

Lecture 2

Empirical Risk Minimization

DSC 40A, Spring 2024

Announcements

- Remember, there is no Canvas: all information is at dsc40a.com.
- Please fill out the [Welcome Survey](#) if you haven't already.
- Homework 1 will be released tomorrow, and is due on **Thursday, April 11th**.
 - With it, we will release an [Overleaf](#) template, where you can *type* your solutions using $LATEX$.
 - This is optional for most homeworks, but **required** for Homework 2, because it's a good skill to have.
- Look at the office hours schedule [here](#) and plan to start regularly attending!
- There are now readings linked on the course website for the next few weeks – read them for supplementary explanations.
 - They cover the same ideas, but in a different order and with different examples.

Agenda

- Recap: Mean squared error.
- Minimizing mean squared error.
- Another loss function.
- Minimizing mean absolute error.
- A practice exam problem (time permitting).

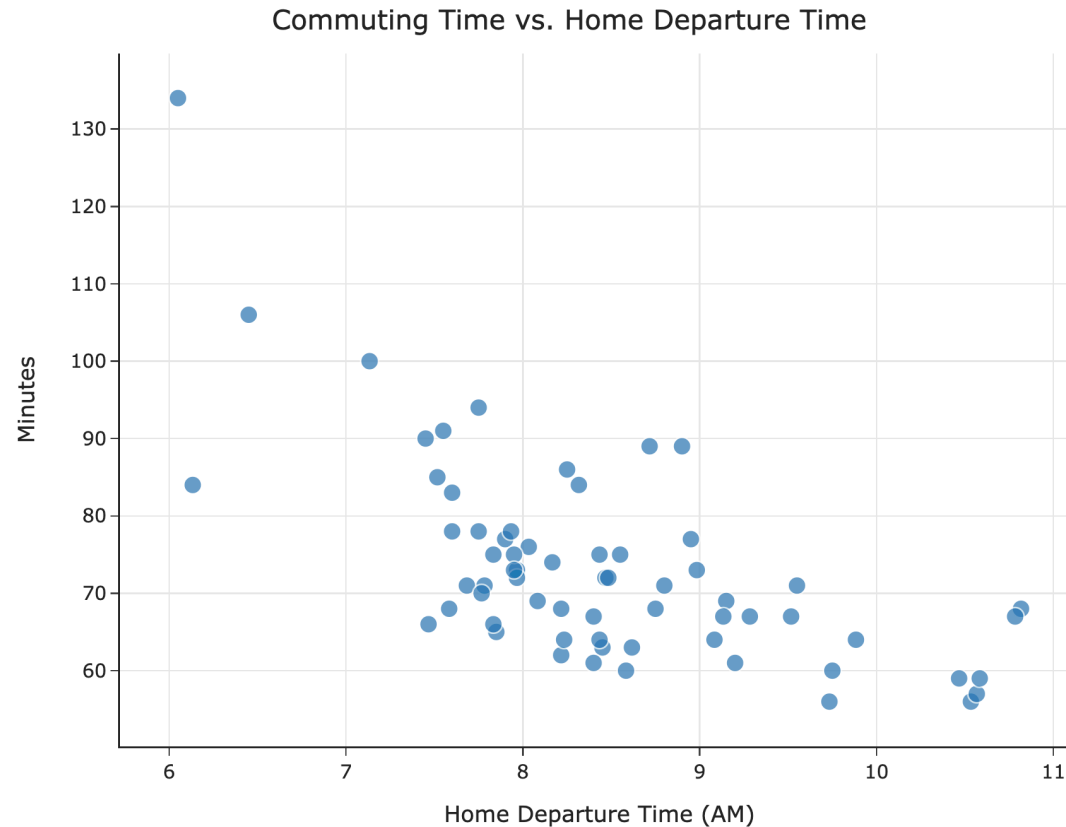
Question 🤔

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

Recap: Mean squared error

Overview



- We started by introducing the idea of a hypothesis function, $H(x)$.
- We looked at two possible models:
 - The constant model, $H(x) = h$.
 - The simple linear regression model, $H(x) = w_0 + w_1x$.
- We decided to find the **best constant prediction** to use for predicting commute times, in minutes.

Mean squared error

- Let's suppose we have just a smaller dataset of just five historical commute times in minutes.

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

- The **mean squared error** of the constant prediction h is:

$$R_{\text{sq}}(h) = \frac{1}{5} ((72 - h)^2 + (90 - h)^2 + (61 - h)^2 + (85 - h)^2 + (92 - h)^2)$$

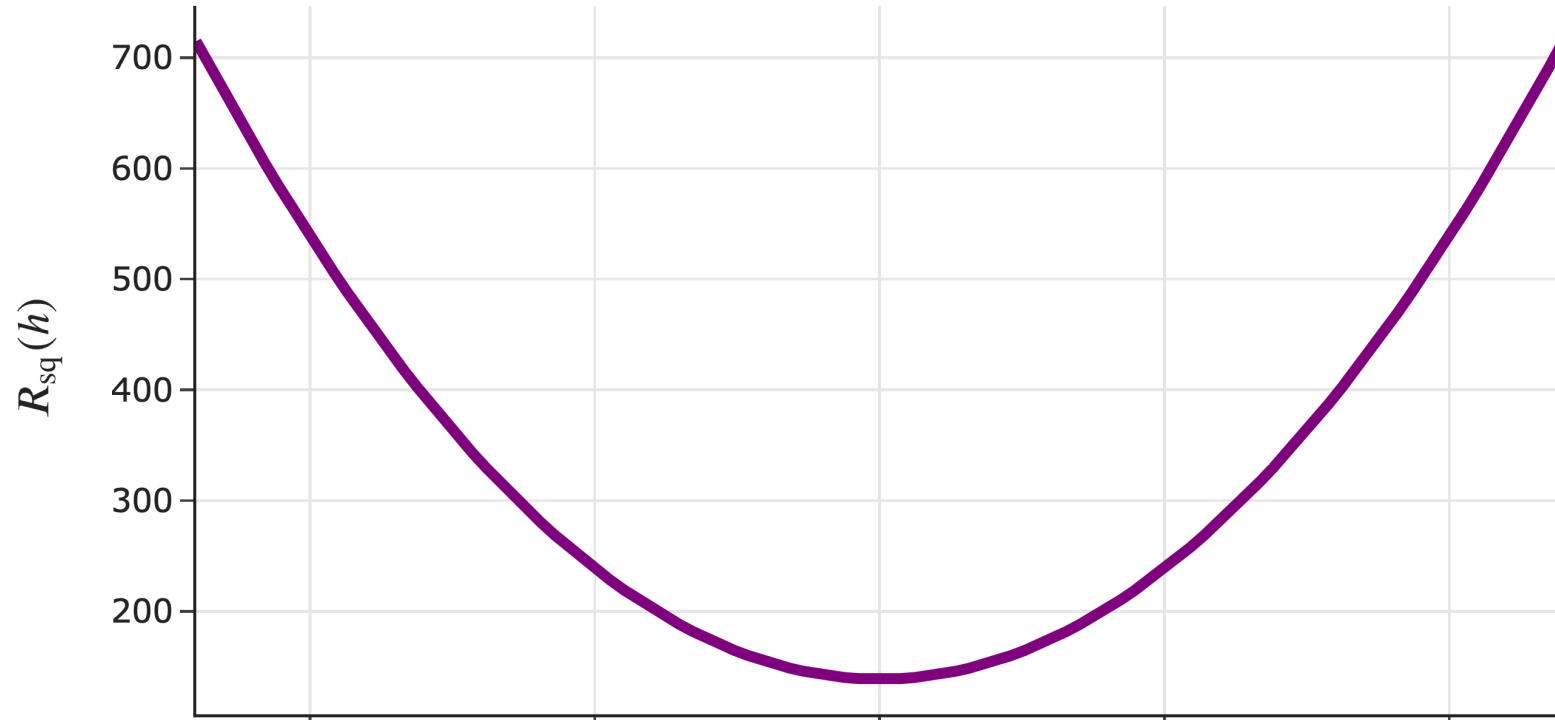
- For example, if we predict $h = 100$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\text{sq}}(100) &= \frac{1}{5} ((72 - 100)^2 + (90 - 100)^2 + (61 - 100)^2 + (85 - 100)^2 + (92 - 100)^2) \\ &= \boxed{538.8} \end{aligned}$$

- We can pick any h as a prediction, but the smaller $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$ is, the better h is!

Visualizing mean squared error

$$R_{\text{sq}}(h) = \frac{1}{5} ((72 - h)^2 + (90 - h)^2 + (61 - h)^2 + (85 - h)^2 + (92 - h)^2)$$



Which h corresponds to the vertex of $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$?

The best prediction

- Suppose we collect n commute times, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n .
- The mean squared error of the prediction h is:

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

- We want the **best** prediction, h^* .
- The smaller $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$ is, the better h is.
- **Goal:** Find the h that minimizes $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$.
The resulting h will be called h^* .
- **How do we find h^* ?**

Minimizing mean squared error

Minimizing using calculus

We'd like to minimize:

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

In order to minimize $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$, we:

1. take its derivative with respect to h ,
2. set it equal to 0,
3. solve for the resulting h^* , and
4. perform a second derivative test to ensure we found a minimum.

Step 0: The derivative of $(y_i - h)^2$

- Remember from calculus that:
 - if $c(x) = a(x) + b(x)$, then
 - $\frac{d}{dx} c(x) = \frac{d}{dx} a(x) + \frac{d}{dx} b(x)$.
- This is relevant because $R_{\text{sq}}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^2$ involves the sum of n individual terms, each of which involve h .
- So, to take the derivative of $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$, we'll first need to find the derivative of $(y_i - h)^2$.

$$\frac{d}{dh} (y_i - h)^2 =$$

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

Which of the following is $\frac{d}{dh} R_{\text{sq}}(h)$?

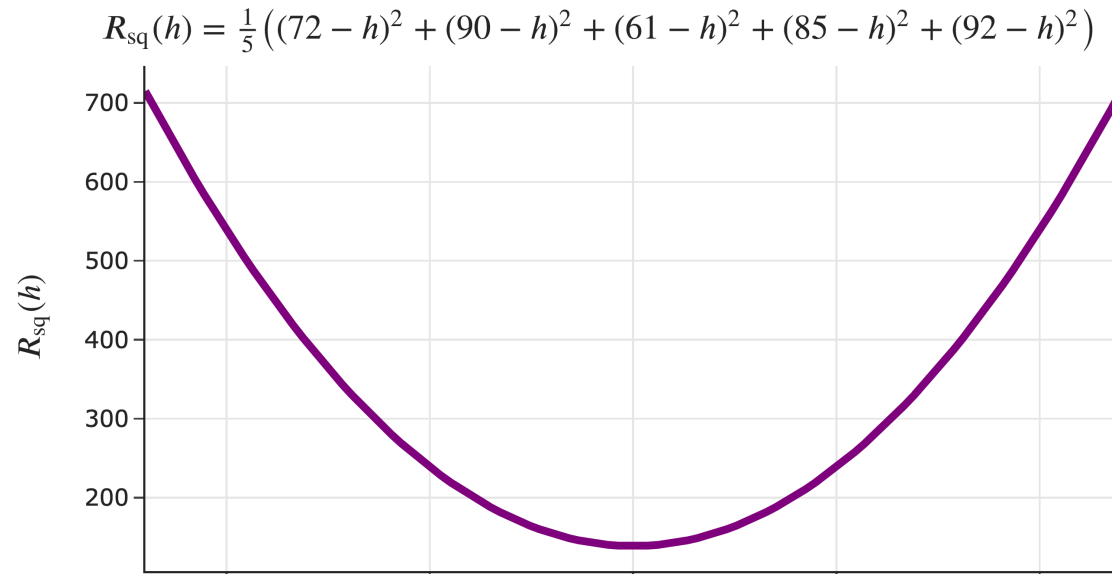
- A. 0
- B. $\sum_{i=1}^n y_i$
- C. $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)$
- D. $\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)$
- E. $-\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)$

Step 1: The derivative of $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$

$$\frac{d}{dh} R_{\text{sq}}(h) = \frac{d}{dh} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^2 \right)$$

Steps 2 and 3: Set to 0 and solve for the minimizer, h^*

Step 4: Second derivative test



We already saw that $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$ is **convex**, i.e. that it opens upwards, so the h^* we found must be a minimum, not a maximum.

The mean minimizes mean squared error!

- The problem we set out to solve was, find the h^* that minimizes:

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

- The answer is:

$$h^* = \text{Mean}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- The **best constant prediction**, in terms of mean squared error, is always the **mean**.
- We call h^* our **optimal model parameter**, for when we use:
 - the constant model, $H(x) = h$, and
 - the squared loss function, $L_{\text{sq}}(y_i, h) = (y_i - h)^2$.

Aside: Notation

Another way of writing

h^* is the value of h that minimizes $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^2$

is

$$h^* = \operatorname{argmin}_h \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^2 \right)$$

h^* is the solution to an **optimization problem**.

The modeling recipe

We've implicitly introduced a three-step process for finding optimal model parameters (like h^*) that we can use for making predictions:

1. Choose a model.
2. Choose a loss function.
3. Minimize average loss to find optimal model parameters.

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What questions do you have?

Another loss function

Another loss function

- Last lecture, we started by computing the **error** for each of our **predictions**, but ran into the issue that some errors were positive and some were negative.

$$e_i = y_i - H(x_i)$$

- The solution was to **square** the errors, so that all are non-negative. The resulting loss function is called **squared loss**.

$$L_{\text{sq}}(y_i, H(x_i)) = (y_i - H(x_i))^2$$

- Another loss function, which also measures how far $H(x_i)$ is from y_i , is **absolute loss**.

$$L_{\text{abs}}(y_i, H(x_i)) = |y_i - H(x_i)|$$

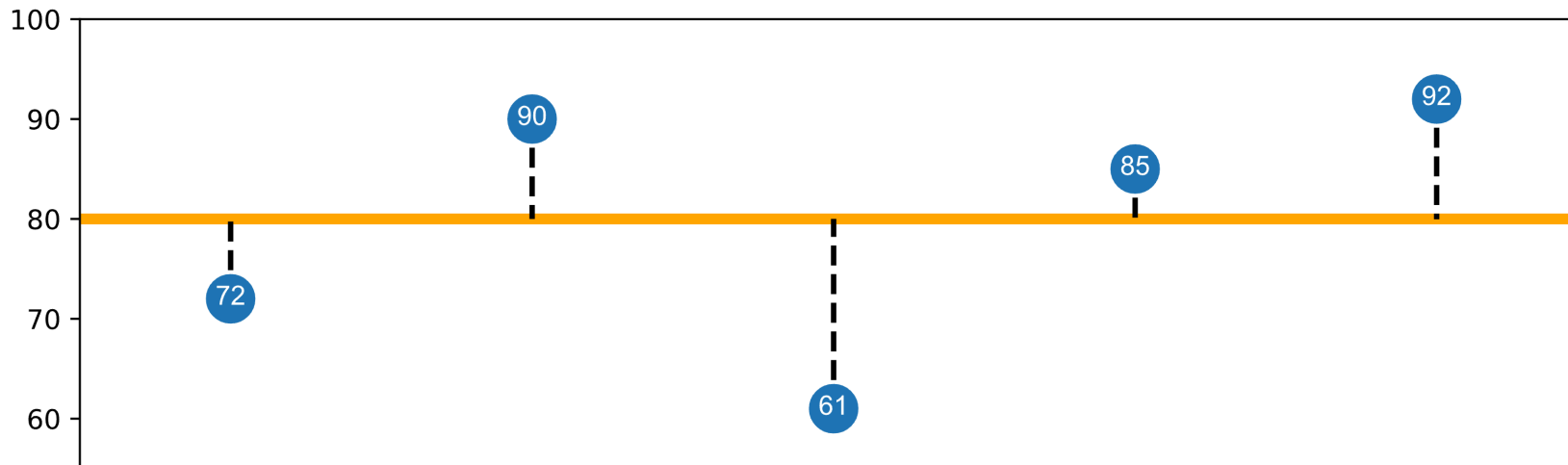
Squared loss vs. absolute loss

For the constant model, $H(x_i) = h$, so we can simplify our loss functions as follows:

- Squared loss: $L_{\text{sq}}(y_i, h) = (y_i - h)^2$.
- Absolute loss: $L_{\text{abs}}(y_i, h) = |y_i - h|$.

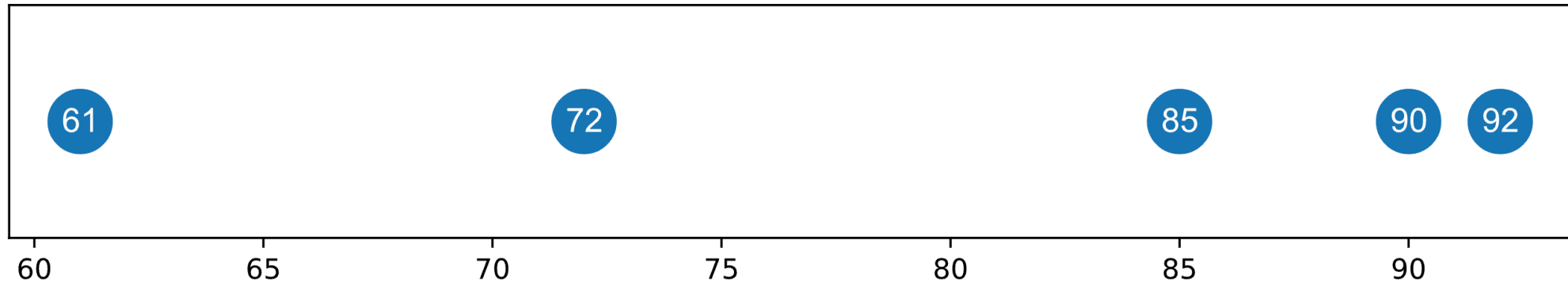
Consider, again, our example dataset of five commute times and the prediction $h = 80$.

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



Squared loss vs. absolute loss

- When we use squared loss, h^* is the point at which the average squared loss is minimized.
- When we use absolute loss, h^* is the point at which the average absolute loss is minimized.



Mean absolute error

- Suppose we collect n commute times, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n .
- The average absolute loss, or mean absolute error (MAE), of the prediction h is:

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

- We'd like to find the best prediction, h^* .
- Previously, we used calculus to find the optimal model parameter h^* that minimized R_{sq} – that is, when using squared loss.
- Can we use calculus to minimize $R_{\text{abs}}(h)$, too?

Minimizing mean absolute error

Minimizing using calculus, again

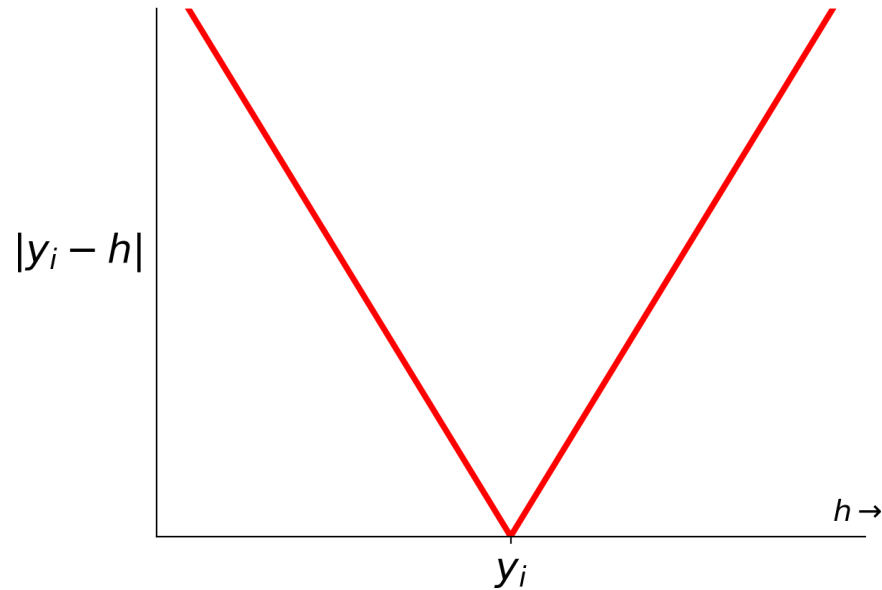
We'd like to minimize:

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

In order to minimize $R_{\text{abs}}(h)$, we:

1. take its derivative with respect to h ,
2. set it equal to 0,
3. solve for the resulting h^* , and
4. perform a second derivative test to ensure we found a minimum.

Step 0: The derivative of $|y_i - h|$



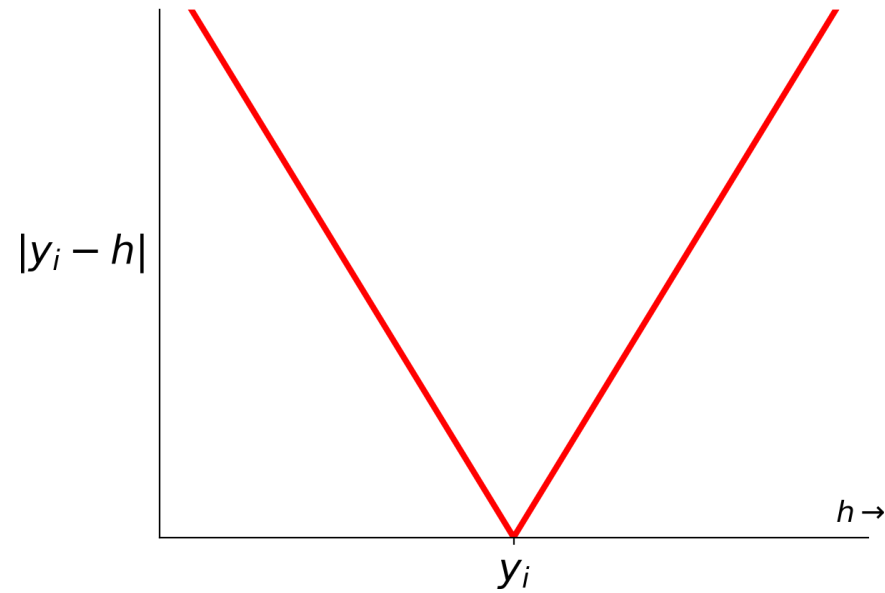
Remember that $|x|$ is a **piecewise linear** function of x :

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

So, $|y_i - h|$ is also a piecewise linear function of h :

$$|y_i - h| = \begin{cases} y_i - h & h < y_i \\ 0 & y_i = h \\ h - y_i & h > y_i \end{cases}$$

Step 0: The "derivative" of $|y_i - h|$



$$|y_i - h| = \begin{cases} y_i - h & h < y_i \\ 0 & y_i = h \\ h - y_i & h > y_i \end{cases}$$

What is $\frac{d}{dh} |y_i - h|$?

Step 1: The "derivative" of $R_{\text{abs}}(h)$

$$\frac{d}{dh} R_{\text{abs}}(h) = \frac{d}{dh} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - h| \right)$$

Steps 2 and 3: Set to 0 and solve for the minimizer, h^*

The median minimizes mean absolute error!

- The new problem we set out to solve was, find the h^* that minimizes:

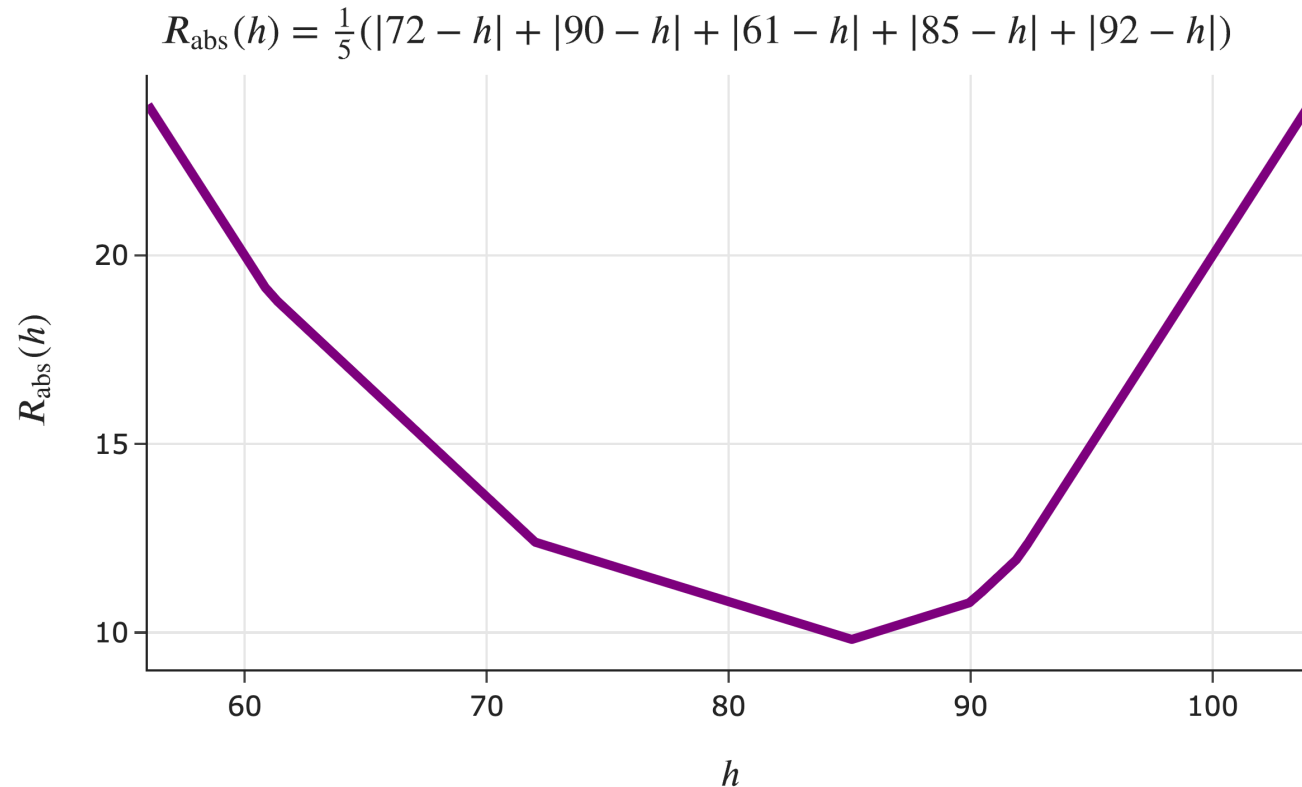
$$R_{\text{abs}}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - h|$$

- The answer is:

$$h^* = \text{Median}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- This is because the median has an equal number of data points to the left of it and to the right of it.
- To make a bit more sense of this result, let's graph $R_{\text{abs}}(h)$.

Visualizing mean absolute error

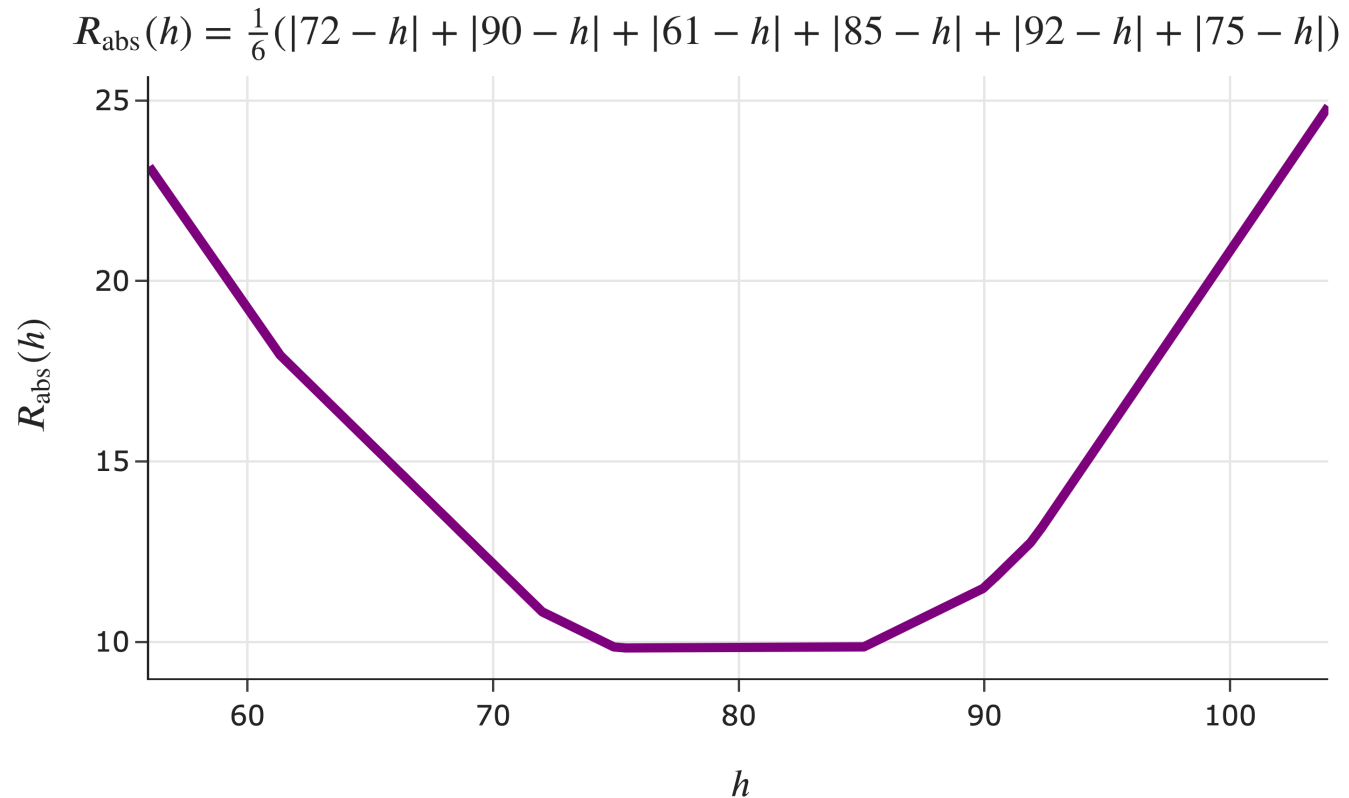


Consider, again, our example dataset of five commute times.

72, 90, 61, 85, 92

Where are the "bends" in the graph of $R_{\text{abs}}(h)$ – that is, where does its slope change?

Visualizing mean absolute error, with an even number of points



What if we add a sixth data point?

72, 90, 61, 85, 92, 75

Is there a unique h^* ?

The median minimizes mean absolute error!

- The new problem we set out to solve was, find the h^* that minimizes:

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

- The answer is:

$$h^* = \text{Median}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- The **best constant prediction**, in terms of mean absolute error, is always the **median**.
 - When n is odd, this answer is unique.
 - When n is even, any number between the middle two data points (when sorted) also minimizes mean absolute error.
 - When n is even, define the median to be the mean of the middle two data points.

The modeling recipe, again

We've now made two full passes through our "modeling recipe."

1. Choose a model.
2. Choose a loss function.
3. Minimize average loss to find optimal model parameters.

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, $L_{\text{sq}}(y_i, h) = (y_i - h)^2$, the corresponding empirical risk is mean squared error:

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

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

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

Empirical risk minimization, in general

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

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

Question 🤔

Answer at q.dsc40a.com

What questions do you have?

Summary, next time

- $h^* = \text{Mean}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ minimizes mean squared error,
$$R_{\text{sq}}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^2.$$
- $h^* = \text{Median}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ minimizes mean absolute error,
$$R_{\text{abs}}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - h|.$$
- $R_{\text{sq}}(h)$ and $R_{\text{abs}}(h)$ are examples of **empirical risk** – that is, average loss.
- **Next time:** What's the relationship between the mean and median? What is the significance of $R_{\text{sq}}(h^*)$ and $R_{\text{abs}}(h^*)$?

A practice exam problem

An exam problem? Already?

- Homework 1 is going to be released tomorrow.
- In it, you'll be asked to *show* or *prove* that various facts hold true – but you may have never done this before!
- To help you practice, we'll walk through an old exam problem together.
- We'll be releasing another problem walkthrough video sometime over the weekend, that also shows you how to use the Overleaf template and type up your solutions.

Define the extreme mean (EM) of a dataset to be the average of its largest and smallest values. Let $f(x) = -3x + 4$.

Show that for any dataset $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n$,

$$\text{EM}(f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)) = f(\text{EM}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))$$

