

Applied Deep Learning

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Learning objectives of today

Goals: Understand the key concepts of linear algebra and calculus relevant to deep learning

- Basic definitions
- Taking derivatives
- Typical operations on vectors and matrices

How will we do this?

- Pick up where the videos left off
- Not a comprehensive review, but focusing on the most relevant concepts for understanding deep learning
- Introduction how to implement concepts in Python
- Building our very own logistic regression algorithm (the simplest neural network)



Why are we even doing this?

- Straight up: this will be the most tedious class for most of you
- However, deep learning, at the very core, functions with fundamental linear algebra operations and gradient descent algorithms (calculus!)
- Hence, we need to learn the gist of these concepts in order to:
 - Understand what is happening "behind the scenes" of neural networks
 - Build intuition about how models can be adjusted and improved even many of the out-ofthe-box tools to tune your networks don't make sense if you don't know what a gradient descent algorithm is
 - Create confidence in handling ultra-high dimensional data with millions of observations without having to rely on visual inspection



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Linear algebra – definitions

- Scalar: a single number
 - Integers (-1,0,1,2,...), real numbers (0.319375, 1.17, π), rational numbers $\left(\frac{integer}{integer}\right)$



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- Vector: One-dimensional array of scalars

$$\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

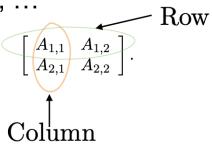
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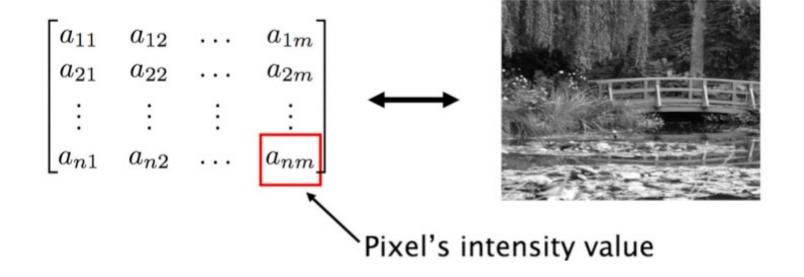
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- Entries can be real numbers, binary, integer, ...
- Matrix: Two-dimensional array of numbers
- Tensor: Any array of numbers
 - Could have zero dimensions (scalar), one dimension (vector), two dimensions (matrix

Column

Could also have three or more dimensions

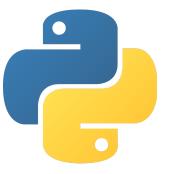
A typical use of matrices in deep learning





In Python

- We generally use Numpy to work with vectors, matrices, and sometimes tensors
- Later, we'll also see the TensorFlow-specific implementation of tensors





Linear algebra – typical operations

Matrix transpose

Essentially a mirror image across the main diagonal

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \\ A_{3,1} & A_{3,2} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{\top} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{2,1} & A_{3,1} \\ A_{1,2} & A_{2,2} & A_{3,2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\boldsymbol{A}^{\top})_{i,j} = A_{j,i}.$$

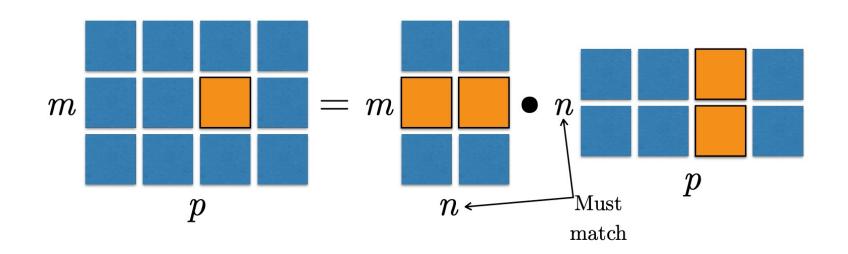
• We call a matrix symmetric if $A = A^T$



Matrix multiplication

$$C = AB$$
.

$$C_{i,j} = \sum_{k} A_{i,k} B_{k,j}.$$





In Python





Linear algebra – norms

Norms

- Functions f that measures the "length" of a vector x
- Such functions need to fulfill four conditions:
 - f needs to return non-negative values only (there is no negative length!)
 - The only vector that has length zero should be the 0-vector
 - The length "scales": For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(\alpha x) = |\alpha| f(x)$
 - The triangle inequality needs to hold: For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x + y) \le f(x) + f(y)$



Some commonly used norms

- L^p norm:
 - $||x||_p = (\sum_i |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$
 - Most commonly used norm: $||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$ (L^2 norm or "Euclidian" norm)
 - Quite common as well: $||x||_1 = \sum_i |x_i|$ (L^1 norm)
- An extreme case: the max-norm $||x||_{\infty} = \max_{i} |x_{i}|$



Norms defined for matrices

There are many matrix norms, but we will only need one: the Frobenius norm

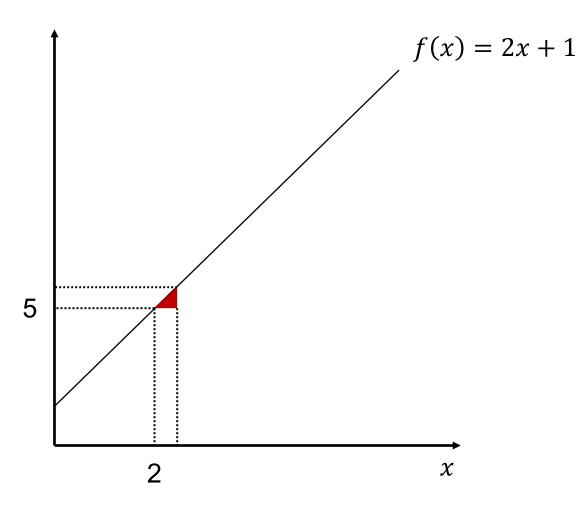
$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m A_{i,j}^2}$$

• Note the similarity with the L^2 norm for vectors



A refresher on calculus

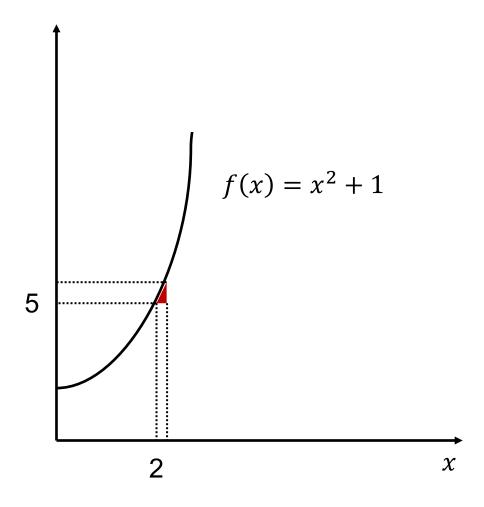
What is a derivative?



Slope (derivative) of f(x) at 2 is $\frac{\text{``height''}}{\text{``width''}}$



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A few important derivatives

f(x)	$f'(x) = \frac{df(x)}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}f(x)$
1	
\boldsymbol{x}	
x^2	
x^3	
\sqrt{x}	
$ \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\ln(x)} $ $ e^{x} $	
e^x	

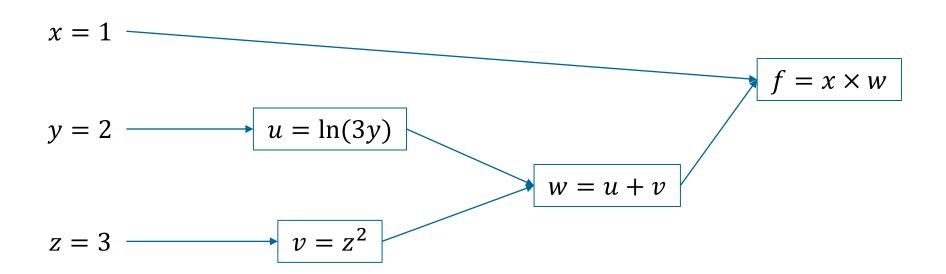


Some rules about handling derivatives

h(x)	h'(x)	Example
c f(x)	c f'(x)	$h(x) = 18 x^k$
f(x) + g(x)	f'(x) + g'(x)	$h(x) = \log(x) - x^2 + 5$
f(x)g(x)	f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)	$h(x) = 2e^x x$
$\frac{1}{f(x)}$	$-\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)^2}$	$h(x) = \frac{1}{\ln(x)}$
$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$	$\frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$	$h(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{x^2}$
f(g(x))	f'(g(x))g'(x)	$h(x) = e^{x^2}$

Using a computation graph for derivatives

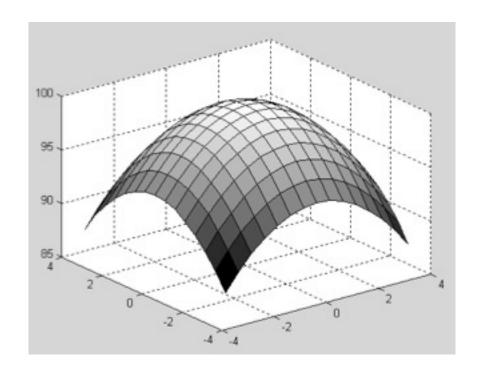
- We can use the "chain rule" to simplify the search for derivatives
- Say, we want to compute the derivatives of $f = x(\ln(3y) + z^2)$ to x, y, z at x = 1, y = 2, z = 3

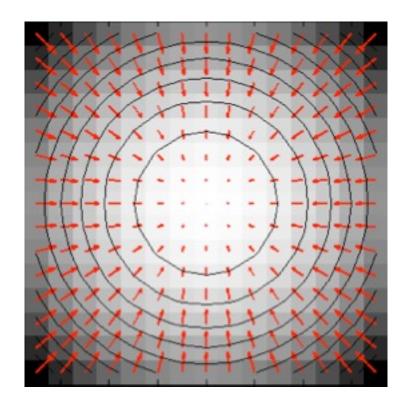




Putting it together – gradient descent

The gradient







What are we seeing here?

• Say, we have a function
$$f$$
, taking as input a vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$

• The gradient (with respect to x) is the vector pointing in the direction of fastest increase:

$$abla_{x}f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_{1}} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_{2}} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_{n}} \end{bmatrix}$$



This naturally extends to functions that take as input a matrix

Say, now we have a function f, taking as input a matrix $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \dots & a_{1,m} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \dots & a_{2,m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n,1} & a_{n,2} & \dots & a_{n,m} \end{bmatrix}$

• The gradient (with respect to A) is now also a matrix $\nabla_A f(A) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{1,1}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{1,2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{1,m}} \\ \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{2,1}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{2,2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{2,m}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{n,1}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{n,2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial a_{n,m}} \end{bmatrix}$

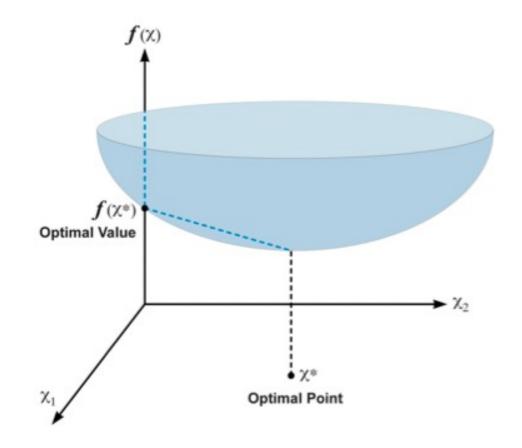


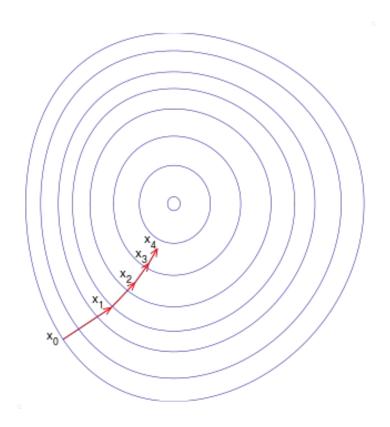
Why do we need the gradient? A thought experiment:

- You wake up somewhere in the mountain
- Your goal is to reach the lowest point as quickly as possible
- You have no map, GPS, and can only see a few meters ahead because of trees and fog
- How do you do it?



Gradient descent – the idea







The algorithm

- Take small steps
- For each step, go downhill in the locally steepest descent direction
- Repeat until you are on a flat surface



Taking a step back – logistic regression

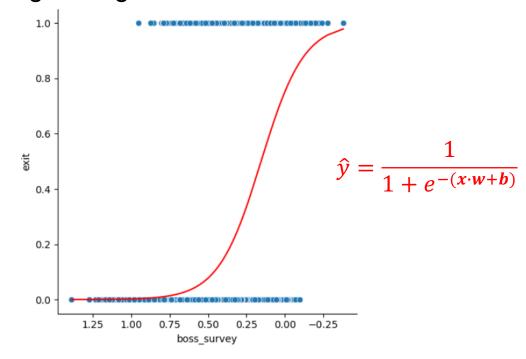
What do we actually do when training a logistic regression model?

- We are given values $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$, where $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $y^{(i)} \in \{0,1\}$
- Our prediction $\hat{y}^{(i)}$ should reflect the probability that $y^{(i)} = 1$: $\hat{y}^{(i)} = P(y^{(i)} = 1 | x^{(i)})$
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The optimization part

- Remember that $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$
- To get to the "right" model, we optimize our parameters w, b so that the $\hat{y}^{(i)}$ s are "as close as possible" to the y^i s
- What we do is to minimize the "cost-function" J(w, b), where $\hat{y}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(x^{(i)}w + b)}}$:

$$J(\mathbf{w}, b) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[y^{(i)} \ln \hat{y}^{(i)} + (1 - y^{(i)}) \ln (1 - \hat{y}^{(i)}) \right]$$

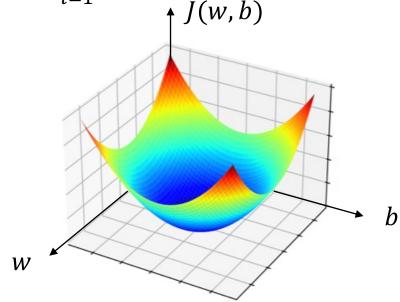


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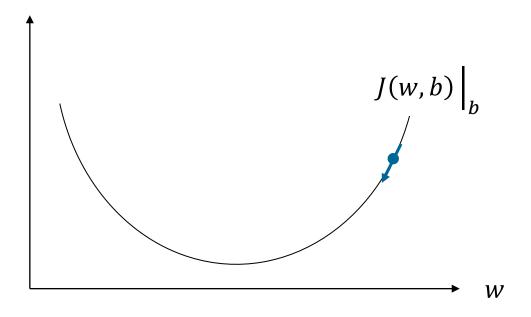
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$$\uparrow J(\mathbf{w}, b)$$





Solving the optimization problem through gradient descent





Our first optimization algorithm

- Decide a "learning rate" α
- Start with some w and b and compute I(w, b)
- Until *J* "doesn't change" anymore:
 - Let w_1 : = $w_1 \alpha \frac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial w_1}$ Let w_2 : = $w_2 \alpha \frac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial w_2}$

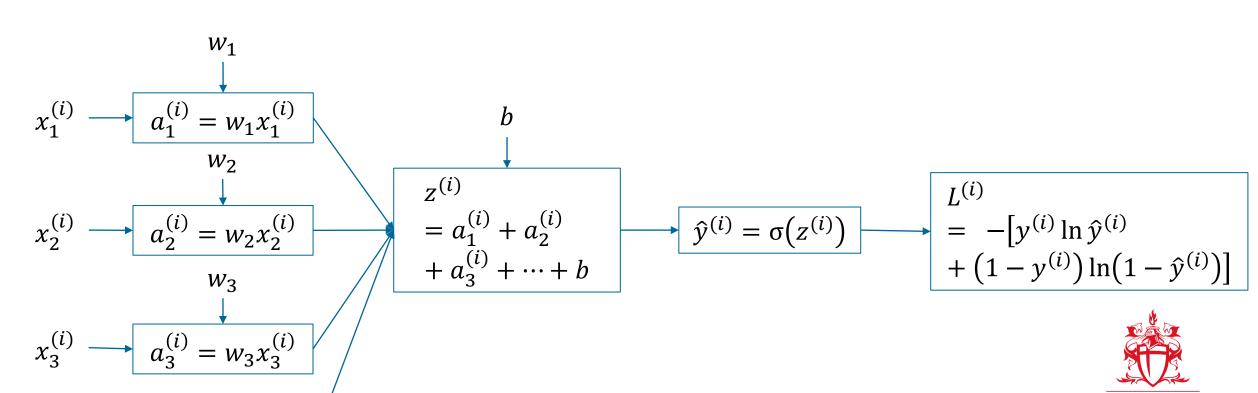
 - Let w_m : = $w_m \alpha \frac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial w_m}$ Let b: = $b \alpha \frac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial b}$

 - Recompute I(w, b)
- Enjoy the fruits of your labor: you have fit a logistic regression model manually!



Wait a second, how do we find all those derivatives?

- We can use again the computation graph!
- Recall that $\hat{y}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(x^{(i)}w+b)}} = \sigma(x^{(i)}w+b)$



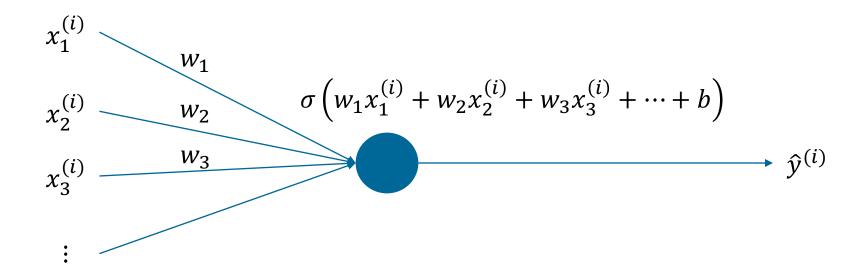
As the same parameters influence all examples, we have to consider one final step

• Recall that
$$J(\mathbf{w}, b) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[y^{(i)} \ln \hat{y}^{(i)} + \left(1 - y^{(i)} \right) \ln \left(1 - \hat{y}^{(i)} \right) \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L^{(i)}$$

• We have that
$$\frac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial w_j} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial L^{(i)}}{\partial w_j}$$



Schema of a logistic regression





We can now implement a logistic regression







Sources

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