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# LARGE DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF MARONNA'S M-ESTIMATOR WITH OUTLIERS

David Morales-Jimenez\*, Romain Couillet†, Matthew R. McKay\*

\* Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, ECE Department

† Supélec, Telecommunication Department

## ABSTRACT

Building on recent results in the random matrix analysis of robust estimators of scatter, we show that a certain class of such estimators obtained from samples containing outliers behaves similar to a well-known random matrix model in the limiting regime where both the population and sample sizes grow to infinity at the same speed. This result allows us to understand the structure of such estimators when a certain fraction of the samples is corrupted by outliers and, in particular, to derive their asymptotic eigenvalue distributions. This analysis is a first step towards an improved usage of robust estimation methods under the presence of outliers when the number of independent observations is not too large compared to the size of the population.

*Index Terms*— Robust estimation, outliers, random matrix theory.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The growing momentum of big data applications along with the recent advances in large random matrix theory have raised a great interest for problems in statistical inference and signal processing under the assumption of similar population and sample sizes. New source detection schemes have in particular been proposed based on the works on the extreme and isolated eigenvalues of large sample covariance matrices. New subspace methods in large array processing have also been derived that outperform traditional algorithms by exploiting statistical inference methods on large random matrices. Most of these signal processing methods fundamentally rely on the structure of the sample covariance matrix  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^\dagger$  formed from independent or linearly dependent samples  $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n \in \mathbb{C}^N$ , which are by now well understood objects. However, there are applications where, even when  $n \gg N$ , the sample covariance matrix fails to provide a good estimate of the population covariance, hence the need for more robust methods. Robust scatter M-estimation techniques are precisely used to better approximate population covariance (or scatter) matrices whenever (i) the distribution of

the  $\mathbf{y}_i$ 's is heavier-tailed than Gaussian (e.g., elliptical data) or (ii) the  $\mathbf{y}_i$ 's contain outliers [1, 2].

Given the usually quite involved implicit expression of these robust estimators, it is not obvious to study their behavior but recent works have provided some first answers for Gaussian or elliptical i.i.d. data, see e.g., [3] for Maronna's M-estimator, [4] for Tyler's estimator, or [5] for a regularized Tyler's estimator. Robust regressors have also been investigated in [6]. These works entailed the design of improved detectors and estimators accounting for the impulsiveness of data, see e.g., [7] for an application to portfolio optimization in finance, [8] for subspace estimators in array processing, or [9] for generalized likelihood ratio tests under elliptical noise data.

However, these works have all assumed i.i.d. samples, be they impulsive or not, arising from an analytically tractable distribution (i.e., Gaussian or elliptical mostly). Very little is however known concerning the impact of outliers on the robust estimators, although these estimators were originally designed by Huber [1] for this very purpose of harnessing outliers. In this work, we consider robust scatter estimators of the Maronna type (defined below) in the double asymptotic regime where  $N, n \rightarrow \infty$  with  $N/n \rightarrow c \in (0, 1)$ , and characterize their behavior when the set of data samples contains deterministic and then random outliers. Our main finding is to show that, under mild assumptions, the estimator behaves for large  $N, n$  as a weighted version of the sample covariance matrix with different weights for the model-fitting data (usually considered in majority) and for the outlying samples. An analysis of these weights in the limiting case of few outliers reveals the following take away messages: (i) the robust estimators tend to reduce the importance of outliers with strong norm, thus precluding the problem of arbitrary large bias, and (ii-a) strong correlation in the model-fitting data induces in general stronger outlier rejection but (ii-b) in a worst case scenario, the impact of outliers may be increased, thus necessitating a careful choice of estimator within the Maronna class, and in particular estimators originally proposed by Huber.

In the remainder, we provide a precise statement of the problem at hand before introducing our main results from which we extract in rigorous terms the aforementioned messages.

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## 2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Consider  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times n}$  to be a matrix composed in columns of  $n$  stacked  $N$ -dimensional data vectors, with  $\varepsilon_n n$  of these samples being outliers, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{(1-\varepsilon_n)n}, \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{\varepsilon_n n}] \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} \in \mathbb{C}^N$  are random with  $\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{C}_N^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{x}_i$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_N \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$  deterministic positive definite and  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{(1-\varepsilon_n)n}$  i.i.d. random with are i.i.d. zero mean and unit variance entries,<sup>1</sup> whereas  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{\varepsilon_n n} \in \mathbb{C}^N$  are arbitrary deterministic vectors. We further denote  $c_n \triangleq N/n$  and shall consider the following growth regime.

**Assumption 1** For each  $N$ ,  $\mathbf{C}_N \succ 0$ ,  $\limsup_N \|\mathbf{C}_N\| < \infty$ .

**Assumption 2** As  $N, n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $c_n \rightarrow c$  and  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow \varepsilon \in [0, 1)$  with  $0 < c < 1 - \varepsilon$ .

Define Maronna's  $M$ -estimator  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  as the (almost surely unique) solution to the equation in  $\mathbf{Z}$  [10]

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Z} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} u \left( \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{y}_i^\dagger \mathbf{Z}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_i \right) \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^\dagger \\ &+ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} u \left( \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_i^\dagger \mathbf{Z}^{-1} \mathbf{a}_i \right) \mathbf{a}_i \mathbf{a}_i^\dagger \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $u$  is defined on  $[0, \infty)$ , nonnegative, continuous and non-increasing, and such that  $\phi(x) = xu(x)$  is increasing and bounded with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \phi(x) \triangleq \phi_\infty$ . Moreover,  $1 < \phi_\infty < c^{-1}(1 - \varepsilon)$ .

Following the works [3, 11], our main objective is to find a large  $N, n$  random matrix equivalent for  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  which is more tractable and prone to analysis.

## 3. MAIN RESULTS

We are now in position to introduce our main result, a proof sketch of which is provided in Appendix A. A complete proof is available in an extended version of the present article.

**Theorem 1 (Asymptotic Behavior)** : Let Assumptions 1-2 hold and let  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  be the a.s. unique solution to (2). Then, as  $N, n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\|\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N - \hat{\mathbf{S}}_N\| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0 \quad (3)$$

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{S}}_N \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(\gamma_n) \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{i,n}) \mathbf{a}_i \mathbf{a}_i^\dagger \quad (4)$$

<sup>1</sup>We could have considered samples with elliptical-like distributions instead but, in order not to confuse messages, we only characterize here the behavior of Maronna's estimator for light-tailed data versus outliers.

with  $\gamma_n$  and  $\alpha_{1,n}, \dots, \alpha_{\varepsilon_n n, n}$  the unique positive solutions to the system of  $\varepsilon_n n + 1$  equations ( $i = 1, \dots, \varepsilon_n n$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_n &= \frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \mathbf{C}_N \left( \frac{(1-\varepsilon)v(\gamma_n)}{1+cv(\gamma_n)\gamma_n} \mathbf{C}_N + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{i,n}) \mathbf{a}_i \mathbf{a}_i^\dagger \right)^{-1} \\ \alpha_{i,n} &= \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_i^\dagger \left( \frac{(1-\varepsilon)v(\gamma_n)}{1+cv(\gamma_n)\gamma_n} \mathbf{C}_N + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{j,n}) \mathbf{a}_j \mathbf{a}_j^\dagger \right)^{-1} \mathbf{a}_i \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

and  $v(x) = u(g^{-1}(x))$ ,  $g(x) = x/(1 - c\phi(x))$ .

This result characterizes the spectral behavior of  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  for large  $N, n$ . In particular, a corollary to Theorem 1 is that  $\max_i |\lambda_i(\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N) - \lambda_i(\hat{\mathbf{S}}_N)| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0$ , where  $\lambda_i(\mathbf{X})$  are the ordered eigenvalues of the Hermitian matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ .

Remark that the approximation matrix  $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_N$  consists of two terms: a normalized sample covariance matrix and a weighted sum of the outlier outer products. These weights allow for an automated balancing between model-fitting data and outliers. To get some insight on the properties of  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  induced by these weights, let us consider the single-outlier case where  $\varepsilon_n = 1/n \rightarrow 0$ . We easily obtain by a rank-one perturbation argument that  $\gamma_n \rightarrow \gamma$ , where  $\gamma$  is the solution to  $\gamma = (1 + cv(\gamma)\gamma)/v(\gamma)$ . It can be seen, using the definition of  $v$ , that  $\gamma = \phi^{-1}(1)/(1 - c)$  and that, as a consequence,  $v(\gamma) = 1/\phi^{-1}(1)$  (which is the result originally proved in [11] in the absence of outliers). As for  $\alpha_{1,n}$ , it is given explicitly as

$$\alpha_{1,n} = \frac{\phi^{-1}(1)}{1-c} \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1.$$

As such, so long that  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1 \geq 1$ ,  $v(\alpha_{1,n}) \leq v(\gamma)$  and thus the impact of the outlier  $\mathbf{a}_1$  will be all the more attenuated that  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1$  is large. However, if  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1 < 1$ , then  $v(\alpha_{1,n}) \geq v(\gamma)$  and the impact of  $\mathbf{a}_1$  may be increased. As such:

- to avoid increasing the effect of outliers,  $v(x)$  should be set to a constant for all  $x \leq \frac{\phi^{-1}(1)}{1-c}$ , or equivalently  $u(x)$  is constant for  $x \leq \phi^{-1}(1)$ . A particular example of such a choice is  $u(x) = \min\{1, (1+t)/(t+x)\}$  for some  $t > 0$ , which is (almost) the original Huber estimator from [1].<sup>2</sup>
- for  $\mathbf{C}_N$  close to the identity matrix, only the norm of  $\mathbf{a}_1$  dictates its relative impact. It is thus expected that matrices  $\mathbf{C}_N$  with a few dominant modes associated to  $\mathbf{a}_1$  not aligned to its dominant eigenvectors shall provide better rejection of outliers to  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$ . On the opposite, if  $\mathbf{a}_1$  were to be aligned to the dominant modes of  $\mathbf{C}_N$ , the outlier rejection will be compromised.

<sup>2</sup>Huber considered a  $t = 0$  and a slightly more general form for the estimator. But taking  $t = 0$  is usually not enough to ensure the uniqueness of the estimator as the solution of the implicit equation (2).

Other considerations are easily made. In particular, if  $\mathbf{a}_1 = \dots = \mathbf{a}_{\varepsilon_n n}$ , then we easily see that, as  $\varepsilon_n n$  grows, the outlier-rejection gain brought by the possibly large quadratic form  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{C}}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1$  is quickly overrun so that, if  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\limsup_N \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{C}}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1 < \infty$ , the outliers will not be rejected. However, beside these simple considerations, little can be analytically said about Theorem 1.

Of interest though is the case where the  $\mathbf{a}_i$ 's are random i.i.d., not following the same distribution as  $\mathbf{y}_i$ . This gives in particular the following corollary.

**Corollary 1 (Random Outliers)** : *Let Assumptions 1-2 hold and let  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{\varepsilon_n n}$  be random with  $\mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{D}_N^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ , where  $\mathbf{D}_N \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$  is the outlying population covariance matrix and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\varepsilon_n n}$  are i.i.d. random with i.i.d. zero mean and unit variance entries. Let us further assume that, for each  $N$ ,  $\mathbf{D}_N \succ 0$  and  $\limsup_N \|\mathbf{D}_N\| < \infty$ . Then, as  $N, n \rightarrow \infty$ ,*

$$\left\| \hat{\mathbf{C}}_N - \hat{\mathbf{S}}_N^{\text{rnd}} \right\| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \quad (6)$$

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{S}}_N^{\text{rnd}} \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(\gamma_n) \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_n) \mathbf{a}_i \mathbf{a}_i^\dagger, \quad (7)$$

with  $\gamma_n$  and  $\alpha_n$  the unique positive solutions to

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_n &= \frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \mathbf{C}_N \left( \frac{(1-\varepsilon)v(\gamma_n)}{1+cv(\gamma_n)\gamma_n} \mathbf{C}_N + \frac{\varepsilon v(\alpha_n)}{1+cv(\alpha_n)\alpha_n} \mathbf{D}_N \right)^{-1} \\ \alpha_n &= \frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \mathbf{D}_N \left( \frac{(1-\varepsilon)v(\gamma_n)}{1+cv(\gamma_n)\gamma_n} \mathbf{C}_N + \frac{\varepsilon v(\alpha_n)}{1+cv(\alpha_n)\alpha_n} \mathbf{D}_N \right)^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

In this scenario,  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  is equivalent to a weighted sum of two sample covariance matrices for the model-fitting against the outlier data. Again, it is interesting to study the regime where  $\varepsilon = 0$ . In this regime, we again get that  $\gamma_n \rightarrow \gamma$  where  $v(\gamma) = 1/\phi^{-1}(1)$  as above and now  $\alpha_n \rightarrow \alpha$  explicitly determined by

$$\alpha = \frac{\phi^{-1}(1)}{1-c} \frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \mathbf{D}_N \mathbf{C}_N^{-1}.$$

The factor of importance is then now the trace  $\frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \mathbf{D}_N \mathbf{C}_N^{-1}$  which, if large, induced a decay in the outlier importance, and vice-versa. Note again that, for  $\mathbf{D}_N$  and  $\mathbf{C}_N$  of similar trace, it is of key importance that  $\mathbf{C}_N$  be as distinct from  $\mathbf{I}_N$  as possible for outlier rejection to be possible. Note also that, when seen as functions of  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\gamma_n(\varepsilon) \rightarrow \gamma$  and  $\alpha_n(\varepsilon) \rightarrow \alpha$  continuously with  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , so that the predicted behavior for  $\varepsilon = 0$  is a good approximation of the behavior for all small  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

## 4. NUMERICAL DISCUSSION

We now provide simulation results that shed some more light to the conclusions drawn from Theorem 1 and Corollary 1.

Let us place ourselves first under the setting of Theorem 1. Taking  $N = 100, n = 500$ , we assume  $[\mathbf{C}_N]_{ij} = .9^{|i-j|}$  and let  $\varepsilon_n n = 2$  with  $\mathbf{a}_1 = \mathbf{1}$ , the vector of all-ones, and  $\mathbf{a}_2$  such that  $[\mathbf{a}_2]_k = \exp(\pi i k)$  (a steering vector at  $30^\circ$ ). In this setting,  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_1^\dagger \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_1 \simeq 0.06$  while  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{a}_2^\dagger \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{a}_2 \simeq 19$ . We compare the results obtained for  $u_1(x) = (1+t)/(t+x)$  against  $u_2(x) = \min\{1, (1+t)/(t+x)\}$  for  $t = .1$  (and call  $v_1, v_2$  accordingly).

Numerically, we obtain

$$v_1(\gamma_n) \simeq .992, v_1(\alpha_{1,n}) \simeq 6.42, v_1(\alpha_{2,n}) \simeq .006.$$

We thus observe a strong attenuation of the second outlier, while the first outlier is strongly enhanced. Comparatively,

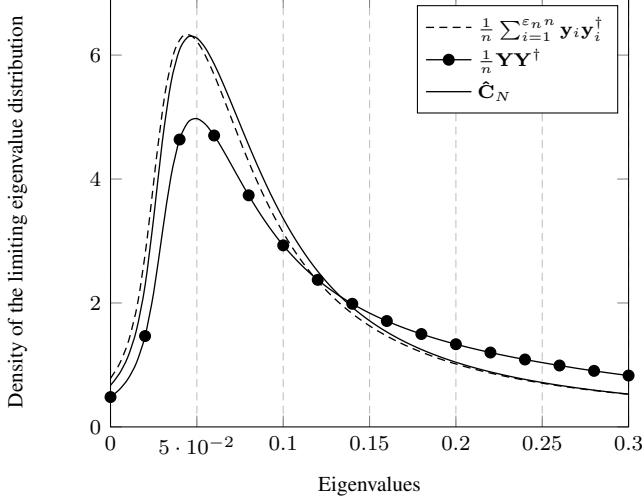
$$v_2(\gamma_n) \simeq .984, v_2(\alpha_{1,n}) = 1.00, v_2(\alpha_{2,n}) \simeq .006.$$

Thus here Huber's type estimator prevents, as it should, the outlier  $\mathbf{a}_1$  to be enhanced. This however induces a loss in the closeness of  $v_2(\gamma_n)$  to one.

We now consider the hypotheses of Corollary 1 with  $[\mathbf{C}_N]_{ij} = .9^{|i-j|}$ ,  $N = 100$ , while  $\mathbf{D}_N = \mathbf{I}_N$ ,  $c = .2$ . We wish to compare the eigenvalue distribution of the sample covariance  $\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y}^\dagger$  and that of  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  against the outlier-free sample covariance matrix  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^\dagger$ . From our earlier discussions, we wish ideally that the eigenvalue distribution of the former two match as closely as possible that of the latter. To avoid lengthy and imprecise Monte Carlo simulations, we instead compare the theoretical limiting eigenvalue distributions as  $N, n \rightarrow \infty$  but for the limiting eigenvalue distribution of  $\mathbf{C}_N$  maintained to the that of  $\mathbf{C}_N$  when  $N = 100$  (thus, we precisely compare the eigenvalue distributions of the so-called deterministic equivalents for the various random matrices under study). We take  $\varepsilon = 0.05$ , i.e., a 5% data pollution by outliers. This is depicted in Figure 1, which shows a tight match between  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$  and the target distribution, while the sample covariance matrix is strongly affected in its shifting much weight towards the purely-outlier distribution that would be the well-known Marčenko–Pastur law (since  $\mathbf{D}_N = \mathbf{I}_N$ ).

## 5. CONCLUSION

We have provided a large dimensional analysis for robust covariance estimators of the Maronna-type when the data set contains outliers. We specifically showed that, under mild assumptions, the Maronna estimator behaves as a weighted version of the sample covariance matrix, where model-fitting data versus outliers are weighted very differently. This analysis paves the way to an improved usage of robust estimators of scatter in application contexts prone to outliers.



**Fig. 1.** Limiting eigenvalue distributions.  $[\mathbf{C}_N]_{ij} = .9^{|i-j|}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}_N = \mathbf{I}_N$ ,  $\varepsilon = .05$ .

### A. INTUITIVE DERIVATION OF THE RESULTS

Both intuitive and accurate proofs follow the ideas of [3]. We provide here only the non-rigorous (although more insightful) sketch of the proof.

We start from the solution to (2),  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N$ , and define  $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N = \mathbf{C}_N^{-\frac{1}{2}} \hat{\mathbf{C}}_N \mathbf{C}_N^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ , which allows us to write

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} u \left( \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i \right) \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} u \left( \frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \right) \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where  $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i = \mathbf{C}_N^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{a}_i$ . The intuitive idea is to approximate the quadratic forms  $\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i$  by some deterministic quantities making use of standard random matrix results. To that end, the main difficulty lies in the dependence structure between  $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N$  and the vectors  $\mathbf{x}_i$ . However, following the same steps as in [12, III.A], this dependence can be ‘weakened’ by rewriting (9) as

$$\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(d_i) \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(b_i) \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \quad (10)$$

with  $d_1, \dots, d_{(1-\varepsilon_n)n}$  and  $b_1, \dots, b_{\varepsilon_n n}$  the unique solutions to the  $n$  equations

$$\begin{aligned} d_i &= \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{C}}_{(x_i)}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, (1-\varepsilon_n)n \\ b_i &= \frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{C}}_{(a_i)}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, \varepsilon_n n, \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{(x_i)}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{(a_i)}$  are built from  $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N$  by removing the outer product involving  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{a}_i$ , respectively. Note that

$\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{(x_i)}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are not completely independent since  $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N^{-1}$  (in the argument of the  $u$  function for all samples) is built on  $\mathbf{x}_i$ . This dependence, however, seems to be ‘weak’ since  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is only one among a growing number  $n$  of  $\mathbf{x}_j$  vectors. Approximating this ‘weak’ dependence by independence, we can use trace and rank-one perturbation arguments (see, e.g. [13, Lemma 3.1]) which suggest that

$$d_i = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{C}}_{(x_i)}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i \approx \frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N^{-1} \triangleq d. \quad (12)$$

From known large random matrix results (see, e.g., [14, 15]), we also expect  $d$  and  $b_i$  to have deterministic equivalents; assume this is true, i.e., there exist deterministic sequences  $\{\gamma_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  and  $\{\alpha_{i,n}\}_{n=1}^\infty$  such that

$$|d - \gamma_n| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0 \quad (13)$$

$$|b_i - \alpha_{i,n}| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, \varepsilon_n n. \quad (14)$$

We can then approximate

$$\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(\gamma_n) \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{i,n}) \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \quad (15)$$

and, consequently,

$$d \approx \frac{1}{N} \text{tr} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(\gamma_n) \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{i,n}) \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \right)^{-1} \quad (16)$$

$$b_i \approx \frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(\gamma_n) \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{x}_j^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{i,n}) \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_j \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_j^\dagger \right)^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i. \quad (17)$$

with  $v(\gamma_n)$  now independent of  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , and recall that  $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i$ ’s are deterministic. Then, (16) and (17) are functionals of a general class of random matrices whose deterministic equivalents are known (see, e.g., [14, 15]). From a direct application of [14, Thm. 1], we would then expect  $\gamma_n$  and  $\alpha_{i,n}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, \varepsilon_n n$ , to be given by (5), the system of fixed-point equations in Theorem 1. In fact, we can prove rigorously that such  $\gamma_n$  and  $\alpha_{i,n}$  are well-defined and satisfy  $\max_{1 \leq i \leq (1-\varepsilon_n)n} |d_i - \gamma_n| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0$  and  $\max_{1 \leq i \leq \varepsilon_n n} |b_i - \alpha_{i,n}| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0$ . This uniform convergence ensures that  $\|\underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N - \underline{\hat{\mathbf{S}}}_N\| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0$  where

$$\underline{\hat{\mathbf{S}}}_N = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{(1-\varepsilon_n)n} v(\gamma_n) \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\dagger + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\varepsilon_n n} v(\alpha_{i,n}) \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^\dagger. \quad (18)$$

It is then immediate to see under Assumption 1 that this, along with  $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_N = \mathbf{C}_N^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{\hat{\mathbf{C}}}_N \mathbf{C}_N^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , yields the result in Theorem 1.

For the case of random outliers, the result in Corollary 1 can be derived from Theorem 1 by using the same random matrix arguments, i.e., trace and rank-one perturbation arguments along with the deterministic equivalent from [14, Thm. 1], but now focused on the random outlying vectors  $\mathbf{a}_i$ .

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