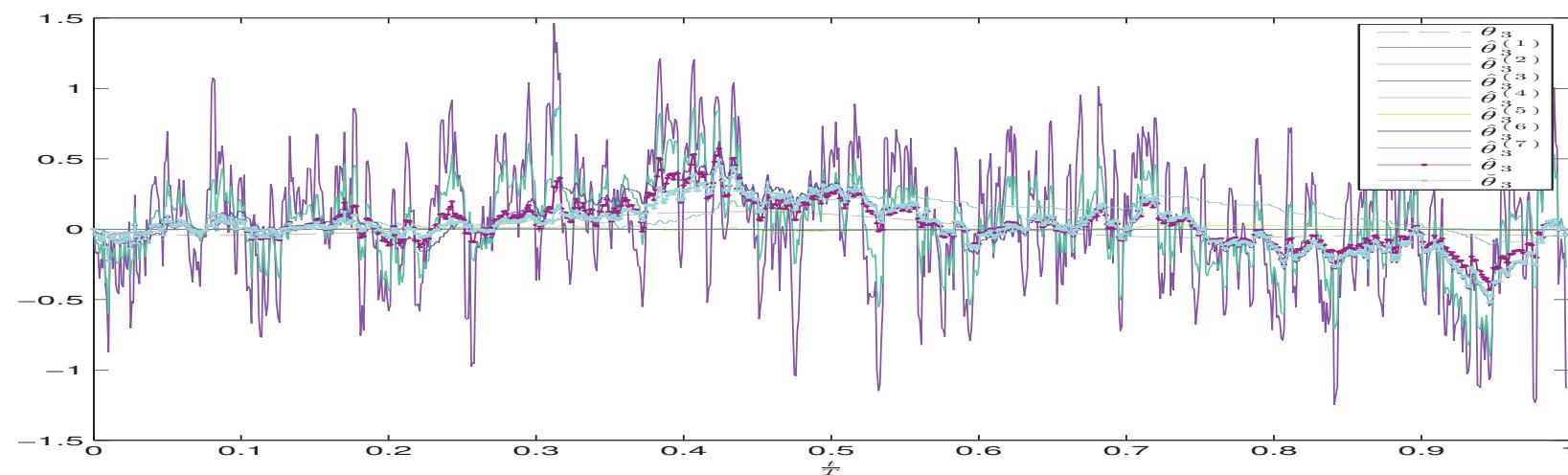


Figure: NLMS estimators for θ_3

Boxplot of the cumulative error

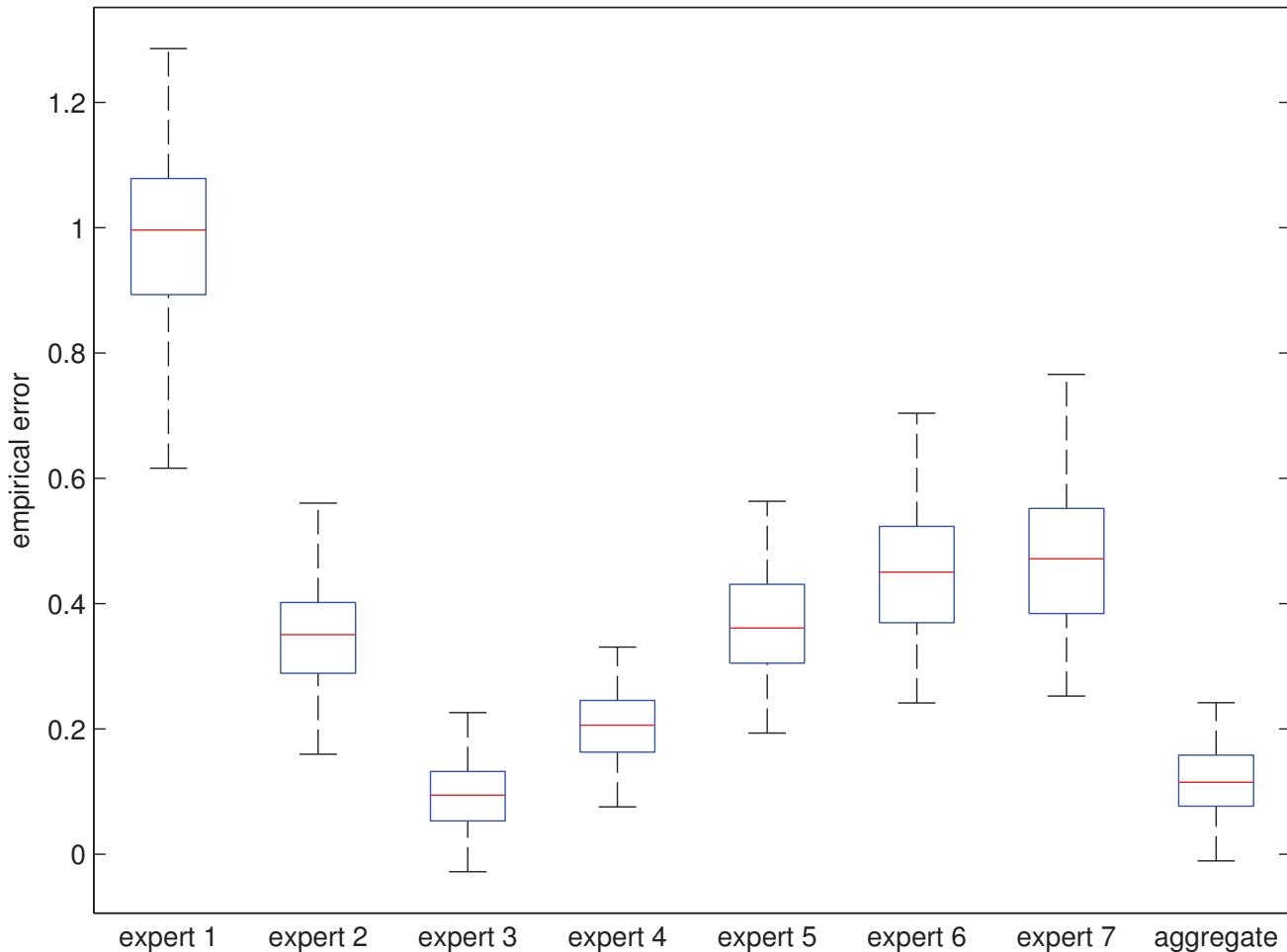


Figure: Empirical cumulative error

Introduction to high-dimensional statistics

Available online :

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Contents

1. Curse of dimensionality
2. Model selection
3. Aggregation of estimators
4. Convex criterions
5. Estimator selection
6. Low rank regression
7. Graphical models
8. Multiple testing
9. Supervised classification