Subset Selection with Shrinkage: Sparse Linear Modeling when the SNR is low

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Abstract

We study a seemingly unexpected and relatively less understood overfitting aspect of a fundamental tool in sparse linear modeling – best subset selection, which minimizes the residual sum of squares subject to a constraint on the number of nonzero coefficients. While the best subset selection procedure is often perceived as the “gold standard” in sparse learning when the signal to noise ratio (SNR) is high, its predictive performance deteriorates when the SNR is low. In particular, it is outperformed by continuous shrinkage methods, such as ridge regression and the Lasso. We investigate the behavior of best subset selection in the high-noise regimes and propose an alternative approach based on a regularized version of the least-squares criterion. Our proposed estimators (a) mitigate, to a large extent, the poor predictive performance of best subset selection in the high-noise regimes; and (b) perform favorably, while generally delivering substantially sparser models, relative to the best predictive models available via ridge regression and the Lasso. We conduct an extensive theoretical analysis of the predictive properties of the proposed approach and provide justification for its superior predictive performance relative to best subset selection when the noise-level is high. Our estimators can be expressed as solutions to mixed integer second order conic optimization problems and, hence, are amenable to modern computational tools from mathematical optimization.

1 Introduction

We consider the usual linear regression framework, with response \( y \in \mathbb{R}^n \), model matrix \( X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p} \) and regression coefficients \( \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \). We assume that columns of \( X \) have been standardized to have zero means and unit \( \ell_2 \)-norms. In many classical and modern statistical applications it is desirable to obtain a parsimonious model with good data-fidelity. Towards this end, a natural candidate is the well-known best-subsets estimator [37], given by the following combinatorial optimization problem:

\[
\hat{\beta}_{l_0} \in \arg \min \| y - X \beta \|_2^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|eta\|_0 \leq k.
\]

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Problem (1) has a simple interpretation: it seeks to obtain the best least squares fit with at most \( k \) nonzero regression coefficients. There is a rich body of theoretical work studying the statistical properties of this estimator – see, for example, \([18, 19, 44, 52]\) and the references therein. The caveat, however, is that Problem (1) is often perceived as computationally infeasible \([39]\) – the popular R-package leaps, for example, is unable to obtain solutions to (1) when \( p > 30 \). Inability to compute the best-subsets estimator has perhaps contributed towards an aura of mystery around its operational characteristics on problem-instances that arise in practice. Recently, \([8]\) demonstrated that Problem (1) can be solved to certifiable global optimality via mixed integer optimization (MIO) techniques \([40, 7]\), leveraging the impressive advances in MIO over the past ten or so years – see \([8, 35, 24]\) and the references therein. From a practical viewpoint, this line of research has made it possible to use subset selection procedures on real and synthetic datasets and gather insights regarding their operating characteristics, previously unseen due to the perceived computational limits. This paper investigates one such insight.

Does best subset selection overfit? Suppose that the data are generated from a linear model \( y = X\beta^* + \epsilon \), where matrix \( X \) is deterministic and the elements of \( \epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n \) are independent \( N(0, \sigma^2) \). We focus on the case where \( \beta^* \) is sparse, with few nonzero elements. It is well known that if the noise-level, measured by \( \sigma \), is small relative to the signal-level, measured by \( \|X\beta^*\|_2 \), for example, then the best-subsets estimator leads to models with excellent statistical properties \([44, 52, 12]\) in terms of prediction, estimation and variable selection (minor additional assumptions are required for the latter two metrics). However, the situation is different when the noise level is high – this was observed in \([11]\), which highlighted the instability of best subset selection. Deterioration of the predictive performance in high-noise regimes is a significant drawback of best-subsets, but it has not received significant attention in the literature thus far. It is important to note that SNR alone does not control the difficulty of the underlying statistical problem; model parameters \( p, k^*, n \) and \( X \) also affect the performance of the estimator. In our theoretical analysis, presented in Section 3, we use ratios \( \|\beta^*\|_1/\sigma \) and \( \|\beta^*\|_2/\sigma \) to characterize the relevant noise-level regimes.

The best-subsets estimator given by Problem (1) focuses on two goals: (a) searching for the best subset, \( \mathcal{I} \), containing \( k \) features; and (b) estimating \( \hat{\beta}_{l_0} \) by implementing the unconstrained least-squares method on the selected features \( \mathcal{I} \). Even if best-subsets selects \( \mathcal{I} \) to be the support of \( \beta^* \), the un-regularized fit on features \( \mathcal{I} \) can be improved by shrinking the coefficients when \( \sigma \) is large. For a simple illustration of this, consider the setting where \( n > p \) and \( k = p \). Here, estimator \( \hat{\beta}_{l_0} \) is the usual least-squares solution, which benefits from additional shrinkage \([27]\) to achieve a better bias-variance trade-off in the presence of noise. Further problems arise when the SNR is low due to the variability associated with the choice of \( \mathcal{I} \). See for example, the works of \([50, 13, 17]\) discussing the impossibility of variable selection when the signal is weak.

The discussion above suggests that the best-subsets estimator is not the right approach when the noise-level is high. Figure 1 presents a concrete example illustrating this point. The data are generated from a linear model with \( n = 40, p = 60 \), five true coefficients equal to one, and the rest equal to zero. The rows of \( X \) are drawn from a multivariate Gaussian distribution with the mean equal to zero and all the pairwise correlations equal to \( \rho \). The features are standardized to have unit \( \ell_2 \)-norm, and \( \sigma^2 \) is set to match specific values of SNR = \( \|X\beta^*\|_2^2/\|\epsilon\|_2^2 \). Figure 1 illustrates the performance of the best-subsets estimator, computed using the framework of \([8]\) for different values of \( k \); the results are averaged over ten different replications of \( (X, \epsilon) \). As expected, the predictive accuracy of best-subsets deteriorates as the SNR decreases – it is outperformed by
In Section 2 we formulate the optimization problem for our proposed estimator and describe how to compute the corresponding solutions using modern computational tools from mathematical optimization. In Section 3 we study the theoretical properties of our proposed approach. First, we contend that the classical best-subsets estimator [1] is not designed to be used in high-noise regimes. Our theoretical and empirical investigations in Sections 3 and 5 highlight the shortcomings of best-subsets when contrasted with shrinkage methods. A natural question to ask at this point is: how do we fix this problem? Addressing this question with an associated methodological development is the main focus of this paper. We rule out the ambitious goal of correct variable selection, as this may be not be statistically possible when the noise-level is high. Instead, we focus on improving the predictive performance of the best-subsets approach, with an explicit control of the model size – we also wish to devise an estimator that is based on a simple and easy-to-interpret optimization criterion.

In Section 2 we formulate the optimization problem for our proposed estimator and describe how to compute the corresponding solutions using modern computational tools from mathematical optimization. In Section 3 we study the theoretical properties of our proposed approach. First,
we establish non-asymptotic error bounds for the new estimators. Second, we derive novel lower-
bounds on the prediction error for the best-subsets estimator in settings where the noise-level is
high, and then contrast the predictive performance of best-subsets with that of our estimators.
In Section 4 we discuss the connections between our proposal and existing work, and in Section 5
we evaluate the performance of the proposed estimators empirically. Theoretical proofs and some
computational details are provided in the Supplementary Material.

2 Methodological Framework

Continuous shrinkage methods that solve optimization problems of the form
\[
\text{minimize}_{\beta} \quad \frac{1}{2} \| y - X\beta \|_2^2 + \lambda \| \beta \|_q^q,
\]
(2)
such as ridge regression \((q = 2)\) and the Lasso \((q = 1)\), are recognized for producing estimators
with excellent predictive performance, however, their estimated models are denser than those pro-
duced by best-subsets (see Figure 1). Similarly to the best-subsets approach, the Lasso searches
for a subset of features, however, unlike best-subsets, it then regularizes the least-squares regres-
sion performed on the selected features. The superior predictive performance of the Lasso can be
attributed in part to the shrinkage effect of the \(\ell_1\)-penalty. Perhaps even more compelling is the
example of ridge regression – there is no searching here per se, as all the estimated coefficients
are generally nonzero. The excellent predictive performance of ridge regression can be attributed
fully to the shrinkage induced by the \(\ell_2\)-penalty.

2.1 The proposed estimator

The above discussion suggests the possibility of obtaining a \emph{sparse} linear model with predictive
performance better than best-subsets and comparable to, or even better than, ridge regression
and the Lasso. In terms of sparsity, we desire an estimator with fewer nonzero coefficients than
the Lasso, for example. We propose the following regularized best-subsets estimator\(^1\):
\[
\text{minimize}_{\beta} \quad \frac{1}{2} \| y - X\beta \|_2^2 + \lambda \| \beta \|_q^q, \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \| \beta \|_0 \leq k.
\]
(3)
Above, the cardinality constraint on \(\beta\) directly controls the model size, and the \(\ell_q\)-penalty\(^2\) with
\(q \in \{1, 2\}\) shrinks the regression coefficients towards zero using \(\lambda > 0\) as the shrinkage parameter.
Furthermore, Problem (3) separates out the effects of shrinkage (via \(\lambda \| \beta \|_q\)) and sparsity (via
\(\| \beta \|_0 \leq k\)) – this may be contrasted with the Lasso, where the penalty simultaneously controls
both shrinkage and sparsity, and best subset selection, which only selects but does not shrink. The
family of estimators (3) contains as special cases the best-subsets estimator given by Problem 1
\((\lambda = 0)\), the Lasso family \((k = p, q = 1)\) and the ridge regression family \((k = p, q = 2)\) of
estimators. For other values of \(\lambda\) and \(k\), Problem (3) combines the best of both worlds: best-
subsets (Problem 1) and continuous shrinkage methods (Problem 2).

\(^1\)Estimator (3) is inspired by regularized SVD estimators (involving a nuclear norm penalty and a rank con-
straint) commonly used in collaborative filtering [29] and matrix completion [20].

\(^2\)Note that Problem (3) uses the \(\ell_q\) rather than the \(\ell_q^q\) penalization, to be consistent with the theoretical results
in Section 3. However, our computational framework can handle both versions of the problem.
Figure 1 shows that when \( k > \|\beta^*\|_0 \), continuous shrinkage regulates the overfitting behavior of best-subsets: as \( k \) increases, estimator (3) overfits more slowly when compared to best-subsets. This observation is also supported by our theory in Section 3. When the SNR is low, shrinkage imparted via \( \ell_q \)-regularization becomes critical – estimator (3) prefers to choose a strictly positive value of \( \lambda \) to produce a good predictive model. The \( \ell_1 \)-penalty in estimator (3) with \( q = 1 \) can also act as an additional sparsification tool when \( k \) is large – this partially explains its (marginally) superior predictive accuracy over \( q = 2 \) for larger SNR values. Overall, Figure 1 illustrates that estimator (3) produces sparser models than the Lasso, while its predictive performance is consistently as good as or better than that of the continuous shrinkage methods.

Problem (3) is a nonconvex optimization problem. However, as we show in Section 2.2, it can be expressed as a mixed integer second order cone optimization (MISOCO) problem and solved (in practice) to certifiable optimality by leveraging advances in modern integer optimization techniques, using standard solvers like Cplex, Gurobi, Knitro, Mosek, Glpk, Scip [31, 49]. To obtain high-quality solutions to Problem (3) at low computational cost, we develop specialized discrete first order methods [42] in Section 2.3 by extending the framework in [8, 35]. When these algorithms are used with our proposed continuation schemes across \((\lambda, k)\) and randomized local search heuristics [1, 38], a family of (near optimal) feasible solutions to Problem (3) can be computed within minutes. These algorithms, however, do not certify the quality of the solutions in terms of lower-bounds on the objective function. For this we need the power of MIO techniques. When our heuristic algorithms are used in conjunction with MISOCO solvers for Problem (3), they lead to improved computational performance – see, for example, [8, 35] for similar observations on related problems.

2.2 Mixed Integer Optimization formulations

Here we present the MIO formulation for Problem (3). Denoting \( \{1, \ldots, p\} \) by \([p]\) and assuming, without loss of generality\(^4\) that \( \beta \in [-M, M]^p \), we can rewrite (3) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{minimize} & \quad \frac{1}{2}\|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|_q \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad -Mz_j \leq \beta_j \leq Mz_j, j \in [p]; \quad z \in \{0, 1\}^p; \quad \sum_j z_j = k.
\end{align*}
\]

(4)

Here, \( \beta \) and \( z \) are the optimization variables and \( M < \infty \) is a BigM parameter [7, 8], which is sufficiently large, so that a solution to Problem (4) is also a solution to Problem (3). The binary variable \( z_j \) controls whether \( \beta_j \) is zero or not: \( z_j = 1 \) implies that \( \beta_j \) is free to vary in \([-M, M]\), and \( z_j = 0 \) implies \( \beta_j = 0 \). The constraint \( \sum_j z_j = k \) allows at most \( k \) regression coefficients to be nonzero. The nonconvexity in (4) stems from the binary variables in \( z \). Problem (4) can be reformulated as a MISOCO, i.e., a second order conic optimization problem [10] where a subset of the variables is binary. Thanks to the impressive advances in MIO, these problems can be solved in practice using state-of-the-art MIO solvers [see, for example, the recent work of [19]]. To this end, we note that (4) can be written as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{minimize} & \quad u/2 + \lambda v \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 \leq u, \quad \|\beta\|_q \leq v, \quad (\beta, z) \in C,
\end{align*}
\]

(5)

where the optimization variables are \((u, v, \beta, z) \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^p \times \{0, 1\}^p\), and \( C \) denotes the mixed integral polyhedral constraint in (4). The first term in the constraint can be expressed as a second

\(^4\)Note that every solution to (4) is bounded when \( \lambda > 0 \), because the level sets of the objective function are bounded. The case for \( \lambda = 0 \) has been addressed in [5].
order cone \([10]\),
\[
\{(\beta, u) : \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 \leq u, u \geq 0\} \equiv \{(\beta, u) : \left\| \left( y - X\beta \right)^\top, \left[ u - 1 \right]/2 \right\|_2 \leq (u + 1)/2, u \geq 0\}.
\]

For \(q = 1\), the term \(\|\beta\|_q \leq v\) in the constraint can be expressed via linear inequalities using auxiliary continuous variables \(\{\beta\}^p\):
\[
\{(\beta, v) : \|\beta\|_1 \leq v, v \geq 0\} \equiv \{(\beta, v) : \exists \bar{\beta} \geq 0 \text{ s.t. } -\bar{\beta}_j \leq \beta_j \leq \bar{\beta}_j, \sum_j \bar{\beta}_j \leq v, v \geq 0\}, \tag{6}
\]

thereby leading to a MISOCO formulation for \([5]\) when \(q = 1\). When \(q = 2\), the epigraph version of \(\|\beta\|_q \leq v\) is already a second order cone, so \([5]\) admits a MISOCO formulation.

**Other Formulations.** Computational performance of MISOCO solvers (Gurobi, for example) is found to improve by adding structural implied inequalities, or cuts, to the basic formulation \([5]\) – see Section A.2 of the Supplementary Material. Computation of problem-specific BigM parameters and other bounds is discussed in Section A.3.

Problem \([4]\) with \(q = 1\) can also be expressed as a mixed integer quadratic optimization (MIQO) problem. Note that if we replaced the \(\ell_2\)-penalty in \([5]\) with the squared-\(\ell_2\)-penalty, then the resulting problem would be readily expressed as MIQO as well – both problems leading to the same family of solutions.\(^4\) In what follows, we will focus on the MISOCO formulation presented above to be consistent with our theoretical results in Section 3.

### 2.3 Discrete First Order Algorithms

Inspired by proximal gradient methods \([12, 41]\), popularly used in convex optimization, we present discrete first order (DFO) methods to obtain good upper bounds for \([3]\). The DFO methods have a low iteration complexity and can nicely exploit warm-start information across the \((\lambda, k)\)-space: Using a combination of neighborhood continuation schemes and local combinatorial search methods proposed here, they lead to near-optimal\(^5\) solutions to \([3]\). We note that the DFO methods are heuristics— they do not certify solution quality (i.e., global optimality) via dual-bounds. For the latter, we critically rely on MIO technology. The MIO solvers accept warm-starts available from the DFO algorithm, then subsequently improve the solution and certify optimality, at the cost of additional (but still reasonable) computation times.

We describe a DFO method for the following problem (in composite form \([41]\)):
\[
\text{minimize } F(\beta) := f(\beta) + \lambda \|\beta\|_q \quad \text{s.t. } \|\beta\|_0 \leq k, \tag{7}
\]

where \(f(\beta)\) is a \(L_0\)-smooth convex function, i.e., it satisfies
\[
\|\nabla f(\beta) - \nabla f(\alpha)\|_2 \leq L_0 \|\beta - \alpha\|_2 \quad \forall \beta, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^p. \tag{8}
\]

\(^4\)If we denote the solution to the modified problem by \(\bar{\beta}_{\ell_2}(\lambda', k)\), then, for every fixed \(k\), the solution path \(\{\beta_{\ell_2}(\lambda', k)\}_{\lambda' \geq 0}\) recovers the corresponding path for the original Problem \([4]\) with \(q = 2\).

\(^5\)In our experiments, we observed that the solutions obtained by our elaborate heuristics are often close to the optimal solutions returned by the MIO solvers in the neighborhood of the optimal \((\lambda, k)\) choice, made by minimizing the prediction error on a separate validation set.
For \( f(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \| y - X\beta \|_2^2 \), we can use \( L_0 = \sigma_{\text{max}}(X)^2 \), where \( \sigma_{\text{max}}(\cdot) \) is the maximum singular value of \( X \). As a consequence of (8), for any \( L \geq L_0 \), we have the following bound (12) in place:

\[
    f(\beta) \leq f(\alpha) + \langle \nabla f(\alpha), \beta - \alpha \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| \beta - \alpha \|_2^2 := Q_L(\beta; \alpha), \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p.
\]

Given a current solution \( \alpha \), our algorithm minimizes an upper bound to \( F(\beta) \) around \( \alpha \):

\[
    \min_{\| \beta \|_0 \leq k} Q_L(\beta; \alpha) + \lambda \| \beta \|_q \iff \min_{\| \beta \|_0 \leq k} \frac{L}{2} \| \beta - \left( \alpha - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\alpha) \right) \|_2^2 + \lambda \| \beta \|_q.
\]

A key ingredient in solving the above is the thresholding operator,

\[
    S(\mathbf{u}; k; \lambda \ell_q) := \arg \min_{\| \beta \|_0 \leq k} \frac{1}{2} \| \beta - \mathbf{u} \|_2^2 + \lambda \| \beta \|_q,
\]

where \( S(\mathbf{u}; k; \lambda \ell_q) \) denotes the set of optimal solutions to Problem (11). We note that \( S(\mathbf{u}; k; \lambda \ell_q) \) may be set-valued – the non-uniqueness of an optimal solution to Problem (11) arises from the fact that the ordering of \( |u_j| \) may have ties.

**Proposition 1.** Let \((1), \ldots, (p)\) be a permutation of the indices \(1, \ldots, p\), such that the entries in \( \mathbf{u} \) are sorted as: \( |u_{(1)}| \geq |u_{(2)}| \geq \ldots \geq |u_{(p)}| \). Then, the thresholding operator (11) has the following form:

(a) For the \( \ell_1 \)-regularizer (with \( q = 1 \)) any \( \hat{\beta} \in S(\mathbf{u}; k; \lambda \ell_q) \) is given by:

\[
    \hat{\beta}_i = \begin{cases} 
        \text{sgn}(u_i) \max\{|u_i| - \lambda, 0\} & i \in \{(1), (2), \ldots, (k)\} \\
        0 & \text{otherwise}.
    \end{cases}
\]

(b) For the \( \ell_2 \)-regularizer (with \( q = 2 \)) any \( \hat{\beta} \in S(\mathbf{u}; k; \lambda \ell_q) \) is given by:

\[
    \hat{\beta}_i = \begin{cases} 
        \frac{u_i}{\tau_u} \max\{\tau_u - \lambda, 0\} & i \in \{(1), (2), \ldots, (k)\} \\
        0 & \text{otherwise},
    \end{cases}
\]

where \( \tau_u = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k u_{(i)}^2} \) is the \( \ell_2 \)-norm of the \( k \) largest (in magnitude) entries of \( \mathbf{u} \).

The DFO algorithm performs the following updates (for \( m \geq 1 \))

\[
    \beta^{(m+1)} \in S \left( \beta^{(m)} - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\beta^{(m)}); k; \frac{\lambda}{L} \ell_q \right), \tag{14}
\]

till some convergence criterion is met. The algorithm is summarized below for convenience.

**Discrete First Order Algorithm (DFO)**

1. Fix \( L \geq L_0 \) and a convergence threshold \( \tau > 0 \). Initialize with \( \beta^{(1)} \) that is \( k \)-sparse. Repeat update (14) until \( \| \beta^{(m+1)} - \beta^{(m)} \|_2 \leq \tau \).

2. Let \( \mathcal{I}(\hat{\beta}) \) denote the support of the \( \hat{\beta} \) obtained from Step 1, i.e., \( \mathcal{I}(\hat{\beta}) = \{ i : \hat{\beta}_j \neq 0, j \in [p] \} \).

Solve the convex problem (7) restricted to the support \( \mathcal{I}(\hat{\beta}) \): min \( F(\beta) \) s.t. \( \beta_j = 0, j \notin \mathcal{I}(\hat{\beta}) \).
For the sake of completeness, we establish convergence properties of the sequence \( \{\beta^{(m)}\}_{m \geq 1} \) in terms of reaching a first order stationary point. Our work adapts the framework proposed in [8] to the composite form. Towards this end, we need the following definition.

**Definition 1.** We say that \( \eta \) is a first order stationary point of Problem (7) if \( \eta \in S(\eta - \frac{1}{L}\nabla f(\eta); k; \frac{1}{2}\ell_q) \). We say that \( \eta \) is an \( \epsilon \)-accurate first order stationary point if \( \|\eta\|_0 \leq k \) and \( \|\eta - S(\eta - \frac{1}{L}\nabla g(\eta); k; \frac{1}{2}\ell_q)\|_2 \leq \epsilon \).

The following result presents convergence properties of the sequence \( \{\beta^{(m)}\}_{m \geq 1} \) in terms of reaching a first order stationary point (see Section A.1, Supplementary Material for the proof).

**Proposition 2.** Let \( \{\beta^{(m)}\} \) denote a sequence generated by the DFO algorithm. Then,

(a) for \( L \geq L_0 \), the sequence \( F(\beta^{(m)}) \) is decreasing, and it converges to some \( F^* \geq 0 \);

(b) for \( L > L_0 \), we have the following finite-time convergence rate:

\[
\min_{1 \leq m \leq M} \|\beta^{(m+1)} - \beta^{(m)}\|_2^2 \leq \frac{2(F(\beta^{(1)}) - F^*)}{M(L - L_0)}.
\]

Proposition 2 suggests that the DFO algorithm applied to Problem (7) leads to a decreasing sequence of objective values, which eventually converges. When \( L > L_0 \) the algorithm reaches an \( \epsilon \)-accurate first order stationary point (Definition 1) in \( O(\epsilon^{-1}) \) iterations. We note that the proposition makes no assumption on the data at hand – improved convergence rates may be achievable by making further assumptions on the problem data (see, for example, [8] and the discussion therein). In practice however, the DFO algorithm converges much faster (especially when using warm-start continuation) than the sublinear rate suggested by Proposition 2.

### 2.4 Neighborhood continuation and local search heuristics

Due to the nonconvexity of Problem (3), the DFO algorithm is sensitive to the initialization \( \beta^{(1)} \). The effect of initialization becomes particularly pronounced when \( n \) is relatively small compared to \( p \), the pairwise (sample) correlations among the features are high; and the SNR is low. These solutions can be improved, often substantially (in terms of the objective value), using continuation schemes and randomized local search-heuristics, as we discuss below. The continuation scheme, which makes use of the warm-starting capabilities of the DFO algorithm, is quite efficient. Note that these algorithms serve as stand-alone methods to obtain good feasible solutions for (3), for a family of tuning parameters \( (\lambda, k) \) – this makes them practically appealing. Furthermore, these methods can be used to obtain a good estimate of an optimal tuning parameter (for example, based on validation set tuning) with relatively low computational cost.

**Neighborhood Continuation.** Let \( \hat{\beta}(\lambda, k) \) denote a solution delivered by the DFO algorithm for (3) (we drop the dependence on \( q \) for notational convenience). We let \( F(\lambda, k) \) denote the corresponding objective value. We consider a 2D grid of tuning parameters in \( \Lambda \times K = \{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_N\} \times \{k_1, \ldots, k_r\} \) with \( \lambda_i > \lambda_{i+1} \) and \( k_i > k_{i+1} \) for all \( i \). We set \( k_1 = p, k_r = 1 \). We set \( \lambda_1 = \|X^\top y\|_{\bar{q}} \) with \( \bar{q} = \infty \) if \( q = 1 \) and \( \bar{q} = 2 \) if \( q = 2 \) – the rationale being that if \( \lambda = \lambda_1 \), then an optimal solution to Problem (3) is zero.

**Algorithm 1: Neighborhood Continuation**
(i) Initialize $\hat{\beta}(\lambda_i; k_j) \leftarrow 0$ for every $i, j \in [N] \times [r]$. Repeat Step (ii) until the array of objective values $\{F(\lambda_i; k_j)\}_{i,j}$ stops changing between successive sweeps across the 2D grid $\Lambda \times K$:

(ii) For $i \in [N], j \in [r]$ do the following:

(a) Set $(\lambda, k) = (\lambda_i, k_j)$ and use the DFO algorithm with (at most) four different neighborhood initializations $\hat{\beta}(\lambda_a; k_b)$, $(a, b) \in N(i, j)$ where, $N(i, j)$ are the neighbors of $(i, j)$. For every $(a, b)$ in the neighborhood $N(i, j)$, let $\hat{\beta}_{a,b}$ and $F_{a,b}$ denote the corresponding estimate and objective value, respectively.

(b) Set $\hat{\beta}(\lambda_i; k_j)$ equal to the estimate $\hat{\beta}_{a,b}$ with the smallest objective value: $F(\lambda_i; k_j) = \min\{F_{a,b} : (a, b) \in N(i, j)\}$.

We make a series of remarks pertaining to Algorithm 1:

- If we denote one execution of Step-(ii) (formed by looping across all $i, j \in [N] \times [r]$) as a sweep, then successive sweeps usually lead to a strict improvement in the objective values $\{F(\lambda_i, k_j)\}_{i,j}$ for several $(i, j)$.
- During the first sweep of Algorithm 1 many neighbors $\hat{\beta}(\lambda_a, r_b)$ of $(i, j)$ are zero. After the first sweep, however, all entries $(i, j)$ get populated.
- The neighborhood initializations $\hat{\beta}(\lambda_a; k_b)$ for $(a, b) \in N(i, j)$ serve as excellent warm-starts for $(\lambda_i, r_j)$. This improves the overall runtime of the algorithm (as compared to independently computing the solutions on the 2D grid) and also results in a solution with good objective values.

A (randomized) local search heuristic. We present a local-search heuristic, which, loosely speaking, is capable of navigating different parts of the model space by perturbing the support of a DFO solution. We draw inspiration from local search schemes commonly used in combinatorial optimization problems [1, 38]. Our local search scheme works as follows: for every initialization $\hat{\beta}(\lambda_a, k_b)$, we randomly swap roughly 50% of the nonzero coefficients with 50% of the zero coefficients before passing the resulting estimate as an initialization to the DFO algorithm. This stochastic search scheme is performed as a part of the 2D continuation scheme (described above) – we register the estimate if it leads to an improvement in the objective value.

3 Statistical Theory

We study the performance of the proposed approach in the regression setting with deterministic design. In Sections 3.1-3.3 we establish non-asymptotic oracle error bounds for the corresponding estimators. In Section 3.4 we contrast the predictive performance of the new approach with that of best-subsets selection, by deriving novel lower-bounds on the prediction error of $\hat{\beta}_{t_0}$. The comparison between the estimators is done for each fixed value of the model size tuning parameter $k$. In Section 3.5 we analyze a BIC-type approach for selecting the optimal value of $k$. Our results provide new insights on the benefits of additional regularization in best subset selection.

3.1 Notation and preliminary results

We assume that the observed data follows the model

$$y = f^* + \epsilon.$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

\footnote{By construction, given $(i, j) \in [N] \times [r]$, the objective value $F(\lambda_i, k_j)$ cannot increase between successive sweeps.}
The components in the equation above are vectors in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), vector \( f^* \) is an unknown deterministic mean, and the elements of \( \epsilon \) are independent \( N(0, \sigma^2) \) with \( \sigma > 0 \). A special case of \([15]\) is the linear model \( f^* = X\beta^* \). As before, we assume that the columns of \( X \) have unit \( \ell_2 \)-norm.

We use the following notation for the regularized best-subsets solutions to Problem \([3]\):

\[
\hat{\beta}_q = \arg\min_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_q \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\beta\|_0 \leq k, \quad \text{for } q = 1, 2. \tag{16}
\]

The dependence of \( \hat{\beta}_q \) on \( k \) and \( \lambda \) is understood implicitly. From here on we drop the subscript in the notation for the \( \ell_2 \) norm. To simplify the presentation, we refer to \( \|f^* - \hat{\beta}_q\|^2 \) as the prediction error for \( \hat{\beta}_q \), multiplying the usual prediction error by \( n \). Given an integer \( s \in [p] \), we define \( B_0(s) = \{ u \in \mathbb{R}^p : \|u\|_0 \leq s \} \) and let \( \gamma_s \) denote the minimal \( s \)-sparse eigenvalue of \( X \):

\[
\gamma_s = \min_{u \neq 0, u \in B_0(s)} \frac{\|Xu\|}{\|u\|}.
\]

Given a vector \( u \in \mathbb{R}^p \), we write \( u_1^s, \ldots, u_p^s \) for a non-increasing rearrangement of \( |u_1|, \ldots, |u_p| \). We say that a constant is \textit{universal} if it does not depend on other parameters, such as \( k, p \), or \( \lambda \). We write \( \geq \) and \( \leq \) to indicate that inequalities \( \geq \) and \( \leq \), respectively, hold up to positive universal multiplicative factors, and use \( \asymp \) when the two inequalities hold simultaneously. We use the notation \( a \lor b = \max\{a, b\} \), \( a \land b = \min\{a, b\} \), and treat algebraic expressions of the form \( 0 \cdot \infty \) or \( 0/0 \) as zero.

As is typical in high-dimensional regression settings, we establish the error bounds by conducting deterministic arguments on suitably chosen random events:

\[
\mathcal{E}_s = \{ \epsilon^\top Xu \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}] \sigma \sqrt{s \log(2ep/s)} \|u\|, \forall u \in B_0(s) \}
\]

\[
\mathcal{F} = \{ \epsilon^\top Xu \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}] \sigma \max(\sum_{j=1}^p u_j^s \sqrt{\log(2p/j)}), \sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)} \|Xu\|), \forall u \in \mathbb{R}^p \}
\]

\[
\mathcal{G}_s = \{ \epsilon^\top Xu \leq \sigma \sqrt{5s \log(ep/s) + \log(1/\delta_0)} \|Xu\|), \forall u \in B_0(s) \}
\]

\[
\mathcal{H} = \{ \|X^\top \epsilon\|_\infty \leq \sigma \sqrt{2 \log(2p)} + \sigma \sqrt{2 \log(1/\delta_0)} \}.
\]

When \( s/p \) and \( \delta_0 \) are small, all four events hold with high probability.

**Theorem 1.** Suppose that \( s \in [p] \) and \( \delta_0 \in (0, 1) \). Then,

\[
P(\mathcal{E}_s) \geq 1 - s/(4ep), \quad P(\mathcal{F}) \geq 1 - \delta_0/2, \quad P(\mathcal{G}_s) \geq 1 - \delta_0 \quad \text{and} \quad P(\mathcal{H}) \geq 1 - \delta_0.
\]

Some of the above probability bounds have appeared in the literature. In particular, the bound for \( \mathcal{F} \), which is an important component of our analysis, was recently established in \([4]\).

### 3.2 Results for the \( \ell_2 \)-regularized best-subsets estimator

We follow the common convention in the literature \([13, 9]\) for example] by referring to prediction error rates that involve terms of order \( \lambda^2 \) as \textit{fast} and referring to prediction error rates that involve terms of order \( \lambda \) as \textit{slow}. The slow rates are especially relevant to our study, because they tend to outperform the fast rates in the high-noise regimes. The following result focuses on \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) and provides both the slow and the fast rate prediction error bounds. We note that an
The important attractive feature of the last two error bounds in Theorem 2 is the independence of the uncertainty parameter $\delta_0$ from the tuning parameters $\lambda$ and $k$. This feature allows us to control the expected prediction error, as we demonstrate in Corollary 2 below.

**Theorem 2.** (A) Slow rate. If $\lambda \geq [8 + 2\sqrt{2}]\sigma\sqrt{2k\log(ep/k)}$, then on the event $\mathcal{E}_{2k}$,

$$\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \leq \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \left[\|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + 2\lambda\|\beta\|\right];$$

and on the event $\mathcal{F}$,

$$\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \leq \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \left[\|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|\right] + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0).$$

(B) Fast rate. On the event $\mathcal{G}_{2k}$,

$$\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \leq \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \left[\|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 k\log(ep/k) + \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\lambda^2 + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0)\right]$$

for every $\lambda \geq 0$.

The above result establishes oracle inequalities for the prediction error under potential model misspecification. The added generality allows us to avoid restrictions on the model size parameter $k$. This is relevant to the discussion in Section 3.4 on the relationship between decreasing $k$ and the predictive performance of best-subsets. To illustrate the rates of convergence in Theorem 2 more clearly, we consider the linear case, $f^* = X\beta^*$, and set $\delta_0$ equal to some specific small values.

**Corollary 1.** Let $f^* = X\beta^*$ for some $\beta^* \in B_0(k)$. If $\lambda \geq [8 + 2\sqrt{2}]\sigma\sqrt{2k\log(ep/k)}$, then

$$\|X\hat{\beta}_2 - X\beta^*\|^2 \leq 2\lambda\|\beta^*\|$$

with probability at least $1 - k/(2ep)$, and

$$\|X\hat{\beta}_2 - X\beta^*\|^2 \leq \lambda\|\beta^*\| + \sigma^2 \log(p)$$

with probability at least $1 - 1/p$. Furthermore, with probability at least $1 - (k/p)^k$,

$$\|X\hat{\beta}_2 - X\beta^*\|^2 \leq \sigma^2 k\log(ep/k) + \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\lambda^2$$

and

$$\|\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta^*\| \leq \gamma_{2k}^{-1}\sigma\sqrt{k\log(ep/k)} + \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\lambda$$

for every $\lambda \geq 0$.

We make the following observations regarding the established error bounds for $\hat{\beta}_2$.

**Remark 1.** Letting $k = k^*$, we note that the fast prediction error rate, $\sigma^2 k^*\log(ep/k^*)$, matches the minimax rate over $\beta^* \in B_0(k^*)$.

**Remark 2.** When $\lambda = 0$, the fast rate part of Corollary 1 yields the prediction and estimation error bounds for the best-subsets estimator, $\hat{\beta}_{k_0}$.

**Remark 3.** The slow rate for $\hat{\beta}_2$ is $\sigma\sqrt{k\log(ep/k^*)}\|\beta^*\|$, which improves on the prediction error bound for $\hat{\beta}_{k_0}$ when $\|\beta^*\|/\sigma \leq \sqrt{k\log(ep/k^*)}$ with a sufficiently small universal constant.

The next result bounds the expected prediction error of $\hat{\beta}_2$. 

\[11\]
Corollary 2. If $\lambda \geq [8 + 2\sqrt{2}]\sigma \sqrt{2k \log(ep/k)}$, then

$$E\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \left[ \|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\| \right] + \sigma^2.$$ 

Furthermore, for every $\lambda \geq 0$,

$$E\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 k \log(ep/k) + \gamma_{2k}^2 \lambda^2.$$ 

Comparing the slow rate bounds in Theorem 2 and Corollary 2, we note that the additional $\sigma^2$ term in the corollary matches the expected prediction error rate for the oracle least-squares estimator, achieved in the setting where $\|\beta^*\|_0$ is bounded above by a universal constant.

3.3 Results for the $\ell_1$-regularized best-subsets estimator

There exists extensive literature [for example, 9, 28, 3, 46, 6, 14] on the prediction error bounds for the Lasso, which is an $\ell_1$-regularized least-squares estimator. The following theorem focuses on the $\ell_1$-regularized estimator with an additional $\ell_0$ constraint. It establishes both the slow and the fast rate prediction error bounds for $\hat{\beta}_1$.

Theorem 3. (A) Slow rate. If $\lambda = 2\sigma \sqrt{2 \log(2p)} + 2\sigma \sqrt{2 \log(1/\delta_0)}$, then on the event $\mathcal{H}$,

$$\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \left[ \|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + 2\lambda \|\beta\|_1 \right].$$

If $\lambda \geq [8 + 2\sqrt{2}]\sigma \sqrt{\log(2p)}$, then on the event $\mathcal{F}$,

$$\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0).$$

(B) Fast rate. On the event $\mathcal{G}_{2k}$,

$$\|\hat{f}^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \|\hat{f}^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 k \log(ep/k) + \gamma_{2k}^2 \lambda^2 k + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0)$$

for every $\lambda \geq 0$.

Focusing on the linear case, $f^* = X\beta^*$, we make the following observations.

Remark 4. The slow rate prediction error bound for $\hat{\beta}_1$ is $\sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)} \|\beta^*\|_1$, which is better than the $\sigma^2 k^* \log(ep/k^*)$ bound for best-subsets when $\|\beta^*\|_1/\sigma \lesssim k^* \log(ep/k^*)/\sqrt{\log(ep)}$ with a sufficiently small universal constant.

Remark 5. As is the case with $\hat{\beta}_2$, the fast prediction error rate for $\hat{\beta}_1$ matches the minimax rate over $\ell_0$-balls. The slow rate for $\hat{\beta}_1$ matches the corresponding rate for the Lasso and the minimax lower bound over $\ell_1$-balls derived in [44]. This rate is slightly worse than the corresponding minimax rate established in [43]. However, we note that the latter rate can be derived for $\hat{\beta}_1$ with an appropriate tuning of the parameter $k$, using the arguments in the proof of Corollary 4.1 in [43], which bounds the prediction error of a modified BIC estimator.

Remark 6. Similarly to Corollary 5, the fast rate part of Theorem 3 implies an estimation error bound: $\|\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta^*\| \leq \gamma_{2k}^1 \sigma \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)} + \gamma_{2k}^2 \lambda \sqrt{k}$. 

12
The next result uses Theorems 1 and 3 to bound the expected prediction error for \( \hat{\beta}_1 \).

**Corollary 3.** If \( \lambda \geq [8 + 2\sqrt{2}]\sigma \sqrt{\log(2p)} \), then

\[
E\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \left[ \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 \right] + \sigma^2.
\]

Furthermore, for every \( \lambda \geq 0 \),

\[
E\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in B_0(k)} \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 k \log(ep/k) + \gamma^{-2} k^2.
\]

We now compare the slow rate prediction error bounds for the two proposed estimators: \( \hat{\beta}_1 \) and \( \hat{\beta}_2 \). In the case where all the non-zero coefficients of \( \beta^* \) are of the same order of magnitude, the prediction error rate for \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) is superior to the one for \( \hat{\beta}_1 \), because the former replaces the \( \log(ep) \) term with \( \log(ep/k^*) \). Alternatively, the slow rate for \( \hat{\beta}_1 \) is better when the ratio \( \|\beta^*\|_1/\|\beta^*\| \) is sufficiently small. The following result formalizes the last observation in the asymptotic setting.

**Corollary 4.** Denote the slow prediction error rates for \( \hat{\beta}_1 \) and \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) by \( SR_1 \) and \( SR_2 \), respectively. Suppose that \( k = k^* \), \( f^* = X\beta^* \) and \( \|\beta^*\|_1 / (\sqrt{k^*} \|\beta^*\|) = o(\sqrt{\log(p/k^*)} / \log(p)) \) as \( p \to \infty \). Then, \( SR_1 / SR_2 \to 0 \).

In the next section we complement the slow rate prediction error bounds for \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) and \( \hat{\beta}_1 \) with a corresponding lower-bound for \( \hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} \).

### 3.4 Lower bounds for the best-subsets estimator

Focusing on the linear setting and comparing the slow rate prediction error bound for \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) in Corollary 3 with the one provided for \( \hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} \) by the fast rate part of the same result, we note that the former bound is superior when \( \|\beta^*\|/\sigma \lesssim \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)} \) with a sufficiently small constant. The following novel result demonstrates that in this regime of low \( \|\beta^*\|/\sigma \) the above comparison is meaningful, because the error bound for \( \hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} \) is tight.

**Theorem 4.** Suppose that \( k \in [p] \) and \( \|\beta^*\|/\sigma \lesssim \gamma_k \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)} \) with a sufficiently small universal constant. Then, there exists a positive universal constant \( c \), such that

\[
\|X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} - X\beta^*\|^2 \gtrsim \sigma^2 \gamma_k^2 k \log(ep/k)
\]

with (high) probability of at least \( 1 - 2(ep/k)^{-c\gamma_k^2} - (ep/k)^{-k} \).

Suppose that \( \gamma_k \) is bounded away from zero by a positive universal constant. Note that this holds under the sparse eigenvalue condition, which is standard in the literature (see the discussion in Section 8 of [4], for example). In particular, this condition holds with high probability for a wide class of random matrices \( X \) with i.i.d. rows, provided \( k \log(ep/k) \lesssim n \) with an appropriate universal constant \( [30] \). Under this setting, we make the following key observations.
Remark 7. Combining the upper-bound for \( \hat{\beta}_{t_0} \) from Corollary \ref{cor:upper_bound} with the lower-bound from Theorem \ref{thm:lower_bound} yields \( \|X\hat{\beta}_{t_0} - X\beta^*\|^2 \asymp \sigma^2k\log(ep/k) \). Comparing this prediction error to the slow rate prediction error bound for \( \hat{\beta}_2 \), we conclude that
\[
\|X\beta^* - X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\|^2 / \|X\beta^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \gtrsim \left( \sigma / \|\beta^*\| \right) \sqrt{k\log(ep/k)}
\]
with high probability.

Remark 8. In the regime of interest, where \( \|\beta^*\| / \sigma \ll \sqrt{k\log(ep/k)} \), the ratio of prediction errors in (17) can be made arbitrarily large by decreasing \( \|\beta^*\| / \sigma \) or increasing \( k \). Similarly, Theorem \ref{thm:lower_bound} implies that the prediction error for \( \hat{\beta}_1 \) is smaller than the one for \( \hat{\beta}_{t_0} \) in the regime of low \( \|\beta^*\| / \sigma \). These observations are supported empirically, as illustrated by the left column in Figure 1, where the predictive performance of \( \hat{\beta}_{t_0} \) steadily deteriorates relative to that of \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) and \( \hat{\beta}_1 \) as \( k \) increases.

The lower-bound in Theorem \ref{thm:lower_bound} together with the companion upper-bound implied by Corollary \ref{cor:upper_bound} suggests that in the setting where \( \|\beta^*\| / \sigma \) is low, the prediction error for \( \hat{\beta}_{t_0} \) could be reduced by decreasing \( k \) below \( k^* \). Thus, decreasing the model size parameter \( k \) may have a regularizing effect on the best-subsets estimator. However, if we tune \( k \) in order to improve the predictive performance, then we lose the attractive feature of subset selection that allows the user to select the model size based on external considerations. In contrast, estimator \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) is regularized via the tuning parameter \( \lambda \), for each given model size \( k \). Moreover, the next example illustrates that, even with optimal data-dependent choice of \( k \), best subset selection does not achieve the \( \sigma \sqrt{k^* \log(ep/k^*)} / \|\beta^*\| \) prediction error rate available for \( \hat{\beta}_2 \).

**Example.** Suppose that all pairwise correlations among the predictors are equal to a fixed universal constant \( \rho \in (0, 1) \). Recall the notation \( k^* = \|\beta^*\|_0 \), let \( k^* > 0 \) and assume that each nonzero element of \( \beta^* \) is equal to \( b\sigma / \sqrt{k^*} \) for some positive \( b \).

**Proposition 3.** Let \( \delta \in (0, 1] \) be a fixed universal constant. Under the setting of the Example, there exist positive universal constants \( b_0 \) and \( a \), such that if \( b \in [\delta b_0, b_0] \), then
\[
\min_{k \in \{0, 1, \ldots, p\}} \|X\beta^* - X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\|^2 \gtrsim \sigma \sqrt{k^* \log(ep/k^*)} / \|\beta^*\|
\]
with probability at least \( 1 - 2(ep)^{-a} \). Moreover, the result holds uniformly over \( \beta^* \).

We note that, under the setting of the Example and up to universal multiplicative constants, the above lower-bound matches the minimax rate on the intersection of \( \ell_0 \) and \( \ell_1 \) balls \[\hat{\beta}_1 \) we conclude that in general the best-subsets estimator is not able to achieve the slow rate of \( \ell_2 \)-regularized best-subsets estimator. We emphasize that the lower-bound in Proposition \ref{prop:lower_bound} holds with high probability, and is uniform over \( k \) and \( \beta^* \). In particular, even if best-subsets were able to choose an optimal \( k \) for each given sample, the prediction error rate for the resulting “oracle” estimator would still be worse than the one for \( \hat{\beta}_2 \).

The next result shows that for larger \( k \) the difference between the prediction errors for \( \hat{\beta}_{t_0} \) and \( \hat{\beta}_2 \) is substantially greater than the one suggested by the uniform lower-bound in Proposition \ref{prop:lower_bound}.

**Proposition 4.** Suppose that \( k \in [p] \). Under the setting of the Example, there exist positive universal constants \( b_0 \), \( k_0 \) and \( a \), such that if either \( b \leq b_0 \) or \( \max\{k^*, k\} \geq k_0 \), then
\[
\|X\hat{\beta}_{t_0} - X\beta^*\|^2 \gtrsim \sigma^2 k\log(ep/k)
\]
with probability at least $1 - 3(ep/k)^{-ak}$.

We now compare the prediction errors for $\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0}$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ in the concrete case where $k = k^*$. Proposition 4 and the slow rate part of Corollary 1 imply that

$$\|X\beta^* - X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0}\|^2 / \|X\beta^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \gtrsim k^* [\log(ep/k^*) / \log(ep)]^{1/2}$$

with high probability. In particular, if we let $k^* = O(p^{1-c})$ for some positive $c$, then the lower-bound in the above display grows linearly in $k^*$.

### 3.5 Data-driven choice of $k$

In this section we study a BIC-type approach for selecting the model size $k$. We define

$$\hat{\beta}_2^B = \arg\min_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\| + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0$$

and

$$\hat{\beta}_1^B = \arg\min_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0,$$

where $\lambda_\beta = a \sqrt{\|\beta\|_0 \log(ep/\|\beta\|_0)}$ and $\mu_\beta = b \log(ep/\|\beta\|_0)$ for some nonnegative $a$ and $b$. The above optimization problems are equivalent to first solving the corresponding constrained problems (16), for each $k$, and then identifying the optimal model size $k$ via BIC-type penalization. The value of $\lambda$ in the corresponding constrained formulation for $\hat{\beta}_2^B$ is $a \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)}$.

The following result establishes general oracle inequalities for $\hat{\beta}_2^B$ and $\hat{\beta}_1^B$. To simplify the presentation, we focus on the expected prediction error.

**Theorem 5.** There exist universal constants $a_0$, $b_0$ and $c_0$, such that if $a \geq a_0 \sigma$ or $b \geq b_0 \sigma^2$; then

$$\mathbb{E}\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2^B\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left( \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\| + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0 \right) + \sigma^2;$$

and if $\lambda \geq c_0 \sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)}$ or $b \geq b_0 \sigma^2$, then

$$\mathbb{E}\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1^B\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left( \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0 \right) + \sigma^2.$$

As we note below, letting $f^* = X\beta^*$ for concreteness, the new estimators achieve the error rates in Corollaries 2 and 3 while producing model sizes of the same order as the true model size $k^*$.

**Remark 9.** When $a \asymp \sigma$ and $b \asymp (\lambda \beta^* ||\beta^*|| + \sigma^2) / \{[k^* \vee 1] \log(ep/[k^* \vee 1])\}$, the (slow) expected prediction error rate for $\hat{\beta}_2^B$ is $\sigma \sqrt{k^* \log(ep/k^*) ||\beta^*|| + \sigma^2}$. When $a \lesssim \sigma \sqrt{k^* \log(ep/k^*) ||\beta^*||}$ and $b \asymp \sigma^2$, the (fast) rate is $\sigma^2 k^* \log(ep/k^*) + \sigma^2$. In both cases, as we show in the proof of Theorem 3, the estimator satisfies the sparsity bound $\mathbb{E}\|\hat{\beta}_2^B\|_0 \lesssim k^* \vee 1$.

**Remark 10.** When $\lambda \asymp \sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)}$ and $b \asymp (\lambda ||\beta^*||_1 + \sigma^2) / \{[k^* \vee 1] \log(ep/[k^* \vee 1])\}$, the (slow) expected prediction error rate for $\hat{\beta}_1^B$ is $\sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)} ||\beta^*|| + \sigma^2$. When $\lambda \lesssim \sigma^2 k^* \log(ep/k^*) / ||\beta^*||_1$ and $b \asymp \sigma^2$, the (fast) rate is $\sigma^2 k^* \log(ep/k^*) + \sigma^2$. In both cases, $\mathbb{E}\|\hat{\beta}_1^B\|_0 \lesssim k^* \vee 1$. 


It is useful to compare $\beta_B^1$ to the related Lasso estimator. We first note that the slow rate in Remark 10 also holds for the Lasso, as a consequence of the second bound in Theorem 5 when $b = 0$. The fast rate in Remark 10 holds for the Lasso as well [41, Corollary 4.4], however, under a “strong restricted eigen value condition”. In contrast, all the error bounds in this section hold without imposing any assumptions on the design beyond the usual normalization of the columns of $X$. This can be viewed as a non-trivial advantage of $\ell_0$-based approaches over Lasso-type methods: [53] gives examples of design matrices for which the Lasso\textsuperscript{7} prediction error is lower-bounded by a constant multiple of $\sqrt{n}$, which is generally much larger than the fast rate error bound in Remark 10. Similarly, the sparsity bounds for the Lasso estimator [5] require sparse eigen value conditions, while the corresponding bounds the proposed approach hold without any additional assumptions on the design.

4 Related work and connections to existing estimators

The literature on penalized estimation in high-dimensional regression is extensive. Here we discuss a subset of this work that is closely related to the topic of our paper.

When $q = 2$, estimator (3) is related\textsuperscript{8} to the elastic net estimator [54]. Similarly, when $q = 1$, a relaxation of (4) leads to the Lasso problem. However, as we demonstrate in Section 5, the operating characteristics of estimator (3) are quite different from these relaxations.

Estimator (3) bears similarities with the nonconvex approaches in [16, 26, 55, 32, 15], however, the particular form of (3) is not considered in these works. Despite apparent similarities, our work is different in terms of motivation, context and computational methods. More specifically, our primary motivation is to regularize the overfitting behavior of best subsets selection and obtain sparse models with good predictive power. From a computational standpoint, our MIO framework delivers a global solution for the corresponding optimization problem.

[55, 26] propose improvements over the elastic net by replacing the $\ell_1$-penalty with more aggressive penalties (for example, adaptive Lasso and MCP). They consider the penalized formulation, different from the cardinality constrained version [3]. While these works focus on improved estimation accuracy in low-noise regimes, the resulting estimators may also perform well in the high-noise settings. [15] impose both a concave penalty and the $\ell_1$-penalty on $\beta$, demonstrating theoretically that their estimator combines the predictive strength of the $\ell_1$ regularization with the variable selection strength of the nonconvex regularization. [32] impose a convex combination of the $\ell_0$ and the $\ell_1$ penalties on $\beta$, and study statistical properties of their estimator in the low-dimensional setting. There are differences in the computational approaches as well: [32] propose using a piecewise linear approximation to the $\ell_0$-penalty for computational purposes; their numerical experiments are mostly limited to the case $p \leq 15$. [26] and [15] rely on local approximations to nonconvex optimization problems, which may potentially lead to sub-optimal local solutions.

The topic of this paper is closely related to the interesting recent work of [21], where the authors also observe that in the low-SNR regimes the Lasso leads to better predictive models than best subset selection, while the reverse is true in the high-SNR regimes. As a compromise between the

\textsuperscript{7}The lower-bound holds for a wide range of coordinate-separable M-estimators, including popular nonconvex regularizers such as SCAD and MCP.

\textsuperscript{8}A convex relaxation of (4) with $q = 2$, obtained by relaxing $z_j \in \{0,1\}$ to $z_j \in [0,1]$, leads to a slight modification of the elastic net optimization problem, where the squared-$\ell_2$-penalty is replaced by the $\ell_2$-penalty.
two approaches,\cite{zhou2007lars} propose a variant\cite{zou2005regularization} of relaxed Lasso\cite{sun2018extended}. Interestingly, the original form of the relaxed Lasso estimator can be interpreted as a feasible solution to Problem (1), with $q = 1$, for a suitable choice of tuning parameters $k$ and $\lambda$. The key advantages of our approach are as follows. Unlike relaxed Lasso, estimator (3) is given by a transparent optimization formulation with an explicit control on the support size. We conduct an extensive theoretical analysis of the predictive properties of estimator (3), including its superior performance relative to best-subsets in high-noise regimes. To our knowledge, similar results are not available for the relaxed Lasso estimator.

After an earlier version of this paper became publicly available, some interesting follow-up work has been conducted with the focus on the computational aspects of the regularized best-subset estimators\cite{wai2018exact,chen2017best,bau2019efficient}.

5 Experiments

We explore the properties of our estimator empirically on synthetic datasets with varying values of $n$, $p$, SNR and correlations among the predictors, as well as on several real datasets\footnote{This is given by a convex combination of the Lasso estimator and its polished version (obtained by performing a least squares fit on the Lasso support).}.

5.1 Synthetic Datasets

We generate the rows of the model matrix $\mathbf{X}$ as $n$ independent realizations from a $p$-dimensional multivariate Gaussian distribution with mean zero and covariance matrix $\Sigma = (\sigma_{jk})$. We standardize the columns of $\mathbf{X}$ to have mean zero and unit $\ell_2$-norm, and generate $y = \mathbf{X}\beta^* + \epsilon$ with $\epsilon_i \overset{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ and $\beta^* \in \mathbb{R}^p$. Recall that we define $\text{SNR} = \|\mathbf{X}\beta^*\|_2^2/\|\epsilon\|_2^2$ and let $k^* = \|\beta^*\|_0$ denote the true number of nonzeros. We consider the following examples:

Example 1. $\sigma_{jk} = \rho|j-k|$ (with the convention $0^0 = 1$), $\beta^*_j = 1$ for $k^* = 7$ equispaced values in $[p]$ and $\beta^*_j = 0$ otherwise.

Example 2. $\sigma_{jk} = \rho + (1-\rho)I\{j = k\}$, $\beta^*_j = 1$ for $j \leq k^* = 7$ and $\beta^*_j = 0$ otherwise.

In the above examples all the nonzero coefficients in $\beta^*$ have the same magnitude. We focus on this setting to get a clear understanding of how our proposed estimator regulates the overfitting behavior of best-subsets and compares with estimators such as ridge regression and the Lasso, as the SNR is varied. In our simulations, we also vary the values of $\rho$, $n$ and $p$.

We conduct a comparison across the following methods:

(L0+L1) Estimator (3) with $q = 1$. The 2D grid of tuning parameters has $\lambda$ taking values in a geometrically spaced sequence $\{\lambda_i\}_{100}^{1}$, with $\lambda_1 = \|\mathbf{X}^\top y\|_\infty$ and $\lambda_{100} \sim 10^{-4} \lambda_1$, while $k$ takes values in $\{0, \ldots, 15\}$.

(L0+L2) Estimator (3) with $q = 2$. The 2D grid was similar to the above, with $\lambda_1 = \|\mathbf{X}^\top y\|_2$, which ensures a zero solution.

(L0) Best-subsets estimator (1) with $k \in \{0, \ldots, 15\}$.

\footnote{The code implementing our proposed approach is available on github: https://github.com/antoine-dedieu/subset_selection_with_shrinkage}
(L1) The Lasso estimator given by Problem (2) with $q = 1$ on a grid of 100 values of $\lambda$.

(L1P) Polished version of the Lasso estimator, computed as the least-squares estimator on the support of every L1 solution.

(L2) Ridge regression estimator given by Problem (2) with $q = 2$ on a grid of 100 values of $\lambda$.

(L1+L2) Elastic net estimator [54]. For each value of parameter $\lambda$, we consider a sequence of 20 values $\alpha \in [0.05, 0.95]$ for weighting the $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ penalties.

The estimators in (3) are computed via 3 rounds of Algorithm 1 (Neighborhood Continuation) with stochastic local search, as described in Section 2.4. Let $\{\hat{\beta}(\lambda, k)\}$ denote the corresponding 2-dimensional family of solutions. The discrete first order algorithm (DFO) is run until reaching the convergence threshold of $\tau = 10^{-3}$. Once the family $\{\hat{\beta}(\lambda, k)\}$ is obtained, the best pair $(\hat{\lambda}, \hat{k})$ is chosen on a held-out validation set as discussed below. For this choice of $(\hat{\lambda}, \hat{k})$, we solve the MIO formulation (4) with a time-limit of 30 minutes$^{11}$ – the resultant solutions are referred to as L0+L1 or L0+L2. We obtain the L0 solution in a similar fashion, using $\hat{\beta}(\lambda, N, k)$ from Problem (3) with $q = 1$ to warm-start the DFO. Methods L1, L1P, L2 and L1+L2 are computed using Python’s scikit-learn suite of algorithms.

Selecting the tuning parameters. For each of the above methods, we pick the estimator that minimizes the least squares criterion on a validation set simulated as $y = X\beta^* + \epsilon$, with the fixed $X$ and an independent realization of $\epsilon$, with the same SNR. For each selected estimator we compute the prediction error, $\|X\hat{\beta} - X\beta^*\|^2/n$, and the associated number of nonzero regression coefficients. Figures 2, 3 and 4 summarize the results via box plots, in which the boxes extend from the lower to the upper quartile of the data with a line at the median, to aggregate the results over the ten independent simulations. We do not display the sparsity levels of L1+L2 and L2, as these methods are considerably denser than L1, which, in turn, produces the densest solutions among the remaining methods in the examples we consider.

Summary of observations. We summarize our general observations below:

- When the noise level is high (SNR=1), L0 performs poorly in terms of prediction accuracy. To mitigate its overfitting behavior, L0 attempts to regularize by selecting very sparse models – the best predictive model for L0 has fewer nonzeros than $\beta^*$. In this setting, methods L1 and L2 work better than L0 in terms of the prediction accuracy. However, the estimated models are rather dense. The polished version of the Lasso, L1P, selects a model that is sparser than the Lasso but suffers in prediction accuracy.

The two new methods, L0+L1 and L0+L2, display the best prediction accuracy overall. They fix the overfitting behavior of L0 via the additional shrinkage. This observation agrees with the theoretical results and the discussion in Sections 3.2, 3.3. The best predictive models available from L0+L1/L0+L2 are similar in performance to the best predictive models available via L1 and L2, however, the new methods lead to estimators that are significantly sparser. The L0 models are sparser than those for L0+L1 and L0+L2, however, L0 suffers in terms of the prediction accuracy. In summary, the new L0+L1/L0+L2 methods significantly improve upon the predictive performance of L0 at the cost of marginally decreasing the model sparsity.

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$^{11}$We use a Python interface to the Gurobi solver for our experiments.
Example 1: Small settings: \( n = 50, p = 100 \)

\[ \rho = 0.5, \text{SNR} = 1 \]

\[ \rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 2 \]

\[ \rho = 0.5, \text{SNR} = 3 \]

Example 1: Large settings: \( n = 100, p = 1000 \)

\[ \rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 1 \]

\[ \rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 2 \]

\[ \rho = 0.8, \text{SNR} = 3 \]

**Figure 2:** Example 1 simulations for different values of \( n, p, \rho \) and SNR. Prediction error refers to the best predictive models obtained after tuning on a separate validation set. \# nonzeros refers to the corresponding number of nonzero coefficients. For low SNR values, \( L0 \) led to poor predictive models and was outperformed by \( L1 \) and \( L2 \). Overall, the best predictive models were produced by \( L0+L1/L0+L2 \) – in some instances they were comparable to the best \( L1/L2 \) models, but much sparser.
Example 2: Small settings: $n = 50, p = 100$

$\rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 1$

$\rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 2$

$\rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 3$

Example 2: Large settings: $n = 100, p = 1000$

$\rho = 0.0, \text{SNR} = 1$

$\rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 1$

$\rho = 0.2, \text{SNR} = 3$

Figure 3: Experimental results for Example 2. The results are qualitatively similar to Figure 2 – however, this example is “harder” than Example 1 due to the increased correlation among the features – a larger nominal value of SNR is required before L0 matches the performance of L0+L1/L0+L2. The L0+L1/L0+L2 methods performed the best in terms of obtaining a good predictive model that is also sparse – the model sizes were larger than $k^*$ but smaller than those available from the best L1 models.
Figure 4: Experimental results for the proposed methods, L0+L1 and L0+L2, as well as adaptive elastic net (AEN), Mnet and relaxed Lasso (RL1) methods (as described in the text). Here $\rho = 0.2$, SNR = 2 for Example 1 and $\rho = 0.1$, SNR = 3 for Example 2; $n = 100$, $p = 1000$ in both settings. On some instances, the number of nonzeros for AEN was found to be larger than 100 – those values were removed from the corresponding plots. We observe that the proposed methods performed the best overall, in terms of both the model sparsity and the prediction accuracy.

- As SNR increases, L0+L1 and L0+L2 become more similar to L0, in terms of both sparsity and the prediction accuracy. Additional shrinkage marginally helps the prediction accuracy, and the model sparsity becomes comparable to that of L0, with the model size concentrating around $\|\beta^*\|_0$. This observation is consistent with the results in the fast rate parts of Theorems 2 and 3. L1 performs better than both L1+L2 and L2; it also benefits from polishing – L1P gets closer to L0 in terms of the prediction accuracy but selects a denser model.

**Comparisons with adaptive elastic net (AEN), Mnet and relaxed Lasso.** We present simulation results that compare our proposal with methods Mnet [26], AEN [55] and the relaxed Lasso estimator [21]. Mnet and AEN reduce the estimation error of elastic net, and encourage greater sparsity, by using a nonconvex penalty on $\beta$ instead of the usual $\ell_1$-norm. The proposed estimator with $q = 2$ is a natural alternative to Mnet and AEN in the regimes where these methods are found to be useful – however, our motivation for estimator [9] is different. Empirically, we observe important differences in the statistical performance of Mnet, AEN and our approach. These differences are likely a consequence of (a) the optimization algorithms and (b) the exact forms of the estimators, including the choice of the penalty function.

Figure 4 compares the methods on the data generated as per Examples 1 and 2, with $n = 100$ and $p = 1000$. For AEN, we used function gcdnet from R package gcdnet with weights chosen based on Example 1 in [55]. For Mnet, we used function ncvreg from R package ncvreg, with the MCP penalty and ridge regularization. For relaxed Lasso, we implemented the code in [21]. For all methods, including ours, we used the same number of tuning parameters. As before, the tuning parameters were selected based on a held-out validation set. In summary, estimator [3] produced

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12. [26] use a coordinate descent method directly on the $\ell^2$+MCP penalized problem; [55] work with the $\ell^2$ + adaptive Lasso regularized least squares, which is a convex problem.

13. For Mnet, we used 15 values for the tuning parameter that combines the ridge and MCP penalties, and 100 values for the MCP penalty weight. We made a similar choice for AEN. For relaxed Lasso, we used 15 values for the weight in the convex combination, and 100 tuning parameter values for the Lasso.
models with significantly fewer nonzeros and overall better predictive performance.

Figure 5: Performance of the methods on four real datasets. We observe that pure L0 tended to underfit by selecting models that are overly sparse. L0+L1/L0+L2 worked well both in terms of prediction and in terms of sparsity, when compared to the best available L1 models. L1 led to models with good predictive accuracy, but at the cost of a significant increase in density.

5.2 Real Datasets

We now compare the performance of the methods on real datasets, as described below.

**Triazine dataset** is taken from the libsmv website (https://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvmtools/datasets/regression/triazines). It contains 186 observations and 60 features, to which we added 500 features generated as Gaussian noise.

**Riboflavin dataset**, taken from R package hdi, pertains to riboflavin production for \( n = 71 \) observations of Bacillus subtilis. Each observation contains \( p = 4088 \) gene expression features.

**Leukemia dataset**, available at http://cilab.ujn.edu.cn/datasets.htm is a classification dataset, with 72 observations and 7129 features. We keep the top 2000 features based on correlation screening and create a semi-synthetic response using \( y = X\beta^* + \epsilon \) with \( \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \), where we set SNR = 4 and let \( \beta^*_j \in \{0, 1\} \) with 10 randomly chosen coefficients set to 1.

**Rat dataset**. Using the same processing steps as [51], we analyze the RNA from the eyes of 120 twelve-week old male rats by considering 18,975 probes expressed in the eye tissue. We thank Dr. Haolei Weng for providing the microarray dataset and the preprocessing code.

For each example, we standardize the features and the response. We randomly split each dataset
into new training and test sets, compute all the estimators and, for each method, keep the estimator with the best test accuracy. Figure 5 displays the results averaged over 10 random splits.

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Supplementary Material for “Subset Selection with Shrinkage: Sparse Linear Modeling when the SNR is Low”

A Computational details

A.1 Proof of Proposition 2

(a) It follows from (9) that for any $\beta$ satisfying $\|\beta\|_0 \leq k$:

$$F(\beta) = Q_L(\beta, \beta) + \lambda \|\beta\|_q$$

$$\geq \inf_{\|\eta\|_0 \leq k} (Q_L(\eta, \beta) + \lambda \|\eta\|_q)$$

$$= \inf_{\|\eta\|_0 \leq k} \left( \frac{L}{2} \|\eta - \beta\|_2^2 + \langle \nabla f(\beta), \eta - \beta \rangle + f(\beta) + \lambda \|\eta\|_q \right)$$

$$= \inf_{\|\eta\|_0 \leq k} \left( \frac{L}{2} \|\eta - \left( \beta - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\beta) \right)\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(\beta)\|_2^2 + f(\beta) + \lambda \|\eta\|_q \right)$$

$$= \left( \frac{L}{2} \|\hat{\eta} - \left( \beta - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\beta) \right)\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(\beta)\|_2^2 + f(\beta) \right) + \lambda \|\hat{\eta}\|_q. \tag{18}$$

Note that in (19) above we use the notation $\hat{\eta}$ to denote a minimizer of (18). We now follow the proof in Proposition 6 in [8] to arrive at:

$$F(\beta) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|\hat{\eta} - \beta\|_2^2 + F(\hat{\eta}). \tag{20}$$

In particular, using $\hat{\eta} = \beta^{(m+1)}, \beta = \beta^{(m)}$ and $L \geq L_0$, we see that the sequence $F(\beta^{(m)})$ is decreasing. Because $F(\beta) \geq 0$, we observe that the sequence $F(\beta^{(m)})$ converges to some $F^* \geq 0$.

(b) Summing inequalities (20) for $1 \leq m \leq M$, we obtain

$$\sum_{m=1}^{M} \left( F(\beta^{(m)}) - F(\beta^{(m+1)}) \right) \geq \frac{L - L_0}{2} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \|\beta^{(m+1)} - \beta^{(m)}\|_2^2, \tag{21}$$

leading to

$$F(\beta^{(1)}) - F(\beta^{(M+1)}) \geq \frac{M(L - L_0)}{2} \min_{m=1, \ldots, M} \|\beta^{(m+1)} - \beta^{(m)}\|_2^2.$$

Because the decreasing sequence $F(\beta^{(m)})$ converges to $F(\beta^*) = F^*$, say, we arrive at the conclusion in Part (b).

A.2 Stronger formulations: adding implied inequalities

We use the following notation for the model matrix: $X = [x_1, \ldots, x_p]$. We consider a structured version of Problem (5) with additional implied inequalities (cuts) for improved lower bounds:
minimize $\frac{u}{2} + \lambda v$

\[ \text{s.t.~} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 \leq u \quad (22a) \]
\[ \|\beta\|_q \leq v \quad (22b) \]
\[ -M_jz_j \leq \beta_j \leq M_jz_j, j \in [p] \]
\[ z_j \in \{0, 1\}, j \in [p] \]
\[ \sum_j z_j = k \]
\[ -M_i \leq \beta_i \leq M_i, i \in [p] \quad (22c) \]
\[ -\bar{M}_i \leq \langle x_i, \beta \rangle \leq \bar{M}_i, i \in [n] \quad (22d) \]
\[ \|\beta\|_1 \leq M_{\ell_1}, (22e) \]

where (a) $M_i, i \in [p]$ denote bounds on $\beta_i$’s via constraint (22c); (b) $-\bar{M}_i, \bar{M}_i^+$ denote bounds on the predicted values $\langle x_i, \beta \rangle$ for $i \in [n]$ via constraint (22d); (c) $M_{\ell_1}$, in constraint (22e), denotes an upper bound on the $\ell_1$-norm of the regression coefficients $\|\beta\|_1$.

The additional cuts in Problem (22) help the progress of the MIO solver – the implied inequalities rule out several fractional solutions, thereby helping in obtaining superior lower bounds within a fixed computational budget. The caveat, however, is that the resulting formulation has additional variables – hence more work needs to be done within every node of the branch-and-bound tree. Section A.3 presents ways to compute these bounds – Section A.3.1 describes ways to compute them via convex optimization – these are bounds implied by an optimal solution to Problem (3). Section A.3.2 describes ways to compute these bounds based on good heuristic solutions.

### A.3 Computing problem specific parameters

#### A.3.1 Computing parameters via convex optimization

Formulation (4) involves a BigM value $M$ – tighter formulations can be obtained by using variable dependent BigM values for the $\beta_i$:

\[ -M_i z_i \leq \beta_i \leq M_i z_i, \quad i \in [p]. \]

In addition, implied constraints (or bounds) on $\langle x_i, \beta \rangle$’s can also be added:

\[ -\bar{M}_i \leq \langle x_i, \beta \rangle \leq \bar{M}_i, \quad i \in [n]. \]

We discuss how to compute these from data using convex optimization. Note that, because $\beta$ is $k$-sparse, we have $|\langle x_i, \beta \rangle| \leq M\|x_i\|_{k, 1}$, where for a vector $a \in \mathbb{R}^p$ the quantity $\|a\|_{k, 1}$ denotes the $\ell_1$-norm of the $k$-largest (in absolute value) entries of $a$. We can set $\bar{M}_i \leq M\|x_i\|_{k, 1}$. Note also that $\|\beta\|_1 \leq Mk := M_{\ell_1}$. We now upper bound each coefficient $\beta_i$ by solving the quadratic
We first note that the probability of event $F$ is at least $1 - \delta_0/2$ by Theorem 4.1 in [4]. Next, we establish the probability bound $\mathcal{E}_s$.

Because the columns of $X$ have unit Euclidean norm, we can write $\| Xu \| \leq \| u \|_1 \leq \sqrt{s} \| u \|$ for every $u \in B_0(s)$. Hence, taking $\delta_0 = s/(2ep)$, we derive

$$\sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)}\| Xu \| \leq \sqrt{s \log(2ep/s)}\| u \|. \quad (25)$$

**A.3.2 Computing parameters via Algorithm 1**

We note that the BigM values $\mathcal{M}_i$, $i \in [p]$ can also be based on the solutions obtained from the heuristic algorithms. For example, we can set $\mathcal{M}_i = \tau \| \hat{\beta} (\lambda; k) \|_\infty$ for all $i \in [p]$ for some multiplier $\tau \in \{1.5, 2\}$, for example. Similarly, the bounds $\mathcal{M}_i$ can be set to $\tau |\langle x_i, \hat{\beta} (\lambda; k) \rangle|$ for all $i \in [n]$. Such bounds are usually tighter and are obtained as a simple by-product of Algorithm 1.

**Remark 11.** Problems (23), (24) drop the cardinality constraint on $\beta$ – hence the derived bounds need not be tight, i.e., $\mathcal{M}_i > |\beta_i (\lambda; k)|$, where $\beta (\lambda; k)$ denotes an optimal solution to Problem (3).

**B Proofs of the results in Section 3**

**B.1 Proof of Theorem 1**

We first note that the probability of event $F$ is at least $1 - \delta_0/2$ by Theorem 4.1 in [4]. Next, we establish the probability bound $\mathcal{E}_s$.

$$\sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)}\| Xu \| \leq \sqrt{s \log(2ep/s)}\| u \|. \quad (25)$$
It follows from Stirling’s formula that \(\log(s!) \geq s \log(s/e)\), and hence
\[
\sum_{j=1}^{s} \log(2p/j) = s \log(2p) - \log(s!) \leq s \log(2ep/s).
\]

Thus, using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and taking into account \(\|u\|_0 \leq s\), we arrive at
\[
\sum_{j=1}^{p} u_j^* \sqrt{\log(2p/j)} \leq \|u\| \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{s} \log(2p/j)} \leq \sqrt{s \log(2ep/s)} \|u\|.
\]

Inequalities (26) and (25) yield
\[
[4 + \sqrt{2}] \sigma \max \left( \sum_{j=1}^{p} u_j^* \sqrt{\log(2p/j), \sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)} \|Xu\|} \right) \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}] \sigma \sqrt{s \log(2ep/s)} \|u\|. \tag{27}
\]

Consequently, when \(\delta_0 = s/(2ep)\), we have \(F \subseteq E_s\). Because the probability of event \(F\) is at least \(1 - s/(4ep)\), we have established the stated probability bound for \(E_s\).

The result for \(H\) follows from the standard tail probability bounds for maxima of Gaussian random variables (for example, those in [12]). The result for \(G_s\) follows from the argument in the proof of Lemma 8 in [44], with appropriate modifications in order to incorporate the uncertainty parameter \(\delta_0\).

B.2 Proof of Theorem 2

We consider an arbitrary \(\beta \in B_0(k)\) and note that
\[
\|y - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 + \lambda \|\hat{\beta}_2\| \leq \|y - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|,
\]
which implies
\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 + \lambda \|\hat{\beta}_2\| \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + 2\epsilon^\top X(\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta) + \lambda \|\beta\|. \tag{27}
\]

We will derive prediction error bounds for \(\hat{\beta}_2\) by controlling the term \(\epsilon^\top X(\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta)\).

We first focus on establishing the slow rate. On the event \(E_{2k}\) we have
\[
\epsilon^\top X(\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta) \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}] \sigma \sqrt{2k \log(ep/k)} \|\beta - \hat{\beta}_2\|. \tag{28}
\]

Combining this inequality with (27) and using the lower bound imposed on \(\lambda\), we derive
\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + 2\lambda \|\beta\|. \tag{29}
\]

Thus, we have established the first slow rate prediction error bound.

Repeating the arguments in the proof of Theorem 1 we see that on the event \(F\) we have either (a) inequality (28), which implies (29), or (b) the following inequality:
\[
\epsilon^\top X(\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta) \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}] \sigma \sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)} \|X(\beta - \hat{\beta}_2)\|, \tag{30}
\]
which implies
\[ \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\| + [4 + \sqrt{2}]\sigma\sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)}(\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\| + \|f^* - X\beta\|). \] (31)

We bound the last term in the above display by two applications of the inequality
\[ 2ab \leq a^2 + \alpha^{-1}b^2, \] (32)
which holds for every \( \alpha > 0 \) and \( a, b \in \mathbb{R} \). Setting \( \alpha = 2 \), we derive inequalities
\[ [4 + \sqrt{2}]\sigma\sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)}\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\| \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}]\sigma^2\log(1/\delta_0)/2 + \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2/2 \]
and
\[ [4 + \sqrt{2}]\sigma\sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)}\|f^* - X\beta\| \lesssim \sigma^2\log(1/\delta_0) + \|f^* - X\beta\|^2. \]

Taking into account inequality (31), we then arrive at the second slow rate prediction error bound:
\[ \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \lesssim \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\| + \sigma^2\log(1/\delta_0). \]

We now establish the fast rate. Starting with inequality (27) and restricting our attention to event \( G_{2k} \), we derive
\[ \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma[10k\log(ep/[2k]) + \log(1/\delta_0)]^{1/2}(\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\| + \|f^* - X\beta\|) + \lambda\|\beta - \hat{\beta}_2\|. \]

We bound the second term on the right-hand side by two applications of inequality (32), in which we set \( \alpha = 4 \) in order to have \( \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \) appear with the multiplier 1/4. We bound the last term on the right-hand side using
\[ \lambda\|\beta - \hat{\beta}_2\| \leq \gamma_{2k}^{-1}\lambda\|X(\beta - \hat{\beta}_2)\| \leq \gamma_{2k}^{-1}\lambda(\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\| + \|f^* - X\beta\|), \]
and then apply (32) with \( \alpha = 4 \) again to derive
\[ \gamma_{2k}^{-1}\lambda\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\| \leq \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\lambda^2 + \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2/4 \]
and
\[ \gamma_{2k}^{-1}\lambda\|f^* - X\beta\| \lesssim \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\lambda^2 + \|f^* - X\beta\|^2. \]

Rearranging the resulting terms we arrive at the fast rate prediction error bound:
\[ \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|^2 \lesssim \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2k\log(ep/[2k]) + \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\lambda^2 + \sigma^2\log(1/\delta_0). \]

**B.3 Proof of Corollary 1**

The first prediction error bound is a direct consequence of Theorems 1 and 2. The last two prediction error bounds are derived from Theorems 1 and the corresponding bounds in Theorem 2 by setting \( \delta_0 = 1/p \) and \( \delta_0 = (k/p)^h \), respectively. The estimation error bound follows from the inequality \( \gamma_{2k}^{-2}\|\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta^*\|^2 \leq \|X(\beta_2 - \beta^*)\|^2 \).
B.4 Proof of Corollary 2

Let $c_0$ be the universal constant from the second slow rate error bound in Theorem 2. Take an arbitrary $\beta \in B_0(k)$ and define

$$W = \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_2\|_2^2 - c_0\|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 - c_0\lambda\|\beta\|.$$ 

By Theorems 1 and 2 we have $W \leq c_0\sigma^2\log(1/\delta_0)$ with probability at least $1 - \delta_0/2$. Thus,

$$2P(W > w) \leq e^{-w/[c_0\sigma^2]} ,$$

for every non-negative $w$. Consequently,

$$E(W) \leq \int_0^\infty P(W > w)dw \leq \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty e^{-w/[c_0\sigma^2]}dw \leq \frac{c_0\sigma^2}{2},$$

and the first stated bound follows from the definition of $W$.

The second stated bound follows by an analogous argument, together with an additional observation that $k\log(ep/[2k])$ is bounded away from zero by a positive universal constant.

B.5 Proof of Theorem 3

We consider an arbitrary $\beta \in B_0(k)$. In the $\ell_1$ setting, inequality (27) becomes

$$\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\hat{\beta}_1\|_1 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + 2\epsilon^T X(\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta) + \lambda\|\beta\|_1. \hspace{1cm} (33)$$

On the event $H$, we then have

$$2\epsilon^T X(\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta) \leq 2\|X^T\epsilon\|_\infty \left[\|\beta\|_1 + \|\hat{\beta}_1\|_1\right] \leq \lambda \left[\|\hat{\beta}_1\|_1 + \|\beta\|_1\right].$$

Consequently,

$$\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + 2\lambda\|\beta\|_1,$$

which completes the proof of the first slow rate error bound.

We now restrict our attention to the event $F$. Note that, because

$$\sum_{j=1}^p u_j^2\sqrt{\log(2p/j)} \leq \sqrt{\log(2p)}\|u\|_1,$$

we must have either (a) inequality

$$\epsilon^T X(\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta) \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}\sigma\sqrt{\log(2p)}]\|\beta - \hat{\beta}_1\|_1,$$

which implies

$$\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + 2\lambda\|\beta\|_1;$$

or (b) the following inequality:

$$\epsilon^T X(\beta_1 - \beta) \leq [4 + \sqrt{2}\sigma\sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)}]\|X(\beta - \hat{\beta}_2)\|.$$
which implies
\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 + [8 + 2\sqrt{2}]\sigma \sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)} \left( \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\| + \|f^* - X\beta\| \right).
\]

Bounding the last term in the above display by two applications of (32) with \(\alpha = 2\) yields
\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 \lesssim \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0),
\]
which establishes the second slow rate error bound.

We now move to the fast rate. Starting with (33), using inequalities
\[
\lambda \|\beta\|_1 - \lambda \|\hat{\beta}_1\|_1 \leq \lambda \|\beta - \hat{\beta}_1\|_1 \leq \lambda \sqrt{2k} \|\beta - \hat{\beta}_1\|,
\]
and restricting our attention to the event \(G_{2k}\), we derive
\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 \lesssim \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + \sigma^2 k \log(e^p/[2k]) + \gamma - 2 \|\beta - \hat{\beta}_1\|.
\]

Repeating the argument used to establish the fast rate part of Theorem 2, we arrive at
\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}_1\|_2^2 \lesssim \|f^* - X\beta\|_2^2 + \sigma^2 k \log(e^p/[2k]) + \gamma - 2 \|\beta - \hat{\beta}_1\|. \tag{34}
\]

B.6 Proof of Corollary 3

This result follows by an argument analogous to the one used in the proof of Corollary 2.

B.7 Proof of Corollary 4

This result follows directly from the slow rate parts of Theorems 2 and 3.

B.8 Proof of Theorem 4

The following result will allow us to lower-bound the magnitude of the cross-product term in the sum of squares function.

Lemma 1. Let \(S \subset \{1, ..., p\}\) have cardinality \(q\), and let \(s\) be an integer in \([1, q]\). There exists a positive universal constant \(\tilde{c}\), such that
\[
\max_{\supp(v) \subset S, \|v\|_0 \leq s, \|Xv\| = 1} |e^T Xv| \gtrsim \sigma \gamma_2 s \sqrt{s \log(e^p/s)}
\]
with probability at least \(1 - 2(e^p/s)^{-\tilde{c} \gamma_2 s}\).

Lemma 1 is proved in the next subsection.

Using Maurey’s argument [43], we can bound the error in approximating \(X\beta^*\) with \(X\hat{\beta}\), when \(\beta\) is restricted to an \(\ell_0\) ball. More specifically, by Lemma A.1 in [45], there exists a vector \(\tilde{\beta}^* \in B_0(k/2)\) such that \(\|X\beta^* - X\tilde{\beta}^*\|_2^2 \leq 2\|\beta^*\|_1^2/k\). For convenience, we define \(\Delta^* = X\beta^* - X\tilde{\beta}^*\). Minimizing

the sum of squares is equivalent to minimizing the function
\[
G(\beta) = \|y - X\beta\|^2 - \|y - X\tilde{\beta}^*\|^2 = \|X\beta - X\tilde{\beta}^*\|^2 + 2(\Delta^* + e)^T (X\tilde{\beta}^* - X\beta).
\]
Given a vector \( u \in \mathbb{R}^p \), we define
\[
H(u) = \| Xu \|^2 - 2(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top Xu.
\]

Given an index set \( I \) and a vector \( \beta \), we will write \( \beta_I \) for the vector that (a) matches \( \beta \) element by element on the index set \( I \); and (b) has its support contained in \( I \). Let \( \tilde{S} \) denote the support of \( \tilde{\beta}^* \). Note that if \( \beta_{\tilde{S}} = \tilde{\beta}^* \) and \( \| \beta \|_0 \leq k \), then
\[
G(\beta) = \| X \beta_{\tilde{S}^c} \|^2 - 2(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top X \beta_{\tilde{S}^c} = H(\beta_{\tilde{S}^c}).
\]

Note that \( |\tilde{S}| \leq k/2 \), and hence
\[
\min_{\| \beta \|_0 \leq k} G(\beta) \leq \min_{\| \beta \|_0 \leq k} G(\beta) \leq \min_{\beta_{\tilde{S}} = \tilde{\beta}^*, \| \beta \|_0 \leq k} H(\beta_{\tilde{S}^c}) \leq \min_{\supp(u) \subseteq \tilde{S}^c, \| u \|_0 \leq k/2} H(u). \tag{35}
\]

To simplify the notation, we define \( V_k = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^p, \text{ s.t. } \supp(v) \subseteq \tilde{S}^c, \| v \|_0 \leq k/2, \| X v \| = 1 \} \) and \( c_v = (\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top X v \). In addition to the inequalities in (35) we also have
\[
\min_{\supp(u) \subseteq \tilde{S}^c, \| u \|_0 \leq k/2} H(u) \leq \min_{V_k} H(c_v v) = \min_{V_k} \left[ -c_v^2 \right] = -\max_{V_k} |(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top X v|^2.
\]

Consequently,
\[
\min_{\| \beta \|_0 \leq k} G(\beta) \leq -\max_{V_k} |(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top X v|^2. \tag{36}
\]

Note that if \( \| X v \| = 1 \), then \( |(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top X v| \geq |e^\top X v| - \| \Delta^* \| \). Also note that
\[
\| \Delta^* \| \leq \| \beta^* \|_1 / \sqrt{k/2} \leq \sigma \gamma_k \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)}, \tag{37}
\]
with a sufficiently small multiplicative constant due to the assumption on \( \| \beta^* \|_1 \). Note that the cardinality of \( \tilde{S}^c \) is at least \( p/2 \). Thus, applying Lemma \( \square \) with \( s = k/2 \) and \( q = p/2 \), to lower bound \( \max_{V_k} |e^\top X v| \), we derive that
\[
\max_{V_k} |(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top X v| \gtrsim \sigma \gamma_k \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)},
\]
with probability at least \( 1 - 2(ep/k)^{-c \sqrt{k}/2} \). Thus, inequality (36) and the definition of \( \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} \) yield
\[
G(\tilde{\beta}_{t_0}) \leq \min_{\beta: \| \beta \|_0 \leq k} G(\beta) \lesssim -\sigma^2 \gamma_k^2 k \log(ep/k).
\]

Because \( 2(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top (X \tilde{\beta}^* - X \beta) \leq G(\beta) \) for each \( \beta \), we derive
\[
|(\Delta^* + \epsilon)^\top (X \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} - X \tilde{\beta}^*)| \gtrsim \sigma^2 \gamma_k^2 k \log(ep/k). \tag{38}
\]

Taking into account (37), which holds with a sufficiently small multiplicative constant, we derive
\[
|\Delta^*^\top (X \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} - X \tilde{\beta}^*)| \leq \| \Delta^* \| \| X \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} - X \tilde{\beta}^* \| \lesssim \sigma \gamma_k \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)} \| X \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} - X \tilde{\beta}^* \|. \tag{39}
\]

Furthermore, on the event \( G_{2k} \) with \( \delta_0 = (ep/k)^{-k} \), which holds with probability at least \( 1 - \delta_0 \) by Theorem \( \square \) we have
\[
|e^\top (X \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} - X \tilde{\beta}^*)| \lesssim \sigma \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)} \| X \tilde{\beta}_{t_0} - X \tilde{\beta}^* \|. \tag{40}
\]
Combining inequalities (38), (39) and (40), we arrive at
\[ \|X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} - X\beta^*\| + \|\Delta^*\| \geq \|X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} - X\tilde{\beta}^*\| \gtrsim \sigma k \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)}. \]

Note that \( \|X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} - X\tilde{\beta}^*\| \leq \|X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} - X\beta^*\| + \|\Delta^*\| \), by the triangle inequality. Let \( \psi = \tilde{c}/2 \). Applying (37), which holds with a sufficiently small multiplicative constant, we conclude that
\[ \|X\hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} - X\beta^*\| \gtrsim \sigma k \sqrt{k \log(ep/k)}, \]
with probability at least \( 1 - 2(ep/k)^{-\gamma_2 k} - (ep/k)^{-k} \).

**B.9 Proof of Lemma 1**

Note that if \( s > q/2 \), then we can establish the bound for \( s = \lfloor q/2 \rfloor \) and use
\[ \max_{\|v\|_0 \leq s, \|Xv\| = 1} |\epsilon^\top Xv| \geq \max_{\|v\|_0 \leq \lfloor q/2 \rfloor, \|Xv\| = 1} |\epsilon^\top Xv|. \]

Hence, we will focus on the case \( s \leq q/2 \).

We write \( |\cdot| \) for the cardinality of a set. Applying Lemma F.1 in [4], which is closely related to the results in [18], we deduce that there exists a subset \( H \) of the set \( \{-1,0,1\}^p \), with
\[ \log(|H|) \geq s \log(eq/s), \]
such that \( \text{supp}(v) \subseteq S, \|v\|_0 \leq s, \|Xv\|^2 \leq s \) and \( \|v_1 - v_2\|^2 \geq s/4 \), for all \( v, v_1, v_2 \in H \). Note that the last inequality implies
\[ \|Xv_1 - Xv_2\|^2 \geq \gamma_2^2 s/4. \]
Consequently, by Sudakov's minoration [for example, Proposition 3.15 in 34],
\[ E \max_{v \in H} \epsilon^\top Xv \gtrsim \sigma \gamma_2 s \sqrt{s \log(|H|)} \gtrsim \sigma \gamma_2 s \sqrt{\log(eq/s)}. \]

Define \( W = \max_{v \in H} \epsilon^\top Xv \) and \( v = \max_{v \in H} SD(\epsilon^\top Xv) \) by \( v \). By the concentration inequality for the supremum of a Gaussian process [for example, Theorem 3.12 in 34], we have, for all \( t \geq 0 \),
\[ P(W \leq EW - vt) \leq 2 \exp(-t^2/2). \]

Note that
\[ v \leq \sigma \max_{v \in H} \|Xv\| \leq \sigma \sqrt{s}. \]

Consequently, if \( t \leq \gamma_2 \sqrt{cs \log(eq/s)} \) with a sufficiently small positive universal constant \( \tilde{c} \), then
\[ EW - vt \gtrsim \sigma \gamma_2 s \sqrt{\log(eq/s)}, \]
and hence
\[ \max_{v \in H} \epsilon^\top Xv \gtrsim \sigma \gamma_2 s \sqrt{\log(eq/s)}, \]
with probability at least \( 1 - 2 \exp(-\tilde{c} \gamma_2^2 s \log(eq/s)) \). We complete the proof by noting that
\[ \max_{\|v\|_0 \leq s, \|Xv\| = 1} \epsilon^\top Xv \geq s^{-1/2} \max_{v \in H} \epsilon^\top Xv. \]
B.10 Proof of Proposition 3

Note that the assumptions imposed on \( b \) imply
\[
b \gtrsim 1 \quad \text{and} \quad b \lesssim 1,
\]
where the universal constant in the second bound can be chosen to be sufficiently small. Also note that
\[
\| \beta^* \| = b \sigma \sqrt{\log(ep) / k}^* \quad \text{and} \quad \| \beta^* \|_1 = b \sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)}.
\]
Thus, to establish the result of Proposition 3, we only need to demonstrate that
\[
\min_{k \in [0, p]} \| X \beta^* - X \hat{\beta}_{\ell_0} \|_2^2 \gtrsim \sigma^2 \log(ep),
\]
with high probability.

Let \( \mathbf{1} \) denote a \( p \)-dimensional vector of ones, and note that
\[
\| X \beta^* \|_2^2 \geq \rho_l \| \beta^* \|_1^2 = \rho_l b^2 \alpha^2 \log(ep) \gtrsim \sigma^2 \log(ep).
\]
We conclude that for \( k = 0 \) bound (43) holds with probability one. For the remainder of the proof we focus on the case of \( k \in [p] \).

Minimizing the sum of squares is equivalent to minimizing the function
\[
L(\beta) = \| X \beta \|^2 - 2y^T X \beta.
\]
Define \( c_j = y^T X_j \) and let \( e_j \) denote the \( j \)-th coordinate vector in \( \mathbb{R}^p \). Because \( X e_j = X_j \) and \( \| X_j \| = 1 \), we have
\[
\min_{\| \beta \|_0 = 1} L(\beta) \leq \min_j L(c_j e_j) = \min_j -c_j^2 = -\max_j |y^T X_j|^2.
\]
We also have
\[
\max_j |y^T X_j|^2 = \max_j \left( |e_j^T X_j|^2 + 2(e_j^T X_j)(X_j^T X \beta^*) + |X_j^T X \beta^*|^2 \right)
\]
\[
\geq \max_j \left( |e_j^T X_j|^2 - 2|e_j^T X_j| \| X \beta^* \| \right)
\]
\[
\geq \max_j \left( |e_j^T X_j|^2 / 2 - \| X \beta^* \|^2 \right),
\]
where we used bound (32) with \( a = |e_j^T X_j|, b = \| X \beta^* \| \) and \( \alpha = 1/2 \) to get the last inequality. Applying Lemma 1 we derive that
\[
\max_j |e_j^T X_j| \gtrsim (1 - \rho_u) \sigma^2 \log(ep),
\]
with probability at least \( 1 - 2(\log(ep))^{-7(1-\rho_u)} \), for some positive universal constant \( \tilde{c} \).

Inequalities (42) and (41), together with the fact that columns of \( X \) have unit norm, yield
\[
\| X \beta^* \|^2 \leq \| \beta^* \|_1^2 \leq b^2 \sigma^2 \log(ep) \lesssim \sigma^2 \log(ep),
\]
(44)
with a sufficiently small universal constant. Consequently,

$$\min_{\|\beta\|_0 \leq k} L(\beta) \leq \min_{\|\beta\|_0 = 1} L(\beta) \preceq -\sigma^2 \log(ep),$$

(45)

uniformly over $k \in [p]$ and with probability at least $1 - 2(ep)^{-a}$, for some positive universal constant $a$.

We conduct the rest of the argument on the high-probability event where (45) holds. On this event we have the bound

$$L(\hat{\beta}_{t_0}) = \|X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\|^2 - 2\mu^\top X\hat{\beta}_{t_0} \preceq -\sigma^2 \log(ep),$$

(46)

in which the universal constant does not depend on $k$. Given a set $S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, p\}$, we define $\tilde{\beta}_S = \arg \min_{\supp(\beta) \subseteq S} L(\beta)$ and note that $\|X\tilde{\beta}_S\|^2 = \mu^\top X\tilde{\beta}_S$. Consequently, $\|X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\|^2 = \mu^\top X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}$, and hence bound (46) implies

$$\|X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\|^2 \gtrsim \sigma^2 \log(ep).$$

Bound (43) then follows from the inequality $\|X\beta^* - X\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\| \geq \|\hat{\beta}_{t_0}\| - \|X\beta^*\|$ and bound (44), applied with a sufficiently small universal constant.

B.11 Proof of Proposition 4

Let $1$ denote a $p$-dimensional vector of ones, and note that

$$X^\top X = (1 - \rho)I + \rho 11^\top.$$

Hence, for every $u \in \mathbb{R}^p$,

$$\|Xu\|^2 = (1 - \rho)\|u\|^2 + \rho (1^\top u)^2 \geq (1 - \rho)\|u\|^2,$$

which implies $\gamma_2^p \geq 1 - \rho$. Also note that, by (42), $\|\beta^*\| = b\sigma \sqrt{\|\log(ep)/k\|}$, which can be made smaller than any given multiple of $\sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)/k}$ under the assumptions imposed on $b$, $k$ and $k^*$ in Proposition 4. Under this scenario, we can apply Theorem 4 which leads to

$$\|X\hat{\beta}_{t_0} - X\beta^*\|^2 \gtrsim \sigma^2 k \log(ep/k).$$

B.12 Proof of Theorem 5

We first establish the bound for $\tilde{\beta}^B_2$, and then establish the one for $\tilde{\beta}^B_1$. We note that throughout the proof the positive multiplicative factors in inequalities $\preceq$ and $\gtrsim$ are universal constants, which are independent from all other parameters such as $n$, $p$, $\sigma$, $\beta^*$, $\beta$ and $s$.

**Expected prediction error bound for $\tilde{\beta}^B_2$.**

To simplify the expressions, we drop the subscript and the superscript in $\tilde{\beta}^B_2$ and simply write $\tilde{\beta}$.

Taking an arbitrary $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$, we note that

$$\|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda_\beta \|\tilde{\beta}\| + \mu_\beta \|\tilde{\beta}\|_0 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + 2\epsilon^\top X(\tilde{\beta} - \beta) + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\| + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|.$$

(47)

In the setting where $\alpha \gtrsim \sigma$, with a sufficiently large multiplicative constant, we will bound the term $2\epsilon^\top X(\tilde{\beta} - \beta) - \lambda_\beta \|\beta\|$. Similarly, in the case $b \gtrsim \sigma^2$ we will bound $2\epsilon^\top X(\tilde{\beta} - \beta) - \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0$. 

36
We first consider the case \( a \geq \sigma \), which implies \( \lambda_a \geq \sigma \sqrt{\|\beta\|_0 \log(ep/\|\beta\|_0)} \). We let \( \hat{u} = \hat{\beta} - \beta \) and restrict our attention to event \( \mathcal{F} \), defined in Section 3.1, which holds with probability at least \( 1 - \delta_0/2 \). On event \( \mathcal{F} \), we have either \( \epsilon^\top X \hat{u} \leq \sigma \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{u}_j \sqrt{\log(2p/j)} \) or \( \epsilon^\top X \hat{u} \leq \sigma \sqrt{\log(1/\delta_0)} \|X\hat{u}\| \).

In the latter scenario, repeating the argument after inequality (30) in the proof of Theorem 2 yields

\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \mu_{\beta_2} \|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\| + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0) + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0. \tag{48}
\]

We now focus on the event \( \epsilon^\top X \hat{u} \leq \sigma \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{u}_j \sqrt{\log(2p/j)} \). In view of (26), we have

\[
\sigma \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{u}_j^2 \sqrt{\log(2p/j)} \leq \sigma \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \sqrt{\log(2p/j)} + \sigma \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \sqrt{\log(2p/j)} \leq \sigma \sqrt{k \log(2ep/k)} \|\hat{\beta}\| + \sigma \sqrt{\|\beta\|_0 \log(2ep/\|\beta\|_0)} \|\beta\|.
\]

Thus, if \( a \geq \sigma \) with a sufficiently large universal constant, then \( 2\epsilon^\top X \hat{u} \leq \lambda_\beta \|\hat{\beta}\| + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\| \).

Combining this bound with inequality (47), we derive

\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \mu_{\beta_2} \|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + 2\lambda_\beta \|\beta\| + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0. \tag{49}
\]

Bounds (48) and (49) imply that, for each \( \delta_0 \in (0,1) \),

\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \mu_{\beta_2} \|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0) + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0 \tag{50}
\]

with probability at least \( 1 - \delta_0/2 \).

We now focus on the case \( b \geq \sigma_0 \), which implies \( \mu_\beta \geq \sigma_0^2 \log(ep/\|\beta\|_0) \). Given an \( s \in [p] \), we consider the event \( \mathcal{G}_s \), defined in Section 3.1, where we take \( \delta_0 = (s/ep)^s \epsilon_0 \). Here, \( \epsilon_0 \in (0,1) \) is an arbitrary value that does not depend on \( s \). On the event \( \mathcal{G} = \cap_{s=1}^p \mathcal{G}_s \) we have

\[
2\epsilon^\top X \hat{u} \leq c \left[ \sigma^2 \|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \log(ep/\|\hat{\beta}\|_0) + \sigma^2 \|\beta\|_0 \log(ep/\|\beta\|_0) + \sigma^2 \log(1/\epsilon_0) + \|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 \right]/2,
\]

for some universal constant \( c \). Taking into account inequality (47), we deduce that

\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 + 2[b - \sigma_0^2] \|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \log(ep/\|\hat{\beta}\|_0) \leq \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0 + \sigma^2 \log(1/\epsilon_0) + \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\|
\]

on the event \( \mathcal{G} \). Note that

\[
\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{G}^c) \leq \sum_{s=1}^p \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{G}_s^c) \leq \sum_{s=1}^p (s/ep)^s \epsilon_0 \leq \sum_{s=1}^p e^{-s} \epsilon_0 \leq \epsilon_0.
\]

Consequently, if we let \( b \geq 2c\sigma_0^2 \), then

\[
\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \mu_{\beta_2} \|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \leq \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 \log(1/\epsilon_0) + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\| + \mu_\beta \|\beta\|_0 \tag{51}
\]
Combining bounds (50) and (51), we conclude that, for each $\delta_0 \in (0, 1)$,
\[
\|\mathbf{f}^* - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \mu_{\hat{\beta}}\|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left( \|\mathbf{f}^* - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|_1 + \mu_{\beta}\|\beta\|_0 \right) + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0)
\] (52)
with probability at least $1 - \delta_0$. Repeating the argument in the proof of Corollary 2 we derive
\[
\mathbb{E}\|\mathbf{f}^* - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left( \|\mathbf{f}^* - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|_1 + \mu_{\beta}\|\beta\|_0 \right) + \sigma^2,
\] (53)
which establishes the first bound in the statement of Theorem 5.

The error rates in Remark 9 follow directly from inequality (53). To control the sparsity of $\hat{\beta}$, we first establish that inequality $\|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \lesssim (k^* \lor 1)(1 + \log(1/\delta_0))^{\alpha}$ holds with probability at least $1 - \delta_0$, and then use this fact to bound $\mathbb{E}\|\hat{\beta}\|_0$.

We define $g(x) = \log(ep/x)x$ for $x \in [0, p]$, with $g(0) = 0$. We note that $g(x) \geq x$, and $g(x)$ is monotone increasing and continuous. We also note that if $C > 0$, $x_1 \in [0, p]$ and $x_2 \in [0, p]$, then
\[
g(x_1) \leq Cg(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 \leq 2C[1 \lor \log(2C)]x_2.
\] (54)
To establish the above relationship we note that
\[
g(x_1) \leq Cg(x_2) \leq g(2Cx_2)/2 + Cx_2 \log(2C) \leq \max\{g(2Cx_2), 2C \log(2C)\}
\]
and consider two cases. If $g(x_1) \leq g(2Cx_2)$, then $x_1 \leq 2Cx_2$. Alternatively, if $g(x_1) \leq 2Cx_2 \log(2C)$, then $x_1 \leq 2C \log(2C)x_2$.

We write $\hat{k} = \|\hat{\beta}\|_0$ and note that under each set of assumptions on the tuning parameters in Remark 9, inequality (52) yields $\mu_{\hat{\beta}}\hat{k} \lesssim b\log(ep/[k^* \lor 1])/[k^* \lor 1](1 + \log(1/\delta_0))$. Taking into account $\mu_{\hat{\beta}}\hat{k} = bg(\hat{k})$, we rewrite the last inequality as $g(\hat{k}) \lesssim (k^* \lor 1)(1 + \log(1/\delta_0))$. Hence, by property 54, we have $\hat{k} \lesssim \{1 + \log(1/\delta_0)\}[1 \lor \log(1 + 2 \log(1/\delta_0))]k^* \lor 1$. Consequently, $\hat{k}/[k^* \lor 1] \lesssim 1 + \log(1/\delta_0)^2$ with probability at least $1 - \delta_0$. Finally, we bound $\mathbb{E}\hat{k}/[k^* \lor 1]$ using an argument analogous to the one in the proof of Corollary 2: $\mathbb{E}\hat{k}/[k^* \lor 1] \lesssim 1 + \int_0^\infty e^{-w^2/2} dw \lesssim 1$.

**Expected prediction error bound for $\hat{\beta}_1^B$.**

To simplify the expressions, we drop the subscript and the superscript in $\hat{\beta}_1^B$ and simply write $\hat{\beta}$.

In the case $b \geq \sigma^2$ we repeat the argument in the corresponding part of the proof for $\hat{\beta}_2^B$ to derive a counterpart of inequality (52). We deduce that, for each $\delta_0 \in (0, 1)$,
\[
\|\mathbf{f}^* - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \mu_{\hat{\beta}}\|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left( \|\mathbf{f}^* - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|_1 + \mu_{\beta}\|\beta\|_0 \right) + \sigma^2 \log(1/\delta_0)
\] (55)
with probability at least $1 - \delta_0$.

In the case $\lambda \geq C_0 \sigma \sqrt{\log(ep)}$, we repeat the argument in the second slow rate part of the proof of Theorem 3 to derive a slight modification of inequality (54), containing the additional $\ell_0$ penalty terms. Thus, we again deduce that inequality (55) holds for each $\delta_0 \in (0, 1)$ with probability at least $1 - \delta_0$. 

38
As before, starting with probability bound (55) and repeating the argument in the proof of Corollary 2 we conclude that

$$
\mathbb{E}\|f^* - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 \lesssim \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left[ \|f^* - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|_1 + \mu_\beta\|\beta\|_0 \right] + \sigma^2,
$$

which establishes the second bound in the statement of Theorem 5.

The error rates in Remark 10 follow directly from inequality (56). To establish the sparsity bound, we note that for all of the tuning parameter settings in Remark 10, inequality (55) yields

$$
\mu_{\hat{\beta}}\|\hat{\beta}\|_0 \lesssim b \log(ep/[k^* \vee 1])\{k^* \vee 1\} + \log(1/\delta_0)\},
$$

with probability at least 1 - \delta_0. The sparsity bound then follows by repeating the argument in the last paragraph of the proof for \(\hat{\beta}_B\).