#### **About Judith**



## Born in Aachen, University in Heidelberg

- Postdoc in USA (University at Chicago and MIT in Boston)
- ➢ ROOT user since 1998
- Research at DESY, one year at CERN, teaching in Berlin
  - Experiments at colliders:
- PSI (Switzerland), HERA (DESY), RHIC (USA), LHC (CERN)
- ML and top-Higgs coupling





Hobbies:

Mountaineering Swimming Running Pilates Music Reading novels



# Introduction to Machine Learning

Part I

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HELMHOLTZ

#### Outline

- The big picture
  - Extracting physics knowledge with machine learning
  - Learning frameworks and its ingredients
- The key elements
  - Data sets
  - Hypothesis sets
  - Optimisation
- Example: Neural networks
  - Building functions with perceptrons
  - Universal approximation theorem

#### **Material**

- book: <u>Understanding deep learning from Simon Price</u>
- Deeplearning.org book from lan Goodfellow
- Pictures from Lukas Heinrich
- Kyle Cranmer, ML Review

ML is NOT a spectator sport – important material in exercises from Peter Steinbach

# Why is machine learning relevant for particle physics?

### **Fundamentals of particle physics analysis**

#### <u>measurement</u>



100 Mio electronic channels

#### **Quantum mechanical nature of physics process**

-> Probabilistic distributed events  $p(x|\theta)$ Rely on a statistical model p to extract parameters  $\theta$  from data x:

We have high dimensional data

We have large data sets

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I} &= -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \\ &+ i \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \psi + h.c \\ &+ \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \psi + h.c. \\ &+ \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} + h.c. \\ &+ \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} \overline{\psi} - V(\phi) \end{aligned}$ 

Few parameters

## **Curse of dimensionality**



1 dim: Sample N events to describe distribution 2 dim: sample N<sup>2</sup> events to describe distribution

d dim: sample  $O(N^d)$  events to describe distribution

-> Needs impractical computational resources

#### **Fundamentals of particle physics analysis**



100 Mio electronic channels

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 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I} &= -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \\ &+ i \overline{\psi} \overline{p} \psi + h.c. \\ &+ \overline{\psi} \overline{y} \overline{i} \overline{j} \psi \overline{j} \phi + h.c. \\ &+ \overline{\psi} \overline{\rho} \overline{j} \overline{v} \overline{j} \phi + h.c. \end{aligned}$ 

Few parameters

simulation

#### The role of simulators

#### simulators capture the relevant physics on a hierarchy of scales



Data  $\{xi\}_{i=1}^N N$  samples independently and identically distributed from  $p(x|\theta)$  with simulator settings  $\theta$  $\rightarrow$  Approximate  $p(x|\theta) = \int p(x, z|\theta) dz$ 

- → fixed value of z specifies everything about the simulated event: z = ground truth "label"
- → Reconstruction algorithms estimate components from z
  - → data set  $\{x_i, z_i\}_{i=1}^N$  to study reco algorithms

#### **Data representation**

Goal: bring the data into a form that is easier to understand and interpret



### **Reducing dimensionality**



## **Summary**



generate low-level, high-dim data from high-level concepts



Low level data

High level

concepts



reconstruct high level concepts from low-level, high-dim data



#### ML excels at both!



This is a picture of Barack Obama. His foot is positioned on the right side of the scale. The scale will show a higher weight.

> reconstruct high level concepts from low-level, high-dim data



## What is machine learning?

#### What is machine learning?





 $\bigtriangledown$ 

Difference between machine learning and Al: If it is written in Python, it's probably machine learning If it is written in PowerPoint, it's probably Al 3:25 AM · Nov 23, 2018 · Twitter Web Client 8,264 Retweets 911 Quote Tweets 23.8K Likes

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⊥

 $\uparrow \downarrow$ 

#### What is machine learning?



**Al:** systems that simulate intelligent behavior e.g. via rules, reasoning, symbol manipulation

**ML:** subset of AI that learns to make decisions or predictions by fitting mathematical models to observed data.

**DL:** type of machine learning model, that aims at complex pipelines, work on low-level data (e.g. pixels)

# ML examples: make decisions

Variable length structured input

Fixed length structured input

Fixed length structured input

Variable length unstructured input (Avectors of particles)



## **ML examples: making predictions**

DESY.



# ML example: generate new data



DESY.



#### What does the machine learn?

#### **Open the box** or fitting mathematical model to data





#### **Open the box** or fitting mathematical model to data





#### **Open the box** or fitting mathematical model to data





Learning = search through a family of functions to let the data guide you to find the best one

Easiest if you have a labeled data set where the input-output relation is known to train and validate

#### The data

Your connection to the algorithm is the data

• The most important thing in the ML lifecycle

Need to know:

- Where does the existing (labeled) data come from?
- Where will the new data come from?





#### The dominant paradigm: statistical learning



We **assume** all **existing data and all future data** come from the same distribution.

• Danger: "Out-of-Distribution" samples / Distribution Shift

#### Example



Let's try to describe them with a **linear function**, i.s. my set of hypothesis to describe the data is

$$y = \mathbf{f}[x, \boldsymbol{\phi}]$$
  
 $= \phi_0 + \phi_1 x.$ 

Labeled data set

# Open the black box or what's this "mapping"?





Learning = finding the optimal function from a set of functions to describe known "labeled" data

#### **The Loss**

• Need to have a performance measure to quantify what "best" means: "loss", "risk", "cost" function



$$L[\phi] = \sum_{i=1}^{I} (f[x_i, \phi] - y_i)^2$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} (\phi_0 + \phi_1 x_i - y_i)^2$$



#### **The Loss**



### **Learning algorithms**

We usually have no idea which of the functions is the best, we need to have a learning algorithm that leads us there

#### Various possibilities:

- Exhaustive search (discrete functions)
- Closed form solutions (rare)
- Iterative optimization (mostly used)

$$\begin{split} \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \left[ L[\boldsymbol{\phi}] \right] \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{I} \left( \mathrm{f}[x_i, \boldsymbol{\phi}] - y_i \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{I} \left( \phi_0 + \phi_1 x_i - y_i \right)^2 \right] \end{split}$$

#### Learning algorithm



This case: exact solution  $\hat{\phi}$  Phi = (X<sup>T</sup>X)<sup>-1</sup>X<sup>T</sup> y with X<sub>ik</sub> = x<sub>i</sub><sup>k</sup> (i-th data point, k-th power)

#### Learning framework Putting it all together

- Collect and prepare data to be consumed by the machine
- Define the task (objective)
- Choose search space of possible functions (algorithms) aka "hypothesis set"
- Define what "good" means, i.e. a performance measure
- Provide an optimising algorithm to update functions, i.e. change hypothesis
- Decide when to stop and to define the final hypothesis (function)



#### **Supervised learning**

mapping from input data to an output prediction



#### **Neural nets**

### More complex family of functions

Build complexity by composing very simple building blocks



'age 37

-5.0

### **Neural network family of functions**

 $y = \mathbf{f}[x, \boldsymbol{\phi}]$ 

 $= \phi_0 + \phi_1 \mathbf{a}[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] + \phi_2 \mathbf{a}[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] + \phi_3 \mathbf{a}[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]$ 





#### **Neural network hard wired**

• Mark I perceptron

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = egin{cases} \mathsf{Perceptron:} \ 1 & ext{if } \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b > 0, \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

 $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^m w_i x_i$ 

Images of 20x20 photo cells were trained for image recognition: "connections" = wires between photo cells and neurons

"weights" = potentiometers moved by electrical motors 1958





#### **More variability**



#### Expanding the number of nodes A lot to gain!



Neural networks with a single hidden layer are universal function approximators This also holds for multi-dimensional inputs and outputs.

DESY. Side remark: it does NOT work for linear activation function, e.g. XOR problem 42

### **Going more complex**







DESY.

#### **Beyond single layer**





Not forbidden to stack neurons in a different way: go deep instead of wide

->opportunity to build up complex things step by step

#### Wide or deep?

The relationship between expressivity of swallow networks and deep networks is an active area of research

But empirically: It seems that deep networks can generate complex patterns with much fewer parameters



#### **Activation functions**

UFA is achieved with any non-linear activation function, but at least for the output activation we need to be careful about the task



#### How big should we go?

With increasing size you get a better chance that the actual algorithm you are looking for lives within the family of functions

Bias: the loss  $L(f_{min})$  of the overall best function  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ 

$$f_{min} = \langle f(x, \hat{\phi}) \rangle_{D}$$

An argument to make the function family as big as possible



## But should we really....?

"With four parameters I can fit an elephant, and with five I can make him wiggle his trunk"



- John von Neumann



### No free lunch theorem of learning

- With limited data you must learn effectively, i.e. you must restrict the "hypothesis set" of functions to perform the task
- Only possible with "inductive bias": constrain on the hypothesis set by adjusting the search space

#### The risk we want

In statistical learning we are interested in the expected performance of the algorithm on future data

With assumption of i.i.d. distribution of data:



#### The risk we can get

While we don't have p(s) we do have samples  $s \sim p(s)$ 

> We can (only) estimate the loss empirically as a proxy!

$$\bar{L} = \int_{S} p(s)L(s,h) \to \hat{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} L(s_{i},h) \xrightarrow{L(D_{2})} L(D_{1}) \xrightarrow{L(D_{4})} L(D_{3})$$

This difference between what we want and what we get has tricky consequences









#### Variance and bias



$$L_{true}(h^*) = Bias(L(h^*))^2 + Var(L(h^*))$$

#### Variance



Increases with  $\mathcal{H}$ , decreases with N

An argument to make the hypothesis set as small as possible given the data set size

#### **Bias - Variance trade-off**



#### **Bias-Variance trade off**

We now have two competing forces

- Make model space as big as possible: reduce bias
- Constrain the model space: reduce variance



#### **Big networks require big data!**

If you don't have enough of it, you simply cannot afford to train a billion parameter model!



## Back-up

#### Loss becomes also more complex



#### **Possible sources of labelled data**

Huge advantage of ML in science: high-fidelity simulators



simulated cosmology



simulated fluid dynamics



simulated particle physics

