A MIXED-INTEGER FRACTIONAL OPTIMIZATION APPROACH TO BEST SUBSET SELECTION

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ABSTRACT. We consider the best subset selection problem in linear regression, i.e., finding a parsimonious subset of the regression variables that provides the best fit to the data according to some predefined criterion. We are primarily concerned with alternatives to cross-validation methods that do not require data partitioning and involve a range of information criteria extensively studied in the statistical literature. We show that the problem of interests can be modeled using fractional mixed-integer optimization, which can be tackled by leveraging recent advances in modern optimization solvers. The proposed algorithms involve solving a sequence of mixed-integer quadratic optimization problems (or their convexifications) and can be implemented with off-the-shelf solvers. We report encouraging results in our computational experiments, with respect to both the optimization and statistical performance.

1. Introduction

We consider the linear regression model (Seber and Lee 2003, Weisberg 2005), in which given a design matrix $X = [x_1, \ldots, x_p] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ of explanatory (independent) variables and a vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ of response (dependent) variables, the relationship between them is

$$y = X\beta + \epsilon,$$  \hfill (1)

where $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is a vector regression coefficients and $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are the error terms; throughout the paper we assume $n > p$. The linear regression approach involves finding appropriate values for parameters $\beta$ such that the data fitting error is minimized according to some predefined criteria. The ordinary least squares estimate, found by minimizing the residual
squared error, is easy to compute but suffers from poor prediction accuracy and interpretability. Model overfitting is one of the key challenges, which naturally leads to the problem of finding a parsimonious best subset of explanatory variables. By removing unnecessary or noise variables and keeping only the most important and critical ones, we obtain more interpretable and robust regression models. This subset selection problem has attracted significant attention in the statistical, machine learning and optimization literature.

A classical model for the subset selection problem (Miller 2002) is

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \| y - X \beta \|^2_2 \text{ subject to } \| \beta \|_0 \leq k,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $k$ is some predefined sparsity parameter and $\| \cdot \|_0$ is the $\ell_0$-norm, i.e., $\| \beta \|_0 = \sum_{i=1}^p 1(\beta_i \neq 0)$ with $1(\cdot)$ denoting the indicator function. Problem (2) is strongly NP-hard (Chen et al. 2019), and several approaches to tackle it approximately or exactly have been proposed in the literature.

Perhaps, the most widely known approximation approach is Lasso (Tibshirani 1996), where the $\ell_0$-norm is replaced by the convex $\ell_1$-norm. The resulting convex problem can be solved very efficiently (Efron et al. 2004). Lasso has some desirable theoretical properties under appropriate conditions on data (Bühlmann and Van De Geer 2011, Tibshirani 2011, Wainwright 2009, Zhang and Huang 2008) and widely used for finding sparse models in practice. However, Lasso is only a surrogate and may potentially lead to low quality solutions; we refer the reader to the detailed discussion in Bertsimas et al. (2016) and the references therein.

Alternatively, globally optimal solutions for (2) can be sought. Earlier approaches, including exhaustive enumerations of all subsets (Garside 1965, 1971a,b) and the Leaps and Bounds procedure (Furnival and Wilson 1974), do not scale well for large instances. Nevertheless, recent approaches based on mixed-integer optimization (MIO) have proven more effective at solving problem (2), see Bertsimas and Shioda (2009), Bertsimas and King (2015), Bertsimas et al. (2016), Bertsimas and Van Parys (2017), Cozad et al. (2015), Miyashiro and Takano (2015b), Wilson and Sahinidis (2017). Specifically, by introducing binary variables $z \in \{0, 1\}^p$ such that $z_i = 1$ if $\beta_i \neq 0$, problem (2) can be formulated as
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{min } & \| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta \|^2_2 \\
\text{s.t. } & \mathbf{1}'\mathbf{z} \leq k \\
& -M\mathbf{z} \leq \beta \leq M\mathbf{z} \\
& \mathbf{z} \in \{0, 1\}^p, \quad \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p,
\end{align*}
\] (3a, 3b, 3c, 3d)

where \( \mathbf{1} \) denotes a \( p \)-dimensional vector of all ones, and big-\( M \) constraints (3c) are used to link the indicator and regression coefficient variables (Glover 1975). Problem (3) is a mixed-integer quadratic optimization (MIQO) problem, which can be solved directly with off-the-shelf solvers for convex MIO.

Note that (3) requires specifying \textit{a priori} the desired sparsity \( k \) at the right-hand side of (3b). The standard technique for determining \( k \) is based on using cross-validation, which considers (3) for multiple values of \( k \) and then selects the one that performs best in a held-out validation set. A naive approach would be to simply solve (3) for all possible values of \( k \). Clearly, it is prohibitively expensive in many settings. Thus, various ideas have been explored in the literature to avoid such enumeration. For example, Kenney et al. (2018) propose warm-starting and novel bisection schemes to reduce the burden of solving multiple MIO problems; other warm-start like and related ideas are explored by Bertsimas et al. (2016, 2019a). Nevertheless, the approach based on (3) and cross-validation may remain relatively expensive. Hence, the primary goal of this study is to explore alternatives to cross-validation methods that can be performed effectively and do not require partitioning the data.

\textit{Criteria.} Several criteria have been proposed in the statistics literature to evaluate the quality of a given regression model. The measures involve a trade-off between the residual squared error \( \| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta \|^2_2 \) and the size of the model \( \| \beta \|_0 \). We present a brief description of the information criteria used in this paper, and refer the reader to Konishi and Kitagawa (2008) for an in-depth treatment of the statistical merits of the information criteria used (and others).
To simplify the discussion, we assume in this section that the noise $\epsilon$ is i.i.d Gaussian with unknown variance $\sigma^2$, $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I)$.

**MSE:** The Mean Squared Error (Wherry 1931) of a regression model is given by

$$\frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{n - \|\beta\|_0}. \quad (4)$$

Minimizing the MSE is equivalent to maximizing the adjusted $R^2$, and is one of the most widely used criteria to compare regression models due to its simplicity. Note that $\frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{n - p}$ is precisely the least squares estimator of the variance $\sigma^2$ for (1) with $p$ regressors, thus, intuitively, optimization with respect to the MSE criterion selects the model that “promises” the lowest noise variance.

**AIC and AICc:** The Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike 1974) is

$$n \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{n} \right) + 2\|\beta\|_0 + K, \quad (5)$$

where $K$ is a constant that does not depend on the model. Note that the term inside the logarithm in (5) is the maximum likelihood estimator of $\sigma^2$, but this estimator is biased. Akaike (1974) corrects this bias using the term $2\|\beta\|_0$ and shows that, if the data is indeed generator according to (1) for some sparse vector $\beta$, then minimizing the AIC criterion yields estimates with minimal Kullback-Leibler divergence with respect to a true distribution. Hurvich and Tsai (1989) note that AIC bias needs to be further corrected when $n$ is close to $p$, and propose the corrected AIC (or AICc)

$$n \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{n} \right) + 2\|\beta\|_0 + \frac{2\|\beta\|_0^2 + 2\|\beta\|_0}{n - \|\beta\|_0 - 1}. \quad (6)$$

**BIC:** The Bayesian Information Criterion (Schwarz 1978) is

$$n \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{n} \right) + \ln(n)\|\beta\|_0 + K. \quad (7)$$

While AIC seeks to minimize the Kullback-Leibler divergence between the true and estimated models, BIC is obtained by maximizing the model that is a posteriori most
probable, under the prior that all subsets of \{1, \ldots, p\} are equally likely to be the model generating the data.

The criteria outlined above are widely used to compare linear regression models. Furthermore, they are also used as stopping rules for heuristics (2) such as forward selection or backward elimination (Miller 2002). However, currently few approaches exist to find the best model according to one of these criteria.

In particular, Park and Klabjan (2017) propose a mixed-integer quadratically constrained programming approach for optimization with respect to MSE. Kimura and Waki (2018) proposed a tailored branch-and-bound algorithm for minimization of the AIC criterion. Wilson and Sahinidis (2017) exploit the fact that, if the variance of the error terms \(\epsilon\) is known, problems with AIC and BIC can be simplified to MIQO. Cozad et al. (2014) tackle subset selection problems with information criteria by solving problem (3) for different values of \(k\) and choosing the best one, i.e.,

\[
\min_{k \in \{0, \ldots, p\}} \left\{ \min \left\{ F(\beta, k) : (3b) - (3d) \right\} \right\}, \tag{8}
\]

where \(F(\beta, k)\) corresponds to one of the above criteria given by (4)-(6).

Observe that for a fixed \(k = \|\beta\|_0\), finding the best model with respect to any criterion in (4)-(7) can be done by minimizing \(\|y - X\beta\|_2^2\). Thus, approach (8) requires solving \(p + 1\) different MIO problems, and is, to the best of our knowledge, the most efficient method to date. Note that this approach can be improved by warm-starting each MIO problem with the solution found from the previous one, as pointed out by Bertsimas et al. (2016).

Miyashiro and Takano (2015a) propose to use mixed-integer second-order conic optimization (MISOCO) for the best subset selection problem with information criteria. The best model can be found by solving a single MIO, but requires the addition of \(p + 1\) additional binary variables. The authors report that the MISOCO formulations perform worse than (8) by an order of magnitude. Finally, Takano and Miyashiro (2019) also propose the MIO approach for the best subset selection using the cross-validation criterion.
Contributions and outline. In this paper we propose new MIO formulations and techniques for the best subset selection problem with information criteria. In particular, the problems considered are modeled as convex mixed-integer fractional optimization problems (MIFO). The formulations are stronger than the existing alternatives proposed in the literature, the proposed approach is faster than (8) by at least an order of magnitude in large instances, and several orders of magnitude faster than previous MISOCO approaches. The algorithms proposed can be easily implemented using off-the-shelf mathematical optimization software, resulting in several advantages over customized methods: additional constraints can easily be incorporated into the formulations (e.g., see Bertsimas and King 2015, Cozad et al. 2015), and the proposed algorithms benefit from the continuous improvements to commercial software.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we describe our MIFO approach and compare it against the existing modeling alternatives. In Section 3 we discuss how to solve the resulting MIFO by (partially) solving a sequence of MIQO problems. In Section 4 we provide computational experiments on synthetic and real datasets, and in Section 5 we conclude the paper and highlight directions for future research. Finally, we note that all proofs as well as some modeling and algorithmic details are relegated to appendices.

2. Formulations

In this section we give MIFO formulations for the subset selection problems with the information criteria discussed in Section 1. In particular, one of the main challenges for solving best subset selection (with respect to criteria other than the MSE) is handling the (non-convex) logarithmic term in the objective function, see (5)-(7). In order to do so, we first show in Section 2.1 how to model the best subset selection problems as the (possibly non-convex) MIFO problem

\[
\min_{z \in \{0,1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{g(1'z)} \quad \text{subject to} \quad -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz, \tag{9}
\]
where \( g : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \) is a one-dimensional non-increasing convex function that depends on the criterion used. Then in Section 2.2 we discuss how to obtain mixed-integer convex formulations of (9) by exploiting submodularity. Finally, in Section 2.3, we show that the resulting formulations are at least as strong as alternative formulations proposed in the literature.

2.1. \textbf{Fractional formulations.} We now discuss a MIFO framework that is able to handle most feature selection problems with information criteria.

\textit{MSE criterion.} Observe that optimization with respect to the MSE criterion can be directly formulated as

\[
\min_{z \in \{0,1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n - 1'z} \quad \text{subject to} \quad -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz,
\]

i.e., function \( g(x) = n - x \) is affine.

\textit{AIC and BIC criteria.} Consider optimization with respect to either AIC or BIC given by (5) or (7), respectively. The best model with respect to such criteria can be found by solving

\[
\min_{z \in \{0,1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n} \right) + \alpha 1'z \quad \text{subject to} \quad -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz, \quad (10)
\]

where the constant terms in the definition of the criterion is dropped, and \( \alpha \) is a constant that may depend on \( n \) that is, \( \alpha = 2/n \) for AIC and \( \alpha = \ln(n)/n \) for BIC. Since the exponential function is non-decreasing and monotone, we can take the exponential of the objective function and find that (10) is equivalent to

\[
\frac{1}{n} \cdot \min_{z \in \{0,1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{e^{\alpha 1'z}} \cdot e^{\alpha 1'z} \quad \text{subject to} \quad -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz
\]

Based on the above derivations, we see that (10) is a special case of (9), where \( g(x) = e^{-\alpha x} \).

\textit{AICc criterion.} A similar approach can be used for optimization with respect to AICc given by (6), resulting in

\[
\min n \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n} \right) + 2(1'z) + \frac{2(1'z)^2 + 2(1'z)}{n - 1'z - 1} \quad (11a)
\]
subject to $-Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz$, $z \in \{0,1\}^p$, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$.  \hfill (11b)

After dividing by $n$, taking exponential of the objective function and some algebraic manipulations, please see details in Appendix B, problem (11) can be equivalently written as

$$\frac{1}{ne^2} \min_{z \in \{0,1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{||y - X\beta||_2^2}{e^{-2\frac{n-1}{n-x-1}}} \text{ subject to } -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz. \hfill (12)$$

Therefore, we see that (11) is a special case of (9), where $g(x) = e^{-2\frac{n-1}{n-x-1}}$.

2.2. Convexification. Consider the mixed-integer set

$$\mathcal{F} = \{z \in \{0,1\}^p, s \in \mathbb{R}_+: s \leq g(1'z)\}. \hfill (13)$$

Since $g$ is convex, the function $g(1'z)$ is supermodular. Define $\pi_i = g(i) - g(i-1)$, $i = 1, \ldots, p$, and given a permutation $((1),(2),\ldots,(p))$ of $[p]$, consider the inequality

$$s \leq g(0) + \sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i z(i). \hfill (14)$$

The coefficients $-\pi$ in (14) correspond to an extreme point of the extended polymatroid associated with the submodular function $-g$, and (14) is referred to as an extended polymatroid inequality (Atamtürk and Narayanan 2008). Additionally, extended polymatroid inequalities and bound constraints are sufficient to describe the convex hull of $\mathcal{F}$ (Lovász 1983), i.e.,

$$\text{conv}(\mathcal{F}) = \left\{(z,s) \in [0,1]^p \times \mathbb{R}_+: s \leq g(0) + \sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i z(i), \text{ for all permutations of } [p]\right\}.$$  

Thus, we can formulate (9) as the convex MIFO problem

$$\min \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{s} \hfill (15a)$$

s.t. $s \leq g(0) + \sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i z(i), \text{ for all permutations of } [p] \hfill (15b)$

$-Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz \hfill (15c)$

$z \in \{0,1\}^p$, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $s \geq 0$, \hfill (15d)
Note that there is a factorial number of constraints (15b). Therefore, to implement formulations (15) in practice, a lazy constraint generation scheme for (15b) should be used, which is a standard feature of modern off-the-shelf solvers. In particular, finding which inequality (15b) to add at a particular point \((\bar{z}, \bar{\beta}, \bar{s})\) (if any) can be done using a greedy algorithm (Edmonds 1970), as formalized in Proposition 1 below.

**Proposition 1** (Edmonds (1970)). A most violated inequality (15b) at \((\bar{z}, \bar{\beta}, \bar{s})\) is precisely
\[
s \leq g(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \pi(i)z(i)
\]
corresponds to a permutation where variables are ordered in non-increasing order, \(\bar{z}(1) \geq \bar{z}(2) \geq \ldots \geq \bar{z}(p)\).

**Remark 1** (MSE criterion). If \(g(x) = n - x\), corresponding to the MSE criterion, then each inequality (14) reduces to \(s \leq n - 1'z\). This inequality can be changed to an equality constraint without loss of generality. Hence, in such case, (15) reduces simply to the convex MIFO
\[
\min_{z \in \{0, 1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n - 1'z} \quad \text{subject to} \quad -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz.
\] (16)

2.3. **Comparison with existing results.** In this section we compare formulation (15) with other MIO formulations for optimization with respect to information criteria.

2.3.1. **Linearization for MSE criterion.** Park and Klabjan (2017) propose a MIO formulation for optimization with respect to the MSE criterion. They formulate problem (16) as
\[
\min_{z, \beta, t} t \quad \text{subject to} \quad \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 \leq (n - \sum_{i=1}^{p} z_i) t \leq n - 1'z \leq Mz.
\] (17a)

- \(-Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz\) (17c)

- \(z \in \{0, 1\}^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p, t \in \mathbb{R}_+\). (17d)
Then, in order to model the nonlinear constraint (17b), the authors linearize the bilinear terms. Specifically, by introducing additional variables $v_i$, they replace (17b) with the system

\begin{align}
\|y - X\beta\|_2^2 & \leq tn - \sum_{i=1}^{p} v_i \tag{18a} \\
0 & \leq v_i \leq t, \quad t - M(1 - z_i) \leq v_i \leq Mz_i, \quad \forall i = 1, \ldots, p, \tag{18b}
\end{align}

where $M$ is sufficiently large. Since each bilinear term $tz_i$ is replaced by its convex envelope, the system (18a)-(18b) is weaker than (17b). Also, for the MSE criterion, (15) is equivalent to (17) in terms of its continuous relaxation strength. Thus, (15) is stronger than the formulations induced by (18a)-(18b), and avoids the inclusion of additional big-$M$ constraints.

2.3.2. MISOCO formulations. Miyashiro and Takano (2015a) propose to tackle subset selection problems with information criteria using MISOCO formulations, discussed next. As we show below, the relaxations induced by our approach are stronger than the existing MISOCO formulations for criteria other than MSE (and is equivalent for MSE).

**MSE criterion.** Constraint (17b) is a rotated cone constraint and problem (17) can be directly formulated as a MISOCO. Thus, the strength of the convex relaxation of (16) is the same as that of the MISOCO formulation (17) used in Miyashiro and Takano (2015a).

**General criteria.** For tackling (9), Miyashiro and Takano (2015a) propose to use

\begin{align}
\min_{z, \beta, w, s, t} & \quad t \tag{19a} \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 \leq ts \tag{19b} \\
& \quad s \leq \sum_{i=0}^{p} g(i)w_i \tag{19c} \\
& \quad \sum_{i=0}^{p} iw_i = 1'z \tag{19d} \\
& \quad 1'w = 1 \tag{19e} \\
& \quad -Mz \leq \beta \leq Mz \tag{19f} \\
& \quad z \in \{0, 1\}^p, \quad w \in \{0, 1\}^{p+1}, \quad \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p, \quad s \geq 0, \quad t \geq 0, \tag{19g}
\end{align}
i.e., using Special Ordered Sets of type 1 (SOS 1) with the introduction of additional variables \( w \). We have the following theoretical observation.

**Proposition 2.** Formulation (15) has a stronger convex relaxation than (19).

Our result implies that the formulations proposed in this paper, which do not require the introduction of additional binary variables, result in a stronger convex relaxation than the MISOCO formulation.

Finally, we want to point out that current technology for solving MISOCO is lagging far behind MIQO technology. Specifically, convexifications for MIQO sparse regression problems have been extensively studied in the literature (Atamtürk et al. 2018, Atamtürk and Gómez 2018, Günlük and Linderoth 2010, Jeon et al. 2017, Wei et al. 2020, Xie and Deng 2020), while there are relatively few results concerning the corresponding MISOCO structures (Atamtürk and Jeon 2019, Gómez 2018). Using parametric approaches for fractional optimization, discussed in §3, our method fully leverages the advanced technology for MIQO problems and far outperforms the MISOCO formulations even in the case of the MSE criterion.

### 3. Parametric MIQO approaches

Formulations (15) and (19) can be tackled with convex MIO solvers such as Bonmin (Bonami et al. 2008) and FilMINT (Abhishek et al. 2010), see also the work of Mahajan et al. (2017) and the references therein for further details. However, MIQO such as (3) admits specialized and better solution approaches. Specifically, the convex subproblems arising in MIQO can be solved with the simplex method, which is amenable to warm-starts and is a better choice for branch-and-bound algorithms. As a consequence, current codes for MIQO are more efficient than the corresponding codes for convex MIO. To leverage the superior performance of solvers for MIQO, recent works have proposed to tackle MISOCO with a polyhedral feasible region by solving a sequence of MIQO problems (Atamtürk and Gómez 2017, Atamturk et al. 2017), and report significant speedups in solution times. By exploiting the fractional structure of problem (15), similar approaches can be used in our context.
Consider the MIQO problems parameterized by $t$

$$\begin{align*}
\text{(MIQO$_t$)} \quad d(t) &= \min \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 - ts \\
\text{s.t.} \quad (15b) - (15d),
\end{align*}$$

(20a)

(20b)

and recall that $s = g(1'z)$ in any optimal solution. A classical result from the fractional optimization literature (see, e.g., Radzik (1998)) is that if $d(t^*) = 0$, then $t^*$ is the optimal objective function value of (9). Hence, problem (9) reduces to finding a root for the function $d(t)$, e.g., via bisection or Newton-like methods (Dinkelbach 1967, Megiddo 1979, Radzik 1998, Borrero et al. 2017).

Given a parameter $\xi > 0$, let $\text{solve}_\xi$ be a routine that either returns a feasible solution $(\hat{\beta}(t), \hat{z}(t), \hat{d}(t))$ of MIQO$_t$ with the corresponding objective function value $\hat{d}(t)$ less than $-\xi$, i.e.,

$$\hat{d}(t) = \|y - X\hat{\beta}(t)\|_2^2 - tg(1'\hat{z}(t)) < -\xi,$$

or proves that $d(t) \geq -\xi$. For example, $\text{solve}_\xi$ can be naturally implemented using branch-and-bound solvers for MIQO by: either solving (20) to optimality and checking whether $d(t) < -\xi$; or stopping the algorithm when an incumbent solution with value less than $-\xi$ is found or when a tight lower bound is proven.

Define the function $h : \{0, 1\}^p \times \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ as

$$h(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z}) = \frac{\|y - X\bar{\beta}\|_2^2}{g(1'\bar{z})}.$$

Furthermore, let $(\beta^*, z^*)$ be an optimal solution for (9), and define for any feasible solution $(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z})$ the relative optimality gap as

$$\text{gap} = \frac{h(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z}) - h(\beta^*, z^*)}{h(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z})}.$$  (21)

Next, we consider the Newton method approach given in Algorithm 1.

**Proposition 3.** If the time limit is not reached, then Algorithm 1 terminates with a feasible solution with $\text{gap} \leq \epsilon$. 

Algorithm 1 Newton method for (9).

**Input:** $y$, response vector; $X$, model matrix; $\epsilon$, precision parameter.

**Output:** $\beta$, regression coefficients; $z$, selected features.

1: Compute initial bounds
2: $(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z}) \leftarrow$ any feasible solution \hfill $\triangleright$ e.g., $\bar{\beta} = \bar{z} = 0$
3: $t \leftarrow h(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z})$
4: while time limit not exceeded do
5: $\xi \leftarrow \epsilon tg(p)$ \hfill $\triangleright$ Precision for subproblem
6: $(\hat{\beta}(t), \hat{z}(t), \hat{d}(t)) \leftarrow \text{solve}_\xi$
7: if $\hat{d}(t) < -\xi$ then
8: $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{z}) \leftarrow (\hat{\beta}(t), \hat{z}(t))$
9: $t \leftarrow h(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{z})$
10: else if $\hat{d}(t) \geq -\xi$ then
11: return $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{z})$ \hfill $\triangleright$ Optimal solution found
12: end if
13: end while
14: return $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{z})$ \hfill $\triangleright$ Best solution found within the time limit

The result of Proposition 3 holds independently of the quality of the feasible solutions found in line 6 of the algorithm. However, as Proposition 4 below shows, high quality solutions may lead to substantially fewer iterations.

**Proposition 4.** If all problems $\text{MIQO}_t$ in line 6 are solved to optimality, then Algorithm 1 finds an optimal solution in at most $p + 1$ iterations.

The above proof follows standard arguments in fractional combinatorial optimization literature, see similar results in Radzik (1998). More importantly, Proposition 4 provides some intuition on why Algorithm 1 performs better than using (8): in the worst case both approaches involve solving $p + 1$ MIQO, but in practice Algorithm 1 requires significantly fewer iterations. Furthermore, in our computations discussed next, we found out that stopping the optimization of $\text{MIQO}_t$ whenever a feasible solution with objective value less than $-\xi$ is found, results in a better performance. Indeed, it is well-known that algorithms for MIO find high quality and even optimal solutions in a fraction of the time required to prove optimality. Thus, if problems (20) are solved partially, then in practice all iterations except the last one or two are solved in seconds or milliseconds with few branch-and-bound nodes. Even if such
an approach requires more iterations (in our computations the number of iterations is still bounded by $p + 1$), the overall solution times are reduced significantly.

**Exploiting conic relaxations for sparse regression.** There has been a recent research thrust towards designing strong convex relaxations of problem (3), and either using them as standalone methods to obtain estimators for sparse regression (Atamtürk and Gómez 2019, Dong et al. 2015, Pilanci et al. 2015) or embedding them into branch-and-bound methods (Bertsimas et al. 2019b, Bertsimas and Van Parys 2020). It is possible to modify Algorithm 1 to solve at each iteration any such relaxation (instead of a MIO), thus solving a strong relaxation of the fractional problem (9) – the resulting estimator can then be used directly as a proxy of the optimal estimator with respect to a given information criteria.

In this paper we implemented this approach using the convex relaxation by Atamtürk and Gómez (2019), which is the strongest of the three mentioned and the only one that does not require an additional ridge regularization term $\|\beta\|_2^2$. Note that solving to optimality each problem in Algorithm 1 requires solving an SDP with lazy constraints. As SDPs are solved in current off-the-shelf solvers via interior point methods and lack warm-starts capabilities, a naïve implementation of this lazy constraint method may be tantamount to solving several SDPs from scratch, and may be prohibitively expensive. To address this issue, we modify Algorithm 1 to integrate the cut generation and Newton method, reducing the number of SDPs to be solved. The details of the convex relaxation used and the modified Newton method are given in Appendix C.

4. **Computations**

In this section we report computational experiments performed on synthetic and real datasets to test the proposed approaches for the best subset selection problems with respect to MSE, BIC, AICc criteria.
Specifications. Computations were performed using CPLEX 12.7.1 (for MIO) and MOSEK 8.1.0 (for conic relaxations), on a computer with a 3.50GHz Intel® Xeon® E5-1620 v4 CPU and 16 GB main memory and with a single thread. All solver parameters were set to their default values.

4.1. Instances. We now describe the instances used in our experiments.

4.1.1. Synthetic instances. We generate synthetic datasets as done in Bertsimas et al. (2016) and Hastie et al. (2017). Given dimensions $n$ and $p$, a sparsity parameter $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, an autocorrelation parameter $\rho$ and a Signal-to-Noise parameter $\nu$, the instances are generated as follows:

(i) The “true” regression coefficients $\beta^0$ have their first $k_0$ components equal to 1, and the remaining equal to 0.

(ii) Each row of the design matrix $X$ is generated i.i.d. from a multivariate normal distribution $\mathcal{N}_p(0, \Sigma)$, where $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ satisfies $\Sigma_{ij} = \rho^{|i-j|}$.

(iii) The response variables $y$ is generated from a normal distribution $\mathcal{N}_n(X\beta^0, \sigma^2 I)$, where $\sigma^2 = \frac{\beta^0' \Sigma \beta^0}{\nu}$ is defined to meet the desired SNR level.

4.1.2. Real instances. We test the proposed methods on the “Diabetes” dataset used in Efron et al. (2004) and later in Bertsimas et al. (2016). We also use the datasets used in Miyashiro and Takano (2015a), i.e., the datasets “Housing”, “AutoMPG”, “SolarFlare”, “BreastCancer” and “Crime”, as well as the “Insurance” dataset; their sizes $(n, p)$ are reported in the left column in Table 1. All datasets except for “Diabetes” are available from the UCI Machine Learning Repository (Dheeru and Karra Taniskidou 2017).

4.2. Optimization performance. We first focus in the performance of the methods from an optimization perspective, i.e., their solution times and end gaps. We point out that while there exist techniques for sparse regression that can solve to optimality problems with thousands of variables (Atamtürk and Gómez 2020, Bertsimas and Van Parys 2020, Bertsimas et al. 2019b), those methods involve and exploit additional regularization terms. In contrast, the regression problems with respect to information criteria call for solving the “core” best
subset selection problem with no additional regularization, where such techniques cannot be applied or do not perform well.

4.2.1. Methods. We compare the following methods for tackling the feature selection problems with information criteria.

**Misoco:** The MISOCO formulation (as in Miyashiro and Takano (2015a))

\[
\begin{align*}
\min & \ t \\
\text{s.t.} & \ \gamma = y - X\beta, \ \gamma'\gamma \leq ts, \ (19c) - (19g), \ \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^n.
\end{align*}
\]

**Fractional:** The fractional optimization approach with Algorithm 1.

**Cardinality:** The approach described in (8), where the MIQO (3) is solved for all values of \( k = 1, \ldots, p \). Solutions obtained from solving the method with cardinality \( k \) are used to warm-start the solvers when solving the problem with cardinality \( k + 1 \).

In addition, we also test methods **Fractional\textsubscript{SDP},** corresponding to the conic relaxations described in Appendix C, and **Cardinality\textsubscript{SDP}** which solves the conic relaxation propose in Atamtürk and Gómez (2019) for all cardinalities.

Finally, for MIO formulations, we use the logical constraints \( z_i = 0 \Rightarrow \beta_i = 0 \) in CPLEX to impose constraints (3c), which essentially delegates to the solver the task of computing adequate big-M values – note that the conic relaxations **Fractional\textsubscript{SDP}** and **Cardinality\textsubscript{SDP}** do not use big Ms.

4.2.2. Time limits. When solving the conic relaxations **Fractional\textsubscript{SDP}** and **Cardinality\textsubscript{SDP},** each problem is solved to optimality and there is no time limit. For the MIO-based **Fractional** and **Cardinality** methods, we set a time limit of one hour. Note that for the **Cardinality** method, this is a time limit to solve all problems\(^1\): we initially allocate a time limit of 1hr/\( p \) to each problem, and if a problem is solved before the time limit then we allocate the unused time evenly among remaining problems.

\(^1\)We also tested a parallel implementation of this method, by allocating one hour to each problem and not using warmstarts. We found that the sequential implementation with warmstarts produces solutions close or equal to the parallel implementation, although gaps can be much larger in the more difficult instances. For the sake of brevity, we omit this approach from our computations.
4.2.3. Results. Table 1 reports for each instance, MIO method and criterion, the solution time (in seconds) required to solve problem (9) to optimality, or the optimality gap proven when a time limit of one hour is reached, as well as the number of branch and bound nodes.

The optimality gaps are computed as follows: for methods Fractional, the optimality gap is given by (27); for Misoco, the optimality gap just corresponds to the gap reported by the solver; and for Cardinality, we report the worst optimality gap among all problems (8). Note that while the gaps of Misoco and Fractional correspond to the gap with respect to the optimal solution of problem (9), the gap of Cardinality has a different interpretation as it corresponds to the gap with respect to the optimal solution of a cardinality constrained problem (3), and thus is not directly comparable with the other optimality gaps.

We see from Table 1 that the performance of Misoco is very poor, struggling in almost all instances; note that, by default, CPLEX uses linear outer approximations to tackle MISOCO optimization problems, and poor quality of such approximations may be the cause of this bad performance. In contrast, the other MIO formulations Fractional and Cardinality, perform well in the smaller datasets with \( p \leq 40 \), solving the problems to optimality in seconds or minutes. In addition, in all instances that are solved to optimality except “Breast-Cancer”, Fractional is consistently an order of magnitude faster than Cardinality (in “BreastCancer” the formulations are approximately equal, depending on the criterion used). However, in instances with \( p \geq 64 \), all MIO formulations are unable to prove optimality, and end gaps are in some case above 10%. Solving these instances to optimality (by either method) would require substantially larger time limits.

In addition, Table 2 reports the time required to solve the problems for relaxations Fractional_{SDP} and Cardinality_{SDP}, and the quality of the resulting relaxations. Specifically, the relaxation quality is the gap between the objective value of the best solution found via the MIO method Fractional (val_{MIO}), and the corresponding lower bound proven by relaxation (val_{SDP}):

\[
\text{Relax} = \frac{\text{val}_{MIO} - \text{val}_{SDP}}{\text{val}_{MIO}}.
\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instance</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>MSE (Time Gap Nodes)</th>
<th>BIC (Time Gap Nodes)</th>
<th>AICc (Time Gap Nodes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 506, p = 13$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>0.2 - 31</td>
<td>0.3 - 160</td>
<td>0.2 - 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>1.2 - 304</td>
<td>1.2 - 304</td>
<td>1.2 - 304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AutoMPG</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 392, p = 25$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>1.3 - 4,999</td>
<td>5.1 - 27,708</td>
<td>1.9 - 8,121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>10.3 - 50,562</td>
<td>10.3 - 50,562</td>
<td>10.3 - 50,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SolarFlareC</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td>155.0 - 4,502</td>
<td>177.2 - 15,476</td>
<td>1,712 - 359,532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 1066, p = 26$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>0.6 - 824</td>
<td>2.7 - 9,704</td>
<td>1.9 - 8,121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SolarFlareM</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 1066, p = 26$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>0.3 - 54</td>
<td>2.2 - 8,265</td>
<td>1.6 - 5,239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SolarFlareX</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 1066, p = 26$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>0.2 - 20</td>
<td>0.5 - 554</td>
<td>0.4 - 599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>9.6 - 22,472</td>
<td>19.5 - 10,730</td>
<td>19.5 - 10,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BreastCancer</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td>limit 5.3% 2.9×10^6</td>
<td>limit 6.0% 489,650</td>
<td>limit 7.3% 785,634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 196, p = 37$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>119.9 - 648,348</td>
<td>825.0 - 3.6×10^6</td>
<td>860.4 - 4.7×10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>515.9 - 3.0×10^6</td>
<td>515.9 - 3.0×10^6</td>
<td>515.9 - 3.0×10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diabetes</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td>limit 22.2% 52,651</td>
<td>limit 41.0% 117,190</td>
<td>limit 8.9% 155,747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 442, p = 64$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>limit 4.3% 1.4×10^7</td>
<td>limit 16.1% 1.3×10^7</td>
<td>limit 7.9% 1.3×10^7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>limit 6.0% 8.9×10^6</td>
<td>limit 6.0% 8.9×10^6</td>
<td>limit 6.0% 8.9×10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td>limit 100.0% 4,201</td>
<td>limit 41.3% 22,283</td>
<td>limit 7.2% 24,454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 1,993, p = 100$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>limit 3.1% 6.3×10^6</td>
<td>limit 13.4% 6.0×10^6</td>
<td>limit 5.1% 5.7×10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>limit 11.8% 4.8×10^6</td>
<td>limit 11.8% 4.8×10^6</td>
<td>limit 11.8% 4.8×10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>Misoco</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 5,822, p = 151$</td>
<td>Fractional</td>
<td>limit 2.1% 3.1×10^6</td>
<td>limit 4.2% 2.6×10^6</td>
<td>limit 2.5% 3.2×10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality</td>
<td>limit 3.1% 2.7×10^6</td>
<td>limit 3.1% 2.7×10^6</td>
<td>limit 3.1% 2.7×10^6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

†: Numerical errors occurred during branch-and-bound.

Table 1. Performance for MIO methods in real datasets. In instances not solved to optimality, the best solution found by Cardinality with respect to a given criterion matches the solution found by Fractional.

We observe from Table 2 that FractionalSDP is between 20 to 50 times faster than CardinalitySDP. Also, larger speedups correspond to instances with larger values of $p$. In
### Table 2. Performance for conic relaxations in real datasets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instance</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>MSE Time</th>
<th>Relax</th>
<th>BIC Time</th>
<th>Relax</th>
<th>AICc Time</th>
<th>Relax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AutoMPG</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SolarFlareC</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SolarFlareM</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SolarFlareX</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BreastCancer</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diabetes</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>503.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>503.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>503.1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>125.2</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>158.6</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>125.7</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>4,004.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,004.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,004.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>Fractional_SDP</td>
<td>1,305.7</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>1,140.0</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>1,113.3</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardinality_SDP</td>
<td>16hrs</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16hrs</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16hrs</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

addition, by comparing the MIO formulations (Table 1) and the conic relaxations (Table 2), we make the following observations. First, conic relaxations can be substantially faster than MIOs, which is not surprising as the problems tackled are simpler. Nonetheless, as shown by the small optimality gaps in Table 2 and as will be argued further in Section 4.3, the solutions from the conic relaxation can be excellent estimators. Second, in the instances not solved to optimality by the MIO methods, the gaps reported by the conic relaxations are smaller, indicating that the lower bound obtained by solving this relaxation is better than the lower bound obtained after one hour of branch-and-bound. These results also indicate
that the feasible solution found by MIO is better than what the optimality gap from branch-and-bound indicates, and may, in fact, be optimal in many cases (indeed, the solution with respect to MSE in “Crime” was in fact proven optimal after solving the conic relaxation).

We conclude from our experiments that, by adopting a fractional optimization perspective, feature selection problems with information criteria can be solved substantially faster than by using the existing approaches. These benefits are further compounded when the fractional optimization methods are combined with novel approaches for tackling MIQO problems.

4.3. **Statistical performance.** In this section replicate the simulation setup used by Hastie et al. (2017) to compare the statistical performance of feature selection methods with different information criteria, and test the performance of solving the cardinality constrained problem (3) while using hold-out validation to select the right parameter \( k \). In our computations, we use \( n = 1,000, p = 100, \rho = 0.35 \) and \( \nu \in \{0.05, 0.09, 0.14, 0.25, 0.42, 0.71, 1.22, 2.07, 3.52, 6.00\} \) and \( k_0 = \{5, 10, 25\} \).

**Methods.** We compare the performance of the following methods.

- **Hold-out validation:** The data is partitioned into a training set and a validation set, each of size \( n/2 \). The best subset selection problem (3) is solved on the training set for all values of \( k = 0, 1, \ldots, 2k_0 \), and the estimator that results in the smallest prediction error on the validation set is used. This method corresponds to the best subset selection method used in Hastie et al. (2017).

- **MSE:** The estimator that minimizes the MSE.

- **BIC:** The estimator that minimizes the BIC.

- **AICc:** The estimator that minimizes the AICc.

For both hold-out validation and information criteria methods, we tested the MIO-based and conic relaxation methods. For MIO methods, we set a time limit of three minutes to compute the estimators; note that for hold-out validation, this amounts to an average of \( 3/(2k_0) \) minutes per problem (although some problems may be allocated more time, as discussed in Section 4.2.2). For conic relaxations, we do not set a time limit, and solve all convex problems to optimality.
**Metrics.** To evaluate the performance of each method, we consider the following metrics:

(i) the relative test error given by

\[
\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{(y_0 - x_0'\hat{\beta})^2}{\sigma^2}\right) = \frac{(\hat{\beta} - \beta^0)'\Sigma(\hat{\beta} - \beta^0)}{\sigma^2} + \sigma^2,
\]

where \( x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p \) denotes a test predictor drawn from \( \mathcal{N}_p(0, \Sigma) \), \( y_0 \) its associated response drawn from \( \mathcal{N}_p(x_0'\beta^0, \sigma^2) \), and \( \hat{\beta} \) is an estimator obtained from a given regression procedure.

(ii) the support recovery, i.e., the number of correctly/incorrectly identified predictor variables; and

(iii) the total time required to compute the estimator.

Observe that the relative test error was also used as a metric in Hastie et al. (2017).

**Results.** We generated, for each combination of parameters \( \nu \) and \( k_0 \), 10 instances with identical parameters and report the averages across all replications. Specifically, Table 3 reports for each value of \( k_0 \) the average total time required to compute the estimators (the averages are also taken across all SNRs). Consistently with the results reported in Section 4.2, we observe that the conic relaxations with respect to information criteria are substantially faster to compute and that the conic problems are solved to optimality in less than three minutes, the time limit given for MIO problems. We also point out that, on average, the conic relaxation of each cardinality constrained problem solved in hold-out validation requires 62 seconds; thus we see that conic problems with respect to information criteria are solved in the time required to solve two cardinality constrained problems (or less).

**Table 3.** Average computational time (in seconds) of conic relaxations in synthetic instances with \( n = 1,000 \), \( p = 100 \) and \( \rho = 0.35 \). All MIO methods hit the time limit of three minutes without proving optimality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>MSE</th>
<th>BIC</th>
<th>AICc</th>
<th>Hold-out validation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( k_0 = 5 )</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( k_0 = 10 )</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1,153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( k_0 = 25 )</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3,075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of statistical performance, we observe that MIO formulations and conic relaxations deliver almost identical solutions: in SNR regimes with $\nu \leq 0.25$, the estimators from the conic relaxations have a slightly lower error than their MIO counterparts (by an average of 0.2%), while in regimes with $\nu > 0.25$ the two errors are, on average, the same. This similarity indicates on the one hand that conic relaxations indeed produce very high quality estimators, and on the other hand that MIO methods find optimal or near-optimal solutions in a short time limit, even if proving optimality would require a long time. Since both methods result in very similar performance, but the conic relaxations are slightly superior in low SNR regimes, we only report those results in the sequel.

Figures 1 and 2 depict, for different values of parameters $k_0$ and signal-noise ratios $\nu$, the test error and support recovery, respectively. We observe from Figure 1 that AICc dominates MSE and that BIC dominates hold-out validation in terms of prediction accuracy. Moreover, while the quality of the predictions of MSE and AICc are fairly insensitive to the SNR and true sparsity parameter $k_0$, the performance of BIC and hold-out validation depends on those parameters. In particular, both BIC and hold-out validation perform (comparatively) better when the true model is very sparse (i.e., low values of $k_0$) and in very low and very high SNRs. In contrast, AICc performs better for denser models and for medium SNR values. We see that the performance of hold-out validation is especially poor for $k_0 = 25$, being outperformed by all other methods for several SNR values, i.e., for $0.09 \leq \nu \leq 0.71$. We attribute, in part, the superior performance of information criteria approaches such as BIC to the lack of hold-out validation, which requires holding out a portion of the data for validation purposes.

From Figure 2 we see that BIC achieves their good prediction performance in low SNRs by selecting a small number of predictor variables, but most of those match the support of the “true” regression coefficients $\beta^0$. As the SNR increases, the number of predictor variables chosen by BIC gradually increases until achieving an almost exact recovery of the true support of $\beta^0$. We see that hold-out validation is also able to recover the true support in large SNR regimes, but may choose a relatively large number of incorrect regression predictors in
low SNR regimes when compared to BIC. In contrast, MSE and AICc fail to recover the true support for \( \nu \leq 6 \); in general, MSE selects a larger number of “incorrect” predictors, which explains its worse than AICc prediction performance. Nonetheless, for medium values of the SNR value, AICc chooses a larger number of true predictors than BIC or hold-out validation with a modest amount of incorrect ones, leading to better prediction performance.

We conclude this section by summarizing our main computational findings:

- The parametric method described in Section 3 is able to solve to optimality problems an order-of-magnitude faster than previous approaches for information criteria. The speedup is more pronounced when paired with recent convexification methods.
- Optimizing with respect to information criteria via the new conic relaxations can be substantially “cheaper” than performing simple hold-out validation (and would be much faster than \( k \)-fold cross-validation), while delivering comparable or even superior statistical performance (depending on the regime and criterion used).
- In terms of the performance of information criteria, we report the following findings:
  - The BIC criterion delivers sparser solutions than other criteria, and is the best at identifying the true sparsity pattern (validating the theoretical derivation of the criterion). It also delivers excellent prediction capabilities (although, it is highly dependent on the SNR) and consistently outperforms hold-out validation.
  - The AICc, while being unable to identify the correct sparsity pattern, delivers good predictions and is fairly insensitive to the SNR in terms of the relative test error. It outperforms other methods when the underlying model is relatively dense (25% of non-zeros).
  - The MSE criterion, corresponding to the simple and popular “adjusted” \( R^2 \) metric (but without the theoretical justifications of other criteria), is dominated by the AICc criterion both in terms of prediction and support recovery. It also performs worse than BIC and hold-out validation in most (but not of all) of the scenarios considered.
Figure 1. Relative test error of conic estimators as a function of the SNR in synthetic instances with $n = 1,000$, $p = 100$ and $\rho = 0.35$. 

(a) $k_0 = 5$. 

(b) $k_0 = 10$. 

(c) $k_0 = 25$.
Figure 2. Support recovery of conic estimators as a function of the SNR in synthetic instances with $n = 1,000$, $p = 100$ and $\rho = 0.35$.

4.4. Additional discussion. One of the main advantages of the parametric approach given in Section 3 is that it reduces optimization with respect to highly nonlinear criteria such as
(6)-(7) to solving a sequence of MIQO optimization problems, for which specialized methods, well beyond simply using off-the-shelf solvers, exist. In this paper, we illustrate one such approach by using the conic relaxations for MIQO derived in Atamtürk and Gómez (2019). We now give pointers to alternatives, and briefly discuss their integration with the parametric method.

- Hazimeh and Mazumder (2018) propose a coordinate-descent method for $\ell_0$-regularized best subset selection that delivers locally optimal solutions and scales to problems with $p \sim 10^5$. This method can be used to solve each subproblem in the Newton method described in Section 3, resulting in a method that quickly finds high quality solution for problems with respect to information criteria. The integration with respect to the MSE criterion is straightforward, while other criteria require minor modifications to account for the submodular regularization $-tg(1'z)$.

In addition, if an additional regularization term is added in the numerator of (4) and inside the logarithm in (5)-(7) — in which case the resulting problem can be interpreted as a robustification of the original problem—, the following methods could be used as well:

- Bertsimas and Van Parys (2020) propose a linear outer approximation algorithm to tackle the sparse regression problems, and show that computational times can be reduced in cross-validation by reusing the approximation constructed in earlier problems. The same algorithm can be used to solve subproblems arising in Algorithm 1, and the linear outer approximations constructed can be reused in subsequent iterations (note that we use a similar idea in Algorithm 2 with cuts added).
- Pilanci et al. (2015), Dong et al. (2015) and Xie and Deng (2020) propose to solve conic relaxations that, although weaker than the one used in the paper, are simpler and scale to larger instances while preserving good statistical properties. These relaxations could be directly used in Algorithm 2 as well.
- Atamtürk and Gómez (2020) propose safe screening rules to quickly fix discrete variables to 0 or 1 while preserving optimality guarantees. By using the Lovász extension
of the submodular function $-tg(1'z)$, similar rules could be derived for problems with information criteria.

As the methods for tackling problem (3) keep improving rapidly, the fractional optimization approach presented in this paper allows the direct incorporation of those methods to tackle problems with information criteria.

5. Conclusion

We present an MIFO framework to best subset selection in linear regression under a variety of criteria proposed in the literature. We use an underlying submodular function that arises with most of the criteria considered to strengthen the formulations, and propose to tackle the resulting optimization problems by solving a sequence of MIQO problems (or their relaxations). We report encouraging results in our computational experiments, with respect to both the optimization and statistical performance. Due to the ubiquity of the information criteria in subset selection and other more general feature selection problems, the proposed methodologies may be potentially applicable in contexts other than linear regression.

Acknowledgements

This paper is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. 1818700. The authors would also like to thank the Associate Editor and three anonymous reviewers for their constructive and helpful comments.

References


Appendix A. Proofs

Proof of Proposition 2. We first show that the convex relaxation of (19) is equivalent to the following convex optimization problem:

\[
\begin{align*}
\min & \quad \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{s} \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad s \leq g(0) + \frac{g(p) - g(0)}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} z_i \\
& \quad \ell \circ z \leq \beta \leq u \circ z \\
& \quad z \in [0, 1]^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p, s \geq 0.
\end{align*}
\]

(23a) \hspace{2cm} (23b) \hspace{2cm} (23c) \hspace{2cm} (23d)

Note that \( t = \|y - X\beta\|^2/s \) in any optimal solution of (19) or of its convex relaxation.

Consider the optimization problem in the form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\max_w & \quad \sum_{i=0}^{p} g(i)w_i \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad \sum_{i=0}^{p} iw_i = 1' z, \ 1' w = 1, \ w \geq 0,
\end{align*}
\]

(24a) \hspace{2cm} (24b)

and denote by \( \gamma^* \) its optimal objective function value. Observe that a point \((z, \beta, s) \in [0, 1]^p \times \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}_+\) satisfying \( \ell \circ z \leq \beta \leq u \circ z \) is feasible for the convex relaxation of (19) if and only if \( s \leq \gamma^* \).

We now claim that there exists an optimal solution of (24) where \( w_i = 0 \) whenever \( 0 < i < p \). Indeed, suppose that an optimal solution \( w \) of (24) satisfies \( w_j > 0 \) with \( 0 < j < p \). Since function \( g \) is convex, we have that \( g(j) \leq \left(1 - \frac{j}{p}\right) g(0) + \frac{j}{p} g(p) \). Therefore, the solution \( \hat{w} \) given by

\[
\hat{w}_i = \begin{cases} 
  w_0 + (1 - j/p)w_j & \text{if } i = 0 \\
  w_p + (j/p)w_j & \text{if } i = p \\
  0 & \text{if } i = j \\
  w_i & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]
satisfies all constraints of (24) and results in an equal or better objective function value. Therefore, we can assume without loss of generality that in an optimal solution of (24) only \( w_0 \) and \( w_p \) are nonzero, i.e., \( w_p = 1'z/p \) and \( w_0 = 1 - 1'z/p \). Thus, we find that \((z, \beta, s) \in [0,1]^p \times \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}_+ \) is feasible for the convex relaxation of (19) if and only if

\[
s \leq g(0) + \frac{g(p) - g(0)}{p} 1'z. \]

The latter implies the convex relaxation of (19) is equivalent to (23).

Finally, the natural convex relaxations of (15) and (19) differ only in the use of either constraint (15b) or (23b). Since (23b) is only valid for \( \text{conv}(F) \) while (15b) in fact describes \( \text{conv}(F) \), the result follows. \( \square \)

Proof of Proposition 3. Observe that \((\beta^*, z^*)\) has the objective function value less than or equal to 0 for any subproblem (20) in line 6 – otherwise, \( t = h(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z}) < h(\beta^*, z^*) \), contradicting the optimality of \((\beta^*, z^*)\). Now suppose that at any iteration of Algorithm 1, a lower bound \( d_{LB}(t) \) on the optimal objective function value \( d(t) \) has been proven. We find

\[
d_{LB}(t) \leq \|y - X\beta^*\|_2^2 - tg(1'z^*) \leq 0
\]

\[
\Leftrightarrow \frac{d_{LB}(t)}{g(1'z^*)} + t \leq h(\beta^*, z^*) \leq t
\]

\[
\Rightarrow \frac{d_{LB}(t)}{g(p)} + t \leq h(\beta^*, z^*),
\]

where the implication holds since \( d_{LB}(t) \leq 0 \) and \( g \) is non-increasing. From (26) we conclude

\[
\text{gap} \leq -\frac{d_{LB}(t)}{tg(p)}.
\]

Thus, if \( d_{LB}(t) \geq -\epsilon tg(p) \), see line 10, then \( \text{gap} \leq \epsilon \), and the relative optimality gap of the solution returned by the algorithm in line 11 is at most \( \epsilon \). \( \square \)

Proof of Proposition 4. Let \((\beta^*(t), z^*(t))\) be an optimal solution of (20), and let \( t_k \) and \( t_{k+1} \) be two successive \( t \) values generated by the algorithm. Since \( t_k \geq t_{k+1} \) (a direct consequence of equation (25)), we find that \( g(1'z^*(t_k)) \geq g(1'z^*(t_{k+1})) \). Moreover, if \( g(1'z^*(t_k)) = g(1'z^*(t_{k+1})) \), then necessarily \( \|y - X\beta^*(t_k)\|_2^2 = \|y - X\beta^*(t_{k+1})\|_2^2 \).

\[
d(t_{k+1}) = \|y - X\beta^*(t_{k+1})\|_2^2 - t_{k+1}g(1'z^*(t_{k+1}))
\]
\[ = \|y - X\beta^*(t_k)\|_2^2 - \frac{\|y - X\beta^*(t_k)\|_2^2}{g(1'z^*(t_k))} g(1'z^*(t_k)) = 0, \]

and the algorithm terminates. Finally, since \( g(1'z) \in \{g(0), g(1), \ldots, g(p)\} \) can take at most \( p + 1 \) values, we find that \( g(1'z^*(t_k)) > g(1'z^*(t_{k+1})) \) in at most \( p \) iterations. Thus, if all subproblems are solved to optimality, then the algorithm finds an optimal solution in at most \( p + 1 \) iterations. \( \square \)

**Appendix B. Derivation of (12)**

We now give details on the derivation of the fractional form for the AICc criterion. From (12) we find that

\[
\min n \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n} \right) + 2(1'z) + \frac{2(1'z)^2 + 2(1'z)}{n - 1'z - 1} \equiv \min \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n} \right) + \frac{2(1'z)}{n - 1'z - 1} \equiv \min \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n} \right) - \frac{2n + 2}{n - 1'z - 1} \equiv \min \ln \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{n} \right) - 2 + \frac{n + 1}{n - 1'z - 1}.
\]

Taking exponentials, we find the equivalent optimization problem

\[
\min \frac{1}{ne^2} \frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{e^{-2n\frac{1}{n - 1'z - 1}}}. \]

**Appendix C. Conic Newton method**

Following the work of Atamtürk and Gómez (2019), we can construct a continuous relaxation of (9) by introducing additional variables \( B \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p} \) as

\[
\min_{z, \beta, B, s} \frac{\|y\|_2^2 - 2y'X\beta + \langle X'X, B \rangle}{s} \quad (28a)
\]
\[ s \leq g(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \pi_i z(i) \quad \text{for all permutations of } [p] \quad (28b) \]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  z_i & \beta_i \\
  \beta_i & B_{ii}
\end{pmatrix} \succeq 0 \quad i = 1, \ldots, p \quad (28c)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  z_i + z_j & \beta_i & \beta_j \\
  \beta_i & B_{ii} & B_{ij} \\
  \beta_j & B_{ji} & B_{jj}
\end{pmatrix} \succeq 0 \quad i = 1, \ldots, p, j = i + 1, \ldots, p \quad (28d)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  1 & \beta' \\
  \beta & B
\end{pmatrix} \succeq 0 \quad (28e)
\]

\[ z \in [0, 1]^p, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p, B \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}, s \geq 0, \quad (28f) \]

where \( \langle X'X, B \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} (X'X)_{ij} B_{ij} \). Problem (28) is not convex, but can be solved by finding a root of function

\[ \tilde{d}(t) = \min \|y\|_2^2 - 2y'X\beta + \langle X'X, B \rangle - ts \text{ subject to } (28b) - (28f). \]

We now discuss a Newton method to find a root of \( \tilde{d}(t) \). Let

\[ F = \left\{ (z, \beta, B, s) : s \leq g(0) + \frac{g(p) - g(0)}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} z_i, (28c) - (28f) \right\} \]

be the relaxation of the feasible region of (28), where the polymatroid cuts (28b) are dropped and replaced with a simpler upper bound on \( s \). Moreover, for any set \( H \subseteq F \), define

\[ \tilde{d}(t; H) = \min \|y\|_2^2 - 2y'X\beta + \langle X'X, B \rangle - ts \text{ subject to } (z, \beta, B, s) \in H, \]

and

\[ \tilde{h}(z, \beta, B, s) = \frac{\|y\|_2^2 - 2y'X\beta + \langle X'X, B \rangle}{s}. \]

The modified Newton method is described in Algorithm 2.
Algorithm 2 Newton method for (28).

Input: $y$, response vector; $X$, model matrix; $\epsilon$, precision parameter.

Output: $\beta$, regression coefficients; $z$, selected features.

1: $(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z}) \leftarrow$ any feasible solution $\triangleright$ e.g., $\bar{\beta} = \bar{z} = 0$
2: $t \leftarrow h(\bar{\beta}, \bar{z})$
3: $w \leftarrow 0$ $\triangleright$ Auxiliary variable used as stopping criterion
4: $H \leftarrow F$ $\triangleright$ Initially, no polymatroid cuts are added
5: repeat
6: $w \leftarrow 1$
7: $\xi \leftarrow \epsilon t g(p)$ $\triangleright$ Precision for subproblem
8: $(\bar{z}(t), \bar{\beta}(t), \bar{B}(t), \bar{s}(t)) \leftarrow$ solution of $\bar{d}(t, H)$
9: if Exists violated polymatroid cut then $\triangleright$ Edmonds (1970) greedy algorithm
10: $w \leftarrow 0$
11: $H \leftarrow H \cap \{s \leq g(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \pi_i \bar{z}(i)\}$ $\triangleright$ Refines $H$ with cut
12: end if
13: if $d(t) < -\xi$ then
14: $w \leftarrow 0$
15: $t \leftarrow \bar{h}(\bar{z}(t), \bar{\beta}(t), \bar{B}(t), \bar{s}(t))$
16: end if
17: until $w = 1$
18: return $(\bar{z}(t), \bar{\beta}(t), \bar{B}(t), \bar{s}(t))$ $\triangleright$ Optimal solution of (28)

The main difference between Algorithms 1 and 2 corresponds to lines 9-12. Each time a polymatroid cut is added, we immediately update the value of $t$ (instead of solving the subproblem to optimality), and never discard the previously added cuts. By doing so, we decrease the total number of SDPs to be solved (at the expense of perhaps having some unneeded cuts at later iterations of the method).