#### Lecture 4

# **Comparing Loss Functions**

DSC 40A, Fall 2025

#### Announcements

- Homework 1 is due on Friday, October 10th.
- 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.
  - 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."

1. Choose a model.

$$H(x) = h$$

2. Choose a loss function.

$$L_{ ext{sq}}(y_i,h)=(y_i-h)^2 \qquad \qquad L_{ ext{abs}}(y_i,h)=|y_i-h|^2$$

3. Minimize average loss to find optimal model parameters.

$$h* = \operatorname{mean}(y_1, \dots, y_n)$$
  $h* = \operatorname{median}(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ 

#### **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:

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

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

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

#### Empirical risk minimization, in general

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

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

## Question 🤔

#### Answer at q.dsc40a.com

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

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

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

$$(R_{\mathrm{abs}}(h))^2 = R_{\mathrm{sq}}(h)$$

- A. It's true for any h and any dataset.
- ullet 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.

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

$$y_3 = 61$$

$$y_4 = 85$$

$$y_5 = 92$$

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

$$y_1 = 72$$

$$y_2 = 90$$

$$y_3 = 61$$

$$y_4 = 85$$

$$y_1 = 72$$
  $y_2 = 90$   $y_3 = 61$   $y_4 = 85$   $y_5 = 292$ 

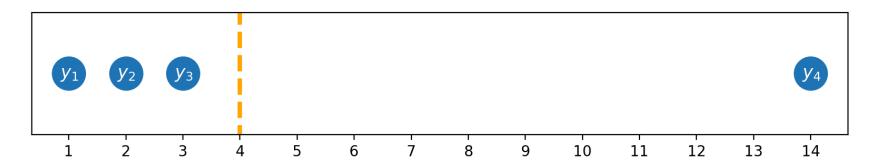
Now, the median is

but the mean is

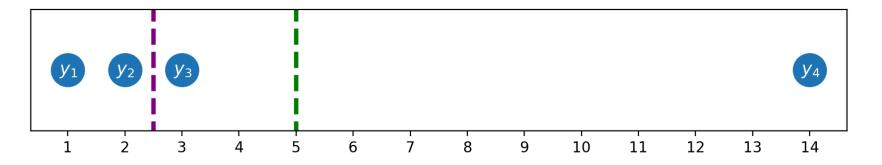
• **Key idea**: The mean is quite **sensitive** to outliers.

#### **Outliers**

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

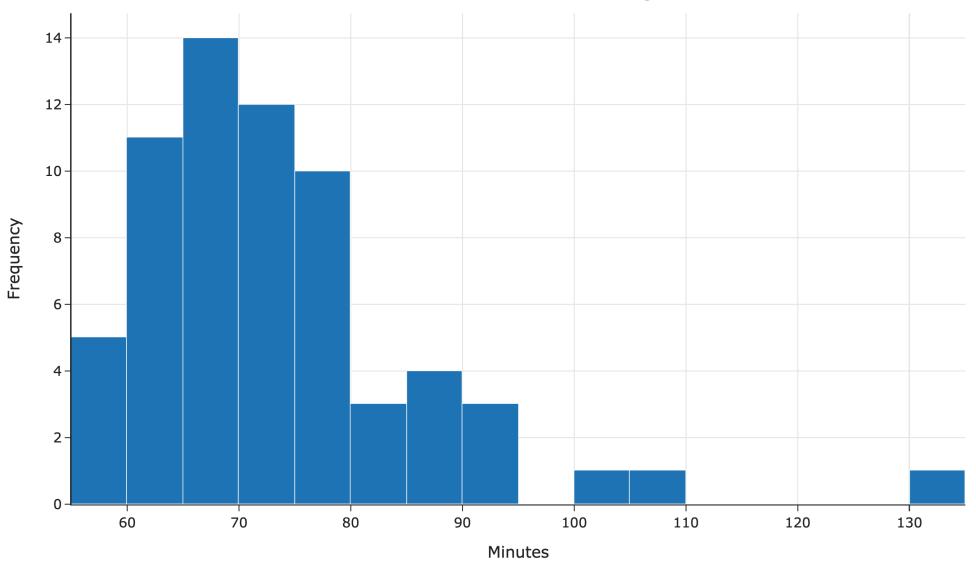


The result is that the mean is "pulled" in the direction of outliers, relative to the median.

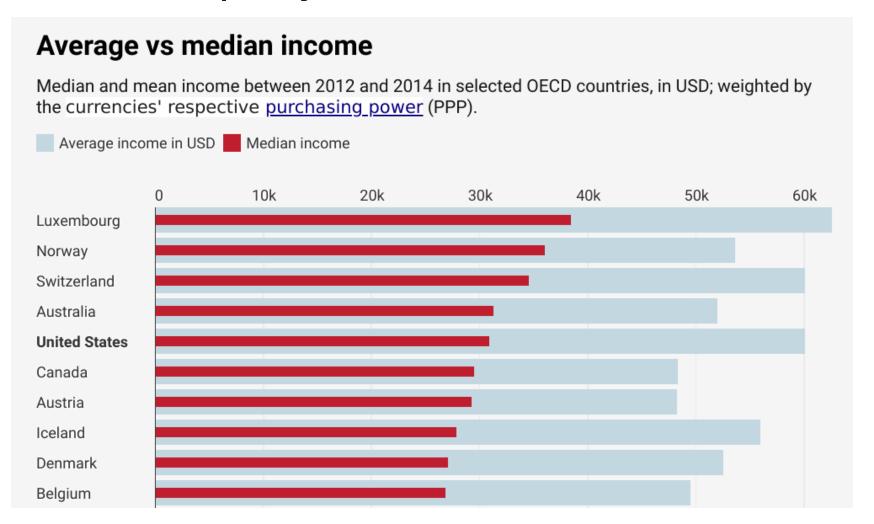


As a result, we say the **median** is **robust** to outliers. But the **mean** was easier to solve for.

## Distribution of Commuting Time

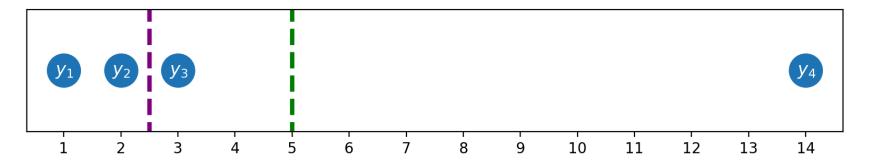


#### **Example: Income inequality**



#### **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  $\# (y_i < h) = \# (y_i > h)$ .

## Why stop at squared loss?

Empirical Risk, $R(h)$	Derivative of Empirical Risk, $\frac{d}{dh}R(h)$	Minimizer
$rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i-h $	$rac{1}{n}ig(\sum_{y_i < h} 1 - \sum_{y_i > h} 1ig)$	median
$rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i-h)^2$	$rac{-2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i-h)$	mean
$rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n  y_i-h ^3$		???
$rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i-h)^4$		???
$rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^{100}$		???
•••	•••	•••

## Generalized $L_p$ loss

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

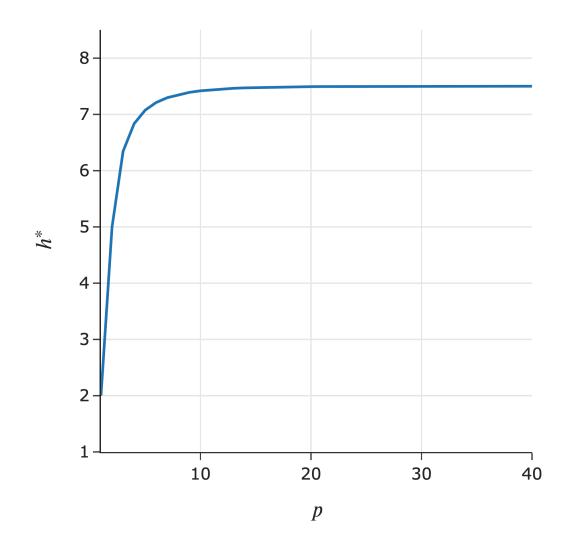
$$L_p(y_i,h) = |y_i-h|^p$$

The corresponding empirical risk is:

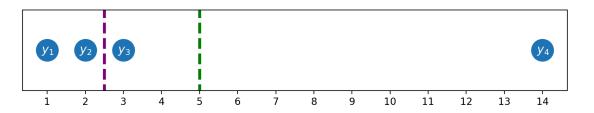
$$R_p(h) = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - h|^p$$

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

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



Consider the dataset 1, 2, 3, 14:



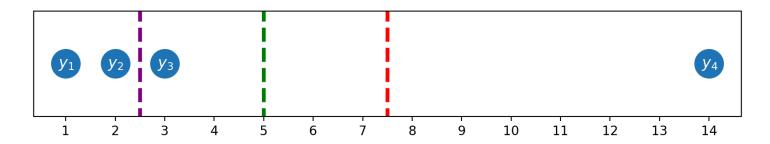
On the left:

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

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

### 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:

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

## Question 🤔

#### Answer at q.dsc40a.com

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

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.  $\frac{n-1}{n}$ .
- D. 1.

#### 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

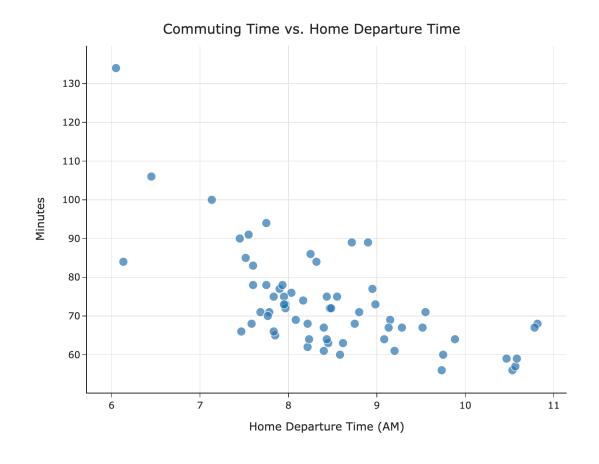
Key idea: Different loss functions lead to different best predictions,  $h^*!$ 

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

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,  $H(x)=w_0+w_1x.$
- 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.