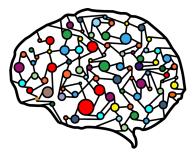
#### Lecture 4 – Spread, Other Loss Functions, Gradient Descent



#### DSC 40A, Fall 2022 @ UC San Diego Dr. Truong Son Hy, with help from many others

#### Announcements

- Look at the readings linked on the course website!
- First Discussion: Monday, October 3rd 2022
   First Homework Release: Friday September 30th 2022
   First Groupwork Release: Thursday September 29th 2022
   Groupwork Relsease Day: Thursday afternoon
   Groupwork Submission Day: Monday midnight
   Homework Release Day: Friday after lecture
   Homework Submission Day: Friday before
  - See dsc40a.com/calendar for the Office Hours schedule.

## Agenda

- Recap of empirical risk minimization.
- Center and spread.
- ► A new loss function.
- Gradient descent.

# **Recap of empirical risk minimization**

# **Empirical risk minimization**

- ► Goal: Given a dataset y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>, ..., y<sub>n</sub>, determine the best prediction h\*.
- Strategy:
  - Choose a loss function, L(h, y), that measures how far any particular prediction h is from the "right answer" y.
  - 2. Minimize **empirical risk** (also known as average loss) over the entire dataset. The value(s) of *h* that minimize empirical risk are the resulting "best predictions".

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

## Absolute loss and squared loss

General form of empirical risk:

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

- Absolute loss:  $L_{abs}(h, y) = |y h|$ .
  - Empirical risk:  $R_{abs}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i h|$ . Also called "mean absolute error".

• Minimized by  $h^* = \text{Median}(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$ .

- Squared loss:  $L_{sq}(h, y) = (y h)^2$ .
  - Empirical risk:  $R_{sq}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i h)^2$ . Also called "mean squared error".
  - Minimized by  $h^* = \text{Mean}(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$ .

Consider a dataset y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>, ..., y<sub>n</sub>. Recall,

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

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

Is it true that, for any *h*,  $[R_{abs}(h)]^2 = R_{sq}(h)$ ? a) True b) False

Consider a dataset y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>, ..., y<sub>n</sub>. Recall,

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

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

Is it true that, for any *h*,  $[R_{abs}(h)]^2 = R_{sq}(h)$ ? a) True b) False

Answer: False. But why?

## Absolute and square loss

Cauchy-Schwarz (Bunyakovsky)'s inequality:

$$(a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \ldots + a_nb_n)^2 \leq (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \ldots + a_n^2)(b_1^2 + b_2^2 + \ldots + b_n^2)$$

or in summation form:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i\right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2\right)$$

or in vector with inner product & norm form:

$$\langle \underline{a}, \underline{b} \rangle \leq ||\underline{a}|| \cdot ||\underline{b}||$$
  
where  $\underline{a} = (a_1, ..., a_n)^T$  and  $\underline{b} = (b_1, ..., b_n)^T$ .

## Absolute and square loss

Keep in mind that:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i\right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2\right)$$

We have:

$$[R_{abs}(h)]^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} |y_i - h|\right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2}\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - h)^2\right)$$

The right hand side is:

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

Therefore:

 $[R_{abs}(h)]^2 \le R_{sq}(h)$ 

# **Center and spread**

# What does it mean?

General form of empirical risk:

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

- The input h\* that minimizes R(h) is some measure of the center of the data set.
  - e.g. median, mean, mode.
- The minimum output R(h\*) represents some measure of the spread, or variation, in the data set.

## **Absolute loss**

The empirical risk for the absolute loss is

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

 $\triangleright$   $R_{abs}(h)$  is minimized at  $h^* = Median(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$ .

Therefore, the minimum value of R<sub>abs</sub>(h) is

$$\begin{aligned} R_{abs}(h^*) &= R_{abs}(\text{Median}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \text{Median}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)|. \end{aligned}$$

# Mean absolute deviation from the median

The minimium value of R<sub>abs</sub>(h) is the mean absolute deviation from the median.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - Median(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)|$$

It measures how far each data point is from the median, on average.

#### **Discussion Question**

For the data set 2,3,3,4, what is the mean absolute deviation from the median?

a) 0 b) 
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 c) 1 d) 2

# Mean absolute deviation from the median

The minimium value of R<sub>abs</sub>(h) is the mean absolute deviation from the median.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - Median(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)|$$

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# Discussion QuestionFor the data set 2,3,3,4, what is the mean absolute<br/>deviation from the median?a) 0b) $\frac{1}{2}$ c) 1d) 2

Answer: B.

## **Squared loss**

The empirical risk for the squared loss is

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

$$\triangleright R_{sq}(h) \text{ is minimized at } h^* = Mean(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n).$$

• Therefore, the minimum value of  $R_{sq}(h)$  is

$$R_{sq}(h^*) = R_{sq}(Mean(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n))$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - Mean(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n))^2.$ 

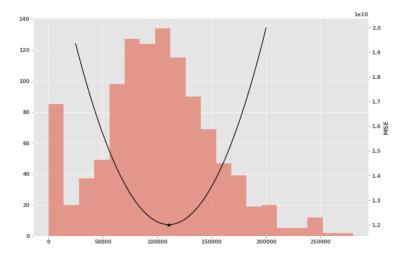
# Variance

The minimium value of R<sub>sq</sub>(h) is the mean squared deviation from the mean, more commonly known as the variance.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \text{Mean}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n))^2$$

- It measures the squared distance of each data point from the mean, on average.
- Its square root is called the standard deviation.

# Variance



## 0-1 loss

The empirical risk for the 0-1 loss is

$$R_{0,1}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } h = y_i \\ 1, & \text{if } h \neq y_i \end{cases}$$

- This is the proportion (between 0 and 1) of data points not equal to h.
- $\triangleright$   $R_{0,1}(h)$  is minimized at  $h^* = \text{Mode}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ .
- ► Therefore,  $R_{0,1}(h^*)$  is the proportion of data points not equal to the mode.

## A poor way to measure spread

- The minimium value of  $R_{0,1}(h)$  is the proportion of data points not equal to the mode.
- A higher value means less of the data is clustered at the mode.
- Just as the mode is a very simplistic way to measure the center of the data, this is a very crude way to measure spread.

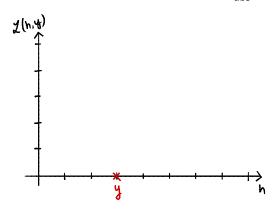
## Summary of center and spread

- Different loss functions lead to empirical risk functions that are minimized at various measures of center.
- The minimum values of these risk runctions are various measures of spread.
- There are many different ways to measure both center and spread. These are sometimes called descriptive statistics.

A new loss function

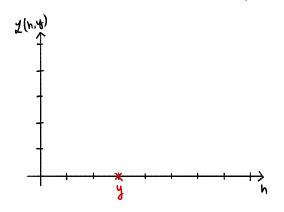
# **Plotting a loss function**

- The plot of a loss function tells us how it treats outliers.
- Consider y to be some fixed value. Plot  $L_{abs}(h, y) = |y h|$ :



# **Plotting a loss function**

- The plot of a loss function tells us how it treats outliers.
- Consider y to be some fixed value. Plot  $L_{sq}(h, y) = (y h)^2$ :



Suppose *L* considers all outliers to be equally as bad. What would it look like far away from *y*?

a) flat

- b) rapidly decreasing
- c) rapidly increasing

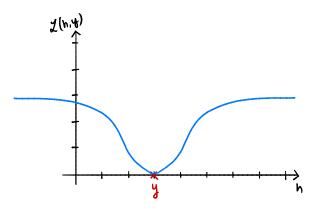
Suppose *L* considers all outliers to be equally as bad. What would it look like far away from *y*?

a) flat

- b) rapidly decreasing
- c) rapidly increasing

Answer: C.

## A very insensitive loss



▶ We'll call this loss  $L_{ucsd}$  because it doesn't have a name. We want:

$$\lim_{h \to +\infty} L(h, y) = \text{constant} < +\infty$$
$$\lim_{h \to -\infty} L(h, y) = \text{constant} < +\infty$$

Which of these could be  $L_{ucsd}(h, y)$ ?

a) 
$$e^{-(y-h)^2}$$
  
b)  $1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}$   
c)  $1 - (y - h)^2$   
d)  $1 - e^{-|y-h|}$ 

Which of these could be  $L_{ucsd}(h, y)$ ?

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Why to reject A?

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d)  $1 - e^{-|y-h|}$ 

Why to reject A?

$$\lim_{h\to+\infty}e^{-(y-h)^2}=0$$

*h* >> *y* is clearly wrong but the loss says it is good.

Which of these could be  $L_{ucsd}(h, y)$ ?

a) 
$$e^{-(y-h)^2}$$
  
b)  $1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}$   
c)  $1 - (y - h)^2$   
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Why to reject C?

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b)  $1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}$   
c)  $1 - (y - h)^2$   
d)  $1 - e^{-|y-h|}$ 

Why to reject C?

$$\lim_{h \to +\infty} [1 - (y - h)^2] = -\infty$$

The loss should never be negative.

Which of these could be  $L_{ucsd}(h, y)$ ?

a) 
$$e^{-(y-h)^2}$$
  
b)  $1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}$   
c)  $1 - (y - h)^2$   
d)  $1 - e^{-|y-h|}$ 

D is quite okay:

$$\lim_{h \to +\infty} [1 - e^{-|y-h|}] = 1$$
$$\lim_{h \to -\infty} [1 - e^{-|y-h|}] = 1$$

But |y - h| is not differentiable.

Which of these could be  $L_{ucsd}(h, y)$ ?

a) 
$$e^{-(y-h)^2}$$
  
b)  $1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}$   
c)  $1 - (y - h)^2$   
d)  $1 - e^{-|y-h|}$ 

Answer: B.

$$\lim_{h \to +\infty} [1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}] = 1$$
$$\lim_{h \to -\infty} [1 - e^{-(y-h)^2}] = 1$$
$$L_{ucsd}(y, y) = 0$$

# Adding a scale parameter

- Problem: L<sub>ucsd</sub> has a fixed scale. This won't work for all datasets.
  - If we're predicting temperature, and we're off by 100 degrees, that's bad.
  - If we're predicting salaries, and we're off by 100 dollars, that's pretty good.
  - What we consider to be an outlier depends on the scale of the data.
- Fix: add a scale parameter,  $\sigma$ :

$$L_{ucsd}(h, y) = 1 - e^{-(y-h)^2/\sigma^2}$$

## Adding a scale parameter

$$L_{ucsd}(h, y) = 1 - e^{-(y-h)^2/\sigma^2}$$
$$\lim_{h \to +\infty} L_{ucsd}(h, y) = 1$$
$$\lim_{h \to -\infty} L_{ucsd}(h, y) = 1$$
$$L_{ucsd}(y, y) = 0$$

Let's check:

### **Empirical risk minimization**

• We have salaries  $y_1, y_2, ..., y_n$ .

▶ To find prediction, ERM says to minimize the average loss:

$$R_{ucsd}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{ucsd}(h, y_i)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right]$$

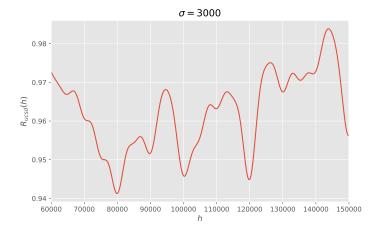
# Let's plot R<sub>ucsd</sub>

Recall:

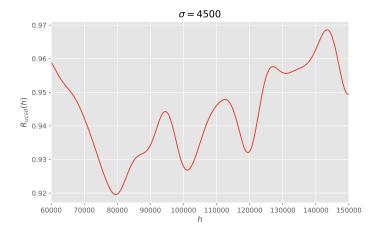
$$R_{ucsd}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right]$$

- Once we have data  $y_1, y_2, ..., y_n$  and a scale  $\sigma$ , we can plot  $R_{ucsd}(h)$ .
- ▶ We'll use full the StackOverflow dataset (*n* = 1121).
- Let's try several scales,  $\sigma$ .

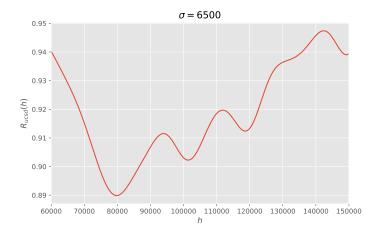
Plot of  $R_{ucsd}(h)$ 



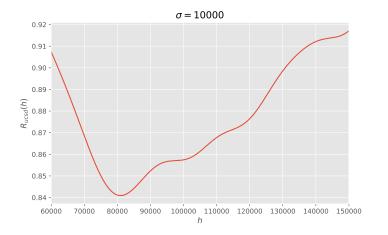
Plot of  $R_{ucsd}(h)$ 

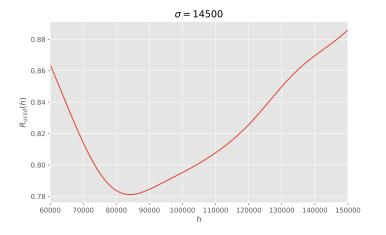


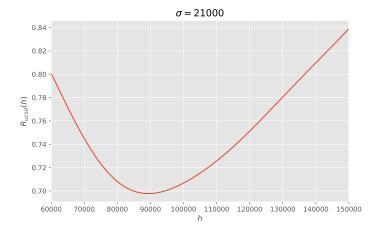
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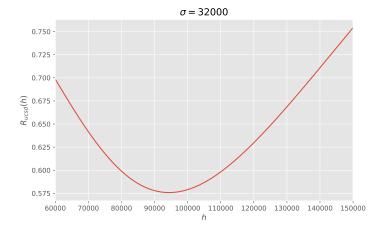


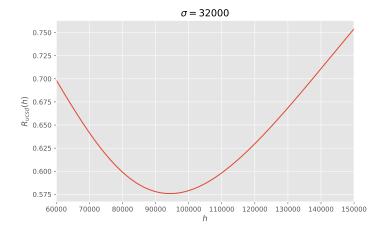
Plot of  $R_{ucsd}(h)$ 











Why when  $\sigma$  large, we see this parabol shape again like for  $R_{sq}(h)$ ?

# Minimizing R<sub>ucsd</sub>

- ► To find the best prediction, we find  $h^*$  minimizing  $R_{ucsd}(h)$ .
- $R_{ucsd}(h)$  is differentiable.
- ► To minimize: take derivative, set to zero, solve.

$$\frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{d}{dh} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right] \right)$$

$$\frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{d}{dh} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right] \right)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{d}{dh} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right] =$$

$$\frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{d}{dh} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right] \right)$$
  
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$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \frac{d}{dh} \left[ -(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2 \right]$$

$$\frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{d}{dh} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right] \right)$$

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$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{1}{n\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \frac{d}{dh} \left[ (y_i - h)^2 \right]$$

$$\frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{d}{dh} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right] \right)$$

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$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{dR_{ucsd}}{dh} = \frac{1}{n\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i) \cdot e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2}$$

#### Step 2: Setting to zero and solving

We found:

$$\frac{d}{dh}(h) = \frac{2}{n\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i) \cdot e^{-(h - y_i)^2 / \sigma^2}$$

Now we just set to zero and solve for *h*:

$$0 = \frac{2}{n\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i) \cdot e^{-(h - y_i)^2 / \sigma^2}$$

- We can calculate derivative, but we can't solve for h; we're stuck again.
- Now what???

#### Step 2: Setting to zero and solving

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- We can calculate derivative, but we can't solve for h; we're stuck again.
- Now what??? Iterative algorithm: Gradient Descent

**Gradient descent** 

#### The general problem

**Given:** a differentiable function *R*(*h*).

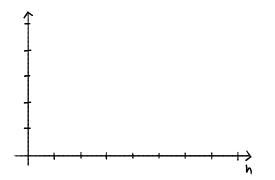
**Goal:** find the input *h*<sup>\*</sup> that minimizes *R*(*h*).

### Meaning of the derivative

- We're trying to minimize a differentiable function R(h). Is calculating the derivative helpful?
- $\frac{dR}{dh}(h)$  is a function; it gives the slope at h.

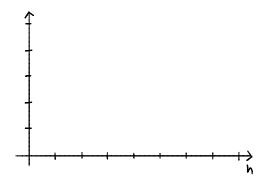
#### Key idea behind gradient descent

- If the slope of R at h is **positive** then moving to the **left** decreases the value of R.
- ▶ i.e., we should **decrease** *h*.



#### Key idea behind gradient descent

- If the slope of R at h is negative then moving to the right decreases the value of R.
- ▶ i.e., we should **increase** *h*.



#### Key idea behind gradient descent

- > Pick a starting place,  $h_0$ . Where do we go next?
- Slope at  $h_0$  negative? Then increase  $h_0$ .
- Slope at  $h_0$  positive? Then decrease  $h_0$ .
- This will work:

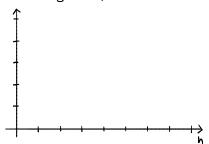
$$h_1 = h_0 - \frac{dR}{dh}(h_0)$$

#### **Gradient Descent**

- Pick α to be a positive number. It is the learning rate, also known as the step size.
- Pick a starting prediction,  $h_0$ .

• On step *i*, perform update 
$$h_i = h_{i-1} - \alpha \cdot \frac{dR}{dh}(h_{i-1})$$

Repeat until convergence (when h doesn't change much).



You will not be responsible for implementing gradient descent in this class, but here's an implementation in Python if you're curious:

```
def gradient_descent(derivative, h, alpha, tol=1e-12):
    """Minimize using gradient descent."""
    while True:
        h_next = h - alpha * derivative(h)
        if abs(h_next - h) < tol:
            break
        h = h_next
        return h</pre>
```

#### Example: Minimizing mean squared error

Recall the mean squared error and its derivative:

$$R_{\rm sq}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i)^2 \qquad \frac{dR_{\rm sq}}{dh}(h) = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i)$$

#### **Discussion Question**

Let 
$$y_1 = -4$$
,  $y_2 = -2$ ,  $y_3 = 2$ ,  $y_4 = 4$ . Pick  $h_0 = 4$   
and  $\alpha = 1/4$ . What is  $h_1$ ?  
a) -1  
b) 0  
c) 1

#### Solution

$$R_{\rm sq}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i)^2 \qquad \frac{dR_{\rm sq}}{dh}(h) = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h - y_i)$$

Data values are -4, -2, 2, 4. Pick  $h_0 = 4$  and  $\alpha = 1/4$ . Find  $h_1$ .

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Updating step:

$$h_1 = h_0 - \alpha \frac{dR_{sq}}{dh}(h_0) = 4 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot 8 = 2$$

It looks correct, because we move closer to the mean (that is 0).

#### Summary

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- Different loss functions lead to empirical risk functions that are minimized at various measures of center.
- The minimum values of these empirical risk functions are various measures of spread.
- We came up with a more complicated loss function, L<sub>ucsd</sub>, that treats all outliers equally.
  - We weren't able to minimize its empirical risk R<sub>ucsd</sub> by hand.
- We invented gradient descent, which repeatedly updates our prediction by moving in the opposite direction of the derivative.
- Next Time: We'll look at gradient descent in action.