Cross-Validation and $U$-Statistics

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Cross-validation is a common statistical procedure applied to problems that are otherwise computationally intractable. It is often employed to assess the effectiveness of prediction procedures. In this report, cross-validation is discussed in terms of $U$-statistics. This approach permits consideration of the statistical properties of cross-validation as an approach to assessment of prediction accuracy.

Cross-validation methods have a long history in statistics (Geisser, 1975; Golub, Heath, & Wahba, 1979; Picard & Cook, 1984; Stone, 1974). This report relates cross-validation to the theory of $U$-statistics (Hoeffding, 1948). This connection permits use of cross-validation both to produce estimates of mean-squared error of prediction and to assess the variability of these estimates of mean-squared error. In the section Cross-Validation Procedure Under Study, the cross-validation approach under study is developed and illustrated with a few simple examples. In the section Use of $U$-Statistics, application of $U$-statistics to cross-validation is introduced and illustrated. The section Conclusions includes concluding remarks.

Cross-Validation Procedure Under Study

In the problems under study, a simple random sample is used to construct a prediction of a real predicted random variable $Y_0$ with values in a set $\mathcal{Y}$ by a predicting random vector $X_0$ of finite dimension $p \geq 1$ with values in a set $\mathcal{X}$. The procedures under study are designed to estimate the accuracy of the prediction when neither $X_0$ nor $Y_0$ has been observed. The methods considered make minimal assumptions concerning the joint distribution of $X_0$ and $Y_0$, and they are designed to apply both to small samples and to large samples. Thus they do not rely on large-sample approximations. To develop the desired analysis of cross-validation, consider mutually independent and identically distributed pairs $(X_i, Y_i)$ for $i \geq 0$. Because mean-squared error is emphasized in this report to simplify analysis, assume that $Y_0 = \alpha + \beta'X_0$ with probability 1. Here $\beta'X_0 = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j X_{0j}$ if $\beta_j$ is element $j$ of $\beta$ and $X_{0j}$ is element $j$ of $X_0$ for $1 \leq j \leq p$.

For sample sizes $n$ at least as great as some minimum sample size $n^*$, the desired prediction based on $X_i$, $0 \leq i \leq n$, and $Y_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, relies on a real function $g_n(T, u, t)$ defined for $p$ by $n$ matrices $T$ with columns $T_i$ in $\mathcal{X}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, $n$-dimensional vectors $u$ with elements $u_i$ in $\mathcal{Y}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, and $p$-dimensional vectors $t$ in $\mathcal{X}$. The function $g_n$ is assumed to satisfy the symmetry condition that for any permutation $\omega$ on the set $n$ of positive integers no greater than $n$, $g_n(T_{\omega i}, u_{\omega i}, t) = g_n(T, u, t)$, where $T_{\omega i}$ is the $p \times n$ matrix with column $i$ equal to $T_{\omega i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $u_{\omega i}$ is the $n$-dimensional vector with element $i$ equal to $u_{\omega i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. The function $g_n$ satisfies the basic regularity condition that $g_n(U, V, W)$ is a random variable whenever $U$ is a $p \times n$ random matrix with columns in $\mathcal{X}$, $V$ is an $n$-dimensional random vector with elements in $\mathcal{Y}$, and $W$ is a $p$-dimensional random vector in $\mathcal{X}$. Let $\hat{X}_n$ be the $p \times n$ matrix with columns $X_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, and let $Y_n$ be the $n$-dimensional vector with elements $Y_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $\hat{E}_{\omega i} = g_n(\hat{X}_n, Y_n, X_0)$ predicts $Y_0$. The error of prediction is then $r_{\omega i} = Y_0 - \hat{E}_{\omega i}$, and the mean-squared error is $\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{\omega i} \right) = E \left( r_{\omega i}^2 \right)$. The symmetry assumption implies that the prediction that uses the sample $(X_i, Y_i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ is the same as the prediction that uses the sample $(X_{\omega i}, Y_{\omega i})$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Thus the order of observation does not matter.
The mean-squared error may be decomposed into components by observing that \( Y_0 \) and \( \hat{E}_{n0} \) are conditionally independent given \( X_0 \) and \( E(Z|X_0) \) and \( Z-E(Z|X_0) \) are uncorrelated if the random variable \( Z \) has a finite variance (Blackwell, 1947). Here the random variable \( E(Z|X_0) \) is the conditional expectation of \( Z \) given \( X_0 \). It has expectation 0 and variance \( \sigma^2(Z|X_0) \). It follows that

\[
\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) = \left[ E \left( Y_0 \right) - E \left( \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \right]^2 + \sigma^2 \left( E \left( r_0|X_0 \right) \right) + \sigma^2 \left( \hat{E}_{n0}|X_0 \right) + \sigma^2 \left( Y_0|X_0 \right).
\]

Thus \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) is \( \tau^2 \) for \( 0 \leq \tau \leq \sigma \). Let the random variable \( \sigma_0 \) be the minimum value of the sum of squares

\[
S_n(c, d, T, u) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (u_i - c - d'T) \left( u_i - c - d'T \right)^2
\]

for real \( c \) and \( p \)-dimensional vectors \( d \). Let \( M_n(T, u) \) be the set of pairs \( (c, d) \) such that \( S_n(c, d, T, u) = S_n(T, u) \) for \( 0 \leq c \leq p \). If no real number \( c \) and \( p \)-dimensional vector \( d \) exist such that \( c + T' d = 0 \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) and some element of \( d \) is not 0, then \( M_n(T, u) \) has only one element. Under the assumption of multivariate normality, the probability is 1 that \( M_n \left( \bar{X}_n, Y_n \right) \) has only one element. Nonetheless, for completeness, let \( \|d\|^2 = d'd \), and let \( \mu_n(T, u) \) be the minimum value of \( c^2 + \|d\|^2 \) for \( (c, d) \) in \( M_n(T, u) \). Then there is a unique real number \( a_n(T, u) \) and a unique \( p \)-dimensional vector \( b_n(T, u) \) such that \( a_n(T, u), b_n(T, u) \) is in \( M_n(T, u) \) and

\[
\left[ a_n(T, u) \right]^2 + \| b_n(T, u) \|^2 = \mu_n(T, u)
\]

(Rao & Mitra, 1972). Let \( g_n(T, u, t) = a_n(T, u) + [b_n(T, u)']' t \) so that

\[
\hat{E}_{nk} = a_n \left( \bar{X}_n, Y_n \right) + \left[ b_n \left( \bar{X}_n, Y_n \right) \right]' X_k
\]

for \( 0 \leq k \leq n \). Let \( \hat{S}_n^2 = \left( n - p - 1 \right)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} r_{nk}^2 \) be the residual mean square error for the linear regression of \( Y_i \) on \( X_i \). Results for the \( T^2 \) statistic (Hotelling, 1931) and the standard result that a random variable with an \( F \) distribution with \( p \) and \( n - p \) degrees of freedom has expectation \( (n-p)/(n-p-2) \) lead to

\[
\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) = \sigma^2 \left( Y_0|X_0 \right) \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{p}{n-p-2} \right).
\]

It follows that

\[
\overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) = s_n^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{p}{n-p-2} \right)
\]

is an unbiased estimate of the mean-squared error \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \). If \( n \) becomes large and \( p \) remains constant, then \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) converges to \( \sigma^2(Y_0, X_0) \) and \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) converges to \( \sigma^2(Y_0, X_0) \) with probability 1. Nonetheless,
it is important to note that \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) / \sigma^2 \left( Y_0 | X_0 \right) \) is approximately \( n(n-p) \) if \( p \) and \( n \) are both large. In this case, if \( p / n \) is not close to 0, then a substantial fraction of the mean-squared error is due to statistical error associated with estimation of the predictor rather than error inherent in prediction of \( Y \) from \( X \).

Despite Examples 1 and 2, very few cases exist in which mean-squared error is readily estimated without either large-sample approximations or strong restrictions on the joint distribution of the predictor \( X_0 \) and the predicted variable \( Y_0 \). The following example for ridge regression can be helpful.

**Example 3.** Consider prediction based on ridge regression for \( n' = 1 \). For each integer \( n \geq 1 \), let \( \lambda_n \) be a positive real number. Let \( S_n(T, u) \) be the minimum value of the sum of squares

\[
S_n(c, d, T, u) = \lambda_n \| d \|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( u_i - c + d^T T_i \right)^2
\]

over real \( c \) and \( p \)-dimensional vectors \( d \). There is a unique real number \( a_n(T, u) \) and a unique \( p \)-dimensional vector \( b_n(T, u) \) such that

\[
S_n \left( a_n(T, u), b_n(T, u), T, u \right) = S_n(T, u).
\]

As in Example 2, let \( g_n(T, u, t) = a_n(T, u) + [b_n(T, u)]' t \) so that

\[
\hat{E}_{nk} = a_n \left( \bar{X}_n, Y_n \right) + \left[ b_n \left( \bar{X}_n, Y_n \right) \right]' X_k
\]

for \( 0 \leq k \leq n \). In this case, no simple expression for \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) appears to be available even under multivariate normality.

Cross-validation procedures seek to provide estimates of the mean-squared error \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) that avoid large-sample approximations and restrictive assumptions.

In elementary cross-validation, the available observations \((X_i, Y_i), 1 \leq i \leq n\), are divided into two groups sometimes termed a training sample \((X_i, Y_i), i \in A\), and an evaluation sample \((X_i, Y_i), i \in B\), where \( A \) and \( B \) are nonempty disjoint subsets of the set \( \pi \) of positive integers no greater than \( n \) such that \( A \) and \( B \) have union \( n \) and \( A \) has \( m \geq n' \) elements. For an integer \( k \) in \( B \), the pairs \((X_i, Y_i), i \in A\), and \( X_k \) are used to provide a prediction of \( Y_k \). Let \( \Pi(m, A) \) be the set of one-to-one functions from \( \pi \) onto \( A \). For \( \pi \) in \( \Pi(m, A) \), let \( \bar{X}_\pi \) be the \( p \times m \) matrix with columns \( X_{\pi(i)} \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq m \), and let \( X_k \) be the \( m \)-dimensional vector with elements \( Y_{\pi(i)} \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq m \). Then \( g_m \left( \bar{X}_\pi, Y_n, X_k \right) \) has the same value \( \hat{E}_{mk}(A) \) for all \( \pi \) in \( \Pi(m, A) \), and \( \hat{E}_{mk}(A) \) has the same distribution as \( \hat{E}_{m0}(A) \). In addition, \( r_{mk}(A) = Y_k - \hat{E}_{mk}(A) \) has the same distribution as \( r_{m0} \). It follows that the mean-squared error \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) has the unbiased estimate \( [r_{mk}(A)]^2 \). If \( \text{MSE}_{n} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; A \right) \) is the average of \( [r_{mk}(A)]^2 \) over integers \( k \) in \( B \), then \( \text{MSE}_{n} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; A \right) \) is also an unbiased estimate of \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \).

Unfortunately, \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) is not normally the same as \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \). Consider the following examples.

**Example 4.** In Example 1, \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) = \sigma^2 \left( Y_0 \right) \left( 1 + m^{-1} \right) \) is larger than \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \). Nonetheless, if \( m \) is large, then \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) - \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) is small.

**Example 5.** In Example 2,

\[
\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) = \sigma^2 \left( Y_0 | X_0 \right) \left( 1 + \frac{1}{m} + \frac{p}{m - p - 2} \right) > \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right).
\]

For fixed \( p \), if \( m \) is large, \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) - \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) is small; however, it should be noted that \( \left[ \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) - \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \right] / \sigma^2 \left( Y_0 | X_0 \right) \) can be made arbitrarily large by letting \( m - p - 2 \) not increase while letting \( p \) increase.

A practical complication generally encountered in the choice of \( m \) and \( n \) is the typical trade-off between a decreasing value of \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) and an increasing variance of \( \text{MSE}_{n} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; A \right) \) as \( m \) approaches \( n \). Assume that \( Y_0 \) and \( \hat{E}_{m0} \) have finite fourth moments, so that \( r_{m0}^2 \) has a finite variance. The variance of \( r_{mk}(A) \) is \( \sigma^2 \left( r_{m0}^2 \right) \) for \( k \) in \( B \), and the
covariance of $r^2_{m0}(A)$ and $r^2_{mk}(A)$ is the variance $\sigma^2(E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m))$ of the conditional expectation $E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)$ of $r^2_{m0}$ given $(X_i, Y_i), 1 \leq i \leq m$. In addition,

$$\sigma^2(r^2_{m0}) = \sigma^2(E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)) + \sigma^2(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m),$$

where $\sigma^2(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m)$ is the variance of $r^2_{m0} - E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)$ (Blackwell, 1947). It follows that

$$\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right) = (n - m)^{-1}\left[\sigma^2(r^2_{m0}) + (n - m - 1)\sigma^2\left(E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)\right)\right]$$

$$= (n - m)^{-1}\sigma^2(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m) + \sigma^2\left(E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)\right).$$

For a given $m$, the variance $\sigma^2(\text{MSE}_n(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A))$ decreases to $\sigma^2\left(E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)\right)$ as $n$ increases.

**Example 6.** Consider Example 1 for $Y$ with a finite fourth moment. Here $r_{mk}(A) = Y_k - \hat{E}_{mk}(A)$, where $\hat{E}_{mk}(A)$ is the sample mean of $Y_i$ for $i$ in $A$. Let $\kappa_4(Y_0)$ be the fourth cumulant of $Y_0$. Let $\sigma^4(Y_0)$ be $[\sigma^2(Y_0)]^2$. Let

$$D_{m0} = \hat{E}_{m0} - E(Y) = m^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{m}[Y_i - E(Y)].$$

The conditional expectation of $r^2_{m0}$ given $(X_i, Y_i), 1 \leq i \leq m$, is $\sigma^2(Y_0) + D^2_{m0}$ so that

$$\sigma^2\left(E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)\right) = \sigma^2(D_{m0}) = \frac{2\sigma^4(Y_0)}{m} + \frac{k_4(Y_0)}{m^3}.$$ (Fisher, 1930). The difference $r^2_{m0} - E(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m)$ is $[Y_0 - E(Y0)]^2 - \sigma^2(Y_0)$ so that $\sigma^2(r^2_{m0} \mid \tilde{X}_m, Y_m) = 2\sigma^4(Y_0) + k_4(Y_0)$. It follows that

$$\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right) = 2\frac{n}{m(n - m)}\sigma^4(Y) + \frac{m^3 + n - m}{(n - m)m^3}k_4(Y).$$

This variance only approaches 0 if both $n - m$ and $m$ approach $\infty$. If $Y$ has a normal distribution, then $k_4(Y) = 0$, so that

$$\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right) = 2\frac{n}{m(n - m)}\sigma^4(Y).$$

With or without normality, if $n$ goes to $\infty$ and $m / n$ approaches a positive constant $f < 1$, then $\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right)$ approaches

$$\frac{2\sigma^4(Y)}{f(1 - f)} + \frac{k_4(Y)}{f^2(1 - f)}.$$ In the normal case, the limit is smallest if $f = 1/2$.

**Example 7.** In Example 2, an argument similar to that in Example 6 together with use of the variance formula for the $F$ distribution shows that for $m - p > 4$,

$$\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right) = 2\frac{n}{m(n - m)}\left[1 + \frac{(m - 2)p}{(m - p - 2)^2(m - p - 4)}\right]\sigma^4(Y_0|X_0),$$

where $\sigma^4(Y_0|X_0)$ is the square of $\sigma^2(Y_0|X_0)$. For fixed dimension $p$, if $n$ approaches $\infty$ and $m / n$ approaches a positive $f < 1$, then $n\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right)$ approaches $2\sigma^4(Y_0|X_0)/[f(1 - f)]$. Nonetheless, $\sigma^2\left(\text{MSE}_n\left(Y, \hat{E}_{m_0}; A\right)\right)/\sigma^4(Y_0|X_0)$ becomes arbitrarily large if $m / n$ approaches $f < 1$, $n$ approaches $\infty$, and $m - p$ remains bounded.
Use of U-Statistics

Greater efficiency in estimation of MSE \( \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) can be achieved by use of U-statistics (Hoeffding, 1948). These statistics provide a general approach to construction of unbiased estimates, determination of their variances, and estimation of their variances. For some integer \( C \geq 1 \), let the real function \( h(T, u) \) be defined for \( p \times C \) matrices \( T \) with columns in \( X \) and \( C \)-dimensional vectors \( u \) with elements in \( Y \). Assume that \( h(W, Z) \) is a random variable whenever \( W \) is a \( p \times C \) random matrix with columns in \( X \) and \( Z \) is a \( C \)-dimensional random variable with elements in \( Y \). For \( n \geq C \), let the U-statistic \( U_n \) defined by \( h \) be the average of \( h \left( \overline{X}_n, Y_\pi \right) \) over functions \( \pi \) in \( \Pi \n \) from \( C \) to \( n \). Alternatively, let \( A, n, n \) be the class of subsets \( A \) of \( n \) with \( C \) elements, and let \( U_A, A \) in \( A, n \) be the average of \( h \left( \overline{X}_n, Y_\pi \right) \) over functions \( \pi \) in \( \Pi \n \). Then \( U_n \) is the average of \( U_A \) for \( A \) in \( A, n \). Assume that \( h \left( \overline{X}_C, Y_C \right) \) has a finite expectation. For \( A \) in \( A, n \), \( U_n \) and \( U_A \) have the finite expectation \( E \left( U_n \right) = E \left( U_A \right) = E \left( U_C \right) = E \left( h \left( \overline{X}_C, Y_C \right) \right) \). If \( h \left( \overline{Z}_m \right) \) has a finite variance, then \( U_n \) has the finite variance

\[
\sigma^2 \left( U_n \right) = \left( \frac{n}{C} \right)^{-1} \sum_{c=1}^{C} \left( \frac{C}{c} \right) \left( \frac{n-C}{m-C} \right) \sigma^2 \left( U_C \overline{X}_C, Y_C \right).
\]

Here, for nonnegative integers \( j \) and \( k \),

\[
\binom{k}{j} = \begin{cases} \frac{k!}{(k-j)!j!}, & j \leq k, \\ 0, & j > k. \end{cases}
\]

For \( c < C \), \( \sigma^2 \left( U_C \overline{X}_C, Y_C \right) \) is the conditional variance of \( U_C \) given \( (X_i, Y_i) \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq C - c \). For \( c = C \), \( \sigma^2 \left( U_C \overline{X}_C, Y_C \right) \) is the variance \( \sigma^2 \left( U_C \right) \). The \( \sigma^2 \left( U_C \overline{X}_C, Y_C \right) \) are nondecreasing in \( c \), and the variance \( \sigma^2 \left( U_n \right) \) satisfies the inequality

\[
\frac{C^2}{n} \sigma^2 \left( U_C \overline{X}_1, Y_1 \right) \leq \sigma^2 \left( U_n \right) \leq \frac{m}{n} \sigma^2 \left( U_C \right).
\]

The variance \( \sigma^2 \left( U_n \right) \) is nonincreasing in \( n \). If \( 2C \leq n \), then \( \sigma^2 \left( U_n \right) \) has the unbiased estimate

\[
s^2 \left( U_n \right) = U_n - V \left( U_n \right),
\]

where \( V \left( U_n \right) \) is the average of \( U_A U_B \) over all pairs of disjoint sets \( A \) and \( B \) in \( A, n \).

One basic use of U-statistics in cross-validation involves use of multiple training sets. Consider the average \( U_n = \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) of \( \left( r_{mk}^2 \left( A \right) \right)^2 \) over pairs \( (A, k) \) such that \( A \) is in \( A, m, n \), \( k \) is in \( n \), and \( k \) is not in \( A \). Here \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) is the average of \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) for \( A \) in \( A, m, n \). If \( m = n - 1 \), then \( U_{m+1} = \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) is the estimate of \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) provided by \( n \)-fold cross-validation (Geisser, 1975; Stone, 1974). This case is relatively simple in terms of computation because \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) is the average of \( r_{A(k,n)}^2 \) for \( 1 \leq k \leq n \) and \( A(k, n) \) is the set consisting of all positive integers no greater than \( n \) that do not equal \( k \). If \( r_{m0}^2 \) has finite variance and \( m = n - 1 \), then

\[
\sigma^2 \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \right) = n^{-1} \left[ \sigma^2 \left( r_{m0}^2 \right) + (n - 1) \text{Cov} \left( r_{A(1,n)}^2, r_{A(2,n)}^2 \right) \right].
\]

The general formula for \( \sigma^2 \left( U_n \right) = \sigma^2 \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \right) \) for \( n - 1 > m \) applies with \( C = m + 1 \). This case is usually much more difficult, although occasional exceptions do exist.

Example 8. In Example 6, \( U_{m+1} \) is the average \( \left( 1 + m^{-1} \right) \frac{s^2_{m+1}}{m} \) of

\[
\left\{ Y_k - m^{-1} \left[ (m+1) \overline{Y}_{m+1} - Y_k \right] \right\}^2 = \left( \frac{m+1}{m} \right)^2 \left( Y_k - \overline{Y}_{m+1} \right)^2
\]

over positive integers \( k \leq m + 1 \). It follows that \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) = \left( 1 + m^{-1} \right) s^2_{m+1} \) (Hoeffding, 1948). If \( n \geq 3 \), then

\[
\sigma^2 \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \right) = \left( \frac{m+1}{m} \right)^2 \left[ 2\sigma^4(Y) + \frac{\kappa(Y)}{n} \right].
\]
Example 9. In Example 2, the case of \( m = n - 1 \) leads to the PRESS statistic for the regression of \( Y_i \) on \( X_i \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) in \( B \) (Draper & Smith, 1981, p. 325). In this case, computations are unusually easy (Cook & Weisberg, 1982, p. 33) as long as for no positive integer \( k \leq n \) does there exist a real number \( c \) and \( p \)-dimensional vector \( \mathbf{d} \) with some nonzero element such that \( c + T_i' \mathbf{d} = 0 \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) and \( i \neq k \). This condition holds with probability 1. Let \( \bar{X}_n \) be the sample mean of the \( X_i \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), and let \( \text{Cov}_n(X) \) be the sample covariance matrix of \( X_i \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \). Let the leverage measure

\[
h_{ni} = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1} \left( X_i - \bar{X}_n \right)' \left[ \text{Cov}_n(X) \right]^{-1} \left( X_i - \bar{X}_n \right) < 1.
\]

Then

\[
\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ r_{ni} / \left( 1 - h_{ni} \right) \right]^2
\]

is the PRESS estimate of the mean-squared error \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \).

The preceding examples involve a common but not universal phenomenon. In numerous statistical problems, removal of one observation is quite straightforward. Nonetheless, one difficulty that arises in general is that the variance of \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right) \) does not have an unbiased estimate if \( m = n - 1 \).

A second use of \( U \)-statistics in cross-validation involves construction of a new estimation function \( \bar{e}_{nn} \) equal to the average of \( e_m \left( T_x, u_t, n \right) \) for \( \pi \) in \( \Omega \left( m, n \right) \) for the \( p \times n \) matrix \( T \) with columns \( T_i \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), the \( n \)-dimensional vector \( u \) with elements \( u_i \) in \( \mathcal{Y} \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), and the \( p \)-dimensional vector \( t \) in \( \mathcal{X} \). Here \( T_x \) is the \( p \times m \) matrix with columns \( T_{xi} \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq m \), and \( u_t \) is the \( m \)-dimensional vector with elements \( u_{ti} \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq m \). The estimate \( \bar{e}_{mn} \) is then \( \bar{e}_{mn} \left( \bar{X}_n, Y_n, X_k \right) \) for \( k \geq 0 \), and \( \bar{r}_{mn} = Y_k - \bar{E}_{mn} \). The estimate \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) is also the average of \( \hat{E}_{mk} \left( A \right) \) for \( A \in \mathcal{A} \left( m, n \right) \), while \( \bar{r}_{mn} \) is the average of \( r_{mk} \left( A \right) \) for \( A \in \mathcal{A} \left( m, n \right) \).

The mean-squared error

\[
\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) = \left( \frac{n}{m} \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=0}^{m} \left( \frac{m}{c} \right) \left( n - m - c \right) E \left( \left[ \hat{E} \left( r_{m0} \bar{X}_{0c}, Y_{0c} \right) \right]^2 \right) \leq \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right),
\]

where \( \bar{X}_{0c} \) is the \( p \times (c + 1) \) matrix with columns \( X_i \), \( 0 \leq i \leq c \) and \( Y_{0c} \) is the \( (c + 1) \)-dimensional vector with elements \( Y_i \), \( 0 \leq i \leq c \). Thus \( E \left( r_{m0} \bar{X}_{0c}, Y_{0c} \right) \) is the conditional expectation of \( r_{m0} \) given \( (X_n, Y_i) \), \( 0 \leq i \leq c \). The mean-squared error for prediction of \( Y_0 \) by \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) is only equal to the mean-squared error for prediction of \( Y_0 \) by \( \hat{E}_{m0} \) in the trivial case in which \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) is constant with probability 1.

If \( 2m + 1 \leq n \), then \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) \) has the unbiased estimate \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) \) equal to the average of \( r_{mk} \left( A \right) r_{mk} \left( B \right) / N(n, A, B) \) for sets \( A \) and \( B \) in \( \mathcal{A} \left( m, n \right) \) and positive integers \( k \leq n \) in neither \( A \) nor \( B \), where \( N(n, A, B) \) is the number of positive integers no greater than \( n \) that are in neither \( A \) nor \( B \). The variance of \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) \) can be computed if \( Y_0 \) and \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) have finite fourth moments, but the formula is somewhat complex in general cases. Unbiased estimation of the variance requires that \( 4(m+1) \) not exceed \( n \), and computations are far from straightforward.

If \( m + 1 = n \), then \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) is associated to some extent with the simplest case of jackknifing (Miller, 1964; Quenouille, 1956). In this case, \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) is the average of \( \hat{E}_{mn} \left( A \right) \) for the \( n \) sets \( A \) in \( \mathcal{A} \left( m, n \right) \). In general, \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) is associated with delete-(\( n-m \)) jackknifing. Applications of jackknifing depend on large-sample conditions related to the condition that \( n \text{MSE} \left( \hat{E}_{mn}, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) \) approaches 0 (Shao & Wu, 1989). Nonetheless, it should be emphasized that traditional uses of jackknifing involve evaluation of parameter estimates rather than accuracy of prediction.

Example 10. In Example 1, for any choice of the positive integer \( m < n \), \( \bar{E}_{mn} = \hat{E}_{mn} \), so that \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) = \left( 1 + n^{-1} \right) \sigma^2 \left( Y_0 \right) \) and \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) = (1 + n^{-1}) \frac{\sigma^2 \left( Y_0 \right)}{n} \). Thus \( \bar{E}_{mn} \) recovers the original prediction \( \hat{E}_{mn} \). In this example, the variance of \( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \bar{E}_{mn} \right) \) can be obtained from Example 8.

Example 11. In Example 9, \( m = n - 1 \) and \( \hat{E}_{m0} - \bar{E}_{mn} \) is

\[
-r_{mn} \frac{1}{1 - h_{mn}} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1} \left( X_0 - \bar{X}_n \right)' \left[ \text{Cov}_n(X) \right]^{-1} \left( X_0 - \bar{X}_n \right) \right].
\]
For fixed dimension $p$, the difference is of order $1/n$. Because $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{ni} = 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{mi} X_{i}$ equals the vector $0_p$ with all elements $0$, $E_{nm0} - \hat{E}_{n0}$ is the average of

$$\frac{r_{ni} E_{nm0}}{1 - h_{ni}} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n - 1} \left( X_0 - X_n \right) \right]^{'} \left( \text{Cov}_n (X) \right)^{-1} \left( X_i - X_n \right)$$

for $1 \leq i \leq n$ (Cook, 1977). For fixed $p$, this difference is of order $n^{-2}$. Results are much more complex and less satisfactory if $p$ increases as the sample size $n$ increases.

**Incomplete U-Statistics**

Because the number of sets in $A (m, n)$ can be extremely large for $m$ neither near $n$ nor near 1, computations in many cases can be sufficiently tedious that sampling is needed. This problem can be especially severe if computation of $r_{mk}(A)$ is difficult for even one set $A$ in $A (m, n)$. One remedy involves selection of a sample $B$ of distinct sets in $A (m, n)$. The sample is not necessarily random. In this discussion, inferences are conditional on the sample selected. The mean-squared error $\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right)$ is estimated by the average $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right)$ of $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; A \right)$ for $A$ in $B$ (Blom, 1976).

If $B = A (m, n)$, then $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right)$ is $\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right)$. If $B$ has a single element $A$, then $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right)$ is $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; A \right)$. In all cases, $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right)$ is an unbiased estimate of $\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right)$. Determination of $\sigma^2 \left( \text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right) \right)$ requires that $Y_0$ and $\hat{E}_{m0}$ have finite fourth moments. Unbiased estimation of this variance requires that $2(m + 1)$ not exceed $n$. This estimation can entail substantial computational labor.

A good illustration of incomplete U-statistics involves a generalization of $K$-fold replication (Geisser, 1975; Stone, 1974). Let $T$ be the smallest positive integer such that $Tm / n$ is a positive integer. For positive integers $i$ and $j$ such that $j > 1$, let mod $(i, j)$ be the smallest nonnegative integers such that $i - \text{mod} (i, j)$ is an integer multiple of $j$. For example, mod $(10, 7) = 3$. Let $B$ consist of the $T$ sets $B_i$, $1 \leq i \leq T$ of integers mod $(t - 1)m + i, n)$ such that $1 \leq i \leq m$. The case of $m + 1 = n$ leads to $n$-fold cross-validation with $T = n$ and $B = A (n - 1, n)$. In traditional $K$-fold replication, $T = K$ and $n(K - 1) = mK$. Estimation of the variance of $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0}; B \right)$ is not possible for traditional $K$-fold replication. On the other hand, this estimation is quite possible if $n$ is a multiple of $5$, $m = 2n/5$, and $T = 5$.

A second application of incomplete U-statistics involves the average $E_{mk} (B)$ of $\hat{E}_{mk} (A)$ over $A$ in $B$ for a nonnegative integer $k$. Let $N(B)$ be the number of sets in $B$. The mean-squared error $\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} (B) \right)$ is the average of $E [r_{m0} (A) r_{m0} (B)]$ for ordered pairs $(A, B)$ such that $A$ and $B$ are in $B$. If $A$ and $B$ have an intersection with $c$ members, then

$$E \left[ r_{m0} (A) r_{m0} (B) \right] = E \left[ E \left( r_{m0} | X_{bc}, Y_{bc} \right) \right]^2 .$$

If $2m + 1 \leq n$, then $\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} (B) \right)$ has the unbiased estimate $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} (B) \right)$ equal to the average of $r_{mk}(A)r_{mk}(B)/N(n, A, B)$ for sets $A$ and $B$ in $B$ and positive integers $k \leq n$ in neither $A$ nor $B$, where $N(n, A, B)$ is the number of positive integers no greater than $n$ that are in neither $A$ nor $B$. The variance of $\text{MSE}_n \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{m0} \right)$ and its associated estimate are usually difficult to compute even if $Y_0$ and $\hat{E}_{m0}$ have finite fourth moments.

**Example 12.** In Example 1, as long as each $i$ from 1 to $n$ appears in the same number of sets in $B$, $E_{nmk}$ is the sample mean $Y_n$ of $Y_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. This result applies in $K$-fold replication.

**Conclusions**

A basic challenge in cross-validation is verification that results are reproducible. In the sense that the variance of estimated mean square error can itself be estimated, the answer is affirmative with caveats. In general, the estimation procedure based on $m$ observations needs to employ less than half the total sample of size $n$, and the estimation procedure examined must be obtained with multiple choices of $m$ observations from the sample of size $n$. Multiple selections of $m$ observations can be applied to produce an improved estimation procedure based on all $n$ observations, but evaluation of the variance of mean-squared error for the improved estimation procedure is often not feasible.
Consideration of cross-validation requires some perspective. In most routine statistical problems that involve large samples, cross-validation involves rather small corrections. For example, a crude but biased estimate of \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) is the average \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) of \( r_k^2 \) over positive integers \( k \leq n \). The bias arises because \( \hat{E}_{n0} \) depends on \( Y_k \) and \( X_k \) for \( 1 \leq k \leq n \). The difference between \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) and the expectation \( E \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \right) \) is often of order \( n^{-1} \), and the standard deviation \( \sigma \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \right) \) of \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) is often of order \( 1/n^{1/2} \), so the bias is relatively small.

Examples 1 and 2 illustrate the issue. For the sample mean of Example 1, \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) = \left( 1 - n^{-1} \right) s_n^2 \) has expectation \((1 - n^{-1}) \sigma^2(Y_0)\), whereas \( \text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) is \((1 + n^{-1}) \sigma^2(Y_0)\). If \( Y_0 \) has a finite fourth moment, then \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \) has the standard deviation \((1 + n^{-1}) \gamma_k(Y)/\gamma_k(Y)^{1/2}\). In Example 2, \( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) = \left[ 1 - \left( p + 1 \right)/n \right] s_n^2 \) has expectation \([1 - (p + 1)/n] \sigma^2(Y_0|X_0)\), whereas

\[
\text{MSE} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) = \sigma^2 \left( Y_0|X_0 \right) \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{p}{n - p - 2} \right).
\]

For fixed \( p \), the bias is of order \( n^{-1} \), and \( n^{1/2} \gamma \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \right) \) converges to \( 2^{1/2} \gamma \left( \sigma^2(Y_0|X_0) \right) \). In this example, the situation does change if \( p \) is far from 0. Similar issues arise in variance estimation. A crude but biased estimate of \( \sigma^2 \left( \overline{\text{MSE}}_{\text{ann}} \left( Y_0, \hat{E}_{n0} \right) \right) \) is \( n^{-1} \) times the sample variance of the \( r_i^2 \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \). The bias is of order \( n^{-2} \) in typical cases.

A further matter in terms of perspective is that much simpler statistical methods exist for approximation of bias in estimated mean-squared error (Mallows, 1973). These methods apply to Examples 1 and 2. Given that cross-validation involves significant effort and can have some costs in terms of efficiency of estimation, it is important to consider when cross-validation should be used at all. In the end, it appears that applications of cross-validation are most appropriate in samples that are not very large and in cases in which estimates are not well-behaved differentiable functions of the original data. Relevant cases include use of stepwise regression and other methods of model selection, use of inequality constraints, and cases in which the dimension \( p \) of \( X \) is large relative to the sample size \( n \). In numerous routine statistical problems, cross-validation has limited value.

References


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