

Week 0: Introduction to Machine Learning & AI

Foundations, Algorithms, and Modern Applications

Machine Learning for Smarter Innovation

BSc-Level Course Series

October 6, 2025

Part 1: Machine Learning Foundations

Theory, Definitions, and Core Concepts

You Want a Program That Gets Better

Think about email spam detection:

- You **show it** 10,000 examples (spam and not spam)
- It learns patterns in the data
- It gets better at recognizing new spam

Tom Mitchell (1997) formalized this:

A program learns from **Experience** E at **Task** T measured by **Performance** P if its performance improves with experience.

Concrete Example:

E : 10,000 labeled emails

T : Classify spam vs non-spam

P : 85% → 95% accuracy after training

The Mathematical Pattern

What the algorithm actually does:

Step 1: Given labeled examples

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$$

Step 2: Find function that maps inputs to outputs

$$f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$$

Step 3: Minimize errors on training data

$$\hat{f} = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f(x_i)) + \lambda R(f)$$

where L measures mistakes, R prevents overfitting

This optimization is what “learning” means mathematically

Learning formalizes improvement through optimization - mathematical frameworks transform intuitive experience into tractable computational problems

Three Paradigms of Machine Learning

Supervised



$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \rightarrow \hat{f}$$

Applications:

- Email spam detection
- Medical diagnosis
- Stock price prediction
- Image recognition

Key Algorithms:

- Linear Regression
- Random Forest
- Neural Networks

Unsupervised



$$\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \rightarrow \text{Structure}$$

Applications:

- Customer segmentation
- Anomaly detection
- Data compression
- Market basket analysis

Key Algorithms:

- K-means clustering
- PCA
- Autoencoders

Reinforcement



$$(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}) \rightarrow \pi^*$$

Applications:

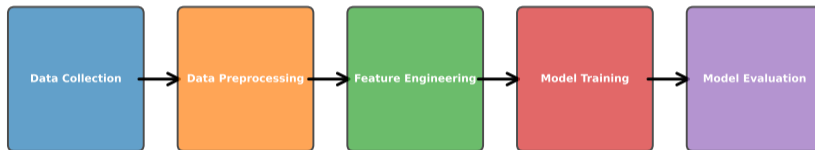
- Game playing (Chess, Go)
- Autonomous vehicles
- Robotics control
- Resource allocation

Key Algorithms:

- Q-Learning
- Policy Gradients
- Actor-Critic

Three paradigms partition problem space - supervised uses labels, unsupervised discovers structure, reinforcement optimizes through interaction

Machine Learning Pipeline



Iterative Process with Feedback Loops

Data Collection → Preprocessing → Feature Engineering → Model Training → Validation → Deployment

Pipeline thinking prevents isolated optimization - holistic workflow design addresses data quality, model selection, and deployment constraints simultaneously

Mathematical Framework

For any learning algorithm, the expected error can be decomposed as:

$$\text{Error} = \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance} + \text{Noise}$$

Bias: Error from oversimplifying assumptions

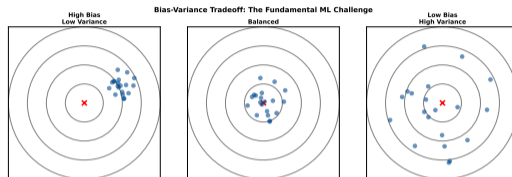
$$\text{Bias}[\hat{f}(x)] = E[\hat{f}(x)] - f(x)$$

Variance: Error from sensitivity to training data

$$\text{Var}[\hat{f}(x)] = E[(\hat{f}(x) - E[\hat{f}(x)])^2]$$

Key Insight: There's a fundamental tradeoff between bias and variance

Bias-variance decomposition reveals structural tension - no algorithm minimizes both error sources simultaneously requiring principled complexity management



Model Complexity Examples:

- **High Bias:** Linear models on nonlinear data
- **Balanced:** Regularized models
- **High Variance:** Deep trees, k-NN with small k

Traditional Programming

Process:

- Write explicit rules
- Code logic step by step
- Handle edge cases manually
- Deterministic outputs

Example: Email Classification

- IF contains "FREE" AND "LIMITED TIME"
- THEN classify as spam
- Requires manual rule updates

Limitations:

- Rules become complex
- Hard to handle exceptions
- Doesn't adapt to new patterns

Machine Learning

Process:

- Provide example data
- Algorithm learns patterns
- Generalizes to new cases
- Probabilistic outputs

Example: Email Classification

- Train on 10,000 labeled emails
- Learn complex word patterns
- Automatically adapts to new spam

Advantages:

- Handles complex patterns
- Adapts to new data
- Discovers hidden relationships

Machine learning excels where explicit programming fails - pattern complexity and adaptation requirements favor data-driven approaches over rule-based systems

Why Split Data?

Training Set (60%):

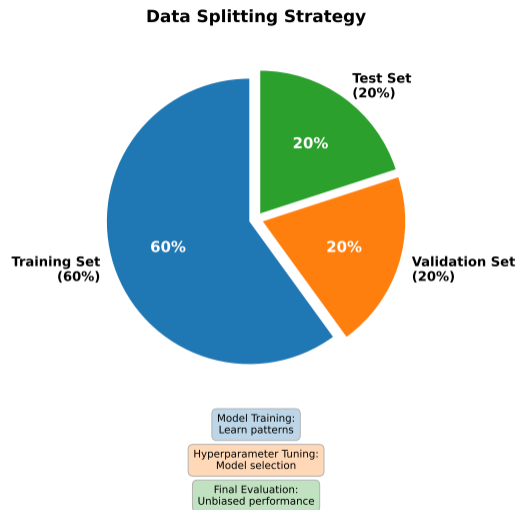
- Used to fit model parameters
- Algorithm learns from this data
- Larger is generally better

Validation Set (20%):

- Used for hyperparameter tuning
- Model selection and comparison
- Prevents overfitting to training data

Test Set (20%):

- Final unbiased evaluation
- Never seen during development
- Estimates real-world performance



Cross-Validation:

Classification Metrics

Accuracy:

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\text{Correct Predictions}}{\text{Total Predictions}}$$

Precision:

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{True Positives}}{\text{True Positives} + \text{False Positives}}$$

Recall (Sensitivity):

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{True Positives}}{\text{True Positives} + \text{False Negatives}}$$

F1-Score:

$$F1 = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

Regression Metrics

Mean Squared Error:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Root Mean Squared Error:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

Mean Absolute Error:

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

R-squared:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}}$$

Evaluation metrics quantify model quality - metric selection aligns algorithmic optimization with domain-specific success criteria

Part 2: Supervised Learning Methods

Prediction and Classification Algorithms

Linear Regression Family

Ordinary Least Squares:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

$$\min_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2$$

Ridge Regression (L2):

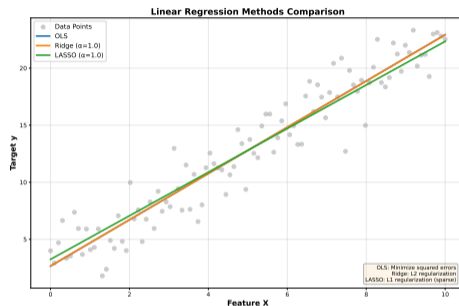
$$\hat{\beta}_{ridge} = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y$$

$$\min_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2$$

LASSO (L1):

$$\min_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$

No closed form - use coordinate descent



Applications:

- House price prediction
- Sales forecasting
- Medical diagnosis
- Scientific modeling

Elastic Net (Best of Both):

Mathematical Framework

Logistic Function:

$$p(y = 1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta^T x)}}$$

Odds Ratio:

$$\frac{p}{1 - p} = e^{\beta_0 + \beta^T x}$$

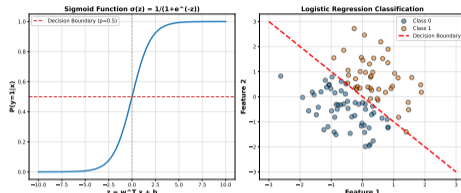
Log-Likelihood:

$$\ell(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i \log p_i + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p_i)]$$

No closed form solution

- Use gradient descent
- Newton-Raphson method
- Iteratively reweighted least squares

Logistic regression transforms linear regression to probabilistic classification - sigmoid function maps unbounded scores to valid probabilities



Decision Boundary:

$$\beta_0 + \beta^T x = 0$$

Applications:

- Email spam detection
- Medical diagnosis
- Marketing response
- Credit approval

Optimization Problem

Primal Form:

$$\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2$$

$$\text{s.t. } y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1, \forall i$$

Dual Form:

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j$$

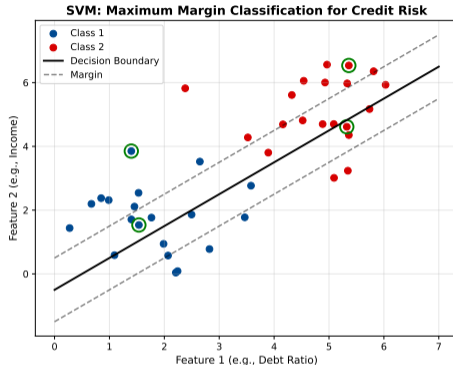
$$\text{s.t. } \alpha_i \geq 0, \sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

Kernel Trick:

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$$

Common kernels:

- RBF: $K(x, z) = e^{-\gamma \|x - z\|^2}$



Key Concepts:

- **Support Vectors:** Data points on margin
- **Maximum Margin:** Optimal separating hyperplane
- **Kernel Trick:** Nonlinear classification

Advantages:

- Works well in high dimensions

Tree Construction

Splitting Criterion:

Gini Impurity:

$$G = \sum_{k=1}^K p_k(1 - p_k)$$

Information Gain:

$$IG = H(\text{parent}) - \sum_j \frac{n_j}{n} H(\text{child}_j)$$

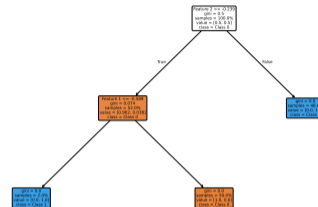
Entropy:

$$H = - \sum_{k=1}^K p_k \log_2 p_k$$

CART Algorithm:

1. Find best split across all features
2. Partition data based on split

Decision Tree Structure (Max Depth = 3)



Advantages:

- Highly interpretable
- Handles mixed data types
- No assumptions about distribution
- Captures interactions automatically

Disadvantages:

- Prone to overfitting
- Unstable (small data changes)

Ensemble Method

Bootstrap Aggregating (Bagging):

1. Draw B bootstrap samples
2. Train tree on each sample
3. Average predictions (regression)
4. Vote on class (classification)

Random Feature Selection:

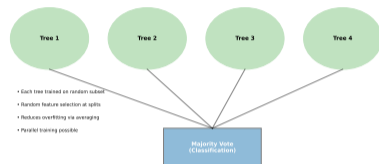
- At each split, randomly select m features
- Typically $m = \sqrt{p}$ for classification
- Typically $m = p/3$ for regression

Final Prediction:

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b(x)$$

Key insight: Averaging reduces variance while maintaining low bias

Random Forest Ensemble
Bootstrap Sampling + Feature Randomness → Multiple Decision Trees → Aggregate Predictions



Advantages:

- Reduces overfitting
- Handles missing values
- Provides feature importance
- Works well out-of-the-box

Feature Importance:

- Mean decrease in impurity
- Permutation importance
- Out-of-bag importance

Bootstrap aggregation reduces variance through averaging - random feature selection decorrelates trees enabling effective ensemble combination

Boosting Algorithm

Sequential Model Building:

$$F_m(x) = F_{m-1}(x) + \gamma_m h_m(x)$$

where h_m is trained on residuals:

$$r_{im} = -\frac{\partial L(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i))}{\partial F_{m-1}(x_i)}$$

XGBoost Objective:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_i l(y_i, \hat{y}_i) + \sum_k \Omega(f_k)$$

$$\Omega(f) = \gamma T + \frac{1}{2} \lambda ||w||^2$$

Key Features:

- Regularization prevents overfitting
- Second-order derivatives
- Handles missing values

Gradient Boosting Process

$$F_M(x) = f_0(x) + \sum_{m=1}^M \alpha_m h_m(x)$$



1. Start with initial prediction f_0
2. Compute residuals (errors)
3. Train weak learner on residuals
4. Update model with weighted learner
5. Iterate M times

Popular Implementations:

- **XGBoost:** Extreme Gradient Boosting
- **LightGBM:** Fast gradient boosting
- **CatBoost:** Categorical features

Applications:

- Kaggle competitions
- Click-through rate prediction
- Risk modeling
- Ranking problems

Non-parametric Method

Algorithm:

1. Store all training data
2. For new point, find k nearest neighbors
3. Classification: majority vote
4. Regression: average target values

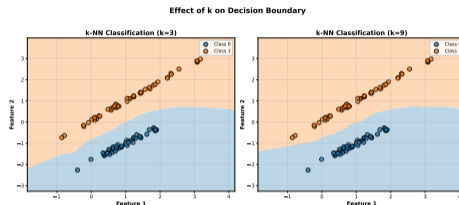
Distance Metrics:

- Euclidean: $d(x, z) = \sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - z_i)^2}$
- Manhattan: $d(x, z) = \sum_i |x_i - z_i|$
- Minkowski: $d(x, z) = (\sum_i |x_i - z_i|^p)^{1/p}$

Choosing k :

- Small k : Low bias, high variance
- Large k : High bias, low variance
- Use cross-validation to select

Instance-based learning requires no training phase - predictions use entire dataset making inference expensive but adaptation trivial



Advantages:

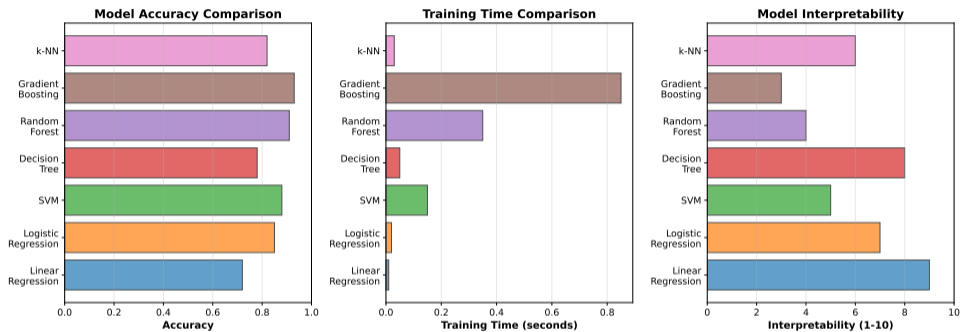
- Simple to understand and implement
- No assumptions about data distribution
- Adapts to local patterns
- Works well with small datasets

Disadvantages:

- Computationally expensive for large datasets
- Sensitive to irrelevant features
- Curse of dimensionality
- Sensitive to data scaling

Supervised Learning: Algorithm Comparison

Supervised Learning Algorithm Comparison



Algorithm	Interpretability	Training Speed	Prediction Speed	Accuracy
Linear Regression	High	Fast	Fast	Low-Medium
Logistic Regression	High	Fast	Fast	Medium
Decision Tree	High	Medium	Fast	Medium
Random Forest	Medium	Slow	Medium	High
XGBoost	Low	Slow	Medium	Very High
SVM	Low	Slow	Fast	High
k-NN	Medium	Fast	Slow	Medium-High

Part 3: Unsupervised Learning Methods

Discovering Hidden Structure in Data

The Idea

You have customer data and want to find 3 natural groups:

Step-by-step:

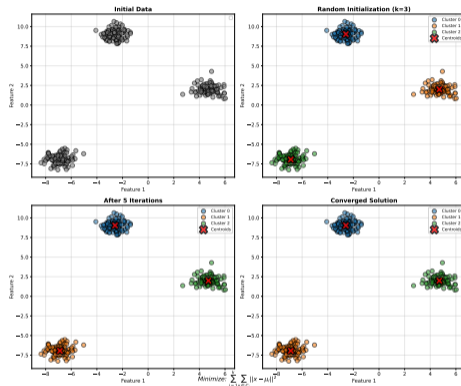
1. **Start:** Place 3 center points randomly
2. **Assign:** Each customer joins nearest center
3. **Update:** Move centers to average of their group
4. **Repeat:** Until centers stop moving

Worked Example (2D):

- Point $x_1 = [2, 3]$, Centers: $\mu_1 = [1, 2]$, $\mu_2 = [5, 5]$
- Distance to μ_1 : $\sqrt{(2-1)^2 + (3-2)^2} = 1.4$
- Distance to μ_2 : $\sqrt{(2-5)^2 + (3-5)^2} = 3.6$
- Assign x_1 to cluster 1 (closer!)

The algorithm minimizes total distance from points to their cluster centers

K-Means Clustering Process



The optimization:

$$J = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^K w_{ik} \|x_i - \mu_k\|^2$$

How many clusters (K)?

Agglomerative Approach

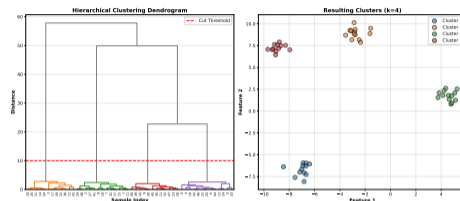
Algorithm:

1. Start with each point as its own cluster
2. Merge closest pair of clusters
3. Repeat until single cluster remains
4. Cut dendrogram at desired level

Linkage Criteria:

- **Single:** $\min(d(a, b))$ where $a \in A, b \in B$
- **Complete:** $\max(d(a, b))$ where $a \in A, b \in B$
- **Average:** $\frac{1}{|A||B|} \sum_{a \in A} \sum_{b \in B} d(a, b)$
- **Ward:** Minimize within-cluster variance

Time Complexity: $O(n^3)$ for naive implementation



Advantages:

- No need to specify number of clusters
- Produces hierarchy of clusters
- Deterministic results
- Works with any distance metric

Disadvantages:

- Computationally expensive
- Sensitive to outliers
- Difficult to handle large datasets

Hierarchical methods build complete cluster dendrograms - agglomerative merging reveals nested structure across all granularity levels

Density-Based Approach

Key Concepts:

- **Core Point:** $\geq \text{minPts}$ neighbors within ϵ
- **Border Point:** In neighborhood of core point
- **Noise Point:** Neither core nor border

Algorithm:

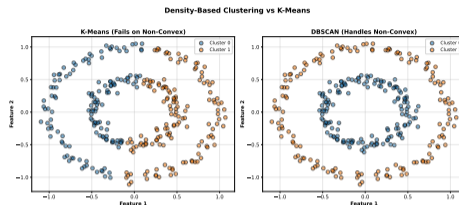
1. For each unvisited point
2. If core point, start new cluster
3. Add all density-reachable points
4. Mark non-core points as noise

Parameters:

- ϵ : Neighborhood radius
- minPts: Minimum points for core

$$\text{Density} = \frac{\text{Points in } \epsilon\text{-neighborhood}}{|\epsilon\text{-neighborhood}|}$$

Density-based clustering identifies arbitrary-shaped groups - core point connectivity enables nonconvex cluster discovery with automatic noise detection



Advantages:

- Finds arbitrary-shaped clusters
- Automatically determines cluster count
- Robust to outliers
- Identifies noise points

Applications:

- Anomaly detection
- Image segmentation
- Fraud detection
- Social network analysis

Mathematical Framework

Objective: Find directions of maximum variance

Covariance Matrix:

$$C = \frac{1}{n-1} X^T X$$

Eigendecomposition:

$$C = V \Lambda V^T$$

where V contains eigenvectors (principal components) and Λ contains eigenvalues.

Dimensionality Reduction:

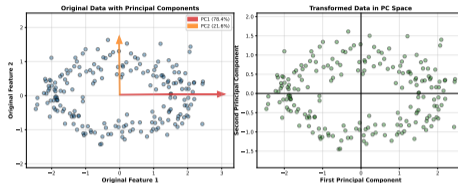
$$Z = XW$$

where W contains the first k principal components.

Variance Explained:

$$\text{Explained Variance} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i}$$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



Steps:

1. Standardize the data
2. Compute covariance matrix
3. Find eigenvalues and eigenvectors
4. Sort by eigenvalue magnitude
5. Select top k components
6. Transform data

Applications:

- Data visualization
- Noise reduction
- Feature extraction

Architecture

Encoder:

$$z = f(Wx + b)$$

Decoder:

$$\hat{x} = g(W'z + b')$$

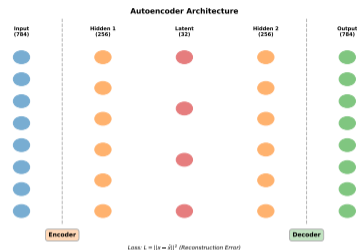
Objective:

$$\min_{W, W'} ||x - \hat{x}||^2$$

Types of Autoencoders:

- **Vanilla:** Basic encoder-decoder
- **Denoising:** Add noise to input
- **Sparse:** Encourage sparse representations
- **Variational:** Probabilistic latent space

Bottleneck Layer: Forces compression and learning of important features



Advantages over PCA:

- Nonlinear transformations
- Better reconstruction for complex data
- Can learn hierarchical features
- Flexible architecture

Applications:

- Image denoising
- Anomaly detection
- Data compression

t-SNE

t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding
High-dimensional similarities:

$$p_{j|i} = \frac{\exp(-||x_i - x_j||^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-||x_i - x_k||^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}$$

Low-dimensional similarities:

$$q_{ij} = \frac{(1 + ||y_i - y_j||^2)^{-1}}{\sum_{k \neq i} (1 + ||y_i - y_k||^2)^{-1}}$$

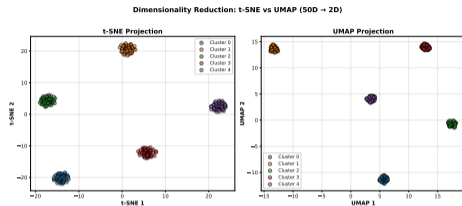
Objective: Minimize KL divergence

$$C = \sum_i KL(P_i || Q_i)$$

Key Features:

- Preserves local structure
- Heavy-tailed distribution in low-dim
- Stochastic optimization

Nonlinear dimensionality reduction preserves local structure - t-SNE and UMAP optimize neighborhood preservation for visualization



UMAP (Uniform Manifold Approximation)

- Faster than t-SNE
- Preserves global structure better
- Consistent results across runs
- Can embed to higher dimensions

When to Use:

- **t-SNE:** Detailed local clustering
- **UMAP:** Balance of local and global
- **PCA:** Linear structure, fast

Internal Metrics

Silhouette Score:

$$s(i) = \frac{b(i) - a(i)}{\max(a(i), b(i))}$$

where $a(i)$ = avg distance within cluster, $b(i)$ = avg distance to nearest cluster

Calinski-Harabasz Index:

$$CH = \frac{SS_B / (k - 1)}{SS_W / (n - k)}$$

Davies-Bouldin Index:

$$DB = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \max_{j \neq i} \frac{\sigma_i + \sigma_j}{d(c_i, c_j)}$$

Inertia (Within-cluster sum of squares):

$$WCSS = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} \|x - \mu_i\|^2$$

External Metrics

Adjusted Rand Index:

$$ARI = \frac{RI - E[RI]}{\max(RI) - E[RI]}$$

Normalized Mutual Information:

$$NMI = \frac{MI(U, V)}{\sqrt{H(U)H(V)}}$$

Homogeneity and Completeness:

- Homogeneity: Each cluster contains only one class
- Completeness: All members of class in same cluster

V-measure: Harmonic mean of homogeneity and completeness

Note: External metrics require ground truth labels

Clustering

Customer Segmentation:

- Group customers by behavior
- Targeted marketing campaigns
- Product recommendations

Market Basket Analysis:

- Find product associations
- Store layout optimization
- Cross-selling opportunities

Image Segmentation:

- Medical image analysis
- Computer vision
- Object recognition

Dimensionality Reduction

Data Visualization:

- Explore high-dimensional data
- Identify patterns and outliers
- Present insights to stakeholders

Feature Engineering:

- Reduce computational cost
- Remove noise and redundancy
- Improve model performance

Compression:

- Image and audio compression
- Efficient data storage
- Fast data transmission

Anomaly Detection

Fraud Detection:

- Credit card transactions
- Insurance claims
- Online account activity

Network Security:

- Intrusion detection
- Malware identification
- Unusual traffic patterns

Quality Control:

- Manufacturing defects
- System monitoring
- Predictive maintenance

Unsupervised learning reveals hidden patterns and structures in data without labeled examples

Unsupervised methods discover latent structure - clustering, dimensionality reduction, and anomaly detection operate without supervisory signal

Part 4: Neural Networks and Deep Learning

From Perceptrons to Modern Architectures

Mathematical Model

Linear Combination:

$$z = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_nx_n + b$$

$$z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$$

Activation Function:

$$y = \sigma(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$$

Decision Boundary:

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$$

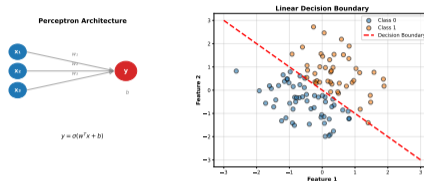
Learning Rule (Perceptron Algorithm):

$$w_i := w_i + \eta(y - \hat{y})x_i$$

$$b := b + \eta(y - \hat{y})$$

where η is the learning rate.

The Perceptron Model



Perceptron Limitations:

- Can only learn linearly separable functions
- Cannot solve XOR problem
- Single decision boundary

Historical Impact:

- First neural network model (1943)
- Led to "AI Winter" when limitations discovered
- Foundation for modern deep learning

Architecture

Forward Propagation:

$$z^{[l]} = W^{[l]}a^{[l-1]} + b^{[l]}$$

$$a^{[l]} = g^{[l]}(z^{[l]})$$

Universal Approximation Theorem: A neural network with:

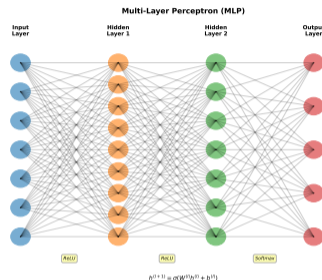
- One hidden layer
- Finite number of neurons
- Non-linear activation function

can approximate any continuous function on a compact set to arbitrary accuracy.

Key Insight: Width vs depth tradeoff

- Wide shallow networks: Exponential width needed
- Deep narrow networks: Polynomial parameters

Multi-layer perceptrons enable universal approximation - hidden layers learn nonlinear feature transformations solving problems beyond perceptron capacity



Activation Functions:

- **Sigmoid:** $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$
- **Tanh:** $\tanh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$
- **ReLU:** $\text{ReLU}(x) = \max(0, x)$
- **Leaky ReLU:** $\text{LeakyReLU}(x) = \max(0.01x, x)$

Algorithm

Chain Rule Application:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W^{[l]}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z^{[l]}} \frac{\partial z^{[l]}}{\partial W^{[l]}}$$

Backward Pass:

$$\delta^{[l]} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z^{[l]}}$$

$$\delta^{[l-1]} = (W^{[l]})^T \delta^{[l]} \odot g'(z^{[l-1]})$$

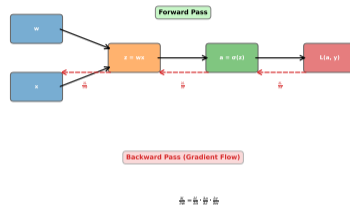
Parameter Updates:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W^{[l]}} = \delta^{[l]} (a^{[l-1]})^T$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b^{[l]}} = \delta^{[l]}$$

Gradient Descent:

Backpropagation: Chain Rule In Action



Computational Graph:

- Forward pass: Compute outputs
- Backward pass: Compute gradients
- Automatic differentiation
- Memory vs computation tradeoff

Challenges:

- Vanishing gradients
- Exploding gradients

Common Activations

Sigmoid:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

Range: $(0, 1)$, smooth, vanishing gradients

Tanh:

$$\tanh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$

Range: $(-1, 1)$, zero-centered, still vanishing gradients

ReLU:

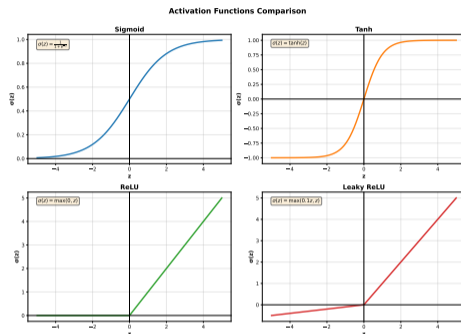
$$\text{ReLU}(x) = \max(0, x)$$

Simple, fast, sparse activations, dying ReLU problem

Leaky ReLU:

$$\text{LeakyReLU}(x) = \max(\alpha x, x)$$

Fixes dying ReLU, $\alpha = 0.01$ typically



Modern Activations:

- **ELU:** $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1) & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$
- **Swish:** $f(x) = x \cdot \sigma(\beta x)$
- **GELU:** $f(x) = x \cdot \Phi(x)$

Choice Guidelines:

- Hidden layers: ReLU or variants

Architecture Components

Convolution Operation:

$$(I * K)_{ij} = \sum_m \sum_n I_{i+m, j+n} K_{m,n}$$

Key Concepts:

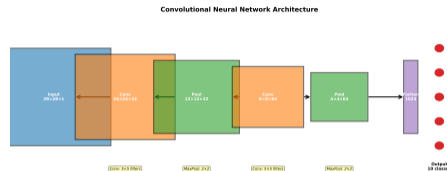
- **Local Connectivity:** Neurons connect to local regions
- **Parameter Sharing:** Same filter across all positions
- **Translation Invariance:** Features detected anywhere

Typical CNN Architecture:

1. Convolution + ReLU
2. Pooling (max or average)
3. Repeat multiple times
4. Flatten and fully connected layers
5. Final classification layer

Filter Parameters:

- Kernel size (3x3, 5x5, 7x7)



Pooling Operations:

- **Max Pooling:** Take maximum in region
- **Average Pooling:** Take average in region
- **Global Pooling:** Pool entire feature map

Applications:

- Image classification
- Object detection
- Medical imaging
- Computer vision

RNN Architecture

Recurrence Relation:

$$h_t = \tanh(W_h h_{t-1} + W_x x_t + b)$$

Output:

$$y_t = W_y h_t + b_y$$

Unfolded in Time:

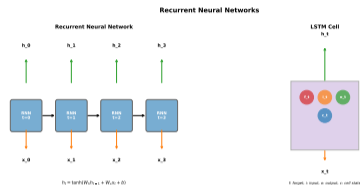
- Share parameters across time steps
- Process variable-length sequences
- Memory of previous inputs

Training: Backpropagation Through Time (BPTT)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_h} = \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\partial L_t}{\partial W_h}$$

Vanishing Gradient Problem:

$$\frac{\partial h_t}{\partial h_{t-k}} = \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial h_{t-i+1}}{\partial h_{t-i}}$$



LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory):

- Forget gate: What to forget from cell state
- Input gate: What new info to store
- Output gate: What parts to output
- Cell state: Long-term memory

Applications:

- Language modeling
- Machine translation
- Speech recognition
- Time series prediction

Optimization Algorithms

Stochastic Gradient Descent:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta_t)$$

Momentum:

$$v_t = \gamma v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta_t)$$

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - v_t$$

Adam (Adaptive Moment Estimation):

$$m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) g_t$$

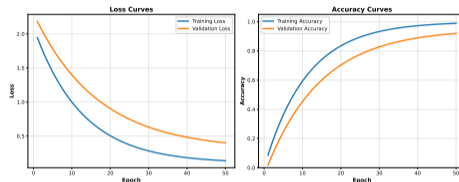
$$v_t = \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2) g_t^2$$

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{v_t} + \epsilon} m_t$$

Learning Rate Scheduling:

- Step decay

Training Dynamics



Regularization Techniques:

- **L1/L2 Regularization:** Add penalty to weights
- **Dropout:** Randomly set neurons to zero
- **Batch Normalization:** Normalize layer inputs
- **Early Stopping:** Stop when validation error increases

Initialization:

- Xavier/Glorot initialization
- He initialization (for ReLU)
- Proper initialization prevents gradient problems

Historical Timeline

2012: AlexNet

- Won ImageNet competition
- 8-layer CNN
- GPU acceleration
- Dropout regularization

2014: VGGNet

- Deeper networks (16-19 layers)
- Small 3x3 filters
- Showed depth importance

2015: ResNet

- Residual connections
- 152 layers deep
- Solved vanishing gradient
- Skip connections: $y = F(x) + x$

2017: Transformer

- Attention mechanism



Key Enablers:

- **Big Data:** ImageNet, large text corpora
- **GPU Computing:** Parallel processing
- **Algorithmic Advances:** Better optimizers
- **Software Frameworks:** TensorFlow, PyTorch

Impact:

- Computer vision breakthrough
- Natural language processing revolution
- Game-playing AI (AlphaGo)
- Foundation for modern AI

Vision

ResNet:

- Skip connections
- Very deep networks
- Identity mapping

EfficientNet:

- Compound scaling
- Balanced depth/width/resolution
- Mobile-friendly

Vision Transformer:

- Self-attention for images
- Patch-based processing
- Competitive with CNNs

Language

Transformer:

- Self-attention mechanism
- Encoder-decoder architecture
- Parallelizable training

BERT:

- Bidirectional encoding
- Pre-trained representations
- Fine-tuning for tasks

GPT:

- Autoregressive generation
- Scaling laws
- Few-shot learning

Multimodal

CLIP:

- Vision-language understanding
- Contrastive learning
- Zero-shot classification

DALL-E:

- Text-to-image generation
- Multimodal creativity
- Large-scale training

Flamingo:

- Few-shot multimodal learning
- Vision-language tasks
- In-context learning

Modern architectures combine multiple techniques for state-of-the-art performance across domains

Specialized architectures encode domain-specific inductive biases - CNNs for vision, RNNs for sequences, Transformers for attention

Part 5: Generative AI and Modern Applications

Creating New Content with Artificial Intelligence

Discriminative Models

Goal: Learn decision boundary

$$p(y|x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-f(x)}}$$

Examples:

- Logistic regression
- Support Vector Machines
- Neural network classifiers
- Decision trees

Applications:

- Classification tasks
- Regression problems
- Prediction from features
- Pattern recognition

Advantages:

- Often better at classification
- More direct approach

Generative Models

Goal: Learn data distribution

$$p(x) \text{ or } p(x, y)$$

Examples:

- Generative Adversarial Networks
- Variational Autoencoders
- Autoregressive models
- Diffusion models

Applications:

- Data generation
- Image synthesis
- Text generation
- Data augmentation

Advantages:

- Can generate new samples
- Handle missing data
- Provide uncertainty estimates

Mathematical Framework

Generator: $G : \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$

$$G(z) \text{ where } z \sim p_z(z)$$

Discriminator: $D : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$D(x) = \text{Probability } x \text{ is real}$$

Minimax Objective:

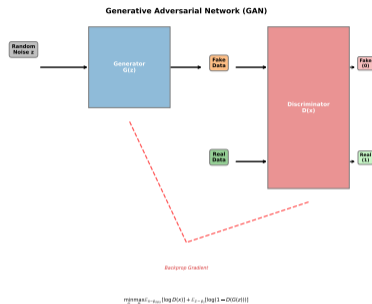
$$\min_G \max_D V(D, G)$$

where:

$$V(D, G) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} [\log D(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z} [\log(1 - D(G(z)))]$$

Training Process:

1. Train D to distinguish real vs fake
2. Train G to fool D
3. Alternate until convergence



Training Challenges:

- Mode collapse
- Training instability
- Vanishing gradients
- Nash equilibrium difficult to reach

GAN Variants:

- DCGAN: Deep Convolutional GANs

Probabilistic Framework

Encoder (Recognition Model):

$$q_{\phi}(z|x) \approx p(z|x)$$

Decoder (Generative Model):

$$p_{\theta}(x|z)$$

Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO):

$$\log p(x) \geq \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x)}[\log p_{\theta}(x|z)] - KL(q_{\phi}(z|x)||p(z))$$

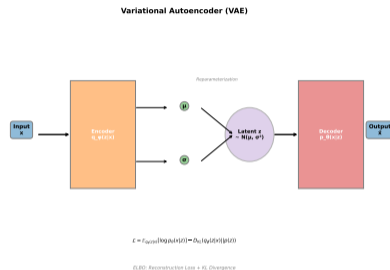
Loss Function:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x)}[\log p_{\theta}(x|z)] - \beta \cdot KL(q_{\phi}(z|x)||p(z))$$

Reparameterization Trick:

$$z = \mu + \sigma \odot \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

Enables backpropagation through stochastic node



Key Advantages:

- Stable training
- Meaningful latent space
- Principled probabilistic approach
- Good reconstruction quality

Applications:

- Image generation

Mathematical Formulation

Forward Process (Noise Addition):

$$q(x_t|x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_t; \sqrt{1 - \beta_t}x_{t-1}, \beta_t I)$$

Reverse Process (Denoising):

$$p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t) = \mathcal{N}(x_{t-1}; \mu_\theta(x_t, t), \Sigma_\theta(x_t, t))$$

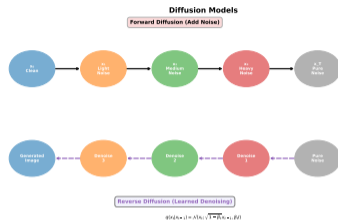
Training Objective:

$$L = \mathbb{E}_{t, x_0, \epsilon} [||\epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(x_t, t)||^2]$$

where ϵ_θ predicts noise added at step t

Sampling Process:

1. Start with random noise $x_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$
2. Iteratively denoise: $x_{t-1} = \mu_\theta(x_t, t) + \sigma_t \epsilon$
3. Continue until x_0 (clean sample)



Key Properties:

- High-quality generation
- Stable training
- Flexible conditioning
- Controllable generation process

Applications:

- Image synthesis (DALL-E 2)
- Video generation
- Audio synthesis
- 3D generation

Self-Attention Mechanism

Attention Formula:

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) V$$

where:

- Q : Queries matrix
- K : Keys matrix
- V : Values matrix
- d_k : Dimension of keys

Multi-Head Attention:

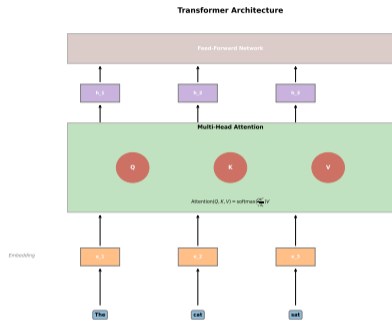
$$\text{MultiHead}(Q, K, V) = \text{Concat}(\text{head}_1, \dots, \text{head}_h) W^O$$

where:

$$\text{head}_i = \text{Attention}(QW_i^Q, KW_i^K, VW_i^V)$$

Position Encoding: Since no recurrence

$$PE_{pos, 2d} = \sin(pos/10000^{2d/d_{model}})$$



Architecture Components:

- **Encoder:** Self-attention + Feed-forward
- **Decoder:** Masked self-attention + Cross-attention
- **Layer Norm:** Stabilizes training
- **Residual Connections:** Gradient flow

Key Advantages:

Model Evolution

GPT (Generative Pre-trained Transformer):

- Autoregressive generation
- Transformer decoder architecture
- Pre-train then fine-tune

BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations):

- Bidirectional context
- Masked language modeling
- Next sentence prediction

Scaling Laws:

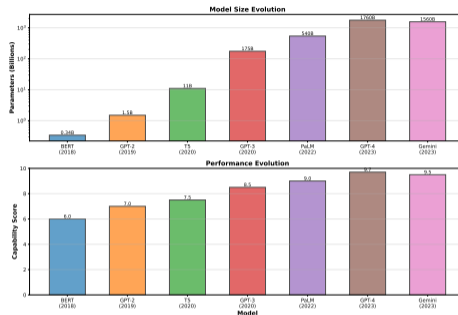
$$L(N) = \left(\frac{N_c}{N} \right)^\alpha$$

where L is loss, N is parameters, $\alpha \approx 0.076$

Key Findings:

- Performance scales predictably with size
- Emergent abilities at scale
- Few-shot learning capabilities

Large Language Model Evolution



Model Sizes:

- GPT-1: 117M parameters (2018)
- GPT-2: 1.5B parameters (2019)
- GPT-3: 175B parameters (2020)
- GPT-4: 1.8T parameters (2023)

Capabilities:

- Text generation