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Sparsity in Multivariate Extremes with Applications to Anomaly Detection

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Abstract

Capturing the dependence structure of multivariate extreme events is a major concern in many fields involving the management of risks stemming from multiple sources, *e.g.* portfolio monitoring, insurance, environmental risk management and anomaly detection. One convenient (nonparametric) characterization of extremal dependence in the framework of multivariate Extreme Value Theory (EVT) is the *angular measure*, which provides direct information about the probable ‘directions’ of extremes, that is, the relative contribution of each feature/coordinate of the ‘largest’ observations. Modeling the angular measure in high dimensional problems is a major challenge for the multivariate analysis of rare events. The present paper proposes a novel methodology aiming at exhibiting a sparsity pattern within the dependence structure of extremes. This is done by estimating the amount of mass spread by the angular measure on representative sets of directions, corresponding to specific sub-cones of \mathbb{R}_+^d . This dimension reduction technique paves the way towards scaling up existing multivariate EVT methods. Beyond a non-asymptotic study providing a theoretical validity framework for our method, we propose as a direct application a –first– anomaly detection algorithm based on *multivariate* EVT. This algorithm builds a sparse ‘normal profile’ of extreme behaviours, to be confronted with new (possibly abnormal) extreme observations. Illustrative experimental results provide strong empirical evidence of the relevance of our approach.

Keywords: Anomaly Detection, Dimensionality Reduction, Multivariate Extremes, VC theory

1 Introduction

1.1 Context: multivariate extreme values in large dimension

Extreme value theory (EVT) provides a theoretical basis for modeling the tails of probability distributions. Extremes are a central issue in many applied fields where rare events may have a disastrous impact, such as finance, insurance, climate, environmental risk management, network monitoring (Finkenstadt and Rootzén (2003); Smith (2003)), anomaly detection (Clifton et al. (2011); Lee and

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Roberts (2008)). In a multivariate context, the dependence structure of the joint tail is of particular interest, as it gives access *e.g.* to probabilities of a joint excess above high thresholds or to multivariate quantile regions. Also, the distributional structure of extremes indicates which components of a multivariate quantity may be concomitantly large while the others are small, which is a valuable piece of information for multi-factor risk assessment or detection of anomalies among other –not abnormal– extreme data.

Parametric or semi-parametric estimation of the structure of multivariate extremes is relatively well documented in the statistical literature, see *e.g.* Coles and Tawn (1991); Fougères et al. (2009); Cooley et al. (2010); Sabourin and Naveau (2014) and the references therein. In a multivariate ‘Peak-Over-Threshold’ setting, realizations of a d -dimensional random vector $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_d)$ are observed and the goal pursued is to learn the conditional distribution of excesses, $[\mathbf{Y} \mid \|\mathbf{Y}\| \geq r]$, above some large threshold $r > 0$. The dependence structure of such excesses is described via the distribution of the ‘directions’ formed by the most extreme observations, the so-called *angular measure*, hereafter denoted by Φ . The latter is defined on the positive orthant of the $d-1$ dimensional hyper-sphere. To wit, for any region A on the unit sphere (a set of ‘directions’), after suitable standardization of the data (see Section 2), $C\Phi(A) \simeq \mathbb{P}(\|\mathbf{Y}\|^{-1}\mathbf{Y} \in A \mid \|\mathbf{Y}\| > r)$, where C is a normalizing constant. Some probability mass may be spread on any sub-sphere of dimension $k < d$, the k -faces of a hyper-cube if we use the infinity norm, which complexifies inference when d is large. To fix ideas, the presence of mass on a sub-sphere of the type $\{\max_{1 \leq i \leq k} x_i = 1; x_i > 0 (i \leq k); x_{k+1} = \dots = x_d = 0\}$ indicates that the components X_1, \dots, X_k may simultaneously be large, while the others are small.

Scaling up multivariate EVT is a major challenge that one faces when confronted to high-dimensional learning tasks, since most multivariate extreme value models have been designed to handle moderate dimensional problems (say, of dimensionality $d \leq 10$). For larger dimensions, simplifying modeling choices are needed, stipulating *e.g.* that only some pre-definite subgroups of components may be concomitantly extremes, or, on the contrary, that all of them must be (see *e.g.* Stephenson (2009) or Sabourin and Naveau (2014)). This curse of dimensionality can be explained, in the context of extreme values analysis, by the relative scarcity of extreme data, the computational complexity of the estimation procedure and, in the parametric case, by the fact that the dimension of the parameter space usually grows with that of the sample space. This calls for dimensionality reduction devices adapted to multivariate extreme values.

In a wide range of situations, one may expect the occurrence of two phenomena:

1- Only a ‘small’ number of groups of components may be concomitantly extreme, so that only a ‘small’ number of hyper-cubes (those corresponding to these subsets of indexes precisely) have non zero mass (‘small’ is relative to the total number of groups 2^d).

2- Each of these groups contains a limited number of coordinates (compared to the original dimensionality), so that the corresponding hyper-cubes with non zero mass have small dimension compared to d .

The main purpose of this paper is to introduce a data-driven methodology for identifying such faces, so as to reduce the dimensionality of the problem and thus to learn a sparse representation of extreme behaviors. In case hypothesis **2-** is not fulfilled, such a sparse ‘profile’ can still be learned, but loses the low dimensional property of its supporting hyper-cubes. One major issue is that real data generally do not concentrate on sub-spaces of zero Lebesgue measure. This is circumvented by setting to zero any coordinate less than a threshold $\epsilon > 0$, so that the corresponding ‘angle’ is assigned to a lower-dimensional face.

The theoretical results stated in this paper build on the work of Goix et al. (2015), where non-asymptotic bounds related to the statistical performance of a non-parametric estimator of the *stable tail dependence function* (STDF), another functional measure of the dependence structure of extremes, are established. However, even in the case of a sparse angular measure, the support of the STDF would not be so, since the latter functional is an integrated version of the former (see (2.7), Section 2). Also, in many applications, it is more convenient to work with the angular measure. Indeed, it provides direct information about the probable 'directions' of extremes, that is, the relative contribution of each components of the 'largest' observations (where 'large' may be understood *e.g.* in the sense of the infinity norm on the input space). We emphasize again that estimating these 'probable relative contributions' is a major concern in many fields involving the management of risks from multiple sources, *e.g.* portfolio monitoring, insurance, environmental risk management and anomaly detection. To the best of our knowledge, non-parametric estimation of the angular measure has only been treated in the two dimensional case, in Einmahl et al. (2001) and Einmahl and Segers (2009), in an asymptotic framework.

Main contributions. The present paper extends the non-asymptotic bounds proved in Goix et al. (2015) to the angular measure of extremes, restricted to a well-chosen representative class of sets, corresponding to lower-dimensional regions of the space. The objective is to learn a representation of the angular measure, rough enough to control the variance in high dimension and accurate enough to gain information about the 'probable directions' of extremes. This yields a –first– non-parametric estimate of the angular measure in any dimension, restricted to a class of sub-cones, with a non asymptotic bound on the error.

The representation thus obtained is exploited to detect anomalies among extremes. The proposed algorithm is based on *dimensionality reduction*. We believe that our method can also be used as a preprocessing stage, for dimensionality reduction purpose, before proceeding with a parametric or semi-parametric estimation which could benefit from the structural information issued in the first step. Such applications are beyond the scope of this paper and will be the subject of further research.

1.2 Application to Anomaly Detection

Anomaly Detection (or depending of the application domain, outlier detection, novelty detection, deviation detection, exception mining) generally consists in assuming that the data-set under study contains a *small* number of anomalies, generated by distribution models that *differ* from that generating the vast majority of the data. This formulation motivates many statistical Anomaly Detection (AD in abbreviated form) methods, based on the underlying assumption that anomalies occur in low probability regions of the data generating process. Here and hereafter, the term 'normal data' does not refer to Gaussian distributed data, but to *not abnormal* ones, *i.e.* data belonging to the above mentioned majority. Classical parametric techniques, like those developed in Barnett and Lewis (1994) or in Eskin (2000), assume that the normal data are generated by a distribution belonging to some specific, known in advance parametric model. The most popular non-parametric approaches include algorithms based on density (level set) estimation (see *e.g.* Schölkopf et al. (2001), Scott and Nowak (2006) or Breunig et al. (1999)), on dimensionality reduction (*cf* Shyu et al. (2003), Aggarwal and Yu (2001)) or on decision trees (Liu et al. (2008)). One may refer to Hodge and Austin (2004), Chandola et al. (2009), Patcha and Park (2007) and Markou and Singh (2003) for excellent overviews of current research on anomaly detection. The framework we develop in this paper is non-parametric and lies at the intersection of support estimation, density estimation and

dimensionality reduction: it consists in learning from training data the support of a distribution, that can be decomposed into sub-cones, hopefully of low dimension each and to which some mass is assigned, according to empirical versions of probability measures on extreme regions.

EVT has been intensively used in AD in the one-dimensional situation, see for instance Roberts (1999), Roberts (2000), Clifton et al. (2011), Clifton et al. (2008), Lee and Roberts (2008). In the multivariate setup, however, there is –to the best of our knowledge– no anomaly detection method relying on *multivariate* EVT. Until now, the multidimensional case has only been tackled by means of extreme value statistics based on univariate EVT. The major reason is the difficulty to scale up existing multivariate EVT models with the dimensionality. In the present paper we bridge the gap between the practice of AD and multivariate EVT by proposing a method which is able to learn a sparse ‘normal profile’ of multivariate extremes and, as such, may be implemented to improve the accuracy of any usual AD algorithm. Experimental results show that this method significantly improves the performance in extreme regions, as the risk is taken not to uniformly predict as abnormal the most extremal observations, but to learn their dependence structure. These improvements may typically be useful in applications where the cost of false positive errors (*i.e.* false alarms) is very high (*e.g.* predictive maintenance in aeronautics).

The structure of the paper is as follows. The whys and wherefores of multivariate EVT are explained in the following Section 2. A non-parametric estimator of the subfaces’ mass is introduced in Section 3, the accuracy of which is investigated by establishing finite sample error bounds relying on VC inequalities tailored to low probability regions. An application to anomaly detection is proposed in Section 4, where some background on AD is provided, followed by a novel AD algorithm which relies on the above mentioned non-parametric estimator. Experiments on both simulated and real data are performed in Section 5. Technical details are deferred to the Appendix section.

2 Multivariate EVT Framework and Problem Statement

Extreme Value Theory (EVT) develops models for learning the unusual rather than the usual, in order to provide a reasonable assessment of the probability of occurrence of rare events. Such models are widely used in fields involving risk management such as Finance, Insurance, Operation Research, Telecommunication or Environmental Sciences for instance. For clarity, we start off with recalling some key notions pertaining to (multivariate) EVT, that shall be involved in the formulation of the problem next stated and in its subsequent analysis.

2.1 Background on (Multivariate) Extreme Value Theory

In the univariate case, EVT essentially consists in modeling the distribution of the maxima (*resp.* the upper tail of the r.v. under study) as a *generalized extreme value distribution*, namely an element of the Gumbel, Fréchet or Weibull parametric families (*resp.* by a generalized Pareto distribution). It plays a crucial role in risk monitoring: consider the $(1-p)^{th}$ quantile of the distribution F of a r.v. X , for a given exceedance probability p , that is $x_p = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{P}(X > x) \leq p\}$. For moderate values of p , a natural empirical estimate is $x_{p,n} = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R}, 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i > x\}} \leq p\}$. However, if p is very small, the finite sample X_1, \dots, X_n carries insufficient information and the empirical quantile $x_{p,n}$ becomes unreliable. That is where EVT comes into play by providing parametric estimates of large quantiles: whereas statistical inference often involves sample means and the

Central Limit Theorem, EVT handles phenomena whose behavior is not ruled by an ‘averaging effect’. The focus is on the sample maximum rather than the mean. The primal assumption is the existence of two sequences $\{a_n, n \geq 1\}$ and $\{b_n, n \geq 1\}$, the a_n ’s being positive, and a non-degenerate distribution function G such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \mathbb{P} \left(\frac{X - b_n}{a_n} \geq x \right) = -\log G(x) \quad (2.1)$$

for all continuity points $x \in \mathbb{R}$ of G . If this assumption is fulfilled – it is the case for most textbook distributions – then F is said to lie in the *domain of attraction* of G : $F \in DA(G)$. The tail behavior of F is then essentially characterized by G , which is proved to be – up to re-scaling – of the type $G(x) = \exp(-(1+\gamma x)^{-1/\gamma})$ for $1+\gamma x > 0$, $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$, setting by convention $(1+\gamma x)^{-1/\gamma} = e^{-x}$ for $\gamma = 0$. The sign of γ controls the shape of the tail and various estimators of the re-scaling sequence and of the shape index γ as well have been studied in great detail, see *e.g.* Dekkers et al. (1989), Einmahl et al. (2009), Hill (1975), Smith (1987), Beirlant et al. (1996).

Extensions to the multivariate setting are well understood from a probabilistic point of view, but far from obvious from a statistical perspective. Indeed, the tail dependence structure, ruling the possible simultaneous occurrence of large observations in several directions, has no finite-dimensional parametrization. Throughout the paper, bold symbols refer to multivariate quantities, and for $m \in \mathbb{R} \cup \infty$, \mathbf{m} denotes the vector (m, \dots, m) . The analogue of (2.1) for a d -dimensional r.v. $\mathbf{X} = (X^1, \dots, X^d)$ with distribution $\mathbf{F}(dx)$, namely $\mathbf{F} \in \mathbf{DA}(\mathbf{G})$ stipulates the existence of two sequences $\{\mathbf{a}_n, n \geq 1\}$ and $\{\mathbf{b}_n, n \geq 1\}$ in \mathbb{R}^d , the \mathbf{a}_n ’s being positive, and a non-degenerate distribution function \mathbf{G} such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \mathbb{P} \left(\frac{X^1 - b_n^1}{a_n^1} \geq x_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } \frac{X^d - b_n^d}{a_n^d} \geq x_d \right) = -\log \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.2)$$

for all continuity points $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ of \mathbf{G} . This clearly implies that the margins $G_1(x_1), \dots, G_d(x_d)$ are univariate extreme value distributions, namely of the type $G_j(x) = \exp(-(1+\gamma_j x)^{-1/\gamma_j})$. Also, denoting by F_1, \dots, F_d the marginal distributions of \mathbf{F} , Assumption (2.2) implies marginal convergence: $F_i \in DA(G_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, d$. To understand the structure of the limit \mathbf{G} and dispose of the unknown sequences $(\mathbf{a}_n, \mathbf{b}_n)$ (which are entirely determined by the marginal distributions F_j ’s), it is convenient to work with marginally standardized variables, that is, to separate the margins from the dependence structure in the description of the joint distribution of \mathbf{X} . Consider the standardized variables $V^j = 1/(1 - F_j(X^j))$ and $\mathbf{V} = (V^1, \dots, V^d)$. In fact (see Proposition 5.10 in Resnick (1987)), Assumption (2.2) is equivalent to marginal convergences $F_j \in DA(G_j)$ as in (2.1), together with standard multivariate regular variation of \mathbf{V} ’s distribution, which means existence of a limit measure μ on $[0, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ such that

$$n \mathbb{P} \left(\frac{V^1}{n} \geq v_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } \frac{V^d}{n} \geq v_d \right) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}]^c), \quad (2.3)$$

where $[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}] := [0, v_1] \times \dots \times [0, v_d]$. Thus, the variable \mathbf{V} satisfies (2.2) with $\mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{n} = (n, \dots, n)$, $\mathbf{b}_n = \mathbf{0} = (0, \dots, 0)$. The dependence structure of the limit \mathbf{G} in (2.2) can be expressed by means of the so-termed *exponent measure* μ :

$$-\log \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) = \mu \left(\left[\mathbf{0}, \left(\frac{-1}{\log G_1(x_1)}, \dots, \frac{-1}{\log G_d(x_d)} \right) \right]^c \right).$$

The latter is finite on sets bounded away from $\mathbf{0}$ and has the homogeneity property : $\mu(t \cdot) = t^{-1} \mu(\cdot)$. Observe in addition that, due to the standardization chosen (with ‘nearly’ Pareto margins), the support of μ is included in $[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]^c$. To wit, the measure μ should be viewed, up to a normalizing factor, as the asymptotic distribution of \mathbf{V} in extreme regions. For any borelian subset A bounded away from $\mathbf{0}$ on which μ is continuous, we have

$$t \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in tA) \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{} \mu(A). \quad (2.4)$$

Using the homogeneity property $\mu(t \cdot) = t^{-1} \mu(\cdot)$, one may show that μ can be decomposed into a radial component and an angular component Φ , which are independent from each other (see *e.g.* de Haan and Resnick (1977)). Indeed, for all $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$, set

$$\begin{cases} R(\mathbf{v}) := \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty = \max_{i=1}^d v_i, \\ \Theta(\mathbf{v}) := \left(\frac{v_1}{R(\mathbf{v})}, \dots, \frac{v_d}{R(\mathbf{v})} \right) \in S_\infty^{d-1}, \end{cases} \quad (2.5)$$

where S_∞^{d-1} is the positive orthant of the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^d for the infinity norm. Define the *spectral measure* (also called *angular measure*) by $\Phi(B) = \mu(\{\mathbf{v} : R(\mathbf{v}) > 1, \Theta(\mathbf{v}) \in B\})$. Then, for every $B \subset S_\infty^{d-1}$,

$$\mu\{\mathbf{v} : R(\mathbf{v}) > z, \Theta(\mathbf{v}) \in B\} = z^{-1} \Phi(B). \quad (2.6)$$

In a nutshell, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the exponent measure μ and the angular measure Φ , both of them can be used to characterize the asymptotic tail dependence of the distribution \mathbf{F} (as soon as the margins F_j are known), since

$$\mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}^{-1}]^c) = \int_{\theta \in S_\infty^{d-1}} \max_j \theta_j x_j \, d\Phi(\theta), \quad (2.7)$$

this equality being obtained from the change of variable (2.5), see *e.g.* Proposition 5.11 in Resnick (1987). Here and beyond, operators on vectors are understood component-wise, so that $\mathbf{x}^{-1} = (x_1^{-1}, \dots, x_d^{-1})$. The angular measure can be seen as the asymptotic conditional distribution of the ‘angle’ Θ given that the radius R is large, up to the normalizing constant $\Phi(S_\infty^{d-1})$. Indeed, dropping the dependence on \mathbf{V} for convenience, we have for any *continuity set* A of Φ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in A \mid R > r) = \frac{r \mathbb{P}(\Theta \in A, R > r)}{r \mathbb{P}(R > r)} \xrightarrow[r \rightarrow \infty]{} \frac{\Phi(A)}{\Phi(S_\infty^{d-1})}. \quad (2.8)$$

The choice of the marginal standardization is somewhat arbitrary and alternative standardizations lead to different limits. Another common choice consists in considering ‘nearly uniform’ variables (namely, uniform variables when the margins are continuous): defining \mathbf{U} by $U^j = 1 - F_j(X^j)$ for $j \in \{1, \dots, d\}$, Condition (2.3) is equivalent to each of the following conditions:

- \mathbf{U} has ‘inverse multivariate regular variation’ with limit measure $\Lambda(\cdot) := \mu((\cdot)^{-1})$, namely, for every measurable set A bounded away from $+\infty$ which is a continuity set of Λ ,

$$t \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{U} \in t^{-1}A) \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{} \Lambda(A) = \mu(A^{-1}), \quad (2.9)$$

where $A^{-1} = \{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d : (u_1^{-1}, \dots, u_d^{-1}) \in A\}$. The limit measure Λ is finite on sets bounded away from $\{+\infty\}$.

- The *stable tail dependence function* (STDF) defined by

$$l(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1} \mathbb{P} \left(U^1 \leq t x_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } U^d \leq t x_d \right) = \Lambda([\mathbf{x}, \infty]^c) \quad (x_j \in [0, \infty], \mathbf{x} \neq \infty) \quad (2.10)$$

exists.

2.2 Statement of the Statistical Problem

The focus of this work is on the dependence structure in extreme regions of a random vector \mathbf{X} in a multivariate domain of attraction (see (2.1)). This asymptotic dependence is fully described by the exponent measure μ , or equivalently by the spectral measure Φ . The goal of this paper is to infer a meaningful (possibly sparse) summary of the latter. As shall be seen below, since the support of μ can be naturally partitioned in a specific and interpretable manner, this boils down to accurately recovering the mass spread on each element of the partition. In order to formulate this approach rigorously, additional definitions are required.

Truncated cones. For any non empty subset of features $\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, consider the truncated cone (see Fig. 1)

$$\mathcal{C}_\alpha = \{\mathbf{v} \geq 0, \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \geq 1, v_j > 0 \text{ for } j \in \alpha, v_j = 0 \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\}. \quad (2.11)$$

The corresponding subset of the sphere is

$$\Omega_\alpha = \{\mathbf{x} \in S_\infty^{d-1} : x_i > 0 \text{ for } i \in \alpha, x_i = 0 \text{ for } i \notin \alpha\} = S_\infty^{d-1} \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha,$$

and we clearly have $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha) = \Phi(\Omega_\alpha)$ for any $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$. The collection $\{\mathcal{C}_\alpha : \emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}\}$ forming a partition of the truncated positive orthant $\mathbb{R}_+^d \setminus [0, \mathbf{1}]$, one may naturally decompose the exponent measure as

$$\mu = \sum_{\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}} \mu_\alpha, \quad (2.12)$$

where each component μ_α is concentrated on the untruncated cone corresponding to \mathcal{C}_α . Similarly, the Ω_α 's forming a partition of S_∞^{d-1} , we have

$$\Phi = \sum_{\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}} \Phi_\alpha,$$

where Φ_α denotes the restriction of Φ to Ω_α for all $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$. The fact that nonzero mass is spread on \mathcal{C}_α indicates that conditioned upon the event ' $R(\mathbf{V})$ is large' (*i.e.* an excess of a large radial threshold), the components $V^j (j \in \alpha)$ may be simultaneously large while the other V^j 's ($j \notin \alpha$) are small, with positive probability. Each index subset α thus defines a specific direction in the tail region.

However this interpretation should be handled with care, since for $\alpha \neq \{1, \dots, d\}$, if $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha) > 0$, then \mathcal{C}_α is not a continuity set of μ (it has empty interior), nor Ω_α is a continuity set of Φ . Thus, we do not necessarily have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in t \mathcal{C}_\alpha) = \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha).$$

Actually, if \mathbf{F} is continuous, we have $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in t\mathcal{C}_\alpha) = 0$ for any $t > 0$. However, consider the ϵ -thickened cones

$$\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon = \{\mathbf{v} \geq 0, \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \geq 1, v_j > \epsilon\|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \text{ for } j \in \alpha, v_j \leq \epsilon\|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\}, \quad (2.13)$$

and the corresponding ϵ -thickened sub-spheres (see Fig. 2)

$$\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon = \{\mathbf{x} \in S_\infty^{d-1}, x_i > \epsilon \text{ for } i \in \alpha, x_i \leq \epsilon \text{ for } i \notin \alpha\} = \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \cap S_\infty^{d-1}.$$

Since the boundaries of the sets Ω_α^ϵ (viewed as subsets of S_∞^{d-1}) are disjoint, only a countable number of them may be discontinuity sets of Φ . Thus, by homogeneity, the number of the sets $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ which are discontinuity sets of μ is at most countable. Hence, the threshold ϵ may be chosen arbitrarily small in such a way that $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ is a continuity set of μ . The result stated below shows that nonzero mass on \mathcal{C}_α is the same as nonzero mass on $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ for ϵ arbitrarily small.

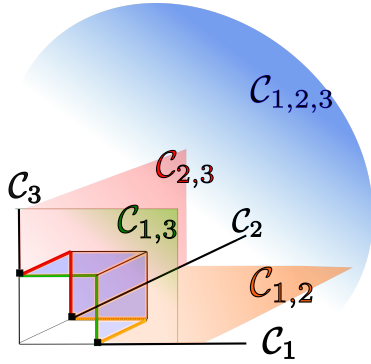


Figure 1: Truncated cones in 3D

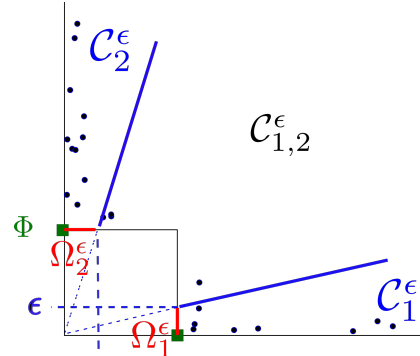


Figure 2: Truncated ϵ -cones in 2D

Lemma 1. For any non empty index subset $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, the exponent measure of \mathcal{C}_α is

$$\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) \quad (\text{equivalently, } \Phi(\Omega_\alpha) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon)).$$

Proof. With no loss of generality, we prove the statement related to Φ . First consider the case $\alpha = \{1, \dots, d\}$. Then $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$'s forms an increasing sequence of sets (when ϵ decreases) and $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^0 = \bigcup_{\epsilon > 0, \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$. The results follows. Now, for $\epsilon \geq 0$ and $\alpha \subsetneq \{1, \dots, d\}$, consider the sets

$$\begin{aligned} O_\alpha^\epsilon &= \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = 1, \forall j \in \alpha : x_j > \epsilon\}, \\ N_\alpha^\epsilon &= \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = 1, \forall j \in \alpha : x_j > \epsilon, \exists j \notin \alpha : x_j > \epsilon\}, \end{aligned}$$

so that $N_\alpha^\epsilon \subset O_\alpha^\epsilon$ and $\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon = O_\alpha^\epsilon \setminus N_\alpha^\epsilon$. Observe also that $\Omega_\alpha = O_\alpha^0 \setminus N_\alpha^0$. Thus, $\Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon) = \Phi(O_\alpha^\epsilon) - \Phi(N_\alpha^\epsilon)$, and $\Phi(\Omega_\alpha) = \Phi(O_\alpha^0) - \Phi(N_\alpha^0)$, so that it is sufficient to show that

$$\Phi(N_\alpha^0) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \Phi(N_\alpha^\epsilon), \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi(O_\alpha^0) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \Phi(O_\alpha^\epsilon).$$

Notice first that the N_α^ϵ 's and the O_α^ϵ 's form two increasing sequences of sets (when ϵ decreases), and that $N_\alpha^0 = \bigcup_{\epsilon > 0, \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}} N_\alpha^\epsilon$, $O_\alpha^0 = \bigcup_{\epsilon > 0, \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}} O_\alpha^\epsilon$. The result follows from the 'continuity from below' property of the measure Φ . \square

We may now make precise the above heuristic interpretation of the quantities $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$: the vector $\mathcal{M} = \{\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha) : \emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}\}$ asymptotically describes the dependence structure of the extremal observations. Indeed, by Lemma 1, and the discussion above, ϵ may be chosen such that $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ is a continuity set of μ , while $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)$ is arbitrarily close to $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$. Then, using the characterization (2.4) of μ , the following asymptotic identity holds true:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t\mathbb{P}(\|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty \geq t, V^j > \epsilon\|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty(j \in \alpha), V^j \leq \epsilon\|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty(j \notin \alpha)) = \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) \simeq \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha).$$

Remark 1. In terms of conditional probabilities, denoting $R = \|T(\mathbf{X})\|$, where T is the standardization map $\mathbf{X} \mapsto \mathbf{V}$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \in \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \mid R > r) = \frac{r\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in r\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)}{r\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in r([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]^c))} \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)}{\mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]^c)},$$

as in (2.8). In other terms,

$$\mathbb{P}(V^j > \epsilon\|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty(j \in \alpha), V^j \leq \epsilon\|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty(j \notin \alpha) \mid \|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty \geq t) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} C\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) \simeq C\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha),$$

where $C = 1/\Phi(S_\infty^{d-1}) = 1/\mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]^c)$. This clarifies the meaning of ‘large’ and ‘small’ in the heuristic explanation given above.

Problem statement. As explained above, our goal is to describe the dependence on extreme regions by investigating the structure of μ (or, equivalently, that of Φ). More precisely, the aim is twofold. First, recover a rough approximation of the support of Φ based on the partition $\{\Omega_\alpha, \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}, \alpha \neq \emptyset\}$, that is, determine which Ω_α ’s have nonzero mass, or equivalently, which μ'_α ’s (resp. Φ_α ’s) are nonzero. This support estimation is potentially sparse (if a small number of Ω_α have non-zero mass) and potentially low-dimensional (if the dimension of the sub-cones Ω_α with non-zero mass is low). The second objective is to investigate how the exponent measure μ spreads its mass on the \mathcal{C}_α ’s, the theoretical quantity $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$ indicating to which extent extreme observations may occur in the ‘direction’ α for $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$. These two goals are achieved using empirical versions of the angular measure defined in Section 3.1, evaluated on the ϵ -thickened cones $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$. Formally, we wish to recover the $(2^d - 1)$ -dimensional unknown vector $\mathcal{M} = \{\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha) : \emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}\}$ from $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathbf{F}$ and build an estimator $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}$ such that

$$\|\widehat{\mathcal{M}} - \mathcal{M}\|_\infty = \sup_{\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}} |\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)|$$

is small with large probability. In view of Lemma 1, (biased) estimates of \mathcal{M} ’s components are built from an empirical version of the angular measure, evaluated on the ϵ -thickened spheres Ω_α^ϵ (see Section 3.1 below). As a by-product, one obtains an estimate of the support of the limit measure μ :

$$\bigcup_{\alpha: \widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) > 0} \mathcal{C}_\alpha.$$

The results stated in the next section are non-asymptotic and sharp bounds are given by means of VC inequalities tailored to low probability regions.

2.3 Regularity Assumptions

Throughout the paper, we denote by $\lfloor u \rfloor$ the integer part of any real number u , by $u_+ = \max(0, u)$ its positive part and by $\delta_{\mathbf{a}}$ the Dirac mass at any point $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. For uni-dimensional random variables Y_1, \dots, Y_n , $Y_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq Y_{(n)}$ denote their order statistics. Beyond the existence of the limit measure μ (i.e. multivariate regular variation of \mathbf{V} 's distribution, see (2.3)), and thus, existence of an angular measure Φ (see (2.6)), three additional assumptions are made, which are natural when estimation of the support of a distribution is at stake.

Assumption 1. *The margins of \mathbf{X} have continuous c.d.f., namely F_j , $1 \leq j \leq d$ is continuous.*

Assumption 1 is widely used in the context of non-parametric estimation of the dependence structure (see e.g. Einmahl and Segers (2009)): it ensures that the transformed variables $V^j = (1 - F_j(X^j))^{-1}$ (resp. $U^j = 1 - F_j(X^j)$) have indeed a standard Pareto distribution, $\mathbb{P}(V^j > x) = 1/x, x \geq 1$ (resp. the U^j 's are uniform variables).

For any non empty subset α of $\{1, \dots, d\}$, one denotes by dx_α the Lebesgue measure on \mathcal{C}_α and write $dx_\alpha = dx_{i_1}, \dots, dx_{i_k}$, when $\alpha = \{i_1, \dots, i_k\}$.

Assumption 2. *Each component μ_α of (2.12) is absolutely continuous w.r.t. Lebesgue measure dx_α on \mathcal{C}_α .*

Assumption 2 has a very convenient consequence regarding Φ : the fact that the exponent measure μ spreads no mass on subsets of the form $\{\mathbf{x} : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \geq 1, x_{i_1} = \dots = x_{i_r} \neq 0\}$ with $r \geq 2$, implies that the spectral measure Φ spreads no mass on edges $\{\mathbf{x} : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = 1, x_{i_1} = \dots = x_{i_r} = 1\}$ with $r \geq 2$. This is summarized by the following result.

Lemma 2. *Under Assumption 2, the following assertions holds true.*

- Φ is concentrated on the (disjoint) edges

$$\Omega_{\alpha, i_0} = \{\mathbf{x} : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = 1, x_{i_0} = 1, 0 < x_i < 1 \text{ for } i \in \alpha \setminus \{i_0\}, x_i = 0 \text{ for } i \notin \alpha\}$$

for $i_0 \in \alpha, \emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$.

- The restriction Φ_{α, i_0} of Φ to Ω_{α, i_0} is absolutely continuous w.r.t. Lebesgue measure $dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}$ on the cube's edges, whenever $|\alpha| \geq 2$.

Proof. The first assertion straightforwardly results from the discussion above. Turning to the second point, consider any measurable set $D \subset \Omega_{\alpha, i_0}$ such that $\int_D dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0} = 0$. Then the induced truncated cone $\tilde{D} = \{\mathbf{v} : \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \geq 1, \mathbf{v}/\|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \in D\}$ satisfies $\int_{\tilde{D}} dx_\alpha = 0$ and belongs to \mathcal{C}_α . Thus, by virtue of Assumption 2, $\phi_{\alpha, i_0}(D) = \phi_\alpha(D) = \mu_\alpha(\tilde{D}) = 0$. \square

It follows from Lemma 2 that the angular measure Φ decomposes as $\Phi = \sum_\alpha \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \Phi_{\alpha, i_0}$ and that there exist densities $\frac{d\Phi_{\alpha, i_0}}{dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}}$, $|\alpha| \geq 2, i_0 \in \alpha$, such that for all $B \subset \Omega_\alpha, |\alpha| \geq 2$,

$$\Phi(B) = \Phi_\alpha(B) = \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \int_{B \cap \Omega_{\alpha, i_0}} \frac{d\Phi_{\alpha, i_0}}{dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}}(x) dx_{\alpha \setminus \{i_0\}}. \quad (2.14)$$

In order to formulate the next assumption, for $|\beta| \geq 2$, we set

$$M_\beta = \sup_{i \in \beta} \sup_{x \in \Omega_{\beta, i}} \frac{d\Phi_{\beta, i}}{dx_{\beta \setminus i}}(x). \quad (2.15)$$

Assumption 3. *The angular density is uniformly bounded on S_∞^{d-1} , i.e. there exists a constant $M > 0$, such that, for $|\beta| \geq 2$, we have: $M_\beta < M$.*

Assumption 3 is naturally involved in the derivation of upper bounds on the error made when approximating $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$ by the empirical counterpart of $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)$.

3 A non-parametric estimator of the subcones' mass : definition and preliminary results

In this section, an estimator $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ of each of the sub-cones' mass $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$, $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, is proposed, based on observations $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$, *i.i.d.* copies of $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathbf{F}$. Bounds on the error $\|\widehat{\mathcal{M}} - \mathcal{M}\|_\infty$ are established. In the remaining of this paper, we work under Assumption 1 (continuous margins, see Section 2.3). Assumptions 2 and 3 are not necessary to prove a preliminary result on a class of rectangles (Proposition 1). However, they are required to approximate cones with rectangles (Proposition 2) and to bound the bias induced by the tolerance parameter ϵ (in Proposition 3 and in the main result, Theorem 1).

3.1 Classical non-parametric estimators for the asymptotic dependence structure

Since the marginal distributions F_j are unknown, we classically consider the empirical counterparts of the \mathbf{V}_i 's, $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i = (\widehat{V}_i^1, \dots, \widehat{V}_i^d)$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, as standardized variables obtained from a rank transformation (instead of a probability integral transformation),

$$\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i = \left((1 - \widehat{F}_j(X_i^j))^{-1} \right)_{1 \leq j \leq d},$$

where $\widehat{F}_j(x) = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{\{X_i^j < x\}}$. We denote by T (*resp.* \widehat{T}) the standardization (*resp.* the empirical standardization),

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{1}{1 - F_j(x^j)} \right)_{1 \leq j \leq d} \quad \text{and} \quad \widehat{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{1}{1 - \widehat{F}_j(x^j)} \right)_{1 \leq j \leq d}. \quad (3.1)$$

The empirical probability distribution of the rank-transformed data is then given by

$$\widehat{\mathbb{P}}_n = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i}.$$

Since for a μ -continuity set A bounded away from 0, $t \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in tA) \rightarrow \mu(A)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, see (2.4), the empirical version of μ is defined as

$$\mu_n(A) = \frac{n}{k} \widehat{\mathbb{P}}_n\left(\frac{n}{k}A\right) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{\{\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i \in \frac{n}{k}A\}}. \quad (3.2)$$

Here and throughout, we place ourselves in the asymptotic setting stipulating that $k = k(n) > 0$ is such that $k \rightarrow \infty$ and $k = o(n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The ratio n/k plays the role of a large radial threshold. Note that this estimator is commonly used in the field of non-parametric estimation of the dependence structure, see *e.g.* Einmahl and Segers (2009).

3.2 Accounting for the non asymptotic nature of data: ϵ -thickening.

Since the cones \mathcal{C}_α have zero Lebesgue measure, and since, under Assumption 1, the margins are continuous, the cones are not likely to receive any empirical mass, so that simply counting points in $\frac{n}{k}\mathcal{C}_\alpha$ is not an option: with probability one, only the largest dimensional cone (the central one, corresponding to $\alpha = \{1, \dots, d\}$) will be hit. In view of Subsection 2.2 and Lemma 1, it is natural to introduce a tolerance parameter $\epsilon > 0$ and to approximate the asymptotic mass of \mathcal{C}_α with the non-asymptotic mass of $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$. We thus define the non-parametric estimator $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ of $\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$ as

$$\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) = \mu_n(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon), \quad \emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}. \quad (3.3)$$

Evaluating $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ boils down (see (3.2)) to counting points in $(n/k)\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$. The estimate $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ is thus a (voluntarily ϵ -biased) natural estimator of $\Phi(\Omega_\alpha) = \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)$.

The coefficients $(\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha))_{\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}}$ associated with the cones \mathcal{C}_α constitute a summary representation of the dependence structure. This representation is sparse as soon as the $\mu_n^{\alpha, \epsilon}$ are positive only for a few groups of features α (comparing to the total number of groups (or sub-cones) 2^d). It is low-dimensional as soon as each of these groups α is small, or equivalently the corresponding sub-cones are low-dimensional compared with d .

In fact, $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ is (up to a normalizing constant) an empirical version of the conditional probability for $T(\mathbf{X})$ to belong to the cone $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$, given that $\|T(\mathbf{X})\|$ exceeds a large threshold. Indeed, for r, n and k sufficiently large, as explained in Remark 1,

$$\mathcal{M}(\alpha) \simeq \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]^c) \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \in \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \mid \|T(\mathbf{X})\| \geq r). \quad (3.4)$$

The remaining of this section is devoted to obtaining non-asymptotic upper bounds on the error $\|\widehat{\mathcal{M}} - \mathcal{M}\|_\infty$. The main result is stated in Theorem 1. Before all, notice that the error may be obviously decomposed as the sum of a stochastic term and a bias term inherent to the ϵ -thickening approach:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\widehat{\mathcal{M}} - \mathcal{M}\|_\infty &= \max_\alpha |\mu_n(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)| \\ &\leq \max_\alpha |\mu - \mu_n|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) + \max_\alpha |\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)|. \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

Here and beyond for notational convenience we simply denotes ‘ α ’ for a non empty set α varying in the power set of $\{1, \dots, d\}$. The main steps of the argument leading to Theorem 1 are as follows. First, obtain a uniform upper bound on the error $|\mu_n - \mu|$ restricted to a well chosen VC class of rectangles (Subsection 3.3). From the latter, approaching the ϵ -thickened cones $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ with such rectangles, deduce an uniform bound on $|\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)$ (Subsection 3.4). Finally, using the regularity assumptions (Assumption 2 and Assumption 3), bound the difference $|\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)|$ (Subsection 3.5).

3.3 Preliminary results: working on rectangles

This subsection builds on the theory developed in Goix et al. (2015), where a non-asymptotic bound is stated on the estimation of the stable tail dependence function (STDF) defined in (2.10). We prove here (Proposition 1) a generalized version of the result obtained by these authors. The STDF

defined in (2.10) is related to the class of sets of the form $[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}]^c$ (or $[\mathbf{u}, \infty]^c$ depending on which standardization is used), and an equivalent definition is

$$l(\mathbf{x}) := \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \tilde{F}(t^{-1} \mathbf{x}) = \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}^{-1}]^c) \quad (3.6)$$

with $\tilde{F}(\mathbf{x}) = (1 - F)((1 - F_1)^{\leftarrow}(x_1), \dots, (1 - F_d)^{\leftarrow}(x_d))$. Here the notation $(1 - F_j)^{\leftarrow}(x_j)$ denotes the quantity $\sup\{y : 1 - F_j(y) \geq x_j\}$. Recall that the marginally uniform variable \mathbf{U} is defined by $U^j = 1 - F_j(X^j)$ ($1 \leq j \leq d$). Then in terms of standardized variables U^j ,

$$\tilde{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^d \{U^j < x_j\}\right) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{U} \in [\mathbf{x}, \infty]^c) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}^{-1}]^c). \quad (3.7)$$

A natural estimator of l is its empirical version defined as follows, see Huang (1992), Qi (1997), Drees and Huang (1998), Einmahl et al. (2006), Goix et al. (2015):

$$l_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i^1 \geq X_{(n-\lfloor kx_1 \rfloor + 1)}^1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } X_i^d \geq X_{(n-\lfloor kx_d \rfloor + 1)}^d\}}. \quad (3.8)$$

The expression is indeed suggested by the definition of l in (3.6), with all distribution functions and univariate quantiles replaced by their empirical counterparts, and with t replaced by n/k . The following lemma allows to derive alternative expressions for the empirical version of the STDF.

Lemma 3. *Consider the rank transformed variables $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}_i = (\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i)^{-1} = (1 - \widehat{F}_j(X_i^j))_{1 \leq j \leq d}$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then, for $(i, j) \in \{i = 1, \dots, n\} \times \{1, \dots, d\}$, with probability one,*

$$\widehat{U}_i^j \geq \frac{k}{n} x_j^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \widehat{V}_i^j \geq \frac{n}{k} x_j \Leftrightarrow X_i^j \geq X_{(n-\lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor + 1)}^j \Leftrightarrow U_i^j \leq U_{(\lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor)}^j.$$

The proof of Lemma 3 is standard and is provided in Appendix A for completeness. By Lemma 3, the following alternative expression of $l_n(\mathbf{x})$ holds true:

$$l_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_i^1 \leq U_{(\lfloor kx_1 \rfloor)}^1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } U_i^d \leq U_{(\lfloor kx_d \rfloor)}^d\}} = \mu_n([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}^{-1}]^c). \quad (3.9)$$

Thus, bounding the error $|\mu_n - \mu|([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}^{-1}]^c)$ is the same as bounding $|l_n - l|(\mathbf{x})$.

Asymptotic properties of this empirical counterpart have been studied in Huang (1992), Drees and Huang (1998), Embrechts et al. (2000) and de Haan and Ferreira (2006) in the bivariate case, and Qi (1997), Einmahl et al. (2012). in the general multivariate case. In Goix et al. (2015), a non-asymptotic bound is established on the maximal deviation

$$\sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq T} |l(\mathbf{x}) - l_n(\mathbf{x})|$$

for a fixed $T > 0$, or equivalently on

$$\sup_{1/T \leq \mathbf{x}} |\mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}]^c) - \mu_n([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}]^c)|.$$

The exponent measure μ is indeed easier to deal with when restricted to the class of sets of the form $[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}]^c$, which is a relatively simple one in the sense that it has finite VC dimension.

In the present work, an important step is to bound the error on the class of ϵ -thickened cones. This will be achieved by approaching the cones with a class of rectangles which is more flexible than the collection of sets $[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}]^c$. In particular, we need the upper limits of the sets to concern some coordinates only, and some of them to be bounded away from zero. For that purpose let us introduce the sets

$$R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \beta) = \left\{ \mathbf{y} \in [0, \infty]^d, \begin{array}{l} y_j \geq x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha, \\ y_j < z_j \text{ for } j \in \beta \end{array} \right\}, \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \in [0, \infty]^d. \quad (3.10)$$

Thus,

$$\mu_n(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \beta)) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{\widehat{V}_i^j \geq \frac{n}{k} x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha \text{ and } \widehat{V}_i^j < \frac{n}{k} x_j \text{ for } j \in \beta\}}.$$

Then, define the functional $g_{\alpha, \beta}$ (which may be seen as a refinement of the STDF) as follows: for $\mathbf{x} \in [0, \infty]^d \setminus \{\infty\}$, $\mathbf{z} \in [0, \infty]^d$, $\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\} \setminus \emptyset$ and $\beta \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, let

$$g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(t^{-1} \mathbf{x}, t^{-1} \mathbf{z}), \quad (3.11)$$

$$\text{with } \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \mathbb{P} \left[\{U^j \leq x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha\} \cap \{U^j > z_j \text{ for } j \in \beta\} \right]. \quad (3.12)$$

Notice that $\tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ is an extension of the non-asymptotic approximation \tilde{F} in (3.6). By (3.11) and (3.12), we have

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \mathbb{P} \left[\{U^j \leq t^{-1} x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha\} \cap \{U^j > t^{-1} z_j \text{ for } j \in \beta\} \right] \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t \mathbb{P} \left[\mathbf{V} \in tR(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta) \right], \end{aligned}$$

so that using (2.4),

$$g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \mu([R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)]). \quad (3.13)$$

The following lemma makes the relation between $g_{\alpha, \beta}$ and the angular measure Φ explicit. Its proof is given in Appendix A.

Lemma 4. *The function $g_{\alpha, \beta}$ can be represented as follows:*

$$g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \int_{S^{d-1}} \left(\bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} w_j x_j - \bigvee_{j \in \beta} w_j z_j \right)_+ \Phi(d\mathbf{w}).$$

Thus, $g_{\alpha, \beta}$ is homogeneous and satisfies:

$$|g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{z}')| \leq \max_{j \in \alpha} |x_j - x'_j| + \max_{j \in \beta} |z_j - z'_j|.$$

Remark 2. Lemma 4 shows that as a generalization of the STDF, the functional $g_{\alpha,\beta}$ enjoys a Lipschitz property.

We now define the empirical counterpart of $g_{\alpha,\beta}$ (paralleling that of the empirical STDF l_n in (3.8)) by

$$g_{n,\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i^j \geq X_{(n-\lfloor kx_j \rfloor + 1)}^j \text{ for } j \in \alpha \text{ and } X_i^j < X_{(n-\lfloor kx_j \rfloor + 1)}^j \text{ for } j \in \beta\}} \cdot \quad (3.14)$$

As it is the case for the empirical STDF (see (3.9)), $g_{n,\alpha,\beta}$ has an alternative expression

$$\begin{aligned} g_{n,\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) &= \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_i^j \leq U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \text{ for } j \in \alpha \text{ and } U_i^j > U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \text{ for } j \in \beta\}} \\ &= \mu_n(R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)), \end{aligned} \quad (3.15)$$

where the last equality comes from the equivalence $\widehat{V}_i^j \geq \frac{n}{k}x_j \Leftrightarrow U_i^j \leq U_{(\lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor)}^j$ (Lemma 3) and from the expression $\mu_n(\cdot) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\widehat{V}_i \in \frac{n}{k}(\cdot)}$, see (3.2).

The proposition below extends the result of Goix et al. (2015), by deriving an analogue upper bound on the generalized maximal deviation

$$\max_{\alpha,\beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} |g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{n,\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})|,$$

or equivalently on

$$\max_{\alpha,\beta} \sup_{1/T \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} |\mu(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \beta)) - \mu_n(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \beta))|.$$

Here and beyond we simply denote ‘ α, β ’ for ‘ α varying in the power set of $\{1, \dots, d\} \setminus \emptyset$ and β varying in $\{1, \dots, d\}$ ’. Also, comparison operators between two vectors (or between a vector and a real number) are understood component-wise, *i.e.* ‘ $\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{z}$ ’ means ‘ $x_j \leq z_j$ for all $1 \leq j \leq d$ ’ and for any real number T , ‘ $\mathbf{x} \leq T$ ’ means ‘ $x_j \leq T$ for all $1 \leq j \leq d$ ’.

Proposition 1. Let $T \geq \frac{7}{2}(\frac{\log d}{k} + 1)$, and $\delta \geq e^{-k}$. Then there is a universal constant C , such that for each $n > 0$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha,\beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} |g_{n,\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})| &\leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{2T}{k} \log \frac{d+3}{\delta}} \\ &+ \max_{\alpha,\beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha,\beta}(\frac{k}{n}\mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n}\mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right|. \end{aligned} \quad (3.16)$$

The second term on the right hand side of the inequality is an asymptotic bias term which goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (see Remark 9).

The proof follows the same lines as Goix et al. (2015), Theorem 6, and is detailed in Appendix A. The main ideas are as follows. The empirical estimator is based on the empirical measure of ‘extreme’ regions, which are hit only with low probability. It is thus enough to bound maximal deviations on such low probability regions. The key consists in choosing an adaptive VC class which only covers the latter regions (after standardization to uniform margins), namely a VC class composed of sets of the kind $\frac{k}{n}R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1}$. In Goix et al. (2015), VC-type inequalities have been established that incorporate p , the probability of hitting the class at all. Applying these inequalities to the particular class of rectangles gives the result.

3.4 A bound on $|\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)$

The aim of this subsection is to exploit the previously established bound on the deviations on rectangles, to obtain another uniform bound for $|\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)$, for $\epsilon > 0$ and $\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$. In the remainder of the paper, $\bar{\alpha}$ denotes the complementary set of α in $\{1, \dots, d\}$.

Proposition 2. *There is an universal constant $C > 0$ such that for every set of indices $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, $\epsilon > 0$ and $L > 1$ such that $L\epsilon < 1/2$, we have*

$$|\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) \leq 4 \sup_{\epsilon < \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} |\mu_n - \mu|(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \bar{\alpha})) + CMd|\alpha|\epsilon L + \frac{d}{L} + |\mu_n - \mu|([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c).$$

Remark 3. *Note that by Proposition 1 with $T = 1/\epsilon$, we have*

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\epsilon \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} |\mu_n - \mu|(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \bar{\alpha})) &= \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq \epsilon^{-1}} |g_{n, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})| \\ &\leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{1}{\epsilon k} \log \frac{d+3}{\delta}} + \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2\epsilon^{-1}} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}\left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}\right) - g_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Sketch of proof. The general intuition is to restrict our attention to a cube $[0, L]^d$ (since, with Pareto margins, the mass of the complementary set is less than d/L), and then to frame the truncated cone $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \cap [0, L]^d$ between two sets $A_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon$ and $B_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon$ that are both included in $[0, L]^d$, and which can easily be approached by the class $(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}), \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} > \epsilon)$. Thus, these two sets must satisfy $A_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon \subset \mathcal{C}_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon \subset B_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon$ where

$$\mathcal{C}_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon = \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \cap [0, L]^d. \quad (3.17)$$

More precisely, we consider

$$\begin{aligned} A_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon &= \{\mathbf{x}, \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \geq 1, \quad L\epsilon < x_j \leq L \text{ for } j \in \alpha, \quad x_j \leq \epsilon \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\} \\ B_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon &= \{\mathbf{x}, \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \geq 1, \quad \epsilon < x_j \leq L \text{ for } j \in \alpha, \quad x_j \leq L\epsilon \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\}. \end{aligned}$$

Full details concerning the rest of the proof are postponed to Appendix A. \square

3.5 A bound on $|\mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha)|$

In this section, an upper bound on the bias induced by handling ϵ -thickened cones is derived.

Lemma 5. *For every $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$ and $0 < \epsilon < 1/2$, the following identity holds true:*

$$\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon = \bigsqcup_{\beta \supset \alpha} \Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_\beta.$$

In particular, for $\alpha = \{1, \dots, d\}$, $\Omega_{\{1, \dots, d\}}^\epsilon \subset \Omega_{\{1, \dots, d\}}$.

Proof. The $(\Omega_\alpha)_{\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}}$ forming a partition of S_{d-1}^∞ , it suffices to note that, $\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_\beta = \emptyset$ as soon as $\alpha \not\subseteq \beta$. \square

Proposition 3. *For every $\emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$ non empty set of indices and $\epsilon > 0$, we have*

$$|\Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon) - \Phi(\Omega_\alpha)| \leq M|\alpha|^2\epsilon + CMd^2L\epsilon.$$

3.6 Main result

Theorem 1. *Let $\delta \geq e^{-k}$ and $\epsilon > 0$ such that $\epsilon \leq (\frac{7}{2}(\frac{\log d}{k} + 1))^{-1}$. Then there is an universal constant C such that for every $n > 0$, the following inequality holds true with probability greater than $1 - \delta$:*

$$\begin{aligned} \|\widehat{\mathcal{M}} - \mathcal{M}\|_\infty \leq & C \max(M, 1) d \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{\epsilon k} \log \frac{d}{\delta}} + d\sqrt{\epsilon} \right) \\ & + 4 \max_{\substack{\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\} \\ \alpha \neq \emptyset}} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq \frac{2}{\epsilon}} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}\left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}\right) - g_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| \\ & + \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq 2\sqrt{\epsilon}} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}\right) - l(\mathbf{x}) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\frac{7}{2}(\frac{\log d}{k} + 1)$ is smaller than 4 as soon as $\log d/k < 1/7$, so that a sufficient condition on ϵ is $\epsilon < 1/4$. The two last terms in the right hand side form a bias term which goes to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (see Remark 9 for the first one, and eq.(12) in Goix et al. (2015) for the second term).

The proof is based on decomposition (3.5). The first term $\sup_\alpha |\mu_n(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)|$ on the right hand side of (3.5) is bounded using Proposition 2, while Proposition 3 allows to bound the second one (bias term stemming from the tolerance parameter ϵ). Using the main result in Goix et al. (2015), Theorem 6, there is an universal constant C such that with probability greater than $1 - \delta$,

$$|\mu_n - \mu|([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) = |l_n(\mathbf{L}^{-1}) - l(\mathbf{L}^{-1})| \leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{1}{Lk} \log \frac{d+3}{\delta}} + \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq 2/L} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}\right) - l(\mathbf{x}) \right|,$$

where we recall that l is the STDF defined in (3.6) and \tilde{F} is defined in (3.7). Note that the second term on the right hand side of the previous inequality is an asymptotic bias term which goes to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (see eq. (12) in Goix et al. (2015)). Introduce now the notation

$$\text{bias}(\alpha, n, k, \epsilon) = 4 \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq \frac{2}{\epsilon}} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}\left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}\right) - g_{\alpha, \bar{\alpha}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| + \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq 2\sqrt{\epsilon}} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}\left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}\right) - l(\mathbf{x}) \right|. \quad (3.18)$$

Setting $L = \epsilon^{-1/2}$, we obtain, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \emptyset \neq \alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}, \quad |\mu_n(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) - \mu(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)| \leq & Cd \sqrt{\frac{1}{\epsilon k} \log \frac{d+3}{\delta}} + \text{bias}(\alpha, n, k, \epsilon) \\ & + CMd|\alpha|\epsilon L + \frac{d}{L} + Cd \sqrt{\frac{1}{Lk} \log \frac{d+3}{\delta}} \\ & + M|\alpha|^2\epsilon + CMd^2L\epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Replacing L with $\epsilon^{-1/2}$ yields the upper bound stated in Theorem 1, with another universal constant C .

4 Application to Anomaly Detection

4.1 Background on Anomaly Detection

What is Anomaly Detection ? From a machine learning perspective, AD can be considered as a specific classification task, where the usual assumption in supervised learning stipulating that the data-set contains structural information regarding all classes breaks down, see Roberts (1999). This typically happens in the case of two highly unbalanced classes: the normal class is expected to regroup a large majority of the data-set, so that the very small number of points representing the abnormal class does not allow to learn information about this class. *Supervised* AD consists in training the algorithm on a labeled (normal/abnormal) data-set including both normal and abnormal observations. In the *semi-supervised* context, only normal data are available for training. This is the case in applications where normal operations are known but intrusion/attacks/viruses are unknown and should be detected. In the *unsupervised* setup, no assumption is made on the data which consist in unlabeled normal and abnormal instances. In general, a method from the semi-supervised framework may apply to the unsupervised one, as soon as the number of anomalies is sufficiently weak to prevent the algorithm from fitting them when learning the normal behavior. Such a method should be robust to outlying observations.

Extremes and Anomaly detection. As a matter of fact, ‘extreme’ observations are often more susceptible to be anomalies than others. In other words, extremal observations are often at the *border* between normal and abnormal regions and play a very special role in this context. As the number of observations considered as extreme (*e.g.* in a Peak-over-threshold analysis) typically constitute less than one percent of the data, a classical AD algorithm would tend to systematically classify all of them as abnormal: it is not worth the risk (in terms of ROC or precision-recall curve for instance) trying to be more accurate in low probability regions without adapted tools. Also, new observations outside the ‘observed support’ are most often predicted as abnormal. However, false positives (*i.e.* false alarms) are very expensive in many applications (*e.g.* aircraft predictive maintenance). It is thus of primal interest to develop tools increasing the precision on such extremal regions.

Contributions. The algorithm proposed in this paper provides a scoring function which ranks extreme observations according to their supposed degree of abnormality. This method is complementary to other AD algorithms, insofar as two algorithms (that described here, together with any other appropriate AD algorithm) may be trained on the same data-set. Afterwards, the input space may be divided into two regions – an extreme region and non-extreme one – so that a new observation in the central region (*resp.* in the extremal region) would be classified as abnormal or not according to the scoring function issued by the generic algorithm (*resp.* the one presented here). The scope of our algorithm concerns both semi-supervised and unsupervised problems. Undoubtedly, as it consists in learning a ‘normal’ (*i.e.* not abnormal) behavior in extremal regions, it is optimally efficient when trained on ‘normal’ observations only. However it also applies to unsupervised situations. Indeed, it involves a non-parametric but relatively coarse estimation scheme which prevents from over-fitting normal data or fitting anomalies. As a consequence, this method is robust to outliers and also applies when the training data-set contains a (small) proportion of anomalies.

4.2 Algorithm: Detecting Anomalies among Multivariate Extremes (DAMEX)

The purpose of this subsection is to explain the heuristic behind the use of multivariate EVT for anomaly detection, which is in fact a natural way to proceed when trying to describe the dependence structure of extreme regions. The algorithm is thus introduced in an intuitive setup, which matches the theoretical framework and results obtained in sections 2 and 3. The notations are the same as above: $\mathbf{X} = (X^1, \dots, X^d)$ is a random vector in \mathbb{R}^d , with joint (*resp.* marginal) distribution \mathbf{F} (*resp.* F_j , $j = 1, \dots, d$) and $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n \sim \mathbf{F}$ is an *i.i.d.* sample. The first natural step to study the dependence between the margins X^j is to standardize them, and the choice of standard Pareto margins (with *c.d.f.* $x \mapsto 1/x$) is convenient: Consider thus the \mathbf{V}_i 's and $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i$'s as defined in Section 2. One possible strategy to investigate the dependence structure of extreme events is to characterize, for each subset of features $\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, the ‘correlation’ of these features given that one of them at least is large and the others are small. Formally, we associate to each such α a coefficient $\mathcal{M}(\alpha)$ reflecting the degree of dependence between the features α . This coefficient is to be proportional to the expected number of points \mathbf{V}_i above a large radial threshold ($\|\mathbf{V}\|_\infty > r$), verifying V_i^j ‘large’ for $j \in \alpha$, while V_i^j ‘small’ for $j \notin \alpha$. In order to define the notion of ‘large’ and ‘small’, fix a (small) tolerance parameter $0 < \epsilon < 1$. Thus, our focus is on the expected proportion of points ‘above a large radial threshold’ r which belong to the truncated cone $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ defined in (2.13). More precisely, our goal is to estimate the above expected proportion, when the tolerance parameter ϵ goes to 0.

The standard empirical approach –counting the number of points in the regions of interest– leads to estimates $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) = \mu_n(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon)$ (see (3.3)), with μ_n the empirical version of μ defined in (3.2), namely:

$$\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) = \mu_n(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) = \frac{n}{k} \widehat{\mathbb{P}}_n \left(\frac{n}{k} \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \right), \quad (4.1)$$

where we recall that $\widehat{\mathbb{P}}_n = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i}$ is the empirical probability distribution of the rank-transformed data, and $k = k(n) > 0$ is such that $k \rightarrow \infty$ and $k = o(n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The ratio n/k plays the role of a large radial threshold r . From our standardization choice, counting points in $(n/k) \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ boils down to selecting, for each feature $j \leq d$, the ‘ k largest values’ X_i^j among n observations. According to the nature of the extremal dependence, a number between k and dk of observations are selected: k in case of perfect dependence, dk in case of ‘independence’, which means, in the EVT framework, that the components may only be large one at a time. In any case, the number of observations considered as extreme is proportional to k , whence the normalizing factor $\frac{n}{k}$.

The coefficients $(\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha))_{\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}}$ associated with the cones \mathcal{C}_α constitute our representation of the dependence structure. This representation is sparse as soon as the $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ are positive only for a few groups of features α (compared with the total number of groups, or sub-cones, $2^d - 1$). It is low-dimensional as soon as each of these groups has moderate cardinality $|\alpha|$, *i.e.* as soon as the sub-cones with positive $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ are low-dimensional relatively to d .

In fact, up to a normalizing constant, $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ is an empirical version of the probability for $T(\mathbf{X})$ to belong to the cone \mathcal{C}_α , conditionally upon exceeding a large threshold. Indeed, for r, n and k sufficiently large, we have (Remark 1 and (3.4), reminding that $\mathbf{V} = T(\mathbf{X})$)

$$\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) \simeq \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \in \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \mid \|T(\mathbf{X})\| \geq r).$$

Introduce an ‘angular scoring function’

$$w_n(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\alpha} \widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) \mathbb{1}_{\{\widehat{T}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{C}_{\alpha}^{\epsilon}\}}. \quad (4.2)$$

For each fixed (new observation) \mathbf{x} , $w_n(\mathbf{x})$ approaches the probability that the random variable \mathbf{X} belongs to the same cone as \mathbf{x} in the transformed space. In short, $w_n(\mathbf{x})$ is an empirical version of the probability that \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{x} have approximately the same ‘direction’. For AD, the degree of ‘abnormality’ of the new observation \mathbf{x} should be related both to $w_n(\mathbf{x})$ and to the uniform norm $\|\widehat{T}(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty}$ (angular and radial components). More precisely, for \mathbf{x} fixed such that $T(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{C}_{\alpha}^{\epsilon}$, Consider the ‘directional tail region’ induced by \mathbf{x} , $A_{\mathbf{x}} = \{\mathbf{y} : T(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{C}_{\alpha}^{\epsilon}, \|T(\mathbf{y})\|_{\infty} \geq \|T(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty}\}$. Then, if $\|T(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty}$ is large enough, we have (using (2.6)) that

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in A_{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V} \in \|T(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty} \mathcal{C}_{\alpha}^{\epsilon}) \simeq \|T(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty}^{-1} \mu(\mathcal{C}_{\alpha}^{\epsilon}) \simeq \|\widehat{T}(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty}^{-1} \widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) = \|\widehat{T}(\mathbf{x})\|_{\infty}^{-1} w_n(\mathbf{x}).$$

This yields the scoring function

$$s_n(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{w_n(\mathbf{x})}{\|\widehat{T}(\mathbf{X})\|_{\infty}}, \quad (4.3)$$

which is thus an empirical version of $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in A_{\mathbf{x}})$: the smaller $s_n(\mathbf{x})$, the more abnormal the point \mathbf{x} should be considered. As an illustrative example, Figure 3 displays the level sets of this scoring function, both in the transformed and the non-transformed input space, in the 2D situation. The data are simulated under a 2D logistic distribution with asymmetric parameters.

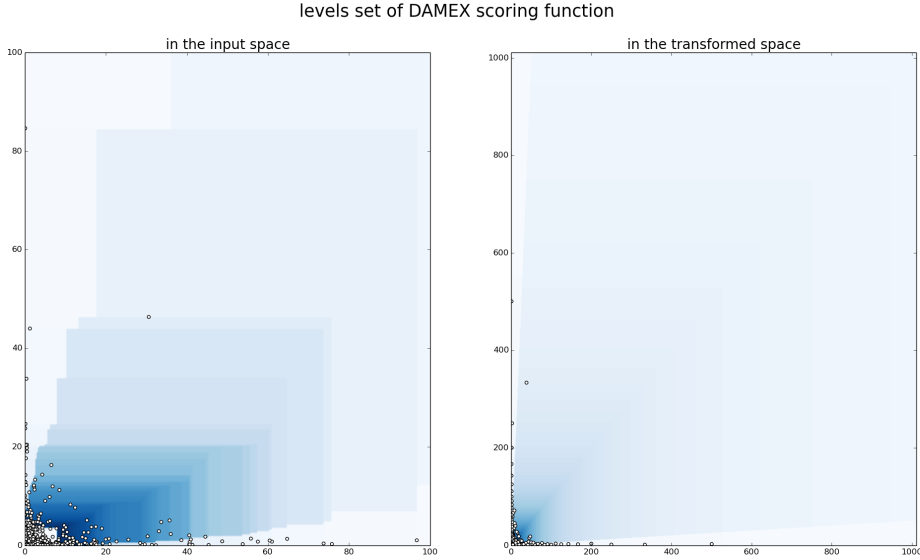


Figure 3: Level sets of s_n on simulated 2D data

This heuristic argument explains the following algorithm, referred to as *Detecting Anomaly with Multivariate EXtremes* (DAMEX in abbreviated form). The complexity is in $O(dn \log n + dn) = O(dn \log n)$, where the first term on the left-hand-side comes from computing the $\widehat{F}_j(X_i^j)$ (Step 1) by sorting the data (*e.g.* merge sort). The second one comes from Step 2.

Algorithm 1. (DAMEX)**Input:** parameters $\epsilon > 0$, $k = k(n)$, $\mu_{\min} \geq 0$.

1. Standardize via marginal rank-transformation: $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i := (1/(1 - \widehat{F}_j(X_i^j)))_{j=1, \dots, d}$.
2. Assign to each $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_i$ the cone $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon$ it belongs to.
3. Compute $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ from (4.1) \rightarrow yields: (small number of) cones with non-zero mass
4. Set to 0 the $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ below some small threshold $\mu_{\min} \geq 0$ to eliminate cones with negligible mass \rightarrow yields: (sparse) representation of the dependence structure

$$(\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha))_{\alpha \subset \{1, \dots, d\}, \widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) > \mu_{\min}} \quad (4.4)$$

Output: Compute the scoring function given by (4.3),

$$s_n(\mathbf{x}) := (1/\|\widehat{T}(\mathbf{x})\|_\infty) \sum_{\alpha} \widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha) \mathbb{1}_{\widehat{T}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon}.$$

Remark 4. (INTERPRETATION OF THE PARAMETERS) In view of (4.1), n/k is the threshold above which the data are considered as extreme and k is proportional to the number of such data, a common approach in multivariate extremes. The tolerance parameter ϵ accounts for the non-asymptotic nature of data. The smaller k , the smaller ϵ shall be chosen. The additional angular mass threshold μ_{\min} acts as an additional sparsity inducing parameter. Note that even without this additional step (i.e. setting $\mu_{\min} = 0$, the obtained representation for real-world data (see Table 2) is already sparse (the number of charges cones is significantly less than 2^d). For the sake of simplicity, the present paper does not investigate the bias induced by μ_{\min} from a theoretical point of view (the main focus here is on the role of ϵ). However, experiments on AD data-sets show an improved performance when introducing this additional parameter.

Remark 5. (CHOICE OF PARAMETERS) A standard choice of parameters $(\epsilon, k, \mu_{\min})$ is respectively $(0.01, n^{1/2}, 0.1 * \mu_{\text{average}})$, where $\mu_{\text{average}} = \mu_{\text{total}}/(\#\text{charged sub-cones})$ is the averaged mass of the non-empty sub-cones. However, there is no simple manner to choose optimally these parameters, as there is no simple way to determine how fast is the convergence to the (asymptotic) extreme behavior –namely how far in the tail appears the asymptotic dependence structure. Indeed, even though the first term of the error bound in Theorem 1 is proportional, up to re-scaling, to $\sqrt{\frac{1}{\epsilon k}} + \sqrt{\epsilon}$, which suggests choosing ϵ of order $k^{-1/4}$, the unknown bias term perturbs the analysis and in practice, one obtains better results with the values above mentioned. In a supervised or semi-supervised framework (or if a small labeled data-set is available) these three parameters should be chosen by cross-validation. In the unsupervised situation, a classical heuristic (Coles (2001)) is to choose (k, ϵ) in a stability region of the algorithm’s output: the largest k (resp. the larger ϵ) such that when decreased, the dependence structure remains stable. This amounts to selecting as many data as possible as being extreme (resp. in low dimensional regions), within a stability domain of the estimates, which exists under the primal assumption (2.1) and in view of Lemma 1.

Remark 6. (DIMENSION REDUCTION) If the extreme dependence structure is low dimensional, namely concentrated on low dimensional cones \mathcal{C}_α – or in other terms if only a limited number of

margins can be large together – then most of the \widehat{V}_i 's will be concentrated on C_α^ε 's such that $|\alpha|$ (the dimension of the cone C_α) is small; then the representation of the dependence structure in (4.4) is both sparse and low dimensional.

5 Experimental results

5.1 Recovering the support of the dependence structure of generated data

Data-sets of size 50000 (resp. 100000, 150000) are generated in \mathbb{R}^{10} according to a popular multivariate extreme value model, introduced by Tawn (1990), namely a multivariate asymmetric logistic distribution (G_{log}). The data have the following features: (i) They resemble ‘real life’ data, that is, the X_i^j 's are non zero and the transformed \widehat{V}_i 's belong to the interior cone $\mathcal{C}_{\{1,\dots,d\}}$ (ii) The associated (asymptotic) exponent measure concentrates on K disjoint cones $\{C_{\alpha_m}, 1 \leq m \leq K\}$. For the sake of reproducibility, $G_{log}(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\{-\sum_{m=1}^K (\sum_{j \in \alpha_m} (|A(j)|x_j)^{-1/w_{\alpha_m}})^{w_{\alpha_m}}\}$, where $|A(j)|$ is the cardinal of the set $\{\alpha \in D : j \in \alpha\}$ and where $w_{\alpha_m} = 0.1$ is a dependence parameter (strong dependence). The data are simulated using Algorithm 2.2 in Stephenson (2003). The subset of sub-cones D charged by μ is randomly chosen (for each fixed number of sub-cones K) and the purpose is to recover D by Algorithm 1. For each K , 100 experiments are made and we consider the number of ‘errors’, that is, the number of non-recovered or false-discovered sub-cones. Table 1 shows the averaged numbers of errors among the 100 experiments. The results are very promising

# sub-cones K	3	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50
Aver. # errors (n=5e4)	0.07	0.00	0.01	0.09	0.39	1.12	1.82	3.59	6.59	8.06	11.21
Aver. # errors (n=10e4)	0.05	0.00	0.03	0.1	0.2	0.61	1.5	2.53	4.28	5.73	8.11
Aver. # errors (n=15e4)	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.02	0.14	0.39	0.98	1.85	3.1	5.02	6.93

Table 1: Support recovering on simulated data

in situations where the number of sub-cones is moderate *w.r.t.* the number of observations.

5.2 Sparse structure of extremes (wave data)

Our goal is here to verify that the two expected phenomena mentioned in the introduction, **1-** sparse dependence structure of extremes (small number of sub-cones with non zero mass), **2-** low dimension of the sub-cones with non-zero mass, do occur with real data. We consider wave directions data provided by Shell, which consist of 58585 measurements D_i , $i \leq 58595$ of wave directions between 0° and 360° at 50 different locations (buoys in North sea). The dimension is thus 50. The angle 90° being fairly rare, we work with data obtained as $X_i^j = 1/(10^{-10} + |90 - D_i^j|)$, where D_i^j is the wave direction at buoy j , time i . Thus, D_i^j 's close to 90 correspond to extreme X_i^j 's. Results in Table 2 (μ_{total} denotes the total probability mass of μ) show that the number of sub-cones C_α identified by Algorithm 1 is indeed small compared to the total number of sub-cones ($2^{50}-1$). (Phenomenon **1** in

the introduction section). Further, the dimension of those sub-cones is essentially moderate (Phenomenon 2): respectively 93%, 98.6% and 99.6% of the mass is affected to sub-cones of dimension no greater than 10, 15 and 20 respectively (to be compared with $d = 50$). Histograms displaying the mass repartition produced by Algorithm 1 are given in Fig. 4.

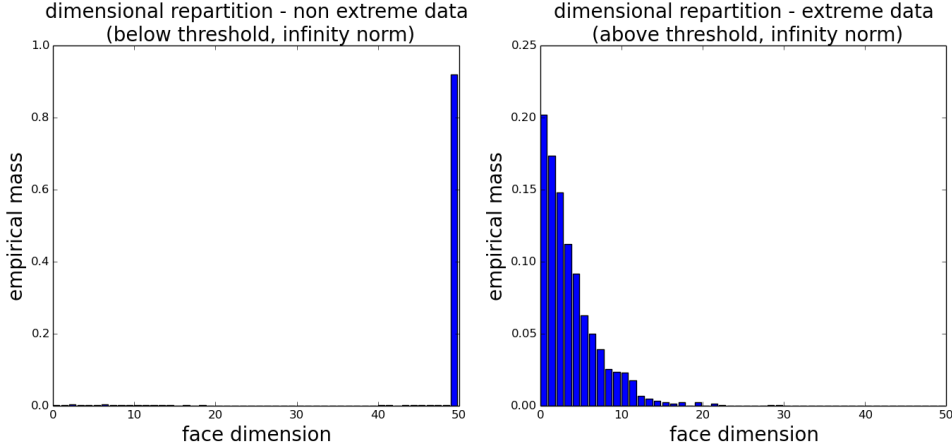


Figure 4: sub-cone dimensions of wave data

	non-extreme data	extreme data
nb of sub-cones with positive mass ($\mu_{\min}/\mu_{total} = 0$)	3413	858
idem after thresholding ($\mu_{\min}/\mu_{total} = 0.002$)	2	64
idem after thresholding ($\mu_{\min}/\mu_{total} = 0.005$)	1	18

Table 2: Total number of sub-cones of wave data

5.3 Application to Anomaly Detection on real-world data sets

The main purpose of Algorithm 1 is to build a ‘normal profile’ for extreme data, so as to distinguish between normal and ab-normal extremes. In this section we evaluate its performance and compare it with that of a standard AD algorithm, the Isolation Forest (iForest) algorithm, which we chose in view of its established high performance (Liu et al. (2008)). The two algorithms are trained and tested on the same data-sets, the test set being restricted to an extreme region R . Five reference AD data-sets are considered: *shuttle*, *forestcover*, *http*, *SF* and *SA*. The experiments are performed in a semi-supervised framework (the training set consists of normal data).

The *shuttle* data-set is the fusion of the training and testing data-sets available in the UCI repository Lichman (2013). The data have 9 numerical attributes, the first one being time. Labels from 7 different classes are also available. Class 1 instances are considered as normal, the others as anomalies. We use instances from all different classes but class 4, which yields an anomaly ratio (class 1) of 7.17%.

In the *forestcover* data, also available at UCI repository (Lichman (2013)), the normal data are the instances from class 2 while instances from class 4 are anomalies, other classes are omitted, so that the anomaly ratio for this data-set is 0.9%.

The last three data-sets belong to the KDD Cup '99 data-set (KDDCup (1999), Tavallae et al. (2009)), produced by processing the tcpdump portions of the 1998 DARPA Intrusion Detection System (IDS) Evaluation data-set, created by MIT Lincoln Lab Lippmann et al. (2000). The artificial data was generated using a closed network and a wide variety of hand-injected attacks (anomalies) to produce a large number of different types of attack with normal activity in the background. Since the original demonstrative purpose of the data-set concerns supervised AD, the anomaly rate is very high (80%), which is unrealistic in practice, and inappropriate for evaluating the performance on realistic data. We thus take standard pre-processing steps in order to work with smaller anomaly rates. For data-sets *SF* and *http* we proceed as described in Yamanishi et al. (2000): *SF* is obtained by picking up the data with positive logged-in attribute, and focusing on the intrusion attack, which gives an anomaly proportion of 0.48%. The data-set *http* is a subset of *SF* corresponding to a third feature equal to 'http'. Finally, the *SA* data-set is obtained as in Eskin et al. (2002) by selecting all the normal data, together with a small proportion (1%) of anomalies.

Table 3 summarizes the characteristics of these data-sets. The parameter μ_{\min} is fixed to $0.1 * \mu_{\text{total}} / (\# \text{charged sub-cones})$, the averaged mass of the non-empty sub-cones, while the parameters (k, ϵ) are standardly chosen as $(n^{1/2}, 0.01)$. The extreme region on which the evaluation step is performed is chosen as $R = \{\mathbf{x} : \|T(\mathbf{x})\| > \sqrt{n}\}$, where n is the training set's sample size. The ROC and PR curves are computed using only observations in the extreme region R . This provides a precise evaluation of the two AD methods on extreme data. For each of them, 20 experiments on random training and testing data-sets are performed, yielding averaged ROC and Precision-Recall curves whose AUC are presented in Table 4. DAMEX significantly improves the performance (both in term of precision and of ROC curves) in extreme regions for each data-set, excepting for *SA*: on this data-set, DAMEX has lower performance than iForest. Its ROC curve has a slow slope at the origin (Fig. 5), which reflects a lack of precision when assigning high abnormal scores. This may be explained either by the fact that anomalies belong to some low dimensional faces for which the estimate $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(\alpha)$ is too biased by the tolerance parameter ϵ , or by the simple fact that the asymptotic dependence structure has not quite been reached at this level $k = n^{1/2}$. In order to reduce the bias induced by ϵ in this case, the same experiments were repeated with smaller values $\epsilon = 0.001$ and $\epsilon = 0.0001$. While Fig. 5 displays the ROC and PR curves for the standard parameter $\epsilon = 0.01$, Fig. 6 (resp. Fig. 7) shows the same curves obtained with $\epsilon = 0.001$ (resp. $\epsilon = 0.0001$). For this data-set, decreasing ϵ clearly improves the performance on regions where the abnormality score is large (near the origin on the ROC and Precision/Recall plots). The averaged ROC curves and PR curves for the other data-sets are gathered in Appendix B.

	shuttle	forestcover	SA	SF	http	smtp
Samples total	85849	286048	976158	699691	619052	95373
Number of features	9	54	41	4	3	3
Percentage of anomalies	7.17	0.96	0.35	0.48	0.39	0.03

Table 3: Data-sets characteristics

Data-set	iForest		DAMEX	
	AUC ROC	AUC PR	AUC ROC	AUC PR
shuttle	0.966	0.990	0.980	0.995
forestcover	0.694	0.230	0.904	0.634
http	0.570	0.327	0.992	0.993
SF	0.139	0.187	0.956	0.895
SA	0.932	0.650	0.931	0.505

Table 4: Results on extreme regions

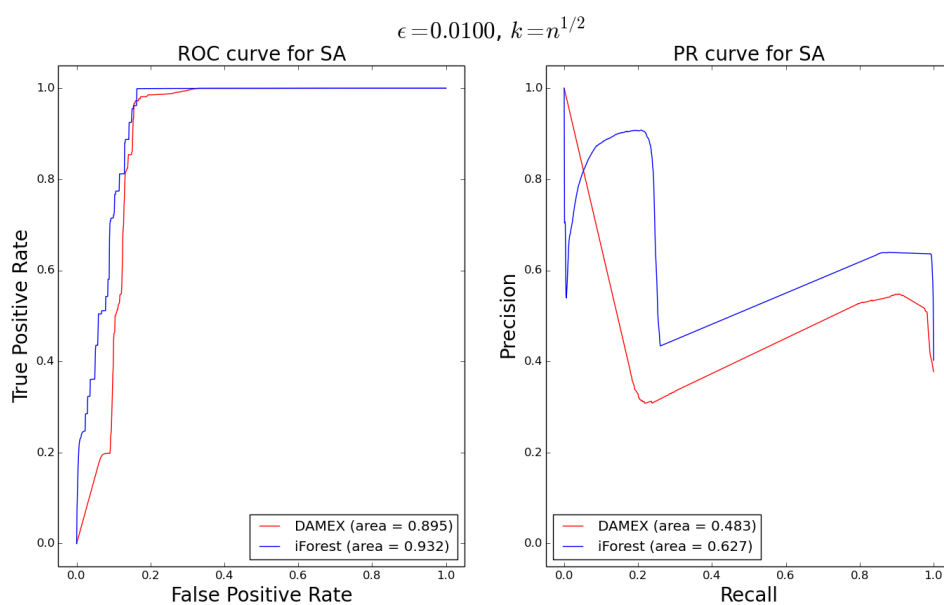


Figure 5: SA data-set, semi-supervised AD

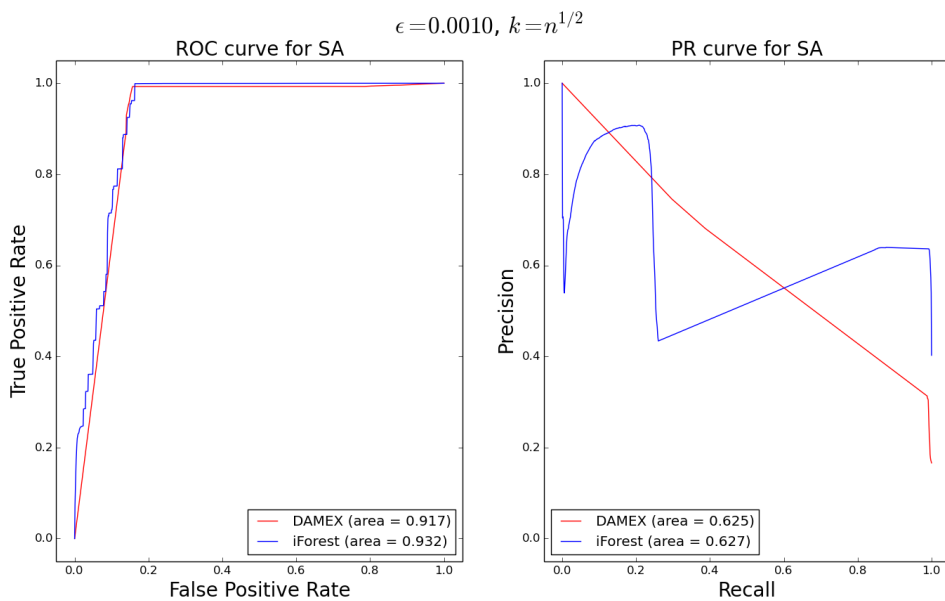


Figure 6: SA data-set, semi-supervised AD

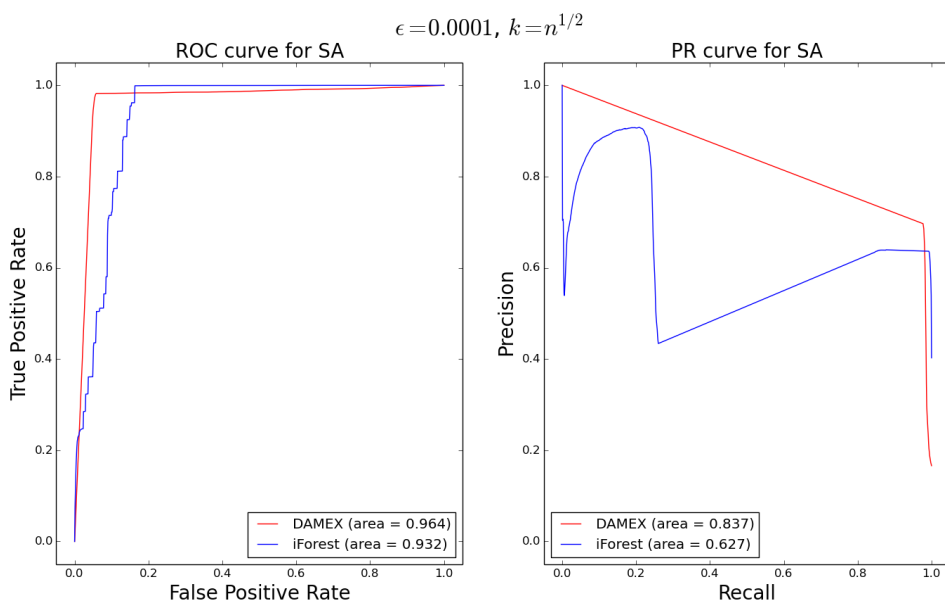


Figure 7: SA data-set, semi-supervised AD

Considering the significant performance improvements on extreme data, DAMEX may be combined with any standard AD algorithm to handle extreme *and* non-extreme data. This would improve the *global* performance of the chosen standard algorithm, and in particular decrease the false alarm rate (increase the slope of the ROC curve at the origin). This combination can be done as

illustrated in Fig. 8 by splitting the input space between an extreme region and a non-extreme one, then using Algorithm 1 to treat new observations that appear in the extreme region, and the standard algorithm to treat the ones which appear in the non-extreme region.

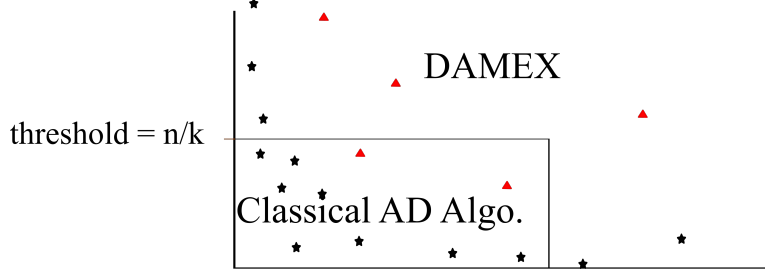


Figure 8: Combination of any AD algorithm with DAMEX

6 Conclusion

The contribution of this work is twofold. First, it brings advances in multivariate EVT by designing a statistical method that possibly exhibits a sparsity pattern in the dependence structure of extremes, while deriving non-asymptotic bounds to assess the accuracy of the estimation procedure. Our method is intended to be used as a preprocessing step to scale up multivariate extreme values modeling to high dimensional settings, which is currently one of the major challenges in multivariate EVT. Since the asymptotic bias ($\text{bias}(\alpha, n, k, \epsilon)$ in eq. (3.18)) appears as a separate term in the bound established, no second order assumption is required. One possible line of further research would be to make such an assumption (*i.e.* to assume that the bias itself is regularly varying), in order to choose ϵ adaptively *w.r.t.* k and n (see Remark 5). This might also open up the possibility of de-biasing the estimation procedure (Fougeres et al. (2015), Beirlant et al. (2015)). As a second contribution, this work extends the applicability of multivariate EVT to the field of anomaly detection: a multivariate EVT-based algorithm which scores extreme observations according to their degree of abnormality is proposed. Due to its moderate complexity –of order $dn \log n$ – this algorithm is suitable for the treatment of real word large-scale learning problems, and experimental results reveal a significantly increased performance on extreme regions compared with standard AD approaches.

A Technical proofs

A.1 Proof of Lemma 3

For n vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ in \mathbb{R}^d , let us denote by $\text{rank}(v_i^j)$ the rank of v_i^j among v_1^j, \dots, v_n^j , that is $\text{rank}(v_i^j) = \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{v_k^j \leq v_i^j\}}$, so that $\hat{F}_j(X_i^j) = \frac{\text{rank}(X_i^j) - 1}{n}$. For the first equivalence, notice that

$\hat{V}_i^j = 1/\hat{U}_i^j$. For the others, we both have:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{V}_i^j \geq \frac{n}{k}x_j &\Leftrightarrow 1 - \frac{\text{rank}(X_i^j) - 1}{n} \leq \frac{k}{n}x_j^{-1} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(X_i^j) \geq n - kx_j^{-1} + 1 \\ &\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(X_i^j) \geq n - \lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor + 1 \\ &\Leftrightarrow X_i^j \geq X_{(n - \lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor + 1)},\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}X_i^j \geq X_{(n - \lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor + 1)}^j &\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(X_i^j) \geq n - \lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor + 1 \\ &\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(F_j(X_i^j)) \geq n - \lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor + 1 \quad (\text{with probability one}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(1 - F_j(X_i^j)) \leq \lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor \\ &\Leftrightarrow U_i^j \leq U_{(\lfloor kx_j^{-1} \rfloor)}^j.\end{aligned}$$

A.2 Proof of Lemma 4

First, remind that (see (3.13)), $g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \mu(R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta))$. Denote by π the transformation to pseudo-polar coordinates introduced in Section 2,

$$\begin{aligned}\pi : [0, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} &\rightarrow (0, \infty] \times S_{\infty}^{d-1} \\ \mathbf{v} &\mapsto (r, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = (\|\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty}, \|\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty}^{-1}\mathbf{v}).\end{aligned}$$

Then, we have $d(\mu \circ \pi^{-1}) = \frac{dr}{r^2} d\Phi$ on $(0, \infty] \times S_{\infty}^{d-1}$. This classical result from EVT comes from the fact that, for $r_0 > 0$ and $B \subset S_{\infty}^{d-1}$, $\mu \circ \pi^{-1}\{r \geq r_0, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in B\} = r_0^{-1}\phi(B)$, see (2.6). Then

$$\begin{aligned}g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) &= \mu \circ \pi^{-1}\left\{(r, \boldsymbol{\theta}) : \forall i \in \alpha, r\theta_i \geq x_i^{-1}; \quad \forall j \in \beta, r\theta_j < z_j^{-1}\right\} \\ &= \mu \circ \pi^{-1}\left\{(r, \boldsymbol{\theta}) : r \geq \bigvee_{i \in \alpha} (\theta_i x_i)^{-1}; \quad r < \bigwedge_{j \in \beta} (\theta_j z_j)^{-1}\right\} \\ &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in S_{\infty}^{d-1}} \int_{r > 0} \mathbb{1}_{r \geq \bigvee_{i \in \alpha} (\theta_i x_i)^{-1}} \mathbb{1}_{r < \bigwedge_{j \in \beta} (\theta_j z_j)^{-1}} \frac{dr}{r^2} d\Phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in S_{\infty}^{d-1}} \left(\left(\bigvee_{i \in \alpha} (\theta_i x_i)^{-1} \right)^{-1} - \left(\bigwedge_{j \in \beta} (\theta_j z_j)^{-1} \right)^{-1} \right)_+ d\Phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in S_{\infty}^{d-1}} \left(\bigwedge_{i \in \alpha} \theta_i x_i - \bigwedge_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z_j \right)_+ d\Phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}),\end{aligned}$$

which proves the first assertion. To prove the Lipschitz property, notice first that, for any finite sequence of real numbers c and d , $\max_i c_i - \max_i d_i \leq \max_i (c_i - d_i)$ and $\min_i c_i - \min_i d_i \leq$

$\max_i(c_i - d_i)$. Thus for every $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in [0, \infty]^d \setminus \{\infty\}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left(\bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} \theta_j x_j - \bigvee_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z_j \right) - \left(\bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} \theta_j x'_j - \bigvee_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z'_j \right) \\
& \leq \left[\left(\bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} \theta_j x_j - \bigvee_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z_j \right) - \left(\bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} \theta_j x'_j - \bigvee_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z'_j \right) \right]_+ \\
& \leq \left[\bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} \theta_j x_j - \bigwedge_{j \in \alpha} \theta_j x'_j + \bigvee_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z'_j - \bigvee_{j \in \beta} \theta_j z_j \right]_+ \\
& \leq \left[\max_{j \in \alpha} (\theta_j x_j - \theta_j x'_j) + \max_{j \in \beta} (\theta_j z'_j - \theta_j z_j) \right]_+ \tag{A.1} \\
& \leq \max_{j \in \alpha} |x_j - x'_j| + \max_{j \in \beta} |z'_j - z_j|. \tag{A.2}
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
|g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{z}')| & \leq \int_{S_{\infty}^{d-1}} \left(\max_{j \in \alpha} |\theta_j x_j - \theta_j x'_j| + \max_{j \in \beta} |\theta_j z'_j - \theta_j z_j| \right) d\Phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}). \\
& = \left(\max_{j \in \alpha} |x_j - x'_j| + \max_{j \in \beta} |z'_j - z_j| \right) \int_{S_{\infty}^{d-1}} \theta_j d\Phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}).
\end{aligned}$$

Now, following the same reasoning as that leading to (A.1), one obtains that $\mu\{\mathbf{v} : v_j \geq 1\} = \int_{S_{\infty}^{d-1}} \theta_j d\Phi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. Since our marginal standardization choice implies $\mu\{\mathbf{v} : v_j \geq 1\} = 1$, we get that

$$|g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{z}')| \leq \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_{\infty} + \|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}'\|_{\infty} \leq \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_1 + \|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}'\|_1.$$

A.3 Proof of Proposition 1

The starting point is bound (9) on p.7 in Goix et al. (2015): Consider a random vector $\mathbf{Z} = (Z^1, \dots, Z^d)$ with uniform margins on $[0, 1]$, and the measures $C_n(\cdot) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{Z}_i \in \cdot\}}$ (the \mathbf{Z}_i 's are *i.i.d.* realizations of \mathbf{Z}) and $C(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z} \in \cdot)$. Then for any real number $\delta \geq e^{-k}$, with probability greater than $1 - \delta$,

$$\sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq T} \frac{n}{k} \left| C_n\left(\frac{k}{n}[\mathbf{x}, \infty[^c] - C\left(\frac{k}{n}[\mathbf{x}, \infty[^c]\right) \right| \leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}. \tag{A.3}$$

Recall that with the above notations, $0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq T$ means $0 \leq x_j \leq T$ for every j . The proof of Proposition 1 follows the same lines as in Goix et al. (2015). The cornerstone concentration inequality (A.3) has to be replaced with

$$\begin{aligned}
\max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{\substack{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T \\ \exists j \in \alpha, x_j \leq T'}} \frac{n}{k} \left| C_n \left(\frac{k}{n} R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1} \right) - C \left(\frac{k}{n} R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1} \right) \right| \tag{A.4} \\
\leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{dT'}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Remark 7. Inequality (A.4) is here written in its full generality, namely with a separate constant T' possibly smaller than T . If $T' < T$, we then have a smaller bound (typically, we may use $T = 1/\epsilon$ and $T' = 1$). However, we only use (A.4) with $T = T'$ in the analysis below, since the smaller bounds in T' obtained (on $\Lambda(n)$ in (A.7)) would be diluted (by $\Upsilon(n)$ in (A.7)).

Proof of (A.4). Recall that for notational convenience we write ‘ α, β ’ for ‘ α varying in $\{1, \dots, d\} \setminus \emptyset$ and β varying in $\{1, \dots, d\}$ ’. The key is to apply Theorem 1 in Goix et al. (2015), with a VC-class which fits our purposes. Namely, consider

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_{T, T'} = \bigcup_{\alpha, \beta} \mathcal{A}_{T, T', \alpha, \beta}$$

$$\text{with } \mathcal{A}_{T, T', \alpha, \beta} = \frac{k}{n} \left\{ R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1} : \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d, 0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T, \exists j \in \alpha, x_j \leq T' \right\},$$

for $T, T' > 0$ and $\alpha, \beta \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, $\alpha \neq \emptyset$. \mathcal{A} has VC-dimension $V_{\mathcal{A}} = d$, as the one considered in Goix et al. (2015). Recall in view of (3.10) that

$$\begin{aligned} R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1} &= \left\{ \mathbf{y} \in [0, \infty]^d, y_j \leq x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha, z_j < y_j \text{ for } j \in \beta \right\} \\ &= [\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}], \end{aligned}$$

with \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} defined by $a_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } j \in \alpha \\ z_j & \text{for } j \in \beta \end{cases}$ and $b_j = \begin{cases} x_j & \text{for } j \in \alpha \\ \infty & \text{for } j \in \beta \end{cases}$. Since we have $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}, A \subset [\frac{k}{n}\mathbf{T}', \infty[^c$, the probability for a r.v. \mathbf{Z} with uniform margins in $[0, 1]$ to be in the union class $\mathbb{A} = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ is $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{A}) \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z} \in [\frac{k}{n}\mathbf{T}', \infty[^c) \leq \sum_{j=1}^d \mathbb{P}(Z^j \leq \frac{k}{n}T') \leq \frac{k}{n}dT'$. Inequality (A.4) is thus a direct consequence of Theorem 1 in Goix et al. (2015). \square

Define now the empirical version $\tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}$ of $\tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}$ (introduced in (3.12)) as

$$\tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_i^j \leq x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha \text{ and } U_i^j > z_j \text{ for } j \in \beta\}}, \quad (\text{A.5})$$

so that $\frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}(\frac{k}{n}\mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n}\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_i^j \leq \frac{k}{n}x_j \text{ for } j \in \alpha \text{ and } \frac{k}{n}z_j < U_i^j \text{ for } j \in \beta\}}$. Notice that the U_i^j 's are not observable (since F_j is unknown). In fact, $\tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}$ will be used as a substitute for $g_{n, \alpha, \beta}$ (defined in (3.14)) allowing to handle uniform variables. The following lemmas illustrate that point.

Lemma 6 (Link between $g_{n, \alpha, \beta}$ and $\tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}$). *The empirical version of $\tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}$ and that of $g_{\alpha, \beta}$ are related via*

$$g_{n, \alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right),$$

Proof. Considering the definition in (A.5) and (3.15), both sides are equal to $\mu_n(R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta))$. \square

Lemma 7 (Uniform bound on $\tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}$'s deviations). *For any finite $T > 0$, and $\delta \geq e^{-k}$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$, the deviation of $\tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta}$ from $\tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}$ is uniformly bounded:*

$$\max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta} \left(\frac{k}{n}\mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n}\mathbf{z} \right) - \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta} \left(\frac{k}{n}\mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n}\mathbf{z} \right) \right| \leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}.$$

Proof. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n,\alpha,\beta} \left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z} \right) - \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha,\beta} \left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z} \right) \right| \\ &= \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \frac{n}{k} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\mathbf{U}_i \in \frac{k}{n} R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1}} - \mathbb{P} \left[\mathbf{U} \in \frac{k}{n} R(\mathbf{x}^{-1}, \mathbf{z}^{-1}, \alpha, \beta)^{-1} \right] \right|, \end{aligned}$$

and apply inequality (A.4) with $T' = T$. \square

Remark 8. Note that the following stronger inequality holds true, when using (A.4) in full generality, i.e. with $T' < T$. For any finite $T, T' > 0$, and $\delta \geq e^{-k}$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{\substack{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T \\ \exists j \in \alpha, x_j \leq T'}} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n,\alpha,\beta} \left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z} \right) - \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha,\beta} \left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z} \right) \right| \leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{T'}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}.$$

The following lemma is stated and proved in Goix et al. (2015).

Lemma 8 (Bound on the order statistics of \mathbf{U}). *Let $\delta \geq e^{-k}$. For any finite positive number $T > 0$ such that $T \geq 7/2((\log d)/k + 1)$, we have with probability greater than $1 - \delta$,*

$$\forall 1 \leq j \leq d, \quad \frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kT \rfloor)}^j \leq 2T, \quad (\text{A.6})$$

and with probability greater than $1 - (d+1)\delta$,

$$\max_{1 \leq j \leq d} \sup_{0 \leq x_j \leq T} \left| \frac{\lfloor kx_j \rfloor}{k} - \frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right| \leq C \sqrt{\frac{T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}.$$

We may now proceed with the proof of Proposition 1. Using Lemma 6, we may write:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} |g_{n,\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})| \\ &= \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n,\alpha,\beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) - g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| \\ &\leq \Lambda(n) + \Xi(n) + \Upsilon(n). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

with:

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(n) &= \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n,\alpha,\beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha,\beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right| \\ \Xi(n) &= \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha,\beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - g_{\alpha,\beta} \left(\left(\frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(\frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right| \\ \Upsilon(n) &= \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| g_{\alpha,\beta} \left(\left(\frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(\frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) - g_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Now, considering (A.6) we have with probability greater than $1 - \delta$ that for every $1 \leq j \leq d$, $U_{(\lfloor kT \rfloor)}^j \leq 2T \frac{k}{n}$, so that

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(n) &\leq \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta} \left(\left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right| \\ &\leq \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{n, \alpha, \beta} \left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z} \right) - \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta} \left(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z} \right) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Thus by Lemma 7, with probability at least $1 - 2\delta$,

$$\Lambda(n) \leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{2T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}.$$

Concerning $\Upsilon(n)$, we have the following decomposition:

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon(n) &\leq \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| g_{\alpha, \beta} \left(\frac{n}{k} \left(U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \frac{n}{k} \left(U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - g_{\alpha, \beta} \left(\left(\frac{\lfloor kx_j \rfloor}{k} \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(\frac{\lfloor kz_j \rfloor}{k} \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) \right| \\ &\quad + \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \left| g_{\alpha, \beta} \left(\left(\frac{\lfloor kx_j \rfloor}{k} \right)_{j \in \alpha}, \left(\frac{\lfloor kz_j \rfloor}{k} \right)_{j \in \beta} \right) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| \\ &=: \Upsilon_1(n) + \Upsilon_2(n). \end{aligned}$$

The inequality in Lemma 4 allows us to bound the first term $\Upsilon_1(n)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon_1(n) &\leq \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} \sum_{j \in \alpha} \left| \frac{\lfloor kx_j \rfloor}{k} - \frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right| + \sum_{j \in \beta} \left| \frac{\lfloor kz_j \rfloor}{k} - \frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kz_j \rfloor)}^j \right| \\ &\leq 2 \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq T} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq d} \left| \frac{\lfloor kx_j \rfloor}{k} - \frac{n}{k} U_{(\lfloor kx_j \rfloor)}^j \right| \end{aligned}$$

so that by Lemma 8, with probability greater than $1 - (d+1)\delta$:

$$\Upsilon_1(n) \leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{2T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}}.$$

Similarly,

$$\Upsilon_2(n) \leq 2 \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x} \leq T} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq d} \left| \frac{\lfloor kx_j \rfloor}{k} - x_j \right| \leq \frac{2d}{k}.$$

Finally we get, for every $n > 0$, with probability at least $1 - (d + 3)\delta$,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq T} |g_{n, \alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})| &\leq \Lambda(n) + \Upsilon_1(n) + \Upsilon_2(n) + \Xi(n) \\ &\leq Cd \sqrt{\frac{2T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}} + \frac{2d}{k} + \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| \\ &\leq C'd \sqrt{\frac{2T}{k} \log \frac{1}{\delta}} + \max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Remark 9. (BIAS TERM) It is classical (see Qi (1997) p.174 for details) to extend the simple convergence (3.11) to the uniform one on $[0, T]^d$. It suffices to subdivide $[0, T]^d$ and to use the monotonicity in each dimension coordinate of $g_{\alpha, \beta}$ and $\tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}$. Thus,

$$\sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| \rightarrow 0$$

for every α and β . Note also that by taking a maximum on a finite class we have the convergence of the maximum uniform bias to 0:

$$\max_{\alpha, \beta} \sup_{0 \leq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \leq 2T} \left| \frac{n}{k} \tilde{F}_{\alpha, \beta}(\frac{k}{n} \mathbf{x}, \frac{k}{n} \mathbf{z}) - g_{\alpha, \beta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right| \rightarrow 0. \quad (\text{A.8})$$

A.4 Proof of Proposition 2

Recall that $L\epsilon < 1$ and the definitions of the sets

$$A_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon = \{\mathbf{x}, \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \geq 1, L\epsilon < x_j \leq L \text{ for } j \in \alpha, x_j \leq \epsilon \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\} \quad (\text{A.9})$$

$$B_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon = \{\mathbf{x}, \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \geq 1, \epsilon < x_j \leq L \text{ for } j \in \alpha, x_j \leq L\epsilon \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\}. \quad (\text{A.10})$$

Then, with $\epsilon = (\epsilon, \dots, \epsilon)$,

$$\begin{aligned} A_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon &= \{\mathbf{x}, \exists j \in \alpha, x_j \geq 1, L\epsilon < x_j \leq L \text{ for } j \in \alpha, x_j \leq \epsilon \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\} \\ &= R(L\epsilon, \mathbf{a}, \alpha, \{1, \dots, d\}) \setminus R(L\epsilon, \tilde{\mathbf{a}}, \alpha, \{1, \dots, d\}) \\ B_{\alpha, L}^\epsilon &= \{\mathbf{x}, \exists j \in \alpha, x_j \geq 1, \epsilon < x_j \leq L \text{ for } j \in \alpha, x_j \leq L\epsilon \text{ for } j \notin \alpha\} \\ &= R(\epsilon, \mathbf{b}, \alpha, \{1, \dots, d\}) \setminus R(\epsilon, \tilde{\mathbf{b}}, \alpha, \{1, \dots, d\}), \end{aligned}$$

with $\mathbf{a}, \tilde{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\mathbf{b}, \tilde{\mathbf{b}}$ defined by

$$a_j = \begin{cases} L & \text{for } j \in \alpha \\ \epsilon & \text{for } j \notin \alpha \end{cases}, \quad \tilde{a}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } j \in \alpha \\ \epsilon & \text{for } j \notin \alpha \end{cases}$$

and

$$b_j = \begin{cases} L & \text{for } j \in \alpha \\ L\epsilon & \text{for } j \notin \alpha \end{cases}, \quad \tilde{b}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } j \in \alpha \\ L\epsilon & \text{for } j \notin \alpha \end{cases}.$$

This yields the following lemma:

Lemma 9. For each α, L, ϵ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} |\mu - \mu_n|(A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) &\leq 2 \max_{\alpha,\beta} \sup_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} > \epsilon} |\mu_n - \mu|(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \beta)) \\ |\mu - \mu_n|(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) &\leq 2 \max_{\alpha,\beta} \sup_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} > \epsilon} |\mu_n - \mu|(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \beta)) . \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, recalling that $\mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon = \mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \cap [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]$, and that by construction, $A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \subset \mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \subset B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu - \mu_n)(\mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) &\leq \mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) - \mu_n(A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) = (\mu - \mu_n)(A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + \mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \\ (\mu_n - \mu)(\mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) &\leq \mu_n(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) - \mu(A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) = (\mu_n - \mu)(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + \mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon), \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$|\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \leq |\mu - \mu_n|(A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + |\mu_n - \mu|(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + \mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) . \quad (\text{A.11})$$

On the other hand the following inequality holds true:

$$|\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \setminus \mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \leq |\mu - \mu_n|([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) + \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) . \quad (\text{A.12})$$

To see this, notice that $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \setminus \mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \subset [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c$ so that we both have

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu - \mu_n)(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \setminus \mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) &\leq \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) \\ (\mu_n - \mu)(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \setminus \mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) &\leq (\mu_n - \mu)([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) + \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) . \end{aligned}$$

Now, combining (A.11) and (A.12),

$$\begin{aligned} |\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) &\leq |\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + |\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon \setminus \mathcal{C}_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \\ &\leq |\mu - \mu_n|(A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + |\mu_n - \mu|(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + \mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) + |\mu - \mu_n|([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) \\ &\quad + \mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) . \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.13})$$

The following lemma is then needed to handle the term $\mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon)$ in inequality (A.13).

Lemma 10. $\mu(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \leq |\alpha|(|\alpha| - 1)M_\alpha \epsilon L + |\alpha| \sum_{\beta \supsetneq \alpha} M_\beta (\epsilon L)^{|\beta| - |\alpha|}$.

Proof. (LEMMA 10) Assume for simplicity that $|\alpha| = K$ and $\alpha = \{1, \dots, K\}$. In this case $\mathcal{C}_\alpha = \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) > 1, x_1, \dots, x_K > 0, x_{K+1}, \dots, x_d = 0\}$. Since the \mathcal{C}_β 's form a partition of $\mathbb{R}_+^d \setminus [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]^c$, we have

$$B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon = \bigsqcup_{\beta \supsetneq \alpha} (B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\beta . \quad (\text{A.14})$$

Indeed, for $\beta \not\supsetneq \alpha$, the set $(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\beta$ is empty, since by definition (A.10) of $B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon$, we have $B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \subset \{\mathbf{x} : 0 < x_j, j \in \alpha\}$. To begin with, let us investigate the term $\alpha = \beta$ in the above equality. Since

$$\begin{aligned} B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon &= \bigcup_{i \leq K} \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, \epsilon < x_1, \dots, x_K < L, x_i \leq \epsilon L, x_{K+1}, \dots, x_d \leq L\epsilon\} \\ &\quad \bigsqcup_{j \geq K+1} \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, \epsilon < x_1, \dots, x_K < L, x_{K+1}, \dots, x_d \leq L\epsilon, \epsilon < x_j\}, \end{aligned}$$

intersecting with \mathcal{C}_α yields

$$(B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha = \bigcup_{i \leq K} \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, \epsilon < x_1, \dots, x_K \leq L, x_i \leq \epsilon L, x_{K+1}, \dots, x_d \leq L\epsilon\} \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha.$$

Since $\mu_\alpha = \mu|_{\mathcal{C}_\alpha}$ we thus have

$$\mu((B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha) \leq \sum_{i=1}^K \mu_\alpha\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, \epsilon < x_1, \dots, x_K \leq L, x_i \leq \epsilon L\} \quad (\text{A.15})$$

Consider one single term in the above sum, e.g. for $i = 1$, $\mu_\alpha\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, \epsilon < x_1 < \epsilon L, \epsilon < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq L\}$. This term is less than $\mu_\alpha\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq L\}$. Yet,

$$\begin{aligned} & \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq L\} \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha \\ & \subset \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, 0 < \frac{x_1}{R(\mathbf{x})} < \epsilon L, 0 < \frac{x_2}{R(\mathbf{x})}, \dots, \frac{x_K}{R(\mathbf{x})} \leq 1\} \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha, \end{aligned}$$

which leads to

$$\begin{aligned} & \mu_\alpha(\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq L\}) \\ & \leq \Phi_\alpha\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) = 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

(Recall that $\Phi_\alpha = \Phi|_{\Omega_\alpha}$ with $\Omega_\alpha = \{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) = 1, 0 < x_1, \dots, x_K, x_{K+1} = \dots = x_d = 0\}$.) Now, by (2.14),

$$\begin{aligned} & \Phi_\alpha\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) = 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq 1\} \\ & = \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \Phi_{\alpha, i_0}\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) = 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq 1\} \\ & = \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha \setminus \{1\}} \Phi_{\alpha, i_0}\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) = 1, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq 1\}, \end{aligned}$$

because $\Phi_{\alpha, 1}\{\mathbf{x}, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq 1\} = 0$ since the set considered in the last expression is disjoint from $\Omega_{\alpha, i}$ (recall that $L\epsilon < 1$). Yet each of the terms in the previous sum is bounded by $M_\alpha \epsilon L$ (we recall that $M_\alpha = \max_{i \in \alpha} \sup_{\Omega_{\alpha, i}} \frac{d\Phi_{\alpha, i}}{dx_{\alpha, i}}$ as defined in (2.15)). Thus $\Phi_\alpha\{\mathbf{x}, 0 < x_1 < \epsilon L, 0 < x_2, \dots, x_K \leq 1\} \leq (|\alpha| - 1)M_\alpha \epsilon L$ and by (A.15) we obtain the following inequality;

$$\mu((B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\alpha) \leq |\alpha|(|\alpha| - 1)M_\alpha \epsilon L.$$

We now proceed with the terms indexed by $\beta \supsetneq \alpha$ in (A.14). For these, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\beta & \subset B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \cap \mathcal{C}_\beta \\ & \subset \left\{ \mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1, 0 < \frac{x_1}{R(\mathbf{x})}, \dots, \frac{x_K}{R(\mathbf{x})} < 1, \right. \\ & \quad \left. 0 < \frac{x_j}{R(\mathbf{x})} \leq L\epsilon \text{ for } j \in \beta \subset \alpha, \quad x_j = 0 \text{ for } j \notin \beta \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

Without loss of generality, consider the case $\beta = \{1, \dots, P\}$, where $K < P \leq d$. For this term, we thus have

$$\begin{aligned} & \mu((B_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon \setminus A_{\alpha,L}^\epsilon) \cap \mathcal{C}_\beta) \\ & \leq \Phi_\beta\{\mathbf{x} : R(\mathbf{x}) = 1, 0 < x_1, \dots, x_K \leq 1, 0 < x_{K+1}, \dots, x_P \leq L\epsilon, x_{P+1}, \dots, x_d = 0\} \\ & \leq |\alpha| M_\beta(\epsilon L)^{P-K}, \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the decomposition (2.14), in which all the terms in the sum $\sum_{i_0 \in \beta}$ with $i_0 \in \beta \setminus \alpha$ are null. \square

We may now conclude: recall that, from our choice of standardization to unit Pareto margins, $\mu\{\mathbf{v} : v_i > L\} = 1/L$, for $1 \leq i \leq d$. Thus, $\mu([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c) \leq \sum_{i=1}^d \mu\{\mathbf{v} : v_i > L\} \leq \frac{d}{L}$. Consequently, using (A.13), Lemma 9 and Lemma 10, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mu_n - \mu|(\mathcal{C}_\alpha^\epsilon) & \leq 4 \sup_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} > \epsilon} |\mu_n - \mu|(R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \alpha, \bar{\alpha})) \\ & \quad + 2 \left(|\alpha| (|\alpha| - 1) M_\alpha \epsilon L + |\alpha| \sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} M_\beta (\epsilon L)^{|\beta| - |\alpha|} \right) + \frac{d}{L} + |\mu_n - \mu|([\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{L}]^c). \end{aligned}$$

Now, $M_\alpha, M_\beta \leq M$ by Assumption 3 and

$$\sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} (L\epsilon)^{|\beta| - |\alpha|} = \sum_{j=1}^{d-|\alpha|} \binom{d-|\alpha|}{j} (L\epsilon)^j = (1 + (L\epsilon))^{d-|\alpha|} - 1 \leq C d \epsilon L \quad (\text{since } L\epsilon < 1/2)$$

for some constant C . This concludes the proof.

A.5 Proof of Proposition 3

First recall from Lemma 5 that as the Ω_β 's form a partition of the simplex S_∞^{d-1} ,

$$\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon = \bigsqcup_{\beta} \Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_\beta = \bigsqcup_{\beta \supset \alpha} \Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_\beta.$$

By (2.14) we have, for every $\beta \supset \alpha$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_\beta) & = \sum_{i_0 \in \beta} \int_{\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0}} \frac{d\Phi_{\beta, i_0}(x)}{dx_{\beta \setminus i_0}}(x) dx_{\beta \setminus i_0} \\ \Phi(\Omega_\alpha) & = \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \int_{\Omega_{\alpha, i_0}} \frac{d\Phi_{\alpha, i_0}(x)}{dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}}(x) dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon) - \Phi(\Omega_\alpha) &= \sum_{\beta \supset \alpha} \sum_{i_0 \in \beta} \int_{\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0}} \frac{d\Phi_{\beta, i_0}(x)}{dx_{\beta \setminus i_0}} dx_{\beta \setminus i_0} \\
&\quad - \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \int_{\Omega_{\alpha, i_0}} \frac{d\Phi_{\alpha, i_0}(x)}{dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}} dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0} \\
&= \sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} \sum_{i_0 \in \beta} \int_{\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0}} \frac{d\Phi_{\beta, i_0}(x)}{dx_{\beta \setminus i_0}} dx_{\beta \setminus i_0} \\
&\quad - \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \int_{\Omega_{\alpha, i_0} \setminus (\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\alpha, i_0})} \frac{d\Phi_{\alpha, i_0}(x)}{dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}} dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0},
\end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}
|\Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon) - \Phi(\Omega_\alpha)| &\leq \sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} M_\beta \sum_{i_0 \in \beta} \int_{\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0}} dx_{\beta \setminus i_0} \\
&\quad + M_\alpha \sum_{i_0 \in \alpha} \int_{\Omega_{\alpha, i_0} \setminus (\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\alpha, i_0})} dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0}.
\end{aligned} \tag{A.16}$$

Without loss of generality we may assume that $\alpha = \{1, \dots, K\}$ with $K \leq d$. Yet, for $\beta \supseteq \alpha$, $\int_{\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0}} dx_{\beta \setminus i_0}$ is smaller than $\epsilon^{|\beta| - |\alpha|}$ and is null as soon as $i_0 \in \beta \setminus \alpha$. To see this, assume for instance that $\beta = \{1, \dots, P\}$ with $P > K$ and that $i_0 > K$. Then

$$\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0} = \{\epsilon < x_1, \dots, x_K \leq 1, x_{K+1}, \dots, x_P \leq \epsilon, x_{i_0} = 1, x_{P+1} = \dots = x_d = 0\}$$

which is empty if $i_0 \geq K + 1$ (i.e. $i_0 \in \beta \setminus \alpha$) and which verifies $\int_{\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\beta, i_0}} dx_{\beta \setminus i_0} \leq \epsilon^{P-K}$. The first term in (A.16) is then bounded by $\sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} M_\beta |\alpha| \epsilon^{|\beta| - |\alpha|}$. Now, concerning the second term in (A.16), $\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\alpha, i_0} = \{\epsilon < x_1, \dots, x_K \leq 1, x_{i_0} = 1, x_{K+1}, \dots, x_d = 0\}$ and then

$$\Omega_{\alpha, i_0} \setminus (\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\alpha, i_0}) = \bigcup_{l=1, \dots, K} \Omega_{\alpha, i_0} \cap \{x_l \leq \epsilon\}$$

so that $\int_{\Omega_{\alpha, i_0} \setminus (\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon \cap \Omega_{\alpha, i_0})} dx_{\alpha \setminus i_0} \leq K\epsilon$. The second term in (A.16) is then bounded by $M|\alpha|^2\epsilon$. Finally, $M_\beta \leq M$ by Assumption 3, so that (A.16) implies

$$|\Phi(\Omega_\alpha^\epsilon) - \Phi(\Omega_\alpha)| \leq |\alpha| M \sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} \epsilon^{|\beta| - |\alpha|} + M|\alpha|^2\epsilon.$$

To conclude, observe that

$$\sum_{\beta \supseteq \alpha} \epsilon^{|\beta| - |\alpha|} = \sum_{j=1}^{d-|\alpha|} \binom{d-|\alpha|}{j} \epsilon^j \leq (1 + \epsilon)^{d-|\alpha|} - 1 \leq C d \epsilon \quad (\text{since } \epsilon < 1/4),$$

for some constant $C > 0$. The result follows.

B Experiments curves

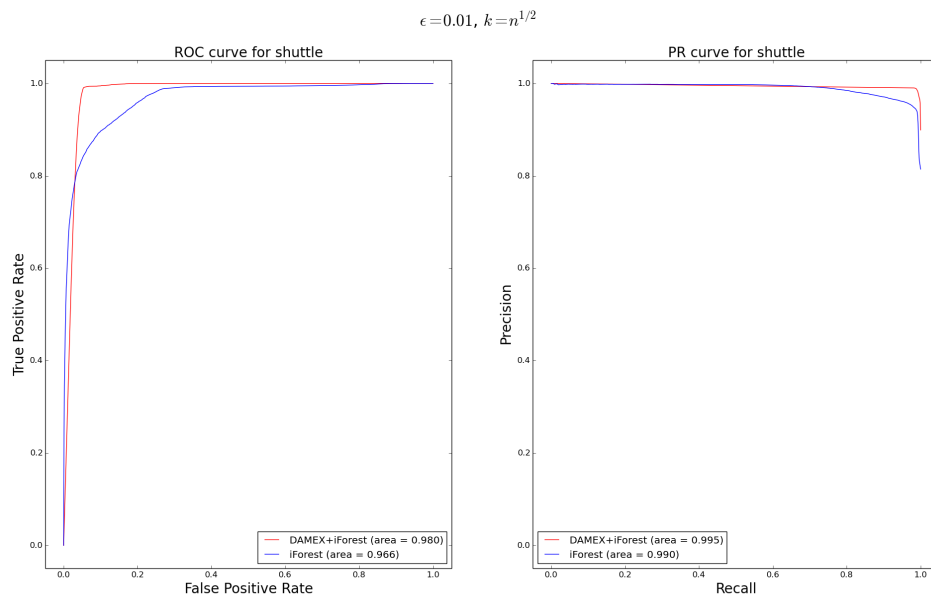


Figure 9: shuttle data-set, semi-supervised AD

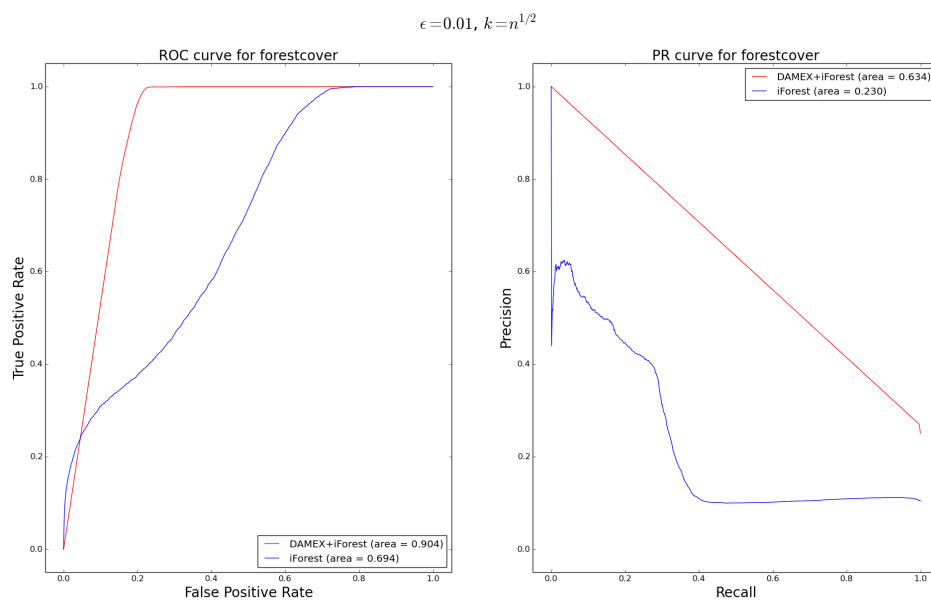


Figure 10: forestcover data-set, semi-supervised AD

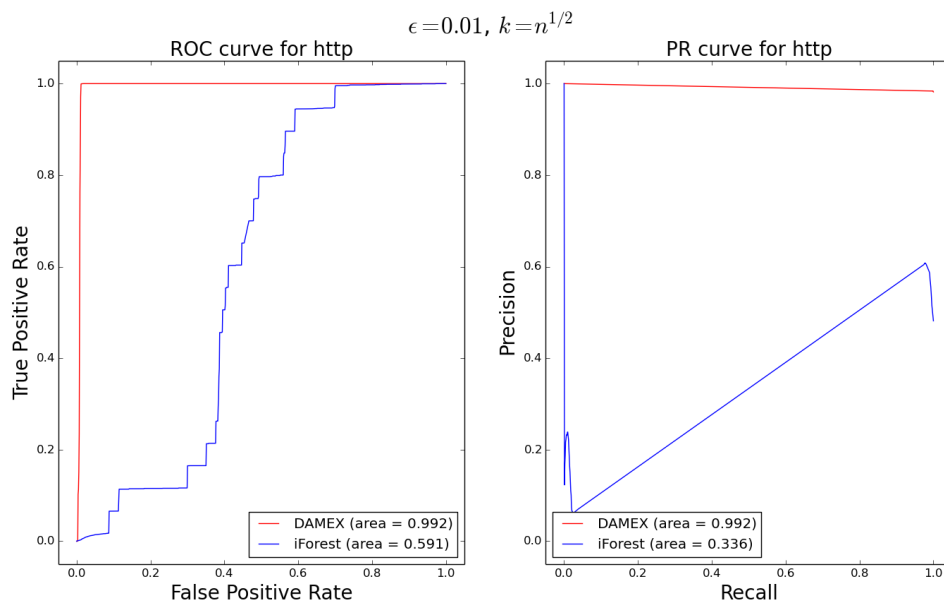


Figure 11: http data-set, semi-supervised AD

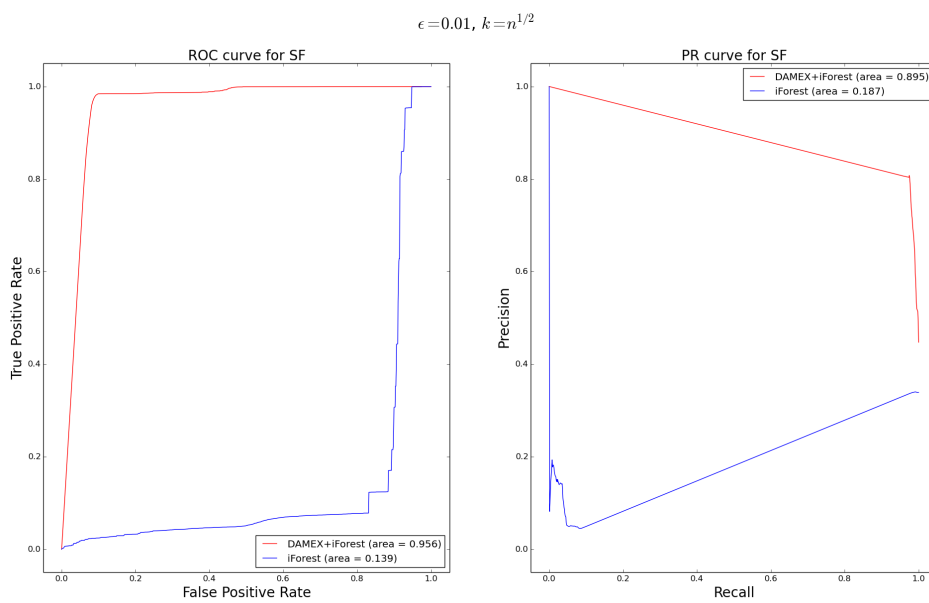


Figure 12: SF data-set, semi-supervised AD

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