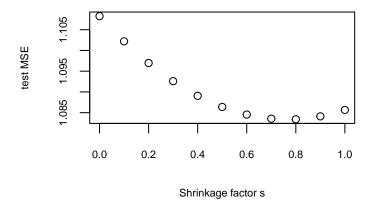
## Statistical Learning week 1 - Answers to exercises

## Exercise 1: Bias can be beneficial

```
set.seed(1)
x \leftarrow runif(50, min = -3, max = 3)
epsilon <- rnorm(50)
y \leftarrow 0.1*x + epsilon
train_dat <- data.frame(x, y)</pre>
beta_OLS <- coef(lm(y ~ 0 + x, data = train_dat))</pre>
beta_OLS
##
## 0.1184196
x \leftarrow runif(1000, min = -3, max = 3)
epsilon <- rnorm(1000)
y \leftarrow 0.1*x + epsilon
test_dat <- data.frame(x, y)</pre>
s \leftarrow seq(0, 1, by = .1)
test_MSE <- numeric(length(s))</pre>
for (i in 1:length(s)) {
  y_hat <- test_dat$x * s[i] * beta_OLS</pre>
  test_MSE[i] <- mean((y_hat - test_dat$y)^2)</pre>
plot(s, test_MSE, xlab = "Shrinkage factor s", ylab = "test MSE",
cex.lab = .7, cex.axis = .7)
```

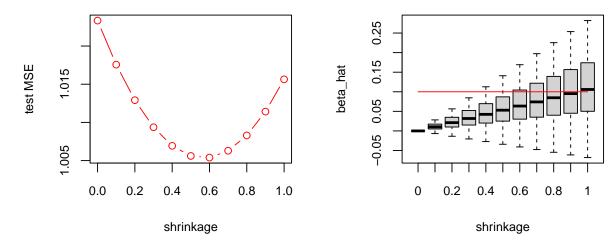


We see the optimal value of the shrinkage factor is less than 1, so the OLS coefficient (which has s = 1) is unbiased, but not optimal in terms of prediction.

Not every value of the random seed will yield this result, so we repeat the experiment with 100 replications:

```
beta <- 0.1
n <- 50
n reps <- 100
shrinkage \leftarrow seq(0, 1, by = 0.1)
mse <- beta_hats <- matrix(0, nrow = n_reps, ncol = length(shrinkage))</pre>
colnames(mse) <- colnames(beta_hats) <- shrinkage</pre>
set.seed(1234)
for (i in 1:n_reps) {
  ## generate training data
  x \leftarrow runif(n, min = -3, max = 3)
  y <- beta*x + rnorm(n)
  ## fit OLS and get parameter estimates
  fit <-lm(y \sim 0 + x)
  b_ols <- coef(fit)</pre>
  ## generate test data:
  xtest \leftarrow runif(1000, min = -3, max = 3)
  ytest <- beta*xtest + rnorm(1000)</pre>
  ## apply shrinkage and obtain predictions
  for (s in 1:length(shrinkage)) {
    ## generate predictions for test observations
    ypred <- xtest * shrinkage[s] * b_ols</pre>
    mse[i, s] <- mean((ytest - ypred)^2)</pre>
    beta_hats[i, s] <- shrinkage[s] * b_ols</pre>
  }
}
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
min_id <- which(colMeans(mse) == min(colMeans(mse)))</pre>
## Plot MSE versus shrinkage
plot(x = shrinkage, y = colMeans(mse), type = 'b',
     col = "red", xlab = "shrinkage", ylab = "test MSE",
     main = paste0("beta = ", beta, "; N = ", n,
                    "; \n optimal shrinkage factor: ",
                    shrinkage[min_id]), cex.main = .8,
     cex.lab = .8, cex.axis = .8)
## Plot distributions of beta estimates (add line for true value)
boxplot(beta_hats, xlab = "shrinkage", ylab = "beta_hat", outline = FALSE,
        cex.lab = .8, cex.axis = .8
lines(c(1, 11), c(beta, beta), col = "red")
```

beta = 0.1; N = 50; optimal shrinkage factor: 0.6

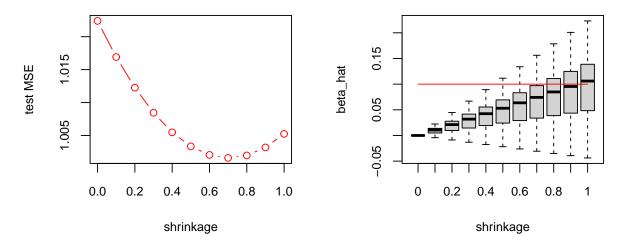


With shrinkage, we see that the estimated coefficient  $\hat{\beta}$  becomes biased downwards (the red line in the middle plot indicates the true value  $\beta$ ), but the variance of the estimate also gets (much) smaller. A shrinkage factor of 0.6 was optimal. The red line in the right plot indicates the irreducible error.

What if we increase training sample size?

```
n <- 100
set.seed(1234)
for (i in 1:n_reps) {
  ## generate training data
  x \leftarrow runif(n, min = -3, max = 3)
  y <- beta*x + rnorm(n)
  ## fit OLS and get parameter estimates
  fit <-lm(y \sim 0 + x)
  b_ols <- coef(fit)</pre>
  ## generate test data
  xtest \leftarrow runif(1000, min = -3, max = 3)
  ytest <- beta*xtest + rnorm(1000)</pre>
  ## apply shrinkage and obtain predictions
  for (s in 1:length(shrinkage)) {
    ## generate predictions for test observations
    ypred <- xtest * shrinkage[s] * b_ols</pre>
    mse[i, s] <- mean((ytest - ypred)^2)</pre>
    beta_hats[i, s] <- shrinkage[s] * b_ols</pre>
  }
}
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
min_id <- which(colMeans(mse) == min(colMeans(mse)))</pre>
## Plot MSE versus shrinkage
plot(x = shrinkage, y = colMeans(mse), type = 'b',
     col = "red", xlab = "shrinkage", ylab = "test MSE",
     main = paste0("beta = ", beta, "; N = ", n,
                    "; \n optimal shrinkage factor: ",
                    shrinkage[min_id]),
     cex.lab = .8, cex.axis = .8, cex.main = .8)
```

beta = 0.1; N = 100; optimal shrinkage factor: 0.7

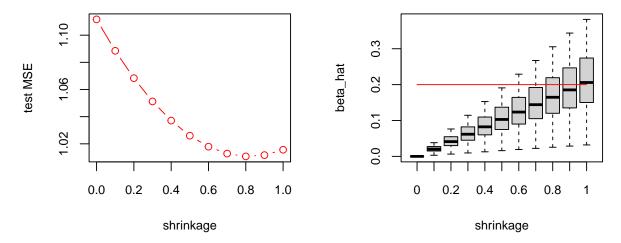


With larger sample size (i.e., more information in the sample), shrinkage is still beneficial. However, with larger sample size, variance of  $\hat{\beta}$  is smaller, so we need less shrinkage (bias) to optimize prediction error. Now, a shrinkage factor of 0.7 was optimal.

What if we increase the effect of X?

```
beta <- 0.2
n <- 50
set.seed(1234)
for (i in 1:n_reps) {
  ## generate training data
  x \leftarrow runif(n, min = -3, max = 3)
  y <- beta*x + rnorm(n)
  ## fit OLS and get parameter estimates
  fit <-lm(y \sim 0 + x)
  b_ols <- coef(fit)</pre>
  ## generate test data
  xtest <- runif(1000, \min = -3, \max = 3)
  ytest <- beta*xtest + rnorm(1000)</pre>
  ## apply shrinkage and obtain predictions
  for (s in 1:length(shrinkage)) {
    ## generate predictions for test observations
    ypred <- xtest * shrinkage[s] * b_ols</pre>
    mse[i, s] <- mean((ytest - ypred)^2)</pre>
    beta_hats[i, s] <- shrinkage[s] * b_ols</pre>
  }
}
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
min_id <- which(colMeans(mse) == min(colMeans(mse)))</pre>
```

beta = 0.2; N = 50; optimal shrinkage factor: 0.8

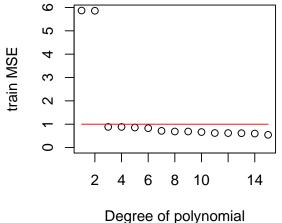


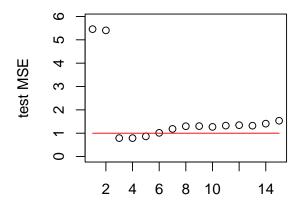
With larger effect size (i.e., larger  $\beta$ , so higher signal-to-noise ratio), shrinkage is still beneficial. Note that the variance of  $\hat{\beta}$  does not change as a function of effect size. However, the shrinkage factor c has a stronger effect on larger coefficients, so we need less shrinkage (bias) to optimize prediction error. A shrinkage factor of 0.8 was optimal.

Conclusion: Shrinkage is beneficial for prediction. With higher signal-to-noise ratio and/or larger training sample size (i.e., there is more information in the training data), a lower amount of shrinkage is optimal.

## Exercise 2: Under- and overfitting with polynomial regression

```
set.seed(42)
n <- 50
## generate training data
x \leftarrow runif(n, min = -5, max = 5)
y \leftarrow x + 8*sin(x/2) + rnorm(n)
train <- data.frame(x, y)</pre>
## generate test data:
x \leftarrow runif(n, min = -5, max = 5)
y \leftarrow x + 8*sin(x/2) + rnorm(n)
test <- data.frame(x, y)</pre>
fit <- train_pred <- test_pred <- train_err <- test_err <- list()</pre>
for (d in 1:15) {
  fit[[d]] <- lm(y ~ poly(x, degree = d), data = train)</pre>
  train_pred[[d]] <- predict(fit[[d]], newdata = train)</pre>
  test_pred[[d]] <- predict(fit[[d]], newdata = test)</pre>
  test_err[[d]] <- mean((test$y - test_pred[[d]])^2)</pre>
  train_err[[d]] <- mean((train$y - train_pred[[d]])^2)</pre>
train_err <- unlist(train_err)</pre>
test_err <- unlist(test_err)</pre>
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(1:15, train err, xlab = "Degree of polynomial",
     ylab = "train MSE", ylim = c(0, max(c(train_err, test_err))))
lines(c(1, 15), c(1, 1), col = "red")
plot(1:15, test_err, xlab = "Degree of polynomial",
     ylab = "test MSE", ylim = c(0, max(c(train_err, test_err))))
lines(c(1, 15), c(1, 1), col = "red")
```



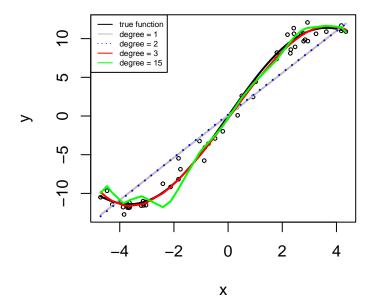


Degree of polynomial

The MSE is depicted against the degree of the polynomial. The red curve represents irreducible error. We see rather high train and test MSE for polynomials of degree 1 and 2, and then a sharp decrease afterwards. After degree 6, the overfitting begins and test MSE starts to increase, while train MSE continues decreasing. Note that, taking into account the irreducible error (which has variance of 1), the cubic (degree 3) model does pretty well.

We plot the fitted curves against the training observations:

## Train data, true and fitted curves



The linear and quadratic clearly stand out, failing to capture non-linearities. The other curves follow closely the true conditional means, although the higher-order polynomials show aberrant behaviour at the boundaries and may adjust to the training data too much. Note that for these data, the erratic behavior near the boundaries might not affect test MSE too much, because observations near the boundary are rare in a single dimension. But in increasingly higher dimension, observations will be increasingly closer to the boundaries of the space.