Lecture 4

# **Comparing Loss Functions**

DSC 40A, Fall 2024

### Announcements

- Homework 1 will be relased by tomorrow and will be due on Friday, October 11th.
  - Before working on it, watch the Walkthrough Videos on problem solving and using Overleaf.
  - Using the Overleaf template is required for Homework 2 (and only Homework 2).
- Remember that in, general, groupwork worksheets are released on Sunday and due Monday.
- Look at the office hours schedule here and plan to start regularly attending!
- Remember to take a look at the supplementary readings linked on the course website.

### Agenda

- Recap: Empirical risk minimization.
- Choosing a loss function.
  - $\circ\;$  The role of outliers.
- Center and spread.
- Towards linear regression.



Answer at q.dsc40a.com

### Remember, you can always ask questions at q.dsc40a.com!

### **Recap: Empirical risk minimization**

### Goal

We had one goal in Lectures 2 and 3: given a dataset of values from the past, **find the best constant prediction** to make.

$$y_1 = 72$$
  $y_2 = 90$   $y_3 = 61$   $y_4 = 85$   $y_5 = 92$ 

Key idea: Different definitions of "best" give us different "best predictions."

### The modeling recipe

In Lectures 2 and 3, we made two full passes through our "modeling recipe."



### **Empirical risk minimization**

- The formal name for the process of minimizing average loss is **empirical risk minimization**.
- Another name for "average loss" is empirical risk.
- When we use the squared loss function,  $L_{sq}(y_i, h) = (y_i h)^2$ , the corresponding empirical risk is mean squared error:

$$R_{
m sq}(h)=rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n(y_i-h)^2$$

• When we use the absolute loss function,  $L_{abs}(y_i, h) = |y_i - h|$ , the corresponding empirical risk is mean absolute error:

$$R_{\mathrm{abs}}(h) = rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i-h|$$

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### Empirical risk minimization, in general

Key idea: If  $L(y_i, h)$  is any loss function, the corresponding empirical risk is:

$$R(h) = rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i,h)$$
 .



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What questions do you have?

### Question 😕

Answer at q.dsc40a.com

$$ds(h)]^{2} = \left( \frac{1}{n} \left( |4, h| + |4, h| + |4, h| + \dots + |4, h| \right)^{2} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n^{2}} \left( \frac{(4, h)}{(4, h)} + \frac{(4, h)}{($$

Is the following statement true, for any dataset  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$  and prediction h?

$$\left(R_{
m abs}(h)
ight)^2=R_{
m sq}(h)$$

- A. It's true for any *h* and any dataset.
- B. It's true for at least one h for any dataset, but not in general.
- C. It's never true.

# Choosing a loss function

### Now what?

- We know that, for the constant model H(x) = h, the **mean** minimizes mean squared error.
- We also know that, for the constant model H(x) = h, the **median** minimizes mean **absolute** error.
- How does our choice of loss function impact the resulting optimal prediction?

### Comparing the mean and median

• Consider our example dataset of 5 commute times.

$$y_1 = 72$$
  $y_2 = 90$   $y_3 = 61$   $y_4 = 85$   $y_5 = 92$ 

- As of now, the median is 85 and the mean is 80.
- What if we add 200 to the largest commute time, 92?

 $y_1 = 72$  $y_2 = 90$  $y_3 = 61$  $y_4 = 85$  $y_5 = 292$ • Now, the median is85but the mean is20!

• Key idea: The mean is quite sensitive to outliers. 5 data point, 200 added to the dataset

### Outliers

Below,  $|y_4 - h|$  is 10 times as big as  $|y_3 - h|$ , but  $(y_4 - h)^2$  is 100 times  $(y_3 - h)^2$ .



The result is that the mean is "pulled" in the direction of outliers, relative to the median.



As a result, we say the **median** is **robust** to outliers. But the **mean** was easier to solve for.



#### Distribution of Commuting Time

### **Example: Income inequality**

### Average vs median income



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# For mean: sum of distance \_ sum of distance helpill about

### **Balance** points

Both the **mean** and **median** are "balance points" in the distribution.



- The mean is the point where  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i h) = 0$ .
- The median is the point where  $\#(y_i < h) = \#(y_i > h)$   $2 \quad points$  to the left of median  $2 \quad points$  to the right of median  $2 \quad points$  to the right of median

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### Why stop at squared loss?

Empirical Risk, 
$$R(h)$$
Derivative of Empirical Risk,  $\frac{d}{dh}R(h)$ Minimizer $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - h|$  $\frac{1}{n} (\sum_{y_i < h} 1 - \sum_{y_i > h} 1)$ median $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^2$  $\frac{-2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)$ Set this to 0 $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^2$  $\frac{-2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)$ Give us the mean $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - h|^3$ ??? $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^4$  $-\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (4i; -h)^3 = 0$ ??? $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^{100}$ ??? $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^{100}$ ??? $\frac{1}{n} we otherwise bes will be negtive...$ 

#### 

### Generalized $L_p$ loss

For any  $p \ge 1$ , define the  $L_p$  loss as follows:

$$L_p(y_i,h) = |y_i-h|^p$$
 .

The corresponding empirical risk is:

$$R_p(h)=rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i-h|^p$$

- When  $p = 1, h^* = Median(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ .
- When p=2,  $h^*=\operatorname{Mean}(y_1,y_2,\ldots,y_n)$ .
- What about when p = 3?
- What about when  $p 
  ightarrow \infty$ ?

### What value does $h^*$ approach, as $p ightarrow \infty$ ?



Consider the dataset 1, 2, 3, 14:



On the left:

- The *x*-axis is *p*.
- The *y*-axis is  $h^*$ , the optimal constant prediction for  $L_p$  loss:

$$h^* = {\displaystyle { \operatorname*{argmin}_h} rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - h|^p}$$

### The *midrange* minimizes average $L_{\infty}$ loss!

On the previous slide, we saw that as  $p \to \infty$ , the minimizer of mean  $L_p$  loss approached **the midpoint of the minimum and maximum values in the dataset**, or the **midrange**.



- As  $p \to \infty$ ,  $R_p(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i h|^p$  minimizes the "worst case" distance from any data point". (Read more here).
- If your measure of "good" is "not far from any one data point", then the midrange is the best prediction.

### Another example: 0-1 loss

Consider, for example, the **0-1 loss**:

$$L_{0,1}(y_i,h) = egin{cases} 0 & y_i = h \ 1 & y_i 
eq h \end{cases}$$

The corresponding empirical risk is:

$$R_{0,1}(h) = rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n L_{0,1}(y_i,h)$$



### Answer at q.dsc40a.com

$$R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \begin{cases} 0 & y_i = h \\ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \begin{cases} 0 & y_i = h \\ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ 1 & y_i \neq h \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paints}} R_{0,1}(h) \xrightarrow{\text{proportion of paint$$

 $R_{0,1}(v_i) = \text{proportion of points}$  $\neq y_i$ 

Suppose  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$  are all unique. What is  $R_{0,1}(y_1)$ ?

• A. O.

• B. 
$$\frac{1}{n}$$
.

• C. 
$$\frac{n-1}{n}$$
.

### Minimizing empirical risk for 0-1 loss

$$R_{0,1}(h) = rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^negin{cases} 0 & y_i=h\ 1 & y_i
eq h \end{cases}$$

### Summary: Choosing a loss function

Key idea: Different loss functions lead to different best predictions,  $h^*$ !

Loss	Minimizer	Always Unique?	Robust to Outliers?	Differentiable?
$L_{ m sq}$	mean	yes 🗸	no 🗙	yes 🗸
$L_{ m abs}$	median	no 🗙	yes 🗸	no 🗙
$L_\infty$	midrange	yes 🗸	no 🗙	no 🗙
$L_{0,1}$	mode	no 🗙	yes 🗸	no 🗙

The optimal predictions,  $h^*$ , are all **summary statistics** that measure the **center** of the dataset in different ways.

## What's next?

### Towards simple linear regression



- In Lecture 1, we introduced the idea of a hypothesis function, H(x).
- We've focused on finding the best constant model, H(x) = h.
- Now that we understand the modeling recipe, we can apply it to find the best simple linear regression model,  $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x.$
- This will allow us to make predictions that aren't all the same for every data point.

### The modeling recipe

1. Choose a model.

2. Choose a loss function.

3. Minimize average loss to find optimal model parameters.