

Model selection and estimator selection for statistical learning

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Outline of the 5 lectures

- ① Monday 14, 14:00–16:00: Statistical learning
- ② Tuesday 15, 9:00–11:00: Model selection for least-squares regression
- ③ Thursday 17, 14:00–16:00: Linear estimator selection for least-squares regression
- ④ Tuesday 22, 14:00–16:00: Resampling and model selection
- ⑤ Wednesday 23, 9:00–11:00: Cross-validation and model/estimator selection

Part I

Statistical learning

Outline

- 1 The statistical learning problem
- 2 Which estimators?
- 3 Estimator selection
- 4 Interactions within mathematics
- 5 Conclusion

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General framework

- **Data:** $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n \in \Xi$ i.i.d. $\sim P$
- **Goal:** estimate a feature $s^* \in \mathbb{S}$ of P
- **Quality measure:** **loss function**

$$\forall t \in \mathbb{S}, \quad \mathcal{L}_P(t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi \sim P} [\gamma(t; \xi)] = P\gamma(t)$$

minimal at $t = s^*$

Contrast function: $\gamma : \mathbb{S} \times \Xi \mapsto [0, +\infty)$

- **Excess loss**

$$\ell(s^*, t) = P\gamma(t) - P\gamma(s^*)$$

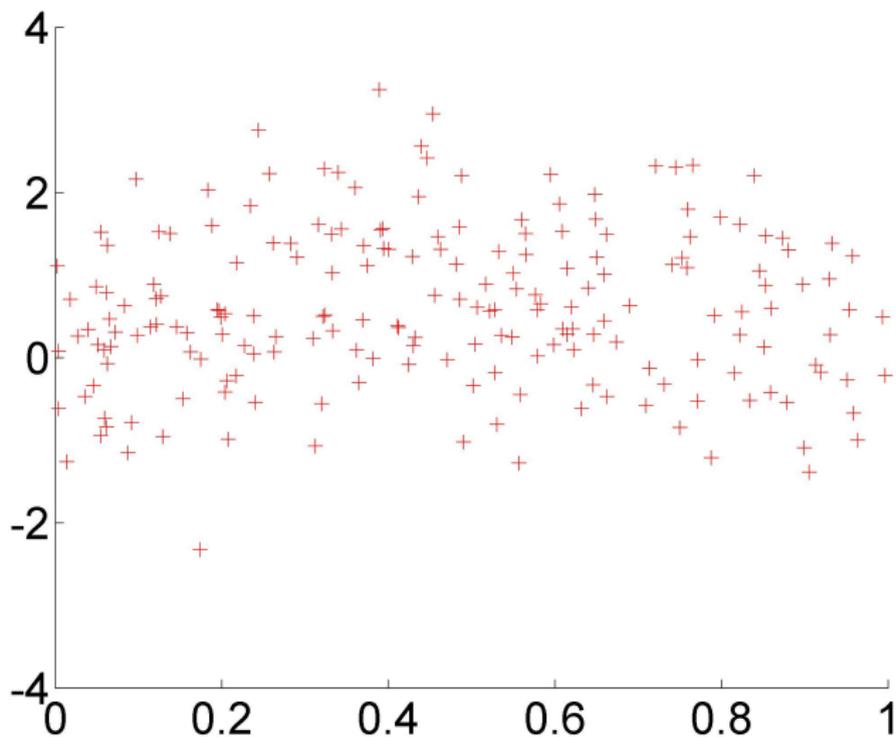
Example: prediction

- **Data:** $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \Xi = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$
- **Goal:** **predict Y given X** with $(X, Y) = \xi \sim P$
- $s^*(X)$ is the “best predictor” of Y given X , i.e., s^* minimizes the loss function

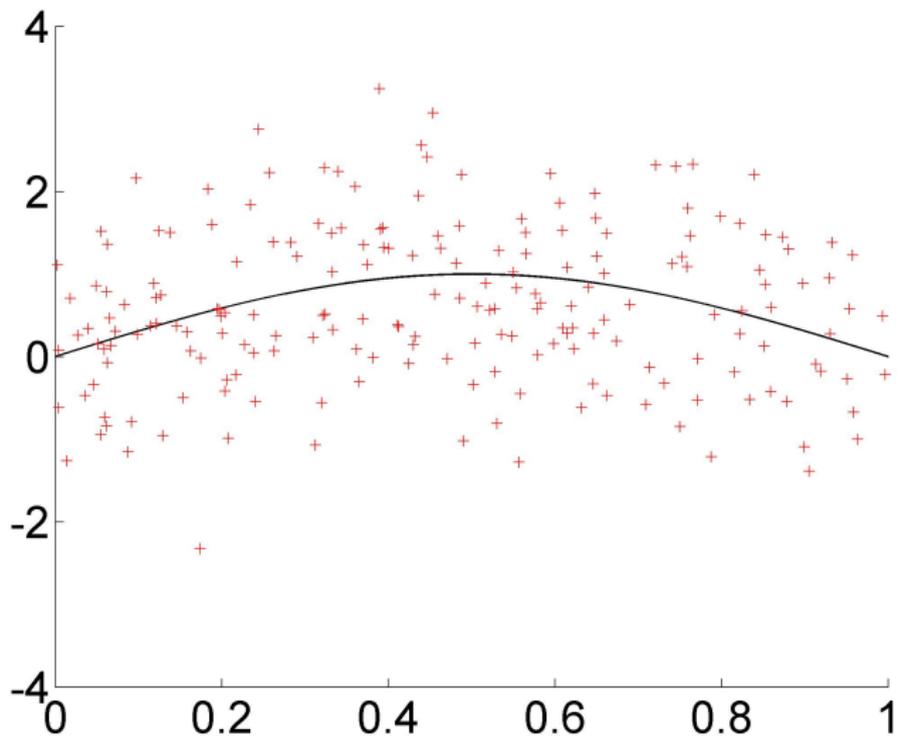
$$P\gamma(t) \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma(t; (x, y)) = d(t(x), y)$$

measuring some “distance” between y and the prediction $t(x)$.

Example: regression: data $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$



Goal: find the signal (denoising)



Example: regression

- prediction with $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$
- Data: $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ i.i.d.

$$Y_i = \eta(X_i) + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i | X_i] = 0$$

Example: regression

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$$Y_i = \eta(X_i) + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i | X_i] = 0$$

- **least-squares contrast:** $\gamma(t; (x, y)) = (t(x) - y)^2$

$$\Rightarrow \quad s^* = \eta \quad \text{and} \quad \ell(s^*, t) = \|t - \eta\|_2^2 = \mathbb{E} \left[(t(X) - \eta(X))^2 \right]$$

Example: regression on a fixed design

- $(X_1, \dots, X_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ deterministic

$$Y = F + \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{with} \quad F = (\eta(x_1), \dots, \eta(x_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

and $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n$ centered and independent.

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- **Homoscedastic** case: $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n$ i.i.d.

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- Homoscedastic case: $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n$ i.i.d.
- **Quadratic loss** of $t \in \mathbb{S} = \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$\mathcal{L}_P(t) = \mathbb{E}_Y \left[\frac{1}{n} \|Y - t\|^2 \right] = \mathbb{E}_Y \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - t_i)^2 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad s^* = F \quad \text{and} \quad \ell(s^*, t) = \frac{1}{n} \|F - t\|^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\eta(x_i) - t_i)^2$$

Example: regression: fixed vs. random design

Random design

Fixed design

D_n

$(X_i, Y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ i.i.d. $\sim P$

$Y = F + \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$(X_{n+1}, Y_{n+1}) \sim P$

$X_{n+1} \sim \mathcal{U}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

\mathcal{S}

$t : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$t \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$P\gamma(t)$

$\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P} \left[(Y - t(X))^2 \right]$

$E_Y \left[\frac{1}{n} \|Y - t\|^2 \right]$

s^*

$\eta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[Y | X = x]$

$F = (\eta(x_1), \dots, \eta(x_n))$

$\ell(s^*, t)$

$\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P} \left[(t(X) - \eta(X))^2 \right]$

$\frac{1}{n} \|F - t\|^2$

with $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$

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$$S \quad t : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$P\gamma(t) \quad \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P} \left[(Y - t(X))^2 \right]$$

$$s^* \quad \eta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \mathbb{E}[Y | X = x]$$

$$\ell(s^*, t) \quad \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P} \left[(t(X) - \eta(X))^2 \right]$$

Fixed design

$$Y = F + \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$X_{n+1} \sim \mathcal{U}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$t \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$E_Y \left[\frac{1}{n} \|Y - t\|^2 \right]$$

$$F = (\eta(x_1), \dots, \eta(x_n))$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \|F - t\|^2$$

$$\text{with } \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

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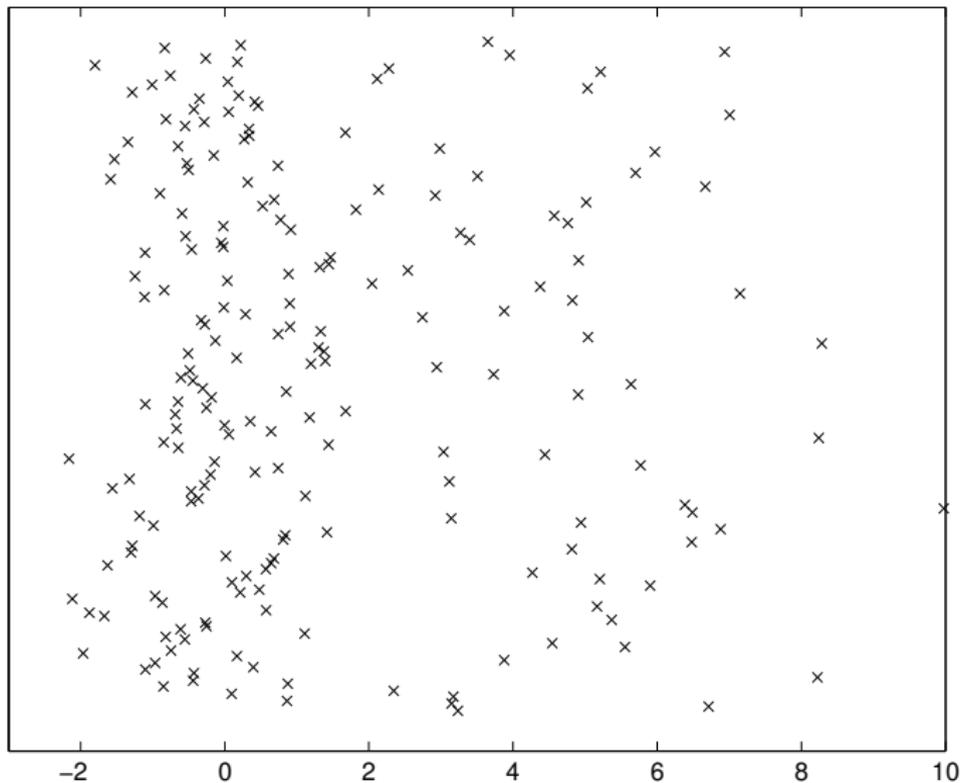
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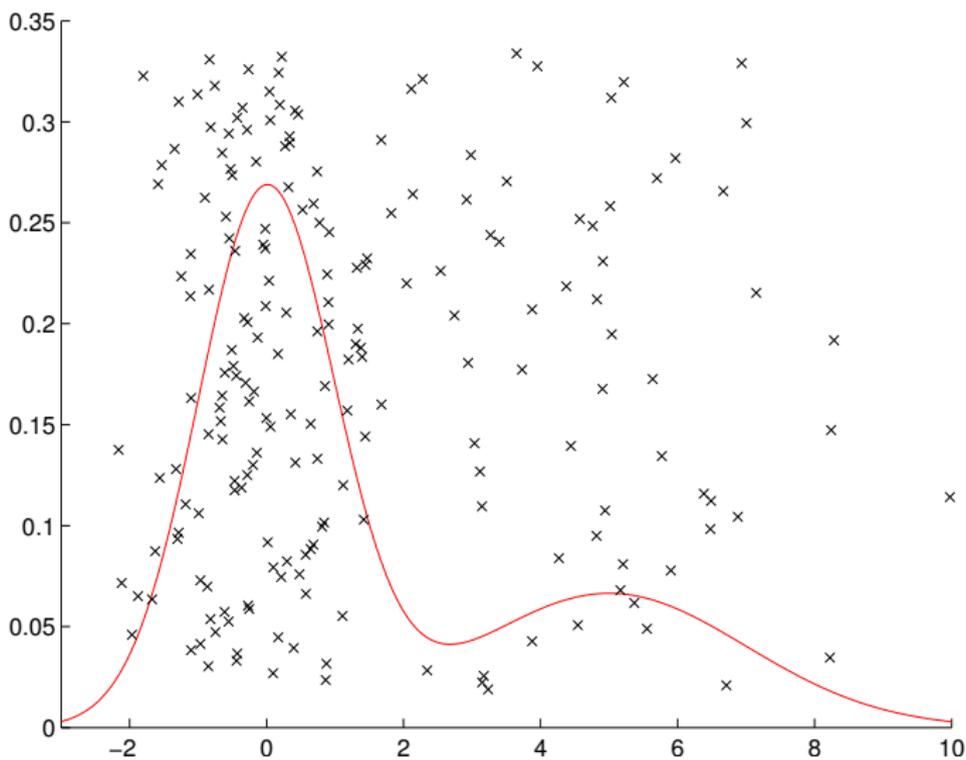
$$\frac{1}{n} \|F - t\|^2$$

$$\text{with } \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

Example: density estimation ($\Xi = \mathbb{R}$): data



Example: density estimation ($\Xi = \mathbb{R}$): data and target



Density estimation

- μ reference measure on Ξ
- f density of P w.r.t. μ

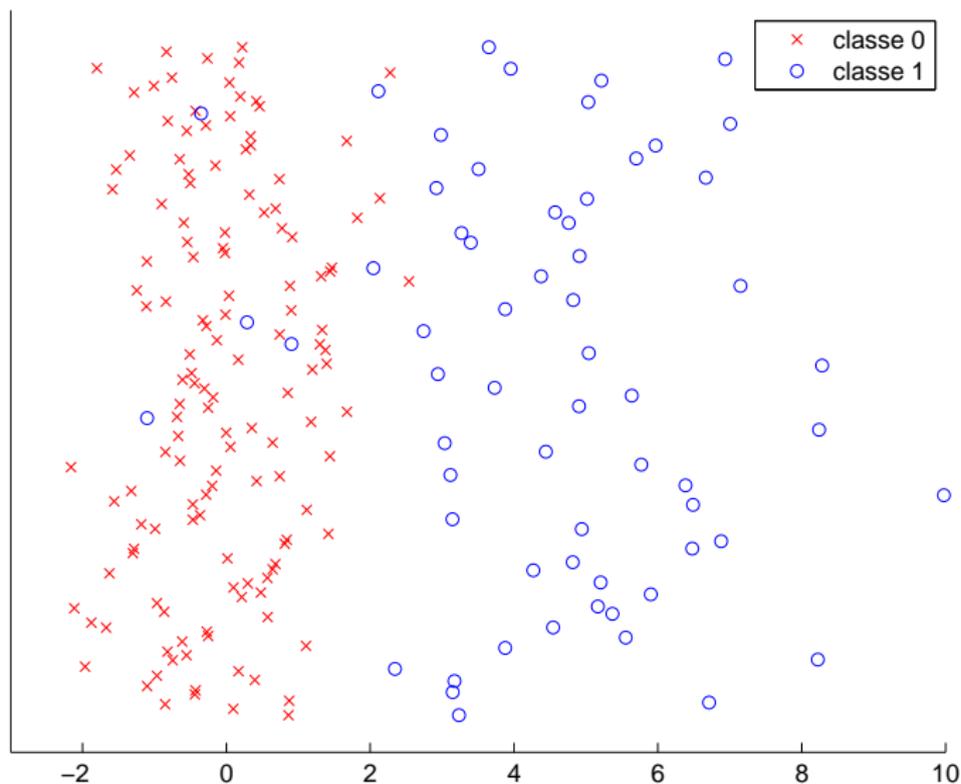
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 $\Rightarrow s^* = f$ and $\ell(s^*, t)$ **Kullback-Leibler distance** from s^* to t

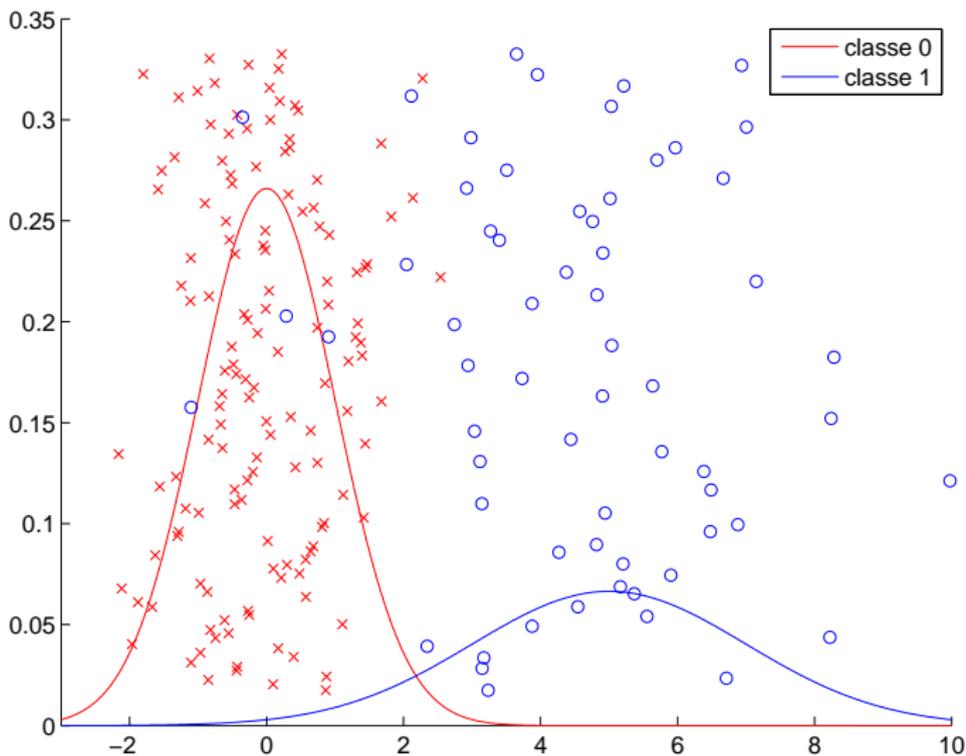
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- $\gamma(t; \xi) = \|t\|_{L^2(\mu)}^2 - 2t(\xi)$
 $\Rightarrow s^* = f$ and $\ell(s^*, t) = \|t - s^*\|_{L^2(\mu)}^2$

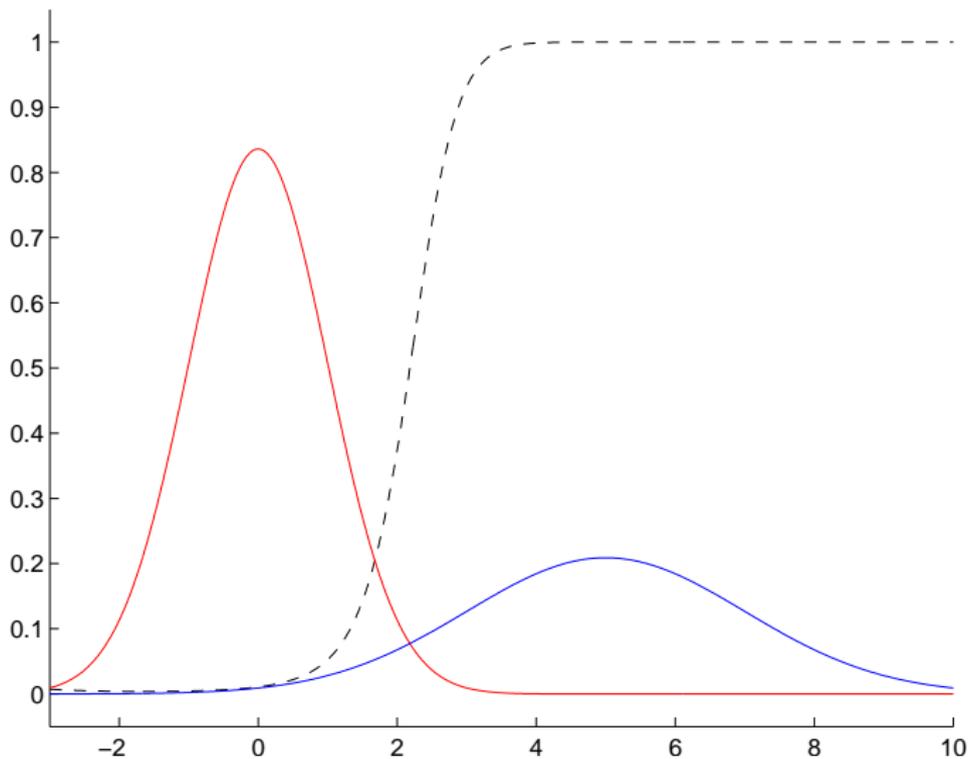
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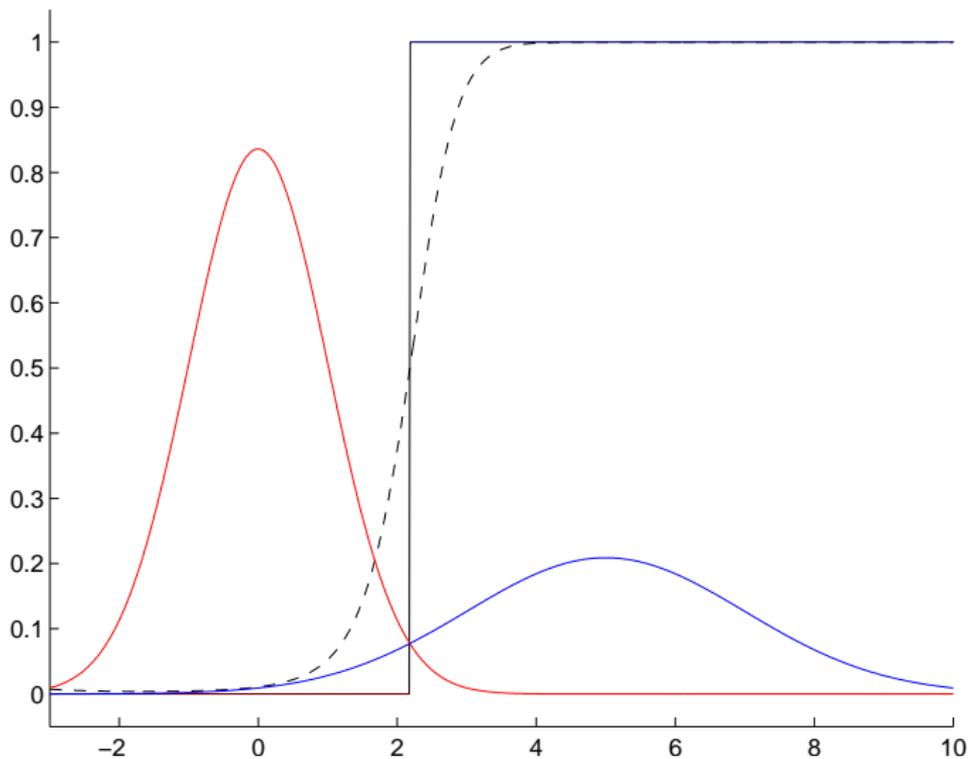
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Example: binary supervised classification

- Prediction, $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$
- If $\mathbb{S} = \{\text{measurable mappings } \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}\}$
0-1 loss: $\gamma(t; (x, y)) = \mathbb{1}_{t(x) \neq y}$

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- If $t \in \mathbb{S} = \{\text{measurable mappings } \mathcal{X} \mapsto [0, 1]\}$,
Convex losses: $\gamma(t; (x, y)) = \varphi(t(x)(1 - 2y))$ with $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$
convex, non-negative, non-increasing.

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What is an estimator?

- **Statistical algorithm** or **Learning rule**:

$$\mathcal{A}: \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Xi^n \mapsto \mathbb{S}$$

$$\text{sample } D_n = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n) \mapsto \mathcal{A}(D_n)$$

- $\mathcal{A}(D_n) = \hat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}(D_n) = \hat{s}(D_n) \in \mathbb{S}$ is an **estimator** of s^*

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- Remark: $P_\gamma(\widehat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}(D_n))$ and $\ell(s^*, \widehat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}(D_n))$ are **random**

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- **Risk** of $\widehat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}$:

$$\mathbb{E}_{D_n \sim P^{\otimes n}} [P_\gamma(\widehat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}(D_n))] = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}, n)$$

- **Excess risk** of $\widehat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}$:

$$\mathbb{E}_{D_n \sim P^{\otimes n}} [\ell(s^*, \widehat{s}^{\mathcal{A}}(D_n))] = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}, n) - P_\gamma(s^*)$$

(Universal) consistency, learning rates

- **Consistency** (P fixed): $\ell(s^*, \hat{s}^A(D_n)) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$

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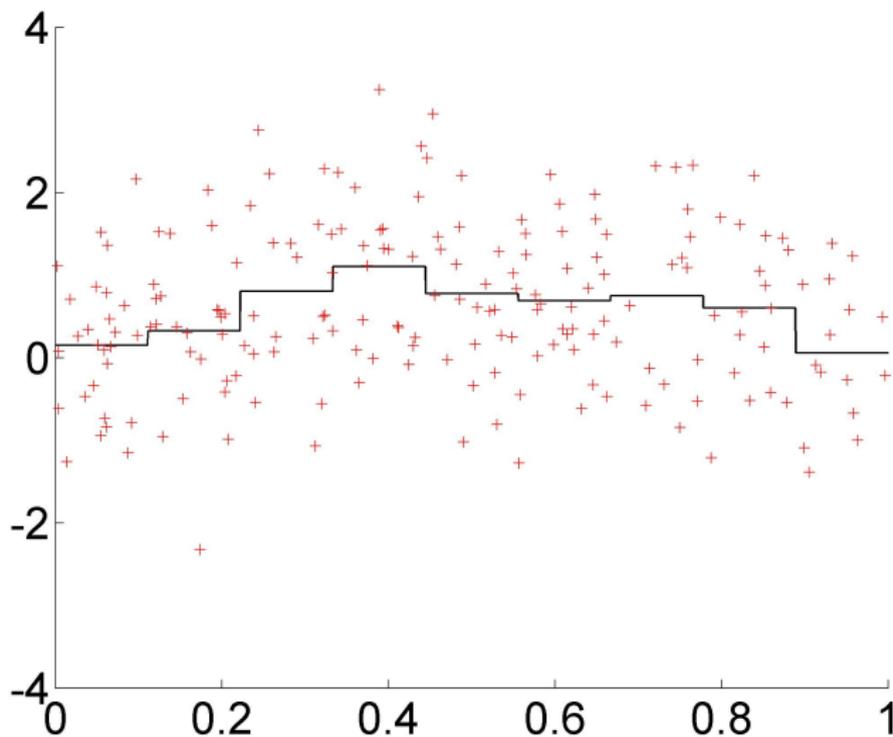
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- “No Free Lunch” (cf. Devroye, Györfi & Lugosi, 1996):
 In binary classification with \mathcal{X} infinite, $\forall \mathcal{A}, \forall n \geq 1$,

$$\sup_P \{ \mathbb{E}_{D_n \sim P^{\otimes n}} [\ell(s^*, \hat{s}^A(D_n))] \} = \frac{1}{2}$$

\Rightarrow assumptions on P are necessary for having **uniform learning rates**

Least-squares estimator: regressogram



Least-squares estimator

- Framework: **Regression, least-squares contrast**

$$\gamma(t; (x, y)) = (t(x) - y)^2$$

- Natural idea: minimize an estimator of

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- **Least-squares criterion:**

$$P_n\gamma(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (t(X_i) - Y_i)^2 \quad \text{with} \quad P_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{\xi_i}$$

$$\forall t \in \mathcal{S}, \quad \mathbb{E}[P_n\gamma(t)] = P\gamma(t)$$

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$$\forall t \in \mathbb{S}, \quad \mathbb{E}[P_n\gamma(t)] = P\gamma(t)$$

- Model: $S \subset \mathbb{S} \Rightarrow$ **Least-squares estimator** on S :

$$\hat{\sigma}_S \in \arg \min_{t \in S} \{ P_n\gamma(t) \} = \arg \min_{t \in S} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (t(X_i) - Y_i)^2 \right\}$$

Model examples in regression

- **histograms** on some partition Λ of \mathcal{X}
 \Rightarrow the least-squares estimator (regressogram) can be written

$$\hat{s}_m = \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \hat{\beta}_\lambda \mathbf{1}_\lambda \quad \hat{\beta}_\lambda = \frac{1}{\text{Card}\{X_i \in \lambda\}} \sum_{X_i \in \lambda} Y_i$$

- subspace generated by a subset of an orthogonal basis of $L^2(\mu)$ (**Fourier, wavelets**, and so on)
- **variable selection**: $X_i = (X_i^{(1)}, \dots, X_i^{(p)}) \in \mathbb{R}^p$ gathers p variables that can (linearly) explain Y

$$\forall m \subset \{1, \dots, p\}, \quad S_m = \left\{ t : x \in \mathcal{X} \mapsto \sum_{j \in m} \beta_j x^{(j)} \text{ s.t. } \beta \in \mathbb{R}^m \right\}$$

Regression: fixed vs. random design

	Random design	Fixed design
D_n	$(X_i, Y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ i.i.d. $\sim P$ $(X_{n+1}, Y_{n+1}) \sim P$	$Y = F + \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $X_{n+1} \sim \mathcal{U}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
\mathcal{S}	$t : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$	$t \in \mathbb{R}^n$
$P\gamma(t)$	$\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P} [(Y - t(X))^2]$	$E_Y \left[\frac{1}{n} \ Y - t\ ^2 \right]$
s^*	$\eta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$	$F = (\eta(x_1), \dots, \eta(x_n))$
$\ell(s^*, t)$	$\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P} [(t(X) - \eta(X))^2]$ $P_n\gamma(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - t(X_i))^2$	$\frac{1}{n} \ F - t\ ^2$ $\frac{1}{n} \ Y - t\ ^2$

with $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$

Minimum contrast estimators

- Empirical risk (or empirical contrast)

$$P_n \gamma(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma(t; \xi_i)$$

- $\forall t \in \mathbb{S}, \mathbb{E}[P_n \gamma(t)] = P \gamma(t)$
- **Minimum contrast** estimator (empirical risk minimizer) on some model $S \subset \mathbb{S}$:

$$\hat{s}_S \in \arg \min_{t \in S} P_n \gamma(t) \quad \text{with} \quad P_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{\xi_i}$$

- Another example: **maximum-likelihood** in density estimation:
 $\gamma(t; \xi) = -\ln(t(\xi))$

Regularized estimator: kernel ridge regression

- Idea: control the estimator norm in some functional space \mathcal{F}

Regularized estimator: kernel ridge regression

- Idea: control the estimator norm in some functional space \mathcal{F}
- $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathbb{S}$ is the **Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space** (RKHS) associated with a positive definite kernel $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

$$\hat{f} \in \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - f(X_i))^2 + \lambda \|f\|_{\mathcal{F}}^2 \right\}$$

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- **Representer theorem** $\Rightarrow \hat{f} = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\alpha}_i k(X_i, \cdot)$
- Fixed design: $(\hat{f}(x_j))_{1 \leq j \leq n} = \hat{F} = K(K + n\lambda I_n)^{-1} Y$

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- An example of **linear estimator** $\hat{F} = AY$

Other examples: least-squares, k -nearest-neighbours (in regression), Nadaraya-Watson, and so on

Other regularized estimators

- **Support Vector Machines** (SVM) in classification:

$$\arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left\{ P_n \gamma_{\text{hinge}}(f) + \lambda \|f\|_{\mathcal{F}}^2 \right\}$$

- **Lasso** (Tibshirani 1996): regression, $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^p$

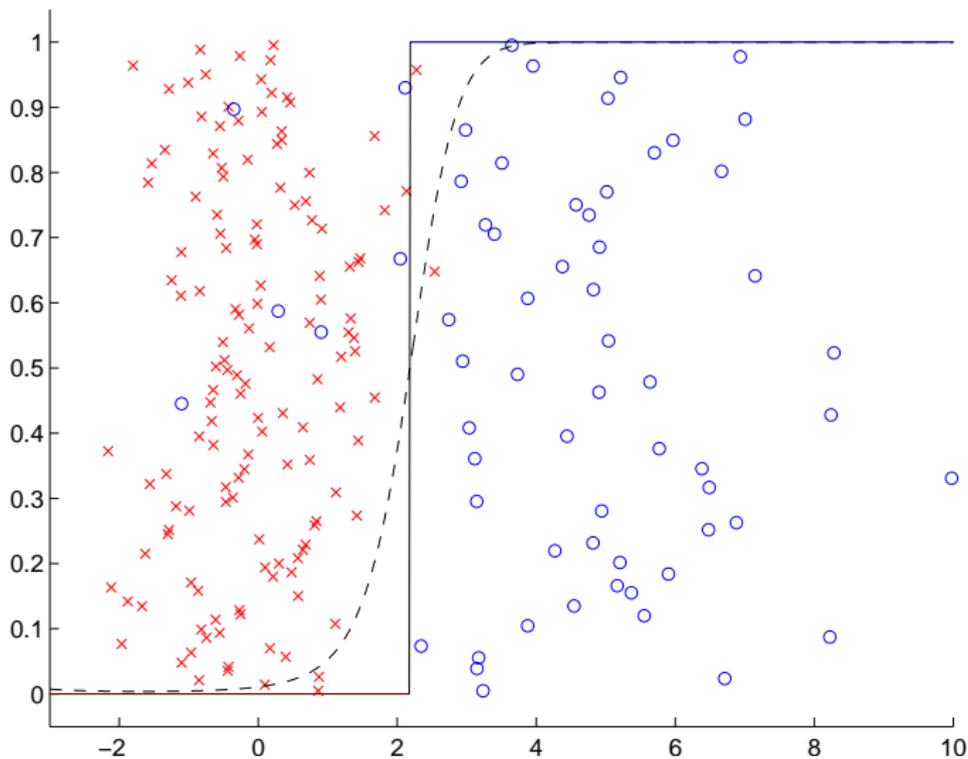
$$\arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(Y_i - w^\top X_i \right)^2 + \lambda \|w\|_1 \right\}$$

- **Structured Lasso**

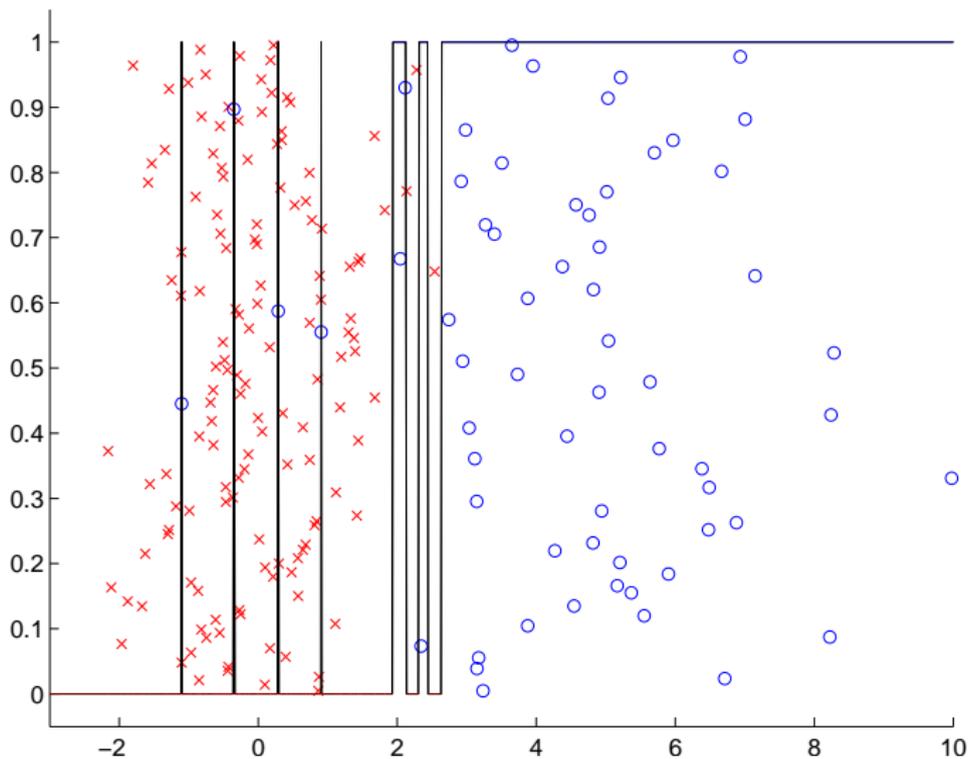
$$\arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(Y_i - w^\top X_i \right)^2 + \lambda \Omega(w) \right\}$$

e.g., group Lasso (Yuan & Lin 2006): $\Omega(w) = \sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \|w_g\|_2$

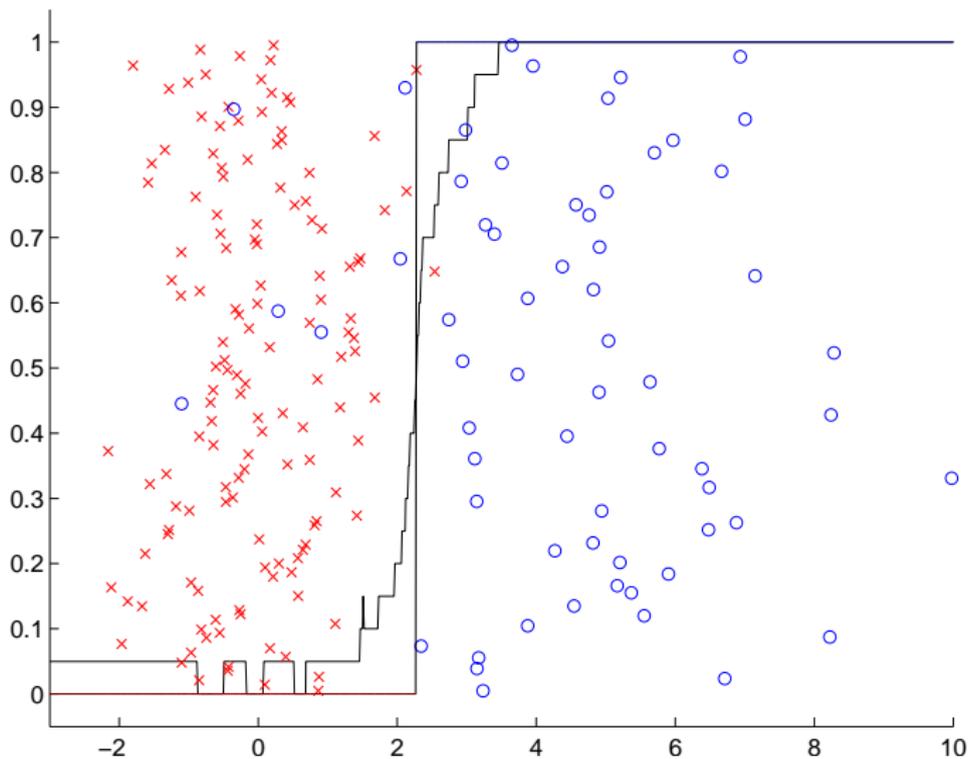
Classification ($\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$)



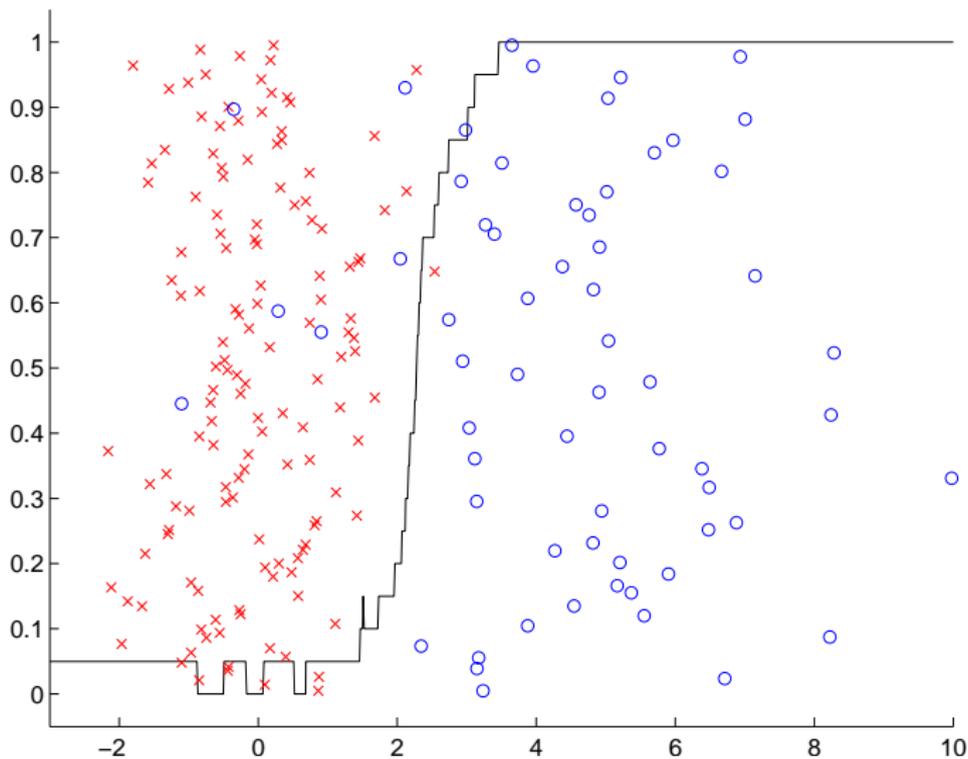
Nearest neighbour rule



k -nearest neighbours rule ($k = 20$)



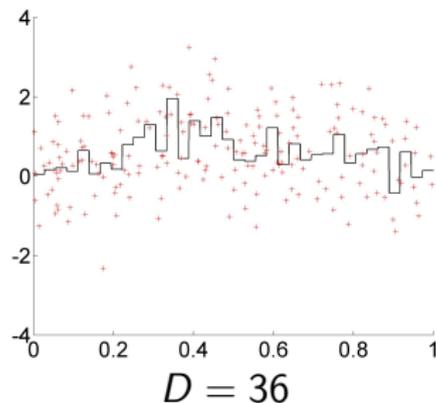
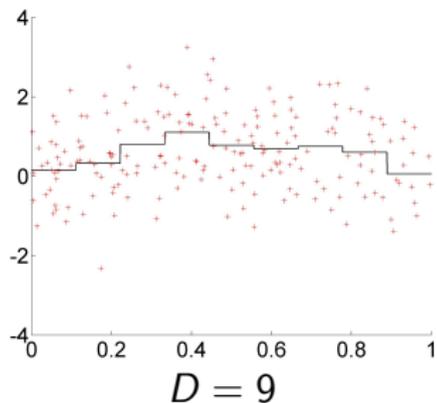
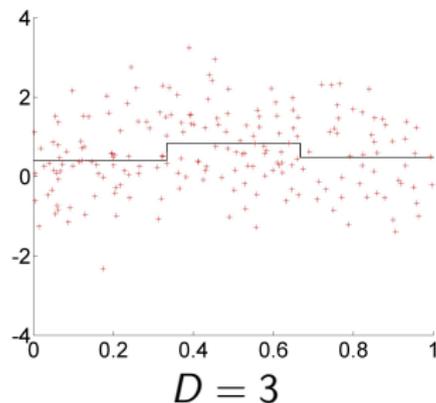
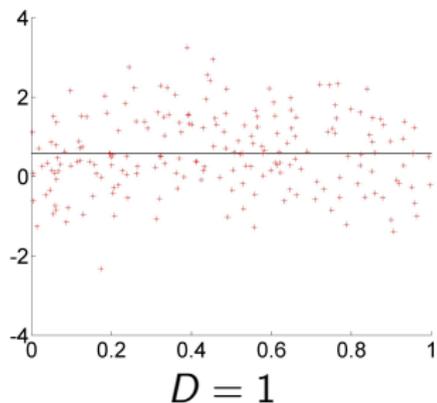
20-nearest neighbours rule: regression



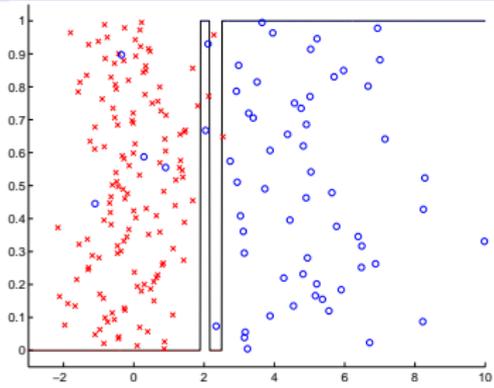
Outline

- 1 The statistical learning problem
- 2 Which estimators?
- 3 Estimator selection**
- 4 Interactions within mathematics
- 5 Conclusion

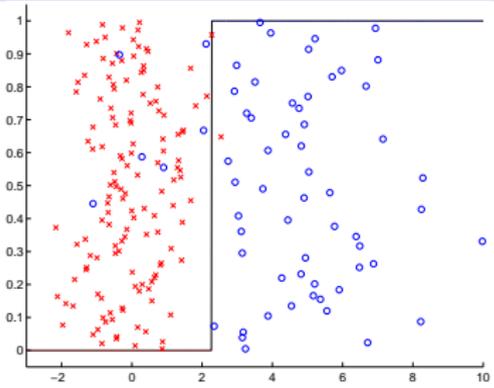
How to choose the dimension D ?



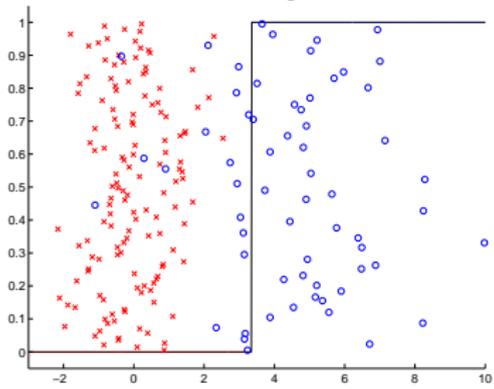
How to choose the number k of neighbours?



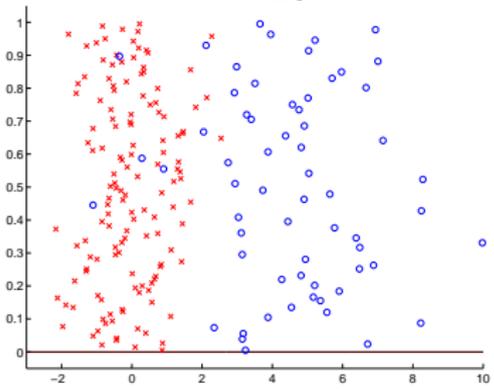
$k = 3$



$k = 20$



$k = 100$



$k = 200$

Estimator selection problem

- Collection of statistical algorithms given: $(\mathcal{A}_m)_{m \in \mathcal{M}}$
- Problem: **choosing among** $(\mathcal{A}_m(D_n))_{m \in \mathcal{M}} = (\hat{s}_m(D_n))_{m \in \mathcal{M}}$

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- Examples:
 - **model selection**
 - **calibration** (choice of k or of the distance for k -NN, choice of the regularization parameter, choice of some kernel, and so on)
 - choosing among algorithms of different nature, e.g., k -NN and SVM

Goal: estimation or prediction

- Main goal: find \hat{m} minimizing $\ell(s^*, \hat{s}_{\hat{m}(D_n)}(D_n))$
- Oracle: $m^* \in \arg \min_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n} \{ \ell(s^*, \hat{s}_m(D_n)) \}$

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$$\ell(s^*, \hat{s}_{\hat{m}}) \leq C \inf_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n} \{\ell(s^*, \hat{s}_m(D_n))\} + R_n$$

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- **Non-asymptotic**: all parameters can vary with n , in particular the collection $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}_n$
- **Adaptation** (e.g., in the minimax sense) to the regularity of s^* , to variations of $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2 | X]$, and so on (if $(\mathcal{A}_m)_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n}$ is well chosen)

Goal: identification

- Additional assumption (model selection case): $s^* \in S_{m_0}$ for some $m_0 \in \mathcal{M}_n$
- Additional goal: select $\hat{m} = m_0$ with a maximal probability
- **Consistency:**

$$\mathbb{P}(\hat{m} = m_0) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} 1$$

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- Estimation **and** identification (AIC-BIC dilemma)?
Contradictory goals in general (Yang, 2005)
 Sometimes possible to share the strengths of both approaches (e.g., Yang, 2005; van Erven et al., 2008)

Model selection: bias and variance

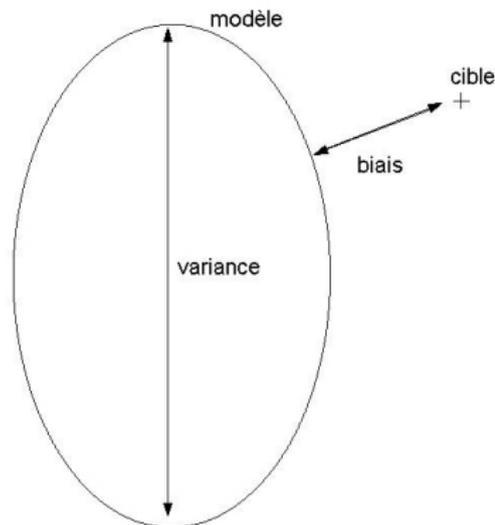
$$\mathbb{E}[\ell(s^*, \hat{s}_m(D_n))] = \text{Bias} + \text{Variance}$$

Bias or Approximation error

$$\ell(s^*, s_m^*) := \inf_{t \in S_m} \{\ell(s^*, t)\}$$

Variance or Estimation error

$$\mathbb{E}[P_\gamma(\hat{s}_m(D_n))] - P_\gamma(s_m^*)$$



Model selection: bias and variance

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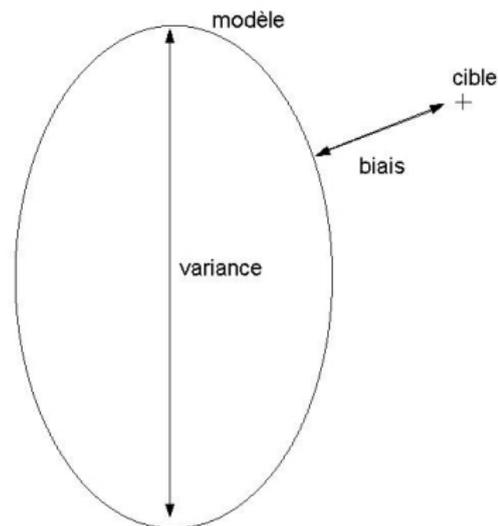
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Variance or Estimation error

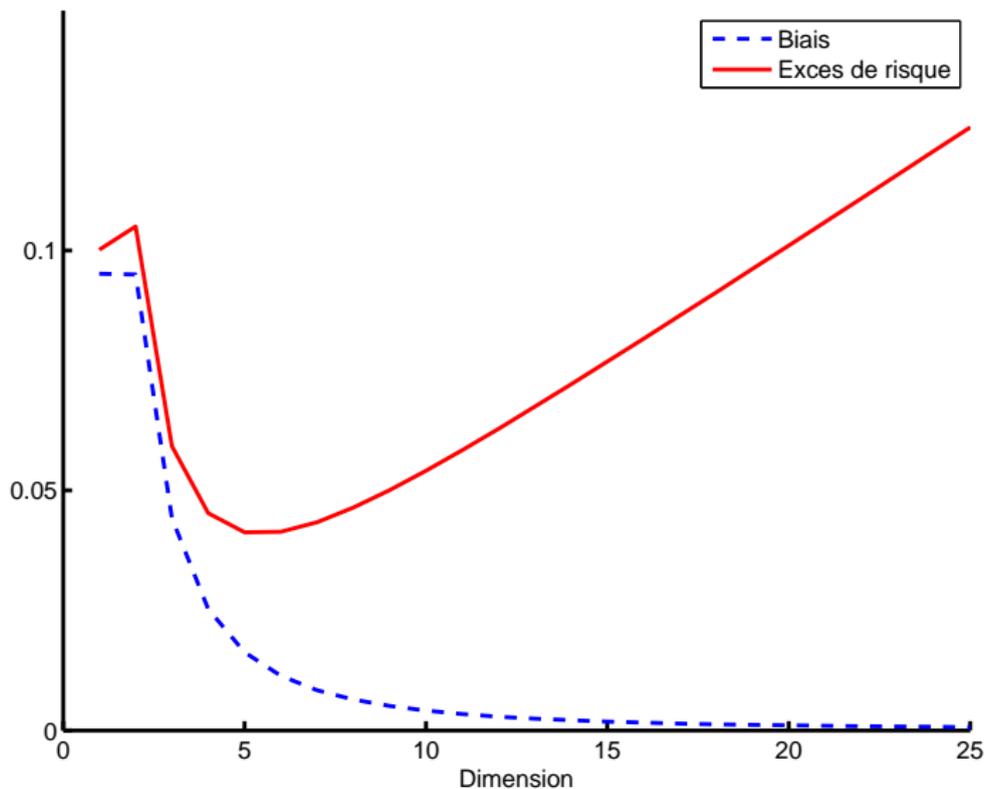
$$\mathbb{E}[P_\gamma(\hat{s}_m(D_n))] - P_\gamma(s_m^*)$$

Bias-variance trade-off

⇒ avoid **over-fitting** and **under-fitting**



Bias-variance trade-off



Example: homoscedastic regression on a fixed design

$$Y = F + \varepsilon \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i^2] = \sigma^2$$

$$\hat{F}_m = A_m Y \quad \text{with} \quad A_m = A_m^\top = A_m^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{tr}(A_m) = \dim(S_m)$$

⇒ Bias-variance decomposition of the risk

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⇒ Bias-variance decomposition of the risk

$$F_m = \arg \min_{t \in S_m} \left\{ \|t - F\|^2 \right\} = A_m F$$

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\frac{1}{n} \left\| \widehat{F}_m - F \right\|^2 \right] = \frac{1}{n} \left\| (A_m - I)F \right\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2 \dim(S_m)}{n}$$

$$= \text{Bias} + \text{Variance}$$

Unbiased risk estimation principle

$$\hat{m} \in \arg \min_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n} \{ \text{crit}(m) \}$$

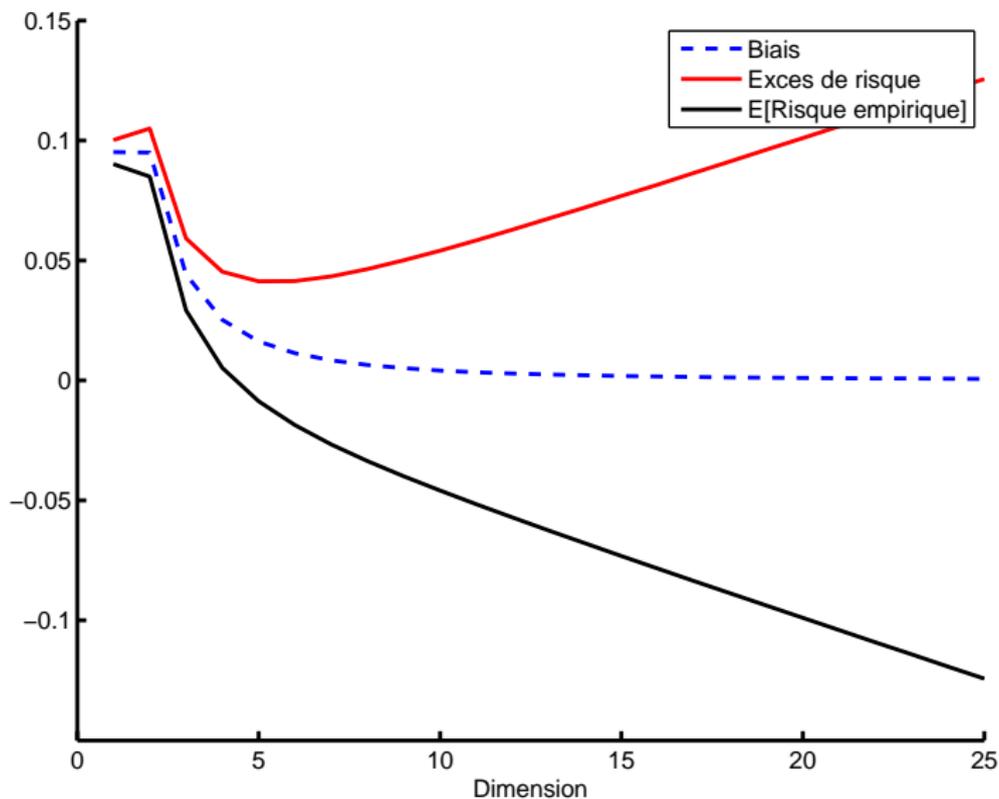
$$\text{crit}_{\text{id}}(m) = \ell(s^*, \hat{s}_m(D_n))$$

Heuristics:

$$\text{crit}(m) \approx \mathbb{E}[\ell(s^*, \hat{s}_m(D_n))]$$

\Rightarrow valid if $\text{Card}(\mathcal{M}_n)$ is not too large
(+ concentration inequalities)

Why should the empirical risk be penalized?



Penalization

- Penalization: $\text{crit}(m) = P_n \gamma(\hat{s}_m) + \text{pen}(m)$

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$$\hat{m} \in \arg \min_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n} \{P_n \gamma(\hat{s}_m) + \text{pen}(m)\}$$

- Ideal penalty:

$$\text{pen}_{\text{id}}(m) = (P - P_n) \gamma(\hat{s}_m)$$

- Mallows' heuristics:

$$\text{pen}(m) \approx \mathbb{E}[\text{pen}_{\text{id}}(m)] \Rightarrow \text{oracle inequality}$$

Example: homoscedastic regression on a fixed design

Recall that

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⇒ Empirical risk? Ideal penalty? Expectations?

$$\text{pen}_{\text{id}}(m) = \frac{2}{n} \langle A_m \varepsilon, \varepsilon \rangle + \frac{2}{n} \langle (A_m - I_n)F, \varepsilon \rangle$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{pen}_{\text{id}}(m)] = \frac{2\sigma^2 D_m}{n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad C_p \text{ (Mallows, 1973)}$$

Classical penalties

- C_p (Mallows, 1973; regression, least-squares estimator):

$$2\sigma^2 D_m/n$$

- C_L (Mallows, 1973; regression, linear estimator $\hat{F}_m = A_m Y$):

$$2\sigma^2 \text{tr}(A_m)/n$$

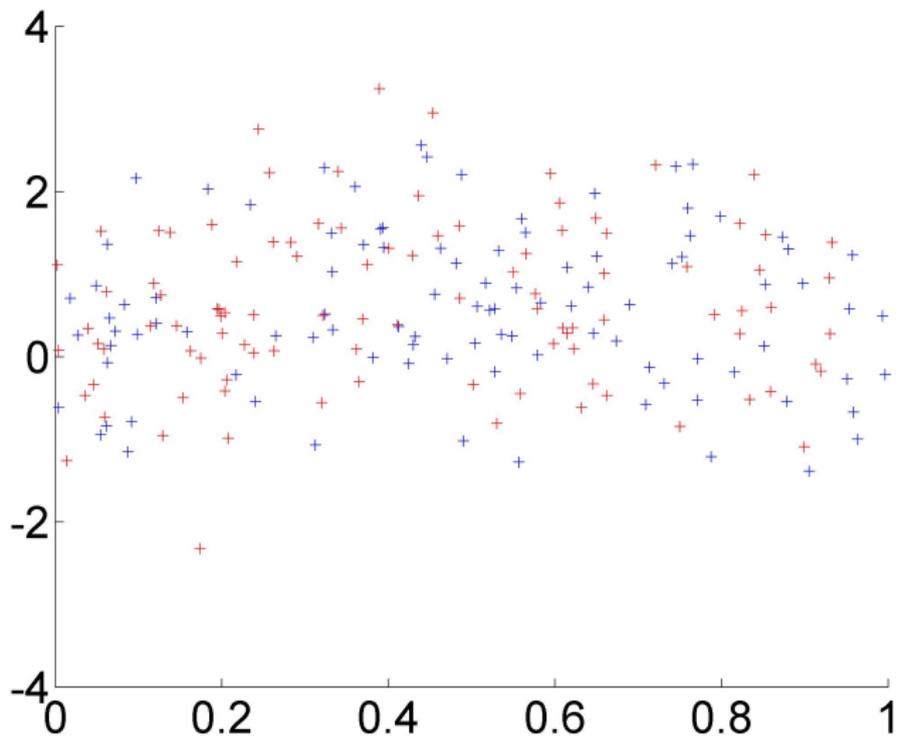
- AIC (Akaike, 1973; log-likelihood, p degrees of freedom):

$$2p/n$$

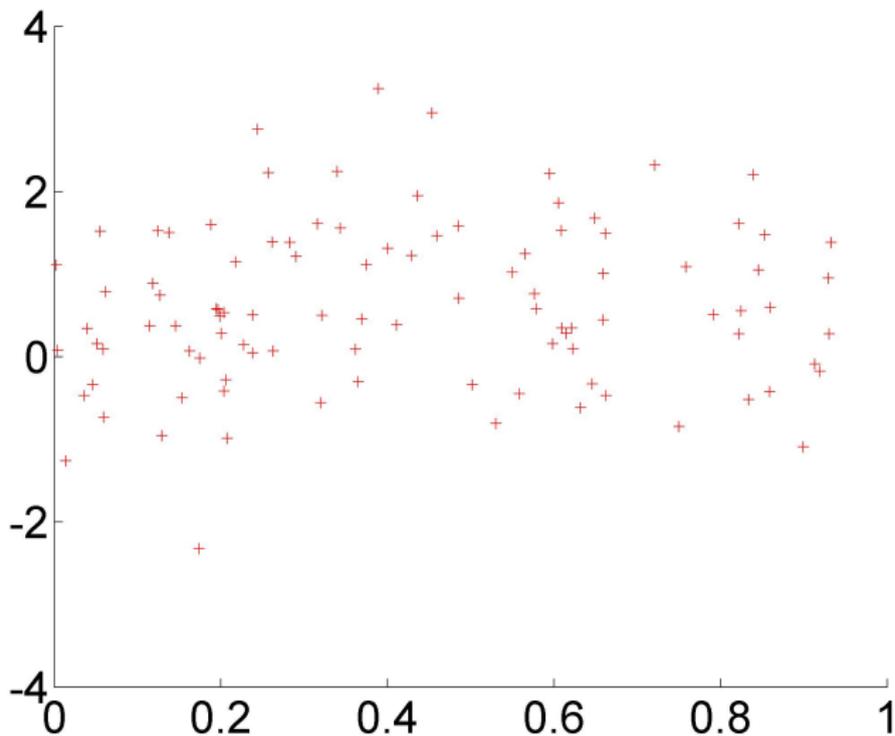
- BIC (Schwarz, 1978; log-likelihood, identification goal):

$$\ln(n)p/n$$

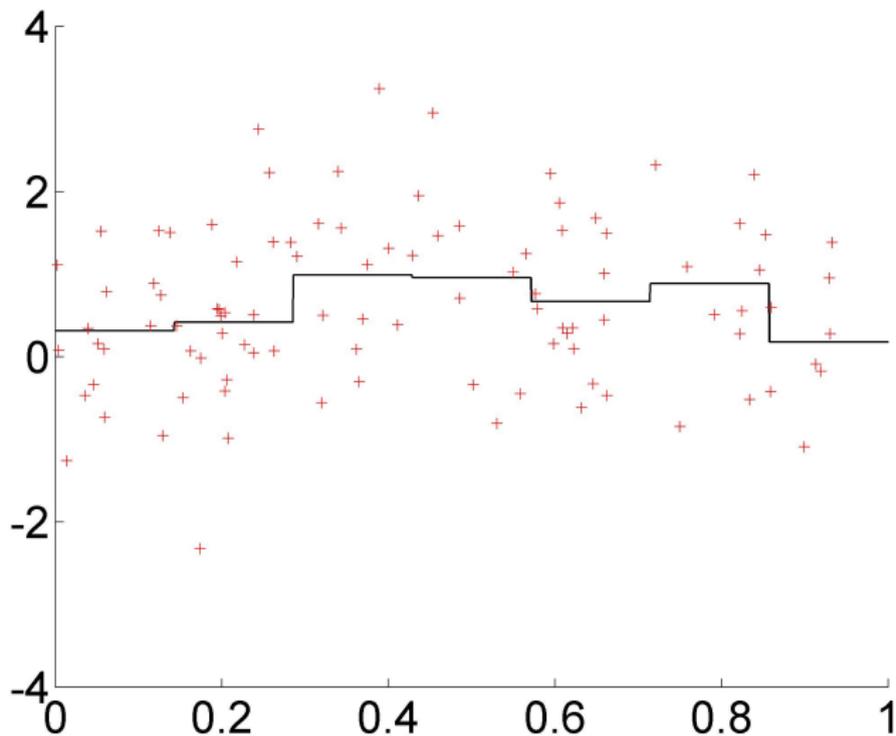
Hold-out



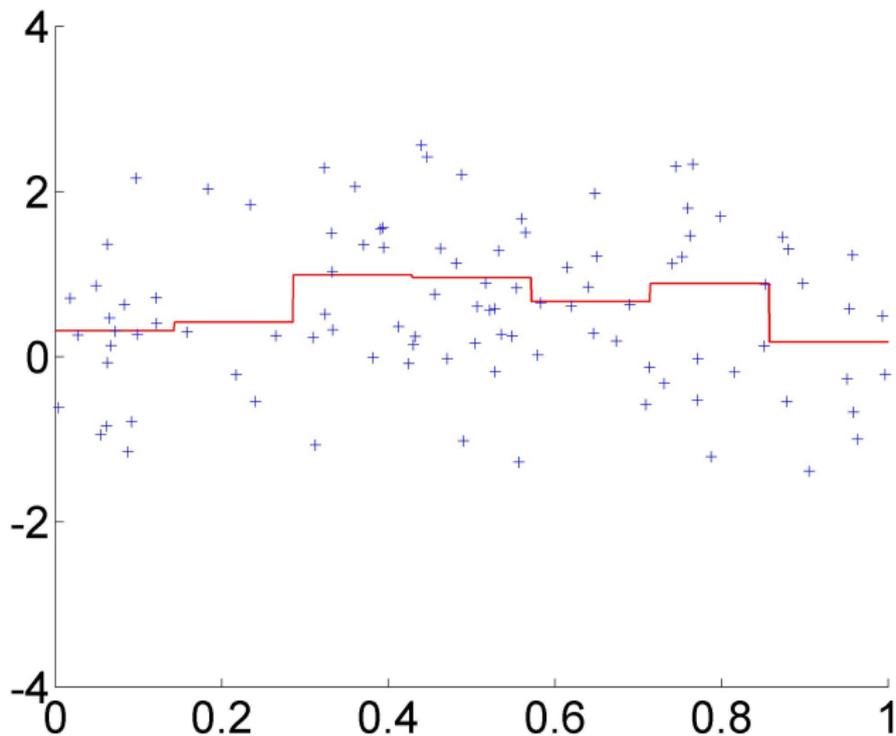
Hold-out: training sample



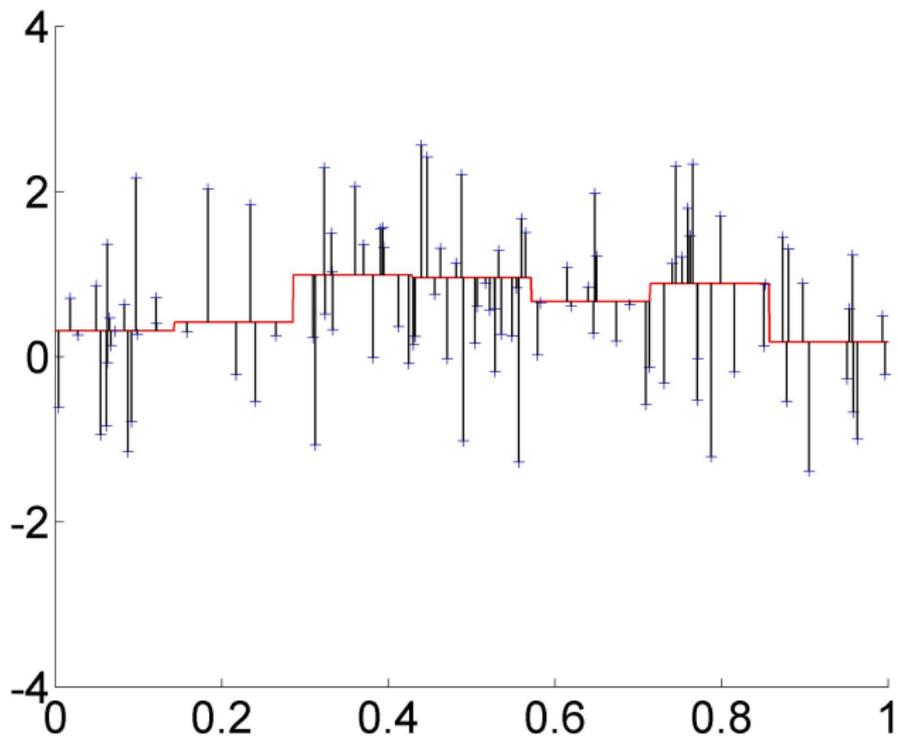
Hold-out: training sample



Hold-out: validation sample



Hold-out: validation sample



Unbiased risk estimation principle

Heuristics:

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{crit}(m)] \approx \mathbb{E}[P_\gamma(\hat{s}_m)] \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbb{E}[\text{pen}(m)] \approx \mathbb{E}[\text{pen}_{\text{id}}(m)]$$

Examples:

- FPE (Akaike, 1970), SURE (Stein, 1981)
- some kinds of **cross-validation** (e.g., leave- p -out, $p \ll n$)
- log-likelihood: AIC (Akaike, 1973), AICc (Sugiura, 1978; Hurvich & Tsai, 1989)
- least-squares: C_p , C_L (Mallows, 1973), GCV (Craven & Wahba, 1979)
- covariance penalties (Efron, 2004)
- bootstrap penalty (Efron, 1983), **resampling** (A., 2009)
- ...

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Probability theory: measure concentration

- Empirical processes:

$$(P_n - P)\gamma(t) \quad \text{or} \quad \sup_{t \in S} \{(P_n - P)\gamma(t)\}$$

- Concentration of **quadratic terms**, $\|M_\varepsilon\|^2$, χ^2 -type statistics (writting them as a sup, or through the general problem of concentration of U-statistics)
- More complex quantities, such as the **“ideal penalty”**

$$(P - P_n)\gamma(\hat{s}_m(D_n))$$

Probability theory

- Exact computation or upper bounds on **expectations**:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sup_{t \in \mathcal{S}} \{ (P_n - P)\gamma(t) \} \right]$$

$$\mathbb{E} [(P - P_n)\gamma(\hat{s}_m(D_n))]$$

- Understanding the **risk** as a function of n

$$\mathbb{E} [P\gamma(\hat{s}_m(D_n))]$$

- Resampling** process
- Control of remainder terms (variance, deviations, ...) compared to expectations
- ...

Approximation theory

- Bias term $\ell(s^*, S_m)$
- Necessary to control it for deducing an **adaptation** result from an oracle inequality
- Conversely, **how should we choose** $(S_m)_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n}$ knowing that $P \in \mathcal{P}$?
- **Control of** $\ell(s^*, S_m)$ (upper and lower bound) useful for controlling $\dim(S_{\hat{m}})$ and $\dim(S_{m^*})$

Optimization: for practical reasons

- $\hat{\sigma}_m(D_n)$ often defined as an **arg min**
- ⇒ **Computing $\hat{\sigma}_m(D_n)$** for every m (approximately or not)?
- ⇒ Direct computation of $(\hat{\sigma}_m(D_n))_{m \in \mathcal{M}_n}$ (**regularization path**, e.g. LARS-Lasso)?

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- The most interesting procedures to study are the ones for which efficient algorithms exist.

Optimization: for theoretical reasons

- $\hat{s}_m(D_n)$ often defined as an **arg min**

⇒ KKT conditions can characterize it

- Ex: ideal penalty for the Lasso (Efron et al. 2004; Zou, Hastie & Tibshirani 2007)
- RKHS and kernel methods: **representer theorem**
- ...

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Results we are looking for

- guarantees for **practical** procedures
- theory **precise enough** for explaining differences observed experimentally
- “**non-asymptotic**” results
- use theory for **designing new procedures**, that do not have the drawbacks of existing procedures

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<http://www.di.ens.fr/~arlot/2011pisa.htm>