Variable Selection via Partial Correlation

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Abstract

Partial correlation based variable selection method was proposed for normal linear regression models by Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010) as a powerful alternative method to regularization methods for variable selection. This paper addresses two important issues related to partial correlation based variable selection method: (a) whether this method is sensitive to normality assumption, and (b) whether this method is valid when the dimension of predictor increases in an exponential rate of the sample size. To address issue (a), we systematically study this method for elliptical linear regression models. Our finding indicates that the original proposal may lead to inferior performance when the marginal kurtosis of predictor is not close to that of normal distribution. Our simulation results further confirm this finding. To ensure the superior performance of partial correlation based variable selection procedure, we propose a thresholded partial correlation (TPC) approach to select significant variables in linear regression models. We establish the selection consistency of the TPC in the presence of ultrahigh dimensional predictors. Since the TPC procedure includes the original proposal as a special case, our theoretical results address the issue (b) directly. As a by-product, the sure screening property of the first step of TPC was obtained. The numerical examples also illustrate that the TPC is competitively comparable to the commonly-used regularization methods for variable selection.

Key Words: Elliptical distribution, model selection consistency, partial correlation, partial faithfulness, sure screening property, ultrahigh dimensional linear model, variable selection.

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1. Introduction

Variable selection via penalized least squares has been extensively studied during the last two decades. Popular penalized least squares variable selection procedures include LASSO (Tibshirani 1996), SCAD (Fan and Li 2001), adaptive LASSO (Zou 2006) and among others. See Fan and Lv (2010) for a selective overview on this topic and references therein for more works on variable selection via penalized least squares. As a powerful alternative method to penalized least squares for variable selection, Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010) proposed a variable selection procedure based on the PC-simple algorithm for linear regression models with the partial faithfulness. This algorithm uses the partial correlations between the response and each predictor as a criterion to identify important variables. The authors demonstrated that the PC-simple algorithm is competitively comparable to the penalized least squares variable selection approaches. Therefore, scientists may have two comparable schemes for variable selection in high-dimensional linear models, which raises their confidence in the selected predictors if they are chosen by both techniques.

This work aims to study two important issues related to the PC-simple algorithm. The first issue is that the procedure proposed in Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010) relies on normality assumption on the joint distribution of the response and the predictors, although partial faithfulness does not require normality assumption. Thus, it is of great interest to study the impact of normality assumption on the variable selection procedure developed in Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010). The second issue is that the theoretical results established in Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010) requires that the dimension of the predictor vector increases in a polynomial rate of the sample size. It is also of great interest to study whether the theoretical results are valid with dimensionality increasing at exponential rate of the sample size.

To study the issue related to normality assumption, we consider elliptical linear models (i.e., the response and the predictors in a linear regression model jointly follows an elliptical
distribution). Spherical and elliptical distributions have been systematically introduced in Fang, Kotz and Ng (1990), and have been used as a tool to study the robustness of normality in the literature of multivariate nonparametric tests (Mottonen, Oja and Tienari 1997; Oja and Randles 2004; Chen, Wiesel and Hero, 2011; Soloveychik and Wiesel, 2015; Wang, Peng and Li, 2015). Spherical and elliptical regression have been proposed in the literature (Osiewalski, 1991; Osiewalski and Steel, 1993; Arellano-Valle, del Pino and Iglesias, 2006; Fan and Lv, 2008; Liang and Li, 2009; Vidal and Arellano-Valle, 2010). We first derive the limiting distribution of the sample partial correlation of elliptical distribution, which is of its own significance. The limiting distribution clearly indicates that the PC-simple algorithm tends to over-fit (under-fit) the models under those elliptical distributions whose marginal kurtosis is larger (smaller) than the marginal kurtosis of normal distribution. To ensure the superior performance of partial correlation based variable selection procedure, we propose a thresholded partial correlation (TPC) approach to select significant variables in linear regression models. The TPC method relies on the limiting distribution of the sample partial correlation. In the same spirit of the PC-simple algorithm, the TPC is a stepwise method for variable selection and is constructed by comparing each sample correlation and sample partial correlation with a given threshold corresponding to a given significant level. The TPC procedure coincides to the PC-simple algorithm for the normal linear models. This enables us to study the asymptotic property of the PC-sample algorithm under a more framework in order to address the issue related to dimensionality increasing at exponential rate.

We systematically study the sampling properties of the TPC. We first derive the concentration inequality of the partial correlations without model assumption when the dimensionality of the covariates increases with the same size at an exponential rate. This enables us to conduct the TPC for the ultrahigh dimensional linear models. We further establish the theoretical properties of the TPC. This allows us to broaden the usage of this variable selection scheme. We also develop the sure screening property of the first-step TPC in the terminology of Fan and Lv (2008). Note that the first step of the TPC has the same spirit
as the marginal screening based on the Pearson correlation (Fan and Lv 2008). Thus, as a by-product, we obtain the sure screening property of the marginal screening procedure based on the Pearson correlation under different assumptions from Fan and Lv (2008).

This paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we propose the TPC for the elliptical linear models, and further establish its asymptotic properties. Numerical studies, including Monte Carlo simulations and an empirical analysis of a real-life example, are conducted in section 3. A brief conclusion is given in section 4, and all the technical proofs are allocated in the Appendix.

2. Thresholded partial correlation approach

Consider a linear model

\[ y = \mathbf{x}^T \beta + \epsilon, \]

where \( y \) is the response variable, \( \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_p)^T \) is the covariate vector, \( \beta = (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_p)^T \) is the coefficient vector, and \( \epsilon \) is the random error with \( E(\epsilon) = 0, \text{var}(\epsilon) = \sigma^2 \). Throughout this paper, it is assumed without loss of generality that \( E(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \) and \( E(y) = 0 \) so that there is no intercept in model (2.1). In practice, it is common that \( \mathbf{x} \) and \( y \) are marginally standardized before performing variable selection. As a powerful alternative to the regularization method, variable selection based on partial correlation for normal linear models was proposed by Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010). To study how the partial correlation based variable selection procedure is sensitive to normality assumption on \( (\mathbf{x}^T, y) \), we consider elliptical linear models, in which \( (\mathbf{x}^T, y) \) is assumed to follow an elliptical distribution, which has been systematically accounted in Fang, Kotz and Ng (1990). This elliptical distribution family contains many distributions, such as mixtures of normal distributions, multivariate \( t \)-distribution, multi-uniform distribution on unit sphere, Pearson Type II distribution, in addition to the normal distribution. This family becomes crucial for modeling finance data (Mcneil Frey and Embrechts 2005) due to its potential to accommodate tail dependence (the phenomenon of simultaneous extremes), which is highly useful in quantitative finance but is
not allowed by the multivariate normal distribution (Schmidt, 2002). Elliptical distributions have been used as an alternative to normal distributions in the literature of multivariate nonparametric tests (Mottonen, Oja and Tienari, 1997; Oja and Randles, 2004; Wang, Peng and Li, 2015). Elliptical linear regressions have received more and more attentions in the recent literature (Arellano-Valle, del Pino and Iglesias, 2006; Fan and Lv, 2008; Liang and Li, 2009; Vidal and Arellano-Valle, 2010). Thus, we first study the estimation of partial correlation for elliptical distributions.

2.1. Correlation and partial correlation estimation for elliptical distribution

Suppose that \((x_1^T, y_1), \cdots, (x_n^T, y_n)\) are independent and identically distributed (iid) random samples from an elliptical distribution \(EC_{p+1}(\mu, \Sigma, \phi)\), which has the characteristic function \(\exp(it^T\mu)\phi(t^T \Sigma t)\) for some characteristic generator \(\phi(\cdot)\) (Fang, Kotz and Ng, 1990). Denote by \(\rho(y, x_j)\) and \(\hat{\rho}(y, x_j)\) the population and the sample correlation between \(y\) and \(x_j\), respectively. Then as shown in Theorem 5.1.6 of Muirhead (1982), the asymptotic distribution of \(\hat{\rho}(y, x_j)\) is

\[
\sqrt{n} \{\hat{\rho}(y, x_j) - \rho(y, x_j)\} \rightarrow N\left(0, (1 + \kappa)(1 - \rho^2(y, x_j))^2\right) \quad (2.2)
\]

in distribution, where \(\kappa = \frac{\phi''(0)}{(\phi'(0))^2} - 1\) with \(\phi'(0)\) and \(\phi''(0)\) being the first and second derivatives of \(\phi\) at 0. \(\kappa\) is the marginal kurtosis of the elliptical distribution of \(EC_{p+1}(\mu, \Sigma, \phi)\) and equals 0 for a normal distribution \(N_{p+1}(\mu, \Sigma)\).

For an index set \(S \subseteq \{1, 2, \cdots, p\}\), we define \(S^c\) to be \(S^c = \{1 \leq j \leq p : j \notin S\}\), \(|S|\) to be its cardinality, and \(x_S = \{x_j : j \in S\}\) to be a subset of covariates with index set \(S\). Based on \(x_S\), the definition of the partial correlation is given below.

**Definition 1.** (Partial Correlation) The partial correlation between \(x_j\) and \(y\) given a set of controlling variables \(x_S\), denoted by \(\rho(y, x_j|x_S)\), is defined as the correlation between the residuals \(r_{x_j|x_S}\) and \(r_{y|x_S}\) from the linear regression of \(x_j\) on \(x_S\) and that of \(y\) on \(x_S\), respectively. And the corresponding sample partial correlation between \(y\) and \(x_j\) is denoted as \(\hat{x}_S\)
by $\hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S)$.

We next study the asymptotic distribution of the sample partial correlation when the sample were drawn from an elliptical distribution in the next theorem, which provides the foundation for TPC variable selection procedures.

**Theorem 1.** Suppose that $(x_1^T, y_1), \ldots, (x_n^T, y_n)$ are iid random samples from an elliptical distribution $EC_{p+1}(\mu, \Sigma, \phi)$ with all finite fourth moments, then for any $j = 1, \ldots, p$, and $S \subseteq \{j\}^c$,

$$\sqrt{n} \{\hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S) - \rho(y, x_j|x_S)\} \to N\left(0, (1 + \kappa)\{1 - \rho^2(y, x_j|x_S)\}^2\right). \quad (2.3)$$

Theorem 1 seems to be a natural extension on partial correlation from normal distribution to elliptical distribution, but to our best knowledge, this results is new, and its proof is given in Appendix A. Let $\emptyset$ be the empty set, and $\hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_\emptyset)$ and $\rho(y, x_j|x_\emptyset)$ stand for $\hat{\rho}(y, x_j)$ and $\rho(y, x_j)$, respectively. Then (2.3) is also valid for $S = \emptyset$ by (2.2). The limiting distributions of sample correlation and partial correlation given in (2.2) and (2.3) provides insights into the impact of normality assumption on the PC-simple algorithm through the marginal kurtosis under ellipticity assumption. This enables us to modify the PC-simple algorithm by taking into account the marginal kurtosis to ensure its superior performance.

Let $\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)$ and $Z(y, x_j|x_S)$ be the Fisher Z-transformation of $\hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S)$ and $\rho(y, x_j|x_S)$, respectively. That is,

$$\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left\{ \frac{1 + \hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S)}{1 - \hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S)} \right\}, \quad Z(y, x_j|x_S) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left\{ \frac{1 + \rho(y, x_j|x_S)}{1 - \rho(y, x_j|x_S)} \right\}. \quad (2.4)$$

Then, it follows by the delta method and Theorem 1 that

$$\sqrt{n} \left\{ \hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S) - Z(y, x_j|x_S) \right\} \to N(0, 1 + \kappa).$$

The asymptotic distribution of $\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)$ no longer depends on $\rho(y, x_j|x_S)$, thus it is easier to derive the selection threshold for $\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)$ rather than for $\hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S)$ directly.
2.2. A variable selection algorithm

Extending the PC-simple algorithm proposed by Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010), we propose to identify active predictors by iteratively testing the series of hypotheses

\[ H_0: \rho(y, x_j | x_S) = 0 \text{ for } |S| = 0, 1, \ldots, \hat{m}_{\text{reach}}, \]

where \( \hat{m}_{\text{reach}} = \min\{m : |\hat{A}^{|m|}| \leq m \} \). Specifically, the rejection region at level \( \alpha \) is

\[ |\hat{\rho}(y, x_j | x_S)| > T(\alpha, n, \hat{\kappa}, |S|), \]

where

\[
T(\alpha, n, \hat{\kappa}, |S|) = \frac{\exp\left\{ 2\sqrt{1 + \hat{\kappa}\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)/\sqrt{n - 1 - |S|}} \right\} - 1}{\exp\left\{ 2\sqrt{1 + \hat{\kappa}\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)/\sqrt{n - 1 - |S|}} \right\} + 1}
\]  

(2.6)

with \( \kappa \) being estimated by its sample counterpart:

\[
\hat{\kappa} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)^4 \right\} - 1
\]

(2.7)

where \( \bar{x}_j \) is the sample mean of the \( j \)-the element of \( x \) and \( x_{ij} \) is the \( j \)-th element of \( x_i \). We summarize the TPC variable selection by the following algorithm.

\textbf{Algorithm 1} Algorithm for TPC variable selection.

\begin{enumerate}
  \item \textbf{Step 1:} Set \( m = 1 \) and \( S = \emptyset \), obtain the marginally estimated active set by
    \[ \hat{A}^{[1]} = \{j = 1, \ldots, p : |\hat{\rho}(y, x_j | x_S)| > T(\alpha, n, \hat{\kappa}, |S|)\} \].
  \item \textbf{Step 2:} Based on \( \hat{A}^{[m-1]} \), construct the \( m \)th step estimated active set by
    \[ \hat{A}^{[m]} = \{j \in \hat{A}^{[m-1]} : |\hat{\rho}(y, x_j | x_S)| > T(\alpha, n, \hat{\kappa}, |S|), \forall S \subseteq \hat{A}^{[m-1]} \setminus \{j\}, \text{ with } |S| = m-1\} \].
  \item \textbf{Step 3:} Repeat Step 2 until \( m = \hat{m}_{\text{reach}} \).
\end{enumerate}
Algorithm 1 results in a sequence of estimated active sets

\[ \hat{A}_1 \supseteq \hat{A}_2 \supseteq \ldots \supseteq \hat{A}_m \supseteq \ldots \supseteq \hat{A}_{\text{reach}}. \]

Since \( \kappa = 0 \) for normal distributions, the TPC is indeed the PC-simple algorithm under normality assumption. Thus, Theorem 1 clearly shows that the PC-simple algorithm tends to over-fit (under-fit) the models under those distributions where the kurtosis is larger (smaller) than the normal kurtosis 0. Following Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010), we further apply the ordinary least squares approach to estimate the coefficients of predictors in \( \hat{A}_{\text{reach}} \) after running Algorithm 1.

2.3. Theoretical properties

We impose the following regularity conditions to establish the asymptotic theory of the TPC. These regularity conditions may not be the weakest ones.

(D1) The joint distribution of \((x^T, y)\) satisfies partial faithfulness (Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis, 2010).

(D2) \((x^T, y)\) follows EC\(_{p+1}(\mu, \Sigma, \phi)\) with \( \Sigma > 0 \). Furthermore, there exists \( s_0 > 0 \), such that for all \( 0 < s < s_0 \),

\[ E\{\exp(sy^2)\} < \infty, \quad \max_{1 \leq j \leq p} E\{\exp(sx_jy)\} < \infty, \quad \text{and} \quad \max_{1 \leq j, k \leq p} E\{\exp(sx_jx_k)\} < \infty. \]

(D3) There exists \( \delta > -1 \), such that the kurtosis satisfies \( \kappa > \delta > -1 \).

(D4) For some \( c_n = O(n^{-d}) \), \( 0 < d < 1/2 \), the partial correlations \( \rho(y, x_j|x_S) \) satisfy

\[ \inf \{ |\rho(y, x_j|x_S)| : j = 1, \ldots, p, S \subseteq \{j\}^c, |S| \leq d_0, \rho(y, x_j|x_S) \neq 0 \} \geq c_n. \]

(D5) The partial correlations \( \rho(y, x_j|x_S) \) and \( \rho(x_j, x_k|x_S) \) satisfy:

i).\( \sup \{ |\rho(y, x_j|x_S)| : 1 \leq j \leq p, S \subseteq \{j\}^c, |S| \leq d_0 \} \leq \tau < 1, \)

ii).\( \sup \{ |\rho(x_j, x_k|x_S)| : 1 \leq j \neq k \leq p, S \subseteq \{j,k\}^c, |S| \leq d_0 \} \leq \tau < 1. \)
Condition (D1) guarantees the validity of the TPC method as a variable selection criterion. The assumption on elliptical distribution in (D2) is crucial when deriving the asymptotic distribution of the sample partial correlation, and the sub-exponential tail probability ensures the difference between the population and sample partial correlations to degenerate with an exponential rate. Many elliptical distributions satisfy the sub-exponential tail probability, such as multivariate normal distribution and Pearson Type II distribution (Fang, Kotz and Ng, 1990). (D3) puts a mild condition on the kurtosis, and is used to control Type I and II errors. The lower bound of partial correlations in (D4) is used to control Type II errors for the tests. This condition has the same spirit as that of the penalty-based methods which requires the non-zero coefficients to be bounded away from 0. The upper bound of partial correlations in the condition i) of (D5) is used to control Type I error, and the condition ii) of (D5) imposes a fixed upper bound on the population partial correlations between the covariates, which excludes the perfect collinearity between the covariates.

Based on the above regularity conditions, we obtain the following consistency property. First we consider the model selection consistency of the final estimated active set by TPC. Since the TPC depends on the significance level $\alpha = \alpha_n$, we rewrite the final chosen model to be $\hat{A}_n(\alpha_n)$.

**Theorem 2.** Consider linear model (2.1). Under Conditions (D1)-(D5), there exists a sequence $\alpha_n \to 0$ and a positive constant $C$, such that if $d_0$ is fixed, then for $p = o(\exp(n^\xi))$, $0 < \xi < 1/5$, the estimated active set can be identified with the following rate

$$ P\{\hat{A}_n(\alpha_n) = \mathcal{A} \} \geq 1 - O\{\exp(-n^\nu/C)\}, \quad (2.8) $$

where $\xi < \nu < 1/5$; and if $d_0 = O(n^b)$, $0 < b < 1/5$, then for $p = o(\exp(n^\xi))$, $0 < \xi < 1/5 - b$, (2.8) still holds, with $\xi + b < \nu < 1/5$.

The proof of this theorem is given in Appendix B. Theorem 2 implies that the TPC method including the original PC-simple algorithm enjoys the model selection consistency.
property when dimensionality increases at exponential rate of the sample size. Following Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010), one possible choice of the theoretical significance level $\alpha_n$ is $\alpha_n = 2\{1 - \Phi(c_n \sqrt{n/(1 + \kappa)/2})\}$.

In addition, notice that the estimated active set from the first step of the TPC, denoted by $\hat{A}_n^{[1]}(\alpha_n)$, can be viewed as a feature screening procedure, and is essentially equivalent to the sure independence screening procedure proposed by Fan and Lv (2008). Thus, we next establish the sure screening property (Fan and Lv 2008) of this first step of TPC under a different set of assumptions. We impose the following conditions on the population marginal correlations:

(E4) $\inf \{|\rho_n(y, x_j)|: j = 1, \ldots, p, \rho_n(y, x_j) \neq 0\} \geq c_n$, where $c_n = O(n^{-d})$, and $0 < d < 1/2$.

(E5) $\sup \{|\rho_n(y, x_j)|: j = 1, \ldots, p_n, \} \leq \tau < 1$.

**Theorem 3.** Consider linear model (2.1) and assume (D1)-(D3), (E4) and (E5). For $p = O(\exp(n^{\xi}))$, where $0 < \xi < 1$, there exists a sequence $\alpha_n \to 0$ such that $P\{\hat{A}_n^{[1]} \supseteq A\} \geq 1 - O\{\exp(-n^{\nu}/C^*)\}$, where $C^*$ is a positive constant and $\xi < \nu < 1/5$.

The proof of this theorem is given in Appendix B. This theorem confirms the sure screening property of the marginal screening procedure based on the Pearson correlation under a different set of regularity conditions from Fan and Lv (2008).

### 3. Numerical Studies

In this section, we assess the finite sample performance of the TPC methods and compare it with LASSO (Tibshirani 1996), SCAD (Fan and Li 2001) and PC-simple algorithm through Monte Carlo simulation studies. We also illustrate the application of the TPC by a rat eye expression dataset example.

#### 3.1. Simulation studies
In our simulation study, data were generated from linear model (2.1) with $\beta_1 = 3$, $\beta_2 = 1.5$, $\beta_5 = 2$ and $\beta_j = 0$ if $j \neq 1, 2, 5$. In our simulation, we consider $p = 20, 200$ and $500$ and the sample size is taken to be $n = 200$. Moreover, the joint distribution of $x$ and $\epsilon$ are taken to be $0.9N(0, \Sigma) + 0.1N(0, 9\Sigma)$, which is an elliptical distribution, and the normal distribution $N(0, \Sigma)$, where $\Sigma$ is the $(p + 1) \times (p + 1)$ matrix with $(i, j)$th entry $\rho^{|i-j|}$. We consider $\rho = 0$, $0.3$, and $0.8$ which corresponds to “uncorrelated”, “moderately correlated”, and “strongly correlated” among $x$, respectively. For each case, we conduct 1000 simulations.

In our simulation, we compare the finite sample performance of LASSO (Tibshirani, 1996) and SCAD (Fan and Li, 2001), the PC-simple algorithm (Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis, 2010) and the TPC. Furthermore, the following criteria are used for evaluating the performance of variable selection procedures.

1. Model error: $E_x[\{x(\hat{\beta} - \beta)\}^2] = (\hat{\beta} - \beta)^T \text{cov}(x)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)$.

2. True positive number (TPN) which is defined to be the average of the number of the predictors with nonzero coefficients being successfully detected in 1000 simulation.

3. False positive number (FPN) which is defined to be the average of the number of predictors with zero coefficients being erroneously selected into the model.

4. Underfit percentage (UF), which is defined to be the percentage of underfit models which fails to identify at least one important predictor in the 1000 simulations.

5. Correct-fit percentage (CF), which is defined to be the percentage of correctly-fitted models that exactly select the truly important predictors in the 1000 simulations.

6. Overfit percentage (OF), which is defined to be the percentage of overfit models that identify all the important predictors, but include at least one unimportant predictor in the 1000 simulations.
Table 1: Simulation Results for Example 1: Elliptical Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$\rho$</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>MedME(Devi)</th>
<th>TPN</th>
<th>TFN</th>
<th>UF</th>
<th>CF</th>
<th>OF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>SCAD</td>
<td>0.039 (0.021)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LASSO</td>
<td>8.926 (0.192)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.038 (0.018)</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.034 (0.018)</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>SCAD</td>
<td>0.040 (0.022)</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LASSO</td>
<td>20.727 (0.181)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.039 (0.024)</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.10</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.046 (0.029)</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>SCAD</td>
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<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LASSO</td>
<td>20.925 (0.158)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>16.44</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.039 (0.026)</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.11</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.057 (0.040)</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>SCAD</td>
<td>0.041 (0.022)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LASSO</td>
<td>8.960 (0.212)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>45.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.096 (0.051)</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.043 (0.031)</td>
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<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>SCAD</td>
<td>0.043 (0.024)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LASSO</td>
<td>11.172 (0.230)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>38.94</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.077 (0.043)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.030 (0.018)</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>SCAD</td>
<td>0.042 (0.026)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LASSO</td>
<td>20.879 (0.187)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>20.86</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.049 (0.031)</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.044 (0.032)</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The numbers in the parentheses are median absolute deviations over 1000 simulations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$\rho$</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>MedME(Devi)</th>
<th>TPN</th>
<th>TFN</th>
<th>UF</th>
<th>CF</th>
<th>OF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.013 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.013 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.011 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.011 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.012 (0.007)</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.012 (0.007)</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.012 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.012 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.011 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.011 (0.006)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.009 (0.006)</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.009 (0.006)</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.013 (0.008)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.014 (0.008)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.013 (0.007)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.013 (0.008)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>PC-simple</td>
<td>0.012 (0.008)</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPC</td>
<td>0.012 (0.008)</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The numbers in the parentheses are median absolute deviations over 1000 simulations.
Table 1 depicts the simulation results for the elliptical distribution, while Table 2 for the normal distribution. For elliptical distribution, the TPC performs significantly better than LASSO, SCAD and the PC-simple algorithm in most situations, regardless of the low or high model dimensionality. Specifically, LASSO constantly over-fits the model under every scenario, as indicated by literature. The models selected by SCAD are also more conservative in this case compared with those by the PC-based methods, thus the correct-fit rate is much lower while the over-fit rate is high. Furthermore, since the PC-simple relies on normality, it fails to capture the correct model with a high percentage when this elliptical distribution is considered, especially when \( p \) is high (\( p = 200 \) and \( p = 500 \)) and x-variables are independent – the correct-fit rate are only 41\% and 25\%. On the other hand, TPC increases the probability of recovering the true model to a large degree, by correcting the threshold under the ellipticity assumption.

The results for normal distribution are presented in Table 2 for illustration purpose. Recall that in theory, the TPC should be equivalent to the PC-simple algorithm in this case, thus their performances are quite similar. The median model errors are comparable for all the methods except for LASSO, which yields much larger models than necessary. Overall, both LASSO and SCAD tend to provide more conservative models, and over-fit the model, compared with the partial-correlation-based methods for variable selection.

### 3.2. An application

In this section, we demonstrate the proposed methodology by an empirical analysis of microarray data set, which was studied by Scheetz et al. (2006) and Huang et al. (2008). This dataset contains 120 12-week-old male rats, and for each rat, 3000 sufficiently expressed gene probes with enough variation are studied. The purpose of the analysis is to identify the probes that are most relevant to the response – the expression level of probe TRIM32, which are recently proved to cause Bardet-Biedl syndrome (Chiang, 2006).

We apply the SCAD, LASSO, PC-simple algorithm and TPC to this data set with one
outlier deleted. Table 3 provides the information of the chosen gene probes by different methods. As LASSO yields a much larger model leading to the difficulty of interpretation, to save space, we only report the six probes selected by SCAD, the PC-simple algorithm and TPC, and indicate whether they are included in the 20 chosen probes by LASSO. We calculate the adjusted \( R^2 \) for each model and prediction error (PE) by leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) method for each model. From Table 3, we can see that the models selected by SCAD, LASSO and TPC have very similar performance in terms of adjusted \( R^2 \) and predictor error. The TPC method improves the PC-simple algorithm by including two probes \( x_5 \) and \( x_6 \). These two probes lead to about 9% predictor error reduction from the model selected by PC-simple to the model selected by TPC. Note that the probe 1389584 at \((x_1)\) and 1383996 at \((x_2)\) are selected by all the four approaches, and also identified by Huang et al. (2008). Therefore, they are worth more comprehensively biological research. The rest of the results from TPC is more consistent with Huang et al. (2008) than the other methods.

Table 3: Results for Real Data Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selected Probes</th>
<th>SCAD</th>
<th>LASSO</th>
<th>PC-simple</th>
<th>TPC</th>
<th>M6</th>
<th>M4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.0147 (.0465)</td>
<td>.0164 (.0467)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1389584_at(x_1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.3669 (.0823)***</td>
<td>.4098 (.0710) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1383996_at(x_2)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.1400 (.0595) *</td>
<td>.1583 (.0590) **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1382452_at(x_3)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>.2450 (.0606)***</td>
<td>.2279 (.0547) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1370429_at(x_4)</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.0464 (.0815)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1383110_at(x_5)</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.1543 (.0840)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1374106_at(x_6)</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.2203 (.0727)***</td>
<td>.2580 (.0688) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 more probe</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted-( R^2 )(%)</td>
<td>69.37</td>
<td>69.55</td>
<td>66.64</td>
<td>69.10</td>
<td>74.60</td>
<td>74.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE</td>
<td>0.297</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.326</td>
<td>0.301</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 15 probes selected only by LASSO are omitted. “Yes” means the probe is selected by this method. M6 stands for the linear model with six probes \( x_1-x_6 \); M4 for the model with four probes \( x_1, x_2, x_3 \) and \( x_6 \). ‘*’ stands for significant at level 0.05, ‘**’ for level 0.01, and ‘***’ for level 0.001.

We further conduct some exploratory analysis. We compare the model with 20 probes selected by LASSO with the model with the six probes listed in Table 3 (denoted by M6 in
the table) by the likelihood ratio test (LRT). The p-value of the corresponding LRT is 0.058. This implies that the model with the six probes fits the data well enough. The corresponding estimates and standard errors of regression coefficients are listed in the second last column in Table 3. The adjusted $R^2$ and the predictor error calculated by the LOOCV method has much improvement over the model selected by the SCAD, LASSO, PC-simple and TPC methods. For example, the predictor error has about 10% reduction. The coefficients of $x_4$ and $x_5$ seem not to be significant at level 0.05. We refit the data to model with only four probes $x_1$, $x_2$, $x_3$ and $x_6$, and their estimates and standard error are reported in the last column of Table 3. The adjusted $R^2$ and predictor error of this model is very close to the one with six probes. The empirical analysis of this example implies that two comparable schemes for variable selection (i.e., regularization methods such as the SCAD and the LASSO and partial correlation based method such as PC-simple and TPC) can be used to improve each others. For example, the regularization method would miss probe $x_6$, while the TPC would miss probe $x_3$. Scientists may raises their confidence in the selected probes $x_1$ and $x_2$ since they are chosen by both techniques.

4. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed the variable selection procedure via the thresholded partial correlation (TPC) and established its model selection consistency and sure screening property in the presence of ultrahigh-dimensional predictors. Our simulation and empirical analysis of a real-life data example illustrate that the TPC may serve as a potential alternative to the commonly-used regularization methods for high or ultrahigh dimensional regression models.

Appendix

Appendix A: Proof of Theorem 3

Let $u_i = (y_i, x_i^T)$, $i = 1, \cdots, n$ and denote $q = p + 1$. Thus, $u_1, \cdots, u_n$ be an independent and identically distributed random sample from $EC_q(\mu, \Sigma, \phi)$. To study the asymptotic
behaviors of partial correlation of elliptical distribution, we consider the following general partitions of $\mathbf{u}_i$, $\mathbf{\mu}$ and $\Sigma$:

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{1i} \\ \mathbf{u}_{2i} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{\mu}_1 \\ \mathbf{\mu}_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\mathbf{u}_{1i}$ and $\mathbf{\mu}_1$ are $q_1$-dimensional, while $\mathbf{u}_{2i}$ and $\mathbf{\mu}_2$ are $q_2$-dimensional, $\Sigma_{11}$ is a $q_1 \times q_1$ matrix, and $\Sigma_{22}$ is a $q_2 \times q_2$ matrix. Here $q = q_1 + q_2$. Let $\mathbf{U} = (\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_n)^T$ and denote

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_i - \bar{\mathbf{u}})(\mathbf{u}_i - \bar{\mathbf{u}})^T = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{U}^T (I - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}_n \mathbf{1}_n^T) \mathbf{U}$$

Partition $\mathbf{A}$ in the same way as $\Sigma$. Let $a_{kl,2}$ is the $(k, l)$-element of $\mathbf{A}_{11,2} = \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21}$.

Then the sample partial correlation of $u_{ik}$ and $u_{il}$ given $\mathbf{u}_{2i}$, $\hat{\rho}(u_{ik}, u_{il} | \mathbf{u}_{2i})$, indeed equals $a_{kl,2}/\sqrt{a_{kk,2}a_{ll,2}}$.

To derive the asymptotic distribution of $\mathbf{A}_{11,2}$, let

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -\Sigma_{12} \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix},$$

where $I$ stands for the identity matrix, and $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{\mu})$. Using Theorem 2.16 of Fang, Kotz and Ng (1990), it follows that

$$\mathbf{v}_i \sim EC_q(0, \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{11,2} & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \phi) \quad (A.1)$$

where $\Sigma_{11,2} = \Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} \Sigma_{21}$.

Let $\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n)^T$. By definition of $\mathbf{v}_i$, $\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{1}_n \mathbf{\mu}^T) \mathbf{C}^T$, where $\mathbf{1}_n$ is an $n \times 1$ vector with all elements being 1. Define

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{v}_i - \bar{\mathbf{v}})(\mathbf{v}_i - \bar{\mathbf{v}})^T = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{V}^T (I - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}_n \mathbf{1}_n^T) \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^T.$$

Partition $\mathbf{B}$ in the same way as $\mathbf{A}$, then $\mathbf{B}_{11} = \mathbf{A}_{11} - \Sigma_{12} \mathbf{A}_{21} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \Sigma_{21} + \Sigma_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22} \Sigma_{21}$, $\mathbf{B}_{12} = \mathbf{A}_{12} - \Sigma_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}$, $\mathbf{B}_{21} = \mathbf{A}_{21} - \mathbf{A}_{22} \Sigma_{21}$ and $\mathbf{B}_{22} = \mathbf{A}_{22}$. By direct calculation, it follows that $\mathbf{B}_{11,2} \approx \mathbf{B}_{11} - \mathbf{B}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{B}_{21} = \mathbf{A}_{11,2}$. This enables us to derive the asymptotic distribution
Define $W_{11} = \sqrt{n}(B_{11} - \Sigma_{11.2})$, $W_{12} = \sqrt{n}B_{12}$, $W_{21} = \sqrt{n}B_{21}$, and $W_{22} = \sqrt{n}(B_{22} - \Sigma_{22})$. The assumption that all fourth moments of $u_i$ are finite implies that all fourth moments of $v_i$ are finite. Thus, it follows by the central limit theorem that $W_{kl}$ for $k = 1, 2$ and $l = 1, 2$, has an asymptotic normal distribution with mean zero and a finite covariance matrix. Then

$$B_{11.2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}W_{11} + \Sigma_{11.2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}W_{12}(\Sigma_{22} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}W_{22})^{-1}W_{21}.$$ 

Therefore it follows that

$$\sqrt{n}(A_{11.2} - \Sigma_{11.2}) = \sqrt{n}(B_{11.2} - \Sigma_{11.2}) = W_{11} + O_P(n^{-1/2}) = \sqrt{n}(B_{11} - \Sigma_{11.2}) + O_P(n^{-1/2}).$$

This implies that $A_{11.2}$ and $B_{11}$ have the same asymptotic normal distribution, and hence $a_{kl.2}/\sqrt{a_{kk.2}a_{ll.2}}$ and $b_{kl}/\sqrt{b_{kk}b_{ll}}$ have the same asymptotic distribution, where $b_{kl}$ is the $(k, l)$-element of $B_{11}$. Further notice that $v_{1i} \sim EC_{q_1}(0, \Sigma_{11.2}, \phi)$ by (A.1), where $v_{1i}$ consists of the first $q_1$ elements of $v_i$. Therefore, the asymptotic normal distribution of the sample correlation coefficient $\hat{\rho}(v_{ik}, v_{il})$, which indeed equals to $b_{kl}/\sqrt{b_{kk}b_{ll}}$, can be derived from (2.2) with replacing $\Sigma$ by $\Sigma_{11.2}$. Thus, Theorem 1 holds by setting $u_{1i} = (y_i, x_{iS}^T)^T$ and $u_{2i} = x_{iS}$.

**Appendix B: Proof of Theorems 2 and 3**

In this section, we introduce the following lemmas which are used repeatedly in the proofs of the theorems.

**Lemma 1. (Hoeffding’s Inequality)** Assume the independent random sample $\{X_i : i = 1, \cdots, n\}$ satisfies $P(X_i \in [a_i, b_i]) = 1$ for some $a_i$ and $b_i$, $\forall i = 1, \cdots, n$. Then, for any $\epsilon > 0$, the sample mean $\bar{X}$ satisfies

$$P(|\bar{X} - E(\bar{X})| > \epsilon) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2\epsilon^2 n^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right). \quad (A.2)$$
Lemma 2. Suppose $X$ is a random variable with $\mathbb{E} (e^{a|X|}) < \infty$ for some $a > 0$. Then for any $M > 0$, there exist positive constants $b$ and $c$ such that

$$P(|X| \geq M) \leq be^{-cM}. \quad (A.3)$$

Lemma 3. Suppose $\hat{\gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\gamma}_2$ are estimates of the finite parameters $\gamma_1$ and $\gamma_2$ based on a size-$n$ sample, respectively. Assume there exist positive constants $b_1$, $b_2$ and $\nu$ such that for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$,

$$P\{|\hat{\gamma}_j - \gamma_j| > \epsilon\} \leq b_j \exp(-n^\nu/b_j), \quad j = 1, 2. \quad (A.4)$$

Then

$$P\{|(\hat{\gamma}_1 - \hat{\gamma}_2) - (\gamma_1 - \gamma_2)| > \epsilon\} \leq b_3 \exp(-n^\nu/b_3),$$

$$P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1 \hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2| > \epsilon\} \leq b_4 \exp(-n^\nu/b_4),$$

where $b_3 = b_1 + b_2$, and $b_4 = 2b_1 + b_2$. If $\gamma_2 \neq 0$,

$$P\left\{|\frac{\hat{\gamma}_1}{\hat{\gamma}_2} - \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2}| > \epsilon\right\} \leq b_5 \exp(-n^\nu/b_5),$$

where $b_5 = b_1 + 3b_2$. If we further assume $\gamma_2 > 0$, then

$$P\{|\sqrt{\hat{\gamma}_2} - \sqrt{\gamma_2}| > \epsilon\} \leq b_6 \exp(-n^\nu/b_6),$$

$$P\{|\log \hat{\gamma}_2 - \log \gamma_2| > \epsilon\} \leq b_2 \exp(-n^\nu/b_2),$$

where $b_6 = 2b_2$.

Proof. The first inequality is easy to obtain by

$$P\{|(\hat{\gamma}_1 - \hat{\gamma}_2) - (\gamma_1 - \gamma_2)| > \epsilon\} \leq P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon/2\} + P\{|\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon/2\} \leq b_3 \exp(-n^\nu/b_3),$$

where $b_3 = b_1 + b_2$. To study $\hat{\gamma}_1 \hat{\gamma}_2$, we first show that $\hat{\gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\gamma}_2$ are bounded in probability.
Denote $M_1 = \max\{|\gamma_1| + 1/2, |\gamma_2| + 1/2\}$, then

$$P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1| > M_1\} \leq P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| + |\gamma_1| > M_1\}$$
$$\leq P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > 1/2\} \leq b_1 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_1). \quad (A.5)$$

Similarly, $P\{|\hat{\gamma}_2| > M_1\} \leq b_2 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_2)$. Then for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$,

$$P \{|\hat{\gamma}_1 \hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2| > \epsilon\}$$
$$= P \{|\hat{\gamma}_1 \hat{\gamma}_2 - \hat{\gamma}_1 \gamma_2 + \hat{\gamma}_1 \gamma_2 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2| > \epsilon\}$$
$$\leq P \{|\hat{\gamma}_1| \cdot |\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon/2\} + P \{|\gamma_2| \cdot |\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon/2\}$$
$$\leq P \{|\hat{\gamma}_1| \cdot |\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon/2, |\hat{\gamma}_1| \leq M_1\} + P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1| > M_1\} + P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon/(2M_1)\}$$
$$\leq P \{|\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon/(2M_1)\} + P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1| > M_1\} + P\{|\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon/(2M_1)\}$$

Thus by (A.4) and (A.5), $P \{|\hat{\gamma}_1 \hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2| > \epsilon\} \leq b_4 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_4)$, where $b_4 = 2b_1 + b_2$.

Now consider $\hat{\gamma}_1/\hat{\gamma}_2$ when $\gamma_2 \neq 0$. Note that $\hat{\gamma}_2$ is bounded away from 0 with probability tending to 1. This is because $P(|\hat{\gamma}_2| < |\gamma_2|/2) = P(|\gamma_2 - (\gamma_2 - \hat{\gamma}_2)| < |\gamma_2|/2) \leq P(|\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > |\gamma_2|/2) \leq b_2 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_2)$, which tends to 0. Then

$$P \left\{ \left| \frac{\hat{\gamma}_1}{\hat{\gamma}_2} - \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} \right| > \epsilon \right\}$$
$$\leq P \left\{ \left| \frac{\hat{\gamma}_1}{\hat{\gamma}_2} - \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} \right| > \epsilon/2 \right\} + P \left\{ \left| \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} - \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} \right| > \epsilon/2 \right\}$$
$$\leq P \left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2} \right\} + P \left\{ \left| \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} \right| \cdot |\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon/2 \right\}$$
$$\leq P \left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2}, |\gamma_2| \geq \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2} \right\} + P \left\{ |\gamma_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2}, |\gamma_2| \geq \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2} \right\} + 2P \left\{ |\gamma_2| < \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2} \right\}$$
$$\leq P \left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_1 - \gamma_1| > \epsilon \frac{|\gamma_2|}{4} \right\} + P \left\{ |\gamma_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon \frac{|\gamma_2|^2}{4|\gamma_1|} \right\} + 2P \left\{ |\gamma_2| < \frac{|\gamma_2|}{2} \right\}$$
$$\leq b_1 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_1) + b_2 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_2) + 2b_2 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_2).$$

Therefore, $P \{|\hat{\gamma}_1 \hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2| > \epsilon\} \leq b_5 \exp(-n^{\nu}/b_5)$, where $b_5 = b_1 + 3b_2$. 

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If further assume \( \gamma_2 > 0 \), using the same technique as above,

\[
P\left\{ \left| \hat{\gamma}_2 - \sqrt{\gamma_2} \right| > \epsilon \right\} \\
\leq P\left\{ \frac{|\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2|}{\sqrt{\gamma_2} + \sqrt{\gamma_2}} > \epsilon, |\hat{\gamma}_2| \geq \gamma_2 \right\} + P\left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_2| < \frac{\gamma_2}{2} \right\} \\
\leq P\left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon \sqrt{\gamma_2(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})} \right\} + P\left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_2| < \frac{\gamma_2}{2} \right\}.
\]

Thus \( P\left\{ |\sqrt{\gamma_2} - \sqrt{\gamma_2} > \epsilon \right\} \leq b_6 \exp(-n' / b_6) \), where \( b_6 = 2b_2 \).

At last, since \( \hat{\gamma}_2 \) is consistent with \( \gamma_2 \), we can apply Taylor’s expansion to \( \log \hat{\gamma}_2 \), i.e.

\[
\log \hat{\gamma}_2 = \log \gamma_2 + (\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2) / \gamma_2 + o_p(\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2).
\]

Thus for large \( n \),

\[
P\left\{ |\log \hat{\gamma}_2 - \log \gamma_2| > \epsilon \right\} \leq P\left\{ \frac{2}{\gamma_2} |\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \epsilon \right\} \leq P\left\{ |\hat{\gamma}_2 - \gamma_2| > \delta'' \right\},
\]

where \( \delta'' = \min\{\epsilon, \epsilon \gamma_2 / 2\} \). Therefore, \( P\left\{ |\log \hat{\gamma}_2 - \log \gamma_2| > \epsilon \right\} \leq b_2 \exp(-n'' / b_2) \).

\[\square\]

For ease of notation, denote \( \bar{x}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}, \bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i, \bar{x}_j \bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij} y_i, \bar{x}_j^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2, \) and \( \bar{y}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 \). Then

\[
\hat{\rho}(y, x_j) = \frac{x_j \bar{y} - \bar{x}_j \bar{y}}{\sqrt{(x_j^2 - \bar{x}_j^2)(\bar{y}^2 - \bar{y}^2)}} \quad \text{(A.6)}
\]

\textbf{The proof of Theorem 2} We divide the proof into three parts.

\textbf{Step 1}: Study the consistency of \( \hat{Z}_n(y, x_j | x_S) / \sqrt{1 + \kappa} \). First consider \( \bar{x}_j \). For any \( 0 < \epsilon < 1 \) and any \( M > 0 \),

\[
P(|\bar{x}_j - E x_j| > \epsilon) \leq P(|\bar{x}_j - E x_j| > \epsilon, \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_{ij}| \leq M) + P(\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_{ij}| > M) \\
\leq P(|\bar{x}_j - E x_j| > \epsilon, \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_{ij}| \leq M) + nP(|x_{ij}| > M) \\
\leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{n \epsilon^2}{2M^4}\right) + nC_2 \exp(-C_1 M) \quad \text{(A.7)}
\]

for some positive constants \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \). The first term above is obtained by Hoeffding’s
inequality in Lemma 1, and the second term is by condition (D2) and Lemma 2. Take \( M = O(n^{1/5}) \), then for large \( n \), (A.7) is simplified as \( P(|\bar{x}_j - E x_j| > \epsilon) \leq C_3 \exp(-n^\nu/C_3) \), where \( 0 < \nu < 1/5 \) and \( C_3 > 0 \). In the same fashion, there exist some positive constants \( C_4 \), \( C_5 \), \( C_6 \) and \( C_7 \), such that for large \( n \),

\[
P(|\bar{y} - E y| > \epsilon) \leq C_4 \exp(-n^\nu/C_4), \quad P(|\bar{x}_j^2 - E(x_j^2)| > \epsilon) \leq C_5 \exp(-n^\nu/C_5),
\]
\[
P(|y^2 - E(y^2)| > \epsilon) \leq C_6 \exp(-n^\nu/C_6), \quad P(|\bar{x}_j y - E(x_j y)| > \epsilon) \leq C_7 \exp(-n^\nu/C_7).
\]

Therefore by (A.6) and Lemma 3,

\[
P\{|\hat{\rho}(y, x_j) - \rho(y, x_j)| > \epsilon\} \leq C_8 \exp(-n^\nu/C_8),
\]

where the positive constant \( C_8 \) is determined by \( C_3, \ldots, C_7 \).

Note that

\[
\rho(y, x_j|x_S) = \frac{\rho(y, x_j|x_S\{k\}) - \rho(y, x_k|x_S\{k\})\rho(x_j, x_k|x_S\{k\})}{\{1 - \rho^2(y, x_k|x_S\{k\})\}{1 - \rho^2(x_j, x_k|x_S\{k\})}}^{1/2}, \quad (A.8)
\]

for any \( k \in S \).

Under the bounded condition (D5), applying Lemma 3 to the sample version of (A.8) and the Z-transformation (2.4) recursively, we conclude that for some \( C_9 > 0 \) and \( C_{10} > 0 \),

\[
P\{|\hat{\rho}(y, x_j|x_S) - \rho(y, x_j|x_S)| > \epsilon\} \leq C_9 \exp(-n^\nu/C_9), \quad \text{and}
\]
\[
P\{|\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S) - Z(y, x_j|x_S)| > \epsilon\} \leq C_{10} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{10}).
\]

Furthermore, by the same argument, the sample kurtosis is consistent to the population version with the same rate, that is, there exists \( C_{11} > 0 \) such that \( P\{|\hat{\kappa} - \kappa| > \epsilon\} \leq C_{11} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{11}) \), and hence for some \( C_{12} > 0 \),

\[
P\left\{|\frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1 + \hat{\kappa}}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1 + \kappa}}| > \epsilon\right\} \leq C_{12} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{12}).
\]

**Step 2:** Compute \( P(E_{j|S}) = P\{\text{an error occurs when testing } \rho(y, x_j|x_S) = 0\} \). Denote
\( E_{j|S} = E^I_{j|S} \cup E^{II}_{j|S} \), where \( E^I_{j|S} \) is the event that the type I error occurs and \( E^{II}_{j|S} \) is the event that the type II error occurs. Then by choosing \( \alpha_n = 2\{1 - \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha}{2} \sqrt{\frac{n}{1+\kappa}} \right) \} \),

\[
P(E^I_{j|S}) = P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} > \frac{\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha_n/2)}{(n-|S|-1)^{1/2}} \text{ when } Z(y, x_j|x_S) = 0 \right\}
\]

\[
\leq P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} > \frac{\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha_n/2)}{(n-|S|-1)^{1/2}} \right\}
\]

\[
= P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} > \frac{c_n \sqrt{n}}{2(n-|S|-1)(1+\kappa)^{1/2}} \right\}
\]

\[
\leq C_{12} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{12}),
\]

and

\[
P(E^{II}_{j|S}) = P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \leq \frac{\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha_n/2)}{(n-|S|-1)^{1/2}} \text{ when } Z(y, x_j|x_S) \neq 0 \right\}
\]

\[
\leq P \left\{ \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \leq \frac{\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha_n/2)}{(n-|S|-1)^{1/2}} \right\}
\]

\[
\leq P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \geq \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{c_n}{2\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \right\}
\]

Note that \( |g(u)| = \frac{1}{2} \log \{(1+u)/(1-u)\} \geq |u| \) for all \( u \in (-1, 1) \), then \( |Z(y, x_j|x_S)| \geq |\rho_n(y, x_j|x_S)| \geq c_n \) under condition (D4). Thus,

\[
P(E^{II}_{j|S}) \leq P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \geq \frac{c_n}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{c_n}{2\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \right\}
\]

\[
= P \left\{ \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} - \frac{Z(y, x_j|x_S)}{\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \geq \frac{c_n}{2\sqrt{1+\kappa}} \right\}
\]

\[
\leq C_{12} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{12}).
\]

Therefore, \( P(E_{j|S}) = P(E^I_{j|S}) + P(E^{II}_{j|S}) \leq 2C_{12} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{12}) \).

**Step 3:** Study \( P\{A_n(\alpha_n) = A \} \). Now consider all \( j = 1, \ldots, p \) and all \( S \subseteq \{j\}^c \) subject to
\[ |S| \leq m_n, \text{ where } m_n \leq \hat{m}_{\text{reach}}. \] Define \( K_{j}^{m_n} = \{ S \subseteq \{ j \}^c, |S| \leq m_n \}, j = 1, \cdots, p. \)

\[
P\{ \hat{A}_n(\alpha_n) \neq A \} = P\{ \text{an error occurs for some } j \text{ and some } S \}
\leq\sum_{j=1, \cdots, p_n; S \in K_{j}^{m_n}} P(E_{j|S})
\leq p^{m_n+1} \sup_{j=1, \cdots, p_n; S \in K_{j}^{m_n}} P(E_{j|S})
\leq 2p^{d_0+1}C_{12} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{12}). \quad (A.9)
\]

The second inequality holds since the number of possible choices of \( j \) is \( p \) and there are \( p^{m_n} \) possible choices for \( S \). The last inequality in (A.9) is obtained because \( P(\hat{m}_{\text{reach}} = m_{\text{reach}}) \rightarrow 1 \) and \( m_{\text{reach}} \leq d_0 \) by the same technique as Lemma 3 in Buhlmann, Kalisch and Maathuis (2010). Thus for large \( n, m_n \leq \hat{m}_{\text{reach}} \leq d_0. \)

Moreover, recall that \( \nu \) can be chosen arbitrarily in \((0, 1/5)\). Therefore, if \( d_0 \) is fixed, for \( p = o(\exp(n^\xi)), 0 < \xi < 1/5, \) (A.9) is simplified as \( P\{ \hat{A}_n(\alpha_n) \neq A \} \leq O\{\exp(-n^\nu/C_{12})\} \), provided \( \xi < \nu < 1/5 \). If \( d_0 = O(n^b), 0 < b < 1/5, \) for \( p = o(\exp(n^\xi)), 0 < \xi < 1/5 - b, \) (A.9) becomes \( P\{ \hat{A}_n(\alpha_n) \neq A \} \leq O\{\exp(-n^\nu/C_{12})\} \), provided that \( \xi + b < \nu < 1/5. \) This completes the proof of Theorem 2 with \( C = C_{12}. \)

**Proof of Theorem 3** We only need to consider the first step of the thresholded partial correlation approach, where we have

\[
P\left( \frac{\hat{Z}(y, x_j) - Z(y, x_j)}{\sqrt{1 + \kappa}} > \epsilon \right) \leq C_{13} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{13})
\]

for some \( C_{13} > 0. \) Define \( E_{j}^{II} = \{ \text{fail to include } x_j \text{ when } x_j \text{ is a true predictor} \}, \) then using the same technique as the proof of Theorem 2

\[
P(E_{j}^{II}) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha_n/2)}{(n - 1)^{1/2}} & \text{when } \beta_j \neq 0 \end{cases}
\leq P\left( \frac{\hat{Z}_n(y, x_j) - Z_n(y, x_j)}{\sqrt{1 + \kappa}} \geq \frac{c_n}{2\sqrt{1 + \kappa}} \right)
\leq C_{13} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{13}).
\]
Then
\[
P\{\hat{A}^{[1]}_n \not\in A\} = P\left\{ \bigcup_{j=1}^{p} E_j^{II} \right\} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{p} P(E_j^{II}) \leq pC_{13} \exp(-n^\nu/C_{13}),
\]
for any \(0 < \nu < 1/5\). Therefore, for \(p = o(\exp(n^\xi))\) and \(0 < \xi < 1/5\),
\[
P\{\hat{A}^{[1]}_n \not\in A\} \leq O\{\exp(-n^\nu/C_{13})\},
\]
provided \(\xi < \nu < 1/5\). This completes the proof of Theorem 3 with \(C^* = C_{13}\).

References


