

# Statistiques en grande dimension

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M2 MathSV & Maths Aléa

# High-dimensional data

# Données en grande dimension

- **Données biotech:** mesure des milliers de quantités par "individu".
- **Images :** images médicales, astrophysique, video surveillance, etc. Chaque image est constituées de milliers ou millions de pixels ou voxels.
- **Marketing:** les sites web et les programmes de fidélité collectent de grandes quantités d'information sur les préférences et comportements des clients. Ex: systèmes de recommandation...
- **Business:** exploitation des données internes et externes de l'entreprise devient primordial
- **Crowdsourcing data :** données récoltées online par des volontaires. Ex: eBirds collecte des millions d'observations d'oiseaux en Amérique du Nord

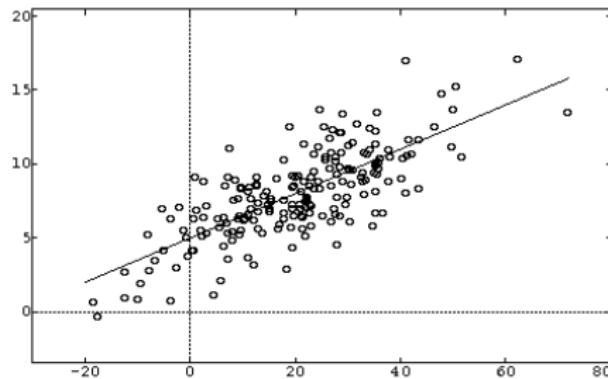
# Blessing?

- 😊 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.

# Renversement de point de vue

## Cadre statistique classique:

- petit nombre  $p$  de paramètres
- grand nombre  $n$  d'expériences
- on étudie le comportement asymptotique des estimateurs lorsque  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (résultats type théorème central limite)



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## Données actuelles:

- inflation du nombre  $p$  de paramètres
- taille d'échantillon réduite:  $n \approx p$  ou  $n \ll p$

⇒ penser différemment les statistiques!  
(penser  $n \rightarrow \infty$  ne convient plus)

# Fléau de la dimension

# Curse 1 : fluctuations cumulate

**Exemple :** linear regression  $Y = \mathbf{X}\beta^* + \varepsilon$  with  $\text{cov}(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2 I_n$ . The Least-Square estimator  $\widehat{\beta} \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \|Y - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2$  has a risk

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

## Illustration :

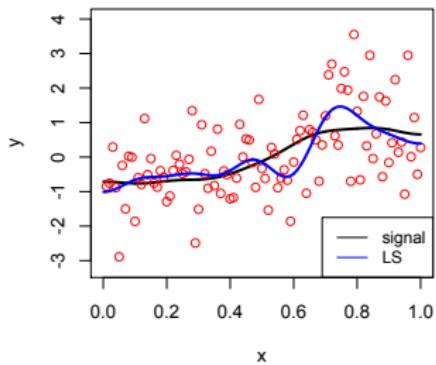
$$Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^* \cos(\pi j i / n) + \varepsilon_i = f_{\beta^*}(i/n) + \varepsilon_i, \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n,$$

with

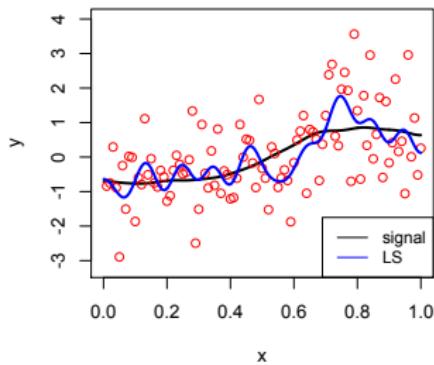
- $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n$  i.i.d with  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  distribution
- $\beta_j^*$  independent with  $\mathcal{N}(0, j^{-4})$  distribution

# Curse 1 : fluctuations cumulate

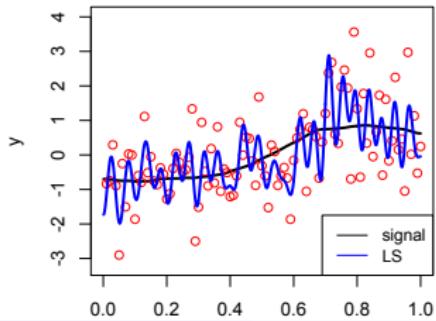
$p = 10$



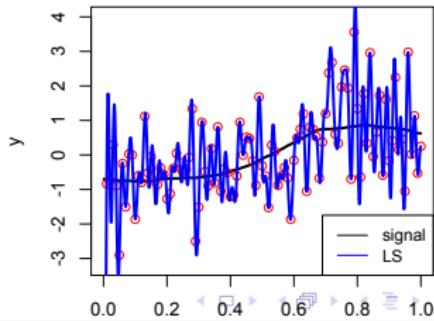
$p = 20$



$p = 50$



$p = 100$



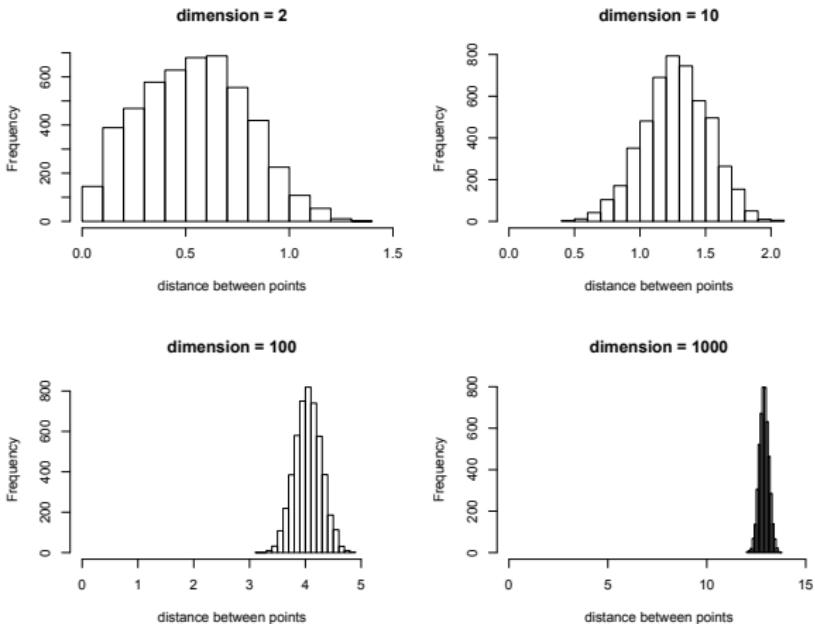
## Curse 2 : locality is lost

**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

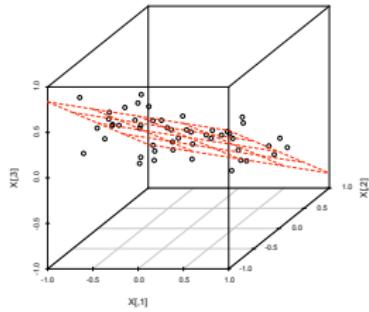
Hopeless?

**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"

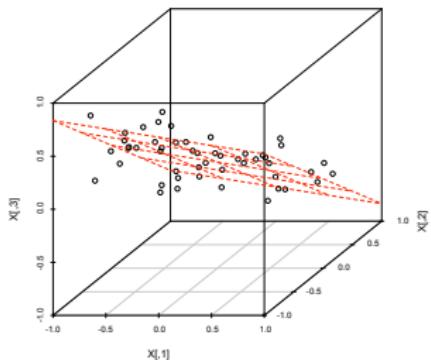


# Principal Component Analysis

For any data points  $X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and any dimension  $d \leq p$ , the PCA computes the linear span in  $\mathbb{R}^p$

$$V_d \in \underset{\dim(V) \leq d}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \|X^{(i)} - \operatorname{Proj}_V X^{(i)}\|^2,$$

where  $\operatorname{Proj}_V$  is the orthogonal projection matrix onto  $V$ .



$V_2$  in dimension  $p = 3$ .

## To do

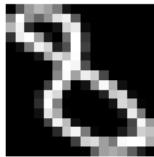
### Exercise 1.6.4

## PCA in action

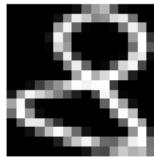
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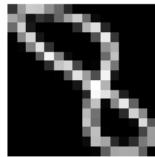
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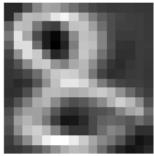
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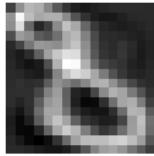
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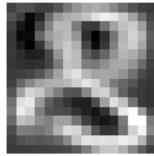
projected image



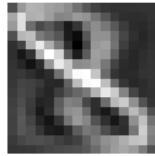
projected image



projected image

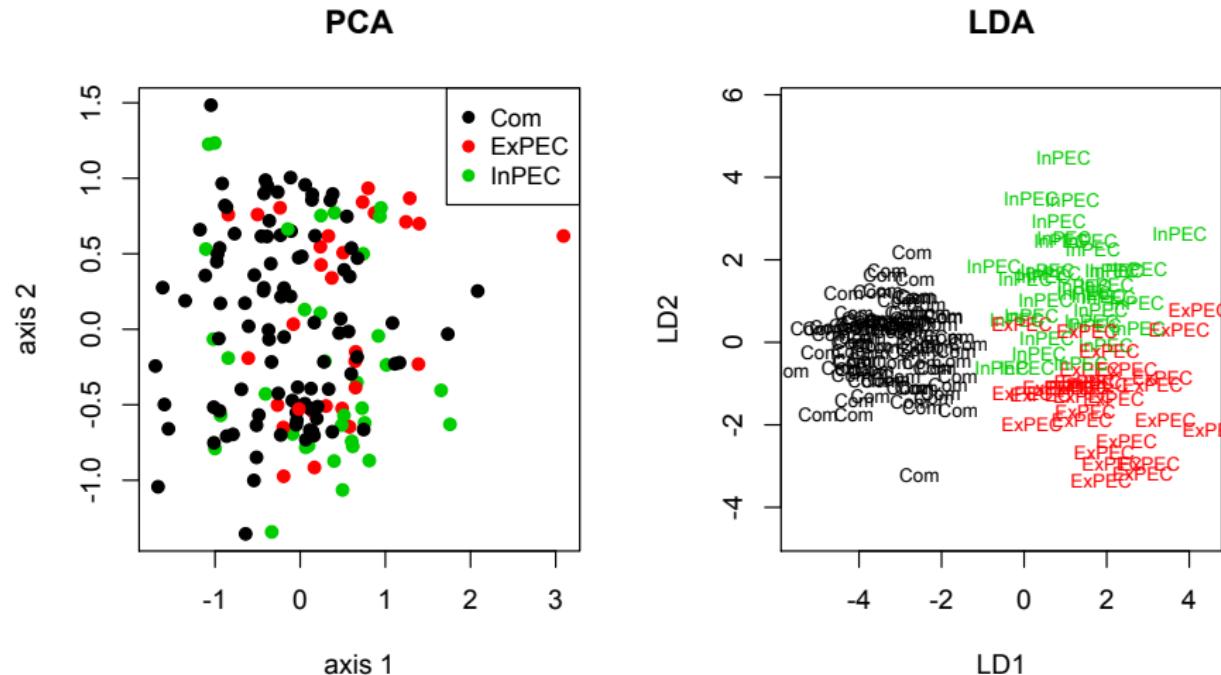


projected image



MNIST : 1100 scans of each digit. Each scan is a  $16 \times 16$  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.

# Résumé

## Difficulté statistique

- données de très grande dimension
- peu de répétitions

## Pour nous aider

Données issues d'un vaste système (plus ou moins dynamique et stochastique)

- existence de structures de faible dimension "effective"
- parfois: existence de modèles théoriques

## La voie du succès

Trouver, à partir des données, ces structures "cachées" pour pouvoir les exploiter.

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# Exemples de structures

# Regression Model

## Regression model

$$Y_i = f(x^{(i)}) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad \text{with}$$

- $f : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i] = 0$

## Vectorial representation

The observations can be summarized in a vector form

$$Y = f^* + \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

with  $f_i^* = f(x^{(i)}), i = 1, \dots, n.$

# Low-dimensional $x$

## Example 1: sparse piecewise constant regression

It corresponds to the case where  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is piecewise constant with a small number of jumps.

This situation appears for example for CGH profiling.

# Low-dimensional $x$

## Example 2: sparse basis/frame expansion

We estimate  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by expanding it on a basis or frame  $\{\varphi_j\}_{j \in \mathcal{J}}$

$$f(x) = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}} c_j \varphi_j(x),$$

with a small number of nonzero  $c_j$ . Typical examples of basis are Fourier basis, splines, wavelets, etc.

The most simple example is the piecewise linear decomposition where  $\varphi_j(x) = (x - z_j)_+$  where  $z_1 < z_2 < \dots$  and  $(x)_+ = \max(x, 0)$ .

# High-dimensional x

## Example 3: sparse linear regression

It corresponds to the case where  $f$  is linear:  $f(x) = \langle \beta, x \rangle$  where  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  has only a few nonzero coordinates.

This model can be too rough to model the data.

**Example:** relationship between some phenotypes and some protein abundances.

- only a small number of proteins influence a given phenotype,
- but the relationship between these proteins and the phenotype is unlikely to be linear.

# High-dimensional $x$

## Example 4: sparse additive model

In the sparse additive model, we expect that  $f(x) = \sum_k f_k(x_k)$  with most of the  $f_k$  equal to 0.

If we expand each function  $f_k$  on a frame or basis  $\{\varphi_j\}_{j \in \mathcal{J}_k}$  we obtain the decomposition

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}_k} c_{j,k} \varphi_j(x_k),$$

where most of the vectors  $\{c_{j,k}\}_{j \in \mathcal{J}_k}$  are zero.

Such a model can be hard to fit from a small sample since it requires to estimate a relatively large number of non-zero  $c_{j,k}$ .

# High-dimensional $x$

In some cases the basis expansion of  $f_k$  can be sparse itself.

## Example 5: sparse additive piecewise linear regression

The sparse additive piecewise linear model, is a sparse additive model  $f(x) = \sum_k f_k(x_k)$  with sparse piecewise linear functions  $f_k$ . We then have two levels of sparsity :

- ① most of the  $f_k$  are equal to 0,
- ② the nonzero  $f_k$  have a sparse expansion in the following representation

$$f_k(x_k) = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}_k} c_{j,k} (x_k - z_{j,k})_+$$

In other words, the matrix  $c = [c_{j,k}]$  of the sparse additive model has only a few nonzero columns, and this nonzero columns are sparse.

# Reduction to a structured linear model

## Reduction to a structured linear model

In all the above examples, we have a linear representation

$$f_i^* = \langle \alpha, \psi_i \rangle \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n,$$

with a structured  $\alpha$ .

## Examples (continued)

Representation  $f_i^* = \langle \alpha, \psi_i \rangle$

- Sparse piecewise constant regression:  $\psi_i = e_i$  with  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha = f^*$  is piecewise constant.
- Sparse basis expansion:  $\psi_i = [\varphi_j(x^{(i)})]_{j \in \mathcal{J}}$  and  $\alpha = c$ .
- Sparse linear regression:  $\psi_i = x^{(i)}$  and  $\alpha = \beta$ .
- Sparse additive models:  $\psi_i = [\varphi_j([x_k^{(i)}])]_{\substack{k=1, \dots, p \\ j \in \mathcal{J}_k}}$  and  $\alpha = [c_{j,k}]_{\substack{k=1, \dots, p \\ j \in \mathcal{J}_k}}$ .