CANONICAL THRESHOLDING FOR NON-SPARSE HIGH DIMENSIONAL LINEAR REGRESSION

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We consider a high-dimensional linear regression problem. Unlike many papers on the topic, we do not require sparsity of the regression coefficients; instead, our main structural assumption is a decay of eigenvalues of the covariance matrix of the data. We propose a new family of estimators, called the canonical thresholding estimators, which pick largest regression coefficients in the canonical form. The estimators admit an explicit form and can be linked to LASSO and Principal Component Regression (PCR). A theoretical analysis for both fixed design and random design settings is provided. Obtained bounds on the mean squared error and the prediction error of a specific estimator from the family allow to clearly state sufficient conditions on the decay of eigenvalues to ensure convergence. In addition, we promote the use of the relative errors, strongly linked with the out-of-sample $R^2$. The study of these relative errors leads to a new concept of joint effective dimension, which incorporates the covariance of the data and the regression coefficients simultaneously, and describes the complexity of a linear regression problem. Some minimax lower bounds are established to showcase the optimality of our procedure. Numerical simulations confirm good performance of the proposed estimators compared to the previously developed methods.

1. Introduction and Setup. Consider the standard linear regression model

$$y = x^\top \beta + \varepsilon,$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a vector of covariates, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a vector of coefficients, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ is a noise term, and $y \in \mathbb{R}$ is a response. Suppose we observe $n$ pairs $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ from this model with the assumption that the underlying noise terms $\{\varepsilon_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are i.i.d. random variables with mean zero. In matrix notations, introducing

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ x_n^\top \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}, \quad \varepsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

we rewrite our model as

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon.$$

Define the covariance matrix of the data $\Sigma \overset{\text{def}}{=} n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i^\top = n^{-1} X^\top X \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. Our goal is to estimate the unknown $\beta$ and analyze the quality of estimation in two different settings:

• **Fixed design.** That means, the vectors of covariates $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are deterministic (without loss of generality we assume $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0$). A standard way to measure the error of an
that the unconstrained least squares estimator is hopeless in high dimensions. Recent papers refer to Chapters 3–5 of Fan et al. (2020) for an overview of existing methods and theoretical conditions used in the theoretical analysis of sparse linear regression. We also consider in Dobriban and Liu (2019); Dobriban and Sheng (2020, 2021+)). As we will see, the importance of the relative errors arises as a high-dimensional effect.

In the sequel we refer to these quantities simply as the (absolute) MSE and PE. The reason we give two names is to differentiate their statistical behavior in high dimensions and to avoid confusions at various discussions. We will also motivate and analyze the relative errors MSE(β)/MSE(0) and PE(β)/PE(0). Surprisingly, the relative errors in this form, appearing naturally and being well-motivated, have not gained much attention in the literature (some related, but still quite different relative measures of performance in different contexts were considered in Dobriban and Liu (2019); Dobriban and Sheng (2020, 2021+)). As we will see, the importance of the relative errors arises as a high-dimensional effect.

Being a fundamental statistical problem, the high-dimensional linear regression has been approached in various ways. Probably the simplest method is Principal Component Regression (PCR). The idea is to reduce the dimension first via Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Pearson, 1901), and then use several leading principal components as covariates to construct the least squares estimator. This approach heavily relies on a very strong assumption that the response depends on just a few leading principal components of the data. Various examples were provided where PCR performs poorly, see Jolliffe (1982). Another related idea to use supervised principal components was proposed by Bair et al. (2006). See also Chapters 10 and 11 of Fan et al. (2020) for further discussions and applications.

Over the past two decades, the main approach to tackle high-dimensionality of the problem has been the sparsity assumption on β, which is reasonable for many real-world applications. This has given rise to such model selection procedures as LASSO (Tibshirani, 1996), SCAD (Fan and Li, 2001), Least Angle Regression (Efron et al., 2004), Dantzig selector (Candes and Tao, 2007), SLOPE (Bogdan et al., 2015). The list of papers devoted to these methods is too long to be presented here, so we just mention some of them: Greenshtein and Ritov (2004); Paul et al. (2008); Bickel, Ritov and Tsybakov (2009); Dalalyan, Hebiri and Lederer (2017); Bellec, Lecué and Tsybakov (2018). Typically, a theoretical analysis of such procedures requires assumptions on the design like restricted isometry property (RIP), restricted eigenvalue (RE) condition, incoherence. These assumptions are needed to make sure that the correlations among subsets of features are small. See van de Geer and Bühlmann (2009) for an overview of conditions used in the theoretical analysis of sparse linear regression. We also refer to Chapters 3–5 of Fan et al. (2020) for an overview of existing methods and theoretical results for high-dimensional linear regression under sparsity.

The methods from the previous two paragraphs were developed (partially) due to a belief that the unconstrained least squares estimator is hopeless in high dimensions. Recent papers
by Bartlett et al. (2020) and later Chinot and Lerasle (2020) have shown that the minimum ℓ2-norm least squares estimator \( \tilde{\beta}^{LS} \) defined as
\[
(XX^\top)^+XY
\]
(where \((XX^\top)^+\) is the generalized inverse of the matrix \(XX^\top\)) can generalize well (i.e. have small absolute PE) even interpolating the training data – they call this phenomenon “benign overfitting”. To deliver convergence of \( \text{PE}(\tilde{\beta}^{LS}) \) to zero they require quite specific conditions on \( \Sigma \): the decay of its eigenvalues should be fast, but not too fast. These requirements are quantified by two notions of effective rank of \( \Sigma \). A closely related paper by Hastie et al. (2019) also studies \( \tilde{\beta}^{LS} \), but in the regime \( p/n \to \gamma \). They are interested in the dependence of \( \text{PE}(\tilde{\beta}^{LS}) \) on \( \gamma \), and focus on the case \( \lambda_{\text{min}}(\Sigma) \geq c > 0 \), e.g. considering isotropic and equicorrelation covariances. One more work on the topic is Belkin, Hsu and Xu (2019), where the authors try to mathematically explain double descent phenomenon in several different models.

Going beyond the linear regression, one basic idea to approach general (nonlinear) regression problem \( y = f(x) + \varepsilon \) is to decompose the regression function \( f(x) \approx \sum_{j=1}^{D} \beta_j \psi_j(x) = \psi(x)^\top \beta \) over a Fourier basis, wavelet basis, or basis of eigenfunctions in reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS), denoted here by \( \psi_1(\cdot), \ldots, \psi_D(\cdot) \). This reduces the nonlinear regression problem to a linear one (potentially very high-dimensional or even infinite-dimensional), and allows to apply the existing methods. Though we do not pursue the analysis of nonlinear regression in our work, this setting provides an excellent motivation for the main structural assumptions we make in our results. One of them is fast decay of the eigenvalues of \( \Sigma \) (or \( \hat{\Sigma} \)). For instance, we require that the effective rank
\[
\text{r}_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma] = \frac{\text{Tr}[\Sigma]}{\|\Sigma\|}
\]
can be well-controlled. The spectral decay has been observed in real-world datasets (e.g. MNIST, see Figure 5 in Liang and Rakhlin (2020); financial data in Zumbach (2009), Figure 5; economics data in Fan, Ke and Wang (2020), Figure 5), which makes our assumption reasonable. Importance of the eigenvalue decay (not only of the covariance, but of general kernel matrices) is highlighted in Liang and Rakhlin (2020), where such kind of conditions on the spectral decay is called “favorable data geometry”. Moreover, Ma and Belkin (2017); Belkin (2018) analyze the super-polynomial decay of eigenvalues of smooth kernel matrices. Going even further in deep learning literature, neural tangent kernels also exhibit the spectral decay, as shown by Bietti and Mairal (2019), among others. However, the fast eigenvalue decay is not the only motivation behind our work; another structural assumption that can make our results meaningful is a fast decay of regression coefficients in eigenbasis. This is a very well-understood condition as well: it is well-known that Fourier coefficients decay at a polynomial rate, where the degree depends on the smoothness of the underlying regression function. In addition, the decay of coefficients in RKHS was studied by Belkin (2018).

With these structural assumptions, the idea behind our family of estimators \( \hat{\beta} \) is quite natural: in some eigendirections (e.g. the ones that correspond to small eigenvalues of \( \Sigma \)) we do not gain much by estimating the associated coefficient, so it makes sense to estimate only those components that allow to significantly reduce the error; specifically, we use thresholding to cut the components associated with the insignificant directions off. When applied to the nonlinear regression with wavelet basis, one estimator from the proposed family coincides with the soft thresholding approach studied in the series of papers by Donoho and Johnstone (1994); Donoho (1995); Donoho and Johnstone (1995); Donoho et al. (1995); Donoho and Johnstone (1998), among others. We highlight that we will not require sparsity of \( \beta \) or any restrictive conditions on the design.

Let us summarize some motivations behind our work:

• Our methods can be viewed as an attempt to fix PCR by relaxing its restrictive assumptions. Instead of working with the several leading principal components, our estimators automatically screen for the most important principal components, not necessarily the leading ones.

• Remarkably, the procedures that we propose are a modification of LASSO, so one can view this work as an attempt to extend LASSO to non-sparse high-dimensional linear regression.

• Though the papers by Bartlett et al. (2020) and Chinot and Lerasle (2020) do not advocate the use of interpolating estimators rather justify why the overfitting may not be harmful (very relevant question in modern deep learning research), we aim to show that there is no necessity to give up the in-sample denoising quality to get good bounds on the prediction error. In fact, our numerical results show that our method is better than the least squares estimator in various situations.

Main contributions of this paper are:

• We propose a new method for high-dimensional linear regression, called *Natural Canonical Thresholding* (NCT), in Section 2. The connection of this approach to LASSO and PCR is discussed in Section 2.1 and Section 2.2. In Section 2.3 we extend the suggested procedure and present a richer family of estimators, called *Generalized Canonical Thresholding* (GCT). Our estimators \( \hat{\beta} \) are given via an explicit expression and do not require any optimization. Though each estimator from the family has one hyperparameter, it can be tuned in an efficient way via cross-validation as shown in Section 6. An optimality result for the cross-validation is also presented.

• We provide theoretical guarantees for the NCT estimator in the fixed design and random design settings in Section 3. The presented tight bounds have two-fold meaning:
  - For the absolute errors \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \) and \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \), studied in Section 3.1 and Section 3.2, we state explicit sufficient conditions of the form “the eigenvalues of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) or \( \Sigma \) decay fast enough” to ensure convergence in high dimensions. No conditions on \( \beta \) are imposed in this case.
  - For the relative errors \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{MSE}(0) \) and \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{PE}(0) \), motivated in Section 3.3.1, our bounds factorize into the newly defined notion of the *joint effective dimension*, the signal-to-noise ratio, and a vanishing factor. To get good rates for the relative errors in high dimensions it is not enough to assume fast decay of eigenvalues of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) or \( \Sigma \) alone, and we need to impose conditions of \( \Sigma \) and \( \beta \) together (Section 3.3.2), which is reflected by the joint effective dimension that we analyze (Section 3.3.3).

We introduce parameter classes for linear regression problems with bounded joint effective dimension, and demonstrate a minimax optimality of the NCT estimator over this classes in the fixed design setting (Section 4).

Theoretical analysis of the GCT estimator is not that insightful, however we still present and discuss a tight bound on the absolute error \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \) (Section 5).

• Numerical experiments, conducted in Section 5.1 of the Supplementary Material Silin and Fan (2021), confirm good performance of NCT and especially GCT in comparison with other existing methods.

All the proofs are collected in the Supplementary Material Silin and Fan (2021). We conclude this section with defining some notations used throughout the work.

For a positive integer \( k \), we write \( [k] \) as shorthand for the set \( \{1, 2, \ldots, k\} \). We use \( \mathbb{O}_{k \times l} \) for \( k \times l \) matrix of zeros and \( \mathbb{I}_k \) for the identity matrix of size \( k \times k \). For a vector \( \mathbf{a} = [a_1, \ldots, a_k]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^k \) and \( q > 0 \), the standard \( \ell_q \)-(pseudo)norm in \( \mathbb{R}^k \) is
\[
\|\mathbf{a}\|_q \overset{\text{def}}{=} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{k} |a_j|^q \right)^{1/q}.
\]
We use the following convention for the \( \ell_0 \)-pseudonorm: \( \|\mathbf{a}\|_0 = \)
\[ \|a\|_0 \overset{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{j=1}^k 1 \{a_j \neq 0\} \]. Also, the \( \ell_\infty \)-norm is \( \|a\|_\infty = \max_{j \in [k]} |a_j| \). For a matrix \( A \), let \( \|A\| \) be the spectral norm (the largest singular value), \( \text{rank}[A] \) be the rank, and (if \( A \) is square) \( \text{Tr}[A] \) be the trace.

For sequences \( a_n \) and \( b_n \) the relation \( a_n \lesssim b_n \) means that there exists a positive absolute constant \( C \) such that \( a_n \leq C b_n \) for all \( n \), while \( a_n \asymp b_n \) means that \( a_n \lesssim b_n \) and \( b_n \lesssim a_n \). Oftentimes, similar notations will be used to denote inequalities/equalities up to a multiplicative constant not across the sample size \( n \), but across all indices \( j \in [d] \) or \( j \in [\min(d,n)] \). The exact meaning in each case will be clear from the context. By \( c, C \) we denote absolute constants which may differ from place to place.

Throughout the work, \( \beta \) stands for the true vector of regression coefficients in the model (1.1), \( \hat{\beta} \) stands for our NCT or GCT estimators proposed in the next section, and a generic estimator is denoted as \( \tilde{\beta} \). If we want to refer to an abstract vector, for example, as a variable in an optimization problem, we will be using \( \beta' \).

2. Estimators. Let \( r \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{rank}[\hat{\Sigma}] \). Typically, \( r = \min(d,n) \). Consider the SVD of the data matrix \( X \) (scaled by \( n^{-1/2} \)):

\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} X = \hat{V} \hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^\top,
\]

where \( \hat{\Lambda} = \text{diag} \left( \sqrt{\hat{\lambda}_1}, \ldots, \sqrt{\hat{\lambda}_r} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r} \) is a diagonal matrix consisting of the non-zero singular values of \( n^{-1/2}X \) in non-increasing order, the columns of \( \hat{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r} \) are the left singular vectors of \( X \), and the columns of \( \hat{U} = [\hat{u}_1, \ldots, \hat{u}_r] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \) are the right singular vectors of \( X \). Alternatively, it is also convenient to think of the eigendecomposition of \( \hat{\Sigma} \):

\[
\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{U} \hat{\Lambda}^2 \hat{U}^\top,
\]

where now the diagonal entries \( \hat{\lambda}_1, \ldots, \hat{\lambda}_r \) of \( \hat{\Lambda}^2 \) are interpreted as the non-zero eigenvalues of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) in non-increasing order, and the columns \( \hat{u}_1, \ldots, \hat{u}_r \) of \( \hat{U} \) are the corresponding eigenvectors of \( \hat{\Sigma} \). Similarly, in what follows we will actively use the eigendecomposition of \( \Sigma \):

\[
\Sigma = U \Lambda^2 U^\top,
\]

where \( \Lambda^2 = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_d) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \) is a diagonal matrix consisting of the eigenvalues of \( \Sigma \) in non-increasing order, and \( U = [u_1, \ldots, u_d] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \) consists of the corresponding eigenvectors.

We introduce the following definition, which will be extensively used throughout the work.

**Definition 2.1.** *Rewrite the linear regression model \( Y = X\beta + \varepsilon \) as*

\[
Y = (X \hat{U} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1})(\hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^\top \beta) + \varepsilon = Z\theta + \varepsilon.
\]

*We call this representation the canonical form of the linear regression model. Here \( Z \overset{\text{def}}{=} X \hat{U} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r} \) is the standardized design matrix and \( \theta \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^\top \beta \in \mathbb{R}^r \) is the new vector of coefficients, called the canonical regression coefficients vector, or simply canonical coefficients.*
Note that the standardized design coincides with the left singular vectors $Z = n^{1/2} \hat{V}$ and satisfies the orthonormality constraints: $n^{-1} Z^T Z = I_r$. Hence, the least-squares estimator for the canonical parameter is $\hat{\theta}^{LS} = n^{-1} Z^T Y = n^{-1} \hat{A}^{-1} \hat{U}^T X^T Y$. As in Fan (1996), we further regularize the estimated canonical coefficients vector by either thresholding or truncation (setting higher indices to zero), depending whether $\theta$ is approximately sparse or concentrates on the leading principal components. Transforming the canonical parameter back to the original domain leads to the canonical thresholding estimator or principal component regression estimator, as to be further elaborated below. Our work pushes forward the interactions between the canonical parameters and the design matrix.

More specifically, in the canonical domain our estimator looks like

$$\hat{\theta} \equiv \text{SOFT}_\tau \left[ \hat{\theta}^{LS} \right],$$

which in the original domain brings us to the Natural Canonical Thresholding (NCT) estimator of $\beta$, defined as

$$\hat{\beta} = \text{SOFT}_\tau \left[ \hat{\Lambda}^{-1} \hat{U}^T \left( \frac{X^T Y}{n} \right) \right] = \text{SOFT}_\tau \left[ \hat{\theta}^{LS} \right],$$

where $\text{SOFT}_\tau[z] \equiv z \cdot \max \left( 1 - \tau / |z|, 0 \right)$ is the soft thresholding function applied component-wise and $\tau \geq 0$ is a hyperparameter to be chosen. Note that in an overparameterized setting $d > n$ there are infinitely many $d$-dimensional vectors leading to the same canonical coefficients. Specifically, for any vector $h \in \mathbb{R}^d$ the estimator $\hat{\beta} + (I_d - \hat{U} \hat{U}^T) h$ leads to the same vector of canonical coefficients: $\hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^T [\hat{\beta} + (I_d - \hat{U} \hat{U}^T) h] = \theta$. While having the same in-sample fit, these estimators may produce different predictions for new points $x$. Among all of these estimators, $\hat{\beta}$ from (2.1), namely the estimator with $h = 0$, has the smallest $\ell_2$-norm, arguably being the most reasonable choice.

Let us explain some intuition behind the NCT estimator. Neglecting the noise term, we plug $Y \approx Z \theta$ in, use the eigendecomposition of $\hat{\Sigma}$ and get

$$\hat{\theta} \approx \text{SOFT}_\tau \left[ \theta \right].$$

Due to the structure of our error (e.g. in the fixed design case)

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) = \| \hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^T \hat{\beta} - \hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^T \beta \|_2^2 = \| \hat{\theta} - \theta \|_2^2$$

and since we assume the eigenvalue decay, it is likely that some components $\theta_j$ do not play role, and the estimation of them with $\hat{\theta}_j$ is not that important. Hence, it is reasonable to cut such insignificant components off, and this is exactly what the thresholding does. This reduces the variance of the estimator, while not increasing the bias by too much.

We also mention that when $\tau = 0$, our estimator reduce to the minimum $\ell_2$-norm least squares solution

$$\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}^{LS} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\beta} = \hat{\beta}^{LS} = \hat{\Sigma} + \frac{X^T Y}{n} = \left( X^T X \right)^+ X^T Y$$

(unbiased or slightly biased, but with large variance), while $\tau = +\infty$ corresponds to the trivial solution $\hat{\theta} = 0$ and $\hat{\beta} = 0$ (very biased, but with zero variance).

2.1. Relation to LASSO. Recall that the standard LASSO estimator is a solution of the following optimization problem:

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{LASSO}} = \arg \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d} \left\{ \frac{1}{2 n} \| Y - X \beta' \|_2^2 + \tau \| \beta' \|_1 \right\} .$$
In practice one usually standardizes the columns of $X$ so that they are on the same scale and the coefficients corresponding to different covariates are penalized equally. Now imagine that we standardize our $X$ in the canonical manner as in Definition 2.1. If we run LASSO for the vector of coefficients $\theta$, then the solution is expressed via the soft thresholding:

$$\tilde{\theta}^{\text{LASSO}} = \arg\min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^r} \left\{ \frac{1}{2n} \| Y - Z\theta' \|^2_2 + \tau \| \theta' \|_1 \right\} = \text{SOFT}_\tau \left[ \frac{Z^\top Y}{n} \right],$$

which is exactly our estimator $\hat{\theta}$ in the canonical domain. Going back to $\hat{\beta} = \hat{U} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1} \tilde{\theta}^{\text{LASSO}}$ we recover the NCT estimator (2.1). The solution is the soft thresholding on the canonical regression coefficients. This is why we call the method canonical thresholding.

We also note that the NCT estimator can be represented as the min-$\ell_2$-norm solution of the optimization problem

$$\hat{\beta} \in \arg\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d} \left\{ \frac{1}{2n} \| Y - X\beta' \|^2_2 + \tau \| \hat{\Lambda} \hat{U}^\top \beta' \|_1 \right\}. $$

Our estimator is nothing more than LASSO penalized on the canonical regression coefficients.

### 2.2. Relation to PCR.

Principal Component Regression (PCR) approaches the high dimensionality of the problem by taking only $m$ ($m < r = \min(d, n)$) leading principal components of the original data. The new design matrix becomes

$$Z_m = X \hat{U}_{\leq m} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1}_{\leq m} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m},$$

where $\hat{U}_{\leq m} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$ consists of the first $m$ columns of $\hat{U}$ and $\hat{\Lambda}_{\leq m} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is an $m \times m$ leading principal submatrix of $\hat{\Lambda}$. The new regression problem

$$Y = Z_m \theta_m + \epsilon$$

is solved via the least squares, yielding the solution

$$\tilde{\theta}^\text{LS}_m = \frac{Z_m^\top Y}{n} \in \mathbb{R}^m,$$

and thus

$$\tilde{\beta}^{\text{PCR}} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{U}_{\leq m} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1}_{\leq m} \tilde{\theta}^\text{LS}_m \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Note that $\tilde{\theta}^\text{LS}_m$ is essentially the first $m$ components of $\tilde{\theta}^\text{LS}$, and we can express

$$\tilde{\beta}^{\text{PCR}} = \hat{U} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1} \text{ZERO}_m \left[ \hat{\Lambda}^{-1} \hat{U}^\top \frac{X^\top Y}{n} \right],$$

where $\text{ZERO}_m[z] = [z_1, \ldots, z_m, 0, \ldots, 0]^\top$ is the operator zeroing out all the components of a vector $z \in \mathbb{R}^r$ except the first $m$. (Again, in an overparameterized case this estimator has the smallest $\ell_2$-norm among all estimators leading to the canonical coefficients $\tilde{\theta}^\text{LS}_m$.) The similarity of the PCR estimator to the NCT estimator (2.1) is now clear. While PCR blindly selects the coefficients corresponding to the first $m$ principal components, our procedure screens for the most important principal directions, which may be different from the leading ones, and leaves only those with significant contribution exceeding $\tau$. However, if there is a strong prior indicating the canonical coefficients spike at the principal directions, then of course PCR should also be a suitable procedure, and NCT will simply mimic its behavior, with some small costs. The above contrasts between truncation and thresholding appear in Fan (1996) under a simpler model.
2.3. Extension to family of canonical thresholding estimators. PCR focuses only on the estimators on the principal component directions, and NCT does not have any preferences. We now propose a family of canonical thresholding estimators to bridge these two extremes, progressively putting more preferences on the principal directions. In addition, we also generalize the thresholding function.

First, the soft thresholding can be replaced by generalized thresholding rules (see e.g. Definition 9.3 in Fan et al. (2020)), introduced for completeness in the following definition.

**Definition 2.2.** The function \( T_\tau : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \) is called a generalized thresholding function, if

(i) \( |T_\tau[z]| \leq c|z'| \) for all \( z, z' \) satisfying \( |z - z'| \leq \tau/2 \) and some constant \( c \);

(ii) \( |T_\tau[z] - z| \leq \tau \) for all \( z \in \mathbb{R} \).

The parameter \( \tau \) is called the thresholding level.

Second, if there is some prior that the spike canonical coefficients are more likely to be in the lower principal components rather than in the higher ones, we can introduce additional multiplicative weights, equal to the eigenvalues raised to a non-negative power \( \varphi/2 \), under thresholding to reflect this preference. This is equivalent to applying a larger thresholding on higher principal components, with \( \varphi \) controlling the degree. Implementing this strategy, we propose the following more general family of estimators, parameterized by \( \varphi \geq 0 \):

\[
\hat{\theta} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{\Lambda}^{-\varphi} T_\tau \left[ \hat{\Lambda}^{\varphi} \hat{\theta}_{LS} \right]
\]

in the canonical domain, or

\[
(2.2) \quad \hat{\beta} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{U} \hat{\Lambda}^{-1-\varphi} T_\tau \left[ \hat{\Lambda}^{-1+\varphi} \hat{U}^\top \frac{XX^\top Y}{n} \right]
\]

in the original domain. Here \( T_\tau[z] \) is a generalized thresholding function from Definition 2.2 applied component-wise and \( \tau \geq 0 \) is a hyperparameter to be chosen. The estimators from this family are called the *Generalized Canonical Thresholding* (GCT) estimators.

When \( \varphi = 0 \) and the soft thresholding function is used, GCT reduces to the NCT estimator (2.1). The intuition behind GCT is somewhat similar to NCT: the estimators automatically screen the most significant principal components. However, the choice of \( \varphi \) allows to put different importance to eigenvalue \( \hat{\lambda}_j \) and projection \( \hat{u}_j^\top \beta \) when deciding whether to threshold \( j \)-th principal component or not. While in NCT this importance is calibrated in accordance to the scaling appearing in the decomposition of the absolute MSE (this justifies the word “Natural” in the name), GCT with \( \varphi > 0 \) gives more weight to the leading canonical coefficients, making the method closer to PCR, and selects other components when absolutely necessary.

There is one common situation where PCR is preferable: pervasive latent factors that drives both the covariates and the response (Fan, Wang and Yao, 2017). In this case, the principal components are used to learn latent factors and these learned factors are used as the covariates for regressing the response \( y \). This leads to PCR. We introduce GCT to better accommodate this situation. Figure 1 visually illustrates the conceptual difference between NCT, GCT, and PCR approaches. We highlight once again that the selection of the components in NCT and GCT is data-driven, unlike in PCR where the selected components are fixed before the data are observed (modulo cross-validation, which helps to select the number of leading components, but not the components itself).

It turns out that the theoretical results for GCT are not that nice and insightful as for NCT. However, in practice we observed that GCT may behave much better in some scenarios, as to be shown in the corresponding section. In principle, one can even tune \( \varphi \) in addition to tuning \( \tau \) via cross-validation, which might further enhance the practical utility of the procedure.
Fig 1: Comparison of NCT, GCT, and PCR estimators on an artificial example with $r = 12$. On the horizontal axes – an index of the component $j$, on the vertical axes – the coefficient of the canonical least squares $\tilde{\theta}_{LS}^j$. The red dotted lines depict the thresholding boundaries. The coefficients falling into the shaded area are thresholded/truncated to zero and depicted in gray. The coefficients surviving the thresholding/truncation are depicted in purple, orange, and teal, respectively.
3. Theoretical properties of the NCT estimator. The first condition needed for our theoretical analysis is the following assumption on the noise, which will be used in both fixed design and random design settings.

**Assumption 3.1 (Sub-Weibull noise).** The noise vector \( \varepsilon \) is independent of \( \mathbf{X} \) and is jointly sub-Weibull random vector with parameter \( 0 < \alpha \leq 2 \) (see Kuchibhotla and Chakrabortty (2018)). That is, there exists \( \sigma < \infty \) such that

\[
\sup_{\| \mathbf{w} \|_2 = 1} \| \mathbf{w}^\top \varepsilon \|_{\psi_\alpha} \leq \sigma,
\]

where \( \| \cdot \|_{\psi_\alpha} \) is the Orlicz norm for \( \psi_\alpha = e^{x_\alpha} - 1 \). The following tail bound takes place:

\[
P \left[ \| \mathbf{w}^\top \varepsilon \| \geq t \right] \leq 2 \exp \left( - \frac{t^\alpha}{\sigma^\alpha} \right)
\]

for all \( \mathbf{w}, \| \mathbf{w} \|_2 = 1 \) and \( t > 0 \).

This allows to go slightly beyond sub-Gaussian and sub-Exponential tails. For i.i.d. sub-Gaussian noise, \( \sigma^2 \) coincides (up to a multiplicative constant) with the variance of a single \( \varepsilon_i \). So, \( \sigma \) can be interpreted as the magnitude of the noise.

Define the signal-to-noise ratio of the linear regression problem in the fixed design setting as

\[
\text{SNR} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \left( \frac{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{\beta})^2}{\sigma^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left( \frac{\mathbf{\beta}^\top \hat{\Sigma} \mathbf{\beta}}{\sigma^2} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{\| \mathbf{\theta} \|_2}{\sigma},
\]

while for the random design we use

\[
\text{SNR} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \left( \frac{\mathbb{E}[ (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{\beta})^2 ]}{\sigma^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left( \frac{\mathbf{\beta}^\top \Sigma \mathbf{\beta}}{\sigma^2} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{\| \mathbf{\Lambda U}^\top \mathbf{\beta} \|_2}{\sigma}.
\]

For our problem to be meaningful, we assume for the rest of the work that \( \text{SNR} > 0 \) in both settings.

Recall the canonical regression coefficients \( \mathbf{\theta} = \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}} \hat{\mathbf{U}}^\top \mathbf{\beta} \) for the fixed design. Its normalized version \( \mathbf{\theta} / \| \mathbf{\theta} \|_2 \) has the first \( k \) components \( \mathbf{\theta}_{\leq k} / \| \mathbf{\theta} \|_2 \) where \( \mathbf{\theta}_{\leq k} = \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}}_{\leq k} \hat{\mathbf{U}}_{\leq k}^\top \mathbf{\beta} \). Here as usual \( \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}}_{\leq k} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k} \) is the leading principal submatrix of \( \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}} \) (containing the square roots of the first \( k \) eigenvalues of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) on the diagonal) and \( \hat{\mathbf{U}}_{\leq k} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \) is the matrix consisting of the first \( k \) columns of \( \hat{\mathbf{U}} \) (which are the \( k \) leading eigenvectors of \( \hat{\Sigma} \)). Measuring the first \( k \) normalized components \( \mathbf{\theta}_{\leq k} / \| \mathbf{\theta} \|_2 \) in \( \ell_q \)-norm gives

\[
\mathbf{D}_{q,k}^{\text{eff}} (\hat{\Sigma}, \mathbf{\beta}) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\| \mathbf{\theta}_{\leq k} \|_q}{\| \mathbf{\theta} \|_2}.
\]

We call this quantity the joint effective dimension of order \( q \) up to index \( k \) of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) and \( \mathbf{\beta} \). Note that when \( q = 2 \), it measures the proportion of \( \mathbf{\theta} \) explained by \( \mathbf{\theta}_{\leq k} \); when \( q = 0 \), it counts the sparsity among \( \mathbf{\theta}_{\leq k} \). Similar quantity can be defined for the random design setting:

\[
\mathbf{D}_{q,k}^{\text{eff}} (\Sigma, \mathbf{\beta}) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\| \mathbf{\Lambda}_{\leq k} \mathbf{\Lambda U}_{\leq k}^\top \mathbf{\beta} \|_q}{\| \mathbf{\Lambda U}^\top \mathbf{\beta} \|_2^2}.
\]

It turns out that this joint effective dimension will play crucial role in our bounds for the NCT estimator (2.1).
For shortness, we introduce the following quantity that will be appearing regularly throughout the section:

\[ \rho \overset{\text{def}}{=} \frac{2}{\sqrt{n}} (\log(2r/\delta))^{1/\alpha}, \tag{3.1} \]

where \( \delta \) is from the statements “with probability \( 1 - \delta \).” The thresholding level \( \tau \) for both NCT and GCT will be expressed in terms of \( \rho \).

3.1. Fixed design. We first provide a simple guarantee on the mean squared error \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \) of the NCT estimator (2.1).

**Theorem 3.1.** Suppose Assumption 3.1 is satisfied. Take \( \tau = \sigma \rho \) with \( \rho \) given by (3.1). Then, with probability \( 1 - \delta \), the NCT estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) from (2.1) with thresholding at level \( \tau \) satisfies

\[ \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \approx \sum_{j=1}^{r} \min(\sigma \rho, |\theta_j|)^2 \tag{3.2} \]

\[ \leq \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ \|\theta\|_q^q (\sigma \rho)^{2-q} \right\} \tag{3.3} \]

\[ = \text{MSE}(0) \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ \text{D}_{q,r}^\text{eff}(\hat{\Sigma}, \beta) \left[ \frac{\text{SNR}^{-2} (\log(2r/\delta))^{2/\alpha}}{n} \right]^{1-q/2} \right\}. \tag{3.4} \]

The proof of this result almost repeats the classical proof for hard and soft thresholding in case of orthonormal design.

**Remark 3.1 (Choice of \( \tau \)).** The choice of \( \tau \) in the above theorem depends on the noise magnitude \( \sigma \), the probability \( \delta \), and the quantity \( \alpha \), but this is not a significant problem. Later in Section 6 we will show how to tune \( \tau \) using an efficient cross-validation procedure.

In Theorem 3.1 we present several bounds on \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \). Note that the bound (3.2) is tight. One can argue that the matching lower bound is due to the excessive bias introduced by soft thresholding. However, even if we replace soft thresholding with hard thresholding

\[ \text{HARD}_{\tau}[z] \overset{\text{def}}{=} z \cdot 1 \{ |z| \geq \tau \}, \]

the upper bound in probability stays the same as in (3.2), and at the same time it is not difficult to get a nearly matching lower bound (for Gaussian noise \( \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbb{I}_n) \)) in expectation:

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \right] \gtrsim \sum_{j=1}^{r} \min \left( \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, |\theta_j| \right)^2. \]

In any case, the bound (3.2) is not really interpretable. The bounds (3.3) and (3.4) have much deeper intuition as we will see later. Nevertheless, a reasonable question is how tight the inequality leading from (3.2) to (3.3) is. Though in general the opposite inequality (up to a multiplicative constant) does not seem to hold, the following proposition states that in several important cases the inequality is actually tight (or almost tight).

**Proposition 3.2.** (i) Sparsity. Assume \( \|\theta\|_0 = s \ll r \) with \( |\theta_j| \gtrsim \sigma \rho \) for all \( j \) such that \( \theta_j \neq 0 \). Then (taking \( q = 0 \))

\[ \sum_{j=1}^{r} \min(\sigma \rho, |\theta_j|)^2 \gtrsim \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ \|\theta\|_q^q (\sigma \rho)^{2-q} \right\}. \]
(ii) **Approximate sparsity.** Assume there exists a small $\nu > 0$ such that $\|\theta\|_\nu \lesssim \sigma$, and there are at least $s$ significant canonical coefficients: $|\{j \in [r]: |\theta_j| \gtrsim \sigma \rho\}| \geq s$. Then (taking $q = \nu$)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{r} \min (\sigma \rho, |\theta_j|)^2 \gtrsim \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \{ \|\theta\|_q^q (\sigma \rho)^{2-q} \} \times s \rho^\nu.$$ 

(iii) **Polynomial decay.** Let $|\theta_{(1)}| \geq |\theta_{(2)}| \geq \ldots \geq |\theta_{(r)}|$ be the absolute values of the components of $\theta$ arranged in descending order. Assume polynomial decay of the ordered canonical coefficients: for some $a > 0$ holds

$$\frac{|\theta_{(j)}|}{|\theta_{(1)}|} \asymp j^{-a} \quad \text{for all} \quad j \in [r].$$

Then (taking $q = \min(1/a, 2)$)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{r} \min (\sigma \rho, |\theta_j|)^2 \gtrsim \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \{ \|\theta\|_q^q (\sigma \rho)^{2-q} \} \times \begin{cases} 1/\log(r), & a \geq 1/2, \\ 1, & a < 1/2. \end{cases}$$

Continuing the discussion on the bounds presented in Theorem 3.1, we claim that though (3.3) and (3.4) coincide, the way we state them reflects two different messages. The first one, if we take $q = 1$ and apply the inequality $\|\theta\|_1 \leq \|\hat{\Sigma}\|^{1/2}\|\beta\|_2 r^{\text{eff}}[\hat{\Sigma}]^{1/2}$ (which follows from the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality), then from the bound (3.3) we get

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \sigma \|\hat{\Sigma}\|^{1/2}\|\beta\|_2 \sqrt{\frac{\text{eff}[\hat{\Sigma}] (\log(2r/\delta))^{2/\alpha}}{n}},$$

with high probability. This means that if one is interested in the absolute error $\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})$, then essentially $r^{\text{eff}}[\hat{\Sigma}]/n = o(1)$ is enough to guarantee $\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma \|\hat{\Sigma}\|^{1/2}\|\beta\|_2 \cdot o(1)$, omitting logarithmic terms. No additional assumptions on $\beta$ are required, and there is no necessity to worry about the joint effective dimension and the signal-to-noise ratio from the bound (3.4) in this situation. Note that the bound (3.5) is tight up to a logarithmic factor when $\hat{\lambda}_j = \hat{\lambda}_1/j$ and $|\hat{u}_j^\top \beta| \asymp \|\beta\|_2/(\sqrt{j \log(r)})$.

Nevertheless, the bound (3.4) is useful to better understand the structure of the error. Taking into account that the main motivation in our work is the decay of eigenvalues of $\hat{\Sigma}$ or $\Sigma$, it may easily be the case that even the trivial estimator $\hat{\beta} = 0$ has a very small error $\text{MSE}(0) = \beta^\top \Sigma \beta$. Hence, it makes sense to care more about the relative error $\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{MSE}(0)$. In this case, the joint effective dimension and the signal-to-noise ratio control the upper bound on the relative error. We will get back to the analysis of the relative error and the joint effective dimension after we state an analogous result for the random design case.

### 3.2. Random design.

In addition to the noise assumption, to study the performance of the NCT estimator in the random design setting we need to impose a couple more conditions on the distribution of the covariates.

**Assumption 3.2 (Sub-Gaussian covariates).** The scaled generic random vector of covariates $\Sigma^{-1/2} x$ is sub-Gaussian.
ASSUMPTION 3.3 (Convex decay of eigenvalues). There exists a convex decreasing function \( \lambda(\cdot) \) such that the eigenvalues of \( \Sigma \) satisfy \( \lambda_j = \lambda(j) \) for \( j \in [d] \).

The previous assumption is technical and we impose it in our main result just for concreteness. Later in Remark 3.9 we mention how our result can be modified if this assumption does not hold.

One more assumption is needed just to make the rates more friendly-looking. If it is not satisfied, our result below will be meaningless, so there is no loss of generality in this condition.

ASSUMPTION 3.4 (Technical conditions). The effective rank satisfies \( r_{\Sigma} \leq n \). Also, whenever we say “with probability \( 1 - \delta \)”, we suppose that the quantity \( \epsilon \) defined as
\[
\epsilon \equiv \sqrt{\frac{\log(d/\delta)}{n}}
\]
satisfies \( \epsilon \leq c \) for properly chosen implicit absolute constant \( c > 0 \) (this constant comes from the proof).

In addition to the assumptions above, in the sequel we take the convention \( \lambda_k = 0 \) for all \( k > d \). Now we are ready to present the following result.

THEOREM 3.3. Suppose Assumptions (3.1) – (3.4) are fulfilled. Recall \( \rho \) from (3.1), \( \epsilon \) defined as \( \sqrt{\log(d/\delta)/n} \), and define \( k^* \) as \( \epsilon \log(1/\epsilon)^{-2/3} \) (essentially, \( k^* \sim n^{1/3} \) up to a logarithmic term). Then:

(i) With probability \( 1 - \delta \), the NCT estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) from (2.1) with thresholding at level
\[
\tau = \sigma \rho
\]
satisfies
\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ \|A_{\leq k} U_{\leq k}^T \beta\|_q^q (\sigma \rho)^{2-q} \right\} + \|\Sigma\| \|\beta\|_2^2 \left( \frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_1} + \frac{\sqrt{r_{\Sigma} + \log(1/\delta)}}{n} + \epsilon \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{\lambda_j (1 + \epsilon j^2)}{\lambda_1} \right)
\]
for all \( 1 \leq k \leq k^* \).

(ii) With probability \( 1 - \delta \), the NCT estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) from (2.1) with thresholding at level
\[
\tau = \sigma \rho + C \|\Sigma\|^{1/2} \|\beta\|_2 \epsilon^{1/2} \max_{j \in [k]} \left( \frac{\lambda_j (1 + \epsilon j^2)}{\lambda_1} \right)^{1/2}
\]
for some \( C \) satisfies
\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ \|A_{\leq k} U_{\leq k}^T \beta\|_q^q \tau^{2-q} \right\} + \|\Sigma\| \|\beta\|_2^2 \left( \frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_1} + \frac{\sqrt{r_{\Sigma} + \log(1/\delta)}}{n} \right)
\]
for all \( 1 \leq k \leq k^* \).

Several comments are in order.
Remark 3.2 (Why two bounds?). We present two separate bounds in (i) and (ii) for distinct thresholds \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \), because they behave differently for various eigenvalue regimes. The bound from (i) outperforms the bound from (ii) in a wide variety of settings (e.g. in polynomial and superpolynomial decay scenario), however there are cases when the bound (ii) can be better (e.g. specific cases in factor model regime).

Remark 3.3 (Meaning of terms). We call the term \( \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \{ \ldots \} \) in the bounds of Theorem 3.3 (i) and (ii) the “main term”, since it is almost the same as what we had in Theorem 3.1 for the fixed design. The other terms in these bounds are referred to as “additional terms” as they appear only in the random design case. Allowing \( 1 \leq k \leq k^* \) provides a tradeoff, as some of the terms increase with growing \( k \), while others decrease. In what follows we are typically interested in \( k = k^* \) just for concreteness. The meaning of different parts of the “additional terms” is the following. The parts including \( r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma] \) are the payment for the covariance matrix estimation. The part \( \lambda_{k^*}/\lambda_1 \) appears due to the difficulty of control of the empirical eigenvectors beyond \( k^* \)-th. The parts with \( \sum_{j=1}^{k^*} \lambda_j (1 + \epsilon j^2)/\lambda_1 \) and \( \max_{j \in [k^*]} \lambda_j (1 + \epsilon j^2)/\lambda_1 \) are the payment for the control of the sample eigenvalues and eigenvectors up to index \( k^* \).

Remark 3.4 (Moderate noise: simplifications and sufficient conditions for convergence). Consider the moderate noise situation \( \sigma^2 \lesssim \|\Sigma\|\|\beta\|_2^2 \). In this case the “additional terms” become dominating: simply taking \( k = k^* \) and \( q = 1 \), applying \( \|A_{\leq k} U_{\leq k} U_{\leq k}^\top \|_1 \leq \|\Sigma\|^{-1/2} \|\beta\|_2 r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma]^{1/2} \) and plugging in \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) makes the “main term” negligible. Omitting logarithmic terms, the bound (i) reduces to

\[
(3.6) \quad \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \|\Sigma\|\|\beta\|_2^2 \left( \frac{\lambda_{k^*}}{\lambda_1} + \frac{\sqrt{r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma]}}{n} + \epsilon \sum_{j=1}^{k^*} \frac{\lambda_j (1 + \epsilon j^2)}{\lambda_1} \right),
\]

while the bound (ii) reduces to

\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \|\Sigma\|\|\beta\|_2^2 \left( \frac{\lambda_{k^*}}{\lambda_1} + \left( \frac{r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma]^2}{n} \right)^{1/4} \max_{j \in [k^*]} \left( \frac{\lambda_j (1 + j^2/\sqrt{n})}{\lambda_1} \right)^{1/2} \right),
\]

with high probability.

From here we can easily deduce sufficient conditions to ensure the convergence of the absolute error \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) = \|\Sigma\|\|\beta\|_2^2 \cdot o(1) \) as \( n \to \infty \) without any conditions on \( \beta \). In particular, \( \lambda_n = o(1) \), \( r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma] = o(n) \), and \( \sum_{j=1}^{k^*} \lambda_j (1 + j^2/\sqrt{n}) = o(n^{1/2}) \) is enough (again, up to logarithmic factors). Essentially, these sufficient conditions require the decay of eigenvalues to be fast enough (but in a more sophisticated fashion than for MSE).

Remark 3.5 (Moderate noise: further simplifications in specific examples). Continuing the moderate noise situation, for the sake of exposition, let us consider a couple of specific examples of eigenvalue regimes and illustrate how the bound from Theorem 3.3 (i) simplifies. As above, we omit logarithmic terms.

- Polynomial decay. If \( \lambda_j \lesssim j^{-a} \) with \( a \geq 1 \) or \( d \leq n^{(3-2a)/(3-3a)} \) with \( a < 1 \), it is easy to verify that the bracket factor of (3.6) is dominated by \( \lambda_{k^*}/\lambda_1 + n^{-1/2} \) (again ignoring logarithmic terms), and with high probability

\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{\|\Sigma\|\|\beta\|_2^2}{n^{\min(a/3,1/2)}}.
\]
In particular, when \( a = 1 \) (the boundary that has a good control of \( r_{\text{eff}}(\Sigma) \) in high dimensions), we have with high probability

\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{||\Sigma||\|\beta\|^2}{n^{1/3}}.
\]

When \( a \geq 3/2 \), we have with high probability

\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{||\Sigma||\|\beta\|^2}{n^{1/2}}.
\]

- Factor model regime. If \( \lambda_1 \approx \ldots \approx \lambda_m \approx d, \lambda_{m+1} \approx \ldots \approx \lambda_d \approx 1 \) for some \( m \lesssim k^* \), then taking \( k = m + 1 \) yields with high probability

\[
\text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{||\Sigma||\|\beta\|^2}{n^{1/2}} \left( \frac{1}{d} + \frac{m}{\sqrt{n}} + \frac{m^3}{n} \right).
\]

**Remark 3.6 (Large noise).** In the large noise case, when \( \sigma^2 \gg ||\Sigma||\|\beta\|^2 \), the “main term” dominates. Similarly to the fixed design case, we can factorize the “main term” into the error of the trivial estimator \( \text{PE}(0) = \beta^\top \Sigma \beta \), the joint effective dimension and the signal-to-noise ratio: the “main term” from (i) becomes

\[
\text{PE}(0) \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ D_{q,k^*}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \left[ \text{SNR}^{-2} \frac{(\log(2d/\delta))^{2/\alpha}}{n} \right]^{1-q/2} \right\},
\]

and the “main term” from (ii) can be rewritten as

\[
\text{PE}(0) \inf_{q \in [0,2]} \left\{ D_{q,k^*}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \left[ \text{SNR}^{-2} \frac{(\log(2d/\delta))^{2/\alpha}}{n} + \frac{||\Sigma||\|\beta\|^2}{\beta^\top \Sigma \beta} \max_{j \in [k^*]} \left( \frac{\lambda_j (1 + \epsilon_j^2)}{\lambda_1} \right) \right]^{1-q/2} \right\}.
\]

In this regime, the relative error \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{PE}(0) \) is essentially controlled by the joint effective dimension and the signal-to-noise ratio. More detailed analysis of the joint effective dimension \( D_{q,k^*}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) is conducted in the next section.

**Remark 3.7 (Comparison with the least squares).** It is straightforward to notice that the faster decay of eigenvalues, the better bound we obtain. This contrasts the min-norm least squares estimator considered in Bartlett et al. (2020); Chinot and Lerasle (2020), where the decay is required to be not too fast. It also reveals the benefits of the thresholding even in such a situation.

**Remark 3.8 (Dependence on the dimension \( d \)).** One can see that while the bound of Theorem 3.1 contains \( \log(r) \) term with \( r = \min(d, n) \) and gives meaningful result even in ultra-high or infinite dimension, the results of Theorem 3.3 contain the factor \( \log(d) \) directly. This logarithmic factor appears through the definition of \( \epsilon \), which is an upper bound in Lemma S.2.3 of the Supplementary Material Silin and Fan (2021): with probability \( 1 - \delta \)

\[
\max_{l,l' \in [d]} \left| (\Sigma^{-1/2} \tilde{\Sigma} \Sigma^{-1/2} - \mathbb{I}_d)_{l,l'} \right| \leq \epsilon.
\]

This condition is crucial for application of the relative perturbation bounds from Jirak and Wahl (2018), which are the foundation of our proof technique for Theorem 3.3. If we could choose \( \epsilon \) in a completely dimension-free way to satisfy the above, it would yield totally dimension-free bounds in Theorem 3.3, but currently applying the union bound inevitably brings \( \log(d) \) factor.
REMARK 3.9 (Relaxing Assumption 3.3). Assumption 3.3 can be avoided. If one defines \( k^* \) as

\[
k^* = \min \left( (\epsilon \log(1/\epsilon))^{-2/3}, \max \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^{d} \frac{\lambda_l}{|\lambda_j - \lambda_l|}, \min(\lambda_{j-1} - \lambda_j, \lambda_j - \lambda_{j+1}) \leq \frac{1}{3\epsilon} \right\} \right),
\]

then the same conclusion as in Theorem 3.3 is true with a slightly different rate.

To compare the natural canonical thresholding with the canonical truncation of higher index components, i.e. PCR, we state the next proposition.

PROPOSITION 3.4. Assume the conditions of Theorem 3.3 hold and let \( k^* \) be defined in the same way. Then, with probability \( 1 - \delta \), the PCR estimator \( \beta^{PCR} \) with the number of leading principal components set to \( m \lesssim k^* \) satisfies

\[
\text{PE}(\beta^{PCR}) \lesssim \| \Sigma \|_{\| \beta \|_2^2} \left( \frac{\lambda_m}{\lambda_1} + \sqrt{\frac{r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma] + \log(1/\delta)}{n}} \right) + \frac{\sigma^2 m}{n} \left( \log(2m/\delta) \right)^{1/\alpha}.
\]

We omit the proof of this result, since it essentially uses the same techniques and follows the same strategy as the proof of Theorem 3.3. Note that in the moderate noise scenario the rate essentially coincides with what we obtained for the NCT estimator estimator in Remark 3.4.

The adaptivity of our estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) comes into play in large noise case: the “main term” in the bounds on \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \) is better than \( \sigma^2 m/n \) in situations when \( U^T \leq k \beta \) is approximately sparse.

3.3. Relative errors and joint effective dimension. So far we were able to establish some sufficient conditions for convergence of absolute errors \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \) and \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}) \) of the NCT estimator without any assumptions on \( \beta \) by simply taking \( q = 1 \) (bound (3.5) and Remark 3.4). The analysis of the relative errors for fixed design and (in large noise case) random design requires more careful study of \( D_{q,k}^{\text{eff}}(\Sigma, \beta) \). Let us motivate why relative errors \( \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{MSE}(0) \) and \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{PE}(0) \) might be of interest in the first place.

3.3.1. Motivation for relative errors. One reason behind studying the relative errors was already mentioned previously. Note that if there is no relation between \( \hat{\Sigma} \) and \( \beta \), meaning that \( \hat{U}^T \beta \) is a “random” vector, then we can expect \( \| \hat{U}^T \beta \|_{\infty} \asymp \| \beta \|_2 \sqrt{\log(d)/d} \). In this case, the trivial estimator \( \hat{\beta} = 0 \) achieves error

\[
\text{MSE}(0) = \beta^T \hat{\Sigma} \beta \leq \text{Tr}(\hat{\Sigma}) \| \hat{U}^T \beta \|_{\infty} \asymp \| \hat{\Sigma} \|_{\| \beta \|_2^2} \frac{r_{\text{eff}}[\Sigma] \log(d)}{d}.
\]

As long as the eigenvalues of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) decay fast, even the trivial estimator gives error close to zero in high dimensions. Here we should highlight that this effect does not appear in low dimensions (and even in high-dimensional but isotropic situations), where the absolute and relative errors are just a multiplicative constant apart. (Same reasoning works for the PE.) Hence, it is not satisfactory for us to show that the absolute error of our estimator goes to zero with growing sample size and dimension. We would like to get more meaningful conclusions from our results, which would confirm that the proposed estimator does better than the trivial estimator. This naturally leads to the relative errors.

Another motivation comes from the way statisticians evaluate and compare estimators in practical applications. In particular, a widely used performance measure is the coefficient
of determination, or simply $R^2$. For instance, the in-sample version for an estimator $\tilde{\beta}$ is defined as

$$R_{in}^2(\tilde{\beta}) \overset{\text{def}}{=} 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^\top \tilde{\beta})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2}.$$ 

The larger this quantity is, the better method we have; its largest possible value is 1, and the value of 0 indicates that the estimator does no better than the trivial estimator. Maximization of $R_{in}^2(\tilde{\beta})$ would try to fit the observed data perfectly, and in this sense it is not equivalent to minimizing $\text{MSE}(\tilde{\beta})/\text{MSE}(0)$. Nevertheless, a crucial observation is that $R_{in}^2(\tilde{\beta})$ is a relative quantity, which takes into account the performance of the trivial estimator. This supports our choice of the relative MSE as an error measure.

Similar intuition applies to the out-of-sample $R_{out}^2$ and the relative prediction error $\text{PE}(\tilde{\beta})/\text{PE}(0)$, and intuitively it seems that they are linked even stronger. Note that in applications it is often the case that even small but positive $R^2$ (e.g. 0.05) can be considered a success. Therefore, the hope to have $\text{MSE}(\tilde{\beta})/\text{MSE}(0)$ or $\text{PE}(\tilde{\beta})/\text{PE}(0)$ converging to 0 might be too optimistic in some situations. Having these relative errors smaller than 1 already means that the procedure is able to extract some useful signal from the data.

3.3.2. Why joint conditions on design and regression coefficients? Prior to describing the properties of $D_{q,k}(\Sigma, \beta)$, let us show why imposing conditions on the design alone, or imposing conditions on $\beta$ alone can be not enough to establish convergence of the relative errors. It is easier to do for the fixed design case, so let us focus on this setting for now.

For a given design matrix $\mathbf{X}$ and an estimator $\tilde{\beta}$ we can construct another estimator $\tilde{\theta} = \tilde{\Lambda} \tilde{U} \tilde{V} \tilde{\beta}$. Therefore,

$$\frac{(\tilde{\beta} - \beta)^\top \tilde{\Sigma}(\tilde{\beta} - \beta)}{\beta^\top \Sigma \beta} = \frac{\|\tilde{\theta} - \theta\|_2^2}{\|\theta\|_2^2}.$$ 

The relative MSE in canonical domain has nothing to do with $\tilde{\Sigma}$. This demonstrates that getting a good rate is hopeless in high dimension assuming only fast decay of eigenvalues of $\tilde{\Sigma}$.

On the other hand, we might impose strong conditions on $\beta$, such as sparsity, in which case one could expect even $\text{MSE}(\tilde{\beta}) \propto \sigma^2 s/n$ (up to a logarithmic factor) for some appropriate estimator $\tilde{\beta}$, where $s$ measures the degree of sparsity. However, as we mentioned previously, if $\tilde{\Sigma}$ and $\beta$ are not related and the eigenvalues of $\tilde{\Sigma}$ decay fast, we might have $\text{MSE}(0) \propto \|\Sigma\|\|\beta\|_2^2/d$ (again up to logarithmic factors) for the trivial estimator. This implies that there is no much hope in getting vanishing relative error $\text{MSE}(\tilde{\beta})/\text{MSE}(0)$ in high dimensions. That is why it seems natural that our bound on the relative error depends on the joint effective dimension, that takes into account not only decay of eigenvalues or only assumptions on $\beta$, but the joint structure of $\tilde{\Sigma}$ and $\beta$.

3.3.3. Joint effective dimension. Now, once we supported the appearance of the joint effective dimension, let us mention its basic properties. (For concreteness we choose the random design setting and consider $D_{q,k}(\Sigma, \beta)$, though the following ideas apply to $D_{q,r}(\tilde{\Sigma}, \beta)$ appearing in the fixed design case.)

- $D_{q,k}(\Sigma, \beta) \leq k$.
- $D_{q,k}(\Sigma, \beta)$ is decreasing in $q$ and increasing in $k$.
- $D_{2,k}(\Sigma, \beta) \leq 1$, $D_{2,d}(\Sigma, \beta) = 1$. 

• \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) = \| \Lambda_{\leq k} U_{\leq k}^\top \beta \|_0 \) is essentially the sparsity of \( U_{\leq k}^\top \beta \).

For now let us assume \( \text{SNR} \geq c > 0 \) and focus on \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) only. Recall that the “main term” in the relative bounds looks like

\[
\inf_{q \in [0, 2]} \left\{ D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \left( \frac{1}{\zeta_n} \right)^{q/2} \right\}
\]

where \( \zeta_n \) is some vanishing rate like \( 1/n \). Hence, the properties above reveal a tradeoff in the main term:

• When \( q \) is large, i.e. closer to 2, it is easier to control \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \); however, the vanishing rate \( \zeta_n \) is raised to a small power, making the convergence slow.

• When \( q \) is small, i.e. closer to 0, it is more difficult to control \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \); in contrast, \( \zeta_n \) is raised to a large power potentially enabling fast convergence rate.

So, the bound allows to find largest \( q \) for which \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) can be bounded in dimension-free and sample size-free manner (or at least the dependence on \( d \) and \( n \) should not be that severe) to facilitate faster convergence rate.

Some scenarios where \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) can be bounded more explicitly (for some \( q < 2 \)) are discussed below:

• Sparsity of \( U_{\leq k}^\top \beta \). Denote \( s \overset{\text{def}}{=} \| U_{\leq k}^\top \beta \|_0 \) to be the sparsity level. Then, as already mentioned previously, \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) = s \).

• Approximate sparsity of \( \Lambda_{\leq k} U_{\leq k}^\top \beta \). Suppose there exists a small set \( J \subseteq [k] \) (of size \( |J| = s \)) of significant components, so that the rest of the components satisfy

\[
\lambda_j^{1/2} |u_j^\top \beta| \lesssim \frac{1}{d} \| \Lambda U_{\leq k}^\top \beta \|_2 \quad \text{for all } j \in [k] \setminus J.
\]

Then \( D_{1,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \lesssim s \).

• Polynomial decay. Let \( \lambda_j/\lambda_1 \asymp j^{-a} \), \( |u_j^\top \beta|/|u_1^\top \beta| \asymp j^{-b} \), where \( a \geq 0 \). We have several cases:

  - If \( a + 2b \geq 1 \) and \( q \geq 2/(a + 2b) \), then \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \asymp 1 \).

  - If \( a + 2b \geq 1 \) and \( q < 2/(a + 2b) \), then \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \asymp k^{1-(a+2b)q/2} \).

  - If \( a + 2b < 1 \), then \( D_{q,k}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \asymp k^{1-(a+2b)q/2/d^{1-(a+b)q/2}} \).

Here we omitted logarithmic factors. To better understand the dependence of \( D_{q,d}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) on \( d \) in specific case \( k = d \), in Figure 2 we depict this dependence in \((a + 2b) - q \) axes. In the green region \( D_{q,d}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) does not grow with \( d \), while in the yellow region \( D_{q,d}^\text{eff}(\Sigma, \beta) \) grows with \( d \) polynomially, and the contours of constant power are illustrated with different colors.

3.3.4. Bounds on relative errors in polynomial decay scenario. Since the “main term” conveniently decomposes into several factors, among which the most interesting one – the joint effective dimension – was discussed above, the analysis of the relative errors of the NCT estimator in the fixed design and (for large noise case) random design is pretty much complete. It is intriguing though, what happens to the bounds on PE in moderate noise case: recall that in this scenario the “main term” is absorbed by the “additional term”, which does not have a structure allowing a direct analysis of the bounds on the relative error \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta})/\text{PE}(0) \). It is not clear whether they can be stated in a way that will provide better understanding of the relative error. Instead, we can take a look at the particular case of polynomial decay of eigenvalues and regression coefficients: \( \lambda_j/\lambda_1 \asymp j^{-a} \), \( |u_j^\top \beta|/|u_1^\top \beta| \asymp j^{-b} \). After tedious
calculations, one may express the bounds from Theorem 3.1 and Theorem 3.3 (i), (ii) in terms of $d, n, a, b$ only. It turns out, that in this scenario the bound from Theorem 3.3 (ii) is always worse than the bound from Theorem 3.3 (i), so we exclude it from consideration. In Figure 3 we plot the contours of constant convergence rate on $a - b$ plane for the bounds from Theorem 3.1 and Theorem 3.3 (i). Different colors of the contours correspond to different rates. The background color describes the assumptions on $d$ and $n$ that we make in different regions: in light green zones $d$ can be much larger than $n$ (though this is not necessary), in light yellow zones $d$ is allowed to be at most of the same order as $n$, i.e. $d \lesssim n$, and in grey zone the rates do not go to zero unless $d$ is significantly smaller than $n$. We again disregard the logarithmic terms.

4. (Near) minimax optimality of the NCT estimator. This section focuses on the fixed design setting. In light of the above discussion, we introduce the following parameter classes for the fixed design linear regression problem (with Gaussian noise, for simplicity): for any design matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$

$$\mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D, S) \coloneqq \{(\beta, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}_+ : D_{q,r}^{\text{eff}}(\hat{\Sigma}, \beta) \leq D, \text{SNR} \geq S\}.$$ 

Clearly, we have the following relations:

$$\mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D, S) \subset \mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q', D, S) \quad \text{for} \quad q < q',$$

$$\mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D, S) \subset \mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D', S) \quad \text{for} \quad D < D',$$

$$\mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D, S) \subset \mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D, S') \quad \text{for} \quad S > S'.$$

In a sense, this orders instances of problems by difficulty. Note that for fixed $d, n$ the family of classes is parameterized by three quantities: $q, D$ and $S$. While $S$ is independent of the other two (since it is the only quantity related to the magnitude of noise), $q$ and $D$ bring some ambiguity. More specifically, if a specific instance of a problem belongs to $\mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q, D, S)$, it also belongs to $\mathcal{P}^\mathbf{X}(q - \Delta q, D \exp(\Delta \log D), S)$ for some perturbations $\Delta q$ and $\Delta \log D$. To reduce this indeterminacy, we restrict $D$ to be at most of logarithmic order when $q > 0$, i.e. $D \lesssim \log(r)$. Hence, just two quantities essentially control a “complexity” of an instance of the linear regression problem: smallest $q$ for which $D_{q,r}^{\text{eff}}(\hat{\Sigma}, \beta) \asymp \log(r)$ and the signal-to-noise ratio.

It is reasonable to ask whether our NCT estimator is minimax optimal over these classes with respect to the relative MSE. The following theorem answers this question.

![Fig 2: Dependence of $D_{q,d}^{\text{eff}}(\Sigma, \beta)$ on $d$.](image-url)
Fig 3: Rates for the relative errors of the NCT estimator in polynomial decay scenario.

**Theorem 4.1.**  
(i) Let \( q \in (0; 2) \) and \( D \lesssim \log(r) \) be large enough. Then for any design matrix \( \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \)

\[
\inf_{\beta} \sup_{\mathcal{P}(q,D,S)} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})}{\text{MSE}(0)} \right] \gtrsim \frac{1}{(S^2 n)^{1-q/2}}.
\]

(ii) Let \( q = 0 \) (in this case \( D \) plays role of the sparsity of the principal components). Then for any design matrix \( \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \)

\[
\inf_{\beta} \sup_{\mathcal{P}(q,D,S)} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})}{\text{MSE}(0)} \right] \gtrsim \frac{D \log(\epsilon r / D)}{S^2 n}.
\]

This result almost directly follows from classical minimax lower bounds for Gaussian sequence model, with some slight adjustments. The bounds align well with Raskutti, Wain-
wright and Yu (2011), which studies minimax lower bounds over \( \ell_q \)-balls. We emphasize that the lower bounds presented here hold for any design matrix \( \mathbf{X} \), unlike a lot of minimax optimality results that just find one “difficult” design to show the lower bound or impose restrictive assumptions on \( \mathbf{X} \). This supports our intuition that for the relative bounds design matrix does not play role as much as the interactions of the covariance and the regression coefficients.

One could notice that in (i) the rate does not completely match the upper bound of Theorem 3.1, which also contains a factor \( D \) and a logarithmic factor. However, as we highlighted earlier, without much loss of generality we restrict \( D \) to be of at most of order \( \log(\frac{r}{\delta}) \). Therefore, the discrepancy between the upper bound for NCT and the associated minimax lower bounds is just in the logarithmic factors.

5. Theoretical properties of the GCT estimator. Now we move to a brief study of the theoretical guarantees for the GCT estimator (2.2). The results are not as insightful as the ones for the NCT estimator, and we focus on the fixed design setting only. However, once we state the MSE bound, the theory for the random design can be developed in the same way as for the NCT estimator.

**Theorem 5.1.** Suppose Assumption 3.1 is satisfied. Let \( \varphi \geq 0 \). Take \( \tau = \frac{\hat{\lambda}_{\varphi} / 2 - \lambda_{\varphi} / 2}{\hat{\lambda}_{\varphi} / 2 - \lambda_{\varphi} / 2} \cdot (\log(2r/\delta))^{1/\alpha} \). Then, with probability \( 1 - \delta \), the GCT estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) from (2.2) with parameter \( \varphi \) and thresholding at level \( \tau \) satisfies

\[
\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \sum_{j=1}^{r} \min \left( \frac{\hat{\lambda}_{\varphi} / 2}{\lambda_{\varphi} / 2}, |\theta_j| \right)^2.
\]

Moreover, when \( T_{\tau}[\cdot] = \text{SOFT}_{\tau}[\cdot] \), the matching lower bound takes place, i.e. the above upper bound is tight:

\[
\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \gtrsim \sum_{j=1}^{r} \min \left( \frac{\hat{\lambda}_{\varphi} / 2}{\lambda_{\varphi} / 2}, |\theta_j| \right)^2
\]

with probability \( 1 - \delta \).

The obtained bound may be difficult to comprehend, but we state it in the most general form to make sure it is tight and applicable in wide range of scenarios. When \( \theta_j = 0 \) for \( j \geq m \), it has no estimation errors beyond the first \( m \) principal components, adapting very well to focusing only on the low dimensions estimation like PCR. If, in addition, \( \hat{\lambda}_1 / \hat{\lambda}_m \) is bounded, we have

\[
\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \sum_{j=1}^{m} \min \left( \sigma \rho, |\theta_j| \right)^2,
\]

which is not much larger than the MSE of PCR. It can even be much smaller than PCR when \( |\theta_j| \) are small for many indices \( j \). In general, GCT outperforms NCT when \( |\theta_j| \) decays fast enough.

The next corollary allows to make sure that in general the bound is essentially dimension-free: as for Theorem 3.1, the rate can be expressed in terms of the effective rank \( \tau_{\text{eff}}(\hat{\Sigma}) \).

**Corollary 5.2.** Under assumptions of Theorem 5.1, with probability \( 1 - \delta \), the GCT estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) from (2.2) with parameter \( \varphi \geq 0 \) satisfies

\[
\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \left( \|\hat{\Sigma}\|\|\beta\|^2 + \sigma \|\hat{\Sigma}\|^{1/2}\|\beta\| \right)^{1/2} \frac{(\log(2r/\delta))^{2/(2+\varphi)} \tau_{\text{eff}}(\hat{\Sigma})^{1/2}}{n^{1/(2+\varphi)}}.
\]
Note that when \( \varphi = 0 \) we essentially recover the rate obtained after Theorem 3.1. The rate deteriorates when \( \varphi \) is far from 0, and this is explainable: the GCT procedure significantly deviates from the natural one, leading to a worse bound in the worst case, i.e. when the only assumption is the control of effective rank, and spikiness of canonical coefficients is not justified.

Remark 5.1 (Simplifications in specific cases). In several specific cases the rate from Theorem 5.1 can be made much more explicit. We omit logarithmic terms.

- **Polynomial decay.** If \( \hat{\lambda}_j / \hat{\lambda}_1 \sim j^{-a} \) and \( |u_j^\top \beta| / |u_1^\top \beta| \sim j^{-b} \) for \( a \geq 0, a + 2b \geq 1 \), then with high probability
  \[
  \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \right)^{\frac{a + 2b - 1}{1 + (a + 1) + 2b}}.
  \]

- **Sparsity.** If there exists a set \( J \) of size \( |J| = s \) such that \( u_j^\top \beta = 0 \) for \( j \notin J \) and \( \hat{\lambda}_{\max,J} \gtrsim \hat{\lambda}_1 \), then with high probability
  \[
  \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{s\sigma^2}{n}.
  \]

- **Approximate sparsity.** If there exists a set \( J \) of size \( |J| = s \) such that \( \hat{\lambda}_j^2 / |u_j^\top \beta| \lesssim \|\theta\|_2 / d \) for \( j \notin J \) and \( \hat{\lambda}_{\max,J} \gtrsim \hat{\lambda}_1 \), then with high probability
  \[
  \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{s\sigma^2}{n} + \frac{\|\beta\|_2^2}{d}.
  \]

- **Factor Model regime.** If \( \lambda_1 \sim \ldots \sim \lambda_m \sim d, \lambda_{m+1} \sim \ldots \sim \lambda_d \sim 1 \) for some \( m \), then with high probability
  \[
  \text{MSE}(\hat{\beta}) \lesssim \frac{m\sigma^2}{n} + \frac{\|\beta\|_2^2}{d}.
  \]

Therefore, the rate from Theorem 5.1 can adapt well to these specific structures despite the deteriorating rate of Corollary 5.2, which is only an upper bound.

6. Miscellaneous aspects.

6.1. **Computational complexity for single \( \tau \).** To start with, we focus on the case when a good value of \( \tau \) is somehow known, and analyze the computational complexity of the GCT estimators. In particular, this includes the NCT estimator. The computation of SVD of \( \mathbf{X} \) (specifically, \( \hat{\mathbf{A}} \) and \( \hat{\mathbf{U}} \)) takes \( O(dn \min(d,n)) \) time. Once we have SVD, computing the matrix \( \mathbf{A} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{\mathbf{U}} \hat{\mathbf{A}}^{-1-\varphi} \) and the vector \( \mathbf{b} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{\mathbf{A}}^{-1+\varphi} \hat{\mathbf{U}}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{Y} / n \) needed before the generalized thresholding takes \( O(dn) \) time. Obtaining \( \hat{\beta} \) for already computed \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{b} \) takes \( O(d \min(d,n)) \) time. Therefore, the total computational time of our procedure is \( O(dn \min(d,n)) \). The computation is as fast as the SVD of the design matrix.

Note that computational complexity of the LASSO is \( O(n \min(d,n)^2) \), when we compute its solution path via a modification of Least Angle Regression, see Efron et al. (2004).

6.2. **Efficient tuning of thresholding level \( \tau \).** Our approach requires to tune the hyper-parameter \( \tau \). Whatever \( \tau \) is, we anyway have to compute \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{b} \). This already takes \( O(dn \min(d,n)) \) time. Applying the generalized thresholding and combining the result into the vector \( \hat{\beta} \) takes \( O(d \min(d,n)) \) time. This means that we can try \( n \) different values of
τ “for free” — the computational complexity will be still of the same order as computing \( \hat{\beta} \) for a single value of \( \tau \). But we can go even further, if we focus on the GCT estimators with the soft or hard thresholding.

Notice that varying \( \tau \) continuously from 0 to \( +\infty \), we still can get only \((\min(d,n) + 1)\) different solutions \( \hat{\beta} \) for given \( X, Y \) because we threshold a vector of size \( \min(d,n) \). Therefore, we can compute the whole solution path for \( \tau \) from 0 to \( +\infty \). However, we are not that interested in the solution path, since we do not expect to get coefficients entering the picture one by one as in LASSO for sparse regression. Instead, this can be useful for \( L \)-fold cross validation, where we will have at most \((L \min(d,n) + 2)\) “interesting” values of \( \tau \) giving different solutions \( \hat{\beta} \). In total, this implies that we need

\[
O(dn \min(d,n)) + (L \min(d,n) + 2) \cdot O(d \min(d,n)) = O(dn \min(d,n) + Ld \min(d,n)^2)
\]

operations to find the best \( \tau \) (providing smallest cross-validation error). In practice, we typically use \( L \) of constant order, e.g. \( L = 5 \) or \( L = 10 \), which leads to the total computational complexity of \( O(dn \min(d,n)) \) for our optimally tuned estimator — same as for a single value of \( \tau \). Leave-one-out cross validation takes slightly more computations, namely, \( O(dn \min(d,n)^2) \).

Similar “free tuning” property holds for LASSO (we again refer to Efron et al. (2004)). However, for example the ridge regression does not possess this nice properties: different values of regularization parameter will lead to different estimators, and one has to “guess” a discrete set of values to be tried.

6.3. Optimality of cross-validation. More formally, let \( \{B_l\}_{l=1}^L \) be the split of the data point indices \( [n] \) into \( L \) approximately equally-sized disjoint blocks, i.e.

\[
B_l \cap B_{l'} = \emptyset \quad \text{for all } l \neq l', \; l, l' \in [L] \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcup_{l=1}^L B_l = [n]
\]

satisfying \( |n/L| \leq |B_l| \leq |n/L| + 1 \) for all \( l \in [L] \). The \( L \)-fold cross-validation leads to the following choice of the hyperparameter \( \tau \):

\[
\tau^{cv} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \arg \min_{\tau \geq 0} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \frac{1}{|B_l|} \sum_{i \in B_l} \left( y_i - x_i^\top \hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau \right)^2
\]

\[
= \arg \min_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \frac{1}{|B_l|} \sum_{i \in B_l} \left( y_i - x_i^\top \hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau \right)^2,
\]

where \( \hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau \) is the NCT estimator with thresholding at level \( \tau \) computed on the part of the sample \( \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i \in [n] \setminus B_l} \). Note that here \( \mathcal{T} \) is a set of \(|\mathcal{T}| \leq Lr + 2 \) known “interesting” values giving all possible variety of estimators (i.e. \( \{\hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau\}_{l \in [L], \tau \geq 0} = \{\hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau\}_{l \in [L], \tau \in \mathcal{T}} \)), as discussed in Section 6.2. An oracle counterpart of \( \tau^{cv} \), defining optimal value of the hyper-parameter w.r.t. the expected cross-validation error, is given by

\[
\tau^{oracle} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \arg \min_{\tau \geq 0} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( y - x^\top \hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau \right)^2 \right]
\]

\[
= \arg \min_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \mathbb{P}E(\hat{\beta}^{(l)}_\tau).
\]

We have the following result stating that the choice of \( \tau \) based on cross-validation performs as well as the oracle choice (in terms of the expected cross-validation error).
Theorem 6.1. Suppose Assumptions (3.1) – (3.4) are fulfilled. For technical simplicity, consider the truncated NCT estimator:

\[ \hat{\beta}_\tau \overset{\text{def}}{=} \hat{U}_{\leq k^*} \hat{A}_{\leq k^*} \text{SOFT}_\tau \left[ \hat{A}_{\leq k^*} \hat{U}_{\leq k^*}^\top \frac{X^\top Y}{n} \right] \]

with \( k^* \) from Theorem 3.3. Then, with probability \( 1 - \delta \), the above estimator with thresholding at level \( \tau_{cv} \) chosen by L-fold cross-validation satisfies

\[
\frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}_{\tau_{cv}}) \leq \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{oracle}}) + \left( \| \Sigma \| \| \beta \|_2^2 + \sigma^2 (\log(2r/\delta))^{2/\alpha} \right) \left( \sqrt{\frac{L \log(Lr/\delta)}{n}} + \frac{L \log(Lr/\delta)^{2/\alpha}}{n} \right).
\]

The result resembles, for instance, Györfi et al. (2002); Dudoit and van der Laan (2005) (see Theorem 7.1 in the former and Theorem 1 in the latter) and many other works, and the logic behind it is quite standard. However, since our framework is not as general as in Györfi et al. (2002) or Dudoit and van der Laan (2005), we state the high probability bound rather than in expectation, and we avoid almost sure boundedness condition on the response and the possible predictions of our estimator (unlike the aforementioned literature). We also emphasize once again that \( \tau_{cv} \) and \( \tau_{\text{oracle}} \) from (6.1) and (6.2) are minimizers across all \( \tau \geq 0 \), and the structure of our estimator allows to compute \( \tau_{cv} \) defined in such a way in a reasonable time, which is quite unusual feature.

From Theorem 3.3 and Theorem 6.1 it follows that \( L^{-1} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}_{\tau_{cv}}) \leq \hat{\phi}_\delta \) with probability \( 1 - \delta \), where \( \hat{\phi}_\delta \) is the error bound from Theorem 3.3 (best of (i) and (ii)). This bound holds since \( \tau_{\text{oracle}} \) is no worse than the choices of \( \tau \) from Theorem 3.3 in terms of the expected cross-validation error, and because the extra term in Theorem 6.1 does not exceed the error bounds from Theorem 3.3 (treating \( L \) as constant).

It worth mentioning that the result of Theorem 6.1 is not really what one aims for. Ideally, we would like to obtain a high probability bound of the form \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}_{\tau_{\text{opt}}} + \Delta_\delta) \leq \hat{\phi}_\delta \) with small \( \Delta_\delta \), where \( \tau_{\text{opt}} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \arg \min_{\tau \geq 0} \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}_{\tau}) \) is the optimal value of the hyperparameter, which may differ from \( \tau_{\text{oracle}} \). This would consequently imply \( \text{PE}(\hat{\beta}_{\tau_{cv}}) \leq \hat{\phi}_\delta + \Delta_\delta \) with high probability. Instead of analyzing the expected prediction error of the estimator trained on the whole sample, Theorem 6.1 is concerned with the expected cross-validation error. However, as we already mentioned, even classical works on cross-validation, such as Györfi et al. (2002) and Dudoit and van der Laan (2005), also state results of this flavor, and many papers focusing specifically on cross-validation actually work with the expected cross-validation error, which anyway is believed to be a good proxy for the expected prediction error. With this in mind, we hope our result gives a convincing confirmation that the cross-validation procedure applied to our estimator is reasonable, even though in terms of the expected cross-validation error. Since the main focus of this paper is not on the cross-validation, we do not go beyond this.

To conclude the discussion on the cross-validation, we mention that in principle one may want to tune \( \varphi \) in addition to \( \tau \) using cross-validations as well. In that case, the pairs of the hyperparameters \( (\tau, \varphi) \) should be chosen from some prespecified candidate set \( T \times \Phi \subset \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+ \) (e.g. the Cartesian product of two grids) of a finite size \( |T| \times |\Phi| < \infty \). Optimal pairs \( (\tau_{cv}, \varphi_{cv}) \) and \( (\tau_{\text{oracle}}, \varphi_{\text{oracle}}) \) should be defined as the solutions to similar optimization problems as (6.1) ad (6.2), respectively, but this time the estimator \( \hat{\beta}_{\tau\varphi} \) depends also on \( \varphi \), and the optimization is over the finite candidate set. Then a result similar to Theorem 6.1 holds, but with \( \log(Lr) \) in the bound replaced by \( \log(|T| \times |\Phi|) \).
7. Discussion. We provide a new prospective on the non-sparse high-dimensional linear regression problem. The proposed family of GCT estimators serves as a bridge between two classical paradigms: sparse regression and principal components regression. W.r.t. the absolute errors, the fast decay of eigenvalues of the covariance is enough to ensure convergence even in high dimensions without any assumptions on the regression coefficients. Moreover, we argue that the relative errors are more appropriate in the high-dimensional regression with the eigenvalue decay, and that the complexity of a linear regression problem is characterized by the signal-to-noise ratio (instead of the magnitude of noise) and the interaction between the covariance and regression coefficients, expressed by the joint effective dimension (instead of assumptions on the regression coefficients). It is not really important what the design matrix is, and we do not need to impose restrictive assumptions on it, if we choose relative errors as a measure of performance and standardize the data properly. The NCT estimator is minimax optimal for any design over suitable parameter classes in this paradigm. Hopefully, our insights shed some light on the nature of the non-sparse high-dimensional linear regression.

We leave several important directions for further investigation. First of all, despite our joint effective dimension is quite well-motivated, it does not mean that there are no other structural assumptions related to the eigenvalue decay. New discoveries in the structure of the high-dimensional linear regression can potentially lead to other procedures, whose minimax optimality should be analyzed over appropriate parameter classes.

Also, even though the analysis of our structural assumptions and procedures for fixed design seems quite complete, there are unanswered questions in the random design setting. It is not clear whether the bounds of Theorem 3.3 can be improved and whether the associated relative errors can be represented in a convenient way. An uncertainty brought by the covariance matrix requires developing and applying new advanced statistical tools for the analysis of minimax optimality in random design linear regression in high dimensions.

Furthermore, from the numerical experiments, postponed to the Supplementary Material Silin and Fan (2021), we observe that even regularized estimators (such as NCT) behave unexpectedly around the interpolation threshold $d = n$. Our theoretical results do not predict the bumps that errors as functions of the dimension exhibit in this region. This definitely worth studying in the future.

In addition, the uncertainty quantification for the estimated parameters and function values is of significant interest, as well as possible extensions of our ideas to nonparametric regression in reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS). Beyond the linear model, can penalized quasi-likelihood on canonical parameters share similar properties to those in the regression problem?

Acknowledgements. We thank gratefully the Editor, the Associate Editor and the Referees for constructive comments and valuable suggestions which led to significant improvements on the paper. The research was supported by ONR grant N00014-19-1-2120, NSF grant DMS-1662139, and NIH grant 2R01-GM072611-14.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplement to “Canonical thresholding for non-sparse high-dimensional linear regression”. Simulation studies and proofs of the results presented in this paper can be found in the Supplementary Material (Silin and Fan, 2021).
REFERENCES


