# Synthetic Volatility Forecasting and Other Aggregation Techniques for Time Series Forecasting Preliminary Exam

David Lundquist<sup>1</sup>

March 4, 2024

A seemingly unprecedented event might provoke the questions

- What does it resemble from the past?
- What past events are most relevant?
- Oan we incorporate past events in a systematic, principled manner?



When would we ever have to do this?

- Event-driven investing strategies (unscheduled news shock)
- Structural shock to macroeconomic conditions (scheduled news possibly pre-empted by news shock)
- Biomedical panel data subject to exogenous shock or interference

Example: weekend of March 7th and 8th, 2020

# Punchline of the paper

Forecasting is possible under structural shocks, so long as we incorporate external information to account for the nonzero errors.



# What gaps does this fill in the literature?

### Volatility Modeling

- GARCH is slow to react andersen2003modeling
- Asymmetric GARCH models may react faster but need post-shock data
- Realized GARCH hansen2012realized, in our setting, would require high-frequency data, and the model is highly parameterized

### Forecast Augmentation

- A clements1996intercept, clements1998forecasting laid the groundwork for modeling nonzero errors in time series forecasting
- A guerron2017macroeconomic use a series' own errors to correct the forecast for that series
- A dendramis2020similarity use a similarity-based procedure to correct linear parameters in time series forecasts
- A foroni2022forecasting adjust pandemic-era forecasts using intercept correction techniques and data from Great Financial Crisis

### Outline



### The news has broken but markets are closed

- $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , a mean-zero, real-valued response to be predicted
- Mean-zero covariate vectors  $x \in \mathbb{H}$ , a Hilbert space, where  $\mathbb{H}$  can be taken to be  $\mathbb{R}^p$  for the sake of illustration
- We predict y using a linear function of the covariates X, but this is not an assumption about the data generating process. We do not assume  $y = f(X) + \epsilon$ , but y may contain exogenous noise (called "label noise" by the authors.)

### A Primer on GARCH

$$\sigma_{i,t}^{2} = \omega_{i} + \omega_{i}^{*} + \sum_{k=1}^{m_{i}} \alpha_{i,k} a_{i,t-k}^{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{s_{i}} \beta_{i,j} \sigma_{i,t-j}^{2} + \gamma_{i}^{T}_{i,t}$$

$$a_{i,t} = \sigma_{i,t} (\epsilon_{i,t} (1 - D_{i,t}^{level}) + \epsilon_{i}^{*} D_{i,t}^{level})$$

$$\omega_{i,t}^{*} = \mu_{\omega^{*}} + \delta' x_{i,t-1} + \varepsilon_{i}$$



# Technical Specifications (many, but familiar)

- We define  $\Sigma := \mathbb{E}[xx^T]$
- We define  $\theta^* \in \mathbb{H}$  to be s.t.  $\mathbb{E}[(y x^T \theta^*)^2] = \min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[(y x^T \theta)^2]$ 
  - As defined here, not necessarily unique, which matters for this paper.
- $x = V \Lambda^{1/2} z$ , where  $\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T$  is the spectral decomposition of  $\Sigma$  and z is a vector of independent components, each subgaussian( $\sigma_x$ ), where  $\sigma_x > 0$ .
- The conditional noise variance  $\mathbb{E}[(y-x^T\theta^*)^2|x]$  is bounded below by  $\sigma^2>0$ .
- $(y x^T \theta^*)|x$  is subgaussian $(\sigma_y)$
- Almost surely, for any eigenvector v of  $\Sigma$ ,  $Proj_{v^T}(X)$  spans a space of dimension n.
  - Guaranteed when, for example, there exist p linearly independent covariates and p > n.



# Volatilty Profile

In this particular setting, excess risk of an estimator  $\theta$  has the form

$$R(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x,y}[(y - x^T \theta)^2 - (y - x^T \theta^*)^2]$$
  
=  $(\theta - \theta^*)^T \Sigma(\theta - \theta^*)$ 

$$\min_{\theta \in \mathbb{H}} \|\theta\|$$

$$s.t. \frac{1}{n} \|X^T \theta - y\|_2^2 \le D$$



$$\min_{\theta \in \mathbb{H}} \|\theta\|$$

$$s.t. \frac{1}{n} \|X^T \theta - y\|_2^2 \le D$$



$$\min_{\theta \in \mathbb{H}} \|\theta\|$$

$$s.t. \frac{1}{n} \|X^T \theta - y\|_2^2 \le D$$

• Heuristically speaking, overfitting means  $D << \min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}(x^T \theta - y)^2$ , where x, y are out of sample

$$\min_{\theta \in \mathbb{H}} \|\theta\|$$

$$s.t. \frac{1}{n} \|X^T \theta - y\|_2^2 \le D$$

- Heuristically speaking, overfitting means  $D << \min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}(x^T \theta y)^2$ , where x, y are out of sample
- ② Of course, we're concerned with interpolation, i.e. D = 0.

### Minimum Norm Estimator

Why did we just assume something very technical about  $Proj_{v^T}(X)$ ? This condition implies multiple solutions to the equation  $y = X\theta$ .

"Almost surely, for any eigenvector v of  $\Sigma$ ,  $Proj_{v^T}(X)$  spans a space of dimension n."

Since we have more than one choice of  $\theta$ , we choose the unique  $\hat{\theta}$  with minimum norm:

$$\hat{\theta} := (X^T X)^{\dagger} X^T y$$

We don't have to do this, but the results that follow correspond to the minimum-norm solution. It's most interesting.

### Rank of Matrix

We know the rank of a matrix  $A \in M_{n \times p}(\mathbb{C})$  is

- The column rank of A (number of linearly independent columns)
- The row rank of A (number of linearly independent rows)
- The dimension of im(A)

However, this notion of rank is too rigid. It's integer-valued, and it tells us very little about the distribution of the eigenvalues.

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

### Key Properties

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

- $R_k \in [1, \infty)$

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

- $\mathbf{Q} \quad R_k \in [1, \infty)$
- **3** They can be understood in terms of  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  norms.

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

- $r_k \in [1, p k]$ , assuming  $p < \infty$
- $\mathbf{Q} \quad R_k \in [1, \infty)$
- **3** They can be understood in terms of  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  norms.
- $r_k(\Sigma^2) \le r_k(\Sigma) \le R_k(\Sigma) \le r_k^2(\Sigma)$

#### Definition

For a covariance operator  $\Sigma$  with the decreasing sequence of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...$ , if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$  and  $\lambda_{k+1} > 0$ , then for  $k \geq 0$ , define

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i}{\lambda_{k+1}}$$
  $R_k = \frac{(\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i^2}$ 

- $r_k \in [1, p k]$ , assuming  $p < \infty$
- $\mathbf{Q} \quad R_k \in [1, \infty)$
- **3** They can be understood in terms of  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  norms.
- $r_k(\Sigma^2) \le r_k(\Sigma) \le R_k(\Sigma) \le r_k^2(\Sigma)$
- **5** For the result we now show, *bigger* values of  $r_k$  and  $R_k$  are better.

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0,1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{\text{related to the bias}} + \underbrace{c \log(1/\delta)\sigma_y^2 \left(\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)}\right)}_{\text{related to the noise}}$$

with probability at least  $1-\delta$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} \left( \frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)} \right)$$

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0,1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{\text{related to the bias}} + \underbrace{c \log(1/\delta)\sigma_y^2 \left(\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)}\right)}_{\text{related to the noise}}$$

with probability at least  $1-\delta$ .

 $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} \left( \frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)} \right)$ 

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0,1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{\text{related to the bias}} + \underbrace{c \log(1/\delta)\sigma_y^2 \left(\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)}\right)}_{\text{related to the noise}}$$

with probability at least  $1 - \delta$ .

 $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} \left( \frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)} \right)$ 

#### Remarks

A gives us a (high probability) upper bound on the excess risk.

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0, 1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{\text{related to the bias}} + \underbrace{c \log(1/\delta)\sigma_y^2 \left(\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)}\right)}_{\text{related to the noise}}$$

with probability at least  $1-\delta$ .

 $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} \left( \frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)} \right)$ 

- A gives us a (high probability) upper bound on the excess risk.
- 2 B gives us a lower bound on its expectation.

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0, 1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{\text{related to the bias}} + \underbrace{c \log(1/\delta)\sigma_y^2 \left(\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)}\right)}_{\text{related to the bias}}$$

related to the bias related to the noise with probability at least  $1-\delta$ .

 $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} \left( \frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)} \right)$ 

- A gives us a (high probability) upper bound on the excess risk.
- B gives us a lower bound on its expectation.
- **3** The constants  $b, c, c_1$  depend on  $\sigma_x$ , the subgaussian parameter corresponding to the covariates X.

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0,1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{\textit{related to the bias}} + \underbrace{c \log\left(1/\delta\right) \sigma_y^2 (\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)}\right)}_{\textit{related to the noise}}$$

related to the hoise

 $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} (\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)})$ 

with probability at least  $1 - \delta$ .

- 1 A gives us a (high probability) upper bound on the excess risk.
- B gives us a lower bound on its expectation.
- **3** The constants  $b, c, c_1$  depend on  $\sigma_x$ , the subgaussian parameter corresponding to the covariates X.
- ① Think of  $k^*$  as the number of dimensions we ignore when hiding the noise. We want  $k^*$  to be small compared to n, yet no smaller than it need be, obviously.

#### **Theorem**

Define  $k^* = \min\{k \geq 0 : r_k(\Sigma) \geq bn\}$ . For any  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\exists b, c, c_1 > 1$  s.t.  $\forall \delta \in (0,1)$  s.t.  $\log(1/\delta) < n/c$ , if  $k^* \geq n/c_1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \sigma^2/c$ . Otherwise,

$$R(\hat{\theta}) \leq \underbrace{c \left( \|\theta^*\|^2 \|\Sigma\| \max\{\sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}}, \frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}, \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{n}}\} \right)}_{related \ to \ the \ bias} + \underbrace{c \log\left(1/\delta\right) \sigma_y^2 (\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)})}_{related \ to \ the \ noise}$$

with probability at least  $1-\delta$ .

 $\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{c} (\frac{k^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k^*}(\Sigma)})$ 

- A gives us a (high probability) upper bound on the excess risk.
- B gives us a lower bound on its expectation.
- **3** The constants  $b, c, c_1$  depend on  $\sigma_X$ , the subgaussian parameter corresponding to the covariates X.
- Think of k\* as the number of dimensions we ignore when hiding the noise. We want k\* to be small compared to n, yet no smaller than it need be, obviously.
- **5** Effective rank encodes how far the vectors x are from isotropy. Isotropy implies maximum effective rank, whereas small values of effective rank suggests (just like ordinary matrix rank) that many of the vectors generating  $\Sigma$  are irrelevant to the variation  $\Sigma$  houses.

$$\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T =$$



$$\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T =$$



$$\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T =$$

$$V \left( egin{array}{cccc} \lambda_1 & & & & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & & & & \\ & & & \lambda_3 & & & \\ & & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & & \lambda_p \end{array} 
ight) V^T$$

### Necessary Properties For Near-Perfect Accuracy

**1**  $r_0(\Sigma)$  should be small compared to n.



$$\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T =$$

$$V \left( egin{array}{cccc} \lambda_1 & & & & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & & & & \\ & & & \lambda_3 & & & \\ & & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & & \lambda_p \end{array} 
ight) V^T$$

- **1**  $r_0(\Sigma)$  should be small compared to n.
- 2  $r_{k*}$  and  $R_{k*}$  should be large compared to n.

$$\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T =$$

- $\bullet$   $r_0(\Sigma)$  should be small compared to n.
- **3** The sum of the  $\lambda_i$  should be small compared to n (to make  $k^*$  smaller).



$$\Sigma = V \Lambda V^T =$$

- $\bullet$   $r_0(\Sigma)$  should be small compared to n.
- **3** The sum of the  $\lambda_i$  should be small compared to n (to make  $k^*$  smaller).
- The number of non-zero eigenvalues should be large compared to n.



## Two Very Simple Examples

Consider  $\Sigma = I_p$  (which is induced by isotropy):

$$r_0(\Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i}{\lambda_1} = \frac{p}{1} = p = \frac{p^2}{p} = R_0(\Sigma)$$

Next consider infinite-dimensional  $\Sigma$  with spectral decomposition

$$u \left( \begin{array}{cccc}
\lambda_1 & & & & & \\
& \frac{1}{2} & & & & \\
& & \frac{1}{4} & & & \\
& & & & \frac{1}{8} & & \\
& & & & & \ddots
\end{array} \right) V^T$$

$$\textit{r}_0(\Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} 2^{-i}}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_1 + 1}{\lambda_1} \quad \textit{R}_0(\Sigma) = \frac{(\lambda_1 + 1)^2}{\lambda_1^2 - 1 + \sum_{i=1} 4^{-i}} = \frac{(\lambda_1 + 1)^2}{\lambda_1^2 + 1/3}$$



## Two Very Simple Examples

Consider  $\Sigma = I_p$  (which is induced by isotropy):

$$r_0(\Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i}{\lambda_1} = \frac{p}{1} = p = \frac{p^2}{p} = R_0(\Sigma)$$

Next consider infinite-dimensional  $\Sigma$  with spectral decomposition

$$r_0(\Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} 2^{-i}}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_1 + 1}{\lambda_1} \qquad R_0(\Sigma) = \frac{(\lambda_1 + 1)^2}{\lambda_1^2 - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{r} 4^{-i}} = \frac{(\lambda_1 + 1)^2}{\lambda_1^2 + 1/3}$$

Which of these two cases will be good for benign overfitting?



## Two Very Simple Examples

Consider  $\Sigma = I_p$  (which is induced by isotropy):

$$r_0(\Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i}{\lambda_1} = \frac{p}{1} = p = \frac{p^2}{p} = R_0(\Sigma)$$

Next consider infinite-dimensional  $\Sigma$  with spectral decomposition

$$r_0(\Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} 2^{-i}}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_1 + 1}{\lambda_1} \quad R_0(\Sigma) = \frac{(\lambda_1 + 1)^2}{\lambda_1^2 - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{i-1} 4^{-i}} = \frac{(\lambda_1 + 1)^2}{\lambda_1^2 + 1/3}$$

Which of these two cases will be good for benign overfitting? Neither!

### A more benign example

Example (Coverging at the slowest rate possible)

Fix 
$$\alpha = 1, \beta > 1$$
. Let  $\lambda_i = \frac{1}{i \log^{\beta}(i+1)}$ .



- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

#### The Magic

ullet Not all of the coordinates (directions) in  $\hat{ heta}$  matter for prediction.

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

- ullet Not all of the coordinates (directions) in  $\hat{ heta}$  matter for prediction.
- In fact, some are nearly irrelevant for prediction.

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

- $\bullet$  Not all of the coordinates (directions) in  $\hat{\theta}$  matter for prediction.
- In fact, some are nearly irrelevant for prediction.
- Key insight: if there are enough of these unimportant directions, they can store the 'badness' of  $\hat{\theta}$  that has been induced by the label noise.

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

- $\bullet$  Not all of the coordinates (directions) in  $\hat{\theta}$  matter for prediction.
- In fact, some are nearly irrelevant for prediction.
- Key insight: if there are enough of these unimportant directions, they can store the 'badness' of  $\hat{\theta}$  that has been induced by the label noise.
  - $oldsymbol{\hat{ heta}}$  can be bad by being biased

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

- $\bullet$  Not all of the coordinates (directions) in  $\hat{\theta}$  matter for prediction.
- In fact, some are nearly irrelevant for prediction.
- Key insight: if there are enough of these unimportant directions, they can store the 'badness' of  $\hat{\theta}$  that has been induced by the label noise.
  - $oldsymbol{\hat{ heta}}$  can be bad by being biased
  - ullet  $\hat{ heta}$ , as a random object, can be bad by being a noisy stand-in for  $heta^*$

- In training, we observe both X and y, but not the noise. We then derive  $\hat{\theta}$ , a noisy, imperfect guess at  $\theta^*$ .
- In prediction, we do not observe y or the noise; we're given x; we're hostage to the random object  $\hat{\theta}$  we've just fit.

#### The Magic

- $\bullet$  Not all of the coordinates (directions) in  $\hat{\theta}$  matter for prediction.
- In fact, some are nearly irrelevant for prediction.
- Key insight: if there are enough of these unimportant directions, they can store the 'badness' of  $\hat{\theta}$  that has been induced by the label noise.
  - $oldsymbol{\hat{ heta}}$  can be bad by being biased
  - $\hat{\theta}$ , as a random object, can be bad by being a noisy stand-in for  $\theta^*$

So let's examine the punchline: how exactly can noise by hidden in unimportant directions?



### How noise is hidden just right

Recall

$$\hat{\theta} := (X^T X)^{\dagger} X^T y = (X^T X)^{\dagger} X^T (\epsilon + f(X)) = (X^T X)^{\dagger} X^T (\textit{noise} + \textit{signal})$$

Zero-in on the left action of the operator  $X^T$ . In any direction  $i, 1 \le i \le p$ , it scales the noise from  $\epsilon$  by  $n\lambda_i$ .

Ultimately, for any direction  $i, 1 \le i \le p$ , we can bound the prediction error in direction i by  $\frac{n\lambda_i^2}{(\sum_{i>k}\lambda_i)^2}$ . If we sum these terms, what do we get?

20 / 26

After all of this waiting, we formalize the notion under discussion.

### Definition (Asymptotically Benign)

We say that  $\Sigma_n$  is asymptotically benign iff

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(bias(\theta^*, \Sigma_n, n) + \frac{k_n^*}{n} + \frac{n}{R_{k_n^*}(\Sigma_n)}\right) = 0$$



- Has little practical value, at present. It's a conceptual piece.
- The interpretations that the authors give the phenomenon are a little fuzzy. There's a gap between what the math says and what the authors say it does.
- Theorems change between the Arxiv paper, PNAS paper, early presentations, and later presentations!

- Has little practical value, at present. It's a conceptual piece.
- The interpretations that the authors give the phenomenon are a little fuzzy. There's a gap between what the math says and what the authors say it does.
- Theorems change between the Arxiv paper, PNAS paper, early presentations, and later presentations!

- Has little practical value, at present. It's a conceptual piece.
- The interpretations that the authors give the phenomenon are a little fuzzy. There's a gap between what the math says and what the authors say it does.
- Theorems change between the Arxiv paper, PNAS paper, early presentations, and later presentations!

- Has little practical value, at present. It's a conceptual piece.
- The interpretations that the authors give the phenomenon are a little fuzzy. There's a gap between what the math says and what the authors say it does.
- Theorems change between the Arxiv paper, PNAS paper, early presentations, and later presentations!

We analyze the real-world example with Brexit included.

### References