



Department of Mathematics and Computer Science  
Statistics Group

# Structure Learning in High-Dimensional Time Series Data

*Master Thesis*

Martin de Quincey

Supervisors:  
dr. Rui Castro  
dr. Alex Mey

Assessment Committee Members:  
dr. Rui Castro  
dr. Alex Mey  
dr. Jacques Resing

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## Chapter 8

# Conclusion

In this work, we have discussed the notion of structure learning in time series data. Given a set of time series, the research objective was to learn how the values of one time series influence the future values of another time series. These directed relationships can be summarized in a graphical model where an arc from node  $i$  to  $j$  indicates that time series  $i$  is useful in predicting future values of time series  $j$ . To enhance the interpretability and to promote sparsity of the learned graphical model, we have explicitly forbidden the existence of cycles in our graphical models, excluding self-loops.

In Chapter 2, we have formalized the notion of structure learning in time series, and have introduced the VAR(1) model that we have employed to learn an acyclic structure in time series data. Subsequently, we have discussed some interesting state-of-the-art methodologies in Chapter 3 which can learn the structure of time-independent data and how these methodologies can be extended to time series data.

**Methodologies.** Firstly, in Chapter 4, we have discussed several permutation-based approaches with an increasing level of complexity. Acyclicity was enforced by first selecting a permutation after which only arcs were permitted that respect the induced permutation. That is, only arcs were permitted from a variable  $i$  to another variable  $j$  if variable  $i$  precedes variable  $j$  in the permutation. In Section 4.1, we have investigated an exhaustive approach, where we simply try all possible permutations. As such a method is not tractable for more than ten variables, we have devised search algorithms that do not exhaustively try all permutations, but rather try a subset of all permutations. Unguided searches such as the random walk have been proposed in Section 4.2, and a more informative search such as the Metropolis-Hastings approach has been proposed in Section 4.3, where the search is guided by assigning a likelihood score to each permutation the algorithm investigates.

Secondly, we have investigated methods that use continuous constraints to enforce acyclicity in Chapter 5. We have tried in Section 5.1 to relax the space of permutation matrices to the space of doubly stochastic matrices and consequently performed a gradient descent with Lagrange multipliers to ensure that the matrix  $P$  remains doubly stochastic. Unfortunately, this approach was unsuccessful, as convergence was slow and this method was not able to enforce acyclicity. Alternatively, in Section 5.2, we have modified the NO TEARS approach from [78] such that the approach was capable of learning an acyclic VAR(1) model. Thirdly, we have investigated the use of a LASSO-penalty to enforce acyclicity by increasing the penalty parameter until the inferred structure was acyclic in Section 5.3.

Thirdly, we have developed iterative methods where our learned structure is updated one arc at a time rather than all arcs simultaneously. We have first extended the Orthogonal Matching Pursuit algorithm to estimate sparse VAR(1) models, after which we also enforce acyclicity in Section 6.1. A backward ordinary least squares approach was proposed in Section 6.2 and an improvement to backward approaches was discussed in Section 6.3. Additionally, we have developed several approaches to determine a suitable number of arcs in our structure. Too few arcs may

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cause a significant drop in predictive performance and on the other hand, too many arcs may result in an overly complex structure. Therefore, we have developed two approaches that rely on bootstrapping and one approach that relies on cross-validation to learn a suitable number of arcs in Section 6.4. Lastly, as cross-validation was surprisingly effective despite having time-dependent data, we have conducted a small theoretical analysis regarding leave-one-out cross-validation on autoregressive models in Section 6.5, where we discovered an interesting relation between Wilk’s theorem and the leave-one-out cross-validation score.

**Evaluations.** The aforementioned methods have been extensively evaluated and their predictive and structural performance have been compared. For the time series setting, we have simulated acyclic VAR(1) models and cyclic VAR(1) models, and have applied our methods to real-life data in the form of weekly scanner data of the convenience store chain “Dominick’s Finer Foods”. All methods except for DAG-LASSO performed well, even when the generated VAR(1) model was cyclic. The permutation-based approaches were particularly effective when the number of variables was small. However, the permutation-based approaches dropped in performance as the number of variables increased, as the number of possible permutations increases exponentially with the number of variables. The iterative approaches seemed particularly effective when the number of time series was large and sufficient time steps were available. The remaining NO TEARS approach was effective as well, but our developed methods remained competitive with NO TEARS.

We have also briefly investigated the performance of our methodologies on time-independent data, as this type of structure learning is more established. We have used simulated data in the form of a linear structural equation model as well as the real-life data set provided by Sachs et al. [59], consisting of causal pathways in protein interactions within a biological cell. Rather surprisingly, we discovered that our methods were competitive with a state-of-the-art method such as NO TEARS on both the simulated data and the real-life data.

## 8.1 Limitations

Throughout this thesis, certain assumptions have been made to limit the scope of research. Furthermore, due to time constraints, some concepts in this thesis have not been investigated at the level of detail we had hoped. In this section, we will describe these limitations.

### Strictness of the graphical models

The most severe limitation of this thesis is the strictness of the graphical model. Throughout this thesis, we have only considered two types of graphical models. The first type of graphical model we considered is the linear structural equation model (SEM) as per Definition 2.2 for time-independent data. The second type of graphical model discussed in this thesis is the Vector AutoRegressive model of order 1 (VAR(1)) as per Definition 2.3 for time series data. The linear SEM only allows for instantaneous linear relationships and the VAR(1) model only allows for linear relationships with a single time lag.

Although it is a realistic assumption that only the past can predict the present, in real-life measurements, instantaneous relations may exist, especially when the time intervals between consecutive measurements is rather large. If we acquire daily measurements, it is reasonable to assume that the rainfall of that day has influenced the wetness of the pavement that day. Therefore, even a time series model should allow for instantaneous effects, meaning we should have added an instantaneous relationship to our time series model as well.

Furthermore, it is reasonable to assume that more intricate relationships exist than linear relations based on values of exactly one time step ago. Suggestions to allow for more intricate relationships will be discussed in the next section where we will propose future directions of research.

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## Model Complexity Selection.

From the outset of this thesis, the goal was to recover a structure of  $\mathbf{X}$  that captures the relations between the variables, while simultaneously being intuitive to understand. Sparsity of the structure, meaning the graphical model contains few arcs, is crucial for obtaining a simple graphical model. For iterative procedures, quite some different methods have been devised to select an appropriate number of arcs, as iterative procedures provide an order of importance of the inferred arcs.

However, for the permutation-based approaches discussed in Chapter 4, little research has been done to sensibly select an appropriate number of arcs. As permutation-based approaches estimate a full directed acyclic graph that respects a given permutation, numerous arcs in  $W$  are superfluous and can therefore be removed. Nevertheless, not many sensible approaches have been discussed that can “prune” such a coefficient matrix  $W$  efficiently. Thresholding the coefficient matrix is an effective approach, yet the approach is quite naive as the coefficient size of an arc is not always a suitable indication of its importance. Therefore, we consider the lack of suitable methods for selecting an appropriate number of arcs for permutation-based methods a limitation of this thesis.

For the continuous-based approaches discussed in Chapter 5, no methods are provided to select an appropriate number of arcs as well. On one hand, the LASSO-penalty used in NO TEARS and DAG-LASSO does promote some degree of sparsity. However, little research has been done into selecting the correct magnitude of this LASSO-penalty parameter. We also consider this to be a shortcoming of this thesis.

## 8.2 Future Work

Although this thesis can be regarded as quite a comprehensive work, numerous avenues can be regarded as interesting directions for future work. Due to time constraints, these were not investigated in more detail in this thesis. However, some initial investigations and initial pointers will be provided in this section which an enthusiastic reader may continue on.

### Allowing for more complex models.

As mentioned in the previous section, the VAR(1) model is quite a simple model that does not allow for much flexibility. There are several approaches to resolve this limitation and allow for more complex models.

**Incorporating instantaneous relationships.** As mentioned in the previous section, although instantaneous relations may be unrealistic in theory, the time intervals at which variables are measured can be so far apart that we should also incorporate instantaneous relationships in our time series model.

A natural extension is the combination of the VAR(1) model from Definition 2.3 and the linear Structural Equation Model from Definition 2.2. Instantaneous relations are captured in the coefficient matrix  $W_0$ , and time-lagged relations are captured in the coefficient matrix  $W_1$ . In mathematical notation,

$$X_{t,\cdot} = X_{t,\cdot}W_0 + X_{t-1,\cdot}W_1 + \varepsilon_t, \quad (8.1)$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is a  $p$ -dimensional vector representing the noise. Note that  $W_0$  must be an acyclic coefficient matrix where the diagonal entries are equal to zero, just as for the linear SEM.

**Extending to VAR( $k$ ) models.** Throughout this thesis, we have predominantly focused on *time series* data. As our goal was to infer the structure of a graphical model, a natural first step was the VAR(1) model, where we have but a single coefficient matrix  $W$ . However, VAR(1) models are quite limited. It is reasonable to assume that a vector of variables  $X_{t,\cdot}$  depends on more than just its previous time step  $X_{t-1,\cdot}$ . Therefore, a VAR(1) model might be too simple and

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fail to capture more intricate relations. Extending the proposed methodologies to more complex models would be an interesting avenue to discover.

Luckily, we can quite easily extend the VAR(1) model. Instead of a VAR(1) model, one could consider a VAR( $k$ ) model. Here, the values of  $X_{t,\cdot}$  do not only depend on the past value but the past  $k$  values,

$$X_{t,\cdot} = \sum_{i=1}^k X_{t-1,\cdot} W_i + \varepsilon_t, \quad (8.2)$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  represents some zero-mean noise. For a VAR(1) model, we had  $k = 1$  and we only had the matrix  $W_1$ , which we simply denoted as  $W$ . Now, we have  $k$  coefficient matrices.

Enforcing acyclicity of  $W$  or  $W_1$  was quite intuitive and straightforward, as we could regard this as one network. However, the notion of acyclicity has become ambiguous now that we have  $k$  coefficient matrices rather than one. Firstly, we could say that the structure is acyclic if and only if all its  $k$  coefficient matrices separately are acyclic. However, this could mean that in  $W_1$  we have the arc  $(1, 2)$ , and  $W_2$  contains the arc  $(2, 1)$  such that we still have some form of cyclic dependency. A second approach would be to consider some sort of combined network, where the combination of all coefficient matrices must be acyclic. In mathematical notation, consider  $W'$ , where

$$W' = \sum_{i=1}^k |W_i|, \quad (8.3)$$

where  $|\cdot|$  represents the element-wise absolute value. Therefore,  $W'$  contains an arc  $(i, j)$  if the arc  $(i, j)$  is contained in at least one of the  $k$  coefficient matrices. We then could consider the structure to be acyclic if and only if  $W'$  is acyclic. This means that if there is an arc  $(i, j)$  in some coefficient matrix, then we know that no other coefficient matrix contains the arc  $(j, i)$ . In fact, we know that there is no other path from variable  $j$  to variable  $i$ , where we can use all arcs from all  $k$  coefficient matrices. Such a definition might be more sensible as there can be no cycles in the relations between the variables across different time lags. A similar approach for learning sparse VAR( $k$ ) models by decomposing the indices into groups has been investigated in [48], so that may prove a useful starting point.

So, extending our methodologies and the notation of acyclicity to higher-order VAR models is not necessarily difficult, yet the definition of acyclicity would become less intuitive. It would be interesting to see how higher-order models are perhaps more suitable to estimate more complex simulated data and real-life time series data, and what the advantages and disadvantages of these newly proposed notions of acyclicity are.

As a side note, instantaneous relationships can also be incorporated in VAR( $k$ ) models, yielding a structural VAR( $k$ ) model. Then,  $X_{t,\cdot}$  can be written as

$$X_{t,\cdot} = X_{t-1,\cdot} W_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k X_{t-1,\cdot} W_i + \varepsilon_t, \quad (8.4)$$

where  $W_0$  characterizes the instantaneous relationships,  $W_i$  characterizes the time-lagged relationships, and  $\varepsilon_t$  represents random noise.

**Non-linear relationships.** Rather than only allowing for linear relationships in the form of a coefficient matrix  $W$ , we can also try to learn more complex non-linear relationships between our variables. Rather than assuming  $X_j$  is a linear function of its parent set  $\text{Pa}(X)$ ,

$$X_j = \sum_{X_i \in \text{Pa}(X_j)} w_{ij} X_i, \quad (8.5)$$

we can also assume that  $X_j$  is some non-linear function  $g$  of its parents,

$$X_j = g(\text{Pa}(X_j)). \quad (8.6)$$

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Several methods exist to learn non-linear relationships, such as the recent non-linear version of NO TEARS [79], and DAG-GNN [75] where the authors employ a variational autoencoder. Both employ neural networks to learn non-linear relationships between variables.

**More complex noise structure.** Throughout this thesis, we have made the simple assumption that all noise random variables  $\varepsilon_t$  are independently and identically distributed as a Gaussian random variable with zero mean and an identity matrix as the covariance matrix,

$$\varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, I_p). \quad (8.7)$$

However, this assumption is rather strict, as such a homogeneity assumption of the noise variables is often violated in practice.

For future work, the performance of the model may increase if we allow for more complex noise structures. For example, rather than assuming that  $\mathbb{V}(\varepsilon_t) = I_p$ , we can make the assumption that all noise components are independent yet heterogeneous,

$$\mathbb{V}(\varepsilon_t) = \text{diag}(\omega_1^2, \dots, \omega_p^2), \quad (8.8)$$

where  $\omega_i^2$  represents the variance associated with the noise of the  $i$ th variable. Furthermore,  $\text{diag}(\omega_1^2, \dots, \omega_p^2) \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  represents the diagonal matrix with  $\omega_i^2$  as the  $i$ th value along the diagonal. It should be noted, however, that this adds a total of  $p$  extra parameters to estimate, which may be problematic when we have few samples. However, as the total number of possible arcs is quadratic with respect to the number of variables, we expect the number of parameters to not increase too drastically.

We can also assume even more complex noise structures. We can, for example, allow some dependency between noise variables of the same time step. Then, we assume that

$$\mathbb{V}(\varepsilon_t) = \Omega, \quad (8.9)$$

where  $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  is some positive semi-definite matrix. This would yield an additional  $p(p-1)/2$  parameters over Equation 8.8, so the number of parameters would remain quadratic with respect to the number of variables.

## Developing Theoretical Guarantees

Although we have shown some interesting theoretical results for autoregressive models, these results were not extended to more complex models such as VAR(1) models in this thesis. For example, it would have been nice to provide some theoretical guarantees for some of our methodologies.

**Orthogonal Matching Pursuit.** For the Orthogonal Matching Pursuit algorithm discussed in Section 6.1, performance guarantees have been provided for the standard regression setting with noise [76, 12] and without noise [67]. However, our setting is more involved, where we have multiple response variables rather than one and there are strong dependencies between different time series. Therefore, existing performance guarantees for Orthogonal Matching Pursuit could not be directly applied to our version.

However, it would be of great value to investigate whether we can translate the orthogonal matching pursuit guarantees in some way to the DAG-OMP algorithm. Having a formal statement that guarantees that the correct features will be recovered under certain conditions can provide more insights into the performance of DAG-OMP. Unfortunately, this was not pursued due to time constraints, but it could be an interesting avenue to investigate.

**Greedy Metropolis-Hastings.** When we evaluated our methods, the greedy Metropolis-Hastings approach seemed to perform surprisingly well. For the linear SEM with equal variances, there are some interesting performance guarantees for algorithms that employ a greedy approach to derive an ordering of the variables, such as [16] and [55]. Both methods are quite similar to ours, so we



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expect a performance guarantee to exist for the greedy Metropolis-Hastings algorithm as well, for example, the number of iterations required to recover the support of the data generating matrix assuming we have enough samples. Furthermore, we expect that these performance guarantees can also be cast in the VAR(1) setting. Providing such a performance guarantee for the greedy Metropolis-Hastings approach could be an interesting direction for future work.

### Sparsity imposed by acyclicity

Another interesting direction for future work that we have not thoroughly explored is how acyclicity could be used to derive tighter theoretical guarantees for known methods such as the LASSO. Well-known theoretical guarantees exist for the LASSO approach in the regression setting. For example, in [46], the authors show that under certain conditions, the LASSO-penalty should be approximately  $\sqrt{\log(p)/T}$ , where  $p$  is the number of variables and  $T$  is the number of samples. Now, what if instead of knowing that the coefficient vector contains only  $k$  non-zero coefficients, we know that the coefficient *matrix* is acyclic? If our coefficient matrix is acyclic, we know it contains at most  $p(p+1)/2$  parameters, which is already much fewer than the possible  $p^2$  parameters.

The question arises whether the acyclicity assumption can provide tighter bounds on convergence rates, penalty parameter values, etc. The number of possible parameters remains quadratic, so in terms of complexity we have not gained much. However, a more optimistic perspective is by considering the reduction in search space. If we would allow any coefficient matrix, or equivalently any structure on  $p$  variables without self-loops, then there are a total of  $2^{p^2-p}$  different structures, as  $p^2 - p$  entries can either be zero or non-zero. However, we have seen that the number of directed acyclic graphs grows much smaller. The number of possible directed acyclic graphs up to fourteen nodes has been reported in [49]. Now, define  $R_p$  as the ratio of the total number of possible directed acyclic graphs on  $p$  nodes over the total number of possible directed graphs on  $p$  nodes. Then, some values of  $R_p$  are

$$R_1 = 1, R_2 = 0.75, \dots, R_5 = 0.027, \dots, R_{10} = 3.4 \cdot 10^{-9}, \dots, R_{14} = 2.3 \cdot 10^{-19}. \quad (8.10)$$

From Equation 8.10, we see that the search space of structures has decreased massively. Even for a moderate total of ten nodes, knowing that the true structure is acyclic has reduced the number of possible structures by a factor  $10^9$ . As acyclicity indeed massively decreases the search space, perhaps this may also imply that we can obtain tighter bounds for several performance guarantees of existing methods. Investigating this in greater depth as future work may provide some interesting novel results.

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