## Solution 1:

(a) • Hypothesis space  $\mathcal{H}$  is defined as:

$$\mathcal{H} = \{ f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p \}$$

• We fit a linear model, ergo using the L2 loss makes sense (e.g., because of the link to Gaussian MLE):

$$L\left(y^{(i)}, f\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{\beta}\right)\right) = L\left(y^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta}\right) = 0.5\left(y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta}\right)^{2}$$

and the theoretical risk is

$$\mathcal{R}(f) = \mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \int (y - f(\boldsymbol{x}))^2 d\mathbb{P}_{xy} = \int (y - \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta})^2 d\mathbb{P}_{xy}.$$

- (b) The Bayes regret is  $\mathcal{R}_L(\hat{f}) \mathcal{R}_L^*$  and can be decomposed into an estimation error  $\left[\mathcal{R}_L(\hat{f}) \inf_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \mathcal{R}_L(f)\right]$  and an approximation error  $\left[\inf_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \mathcal{R}_L(f) \mathcal{R}_L^*\right]$ .
  - (i) If  $f^* \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_L^* = \inf_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \mathcal{R}_L(f)$ , i.e., the approximation error is 0 and for  $n \to \infty$  our Bayes regret  $\to 0$ .
  - (ii) If  $f^* \notin \mathcal{H}$ , the Bayes regret typically consists of both parts, but as  $n \to \infty$ , we are left with the approximation error.
- (c) Our empirical risk is

$$\mathcal{R}_{emp}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0.5 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{x^{(i)}}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{2} = 0.5 ||\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}||^{2}.$$

• Optimization = minimization of the empirical risk can either be done analytically (the preferred solution in this case!) or using, e.g., gradient descent.

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}) = -\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

(d) For convex objectives, every local minimum corresponds to a global minimum. To show convexity, calculate the second derivatives:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\beta}\boldsymbol{\beta}^\top}\mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \boldsymbol{X}^\top\boldsymbol{X}.$$

Since  $z^{\top}X^{\top}Xz$  is the inner product of a vector  $\tilde{z} = Xz$  with itself, i.e.

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it is  $\geq 0$  and hence  $X^{\top}X$  psd and therefore  $\mathcal{R}(\beta)$  convex.

(e) Write a function in R implementing a gradient descent routine for the optimization of this linear model. Start with:

```
#' @param step_size the step_size in each iteration
#' @param X the feature input matrix X
#' @param y the outcome vector y
#' @param beta a starting value for the coefficients
#' @param eps a small constant measuring the changes in each update step.
#' Stop the algorithm if the estimated model parameters do not change
```

- (f) Run a small simulation study by creating 100 data sets as indicated below and test different step sizes  $\alpha$  (fixed across iterations) against each other and against the state-of-the-art routine for linear models in R using the function 1m.
  - Compare the difference in estimated coefficients  $\beta_j, j = 1, \dots, p$  using the mean squared error, i.e.

$$p^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{p} (\beta_j^{truth} - \hat{\beta}_j)^2$$

and summarize the difference over all 100 simulation repetitions.

• Compare the run times of your implementation and the one given by 1m by wrapping the function calls into system.time().

```
n <- 10000
p <- 100
nr_sims <- 20

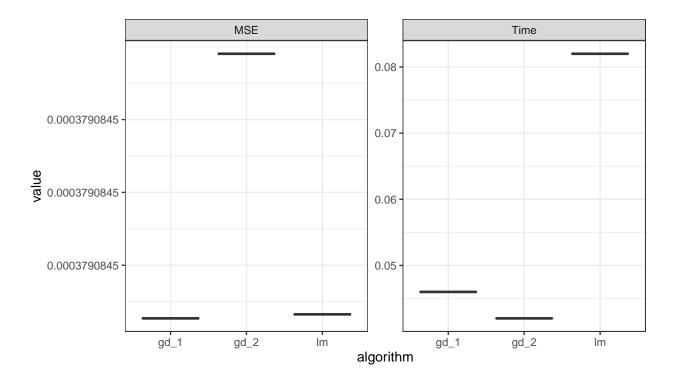
# define mse
mse <- function(x,y) mean((x-y)^2)

# create data (only once)
X <- matrix(rnorm(n*p), ncol=p)
beta_truth <- runif(p, -2, 2)
f_truth <- X%*%beta_truth

# create result object
result_list <- vector("list", nr_sims)

# make it all reproducible
set.seed(2020-4-6)
for(sim_nr in nr_sims)</pre>
```

```
# create response
  y \leftarrow f_{truth} + rnorm(n, sd = 2)
  time_lm <- system.time(</pre>
    coef_{lm} \leftarrow coef(lm(y^-1+X))
  )["elapsed"]
  time_gd_1 <- system.time(</pre>
    coef_gd_1 <- gradient_descent(step_size = 0.0001, X = X, y = y)</pre>
  )["elapsed"]
  time_gd_2 <- system.time(</pre>
    coef_gd_2 <- gradient_descent(step_size = 0.00001, X = X, y = y)</pre>
  )["elapsed"]
  mse_lm <- mse(coef_lm, beta_truth)</pre>
  mse_gd_1 <- mse(coef_gd_1, beta_truth)</pre>
  mse_gd_2 <- mse(coef_gd_2, beta_truth)</pre>
  # save results in list (performance, time)
  result_list[[sim_nr]] <- data.frame(mse_lm = mse_lm,</pre>
                                         mse_gd_1 = mse_gd_1,
                                         mse_gd_2 = mse_gd_2,
                                         time_lm = time_lm,
                                         time_gd_1 = time_gd_1,
                                         time_gd_2 = time_gd_2)
}
library(ggplot2)
library(dplyr)
library(tidyr)
do.call("rbind", result_list) %>%
  gather() %>%
  mutate(what = ifelse(grepl("mse", key), "MSE", "Time"),
          algorithm = gsub("(mse|time))\_(.*)","\2", key)) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = algorithm, y = value)) +
  geom_boxplot() + theme_bw() +
 facet_wrap(~ what, scales = "free")
```



- (g) There exists an analytic solution to this problem, namely  $\hat{\beta} = (X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}y$ . Gradient descent might sometimes be slower and less exact. However, for very large data sets, a numerical optimization might be the preferred solution (in this case, you would rather apply **stochastic** gradient descent). Analytically solving the problem involves inverting the matrix  $X^{\top}X$ , which should never be done explicitly, but rather by solving the linear equation  $X^{\top}y = X^{\top}X\beta$  or by decomposing  $X^{\top}X$  first, e.g., using Cholesky or QR decomposition.
- (h) Our learning algorithm  $\mathcal{I}$  will always have an approximation error if  $f^* \notin \mathcal{H}$ , and is thus not consistent.