Introduction to Machine Learning Lecture 2

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Outline

- Lecture 1
 - Brief introduction to probability and statistics
 - Introduction to Machine Learning fundamentals
 - Linear Models
- Lecture 2
 - Neural Networks
 - Deep Neural Networks
 - Convolutional, Recurrent, and Graph Neural Networks
- Lecture 3
 - Unsupervised Learning
 - Autoencoders
 - Generative Adversarial Networks and Normalizing Flows

Adding non-linearity to Logistic Regression

• What if we want a non-linear decision boundary?

– Choose basis functions, e.g: $\phi(x) \sim \{x^2, \sin(x), \log(x), \ldots\}$

$$p(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})}}$$



Adding non-linearity

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- What if we don't know what basis functions we want?
- Learn the basis functions directly from data

 $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{u}) \qquad \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{m}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{d}}$

– Where \mathbf{u} is a set of parameters for the transformation

Adding non-linearity

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 $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{u}) \qquad \mathbb{R}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d}$

- Where \mathbf{u} is a set of parameters for the transformation
- Combines basis selection and learning
- Several different approaches, focus here on neural networks
- Complicates the optimization

Neural Networks

• Define the basis functions $j = \{1...d\}$

$$\phi_j(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{u}) = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_j^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x})$$

Neural Networks

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$$\phi_j(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{u}) = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_j^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x})$$

• Put all $\mathbf{u}_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times m}$ vectors into matrix \mathbf{U} $\phi(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{U}) = \sigma(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{1}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}) \\ \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{d}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$

 $-\sigma$ is a point-wise non-linearity acting on each vector element

Neural Networks

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• Full model becomes $h(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{U}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{U})$

Feed Forward Neural Network





Multi-layer Neural Network



- Multilayer NN
 - Each layer adapts basis functions based on previous layer

Neural Network Optimization Problem

- Neural Network Model: $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \sigma(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x})$
- Classification: Cross-entropy loss function

$$p_i = p(y_i = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i) = \sigma(h(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{U}) = -\sum_{i} y_{i} \ln(p_{i}) + (1 - y_{i}) \ln(1 - p_{i})$$

• **Regression**: Square error loss function

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{U}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} (y_i - h(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$$

• Minimize loss with respect to weights w, U

Minimizing loss with gradient descent:

• Parameter update:

$$w \leftarrow w - \eta \frac{\partial L(w, U)}{\partial w}$$
$$U \leftarrow U - \eta \frac{\partial L(w, U)}{\partial U}$$

- How to compute gradients?
 - In principle, we could compute them analytically, but the resulting expressions quickly get out of hand, are hard to simplify, and can drain memory

Automatic Differentiation

 $w_{1} = x_{1} = 2$ $w_{2} = x_{2} = 3$ $w_{3} = w_{1}w_{2} = 6$ $w_{4} = \sin(w_{1}) = 0.9$ $w_{5} = w_{3} + w_{4} = 6.9$ $z = w_{5}$ Organize function as computational graph of elementary operations

Evaluate blocks and their derivatives, and apply chain rule:

$$\frac{dz}{dw_1} = \sum_{p \in parents} \frac{dz}{dw_p} \frac{dw_p}{dw_i}$$

$$\frac{dw_1}{dx_1} = 1$$
$$\frac{dw_2}{dx_2} = 1$$
$$\frac{dw_3}{dw_1} = w_2 \quad \frac{dw_3}{dw_2} = w_1$$
$$\frac{dw_4}{dw_1} = \cos(w_1)$$
$$\frac{dw_5}{dw_3} = 1 \quad \frac{dw_5}{dw_4} = 1$$

 $z = \sin(x_1) + x_1 x_2$ Backward Mode Automatic Differentiation $w_1 = x_1$ $w_4 = \sin(w_1)$ $w_5 = w_3 + w_4$ $z = w_5$ $w_2 = x_2$ Way and way

Backpropagation

- Loss function composed of layers of nonlinearity $L(\phi^N(\dots\phi^1(x)))$
- Forward step (f-prop)
 - Compute and save intermediate computations

$$\phi^N\bigl(\dots\phi^1(x)\bigr)$$

• Backward step (b-prop)
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi^a} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \phi_j^{(a+1)}}{\partial \phi_j^a} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi_j^{(a+1)}}$$

• Compute parameter gradients



Training

- Repeat gradient update of weights to reduce loss
 Each iteration through dataset is called an epoch
- Use validation set to examine for overtraining, and determine when to stop training



[graphic from H. Larochelle]

- Major challenge in DL: Vanishing Gradients
- Small gradients slow down / block, stochastic gradient descent → Limits ability to learn!



Backpropagated gradients normalized histograms (Glorot and Bengio, 2010). Gradients for layers far from the output vanish to zero.

Activation Functions



Vanishing gradient problem

- Derivative of sigmoid:

$$\frac{\partial \sigma(x)}{\partial x} = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

- Nearly 0 when x is far from 0!
- Can make gradient descent hard!

- Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)
 - $\text{ReLU}(x) = \max\{0, x\}$
 - Derivative is constant!

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{Re} LU(x)}{\partial x} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } x > 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

ReLU gradient doesn't vanish

Neural Network Decision Boundaries



4-class classification2-hidden layer NNReLU activationsL2 norm regularization





X1

Image source

Universal approximation theorem

 Feed-forward neural network with a single hidden layer containing a finite number of non-linear neurons (ReLU, Sigmoid, and others) can approximate continuous functions arbitrarily well on a compact space of Rⁿ

$$f(x) = \sigma(w_1x + b_1) + \sigma(w_2x + b_2) + \sigma(w_3x + b_3) + \dots$$



Universal approximation theorem

- Feed-forward neural network with a single hidden layer containing a finite number of non-linear neurons (ReLU, Sigmoid, and others) can approximate continuous functions arbitrarily well on a compact space of Rⁿ
- NOTE!
 - A better approximation requires a larger hidden layer and this theorem says nothing about the relation between the two.
 - We can make training error as low as we want by using a larger hidden layer. Result states nothing about test error
 - Doesn't say how to find the parameters for this approximation

Deep Neural Networks



- As data complexity grows, need exponentially large number of neurons in a single-hidden-layer network to capture all structure in data
- Deep neural networks *factorize the learning* of structure in data across many layers
- Difficult to train, only recently possible with large datasets, fast computing (GPU / TPU) and new training procedures / network structures

Neural Network Zoo

- Structure of the networks, and the node connectivity can be adapted for problem at hand
- Moving inductive bias from feature engineering to model design
 - *Inductive bias*: Knowledge about the problem
 - *Feature engineering*: Hand crafted variables
 - Model design: The data representation and the structure of the machine learning model / network



Image credit: neural-network-zoo

Convolutional Neural Networks

• When the structure of data includes "invariance to translation", a representation meaningful at a certain location can / should be used everywhere



• Covolutional layers build on this idea, that the same "local" transformation is applied everywhere and preserves the signal structure

1D Convolutional Layer Example



1D Convolutional Layers

• Data:

- $x \in \mathbb{R}^{M}$
- Convolutional kernel of width k: $u \in \mathbb{R}^k$

• Convolution $x \circledast u$ is vector of size M-k+1

$$(x \circledast \mathbf{u})_i = \sum_{b=0}^{k-1} x_{i+b} u_b$$

• Scan across data and multiply by kernel elements

Convolution can implement in particular differential operators, e.g.

 $(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 4, 4, 4) \circledast (-1, 1) = (0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0).$



or crude "template matcher", e.g.



Fleuret, Deep Learning Course

2D Convolution Over Multiple Channels



2D Convolution Over Multiple Channels



Fleuret, Deep Learning Course

2D Convolution Over Multiple Channels



2D Convolutional Layer

- Input data (tensor) x of size C×H×W
 C channels (e.g. RGB in images)
- Learnable Kernel **u** of size $C \times h \times w$
 - The size $h \times w$ is the *receptive field*

$$(\mathbf{x} \circledast \mathbf{u})_{i,j} = \sum_{c=0}^{C-1} (\mathbf{x}_c \circledast \mathbf{u}_c)_{i,j} = \sum_{c=0}^{C-1} \sum_{n=0}^{h-1} \sum_{m=0}^{w-1} \mathbf{x}_{c,n+i,m+j} \mathbf{u}_{c,n,m}$$

Output size (H – h + 1)×(W – w + 1) for each kernel
 Often called *Activation Map* or *Output Feature Map*

Shared Weights: Economic and Equivariant

- Parameters are *shared* by each neuron producing an output in the activation map
- Dramatically reduces number of weights needed to produce an activation map
 - Data: 256×256×3 RGB image
 - Kernel: $3 \times 3 \times 3 \rightarrow 27$ weights
 - Fully connected layer:
 - $256 \times 256 \times 3$ inputs $\rightarrow 256 \times 256 \times 3$ outputs $\rightarrow O(10^{10})$ weights

Shared Weights: Economic and Equivariant

- Parameters are *shared* by each neuron producing an output in the activation map
- Dramatically reduces number of weights needed to produce an activation map
- Convolutional layer does pattern matching at any location → Equivariant to translation



Pooling

• In each channel, find *max* or *average* value of pixels in a pooling area of size *h*×*w*





Output

Pooling

- In each channel, find *max* or *average* value of pixels in a pooling area of size *h*×*w*
- Invariance to permutation within Input pooling area



• Invariance to local perturbations


Convolutional Network

• A combination of convolution, pooling, ReLU, and fully connected layers



Convolutional Networks



Hierarchical Composition of Features



Feature visualization of convolutional net trained on ImageNet from [Zeiler & Fergus 2013]







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ted Boson Type Tagging Jet ETmiss

niamin Machman and Ariel Schartzman



Sequential Data

- Many types of data are not fixed in size
- Many types of data have a temporal or sequence-like structure
 - Text
 - Video
 - Speech
 - DNA

— . . .

- MLP expects fixed size data
- How to deal with sequences?

Sequential Data

- Given a set \mathcal{X} , let $S(\mathcal{X})$ be the set of sequences, where each element of the sequence $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$
 - $-\mathcal{X}$ could reals \mathbb{R}^{M} , integers \mathbb{Z}^{M} , etc.
 - Sample sequence $x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T\}$
- Tasks related to sequences:
 - Classification $f: S(\mathcal{X}) \to \{ \boldsymbol{p} \mid \sum_{c=1}^{N} p_i = 1 \}$
 - Generation
 - Seq.-to-seq. translation $f: S(X) \to S(Y)$

 $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to S(\mathcal{X})$ $f: S(\mathcal{X}) \to S(\mathcal{I})$

- Input sequence $x \in S(\mathbb{R}^m)$ of *variable* length T(x)
- Standard approach: use recurrent model that maintains a **recurrent state** $h_t \in \mathbb{R}^q$ updated at each time step *t*. For t = 1, ..., T(x):

$$\boldsymbol{h}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{h}_t; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Simplest model:

 $\phi(\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{h}_t; W, U) = \sigma(W \boldsymbol{x}_t + U \boldsymbol{h}_t)$

• Predictions can be made at any time *t* from the recurrent state

$$\boldsymbol{y}_t = \psi(\boldsymbol{h}_t; \theta)$$

Credit: F. Fleuret

Recurrent Neural Networks



Credit: <u>F. Fleuret</u>





Credit: <u>F. Fleuret</u>





Credit: F. Fleuret

Prediction per sequence element



Although the number of steps T(x) depends on x, this is a standard computational graph and automatic differentiation can deal with it as usual. This is known as "backpropagation through time" (Werbos, <u>1988</u>)

Stacked RNN



Two Stacked LSTM Layers

Bi-Directional RNN

Forward in time RNN Layer



Backward in time RNN Layer

Gating

- Gating:
 - network can grow very deep,
 in time → vanishing gradients.



Critical component: add pass-through (additive paths) so recurrent state does not go repeatedly through squashing non-linearity.

Long Short Term Memory (LSTM)

- Gating:
 - network can grow very deep,
 in time → vanishing gradients.



- *Critical component*: add pass-through (additive paths) so recurrent state does not go repeatedly through squashing non-linearity.
- LSTM:
 - Add internal state separate from output state
 - Add input, output, and forget gating



Comparison on Toy Problem

Learn to recognize palindrome Sequence size between 1 to 10

x	y
$\left(1,2,3,2,1 ight)$	1
(2,1,2)	1
(3,4,1,2)	0
(0)	1
(1,4)	C



Examples

Neural machine translation





Y. Wu et al, <u>2016</u>

RNNs for b-tagging



Graph Data



• Sequential data has single (directed) connections from data at current time to data at next time

• What about data with more complex dependencies







- Adjacency matrix: $A_{ij} = \delta(edge \ between \ vertex \ i \ and \ j)$
- Each node can have features
- Each edge can have features, e.g. distance between nodes



Image Credit: I. Henrion



Image Credit: <u>I. Henrion</u>





Image Credit: I. Henrion

Examples

Learning to simulate physics with graph networks



Figure 2. (a) Our GNS predicts future states represented as particles using its learned dynamics model, d_{θ} , and a fixed update procedure. (b) The d_{θ} uses an "encode-process-decode" scheme, which computes dynamics information, Y, from input state, X. (c) The ENCODER constructs latent graph, G^0 , from the input state, X. (d) The PROCESSOR performs M rounds of learned message-passing over the latent graphs, G^0, \ldots, G^M . (e) The DECODER extracts dynamics information, Y, from the final latent graph, G^M .

GNN for Jet Tagging



Comparing Methods for Jet Tagging



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SciPost Phys. 7, 014 (2019)

Summary

- Neural Networks allow us to combine non-linear basis selection with feature learning
 - Care needed to train them and ensure they don't overfit
- Deep neural networks allow us to learn complex function by hierarchically structuring the feature learning
- We can use our inductive bias (knowledge) to define models that are well adapted to our problem
- Many neural networks structures are available for training models on a wide array of data types.



Chain Rule – Symbolic Differentiation Painful!

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{U}) = -\sum_{i} y_{i} \ln(\sigma(h(\mathbf{x}_{i}))) + (1 - y_{i}) \ln(1 - \sigma(h(\mathbf{x}_{i})))$$

- Derivative of sigmoid: $\frac{\partial \sigma(x)}{\partial x} = \sigma(x)(1 \sigma(x))$
- Chain rule to compute gradient w.r.t. w

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i} y_i (1 - \sigma(h(\mathbf{x}_i))) \sigma(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}) + (1 - y_i) \sigma(h(\mathbf{x})) \sigma(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}_i)$$

• Chain rule to compute gradient w.r.t. **u**_i

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{u}_j} &= \frac{\partial L}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial \sigma} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \mathbf{u}_j} = \\ &= \sum_i y_i (1 - \sigma(h(\mathbf{x}_i))) w_j \sigma(\mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{x}_i) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{x}_i)) \mathbf{x}_i \\ &+ (1 - y_i) \sigma(h(\mathbf{x}_i)) w_j \sigma(\mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{x}_i) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{x}_i)) \mathbf{x}_i \end{aligned}$$

Automatic Differentiation

Problem: Compute gradients of z with respect to inputs $\{x_1, x_2\}$

$$z = \sin(x_1) + x_1 x_2$$

Automatic Differentiation



Problem: Compute gradients of z with respect to inputs $\{x_1, x_2\}$

$$z = \sin(x_1) + x_1 x_2$$

Organize as a computational Graph


Automatic Differentiation

$$w_1 = x_1$$

$$w_2 = x_2$$

$$w_3 = w_1 w_2$$

$$w_4 = \sin(w_1)$$

$$w_5 = w_3 + w_4$$

$$z = w_5$$

Problem: Compute gradients of z with respect to inputs $\{x_1, x_2\}$

We know the gradients of simple functions: sin(x), x * y, x + y...

$$\frac{dw_1}{dx_1} = 1$$

$$\frac{dw_2}{dx_2} = 1$$

$$\frac{dw_3}{dw_1} = w_2 \quad \frac{dw_3}{dw_2} = w_1$$

$$\frac{dw_4}{dw_1} = \cos(w_1)$$

$$\frac{dw_5}{dw_3} = 1 \quad \frac{dw_5}{dw_4} = 1$$





Automatic Differentiation



Problem: Compute gradients of z with respect to inputs $\{x_1, x_2\}$

NOT going to find analytic derivative

WILL find a way to compute value of gradient for a given input point



Forward Mode Automatic Differentiation

$$w_{1} = x_{1} = 2$$

$$w_{2} = x_{2} = 3$$

$$w_{3} = w_{1}w_{2} = 6$$

$$w_{4} = \sin(w_{1}) = 0.9$$

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$$z = w_{5}$$

For each input, from input to output sequentially, evaluate graph and gradients and store values



Forward Mode Automatic Differentiation

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Apply chain rule with multiplication $\frac{dz}{dx_2} = \frac{dw_2}{dx_2} \frac{dw_3}{dw_2} \frac{dw_5}{dw_3} \frac{dz}{dw_5} = 1 * 2 * 1 * 1 = 2$



Forward Mode Automatic Differentiation

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Forward Mode allows us to compute the gradient of one input with respect to all the output

dz.

Jacobian
$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dz_1}{dx_1} & \dots & \frac{dz_M}{dx_1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{dz_1}{dx_N} & \dots & \frac{dz_M}{dx_N} \end{pmatrix}$$

If we have 1 output (Loss) and many inputs \rightarrow SLOW!



d7.0

$$w_{1} = x_{1} = 2$$

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Evaluate graph and store values



 $\frac{dz}{dw_5} = 1$

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Compute derivatives with chain rule from end to beginning:



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$$w_{1} = x_{1}$$

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$$w_{2} = x_{2}$$

$$= 3$$

$$w_{3} = w_{1}w_{2}$$

$$= 6$$

$$w_{3} = w_{1}w_{2}$$

$$= 6$$

2

 $w_1 = x_1 = 2$ Compute derivatives with chain rule $w_2 = x_2 = 3$ $w_3 = w_1 w_2 = 6$ from end to beginning: $w_4 = \sin(w_1) = 0.9$ $w_5 = w_3 + w_4 = 6.9$ $\frac{dz}{dw_2} = \frac{dz}{dw_3}\frac{dw_3}{dw_2} = 1 \times w_1 = w_1 = 2$ $\frac{dz}{dz} = 1$ $z = w_5$ dw_5 $\frac{dz}{dw_3} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_3} = 1 \times 1 = 1$ $\frac{dw_3}{dz} = \frac{dw_5}{dz}\frac{dw_3}{dw_5} = 1 \times 1 = 1 \quad \frac{dz}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_4}\frac{dw_4}{dw_1} + \frac{dz}{dw_3}\frac{dw_3}{dw_1} = 1 \times 1 = 1 \quad \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_4}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_4}{dw_1} + \frac{dz}{dw_3}\frac{dw_3}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} + \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} + \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} + \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} = \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_1} + \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5} + \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{dw_5} + \frac{dz}{dw_5}\frac{dw_5}{$ $= \cos(w_1) + w_2 = \cos(2) + 3$ = 2.58 $= \cos w_1 = -0.42$ $w_4 = \sin(w_1)$ $w_1 = x_1$ = 2= 0.9 $w_5 = w_3 + w_4$ $z = w_5$ = 6.9 = 6.9 = 1 $w_3 = w_1 w_2$ $w_2 = x_2$ = 6= 3 $= w_1 = 2$

 $w_{1} = x_{1} = 2$ $w_{2} = x_{2} = 3$ $w_{3} = w_{1}w_{2} = 6$ $w_{4} = \sin(w_{1}) = 0.9$ $w_{5} = w_{3} + w_{4} = 6.9$ $z = w_{5}$

For each output, can compute the gradient w.r.t. all inputs in one pass!

 dz_1

 dx_1

 dz_1

 $dz_{\underline{M}}$

 dx_1

 \therefore : $\frac{dz_M}{dz_M}$



Jacobian $\frac{dz}{dx}$ =

- A single layer network may need a width exponential in D to approximate a depth-D network's output
 - Simplified version of Telgarsky (<u>2015</u>, <u>2016</u>)

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Figure 1: Curves for training risk (dashed line) and test risk (solid line). (a) The classical *U-shaped risk curve* arising from the bias-variance trade-off. (b) The *double descent risk curve*, which incorporates the U-shaped risk curve (i.e., the "classical" regime) together with the observed behavior from using high complexity function classes (i.e., the "modern" interpolating regime), separated by the interpolation threshold. The predictors to the right of the interpolation threshold have zero training risk.

- A single layer network may need a width exponential in D to approximate a depth-D network's output
 - Simplified version of Telgarsky (<u>2015</u>, <u>2016</u>)
- Over-parametrizing a deep model often improves test performance, contrary to bias-variance tradeoff prediction
 - But we must control that:
 - Gradients don't vanish
 - Gradient amplitude is homogeneous across network
 - Gradients are under control when weights change

- A single layer network may need a width exponential in D to approximate a depth-D network's output

 Simplified version of Telgarsky (<u>2015</u>, <u>2016</u>)
- Over-parametrizing a deep model often improves test performance, contrary to bias-variance tradeoff prediction
- Major part of deep learning is **trying to choose the right function...**
 - ... instead of trying to improve training with regularization and new optimizers
 - Need to make gradient descent work, even at the cost of a substantially engineering the model

CNN Details

Stride – Step Size When Moving Kernel Across Input



Padding – Size of Zero Frame Around Input



Fleuret, <u>Deep Learning Course</u>

RNN

Examples



Examples

Text-to-speech synthesis



GNN

Algorithm 1 Message passing neural networkRequire: $N \times D$ nodes x, adjacency matrix A $h \leftarrow \text{Embed}(x)$ for $t = 1, \dots, T$ do $m \leftarrow \text{Message}(A, h)$ $h \leftarrow \text{VertexUpdate}(h, m)$ end forr = Readout(h)return Classify(r)

Examples

Quantum chemistry with graph networks







C₆H₅CH₃

С

What if our data has no time structure?

• Data may be variable in length but have no temporal structure \rightarrow *Data are sets of values*

• *One option*: If we know about the data domain, could try to impose an ordering, then use RNN

- *Better option*: use system that can operate on variable length sets in permutation invariant way
 - Why permutation invariant \rightarrow so order doesn't matter











Examples

Outlier detection



M. Zaheer et. al 2017



Medical Imaging

With more complex architecture



Figure 5. (a) H&E stained histology image. (b) 27×27 patches centered around all marked nuclei. (c) Ground truth: Patches that belong to the class epithelial. (d) Heatmap: Every patch from (b) multiplied by its corresponding attention weight, we rescaled the attention weights using $a'_k = (a_k - \min(\mathbf{a}))/(\max(\mathbf{a}) - \min(\mathbf{a}))$.

M. Ilse et al., 2018